# Visualization on the Riemann sphere of Schröder iteration functions and their efficient computation 

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#### Abstract

The theory of Julia and Fatou holds for the complex plane as well as for the Riemann sphere, with minor modifications. The latter space seems a more natural approach to examine rational functions. Schröder iteration functions, a generalization of Newton-Raphson method to determine roots of equations, are generally rational functions which, until now, are examined only in the complex plane. On the Riemann sphere we examine the Julia sets of the Schröder functions constructed to converge to the $n$th roots of unity and the orbits of all free critical points of these functions as applied to a oneparameter family of cubic polynomials. Finally, we present a new algorithmic construction to maximize the computational efficiency of the Schröder functions.


Key-Words: - critical point, Fatou set, Julia set, Riemann sphere, Schröder's method

## 1 Introduction

The method of iteration is the prototype of all numerical methods for attacking the problem of solving (nonlinear) equations in one and several variables. The convergence of these methods, generally, depends upon the initial approximation to a root of our equation. In the special case of polynomial equations, good a priori knowledge of the desired root of the equation often is not available. Looking at the set of all the starting values from a geometrical point of view will definitely help us to choose these initial approximations to a root and compare the convergence properties of various iterative methods.

Ernst Schröder [ ${ }^{9}$ ] in 1870 described a method of finding a rational iterating function of any de-
sired "order of convergence" to determine roots of equations. For polynomial equations this involves the iteration of rational functions over the complex Riemann sphere which is described by the classical theory of Julia [ ${ }^{8}$ ] and Fatou [ ${ }^{6}$ ] and its subsequent developments, also of paramount importance in the context of Numerical Analysis. In what follows we abbreviate as $f^{k}$ the $k$-fold composition $f \circ f \circ \cdots \circ f$, by region we mean a connected open set on the extended complex plane $\overline{\mathbb{C}}=\mathbb{C} \cup\{\infty\}$ and if we have a rational function of the form $R(z)=P(z) / Q(z)$, where $P(z)$ and $Q(z)$ are complex polynomials with no common factors, the degree of $R$ is defined by $\operatorname{deg}(R)=\max \{\operatorname{deg}(P), \operatorname{deg}(Q)\}$.

It appears that convergence of the sequence of iterates $z_{0}, R\left(z_{0}\right), R^{2}\left(z_{0}\right), \ldots$ is assured for every
choice of starting point $z_{0}$ on the extended complex plane, except when $z_{0}$ is a point of a certain nowhere dense perfect set, the Julia set $J(R)$. How "close" a starting point must be to the desired root depends on certain convergence conditions and how "fast" does the method converge depends on the order of convergence of our iterative method.

It may happen, however, that when choosing a starting point $z_{0}$ in a certain domain, convergence takes place not to a zero of our polynomial, but to a periodic orbit or cycle, that is a set of $p \geq 2$ distinct points $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{p}\right\}$ such that

$$
R\left(a_{1}\right)=a_{2}, \ldots, R\left(a_{p-1}\right)=a_{p}, R\left(a_{p}\right)=a_{1},
$$

so that, in fact, for each $k=1,2, \ldots, p, z=a_{k}$ is a solution of $R^{p}(z)=z$. Hence, a point $a$ is periodic if $R^{p}(a)=a$ for some $p>0$; it is repelling, indifferent or attracting depending on whether $\left|\left(R^{p}\right)^{\prime}(a)\right|$ is greater than, equal to, or less than one. If $\left|\left(R^{p}\right)^{\prime}(a)\right|=0, a$ is termed superattracting. If $p=1$, $z$ is called a fixed point of $R$. The Julia set $J(R)$ of a rational function $R$ is the closure of all repelling periodic points of $R$ and the Fatou set is its complement on $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$. Also, if $a$ is an attracting fixed point of $R$ then

$$
A(a)=\left\{z \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}: \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} R^{k}(z)=a\right\}
$$

is the basin of attraction of $a$. We also have the following important property: the boundary of $A(a)$ is $J(R)$. It follows that if $R$ has several distinct attracting fixed points, then their basins of attraction share the same boundary, the Julia set of $R$.

A portion of this paper was motivated by [ ${ }^{5}$ ] and could be considered an extension of it to the Riemann sphere. We first outline the construction of the extended complex plane as a sphere. Then, we maximize the computational efficiency of the Schröder functions by reconstructing them. Finally we examine on the Riemann sphere, with the aid of microcomputer-generated plots, the Julia sets of the Schröder scheme as applied to the set of functions $f_{n}(z)=z^{n}-1$ for $n=2,3, \ldots$, their roots, basins of attraction and the dynamics of Schröder maps applied to the one-parameter family of cubic polynomials presented in [ ${ }^{2}$.

## 2 Schröder Iteration Functions revisited

Schröder iteration functions are a family of rational iteration functions which are designed to converge with order $\sigma \geq 2$ to the zeros of a function $f$. We define the Schröder iteration functions as (see [ $\left.{ }^{7}\right]$ )

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{\sigma}(z)=z+\sum_{k=1}^{\sigma-1} c_{k}(z)[-f(z)]^{k}, \quad \sigma=2,3, \ldots \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
c_{k}(z)=\frac{1}{k!}\left[\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)} \frac{d}{d z}\right]^{k-1} \frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)}
$$

and

$$
\left[\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)} \frac{d}{d z}\right]^{k-1}=\underbrace{\left[\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)} \frac{d}{d z}\right]\left[\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)} \frac{d}{d z}\right] \cdots\left[\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)} \frac{d}{d z}\right]}_{k-1 \text { factors }}
$$

The coefficients $c_{k}(z)$ are analytic functions in every subregion $T$ of $\mathbb{C}$ for $f^{\prime}(z) \neq 0$. For $\sigma=2$, we get the familiar Newton-Raphson function

$$
S_{2}(z)=N(z)=z-f(z) / f^{\prime}(z)
$$

We observe that Schröder's iteration is Newton-Raphson-like in form. The iteration sequence $z_{n+1}=S_{\sigma}\left(z_{n}\right), \sigma=2,3, \ldots$, converges locally to the roots $z_{i}^{*}, i=1,2, \ldots, \operatorname{deg}(f)$, of $f(z)=0$, as $O\left(\left|z_{n}-z_{i}^{*}\right|^{\sigma}\right)\left(\left[{ }^{7}\right]\right.$, Theorem 6.12c, p. 530). The $S_{\sigma}$ are truncations of a general infinite series in $f$ and it is easily seen that their construction requires the first $\sigma-1$ derivatives of $f$. Thus, the above form of Eq. (1) is not so useful for generalized computations and programming of all the $S_{\sigma}$ terms. To eliminate this inconvenience we deem it necessary to introduce the following construction.

Starting with $h_{1}(z)=1$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{h_{1}(z)}{f^{\prime}(z)}\right)^{\prime} \frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)}=\frac{h_{2}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{3}}, \\
& \left(\frac{h_{2}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{3}}\right)^{\prime} \frac{1}{f^{\prime}(z)}=\frac{h_{3}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{5}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and, in general,

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{k+1}(z)=h_{k}^{\prime}(z) f^{\prime}(z)-(2 k-1) h_{k}(z) f^{\prime \prime}(z) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $k=1,2, \ldots, \sigma-2$. Thus,

$$
c_{k}(z)=\frac{1}{k!} \frac{h_{k}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{2 k-1}},
$$

and Eq. (1) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{\sigma}(z)=z+\sum_{k=1}^{\sigma-1} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k!} \frac{h_{k}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{2 k-1}}[f(z)]^{k} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We observe that $S_{\sigma}$ uses $\sigma-1$ number of $h_{k}, k=$ $1,2, \ldots, \sigma-1$, and $\sigma \geq 2$.

For $\sigma=2$, the fixed point condition $S_{\sigma}(z)=z$ implies that $f(z)=0$. For $\sigma>2$, it implies that $f(z)=0$, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{\sigma-1} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k!} \frac{h_{k}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{2 k-1}}[f(z)]^{k-1}=0 . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall refer to the zeros of Eq. (4) as extraneous fixed points. Their appearance may complicate the root-finding procedure. For more informations about the behaviour of these points and specifically for the attracting ones which lead to pathological cycles, we refer to [ ${ }^{3}$.

Suppose that $f$ is a polynomial of degree $d \geq 2$ and that its first $\sigma$ derivatives exist. Then $h_{k}, k=$ $1,2, \ldots, \sigma$, are polynomials and $S_{\sigma}$ are rational functions. The Julia-Fatou theory can describe the possible types of behavior of the iteration sequence $\left(S_{\sigma}^{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$. To analyze this behavior, the critical points of $S_{\sigma}$ will play a crucial role.

Critical values of a function $f$ are defined as those values $v \in \mathbb{C}$ for which $f(z)=v$ has a multiple root. The multiple root $z=c$ is called the critical point of $f$. This is equivalent to the condition $f^{\prime}(c)=0$. The underlying reason for studying these special orbits rests in the following theorem of Fatou [ ${ }^{6}$ ]:
Theorem 1 If $R$ is a rational function having an attracting cycle, then at least one critical point will converge to it.
Among the critical points of $S_{\sigma}$ determined by the condition $S_{\sigma}^{\prime}(z)=0$ are the zeros $z_{i}^{*}$ which are also attracting fixed points of the $S_{\sigma}$. These points are obviously not free to converge to any other attracting cycles. Other roots, which we shall call the free critical points, are available, however.

Differentiating Eq. (3) with respect to $z$ we have that the condition $S_{\sigma}^{\prime}(z)=0$ implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{\sigma}(z)[f(z)]^{\sigma-1}=0 . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the free critical points of $S_{\sigma}$ are the zeros of $h_{\sigma}$.

## 3 Computational Techniques

The computational efficiency of an iterative method is a measure of how much computation must be done to arrive at a given accuracy in a root. Because the computational efficiency of Schröder's method depends upon the number of evaluations of $f$ and its derivatives, we describe here how one can reduce these calculations and produce quickly all of the $S_{\sigma}$ terms.

If we denote as

$$
\Phi_{k}(z)=\frac{(-1)^{k}}{k!} h_{k}(z), \quad k=1,2, \ldots, \sigma-1,
$$

Eq. (3) becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{\sigma}(z)= & z+\frac{\Phi_{1}(z)}{f^{\prime}(z)} f(z)+\frac{\Phi_{2}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{3}}[f(z)]^{2}+\cdots \\
& +\frac{\Phi_{\sigma-1}(z)}{\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{2 \sigma-3}}[f(z)]^{\sigma-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

We define as

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(z)=f(z) / f^{\prime}(z) \text { and } G(z)=f(z) /\left[f^{\prime}(z)\right]^{2}, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
S_{\sigma}(z)= & z+\left(\Phi_{1}(z)+\left(\Phi_{2}(z)+\cdots\right.\right. \\
& \left.\left.+\Phi_{\sigma-1}(z) G(z)\right) G(z)\right) F(z) . \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

During the development of the images we compute the coefficients of the polynomials $f^{\prime}, \Phi_{k}, k=$ $1,2, \ldots, \sigma-1$, before the main pixel-scanning procedure begins. In the pixel-scanning procedure, for each iteration of a point $z_{n}$, we compute, $f\left(z_{n}\right)$ and $f^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)$ with Horner's scheme, $F\left(z_{n}\right)$ and $G\left(z_{n}\right)$ from (6) and $S_{\sigma}\left(z_{n}\right)$ from (7).

The case of the $\lambda$-parameter space of the cubic polynomials

$$
\begin{align*}
p_{\lambda}(z) & =z^{3}+(\lambda-1) z-\lambda \\
& =(z-1)\left(z^{2}+z+\lambda\right), \quad \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

which will be described in Section 6, involves greater difficulty because the coefficients of the polynomials $f^{\prime}$ and $\Phi_{k}$ depend on the parameter $\lambda$ that changes for each pixel. So, $f^{\prime}$ and $\Phi_{k}$ must be computed from the beginning for each pixel in the scanning procedure. Something like that is timeconsuming: one $\Phi_{k}$ is evaluated recursively from the $h_{k}, k=1,2, \ldots, \sigma-1$, and in every iteration we apply Eq. (2). In this case, the initial evaluation of $\Phi_{k}$ takes place in a symbolic way; that is, the information for the creation of each coefficient of the polynomial $\Phi_{k}$ is stored according to the parameter $\lambda$. Fortunately, we have to multiply only a number (independently of $\lambda$ ) by a specific power of $\lambda-1$. That can be seen from the following.

Let $c_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots$, be complex numbers independent of $\lambda$ or of $a=\lambda-1$ and not excluding the case where some of them are equal. Note that $h_{k}$ are the polynomials presented in Section 2. We then have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{\lambda}(z)=z^{3}+a z-\lambda \\
& p_{\lambda}^{\prime}(z)=c_{1} z^{2}+a \\
& p_{\lambda}^{\prime \prime}(z)=c_{2} z
\end{aligned}
$$

and we define

$$
\begin{aligned}
q(z) & =z^{3}+z-1 \\
q^{\prime}(z) & =c_{1} z^{2}+1 \\
q^{\prime \prime}(z) & =c_{2} z .
\end{aligned}
$$

For the $h_{k}$ associated with $q^{\prime}$ and $q^{\prime \prime}$ we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{1}(z)=1 \\
& h_{2}(z)=c_{2} z \\
& h_{3}(z)=c_{3} z^{2}+c_{4} \\
& h_{4}(z)=c_{5} z^{3}+c_{6} z
\end{aligned}
$$

and so on. To compute the coefficients of the polynomial $h_{k}(z)$ associated with $p_{\lambda}^{\prime}$ and $p_{\lambda}^{\prime \prime}$ we modify the above mentioned $h_{k}(z)$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, \sigma-1$ so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{1}(z)=1 \\
& h_{2}(z)=c_{2} z \\
& h_{3}(z)=c_{3} z^{2}+c_{4} a \\
& h_{4}(z)=c_{5} z^{3}+c_{6} a z
\end{aligned}
$$

and so on. The above analysis of $h_{k}, k=1,2, \ldots, \sigma-$ 1 , generally gives that

$$
h_{k}(z)=\sum_{i=0}^{m} c_{i} a^{i} z^{k-1-2 i},
$$

where $m=(k-1) / 2$ if $k$ is odd and $m=(k / 2)-1$ if $k$ is even. It is obvious from the above that one of the roots of $h_{k}(z)=0$, for even values of $k$, is $z=0$. Thus, if $\sigma$ is even, the map $S_{\sigma}\left(p_{\lambda}(z)\right)$ has $z=0$ as a free critical point.

## 4 The World is Round

To obtain a metric on $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ we identify $\mathbb{C}$ with the horizontal plane $\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x_{3}=0\right\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and proceed to construct the usual model for $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ as a sphere.


Figure 1: Stereographic projection
Let $S$ be the sphere in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with unit radius and centre at the origin so that $\mathbb{C}$ cuts $S$ along the equator, that is

$$
S=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}=1\right\}
$$

and denote the point $(0,0,1)$ (the top point of $S$ ) by $B$. This point is called the north pole. Another choice is to take the south pole at the origin. We now project each point $z \in \mathbb{C}$ linearly towards (or away from) $B$ until it meets $S$ at a point $z^{*}$ distinct from $B$ : this means that a line from $B$ to a point $z$ in the complex plane intersects the sphere at a point $z^{*}$. If $|z|>1$ then $z^{*}$ is in the northern hemisphere and if $|z|<1$ then $z^{*}$ is in the southern hemisphere; also for $|z|=1, z^{*}=z$. The map $\pi: z \mapsto z^{*}$ is called the stereographic projection of $\mathbb{C}$ into $S$. We may equivalently define $\pi: S \backslash\{B\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with $\pi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=\left(x_{1}+i x_{2}\right) /\left(1-x_{3}\right)$. Clearly, if $|z|$ is 'large', then $z^{*}$ is 'near' to $B$ and with this in mind we define the projection $\pi(\infty)$ of $\infty$ to be $B$. This mapping is conformal (i.e., angle-preserving), and so the corresponding conformal geometries are the same. With this definition, the identification of $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ with $S$ allows us to use them interchangeably, because $\pi$ is a bijective map from $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ to $S$, and this
explains why $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ is also called the Riemann sphere: see Figure 1.

We now use the bijection $\pi$ of $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ onto $S$ to transfer the Euclidean metric (in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ ) from $S$ to a metric $\chi$ on $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ : this simply means that $\chi$ is defined in the natural way by the formula

$$
\chi(z, w)=|\pi(z)-\pi(w)|=\left|z^{*}-w^{*}\right| .
$$

A gentle exercise in Vector Geometry (which we omit) yields an explicit formula for $\chi$, namely

$$
\chi(z, w)=\frac{2|z-w|}{\sqrt{\left(1+|z|^{2}\right)\left(1+|w|^{2}\right)}}
$$

when $z$ and $w$ are in $\mathbb{C}$, while for $z$ in $\mathbb{C}$,

$$
\chi(z, \infty)=\lim _{w \rightarrow \infty} \chi(z, w)=\frac{2}{\sqrt{\left(1+|z|^{2}\right)}} .
$$

As $\chi(z, w)$ is the Euclidean length of the chord joining $z^{*}$ to $w^{*}, \chi$ is called the chordal metric on $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$.

## 5 Julia Sets of Schröder Functions applied to the Polynomials $f_{n}(z)=z^{n}-1$ and their Zeros' Basins of Attraction

In [5] we examined in the complex plane the Julia sets of Schröder functions $S_{\sigma}$, for $\sigma=2,3, \ldots$, constructed to converge to the $n$th roots of unity and these roots' basins of attraction. We have furthered this by examining the above mentioned sets on the Riemann sphere. With this projection the outcome is even more astonishing and useful than the usual examination in the complex plane.

The projection of the image on the Riemann sphere can be accomplished after three fundamental steps: firstly, we project our grid upon the Riemann sphere, secondly, we project the sphere on the plane using the stereographic projection described in Section 4 and, thirdly, we produce the basin of attraction or the Julia set. The first step can be accomplished by employing the normal projection according to [ ${ }^{1}$ ] and observing the sphere from the south pole. The second step uses the fact that the interior of the south hemisphere is mapped to the interior of a large disk around the origin. The third step was computed by almost the same algorithm as described in Section 4 of [ ${ }^{5}$ ], except that we did
not take a square as our starting value's grid, but a circle.

We observe that, for a given polynomial $f_{n}$, the complexity of the basin maps increases with the order $\sigma$ of the $S_{\sigma}$ maps and with each increment a new set of $n$ "petals" appears to be embedded in an infinitely self-similar fashion. To have an idea how this looks like on the sphere, we can rotate it using the width and length angles assigned to our program. First the $y$-rotation takes place and then the $x$-rotation.

The white regions in some of the figures, are not to be interpreted as part of a basin of attraction $A\left(z^{*}\right)$. Since $f_{n}^{\prime}(0)=0, z=0$ is mapped to the point at infinity. Points near $z=0$ may first be mapped many orders of magnitude away from it, whereupon a great number of iterations might be required to bring them back to the $z_{i}^{*}$, if at all. Therefore, these grid points would remain as part of the background which has been plotted as white. We can control these white regions with an overflow parameter added to the program for this special dynamic behaviour. Analysis of these plots that considers individually each iteration procedure $S_{\sigma}$ as applied to $f_{n}$ appears in [ ${ }^{4}$ ]. For the Figures 2 to 4 the angles were, in the $x$-direction, $O^{\circ}$ and, in the $y$-direction, $3 O^{\circ}$. The overflow parameter was $1 E 10$ for $n=2,3$ and $1 E 13$ for $n=4$.

Case 1. $\sigma=2$ : The basins of attraction for $n=$ 2, 3 are presented in Figures 2(a), 3(a), respectively. The Julia set for $n=4$ is presented in Figure 4(a).


Figure 2: Schröder basins of attraction for the roots of $f_{2}(z)=z^{2}-1$ on the Riemann sphere. Blue regions constitute $A(1)$; yellow regions constitute $A(-1)$; (a) $S_{2}$ method, (b) $S_{3}$ method, (c) $S_{4}$ method.

Case 2. $\sigma=3$ : The basins of attraction for $n=$ 2, 3 are presented in Figures 2(b), 3(b), respectively. The Julia set for $n=4$ is presented in Figure 4(b).

Case 3. $\sigma=4$ : The basins of attraction for $n=$


Figure 3: Schröder basins of attraction for the roots of $f_{3}(z)=z^{3}-1$ on the Riemann sphere. Blue regions constitute $A(1)$; yellow regions constitute $A(-0.5+i 0.5 \sqrt{3})$; green regions constitute $A(-0.5-i 0.5 \sqrt{3})$. (a) $S_{2}$ method, (b) $S_{3}$ method, (c) $S_{4}$ method.

2, 3 are presented in Figures 2(c), 3(c), respectively. The Julia set for $n=4$ is presented in Figure 4(c).


Figure 4: Julia sets of the Schröder functions applied to $f_{4}(z)=z^{4}-1$ on the Riemann sphere. (a) $S_{2}$ method, (b) $S_{3}$ method, (c) $S_{4}$ method.

## 6 A Walk in Parameter Space

We now focus attention on Schröder iteration methods associated with the particular one parameter family of cubic polynomials (9) the zeros of which are $z_{1}^{*}=1, z_{2}^{*}=(-1+\sqrt{1-4 \lambda}) / 2$ and $z_{3}^{*}=$ $(-1-\sqrt{1-4 \lambda}) / 2$.

Note the $\lambda$-dependence of $z_{2}^{*}$ and $z_{3}^{*}$. The polynomials $p_{\lambda}$ are exactly the monic cubics whose roots sum to zero and which have 1 as a root. Since any cubic can be transformed into an $p_{\lambda}$ or into $z^{3}$ by an affine change of variable and multiplication by a constant, analyzing Schröder's method for a general cubic reduces essentially to analyzing it for the $p_{\lambda}$ 's.

Each point $\lambda=\operatorname{Re}(\lambda)+i \operatorname{Im}(\lambda)$ represents a dynamical system with its own fixed points, possible attracting cycles and Julia sets. There are regions in the $\lambda$-parameter space where attracting periodic cycles exist in addition to the attracting fixed points associated with the zeros of $p_{\lambda}$. Extra fixed points
corresponding to the roots of Eq. (4), shown to be repelling for $\lambda=1$, may become attracting in regions of the $\lambda$-space. To detect the existence of attracting cycles which could interfere with the Schröder search for the $z_{i}^{*}$, we observe the orbits of the free critical points of the $S_{\sigma}$ functions.

The free critical points $c_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, \sigma-1$ for the first three $S_{\sigma}$ functions associated with $p_{\lambda}$ can be computed by Eq. (5) and are given below:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma=2, c_{1}=0 \\
& \sigma=3, c_{1,2}= \pm \sqrt{(\lambda-1) / 15}, \\
& \sigma=4, c_{1,2}= \pm \sqrt{(\lambda-1) / 6}, \quad c_{3}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The free critical points for the first ten $S_{\sigma}$ functions associated with $p_{\lambda}$ are presented in [5].

The dynamics of each Schröder map $S_{\sigma}$ on the extended complex parameter space was studied in much the same way as described in Section 5 of this paper and in Subsection 5.2 of [ ${ }^{5}$ ], except that the region of the complex $\lambda$-plane was represented by a circle grid. The grid point in $\lambda$-space was colored accordingly: blue for convergence to $z_{1}^{*}$, red for convergence to $z_{2}^{*}$ and green for convergence to $z_{3}^{*}$. The resulting black areas represent regions in parameter space for which additional attracting cycles existed. The corresponding parameter space maps for the critical points $c_{i+1}=-c_{i}$ are obtained by a reflection about the real $\lambda$-axis. For the Figures 5, 7(a) and 7 (b) the angles were, in the $x$-direction, $O^{\circ}$ and, in the $y$-direction, $-90^{\circ}$. The overflow parameter was $1 E 30$.


Figure 5: Iteration schemes for the one-parameter family of cubic polynomials $p_{\lambda}$; (a) $S_{2}$ method, (b) $S_{3}$ method.

Case 1. $\sigma=2$ : Figure 5(a) represents regions in parameter space for which the critical point $c_{1}$ is attracted to $z_{i}^{*}$. Figure 6(a) is an enlargement of a region in Figure 5(a), but located on the dark side of this sphere.

Case 2. $\sigma=3$ : Figure 5(b) represents regions in parameter space for which the critical point $c_{1}$ is


Figure 6: Magnifications of Figures 6(a) and 6(b) revealing Mandelbrot sets for the $S_{2}$ and $S_{3}$ methods, respectively.


Figure 7: (a), (b) $S_{4}$ iteration scheme for the one-parameter family of cubic polynomials $p_{\lambda}$. (c) A magnification of a region of Figure (b) revealing a Mandelbrot set for the $S_{4}$ method.
attracted to $z_{i}^{*}$. Figure $6(\mathrm{~b})$ is an enlargement of a region in Figure $5(\mathrm{~b})$.

Case 3. $\quad \sigma=4$ : Figures $7(\mathrm{a})$ and (b) represent regions in parameter space for which the critical points $c_{1}$ and $c_{3}$, respectively, are attracted to $z_{i}^{*}$. Figure $7(c)$ is an enlargement of a region in Figure 7 (b) showing a Mandelbrot-like set associated with $c_{3}$.

Because the black shapes that we discovered in the $\lambda$-parameter space exhibit the morphology and the classical characteristics of Mandelbrot sets, it comes in a non-surprising fashion the following
Definition 1 The Mandelbrot set associated with the Schröder function $S_{\sigma}$ for the cubic polynomials $p_{\lambda}$ is the set

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{M}_{\sigma}(\lambda)= & \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: \text { there exist attracting } k \text {-cycles } \\
& k=1,2, \ldots, \text { for } S_{\sigma} \text { other than the roots } \\
& \left.z_{i}^{*} \text { of } p_{\lambda}(z)=0\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

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