

## A Note on Higher Order Melnikov Functions

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We present several classes of planar polynomial Hamilton systems and their polynomial perturbations leading to vanishing of the first Melnikov integral. We discuss the form of higher order Melnikov integrals. In particular, we present new examples where the second order Melnikov integral is not an Abelian integral.

*Key Words:* Higher order Melnikov integral, Abelian integral.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

It is well known that the problem of limit cycles for a polynomial perturbation  $X_H + \varepsilon V$ , of a polynomial Hamiltonian vector field  $X_H$  leads to the so called Poincaré–Pontryagin integral (see [1])

$$I_\omega(h) = \int_{\gamma_h} \omega, \quad (1)$$

where  $\gamma_h$  is a continuous family of ovals of the curves  $H(x, y) = h$  and the polynomial-form  $\omega$  is associated to the vector field  $V$  via the Pfaff equation

$$dH - \varepsilon\omega = 0 \quad (2)$$

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for phase curves. But there are situations (which we present in detail in further sections) where the integral (1) vanishes identically, but the Poincaré return map is not identity. In such cases one obtains an expansion of the increment  $\Delta H$  (along a trajectory near  $\gamma_h$ ) in powers of  $\varepsilon$  of the form

$$\Delta H = \varepsilon^k M_k(h) + O(\varepsilon^{k+1})$$

where  $M_k \neq 0$  is called the *higher-order Melnikov function*, or the *principal Poincaré–Pontryagin integral* (like in [14] or [5]).

It is easy to express  $M_k$  via iterated integrals. Consider  $M_2$  for example. Then equation (2) has the approximate first integral  $H_\varepsilon = H - \varepsilon H_1$ , where  $H_1(P) = \int_{P_0}^P \omega$  and the integration is along a path in the curve  $\gamma_h$  joining a fixed point  $P_0 = P_0(h)$  (the intersection point of  $\gamma_h$  with a fixed section  $S$ ) with  $P$ . Then the increment of  $H_\varepsilon$  equals

$$\Delta H_\varepsilon \approx \varepsilon \int_{H_\varepsilon=h} \omega = \varepsilon^2 \int_{\gamma_h} H_1 \frac{d\omega}{dH} + O(\varepsilon^3) = \varepsilon^2 \int_{\gamma_h} \frac{d\omega}{dH} \int_{P_0}^P \omega + O(\varepsilon^3). \quad (3)$$

(Above  $\frac{d\omega}{dH}$  is the Gelfand–Leray residue form, see [2].)

The interest in the higher order Melnikov functions arose when in 1996 J.-P. Françoise [4] gave an extremely simple algorithm for successive calculation of the higher Melnikov functions in form of Abelian integrals. The *Françoise’s algorithm* works under so-called *\*-property*:

$$\text{if } I_\omega(h) \equiv 0 \quad \text{then } \omega = f dH + dH_1 \quad (4)$$

for some polynomials  $f$  and  $H_1$ . Then the function  $H_1$  in (3) becomes a polynomial,  $\frac{d\omega}{dH} = df$ , and we get

$$M_2 = \int_{\gamma_h} H_1 df = - \int_{\gamma_h} f dH_1 = - \int_{\gamma_h} f \omega. \quad (5)$$

If  $M_2 \equiv 0$  then we can again use the *\*-property* and repeat the above calculations. In essence the Françoise’s algorithm allows to calculate successive approximations to the supposed first integral and integrating factor.

Probably the simplest example of a Hamiltonian function without the *\*-property* is the following elliptic Hamiltonian

$$H(x, y) = y^2 \pm (x^2 - 1)^2 = f_1 f_2, \quad (6)$$

where  $f_{1,2} = y \pm \sqrt{\mp 1}(x^2 - 1)$ . Then the 1-form  $\eta = xy dx$  satisfies  $\int_{\gamma_h} \eta \equiv 0$ , but  $\int_{\delta_\pm(h)} \eta \neq 0$ , where  $\gamma_h$  is a cycle in the complex curve defined by  $H = h$

vanishing at  $x = y = 0$  and  $\delta_{\pm}(h)$  are cycles vanishing at  $x = \pm 1, y = 0$  ( see [2]). A. Jebrane, P. Mardešić and M. Pelletier [10, 11] extended the Françoise’s algorithm to polynomial perturbations of the equation  $dH = 0$  for the Hamiltonian (6). (In fact they considered  $H(x, y) = y^2 + (x^2 - 1)^2$ , but there is no essential difference between the two cases.) They showed the property (4) but with  $f$  and  $H_1$  depending on  $x, y, H^{-1}$  and on the auxiliary angle function

$$\phi = \log(f_1/f_2). \tag{7}$$

The latter function satisfies  $d\phi = 8\eta - 2d[y(x^2 - 1)]$ . Moreover, it turned out any higher order Melnikov function is an Abelian integral (see also [5, 6]).

Another case is the so-called *Hamiltonian triangle*

$$H = f_1 f_2 f_3 \tag{8}$$

where  $f_i$  are affine functions. It was considered by M. Uribe [13]. He showed that the higher order Melnikov functions are combinations of tree basic integrals  $I_0, I_1$ , and  $I^*$ , where  $I_0, I_1$  are Abelian integrals and  $I^* = \int \log f_1 d(\log f_2/f_3)$ . The coefficients of these combinations depend on  $h$  and  $1/h$ .

The case of quadratic perturbations of the situation (8) was firstly studied by the second author in [15]. There the integral  $I^*$  appeared for the first time. I. Iliev in [7] showed that the integral  $I^*$  has a singularity at  $h = 0$  of the form

$$c_0 + c_1 h \log^2 h + \dots \tag{9}$$

(see also [8]). Since any Abelian integral of the type (1) with a rational 1-form  $\omega$  has singularities of the form

$$\alpha_0(h) + \alpha_1(h) \log(h - h_c) + \dots \tag{10}$$

(where the functions  $\alpha_{0,1}(h)$  are meromorphic near a singular point  $h_c$ ), it follows that the function  $I^*(h)$  is not an Abelian integral. (The expansion (10) is a well known consequence of the Picard–Lefschetz formula, see [2].)

In the subsequent paper [14] Uribe generalized the result from [13] to the case

$$H = f_1 f_2 \dots f_d \tag{11}$$

where  $f_i$  are affine linear functions in general position. He proved existence of basic Abelian integrals  $I_i$  and non-Abelian integrals

$$I_{i,j}^* = \int \log(f_i) d \log(f_j), \quad 2 \leq i < j \leq d, \tag{12}$$

such that  $M_k$  belongs to the  $\mathbb{R}[h, 1/h]$ -module generated by  $I_i$  and  $I_{i,j}^*$ .

On the other hand, L. Gavrilov proved in [5] that the function  $M_k(h)$  satisfies a linear differential equation with rational coefficients (see also [3]). In particular, he presented explicitly equations satisfied by the tree basic integrals for the Hamiltonian (8).

In this paper we look at the higher order Melnikov functions from rather geometrical point of view. Namely, we try to describe the (linear) space

$$\mathcal{X} = \{\omega : I_\omega(h) \equiv 0\}.$$

When  $H$  has  $*$ -property, this space is generated by two subspaces

$$\mathcal{X}_1 = \{gdH : g \in \mathbb{R}[x, y]\}, \quad \mathcal{X}_2 = \{df : f \in \mathbb{R}[x, y]\}. \quad (13)$$

Each of them corresponds to forms  $\omega$  such that the Pfaff equation (2) has center.

We give examples when  $\mathcal{X}$  is an algebraic sum of several spaces  $\mathcal{X}_i$  such that forms  $\omega \in \mathcal{X}_i$  lead to equation (2) with center. (For instance, this holds in the case (13).) In such situation sometimes  $M_2$  is an Abelian integral and sometimes it is not.

Another source of vanishing of the linear Poincaré–Pontryagin integrals is a symmetry of the Hamiltonian and of the form  $\omega$ . This symmetry may act on  $dH$  and on  $\omega$  in the same or in different ways. Some symmetries of order 2, namely the reflections, are generalized to a so-called rational reversibility property (introduced in [16]). In the symmetric case the corresponding equation (2) may have not center. Depending on a kind of the symmetry the function  $M_2$  is or is not an Abelian integral.

## 2. THE MAP $INT$ AND THE STAR PROPERTY

Let us fix the Hamilton function  $H(x, y)$  and a family of its ovals  $\{\gamma_h : h_1 \leq h \leq h_2\}$ , where  $h_{1,2}$  are suitable critical values of  $H$ . The linear Melnikov integral defines a linear map

$$Int_\gamma : \Lambda^1 \mathbb{R}^2 \otimes \mathbb{R}[x, y] \longrightarrow C^\infty((h_1, h_2)) \quad (14)$$

where  $\Lambda^1 \mathbb{R}^2 \otimes \mathbb{R}[x, y]$  denotes the space of real polynomial 1-forms. Our problem is to describe the subspace

$$\mathcal{X} = \ker(Int). \quad (15)$$

The space  $\mathcal{X}$  contains the subspaces

$$\mathcal{X}_1 = \mathbb{R}[x, y] \cdot dH, \quad \mathcal{X}_2 = d(\mathbb{R}[x, y]) \tag{16}$$

with the intersection  $\mathcal{X}_1 \cap \mathcal{X}_2 = \mathbb{R}[H] \cdot dH$ . The  $*$ -property states that  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_1 + \mathcal{X}_2$ .

We note the following

LEMMA 1. (i) If  $\omega = gdH \in \mathcal{X}_1$  then the equation  $dH - \varepsilon\omega = 0$  has  $H$  as first integral with the integral factor  $R = 1 + \varepsilon g$ .

(ii) If  $\omega = dH_1 \in \mathcal{X}_2$ , then the equation  $dH - \varepsilon\omega = 0$  has the first integral  $H - \varepsilon H_1$  with the integral factor  $R = 1$  (it is a Hamiltonian equation).

Yu. Il'yashenko [9] proved that the  $*$ -property is typical.

THEOREM 2 (Il'yashenko). *If the Hamiltonian  $H$  of degree  $d$  is generic, i.e. has Morse critical points with different critical values and  $d$  points at infinity, then  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_1 + \mathcal{X}_2$ .*

EXAMPLE 3. Any quadratic polynomial with center satisfying the assumption of the Il'yashenko theorem is equivalent to  $x^2 + y^2$ . Here the  $*$ -property can be checked directly.

PROBLEM. Take a cubic Hamiltonian  $H = x^2 + y^2 + Ax^3 + Bxy^2 + Cy^3$  which satisfies the assumptions of the Il'yashenko theorem and a 1-form

$$(ax + by)dH + d(\alpha x^3 + \beta x^2y + \gamma xy^2 + \delta y^3 + \varepsilon x^4 + \nu x^3y + \theta x^2y^2 + \zeta xy^3 + \eta y^4)$$

where  $a, b, \alpha, \dots, \eta$  are small. Apply the Françoise's algorithm and detect the center conditions near  $\mathcal{X}_H$  in the class of cubic vector fields. These are algebraic conditions for  $a, b, \dots, \eta_0$ .

In the case  $H = x^2 + y^2$  and quadratic  $\omega$  the Françoise's algorithm leads to the well known Dulac's center conditions (see [4], [15]).

### 3. DARBOUX FIRST INTEGRALS

One possibility of not satisfying the assumptions of the Il'yashenko theorem is that some critical level is reducible:

$$H - h_c = f_1 \dots f_d, \quad d \geq 2, \tag{17}$$

where  $f_1, \dots, f_d$  are irreducible polynomials. Assume also that the factors  $f_i$  are pairwise different (below we remove this restriction). Then the Darboux function

$$f_1^{1+\delta_1} \dots f_d^{1+\delta_d} \tag{18}$$

is a perturbations of the function (17) and constitutes a first integral of the Pfaff equation

$$dH + (H - h_c) \sum \delta_j d(\log f_j) = 0.$$

Therefore, for any polynomial  $P$  the integral of the form  $P(H)(H - h_c)d(\log f_j)$  along a cycle  $\gamma_h$  is zero.

So we can consider a general perturbation

$$dH + \sum_{j=1}^d \delta_j P_j(H)(H - h_c)d(\log f_j) + \varepsilon_1 g dH + \varepsilon_2 dH_1 = 0 \tag{19}$$

of the equation  $dH = 0$ . H. Movasatti [12] proved that, in the case of affine linear functions  $f_j$  in generic position, any perturbation of  $dH$  from  $\mathcal{X} = \ker(int)$  is of the form (19) (see also [14]).

**THEOREM 4.** *Take  $H$  like in (17) and the perturbation (19).*

*If  $d = 2$  then  $M_2$  is an Abelian integral.*

*If  $d \geq 3$  then  $M_2$  can be not an Abelian integral. It can contain some integral  $I_{ij}^*$  of the form (12) with a nonzero coefficient, which depends rationally on  $h$ .*

*Remark 5.* Recall that Uribe [13, 14] proved the representation of  $M_k$  as linear combination, with coefficients being Laurent polynomials of  $h - h_c$ , of some basic Abelian integrals and the integrals (12), provided  $f_j$ 's are affine-linear functions in generic position. He gave an example when the coefficient before  $I_{ij}^*$  does not vanish. But in the case of Hamiltonian triangle (i.e.  $d = 3$ ) and its quadratic perturbations the coefficient before  $I^* = I_{12}^* - I_{13}^*$  in  $M_2$  vanishes. In  $M_3$  this coefficient is nonzero. The reason is that the perturbation leading to nonzero  $I^*$ -part in  $M_2$  must be of sufficiently high degree (see the proof of Theorem2).

*Remark 6.* The Hamiltonian (6) considered by Jebrane, Mardešić and Pelletier is a particular case of (17) with  $d = 2$ . Recall that in [11] it was proved that  $M_k$  is an Abelian integral for any  $k$ . The proof is essentially algebraic.

Maybe in general case with  $H = f_1 f_2$  and such that

$$\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_1 + \mathcal{X}_2 + \mathbb{R}[H] \cdot Hd(\log f_1) + \mathbb{R}[H] \cdot Hd(\log f_2) ,$$

$M_k$  is an Abelian integral for any  $k$ .

Before proving Theorem 4 we interpret the perturbations appearing in (19).

**LEMMA 7.** *The Pfaff equation  $dH + \delta_1 P_1(H)(H - h_c)d(\log f_1) = 0$  has center.*

*Proof.* We rewrite this equation on the form

$$\frac{dH}{P_j(H)(H - h_c)} + \delta_1 d(\log f_1) = 0.$$

Here the variables  $H$  and  $f_1$  are separated and integration gives a first integral of the type  $W + \delta_1 \log f_1$  (with a rational function  $W$ ). ■

*Proof of Theorem 4.* The form  $\sum \delta_j (H - h_c) d(\log f_j)$  for  $\delta_1 = \dots = \delta_d$  is proportional to  $(H - h_c) d(\log H) = dH$ . Therefore in the representation (19) we can choose  $\delta_d = 0$  (like in [14]).

If  $d = 2$ , then we get

$$dH + \delta_1 P_1(H)(H - h_c) d(\log f_1) + \varepsilon_1 g dH + \varepsilon_2 dH_1.$$

By Lemma 7 it is enough to show that the terms in  $M_2$  before  $\delta_1 \varepsilon_1$  and  $\delta_2 \varepsilon_2$  are Abelian integrals. They are equal to

$$-P_1(h) \int_{H=h} g(H - h_c) d(\log f_1), \quad \int_{H=h} H_1 \frac{d[P_1(H)(H - h_c) d(\log f_1)]}{dH}$$

respectively.

Let  $d \geq 3$  and assume that  $h_c = 0$ . Take the perturbation

$$dH + \delta_1 H d(\log f_1) + \delta_2 H^2 d(\log f_2) = 0$$

and calculate the term before  $\delta_1 \delta_2$  in  $M_2$  (note the different powers of  $H$ ).

Since

$$dH + \delta_1 H d(\log f_1) = f_1^{-\delta_1} d(f_1^{1+\delta_1} f_2 \dots f_d) = f_1^{-\delta_1} d(H_{\delta_1}),$$

$H_{\delta_1} \approx H \cdot (1 + \delta_1 \log f_1)$ , we get the Pfaff equation

$$dH_{\delta_1} + f_1^{\delta_1} \cdot \delta_2 H^2 d(\log f_2) = 0.$$

From this we find that the increment of the function  $H_{\delta_1}$  equals

$$-\delta_2 \Phi(h, \delta_1) = -\delta_2 \int_{H_{\delta_1}=h} f_1^{2+\delta_1} f_2^2 f_3^2 \dots f_d^2 d(\log f_2)$$

Here  $\Phi(h, 0) \equiv 0$ . The linear in  $\delta_1$  part of  $\Phi$  equals

$$\delta_1 \int_{H=h} (f_1 f_2 \dots f_d)^2 \log f_1 d(\log f_2) - \delta_1 \int_{H=h} \frac{d[(f_1 f_2 \dots f_d)^2 d(\log f_2)]}{dH} H \log f_1$$

$$= -\delta_1 h^2 \int_{H=h} \log f_1 d(\log f_2).$$

(Here we have used the formula  $d[f_1^2 \dots f_d^2 d(\log f_2)] = 2HdH \wedge d(\log f_2)$ . Note that for  $d = 2$  we have  $\log f_2 = -\log f_1$  along  $\gamma_h$  and this proof does not work.)

In [14] it is proved that in the case of affine-linear  $f_j$ 's the integrals  $I_{ij}^*$  are non-Abelian. From this it is easy to conclude that they are non-Abelian in our case. ■

Consider now the non-reduced case of the factorization (17):

$$H - h_c = f_1^{1+r_1} \dots f_d^{1+r_d} \tag{20}$$

where some  $r_i > 1$ , say  $r_1 > 1$ .

Now some other terms may appear in (19). Namely the factor  $f_1^{1+\delta_1}$  in the Darboux integral (18) can be replaced by  $f_1^{1+r_1+\delta_1} \exp(\nu_1 Q(1/f_1))$  where  $Q$  is a polynomial of degree  $\leq r_1$  and  $\delta_1, \nu_1$  are small. The general term which can be added to (19) is

$$\varepsilon_0(H - h_c) d\left(\frac{g}{f_1^{r_1} \dots f_d^{r_d}}\right) = \varepsilon_0 \omega_0$$

where  $g$  is a general polynomial and  $\varepsilon_0$  is a small parameter.

LEMMA 8. *The Pfaff equation  $dH + \varepsilon_0 \omega_0 = 0$  has center.*

*Proof.* This Pfaff equation is equivalent to the equation

$$\frac{d(H - h_c)}{H - h_c} + \varepsilon_0 d(g f_1^{-r_1} \dots f_d^{-r_d}) = 0.$$

It has the first integral

$$f_1^{\alpha_1} \dots f_d^{\alpha_d} \exp[\varepsilon_0 g f_1^{-r_1} \dots f_d^{-r_d}]. \tag{21}$$

■

Functions of the form (21) are called the *generalized Darboux functions*. They (and their logarithms) are limits of the Darboux functions (18).

We finish this subsection by remarking that, when the polynomial has several ‘atypical’ values  $h_{c_i}$  such that the polynomials  $H - h_{c_i}$  are reducible, then the expansion of the type (19) should contain suitable summands associated with each critical value.



4. ROTATIONAL SYMMETRY

There are two series of finite group of symmetries of the plane: the cyclic groups  $C_m$ , of rotations by angles  $\frac{2\pi j}{m}$ , and the dihedral groups  $D_m$ , generated by two reflections with respect to lines with angle  $\frac{2\pi}{m}$  between them.

Vanishing of some linear Melnikov integrals may be caused by such a symmetry.

Consider firstly the rotation group  $C_m$ . Denote by  $\rho : z \rightarrow e^{2\pi i/m}z$  its generator where  $z = x+iy$  is the complex coordinate, after an identification of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with  $\mathbb{C}$ . Therefore we assume that

$$\rho^*H = H, \quad \rho(\gamma_h) = \gamma_h, \tag{22}$$

where  $\rho^*(H) = \rho \circ H$ . Note that we get  $\rho^*dH = dH$ .

The real 1-forms  $\omega = Adx + Bdy$  can be written in the form

$$\omega = C(z, \bar{z})dz + \overline{C(z, \bar{z})}d\bar{z} = 2\Re(Cdz).$$

We say that a complex form  $\eta$  is a *semi-invariant* (with respect to the group  $C_m$ ) if

$$\rho^*\eta = \chi_\eta \cdot \eta, \tag{23}$$

where

$$\chi_\eta = \chi_\eta(\rho) : C_m \rightarrow S^1 \subset \mathbb{C} \text{ is a character (of } C_m).$$

Of course,  $\chi_\eta(\rho) = e^{2\pi il/m}$  for some integer  $l$  and  $\chi_\eta(\rho^k) = \chi_\eta^k$ .

PROPOSITION 9. *If  $\omega$  is a real part of a complex form  $\eta$  which is a semi-invariant with nontrivial character  $\chi \neq 1$ , then the linear Melnikov integral of  $\omega$  along  $\gamma_h$  vanishes.*

*Proof.* We divide the oval  $\gamma_h$  which surrounds the origin into  $m$  pieces  $\gamma_h^0, \dots, \gamma_h^{m-1}$  such that  $\rho(\gamma_h^j) = \gamma_h^{j+1}$  with preserved orientation. Then

$$I_\eta(h) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \int_{\rho^j(\gamma_h^0)} \eta = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \int_{\gamma_h^0} (\rho^*)^j \eta = \left( \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \chi_\eta^j \right) \int_{\gamma_h^0} \eta = 0.$$

■

EXAMPLE 10. Let  $H(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + K(x, y)$ , where  $K$  is a homogeneous quartic polynomial, and let  $\gamma_h$  for  $h > 0$  be the ovals of  $H = h$  around  $x = y = 0$  for small  $h$ . Of course,  $H$  and  $\gamma_h$  are invariant with respect to the group  $C_2$  generated by the central symmetry,  $\rho(x, y) = (-x, -y)$ . Any

homogeneous quadratic form  $\omega$  is a semi-invariant of the group  $C_2$  with  $\chi_\omega = -1$ . Therefore  $\omega \in \ker(\text{Int}_\gamma)$ .

Let us consider the second order Melnikov function associated with perturbations of  $dH$  by semi-invariant forms.

Let  $H$  be  $C_m$ -invariant and such that the cycle  $\gamma_h$  at a critical value  $h_0$  degenerates to a polycycle consisting of non-degenerate saddle points  $P_0, \dots, P_{m-1}$  and  $m$  connections  $\gamma_{h_c}^0, \dots, \gamma_{h_c}^{m-1}$  between the consecutive saddles points. Let  $\delta_0, \dots, \delta_{m-1}$  be the cycles vanishing at  $P_0, \dots, P_{m-1}$  respectively and such that  $\rho(\delta_j) = \delta_{j+1}$  (see Figure 1).

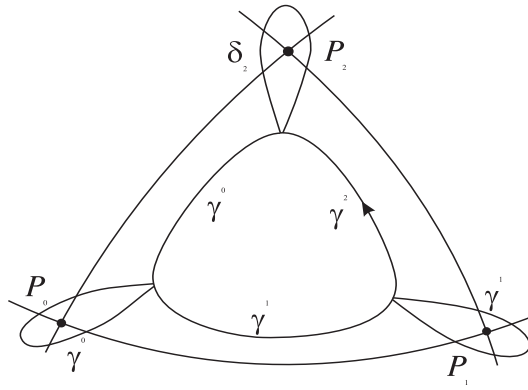


FIG. 1.

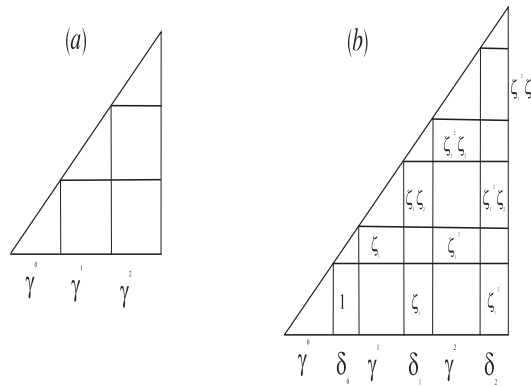


FIG. 2.

Let  $\eta_1$  and  $\eta_2$  be two complex 1-forms quasi-invariant with respect to  $C_m$ , with the characters  $\chi_{\eta_1} = \zeta_1 \neq 1$  and  $\chi_{\eta_2} = \zeta_2 \neq 1$  respectively. Assume also that

$$\begin{aligned} J'_1 &= \int_{\gamma_0} \frac{d\eta_1}{dH} \neq 0, & J_2 &= \int_{\gamma_0} \eta_2 \neq 0, \\ K'_1 &= \int_{\delta_0} \frac{d\eta_1}{dH} \neq 0, & K_2 &= \int_{\delta_0} \eta_2 \neq 0, \end{aligned} \tag{24}$$

(in fact, it is enough that  $K'_1 \neq 0, K_2 \neq 0$ ) and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu := (1 + \zeta_1) \{ [1 + \zeta_1 \zeta_2 + \dots + (\zeta_1 \zeta_2)^{m-2}] + \zeta_1 [1 + \dots + (\zeta_1 \zeta_2)^{m-3}] + \dots \\ + \zeta_1^{m-2} \neq 0. \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

**THEOREM 11.** *Under the above assumptions the term before  $\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2$  in  $M_2$  for the complex Pfaff perturbation  $dH + \varepsilon_1 \eta_1 + \varepsilon_2 \eta_2 = 0$  is not an Abelian integral.*

*Proof.* Using the iterated integrals (see (3)) we represent our function in the form

$$M_2 = \int_{\gamma_h} \frac{d\eta_1}{dH}(P) \int_{P_0(h)}^P \eta_2 = \int \int_{\Delta} \frac{d\eta_1}{dH}(P) \eta_2(P).$$

Here the initial point  $P_0 = P_0(h)$  is the intersection of  $\gamma_h$  with the ray  $\mathbb{R}_+ P_{m-1}$  and  $\Delta$  is a suitable triangular domain like in Figure 2(a). Choosing suitable orientation of  $\delta_0$  we can assume that the Picard–Lefschetz transformation corresponding to moving  $h$  around the critical value  $h_0$  can be specified as follows (see [2]):

$$\gamma^j \rightarrow \gamma^j + \delta_j, \quad \delta_j \rightarrow \delta_j, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, m - 1.$$

The resulting change in the domain  $\Delta$  is presented at Figure 2(b). The variation of  $M_2$  is the union of integrals over the squares  $\delta_i \times \delta_j$ , the triangles  $\frac{1}{2} \delta_i \times \delta_j$  and the rectangles.

The integrals over the squares and the triangles are analytic. We denote their sum by  $\Phi_1(h)$ .

The integrals over the vertical rectangles equal

$$\int_{\delta_i} \frac{d\eta_1}{dH} \cdot \int_{\gamma^j} \eta_2 = \zeta_1^i \zeta_2^j \cdot K'_1 J_2,$$

whereas the integrals over the horizontal rectangles are equal

$$\int_{\gamma^i} \frac{d\eta_1}{dH} \cdot \int_{\delta_j} \eta_2 = \zeta_1^i \zeta_2^j \cdot J_1' K_2.$$

Denote by  $\Phi_2(h)$  the sum of integrals over the rectangles. Therefore

$$\text{Var}(M_2) = \Phi_1 + \Phi_2. \tag{26}$$

Since  $\text{Var}(K_1' J_2) = \text{Var}(J_1' K_2) = K_1' K_2$ , the variation of  $\Phi_2$  equals  $K_1' K_2$  times the sum of the coefficients  $\zeta_1^i \zeta_2^j$  associated with the rectangles. It is easy to see that the latter sum equals the number  $\mu$  defined in (25) (see Figure 2(b)). Thus

$$\text{Var}(\Phi_1) = 0, \quad \text{Var}(\Phi_2) = \mu \cdot K_1' K_2, \tag{27}$$

where  $K_1' K_2$  is analytic. We obtain that under assumptions (23) and (24) the function  $\Phi_2$  is not analytic, it has a singularity of the form

$$\Phi_2(h) = \psi_2(h) + \frac{\mu}{2\pi i} K_1' K_2 \cdot \log(h - h_0). \tag{28}$$

From (26), (27) and (28) it follows that  $M_2$  has singularity of the type  $\log^2(h - h_0)$ , which excludes the possibility of being an Abelian integral (compare(10)). **■**

It remains to construct an example satisfying the assumptions of Theorem 11. Unfortunately, in Example 10 above one must have  $\zeta_1 = -1$  which implies  $\mu = 0$ ; we do not know whether the integral  $M_2$  is Abelian in this situation.

EXAMPLE 12. Consider vector fields with the rational symmetry of order 3. Here  $\mu = (1 + \zeta_1)(1 + \zeta_1 + \zeta_1 \zeta_2)$  is nonzero for  $\zeta_2 = \zeta_1^2 = \zeta^{-1} = e^{-2\pi i/3}$ . Take the following  $C_3$ -symmetric Hamiltonian function

$$H(x, y) = 3z\bar{z} - z^3 - \bar{z}^3 + az^4\bar{z} + \bar{a}z\bar{z}^4.$$

For small  $a \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  it is close to the Hamiltonian triangle. The corresponding vector field has the saddle vertices  $P_0, P_1, P_2$ , which are close to  $z = 1, z = \zeta = \zeta_1 = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{3}}{2}$  and  $z = \zeta^2$  respectively. The 1-forms

$$\eta_1 = \bar{z}^3 dz, \quad \eta_2 = \bar{\omega}_1$$

are semi-invariants with the characters  $\zeta_1 = \zeta$  and  $\zeta_2 = \zeta^2$ ; so  $\mu \neq 0$ . It is not difficult to check that the conditions (23) hold true.

This and Theorem 11 imply that  $M_2$  is not an Abelian integral for the perturbation

$$dH - \varepsilon(\eta_1 + \bar{\eta}_1) = 0.$$

*Remark 13.* In contrast of the cases (of vanishing of  $I_\omega$ ) from Section 3, the (real) equation

$$dH - \varepsilon\omega = 0,$$

where  $\omega$  is a quasi-invariants of  $C_m$ , generally does not have center.

### 5. REFLECTION SYMMETRY AND REVERSIBILITY

Any dihedral group  $D_m$  is generated by reflections, so it contains the subgroup  $D_1 \approx \mathbb{Z}/2$ . We can assume that the generator of  $D_1$  is the following

$$\sigma : (x, y) \rightarrow (-x, y). \tag{29}$$

Any  $D_1$ -invariant Hamilton function is of the form

$$H = \tilde{H}(x^2, y) \tag{30}$$

and the form  $dH = 2\tilde{H}'_{x^2}dx + \tilde{H}'_y dy$  satisfies  $\sigma^*(dH) = dH$ , i.e. it is *time-reversible*. We assume that  $\sigma(\gamma_h) = \gamma_h$ .

We say that a 1-form  $\omega$  is *time-reversible* if  $\sigma^*\omega = \omega$ .

Note the following easy

LEMMA 14. *If  $\omega$  is time-reversible then the Pfaff equation  $dH - \varepsilon\omega = 0$  has center. If, additionally,  $H$  satisfies  $\ker_\gamma(Int) = \{\omega_0 + g dH + dH_1 : \sigma^*\omega_0 = \omega_0\}$  then  $M_2$  is an Abelian integral.*

*Remark 15.* The hyperelliptic Hamilton functions

$$H(x, y) = y^2 + S(x) \tag{31}$$

are  $D_1$ -invariant with the reflection  $\tau : (x, y) \rightarrow (x, -y)$ .

They satisfy the \*-property. Indeed, any time-reversible 1-form equals  $\omega = A(x, y^2)dx + yB(x, y^2)dy$ . When we replace  $y^2$  by  $H - S(x)$  and  $ydy$  by  $\frac{1}{2}(dH - S'(x)dx)$ , we shall see that  $\omega = C(x, H)dx \pmod{dH} = d(D(x, h)) \pmod{dH}$ .

The Jebrane-Mardešić-Pelletier's hamiltonian (6) is invariant with respect to the reflections  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$ . Therefore the Hamiltonian (6) is degenerate in three ways. Here the  $\sigma$ -invariant 1-form  $xydx$  does not belong to  $\mathcal{X}_1 + \mathcal{X}_2 = \mathbb{R}[x, y] \cdot dH + d(\mathbb{R}[x, y])$ .

It would be interesting to know whether  $M_3$  is Abelian for generic Hamiltonian of the form  $H = y^2 + S(x^2)$ ; probably not.

A natural generalization of the condition (30) is following. Let  $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a polynomial mapping which has a *fold-type singularity*

$$\Phi(x, y) = (X, Y) = (x^2 + \dots, y + \dots)$$

near  $(0, 0)$ . Denote by  $\Gamma = \{\det d\Phi = 0\}$  the *fold curve* of  $\Phi$ . We can put  $H(0, 0) = 0$ .

Assume that

$$H = \tilde{H} \circ \Phi, \quad (32)$$

where  $\tilde{H}(X, Y)$  is a polynomial such that  $\tilde{H}(0, 0) = 0$  and the curve  $\{\tilde{H} = 0\}$  is tangent to  $\Phi(\Gamma)$  at  $(0, 0)$  from outside of the domain  $\Phi(U)$ , where  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $(0, 0)$ . In this case we say that  $H$  is *rationally reversible by means of  $\Phi$* .

Following [16] we say that a 1-form  $\omega$  is *rationally reversible by means of  $\Phi$*  if

$$\omega = \Phi^* \tilde{\omega}, \quad (33)$$

where  $\tilde{\omega}(X, Y)$  is a polynomial 1-form in the target space.

**PROPOSITION 16.** *The statements of Lemma 14 hold in the case when  $H$  and  $\omega$  are both rationally revertible by means of  $\Phi$ .*

*Remark 17.* Above we presented all known to us mechanisms leading to the vanishing of  $I_\omega$ . Natural question is whether they generate  $\ker(Int_\gamma)$  for any Hamiltonian function  $H$  and any family  $\{\gamma_h\}$  of its ovals. We think that this is the case.

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