J. OMBACH (Kraków)

PERIODIC POINTS AND BIFURCATION OF ONE-DIMENSIONAL MAPS

1. This note concerns the problem of dependence of the behaviour of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ generated by the difference equation

$$(1) x_{n+1} = f_t(x_n)$$

on the value of a real parameter t if f_t is a one-dimensional function. This problem is important in applications, for example in theoretical biology (see [7] and References therein) or in the theory of weather prediction (see [6]). In situations important in applications the following conditions are satisfied.

For every t the function $f = f_t$ maps the interval I = [0, 1] into itself,

(2)
$$f(0) = f(1) = 0,$$
f has exactly one critical point $c = c_t \in (0, 1)$.

The classical situation where f_t is given by the formula

(3)
$$f_t(x) = tx(1-x), x \in I, t \in [0, 4],$$

has been studied extensively in many papers. It has been shown (see for example [5], [6], [7]) that f_t has for 1 < t exactly one non-zero fixed point p_t which for $t \le 3$ attracts all points of I except of 0 and 1 (all definitions will be given later). For 3 < t the point p_t bifurcates into a 2-periodic orbit Which for $t \le 1 + \sqrt{6}$ attracts all points of I except of 0, 1, p_t and succesive inverse images of p_t under f_t . Similarly there appears a 4-periodic orbit, an 8-periodic orbit, etc. These orbits succesively attract all points of $I \setminus E$, where E is a countable set. However for $t > t_d$ (approx. $t_d = 3.570$) there appear *n*-periodic orbits with *n* different from 2^k for all *k*. For example there are for t = 3.627 a 6-periodic orbit, for t = 3.75 a 5-periodic orbit, for t= 3.83 a 3-periodic orbit. For t = 3.76 it is hard to decide, whether the

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attracting periodic orbit exists. For t = 4 there are no attracting periodic orbits.

Similar phenomena occur for other families of functions (see [4] and [7] where some numerical results are given). We give the qualitative description of the above phenomena in the case if f_t satisfies for every t the Singer condition

$$(4) S(f)(x) < 0,$$

where

$$S(f)(x) = \frac{f'''(x)}{f'(x)} - \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{f''(x)}{f'(x)}\right)^2$$
, for $x \neq c$,

is the Schwarzian derivative of f (see [3], [11]). It is shown in [11] that the above condition is satisfied in most situations considered in applications. Our results generalize and complete known results obtained for the family (3) (see [5], [6]) and for families similar to (3) (see [7]). Some of these results one can probably obtain using kneading theory (see [1], [3], and References in [1]). However the methods presented here are more elementary. Our consideration can be repeated if f_t maps an interval [0, A] into itself, $0 < A \le \infty$. If $A = \infty$, the condition f(A) = 0 means that $\lim_{t \to a} f(x) = 0$.

2. Let $f: I \to I$ be a continuous function. Define the *n*th iteration of f as follows: $f^0 = \text{identity}$, $f^{n+1} = f \circ f^n$. For $x \in I$ the *orbit* o(x) of x is the sequence $\{f^n(x)\}_0^\infty$. The ω -limit set $\omega(x)$ of x is the set of all limit points of o(x). A point $x \in I$ is n-periodic if o(x) contains exactly n points, eventually n-periodic if $f^k(x)$ is n-periodic for some k and asymptotically n-periodic if $\omega(x) = o(y)$ for some n-periodic point y. The 1-periodic point is said to be the fixed point. A set $A \subset I$ is said to be n-periodically invariant if $f^n(A) \subset A$ and $f^k(A) \not = A$ for $1 \le k < n$. The 1-periodically invariant set is called the invariant set. If A is n-periodically invariant, then the set $o(A) = A \cup f(A) \cup \ldots \cup f^{n-1}(A)$ is said to be the generalized n-periodic orbit. An invariant set $A \subset I$ is absorbing in a set $J \subset I$ if for every $x \in J$ there exists k such that $f^k(x) \in A$. An invariant set $A \subset I$ is attracting in a set $A \subset I$ if $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ for every $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ for every $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ for every $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap A \cap A$ is an eighbourhood of $A \cap A \cap A$ invariant set $A \cap$

It is easy to see that o(x) is an attracting periodic orbit with respect to f if and only if x is the attracting fixed point of f^n and $f^k(x) \neq x$ for $1 \leq k < n$. For an n-periodic point x the eigenvalue $\lambda(x)$ is the number $(f^n)'(x) = f'(f^{n-1}(x)) \cdot \ldots \cdot f'(x)$. For $|\lambda(x)| < 1$ the set o(x) is an attractor, for $|\lambda(x)| > 1$ the set o(x) is not an attractor (we say non-attractor). If the set f^n is absorbing with respect to f^n (in some set f^n) then the generalized f^n -periodic orbit is absorbing.

3. The Schwarzian derivative S(f) of f defined for functions of class C^3 by formula (3) has been used by David Singer ([11]) to investigate the difference equation of the form (1). We quote some results from [8] and [11].

Proposition 0. (i) Let f and g be functions of class C^3 . Then

$$S(f \circ g)(x) = S(f)(g(x))g'(x)^{2} + S(g)(x).$$

Assume that the function f satisfies the condition (4).

- (ii) For every n the function f^n satisfies the condition (4).
- (iii) The function f' cannot have a positive local minimum.
- (iv) If f has finitely many critical points, then f has finitely many fixed points.
- (v) If p is the fixed point of f with $|\lambda(p)| \le 1$, then p is attracting in the interval J containing p and d, where d is a critical point or is the end of I. If additionally $\lambda(p) \ne 1$, then p is the attractor.
- (vi) If f satisfies the condition (2), then there exists at most one attracting periodic orbit.
- 4. We give two propositions from the bifurcation theory provided the Singer condition (4) holds. We start from a simple and not hard to prove lemma.

Lemma 1. Let $f_t\colon I\to I$ be a family of functions defined for t from an interval T. Let $A\subset I$ be a compact set, let the mapping $T\times A\ni (t,x)\to f_t(x)\in I$ be continuous. Put $R_t(A)=\{x\in A\colon f_t(x)=x\}$. Then for every $t_0\in T$, $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that for $|t-t_0|<\delta$,

$$R_t(A) \subset B(R_{t_0}(A), \varepsilon) = \{x \in A \colon |x - y| < \varepsilon \text{ for some } y \in R_{t_0}(A)\}.$$

Now, let $f_t: I \to I$ be a family of functions of class C^3 defined for t from an interval T, such that the mapping $(t, x) \to f_t^{(i)}(x)$, i = 0, 1, 2, is continuous $(f^{(i)}$ denotes the ith derivative of f). Assume that f_t satisfies for every $t \in T$ the condition (4).

PROPOSITION 1. Let $s \in T$, $p \in (0, 1)$. Assume that $f_s(p) = p$, $f_s(x) > x$ $f_s(x) < x$ respectively) for x from a neighbourhood V of p, $x \neq p$. Then there exist neighbourhoods S of s and U of p such that for $t \in S$ the equation $f_t(x) = x$ either has no solution in U, or has exactly one solution q in U and then $f_t'(q) = 1$, or has exactly two solutions $q_1 < q_2$ in U and then $0 < f_t'(q_1) < 1 < f_t'(q_2)$ $(0 < f_t'(q_2) < 1 < f_t'(q_1)$ respectively).

Proof. Assume for instance $f_s(x) > x$. The condition (4) implies that $f_s''(p) > 0$. This condition and the Mean Value Theorem permit to choose neighbourhoods S and U such that for $t \in S$ the equation $f_t(x) = x$ has at most two solutions in U and $f_t(x) > x$ for $x \in V \setminus U$. One can apply once more the Mean Value Theorem to complete the proof.

PROPOSITION 2. Let $s \in T$, $p \in (0, 1)$. Assume that $f_s(p) = p$, $f'_s(p) = -1$. Then there exist neighbourhoods S of s and U of p such that for $t \in S$ the

equation $f_t(x) = x$ has exactly one solution q in U, and either $f_t'(q) \ge -1$, or there exist exactly two points q_1 , q_2 in U such that $q_1 < q < q_2$, $f_t^2(q_i) = q_i$, i = 1, 2, and then $0 < (f_t^2)'(q_i) < 1$.

Proof. The first part follows from the Implicit Function Theorem. We prove the second part. Note that $f_s^2(p) = p$, $(f_s^2)'(p) = 1$, $(f_s^2)''(p) = 0$, and by the condition (4) $(f_s^2)'''(p) < 0$. By the Taylor Theorem, we have $f_s^2(x) > x$ for x < p and $f_s^2(x) < x$ for x > p. One can choose neighbourhoods S and U such that for $t \in S$ $(f_t^2)'(x) > 0$ for $x \in U$ and $f_t^2(x) > x$ for x < q, $x \notin U$, $f_t^2(x) < x$ for x > q, $x \notin U$. Let $t \in S$ and let $f_t'(q) < -1$. Then $(f_t^2)'(q) > 1$ what means that the equation $f_t^2(x) = x$ has solutions $g_1 < q$ and $g_2 > q$ in $g_1 < q$. The Mean Value Theorem and Proposition 0 (iii) imply that the above equation has no solutions except $g_1 < g_2 < q$ in $g_2 < g_3 < q$. Hence $g_2 = f_t(g_1)$, $g_1 = f_t(g_2)$ and $g_2 < g_3 < q$.

5. Assume in this section that the C^3 mapping $f: I \to I$ satisfies conditions (2), (4) and

(5)
$$f'(0) > 1$$
.

LEMMA 2. There exists exactly one non-zero fixed point of f.

Proof. Conditions (2) and (5) imply that the fixed point exists. If two non-zero fixed points $q_1 < q_2$ exist, then $q_1 < c$. The Mean Value Theorem implies that f'(a) = 1 for some $a < q_1$. Proposition 0 (iii) implies that the function f(x) - x decreases in the interval (a, 1) which contradicts $f(q_2) = q_2$, $q_1 < q_2$.

In the sequel the unique non-zero point of f is denoted by p.

LEMMA 3. If the fixed point p is a non-attractor, then there exists a unique 2-periodic orbit.

Proof. We show that $f^2(a) \le a$ for some a < p, which together with the inequality $(f^2)'(0) > 1$ imply the existence of a 2-periodic orbit $\{p_1, p_2\}$, $p_1 . Assume the contrary, i.e. that <math>f^2(x) > x$ for every x < p. By the uniqueness of p we have c < p. For $c \le x < p$ we successively obtain: p < f(x), $x < f^2(x) < p$, $p < f^3(x) < f(x)$, $x < f^2(x) < p$, etc. The sequence $\{f^{2n}(x)\}$ has a limit $q \le p$ and $f^2(q) = q$ what means that q = p, but this contradicts the non-attractivity of p.

Let $\{q_1, q_2\}$ be a 2-periodic orbit. It is clear that $q_1 for <math>q_1 < q_2$. Similarly as in the proof of Lemma 2 one can show that $q_2 = p_2$ and hence $q_1 = p_1$.

Proposition 3. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) The point p is the attractor,
- (ii) $f'(p) \ge -1$,
- (iii) There are no n-periodic orbits for n > 1,
- (iv) The point p is attracting in (0, 1).

Proof. Obviously (iv) implies (iii). (iii) implies (i) by Lemma 3. (i) and (ii) are equivalent by Proposition 0 (v) and Lemma 2. It suffices to prove that (ii) implies (iv). Let c < p (for $p \le c$ the proof is obvious). By Proposition 0 (v), p is attracting in [c, p] and hence [c, f(c)]. For every $x \in (0, c)$ there exists an integer k such that $c \le f^k(x)$, otherwise the sequence $\{f^n(x)\}$ has a limit $q \le c$ and f(q) = q < p. Since $f^k(x) \le f(c)$, the sequence $\{f^n(x)\}$ tends to p. Since for $x \in (f(c), 1)$ we have $f(x) \in (0, f(c))$, the point p is attracting in (0, 1).

For $x \in [0, f(c)]$ denote by x_l and x_r the uniquely defined points of l satisfying $f(x_l) = f(x_r) = x$ and $x_l \le c \le x_r$. Similarly $x_{ll} = (x_l)_l$, $x_{lr} = (x_l)_r$, etc.

Proposition 4. Let the point p be the non-attractor and let

$$(6) p \leq f^3(c).$$

Then:

- (i) The interval $P = [p_l, p_{lr}]$ is absorbing in (0, 1),
- (ii) The intervals $L = [p_l, p]$ and $R = [p, p_{lr}]$ have the properties: $f(L) \subset R$, f(R) = L, $f^2(L) \subset L$, $f^2(R) \subset R$,
- (iii) The restrictions $f^2|_L$, $f^2|_R$ are topologically conjugate with a mapping $f_1: I \to I$ satisfying conditions (2), (4), (5),
- (iv) f has a 2n-periodic orbit (attracting 2n-periodic orbit resp.), if and only if f_1 has an n-periodic orbit (attracting n-periodic orbit resp.),
 - (v) f has no (2n+1)-periodic orbits for all $n \ge 1$,
- (vi) If f_1 has a generalized n-periodic orbit (absorbing resp.), then f has a generalized 2n-periodic orbit (absorbing resp.),
 - (vii) $f^3(c) = p$ if and only if $f_1(c_1) = 1$, where c_1 is the critical point of f_1 . Proof. It is easy to see that c < p, and therefore

$$c_1 < p_1 < c < p < c_r < p_{lr}$$
.

The mapping f^2 has three critical points: at c_l and c_r it has its maximum, and at c it has a local minimum. The condition (6) implies the inequalities $f^2(c) \ge p_l$, $f(c) = f^2(c_r) \le p_{lr}$. Hence the interval P is invariant and (ii) is true. Similarly as in the proof of Proposition 3 one can show that for every $x \in (0, 1)$ there exists k such that $f^k(x) \in P$, what proves (i). Note that $g \circ f^2|_R = f^2|_L \circ g$, where $g = f|_R$ is the homeomorphism of R onto L. Define the homeomorphism $h: I \to R$ by $h(x) = (p_{lr} - p)x + p$. The mapping $f_1 = h^{-1} \circ f^2|_R \circ h$ with $c_1 = h^{-1}(c_r)$ satisfies conditions (2), (4), (5) (Proposition 0 (i) and (ii)), Proposition 3 (iii)). Statements (iv)—(vii) are simple consequences of hitherto proved (i)—(iii).

Proposition 5. Let the point p be the non-attractor and let

$$f^3(c) < p.$$

Then there exists an (2n+1)-periodic orbit for some n > 1. By [10] there exist also (2m+1)-periodic orbits for m > n.

Proof. It suffices to prove that for some n > 1 holds $f^{2n+1}(c) \le c$. First note that the condition (7) implies $f^2(c) < c$ and hence $q_1 < c$, where q_1 is the unique 2-periodic point less than p (Lemma 3). In particular $f^2(x) < x$ for $c \le x < p$. Assume now that for every n > 0 holds $c < f^{2n+1}(c)$. Then the following inequalities hold:

$$c < f^{3}(c) < p,$$

 $c < f^{5}(c) = f^{2}(f^{3}(c)) < f^{3}(c) < p,$

and generally

$$c < f^{2n+1}(c) = f^2(f^{2n-1}(c)) < f^{2n-1}(c) < \dots < p.$$

The limit q of the sequence $\{f^{2n-1}(c)\}$ exists and satisfies the inequalities $c \le q < p$ and $f^2(q) = q$, what contradicts the uniqueness of q_1 .

We give the main result.

THEOREM. Let γ be a 2ⁿ-periodic orbit for the fixed integer n. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) Every point $x \in I$ is asymptotically m-periodic with $m \leq 2^n$,
- (ii) Every point $x \in I$ is asymptotically 2^k -periodic with $k \leq n$,
- (iii) The orbit γ is the attractor, it is attracting in $I \setminus E_n$, where $E_n = \{x \in I: x \text{ is eventually a } 2^k\text{-periodic point, } k < n\}$ is the countable set,
- (iv) For every $k \le n$ there exists exactly one 2^k -periodic orbit. There are no other periodic orbits,
- (v) One can define the sequence $\{f_k\}$ for $k \le n$, where $f_k: I \to I$ satisfy conditions (2), (4), (5), (6), $f_0 = f$, $f_{k+1} = (f_k)_1$ as in Proposition 4 (iii), the non-zero fixed point p_n of f_n is attracting in (0, 1).

Proof. For n = 0 the theorem follows from Proposition 3. Let $n \ge 1$, and assume that one of the conditions (i)—(iv) holds, we denote it by C. By Propositions 3 and 5, assumptions of Proposition 4 are satisfied, hence there is a mapping $f_1: I \to I$ satisfying the condition C for n-1. From the inductive assumption f_1 satisfies all other conditions, and again by Proposition 4, f satisfies them as well.

- **6.** We consider families of functions similar to the family (3). Let $f_t: I \to I$ be functions of class C^3 defined for t from an interval T. The family $\{f_t\}$ has property (B) on T, if:
- (8) $T \times I \ni (t, x) \to f_t^{(i)}(x)$ is continuous, i = 0, 1, 2,
- (9) f_t satisfies conditions (2), (4), (5), for every $t \in T$,

(10) $T = [t_0, t_e]$ and the fixed point p is the attractor for $t = t_0$, f(c) = 1 for $t = t_e$, f(c) < 1 for $t < t_e$.

We write in many cases f instead of f_t , c instead of c_t , etc. The family defined by (3) has the property (B) on $[t_0, 4]$, for $t_0 \in (1, 3]$.

Let D denote a certain condition imposed on f_t . A point s in T is said to be the *minimal parameter* (maximal parameter) with respect to D provided $s = \inf\{t \in T: f_t \text{ satisfies } D\}$ ($s = \sup\{t \in T: f_t \text{ satisfies } D\}$).

Assume that $\{f_t\}$ has property (B) on T. The results of Sections 4 and 5 allow us to make some remarks about the properties of the family $\{f_t\}$.

For t close to t_0 there exists the unique fixed point p which is attracting in (0, 1). For $t = t_e$ point p is the non-attractor because $\omega(c) = \{0\}$. Let s_1 be the maximal parameter with respect to the condition f'(p) = -1. Proposition 2 implies that for t close to s_1 the point p bifurcates in a 2-periodic orbit which is attracting in $I \setminus E_1$ (the definition of E_n was given in the Theorem (iii)). Let $T_1 = [t_1, t^1]$ where t_1 is close enough to s_1 and $t^1 > t_1$ is the minimal parameter with respect to the condition $f^3(c) = p$. The family of functions $f_{1t}: I \to I$ defined as $f_{1t} = (f_t)_1$ has the property (B) on T_1 . By Proposition 4 (i) the interval P is absorbing in (0, 1). In a similar way families $\{f_{nt}\}$ exist and have the property (B) on suitable intervals $T_n = [t_n, t^n]$, $n = 2, 3, 4, \ldots$ For $t \in T_n$ close to t_n the 2^n -periodic orbit is attracting in $I \setminus E_n$. For $t \in T_n$ there exists a generalized 2^{n-1} -periodic orbit which is absorbing in $I \setminus E_{n-1}$. It is not known (even for the family (3)) whether the maximal period increases, however it tends to infinity as t tends to the infimum of $\{t^n\}$.

Let $t_c \ge t^1$ be the maximal parameter with respect to the condition $f^3(c) = p$. (For the family (3) $t^1 = t_c$ (approx. = 3.6786), see [9]). Proposition 5 implies that for $t > t_c$ there exist periodic orbits with odd periods. These periods decrease as periodic orbits appear. Proposition 1 implies that there exists a couple of (2n+1)-periodic orbits, one being the attractor and the other one the non-attractor. We show that this attractor bifurcates into 2(2n+1)-periodic orbits, the next into 4(2n+1)-periodic orbits etc. Roughly speaking the family $\{f_t^{2n+1}\}$ has local property (B). We show that similar phenomena occur in the case if $f^4(c) < p$ (and $f^2(c) < f^3(c) < c$), namely there appear periodic orbits with periods ..., 10, 8, 6, 4. Similarly there appear periodic orbits with periods ..., 11, 9, 7, 5, ..., 12, 10, 8, 6, etc.

Proposition 6. Let $N \ge 2$ and let

(11)
$$f^{2}(c) < f^{3}(c) < \dots < f^{N}(c) < c.$$

Denote by P_N the interval $[g, g_r]$, where $g = p_{l...l}$ (N-1 times). If

$$(12) p \leqslant f^{N-1}(c)$$

then P_N is absorbing in (0, 1). For $x \in (0, g)$ f''(x) > x for all n. If (12) does not hold, i.e.

$$(13) f^{N-1}(c) < p,$$

then there exists an integer k such that $f^{N+1+2k}(c) \le c$, what means that there exists an (N+1+2k)-periodic orbit o(q) and q < g.

Proof. If conditions (11) and (12) hold, then $f(c) \leq g_r$, what proves the first part. The proof of the second part is similar to the proof of Proposition 5.

The family $\{f_t\}$ has property (LB) on the interval T, if for every $t \in T$ there exists a closed interval $I_t \subset I$ such that the restriction $f_t|_{I_t}$ is topologically conjugate with a function $g_t \colon I \to I$ and the family $\{g_t\}$ has property (B) on T.

As an example one can take the family $\{f_t^{2^n}\}$ on the interval T_n , n = 0, 1, 2, ...

Let $N \ge 2$, $k \ge 0$ be fixed. Put n = N + 1 + 2k. Let $\{f_i\}$ has property (B) on T. Let t_{Nk} be the maximal parameter with respect to conditions (11) and (13), and let f''(c) = c. It is easy to see ([9]) that the function $t \to c_t$ is continuous. Since f''(c) = 0 for $t = t_e$ the number t_{Nk} is well-defined. Assume for a moment that $t = t_{Nk}$. The orbit o(c) is n-periodic and the attractor. Moreover, $o(c) \cap (0, g) = \{q\}$, where $q = f^2(c)$. Conditions $f^n(c) = q$, $(f^n)'(q)$ = 0 and f''(g) = p > g imply that there exists a second fixed point q_0 of f'', $q < q_0 < g$. The definition of t_{Nk} implies that for $t \ge t_{Nk}$ there are two *n*-periodic points q_t , q_{0t} in the interval (0, g) continuously depending on t and for $t = t_{Nk}$ equal to q and q_0 , respectively. There is a unique critical point d_t in (q_t, q_{0t}) of f_t^n . Let $t^{Nk} > t_{Nk}$ be the minimal parameter with respect to the condition $f^{2n}(d) = q_0$, and put $T_{Nk} = [t_{Nk}, t^{Nk}]$. Proposition 0 (iii) implies that the family $\{f_t^n\}$ has the property (LB) on T_{Nk} (set $I_t = [u_t, q_{0t}]$, where u_t is the maximal point with respect to the properties $f''(u) = q_0$, u $< q_0$). Note that $t_0 < ... < T_{22} < T_{21} < T_{20} < ... < T_{32} < T_{31} < T_{30} < ...$ $< T_{42} < T_{41} < T_{40} < \dots < t_e$ (A < B means that for $a \in A$, $b \in B$ we have a < b), and $\lim t_{Nk} = \lim t^{Nk} = t_e$.

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INSTITUTE OF MATHEMATICS JAGIELLONIAN UNIVERSITY 30-059 KRAKÓW

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