# Radii in Geometric Function Theory 

Steven Finch

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First, we talk about geometry. A region $R \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is convex if, for any two points $p, q \in R$, the line segment $p q \subseteq R$. A region $R \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is starlike with respect to the origin if $0 \in R$ and if, for any point $p \in R$, the line segment $0 p \subseteq R$.

Next, we talk about functions. A complex analytic function $f$ defined on an open region is univalent (or schlicht) if $f$ is one-to-one; that is, $f(z)=f(w)$ if and only if $z=w$. Let

$$
\begin{gathered}
D=\{z:|z|<1\} \quad \text { (the open disk of radius 1), } \\
E=\{z: 0<|z|<1\} \quad \text { (the open punctured disk) }, \\
S=\left\{\text { univalent } f \text { on } D \text { with } f(z)=z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n} z^{n}\right\}, \\
\Sigma=\left\{\text { univalent } f \text { on } E \text { with } f(z)=\frac{1}{z}+\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} z^{n}\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Geometry and functions now come together. The various subclasses of $S$ include

$$
\begin{aligned}
C V & =\{f \in S: f(D) \text { is convex }\} \\
& =\left\{f \in S: \operatorname{Re}\left(1+z \frac{f^{\prime \prime}(z)}{f^{\prime}(z)}\right)>0 \text { for all } z \in D\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

the class of convex functions on $D$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
S T & =\{f \in S: f(D) \text { is starlike with respect to } 0\} \\
& =\left\{f \in S: \operatorname{Re}\left(z \frac{f^{\prime}(z)}{f(z)}\right)>0 \text { for all } z \in D\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

the class of starlike functions on $D$. We will mostly discuss $S$ (the analytic case), but will mention $\Sigma$ (the meromorphic case) occasionally in the following [1, 2, 3, 4, 5].

[^0]0.1. Radius of Convexity. Define $D_{r}=\{z:|z|<r\}$, the open disk of radius $r$, for each $r>0$. For each $f \in S$, let $r(f)$ be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that $f\left(D_{r}\right)$ is convex. The radius of convexity for $S$ is [1]
$$
\rho_{c v}(S)=\inf _{f \in S} r(f)=2-\sqrt{3}=0.2679491924 \ldots
$$
and is achieved by the Koebe function $f(z)=z(1-z)^{-2}$. This fact was first proved by Nevanlinna [6]. Generalization of $\rho_{c v}$ to any subclass of $S$ gives rise to some interesting optimization problems. Trivially we have
$$
\rho_{c v}(C V)=1, \quad \rho_{c v}(S T)=2-\sqrt{3}
$$
(the latter follows since the Koebe function is starlike). Define, however, the special class of starlike functions of order $\alpha$ :
$$
S_{\alpha}^{*}=\left\{f \in S: \operatorname{Re}\left(z \frac{f^{\prime}(z)}{f(z)}\right)>\alpha \text { for all } z \in D\right\}
$$

Zmorovic [7], extending work in [8, 9, 10], proved that

$$
\rho_{c v}\left(S_{\alpha}^{*}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{2-3 \alpha+\sqrt{(1-\alpha)(3-5 \alpha)}} & \text { if } 0 \leq \alpha<\alpha_{0} \\
\left(\frac{5 \alpha-1}{4 \alpha^{2}-\alpha+1+4 \alpha \sqrt{\alpha^{2}-3 \alpha+2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text { if } \alpha_{0} \leq \alpha<1
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\alpha_{0}=0.3349596751 \ldots$ is the smallest positive zero of $20 \alpha^{4}-52 \alpha^{3}+15 \alpha^{2}+12 \alpha-4$. Note that $\rho_{c v}\left(S_{0}^{*}\right)=2-\sqrt{3}$, as expected.

We turn attention to the class $\Sigma$. Define $E_{r}=\{z: 0<|z|<r\}$ and, for $f \in \Sigma$, let $r(f)$ be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that the complement of $f\left(E_{r}\right)$ in $\mathbb{C}$ is convex. Goluzin [5, 11] proved that

$$
\rho_{c v}(\Sigma)=\inf _{f \in \Sigma} r(f)=x=0.5600798519 \ldots
$$

where $x$ is the unique positive solution of the equation

$$
\frac{E(x)}{K(x)}+\frac{x^{2}}{8}-\frac{7}{8}=0
$$

and $K(x), E(x)$ are complete elliptic integrals of the first and second kind [12]. Letting

$$
\Sigma_{\beta}^{*}=\left\{f \in \Sigma: \operatorname{Re}\left(z \frac{f^{\prime}(z)}{f(z)}\right)<-\beta \text { for all } z \in E\right\}
$$

we also have $[7,9,11,13,14]$

$$
\rho_{c v}\left(\Sigma_{\beta}^{*}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\left(\frac{4 \beta-5+4 \sqrt{\beta^{2}-\beta+1}}{8 \beta-3}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text { if } 0 \leq \beta<\beta_{0} \\
\frac{1}{\beta+\sqrt{(1-\beta)(3 \beta-1)}} & \text { if } \beta_{0} \leq \beta<1
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\beta_{0}=0.8673407553 \ldots$ is the largest positive zero of $12 \beta^{4}-28 \beta^{3}+33 \beta^{2}-20 \beta+4$. Note here that $\rho_{c v}\left(\Sigma_{0}^{*}\right)=1 / \sqrt{3}=0.577 \ldots>0.560 \ldots=x$. In this case, the extremal function is not starlike, which accounts for the strict inequality.
0.2. Radius of Starlikeness. For each $f \in S$, let $r(f)$ be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that $f\left(D_{r}\right)$ is starlike with respect to the origin. The radius of starlikeness for $S$ is [1]

$$
\rho_{s t}(S)=\inf _{f \in S} r(f)=\frac{1-e^{-\pi / 2}}{1+e^{-\pi / 2}}=\tanh \left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)=0.6557942026 \ldots
$$

and this fact was first discovered by Grunsky [15].
Goluzin [5, 16] found several interesting generalizations. Define a region $R \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ to be $n$-starlike with respect to the origin if $0 \in R$ and if every point of $R$ can be connected with 0 by a piecewise linear curve that lies entirely in $R$ and that consists of no more than $n$ line segments. Let $\delta_{n}$ be the supremum of all $r$ such that an arbitrary $f \in S$ maps $D_{r}$ onto an $n$-starlike region with respect to 0 . Then

$$
\tanh \left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)=\delta_{1} \leq \delta_{2} \leq \delta_{3} \leq \cdots, \quad \delta_{n} \geq \tanh \left(\frac{n \pi}{4}\right)
$$

but values for $\delta_{n}, n \geq 2$, are unknown. See also [17, 18].
Likewise, let $\epsilon_{n}$ be the supremum of all $r$ such that an arbitrary $f \in \Sigma$ maps $E_{r}$ onto a region, the complement of which is $n$-starlike with respect to 0 . Then

$$
0.85<\epsilon_{1}, \quad 1-1.11 \exp \left(\frac{-n \pi}{2}\right)<\epsilon_{n} \quad \text { for all } n>1
$$

An exact expression for $\epsilon_{1}$ would be good to see someday.
0.3. Radius of Close-to-Convexity. A region $R \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is close-to-convex (or linearly accessible) if its complement is a union of closed half-lines such that the corresponding open half-lines are pairwise disjoint. Any starlike region is close-toconvex. A half-annulus is also close-to-convex, but this property fails for any larger subsection of an annulus.

An analytic function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is close-to-convex if $f(D)$ is close-to-convex. Equivalently, $f$ is close-to-convex if there is a convex function $g: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $\operatorname{Re}\left(f^{\prime}(z) / g^{\prime}(z)\right)>0$ for all $z \in D[1,19,20,21,22,23,24,25]$. It can be shown that every close-to-convex function is univalent.

Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C C=\{f \in S: f(D) \text { is close-to-convex }\} \\
& =\left\{f \in S: \begin{array}{r}
\int_{\theta_{1}}^{\theta_{2}} \operatorname{Re}\left(1+z \frac{f^{\prime \prime}(z)}{f^{\prime}(z)}\right) d \theta>-\pi, \text { where } z=r e^{i \theta}, \\
\quad \text { for each } 0<r<1 \text { and each pair } 0<\theta_{1}<\theta_{2}<2 \pi
\end{array}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\rho_{c c}(S)$ be the supremum of all $r$ such that an arbitrary $f \in S$ maps $D_{r}$ onto a close-to-convex region. Krzyz [26] determined that

$$
\rho_{c c}(S)=y=0.8098139153 \ldots
$$

where $y$ is the unique real solution of the equation

$$
2 \arctan \left(\frac{\kappa(y)}{\lambda(y)}\right)+\ln \left(1+\lambda(y)^{2}\right)-2 \ln \left(\frac{2 y}{1-y^{2}}\right)=0
$$

in the interval $0<y<1, \kappa(y)=\left(1+y^{2}\right) /\left(1-y^{2}\right)$, and $\lambda=\lambda(y)$ is the unique real solution of the equation

$$
\lambda^{3}-\kappa(y) \lambda^{2}+\kappa(y)^{2} \lambda-\kappa(y)=0 .
$$

Sizuk [27] extended this result to the class of close-to-convex functions of order $\gamma$.
0.4. Radius of Convexity in One Direction. A region $R \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is convex in the direction of the imaginary axis if, for every vertical line $L$, the set $L \cap R$ is either empty or connected. Any region that is convex in one direction can be rotated so that it is convex in the imaginary direction [3, 28, 29].

Define

$$
C D=\{f \in S: f(D) \text { is convex in the imaginary direction }\}
$$

and let $\rho_{c d}(S)$ be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that an arbitrary $f \in S$ maps $D_{r}$ onto a region that is convex in the imaginary direction. Umezawa [30] and Goodman \& Saff [31] proved that

$$
0.394 \ldots=4-\sqrt{13} \leq \rho_{c d}(S) \leq \sqrt{2}-1=0.414 \ldots
$$

The exact value of this constant is unknown.
A subclass of $C D$ was considered by Hengartner \& Schober [32]:

$$
\left\{f \in S: \operatorname{Re}\left(\left(1-z^{2}\right) f^{\prime}(z)\right) \geq 0 \text { for all } z \in D\right\}
$$

but we omit details. See also [33, 34].
0.5. Radius of Majorization. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be analytic with $f(0)=0$ and $f^{\prime}(0) \geq 0$. Let $F \in S$. The function $f$ is subordinate to $F$, written $f \preceq F$, if $f\left(D_{r}\right) \subseteq F\left(D_{r}\right)$ for all $0<r<1[1,35]$.

Shah [36, 37], verifying conjectures of Goluzin [5, 38], proved that if $f \preceq F$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
|f(z)| \leq|F(z)| \quad \text { for all }|z| \leq \frac{1}{2}(3-\sqrt{5})=0.3819660112 \ldots \\
\left|f^{\prime}(z)\right| \leq\left|F^{\prime}(z)\right| \quad \text { for all }|z| \leq 3-2 \sqrt{2}=0.1715728752 \ldots
\end{gathered}
$$

Both of these radii are best possible. If we further assume that $f$ is univalent and $f^{\prime}(0)>0$, then $[5,39]$

$$
|f(z)| \leq|F(z)| \quad \text { for all }|z| \leq u=0.3908507887 \ldots
$$

where $u$ is the unique real solution of

$$
\ln \left(\frac{1+u}{1-u}\right)+2 \arctan (u)=\frac{\pi}{2}
$$

Again, this radius of majorization is best possible. Problems as such (subordination implies majorization) were first examined by Biernacki [40].

Converse problems (majorization implies subordination) were studied by Lewandowski [41]. Under the same conditions as earlier, if $|f(z)| \leq|F(z)|$ for all $z \in D$ and $f$ is not necessarily univalent, then $f \preceq F$ in the disk $D_{v}$, where $0.21<v<0.29$. The exact value of $v$ is unknown. If $f$ is assumed to be univalent, then the constant $u=0.390 \ldots$ arises again [42, 43].
0.6. Radius of Zeroness. Let $\rho_{N}(\Sigma)$ be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that an arbitrary $f \in \Sigma$ never vanishes on the punctured disk $E_{r}$. Goluzin [16] proved that $0.86<\rho_{N}(\Sigma) \leq \sqrt{3} / 2<0.867$, but a subsequent theorem of his [5, 44] implies that $\rho_{N}(\Sigma)=\xi=0.8649789576 \ldots$, where $\xi$ is the unique positive solution of the equation

$$
\frac{E(\xi)}{K(\xi)}+\frac{\xi^{2}}{4}-\frac{3}{4}=0
$$

This is quite similar to the equation prescribed earlier for the radius of convexity $\rho_{c v}(\Sigma)$.

Given an analytic function $f$, we may likewise define $\rho_{N}(f)$ to be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that $f$, when restricted to $E_{r}$, is never zero. For example,

$$
\rho_{N}(f)=2\left|z_{0}\right| \quad \text { for } f(z)=z-\frac{1}{2 z_{0}} z^{2} \quad \text { (a quadratic function) }
$$

and

$$
\rho_{N}(f)=2 \pi \quad \text { for } f(z)=\exp (z)-1 \quad \text { (the exponential function). }
$$

0.7. Radius of Univalence. Given an analytic function $f$, define the radius of univalence of $f$ to be the supremum of all numbers $r$ such that $f$, when restricted to the disk $D_{r}$, is univalent. Let us first consider the case of polynomials. We clearly have

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=\left|z_{0}\right| \quad \text { for } f(z)=z-\frac{1}{2 z_{0}} z^{2}
$$

in the quadratic case. Kakeya's theorem [45, 46, 47] provides that

$$
\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right) \leq \frac{\rho_{s}(f)}{\left|z_{0}\right|} \leq 1 \quad \text { for } f(z)=z+\sum_{k=2}^{n} a_{k} z^{k}
$$

in the general case, where $n \geq 2$ and $z_{0} \neq 0$ is the zero of $f^{\prime}(z)$ of smallest modulus. These bounds are sharp.

Now, let us consider the case of transcendental functions. We have

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=\pi \quad \text { for } f(z)=\exp (z)-1
$$

as is well-known (although $f^{\prime}(z)$ never vanishes); [48]

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=1.5748375891 \ldots \quad \text { for } f(z)=\operatorname{erf}(z)
$$

corresponding to the smallest modulus, of points $z$ not on the $x$-axis, for which $\operatorname{erf}(z)$ is real (see [49] for definition); [50, 51]

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=0.9241388730 \ldots \quad \text { for } f(z)=\exp \left(z^{2}\right) \operatorname{erf}(z)
$$

corresponding to the unique positive solution of $\sqrt{\pi} y \operatorname{Im}(f(i y))=1$; [52, 53, 54]

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=p_{\nu, 1} \quad \text { for } f(z)=z^{1-\nu} J_{\nu}(z), \nu>-1,
$$

corresponding to the smallest positive zero of $f^{\prime}(z)$ (see [55] for numerical values); [56]

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=0.5040830082 \ldots \quad \text { for } f(z)=1 / \Gamma(z)
$$

corresponding to the smallest positive zero of $\Gamma^{\prime}(-z)$; and [57]

$$
\rho_{s}(f)=0.4616321449 \ldots \quad \text { for } f(z)=\Gamma(z+1)
$$

corresponding to the smallest positive zero of $\Gamma^{\prime}(z+1)$. See also [58].
We digress briefly to other radii. For $f(z)=\exp (z)-1$, it is known that $[59,60]$

$$
\rho_{c v}(f)=1, \quad \rho_{s t}(f)=2.8329700604 \ldots
$$

and the latter corresponds to $\sqrt{1+\eta^{2}}$, where $\eta$ is the smallest positive solution of the equation

$$
\eta \sin (\eta)+\cos (\eta)=\frac{1}{e}
$$

See also [61, 62].
0.8. Sums and Products. Here are two procedures for combining univalent functions:

$$
\begin{gathered}
S+S=\{h: h(z)=t f(z)+(1-t) g(z) \text { for some } f, g \in S \text { and } 0 \leq t \leq 1\}, \\
S \cdot S=\left\{h: h(z)=f(z)^{t} g(z)^{1-t} \text { for some } f, g \in S \text { and } 0 \leq t \leq 1\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

On the one hand, MacGregor [63] demonstrated that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\rho_{s}(S+S)=\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}}=0.3826834323 \ldots \\
\rho_{s}(C V+C V)=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}=0.7071067811 \ldots
\end{gathered}
$$

and Robertson [64] showed that

$$
\rho_{s}(S T+S T)=\chi=0.4035150049 \ldots
$$

where $\chi$ is the unique positive zero of $\chi^{6}+5 \chi^{4}+79 \chi^{2}-13$. Further results appear in $[65,66,67]$. On the other hand, we have [3]

$$
C V \cdot C V \subseteq S T \cdot S T \subseteq S T, \quad C V \cdot C V \nsubseteq C V
$$

but virtually nothing is known about the class $S \cdot S$.
0.9. Derivatives and Integrals. Define the following classes of functions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T=\left\{f: f(z)=\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d z}(z g(z)) \text { for some } g \in S\right\}, \\
& U_{\alpha}=\left\{f: f(z)=\int_{0}^{z}\left(\frac{g(w)}{w}\right)^{\alpha} d w \text { for some } g \in S\right\} \text {, } \\
& V_{\beta}=\left\{f: f(z)=\int_{0}^{z} g^{\prime}(w)^{\beta} d w \text { for some } g \in S\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\alpha, \beta$ are complex numbers and hence the logarithmic branch is selected so that $f^{\prime}(0)=1$. Barnard [68, 69] and Pearce [70], building on Robinson [71], proved that

$$
0.49<\rho_{s}(T) \leq \frac{1}{2}, \quad 0.435<\rho_{s t}(T)<0.445
$$

In particular, these two constants must be distinct.

Biernacki [72] claimed that $\rho_{s}\left(U_{1}\right)=1$, but this was disproved by Krzyz \& Lewandowski [73]. It was later shown [74] that $0.91<\rho_{s}\left(U_{1}\right) \leq \tanh (\pi)<0.9963$. Let $A$ denote the set of all complex numbers $\alpha$ for which $U_{\alpha} \subseteq S$. Kim \& Merkes [75] proved that $D_{1 / 4} \subseteq A \subseteq D_{1 / 2}$; we wonder whether $D_{r} \subseteq A$ for some $r>1 / 4$.

Trivially $\rho_{s}\left(V_{1}\right)=1$. Let $B$ denote the set of all complex numbers $\beta$ for which $V_{\beta} \subseteq S$. Royster [76] and Pfaltzgraff [77] proved that $D_{1 / 4} \subseteq B \subseteq D_{1 / 3} \cup\{1\}$; we again wonder whether $D_{r} \subseteq B$ for some $r>1 / 4$. See also [78, 79].

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