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THEORY OF ITERATIONS OF POLYNOMIAL FAMILIES IN THE COMPLEX PLANE

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1. Introduction. 1.1. The significant advances, achieved recently in the theory of one-dimensional dynamical systems, are connected to a great extent with the investigation of concrete families of mappings. In the first place, this refers to the quadratic family:

$$f_c: z \rightarrow z^2 - c. \tag{1.1}$$

For complex values of the parameter  $c$  one has observed a continual variety in the behavior of the iterations of the mappings  $f_c: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . The boundary separating the stable mappings from each other is the boundary of the so-called Mandelbrot set  $M$  [1]. It consists of those  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ , for which the iterations  $f_c^n(0) = O(1)$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . A special role is played by the iterations of the point  $z = 0$ , since this is the unique critical point of the function  $f_c$ . One of the properties of  $M$  consists in the fact that each point of the boundary of  $M$  is a limit point for the superstable values of  $c$  (a value of the parameter  $c$  is said to be superstable if  $f_c$  has a superstable cycle, i.e., a cycle which contains the critical point). It is proved in [2] that the superstable values of  $c$  are asymptotically distributed with respect to some measure with support on  $\partial M$ . In this paper we give a generalization of this statement to the family

$$z \rightarrow z^p - c (p \in \mathbb{N}, p \geq 2). \tag{1.2}$$

We give the properties of this measure and we also consider some series connected with the set  $M$  and with its generalization to the family (1.2). Finally, we describe a linear algorithm for the computation of the moments of the measure (for  $p = 2$ ).

1.2. We recall the basic definitions. The successive application of the mapping  $f: U \rightarrow U$  generates the iterates  $f^n: U \rightarrow U$ ;  $f^1 \equiv f$ ,  $f^{n+1} = f \circ f^n$ ,  $(x_n)_{n \geq 0}$ ,  $x_n = f^n(x_0)$  is the orbit of the point  $x_0$ ; if  $x_n = x_0$ , then  $x_0$  is a periodic point of period  $n$ ; the smallest of the periods of  $x_0$  is some  $m \geq 1$  and  $m|n$ ; the points  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{m-1}\}$  form a cycle; if  $f$  is differentiable, then

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the multiplier of this cycle is  $\lambda = (f^m)'(x_0) = \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} f'(x_j)$ ; the cycle is said to be stable, neutral, or unstable, according to whether  $\lambda$  lies inside, on the boundary, or outside the unit circle, respectively; a cycle containing the critical point is said to be superstable (for it  $\lambda = 0$ ).

2. Measure on the Bifurcation Set. 2.1. We fix  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $p \geq 2$ , and we consider the family

$$f_c: z \rightarrow z^p - c. \quad (2.1)$$

We denote by  $M_p$  (or simply by  $M$ ) the set of those  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  for which  $f_c^n(0) = 0$  ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ). The boundary of  $M_p$  consists of those  $c$  for which the family (2.1) ceases to be stable [3], [1].

Let  $q_n(c) = f_c^n(0)$  be the iterates of zero;  $q_n$  is a polynomial of degree  $p^{n-1}$ . The set of all of its zeros will be denoted by  $P_n$ ;  $P = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n$  consists of the superstable values of  $c$ . We have  $P \subset M$  and the set of the limit points of  $P$  is  $\partial M$  [3]. It is easy to show that  $M$  is bounded, closed, perfect, and each component of its interior is simply connected. The Douady-Hubbard theorem [1] asserts that for  $p = 2$   $M_2$  is connected. With obvious modifications, this proof goes through also for  $p > 2$ .

2.2. We consider a somewhat more general situation. Let  $f_c(z) = z^p + a_1(c)z^{p-1} + \dots + a_p(c)$  be a polynomial of degree  $p \geq 2$ , whose coefficients  $a_i(c)$  are holomorphic functions in a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ .

Let  $a \in D$  and let  $q_0$  be a critical point of  $f_a(z)$ . Passing to a local coordinate  $\xi: U \rightarrow V$ , where  $V$  is a neighborhood of the point  $a$ ,  $\tau = 0 \in U$ , we can assume that  $q_0$  extends to a function  $q$ , holomorphic in  $U$ . We denote  $q_m = f_c^m(q)$ .

LEMMA. If for some  $m \geq 1$   $q_m \neq q$  and  $\tau = 0$  is a zero of multiplicity  $\ell$  of the function  $q_m - q$ , then 0 is a zero of the same multiplicity of the function  $q_{nm} - q$  ( $n = 2, 3, \dots$ ).

Proof. We apply induction on  $n$ . By assumption,  $q_m - q = \tau^\ell \cdot Q_1(\tau)$ ,  $Q_1(0) \neq 0$ . We assume that  $q_{nm} - q = \tau^\ell \cdot Q_n(\tau)$ ,  $Q_n(0) \neq 0$ . Since  $f'(q) = 0$ , we have

$$q_{(n+1)m} - q = f^m(q + \tau^l Q_n) - q = (f^m(q) - q) + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \frac{d^k f^m}{dz^k}(q) \cdot (\tau^l Q_n)^k = \tau^l Q_1 + O(\tau^{2l}) = \tau^l Q_{n+1}(\tau), \quad Q_{n+1}(0) \neq 0.$$

2.3. We return to the family (2.1) and we introduce the functions

$$\sigma_n(c) = \frac{q'_n(c)}{p^{n-1} q_n(c)}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N};$$

$q_n(c)$  is holomorphic in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus M$  since  $q_n(c) \neq 0$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{C} \setminus M$ .

LEMMA. There exists  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sigma_n(c) = \sigma(c)$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{C} \setminus M$ . The function  $\sigma(c)$  is holomorphic in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus M$ ,  $\sigma(c) \sim \frac{1}{c}$  ( $c \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Proof. We make use of Bottcher's theorem [1]: if  $f(z) = z^p + \dots + a_p$  is a polynomial, then  $(f^n(z))^{p^{-n}} = z + \dots$  converges uniformly in the neighborhood of  $z = \infty$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$  to a function that is holomorphic at  $\infty$ . From here there follows the convergence of the sequence  $(q_n)^{p^{-n}}$  at each point of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus M$ . This sequence is separated from 0 and  $\infty$  in the neighborhood of each point  $c \in \mathbb{C} \setminus M$ . Taking the logarithmic derivative, we obtain the required convergence.

2.4. We recall that  $P_n$  is the set of the zeros of  $q_n(c)$  (taking into account multiplicities).

LEMMA. Assume that the function  $F(c)$  is holomorphic in some neighborhood of the compactum  $M$ . Then there exists

$$\Phi(F) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{p^{n-1}} \sum_{c \in P_n} F(c) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} F(c) \sigma(c) dc,$$

where  $\Gamma$  is a smooth contour containing  $M$ .

Proof. By the residue theorem, we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} F(c) \sigma(c) dc = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} F \frac{q'_n}{p^{n-1} q_n} dc = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{p^{n-1}} \sum_{c \in P_n} F(c).$$

2.5. THEOREM. Let  $F: C \rightarrow R$  be a continuous function. Then there exists

$$\Phi(F) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{p^{n-1}} \sum_{c \in P_n} F(c).$$

Proof. If  $F = \text{Re}(u)$ , where  $u$  is a polynomial, then the assertion follows from Subsection 2.4. If, however,  $F$  is an arbitrary continuous function, then by the Walsh-Lebesgue theorem [4], on the boundary of  $M$  the function  $F$  is the uniform limit of harmonic polynomials. Making use of Subsec. 2.2 and of what has been proved, we obtain the desired result.

2.6. Let  $\mu_n$  be the probability measure, uniformly distributed at the zeros of the polynomial  $q_n(c)$ . We have proved that  $\mu_n$  is weakly convergent for  $n \rightarrow \infty$  to the measure  $\mu$  with support on  $\partial M$ ;  $\mu$  is defined by a linear functional  $\Phi \in C(C)^*$ .

3. The Kernel of the Measure. The nonlinearity of the mappings  $f_c$  leads to the fast convergence of the functions  $\sigma_n$  at  $\infty$ , which allows us, in particular, to describe the kernel of the measure  $\mu$  (of the functional  $\Phi$ ).

3.1. LEMMA.  $\sigma(c) = \sigma_n(c) + O(c^{-p^n})$ ,  $c \rightarrow \infty$ .

Proof. The relation  $q_{n+1} = q_n^p - c$  implies

$$\frac{\ln q_{n+1}}{p^{n+1}} = \frac{\ln q_n}{p^{n-1}} + O(c^{-(p^n-1)}).$$

from where by differentiation we obtain the required result.

3.2. LEMMA. Let  $F(c)$  be a polynomial of degree  $\ell$  and let  $\ell \leq p^n - p^{n-1} - 2$ . Then

$$\int F q_n d\mu = 0.$$

Proof. By virtue of Subsec. 2.4, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int F q_n d\mu &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} F q_n \sigma dc = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} F(c) q_n(c) \left( \frac{q_n(c)}{p^{n-1} q_n(c)} + O(c^{-p^n}) \right) dc = \\ &= \frac{1}{p^{n-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} F(c) q_n(c) dc + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} O(c^{l+p^{n-1}-p^n}) dc = 0. \end{aligned}$$

3.3. COROLLARY. Let  $l \geq 0$ ,  $m \geq 1$ ,  $1 \leq r \leq p-1$ ,  $0 \leq j \leq (p-r)p^{m-1} - 2$ ,  $\varepsilon_k \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, l$ ,  $\varepsilon_l \geq 1$ . Then

$$\int c^l q_m^r q_{m+1}^{\varepsilon_1} \cdot \dots \cdot q_{m+l}^{\varepsilon_l} d\mu = 0.$$

Proof. We make use of Subsec. 3.2 and of the fact that  $\deg(c^l q_m^r q_{m+1}^{\varepsilon_1} \cdot \dots \cdot q_{m+l}^{\varepsilon_l}) \leq p^{m+l} - p^{m+l-1} - 2$ .

3.4. LEMMA. For  $\ell \geq 0$ ,  $1 \leq r \leq p-1$ ,  $j \leq 0$ , and  $j+l \leq (p-r)p^{m-1} - 2$

$$\int c^l q_m^{p+r} d\mu = 0.$$

Proof. By induction on  $\ell$  we prove the formula  $q_m^{lp} = c^\ell + \dots$  (3.1), where the dots indicate a linear combination of terms of the form  $c^j q_{m+1}^{\varepsilon_1} \cdot \dots \cdot q_{m+k}^{\varepsilon_k}$  (3.2) ( $\varepsilon_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ ,  $0 \leq j \leq l-1$ ). Indeed, (3.1) is obvious for  $\ell = 0$ . Further,

$$q_m^{(l+1)p} = (q_{m+1} + c) q_m^{lp} = q_{m+1} q_m^{lp} + c q_m^{lp},$$

and  $q_{m+1} c^j q_{m+1}^{\varepsilon_1} \cdot \dots \cdot q_{m+k}^{\varepsilon_k}$  is a linear combination of terms of the form (3.2) with  $j \leq \ell$ .

(3.1) is proved. It remains to multiply both sides by  $q_m^r$  and to make use of Subsec. 3.3.

4. Functions Connected with a Bifurcation Set. We recall that to a given fixed natural number  $p \geq 2$  there is associated the bifurcation set  $M$  of the family (2.1). For  $p = 2$  this is the Mandelbrot set.

4.1. We consider the following functions, defined and holomorphic at  $\infty$ :  $\varphi_n = (q_n)^{p-n}$ ,  $\varphi_n$  is uniquely distinguished by the condition  $\frac{\varphi_n(c)}{c} \rightarrow 1$  ( $c \rightarrow \infty$ ); by Böttcher's theorem,  $\varphi = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_n$  is defined. Let  $\psi = \varphi^{-1}$  be the inverse mapping. We note that

$$\sigma_n = \frac{\varphi_n'}{\varphi_n}, \quad \sigma = \frac{\varphi'}{\varphi}.$$

We define a sequence of numbers  $(C_\ell)_{\ell \geq 0}$  by the Laurent series, converging at  $\infty$ :

$$\psi(\omega) = \omega + C_0 + \frac{C_1}{\omega} + \dots + \frac{C_\ell}{\omega^\ell} + \dots$$

4.2. Remarks. (1) Of course, the numbers  $C_\ell$  depend also on the fixed  $p$ ; (2) since  $M$  is connected, it follows that  $\varphi_n$  and  $\varphi$  can be continued in a unique manner into  $\mathbb{C} \setminus M$  and, moreover,  $\varphi$  maps  $\mathbb{C} \setminus M$  univalently onto  $D = \{\omega: |\omega| > 1\}$ , while  $\psi: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus M$  is the inverse mapping.

4.3. We show that among the numbers  $C_\ell$  there are many zeros. For the proof we need the following

LEMMA. Let  $1 < r < p-1$ ,  $m \geq 1$ ,  $0 < l \leq (p-r)p^{m-1} - 2$ . Then,

$$(\varphi(c))^{(lp+r)p^{m-1}} = q_m^{lp+r} + \sum_{j=1}^l R_j(c) q_m^{(l-j)p+r} + O(c^{-(p-r)p^{m-1}-l-1}), \quad c \rightarrow \infty,$$

where  $R_j(c)$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $j$ .

Proof. Multiplying the equality

$$\frac{\varphi'}{\varphi} = \frac{q_n'}{p^{n-1} q_n} + O(c^{-p^n})$$

by  $k$  and integrating, we obtain

$$\varphi^k = q_n^{kp^{n-1}} + O(c^{-p^{n+1}+k}).$$

Assume now that  $k = (lp+r)p^{m-1}$ ,  $0 < l \leq (p-r)p^{m-1} - 2$ ,  $n-m = \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is such that  $p^\alpha < lp+r < p^{\alpha+1}$ . Then

$$q_m^{(lp+r)p^{m-1}} = q_{m+\alpha}^{(lp+r)p^{-\alpha}} + O(c^{-(p^{m+\alpha} - (lp+r)p^{m-1} - 1)}).$$

By induction we conclude that the  $\alpha$ -th iterate of (2.1) is

$$f_c^\alpha(z) = z^{p^\alpha} + p_i^{(\alpha)}(c) z^{p^\alpha - p} + \dots + p_i^{(\alpha)}(c) z^{p^\alpha - ip} + \dots,$$

where  $p_i^{(\alpha)}$  is a polynomial of degree  $i$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} (q_{m+\alpha})^{(lp+r)p^{-\alpha}} &= (f_c^\alpha(q_m))^{(lp+r)p^{-\alpha}} = (q_m^{p^\alpha} + \dots + p_i^{(\alpha)} z^{p^\alpha - ip} + \dots)^{(lp+r)p^{-\alpha}} = \\ &= q_m^{lp+r} \left( 1 + \dots + \frac{p_i^{(\alpha)}}{q_m^{ip}} + \dots \right)^{(lp+r)p^{-\alpha}} = q_m^{lp+r} \left( 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{R_j(c)}{q_m^{jp}} \right) = q_m^{lp+r} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} R_j q_m^{(l-j)p+r}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $R_j(c)$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $j$  (it does not depend on  $\alpha$ , since  $\alpha$  is uniquely determined by  $l, r, p$ ). It remains to note that for  $j = l+1$  we have

$$q_m^{-p} R_{l+1} = O(c^{-(p^{m-1}(p-r)-l-1)}).$$

4.4. THEOREM.  $C_{(lp+r)p^{m-1}} = 0$ ,  $r \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ ,  $0 < l \leq (p-r)p^{m-1} - 3$ .

Proof. For sufficiently large  $p$  we have

$$C_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|\omega|=\rho} \omega^{k-1} \psi(\omega) d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\varphi(|\omega|=\rho)} c \varphi^k(c) \sigma(c) dc.$$

Now we make use of Subsections 4.3 and 3.4.

4.5. Remark. The proved theorem means that for each  $p \geq 2$  the zeros in the corresponding sequences  $(C_\ell)_{\ell \geq 0}$  are partitioned into  $p - 1$  subsequences, the indices in which are almost periodic with almost-period  $p^l, n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

4.6. In particular, for  $p = 2$  one obtains the sequence of numbers  $(C_l)_{l \geq 0}$  in which  $C_{(2l+1)2^{m-1}} = 0, m \geq 3, l = 0, 1, \dots, 2^{m-1} - 3$ .

5. Arithmetic Properties of the Coefficients. We consider the case of a quadratic family and we fix  $p = 2$ .

We recall that  $\phi(c)$  maps univalently the exterior of the Mandelbrot set onto the exterior of the unit circle,  $\sigma = \frac{\varphi'}{\varphi}, \psi = \varphi^{-1}$ .

Together with the sequence  $(C_\ell)_{\ell \geq 0}$  we consider also two sequences, determined by the expansions of  $\phi$  and  $\sigma$  at  $\infty$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(c) &= c + B_0 + \frac{B_1}{c} + \dots + \frac{B_l}{c^l} + \dots, \\ \sigma(c) &= \frac{1}{c} \left( 1 + \frac{A_1}{c} + \frac{A_2}{c^2} + \dots + \frac{A_l}{c^l} + \dots \right). \end{aligned}$$

The numbers  $A_\ell$  are the moments of the measure  $\mu$ :

$$c^l d\mu = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} c^l \sigma(c) dc = A_l.$$

Let  $P_n = (b_{k,n})_{k=1}^{2^n-1}$  be the set of all the zeros of  $q_n(c)$ . Since

$$\frac{q'_n(c)}{2^{n-1} q_n(c)} = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{c^{l+1}} \sum_{k=1}^{2^n-1} (b_{k,n})^l, \quad c \rightarrow \infty,$$

from the lemma of Subsec. 3.1 for  $p = 2$  we obtain

$$A_l = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \sum_{k=1}^{2^n-1} (b_{k,n})^l, \quad n \geq 1, \quad 0 \leq l \leq 2^n - 2.$$

5.1. We compute the exact binary order of the numbers  $A_\ell, B_\ell$ , and  $C_{2\ell+1}$ .

By the binary order  $\text{ord}_2 m$  of a nonzero integer  $m$  we mean the largest integer  $\ell$  such that  $2^\ell$  divides  $m$ ; the binary order of a quotient is  $\text{ord}_2(m/n) = \text{ord}_2 m - \text{ord}_2 n$ ;  $\text{ord}_2 0 = +\infty$ .

5.2. For convenience we set  $c = -t$  and let

$$q_n(c) = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n-1} a(i, n) t^i.$$

The coefficients  $a(i, n)$  are natural numbers (for example,  $a(1, n) = a(2^{n-1}, n) = 1$ ). Therefore, also the coefficients of the expansion of  $q'_n/q_n$  at  $\infty$  are integers; taking into account 3.1, we obtain that  $A_\ell$ , and also  $B_\ell$  and  $C_\ell$  expand into finite binary quotients (for  $p = 2$ ).

5.3. We denote by  $S(n)$  the sum of the digits in the binary expansion of the natural number  $n$ . It is well known that  $S(n) = n - \text{ord}_2(n!), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$ . From here  $S(n) + S(m) - S(n+m) = \text{ord}_2 C_{n+m}^n > 0$ , where  $C_{n+m}^n = \frac{(m+n)!}{n! m!}$  is the number of combinations of  $m+n$  objects taken  $n$  at a time.

In the sequel we need several statements, the proofs of which, in view of their elementary nature, are not given.

5.4. LEMMA. Let  $\ell \geq 3$ . The sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\left\lfloor \frac{\ell-1}{2} \right\rfloor} C_k^\ell$$

is odd if  $\ell$  is not a power of two and even in the opposite case.

5.5. LEMMA. For  $1 \leq \ell \leq 2^{n-1} - 2$ ,  $n \geq 2$ , the sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\left\lfloor \frac{\ell+2^{n-1}-1}{2} \right\rfloor} C_{\ell+2^{n-1}-k}^\ell$$

is odd.

5.6. LEMMA. For  $2^{n-1} \leq \ell \leq 2^n - 2$ ,  $n \geq 2$ , the sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{2^{n-1}-1} C_{2^{n-1}+\ell-k}^\ell$$

is odd.

5.7. THEOREM.  $\text{ord}_2 a(i, n) = S(i) - 1$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^{n-1}$ .

Proof. First we note that if  $D = \sum_{k=1}^{\ell} D_k$  is the sum of  $\ell$  nonzero integers,  $\text{ord}_2 D_k = p_k \geq p_0$  for all  $k$  and  $\text{ord}_2 D_k = p_0$  for an odd number of indices  $k$ , then  $D \neq 0$  and  $\text{ord}_2 D = p_0$ .

We shall prove the assertion of the theorem by induction on  $n$ . Since  $a(1, 1) = a(1, 2) = a(2, 2) = 1$ , it follows that the theorem holds for  $n = 1, 2$ . We assume that  $\text{ord}_2 a(\ell, n) = S(\ell) - 1$ ,  $1 \leq \ell \leq 2^{n-1}$ , and we prove that  $\text{ord}_2 a(\ell, n+1) = S(\ell) - 1$ ,  $1 \leq \ell \leq 2^n$ . We examine the case when  $\ell$  is even. In the case of an odd  $\ell$  the proof is similar.

1)  $1 \leq \ell \leq 2^{n-1}$ .

Since  $q_{n+1} = q_n^2 + t$ , for  $\ell \leq 3$  we have

$$a(\ell, n+1) = 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\frac{\ell}{2}-1} a(k, n) a(\ell-k, n) + \left( a\left(\frac{\ell}{2}, n\right) \right)^2. \quad (5.1)$$

We have

$$\text{ord}_2 2a(k, n) a(\ell-k, n) = 1 + \text{ord}_2 a(k, n) +$$

$$+ \text{ord}_2 a(\ell-k, n) = 1 + S(k) - 1 + S(\ell-k) - 1 = S(k) + S(\ell-k) - 1 \geq S(\ell) - 1$$

by virtue of Subsec. 5.3 and, moreover, equality holds when  $C_1^k$  is odd;

$$\text{ord}_2 \left( a\left(\frac{\ell}{2}, n\right) \right)^2 = 2 \left( S\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right) - 1 \right) = 2 \cdot S\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right) - 2 = 2 \cdot S(\ell) - 2 \geq S(\ell) - 1;$$

equality holds if  $\ell$  is a power of two.

Thus, the number of terms in the sum (5.1) with the least order  $p_0 = S(\ell) - 1$  is equal to the number of odd terms in the sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\frac{\ell}{2}-1} C_k^\ell,$$

if  $\ell$  is not a power of 2, and one unit greater if  $\ell$  is a power of 2. By virtue of 5.4, in both cases this number is odd; this proves the statement for  $1 \leq \ell \leq 2^{n-1}$ .

2)  $2^{n-1} + 1 \leq \ell \leq 2^n$ .

For  $l = 2^n$   $\text{ord}_2 a(2^n, n+1) = \text{ord}_2 1 = S(2^n) - 1$ .

For  $l = 2^{n-1} + r$ ,  $1 \leq r \leq 2^{n-1} - 1$ , we reason similarly to 1) and we make use of 5.5.

5.8. Now we can compute the binary orders of the moments  $A_\ell$ . We recall Newton's formula [5]: if  $\delta_\ell$  is the sum of the  $\ell$ -th powers of the zeros of the polynomial

$$x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n,$$

then for  $\ell \leq n$  we have

$$l \leq n \quad \delta_l + \delta_{l-1} a_1 + \delta_{l-2} a_2 + \dots + \delta_1 a_{l-1} + (-1)^l l a_l = 0,$$

while for  $\ell > n$  we have

$$\delta_l + \delta_{l-1} a_1 + \delta_{l-2} a_2 + \dots + \delta_{l-n} a_n = 0.$$

### 5.9 THEOREM.

$$\text{ord}_2(A_l) = -S(l), \quad l = 1, 2, \dots$$

Proof. We denote

$$R(l, n) = \sum_{k=1}^{2^{n-1}} (-b_{k,n})^l, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$(b_{k,n})_{k=1}^{2^{n-1}}$  are the roots of the equation  $q_n = 0$ .

Then

$$R(l, n) = (-1)^l \cdot 2^{n-1} A_l, \quad 1 \leq l \leq 2^n - 2. \quad (5.2)$$

Therefore, the assertion of the theorem is equivalent to the fact that

$$\text{ord}_2 R(l, n) = n - 1 - S(l), \quad 1 \leq l \leq 2^n - 2 \quad (5.3)$$

We assume that (5.3) has been proved for some  $n \geq 2$  and for all  $\ell = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^{n-1} - 2$ , and we prove it for  $\ell = 2^{n-1} - 1, 2^{n-1}, \dots, 2^n - 2$ . Then, by virtue of (5.2), equality (5.3) will be proved for  $n+1$  and  $\ell = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^n - 2$ . From here, by induction, the validity of the theorem will follow for all  $\ell$ .

Since

$$\frac{q_2}{2q_2} = \frac{2c-1}{2(c^2-c)} = \frac{1}{c} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2c} + \frac{1}{2c^2} + \dots \right),$$

we have  $A_1 = 1/2$ ,  $A_2 = 1/2$ , i.e., (5.3) holds for  $n = 2, 3$  and  $\ell = 1, 2$ . Let  $\text{ord}_2 R(\ell, n) = n - 1 - S(\ell)$  for some  $n \geq 3$  and all  $\ell = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^{n-1} - 2$ . We show that  $\text{ord}_2 R(\ell, n) = n - 1 - S(\ell)$  for  $\ell = 2^{n-1} - 1, \dots, 2^n - 2$ .

Since  $\deg q_n = 2^{n-1}$  and  $q_n(0) = 0$ , by Newton's formulas we have

$$\begin{aligned} R(2^{n-1}-1, n) &= -(R(2^{n-1}-2, n) a(2^{n-1}-1, n) + \dots \\ &+ R(i-1, n) a(i, n) + \dots + R(1, n) a(2, n) + (2^{n-1}-1) a(1, n)), \end{aligned} \quad (5.4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} R(l, n) &= -(R(l-1, n) a(2^{n-1}-1, n) + \dots \\ &+ R(l-i, n) a(2^{n-1}-i, n) + \dots + R(l-2^{n-1}+1, n) a(1, n)). \end{aligned} \quad (5.5)$$

$l = 2^{n-1}, \dots, 2^n - 2$ .

According to what has been proved,  $\text{ord}_2 a(i, n) = S(i) - 1$ ; by the induction hypothesis,  $\text{ord}_2 R(l, n) = n - 1 - S(l)$ ,  $1 \leq l \leq 2^{n-1} - 2$ .

Let  $\ell = 2^{n-1} - 1$ . We prove that in the right-hand side of (5.4) all the terms, except the last one, equal to  $2^{n-1} - 1$ , are even:

$$\text{ord}_2 R(i-1, n) a(i, n) = (n - 1 - S(i-1)) +$$

$$+(S(i) - 1) \geq 1,$$

since

$$S(i - 1) \leq n - 2, i \leq 2^{n-1} - 1.$$

Thus, the assertion is proved for  $\ell = 2^{n-1} - 1$ .

Assume now that the assertion is proved for all indices smaller than  $\ell$ , where  $2^{n-1} \leq \ell \leq 2^n - 2$ , and we prove it for  $\ell$ . In (5.5) the order of each term is

$$\text{ord}_2(R(l-i, n) a(2^{n-1}-i, n)) = (n-1-S(l-i)) + (S(2^{n-1}-i) - 1) \geq n-1-S(l),$$

since  $S(2^{n-1}-i) + S(l) \geq S(l-i) + 1$ , and, moreover, equality is equivalent to the fact that the number  $C_{2^{n-1}+l-i}^l$  is odd. It remains to make use of 5.6. The theorem is proved.

5.10. Remark. Making use of the proved theorem and of the expression of the discriminant of a polynomial in terms of its power sums [5], it is easy to show that the discriminant

$$D_n = \prod_{1 \leq i < k \leq 2^{n-1}} (b_{i,n} - b_{k,n})^2$$

of the polynomial  $q_n$  for  $n \geq 2$  is an odd number.

5.11. We give one more statement concerning the numbers  $A_\ell$ . For this we note that, according to what has been proved,  $\text{ord}_2 2^\ell A_\ell = \ell - S(\ell) = \text{ord}_2(\ell!) \geq 0$ , i.e.,  $N_\ell = 2^\ell A_\ell$  is an integer ( $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ).

THEOREM. For any natural numbers  $k, r$  and prime number  $m > 2$  we have

$$N_{km^r} = N_{km^{r-1}} \pmod{m^r}.$$

Remark. Since  $N_1 = 1$ , it follows, in particular, that  $N_m \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  for all prime numbers  $m > 2$ .

The assertion of the theorem follows from the congruence (a particular case of Euler's theorem):  $2^{km^r - km^{r-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{m^r}$  and from the following statement [6]: if  $\delta_\ell$  is the sum of the  $\ell$ -th powers of the roots of the equation  $x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$  with integer coefficients,  $a_n \neq 0$ , then for any natural  $k, r$  and any prime number  $m$  we have  $\delta_{km^r} \equiv \delta_{km^{r-1}} \pmod{m^r}$ .

5.12. After the model of the proved Theorem 5.9, it is easy to compute the binary orders also of the coefficients  $B_\ell$  of the expansion of the function  $\phi$ , mapping univalently the exterior of the set  $M$  onto the exterior of the unit circle.

THEOREM.

$$\text{ord}_2 B_l = -(l+1 + \text{ord}_2(l+1)!) = S(l+1) - 2l - 2, l=0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Proof. Since  $B_0 = 1/2$ , the formula holds for  $\ell = 0$ . We assume that it holds for all indices less than  $\ell$  and we prove it for  $\ell$ . We rewrite the identity  $\sigma = \phi'/\phi$  in the form:

$$1 - \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{l B_l}{c^{l+1}} = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{A_l}{c^l} \left( c + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_l}{c^l} \right),$$

from where

$$B_l = -\frac{1}{l+1} (A_{l+1} + B_0 A_l + \dots + B_{l-1} A_1).$$

For  $i = 0, 1, \dots, \ell - 2$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ord}_2(B_i A_{l-i}) &= -(i+1 + \text{ord}_2(i+1)!) - S(l-i) = -(i+1) - \\ \text{ord}_2(i+1)! - (l-i) + \text{ord}_2(l-i)! &= -(l+1) + \text{ord}_2(l-i)! - \\ \text{ord}_2(i+1)! &> -(l+1) - \text{ord}_2(l!) = \text{ord}_2(A_1 B_{l-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $\text{ord}_2 A_{l+1} = -(l+1) + \text{ord}_2(l+1)! > \text{ord}_2(A_1 B_{l-1})$ . Therefore,  $\text{ord}_2 B_l = -\text{ord}_2(l+1) + \text{ord}_2(A_1 B_{l-1}) = -(l+1 + \text{ord}_2(l+1)!) = S(l+1) - 2l - 2$ . The theorem is proved.



COROLLARY.  $B_\ell \neq 0, \ell = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

5.13. In a similar manner one proves the following

THEOREM.

$$\text{ord}_2 C_{2l+1} = \text{ord}_2 B_{2l+1} = S(l+1) - 4l - 4,$$

$\ell = 0, 1, \dots$

In particular,  $C_{2\ell+1} \neq 0$ . Apparently, all the zero terms of the sequence  $(C_\ell)$  are given by the formula from Subsec. 4.6.

6. A Linear Method for the Computation of the Moments. 6.1. We continue to consider the case  $P = 2$ . We recall that  $A_\ell$  is the  $\ell$ -th moment of the measure  $\mu$ .

The sequence  $(A_\ell)_{\ell \geq 0}$  can be determined by computing first the coefficients  $a(k, n)$  of the polynomial  $q_n$  and then making use of the formula from Subsec. 3.1. The corresponding recurrence formulas are nonlinear.

Here we describe a linear algorithm for the computation of  $A_\ell$ , which can be easily implemented on a computer.

6.2. Definition. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let  $n \in \mathbb{N}, n = \sum_{i=0}^l \varepsilon_i 2^i, \varepsilon_i \in \{0, 1\}$  be the binary expansion of  $n$ ; by the  $n$ -th elementary polynomial  $d_n(c)$  we mean the product

$$d_n(c) = \prod_{i=0}^l f_i^{\varepsilon_i}(c) = \prod_{k=0}^l (f_c^k(c))^{\varepsilon_k}. \quad (6.1)$$

In addition, we set  $d_0(c) \equiv 1$ .

6.3. Since  $\deg f_c^k(c) = \deg q_{k+1}(c) = 2^k$ , we have  $\deg d_n = n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . Therefore, each polynomial  $F(c)$  is a finite linear combination of the system  $(d_n(c))_{n \geq 0}$ . In particular, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a vector  $(\alpha(i, m))_{i=0}^m$  such that

$$c^n = \sum_{i=0}^m \alpha(i, m) d_i(c); \quad (6.2)$$

since  $d_i(0) = 0 (i \geq 1)$ , we have  $\alpha(0, m) = 0$ .

$$A_m = \int c^m d\mu = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha(i, m) \int d_i(c) d\mu. \quad (6.3)$$

6.4. LEMMA. Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

(a) If  $n \neq 2^k - 1$ , then

$$\int d_n(c) d\mu = 0.$$

(b) If  $n = 2^k - 1$ , then

$$\int d_n(c) d\mu = 1 - \frac{1}{2^k}.$$

Proof. (a) follows from Subsec. 3.2 (for  $p = 2$ ). (b) Let  $n = 2^k - 1$ . Then  $d_n(c) = q_1(c) \cdot \dots \cdot q_k(c)$ .

By virtue of Subsecs. 2.3, 3.1, we have

$$\int q_1 \cdot \dots \cdot q_k d\mu = \frac{1}{2^k} \int q_1 \cdot \dots \cdot q_k \left( \frac{q_k}{2^{k-1} q_k} + \frac{D_k}{c^{2^k}} + \dots \right) dc = \frac{1}{2^k} \int (c^{2^k-1} + \dots) \left( \frac{D_k}{c^{2^k}} + \dots \right) dc = D_k.$$

We find  $D_k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\ln q_{k+1}}{2^k} &= \frac{\ln q_k}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{1}{2^k} \ln \left( 1 - \frac{c}{q_k} \right) = \frac{\ln q_k}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{1}{2^k} \left( -\frac{c}{q_k} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{c^2}{q_k^2} + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{\ln q_k}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{1}{2^k} \left( -\frac{1}{c^{2^k-1}} + \dots \right); \\ \frac{q_{k+1}}{2^k q_{k+1}} &= \frac{q_k}{2^{k-1} q_k} + \frac{2^k - 1}{2^k} \cdot \frac{1}{c^{2^k}} + O\left(\frac{1}{c^{2^{k+1}}}\right), \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,  $D_k = \frac{2^k - 1}{2^k}$ .

6.5. Thus, in (6.3) it remains to find the recurrence relations for  $\alpha(t, m)$ .

6.6. For the convenience of the notations, instead of  $d_n(c)$  we shall write sometimes  $d(n)$ , omitting  $c$ .

LEMMA. For  $n \geq 0$  we have

$$c \cdot d(n) = \sum_{r=0}^{\text{ord}_2(n+1)} d(n+2-2^r).$$

The proof is carried out by induction on the number  $k = \text{ord}_2(n+1)$ , which is the number of ones up to the first zero in the binary expansion of the number  $n$ .

6.7. To each sequence  $\bar{a} = (a(n))_{n>0}$ ,  $a(n) \in \mathbb{C}$  we associate the formal series

$$\sum a(n) d_n(c).$$

LEMMA. Assume that the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a(2^k - 1)$$

converges. Then

$$c \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a(n) d_n(c) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} b(m) d_m(c),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} b(1) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a(2^k - 1), \\ b(m) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\text{ord}_2(m-1)} a(m + 2^k - 2), \quad m \geq 2. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. We make use of Subsec. 6.7:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} b(m) d_m(c) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a(n) \sum_{k=0}^{\text{ord}_2(n+1)} d(n+2-2^k).$$

Let  $n+2-2^k = m$ , where  $0 \leq k \leq \text{ord}_2(n+1)$ . Then  $n = m + 2^k - 2$ ,  $n+1 = (m-1) + 2^k$ , and, therefore,  $k \leq \text{ord}_2(m-1)$ . Consequently,

$$b(m) = \sum_{k=0}^{\text{ord}_2(m-1)} a(m + 2^k - 2).$$

It remains to note that for  $m=1$  we have  $\text{ord}_2(m-1) = +\infty$ .

6.8. COROLLARY. We set  $\alpha(1,1)=1$ ,  $\alpha(l,1)=0$ ,  $l \geq 2$ .

$$\alpha(l, m+1) = \sum_{k=0}^{\text{ord}_2(l-1)} \alpha(l + 2^k - 2, m); \quad m, l \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then

$$A_m = \sum_{2^k < m+1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^k}\right) \cdot \alpha(2^k - 1, m).$$

6.9. From here there follows at once that  $0 < A_m < A_{m+1}$ .

The computer calculations allow us to presuppose that in the considered case ( $p = 2$ ) we have, asymptotically,

$$A_m \sim \text{const} \cdot 2^m \cdot m^{-\gamma}; \quad B_m \sim \text{const} \cdot 2^m \cdot m^{-1-\gamma}, \quad \gamma \approx 0,48.$$

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#### A NEW PROOF OF DRASIN'S THEOREM ON MEROMORPHIC FUNCTIONS OF FINITE ORDER WITH MAXIMAL DEFICIENCY SUM. I

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1. Introduction. For a function  $f$ , meromorphic in the plane  $\mathbb{C}$ , we make use of the standard notations of the R. Nevanlinna theory:  $T(r, f)$ ,  $N(r, a)$ ,  $m(r, a)$ ,  $\bar{N}(r, f)$ ,  $N_1(r)$ ,  $\delta(a)$ . In addition, we set  $D(z_0, R) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < R\}$ . In this paper we investigate meromorphic functions of finite lower order with maximal deficiency sum:

$$\sum_{a \in \mathbb{C}} \delta(a) = 2. \quad (1.1)$$

For a function  $f$  of finite order, R. Nevanlinna's second fundamental theorem can be formulated in the following form: for each finite collection  $a_1, \dots, a_q$  we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^q m(r, a_j) + N_1(r) \leq 2T(r, f) + o(T(r, f)), \quad r \rightarrow \infty.$$

From here and from (1.1) there follows that

$$N_1(r) = o(T(r, f)), \quad r \rightarrow \infty. \quad (1.2)$$

In order to elucidate what consequences can (1.1) imply, we assume first that a stronger condition than (1.2) is satisfied, namely,  $N_1(r) \equiv 0$ , i.e.,  $f$  does not have multiple points. We consider the Schwarzian derivative

$$F = f'''/f' - (3/2)(f''/f')^2. \quad (1.3)$$

A simple computation shows that the Schwarzian derivative has poles only at the multiple points of the function  $f$  and, therefore,  $F$  is an entire function. Taking into account that  $f$  is of

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