## **ON ULTRAHYPERELLIPTIC SURFACES**

## By Mitsuru Ozawa

§1. Let *R* be an open Riemann surfaces. Let  $\mathfrak{M}(R)$  be a family of non-constant meromorphic functions on *R*. Let *f* be a member of  $\mathfrak{M}(R)$ . Let P(f) be the number of Picard's exceptional values of *f*, where we say  $\alpha$  a Picard's value of *f* when  $\alpha$  is not taken by *f* on *R*. Let P(R) be a quantity defined by

$$\sup_{f\in\mathfrak{M}(R)}P(f).$$

In general  $P(R) \ge 2$ . In [4] we showed that this was an important quantity belonging to R for a criterion of non-existence of analytic mapping.

Now let R be an ultrahyperelliptic surface, which is a proper existence domain of a two-valued algebroid function  $\sqrt{g(z)}$  with an entire function g(z) of z whose zeros are all simple and are infinite in number. Then by Selberg's generalization of Nevanlinna's theory we have  $P(R) \leq 4$ . Further we showed that P(R) was equal to 2 in almost all cases of ultrahyperelliptic surfaces, that is, we had the following result: If g(z) is of non-integral finite order, then P(R)=2. In the present paper we shall establish the existence of an ultrahyperelliptic surface R with P(R)=3. The existence of the surfaces with P(R)=4 for our purpose. We do not give any characterization of the ultrahyperelliptic surfaces with P(R)=3.

§2. A lemma on the number of simple zeros of the function  $e^{h(z)} - \nu$ . In the sequel we need a property of the function  $e^{h} - \nu$  on the number of simple zeros several times. Let  $T, m, N, N_1, \overline{N}$  and S be the quantities defined in Nevanlinna's theory [3]. Let  $N_2(r; a, f)$  and  $\overline{N}_1(r; a, f)$  be the N-functions with respect to the simple *a*-points and to the multiple *a*-points of the indicated function f, which is counted only once, respectively.

LEMMA. Let h be an arbitrary given entire function of z. Then we have

$$\overline{\lim_{r\to\infty}} \frac{N_2(r; \nu, e^h)}{T(r; e^h)} = 1$$

for every non-zero constant v.

Proof. By Nevanlinna's second fundamental theorem we have

$$T(r, e^{h}) < N(r; 0, e^{h}) + N(r; \infty, e^{h}) + N(r; \nu, e^{h}) - N_{1}(r; e^{h}) + S(r),$$
  
$$S(r) < O(\log r T(r, e^{h}))$$

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with some suitable exceptional intervals. In this case  $N(r; 0, e^h) = N(r; \infty, e^h) = 0$ . On the other hand we have

$$m(r, h') = m(r, h'e^{h}/e^{h}) = O(\log rT(r, e^{h}))$$

with some exceptional intervals. Since h' is an entire function, we have

$$T(r, h') = m(r, h').$$

Thus we have

$$N(r; 0, h') \leq T(r, h') = O(\log rT(r, e^{h})).$$

However we have

$$N_1(r; e^h) = N(r; 0, h').$$

Since there are relations

$$N(r; \nu, e^h) - \bar{N}(r; \nu, e^h) = N_1(r; \nu, e^h) \leq N_1(r; e^h),$$

we have

$$\overline{N}_1(r; \nu, e^h) \leq N_1(r; \nu, e^h) = O(\log rT(r, e^h)).$$

Therefore by the second fundamental theorem we have

$$\overline{\lim_{r\to\infty}}\frac{N(r; \nu, e^h) - N_1(r; \nu, e^h) - \overline{N}_1(r; \nu, e^h)}{T(r, e^h)} = 1.$$

Thus we have

$$\overline{\lim_{r\to\infty}}\frac{N_2(r; \nu, e^h)}{T(r, e^h)} = 1,$$

which is the desired result: If h is a polynomial, then our result is evident.

§3. We shall here give a characterization of R with P(R)=4 by the form of defining function g(z). Suppose that P(R)=4. Then there is a two-valued entire algebroid function f of z which is regular on R and whose defining equation is

$$F(z, f) \equiv f^2 - 2f_1(z)f + f_1(z)^2 - f_2(z)^2g(z) = 0$$

with two single-valued entire functions  $f_1(z)$  and  $f_2(z)$  of z. Further we may assume that 0, 1, a and  $\infty$  are four Picard's values of f. Then, by Rémoundos' reasoning of his celebrated generalization of Picard's theorem [6] pp. 25–27, we have three possibilities:

$$\begin{pmatrix} F(z, 0) \\ F(z, 1) \\ F(z, a) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ \beta_1 e^{H_1} \\ \beta_2 e^{H_2} \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 e^{H_1} \\ c \\ \beta_2 e^{H_2} \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 e^{H_1} \\ \beta_2 e^{H_2} \\ c \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  are non-zero constants and  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  are two entire functions of z satisfying  $H_1(0)=H_2(0)=0$  and being non-constant functions.

In the first case we have

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$$\begin{cases} f_1^2 - f_2^2 g = c \\ 1 - 2f_1 + f_1^2 - f_2^2 g = \beta_1 e^{H_1} \\ a^2 - 2af_1 + f_1^2 - f_2^2 g = \beta_2 e^{H_2}, \end{cases}$$

Then we have

 $(a-c)(1-a)=a\beta_1e^{H_1}-\beta_2e^{H_2}$ .

On the other hand the impossibility of an identity of the form

$$A_1e^{H_1} + A_2e^{H_2} = A_3,$$

where  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$  and  $A_3$  are constants, when  $A_3 \neq 0$ , is equivalent to Picard's theorem. This is nothing but Borel's formulation of Picard's theorem [1], [2]. Thus we have a=c, since  $a \neq 1$ . Simultaneously we have  $a\beta_1 = \beta_2$  and  $H_1 \equiv H_2$ . Then we have

$$(1-a)^2 - 2(1+a)\beta_1 e^{H_1} + \beta_1^2 e^{2H_1} = 4f_2^2 g.$$

Let b be a zero of g(z), then we have

$$(1-a)^2 - 2(1+a)\beta_1 e^{H_1(b)} + \beta_1^2 e^{2H_1(b)} = 0,$$

that is,

$$\beta_1 e^{H_1(b)} = 1 + a \pm \sqrt{a}$$
.

Thus we have

$$4f_{2}^{2}g = (\beta_{1}e^{H_{1}} - \beta_{1}e^{H_{1}(b)})(\beta_{1}e^{H_{1}} + \beta_{1}e^{H_{1}(b)} - 2 - 2a)$$
  
=  $\beta_{1}^{2}(e^{H_{1}} - \gamma)(e^{H_{1}} - \delta),$   
 $\gamma = (1 + \sqrt{a})^{2}/\beta_{1}, \qquad \delta = (1 - \sqrt{a})^{2}/\beta_{1}.$ 

Since  $a \neq 0, 1$ , we have  $\gamma \delta \neq 0$  and  $\gamma \neq \delta$ . Then g(z) is equal to an expression of the following form:

$$\frac{(e^{H_1}-\gamma)(e^{H_1}-\delta)}{U^2},$$

where U(z) is an entire function of z which is defined in the following manner: If the function  $e^{H_1} - \gamma$  has a point z as its zero of multiplicity 2n or 2n+1, then the function V has the point z as a zero of multiplicity n. Similarly we shall define a function W for  $e^{H_1} - \delta$ . Then we put U = VW. Thus we have

$$f_2 = \pm \frac{\beta_1}{2} U, \quad f_1 = \frac{1+a}{2} - \frac{\beta_1}{2} e^{H_1}.$$

Therefore we finally have

$$f = \frac{1+a}{2} - \frac{\beta_1}{2} e^{H_1} \pm \frac{\beta_1}{2} \sqrt{(e^{H_1} - \gamma)(e^{H_1} - \delta)},$$

Hence the surface R is defined by an equation of the form

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$$y^2 = (e^{H_1(x)} - \gamma)(e^{H_1(x)} - \delta)/U^2(x),$$

 $\gamma \delta \neq 0$ ,  $\gamma \neq \delta$ .

In the second case we have similarly a representation

$$f = \frac{a}{2} + \frac{\beta_1}{2} e^{H_1} \pm \frac{\beta_1}{2} \sqrt{(e^{H_1} - \gamma')(e^{H_1} - \delta')},$$
  
$$\gamma' = (1 + \sqrt{1 - a})^2 / \beta_1, \quad \delta' = (1 - \sqrt{1 - a})^2 / \beta_1, \quad \gamma' \delta' \neq 0, \quad \gamma' \neq \delta'$$

and a defining equation of R with an entire function U defined quite similarly

$$y^2 = (e^{H_1(x)} - \gamma')(e^{H_1(x)} - \delta')/U^2(x).$$

In the third case we have a representation

$$f = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\beta_1}{2a} e^{H_1} \pm \frac{\beta_1}{2\sqrt{a}} \sqrt{(e^{H_1} - \gamma'')(e^{H_1} - \delta'')},$$
  
$$\gamma'' = -a(1 - 2a + \sqrt{(1 - 3a)(1 - a)}), \, \delta'' = -a(1 - 2a - \sqrt{(1 - 3a)(1 - a)}).$$

Since  $a \neq 0$ , we have  $\gamma''\delta'' \neq 0$ . If  $\gamma''=\delta''$ , then a=1/3, since  $a \neq 1$ . If a=1/3, then f is reduced to a single-valued entire function and hence P(f)=2, which may be omitted. Thus we have  $\gamma'' \neq \delta''$ . Hence we have the defining equation of R

$$y^2 = (e^{H_1(x)} - \gamma'')(e^{H_1(x)} - \delta'')/U(x)^2.$$

Here we should remark that the function  $e^{H} - \gamma$ ,  $\gamma \neq 0$ , has an infinite number of simple zeros. This is due to the Lemma in §2, although we can prove this qualitatively by the ramification relation in Nevanlinna theory [2].

In every case we have a defining equation of R in the following form

$$y^{2} = (e^{H(x)} - \gamma)(e^{H(x)} - \delta),$$
  
$$\gamma \delta \neq 0, \quad \gamma \neq \delta, \quad H(0) = 0.$$

Here U may be omitted. This is a characterization of R with P(R)=4. To construct a function f with P(f)=4 is easy now. In fact it is sufficient to consider a meromorphic function

$$\sqrt{rac{e^H-\gamma}{e^H-\delta}},$$

which omits evidently four values 1, -1,  $\sqrt{\gamma/\delta}$ ,  $-\sqrt{\gamma/\delta}$ .

§4. We shall here prove the existence of an ultrahyperelliptic surface R with P(R)=3. Let R be an ultrahyperelliptic surface defined by an equation

$$y^2 = 81e^{4x} - 72e^{3x} - 2e^{2x} - 8e^x + 1.$$

Let f be an entire algebroid function

$$\frac{1}{2}(1+4e^z-9e^{2z})+\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{81e^{4z}-72e^{3z}-2e^{2z}-8e^z+1}$$

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of z, which is an entire function on R, then f does not take three values 0, 1 and  $\infty$  on R. To this end we examine this by Rémoundos' reasoning. In fact we have that

$$F(z, f) \equiv f^{2} - (1 + 4e^{z} - 9e^{2z})f + \frac{1}{4}(1 + 4e^{z} - 9e^{2z})^{2}$$
$$- \frac{1}{4}(81e^{4z} - 72e^{3z} - 2e^{2z} - 8e^{z} + 1)$$

satisfies  $F(z, 0)=4e^z$  and  $F(z, 1)=9e^{2z}$ . Thus  $f \neq 0, 1$  and  $\infty$  on R.

Since we have

$$g(z) = (e^{z} - 1)(81e^{3z} + 9e^{2z} + 7e^{z} - 1)$$
  
= 81(e^{z} - 1)(e^{z} - \varepsilon\_{1})(e^{z} - \varepsilon\_{2})(e^{z} - \varepsilon\_{3}),  
 $|\varepsilon_{j}| \neq 1, j = 1, 2, 3; (\varepsilon_{1} - \varepsilon_{2})(\varepsilon_{1} - \varepsilon_{3})(\varepsilon_{2} - \varepsilon_{3}) \neq 0,$ 

g(z) has no double zeros. Next we should prove that g(z) does not satisfy the equation

$$h^2g = f^2 \frac{(e^L - \gamma)(e^L - \delta)}{U^2}, \ \gamma \neq \delta, \ \gamma \delta \neq 0,$$

where L, f and h are three entire functions of z satisfying L(0)=0 and  $f \equiv 0$ ,  $h \equiv 0$ and U is the entire function determined as in §3. If it is not so, then the equation holds. Let both side terms be denoted by X(z) and Y(z) for simplicity's sake. If L is a transcendental entire function, then  $e^{L}$  has infinite order by Pólya's theorem [5]. Let  $N_{3}(r; 0, Y)$  be the N-function with respect to zeros of odd multiplicity of the indicated function Y, which are all counted only once. Then  $N_{3}(r; 0, Y)$  $\geq N_{2}(r; \gamma, e^{L}) + N_{2}(r; \delta, e^{L})$  and hence it has infinite order by the Lemma. On the other hand  $N_{3}(r; 0, X) = N_{2}(r; 0, g)$  has order one, which is absurd. If L is a polynomial of degree p, then  $N_{3}(r; 0, Y)$  has order p and hence p must be equal to one. Therefore our equation reduces to the following form

$$X(z) \equiv h(z)^2 g(z) = f(z)^2 (e^{\beta z} - \gamma)(e^{\beta z} - \delta) \equiv Y(z),$$

since  $e^{\beta z} - \gamma$  and  $e^{\beta z} - \delta$  have only simple zeros and U is constructed from the multiple zeros of  $e^L - \gamma$  and  $e^L - \delta$ . Since g(z) has the form

$$\begin{split} & 81(e^z-1)(e^z-\varepsilon_1)(e^z-\varepsilon_2)(e^z-\varepsilon_3), \\ & |\varepsilon_j| \approx 1, \ j=1, \ 2, \ 3; \ (\varepsilon_1-\varepsilon_2)(\varepsilon_1-\varepsilon_3)(\varepsilon_2-\varepsilon_3) \approx 0, \end{split}$$

 $2n\pi i$  is a simple zero of g and hence

$$(u^n-\gamma)(u^n-\delta)=0, \quad u=e^{2\beta\pi i}.$$

Then the modulus of u is equal to 1. If  $u \neq \pm 1$ , then  $u^n \neq \gamma$  and  $u^n \neq \delta$  for some integer n, which is absurd. If u=1, then  $\beta$  is a non-zero integer p and  $\gamma=1$  or  $\delta=1$ . Therefore we have

$$X(z) = f(z)^2(e^{pz}-1)(e^{pz}-\zeta), \ \zeta \neq 0, \ \zeta \neq 1.$$

If  $p \neq \pm 1$ , then

$$\frac{h(z)^2 g(z)}{e^z - 1} = f(z)^2 \frac{e^{pz} - 1}{e^z - 1} (e^{pz} - \zeta)$$

has at least one zero with odd multiplicity which is due to the function  $(e^{pz}-1)$  $\div (e^z - 1)$ . For this zero  $z_0$  we may assume that  $e^{z_0} = e^{2\pi i/p}$ . However the left hand side term has it as a zero of even multiplicity. This is a contradiction. If p=1, then

$$X(z) = f(z)^2(e^z - 1)(e^z - \zeta).$$

If p = -1, then we have

$$X(z) = f(z)^{2}(e^{z} - 1)(e^{z} - 1/\zeta)\zeta e^{-2z}.$$

Both cases are absurd by the form of g(z). If u = -1, then  $\beta$  is a non-zero half integer q and  $\gamma = 1$  and  $\delta = -1$ . Therefore we have

$$X(z) = f(z)^2(e^{qz} - 1)(e^{qz} + 1) = f(z)^2(e^{2qz} - 1).$$

If  $q \neq \pm 1/2$ , then

$$\frac{X(z)}{e^z - 1} = f(z)^2 \frac{e^{2qz} - 1}{e^z - 1}$$

has the zero  $z_0$  satisfying  $e^{z_0} = e^{2\pi i/2q}$ , which is of odd multiplicity. However it has at most even multiplicity in the left hand side term, which is absurd. If  $q = \pm 1/2$ , then

$$X(z) = f(z)^2(e^{\pm z} - 1),$$

and hence

$$\frac{X(z)}{e^z - 1} = f(z)^2$$
 or  $-f(z)^2 e^{-z}$ .

These are also absurd. Therefore we have the desired fact.

This shows that the ultrahyperelliptic surface R defined by  $y^2 = q(x)$  satisfies P(R)=3. Thus the existence of the surface with P(R)=3 is established. Some characterizations of such surfaces would be possible, though it would be very troublesome to settle. This is an open problem.

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