# LOGARITHMIC CONVEXITY OF AREA INTEGRAL MEANS FOR ANALYTIC FUNCTIONS II 

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#### Abstract

For $0<p<\infty$ and $-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$ we show that the $L^{p}$ integral mean on $r \mathbb{D}$ of an analytic function in the unit disk $\mathbb{D}$ with respect to the weighted area measure $\left(1-|z|^{2}\right)^{\alpha} d A(z)$ is a logarithmically convex function of $r$ on ( 0,1 ).


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## 1. Introduction

Let $\mathbb{D}$ denote the unit disk in the complex plane $\mathbb{C}$ and let $H(\mathbb{D})$ denote the space of all analytic functions in $\mathbb{D}$. For any $f \in H(\mathbb{D})$ and $0<p<\infty$, the classical integral means of $f$ are defined by

$$
M_{p}(f, r)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left|f\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)\right|^{p} d \theta, \quad 0 \leq r<1
$$

The well-known Hardy convexity theorem asserts that $M_{p}(f, r)$, as a function of $r$ on $[0,1)$, is nondecreasing and logarithmically convex. Recall that the logarithmic convexity of $g(r)$ simply means that $\log g(r)$ is a convex function $\log r$. The case $p=\infty$ corresponds to the Hadamard three-circles theorem. See [1, Theorem 1.5] for example.

In this paper we will consider integral means of analytic functions in the unit disk with respect to weighted area measures. Thus, for any real number $\alpha$, we consider the measure

$$
d A_{\alpha}(z)=\left(1-|z|^{2}\right)^{\alpha} d A(z)
$$

where $d A$ is area measure on $\mathbb{D}$. For any $f \in H(\mathbb{D})$ and $0<p<\infty$, we define

$$
M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)=\frac{\int_{r \mathbb{D}}|f(z)|^{p} d A_{\alpha}(z)}{\int_{r \mathbb{D}} d A_{\alpha}(z)}, \quad 0<r<1,
$$

[^0]and call them area integral means of $f$.
The study of area integral means of analytic functions began in [6], where it was shown that for $\alpha \leq-1$, the function $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is bounded in $r$ if and only if $f$ belongs to the Hardy space $H^{p}$ and, for $\alpha>-1, M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is bounded in $r$ if and only if $f$ belongs to the weighted Bergman space $A_{\alpha}^{p}$. See [1,2] for the theories of Hardy and Bergman spaces, respectively.

It was also shown in [6] that each function $r \mapsto M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is strictly increasing unless $f$ is constant. Furthermore, for $p \geq 1$ and $\alpha \in\{-1,0\}$, the function $\log M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is convex in $\log r$. However, an example in [6] shows that $\log M_{2,1}(z, r)$ is concave in $\log r$. Consequently, the following conjecture was made in [6]: the function $\log M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is convex in $\log r$ when $\alpha \leq 0$ and it is concave in $\log r$ when $\alpha>0$.

It turned out that the logarithmic convexity of $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is much more complicated than was conjectured in [6]. Somewhat surprisingly, the problem is highly nontrivial even in the Hilbert-space case $p=2$. More specifically, it was proved in [4] that for $p=2$ and any $f \in H(\mathbb{D})$ the function $M_{2, \alpha}(f, r)$ is logarithmically convex when $-3 \leq \alpha \leq 0$, and this range for $\alpha$ is best possible. It was also proved in [4] that when $p \neq 2$ and $f$ is a monomial, the function $M_{p, \alpha}\left(z^{k}, r\right)$ is logarithmically convex for $-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$.

Area integral means of analytic functions were also studied in [3, 5].
The main result of this paper is the following theorem.
Theorem 1.1. Suppose that $0<p<\infty,-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$, and $f$ is analytic in $\mathbb{D}$. Then the function $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is logarithmically convex.

We have been unable to determine whether or not the range $\alpha \in[-2,0]$ is best possible. In other words, we do not know if there exists a set $\Omega$ properly containing $[-2,0]$ such that $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is logarithmically convex on $(0,1)$ for all $p \in(0, \infty)$, all $\alpha \in \Omega$, and all $f \in H(\mathbb{D})$. It is certainly reasonable to expect that the logarithmic convexity of $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ for all $f$ will depend on both $p$ and $\alpha$. The ultimate problem is to find the precise dependence.

## 2. Preliminaries

The proof of Theorem 1.1 is 'elementary' but very laborious. It requires several preliminary results that we collect in this section. Throughout the paper we use the symbol $\equiv$ whenever a new notation is being introduced.

The next lemma was stated in [4] without proof. We provide a proof here for the sake of completeness.
Lemma 2.1. Suppose that $f$ is positive and twice differentiable on $(0,1)$. Then:
(i) $\quad f(x)$ is convex in $\log x$ if and only if

$$
f^{\prime}(x)+x f^{\prime \prime}(x) \geq 0
$$

for all $x \in(0,1)$;
(ii) $f(x)$ is convex in $\log x$ if and only if $f\left(x^{2}\right)$ is convex in $\log x$;
(iii) $\log f(x)$ is convex in $\log x$ if and only if

$$
D(f(x)) \equiv \frac{f^{\prime}(x)}{f(x)}+x \frac{f^{\prime \prime}(x)}{f(x)}-x\left(\frac{f^{\prime}(x)}{f(x)}\right)^{2} \geq 0
$$

for all $x \in(0,1)$.
Proof. Let $t=\log x$. Then $y=f(x)=f\left(e^{t}\right)$. The convexity of $y$ in $t$ is equivalent to $d^{2} y / d t^{2} \geq 0$. Since

$$
\frac{d y}{d t}=f^{\prime}\left(e^{t}\right) e^{t}
$$

and

$$
\frac{d^{2} y}{d t^{2}}=f^{\prime \prime}\left(e^{t}\right) e^{2 t}+f^{\prime}\left(e^{t}\right) e^{t}=x\left(x f^{\prime \prime}(x)+f^{\prime}(x)\right)
$$

we obtain the conclusion in part (i).
If $g(x)=f\left(x^{2}\right)$, then it is easy to check that

$$
g^{\prime}(x)+x g^{\prime \prime}(x)=4 x\left[f^{\prime}\left(x^{2}\right)+x^{2} f^{\prime \prime}\left(x^{2}\right)\right] .
$$

So, part (ii) follows from part (i).
Similarly, part (iii) follows if we apply part (i) to the function $h(x)=\log f(x)$.
Recall that $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is a quotient of two positive functions. It is thus natural that we will need the following result.

Lemma 2.2. Suppose that $f=f_{1} / f_{2}$ is a quotient of two positive and twicedifferentiable functions on $(0,1)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(f(x))=D\left(f_{1}(x)\right)-D\left(f_{2}(x)\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $x \in(0,1)$. Consequently, $\log f(x)$ is convex in $\log x$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
D\left(f_{1}(x)\right)-D\left(f_{2}(x)\right) \geq 0 \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

on $(0,1)$.
Proof. Observe that

$$
D(f(x))=\left(\frac{x f^{\prime}(x)}{f(x)}\right)^{\prime}=\left(x(\log f(x))^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}
$$

Since $\log f=\log f_{1}-\log f_{2}$, we obtain the identity in (2.1). By part (iii) of Lemma 2.1, $\log f(x)$ is convex in $\log x$ if and only if inequality (2.2) holds.

To simplify notation, we are going to write

$$
x=r^{2}, \quad M(r)=M_{p}(f, \sqrt{r}) .
$$

Without loss of generality, we assume throughout the paper that $f$ is not a constant, so that $M$ and $M^{\prime}$ are always positive.

We also write

$$
h=h(x)=\int_{0}^{r} M_{p}(f, t)\left(1-t^{2}\right)^{\alpha} 2 t d t=\int_{0}^{x} M(t)(1-t)^{\alpha} d t
$$

and

$$
\varphi=\varphi(x)=\int_{0}^{r}\left(1-t^{2}\right)^{\alpha} 2 t d t=\int_{0}^{x}(1-t)^{\alpha} d t
$$

By part (ii) of Lemma 2.1, the logarithmic convexity of $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ on $(0,1)$ is equivalent to the logarithmic convexity of $h(x) / \varphi(x)$ on $(0,1)$. According to Lemma 2.2, this will be accomplished if we can show that the difference

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(x) \equiv D(h(x))-D(\varphi(x)) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

is nonnegative on $(0,1)$. This will be done in the next section.
We will need several preliminary estimates on the functions $h$ and $\varphi$. The next lemma shows where and why we need the assumption $-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$.

Lemma 2.3. Suppose that $-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$ and $x \in[0,1)$. Then:
(i) $1-(\alpha+1) \varphi(x)-(1-x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)=0$;
(ii) $\varphi(x)-x \geq 0$;
(iii) $g_{1}(x) \equiv x(1-x-\alpha x)-(1-x) \varphi(x) \geq 0$;
(iv) $g_{2}(x) \equiv(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}(x)-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi(x)+2 x \geq 0$;
(v) $\quad g_{3}(x) \equiv \varphi^{2}(x)-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi(x)+x \geq 0$.

Proof. If $\alpha \neq-1$, part (i) follows from the facts that

$$
\varphi(x)=\frac{1-(1-x)^{\alpha+1}}{\alpha+1}, \quad \varphi^{\prime}(x)=(1-x)^{\alpha} .
$$

If $\alpha=-1$, part (i) follows from the fact that

$$
\varphi^{\prime}(x)=\frac{1}{1-x}
$$

Part (ii) follows from the fact that $(1-t)^{\alpha} \geq 1$ for $\alpha \leq 0$ and $t \in[0,1)$.
A direct computation shows that

$$
g_{1}^{\prime}(x)=1-2 x-2 \alpha x+\varphi(x)-(1-x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)
$$

It follows from part (i) that

$$
g_{1}^{\prime}(x)=(\alpha+2)(\varphi(x)-x)-\alpha x .
$$

By part (ii) and the assumption that $-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$, we have $g_{1}^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$ for $x \in[0,1)$. Thus, $g_{1}(x) \geq g_{1}(0)=0$ for all $x \in[0,1)$. This proves (iii).

Another computation gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{2}^{\prime}(x) & =2(\alpha+2) \varphi(x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)-2(\alpha+1) \varphi(x)-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)+2 \\
& =2(\alpha+2) \varphi(x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)+2(1-x)^{\alpha+1} \\
& =2(\alpha+2)(\varphi(x)-x) \varphi^{\prime}(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
\alpha+2 \geq 0, \quad \varphi(x)-x \geq 0, \quad \varphi^{\prime}(x)=(1-x)^{\alpha} \geq 0
$$

we have $g_{2}^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in[0,1)$. Therefore, $g_{2}(x) \geq g_{2}(0)=0$ for all $x \in[0,1)$. This proves (iv).

A similar computation produces

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{3}^{\prime}(x) & =2 \varphi(x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)-(\alpha+1) \varphi-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)+1 \\
& =2 \varphi(x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi^{\prime}(x)+(1-x)^{\alpha+1} \\
& =(2 \varphi(x)-(\alpha+2) x) \varphi^{\prime}(x) \\
& \geq 2(\varphi(x)-x) \varphi^{\prime}(x) \geq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

which yields $g_{3}(x) \geq g_{3}(0)=0$ for all $x \in[0,1)$. This proves (v) and completes the proof of the lemma.

Let us write

$$
\begin{gathered}
A=A(x)=\frac{\varphi(x)-x}{\varphi^{2}(x)}, \\
B=B(x)=(1-x-\alpha x)+x(1-x) \frac{M^{\prime}(x)}{M(x)}, \\
C=C(x)=x(1-x)^{\alpha+1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

By the proof of Lemma 2.3, $A(x)$ is positive on $(0,1)$. Also, $B(x)$ is positive on $(0,1)$ as $\alpha \leq 0$ and $M^{\prime} / M>0$. It is obvious that $C(x)$ is positive on $(0,1)$ as well.

Lemma 2.4. We have $B^{2}-4 A C>0$ on $(0,1)$.
Proof. We have

$$
B^{2}-4 A C=\left[(1-x-\alpha x)+x(1-x) \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}\right]^{2}-4 x(1-x)^{\alpha+1} \frac{\varphi-x}{\varphi^{2}} .
$$

It follows from part (i) of Lemma 2.3 and the identity $\varphi^{\prime}(x)=(1-x)^{\alpha}$ that

$$
(\alpha+1) x \varphi=x-x(1-x)^{\alpha+1} .
$$

Rewrite this as

$$
-(1-x-\alpha x) \varphi+\varphi-x=-x(1-x)^{\alpha+1},
$$

from which

$$
-4 x(1-x)^{\alpha+1} \frac{\varphi-x}{\varphi^{2}}=-\frac{4(\varphi-x)(1-x-\alpha x)}{\varphi}+\frac{4(\varphi-x)^{2}}{\varphi^{2}} .
$$

Combining this with the earlier expression for $B^{2}-4 A C$, we see that $B^{2}-4 A C$ is equal to the sum of

$$
\left[(1-x-\alpha x)-\frac{2(\varphi-x)}{\varphi}\right]^{2}
$$

and

$$
x^{2}(1-x)^{2}\left(\frac{M^{\prime}}{M}\right)^{2}+2 x(1-x)(1-x-\alpha x) \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}
$$

The first summand above is always nonnegative, while the second summand is always positive, because $\alpha \leq 0, M^{\prime}>0$, and $M>0$. This proves the desired result.

## 3. Proof of main result

This section is devoted to the proof of Theorem 1.1. As was remarked in the previous section, we just need to show that the difference function $\Delta(x)$ defined in (2.3) is always nonnegative on $(0,1)$. Continuing the convention in [4], we will also use the notation $A \sim B$ to mean that $A$ and $B$ have the same sign.

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi^{\prime} & =(1-x)^{\alpha}, \quad \varphi^{\prime \prime}=-\alpha(1-x)^{\alpha-1} \\
D(\varphi(x)) & =\frac{\varphi \varphi^{\prime}+x \varphi \varphi^{\prime \prime}-x\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{\varphi^{2}} \\
& =\frac{(1-x)^{\alpha-1}}{\varphi^{2}}\left[\varphi-x\left[(\alpha+1) \varphi+(1-x)^{\alpha+1}\right]\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By part (i) of Lemma 2.3,

$$
(\alpha+1) \varphi+(1-x)^{\alpha+1}=(\alpha+1) \varphi+(1-x) \varphi^{\prime}=1
$$

Therefore,

$$
D(\varphi)=\frac{\varphi(x)-x}{\varphi^{2}(x)}(1-x)^{\alpha-1}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}(x)=M(x)(1-x)^{\alpha}
$$

and

$$
h^{\prime \prime}=h^{\prime \prime}(x)=\left[(1-x) M^{\prime}(x)-\alpha M(x)\right](1-x)^{\alpha-1}
$$

It follows from simple calculations that

$$
D(h)=\frac{h h^{\prime}+x h h^{\prime \prime}-x\left(h^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{h^{2}}=\frac{(1-x)^{\alpha-1} M}{h^{2}}[h B-C M] .
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta(x) & =\frac{(1-x)^{\alpha-1} M}{h^{2}}(h B-C M)-(1-x)^{\alpha-1} A \sim M(h B-C M)-A h^{2} \\
& =-A h^{2}+M B h-C M^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The function $\Delta(x)$ is continuous on $[0,1)$, so we just need to show that $\Delta(x) \geq 0$ for $x$ in the open interval $(0,1)$.

For $x \in(0,1)$, we have $A>0$ and $M>0$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta(x) \geq 0 & \Longleftrightarrow A h^{2}+C M^{2} \leq h B M \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \frac{h^{2}}{M^{2}}+\frac{C}{A} \leq \frac{h B}{M A} \\
& \Longleftrightarrow \frac{h^{2}}{M^{2}}-\frac{h B}{M A}+\frac{B^{2}}{4 A^{2}} \leq \frac{B^{2}}{4 A^{2}}-\frac{C}{A} \\
& \Longleftrightarrow\left(\frac{h}{M}-\frac{B}{2 A}\right)^{2} \leq \frac{B^{2}-4 A C}{4 A^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Recall from Lemma 2.4 and the remark preceding it that $A>0$ and $B^{2}-4 A C \geq 0$. Thus, the proof of Theorem 1.1 will be completed if we can show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\frac{\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}{2 A} \leq \frac{h}{M}-\frac{B}{2 A} \leq \frac{\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}{2 A} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the function $M$ is positive and increasing,

$$
B(x) \geq 1-x-\alpha x \geq 0, \quad h(x) \leq \int_{0}^{x} M(x)(1-t)^{\alpha} d t=M(x) \varphi(x)
$$

It follows from this, the proof of Lemma 2.4, part (ii) of Lemma 2.3, and the triangle inequality that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{B+\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}{2 A} & \geq \frac{(1-x-\alpha x)+\left|1-x-\alpha x-\frac{2(\varphi-x)}{\varphi}\right|}{2 A} \\
& \geq \frac{\frac{2(\varphi-x)}{\varphi}}{2 A}=\varphi \geq \frac{h}{M} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves the right half of (3.1).
To prove the left half of (3.1), we write

$$
\delta=\delta(x)=h-M \frac{B-\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}{2 A}
$$

for $x \in(0,1)$ and proceed to show that $\delta(x)$ is always nonnegative. It follows from the elementary identity

$$
\frac{B-\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}{2 A}=\frac{2 C}{B+\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}
$$

that $\delta(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow 0^{+}$. If we can show that $\delta^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in(0,1)$, then we will obtain

$$
\delta(x) \geq \lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} \delta(t)=0, \quad x \in(0,1) .
$$

The rest of the proof is thus devoted to proving the inequality $\delta^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$ for $x \in(0,1)$.

By direct computation,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta^{\prime}(x)=M \varphi^{\prime} & -\frac{M^{\prime} A-M A^{\prime}}{2 A^{2}}\left[B-\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}\right] \\
& -\frac{M}{2 A}\left[B^{\prime}-\frac{B B^{\prime}-2\left(A^{\prime} C+A C^{\prime}\right)}{\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By part (ii) of Lemma 2.1 and Hardy's convexity theorem, $M$ is logarithmically convex. According to part (iii) of Lemma 2.1, the logarithmic convexity of $M$ is equivalent to

$$
\left(x \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}\right)^{\prime}=D(M(x)) \geq 0
$$

It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
B^{\prime} & =-(\alpha+1)-x \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}+(1-x)\left(x \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}\right)^{\prime} \\
& \geq-(\alpha+1)-x \frac{M^{\prime}}{M} \equiv B_{0} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta^{\prime} \geq M \varphi^{\prime} & -\frac{M^{\prime} A-M A^{\prime}}{2 A^{2}}\left[B-\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}\right]-\frac{M}{2 A}\left[B_{0}-\frac{B B_{0}-2\left(A^{\prime} C+A C^{\prime}\right)}{\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C}}\right] \\
& \sim x(1-x)\left[2 A^{2} \varphi^{\prime}-A\left(\frac{M^{\prime}}{M} B+B_{0}\right)+B A^{\prime}\right] \sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C} \\
& +x(1-x)\left[A B\left(\frac{M^{\prime}}{M} B+B_{0}\right)-A^{\prime} B^{2}+2 A A^{\prime} C\right]-2 x(1-x) A^{2}\left(2 C \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}+C^{\prime}\right) \\
\equiv & d .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $\sim$ follows from multiplying the expression on its left by the positive function

$$
\frac{2 x(1-x) A^{2}}{M}
$$

We will show that $d \geq 0$ for all $x \in(0,1)$. To this end, we are going to introduce seven auxiliary functions. More specifically, we let

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =x(1-x) \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}, \\
A_{1} & =x(1-x) A^{\prime}(x) \\
& =\frac{x}{\varphi^{3}}\left[(\alpha+1) \varphi^{2}-(2+x+2 \alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right], \\
B_{1} & =x(1-x)\left(\frac{M^{\prime}}{M} B+B_{0}\right) \\
& =-(\alpha+1) x(1-x)+(1-2 x-\alpha x) y+y^{2}, \\
C_{1} & =x(1-x)\left(2 C \frac{M^{\prime}}{M}+C^{\prime}\right) \\
& =x(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)(1-2 x-\alpha x+2 y),
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E=2 A^{2} C-A B_{1}+A_{1} B \\
& F=A B B_{1}-A_{1} B^{2}+2 A A_{1} C-2 A^{2} C_{1}, \\
& S=\sqrt{B^{2}-4 A C} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the computation for $A_{1}$ above uses part (i) of Lemma 2.3; the computation for $B_{1}$ uses the definitions of $y, B$, and $B_{0}$; and the computation for $C_{1}$ uses the identities

$$
\begin{aligned}
C & =x(1-x) \varphi^{\prime}, \\
C^{\prime} & =(1-x)^{\alpha+1}-(\alpha+1) x(1-x)^{\alpha} \\
& =(1-x) \varphi^{\prime}-(\alpha+1) x \varphi^{\prime}, \\
(1-x) \varphi^{\prime} & =1-(\alpha+1) \varphi .
\end{aligned}
$$

In terms of these newly introduced functions, we can rewrite $d=E S+F$.
It is easy to see that we can write every function appearing in $E, F$, and $S$ as a function of $(x, y, \varphi)$. In fact,

$$
\begin{aligned}
E=\frac{x^{2}}{\varphi^{4}} & (1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right] \\
& +\frac{1}{\varphi^{3}}\left[(3 x+2 \alpha x-1) \varphi^{2}-x(1+3 x+3 \alpha x) \varphi+2 x^{2}\right] y-\frac{\varphi-x}{\varphi^{2}} y^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
F=\frac{x^{2}}{\varphi^{5}} & (1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right][(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi-2 x] \\
& +\frac{1}{\varphi^{4}}\left[\left(1-2 x+5 x^{2}-\alpha x+8 \alpha x^{2}+3 \alpha^{2} x^{2}\right) \varphi^{3}\right. \\
& -x\left(1+6 x+5 x^{2}+5 \alpha x+10 \alpha x^{2}+5 \alpha^{2} x^{2}\right) \varphi^{2} \\
& \left.+4 x^{2}(1+2 x+2 \alpha x) \varphi-4 x^{3}\right] y \\
& +\frac{1}{\varphi^{3}}\left[(2-4 x-3 \alpha x) \varphi^{2}+4(\alpha+1) x^{2} \varphi-2 x^{2}\right] y^{2}+\frac{\varphi-x}{\varphi^{2}} y^{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that we have verified the formulas above for $E$ and $F$ with the help of Maple. Also, it follows from the proof of Lemma 2.4 that

$$
S=\sqrt{y^{2}+2(1-x-\alpha x) y+\frac{1}{\varphi^{2}}((1+x+\alpha x) \varphi-2 x)^{2}} .
$$

Another tedious calculation with the help of Maple shows that $F^{2}-E^{2} S^{2}$ is equal to

$$
\frac{4 y x^{2}}{\varphi^{8}}(\varphi-x)^{3}(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]\left(y-y_{0}\right)
$$

where

$$
y_{0}=\frac{[x(1-x-\alpha x)-(1-x) \varphi]\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right]}{(\varphi-x)\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]} .
$$

This, together with Lemma 2.3, tells us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
F^{2}-E^{2} S^{2} \sim y-y_{0} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By Lemma 2.3 again, we always have $y_{0} \geq 0$.
Recall that $E, F$, and $S$ are formally algebraic functions of $(x, y, \varphi)$, where $x \in(0,1)$, $y \geq 0$, and $\varphi>0$. For the remainder of this proof, we fix $x$ (hence $\varphi$ as well) and think of $E=E(y), F=F(y)$, and $S=S(y)$ as functions of a single variable $y$ on $[0, \infty)$. Thus, $E$ is a quadratic function of $y, F$ is a cubic polynomial of $y$, and $S$ is the square root of a quadratic function that is nonnegative for $y \in[0, \infty)$. There are two cases for us to consider: $0 \leq y \leq y_{0}$ and $y>y_{0}$.

Recall that

$$
E(0)=\frac{x^{2}}{\varphi^{4}}(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right] .
$$

It follows from Lemma 2.3 that $E(0) \geq 0$. Also, direct calculations along with Lemma 2.3 show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left(y_{0}\right) & =\frac{(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)(\varphi-x)^{4}\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right]}{\varphi^{4}\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]^{2}} \\
& \geq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, direct computations along with Lemma 2.3 give us

$$
\begin{aligned}
F\left(y_{0}\right)= & \frac{(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)(\varphi-x)^{3}\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right]}{\varphi^{5}\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]^{3}} \\
& \times\left[x\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]^{2}-(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)(\varphi-x)^{3}\right] \\
\sim & x\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]^{2}-(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)(\varphi-x)^{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $x \in(0,1)$ and $\alpha \in[-2,0]$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\varphi^{2}-(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x\right]-(1-(\alpha+1) \varphi)(\varphi-x)} \\
\quad=(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x>0
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
x\left[\varphi^{2}\right. & -(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+x]-(\varphi-x)^{2} \\
& =\varphi[x(1-x-\alpha x)-(1-x) \varphi]>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $F\left(y_{0}\right)>0$.
Since $E(y)$ is a quadratic function that is concave downward, it is nonnegative if and only if $y$ belongs to a certain closed interval. This closed interval contains 0 and $y_{0}$, so it must contain $\left[0, y_{0}\right]$ as well. Therefore, $E(y) \geq 0$ for $0 \leq y \leq y_{0}$. It follows from this and (3.2) that

$$
d \geq E(y) S(y)-|F(y)| \sim E^{2}(y) S^{2}(y)-F^{2}(y) \sim y_{0}-y \geq 0
$$

for $0 \leq y \leq y_{0}$.

In the case when $y>y_{0}$,

$$
F^{2}(y)-E^{2}(y) S^{2}(y) \sim y-y_{0}>0 .
$$

In particular, $F(y)$ is nonvanishing on $\left(y_{0}, \infty\right)$. Since $F(y)$ is continuous on $\left[y_{0}, \infty\right)$ and $F\left(y_{0}\right)>0$, we conclude that $F(y)>0$ for all $y>y_{0}$. Combining this with (3.2),

$$
d \geq F(y)-|E(y)| S(y) \sim F^{2}(y)-E^{2}(y) S^{2}(y) \sim y-y_{0}>0 .
$$

This shows that $d$ is always nonnegative and completes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

## 4. Further results and remarks

The proof of Theorem 1.1 in the previous section actually gives the following more general result.

Theorem 4.1. Let $0<p<\infty$ and $-2 \leq \alpha \leq 0$. If $M(x)$ is nondecreasing and $\log M(x)$ is convex in $\log x$ for $x \in(0,1)$, then the function

$$
x \mapsto \log \frac{\int_{0}^{x} M(t)(1-t)^{\alpha} d t}{\int_{0}^{x}(1-t)^{\alpha} d t}
$$

is also convex in $\log x$ for $x \in(0,1)$.
The logarithmic convexity of $M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)$ is equivalent to following: if $0<r_{1}<r_{2}<$ $1,0<\theta<1$, and $r=r_{1}^{\theta} r_{2}^{1-\theta}$, then

$$
M_{p, \alpha}(f, r) \leq\left(M_{p, \alpha}\left(f, r_{1}\right)\right)^{\theta}\left(M_{p, \alpha}\left(f, r_{2}\right)\right)^{1-\theta} .
$$

Furthermore, equality occurs if and only if $\log M_{p, \alpha}(f, r)=a \log r+b$ for some constants $a$ and $b$, which appears to happen only in very special situations. For example, if $\alpha=0$, then it appears that $M_{p, 0}(f, r)=c e^{a r}$ (where $c$ and $a$ are constants) only when $f$ is a monomial.

Finally, we mention that for $\alpha<-2$ and $y<y_{0}$,

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 1}\left[(\alpha+2) \varphi^{2}-2(1+x+\alpha x) \varphi+2 x\right]=-\infty .
$$

Thus, $E(y)<0$ for $x$ close enough to 1 . This implies that $E S+F<0$ for $x$ close enough to 1 , so $d$ (and $\delta^{\prime}$ ) is not necessarily positive for all $x \in[0,1$ ). Thus, the proof of Theorem 1.1 breaks down here in the case $\alpha<-2$. However, $\delta$ can still be positive. It is just that our approach does not work any more.

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