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# CONVEXITY OF WEIGHTED STOLARSKY MEANS <br> ALFRED WITKOWSKI 

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AbStract. We investigate monotonicity and logarithmic convexity properties of one-parameter family of means

$$
F_{h}(r ; a, b ; x, y)=E(r, r+h ; a x, b y) / E(r, r+h ; a, b)
$$

where $E$ is the Stolarsky mean. Some inequalities between classic means are obtained.

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## 1. Introduction

Extended mean values of positive numbers $x, y$ introduced by Stolarsky in [6] are defined as

$$
E(r, s ; x, y)= \begin{cases}\left(\frac{r}{s} \frac{y^{s}-x^{s}}{y^{r}-x^{r}}\right)^{\frac{1}{s-r}} & s r(s-r)(x-y) \neq 0  \tag{1.1}\\ \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{y^{r}-x^{r}}{\log y-\log x}\right)^{\frac{1}{r}} & r(x-y) \neq 0, s=0 \\ \left.e^{-\frac{1}{r}\left(\frac{y^{r}}{x^{x}}\right.}\right)^{\frac{1}{y^{r}-x^{r}}} & r=s, r(x-y) \neq 0 \\ \sqrt{x y} & r=s=0, x-y \neq 0 \\ x & x=y\end{cases}
$$

This mean is also called the Stolarsky mean.
In [9] the author extended the Stolarsky means to a four-parameter family of means by adding positive weights $a, b$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(r, s ; a, b ; x, y)=\frac{E(r, s ; a x, b y)}{E(r, s ; a, b)} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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From the continuity of $E$ it follows that $F$ is continuous in $\mathbb{R}^{2} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}^{2} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}^{2}$. Our goal in this paper is to investigate the logarithmic convexity of

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{h}(r ; a, b ; x, y)=F(r, r+h ; a, b ; x, y) . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In [1] Horst Alzer investigated the one-parameter mean

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(r)=J(r ; x, y)=E(r, r+1 ; x, y) \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and proved that for $x \neq y, J$ is strictly log-convex for $r<-1 / 2$ and strictly log-concave for $r>-1 / 2$. He also proved that $J(r) J(-r) \leq J^{2}(0)$. In [2] he obtained a similar result for the Lehmer means

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(r)=L(r ; x, y)=\frac{x^{r+1}+y^{r+1}}{x^{r}+y^{r}} \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

With an appropriate choice of parameters in (1.2) one can obtain both the one-parameter mean and the Lehmer mean. Namely,

$$
J(r ; x, y)=F(r, r+1 ; 1,1 ; x, y)
$$

and

$$
L(r, x, y)=F(r, r+1 ; x, y ; x, y) .
$$

Another example may be the mean created the same way from the Heronian mean

$$
\begin{equation*}
N(r ; x, y)=F(r, r+1 ; \sqrt{x}, \sqrt{y} ; x, y)=\frac{x^{r+1}+\sqrt{x y}^{r+1}+y^{r+1}}{x^{r}+\sqrt{x y}^{r}+y^{r}} . \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following monotonicity properties of weighted Stolarsky means have been established in [9]:

Property 1.1. $F$ increases in $x$ and $y$.
Property 1.2. F increases in $r$ and $s$ if $(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-b^{2} y\right)>0$ and decreases if $(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-\right.$ $\left.b^{2} y\right)<0$.

Property 1.3. $F$ increases in a if $(x-y)(r+s)>0$ and decreases if $(x-y)(r+s)<0, F$ decreases in b if $(x-y)(r+s)>0$ and increases if $(x-y)(r+s)<0$.
Definition 1.1. A function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be symmetrically convex (concave) with respect to the point $r_{0}$ if $f$ is convex (concave) in $\left(r_{0}, \infty\right)$ and for every $t>0 f\left(r_{0}+t\right)+f\left(r_{0}-t\right)=$ $2 f\left(r_{0}\right)$.
Definition 1.2. A function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$is said to be symmetrically log-convex (log-concave) with respect to the point $r_{0}$ if $\log f$ is symmetrically convex (concave) w.r.t. $r_{0}$.
For symmetrically log-convex functions the symmetry condition reads $f\left(r_{0}+t\right) f\left(r_{0}-t\right)=$ $f^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)$. We shall recall now two properties of convex functions.

Property 1.4. If $f$ is convex (concave) then for $h>0$ the function $g(t)=f(t+h)-f(t)$ is increasing (decreasing). For $h<0$ the monotonicity of $g$ reverses.
For log-convex $f$ the same holds for $g(t)=f(t+h) / f(t)$.
Property 1.5. If $f$ is convex (concave) then for arbitrary $x$ the function $h_{x}(t)=f(x-t)+$ $f(x+t)$ is increasing (decreasing) in $(0, \infty)$. For log-convex $f$ the same holds for $h_{x}(t)=$ $f(x-t) f(x+t)$.

The property 1.5 holds also for symmetrically convex (concave) functions:

Lemma 1.6. Let $f$ be symmetrically convex w.r.t. $r_{0}$, and let $x>r_{0}$. Then the function $h_{x}(t)=$ $f(x-t)+f(x+t)$ is increasing (decreasing) in $(0, \infty)$. If $x<r_{0}$ then $h_{x}(t)$ decreases.
For $f$ symmetrically concave the monotonicity of $h_{x}$ is reverse.
For the case where $f$ is symmetrically log-convex (log-concave) $h_{x}(t)=f(x+t) f(x-t)$ is monotone accordingly.

Proof. We shall prove the lemma for $f$ symmetrically convex and $x>r_{0}$. For $x<r_{0}$ or $f$ symmetrically convex the proofs are similar.
Consider two cases:

- $0<t<x-r_{0}$. In this case $h_{x}(t)$ is increasing by Property 1.5 .
- $t>x-r_{0}$. Now $h_{x}(t)=f(x+t)+f(x-t)=2 f\left(r_{0}\right)+f(x+t)-f\left(t-x+2 r_{0}\right)$ increases by Property 1.4 because $t-x+2 r_{0}>r_{0}$ and $(x+t)-\left(t-x+2 r_{0}\right)>0$.


## 2. Main Result

It is obvious that the monotonicity of $F_{h}$ matches that of $F$. The main result consists of the following theorem:
Theorem 2.1. If $(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-b^{2} y\right)>0($ resp. $<0)$ then $F_{h}(r)$ is symmetrically log-concave (resp. log-convex) with respect to the point $-h / 2$ ).

To prove it we need the following
Lemma 2.2. Let

$$
g(t, A, B)=\frac{A^{t} \log ^{2} A}{\left(A^{t}-1\right)^{2}}-\frac{B^{t} \log ^{2} B}{\left(B^{t}-1\right)^{2}}
$$

Then
(1) $g(t, A, B)=g\left( \pm t, A^{ \pm 1}, B^{ \pm 1}\right)$,
(2) $g$ is increasing in $t$ on $(0, \infty)$ if $\log ^{2} A-\log ^{2} B>0$ and decreasing otherwise.

Proof. (1) becomes obvious when we write

$$
g(t, A, B)=\frac{\log ^{2} A}{A^{t}-2+A^{-t}}-\frac{\log ^{2} B}{B^{t}-2+B^{-t}}
$$

From (1] if follows that replacing $A, B$ with $A^{-1}, B^{-1}$ if necessary we may assume that $A, B>$ 1. In this case $\operatorname{sgn}\left(\log ^{2} A-\log ^{2} B\right)=\operatorname{sgn}\left(A^{t}-B^{t}\right)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} & =-\frac{A^{t}\left(A^{t}+1\right) \log ^{3} A}{\left(A^{t}-1\right)^{3}}+\frac{B^{t}\left(B^{t}+1\right) \log ^{3} B}{\left(B^{t}-1\right)^{3}} \\
& =-\frac{1}{t^{3}}\left(\phi\left(A^{t}\right)-\phi\left(B^{t}\right)\right)=-\frac{1}{t^{3}}\left(A^{t}-B^{t}\right) \phi^{\prime}(\xi)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\xi>1$ lies between $A^{t}$ and $B^{t}$ and

$$
\phi(u)=\frac{u(u+1) \log ^{3} u}{(u-1)^{3}} .
$$

To complete the proof it is enough to show that $\phi^{\prime}(u)<0$ for $u>1$.

$$
\phi^{\prime}(u)=\frac{\left(u^{2}+4 u+1\right) \log ^{2} u}{(u-1)^{4}}\left[\frac{3\left(u^{2}-1\right)}{u^{2}+4 u+1}-\log u\right],
$$

so the sign of $\phi^{\prime}$ is the same as the sign of $\psi(u)=\frac{3\left(u^{2}-1\right)}{u^{2}+4 u+1}-\log u$. But $\psi(1)=0$ and $\psi^{\prime}(u)=-(u-1)^{4} / u\left(u^{2}+4 u+1\right)^{2}<0$, so $\phi(u)<0$.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. First of all note that

$$
\log ^{2} \frac{a x}{b y}-\log ^{2} \frac{a}{b}=\log \frac{x}{y} \log \frac{a^{2} x}{b^{2} y}
$$

and because $\operatorname{sgn}(x-y)=\operatorname{sgn} \log \frac{x}{y}$ we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{sgn}(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-b^{y}\right)=\operatorname{sgn}\left(\log ^{2} \frac{a x}{b y}-\log ^{2} \frac{a}{b}\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $A=\frac{a x}{b y}$ and $B=\frac{a}{b}$. Suppose that $A, B \neq 1$ (in other cases we use a standard continuity argument). $F_{h}(r)$ can be written as

$$
F_{h}(r)=y\left(\frac{A^{r+h}-1}{B^{r+h}-1} / \frac{A^{r}-1}{B^{r}-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{h}}
$$

We show symmetry by performing simple calculations:

$$
\begin{align*}
F_{h}^{h} & (-h / 2-r) F_{h}^{h}(-h / 2+r) \\
& =y^{2 h} \frac{A^{h / 2-r}-1}{B^{h / 2-r}-1} \cdot \frac{B^{-h / 2-r}-1}{A^{-h / 2-r}-1} \cdot \frac{A^{h / 2+r}-1}{B^{h / 2+r}-1} \cdot \frac{B^{-h / 2+r}-1}{A^{-h / 2+r}-1} \\
& =y^{2 h} \frac{B^{-h}}{A^{-h}} \cdot \frac{A^{h / 2-r}-1}{B^{h / 2-r}-1} \cdot \frac{1-B^{h / 2+r}}{1-A^{h / 2+r}} \cdot \frac{A^{h / 2+r}-1}{B^{h / 2+r}-1} \cdot \frac{1-B^{h / 2-r}}{1-A^{h / 2-r}}  \tag{2.2}\\
& =y^{2 h}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{h}=(x y)^{h}=F_{h}^{2 h}(-h / 2) .
\end{align*}
$$

Differentiating twice we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d^{2}}{d r^{2}} \log F_{h}(r) & =\frac{g(r, A, B)-g(r+h, A, B)}{h} \\
& =\frac{g(|r|, A, B)-g(|r+h|, A, B)}{h} \quad(\text { by Lemma 2.2 }(1)),
\end{aligned}
$$

hence by Lemma 2.2 (2)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{sgn} \frac{d^{2}}{d r^{2}} \log F_{h}(r) & =\operatorname{sgn} h(|r|-|r+h|)\left(\log ^{2} A-\log ^{2} B\right) \\
& =\operatorname{sgn}(r+h / 2)(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-b^{2} y\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The last equation follows from (2.1) and from the fact that the inequality $|r|<|r+h|$ is valid if and only if $r>-h / 2$ and $h>0$ or $r<-h / 2$ and $h<0$.

The following theorem is an immediate consequence of Theorem 2.1. and Lemma 1.6.
Theorem 2.3. If $(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-b^{2} y\right)\left(r_{0}+h / 2\right)>0$ then the function

$$
\Phi(t)=F_{h}\left(r_{0}-t\right) F_{h}\left(r_{0}+t\right)
$$

is decreasing in $(0, \infty)$. In particular for every real $t$

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{h}\left(r_{0}-t\right) F_{h}\left(r_{0}+t\right) \leq F_{h}^{2}\left(r_{0}\right) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $(x-y)\left(a^{2} x-b^{2} y\right)\left(r_{0}+h / 2\right)<0$ then $\Phi(t)$ is increasing in $(0, \infty)$. In particular for every real t

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{h}\left(r_{0}-t\right) F_{h}\left(r_{0}+t\right) \geq F_{h}^{2}\left(r_{0}\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following corollaries are immediate consequences of Theorems 2.1 and 2.3 .

Corollary 2.4. For $x \neq y$ the one-parameter mean $J(r)$ defined by (1.4) is log-convex for $r<-1 / 2$ and log-concave for $r>-1 / 2$. If $r_{0}>-1 / 2$ then for all real $t, J\left(r_{0}-t\right) J\left(r_{0}+t\right) \leq$ $J^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)$. For $r_{0}<-1 / 2$ the inequality reverses.
Proof. $J(r ; x, y)=F_{1}(r ; 1,1 ; x, y)$.
Corollary 2.5. For $x \neq y$ the Lehmer mean $L(r)$ defined by (1.5) is log-convex for $r<-1 / 2$ and log-concave for $r>-1 / 2$. If $r_{0}>-1 / 2$ then for all real $t, L\left(r_{0}-t\right) L\left(r_{0}+t\right) \leq L^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)$. For $r_{0}<-1 / 2$ the inequality reverses.
Proof. $L(r ; x, y)=F_{1}(r ; x, y ; x, y)$.
Corollary 2.6. For $x \neq y$ the mean $N(r)$ defined by (1.6) is log-convex for $r<-1 / 2$ and log-concave for $r>-1 / 2$. If $r_{0}>-1 / 2$ then for all real $t, N\left(r_{0}-t\right) N\left(r_{0}+t\right) \leq N^{2}\left(r_{0}\right)$. For $r_{0}<-1 / 2$ the inequality reverses.
Proof. $N(r ; x, y)=F_{1}(r ; \sqrt{x}, \sqrt{y} ; x, y)$.

## 3. Application

In this section we show some inequalities between classic means:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Power means } & A_{r}=A_{r}(x, y)=\left(\frac{x^{r}+y^{r}}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{r}}, \\
\text { Harmonic mean } & H=A_{-1}(x, y)=\frac{2 x y}{x+y}, \\
\text { Geometric mean } & G=A_{0}(x, y)=\sqrt{x y}, \\
\text { Logarithmic mean } & L=L(x, y)=\frac{x-y}{\log x-\log y}, \\
\text { Heronian mean } & N=N(x, y)=\frac{x+\sqrt{x y}+y}{3}, \\
\text { Arithmetic mean } & A=A_{1}(x, y)=\frac{x+y}{2}, \\
\text { Centroidal mean } & T=T(x, y)=\frac{2}{3} \frac{x^{2}+x y+y^{2}}{x+y}, \\
\text { Root-mean-square } & R=A_{2}(x, y)=\sqrt{\frac{x^{2}+y^{2}}{2}}, \\
\text { Contrharmonic mean } & C=C(x, y)=\frac{x^{2}+y^{2}}{x+y} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 3.1 (Tung-Po Lin inequality [4]).

$$
L \leq A_{1 / 3} .
$$

Proof. By Theorem 2.3

$$
F_{1 / 3}(0 ; 1,1, ; x, y) F_{1 / 3}(2 / 3 ; 1,1 ; x, y) \leq F_{1 / 3}^{2}(1 / 3 ; 1,1 ; x, y)
$$

or

$$
\left(3 \frac{\sqrt[3]{x}-\sqrt[3]{y}}{\log x-\log y}\right)^{3}\left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{x-y}{\sqrt[3]{x^{2}}-\sqrt[3]{y^{2}}}\right)^{3} \leq\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sqrt[3]{x^{2}}-\sqrt[3]{y^{2}}}{\sqrt[3]{x}-\sqrt[3]{y}}\right)^{6}
$$

Simplifying we obtain

$$
L^{3}(x, y) \leq A_{1 / 3}^{3}(x, y)
$$

Inequalities in the table below can be shown the same way as above by an appropriate choice of parameters in (2.3) and (2.4).

| No | Inequality | $h$ | $r_{0}$ | $t$ | $a$ | $b$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | $L^{2} \geq G N$ | $1 / 2$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | $L^{2} \geq H T$ | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 3 | $A_{1 / 2}^{2} \geq A G$ | $1 / 2$ | 0 | $1 / 2$ | $x$ | $y$ |
| 4 | $A_{1 / 2}^{2} \geq L N$ | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | $N^{2} \geq A L$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 1 | 1 |
| 6 | $A^{2} \geq L T$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 7 | $A^{2} \geq C H$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | $x$ | $y$ |
| 8 | $L N \geq A G$ | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 9 | $G N \geq H T$ | 1 | -1 | $1 / 2$ | $x$ | $y$ |
| 10 | $A N \geq T G$ | $1 / 2$ | 0 | 1 | $x$ | $y$ |
| 11 | $L T \geq H C$ | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 12 | $T A \geq N R$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | $x$ | $y$ |
| 13 | $L^{3} \geq A G^{2}$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 14 | $L^{3} \geq G A_{1 / 2}^{2}$ | $1 / 2$ | $-1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ | 1 | 1 |
| 15 | $N^{3} \geq A A_{1 / 2}^{2}$ | $1 / 2$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 1 | 1 |
| 16 | $T^{3} \geq A R^{2}$ | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 17 | $L N^{2} \geq G^{2} T$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | $3 / 2$ | 1 | 1 |

Note that 4 is stronger than 3 (due to inequality 8 ), 14 is stronger than 13 (due to 3). Also, 1 is stronger than 2 because of 9 .

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