# FUNCTIONAL MEANS AND HARMONIC FUNCTIONAL MEANS

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For a continuous function f(t) on  $(0,\infty)$  which is strictly monotone and a probability measure  $\mu$  on [0,1] we introduce the functional mean  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)$  and the harmonic functional mean  $\mathfrak{H}(x,y;\mu)$  of x > 0 and y > 0 with respect to  $\mu$  by

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) = f^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) \, d\mu(\lambda) 
ight],$$
  
 $\mathfrak{H}(x,y;\mu) = \left[ \mathfrak{M}_f \left( \frac{1}{x}, \frac{1}{y}; \mu 
ight) 
ight]^{-1},$ 

which gives a unified approach to various famous means.

Moreover, functional means and harmonic means in n variables are also given and applied to get many interesting properties, such as

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n; \mu) \cdot \mathfrak{M}_f(x_1', x_2', \ldots, x_n'; \mu) = \prod_{j=1}^n x_j$$

where  $x'_j = \prod_{i \neq j} x_i$ .

## **0.** INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to give a unified approach to various familiar means. Let f(t) be a continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  which is strictly monotone and let  $\mu$  be a probability measure on the interval on [0, 1]. Then we define a functional mean  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$  of positive numbers x and y ith respect to  $\mu$  by

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) = f^{-1}\left[\int_0^1 f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y)d\mu(\lambda)\right].$$

Then it will be shown that various means (arithmetic mean, geometric mean, power mean, logarithmic mean, identric mean, et cetera) can be expressed as  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$  for appropriate functions f.

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A harmonic functional mean  $\mathfrak{H}_f(x, y, \mu)$  is introduced by

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x,y;\mu) = \left[\mathfrak{M}_f\left(rac{1}{x},rac{1}{y};\mu
ight)
ight]^{-1},$$

so that

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x,y;\mu)\cdot\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)=\left\{\sqrt{xy}
ight\}^2$$

if f(t) satisfies some homogeneity condition.

The functional mean and the harmonic functional mean in n variables will be introduced and many interesting results will be derived. In particular,

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n; \mu) \cdot \mathfrak{M}_f(x_1', x_2', \ldots, x_n'; \mu) = \prod_{j=1}^n x_j$$

where  $x_j' = \prod_{i \neq j} x_i$ .

### 1. FUNCTIONAL MEANS

Let  $f: (0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function which is strictly monotone. By the mean value theorem for each x > 0 and y > 0 we can find a unique z between x and y such that

$$\int_x^y f(t)dt = f(z)(x-y)$$

Here, f(z) can be understood as an average value of f(t) when t varies between x and y, so that z gives in a certain sense, a mean value of x and y which is expected to be related strongly to f(t). Thus we define a functional mean as follows:

DEFINITION: Let f(t) be a continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  which is strictly monotonic, and let  $\mu$  be a probability measure supported by the interval [0,1]. For x > 0and y > 0 we define a functional mean  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)$  with respect to the probability measure  $\mu$  by

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) = f^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) d\mu(\lambda) \right].$$

By the mean value theorem it can be easily seen that the mean value  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$ is uniquely determined. It is true that  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, x; \mu) = x$  for every x > 0 and  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$ lies between x and y when  $x \neq y$ . On the other hand,  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$  is usually symmetric in the sense that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) \neq \mathfrak{M}_f(y,x;\mu)$$

unless  $\mu$  is equally distributed on [0, 1].

**Functional means** 

When  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue measure we simply write  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y)$  instead of  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$ . In what follows, when we refer to  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$  we always understand that f is a continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  which is strictly monotone,  $\mu$  is a probability measure supported by [0, 1], and x, y > 0.

EXAMPLE. (i)  $\mathfrak{M}_t(x,y) = (x+y)/2$  is the arithmetic mean A(x,y).

- (ii)  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t}(x,y) = (x-y)/(\log x \log y)$  is the logarithmic mean L(x,y).
- (iii)  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^2}(x,y) = \sqrt{xy}$  is the geometric mean G(x,y).
- (iv)  $\mathfrak{M}_{\log t}(x,y) = (1/e) (x^x/y^y)^{1/(x-y)}$  is the identric mean I(x,y).

(v) 
$$\mathfrak{M}_{1/\sqrt{t}}(x,y) = \left(\left(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}\right)/2\right)^2$$

- (vi)  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^3}(x,y) = \sqrt[3]{2x^2y^2/(x+y)}.$
- (vii)  $\mathfrak{M}_{e^t}(x,y) = \log((e^x e^y)/(x-y)).$
- (viii) Let  $\mu$  be the measure concentrated on  $\{0,1\}$  defined by

$$\mu(\{\lambda\}) = \left\{egin{array}{cc} rac{1}{p}, & \lambda = 0\ rac{1}{q}, & \lambda = 1 \end{array}
ight.$$

for 1/p + 1/q = 1, p > 0, q > 0. Then for any f

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) = f^{-1}\left[\frac{f(x)}{p} + \frac{f(y)}{q}\right].$$

In particular, if  $f(t) = t^r$   $(r \neq 0)$  then

$$\mathfrak{M}_{t^r}(x,y;\mu) = \left(rac{x^r}{p} + rac{y^r}{q}
ight)^{1/r}$$

is the weighted r-th power mean.

The next few theorems parallel classical results in [4, Chapter 3]. The first theorem characterises functions which produce a common functional mean:

**THEOREM 1.1.** In order that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)=\mathfrak{M}_g(x,y;\mu)$$

for all x, y > 0 and all probability measures  $\mu$  on [0, 1] it is necessary and sufficient that

$$f(x) = lpha g(x) + eta, \quad x \in (0,\infty)$$

for some constants  $\alpha$  ( $\alpha \neq 0$ ) and  $\beta$ .

PROOF: The sufficiency is easy. We prove the necessity. By the assumption we may put

$$z = f^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) d\mu(\lambda) \right] = g^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 g(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) d\mu(\lambda) \right]$$

for all x, y and any probability measure  $\mu$ . Take x = a and y = b (a < b) arbitrarily on  $(0, \infty)$  and a probability measure  $\mu_t$  concentrated on  $\{0, 1\}$  with

$$\mu_t(\{\lambda\}) = \begin{cases} \frac{t-a}{b-a}, & \lambda = 0, \\ \frac{b-t}{b-a}, & \lambda = 1. \end{cases}$$

for each parameter t with a < t < b. Then it follows that

(1.1) 
$$f(z) = \frac{b-t}{b-a}f(a) + \frac{t-a}{b-a}f(b)$$

and

(1.2) 
$$g(z) = \frac{b-t}{b-a}g(a) + \frac{t-a}{b-a}g(b)$$

for a < t < b. Of course, this is still true for t = a and t = b and as t varies from a to b, z assumes all values in [a, b]. From (1.2) we have

$$t=\frac{(b-a)g(z)+ag(b)-bg(a)}{g(b)-g(a)}.$$

If we substitute this for t in (1.1) we obtain

$$\begin{split} f(z) &= \frac{g(b) - g(z)}{g(b) - g(a)} f(a) + \frac{g(z) - g(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} f(b) \\ &= \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} g(z) + \frac{g(b)f(a) - g(a)f(b)}{g(b) - g(a)}, \end{split}$$

which implies that

$$f(z) = \alpha g(z) + \beta$$
 on  $[a, b]$ 

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are constants, possibly depending on the choice of a and b. But in fact these constants do not depend on the choice of a and b. To see this, let  $a_1$  and  $b_1$  be such that  $a < a_1 < b < b_1$ . Then as in the argument above there are constants  $\alpha_1$  and  $\beta_1$  such that

$$f(z) = \alpha_1 g(z) + \beta_1 \text{ on } [a_1, b_1]$$

Functional means

But they must coincide on the interval  $[a_1, b]$ , say,

$$(\alpha - \alpha_1)g(z) = \beta_1 - \beta \text{ on } [a_1, b],$$

This implies that g(z) must be constant on  $[a_1, b]$ , which is impossible, since g is strictly monotone. This completes the proof.

Write  $f \sim g$  if the functions, f and g produce the same functional mean. In view of the above theorem

$$f \sim g$$
 if and only if  $f(x) = \alpha g(x) + \beta$ ,  $x \in (0, \infty)$ 

for some  $\alpha \neq 0$  and  $\beta$ . Moreover, we may assume that the function f which is concerned with  $\mathfrak{M}_f(\cdot, \cdot; \mu)$ , is always strictly increasing.

Most of the standard examples of means have a property of homogeneity

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(kx, ky; \mu) = k\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu), \quad k > 0$$

for all x, y and  $\mu$ . So it is quite natural to ask what kind of functions give a homogeneous functional mean.

THEOREM 1.2. In order that

$$\mathfrak{M}_{f}(kx, ky; \mu) = k\mathfrak{M}_{f}(x, y; \mu)$$

for every x, y, k > 0 and every probability measure  $\mu$  on [0,1], it is necessary and sufficient that either  $f(t) \sim t^r$  for some  $r \neq 0$  or  $f(t) \sim \log t$ .

PROOF: We prove only the necessity here. By Theorem 1.1 we may assume that f(1) = 0. If we put g(x) = f(kx) then the relation

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(kx, ky; \mu) = k\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$$

implies that

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) &= k^{-1} f^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 f \left[ \lambda k x + (1-\lambda) k y \right] d\mu(\lambda) \right] \\ &= g^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 g \left( \lambda x + (1-\lambda) y \right) d\mu(\lambda) \right] \\ &= \mathfrak{M}_g(x,y;\mu). \end{split}$$

Thus in view of Theorem 1.1 we may write

$$g(x) = f(kx) = \alpha(k)f(x) + \beta(k)$$

for some  $\alpha(k) \neq 0$  and  $\beta(k)$ . We obtain from this that

$$g(1) = f(k) = \beta(k).$$

Substituting y for k we find that for all x, y > 0

$$f(xy) = \alpha(y)f(x) + f(y)$$

or, equivalently,

$$f(xy) = \alpha(x)f(y) + f(x).$$

These give

$$\frac{\alpha(x)-1}{f(x)} = \frac{\alpha(y)-1}{f(y)}$$

when  $f(x) \neq 0$  and  $f(y) \neq 0$ . But since f is strictly monotone and continuous the final conclusion in the last part of this proof must be true on  $(0, \infty)$ . Each of these functions must reduce to a constant K, so that  $\alpha(y) = 1 + Kf(y)$ . Then we obtain

$$f(xy) = Kf(x)f(y) + f(x) + f(y).$$

Here if K = 0 then this functional equation reduces to the famous equation

$$f(xy) = f(x) + f(y).$$

It is well known that the only continuous solution of this functional equation for x > 0is  $f(x) = C \log x$  where C is an arbitrary constant.

Secondly, if  $K \neq 0$  we put Kf(x) + 1 = F(x). Then the equation becomes

$$F(xy) = F(x)F(y)$$

whose general solution is  $F(x) = x^r$ , where r is a constant. In both cases the constants C and r must be nonzero in order that f should be strictly monotonic. This completes the proof.

We shall now discuss the comparability of two functional means with respect to the same probability measure. Many results about comparability have been developed (see [1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]). Many of those can be restated by the following theorem:

**THEOREM 1.3.** Let f and g be continuous and strictly increasing on  $(0, \infty)$ . Then a necessary and sufficient condition in order that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)\leqslant\mathfrak{M}_g(x,y;\mu)$$

for all x, y and  $\mu$ , is that  $g \circ f^{-1}$  is convex.

PROOF: In view of Jensen's inequality it follows that

$$(g \circ f^{-1}) \left[ \int_0^1 f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) d\mu(\lambda) \right] \leq \int_0^1 g(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) d\mu(\lambda).$$

Since  $g^{-1}$  is also increasing we obtain

$$f^{-1}\left[\int_0^1 f(\lambda x+(1-\lambda)y)d\mu(\lambda)
ight]\leqslant g^{-1}\left[\int_0^1 g(\lambda x(1-\lambda)y)d\mu(\lambda)
ight],$$

which is the required result.

Now to prove the converse we assume that  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu) \leq \mathfrak{M}_g(x, y; \mu)$  holds for all x, y and  $\mu$ . For 0 < t < 1, let  $\mu_t$  be the probability measure concentrated on  $\{0, 1\}$  given by

$$\mu_t\{\lambda\} = \begin{cases} t, & \lambda = 0, \\ 1 - t, & \lambda = 1. \end{cases}$$

If  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  belong to the range of f such that  $f(x_1) = z_1$  and  $f(x_2) = z_2$  where  $x_1, x_2 > 0$  then the hypothesis gives that

$$f^{-1}[tf(x_1) + (1-t)f(x_2)] \leq g^{-1}[tg(x_1) + (1-t)g(x_2)].$$

Then it follows that for all t in (0, 1)

$$(g \circ f^{-1})[tz_1 + (1-t)z_2] \leq t(g \circ f^{-1})(z_1) + (1-t)(g \circ f^{-1})z_2,$$

which implies the convexity of  $g \circ f^{-1}$ .

EXAMPLE. In view of the above theorem we can easily obtain the well known inequality

$$G(x,y) \leq L(x,y) \leq I(x,y) \leq A(x,y)$$

by expressing these respectively as functional means.

We now prove the monotonicity and continuity of the functional mean.

**THEOREM 1.4.** For any function f on  $(0,\infty)$  which is continuous and strictly monotone the functional mean  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)$  is continuous on  $(0,\infty) \times (0,\infty)$  and increasing in the sense that

if  $x_1 \leq x_2$  and  $y_1 \leq y_2$  then  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x_1, y_1; \mu) \leq \mathfrak{M}_f(x_2, y_2; \mu)$ 

for any probability measure  $\mu$  on [0, 1].

PROOF: In view of Theorem 1.1 we may assume that f is strictly increasing, by replacing f by -f if necessary. Let  $(x_0, y_0) \in (0, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$  and let  $\{(x_n, y_n)\}$  be a sequence in  $(0, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$  converging to  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Then since both f and -f are continuous the convergence theorem for the integral implies

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathfrak{M}_f(x_n, y_n; \mu) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 f(\lambda x_n + (1 - \lambda)y_n) d\mu(\lambda) \right]$$
$$= f^{-1} \left[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 f(\lambda x_n + (1 - \lambda)y_n) d\mu(\lambda) \right]$$
$$= f^{-1} \left[ \int_0^1 f(\lambda x_0 + (1 - \lambda)y_0) d\mu(\lambda) \right],$$

which gives the continuity of  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x, y; \mu)$ .

Now let  $x_1 \leq x_2$  and  $y_1 \leq y_2$  on  $(0,\infty)$ . Then we have

$$\lambda x_1 + (1-\lambda)y_1 \leq \lambda x_2 + (1-\lambda)y_2, \quad 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1.$$

Since f and  $f^{-1}$  are both increasing it follows easily that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x_1, y_1; \mu) \leqslant \mathfrak{M}_f(x_2, y_2; \mu).$$

[8]

#### 2. FUNCTIONAL HARMONIC MEAN

The harmonic mean H(x, y) of two positive numbers x and y is given by

$$H(x,y) = rac{2xy}{x+y} = \left[A\left(rac{1}{x},rac{1}{y}
ight)
ight]^{-1}.$$

It is of interest to introduce the functional harmonic mean with respect to a probability measure.

Let f be a continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  which is strictly monotonic and let  $\mu$  be a probability measure supported by [0, 1], as before.

For positive numbers x and y we define the functional harmonic mean  $\mathfrak{H}_f(x, y; \mu)$ by

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x,y;\mu) = \left[\mathfrak{M}_f\left(\frac{1}{x},\frac{1}{y};\mu\right)\right]^{-1}.$$

In particular, if  $\mu$  is Lebesgue measure we write simply  $\mathfrak{H}_f(x, y)$  instead of  $\mathfrak{H}_f(x, y; \mu)$ .

We consider some examples here.

EXAMPLE.

(i)  $\mathfrak{H}_t(x,y) = \left[A\left(\frac{1}{x},\frac{1}{y}\right)\right]^{-1} = 2xy/(x+y) = H(x,y)$ . If  $\mu$  is the probability measure concentrated on  $\{0,1\}$  with

$$\mu(\{\lambda\}) = \begin{cases} rac{1}{3}, & \lambda = 0 \ rac{2}{3}, & \lambda = 1 \end{cases},$$

then  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) = \int_0^1 [\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y] d\mu(\lambda) = (2x+y)/3$ , so that

$$\mathfrak{H}_t(x,y;\mu) = rac{3xy}{x+2y}$$

(ii) Since  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^2}(x,y) = \sqrt{xy} = G(x,y)$  it follows that

$$\mathfrak{H}_{1/t^2} = \left[\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^2}\left(\frac{1}{x},\frac{1}{y}\right)\right]^{-1} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{xy}}\right)^{-1} = G(x,y).$$

Thus we obtain the interesting conclusion

$$\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^2}(x,y) = \mathfrak{H}_{1/t^2}(x,y) = G(x,y)$$

for all x, y > 0. Moreover, it is true that

$$\mathfrak{H}_{1/t^2}(x,y;\mu)\cdot\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^2}(x,y;\mu)=xy$$

for every probability measure  $\mu$  (seen later in Theorem 2.1). (iii) Since  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t}(x, y) = (x - y)/(\log x - \log y) (= L(x, y))$ 

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{H}_{1/t}(x,y) &= \left[ L\left(\frac{1}{x},\frac{1}{y}\right) \right]^{-1} = \frac{\log x - \log y}{x - y} \cdot xy \\ &= \left[ L(x,y) \right]^{-1} xy. \end{split}$$

Hence, we obtain also

$$\mathfrak{H}_{1/t}(x,y)\cdot\mathfrak{M}_{1/t}(x,y)=xy=\big[G(x,y)\big]^2.$$

We state a general result concerning the above arguments.

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**THEOREM 2.1.** If f(t) is a continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  which is strictly monotone and is equivalent to a homogeneous function in the sense that

(2.1) 
$$f(kt) = \alpha(k)f(t) + \beta(k), \quad t > 0, \ k > 0$$

for some real functions  $\alpha(k) \neq 0$  and  $\beta(k)$ , then

(2.2) 
$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x,y;\mu) \cdot \mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu) = \left[G(x,y)\right]^2$$

for all x, y > 0 and for every probability measure  $\mu$ .

PROOF: The functional relation (2.1) reduces to either  $f(t) \sim t^r$   $(r \neq 0)$  or  $f(t) \sim \log t$ . (In fact, this can be seen by the same method as in the proof of Theorem 1.1.) In view of the equivalence we may assume that either  $f(t) = t^r$  or  $f(t) = \log t$ .

We first assume  $f(t) = t^r$   $(r \neq 0)$ . Then

$$\mathfrak{M}_f\left(\frac{1}{x},\frac{1}{y};\mu\right) = \left[\int_0^1 \left(\frac{\lambda}{x} + \frac{1-\lambda}{y}\right)^r d\mu(\lambda)\right]^{1/r}$$
$$= \left[\int_0^1 \frac{[\lambda y + (1-\lambda)x]^r}{(xy)^r} d\mu(\lambda)\right]^{1/r}$$
$$= \frac{1}{xy}\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)$$

which implies

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x,y;\mu)\cdot\mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)=xy=\left[G(x,y)
ight]^2$$

On the other hand if  $f(t) = \log t$  then

$$\mathfrak{M}_f\left(\frac{1}{x},\frac{1}{y};\mu\right) = \exp\left[\int_0^1 \log\left[\frac{\lambda}{x} + \frac{1-\lambda}{y}\right] d\mu(\lambda)\right]$$
$$= \exp\left[\int_0^1 \log[\lambda y + (1-\lambda)x] d\mu(\lambda) - \log xy\right]$$
$$= \mathfrak{M}_f(x,y;\mu)/xy.$$

This completes the proof.

### 3. FUNCTIONAL MEAN IN n VARIABLES

We have discussed so far the functional mean only in two variables. Now we establish here the functional mean in several variables and derive its basic properties.

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Functional means

A motivation comes from [3, 5] as follows: the logarithmic mean L(x, y) of x and y is given by

$$L(x,y) = \left[\int_0^1 \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda y + (1-\lambda)x}\right]^{-1}$$

and the logarithmic mean of  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  is given by

$$L(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \int_{A_{n-1}} (x \cdot \nu)^{-1} (n-1)! \, d\nu$$

where  $d\nu$  denotes the differential of volume in  $A_{n-1}$ , where  $A_{n-1}$  is the simplex

$$A_{n-1} = \left\{ (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_{n-1}) \mid 0 \leq \lambda_j \leq 1, \ j = 1, 2, \dots, n, \ \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \lambda_j \leq 1 \right\},\$$

 $x \cdot \nu = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \lambda_j$  and  $\lambda_n = 1 - \lambda_1 - \dots - \lambda_{n-1}$ . Since we have already shown that  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t}(x,y) = L(x,y)$  for x, y > 0 it is quite natural to define a functional mean as follows:

DEFINITION: Let f be a continuous function on  $(0, \infty)$  which is strictly monotone and let  $\mu$  be a probability measure supported by  $A_{n-1}$ . Then the functional mean  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu)$  with respect to the probability measure  $\mu$  is defined for  $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ ,  $x_j > 0, j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$  by

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu) = f^{-1}\left[\int_{A_{n-1}} f(x\cdot\nu) \, d\mu(\nu)\right].$$

Of course, the mean value theorem guarantees the unique existence of the value  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu)$ . When  $\mu$  is Lebesgue measure it can be written using the iterated integral as

$$\mathfrak{M}_{f}(x;\mu) = f^{-1} \left[ \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1-\lambda_{1}} \cdots \int_{0}^{1-\lambda_{1}-\dots-\lambda_{n-2}} \left[ f\left(x_{1}\lambda_{1}+\dots+x_{n-1}\lambda_{n-1}\right) + (1-\lambda_{1}-\dots-\lambda_{n-1})x_{n} \right] (n-1)! d\lambda_{n-1} \cdots d\lambda_{1} \right].$$

As we have done before, when  $\mu$  is Lebesgue measure we write  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x)$  instead of  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu)$ .

Now we consider some examples.

EXAMPLE. (i) 
$$\mathfrak{M}_t(x) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j\right) / n$$
 is the arithmetic mean.  
(ii)  $\mathfrak{M}_{1/t^n}(x) = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{j=1}^n x_j}$  is the geometric mean (see [5]).

(iii) Let  $\mu$  be the measure concentrated on the vertices  $\nu_1, \nu_2, \ldots, \nu_n$  of the simplex  $A_{n-1}$ , defined by

$$\mu\bigl(\{\nu_j\}\bigr)=\frac{1}{p_j}>0, \quad j=1,2,\ldots,n$$

with  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} (1/p_j) = 1$ . Then for any f and  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ 

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu) = \mathfrak{M}_f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n;\mu)$$
$$= f^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{f(x_j)}{p_j} \right].$$

This is shown for example in [4]. For instance if  $f(t) = t^r$   $(r \neq 0)$  then

$$\mathfrak{M}_{t^r}(x;\mu) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{x_j^r}{p_j}\right)^{1/r}$$

The functional harmonic mean  $\mathfrak{H}(x;\mu)$  in *n* variables is defined by

$$\mathfrak{H}(x;\mu) = \left[\mathfrak{M}_f\left(rac{1}{x},\mu
ight)
ight]^{-1}$$

where 1/x denotes  $(1/x_1, 1/x_2, ..., 1/x_n)$  for  $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n), x_j > 0$  for j = 1, 2, ..., n.

Then we can restate all the theorems which hold for two variables. We mention them without proofs. We denote by  $\mathbb{R}^n_+$  the set  $\{(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \mid x_j > 0, j = 1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ .

**THEOREM 1.1'.** In order that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu) = \mathfrak{M}_g(x;\mu)$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n_+$  and all probability measures  $\mu$  on  $A_{n-1}$  it is necessary and sufficient that

$$f(x) = \alpha g(x) + \beta, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n_+$$

for some constants  $\alpha \neq 0$  and  $\beta$ .

**THEOREM 1.2'.** In order that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(kx;\mu)=k\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu), \quad k>0$$

for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n_+$  and all  $\mu$  it is necessary and sufficient that

either 
$$f(t) \sim t^r$$
 for some  $r \neq 0$  or  $f(t) \sim \log t$ .

**THEOREM 1.3'**. Let f and g be strictly increasing continuous functions on  $(0,\infty)$ . Then a necessary and sufficient condition that

$$\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu) \leqslant \mathfrak{M}_g(x;\mu)$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $x_j \leq y_j$ , j = 1, 2, ..., n and all  $\mu$ , is that  $g \circ f^{-1}$  is convex.

For any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n_+$  we now write  $x \prec y$  if

$$x_j \leqslant y_j ext{ for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n_j$$

**THEOREM 1.4'**. The functional mean  $\mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu)$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^n_+$  and is increasing in the sense that

$$x \prec y \text{ implies } \mathfrak{M}_f(x;\mu) \leqslant \mathfrak{M}_f(y;\mu)$$

for all  $\mu$ .

**THEOREM 2.1'**. If f(t) is equivalent to a homogeneous function in the sense that

$$f(kt) = lpha(k)f(t) + eta(k), \quad t > 0, \ k > 0$$

for some  $\alpha(k) \neq 0$  and  $\beta(k)$  then

$$\mathfrak{H}_f(x;\mu)\cdot\mathfrak{M}_f(x';\mu)=\prod_{j=1}^n x_j$$

for all  $\mu$ , where  $x' = (x'_1, x'_2, \ldots, x'_n)$  with  $x'_j = \prod_{i \neq j} x_i$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ .

This result is a very interesting one.

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