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# Meromorphic Functions and its Sharing Properties 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we study partial sharing of meromorphic functions and its derivatives.Our results improve or generalize the results of K.S. Karak and B.Lal [7] and Yang and Yi [1].

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## 1. Introduction

In this paper a meromorphic function will always mean meromorphic for whole complex plane. We shall use the standard notations of value distribution theory such as $T(r, f), m(r, f), N(r, f), \ldots$ (see [10]). We denote by $S(r, f)$ any quantity satisfying $S(r, f)=o(T(r, f))$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ possible outside of a set with finite measure. Let $f$ and $g$ be two non constant meromorphic functions and $a$ be a finite complex number. We denote by $E(a, f)$, the set of zeros of $f-a$, counting multiplicities and $\bar{E}(a, f)$ while ignoring multiplicities. We also say that the functions $f$ and $g$ are said to share the value $a \mathrm{CM}$ if $E(a, f)=E(a, g)$ and to share the value $a \mathrm{IM}$ if $\bar{E}(a, f)=\bar{E}(a, g)$. We denote $E_{k)}(a, f)$ the set of those zeros of $f-a$ for which multiplicities are not greater than $k$, counting multiplicities and $\bar{E}_{k)}(a, f)$ is the corresponding one for which multiplicities are not counted. We also denote $N_{k}\left(r, \frac{1}{f-a}\right)$ the counting function of those $a$ points of $f$ whose multiplicities are not greater than $k$ counting according to multiplicities and $\bar{N}_{k)}\left(r, \frac{1}{f-a}\right)$ is similar one when multiplicities are counted only once. Similarly we defined $N_{(k}\left(r, \frac{1}{f-a}\right)$ when the multiplicities are atleast $k$ and $\bar{N}_{(k}\left(r, \frac{1}{f-a}\right)$ is the reduced one. We denote class $A$ to those meromorphic functions which satisfies $\bar{N}(r, f)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{1}{f}\right)=S(r, f)$. Then clarly each member of class $A$ is transcendental meromorphic functions. A function $f$ is said to share the value $a$ partially with a function $g \mathrm{CM}(\mathrm{IM})$ if $E(a, f) \subseteq E(a, g)[\bar{E}(a, f) \subseteq \bar{E}(a, g)]$. We also use $N_{1)}\left(r, \left.\frac{1}{g-a} \right\rvert\, f \neq a\right)$ to denote the simple zeros of $g-a$ that are not the zeros of $f-a$.

## 2. Main Results

In his book Yang and Yi [1] proved the following theorem:

Theorem 2.1. Let $f, g \in A$ and $a$ be a non zero complex number.Furthermore, let $k$ be a positive integer.

[^0](1). If $\bar{E}_{1)}(a, f)=\bar{E}_{1)}(a, g)$, then $f=g$ or $f g=a^{2}$.
(2). If $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, f^{(k)}\right)=\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, g^{(k)}\right)$ then $f=g$ or $f^{(k)} g^{(k)}=a^{2}$.

In 2014, K.S.Charak and B.Lal [7] proved the following theorems which improved the Theorem 2.1.

Theorem 2.2. Let $f, g \in A$, a be a complex number and $k$ be a positive integer.
(1). If $\bar{E}_{1)}(a, f) \subseteq \bar{E}_{1)}(a, g)$ and $N_{1)}\left(r, \left.\frac{1}{g-a} \right\rvert\, f \neq a\right)=S(r, g)$ then $f=g$.
(2). If $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, f^{(k)}\right) \subseteq \bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, g^{(k)}\right)$ and $N_{1)}\left(r, \left.\frac{1}{g^{(k)}-a} \right\rvert\, f^{(k)} \neq a\right)=S(r, g)$ then $f=g$ or $f^{(k)} g^{(k)}=a^{2}$.

In 2011, Huang and Huang [5] improved the following result of Yang and Hua [2] as
Theorem 2.3. Let $f$ and $g$ be two meromorphic functions and $n \geq 19$ be an integer. If $E_{1}\left(1, f^{n} f^{(1)}\right)=E_{1}\left(1, g^{n} g^{(1)}\right)$, then either $f=d g$ for some $(n+1)^{\text {th }}$ root of unity $d$ or $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$, where $c, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are constant satisfying $\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{n+1} c^{2}=-1$.

In 2014, K.S.Charak and B.Lal [7] improved Theorem 2.3 for functions of class $A$ as
Theorem 2.4. Let $f, g \in A$, and $n \geq 2$ be an integer and $a(\neq 0) \in C$. If $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, f^{n} f(1)\right)=\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, g^{n} g(1)\right)$, then either $f=d g$ for some $(n+1)$ th root of unity $d$ or $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$, where $c, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are constant satisfying $\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{(n+1)} c^{2}=-a^{2}$.

In this paper we prove the following theorems which improve and generalise the above mentioned theorems. We extend Theorem 2.3 by incorporating partial sharing-which is our first theorem. The next theorem generalises the Theorem 2.1 for the function of class $A$.

Theorem 2.5. Let $f, g \in A, n \geq 2$ be an integer and $a(\neq 0) \in C$. If $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, f^{n} f^{(1)}\right) \subseteq \bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, g^{n} g^{(1)}\right)$ and $N_{1)}\left(r, \left.\frac{1}{g^{n} g^{1}-a} \right\rvert\, f^{n} f^{(1)} \neq a\right)=S(r, g)$ some $(n+1)$ th root of unity d or $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$ where $c, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are constant satisfying $\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{n+1} c^{2}=-a^{2}$.

Theorem 2.6. Let $f, g \in A$ and $a$ be a non zero complex number. Also let $n$ and $k$ be two positive integers such that $n>2 k$. If $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a,\left(f^{n}\right)^{(k)}\right)=\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a,\left(g^{n}\right)^{(k)}\right)$, then either $f=d g$ for some $n^{\text {th }}$ root of unity $d$ or $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$ where $c, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are constant satisfying $(-1)^{k}\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{n}(2 c)^{k}=a^{2}$.

Theorem 2.7. Let $f, g \in A$ and a be a non zero complex number. Also let $n$ and $k$ be two positive integers such that $n>2 k$. If $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a,\left(f^{n}\right)^{(k)}\right) \subseteq \bar{E}_{1)}\left(a,\left(g^{n}\right)^{(k)}\right)$ and $N_{1)}\left(r, \left.\frac{1}{\left(g^{n}\right)^{(k)}-a} \right\rvert\,\left(f^{n}\right)^{(k)} \neq a\right)=S(r, g)$, then either $f=d g$ for some $n$th root of unity $d$ or $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$ where $c, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are constant satisfying $(-1)^{k}\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{n}(2 c)^{k}=a^{2}$.

Before going to the proof of the theorems, we need to mention some results in the form of lemmas.
Lemma 2.8 ([2]). Let $f$ and $g$ be two non constant entire functions, $n \geq 1$ and $a(\neq 0) \in C$. If $f^{n} f^{(1)} g^{n} g^{(1)}=a^{2}$ then $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$ where $c, c_{1}, c_{2}$ are constant satisfying $\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{(n+1)} c^{2}=-a^{2}$.

Lemma 2.9 ([1]). If $f \in A$ and $k$ is a positive integer then $f^{(k)} \in A$.
Lemma 2.10 ([1]). If $f, g \in A$ and $f^{(k)}=g^{(k)}$ where $k$ is a positive integer, then $f=g$.
Lemma 2.11 ([4]). Let $f(z)$ be a non constant entire function and let $k \geq 2$ be a positive integer. If $f(z) f^{(k)}(z) \neq 0$ then $f(z)=e^{a z+b}$ where $a \neq 0, b$ are constant.

Lemma 2.12 ([10]). Suppose that $f_{1}(z), f_{2}(z), \ldots, f_{n}(z)(n \geq 2)$ are meromorphic functions and $g_{1}(z), g_{2}(z), \ldots, g_{n}(z)$ are entire functions satisfying the following conditions
(1). $\sum_{j=1}^{n} f_{j}(z) e^{g_{j}(z)}=0$.
(2). $g_{j}(z)-g_{k}(z)$ are not constant for $1 \leq j<k \leq n$,
(3). For $1 \leq j \leq n, 1 \leq h<k \leq n, T\left(r, f_{j}\right)=o\left(T\left(r, e^{g_{h}-g_{k}}\right)\right)(r \rightarrow \infty, r \notin E)$.

Then $f_{j}(z)=0(j=1,2, \ldots, n)$.
Proof of Theorem 2.5. Let $F=\frac{f^{n+1}}{n+1}$ and $G=\frac{g^{n+1}}{n+1}$. So, $F^{(1)}=f^{n} f^{(1)}$ and $G^{(1)}=g^{n} g^{(1)}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{N}(r, F)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{1}{F}\right) & =\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{f^{n+1}}{n+1}\right)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{n+1}{f^{n+1}}\right) \\
& =\bar{N}(r, f)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{1}{f}\right) \\
& =S(r, g)
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, $\bar{N}(r, G)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{1}{G}\right)=S(r, g)$. Therefore, $F, G \in A$. By Lemma 2.9, we can get $F^{(1)}, G^{(1)} \in A$. By hypothesis,we have, $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, F^{(1)}\right) \subseteq \bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, G^{(1)}\right)$ and $N_{1)}\left(r, \left.\frac{1}{G^{(1)}-a} \right\rvert\, F^{(1)} \neq a\right)=S(r, g)$. So by Theorem 2.2 we have, $F=G$ or $F^{(1)} G^{(1)}=$ $a^{2}$. The remains of the proof are in same line as the proof of Theorem 2.4.

Proof of Theorem 2.6. Let $F=f^{n}$ and $G=g^{n}$. So, $\bar{N}(r, F)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{1}{F}\right)=S(r, f)$ and $\bar{N}(r, G)+\bar{N}\left(r, \frac{1}{G}\right)=S(r, g)$. Therefore, $F, G \in A$. So, $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, F^{(k)}\right) \subseteq \bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, G^{(k)}\right)$. By Theorem (2) of 2.2, we have, $F=G$ or $F^{(k)} G^{(k)}=a^{2}$. If $F=G$ i.e., $f^{n}=g^{n}$ then $f=d g$ for some $\mathrm{n}^{\text {th }}$ root of unity $d$. If $F^{(k)} G^{(k)}=a^{2}$ i.e., $\left[f^{n}(z)\right]^{(k)}\left[g^{n}(z)\right]^{(k)}=a^{2}$. Let, $f(z)$ has a zero of multiplicity $p$ at $z_{0}$, then $z_{0}$ must be a pole of $g(z)$ of multiplicity $q($ say $)$. So, $n p-k=n q+k$ i.e., $n(p-q)=2 k$. This relation does not hold since $n>2 k$. Therefore, $f(z) \neq 0$ for any $z$ and also $g(z) \neq \infty$ for any $z$. i.e., Similarly we can say $g(z) \neq 0$ and $f(z) \neq \infty$ for any $z$. Therefore, $\left[f^{n}\right]^{(k)} \neq 0$ and $\left[g^{n}\right]^{(k)} \neq 0$. By the Lemma 2.11, for $k \geq 2$, we have $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$ where $c_{1}, c_{2}$ and $c$ are constants satisfying $c_{1}^{n} e^{n c z}(n c)^{k} c_{2}^{n} e^{-n c z}(-1)^{k}(n c)^{k}=a^{2}$ i.e., $(-1)^{k}\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{n}(n c)^{2 k}=a^{2}$. When $k=1$, we have $\left[f^{n}\right]^{(1)}\left[g^{n}\right]^{(1)}=a^{2}$ i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{2} f^{n-1} g^{n-1} f^{(1)} g^{(1)}=a^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $f$ has a zero of multiplicity $p_{1}$ at $z_{1}$. Then $z_{1}$ is a pole of multiplicity $q_{1}$ of $g$. Therefore, $(n-1) p_{1}+p_{1}-1=$ $(n-1) q_{1}+q_{1}+1$ i.e., $n\left(p_{1}-q_{1}\right)=2$. Since $n>2 k$ i.e., $n>2$. So the relation does not hold. Therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
& f(z) \neq 0 \text { and } g(z) \neq 0 \text { for any } \mathrm{z} \text { and }  \tag{2}\\
& f(z) \neq \infty \text { and } g(z) \neq \infty \text { for any } \mathrm{z} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(z)=e^{\alpha(z)} \text { and } g(z)=e^{\beta(z)} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha(z)$ and $\beta(z)$ are non constant functions. Putting these value in equation (1) we get,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{2} \alpha^{(1)} \beta^{(1)} e^{n(\alpha+\beta)}=1 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $\alpha^{(1)}$ and $\beta^{(1)}$ have no zeros and we can set $\alpha^{(1)}=e^{\delta(z)}$ and $\beta^{(1)}=e^{\gamma(z)}$ where $\delta$ and $\gamma$ are entire functions. Equation (5) reduces to, $n^{2} e^{n(\alpha+\beta)+\delta+\gamma}=1$. Differentiating we have, $n\left(\alpha^{(1)}+\beta^{(1)}+\delta^{(1)}+\gamma^{(1)}=0\right.$ i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n\left(e^{\delta}+e^{\gamma}\right)+\delta^{(1)}+\gamma^{(1)}=0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e., $n\left(e^{\delta-\gamma}+1\right) e^{\gamma}+\alpha^{(2)} e^{-\delta}+\beta^{(2)} e^{-\gamma}=0$. By Lemma 2.12, we get, $e^{\delta-\gamma}+1=0$ i.e., $e^{\delta-\gamma}=-1$ i.e., $\delta-\gamma=(2 m+1) \pi i$. So from the above equalities, we get $\delta^{(1)}=\gamma^{(1)}=0$. So, $\delta$ and $\gamma$ are constant. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{(1)} \text { and } \beta^{(1)} \text { are constant. } \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (1), (2), (3), (4) and (7) we obtain, $f(z)=c_{1} e^{c z}$ and $g(z)=c_{2} e^{-c z}$ where $c_{1}, c_{2}$ and $c$ are three constants satisfying $\left(c_{1} c_{2}\right)^{n}(2 c)^{2 k}=-a^{2}$.

Proof of Theorem 2.7. Let $F=f^{n}$ and $G=g^{n}$. So as in previous theorem we have $F, G \in A$. So we have, $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, F^{(k)}\right) \subset$ $\bar{E}_{1)}\left(a, G^{(k)}\right)$. So by Theorem 2.2, we have, $F=G$ or $F^{(k)} G^{(k)}=a^{2}$. The remains of the proof are in the same line as the proof of the Theorem 2.6.

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