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# APPLICATIONS OF THE HADAMARD PRODUCT IN GEOMETRIC FUNCTION THEORY 

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Summary. Let $\mathscr{A}$ denote the set of functions $F$ holomorphic in the unit disc, normalized clasically: $F(0)=0, F^{\prime}(0)=1$, whereas $A \subset \mathscr{A}$ is an arbitrarily fixed subset. In this paper various properties of the classes $A_{\alpha}, \alpha \in C \backslash\left\{-1,-\frac{1}{2}, \ldots\right\}$, of functions of the form $f=F * k_{\alpha}$ are studied, where

$$
F \in . A, \quad k_{\alpha}(z)=k(z, \alpha)=z+\frac{1}{1+\alpha} z^{2}+\ldots+\frac{1}{1+(n-1) a} z^{n}+\ldots
$$

and $F * k_{\alpha}$ denotes the Hadamard product of the functions $F$ and $k_{\alpha}$. Some special cases of the set $A$ were considered by other authors (see, for example, [15], [6], [3]).

Keywords: Hadamard product, class of type $A_{\alpha}$, typically real functions.

1. Let $\mathscr{A}$ denote the set of functions $F$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(z)=z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n, F} z^{n} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

holomorphic in the unit disc $\Delta=\{z \in C:|z|<1\}$, whereas $T$ is a subset of $\mathscr{A}$ consisting of typically-real functions in $\Delta$ (see [12]).

In paper [6], for an arbitrarily fixed $\alpha \in \boldsymbol{R} \backslash\left\{-1,-\frac{1}{2}, \ldots\right\}$, the class

$$
T_{\alpha}=\left\{f \in \mathscr{A}: f=F * k_{\alpha}, F \in T\right\}
$$

was considered, where

$$
k_{\alpha}(z)=k(z, \alpha)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+(n-1) \alpha} z^{n}, \quad z \in \Delta
$$

and $F * k_{\alpha}$ denotes the Hadamard product of the functions $F$ and $k_{\alpha}$ (see, for example, [14], p. 27; [13]).

For nonnegative values of $\alpha$, the family $T_{\alpha}$ was introduced earlier by K. Skalska ([15]) in another way.

The aim of this paper is to study various properties of the class

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{\alpha}=\left\{f \in \mathscr{A}: f=F * k_{\alpha}, F \in A\right\} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A \neq \emptyset$ is an arbitrarily fixed subset of the set $\mathscr{A}$, and $\alpha \in C \backslash\left\{-1,-\frac{1}{2}, \ldots\right\}$.

In the subsequent considerations we shall always assume, if not stated otherwise, that $\alpha$ is an arbitrarily fixed complex number different from the numbers $-1,-\frac{1}{2}, \ldots$.
2. It follows directly from the definitions of the family $A_{\alpha}$ and the Hadamard product that the function $f$ of the form

$$
f(z)=z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n, f} z^{n}, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

belongs to the family $A_{\alpha}$ if and only if there exists $F \in A$ of the form (1) such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n, f}=\frac{a_{n, F}}{1+(n-1) \alpha}, \quad n=2,3, \ldots . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, if the exact estimate $\left|a_{n, F}\right| \leqq d_{n}$ takes place in the class $A(F \in A)$, then (3) yields the exact estimate $\left|a_{n, f}\right| \leqq \mathrm{d}_{n} /|1+(n-1) \alpha|, f \in A_{\alpha}$.

Moreover, from formula (3) we obtain that $A_{0}=A$.
Also, in a simple way, from (2) we obtain the following properties of the classes $A_{\alpha}$.
Theorem 1. Let $r \in(0,1)$. If, for each function $F \in A$, the function

$$
F_{r}(z)=\frac{1}{r} F(r z), \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

belongs to the family $A$, then, for each function $f \in A_{\alpha}$, the function

$$
f_{r}(z)=\frac{1}{r} f(r z), \quad z \in \Delta
$$

belongs to the family $A_{\alpha}$.
Theorem 2. Let $\theta \in\langle 0,2 \pi$ ). If, for each function $F \in A$, the function

$$
F_{\theta}(z)=\mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{i} \theta} F\left(z \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} \theta}\right), \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

belongs to the family $A$, then, for each function $f \in A_{\alpha}$, the function

$$
f_{\theta}(z)=\mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{i} \theta} f\left(z \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} \theta}\right), \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

belongs to the family $A_{\alpha}$.
Theorem 3. Let $\alpha \in \boldsymbol{R} \backslash\left\{-1,-\frac{1}{2}, \ldots\right\}$. If, for each function $F \in A$, the function

$$
G(z)=\overline{F(\bar{z})}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \bar{a}_{n, F} z^{n}, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

belongs to the family $A$, then, for each function $f \in A_{\alpha}$, the function

$$
g(z)=\overline{f(\bar{z}})=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \bar{a}_{n, f} z^{n}, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

belongs to the family $A_{\alpha}$.

Similarly as in the case $A=T$ (see [15], [6]), the following properties of the families $A_{\alpha}$ may be proved.

Theorem 4. A function $f$ belongs to $A_{\alpha}$ if and only if $f$ is a solution of the dif. ferential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha z f^{\prime}(z)+(1-\alpha) f(z)=F(z) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F \in A$.
Theorem 5. If $f \in A_{\alpha}$, then

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi \mathrm{i}} \int_{|\zeta|=e<1} k\left(\frac{z}{\zeta}, \alpha\right) F(\zeta) \frac{\mathrm{d} \zeta}{\zeta}, \quad|z|<\varrho<1
$$

where $F \in A$, and vice versa.

Theorem 6: If $f \in A_{\alpha}, \operatorname{Re} \alpha>0$, then

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{0}^{1} t^{1 / \alpha-2} F(z t) \mathrm{d} t, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

where $F \in A$, and vice versa.
Theorem 7. Let $A$ and $B$ be two fixed subsets of $\mathscr{A}$. If, for any functions $F \in A$, $G \in B$, the function $F * G \in A$, then, for each $f \in A_{\alpha}$, the function $f * G \in A_{\alpha}$.

The above theorems can be used in various problems concerning classes of type $A_{\alpha}$. In particular, the properties of solutions of equations of the form (4) were considered in several cases of the classes $A \subset \mathscr{A}$ (for example, in [15], [6], [8], [2]). From Theorems 5 and 6 one often gets structure formulae for the classes $A_{\alpha}$ (for example, in [15], [6]; see also [10], [2]). On the other hand the properties of the Hadamard product of functions of the form (1) of the classes frequently considered are wellknown: $C V$ (the class of convex functions), $S T(1 / 2)$ (the class of starlike functions of order $1 / 2$ ), $C C$ (the class of close-to-convex functions) (see [4], vol. 1, p. 115; vol. 2, p. 2). So, from Theorem 7 and the results of the paper [13] we obtain:

1) for any functions $f \in(C V)_{\alpha}, G \in C V$, the Hadamard product $f * G$ belongs to $(C V)_{a}$;
2) for any functions $f \in(S T(1 / 2))_{\alpha}, G \in S T(1 / 2)$, the Hadamard product $f * G$ belongs to $(S T(1 / 2))_{\alpha}$;
3) for any functions $f \in(C C)_{\alpha}, G \in C V$, the Hadamard product $f * G$ belongs to $(C C)_{\alpha}$.
3. Let $H$ denote the family of all functions holomorphic in the unit disc $\Delta$. The set $H$ with the topology of almost uniform convergence is, of course, a linear topological space.

As is known, certain problems of the geometric theory of analytic functions consist in determining the set $\Omega$ of values of a complex continuous functional defined on a given family $A \subset H$. If the set $\Omega$ is bounded, closed and connected, then we determine it effectively by characterizing its boundary. To ensure that the set $\Omega$ has the above properties, the family $A$ considered should be compact and connected. In other extremal problems, support points and extreme points of the families play an essential part (see, for example, [14], pp. 3, 99; [1]).

Let us recall: a function $F \in A$ is called a support point of a compact subset $A$ of $H$ f and only if there exists a continuous linear functional $x^{*}$ on $H$ such that, $\operatorname{Re} x^{*}$ is non-constant on $A$ and for each function $G \in A$,

$$
\operatorname{Re} x^{*}(G) \leqq \operatorname{Re} x^{*}(F)
$$

So, the problem of characterizing the set of the support points of the class $A_{\alpha} \subset$ $\subset \mathscr{A} \subset H$ seems to be interesting when the characterization of the support points of the family $A \subset \mathscr{A} \subset H$ is known.

In the proof of the theorem solving this problem we shall use the following wellknown result of Toeplitz ([16]).

Lemma. A functional $x^{*}$ defined on $H$ is linear and continuous if and only if there exists a sequence of complex numbers $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ such that, for each function $g \in H$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{*}(g)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n, g} b_{n} \\
& \limsup _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|b_{n}\right|^{1 / n}<1
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 8. $A$ function $f_{0}$ is a support point of the set $A_{\alpha}$ if and only if $f_{0}=F_{0} * k^{\alpha}$ where $F_{0}$ is a support point of the set $A$.

Proof. Let $F_{0}$ be a support point of the set $A$. Then there exists a linear and continuous functional $x^{*}$ on $H$ such that, for each function $F \in A$,

$$
\operatorname{Re} x^{*}(F) \leqq \operatorname{Re} x^{*}\left(F_{0}\right)
$$

The above lemma and formula (1) imply that this inequality can be written in the following equivalent form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n, F} b_{n}\right) \leqq \operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n, F_{0}} b_{n}\right), \quad F \in A, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\{b_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence determining the functional $x^{*}$.
As $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \left|b_{n}[1+(n-1) \alpha]\right|^{1 / n}<1$, the sequence $\left\{b_{n}[1+(n-1) \alpha]\right\}$ also determines a linear and continuous functional on $H$. Let us denote it by $x_{\alpha}^{*}$. Let $f$
be an arbitrarily fixed function of the family $A_{\alpha}$, whereas $f_{0}=F_{0} * k_{\alpha}$. Then there exists exactly one function $F \in A$ such that $f=F * k_{\alpha}$. Hence, taking formula (3) and inequality (5) into consideration, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Re} x_{\alpha}^{*}(f)-\operatorname{Re} x_{\alpha}^{*}\left(f_{0}\right)=\operatorname{Re} x_{\alpha}^{*}\left(F * k_{\alpha}\right)-\operatorname{Re} x_{\alpha}^{*}\left(F_{0} * k_{\alpha}\right)= \\
& =\operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n, F}}{1+(n-1) \alpha} b_{n}[1+(n-1) \alpha]\right) \\
& -\operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n, F_{0}}}{1+(n-1) \alpha} b_{n}[1+(n-1) \alpha]\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n, F} b_{n}\right)-\operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n, F_{0}} b_{n}\right) \leqq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves that the function $f_{0}=F_{0} * k_{\alpha}$ is a support point of the set $A_{\alpha}$. We also note that if $\operatorname{Re} x^{*}$ is non-constant on $A$ then $\operatorname{Re} x_{\alpha}^{*}$ is non-constant on $A_{\alpha}$.

The proof of the converse theorem proceeds analogously.
From the linearity and the injectivity of the Hadamard product $F * k_{\alpha}$ in the space $H$ the following properties of the classes $A_{\alpha}$ follow.

Theorem 9. $A$ set $A_{\alpha}$ is convex in the space $H$ if and only if $A$ is convex in this space.

Theorem 10. If a set $A$ is a convex set in space $H$, then $f \in A_{\alpha}$ is an extreme point of the set $A_{\alpha}$ if and only if $f=F * k_{\alpha}$ where $F$ is extreme point of the set $A$.

Next, let us recall that a topological space $X$ is called arcwise connected if, for any two points $x_{1}, x_{2} \in X$, there exists a continuous mapping $\gamma(t)$ of an interval $\langle a, b\rangle$ into the space $X$ such that $\gamma(a)=x_{1}, \gamma(b)=x_{2}$. Such a mapping will be called a path joining the points $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$.

We shall prove the following property of the class $A_{\alpha}$.
Theorem 11. If a set $A$ is arcwise connected, then the set $A_{\alpha}$ is arcwise connected.
Proof. Let $f_{1}, f_{2} \in A_{\alpha}$. Then there exist functions $F_{1}, F_{2} \in A$ such that $f_{1}=F_{1} * k_{\alpha}$, $f_{2}=F_{2} * k_{\alpha}$, and a path $\Gamma(t)=F(z, t), t \in\langle a, b\rangle$, joining $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$. Using the formula given in Theorem 5, we prove in the elementary way that $\gamma(t)=f(z, t)=$ $=F(z, t) * k_{\alpha}(z)$ is a path joining $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$, which completes the proof.

Since the arcwise connectedness implies the topological connectedness, Theorem 11 yields that, for the arcwise connected family $A$, the families $A_{\alpha}$ are connected.

Similarly, the following property of the families $A_{\alpha}$ may easily be proved.
Theorem 12. If $A$ is a compact family, then the families $A_{\alpha}$ are also compact.
4. K. Skalska in her paper [15] proved that if $A=T$, then the following inclusions hold:

$$
T_{\beta} \subset T_{\alpha} \subset T_{0}=T, \quad 0<\alpha<\beta
$$

In the general case, neither of the inclusions $A_{\beta} \subset A_{\alpha} \subset A, 0<\alpha<\beta$, need be true. Indeed, let $A=\left\{z ; z+z^{2}\right\}$; then $A_{\alpha}=\left\{z ; z+1 /(1+\alpha) . z^{2}\right\}$, so $A_{\beta} \nsubseteq A_{\alpha} \nsubseteq$ $\notin A$ for $0<\alpha<\beta$. Moreover, if $A=\left\{z+z^{2}\right\}$, then $A_{\alpha}=\left\{z+1 /(1+\alpha) \cdot z^{2}\right\}$, thus the above inclusions are not true, either, and furthermore, for $\alpha \neq 0$, even $A_{\alpha} \cap A=\emptyset$.

Next, let $A=S$ where $S$ is the well-known class of univalent functions $F$ of the form (1) in $\Delta$. D. M. Campbell \& V. Singh ([2]) proved that then the classes $S_{\alpha}=A_{\alpha}$, even for $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}$, include infinite-valent functions. So, $S_{\alpha} \notin S$ for $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}$. Of course, it is also known that $S_{1} \notin S($ see [7]). On the other hand Z. Lewandowski, S. Miller, E. Złotkiewicz in their paper [8] proved that if $A=S T$, then $(S T)_{\alpha} \subset S T$ for all $\alpha \in \boldsymbol{C}$ from the disc $\left|\alpha-\frac{1}{2}\right| \leqq \frac{1}{2}$. Another non-trivial example of a family $A$ for which the inclusion $A_{\alpha} \subset A$ is true for a complex $\alpha$ is the family $B_{1}(M), M>1$, (see [4], vol. 2, p. 36) of functions of the form (1) satisfying the inequality

$$
|F(z)|<M, \quad z \in \Delta
$$

Namely, we have the following theorem.
Theorem 13. If $M>1$ and $\operatorname{Re} \alpha>0$, then

$$
\left(B_{1}(M)\right)_{\alpha} \subset B_{1}(M)
$$

Proof. Let $f \in\left(B_{1}(M)\right)_{\alpha}$ and suppose that, at the same time, $f \notin B_{1}(M)$. It is easy to verify then that there exists a point $z_{0} \in \Delta$ such that

$$
\max _{|z| \leqq r}|f(z)|=\left|f\left(z_{0}\right)\right|=M, \quad r=\left|z_{0}\right|
$$

Hence, in view of Jack's lemma ([5]), we obtain that there exists a number $m \geqq 1$ such that

$$
z_{0} f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=m f\left(z_{0}\right)
$$

Consequently, in view of Theorem 4 we obtain

$$
\left|\alpha z_{0} f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)+(1-\alpha) f\left(z_{0}\right)\right|=\left|f\left(z_{0}\right)\right||\alpha(m-1)+1| \geqq\left|f\left(z_{0}\right)\right|=M
$$

in spite of the assumption that $f \in\left(B_{1}(M)\right)_{\alpha}$, which completes the proof.
Now, we shall give a construction of the families $A$ for which both the inclusion relations above will be true. For this purpose, let us consider the operator $D: H \rightarrow H$ defined by the formula

$$
D F(z)=z F^{\prime}(z), \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

and the set $\mathscr{A}^{\prime}=\{F \in H, F(0)=1\}$. Let $\mathscr{I}$ denote the class of operators $J: \mathscr{A} \rightarrow \mathscr{A}^{\prime}$ satisfying for all $F \in \mathscr{A}$ the condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(\alpha D F+(1-\alpha) F)=J(F)+\alpha D J(F), \quad \alpha \in C \tag{i}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us observe that, for example, the operators $J_{k}: \mathscr{A} \rightarrow \mathscr{A}^{\prime}, k=1,2,3,4$, defined by the formulas

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
J_{1}(F)(z)=F^{\prime}(0)=1, & z \in \Delta, \\
J_{2}(F)(z)=F^{\prime}(z), & z \in \Delta, \\
J_{3}(F)(z)=F(z) /(z), & z \in \Delta, \\
J_{4}(F)(z)=\frac{1}{z} \int_{0}^{z} \frac{F(\vartheta)}{\vartheta} \mathrm{d} \vartheta, & z \in \Delta,
\end{array}
$$

belong to the class $\mathscr{J}$.
Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\{F \in \mathscr{A}, \operatorname{Re} J(F)(z)>0, z \in \Delta\} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $J$ denotes an arbitrarily fixed operator of the class $\mathscr{J}$.
In the sequel, family (6) will be called a family of type $J$.
Let us observe that the identity function belongs $I$ to each family $A$ of type $J$, $(J(I)(z)=1, z \in \triangle, J \in \mathscr{J})$; moreover, the class $A$ of type $J_{1}$ coincides with the whole family $\mathscr{A}$. The well-known families (see [4], vol. 1, p. 101; vol. 2, p. 97)

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\{F \in \mathscr{A}: \operatorname{Re} F^{\prime}(z)>0, z \in \Delta\right\}  \tag{7}\\
& \left\{F \in \mathscr{A}: \operatorname{Re} \frac{F(z)}{z}>0, z \in \Delta\right\} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

are classes of type $J_{2}, J_{3}$, respectively. The family $A$ of type $J_{4}$, as far as we know, has not been investigated yet.

The families $A_{\alpha}$ associated with the classes $A$ of type $J$ have the following properties.

Theorem 14. If $A$ is a family of type $J$, then for each $\alpha \in C, \operatorname{Re} \alpha \geqq 0$, the inclusion $A_{\alpha} \subset A$ is true.

Proof. Let $f \in A_{\alpha}$. Then from (6) and (4) we have

$$
\operatorname{Re} J(\alpha D f+(1-\alpha) f)(z)>0, \quad z \in \Delta
$$

This inequality, in view of property (i) of the operator $J$, is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}(p+\alpha D p)(z)>0, \quad z \in \Delta \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p=J(f)$. Using S. Miller's result ([9], Corollary) we get $\operatorname{Re} p(z)>0, z \in \Delta$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Re} J(f)(z)>0, z \in \Delta$, and, consequently, $f \in A$, which completes the proof.

Theorem 15. If $A$ is a family of type $J$ and $0 \leqq \alpha \leqq \beta$, then $A_{\beta} \subset A_{\alpha} \subset A_{0}=A$.

Proof. Of course, it is sufficient to consider the case $0<\alpha<\beta$. So, let $0<\alpha<\beta$, $f \in A_{\beta}$ and $f \notin A_{\alpha}$. Then, in view of (4), (6) and property (i), there exists $z_{0} \in \Delta$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Re} J(f)\left(z_{0}\right)+\beta \operatorname{Re} D J(f)\left(z_{0}\right)>0, \\
& \operatorname{Re} J(f)\left(z_{0}\right)+\alpha \operatorname{Re} D J(f)\left(z_{0}\right) \leqq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying the first inequality by $\alpha>0$ and the second inequality by $(-\beta)<0$ and adding them, we get

$$
(\alpha-\beta) \operatorname{Re} J(f)\left(z_{0}\right)>0
$$

Since $\alpha-\beta<0$, therefore $\operatorname{Re} J(f)\left(z_{0}\right)<0$ and, consequently, $f \notin A$, which contradicts the relation $A_{\beta} \subset A$ proved in Theorem 14.

In particular cases, if the family $A$ is of the form (7) or (8), Theorems 14 and 15 give some results from paper [3], (see Sections 4 and 5).
5. Let $A$ be a family of type $J=J_{k}, k=2,3,4$. Then there exists a function $F=F_{k}, k=2,3,4$, of this class, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(F)(z)=\frac{1+z}{1-z}, \quad z \in \Delta . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

From property (i) of the operator $J$ we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Re} J(\alpha D F+(1-\alpha) F)(z)= \\
& =\operatorname{Re}\left(1+2 \alpha z-z^{2}\right) /(1-z)^{2} \rightarrow-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re} \alpha \leqq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

as $z \rightarrow-1, z \in \Delta$, for each $\operatorname{Re} \alpha \geqq 0$. So, $F_{k}$ does not belong to the respective class $A_{\alpha}$ if $\operatorname{Re} \alpha>0$. Consequently, the classes $A_{\alpha}$ associated with the families $A$ of type $J=J_{k}, k=2,3,4$, are essential subclasses of the families $A$.

From the course of the argument carried out we infer that $A_{\alpha}$ will be an essential subclass of the family $A$ of type $J$ if, for example, we assume in addition that the solution $F$ of equation (10) belongs to $A$. Then the family $A$ will be called a family of type $\tilde{J}$. So: if $A$ is a family of type $\tilde{J}$, then $A \nsubseteq A_{\alpha}$ for $\operatorname{Re} \alpha>0$.

A family $A$ of type $J_{1}$ is not a family of type $\tilde{J}_{1}$, whereas families $A$ of type $J_{k}$, $k=2,3,4$, are families of type $\tilde{J}_{k}$.

The following property for the families of type $\tilde{J}$ turns out to be true.
Theorem 16. If $A$ is a family of type $\tilde{J}$, then

$$
A \subset A\left[\Delta_{\Delta_{r(\alpha)}}\right]_{\alpha} \text { for } r(\alpha)=\sqrt{ }\left(1+|\alpha|^{2}\right)-|\alpha| \leqq 1
$$

where

$$
A\left[\Delta_{r}\right]=\left\{f \in \mathscr{A}: \operatorname{Re} J(f)(z)>0, z \in \Delta_{r}\right\} ; \Delta_{r(\alpha)}=\{z \in C:|z|<r(\alpha)\}
$$

Moreover, the disc $\Delta_{r(\alpha)}$ for $\alpha \in \boldsymbol{R}$ cannot be enlarged.

Proof. Let $f \in A$. In view of the definitions of the families $A_{\alpha}$ and the sets $A\left[\Delta_{r}\right]$, the assertion will be proved if we determine the largest number $r(\alpha) \in(0,1)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Re} J(\alpha D f+(1-\alpha) f)(z)>0, \quad z \in \Delta_{r(\alpha)}
$$

By virtue of property (i) of the operator $J$, it is sufficient to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}(p+\alpha D p)(z)>0, \quad z \in \Delta_{r(\alpha)} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p=J(f)$. Since $f \in A$, therefore $p$ is a Carathéodory function with a positive real part, so $([11],(6.2))\left|z p^{\prime}(z)\right| / \operatorname{Re} p(z) \leqq 2|z| /\left(1-|z|^{2}\right)$. Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}(p+\alpha D p)(z) \geqq\left(1-\frac{2|\alpha| r}{1-r^{2}}\right) \operatorname{Re} p(z), \quad|z|=r<1 \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

But $1-2|\alpha| r-r^{2}>0$ if and only if $0<r<r(\alpha)=\sqrt{ }\left(1+|\alpha|^{2}\right)-|\alpha|$, therefore relation (11) follows from (12), which accounts for the inclusion announced in the theorem.

As $A$ is a family of type $\tilde{J}$, the solution $F$ of equation (10) belongs to $A$. This function turns out to belong to the family $A_{\alpha}\left[\Delta_{r(\alpha)}\right]_{\alpha}$ and not belong to $A_{\alpha}\left[\Delta_{r}\right]_{\alpha}$ for $r>r(\alpha), \alpha \in \boldsymbol{R}$. Thus the proof is complete.
6. Let $A$ be a family of type $\tilde{J}$ and $\alpha \geqq 0$. In view of Theorems 14 and 15 and the fact that $A \notin A_{\alpha}$ for $\alpha>0$, the following considerations seem to be interesting.

Let $f \in A, \alpha \geqq 0$. Let us put

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{f}=\left\{\sup \alpha: f \in A_{\alpha}\right\} \\
& A(\alpha)=\left\{f \in A: \alpha_{f}=\alpha\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 17. If $A$ is a family of type $\tilde{J}$, then each class $A(\alpha)$ is nonempty and the following relations hold:

$$
\begin{align*}
& f \in A(0) \text { if and only if } f \notin A_{\alpha} \text { for each } \alpha>0 ;  \tag{13}\\
& f \in A(\infty) \text { if and only if } f \in A_{\alpha} \text { for each } \alpha \geqq 0 ;  \tag{14}\\
& f \in A(\alpha), \quad \alpha \in(0, \infty) \text {, if and only if } f \in A_{\beta} \text { for any } \beta \in\langle 0, \alpha\rangle  \tag{15}\\
& \text { and } f \notin A_{\beta} \text { for each } \beta>\alpha .
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. As $A$ is of type $\tilde{J}$, then, as we observed earlier, $A(0) \neq \emptyset$. Let $\alpha>0$ and let $\widetilde{F} \in A$ be a solution of equation (10). Let us put $\tilde{f}=\tilde{F} * k_{\alpha}$. Then, by virtue of (2), $\tilde{f} \in A_{\alpha}$, so from (4)

$$
J(\alpha D \tilde{f}+(1-\alpha) \tilde{f})(z)=J(\widetilde{F})(z)=\frac{1+z}{1-z}, \quad z \in \Delta .
$$

Hence, in view of (i),

$$
\alpha D J(f)(z)+J(\tilde{f})(z)=\frac{1+z}{1-z}, \quad z \in \Delta
$$

Let us consider $\beta>\alpha$. From (i) we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& J(\beta D \tilde{f}+(1-\beta) \tilde{f})(z)=\beta D J(\tilde{f})(z)+J(\tilde{f})(z)= \\
& =\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \frac{1+z}{1-z}+\frac{\alpha-\beta}{\alpha} J(\tilde{f})(z)=\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \frac{1+z}{1-z}+ \\
& +\frac{\alpha-\beta}{\alpha} \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{0}^{1} t^{1 / \alpha-1} \frac{1+t z}{1-t z} \mathrm{~d} t \rightarrow \frac{\alpha-\beta}{\alpha} a<0,
\end{aligned}
$$

as $z \rightarrow-1, z \in \Delta$. Consequently, $\tilde{f} \in A_{\alpha}$, whence $A(\alpha) \neq \emptyset$. Since the identity function belongs to the family $A$ of type $J$, it belongs to each class $A_{\alpha}$, thus to $A(\infty)$, too. Hence it follows that $A(\infty) \neq \emptyset$.
Now, let us observe that for $\alpha \in(0, \infty)$, conditions (13), (14) and the sufficient condition in (15) follow directly from the definition of the family $A(\alpha)$ and the properties of the family $A_{\alpha}$. It only remains to prove the necessary condition in (15).

So, let $f \in A(\alpha), \alpha \in(0, \infty)$. Then the definition of the family $A(\alpha)$ and Theorem 15 imply that $f \notin A_{\beta}$ for each $\beta>\alpha$, and $f \in A_{\beta}$ for each $0 \leqq \beta<\alpha$. In view of (4), the last fact is equivalent to

$$
\operatorname{Re} J(\beta D f+(1-\beta) f)(z)>0, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

for $\beta \in\langle 0, \alpha)$. Passing to the limit $\beta \rightarrow \alpha^{-}$in the above inequality, we get

$$
\operatorname{Re} J(\alpha D f+(1-\alpha) f)(z) \geqq 0, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

which, in view of the extremum principle for harmonic functions, gives

$$
\operatorname{Re} J(\alpha D f+(1-\alpha) f)(z)>0, \quad z \in \Delta,
$$

and, consequently, $f \in A_{\alpha}$. Thus the proof is complete.
Theorem 17 evidently yields that

$$
A=\bigcup_{\alpha \geqq 0} A(\alpha) .
$$

Finally, let us observe that the operator $J_{g}: \mathscr{A} \rightarrow \mathscr{A}^{\prime}$ defined by the formula

$$
\left(J_{g}(F)\right)(z)=\frac{(F * g)(z)}{z}, \quad z \in \Delta
$$

where $g$ is an arbitrarily fixed function of the family $\mathscr{A}$, belongs to the class $\mathscr{J}$, too. Moreover, putting $g=g_{k}, k=1,2,3,4$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{1}(z)=z, \quad z \in \Delta ; \\
& g_{2}(z)=\frac{z}{(1-z)^{2}}, \quad z \in \Delta ;
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{3}(z)=\frac{z}{1-z}, \quad z \in \Delta \\
& g_{4}(z)=-\log (1-z), \quad z \in \Delta
\end{aligned}
$$

we get $J_{k}=J_{g_{k}}$.
There arises a natural question if $J_{g}$ is the most general form of the operator $J \in \mathscr{J}$.

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## APLIKACE HADAMARDOVA SOUČINU V GEOMETRICKÉ TEORII FUNKCÍ

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Necht $\mathscr{A}$ je množina funkcí $F$ holomorfních v jednotkovém kruhu a normalizovaných klasickým zpu̇sobem: $F(0)=0, F^{\prime}(0)=1$, a necht $A \in \mathscr{A}$ je její libovolná pevně zvolená podmnožina. V Clánku se studují rủzné vlastnosti tříd $A_{x}, \alpha \in C \backslash\left\{-1,-\frac{1}{2}, \ldots\right\}$, funkcí tvaru $f=F * k_{\alpha}$, kde

$$
F \in A, \quad k_{\alpha}(z)=k(z, \alpha)=z+\frac{1}{1+\alpha} z^{2}+\ldots+\frac{1}{1+(n-1) \alpha} z^{n}+\ldots,
$$

a $F * k_{\alpha}(z)$ znamená Hadamardủv soǔ̌in funkcí $F, k_{\alpha}$. Některé speciální připady množiny $A$ byly vyšetřeny dříve jinými autory (viz např. [15], [6], [3]).

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