

# On the set of normality and iteration of $e^z - 1$

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## 1°. Introduction

The theory of iteration of a rational or entire function  $f(z)$  of the complex variable  $z$  treats the sequence of iterates  $\{f_n(z)\}$  defined by

$$f_0(z) = z, \quad f_1(z) = f(z), \quad f_{n+1}(z) = f(f_n(z)), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

and are respectively rational or entire according as  $f(z)$  is.

In the theory developed by Fatou [4, 5] and Julia [7] a fundamental role is played by the set  $\mathfrak{F}(f)$  of those points of the complex plane where  $f_n(z)$  is not normal, in the sense of Montel.  $\mathfrak{F}(f)$  is a *perfect* set [4, 5] whose complement  $C(f)$  consists of an atmost countably infinite set of components  $G_i$  each of which is a maximal domain where  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is normal.

If  $f(z)$  is rational then it is known [4] that the number of components  $G_i$  of  $C(f)$  is 0, 1, 2, or  $\infty$ . For entire  $f(z)$  we shall prove

**Theorem 1.** *If  $f(z)$  is entire which is not a polynomial and if the set  $C(f)$  has a finite number of disjoint components, then it is atmost one.*

The determination of  $\mathfrak{F}(f)$  and  $G_i$ 's corresponding to a given  $f(z)$  is a problem of considerable difficulty, particularly when  $f(z)$  is entire. So it is that despite the need urged by Fatou ([5]) to establish by numerous examples the various ways in which  $\mathfrak{F}(f)$  can divide the plane only a few examples have been worked out so far [5, 6, 8]. In this note we shall consider the iteration of  $e^z - 1$ .

All the cases of theorem can indeed occur. For example the function  $kze^z$ , where  $k$  is suitable constant considered by BAKER [2] has no component of normality, the function  $\sin z$  considered by TÖPFER [8] has an infinite number of components of normality. For  $e^z - 1$  we shall show that  $C(f)$  has a single component.

## 2°. Preliminaries

A set  $D$  is said to be *invariant* under the iteration of  $f(z)$  if  $f(D) \subset D$ , and *completely invariant* if in addition  $f_{-1}(D) \subset D$  for all the branches of the inverse function.

The following lemma is well known [4, 5, 7].

**Lemma 1.** *The set  $\mathfrak{F}(f)$  and its complement  $C(f)$  are completely invariant.*

Among the components of  $C(f)$  there may occur completely invariant ones. We have ([1])

**Lemma 2.** [BAKER] *If  $f(z)$  is entire transcendental then  $C(f)$  has at most one completely invariant component.*

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $G$  be a component of  $C(f)$  such that some sequence  $\{f_{n_k}\}$ ,  $n_k$  strictly increasing,  $k=1, 2, \dots$ , has a nonconstant limit function  $\varphi(z)$  in  $G$ . Then  $C(f)$  has a component  $G^*$ , which contains  $\varphi(G)$  and which is mapped one to one onto itself by some iterate  $f_p(z)$  and  $\psi(z) \equiv z$  is a limit function of sequence  $\{f_{m_k}\}$ ,  $m_k$  increasing in  $G^*$ . Further  $f(z)$  is univalent in  $G^*$ .*

If such a component  $G^*$  exists then it is called a *singular domain*.

The proof of this lemma was given by FATOU [4] for rational functions. A proof under more general circumstances is given by H. CREMER [3].

If  $w=f_n(z)$  we say that  $w$  is *successor* of  $z$  and  $z$  is a *predecessor* of  $w$  in both cases of order  $n$ .

A value  $z_0$  is said to be *Fatou exceptional*, if it has at most a finite set of predecessors. It is easy to see that an entire function can have at most one such exceptional value.

**Lemma 4.** [FATOU, 5.] *If  $\alpha$  is any finite value other than a Fatou exceptional one and if  $\beta \in \mathfrak{F}$  then there exists a sequence of integers  $n_k \rightarrow \infty$  and values  $\beta_k \rightarrow \beta$  such that  $f_{n_k}(\beta_k) = \alpha$ .*

Finally we have [4, 5]

**Lemma 5.** *The set  $\mathfrak{F}(f)$  is identically equal to the extended plane if it has an interior point.*

### 3°. Proof of Theorem 1.

Suppose that  $G_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, N$  are the disjoint components of  $C(f)$  where  $N < \infty$ . For any  $G_i$  consider  $f_{-1}(G_i)$  for any branch  $f_{-1}(z)$  of the inverse function  $f_{-1}$  of  $f$ . Then  $f_{-1}(G_i)$  will be in  $C(f)$  by lemma 1, i.e. will be in a number of  $G_j$ . If  $G_j$  is a component meeting any  $f_{-1}(G_i)$ , then since  $f(G_j)$  belongs to a single component of  $C(f)$ , we must have  $f(G_j) \subset G_i$ . Clearly then,  $f_{-1}(G_i)$  and  $f_{-1}(G_k)$ ,  $i \neq k$  will constitute different sets of domains and so  $f_{-1}$  must induce a permutation  $\pi$  among the  $G_i$ , such that  $f_{-1}(G_i) \subset G_{\pi(i)}$ . There is an integer  $n$  for which  $\pi^n = 1$  and for this  $n$  we have  $f_{-n}(G_i) \subset G_i$  for each  $i=1, 2, \dots, N$  where  $f_{-n}(G_i)$  means the predecessor of order  $n$  of  $G_i$ . Thus each  $G_i$  is completely invariant for the function  $f_n$ , which is also entire transcendental. By Lemma 2.  $N$  cannot be greater than 1 and the theorem is proved.

4°. Iteration of  $e^z - 1$ .

Let  $f(z) = e^z - 1$ ,  $z = x + iy$ .

(a) Since  $|f(z) + 1| = |e^z| = e^x < 1$  if  $x < 0$ , we see that  $x < 0$  implies  $\operatorname{Re} f(z) < 0$ , i.e., the left half plane  $H: \operatorname{Re} z < 0$  is invariant and hence  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is normal in  $H$ . Also for  $x < 0$ ,  $x < f(x) < 0$  i.e.  $\{f_n(x)\}$ ,  $x < 0$ , is a monotone increasing sequence which must converge some limit  $t (< 0)$  for which  $f(t) = t$ . Then  $t$  must be 0. Thus  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges to 0 for all  $x < 0$ , and hence since  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is normal in  $H$ ,  $\{f_n(z)\}$  converges to 0 for all  $z$  in  $H$ . Thus  $H$  belongs to an invariant component of  $C(f)$  which is a maximal domain of normality, say  $G^*$ .

(b) We now notice that  $G^*$  extends across the imaginary axis except at the countable set of points  $z = 2n\pi i$ ,  $n$  integer. Because for any point  $z = iy$  ( $y \neq 2n\pi i$ ) of the imaginary axis  $f(z) = e^{iy} - 1 \in H \subset C(f)$ . Then by complete invariance of  $C(f)$  [Lemma 1.]  $z = iy \in H$ . Since  $f(z) = z + z^2/2 + \dots$ , it is clear that  $\{f_n(z)\}$  cannot be normal at  $z = 0$ , i.e.  $0 \in \mathfrak{F}$ . Since  $f(2n\pi i) = 0$  we have [Lemma 1.]  $2n\pi i \in \mathfrak{F}$ . Hence not only does  $H$  belong to  $G^*$  but so do all points of the imaginary axis, except the points  $z = 2n\pi i$ ,  $n$  integer.

(c) We now show that  $G^*$  is completely invariant.

We prove

**Lemma 6.** Let  $G$  be a component of  $C(g)$  where  $g$  is an entire or rational function. Let  $\alpha \in G$  be such that (i)  $\alpha$  is not a singularity of any branch of  $g_{-1}$ . (ii)  $g(\alpha) \in G$  and  $g_{-1}(\beta) \in G$  for all the branches of the inverse function. Then  $G$  is completely invariant.

**PROOF.** Let  $z \in G$  be any point. We need to show that  $g(z) \in G$  and  $g_{-1}(z) \in G$ , for all the branches of the inverse function.

Since  $G$  is a domain we can join  $\alpha$  to  $z$  by a curve  $\gamma$  lying wholly in  $G$ . We note that  $\gamma \subset C(g)$  and  $\partial G \subset \mathfrak{F}$ , where  $\partial G$  is the boundary of  $G$ .

First suppose  $g(z) \notin G$ . Now  $g(z) \in C(g)$  and  $g(\gamma)$  is a continuous curve joining  $g(\alpha) \in G$  to  $g(z) \notin G$ . This implies that  $g(\gamma)$  must cross  $\partial G$  i.e. there is a point  $\delta$  which belongs to  $g(\gamma)$  and  $\partial G$  at the same time. This is impossible since  $g(\gamma)$  belongs to  $C(g)$  and  $\partial G$  belongs to  $\mathfrak{F}$ .

Next we show that  $g_{-1}(z)$  belongs to  $G$  for all the branches of the inverse function. Suppose this is not true.

Now any  $z \in G$  can be joined to  $\alpha \in G$  by a polygonal path. By slight variations in the sides of this path, so small that they leave it (the path) in  $G$ , we can ensure (Gross' Star Theorem) that a given branch  $p$  of  $g_{-1}(z)$  can be continued from  $z$  along the path to a regular branch over  $\alpha$ , lying arbitrarily near  $\alpha$  and so along a path right upto  $\alpha$ . Since  $\alpha$  is not a singularity of  $g_{-1}(z)$  the continuation extends further over to  $\alpha$  itself, i.e.  $p$  may be obtained from a branch  $q$  of  $g_{-1}(\alpha)$  by continuation along a polygonal path  $\gamma$  in  $G$ . But every branch  $q$  of  $g_{-1}(\alpha)$  is in  $G$  by assumption. Also by Lemma 1. we know that  $g_{-1}(z)$  maps  $\gamma \subset C(g)$  into  $C(g)$ . This fact gives us a contradiction as in the first case. *This completes the proof of the lemma.*

**PROOF of (c).** Consider the point  $z = -2$  which belongs to  $G^*$ . Clearly  $f(-2)$  belongs to  $G^*$  and  $f_{-1}(-2) = \log(-1) = (2n+1)\pi i$  belongs to  $G^*$ , by (b) above. Also  $-2$  is not a singularity of  $f_{-1}(z)$ . Hence by lemma 6, it follows that  $G^*$  is completely invariant.

(d) *The positive real axis belongs to the set  $\mathfrak{F}$*

We have already shown [in (b)] that

$$(1) \quad 0 \in \mathfrak{F}.$$

Take  $x_0 > 0$  and suppose  $x_0 \notin \mathfrak{F}$ . Then  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is normal in some neighbourhood  $N: |z - x_0| < 2R$  of  $x_0$ . We observe that for  $x_0 > 0$

$$(2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x_0) = \infty$$

and since  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is normal in  $N$  we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = \infty$  locally uniformly in  $N$ .

Thus

$$(3) \quad |f_n(z)| > 2 \quad \text{for some } n > n_0 \text{ in } M: |z - x_0| < R$$

This implies

$$(4) \quad \operatorname{Re}[f_{n-1}(z)] > 0 \quad \text{for } z \in M$$

Now

$$(5) \quad f'_n(x_0) = \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} f'(f_{k-1}(x_0)) > \exp(f_{n-1}(x_0)) \rightarrow \infty$$

by (2).

Thus by *Bloch's Theorem*, the disc  $M$  contains a subdomain which is mapped by  $f_{n-1}(z)$  on to a domain  $U_1$  containing a disc, say,  $U_2$  of radius  $R \cdot B \cdot f'_{n-1}(x_0)$  where  $B$  is the Bloch constant. By (4)  $U_1$  must lie on the right half plane  $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$ , and by (5) the radius of  $U_2$  can be made arbitrarily large for large enough  $n$ .

Let the disc  $U_2$  be of radius  $> 2\pi$  and let  $d$  denote the vertical diameter of the disc  $U_2$ . The equation of  $d$  is, say,  $\operatorname{Re} z = \lambda$  where  $\lambda > 2$  [by (3)] for  $n > n_0$ .

We notice that  $d \subset C(f)$ , since  $N \subset C(f)$ . Now  $f(z)$  maps the vertical diameter  $d$  of  $U_2$  to the circle of radius  $\lambda$  with centre at  $-1$ . We call this circle  $f(d)$ .

Since  $f(d)$  meets  $G^*$ , we must have  $f(d) \subset G^*$ . Also from the maximum modulus principle, it is clear that  $G^*$  is simply connected. Thus the interior of  $f(d)$  must belong to  $G^*$ , i.e. to  $C(f)$ . But this is absurd since the interior  $f(d)$  contains the point 0 which belongs to  $\mathfrak{F}$  [by (1)]. Hence  $x_0 > 0$  belongs to  $\mathfrak{F}$ .

Summarising these results we have

**Theorem 2.** *For  $f(z) = e^z - 1$ , the half plane  $\operatorname{Re} z < 0$  is an invariant domain and is contained in a completely invariant component  $G^*$  of  $C(f)$ . In  $G^*$  we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = 0$ . The domain  $G^*$  includes all points of the imaginary axis except points of the form  $z = 2n\pi i$ ,  $n$  integer, which belong to  $\mathfrak{F}$ . Further, the positive real axis  $R^+$  belongs to  $\mathfrak{F}$ . The set  $\mathfrak{F}$  may therefore be defined as [by lemma 4 and since  $\mathfrak{F}$  is perfect] as consisting of  $R^+$  together with all its predecessors and points of accumulations. By the periodicity of  $f(z)$ ,  $\mathfrak{F}$  also contains the rays*

$$d^k: y = 2\pi ki, \quad k \text{ integer.}$$

TÖPFFER [8] made some statements about the iteration of  $e^z - 1$ , without proof. Theorem 1 contains essentially these statements.

Next we prove

**Theorem 3.**  $G^*$  is the only component of  $C(f)$ .

**PROOF.** Suppose there exists another component  $G_1$ , which must necessarily belong to the right half plane  $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$ . This is because the left half plane is contained in  $G^*$  and since  $G^*$  is completely invariant we must also have  $f_n(G_1) \cap G^* = \emptyset$ . Let  $\beta \in G_1$  and  $M: |z - \beta| < R$  be a neighbourhood of  $\beta$ , whose closure lies in  $G_1$ . Since  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is normal in  $M$  every convergent subsequence tends either to a non-constant or to a constant limit.

In the first case there is a component [by Lemma 3.]  $G_2$  of  $C(f)$  mapped one to one onto itself by some iterate  $f_p(z)$  of  $f(z)$ . Clearly  $G_2 \neq G^*$  and  $G_2$  together will all its images  $f(G_2), f_2(G_2), \dots, f_{p-1}(G_2)$  lies in the right half plane  $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$ . Moreover  $z$  is a limit function of some sequence  $\{f_{n_k}\}$  in  $G_2$ . Take a point  $z_1$  in  $G_2$  and its images  $f_n(z_1)$ . Then  $f_{n_k}(z_1) \rightarrow z_1$  (as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ) and  $|f(f_{n_k}(z_1))| \rightarrow |e^{z_1}|$  (as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ) and so  $> 1 + \delta > 1$  for large  $k$ . Hence for large  $n$ ,

$$|f'_n(z_1)| = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} |f'(f_i(z_1))| = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} |\exp(f_i(z_1))| \rightarrow \infty.$$

Thus by Bloch's theorem  $f_n(G_2)$  contains a disc of radius  $> 2\pi$  if  $n$  is large enough. This disc lies in  $C(f)$  and also in the right half plane  $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$ . This implies that it must meet one of the rays  $d^k$  of Theorem 1. This is a contradiction since the rays  $d^k$  belong to  $\mathfrak{F}$ . Hence there is no subsequence of  $\{f_n(z)\}$  with nonconstant limit function.

In the disc  $M$  defined above any convergent subsequence of  $\{f_n(z)\}$  thus has a constant limit. Since  $\operatorname{Re}[f_n(\beta)] > 0$  for all  $\beta \in G_1$ , we see that

$$|f'_m(\beta)| = \prod_{i=0}^{m-1} |f'(f_i(\beta))| = \prod_{i=0}^{m-1} |\exp(f_i(\beta))| > 1$$

and by Bloch's theorem the image of  $f_m(G_2) \supset f_m(M)$  contains a disc of some fixed radius for all  $m$ . Thus since no nonconstant limits exist, the only possible limit of any subsequence is  $\infty$ . But then  $f_n(z) \rightarrow \infty$  uniformly in  $M$ . Thus  $|f_n(\beta)| > 2\pi$  for  $n > N_0$ . It follows that there is  $\eta > 0$  such that  $\operatorname{Re}[f_n(\beta)] > \eta$  for every  $n > N_0$ . For if this were not true then

$$|f_{n+1}(\beta) - 1| < e^\eta \quad \text{and} \quad |f_{n+1}(\beta)| < 1 + e^\eta < 2\pi, \quad \text{if } \eta \text{ is small.}$$

Thus for  $n > N_0$ , we have

$$|f'_m(\beta)| > \prod_{i=N_0}^{m-1} |\exp(f_i(\beta))| = \exp[\eta(m-1-N_0)] \rightarrow \infty \quad (m \rightarrow \infty).$$

Then Bloch's theorem gives us a contradiction just as in the case of nonconstant limit function.

Thus  $G^*$  is the only component of  $C(f)$ .

Hence  $G^*$  together with its boundary points [by Lemma 5.] covers the whole plane.

**Theorem 4.** Every point interior to a line  $d^k$  of theorem 2 is inaccessible from  $G^*$

PROOF. Since  $\mathfrak{F}$  is invariant under  $z \rightarrow z + 2\pi i$ , we need only to show that every interior point of  $d^0$  (i.e. the positive real axis) is inaccessible from  $G^*$ . The same argument holds for any  $d^k$ .

Let  $P$  be any point to  $d^0$  which is suppose, accessible from  $G^*$ . Then there is a simple Jordan arc, say  $mP$  lying entirely in  $G^*$  except for the end point  $P$ . We may for example assume  $m$  on the imaginary axis and  $mP$  in the right half plane except for  $m$ . Also the origin  $0$  is clearly accessible from  $G^*$  by any path in the left half plane  $H$ . Join  $m$  to  $0$  by a Jordan arc  $mn0$  lying in  $G^* \cap H$  except for  $m$  and  $0$ . Then  $L = 0Pmn$  is a simple closed Jordan curve dividing the plane into two parts. Let  $D$  be the set of predecessors of every order of the rays  $d^{+1}$  and  $d^{-1}$ . Then  $D$  is symmetric with respect to the real axis since  $f(z)$  is real for real  $z$ . Every point of  $0P$  (=segment of the real axis joining  $0$  to  $P$ ) is a limit point of points belonging to the set  $D$  (say predecessors of  $d^{+1}$ ) [by Lemma 4.] and since these are symmetric with respect to the real axis, it follows that there are points of  $D$  inside  $L$ . Furthermore the curves in  $D$  go to infinity since  $d^{+1}$  and  $d^{-1}$  do. Hence they (curves in  $D$ ) must meet either  $Pmn0$  or  $0P$  at some point. But this is impossible since all  $f_n$  are real on  $0P$  and  $D \subset \mathfrak{F}$  cannot meet  $Pmn0 \subset C(f)$ . Thus every point of  $d^0$  (save for  $0$  and  $\infty$ ) is inaccessible from  $G^*$ . The same property applies to antecedent curves.

The proof of Theorem 4. is now complete.

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