# NORMAL FAMILIES AND UNIQUENESS THEOREM OF HOLOMORPHIC FUNCTIONS 

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#### Abstract

In the paper, we have two purposes. Firstly, we prove two theorems and two corollaries of normal families which improve and generalize some results of Pang and Zalcman [9], Zhang, Sun and Pang [13], Chang and Fang [2]. Secondly, we use the theory of normal families and differential equations to obtain a uniqueness theorem of entire function which is an improvement of Chang and Fang [1].


## 1. Introduction and main results

Let $f$ and $g$ denote some non-constant meromorphic functions. We say $f$ and $g$ share a value $b \mathrm{IM}(\mathrm{CM})$ if $f(z)-b=0 \Leftrightarrow g(z)-b=0(f(z)-b=0 \Leftrightarrow$ $g(z)-b=0$ counting multiplicities) (see [12]).

In 2000, X. Pang and L. Zalcman [9] proved the following famous theorem.
Theorem A. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of meromorphic functions on domain $D$, all of whose zeros are of multiplicity (at least) $k$. Suppose that there exist $a, b, c \in \mathbf{C}$ such that $b, c \neq 0$ and, for every $f \in \mathscr{F}$,

$$
\bar{E}_{f}(a)=\bar{E}_{f^{(k)}}(b) \subset \bar{E}_{f^{(k+1)}}(c) .
$$

Then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.
In 2005, G. Zhang, W. Sun and X. Pang [13] obtained a related result.
Theorem B. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain $D$, and let $h(z)$ be a function holomorphic in D such that $h(z)$ has only simple zeros. If, for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}$, we have
(a) $f(z)=0 \Leftrightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=h(z)$ and $f^{\prime}(z)=h(z) \Rightarrow\left|f^{\prime \prime}(z)\right| \leq M$, where $M$ is a positive number;
(b) $f(z)$ and $h(z)$ don't have common zeros, then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.

[^0]It's naturally to ask whether the conditions (a) and (b) can be weakened or not? We study the problem and obtain the following result.

Theorem 1. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain $D$, let $h(z)(\not \equiv 0)$ be a function holomorphic in $D$, and let $k \geq 2$ be a positive integer. If for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}$, we have
(a) $f(z)=0 \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=h(z), f^{\prime}(z)=h(z) \Rightarrow\left|f^{(k)}(z)\right| \leq M$, where $M>0$ is a constant;
(b) $\frac{f_{n}^{\prime}-h(z)}{f_{n}}$ is holomorphic in $D$, then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.

Remark 1. If in addition $f(z)$ and $h(z)$ don't have common zeros, it is easy to deduce that $\frac{f_{n}^{\prime}-h(z)}{f_{n}}$ is holomorphic in $D$. Thus, we immediately have the following corollary.

Corollary 1. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain D, let $h(z)(\not \equiv 0)$ be a function holomorphic in $D$, and let $k \geq 2$ be a positive integer. If for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}$, we have
(a) $f(z)=0 \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=h(z), f^{\prime}(z)=h(z) \Rightarrow\left|f^{(k)}(z)\right| \leq M$, where $M>0$ is a constant;
(b) $f(z)$ and $h(z)$ don't have common zeros, then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.

Clearly, Corollary 1 is an improvement of Theorem B.
Remark 2. The following example shows that there exists normal family that does not satisfy the conditions of Theorem B yet does satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1 .

Example 1. Let $\mathscr{F}=\left\{f_{n}: f_{n}=\frac{1}{n} z^{3}+z^{2}, n=2,3, \ldots\right\}$, let $D=\{z:|z|<$ $1\}$, and let $k \geq 4$ and $h(z)=2 z$. Then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$. We have

$$
f_{n}(z)=0 \Leftrightarrow f_{n}^{\prime}(z)=2 z, \quad f_{n}^{\prime}(z)=2 z \Rightarrow f_{n}^{(k)}(z)=0
$$

and $\frac{f_{n}^{\prime}-h(z)}{f_{n}}=\frac{3}{z+n}$ is holomorphic in $D$. Thus, the family satisfies the conditions of Theorem 1. But $f_{n}$ and $h(z)$ have common zeros at $z=0$, so it does not satisfies the conditions of Theorem B.

The following example shows that condition (b) of Theorem 1 is necessary.
Example 2. Let $\mathscr{F}=\left\{f_{n}: f_{n}=n z^{2}, n \in N\right\}$ and $h(z)=z$. Then $f_{n}(z)=0$ $\Rightarrow f_{n}^{\prime}(z)=z, \quad f_{n}^{\prime}(z)=z \Rightarrow f_{n}^{\prime \prime \prime}(z)=0$. But $\frac{f_{n}^{\prime}-h(z)}{f_{n}}=\frac{2 n-1}{n z}$ has a pole at
$z=0$, and indeed $\mathscr{F}$ is not normal at $z=0$.

In 2005, J. Chang and M. Fang [2] derived a theorem of normal family.
Theorem C. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain D, and let $a(z)$ be an analytic function in $D$ such that $a(z) \not \equiv a^{\prime}(z)$. If for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}, f(z)=a(z) \Leftrightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=a(z), f^{\prime}(z)=a(z) \Leftrightarrow f^{\prime \prime}(z)=a(z)$ and $f(z)-a(z)$ $=0 \rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)-a(z)=0$ in $D$, then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.

Here $f(z)-a(z)=0 \rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)-a(z)=0$ means: if $z_{0}$ is a zero of $f(z)-a(z)$ with multiplicity $n$, then $z_{0}$ is a zero of $f^{\prime}(z)-a(z)$ with multiplicity at least $n$.

From the Theorem 1, it is not difficult to deduce the following corollary.
Corollary 2. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain $D$, and let $a(z)$ be an analytic function in $D$ such that $a(z) \not \equiv a^{\prime}(z)$, and let $k \geq 2$ be an integer. If, for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}$,

$$
f(z)-a(z)=0 \rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)-a(z)=0, \quad f^{\prime}(z)-a(z)=0 \Rightarrow\left|f^{(k)}(z)\right| \leq M
$$

in $D$, where $M>0$ is a constant. Then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.
Remark 3. Let $\mathscr{G}=\{F: F=f-a, f \in \mathscr{F}\}$ and $h=a-a^{\prime}$. Then, for every $z_{0} \in D$, there exist a disc $D\left(z_{0}, r\right)=\left\{z:\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r\right\}$ such that for $z \in$ $D\left(z_{0}, r\right)$,

$$
F(z)=0 \rightarrow F^{\prime}(z)=h(z), \quad F^{\prime}(z)=h(z) \Rightarrow\left|f^{(k)}(z)\right| \leq \tilde{M},
$$

where $\tilde{M}=\tilde{M}\left(z_{0}\right)=M+\max _{z \in D\left(z_{0}, r\right)}\left|a^{(k)}(z)\right|$. Since normality is a local property, with Theorem 1, it is easy to deduce that $\mathscr{G}$ is normal in $D$. Hence, the family $\mathscr{F}$ is normal as well. In fact, Corollary 2 improves the Theorem C.

In the same paper [2], they also obtained a corollary.
Theorem D. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain $D$. If, for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}, f, f^{\prime}$ and $f^{\prime \prime}$ have the same fixed points in $D$, then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.

From Theorem 1, we deduce the following result which is an improvement of Theorem D.

Theorem 2. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of holomorphic functions in a domain D. If, for every function $f \in \mathscr{F}$, we have

$$
f(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z, \quad f^{\prime}(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime \prime}(z)=z
$$

then $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$.
In 2002, J. Chang and M. Fang [1] proved a uniqueness theorem.

Theorem E. Let $f(z)$ be a nonconstant entire function. If

$$
f(z)=z \Leftrightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z, \quad f^{\prime}(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime \prime}(z)=z
$$

then $f(z)=f^{\prime}(z)$.
Naturally, we will ask what will happen if we replace the assumption $f(z)=$ $z \Leftrightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z$ by $f(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z$. With the theory of normal family, we study the problem and find the conclusion of Theorem D still holds. In fact, we deduce the following result.

Theorem 3. Let $f(z)$ be a nonconstant entire function. If

$$
f(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z, \quad f^{\prime}(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime \prime}(z)=z
$$

then $f(z)=f^{\prime}(z)$.
Remark 4. Some ideas of the paper are based on [7].

## 2. Some lemmas

Lemma 2.1 [9]. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be a family of functions holomorphic on the unit disc, all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least $k$, and suppose that there exists $A \geq 1$ such that $\left|f^{(k)}\right| \leq A$ whenever $f=0$, then if $\mathscr{F}$ is not normal, there exist, for each $0 \leq \alpha \leq k$,
(a) a number $0<r<1$;
(b) points $z_{n}, z_{n}<1$;
(c) functions $f_{n} \in \mathscr{F}$, and
(d) positive number $\rho_{n} \rightarrow 0$ such that $\rho_{n}^{-\alpha} f_{n}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \xi\right)=g_{n}(\xi) \rightarrow g(\xi)$ locally uniformly, where $g$ is a nonconstant entire function on $\mathbf{C}$, all of whose zeros have multiplicity at least $k$, such that $g^{\sharp}(\xi) \leq g^{\sharp}(0)=k A+1$.

Here, as usual, $g^{\sharp}(\xi)=\frac{\left|g^{\prime}(\xi)\right|}{1+|g(\xi)|^{2}}$ is the spherical derivative.
Lemma 2.2 [3]. Let $g$ be a nonconstant entire function with $\rho(g) \leq 1$, let $k \geq 2$ be an integer, and let a be a nonzero finite value. If $g(z)=0 \Rightarrow g^{\prime}(z)=a$, and $g^{\prime}(z)=a \Rightarrow g^{(k)}(z)=0$, then $g(z)=a\left(z-z_{0}\right)$, where $z_{0}$ is a constant.

Lemma 2.3 [14]. If $g$ is a meromorphic function with bounded spherical derivative, then the order of $g$ is at most two.

Lemma 2.4 [6, Corollary 1]. Let $f(z)$ be a transcendental meromorphic function with $\sigma(f)=\sigma<\infty, H=\left\{\left(k_{1}, j_{1}\right),\left(k_{2}, j_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(k_{q}, j_{q}\right)\right\}$ be a finite set of distinct pairs of integers that satisfy $0 \leq j_{i}<k_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, q$. And let $\varepsilon>0$ be a given constant. Then there exists a set $E \subset[0,2 \pi)$ that has linear measure zero,
such that if $\psi \in[0,2 \pi] \backslash E$, then there is a constant $R_{0}=R_{0}(\psi)>1$ such that for all $z$ satisfying $\arg z=\psi$ and $|z| \geq R_{0}$ and for all $(k, j) \in H$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{f^{(k)}(z)}{f^{(j)}(z)}\right| \leq|z|^{(k-j)(\sigma-1+\varepsilon)} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Relying on Markushevich's book [8, see p. 253-255], we can deduce the following lemma. It also can be seen in [4].

Lemma 2.5. Let

$$
Q(z)=b_{n} z^{n}+b_{n-1} z^{n-1}+\cdots+b_{0}
$$

where $n$ is a positive integer and $b_{n}=\alpha_{n} e^{i \theta_{n}}, \alpha_{n}>0, \theta_{n} \in[0,2 \pi)$. For any given $0<\varepsilon<\frac{\pi}{4 n}$, we introduce $2 n(j=0,1, \ldots, 2 n-1)$ open angles

$$
S_{j}=\left\{r e^{i \theta}: r>0,-\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}+\varepsilon<\theta<-\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j+1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}-\varepsilon\right\}
$$

Then there exists a positive number $R=R(\varepsilon)$ such that for $|z|=r>R$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}\{Q(z)\}>\alpha_{n}(1-\varepsilon) \sin (n \varepsilon) r^{n} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $z \in S_{j}$ where $j$ is even; while

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}\{Q(z)\}<-\alpha_{n}(1-\varepsilon) \sin (n \varepsilon) r^{n} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $z \in S_{j}$ where $j$ is odd.
Proof. Suppose $z=r e^{i \theta}, b_{k}=\alpha_{k} e^{i \theta_{k}}$ and $\alpha_{k}>0, k=0,1 \ldots, n-1$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Re} Q(z) & =\alpha_{n} r^{n} \cos \left(\theta_{n}+n \theta\right)+\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \alpha_{k} r^{k} \cos \left(\theta_{k}+k \theta\right)  \tag{2.4}\\
& =\alpha_{n} r^{n}\left[\cos \left(\theta_{n}+n \theta\right)+\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\alpha_{k} \cos \left(\theta_{k}+k \theta\right)}{\alpha_{n} r^{n-k}}\right] .
\end{align*}
$$

For any $0<\varepsilon<\frac{\pi}{4 n}$, we introduce $2 n$ open angles

$$
S_{j}:-\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}+\varepsilon<\theta<-\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j+1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}-\varepsilon \quad(j=0,1, \ldots, 2 n-1) .
$$

Thus, we have

$$
(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2}+n \varepsilon<\theta_{n}+n \theta<(2 j+1) \frac{\pi}{2}-n \varepsilon \quad(j=0,1, \ldots, 2 n-1) .
$$

Furthermore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2}<(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2}+n \varepsilon<\theta_{n}+n \theta<(2 j+1) \frac{\pi}{2}-n \varepsilon<(2 j+1) \frac{\pi}{2} . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we consider into two cases.
Case 1. $j$ is even.
Then, it is not difficult to deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cos \left(\theta_{n}+n \theta\right)>\cos \left((2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2}+n \varepsilon\right)=\sin (n \varepsilon)>\cos \left((2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2}\right)=0 . \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Noting that

$$
\left.\left\lvert\, \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\alpha_{k} \cos \left(\theta_{k}+k \theta\right)}{\alpha_{n} r^{n-k}}\right.\right] \mid \rightarrow 0, \quad \text { as } r \rightarrow \infty,
$$

we deduce that there exists a positive number $R=R(\varepsilon)$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\left\lvert\, \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\alpha_{k} \cos \left(\theta_{k}+k \theta\right)}{\alpha_{n} r^{n-k}}\right.\right] \mid<\varepsilon \sin (n \varepsilon), \quad \text { if } r>R \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (2.4), (2.6) and (2.7) yields that there exists a positive number $R=R(\varepsilon)$ such that for $|z|=r>R$,

$$
\operatorname{Re}\{Q(z)\}>\alpha_{n}(1-\varepsilon) \sin (n \varepsilon) r^{n} .
$$

Case 2. $j$ is odd.
With the similar way, we can obtain that there exists a positive number $R=R(\varepsilon)$ such that for $|z|=r>R$,

$$
\operatorname{Re}\{Q(z)\}<-\alpha_{n}(1-\varepsilon) \sin (n \varepsilon) r^{n} .
$$

Thus, we finish the proof of this lemma.
With the idea in [4], we deduce the following result.
Lemma 2.6. Let $P(z)(\not \equiv 0), H(z)(\not \equiv 0)$ and $Q(z)$ be three polynomials with that $Q(z)$ is nonconstant. Then, every entire solution $F(z)$ of the following differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
F^{\prime}(z)-P(z) e^{Q(z)} F(z)=H(z) \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

has infinite order.
Proof. Obviously, $F(z)$ is transcendental. Now, we suppose that $F(z)$ is of finite order, we will deduce that $F(z)$ is a polynomial. By Lemma 2.4, we see
that there exists a set $E \subset[0,2 \pi)$ that has linear measure zero, such that for any ray $\arg z=\theta \in[0,2 \pi] \backslash E$ and any given $0<\varepsilon<1$, there is a $R(>0)$, as $r>R$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{F^{\prime}\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}\right| \leq r^{\sigma(F)-1+\varepsilon} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Set $\operatorname{deg} H(z)=h$ and $Q(z)=b_{n} z^{n}+\cdots+b_{0}$, where $n$ is a positive integer and $b_{n}=\alpha_{n} e^{i \theta_{n}}, \quad \alpha_{n}>0, \theta_{n} \in[0, \pi)$. By Lemma 2.5 , we know that if $\theta \neq-\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+$ $(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}(j=0, \ldots, 2 n-1)$, as $r$ sufficiency large, we have

$$
\operatorname{Re}\{Q(z)\}>\alpha_{n \theta} r^{n} \quad \text { or } \quad \operatorname{Re}\{Q(z)\}<-\alpha_{n \theta} r^{n}
$$

where $\alpha_{n \theta}>0$ is a constant.
Now, we take

$$
\arg z=\theta \in[0,2 \pi)\rangle\left(E \cup\left[\bigcup_{j=0}^{2 n-1}\left\{\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}\right\}\right]\right)
$$

By (2.8), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{F^{\prime}\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}-P\left(r e^{i \theta}\right) e^{Q\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}=\frac{H\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\operatorname{Re}\left\{Q\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)\right\}>\alpha_{n \theta} r^{n}$, from (2.9), we see that as $r \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{F^{\prime}\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}\right| \frac{1}{r^{\sigma(F)+h+1}} \rightarrow 0, \quad\left|\frac{H\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{r^{\sigma(F)+h+1}}\right| \rightarrow 0, \quad\left|\frac{P(z) e^{Q\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}}{r^{\sigma(F)+h+1}}\right| \rightarrow \infty \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.10) and (2.11), we see that as $r \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)\right| \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\operatorname{Re}\left\{Q\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)\right\}<-\alpha_{n \theta} r^{n}$, by (2.8) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
1-\frac{F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{F^{\prime}\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)} P\left(r e^{i \theta}\right) e^{Q\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}=\frac{H\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)}{F^{\prime}\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let

$$
M\left(r, F^{\prime}, \theta\right)=\max \left\{\left|F^{\prime}(z)\right|: 0 \leq|z| \leq r, \arg z=\theta\right\}
$$

We claim that

$$
\left|F^{\prime}(z)\right|=o\left(|z|^{h+1}\right)
$$

as $r \rightarrow \infty$ for all $z=r e^{i \theta}$.
Otherwise, there exists a positive number $M_{1}$ and an infinite sequence of points $z_{n}=r_{n} e^{i \theta}$ satisfying $r_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ and

$$
\left|F^{\prime}\left(r_{n} e^{i \theta}\right)\right|=M\left(r_{n}, F^{\prime}, \theta\right)>M_{1}\left|z_{n}\right|^{h+1}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{H\left(z_{n}\right)}{F^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)}\right| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } r_{n} \rightarrow \infty \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
F\left(z_{n}\right)=F\left(z_{1}\right)+\int_{z_{1}}^{z_{n}} F^{\prime}(\omega) d \omega,
$$

it is easy to deduce

$$
\left|F\left(z_{n}\right)\right| \leq\left|F\left(z_{1}\right)\right|+\left|F^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)\right|\left|z_{n}\right| .
$$

Dividing $\left|F^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)\right|$ on both sides of the above inequality yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{F\left(z_{n}\right)}{F^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)}\right| \leq(1+o(1))\left|z_{n}\right| \quad \text { as } r_{n} \rightarrow \infty . \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.15) and the fact $\operatorname{Re}\left\{Q\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)\right\}<-\alpha_{n \theta} r^{n}$, we deduce

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{F\left(z_{n}\right)}{F^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)} P\left(z_{n}\right) e^{Q\left(z_{n}\right)}\right| \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

which, together with (2.13) and (2.14), implies a contradiction. Thus, the claim is proved.

From the claim, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|F(z)|=o\left(|z|^{h+2}\right) \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $r \rightarrow \infty$ for all $z=r e^{i \theta}$, where $M_{2}$ is a positive number.
In view of (2.12) and (2.17), it is obvious that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|F\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)\right|=o\left(r^{h+2}\right) \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $r \rightarrow \infty$ for each $\theta \in[0,2 \pi) \backslash\left(E \cup\left[\bigcup_{j=0}^{2 n-1}\left\{\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}\right\}\right]\right)$, where $M$ is a
positive integer.
The facts that the linear measure of $E \cup\left[\bigcup_{j=0}^{2 n-1}\left\{\frac{\theta_{n}}{n}+(2 j-1) \frac{\pi}{2 n}\right\}\right]$ equal to 0 and $F$ is of finite order, together with (2.18) and Phragmén-Lindelöf theorem yield $F$ is a polynomial. It is a contradiction.

## 3. Proof of Theorem $\mathbf{1}$

In the following, we prove Theorem 1 with the method of J. Grahl and Meng C. in [7].

Since normality is a local property, it is enough to show that $\mathscr{F}$ is normal at each $z_{0} \in D$. We distinguish two cases.

CASE 1. $h\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0$.

Then, there exists a disc (which we may assume to be $\Delta$ ) contained in $D$, on which $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is not normal, $h(z) \neq 0$ and $|h(z)| \leq M>1$, where $M$ is a positive number. Thus, $f_{n}=0$ implies that $\left|f_{n}^{\prime}\right|=|h| \leq M$.

Taking an appropriate subsequence of $f_{n}$ and renumbering, we have, by Lemma 2.1 (with $\alpha=k=1$ and $A=M$ ), points $z_{n} \rightarrow z_{0}\left(\left|z_{n}\right|<r<1\right)$ and numbers $\rho_{n} \rightarrow 0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{f_{n}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right)}{\rho_{n}}=g_{n}(\zeta) \rightarrow g(\zeta) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

locally uniformly, where $g$ is a nonconstant entire function on $\mathbf{C}$ satisfying $\rho(g) \leq 1$ and

$$
g^{\sharp}(\zeta) \leq g^{\sharp}(0)=M+1 .
$$

We claim:

$$
g(\zeta)=0 \Rightarrow g^{\prime}(\zeta)=h\left(z_{0}\right), \quad g^{\prime}(\zeta)=h\left(z_{0}\right) \Rightarrow g^{(k)}(\zeta)=0
$$

From (3.1), it is easy to derive that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}^{\prime}(\zeta)=f_{n}^{\prime}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right) \rightarrow g^{\prime}(\zeta) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}^{(k)}(\zeta)=\rho_{n}^{k-1} f_{n}^{(k)}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right) \rightarrow g^{(k)}(\zeta) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The (3.2) leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{n}^{\prime}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right)-h\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right) \rightarrow g^{\prime}(\zeta)-h\left(z_{0}\right) \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $g\left(a_{0}\right)=0$, then by Hurwitz's theorem, there exists a sequence $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ such that $a_{n} \rightarrow a_{0}$ and (for $n$ sufficiently large) $f_{n}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} a_{n}\right)=0$. With the assumption, we have $f_{n}^{\prime}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} a_{n}\right)=h\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} a_{n}\right)$. Thus

$$
g^{\prime}\left(a_{0}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f_{n}^{\prime}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} a_{n}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} h\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} a_{n}\right)=h\left(z_{0}\right)
$$

which implies that $g(\zeta)=0 \Rightarrow g^{\prime}(\zeta)=h\left(z_{0}\right)$.
Now suppose that $g^{\prime}\left(b_{0}\right)=h\left(z_{0}\right)$. We assume that $g^{\prime}(z) \not \equiv h\left(z_{0}\right)$. Otherwise, $g(z)=h\left(z_{0}\right)(z-b), b$ is a constant. Therefore, $g^{\sharp}(z) \leq g^{\sharp}(0) \leq\left|h\left(z_{0}\right)\right|<$ $M+1$, a contradiction. Since $g^{\prime}\left(b_{0}\right)=h\left(z_{0}\right)$ and $g^{\prime} \not \equiv h\left(z_{0}\right)$, by Hurwitz's theorem and (3.4), there exist a sequence $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ such that $b_{n} \rightarrow b_{0}$ and (for $n$ sufficiently large)

$$
f_{n}^{\prime}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} b_{n}\right)-h\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} b_{n}\right)=0 .
$$

Furthermore, with (3.3) we deduce that

$$
g^{(k)}\left(b_{0}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho_{n}^{k-1} f_{n}^{(k)}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} b_{n}\right)=0
$$

Thus, we have shown that $g^{\prime}(z)=h\left(z_{0}\right) \Rightarrow g^{(k)}(z)=0$. This completes the proof of the claim.

By Lemma 2.2 and the claim, we obtain $g(z)=h\left(z_{0}\right)\left(z-b_{1}\right)$, where $b_{1}$ is a constant. But, we have $g^{\sharp}(0) \leq\left|h\left(z_{0}\right)\right|<M+1$, a contradiction.

CASE 2. $h\left(z_{0}\right)=0$.
Since $h(z) \not \equiv 0$, there exists a $r$ such that $h(z) \neq 0$ in $D^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, r\right)=\{z: 0<$ $\left.\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r\right\}$. Then, Case 1 implies that $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, r\right)$. Then for any sequence $\left\{f_{n}\right\} \subset \mathscr{F}$, there exist a subsequence $\left\{f_{n, j}\right\}$ such that $\left\{f_{n, j}\right\}$ converges locally uniformly to a function $H$ in $D^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, r\right)$, where $H$ is either holomorphic or identically infinite in $D^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, r\right)$.

Case 2.1. $H$ is holomorphic in $D^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, r\right)$.
Then there exists a positive number $M_{1}$ such that $|H(z)| \leq M_{1}$ on $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=$ $r / 2$. It follows that $\left|f_{n, j}(z)\right| \leq 2 M_{1}$ on $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r / 2$ for large $j$. By the maximum principle, we have $\left|f_{n, j}(z)\right| \leq 2 M_{1}$ in $D\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)=\left\{z:\left|z-z_{0}\right| \leq\right.$ $r / 2\}$. Then $H$ is bounded in $D\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)$, and $H$ extends to be holomorphic in $D\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)$. Again by the maximum principle, we get $f_{n, j}(z) \rightarrow H(z)$ in $D\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)$.

CASE 2.2. $H \equiv \infty$.
Note that $f_{n, j}(z) \rightarrow \infty$ on $\Gamma:=\left\{z:\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r / 2\right\}$. Thus we have (for sufficiently large $n$ )

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\int_{\Gamma} \frac{h(z)}{f_{n, j}(z)} d z\right| \leq \pi . \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know

$$
\frac{f_{n, j}^{\prime}-h(z)}{f_{n, j}}
$$

is holomorphic in $D\left(z_{0}, r\right)$. Thus by Cauchy's Theorem, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Gamma} \frac{f_{n, j}^{\prime}(z)-h(z)}{f_{n, j}(z)} d z=0 \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

By $n\left(\Gamma, f_{n, j}\right)$ we denote the number of zeros of $f_{n, j}$ in $D_{2}=\left\{z:\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\right.$ $r / 2\}$ counting multiplicities. By the argument principle (3.5) and (3.6) (for sufficiently large $n$ ), we get

$$
n\left(\Gamma, f_{n, j}\right)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{f_{n, j}^{\prime}(z)}{f_{n, j}(z)} d z=\frac{1}{2 \pi}\left|\int_{\Gamma} \frac{h(z)}{f_{n, j}(z)} d z\right| \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

hence

$$
n\left(\Gamma, f_{n, j}\right)=0 .
$$

So $f_{n, j}$ has no zeros in $D\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)$. Thus, $\frac{1}{f_{n, j}}$ is holomorphic and $\frac{1}{f_{n, j}} \rightarrow 0$ on $D^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)$. Similarly as Case 2.1 , we can get $f_{n, j}(z) \rightarrow \infty$ in $D\left(z_{0}, r / 2\right)$.

From the above discussion, we get $\mathscr{F}$ is normal at $z_{0}$. Hence, we complete the proof of the Theorem 1 .

## 4. Proof of Theorem 2

From the assumption of Theorem 2, for each $f \in \mathscr{F}$ we have

$$
f(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z, \quad f^{\prime}(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime \prime}(z)=z
$$

Let $F=f(z)-z$, then

$$
F(z)=0 \Rightarrow F^{\prime}(z)=z-1, \quad F^{\prime}(z)=z-1 \Rightarrow F^{\prime \prime}(z)=z
$$

Suppose that $a_{0}$ is a zero of $F(z)$.
If $a_{0} \neq 1$, then $a_{0}$ is a simple zero of $F(z)$. Suppose that $G=F^{\prime}-(z-1)$, then $a_{0}$ is also a zero of $G(z)$.

If $a_{0}=1$, then $F^{\prime}\left(a_{0}\right)=a_{0}-1=0$ and $F^{\prime \prime}\left(a_{0}\right)=a_{0}=1$, which indicates that $a_{0}$ is a zero of $F(z)$ with multiplicity 2 . Note that $G\left(a_{0}\right)=0$ and $G^{\prime}\left(a_{0}\right)=$ $F^{\prime \prime}\left(a_{0}\right)-1=0$, we know that $a_{0}$ is a zero of $G(z)$ with multiplicity at least 2 .

By the above discussion, we obtain

$$
\frac{G(z)}{F(z)}=\frac{F^{\prime}-(z-1)}{F(z)}
$$

is holomorphic in $D$. Thus, the family $\mathscr{G}=\{F: F=f-z, f \in \mathscr{F}\}$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 1. By Theorem 1, we get $\mathscr{G}$ is normal in $D$. Hence $\mathscr{F}$ is normal in $D$. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 3

We consider the function $F=\frac{f}{z}$.
Case 1. $F$ has bounded spherical derivative.
Then by Lemma 2.3, $F$ has finite order. Hence $f=F z$ has finite order as well.

Let $h=f-z$, then $h$ has finite order and

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=0 \Rightarrow h^{\prime}=z-1, \quad h^{\prime}=z-1 \Rightarrow h^{\prime \prime}=z . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu=\frac{z h^{\prime}-(z-1) h^{\prime \prime}}{h} \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $\mu \equiv 0$, then $z h^{\prime}=(z-1) h^{\prime \prime}$. Integrating the differential equation yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime}=A(z-1) e^{z} \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=A(z-2) e^{z}+B \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A \neq 0$ and $B$ are two constants. With (5.1), (5.3) and (5.4), it is not different to obtain a contradiction. Thus, $\mu \not \equiv 0$.

Now, we consider the equation (5.2). It is easy to see that

$$
\begin{align*}
m(r, \mu) & =m\left(r, \frac{z h^{\prime}-(z-1) h^{\prime \prime}}{h}\right)  \tag{5.5}\\
& \leq m\left(r, \frac{z h^{\prime}}{h}\right)+m\left(r, \frac{(z-1) h^{\prime \prime}}{h}\right)+O(1) \leq O(\log r)
\end{align*}
$$

Next we discuss the poles of $\mu$. From (5.1) we obtain $h$ has at most one zero which is multiple, at $z=1$. And the points which are the simple zeros of $h$ are not poles of $\mu$. Then we derive that

$$
\begin{equation*}
N(r, \mu)=N\left(r, \frac{z h^{\prime}-(z-1) h^{\prime \prime}}{h}\right) \leq O(\log r) . \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (5.5) and (5.6) yields

$$
T(r, \mu)=m(r, \mu)+N(r, \mu)=O(\log r)
$$

which implies that $\mu$ is a rational function.
We denote by $N\left(r, h^{\prime}-(z-1) ; h \neq 0\right)$ the counting function of those 0 points of $h^{\prime}-(z-1)$, counted according to multiplicity, which are not the 0 points of $h$. Because of $\mu$ is a rational function we get $N\left(r, \frac{1}{\mu}\right)=O(\log r)$.
Furthermore, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
N\left(r, h^{\prime}-(z-1) ; h \neq 0\right) \leq N\left(r, \frac{1}{\mu}\right)+O(\log r)=O(\log r) \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Put

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi=\frac{h^{\prime}-(z-1)}{h} . \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $\phi \equiv 0$, then $h^{\prime}(z)=z-1$. But from (5.1) we know that $h^{\prime}(z)=$ $z-1$ implies $h^{\prime \prime}=z$, and this is a contradiction. Thus, $\phi \not \equiv 0$. In the following, we discuss the zeros and poles of $\phi$.

We know $h$ has at most one multiple zero.
If $z=1$ is not a zero of $h$, then $h$ has only simple zeros. Thus, $\phi$ does not has poles and $\phi$ is an entire function.

If $z=1$ is a zero of $h$, then $h^{\prime}(1)=z-1=0$ and $h^{\prime \prime}(1)=1$. Thus, $z=1$ is a zero of $h$ with multiplicity 2 . Meanwhile, $z=1$ is a zero of $h^{\prime}-(z-1)$. So, $h^{\prime \prime}(1)-1=0$, which implies that $z=1$ is a zero of $h^{\prime}-(z-1)$ with multiplicity at least 2. It also yields that $\phi$ is an entire function.

Thus, we deduce that $\phi$ is an entire function. From (5.1) we obtain $h^{\prime}-(z-1)$ has at most one multiple zero at $z=1$. It follows from (5.7) and $(5.8)$ that $N\left(r, \frac{1}{\phi}\right)=O(\log r)$ and $\phi$ has only finitely many zeros. Hence we
can assume that

$$
\phi=P(z) e^{Q(z)}
$$

where $P(z) \not \equiv 0$ and $Q(z)$ are two polynomials. From (5.8), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime}-P(z) e^{Q(z)} h=z-1 \tag{5.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Noting that $h$ is of finite order, by Lemma 2.6, we can easily deduce that $Q(z)=C$, a constant. Let $P_{1}(z)=e^{C} P(z)$. Rewriting (5.9) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime}-P_{1}(z) h=z-1 \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we discuss the equation $(5.10)$ by considering two subcases.
CASE 1.1. $h$ has infinite many zeros.
Let $\left\{z_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of complex numbers with $h\left(z_{n}\right)=0$ and $\left|z_{n}\right| \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It is clear from (5.1) that

$$
h^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)=z_{n}-1 \quad \text { and } \quad h^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{n}\right)=z_{n}
$$

By differentiating both sides of Eq. (5.10), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime \prime}-P_{1}^{\prime}(z) h-P_{1}(z) h^{\prime}=1 \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substitute $z_{n}$ into Eq. (5.11) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{n}-P_{1}\left(z_{n}\right)\left(z_{n}-1\right) \equiv 1 \tag{5.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{1}(z)\right) \geq 1$, the left side of Eq. (5.12) $z_{n}-P_{1}\left(z_{n}\right)\left(z_{n}-1\right) \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, this is a contradiction. Thus, $P_{1}(z)$ is a constant. Again by (5.12), we obtain $P_{1}=1$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime}-h=z-1 \tag{5.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

which implies that $f \equiv f^{\prime}$.
CASE 1.2. $h$ has finitely many zeros.
Then we can set $h(z)=P_{2}(z) e^{Q_{2}(z)}$, where $P_{2}(z)$ and $Q_{2}(z)$ are two polynomials. Substituting $h$ into Eq. (5.10) yields that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[P_{2}^{\prime}+P_{2} Q_{2}^{\prime}-P_{1} P_{2}\right] e^{Q_{2}(z)}=z-1 \tag{5.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the above equation, it is obvious that $Q_{2}(z)$ is a constant and $h$ is a polynomial. Let $Q_{2}=C_{1}$. Rewriting (5.14) as $e^{C_{1}}\left(P_{2}^{\prime}-P_{1} P_{2}\right)=z-1$. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{2}^{\prime}-P_{1} P_{2}\right)=1
$$

Suppose $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{1}\right) \geq 1$, then $P_{2}$ is a constant and $h$ is a constant, which is a contradiction. Thus, $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{1}\right)=0$ and $P_{1}$ is a constant. Again by $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{2}^{\prime}-P_{1} P_{2}\right)$
$=1$, we derive that $\operatorname{deg} P_{2}=1$. Thus, $\operatorname{deg} h=1$. Furthermore, we can assume that $h(z)=A_{2}\left(z-B_{2}\right)$, where $A_{2} \neq 0, B_{2}$ are two constants. By (5.1), it is not difficult that $A_{2}=-1$ and $B_{2}=0$. Thus, $h(z)=-z$ and $f \equiv 0$, which is a contradiction. Hence, we finish the proof of Case 1.

CASE 2. $F$ has unbounded spherical derivative.
Next, with a similar way in [7], we will prove this case cannot occur.
From the assumption of Case 2, there exists a sequence $\left(w_{n}\right)_{n}$ such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} F^{\sharp}\left(w_{n}\right)=\infty$. Since $F^{\sharp}$ is continuous and bounded in every compact set, so $w_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Let $D=\{z:|z| \geq 1\}$, then $F$ is analytic in $D$. We may assume $\left|w_{n}\right| \geq 2$ for all $n$. We define $D_{1}=\{z:|z|<1\}$ and

$$
F_{n}(z)=F\left(w_{n}+z\right) .
$$

Then all $F_{n}(z)$ are analytic in $D_{1}$ and $F_{n}^{\sharp}(0)=F^{\sharp}\left(w_{n}\right) \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It follows from Marty's criterion that $\left(F_{n}\right)_{n}$ is not normal at $z=0$.

Assume that $F_{n}\left(z_{0}\right)=1$ for some $z_{0} \in D_{1}$. Then for $n$ large enough, we have

$$
\left|F_{n}^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)\right|=\left|\frac{f^{\prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{0}\right)}{w_{n}+z_{0}}-\frac{f\left(w_{n}+z_{0}\right)}{\left(w_{n}+z_{0}\right)^{2}}\right|=\left|1-\frac{1}{w_{n}+z_{0}}\right| \leq 2 .
$$

Therefore, we can apply Lemma 2.1 with $\alpha=1$. Choosing an appropriate subsequence of $\left(F_{n}\right)_{n}$ if necessary, we may assume that there exist sequence $\left(z_{n}\right)_{n} \in D_{1}$ and $\left(\rho_{n}\right)_{n}$ such that $z_{n} \rightarrow 0, \rho_{n} \rightarrow 0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}(\zeta)=\rho_{n}^{-1}\left(F_{n}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right)-1\right)=\rho_{n}^{-1}\left(\frac{f\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta}-1\right) \rightarrow g(\zeta) \tag{5.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

locally uniformly in $\mathbf{C}$ with $g$ is a nonconstant entire function. We also have $g^{\sharp}(\zeta) \leq g^{\sharp}(0)=3$ for all $\zeta \in \mathbf{C}$ and $\rho(g) \leq 1$. We claim that

$$
g=0 \Rightarrow g^{\prime}=1, \quad g^{\prime}=1 \Rightarrow g^{\prime \prime}=0 .
$$

From (5.15), we deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{n}(\zeta)=\frac{f^{\prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta}=g_{n}^{\prime}(\xi)+\frac{\rho_{n} g_{n}(\zeta)+1}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta} \rightarrow g^{\prime}(\zeta) \tag{5.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

locally uniformly in $\mathbf{C}$.
Suppose that $g\left(\zeta_{0}\right)=0$. Then by Hurwitz's theorem, there exist a sequence $\left\{\zeta_{n}\right\}$ such that $\zeta_{n} \rightarrow \zeta_{0}$ and (for $n$ sufficiently large)

$$
g_{n}\left(\zeta_{n}\right)=\rho_{n}^{-1}\left(F_{n}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}\right)-1\right)=0 .
$$

Thus $F_{n}\left(z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}\right)=1$ and $f\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}\right)=w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}$. It follows from the assumption that

$$
\frac{f^{\prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}}=1 .
$$

Thus, by (5.16) we derive that

$$
g^{\prime}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{\prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta_{n}}=1
$$

which implies that $g(\zeta)=0 \Rightarrow g^{\prime}(\zeta)=1$. Next we prove $g^{\prime}(\zeta)=1 \Rightarrow g^{\prime \prime}(\zeta)=$ 0 . Again by (5.16), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{n} \frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta}=G_{n}^{\prime}(\zeta)+\rho_{n} \frac{G_{n}(\zeta)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta} \rightarrow g^{\prime \prime}(\zeta) . \tag{5.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that $g^{\prime}\left(\eta_{0}\right)=1$. Obviously $g^{\prime} \not \equiv 1$, for otherwise $g^{\sharp}(0) \leq g^{\prime}(0)=1<3$, which is a contradiction. Again by Hurwitz's theorem, there exist a sequence $\left\{\eta_{n}\right\}, \eta_{n} \rightarrow \eta_{0}$ and (for $n$ sufficiently large)

$$
\frac{f^{\prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}}=1 .
$$

Thus $f^{\prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}\right)=w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}$. By the assumption, we have $f^{\prime \prime}\left(w_{n}+\right.$ $\left.z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}\right)=w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}$. Then

$$
g^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{0}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho_{n} \frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}\right)}{w_{n}+z_{n}+\rho_{n} \eta_{n}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho_{n}=0
$$

Thus we prove the claim. By Lemma 2.2 an the claim, we get $g=\zeta-b$, where $b$ is a constant. Thus we have $g^{\sharp}(0) \leq 1<3$, a contradiction. So the case cannot occur.

Hence, we complete the proof of Theorem 3.
For further study, we propose the following questions.
Question 1. Let $f(z)$ be a nonconstant entire function and $k \geq 2$ be a positive integer. If

$$
f(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=z, \quad f^{\prime}(z)=z \Rightarrow f^{(k)}(z)=z
$$

what will happen?
Question 2. Let $f(z)$ be a nonconstant entire function and $Q(z)$ be a nonzero polynomial. If

$$
f(z)=Q(z) \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z)=Q(z), \quad f^{\prime}(z)=Q(z) \Rightarrow f^{\prime \prime}(z)=Q(z)
$$

what will happen?
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