THE RADIUS OF STARLIKENESS FOR A CLASS OF REGULAR FUNCTIONS DEFINED BY AN INTEGRAL

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Let F(z), f(z), and g(z) be regular in the unit disc $E=\{z:z<1\}$, be normalized by F(0)=f(0)=g(0)=0 and F'(0)=f'(0)=g'(0)=1, and satisfy the equation $z^{c-1}(c+1)f(z)=[F(z)g(z)^c]'$, $c\geq 0$. This paper is concerned with studying relationships between the mapping properties of these functions. The principle result is the determination of the radius of β -starlikeness of f(z) when F(z) and g(z) are restricted to certain classes of univalent starlike functions. Conversely, a lower bound for the radius of β -starlikeness of F(z) is obtained when f(z) and g(z) satisfy similar conditions.

Problems of this nature were first studied by Libera [9], where he showed that if f(z) is a convex, starlike, or close-to-convex univalent function and F(z) is defined by

$$F(z) = \frac{2}{z} \int_0^z f(t)dt,$$

then F(z) is also convex, starlike, or close-to-convex, respectively. Livingston then considered the converse of this problem and determined that if F(z) satisfies one of these geometric conditions in E and f(z) = (F(z) + zF'(z))/2, then f(z) satisfies the same condition in $\{z: |z| < 1/2\}$ [11]. Refinements of Livingston's results can be found in [1], [2], [10], [12], and [13], while results dealing with generalizations of (1) appear in [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], and [8]. Most recently, Lewandowski et al have shown that if f(z) is starlike in E and F(z) is the solution of

$$cF(z) + zF'(z) = (1 + c)f(z),$$

then F(z) is starlike whenever $\operatorname{Re} c \geq 0$ [8].

Before proceeding any further, it will be convenient to introduce the following notation. Let $S^*(\alpha)$ denote the collection of functions f(z) which are regular in E, are normalized by f(0) = 0 and f'(0) = 1, and satisfy $\text{Re}\left[zf'(z)/f(z)\right] \geq \alpha$ for z in E. Such functions are said to be starlike of order α . Normally one only considers α in the interval [0,1), however, in order to relate the results presented here to earlier works, it is advantageous to allow $\alpha = 1$, with the understanding that $S^*(1)$ consists only of the function f(z) = z.

In this paper we continue the investigation of a generalization of (1) which was introduced by the first author in [7]. Let $\mathcal{F}_1(\alpha, \gamma, c)$ denote the family of functions F(z) which satisfy

(3)
$$F(z) = \frac{c+1}{[g(z)]^c} \int_0^z t^{e-1} f(t) dt,$$

where f(z) is in $S^*(\alpha)$, g(z) is in $S^*(\gamma)$ and $c \ge 0$. Let $\mathscr{F}_2(\alpha, \gamma, c)$ denote the family of functions f(z) which satisfy

$$(4) (c+1)f(z) = c[g(z)/z]^{c-1}g'(z)F(z) + [g(z)/z]^{c}zF'(z)$$

for F(z) in $S^*(\alpha)$, g(z) in $S^*(\gamma)$ and $c \ge 0$. Theorem 1 provides a lower bound for the radius of β -starlikeness of $\mathcal{F}_1(\alpha, \gamma, c)$ and Theorem 3 gives the radius of β -starlikeness of $\mathcal{F}_2(\alpha, \gamma, c)$.

We begin by stating a slight generalization of the result obtained by Lewandowski et al mentioned above. Since our result follows directly from the techniques used in [8], the proof will be omitted.

LEMMA 1. If F(z) and f(z) satisfy (2), f(z) is in $S^*(\alpha)$ and $c \ge 0$, then F(z) is in $S^*(\alpha)$.

This lemma now enables us to determine a lower bound for the radius of β -starlikeness of $\mathcal{F}_1(\alpha, \gamma, c)$.

Theorem 1. If F(z) is in $\mathscr{F}_1(\alpha, \gamma, c)$, then F(z) is β -starlike for $|z| < \sigma = \sigma(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, c)$, where σ is the least positive root of the equation

(5)
$$1 - \beta - r[2(1 - \alpha) + 2c(1 - \gamma)] - r^{2}[2\alpha - 1 - \beta + 2c(1 - \gamma)] = 0.$$

Proof. If $h(z)=[(c+1)/z^c]\int_0^z t^{c-1}f(t)dt$ then $F(z)=[z/g(z)]^ch(z)$ and Lemma 1 implies h(z) is in $S^*(\alpha)$. Differentiating logarithmically and applying the usual inequalities we obtain

$$\operatorname{Re}\left\{rac{zF'(z)}{F(z)}
ight\} \geq rac{1+(2lpha-1)r}{1+r} + rac{2c(1-\gamma)r}{1-r} \;.$$

Thus Re $\{zF'(z)/F(z)\} \ge \beta$ whenever $|z| < \sigma$ where σ is the least positive root of (5).

Before turning our attention to the principal result of this paper, we state without proof two lemmas which appear in [7] and are fundamental to what follows.

LEMMA 2. If $\omega(z)$ is analytic and satisfies $|\omega(z)| \leq |z|$ in E and

 $if\ p(z) = (1 + D\omega(z))/(1 + B\omega(z)),\ -1 \le D < B \le 1,\ then\ for\ |z| = r < 1\ we\ have$

$$egin{split} ext{Re} \left\{ rac{z \omega'(z)}{(1 + D \omega(z))(1 + B \omega(z))}
ight\} \ & \leq rac{-1}{(B - D)^2} igg[ext{Re} \left\{ rac{D}{p(z)} + B p(z)
ight\} \ & - rac{r^2 |B p(z) - D|^2 - |p(z) - 1|^2}{(1 - r^2) |p(z)|} igg] + rac{B + D}{(B - D)^2} \;. \end{split}$$

LEMMA 3. If p(z) and $\omega(z)$ satisfy the conditions of Lemma 2, then for any $K \ge B$ we have on |z| = r

$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{Re}\left\{\!Kp(z) + rac{D}{p(z)}\!
ight\} &- \left[rac{r^2|Bp(z)-D|^2-|1-p(z)|^2}{(1-r^2)|p(z)|}
ight] \ &\geq egin{aligned} \left.igl|P_1(r) & for & R_0 \leqq R_1 \ P_2(r) & for & R_0 \geqq R_1 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$egin{aligned} P_1(r) &= P_1(r,\,K,\,B,\,D) = Krac{1+Dr}{1+Br} + Drac{1+Br}{1+Dr}\,, \ P_2(r) &= P_2(r,\,K,\,B,\,D) \ &= rac{2}{(1-r^2)}[(1+D)(1+K-(B^2+K+D(1+K))r^2\ &+ D(B^2+K)r^4)]^{1/2} - rac{2(1-BDr^2)}{1-r^2}\,, \ R_0^2 &= [(1+D)(1-Dr^2)]/[(1+K)-(K+B^2)r^2]\,, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$R_1 = (1 + Dr)/(1 + Br).$$

The above estimates are sharp.

THEOREM 2.

$$\min_{f \in \mathscr{S}_2(lpha, 7, c)} \min_{|z| = r} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ rac{zf'(z)}{f(z)}
ight\} \ = \ egin{cases} Q_1(r) \;, & R_0 \leqq R_1 \ Q_2(r) \;, & R_0 \geqq R_1 \end{cases}$$

where

$$Q_{_{1}}(r)=rac{1\,+\,r(1\,+\,2D\,-\,K)\,+\,r^{z}D(2\,-\,K)}{(1\,+\,r)(1\,+\,Dr)}$$
 ,

$$egin{align} (7) & Q_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}(r) = rac{2}{1-D} igg[rac{\{(1+D)(1+K)(1-Dr^2)}{1-r^2}igg\}^{^{1/2}} - rac{1-Dr^2}{1-r^2}igg] \ & -rac{K-1+2D}{1-D} \ , \end{array}$$

(8)
$$R_0^2 = [(1+D)(1-Dr^2)]/[(1+K)(1-r^2)],$$

$$(9) R_1 = (1 + Dr)/(1 + r),$$

$$\delta = (\alpha + c\gamma)/(1+c), D = 2\delta - 1, and K = 1 + (c+1)(1-D).$$

Proof. Let $s(z) = z[F(z)/z]^{1/(c+1)}[g(z)/z]^{c/(c+1)}$ where in each multivalued expression we choose the branch which has value 1 at z=0. Combining this with (4) yields

$$f(z) = [s(z)/z]^c z s'(s) .$$

Since

$$rac{zs'(z)}{s(z)} = rac{1}{(1+c)} \left[rac{zF'(z)}{F(z)} + crac{zg'(z)}{g(z)}
ight]$$
 ,

s(z) is in $S^*(\delta)$ for $\delta=(\alpha+c\gamma)/(1+c)$, p(z)=zs'(z)/s(z) is analytic in E, p(0)=1 and $\text{Re}\left[p(z)\right] \geq \delta$, z in E. Consequently, there exists a function $\omega(z)$ analytic in E and satisfying $|\omega(z)| \leq |z|$, $z \in E$, such that

(11)
$$p(z) = \frac{1 + D\omega(z)}{1 + \omega(z)}, \quad D = 2\delta - 1.$$

Now differentiating (10) and making use of (11), we have

$$egin{aligned} rac{zf'(z)}{f(z)} &= (c+1)\,p(z) + rac{zp'(z)}{p(z)} - c \ &= (c+1)\,p(z) + rac{z\omega'(z)(D-1)}{(1+D\omega(z))(1+\omega(z))} - c \end{aligned}$$

and Lemma 2 now yields

$$egin{split} ext{Re} \left\{ rac{zf'(z)}{f(z)}
ight\} & \geq rac{1}{(1-D)} igg[ext{Re} \left\{ \! Kp(z) + rac{D}{p(z)}
ight\} \ & - rac{r^2 |\, p(z) - D\,|^2 - |\, p(z) - 1\,|^2}{(1-r^2)|\, p(z)\,|} igg] - c \, - rac{1+D}{1-D} \, , \end{split}$$

where B=1 and K=1+(c+1)(1-D). An application of Lemma 3 now completes the proof. Sharpness follows directly from the sharpness of Lemma 3.

In [7] the radius of β -starlikeness of $\mathscr{F}_2(\alpha, \gamma, c)$ is determined in the case c = 1 and $\alpha + \gamma \leq 1$. The following result extends this to include all permissible values of α , γ and c.

Theorem 3. Let $r_* = r_*(\alpha, \gamma, c, \beta)$ be the radius of β -starlikeness of $\mathscr{F}_2(\alpha, \gamma, c)$. Let $D = 2\delta - 1$, $\delta = (\alpha + c\gamma)/(1 + c)$, $c \ge 0$, $0 \le \alpha < 1$, and $0 \le \gamma \le 1$. For each fixed c in $[0, \infty)$, let r(D) be the

unique solution in (0, 1) of the equation

(12)
$$(2+c) - (4-2D-2Dc+c)r - D(5-D+2c-Dc)r^2 + D(1-D-Dc)r^3 = 0.$$

If $Q_1(r)$ and $Q_2(r)$ are defined by (6) and (7) and $\mu(D) = Q_1(r(D))$, then the equation $\mu(D) = 0$ has a unique solution D_0 in (-1, 1). Furthermore, if D satisfies $D_0 < D < 1$ and $0 \le \beta \le \mu(D)$, then r_* is the unique root in (0, 1) of the equation $Q_2(r) = \beta$. For all other values of D, r_* is the unique root in (0, 1) of the equation $Q_1(r) = \beta$.

Proof. Let $I(r) = \min_{f \in \mathscr{F}_2(\alpha, \ell, c)} \min_{|z|=r} \operatorname{Re} \{zf'(z)/f(z)\}$ and let R_0 and R_1 be defined by (8) and (9). A differentiation shows R_0 is a decreasing function of r and R_1 is an increasing function of r, hence the equation $R_0 = R_1$ has a unique solution r(D, c) which is the unique root in (0, 1] of (12). Thus

$$I(r) = egin{cases} Q_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}(r) & 0 \leqq r < r(D,\,c) \ Q_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}(r) & r(D,\,c) \leqq r < 1 \end{cases}$$
 ,

with the understanding that the second inequality holds vacuously when r(D, c) = 1. An examination of (12) shows this happens only when D = -1, in which case r_* is the solution of $Q_1(r) = \beta$. Since $\alpha < 1$ implies D < 1, we can now restrict our attention to $D \in (-1, 1)$.

It follows from the minimum principle and the compactness of $\mathscr{F}_2(\alpha, \gamma, c)$ that I(r) is a continuous, decreasing function of r. [In fact one can show $Q_1'(r(D,c)) = Q_2'(r(D,c))$ so that I(r) is differentiable and I'(r) < 0 on (0,1).] Since r(D,c) < 1 for D > -1, $\lim I(r)$ $(r \to 1^-) = \lim Q_2(r)$ $(r \to 1^-) = -\infty$, and, since I(0) = 1, the equation $I(r) = \beta$ will always have a unique solution r_* in (0,1). Clearly r_* is always the solution of either $Q_1(r) = \beta$ or $Q_2(r) = \beta$, depending on the relationship between the roots of these equations and r(D,c), or equivalently, on the relationship between I(r(D,c)) and β . The remainder of this argument is concerned with determining this relationship.

Let $c \in [0, \infty)$ be fixed, let r(D) = r(D, c) and let $\mu(D) = Q_1(r(D)) = Q_2(r(D))$. We will show $\mu(D)$ is a strictly increasing function of D mapping (-1, 1) onto $(-\infty, 1)$. Now

$$\mu'(D)=rac{d}{dD}Q_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}(r(D))>0$$

if and only if

$$(13) \quad r'(D) < \frac{r(D)(1+r(D))}{1-D} \cdot \frac{(1+c)(1+Dr(D))^2+1+r(D)}{(1+c)(1+Dr(D))^2+1-Dr(D)^2} \; .$$

Since the second factor in the right hand side of (13) is clearly greater than 1, it is sufficient to show

(14)
$$r'(D) < r(D)(1 + r(D))/(1 - D)$$
.

Differentiating (12) implicitly yields

$$egin{aligned} (15) \quad r'(D) &= [2(1+c)r(D) + (2D-5-2c+2Dc)r(D)^2 \ &+ (1-2D-2Dc)r(D)^3]/[(4-2D-2Dc-c) \ &+ 2D(5-D+2c-Dc)r(D) - 3D(1-D-Dc)r(D)^2] \ , \end{aligned}$$

and, before substituting (15) in (14), we must determine the sign of the denominator in (15). Let

$$egin{aligned} p(r) &= (1+K)(1-r)(1+r)^2(R_0^2-R_1^2) \ &= (2+c)-(4-2D-2Dc+c)r \ &-D(5-D-2c-Dc)r^2+D(1-D-Dc)r^3 \end{aligned}$$

so that p(r(D)) = 0 and the denominator in (15) is -p'(r(D)). Since R_0 is decreasing and R_1 is increasing, p(r) changes sign at r(D) and must have a zero of order 1 or 3 at r(D). If r(D) is a root of order 3 then p''(r(D)) = 0 which implies

$$r(D) = (5 + 2c - D - Dc)/(3(1 - D - Dc))$$
.

However this last expression is not in (0, 1) for $D \in (-1, 1)$ and $c \in [0, \infty)$, hence r(D) is a root of order 1 and, since P(r) is decreasing at r(D), p'(r(D)) < 0. Thus the denominator in (15) is positive and substituting (15) in (14) then shows that (14) is equivalent to

$$egin{aligned} (16) & (2-c) + (9+D+3c-2Dc)r(D) \ & + (6Dc-D^2c+10D-1-D^2)r(D)^2 \ & - 3D(1-D-Dc)r(D)^3 > 0 \;. \end{aligned}$$

Using the fact that r(D) satisfies (12) to elminate $r(D)^3$ in (16), we find that (16) is equivalent to

$$egin{aligned} r(D)(7-5r(D))(D+1)+(8-10r(D)+4r(D)^2)\ &+2D^2r(D)^2+2c(1+Dr(D))^2>0 \ , \end{aligned}$$

which is obviously valid for r(D) in (0, 1), D in (-1, 1) and $c \ge 0$. Thus $\mu(D)$ is increasing on (-1, 1).

An examination of (12) shows $r(D) \to 1$ when $D \to 1$ or $D \to -1$, hence $\mu(D) \to -\infty$ as $D \to -1$, $\mu(D) \to 1$ as $D \to 1$, and the equation $\mu(D) = 0$ has a unique solution D_0 in (-1, 1). If $-1 < D \le D_0$, then $\mu(D) = Q_1(r(D)) \le 0$ and r_* is the root of $Q_1(r) = \beta$. If $D_0 < D < 1$, then r_* is the root of $Q_1(r) = \beta$ when $\mu(D) \le \beta$ and r_* is the root of $Q_2(r) = \beta$ when $\beta \le \mu(D)$. This completes the proof.

If we take $c = \gamma = 1$ and $\alpha = \beta = 0$, then we obtain as a special case Livingston's result [11]. If we let $\gamma = 1$ and $\alpha = \beta = 0$, then we obtain Theorem 1 in [4]. Letting $c = \gamma = 1$ yields results found in [1], [2], [10], [13] and, as we have already noted, the case c = 1 and $\alpha + \gamma \leq 1$ appears in [7].

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