# COMPLEX DYNAMICAL SYSTEMS

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# 1. INTRODUCTION TO FATOU COMPONENTS

The goal in this course is to present some recent results in higher dimensional holomorphic dynamics. In order to be able to appreciate these results, one needs to have seen a certain amount of one-dimensional dynamics. Hence we will start by looking at the one-dimensional setting. We will only present detailed proofs in the direction that we will take in higher dimensions.

Let X be a complex manifold,  $f: X \to X$  holomorphic. What can we say about the *orbits*  $z_0, f(z_0), f^2(z_0), \ldots$ ? A central question for us will be: how do the orbits vary when the initial value  $z_0$  is perturbed.

**Example 1.** Let  $f : \hat{\mathbb{C}} \to \hat{\mathbb{C}}$  be given by  $f(z) = z^d$ , for some  $d \ge 2$ . The point 0 = f(0) is fixed, and the orbits of all nearby points converge to the origin, since |f'(0)| = 0 < 1. The situation is *stable*. The other fixed point is 1 = f(1). However, as f'(1) = d > 1, the orbit of any nearby initial value will escape a small neighborhood of 1. The situation is *unstable*.

Let us be more precise about stability. For the next definition we assume that there exists a metric  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  on X.

**Definition 2.** An initial value  $z_0$  lies in the Fatou set  $F_f$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d(w_0, z_0) < \delta$  implies that  $d(w_n, z_n) < \epsilon$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

In other words, the family  $\{f^n\}$  is equicontinuous in the point  $z_0$ . For holomorphic maps this implies equicontinuity in a neighborhood U of  $z_0$ , which is equivalent to the condition that every sequence  $(f^{n_j}|_U)$  has a convergent subsequence. Here the topology used is the compact-open topology, and convergence means uniform convergence on compact subsets.

**Definition 3.** The Julia set is the complement of the Fatou set,  $J_f := X \setminus F_f$ .

The following questions are central in holomorphic dynamics.

- (1) Describe the behavior of orbits on  $J_f$ .
- (2) Describe the behavior of orbits on  $F_f$ .
- (3) How do natural invariant sets such as  $J_f$  and  $F_f$  vary when the map f is perturbed.

It turns out that in order to understand the third question a good understanding of the previous two questions is needed. This is for obvious reasons, if you do not understand the sets J and F then it is unlikely that you can determine how these sets will vary as the parameters vary. It turns out that understanding question (3) can also help to understand the answers to questions (1) and (2), although this is more subtle. A classical example can be found in the works of Shishikura

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and Buff-Cheritat, who proved that there exist polynomials whose Julia sets have Hausdorff measure 2, resp. positive Lebesque measure. A more recent example is the construction of wandering Fatou components for polynomials in two complex variables.

The first two questions are closely related, and one rarely studies the Fatou set without using properties of the Julia set. In this course we will mostly focus on the second question.

We will mostly consider rational maps. Of course there are many other interesting dynamical systems, also in the holomorphic category. In fact transcendental dynamics has received significant attention in the literature. However, it is important to note that it is almost impossible to prove anything of substance about very large classes of maps, such as *all* entire maps, or *all* holomorphic automorphisms of  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . These classes are too large to study their dynamics (unless one wants to show that specific behavior can occur for some maps, then having a large class of maps is of course an advantage).

In the one-dimensional setting, the Riemann surface  $\hat{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  is a particularly pleasant space to study the dynamics. The dynamical behavior of holomorphic endomorphisms is much richer there than in any other compact Riemann surface.

**Homework 1.** Prove that all holomorphic endomorphisms of  $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$  are rational.

**Homework 2.** Describe the behavior of affine maps  $z \mapsto az + b$ . What are the Fatou and Julia sets?

The family of quadratic polynomials is one of the most studied dynamical systems. Note that we can *conjugate* any quadratic polynomial to a polynomial of the form  $f(z) = z^2 + c$ . Another popular form is  $z \mapsto kz(1-z)$ , which is called a logistic map. Of course one can easily change coordinates from one form to another. The advantage of the form  $f(z) = z^2 + c$  is that it stresses the importance of the *critical point* z = 0, the point where the derivative vanishes, and the critical value c. We will see many examples this week that highlight the important role of the critical point in complex dynamical systems.

**Homework 3.** Prove that a rational function of degree d has 2d - 2 critical points, counting multiplicity.

For a polynomial of degree d the point  $\infty$  always is a critical point of order d-1, meaning that the derivative vanishes at  $\infty$  with order d-1. Hence there are exactly d-1 critical points in the complex plane, counting with multiplicity as always.

Let us look at a particular example of a quadratic polynomial. We will not choose the parameter c = 0, because besides being rather boring, the polynomial  $f(z) = z^2$ is also quite different from any other polynomial  $z^2 + c$ . It will be important for us to know what happens to the orbit of the critical point 0. Let us therefore take an easy example where 0 is a periodic point. The period 1 case gives the map we do not want, so let us take a higher order, for example order 3. Now we need to solve the equation

$$f_c^3(0) = 0,$$

which is a (real) degree 4 polynomial in c, hence has 4 solutions. There are two real solutions, one of which is 0. There is also a pair of complex solutions. Let us pick one of these complex solutions, simply because the picture is nicer (at least I think so). See Figure 1.

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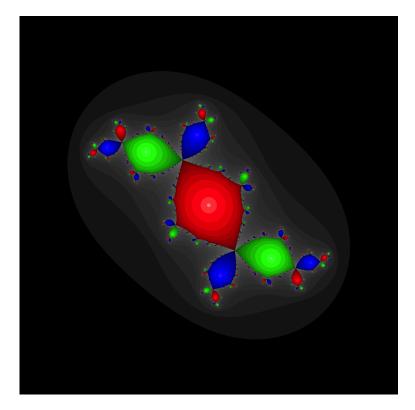


FIGURE 1.  $z \mapsto z^2 + c$ 

What do we see in this picture? The region depicted in black (and dark grey) can be regarded as the *basin of attraction* of the fixed point at infinity,

$$I_{\infty} = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid f^n(z) \to \infty \}.$$

Note that for any polynomial there exists a constant R > 0 such that if  $|z| \ge R$  then  $|f(z)| \ge 2|z|$ . It follows that if an orbit at any point leaves the disk of radius R, then it must converge to infinity. The constant R is often called the escape radius, although of course it is not unique. Drawing the black (grey) region by computer is easy. Choose coordinates for each pixel and iterate until the orbits leaves the disk  $\Delta(R)$ . The grey scale shows how many steps it takes to leave this disk. If the orbit has not left the disk after a large number of iterates then we do not color it grey. For a sufficiently large number of iterates this gives a very good approximation of  $I_{\infty}$ .

The complement of  $I_{\infty}$  is denoted by K,

$$K := \{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid \{ f^n(z) \} \text{ is bounded} \}.$$

Since  $I_{\infty}$  is open, the set K is closed. Both sets are completely invariant under f.

**Homework 4.** Prove that  $J = \partial K$ , and  $F = K^{\circ} \cup (\hat{\mathbb{C}} \setminus K)$ .

In the picture it appears that K is depicted in green, red and blue. This is almost true, but not quite. Note that  $0 \mapsto c \mapsto f(c) \mapsto 0$ . The derivative of  $f^3$  at each of these three points is 0.

**Lemma 4.** Let f(p) = p and suppose that |f'(p)| < 1. Then there is a neighborhood U(p) such that the orbit of any point in U converges to p. Conversely, suppose that  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  is open and that f(U) is a relatively compact subset of U. Then there is a point  $p \in U$  with |f'(p)| < 1, and the orbit of any point in U converges to p.

Homework 5. Prove the above lemma.

The points 0, c and f(c) are attracting fixed points for  $f^3$ , hence  $\{0, c, f(c)\}$  is an attracting periodic cycle for f. The attracting basin for  $f^3$  of the point 0 is depicted in red, for c in blue, and for f(c) in green. Together they form the basin A of the attracting periodic cycle of f. Note that A is again completely invariant, i.e.  $f^{-1}(A) = A$ .

Let us write  $A_0$  for the connected component of A that contains 0, and write  $A_1 = f(A_0)$  and  $A_2 = f(A_1)$ .

**Homework 6.** Prove that the components  $A_0, A_1$  and  $A_2$  are distinct, and thus disjoint.

The maps  $f : A_1 \mapsto A_2$  and  $f : A_2 \mapsto A_0$  are locally injective (since the critical point is not contained in  $A_0$ ). By the Maximum Principle these components are simply connected. It follows that the restriction of f to either  $A_1$  or  $A_2$  is injective. The map  $f : A_0 \to A_1$  is not injective but 2 : 1, except that c has only 1 inverse image.

Since the polynomial f has degree 2, it follows from the above discussion that the components  $A_2$  and  $A_0$  each must have another pre-image. Each of these new components must also have two pre-images, and so on. It follows that the set Aconsists of countably many distinct connected components. The combinatorial data of these connected components gives us a complete description of all possible orbits of f.

Claim 1.  $K^{\circ} = A$ .

**Claim 2.**  $\partial A = J = \partial$ "red set" =  $\partial$ "blue set" =  $\partial$ "green set".

**Claim 3.** Define the sets  $A_{-n}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  recursively so that  $f(A_{-n}) = A_{-n+1}$ , and  $A_{-3} \neq A_0$ . Then diam $(A_{-n}) \to 0$ .

Before we prove these three claims, it is worth noting that while we are looking at a very specific polynomial, these properties hold in much greater generality. Indeed, they follow from some very general results.

It is immediately clear that  $\operatorname{Area}(A_{-n}) \to 0$ , since the sets  $A_{-n}$  are pairwise disjoint and are all contained in  $\Delta(R)$ . Claim 3 is of course strictly stronger. How do we prove this claim? Note again that each component  $A_{-n}$  is simply connected and does not contain critical points. Therefore the map  $f: A_{-n} \to A_{-n+1}$  is injective, and thus  $f^n: A_{-n} \to A_0$  is also univalent. Therefore we can consider the inverse branches  $f^{-n}: A_0 \to A_{-n}$ , which are of course also univalent, and bounded since the images are contained in  $\Delta(R)$ . Hence these inverse branches form a normal family, and any sequence of these inverse branches must have a convergent subsequence, uniformly on compact subsets of  $A_0$ . Since all the images  $A_{-n}$  are pairwise disjoint, it follows that the image of any limit map  $h = \lim f^{-n_j}$ must be a single point. After all, h must be holomorphic, and  $h(A_0)$  cannot have any interior points. If it did, then some (open) set  $A_{-n}$  would intersect an interior point of  $h(A_0)$ , in which case that point could never be approximated by points in other sets  $A_{-m}$ .

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Now we wish to conclude from the fact that any limit set  $h(A_0)$  consists of a single point, that the diameter of the sets  $A_{-n}$  must converge to zero. We could conclude this immediately if the convergence was uniform. However, the convergence is only uniform, it is only uniform on compact subsets. This is not sufficient to conclude that the diameters of  $A_{-n}$  converge to zero. It is possible that the sets  $A_{-n}$  become very thin but long. How can we prove that this does not happen?

**Definition 5.** We say that a polynomial f is *hyperbolic* if some iterate  $f^N$  acts expandingly on the Julia set J.

Expanding means that |f'(z)| > 1 for any  $z \in J$ . By compactness of J it follows that there exists a  $\mu > 1$  such that  $|f'(z)| > \mu$  for any  $z \in J$ . An equivalent definition of hyperbolicity is that there exists a metric on J with respect to which f is uniformly expanding.

A clear example of a hyperbolic polynomial is the map  $z \mapsto z^2$ . The Julia set of this map is the unit circle, where the derivative has constant norm 1. It turns out that the polynomial  $f_c$  that we have been considering is also hyperbolic. Therefore it is also uniformly expanding in a given neighborhood of the Julia set. If the sets  $A_n$  get sufficiently thin then they must be contained in this neighborhood of J. But then the branches of  $f^{-1}$  that we are considering are uniform contractions on the closure of the sets  $A_{-n}$ , from which it follows that the diameters of  $A_{-n}$  converge to zero.

Looking back we notice that we actually did not need to go through the normality argument. The fact that the area convergence to zero is enough in combination with the univalence and the hyperbolicity. These two ingredients, the normality argument and the hyperbolicity, will however play a crucial role in what will come later in the course.

# 2. A short section on Equilibrium measures

Take any point  $z \in \hat{\mathbb{C}} \setminus \{\infty\}$ , and define the probability measures

$$\mu_n = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{f^n(w)=z} \delta_w.$$

As usual we need to sum over all w counting multiplicities.

One can show that the measures  $\mu_n$  converge weakly to a probabily measure  $\mu$  which is independent of the chosen point z. The measure  $\mu$  is called the equilibrium measure of f. It if invariant under f and  $\operatorname{supp}(\mu) = J$ . Many other natural constructions lead to the same measure  $\mu$ , and this measure plays an important role in our understanding of one-dimensional complex dynamical systems. The above construction works for any rational function, except for the exceptional polynomials conjugate to  $z \mapsto z^d$ , in which case one should not start with the two completely invariant critical points.

The construction of the equilibrium measure is due to Brolin (for polynomials, 1965), Lyubich (1982, for rational functions) and Mañé. It has been successfully generalized to higher dimensional maps, starting with the works of Bedford-Smillie (for polynomial automorphisms), Sibony-Fornæss (for holomorphic endomorphisms of projective space), and later for many more maps, for an important part due to Sibony.

# 3. BACK TO THE FATOU SET

Our earlier claim 2, stating that the boundary of each of the red, green and blue sets equals J, follows from the above comment that  $\operatorname{supp}(\mu) = J$ , but there is a much easier way to prove the claim. Let  $z \in J$ , and let U be a neighborhood of z. Then U must contain both red, blue and green points, otherwise the family of iterates defined on U avoids at least 2 points of  $\mathbb{C}$  and by Montel's theorem is normal. But this would contradict the definition of J.

Our last claim, which was in fact the first claim, states that  $A = K^{\circ}$ , which is equivalent to saying that the Fatou set has no other connected components. Connected components of the Fatou set are called Fatou components, and for rational functions they are very well understood. The proof of the last claim will follow from the following two theorems.

**Theorem 6** (Fatou, Siegel, Herman, Sullivan). Let  $f : \hat{\mathbb{C}} \to \hat{\mathbb{C}}$  be rational of degree at least 2, and let U be a Fatou component. Then U is either periodic or pre-periodic. If U is invariant then U must either be

- Attracting basin the immediate basin of an attracting fixed point p, i.e. f(p) = p and |f'(p)| < 1.
- Parabolic basin an immediate basin of a parabolic fixed point p, i.e. f(p) = pand f'(p) = 1.
- Siegel disk: equivalent to a disk on which f acts as an irrational rotation.
- Herman ring: equivalent to an annulus on which f acts as an irrational rotation.

The classification is due to Fatou, but he was not able to decide whether the third and fourth cases could exist. The existence of Siegel disks was shown by Siegel in the 1940's, the existence of Herman rings was shown by Herman in 1979. In both cases there exists a conformal map  $\varphi: U \mapsto \Sigma$  such that  $\phi(f(z)) = \lambda \cdot \phi(z)$ , where  $\lambda = e^{2\pi i \theta}$  and  $\theta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ . Here  $\Sigma$  is either the unit disk (in the Siegel case) or an annulus (in the Herman case). Note that Herman rings cannot exist for polynomials. It was shown by Sullivan in 1985 that every Fatou component is either periodic or pre-periodic. A Fatou component that is not periodic or pre-periodic is called *wandering*. For this reason one often refers to Sulivan's No Wandering Domains Theorem.

**Theorem 7** (Fatou components and critical points). The immediate basin of an attracting fixed point or attracting parabolic point must contain a critical point. The boundary of a Siegel disk must be contained in the closure of a critical orbit.

Since for our specific polynomial the critical orbit is a finite (and thus compact) subset of  $A_0 \cup A_1 \cup A_2$  it follows that there can be no invariant Siegel disks, parabolic basins or other attracting basins. This not only holds for f but also for  $f^n$  for any n. Hence there can be no other periodic Fatou components, and it follows from Sullivan's No Wandering Domains Theorem that there exist no other Fatou components, hence  $A = K^{\circ}$ .

## 4. Lecture 2, classification of Fatou components

In this lecture we will prove the classification of one-dimensional Fatou components discussed in the previous lecture. We will cheat a little bit and work with polynomials instead of rational functions. In the rational case one would need to work with hyperbolic Riemann surfaces, where we will have an easier time working with bounded simply connected domains in  $\mathbb{C}$ . A more complete discussion can be found in Milnor's book *Dynamics in One Complex Variable*.

Recall that there exists a conformal metric on the unit disk that is invariant under all conformal automorphisms of  $\mathbb{D}$ . This metric is unique up to a multiplicative constant and is called the Poincaré metric. The precise formula of the Poincaré metric will not be important for us here, nor will the choice of the multiplicative constant. By the Riemann mapping theorem we can push forward the Poincaré metric to any bounded simply connected domain  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ . We will also refer to this metric on U as the Poincaré metric.

**Homework 7.** Prove that the Poincaré metric on U is independent of the choice of the Riemann mapping.

Now let U and V both be bounded simply connected domains in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $f: U \to V$  be holomorphic. Then f is non-expanding with respect to the Poincaré metrics of U and V. In fact, either f is biholomorphic, and thus an isometry, or f strictly reduces Poincaré distances, uniformly on compact subsets of U.

**Theorem 8.** Let U be a bounded simply connected domain and let  $f : U \to U$  be holomorphic. Then one of the following holds

- There is an attracting fixed point and all orbits converge to this point, uniformly on compact subsets of U.
- The map f is conjugate to an irrational rotation.
- There is an  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^k = \text{Id}$ .
- The map is escaping, i.e. for any compact  $K \subset U$  there exists an  $N_K$  such that  $f^n(K) \cap K = \emptyset$  for  $n \geq N_k$ .

This escaping case is sometimes called *compactly divergent*.

*Proof.* We may assume that we are dealing with the unit disk  $U = \mathbb{D}$ . Suppose that f is not escaping. If f preserves the Poincaré metric then f is an automorphism of  $\mathbb{D}$ , and thus of the form

$$z \mapsto \theta \cdot \frac{z-a}{1-\overline{a}z}$$

The only maps of this form that are not escaping are conjugate to rotations, either rational or irrational, which gives either the second or the third case.

If f strictly decreases Poincaré distances, uniformly on compact subsets of U, then it follows that there is a r < 1 and an integer k such that  $f^k(\Delta(r))$  is relatively compact in  $\Delta(r)$ , and hence  $f^k$  must have an attracting fixed point p in  $\Delta(r)$ . Since  $f^k$  strictly decreases Poincaré distances it can only have one fixed point, and hence p must also be an attracting fixed point of f. This completes the proof.  $\Box$ 

**Homework 8.** Prove that all holomorphic automorphisms of  $\mathbb{D}$  are indeed of the form

$$z \mapsto \theta \cdot \frac{z-a}{1-\overline{a}z}.$$

One has to be a little careful when assuming that  $U = \mathbb{D}$ . In the above proof all goes well, but in the next result it can lead to a proof that is correct for the unit disk but does not hold in general.

**Lemma 9.** Let  $f: U \to U$  be escaping and suppose that f extend continuously to the boundary  $\partial U$ . Also assume that  $f|_{\partial U}$  has only finitely many fixed points. Then  $f^n$  converges to a single boundary point  $p \in U$ ,

In the case  $U = \mathbb{D}$  the assumption that f extends continuously to the boundary is redundant, and without this assumption the result is known as the Denjoy-Wolff theorem. The Denjoy-Wolff theorem does hold in greater generality, even outside the holomorphic setting and in also in several complex variables, but one needs to assume some kind of convexity property. It does *not* hold for all simply connected domains! So we will really need that f extends continuously to the boundary, and we may not assume that  $U = \mathbb{D}$ .

*Proof.* Take a point  $z \in U$ , and suppose that  $f^{n_j}(z) \to p \in \partial U$  for some sequence  $(n_j)$ . Since the Poincaré metric blows up near the boundary of U, it follows that  $f^{n_j+1}(z)$  also converges to p, which implies that f(p) = p. By the assumption that f has only finitely many fixed points in  $\partial U$  there can be at most finitely many such limit points p. Now let us assume for the purpose of a contradiction that there exist at least two limit points p and q.

Let  $\gamma : [0,1] \to U$  be smooth with  $\gamma(0) = z$  and  $\gamma(1) = f(z)$ . Then we can extend  $\gamma$  to the positive real line by recursively defining  $\gamma(x+1) = f(\gamma(x))$ . The piecewise smooth curve will converge to  $\partial U$ , and will accumulate both at p and q. Now take a small disk  $D_{\epsilon}(p)$ , so that q lies outside of the disk. Then the curve must pass through the boundary of this disk infinitely many times, or to be more precise,  $\gamma(x) \in \partial D_{\epsilon}(p)$  for arbitrarily large values of x. Again, since the Poincaré metric blows up near  $\partial U$ , it follows that some subsequence  $f^{m_l}(z)$  must converge to a boundary point of this disk. By choosing the radius of the disk carefully we can make sure no fixed points on  $\partial U \cap \partial D_{\epsilon}(p)$ . B passing to a convergent subsequence of  $f^{m_l}$  we obtain a counterexample.

**Lemma 10.** Let f be a polynomial and U an invariant Fatou component, and assume that  $f^n|_U$  converges to  $p \in \partial U$ . Then f'(p) = 1.

For the proof of this result we also do not really need that the map is a global polynomial, but we do need that f is holomorphic in a neighborhood of p.

*Proof.* Note that the fixed point p cannot be attracting, since attracting fixed points lie in the interior of their basin. Hence  $|f'| \ge 1$ , and in particular  $f'(p) \ne 0$ .

By conjugating with a translation we may assume that p = 0. Let  $V_0$  be a relatively compact subset of U that is both open and simply connected. The iterates  $f^n$  converge to p uniformly on  $V_0$ . By choosing  $V_0$  sufficiently large we may assume that  $f(V_0) \cap V_1 \neq \emptyset$ , where  $V_n = f^n(V_0)$ . Finally, we may assume that all the sets  $V_n$  are contained in a small disk centered at the fixed point 0 on which f acts injectively.

Now let us suppose for the purpose of a contradiction that  $f'(0) \neq 1$ . Let  $w_0 \in V_0$ such that  $w_1 = f(w_0)$  lies in  $V_0$  as well.  $\varphi : \mathbb{D} \to V_0$  be such that  $\varphi(0) = w_0$ . We define the maps  $g_n : \mathbb{D} \to V_n$  by

$$g_n(\zeta) = \frac{f^n \circ \varphi(\zeta)}{f^n \circ \varphi(0)} = \frac{f^n \circ \varphi(\zeta)}{w_n}.$$

By our assumptions the maps  $g_n$  are all conformal. Also,  $g_n(0) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , while  $0 \notin g_n(\mathbb{D})$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence by the Koebe Distortion Theorem the family  $\{g_n\}$  is normal. Now notice that

$$g_n(\varphi^{-1}(w_1)) = \frac{w_{n+1}}{w_n} \to f'(0),$$

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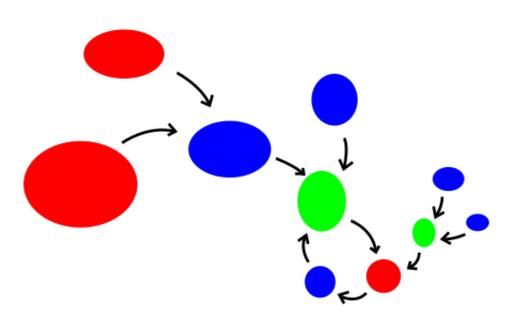


FIGURE 2. All Fatou components are periodic or pre-periodic

and by assumption  $f'(0) \neq 1$ . Recall that the limit of a convergent sequence of conformal functions must either be degenerate (i.e. mapping to a point) or be conformal as well. But it cannot be degenerate, since  $g_n(0) = 1$  while  $g_n(\varphi^{-1}(w_1)) \to f'(0)$ . Therefore all limits of the sequence  $(g_n)$  are conformal, and there must be a bound from below on the derivatives |g'(0)|, say

 $|g_n'(0)| > \epsilon.$ 

Hence it follows by the Koebe- $\frac{1}{4}$  Theorem that  $g_n(\mathbb{D})$  contains  $D_{\frac{\epsilon}{4}}(1)$ , which implies that  $V_n$  contains a disk centered at  $w_n$  of radius  $\frac{\epsilon}{4} \cdot |w_n|$ . In other words, the inner radius of the sets  $V_n$  are at least comparable to the distance to the origin.

Note that |f'(0)| has to be equal to 1. We already remarked that it cannot be smaller, as otherwise 0 would be attracting. But the norm also cannot be larger than 1, otherwise orbits could not converge to the origin. By our assumption that  $f'(0) \neq 1$  it follows that multiplication by f'(0) gives a rotation. As the sets  $V_n$  approach the origin, the maps f starts to act more and more as the linear rotation. It follows that the points  $w_n$  can only approach the origin at a slower and slower rate, while they keep rotating around 0 at a fixed rate. Combining these facts with our estimate on the inner radius of the sets  $V_n$  gives that at some point one can find a simple closed curve that winds around the origin and is contained in a finite number of sets  $V_n$ . Hence  $f^n$  converges to 0 uniformly on this closed curve, and by the Maximum Principle it follows that  $f^n$  converges to 0 uniformly in a neighborhood of the origin. But this contradicts the fact that the fixed point lies on the boundary of the Fatou component.

Now we have completed the classification of invariant Fatou components. We will later get back to Sullivan's Wandering Domains Theorem for specific classes of polynomials, both in one and in several variables.

**Lemma 11.** If U is the immediate basin of an attracting fixed point, then U must contain a critical point.

*Proof.* If not then  $f: U \mapsto U$  must be an automorphism and thus preserve the Poincaré metric. But isometries cannot have attracting fixed points.  $\Box$ 

Here is another argument with which one can show that U must contain a critical point. Let us first assume that the attracting fixed point  $p \in U$  is not critical itself, so that  $\lambda := f'(p) \neq 0$ . Then define the maps  $\varphi_n : U \to \mathbb{C}$  by

$$\varphi_n(z) = \lambda^{-n} \cdot f^n.$$

Let  $K \subset U$  be compact.

**Homework 9.** Prove that there exist 0 < r < 1 and C > 0 so that

$$|\varphi_{n+1}(z) - \varphi_n(z)| < Cr^n.$$

It follows that the sequence  $(\varphi_n)$  converges to a limit map  $\Phi : U \to \mathbb{C}$ , uniformly on compact subsets of U. One has  $\Phi'(0) = 1$  thus  $\Phi$  is locally invertible in the origin. The fact that the map  $f : U \to U$  is proper implies that  $\Phi$  is also surjective. If f has no critical points then it is a conformal map from  $U \to \mathbb{C}$ , which gives a contradiction since U is equivalent to the unit disk.

In the parabolic case one can give a quite similar argument to show that the immediate basin must contain a critical point. If not, then the parabolic basin must be equivalent to *mathbbC*. We will come back later to the role that critical points play near the boundary of Siegel disks.

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