Journal of Inequalities in Pure and Applied Mathematics
http://jipam.vu.edu.au/
Volume 5, Issue 2, Article 35, 2004

## SOME NORMALITY CRITERIA

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Received 12 October, 2003; accepted 01 January, 2004
Communicated by H.M. Srivastava

AbStract. In the paper we prove some sufficient conditions for a family of meromorphic functions to be normal in a domain.

Key words and phrases: Meromorphic function, Normality.
2000 Mathematics Subject Classification Primary 30D45, Secondary 30D35.

## 1. Introduction and Results

Let $\mathbb{C}$ be the open complex plane and $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a domain. A family $\mathcal{F}$ of meromorphic functions defined in $\mathcal{D}$ is said to be normal, in the sense of Montel, if for any sequence $f_{n} \in \mathcal{F}$ there exists a subsequence $f_{n_{j}}$ such that $f_{n_{j}}$ converges spherically, locally and uniformly in $\mathcal{D}$ to a meromorphic function or $\infty$.
$\mathcal{F}$ is said to be normal at a point $z_{0} \in \mathcal{D}$ if there exists a neighbourhood of $z_{0}$ in which $\mathcal{F}$ is normal. It is well known that $\mathcal{F}$ is normal in $\mathcal{D}$ if and only if it is normal at every point of $\mathcal{D}$.

It is an interesting problem to find out criteria for normality of a family of analytic or meromorphic functions. In recent years this problem attracted the attention of a number of researchers worldwide.

In 1969 D. Drasin [5] proved the following normality criterion.
Theorem A. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of analytic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and $a(\neq 0)$, b be two finite numbers. If for every $f \in \mathcal{F}, f^{\prime}-a f^{n}-b$ has no zero then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal, where $n(\geq 3)$ is an integer.

Chen-Fang [2] and Ye [21] independently proved that Theorem $A$ also holds for $n=2$. A number of authors $\{\mathrm{cf}$. [3, 11, 12, 13, 16, 24] $\}$ extended Theorem $A$ to a family of meromorphic functions in a domain. Their results can be combined in the following theorem.

[^0]Theorem B. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and $a(\neq 0)$, b be two finite numbers. If for every $f \in \mathcal{F}$, $f^{\prime}-a f^{n}-b$ has no zero then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal, where $n(\geq 3)$ is an integer.

Li [12], Li [13] and Langley [11] proved Theorem $B$ for $n \geq 5$, Pang [16] proved for $n=4$ and Chen-Fang [3], Zalcman [24] proved for $n=3$. Fang-Yuan [6] showed that Theorem B does not, in general, hold for $n=2$. For the case $n=2$ they [6] proved the following result.
Theorem C. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and $a(\neq 0)$, b be two finite numbers. If $f^{\prime}-a f^{2}-b$ has no zero and $f$ has no simple and double pole for every $f \in \mathcal{F}$ then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal.

Fang-Yuan [6] mentioned the following example from which it appears that the condition for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ not to have any simple and double pole is necessary for Theorem $\mathbb{C}$.
Example 1.1. Let $f_{n}(z)=n z(z \sqrt{n}-1)^{-2}$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$ and $\mathcal{D}:|z|<1$. Then each $f_{n}$ has only a double pole and a simple zero. Also $f_{n}^{\prime}+f_{n}^{2}=n(z \sqrt{n}-1)^{-4} \neq 0$. Since $f_{n}^{\#}(0)=n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, it follows from Marty's criterion that $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is not normal in $\mathcal{D}$.

However, the following example suggests that the restriction on the poles of $f \in \mathcal{F}$ may be relaxed at the cost of some restriction imposed on the zeros of $f \in \mathcal{F}$.
Example 1.2. Let $f_{n}(z)=n z^{-2}$ for $n=3,4, \ldots$ and $\mathcal{D}:|z|<1$. Then each $f_{n}$ has only a double pole and no simple zero. Also we see that $f_{n}^{\prime}+f_{n}^{2}=n(n-2 z) z^{-4} \neq 0$ in $\mathcal{D}$. Since

$$
f_{n}^{\#}(z)=\frac{2 n|z|}{|z|^{2}+n^{2}} \leq \frac{2}{n}<1
$$

in $\mathcal{D}$, it follows from Marty's criterion that the family $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is normal in $\mathcal{D}$.
Now we state the first theorem of the paper.
Theorem 1.1. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ such that no $f \in \mathcal{F}$ has any simple zero and simple pole. Let

$$
E_{f}=\left\{z: z \in \mathcal{D} \text { and } f^{\prime}(z)-a f^{2}(z)=b\right\},
$$

where $a(\neq 0)$, b are two finite numbers.
If there exists a positive number $M$ such that for every $f \in \mathcal{F},|f(z)| \leq M$ whenever $z \in E_{f}$, then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal.

The following examples together with Example 1.1 show that the condition of Theorem 1.1 on the zeros and poles are necessary.
Example 1.3. Let $f_{n}(z)=n \tan n z$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$ and $\mathcal{D}:|z|<\pi$. Then $f_{n}$ has only simple zeros and simple poles. Also we see that $f_{n}^{\prime}-f_{n}^{2}=n^{2} \neq 0$. Since $f_{n}^{\#}(0)=n^{2} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by Marty's criterion the family $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is not normal.
Example 1.4. Let $f_{n}(z)=\left(1+e^{2 n z}\right)^{-1}$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$ and $\mathcal{D}:|z|<1$. Then $f_{n}$ has no simple zero and no multiple pole. Also we see that $f_{n}^{\prime}+f_{n}^{2} \neq 1$. Since $f_{n}^{\#}(0)=\frac{2 n}{3} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by Marty's criterion the family $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is not normal.

Drasin [18, p. 130] also proved the following normality criterion which involves differential polynomials.
Theorem D. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of analytic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k-1}$ be finite constants, where $k$ is a positive integer. Let

$$
H(f)=f^{(k)}+a_{k-1} f^{(k-1)}+\ldots+a_{1} f^{(1)}+a_{0} f .
$$

If for every $f \in \mathcal{F}$
(i) $f$ has no zero,
(ii) $H(f)-1$ has no zero of multiplicity less than $k+2$,
then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal.
Recently Fang-Yuan [6] proved that Theorem $D$ remains valid even if $H(f)-1$ has only multiple zeros for every $f \in \mathcal{F}$. In the next theorem we extend Theorem $D$ to a family of meromorphic functions which also improves a result of Fang-Yuan [6].
Theorem 1.2. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and

$$
H(f)=f^{(k)}+a_{k-1} f^{(k-1)}+\ldots+a_{1} f^{(1)}+a_{0} f
$$

where $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k-1}$ are finite constants and $k$ is a positive integer.
Let

$$
E_{f}=\{z: z \in \mathcal{D} \text { and } z \text { is a simple zero of } H(f)-1\} .
$$

If for every $f \in \mathcal{F}$
(i) $f$ has no pole of multiplicity less than $3+k$,
(ii) $f$ has no zero,
(iii) there exists a positive constant $M$ such that $|f(z)| \geq M$ whenever $z \in E_{f}$,
then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal.
The following examples show that conditions (ii) and (iii) of Theorem 1.2 are necessary, leaving the question of necessity of the condition (i) as open.
Example 1.5. Let $f_{n}(z)=n z$ for $n=2,3, \ldots, \mathcal{D}:|z|<1, H(f)=f^{\prime}-f$ and $M=\frac{1}{2}$. Then each $f_{n}$ has a zero at $z=0$ and $E_{f_{n}}=\left\{1-\frac{1}{n}\right\}$ for $n=2,3, \ldots$. So $\left|f\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)\right|=n-1 \geq M$ for $n=2,3, \ldots$. Since $f_{n}^{\#}(0)=n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by Marty's criterion the family $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is not normal in $\mathcal{D}$.
Example 1.6. Let $f_{n}(z)=e^{n z}$ for $n=2,3, \ldots, \mathcal{D}:|z|<1$ and $H(f)=f^{\prime}-f$. Then each $f_{n}$ has no zero and $E_{f_{n}}=\left\{z: z \in \mathcal{D}\right.$ and $\left.(n-1) e^{n z}=1\right\}$ for $n=2,3, \ldots$. Also we see that for $z \in E_{f_{n}},\left|f_{n}(z)\right|=\frac{1}{n-1} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Since $f_{n}^{\#}(0)=\frac{n}{2} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by Marty's criterion the family $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is not normal in $\mathcal{D}$.

In connection to Theorem $A$ Chen-Fang [3] proposed the following conjecture:
Conjecture 1.3. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$. Iffor every function $f \in \mathcal{F}, f^{(k)}-a f^{n}-b$ has no zero in $\mathcal{D}$ then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal, where $a(\neq 0)$, b are two finite numbers and $k, n(\geq k+2)$ are positive integers.

In response to this conjecture Xu [23] proved the following result.
Theorem E. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and $a(\neq 0)$, b be two finite constants. If $k$ and $n$ are positive integers such that $n \geq k+2$ and for every $f \in \mathcal{F}$
(i) $f^{(k)}-a f^{n}-b$ has no zero,
(ii) $f$ has no simple pole,
then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal.
The condition (ii) of Theorem $E$ can be dropped if we choose $n \geq k+4$ (cf. [15, 17]). Also some improvement of Theorem $E$ can be found in [22]. In the next theorem we investigate the situation when the power of $f$ is negative in condition (i) of Theorem $E$.
Theorem 1.4. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and $a(\neq 0)$, b be two finite numbers. Suppose that $E_{f}=\left\{z: z \in \mathcal{D}\right.$ and $\left.f^{(k)}(z)+a f^{-n}(z)=b\right\}$, where $k, n(\geq k)$ are positive integers.

Iffor every $f \in \mathcal{F}$
(i) $f$ has no zero of multiplicity less than $k$,
(ii) there exists a positive number $M$ such that for every $f \in \mathcal{F},|f(z)| \geq M$ whenever $z \in E_{f}$,
then $\mathcal{F}$ is normal.
Following examples show that the conditions of Theorem 1.4 are necessary.
Example 1.7. Let $f_{p}(z)=p z^{2}$ for $p=1,2, \ldots$ and $\mathcal{D}:|z|<1, n=k=3, a=1, b=0$. Then $f_{p}$ has only a double zero and $E_{f_{p}}=\emptyset$. Since $f_{p}(0)=0$ and for $z \neq 0, f_{p}(z) \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, it follows that the family $\left\{f_{p}\right\}$ is not normal.
Example 1.8. Let $f_{p}(z)=p z$ for $p=1,2, \ldots$ and $\mathcal{D}:|z|<1, n=k=1$. Then $f_{p}$ has simple zero at the origin and for any two finite numbers $a(\neq 0), b, E_{f_{p}}=\{a / p(b-p)\}$ so that $\left|f_{p}(z)\right| \rightarrow 0$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$ whenever $z \in E_{f_{p}}$. Since $f_{p}^{\#}(0)=p \rightarrow \infty$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$, by Marty's criterion the family $\left\{f_{p}\right\}$ is not normal.
For the standard definitions and notations of the value distribution theory we refer to [8, 18].

## 2. Lemmas

In this section we present some lemmas which will be needed in the sequel.
Lemma 2.1. [1] Let $f$ be a transcendental meromorphic function of finite order in $\mathbb{C}$. If $f$ has no simple zero then $f^{\prime}$ assumes every non-zero finite value infinitely often.
Lemma 2.2. [10] Let $f$ be a nonconstant rational function in $\mathbb{C}$ having no simple zero and simple pole. Then $f^{\prime}$ assumes every non-zero finite value.

The following lemma can be proved in the line of [9].
Lemma 2.3. Let $f$ be a meromorphic function in $\mathbb{C}$ such that $f^{(k)} \not \equiv 0$. Suppose that $\psi=$ $f^{n} f^{(k)}$, where $k, n$ are positive integers. If $n>k=2$ or $n \geq k \geq 3$ then

$$
\left\{1-\frac{1+k}{n+k}-\frac{n(1+k)}{(n+k)(n+k+1)}\right\} T(r, \psi) \leq \bar{N}(r, a ; \psi)+S(r, \psi)
$$

where $a(\neq 0, \infty)$ is a constant.
Lemma 2.4. [19] Let $f$ be a transcendental meromorphic function in $\mathbb{C}$ and $\psi=f^{n} f^{(2)}$, where $n(\geq 2)$ is an integer. Then

$$
\limsup _{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{N}(r, a ; \psi)}{T(r, \psi)}>0
$$

where $a(\neq 0, \infty)$ is a constant.
The following lemma is a combination of the results of [3, 7, 14].
Lemma 2.5. Let $f$ be a transcendental meromorphic function in $\mathbb{C}$. Then $f^{n} f^{\prime}$ assumes every non-zero finite value infinitely often, where $n(\geq 1)$ is an integer.
Lemma 2.6. Let $f$ be a non-constant rational function in $\mathbb{C}$. Then $f^{n} f^{\prime}$ assumes every non-zero finite value.
Proof. Let $g=f^{n+1} /(n+1)$. Then $g$ is a nonconstant rational function having no simple zero and simple pole. So by Lemma $2.2 g^{\prime}=f^{n} f^{\prime}$ assumes every non-zero finite value. This proves the lemma.

Lemma 2.7. Let $f$ be a rational function in $\mathbb{C}$ such that $f^{(2)} \not \equiv 0$. Then $\psi=f^{2} f^{(2)}$ assumes every non-zero finite value.

Proof. Let $f=p / q$, where $p, q$ are polynomials of degree $m, n$ respectively and $p, q$ have no common factor.

Let $a$ be a non-zero finite number. We now consider the following cases.
Case 1. Let $m=n$. Then $f=\alpha+p_{1} / q$, where $\alpha$ is a constant and $p_{1}$ is a polynomial of degree $m_{1}<n$.
Now

$$
f^{\prime}=\frac{p_{1}^{\prime} q-p_{1} q^{\prime}}{q^{2}}=\frac{p_{2}}{q_{2}}, \text { say, }
$$

where $p_{2}$ and $q_{2}$ are polynomials of degree $m_{2}=m_{1}+n-1$ and $n_{2}=2 n$. Also we note that $m_{2}<n_{2}$. Hence

$$
f^{\prime \prime}=\frac{p_{2}^{\prime} q_{2}-p_{2} q_{2}^{\prime}}{q_{2}^{2}}=\frac{p_{3}}{q_{3}}, \text { say },
$$

where $p_{3}$ and $q_{3}$ are polynomials of degree $m_{3}=m_{2}+n_{2}-1=m_{1}+3 n-2$ and $n_{3}=2 n_{2}=4 n$. Also we see that $m_{3}<n_{3}$.

Let $\psi=f^{2} f^{(2)}=P / Q$. Then $P, Q$ are polynomials of degree $2 m+m_{3}$ and $2 n+n_{3}$ respectively and $2 m+m_{3}<2 n+n_{3}$. Therefore $\psi$ is nonconstant.

Now $\psi-a=(P-a Q) / Q$ and the degree of $P-a Q$ is equal to the degree of $Q$. If $\psi-a$ has no zero then $P-a Q$ and $Q$ share $0 C M$ (counting multiplicites) and so $P-a Q \equiv A Q$, where $A$ is a constant. Therefore $\psi=A-a$, which is impossible. So $\psi-a$ must have some zero.

Case 2. Let $m=n+1$. Then

$$
f=\alpha z+\beta+\frac{p_{1}}{q},
$$

where $\alpha, \beta$ are constants and $p_{1}$ is a polynomial of degree $m_{1}<n$.
Now $f^{\prime \prime}=p_{3} / q_{3}$, where $p_{3}$ and $q_{3}$ are polynomials of degree $m_{3}=m_{1}+3 n-2$ and $n_{3}=4 n$ respectively and $m_{3}<n_{3}$.
If $\psi=P / Q$ then $P, Q$ are polynomials of degree $2 m+m_{3}$ and $2 n+n_{3}$ respectively. We see that $2 m+m_{3}=5 n+m_{1}<6 n=2 n+n_{3}$ and so $\psi$ is nonconstant. Therefore as Case $1 \psi-a$ must have some zero.

Case 3. Let $m \neq n, n+1$. Then

$$
f^{\prime}=\frac{p q^{\prime}-p^{\prime} q}{q^{2}}=\frac{p_{4}}{q_{4}}, \text { say },
$$

where $p_{4}, q_{4}$ are polynomials of degree $m_{4}=m+n-1$ and $n_{4}=2 n$. Also we note that $m_{4} \neq n_{4}$.

Hence

$$
f^{\prime \prime}=\frac{p_{4}^{\prime} q_{4}-p_{4} q_{4}^{\prime}}{q_{4}^{2}}=\frac{p_{5}}{q_{5}}, \text { say },
$$

where $p_{5}, q_{5}$ are polynmials of degree $m_{5}=m_{4}+n_{4}-1=m+3 n-2$ and $n_{5}=2 n_{4}=4 n$.
If $\psi=P / Q$ then $P, Q$ are polynomials of degree $2 m+m_{5}$ and $2 n+n_{5}$ respectively. Clearly $2 m+m_{5} \neq 2 n+n_{5}$ because otherwise $m=n+2 / 3$, which is impossible. So $\psi$ is nonconstant. Also we see that $\psi-a=(P-a Q) / Q$, where the degree of $P-a Q$ is not less than that of $Q$. If $\psi-a$ has no zero then as per Case $\square \psi$ becomes a constant, which is impossible. So $\psi-a$ must have some zero. This proves the lemma.

Lemma 2.8. Let $f$ be a meromorphic function in $\mathbb{C}$ such that $f^{(k)} \not \equiv 0$ and $a(\neq 0)$ be a finite constant. Then $f^{(k)}+a f^{-n}$ must have some zero, where $k$ and $n(\geq k)$ are positive integers.

Proof. First we assume that $k=1$. Then by Lemmas 2.5 and 2.6 we see that $f^{n} f^{\prime}+a$ must have some zero. Since a zero of $f^{n} f^{\prime}+a$ is not a pole or a zero of $f$, it follows that a zero of $f^{n} f^{\prime}+a$ is a zero of $f^{\prime}+a f^{-n}$.

Now we assume that $k=2$. Then by Lemmas 2.3, 2.4 and 2.7 we see that $f^{n} f^{(2)}+a$ must have some zero. As the preceding paragraph a zero of $f^{n} f^{(2)}+a$ is a zero of $f^{(2)}+a f^{-n}$.

Finally we assume that $k \geq 3$. Then by Lemma $2.3 f^{n} f^{(k)}+a$ must have some zero. Since a zero of $f^{n} f^{(k)}+a$ is a zero of $f^{(k)}+a f^{-n}$, the lemma is proved.

Lemma 2.9. Let $f$ be a nonconstant meromorphic function in $\mathbb{C}$ such that $f$ has no zero and has no pole of multiplicity less than $3+k$. Then $f^{(k)}-1$ must have some simple zero, where $k$ is a positive integer.

Proof. Since $N\left(r, f^{(k)}\right)=N(r, f)+k \bar{N}(r, f)$ and $m\left(r, f^{(k)}\right) \leq m(r, f)+S(r, f)$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
T\left(r, f^{(k)}\right) & \leq T(r, f)+k \bar{N}(r, f)+S(r, f) \\
& \leq T(r, f)+\frac{k}{3+k} N(r, f)+S(r, f) \\
& \leq \frac{3+2 k}{3+k} T(r, f)+S(r, f)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $f$ has no zero and no pole of multiplicity less than $3+k$, we get by Milloux inequality ([8, p. 57])

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(r, f) & \leq \bar{N}(r, f)+\bar{N}\left(r, 1 ; f^{(k)}\right)+S(r, f) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{3+k} T(r, f)+\bar{N}\left(r, 1 ; f^{(k)}\right)+S(r, f)
\end{aligned}
$$

If possible, suppose that $f^{(k)}-1$ has no simple zero. Then we get from above

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(r, f) & \leq \frac{1}{3+k} T(r, f)+\frac{1}{2} N\left(r, 1 ; f^{(k)}\right)+S(r, f) \\
& \leq\left\{\frac{1}{3+k}+\frac{3+2 k}{2(3+k)}\right\} T(r, f)+S(r, f)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so

$$
\frac{1}{2(3+k)} T(r, f) \leq S(r, f)
$$

a contradiction. This proves the lemma.
Lemma 2.10. [4, 20] Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions in a domain $\mathcal{D}$ and let the zeros of $f$ be of multiplicity not less than $k$ (a positive integer) for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$. If $\mathcal{F}$ is not normal at $z_{0} \in \mathcal{D}$ then for $0 \leq \alpha<k$ there exist a sequence of complex numbers $z_{j} \rightarrow z_{0}$, $a$ sequence of functions $f_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$, and a sequence of positive numbers $\rho_{j} \rightarrow 0$ such that

$$
g_{j}(\zeta)=\rho_{j}^{-\alpha} f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)
$$

converges spherically and locally uniformly to a nonconstant meromorphic function $g(\zeta)$ in $\mathbb{C}$. Moreover the order of $g$ is not greater than two and the zeros of $g$ are of multiplicity not less than $k$.

Note 1. If each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ has no zero then $g$ also has no zero and in this case we can choose $\alpha$ to be any finite real number.

## 3. Proofs of the Theorems

In this section we discuss the proofs of the theorems.
Proof of Theorem [1.1. If possible suppose that $\mathcal{F}$ is not normal at $z_{0} \in \mathcal{D}$. Then $\mathcal{F}_{1}=\{1 / f$ : $f \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is not normal at $z_{0} \in \mathcal{D}$. Let $\alpha=1$. Then by Lemma 2.10 there exist a sequence of functions $f_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$, a sequence of complex numbers $z_{j} \rightarrow z_{0}$ and a sequence of positive numbers $\rho_{j} \rightarrow 0$ such that

$$
g_{j}(\zeta)=\rho_{j}^{-1} f_{j}^{-1}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)
$$

converges spherically and locally uniformly to a nonconstant meromorphic fucntion $g(\zeta)$ in $\mathbb{C}$. Also the order of $g$ does not exceed two and $g$ has no simple zero. Again by Hurwitz's theorem $g$ has no simple pole.

By Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2 we see that there exists $\zeta_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)+a=0 . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\zeta_{0}$ is not a pole of $g$, it follows that $g_{j}(\zeta)$ converges uniformly to $g(\zeta)$ in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$. We also see that $\frac{-1}{g^{2}(\zeta)}\left\{g^{\prime}(\zeta)+a\right\}$ is the uniform limit of $\rho_{j}^{2}\left\{f_{j}^{\prime}-a f_{j}^{2}-b\right\}$ in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$.

In view of (3.1) and Hurwitz's theorem there exists a sequence $\zeta_{j} \rightarrow \zeta_{0}$ such that $f_{j}^{\prime}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)-$ $a f_{j}^{2}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)-b=0$. So by the given condition

$$
\left|g_{j}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)\right|=\frac{1}{\rho_{j}} \cdot \frac{1}{\left|f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta_{j}\right)\right|} \geq \frac{1}{\rho_{j} M} .
$$

Since $\zeta_{0}$ is not a pole of $g$, there exists a positive number $K$ such that in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$ we get $|g(\zeta)| \leq K$.

Since $g_{j}(\zeta)$ converges uniformly to $g(\zeta)$ in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$, we get for all large values of $j$ and for all $\zeta$ in that neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$

$$
\left|g_{j}(\zeta)-g(\zeta)\right|<1
$$

Since $\zeta_{j} \rightarrow \zeta$, we get for all large values of $j$

$$
K \geq\left|g\left(\zeta_{j}\right)\right| \geq\left|g_{j}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)\right|-\left|g\left(\zeta_{j}\right)-g_{j}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)\right|>\frac{1}{\rho_{j} M}-1
$$

which is a contradiction. This proves the theorem.
Proof of Theorem 1.2. Let $\alpha=k$. If possible suppose that $\mathcal{F}$ is not normal at $z_{0} \in \mathcal{D}$. Then by Lemma 2.10 and Note $\eta$ there exists a sequence of functions $f_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$, a sequence of complex numbers $z_{j} \rightarrow z_{0}$ and a sequence of positive numbers $\rho_{j} \rightarrow 0$ such that

$$
g_{j}(\zeta)=\rho_{j}^{-k} f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)
$$

converges spherically and locally uniformly to a nonconstant meromorphic function $g(\zeta)$ in $\mathbb{C}$. Now by conditions (i) and (ii) and by Hurwitz's theorem we see that $g(\zeta)$ has no zero and has no pole of multiplicity less than $3+k$.

Now by Lemma $2.9 g^{(k)}(\zeta)-1$ has a simple zero at a point $\zeta_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$. Since $\zeta_{0}$ is not a pole of $g(\zeta)$, in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}, g_{j}(\zeta)$ converges uniformly to $g(\zeta)$.

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{j}^{(k)}(\zeta)-1+\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_{i} \rho_{j}^{k-i} g_{j}^{(i)}(\zeta) & =f_{j}^{(k)}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)+\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_{i} f_{j}^{(i)}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)-1 \\
& =H\left(f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)\right)-1
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_{i} \rho_{j}^{k-i} g_{j}^{(i)}(\zeta)$ converges uniformly to zero in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$, it follows that $g^{(k)}(\zeta)-1$ is the uniform limit of $H\left(f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)\right)-1$.

Since $\zeta_{0}$ is a simple zero of $g^{(k)}(\zeta)-1$, by Hurwitz's theorem there exists a sequence $\zeta_{j} \rightarrow \zeta_{0}$ such that $\zeta_{j}$ is a simple zero of $H\left(f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)\right)-1$. So by the given condition $\left|f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta_{j}\right)\right| \geq$ $M$ for all large values of $j$.

Hence for all large values of $j$ we get $\left|g_{j}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)\right| \geq M / \rho_{j}^{k}$ and as the last part of the proof of Theorem [1.1] we arrive at a contradiction. This proves the theorem.

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Let $\alpha=k /(1+n)<1$. If possible suppose that $\mathcal{F}$ is not normal at $z_{0} \in \mathcal{D}$. Then by Lemma 2.10 there exist a sequence of functions $f_{j} \in \mathcal{F}$, a sequence of complex numbers $z_{j} \rightarrow z_{0}$ and a sequence of positive numbers $\rho_{j} \rightarrow 0$ such that

$$
g_{j}(\zeta)=\rho_{j}^{-\alpha} f_{j}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)
$$

converges spherically and locally uniformly to a nonconstant meromorphic function $g(\zeta)$ in $\mathbb{C}$. Also $g$ has no zero of multiplicity less than $k$. So $g^{(k)} \not \equiv 0$ and by Lemma 2.8 we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{(k)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)+\frac{a}{g^{n}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)}=0 \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $\zeta_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$.
Clearly $\zeta_{0}$ is neither a zero nor a pole of $g$. So in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}, g_{j}(\zeta)$ converges uniformly to $g(\zeta)$.

Now in some neighbourhood of $\zeta_{0}$ we see that $g^{(k)}(\zeta)+a g^{-n}(\zeta)$ is the uniform limit of

$$
g_{j}^{(k)}+a g_{j}^{-n}(\zeta)-\rho_{j}^{n \alpha} b=\rho_{j}^{\frac{n k}{1+n}}\left\{f_{j}^{(k)}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)+a f_{j}^{-n}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta\right)-b\right\} .
$$

By (3.2) and Hurwitz's theorem there exists a sequence $\zeta_{j} \rightarrow \zeta_{0}$ such that for all large values of j

$$
f_{j}^{(k)}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta_{j}\right)+a f_{j}^{-n}\left(z_{j}+\rho_{j} \zeta_{j}\right)=b
$$

Therefore for all large values of $j$ it follows from the given condition $\left|g_{j}\left(\zeta_{j}\right)\right| \geq M / \rho_{j}^{\alpha}$ and as in the last part of the proof of Theorem 1.1 we arrive at a contradiction. This proves the theorem.

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