# EXCEPTIONAL VALUES OF $p$-ADIC DERIVATIVES A SURVEY WITH SOME IMPROVEMENTS 

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#### Abstract

Let $\mathbb{K}$ be a complete ultrametric algebraically closed field of characteristic 0 and let $f$ be a meromorphic function in $\mathbb{K}$ admitting primitives. We show that $f$ has no value taken finitely many times provided an additional hypothesis is satisfied: either $f$ has finitely many poles of order $\geq 3$, or $f$ has two perfectly branched values, or the logarithm of the number of poles in the disk of center 0 and diameter $r$ is bounded by $O(\log (r))(r>1)$. We make the conjecture: all additional hypotheses are superfluous.


## 1. Introduction and main results

Let $f$ be a complex transcendental meromorphic function that admits primitives. Thanks to the Nevanlinna theory, it is known that for $f$ there exists at most one value $b$ taken finitely many times [8]. Consider now a transcendental meromorphic function $f$ in an algebraically closed complete ultrametric field $\mathbb{K}$ of characteristic 0 [1], [9]. It is well known that a transcendental meromorphic function $f$ can admit at most one value $b$ taken finitely many times [7]. But suppose now that $f$ admits primitives. In this survey, we recall two hypotheses proving that $f$ admits no value $b$ taken finitely many times. In both hypotheses, we assume that $f$ admits primitives. This suggests that if a transcendental meromorphic function $f$ in the field $\mathbb{K}$ admits primitives, then $f$ has no value taken finitely many times.

Many important results are due to Jean-Paul Bézivin [2], [3], [4].
Notation and definitions: We denote by $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ the $\mathbb{K}$-algebra of analytic functions in $\mathbb{K}$ and by $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ the field of meromorphic functions in $\mathbb{K}$ (i.e. the field of functions of the form $\frac{f}{g}$, with $f, g \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ ).

Given two meromorphic functions $f, g \in \mathscr{M}(\mathbb{K})$ we will denote by $W(f, g)$ the Wronskian of $f$ and $g: f^{\prime} g-f g^{\prime}$.

Given $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ and $b \in \mathbb{K}, b$ is called an exceptional value for $f$ if $f-b$ has no zero in $\mathbb{K}$ and a quasi-exceptional value for $f$ if $f-b$ has finitely many zeros in $\mathbb{K}$.

Here, Log is the Neperian logarithm and we denote by $e$ the number such that $\log (e)=1$ and Exp is the Archimedean exponential function.

The following theorem is well known [7]:
Theorem 0: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$. Then $f$ has at most one quasi-exceptional value in $\mathbb{K}$. Moreover, if $f \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$, then $f$ has no quasi-exceptional value.

The following theorem 1 is esential to prove the main results that follow.
Theorem 1 [2]: Let $f, g \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ be such that $W(f, g)$ is a non-identically zero polynomial. Then both $f, g$ are polynomials.
Remark: In Archimedean analysis, Theorem 1 does not hold. For example, take $f(x)=\operatorname{Exp}(x), g(x)=\operatorname{Exp}(-x)$. Then $W(f, g)=2$. We can also consider $f(x)=$ $x \operatorname{Exp}(x), g(x)=\operatorname{Exp}(-x)$. Then $W(f, g)=2 x+1$.
Theorem 2: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K}) \backslash \mathbb{K}(x)$ have finitely many poles of order $\geq 3$ and admit primitives. Then $f$ has no quasi-exceptional value.
Corollary: Let $F \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K}) \backslash \mathbb{K}(x)$ have finitely many multiple poles. Then $F^{\prime}$ has no quasi-exceptional value.
Definition: Let $f \in \mathscr{M}(\mathbb{K})$ and $b \in \mathbb{K}$. Then $b$ is called a perfectly branched value of $f$ if all zeros of $f-b$ are multiple except maybe finitely many. Moreover, $b$ is called a totally branched value of $f[6]$ if all zeros of $f-b$ are multiple, without exception.
Theorem 3: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ admit primitives. If $f$ has two perfectly branched values then, $f$ has no quasi-exceptional value. Moreover, if $f$ has one totally branched value, then $f$ has no exceptional value.
Notation: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}\left(d\left(0, R^{-}\right)\right)$. For each $\left.r \in\right] 0, R[$, we denote by $s(r, f)$ the number of zeros of $f$ in $d(0, r)$, each counted with its multiplicity and we set $t(r, f)=s\left(r, \frac{1}{f}\right)$.

Let $f \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. We can factor $f$ in the form $\bar{f} \tilde{f}$ where the zeros of $\bar{f}$ are the distinct zeros of $f$ each with order 1 . Moreover, if $f(0) \neq 0$ we can take $\bar{f}(0)=1$ and if $f(0)=0$, we can take $\bar{f}$ so that $(\bar{f})^{\prime}(0)=1$.
Theorem 4: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K}) \backslash \mathbb{K}(x)$ admit primitives and also satisfy $\log (t(r, f)) \leq$ $O(\log (r))$. Then $f$ has no quasi-exceptional value.
Example 1: Let $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in $\mathbb{K}$ such that $\left|a_{n}\right| \leq\left|a_{n+1}\right|$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty}\left|a_{n}\right|=$ $+\infty$ and let $f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{n}}{\left(x-a_{n}\right)^{s_{n}}}$ with $\left|b_{n}\right| \leq 1, s_{n} \geq 2 \forall n$ and $s_{n}=2 \forall n \geq t$. Then the function $f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{n}}{\left(x-a_{n}\right)^{s_{n}}}$ admits primitives and has no quasi-exceptional value by Theorem 2.

Example 2: Let $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in $\mathbb{K}$ such that $\left|a_{n}\right|<\left|a_{n+1}\right|$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty}\left|a_{n}\right|=$ $+\infty$ and suppose that $\log (n)=O\left(\log \left|a_{n}\right|\right)$. Then the function $f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{n}}{\left(x-a_{n}\right)^{s_{n}}}$ with $\left|b_{n}\right| \leq 1, s_{n} \geq 2 \forall n$, admits primitives and has no quasi-exceptional value by Theorem 4.

Example 3: Let $h \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K}) \backslash \mathbb{K}[x]$ be a function having only zeros of order 1 and let $P(x) \in \mathbb{K}[x]$. Let $f(x)=\frac{P(x)}{(h(x))^{2}}$. Then $f$ has no primitive.

Indeed, suppose that $f$ has a primitive $F=\frac{U}{V}$ where $U$ and $V$ lie in $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ and have no common zeros. Since the zeros of $h$ are of order 1 , it is seen that all zeros of $V$ are of order 1 and are all the zeros of $h$. Consequently, $\widetilde{V}=1, \bar{V}=V$ and $F^{\prime}=\frac{U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}}{V^{2}}$ admits no simplification. Therefore $U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}=P$. But then, by Theorem $1, U$ and $V$ are polynomials and $V^{2}=h^{2}$, a contradiction to the hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K}) \backslash \mathbb{K}[x]$.
Remark: In Example 3, the function $f$ certainly has residues different from 0 because if all residues were null, the function then would have primitives [7].

Now, by Theorems 2, 3 and 4 the following conjecture appears likely:
Conjecture: A transcendental meromorphic function in $\mathbb{K}$ admitting primitives has no quasi-exceptional value.

## 2. THE PROOFS

Notation: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$, let $a \in \mathbb{K}$ and let $r>0$. Then $|f(x)|$ has a limit when $|x-a|$ tends to $r$ (while remaining different from $r$ ) which is denoted by $\varphi_{a, r}(f)$. Particularly, if $a=0$ we put $\lim _{\substack{|x| \rightarrow r \\|x| \neq r}}|f(x)|=|f|(r)$.

The following proposition 1 is well known in ultrametric analysis [7].
Proposition 1: Let $f \in \mathscr{M}(\mathbb{K})$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for all $r \in] 0, R[$, we have

$$
\left|f^{(n)}\right|(r) \leq|n!| \frac{|f|(r)}{r^{n}}
$$

Proposition 2: Let $h, l \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ be such that $h^{\prime} l-h l^{\prime}=c \in \mathbb{K}$, with $h$ non-affine. Then $c=0$ and $\frac{h}{l}$ is a constant.

Suppose $c \neq 0$. If $h(a)=0$, then $l(a) \neq 0$. Next, $h$ and $l$ satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{h^{\prime \prime}}{h}=\frac{l^{\prime \prime}}{l} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark first that since $h$ is not affine, $h^{\prime \prime}$ is not identically zero. Next, every zero of $h$ or $l$ of order $\geq 2$ is a trivial zero of $h^{\prime} l-h l^{\prime}$, which contradicts $c \neq 0$. So we can assume that all zeros of $h$ and $l$ are of order 1 .

Now suppose that a zero $a$ of $h$ is not a zero of $h^{\prime \prime}$. Since $a$ is a zero of $h$ of order $1, \frac{h^{\prime \prime}}{h}$ has a pole of order 1 at $a$ and so does $\frac{l^{\prime \prime}}{l}$, hence $l(a)=0$, a contradiction. Consequently, each zero of $h$ is a zero of order 1 of $h$ and is a zero of $h^{\prime \prime}$ and hence, $\frac{h^{\prime \prime}}{h}$ is an element $\phi$ of $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ that has no pole in $\mathbb{K}$. Therefore $\phi$ lies in $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$.

The same holds for $l$ and so, $l^{\prime \prime}$ is of the form $\psi l$ with $\psi \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. But since $\frac{h^{\prime \prime}}{h}=\frac{l^{\prime \prime}}{l}$, we have $\phi=\psi$.

Now, suppose $h, l$ belong to $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. Since $h^{\prime \prime}$ is of the form $\phi h$ with $\phi \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$, we have $\left|h^{\prime \prime}\right|(r)=|\phi|(r)|h|(r)$. But by Proposition 1, we know that $\left|h^{\prime \prime}\right|(r) \leq \frac{1}{r^{2}}|h|(r)$, a contradiction when $r$ tends to $+\infty$. Consequently, $c=0$. But then $h^{\prime} l-h l^{\prime}=0$ implies that the derivative of $\frac{h}{l}$ is identically zero, hence $\frac{h}{l}$ is constant, which ends the proof.

Corollary 2.a : Let $h, l \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$, also be entire functions in $\mathbb{C}$, with $h$ non-affine. If $h^{\prime} l-h l^{\prime}$ is a constant $c$, then $c=0$.
Proposition 3: Let $\psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ and let $(\mathcal{E})$ be the differential equations $y^{(n)}-\psi y=$ 0 . Let $E$ be the sub-vector space of $\mathfrak{M}(\mathbb{K})$ of the solutions of $(\mathbb{E})$.

If $n=1$, then the dimension of $E$ is at most 1 .
If $\Psi$ belongs to $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$, then $E=\{0\}$.
Proof. In each case, we assume that ( $\mathcal{E}$ ) admits a non-identically zero solution $h$. Then $h^{(n)}$ may not be identically zero.
Suppose first that $n=1$. Suppose that $g \in E$. Let $u=\frac{h}{g}$. Since $h^{\prime}=\psi h$ we have $u^{\prime} g+u g^{\prime}=\psi u g$ therefore $u \frac{g^{\prime}}{g}=u \psi=u^{\prime}+u \frac{g^{\prime}}{g}$ and hence $u^{\prime}=0$ i.e. $u$ is a constant. Consequently, $E$ is at most of dimension 1 .

Suppose now that $\psi$ lies in $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. Then $|\psi|(r)=\frac{\left|h^{(n)}\right|(r)}{|h|(r)}$ is an increasing function in $r$ in $] 0,+\infty\left[\right.$, a contradiction to the inequality $\frac{\left|h^{(n)}\right|(r)}{|h|(r)} \leq \frac{1}{r^{n}}$ coming from Proposition 1.

## Proof of Theorem 1 [2]

First, by Proposition 2 we check that the claim is satisfied when $W(f, g)$ is a polynomial of degree 0 . Now, suppose the claim holds when $W(f, g)$ is a polyno-
mial of certain degree $n$. We will show it for $n+1$. Let $f, g \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ be such that $W(f, g)$ is a non-identically zero polynomial $P$ of degree $n+1$

Thus, by the hypothesis, we have $f^{\prime} g-f g^{\prime}=P$, hence $f^{\prime \prime} g-f g^{\prime \prime}=P^{\prime}$. We can extract $g^{\prime}$ and get $g^{\prime}=\frac{\left(f^{\prime} g-P\right)}{f}$. Now consider the function $Q=f^{\prime \prime} g^{\prime}-f^{\prime} g^{\prime \prime}$ and replace $g^{\prime}$ by what we just found: we can get $Q=f^{\prime}\left(\frac{\left(f^{\prime \prime} g-f g^{\prime \prime}\right)}{f}\right)-\frac{P f^{\prime \prime}}{f}$.

Now, we can replace $f^{\prime \prime} g-f g^{\prime \prime}$ by $P^{\prime}$ and obtain $Q=\frac{\left(f^{\prime} P^{\prime}-P f^{\prime \prime}\right)}{f}$. Thus, in that expression of $Q$, we can write $|Q|(R) \leq \frac{|f|(R)|P|(R)}{R^{2}|f|(R)}$, hence $|Q|(R) \leq \frac{|P|(R)}{R^{2}} \forall R>$ 0 . But by definition, $Q$ belongs to $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. Consequently, $Q$ is a polynomial of degree $t \leq n-1$.

Now, suppose $Q$ is not identically zero. Since $Q=W\left(f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right)$ and since $\operatorname{deg}(Q)<$ $n$, by the induction hypothesis $f^{\prime}$ and $g^{\prime}$ are polynomials and so are $f, g$. Finally, suppose $Q=0$. Then $P^{\prime} f^{\prime}-P f^{\prime \prime}=0$ and therefore $f^{\prime}, P$ are two solutions of the differential equation of order 1 for meromorphic functions in $\mathbb{K}:(\mathcal{E}) y^{\prime}=\psi y$ with $\psi=\frac{P^{\prime}}{P}$, whereas $y$ belongs to $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. By Proposition 3, the space of solutions of $(\mathcal{E})$ is of dimension 0 or 1 . Consequently, there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$ such that $f^{\prime}=\lambda P$, hence $f$ is a polynomial. The same holds for $g$. This ends the proof of Theorem 1.
Proposition 4: Let $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ have no common zero and let $f=\frac{U}{V}$. If $f^{\prime}$ has finitely many zeros, there exists a polynomial $P \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that $U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}=P \widetilde{V}$.
Proof. If $V$ is a constant, the statement is obvious. So, we assume that $V$ is not a constant. Now $\widetilde{V}$ divides $V^{\prime}$ and hence $V^{\prime}$ factorizes in the way $V^{\prime}=\widetilde{V} Y$ with $Y \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. Then no zero of $Y$ can be a zero of $V$. Consequently, we have

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}}{V^{2}}=\frac{U^{\prime} \bar{V}-U Y}{\bar{V}^{2} \widetilde{V}} .
$$

The two functions $U^{\prime} \bar{V}-U Y$ and $\bar{V}^{2} \widetilde{V}$ have no common zero since neither have $U$ and $V$. So, the zeros of $f^{\prime}$ are those of $U^{\prime} \bar{V}-U Y$ which therefore has finitely many zeros and consequently is a polynomial $P$, hence $U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}=P \widetilde{V}$.

## Proof of Theorem 2:

Proof. Suppose that $f$ admits a quasi-exceptional value. Without loss of generality, we can assume that this value is 0 . Let $F$ be a primitive of $f$ and let $F=\frac{U}{V}$, with $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$, having no common zero. By Proposition 4, there exists a polynomial $P$ such that $U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}=P \widetilde{V}$. But since $f$ has finitely many poles of order $\geq 3, F$ has finitely many poles of order $\geq 2$ hence $\widetilde{V}$ has finitely many zeros, hence it is a polynomial. But then $P \widetilde{V}$ is a polynomial and then, by Theorem 1, both $U, V$ are polynomials, therefore $F \in \mathbb{K}(x)$ a contradiction.

Notation: Given $r>0$, we denote by $d(0, r)$ the disk $\{x \in \mathbb{K}||x| \leq r\}$. Given $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$, we denote by $Z(r, f)$ the counting function of the zeros of $f$ in the disk $d(0, r)$, counting multiplicity, and by $\bar{Z}(r, f)$ the counting function of the zeros of $f$ in the disk $d(0, r)$, ignoring multiplicity. Next we put $N(r, f)=Z\left(r, \frac{1}{f}\right), T(r, f)=$ $\max (Z(r, f), N(r, f))$ and $\bar{N}(r, f)=\bar{Z}\left(r, \frac{1}{f}\right)$.

Let us now recall a simplified version of the Second Main Theorem [5], [7]:
Second Main Theorem: Let $f \in \mathscr{M}(\mathbb{K})$ and let $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{q} \in \mathbb{K}$, with $q \geq 2$. Then $(q-1) T(r, f) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{q} \bar{Z}\left(r, f-\alpha_{j}\right)+\bar{N}(r, f)-\log r+O(1) \forall r \in I$.

Proof of Theorem 3 Suppose that $f$ has two perfectly branched values $a$ and $b$ and a quasi-exceptional value $c$. Since $f$ admits primitives, $N(r, f)$ satisfies $\bar{N}(r, f) \leq$ $\frac{N(r, f)}{2}+o(T(r, f))$ hence by the second Main Theorem, we have

$$
2 T(r, f) \leq \frac{(Z(r, f-a)+Z(r, f-b)+N(r, f))}{2}+o(T(r, f))
$$

hence $2 T(r, f) \leq \frac{3 T(r, f)}{2}+o(T(r, f))$, a contradiction.
Suppose now that $f$ has one totally branched values $a$ and an exceptional value c. Since $f$ admits primitives, by the second Main Theorem, now we have

$$
T(r, f) \leq \frac{Z(r, f-a)+N(r, f)}{2}-\log (r)+O(1)
$$

hence $T(r, f) \leq \frac{2 T(r, f)}{2}-\log (r)+O(1)$, a contradiction.
Notation: For each $n \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$, we set $\lambda_{n}=\max \left\{\frac{1}{|k|}, 1 \leq k \leq n\right\}$. Given positive integers $n, q$, we denote by $C_{n}^{q}$ the binomial coefficient $\frac{n!}{q!(n-q)!}$.
Remark: For every $n \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$, we have $\lambda_{n} \leq n$ because $k|k| \geq 1 \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$. The equality holds for all $n$ of the form $p^{h}$.
Proposition 5: Let $U, V \in \mathcal{A}\left(d\left(0, R^{-}\right)\right)$. Then for all $\left.r \in\right] 0, R[$ and $n \geq 1$ we have

$$
\left|U^{(n)} V-U V^{(n)}\right|(r) \leq|n!| \lambda_{n} \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{r^{n-1}} .
$$

More generally, given $j, l \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$
\left|U^{(j)} V^{(l)}-U^{(l)} V^{(j)}\right|(r) \leq|(j!)(l!)| \lambda_{j+l} \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{r^{j+l-1}} .
$$

Proof. Set $g=\frac{U}{V}$ and $f=g^{\prime}$. Applying Proposition 1 to $f$ for $k-1$, we obtain

$$
\left|g^{(k)}\right|(r)=\left|f^{(k-1)}\right|(r) \leq|(k-1)!| \frac{|f|(r)}{r^{k-1}}=|(k-1)!| \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{\left|V^{2}\right|(r) r^{k-1}} .
$$

As in the proof of Proposition 1, we set $U=V\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)$. By Leibniz formula again, now we can obtain

$$
U^{(n)}=\sum_{q=1}^{n} C_{n}^{q} V^{(n-q)}\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)^{(q)}+V^{(n)}\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{(n)}-V^{(n)}\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)=\sum_{q=1}^{n} C_{n}^{q} V^{(n-q)}\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)^{(q)} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we have

$$
\left|\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)^{(q)}\right|(r)=\left|g^{(q)}\right|(r) \leq|(q-1)!| \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{\left|V^{2}\right|(r) r^{q-1}}
$$

and

$$
\left|V^{(n-q)}\right|(r) \leq|(n-q)!| \frac{|V|(r)}{r^{n-q}} .
$$

Consequently, the general term in (1) is upper bounded as

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left|C_{n}^{q} V^{(n-q)}\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)^{(q)}\right|(r) \leq \frac{|(n!)((n-q)!)((q-1)!)|}{|(q!)((n-q)!)|} \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{|V|(r) r^{n-1}} \leq \\
\lambda_{n} \frac{|n!|\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{|V|(r) r^{n-1}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Therefore by (1) we obtain

$$
\left|U^{(n)}-V^{(n)}\left(\frac{U}{V}\right)\right|(r) \leq|n!| \lambda_{n} \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{|V|(r) r^{n-1}}
$$

and finally

$$
\left|U^{(n)} V-V^{(n)} U\right|(r) \leq|n!| \lambda_{n} \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(r)}{r^{n-1}} .
$$

We can now generalize the first statement. Set $P_{j}=U^{(j)} V-U V^{(j)}$. By induction, we can show the following equality that already holds for $l \leq j$ :

$$
U^{(j)} V^{(l)}-U^{(l)} V^{(j)}=\sum_{h=0}^{l} C_{l}^{h}(-1)^{h} P_{j+h}^{(l-h)} .
$$

Then, the second statement follows by applying the first.

Proposition 6: Let $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$ and let $r, R \in] 0,+\infty[$ satisfy $r<R$. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{K}$ with $|x| \leq R$ and $|y| \leq r$, we have the inequality:

$$
|U(x+y) V(x)-U(x) V(x+y)| \leq \frac{R\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(R)}{e(\log R-\log r)}
$$

Proof. By Taylor's formula at the point $x$, we have

$$
U(x+y) V(x)-U(x) V(x+y)=\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{U^{(n)}(x) V(x)-U(x) V^{(n)}(x)}{n!} y^{n} .
$$

Now, by Proposition 5, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left|\frac{U^{(n)}(x) V(x)-U(x) V^{(n)}(x)}{n!} y^{n}\right| \leq \lambda_{n} \frac{\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(R)}{R^{n-1}} r^{n} \\
=\lambda_{n} R\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(R)\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^{n} .
\end{gathered}
$$

As remarked above, we have $\lambda_{n} \leq n$. Hence one has

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty} \lambda_{n}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^{n}=0
$$

Consequently, on one hand $\lim _{n \rightarrow+\infty}\left|\frac{U^{(n)}(x) V(x)-U(x) V^{(n}(x)}{n!} y^{n}\right|=0$, on the other hand, we can define $B=\max _{n \geq 1}\left\{\lambda_{n}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^{n}\right\} R\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(R)$ and we have $\mid U(x+$ $y) V(x)-U(x) V(x+y) \mid \leq B$. Now, we can check that the function $h$ defined in $] 0,+\infty\left[\right.$ as $h(t)=t\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^{t}$ reaches its maximum at the point $u=\frac{1}{e(\log R-\log r)}$.
Consequently, $B \leq \frac{1}{e(\log R-\log r)}$ and therefore

$$
|U(x+y) V(x)-U(x) V(x+y)| \leq \frac{R\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(R)}{e(\log R-\log r)}
$$

Notation: Let $D=d(a, s)$ and let $H(D)$ be the $\mathbb{K}$-algebra of analytic elements on $d(a, s)$, i.e. the $\mathbb{K}$-Banach space of converging power series converging in $d(a, s)$ [9]. Given $b \in d(a, s)$ and $r \in] 0, s]$, then $|f(x)|$ has a limit whenever $|x-b|$ tends to $r$, with $|x-b| \neq r$ and we denote by $\varphi_{b, r}(f)$ the number $\lim _{\substack{|x-b| o r,|x-b| \nmid r}}|f(x)|[6]$, [7].

Given $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ and $r>0$, we denote by $s(r, f)$ the number of zeros of $f$ in the disk $d(0, r)$, each counted with its multiplicity and we put $t(r, f)=s\left(r, \frac{1}{f}\right)$.

Finally we denote by $\beta(r, f)$ the number of multiple poles of $f$, each counted with its multiplicity.

Schwarz Lemma [6] Let $D=d(a, s)$ and let $f$ be a power series converging in the disk $d(a, s)$ and having at least (resp. at most) q zeros in $d(a, r)$ with $q>0$ and $0<r<s$. Then we have $\frac{\varphi_{a, s}(f)}{\varphi_{a, r}(f)} \geq\left(\frac{s}{r}\right)^{q},\left(\operatorname{resp} \cdot \frac{\varphi_{a, s}(f)}{\varphi_{a, r}(f)} \leq\left(\frac{s}{r}\right)^{q}\right)$.

Schwarz Corollary: Let $f \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{K})$. The following two statements are equivalent:
$f$ is a polynomial of degree $q$,
there exists $q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{|f|(r)}{r^{q}}$ has a finite limit when $r$ tends to $+\infty$.
Proposition 7: Let $f \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{K})$ be such that for some $c, q \in] 0,+\infty[, t(r, f)$ satisfies $t(r, f) \leq c r^{q}$ in $\left[1,+\infty\left[\right.\right.$. If $f^{\prime}$ has finitely many zeros, then $f \in \mathbb{K}(x)$.

Proof. Suppose $f^{\prime}$ has finitely many zeros and set $f=\frac{U}{V}$. If $V$ is a constant, the statement is immediate. So, we suppose $V$ is not a constant and hence it admits at least one zero $a$. By Proposition 4, there exists a polynomial $P \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that $U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}=P \widetilde{V}$. Next, we take $r, R \in[1,+\infty[$ such that $|a|<r<R$ and $x \in d(0, R), y \in d(0, r)$. By Proposition 5 we have

$$
|U(x+y) V(x)-U(x) V(x+y)| \leq \frac{R\left|U^{\prime} V-U V^{\prime}\right|(R)}{e(\log R-\log r)}
$$

Notice that $U(a) \neq 0$ because $U$ and $V$ have no common zero. Now set $l=$ $\max (1,|a|)$ and take $r \geq l$. Putting $c_{1}=\frac{1}{e|U(a)|}$, we have

$$
|V(a+y)| \leq c_{1} \frac{R|P|(R)|\widetilde{V}|(R)}{\log R-\log r}
$$

Then taking the supremum of $|V(a+y)|$ inside the disk $d(0, r)$, we can derive

$$
\begin{equation*}
|V|(r) \leq c_{1} \frac{R|P|(R)|\widetilde{V}|(R)}{\log R-\log r} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us apply Schwarz Lemma, by taking $R=r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}$, after noticing that the number of zeros of $\widetilde{V}(R)$ is bounded by $s(r, V)$. So, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\widetilde{V}|(R) \leq\left(1+\frac{1}{r^{q+1}}\right)^{\beta\left(\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right), V\right)}|\widetilde{V}|(r) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, due to the hypothesis: $s(r, V)=t(r, f) \leq c r^{q}$ in $[1,+\infty$ [, we have

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left(1+\frac{1}{r^{q+1}}\right)^{\beta\left(\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right), V\right)} \leq\left(1+\frac{1}{r^{q+1}}\right)^{\left[c\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right)^{m}\right]}=  \tag{3}\\
\operatorname{Exp}\left[c\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right)^{q} \log \left(1+\frac{1}{r^{q+1}}\right)\right]
\end{gather*}
$$

The function $h(r)=c\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{m}}\right)^{m} \log \left(1+\frac{1}{r^{m+1}}\right)$ is continuous on $] 0,+\infty[$ and equivalent to $\frac{c}{r}$ when $r$ tends to $+\infty$. Consequently, it is bounded on $[l,+\infty[$. Therefore, by (2) and (3) there exists a constant $M>0$ such that, for all $r \in[l,+\infty[$ by (3) we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\widetilde{V}|\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right) \leq M|\widetilde{V}|(r) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\log \left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right)-\log r=\log \left(1+\frac{1}{r^{q+1}}\right)
$$

clearly satisfies an inequality of the form

$$
\log \left(1+\frac{1}{r^{q+1}}\right) \geq \frac{c_{2}}{r^{q+1}}
$$

in $\left[l,+\infty\left[\right.\right.$ with $c_{2}>0$. Moreover, we can obviously find positive constants $c_{3}, c_{4}$ such that

$$
\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right)|P|\left(r+\frac{1}{r^{q}}\right) \leq c_{3} r^{c_{4}} .
$$

Consequently, by (1) and (4) we can find positive constants $c_{5}, c_{6}$ such that $|V|(r) \leq$ $c_{5} r^{c_{6}}|\widetilde{V}|(r) \forall r \in[l,+\infty[$. Thus, writing again $V=\bar{V} \widetilde{V}$, we have $|\bar{V}|(r)|\widetilde{V}|(r) \leq$ $c_{5} r^{c_{6}}|\widetilde{V}|(r)$ and hence

$$
|\bar{V}|(r) \leq c_{5} r^{c_{6}} \forall r \in[l,+\infty[.
$$

Consequently, by Schwarz Corollary $\bar{V}$ is a polynomial of degree $\leq c_{6}$ and hence it has finitely many zeros and so does $V$. But then, by Theorem $2, f$ must be a rational function.

Corollary 7.a: Let $f$ be a meromorphic function on $\mathbb{K}$ such that, for some $c, q \in$ $] 0,+\infty\left[, t(r, f)\right.$ satisfies $t(r, f) \leq c r^{q}$ in $\left[1,+\infty\left[\right.\right.$. If for some $b \in \mathbb{K} f^{\prime}-b$ has finitely many zeros, then $f$ is a rational function.

Proof. Suppose $f^{\prime}-b$ has finitely many zeros. Then $f-b x$ satisfies the same hypothesis as $f$, hence it is a rational function and so is $f$.

Theorem 4 is now a simple corollary of Corollary 7.a:

## Proof of Theorem 4

Proof. Indeed, since $f$ admits primitives, all poles are multiple, and given a primitive $F$ of $f$, we have $t(r, F) \leq t(r, f)$. Consequently, by the hypothesis we have $\log (t(r, F)) \leq O(\log (r))$ and hence, thanks to Corollary 7.a, $F^{\prime}$ has no quasiexceptional value.

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