# SOME COMPLETELY MONOTONIC FUNCTIONS OF POSITIVE ORDER 

STAMATIS KOUMANDOS AND MARTIN LAMPRECHT


#### Abstract

We completely determine the set of $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ for which the function $\frac{e^{\alpha x}-e^{\beta x}}{e^{x}-1}$ is convex on $(0, \infty)$ and use this result to give some special classes of completely monotonic functions of positive order related to gamma and psi functions.


## 1. Introduction

Euler's gamma function $\Gamma(x)$ is defined by $\Gamma(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} d t$ for $x>0$. Its logarithmic derivative $\psi(x)=\Gamma^{\prime}(x) / \Gamma(x)$ is called the psi or digamma function, and the derivatives $\psi^{(n)}(x)$ are called polygamma functions. In this paper we shall extend and strengthen some of the results obtained in 4] regarding inequalities for ratios of gamma functions and differences of digamma and polygamma functions. For background information and an extensive bibliography concerning such inequalities, we refer to [4].

Many of the inequalities presented in 4] are obtained by verifying the complete monotonicity of certain functions. A function $f:(0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be completely monotonic if it has derivatives of all orders and satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
(-1)^{n} f^{(n)}(x) \geq 0, \text { for all } x>0 \text { and } n \geq 0 \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

J. Dubourdieu [1] proved that if a nonconstant function $f$ is completely monotonic, then strict inequality holds in (1.1). See also [2] for a simpler proof of this result. A necessary and sufficient condition for complete monotonicity is given by Bernstein's theorem (see [11, p. 161]), which states that $f$ is completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$ if and only if

$$
f(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x t} d \mu(t)
$$

where $\mu$ is a nonnegative measure on $[0, \infty)$ such that the integral converges for all $x>0$.

In [6], Koumandos and Pedersen called a function $f$ completely monotonic of order $n=0,1,2, \ldots$ if $x^{n} f(x)$ is completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$. Thus, completely monotonic functions of order 0 are the classical completely monotonic functions,

[^0]while completely monotonic functions of order 1 are the strongly completely monotonic functions that have been introduced in [10]. It is easy to see that a function $f$ is completely monotonic if $x f(x)$ is completely monotonic, and therefore a function that is completely monotonic of order $n$ is completely monotonic of order $m=0,1, \ldots, n-1$.

In [6, Thm. 1.3], it is furthermore shown that a function $f$ is completely monotonic of order $n \geq 1$ on $(0, \infty)$ if, and only if,

$$
f(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x t} p(t) d t
$$

where the integral converges for all $x>0$ and where $p$ is $n-1$ times differentiable on $[0, \infty)$ with $p^{(n-1)}(t)=\mu([0, t])$ for some Radon measure $\mu$ and $p^{(k)}(0)=0$ for $0 \leq k \leq n-2$. This has already been proven for the case $n=1$ in [10, Thm. 1] and for the case $n=2$ in [4, Lem. 2] and will be used here in the case $n=3$ in order to strengthen some of the results obtained in [4].

The applications of [4, Lem. 2] that are presented in [4] lead to the question for which $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ the function $f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)$, defined by

$$
f_{\alpha, \beta}(x):=\frac{e^{\alpha x}-e^{\beta x}}{e^{x}-1} \quad \text { for } \quad x \in \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\} \quad \text { and } \quad f_{\alpha, \beta}(0)=\alpha-\beta
$$

is convex in $(0, \infty)$. We will give a complete solution to this question and thus extend some further results from [4].

In order to state our results, for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta):=2 \alpha \beta+2 \alpha^{2}-3 \alpha+2 \beta^{2}-3 \beta+1 \\
& \varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta):=4 \alpha^{2} \beta^{2}-4 \alpha^{2} \beta-4 \alpha \beta^{2}+4 \alpha \beta-\alpha^{2}+\alpha-\beta^{2}+\beta \\
& \varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta) \\
& :=\left(\alpha-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(\beta-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}-\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma_{1}:=\{(\alpha, \beta): 0 \leq \beta \leq 1<\alpha\} \cap\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\} \\
& \Gamma_{2}:=\{(\alpha, \beta): 0 \leq \beta \leq 1 \leq \alpha\} \cap\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\} \\
& \Gamma_{3}:=\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \beta \leq \frac{1}{2}-\left|\alpha-\frac{1}{2}\right|\right\} \cap\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and let $C$ and $D$ be the open bounded sets whose boundaries are given by the Jordan curves $\Gamma_{1} \cup \Gamma_{2} \cup\left\{(1, \beta): \frac{1}{2} \leq \beta \leq 1\right\}$ and $\Gamma_{2} \cup \Gamma_{3} \cup\left\{(\alpha, \alpha): \frac{1}{6}(3-\sqrt{3}) \leq \alpha \leq 1\right\}$, respectively. Let $H$ denote the half-plane $\{(\alpha, \beta): \beta \leq \alpha\}$ and set

$$
A:=\left(H \cup\left\{(\alpha, 1): 0 \leq \alpha \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\}\right) \backslash D
$$

and $B:=D \backslash\left(C \cup\left\{(1, \beta): 0 \leq \beta \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\}\right)$. (Cf. Figure 1 The graphs in this paper have been created by using the KETpic package for Maple [3].)

It is perhaps interesting to note that the set $\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\}$ describes an ellipse with center $\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ and semi-axes $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}$ with the major axis forming an angle of $-\frac{\pi}{4}$ with the $\alpha$-axis. $\Gamma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{3}$ are therefore elliptical arcs $\left(\Gamma_{3}\right.$ is even a quarter-ellipse).

Continuing with necessary definitions, for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $t>0$, define $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t):=$ $g_{\alpha}(t)-g_{\beta}(t)$, where

$$
g_{\alpha}(t):=t^{\alpha-1}\left[(1-\alpha)^{2} t^{2}+\left(1+2 \alpha-2 \alpha^{2}\right) t+\alpha^{2}\right]-t-1
$$



Figure 1. The sets $A, B$ and $C$. The bold curves are $\partial A$. Note that $\Gamma_{1} \cap \Gamma_{2} \cap \Gamma_{3}=(1,0)$ and that the dotted line $\{(1, \beta): 0<$ $\left.\beta \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\}$ belongs to neither $A, B$ or $C$, but to $A^{*}$.
and, for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \backslash\{1\}$ with $\varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta) \varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta) \leq 0$,

$$
t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)=\frac{\varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta)-2 \alpha \beta(1-\alpha)(1-\beta)+\sqrt{-\varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta) \varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta)}}{2(1-\alpha)^{2}(1-\beta)^{2}}
$$

Finally, for any set $M \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$, let $M^{*}$ denote its reflection with respect to the straight line $\{(\alpha, \alpha): \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
Theorem 1.1. (1) For $(\alpha, \beta) \in A$ the function $f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)$ is convex in $(0, \infty)$ and for $(\alpha, \beta) \in A^{*}$ it is concave there.
(2) For $(\alpha, \beta) \in B \cup B^{*}$ the function $f_{\alpha, \beta}^{\prime \prime}(x)$ changes sign in $(0, \infty)$.
(3) In $C \cup C^{*}$ the sign of $f_{\alpha, \beta}^{\prime \prime}(x)$ is constant in $(0, \infty)$ if, and only if, $(\alpha, \beta) \in$ $C_{\text {conv }} \cup C_{\text {conv }}^{*}$, where

$$
C_{c o n v}:=\left\{(\alpha, \beta) \in C: g_{\alpha, \beta}\left(t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)\right) \geq 0\right\}
$$

$f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)$ is convex in $(0, \infty)$ if $(\alpha, \beta) \in C_{\text {conv }}$ and concave if $(\alpha, \beta) \in C_{\text {conv }}^{*}$ (cf. Figure 2).


Figure 2. The set $C$. The bold curves are $\partial C$. The dashed curve describes the set of points $(\alpha, \beta) \in C$ for which $g_{\alpha, \beta}\left(t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)\right)=0$.

Let $S_{1}$ denote the set of $(s, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that $(1-t, 1-s) \in A \cup C_{\text {conv }}$ and set

$$
T:=(\{(s, t): 0 \leq s, t\} \cup\{(s, t): t \leq 1-s\}) \backslash\{(s, t): 0<t<1-s<1\}
$$

and $S_{2}:=S_{1} \cap T$.
Theorem 1.1 will allow us to prove the following extensions of results from [4].
Theorem 1.2. (1) Let

$$
L(x):=x-\frac{\Gamma(x+t)}{\Gamma(x+s)} x^{s-t+1}
$$

Then

$$
\Phi(x):=-\frac{\Gamma(x+s)}{\Gamma(x+t)} x^{t-s-1} L^{\prime \prime}(x)
$$

is completely monotonic of order 2 on $(0, \infty)$ for all $(s, t) \in S_{1}$, and for $(s, t) \in S_{2}$ the function $L^{\prime}(x)$ is completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$. In particular, for $(s, t) \in S_{2}$, the function $L(x)$ is strictly increasing and concave on $(0, \infty)$ and the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
0<x-\frac{\Gamma(x+t)}{\Gamma(x+s)} x^{s-t+1}<\frac{1}{2}(s-t)(s+t-1) \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $x>0$ ( $c f$. 4, Thm. 1]).
(2) For $(s, t) \in S_{2}$ the inequality

$$
\psi(x+t)-\psi(x+s)+\frac{s-t+1}{x}<\frac{\Gamma(x+s)}{\Gamma(x+t)} x^{t-s-1}
$$

holds for all $x>0$ and the function

$$
\psi(x+s)-\psi(x+t)-\frac{s-t}{x}+\frac{(s-t)(s+t-1)}{2 x^{2}}
$$

is completely monotonic in $(0, \infty)$ for all $(s, t) \in S_{1} \quad(c f$. [4, Cor. 1]).
(3) For $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $m>n$, let

$$
U_{n, m}(x):=\sum_{k=n}^{m} \frac{(t)_{k}}{(s)_{k}} e^{i k x}, \quad V_{n, m}(x):=\frac{\Gamma(s)}{\Gamma(t)} \sum_{k=n}^{m} \frac{1}{k^{s-t}} e^{i k x}
$$

where $(a)_{k}=a(a+1) \cdots(a+k-1)$. If $(s, t) \in S_{2} \cap\{(s, t): s \geq 1\}$, then for $\frac{\pi}{n} \leq x<\pi, n>1$, the estimate

$$
\left|U_{n, m}(x)-V_{n, m}(x)\right|<\frac{1}{n^{s-t}} \frac{\Gamma(s)}{\Gamma(t)} \frac{(s-t)(s+t-1)}{2}
$$

holds (cf. [4, Prop. 1]).
(4) Let

$$
\Lambda(x):=x \log \left(\frac{\Gamma(x+t)}{\Gamma(x+s)} x^{s-t}\right)
$$

and

$$
K(x):=\psi^{\prime}(x+t)-\psi^{\prime}(x+s)+\frac{2}{x}[\psi(x+t)-\psi(x+s)]+\frac{s-t}{x^{2}}
$$

If $(s, t) \in S_{1}$, then the function $K(x)=\frac{1}{x} \Lambda^{\prime \prime}(x)$ is completely monotonic of order 2 on $(0, \infty)$ and the function $-\Lambda^{\prime}(x)$ is completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$. In particular, the function $\Lambda(x)$ is strictly decreasing and convex on $(0, \infty)$, so that

$$
-\frac{(s-t)(s+t-1)}{2}<x \log \left(\frac{\Gamma(x+t)}{\Gamma(x+s)} x^{s-t}\right)<0, \quad \text { for all } \quad x>0
$$

In particular, when $s=0$, then the above results hold for $t \leq 0$ and $\frac{1}{2} \leq$ $t \leq 1$, but not for any other $t \in \mathbb{R}$ (cf. [4, Prop. 2]).
Special cases of Theorem 1.2 (3) were the main tools in [7] and [8] for the estimation of certain trigonometric sums arising in the context of starlike functions. Moreover, it is perhaps interesting to note that in [5] the exact range of $t$ for which inequality (1.2) holds when $s=1$ has been determined to be $\left[\frac{1}{3}, 1\right)$.

An application of [6, Thm. 1.3] leads to the following.
Theorem 1.3. (1) There is an analytically defined $a^{*}<0$ with numerical value $a^{*}=-0.0741 \ldots$, such that the function
$\xi(x)=a^{2}\left[\psi^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2}+a \psi^{\prime \prime}(x)+\frac{2 a(1-a)}{x} \psi^{\prime}(x)-\frac{a(1-a)}{x^{2}}, \quad a \neq 0$,
is completely monotonic of order 3 in $(0, \infty)$ if, and only if, $a \in\left(-\infty, a^{*}\right] \cup$ $\left[\frac{2}{3}, \infty\right)(c f$. 44, Thm. $\left.2(1)]\right)$.
(2) The functions

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{1}(x) & :=\left[\psi^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2}+\psi^{\prime \prime}(x) \\
f_{2}(x) & :=\frac{2}{3}\left(\psi^{\prime}(x)+\frac{1}{2 x}\right)^{2}+\psi^{\prime \prime}(x)-\frac{1}{2 x^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

are completely monotonic of order 3 on $(0, \infty)$. On the other hand, while being completely monotonic of order 2, the function

$$
f_{3}(x)=-\psi^{\prime \prime}(x)-\frac{2}{x} \psi^{\prime}(x)+\frac{1}{x^{2}}
$$

is not completely monotonic of order 3 on $(0, \infty)$ (cf. [4, Cor. 3]).

## 2. Proofs of Theorems 1.2 and 1.3

We shall first show that in the case $s=0$ the function $K$ defined in Theorem 1.2 (44) is not completely monotonic for $t \in\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right) \cup(1, \infty)$. To that end observe that by the asymptotic formula

$$
\psi(x+t)-\psi(x)=\frac{t}{x}-\frac{t(t-1)}{2 x^{2}}+\frac{t\left(1-3 t+2 t^{2}\right)}{6 x^{3}}+O\left(x^{-4}\right), \quad x \rightarrow \infty
$$

we have

$$
6 x^{4} K(x) \rightarrow-2 t^{3}+3 t^{2}-t, \quad x \rightarrow \infty
$$

Since $-2 t^{3}+3 t^{2}-t$ takes negative values for $t \in\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right) \cup(1, \infty), K$ cannot be completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$ for those $t$.

The remaining statements of Theorem 1.2 follow from the proofs of Thm. 1, Cor. 1, Prop. 1 and Prop. 2 in 4], since $f_{1-t, 1-s}(x)$ is convex on $(0, \infty)$ for all $(s, t) \in S_{1}$ by Theorem 1.1 and convex and monotonic on $(0, \infty)$ for all $(s, t) \in S_{2}$ by Theorem 1.1 and 9 , Thm. 1.1 (3), (4)].

In order to prove Theorem 1.3 (1) note that in the proof of [4, Thm. 2] it is shown that $\xi$ can be written as the Laplace transform of the function

$$
G_{a}(u):=a^{2} \int_{0}^{u} \delta(u-v) \delta(v) d v+2 a(1-a) \int_{0}^{u} \delta(v) d v-a u \delta(u)-a(1-a) u
$$

where

$$
\delta(u):=\frac{u e^{u}}{e^{u}-1}, \quad \delta(0):=1
$$

In the proof of [4, Thm. 2] it is also shown that $G_{a}^{(n)}(u) \geq 0$ for $n=0,1,2, u>0$ and $a \in(-\infty, 0] \cup\left[\frac{2}{3}, \infty\right)$ and that

$$
G_{a}^{\prime \prime}(u)=a^{2} \int_{0}^{u} \delta^{\prime}(u-v) \delta^{\prime}(v) d v-a u \delta^{\prime \prime}(u)
$$

Hence, it follows from [6, Thm. 1.3] that $\xi(x)$ will be completely monotonic of order 3 on $(0, \infty)$ if, and only if, $G_{a}^{\prime \prime \prime}(u) \geq 0$ for $u \geq 0$. From the above formula for $G_{a}^{\prime \prime}(u)$ we calculate

$$
G_{a}^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)=a^{2}\left(\int_{0}^{u} \delta^{\prime \prime}(u-v) \delta^{\prime}(v) d v+\frac{\delta^{\prime}(u)}{2}\right)-a\left(u \delta^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)+\delta^{\prime \prime}(u)\right)
$$

From the proof of [4, Thm. 2] we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta^{\prime}(u)>0, \quad \delta^{\prime \prime}(u)>0, \quad \delta^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)<0 \quad \text { for all } \quad u \geq 0 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d v} \delta^{\prime \prime}(u-v) \delta^{\prime}(v)=-\delta^{\prime \prime \prime}(u-v) \delta^{\prime}(v)+\delta^{\prime \prime}(u-v) \delta^{\prime \prime}(v)>0 \quad \text { for all } \quad u \geq v \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $a<0$ this means that $G_{a}^{\prime \prime \prime}(u) \geq 0$ for $u \geq 0$ if, and only if,

$$
a \leq a^{*}:=\min _{u \geq 0} \frac{u \delta^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)+\delta^{\prime \prime}(u)}{\int_{0}^{u} \delta^{\prime \prime}(u-v) \delta^{\prime}(v) d v+\frac{\delta^{\prime}(u)}{2}}
$$

A numerical computation shows that $a^{*}=-0.0741 \ldots$.
For $a \geq \frac{2}{3}$ it follows from (2.2) that

$$
\frac{1}{a} G_{a}^{\prime \prime \prime}(u) \geq \frac{1}{3}\left(u \delta^{\prime \prime}(u)+\delta^{\prime}(u)\right)-u \delta^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)-\delta^{\prime \prime}(u) .
$$

Elementary considerations show that the right-hand side of this inequality is positive for all $u \geq 0$. Therefore $G_{a}^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)>0$ in $(0, \infty)$ for $a \in\left(-\infty, a^{*}\right] \cup\left[\frac{2}{3}, \infty\right)$, but not for $a \in\left(a^{*}, 0\right)$. Since it has been shown in [4, Thm. 2] that $\xi(x)$ is not completely monotonic for $a \in\left(0, \frac{2}{3}\right)$, the proof of Theorem 1.3 (1) is complete.

Finally, for the proof of Theorem $1.3(2)$, note that the functions $f_{1}(x)$ and $f_{2}(x)$ are merely the function $\xi$ in the special cases $a=\frac{2}{3}$ and $a=1$ and that, as shown in the proof of [4, Cor. 2], the function $f_{3}(x)$ is the Laplace transform of a function $\rho_{3}(u)$, for which $\rho_{3}^{\prime \prime}(u)=u \delta^{\prime \prime}(u), u \in[0, \infty)$, with $\delta(u)$ as defined above. Since it was shown above that $\left(u \delta^{\prime \prime}(u)\right)^{\prime}=u \delta^{\prime \prime \prime}(u)+\delta^{\prime \prime}(u)$ changes sign in $[0, \infty)$, it follows from [6, Thm. 1.3] that $f_{3}$ cannot be completely monotonic of order 3 on $[0, \infty)$.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1.1

First, note that $f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)=-f_{\beta, \alpha}(x)$ and therefore it will be enough to examine the curvature of $f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)$ in $(0, \infty)$ for $(\alpha, \beta) \in H$.

Next, observe that

$$
f_{\alpha, \beta}^{\prime \prime}(x)=\frac{e^{x} g_{\alpha, \beta}\left(e^{x}\right)}{\left(e^{x}-1\right)^{3}}, \quad x \geq 0
$$

Hence, the curvature of $f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)$ in $(0, \infty)$ is completely determined by the sign of $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ in $(1, \infty)$.

Theorem 1.1 now follows from the following four lemmas.
Lemma 3.1. For $\alpha<0$ the function $g_{\alpha}(t)$ is negative in $(1, \infty)$ and for $0<\alpha \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and $\alpha>1$ the function $g_{\alpha}(t)$ is positive in $(1, \infty)$. For $\frac{1}{2}<\alpha<1$ the function $g_{\alpha}(t)$ changes sign in $(1, \infty)$.
Proof. For all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $g_{\alpha}(1)=0$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{\alpha}^{\prime}(t)= & (\alpha-1)^{2}(\alpha+1) t^{\alpha}+\left(-2 \alpha^{3}+2 \alpha^{2}+\alpha\right) t^{\alpha-1} \\
& +\alpha^{2}(\alpha-1) t^{\alpha-2}-1 \\
g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime}(t)= & \alpha(\alpha-1) t^{\alpha-3}(t-1)\left(\left(\alpha^{2}-1\right) t-\alpha(\alpha-2)\right) \\
g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)= & \alpha(\alpha-1)(2 \alpha-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently, for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, g_{\alpha}^{\prime}(1)=g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime}(1)=0$.
Case $-1 \leq \alpha \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and $1<\alpha$. In this case $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime}$ does not vanish in $(1, \infty)$ and thus the sign of $g_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ in $(1, \infty)$ will be equal to the sign of $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)$. For $-1 \leq \alpha<0$ we have $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)<0$, whereas $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)>0$ for $0<\alpha<\frac{1}{2}$ or $1<\alpha$. Therefore, $g_{\alpha}$ is negative in $(1, \infty)$ if $-1 \leq \alpha<0$ and positive if $0<\alpha \leq \frac{1}{2}$ or $1<\alpha$.
Case $\alpha<-1$. In this case $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime}$ has exactly one zero $t_{\alpha}$ in $(1, \infty)$. Since $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)<0$, it follows that $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime}<0$ in $(1, \infty)$ if and only if $1<t<t_{\alpha}$. Since $g_{\alpha}^{\prime}(t) \rightarrow-1$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, this shows that $g_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ is negative in $(1, \infty)$. Hence, for $\alpha<-1, g_{\alpha}$ is negative in $(1, \infty)$.

Case $\frac{1}{2}<\alpha<1$. In this case we have $g_{\alpha}^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)<0$ and thus $g_{\alpha}(t)<0$ for $t>1$ close to 1 . Since obviously $g_{\alpha}(t) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, the proof of the lemma is complete.
Lemma 3.2. For $(\alpha, \beta) \in B \backslash \Gamma_{1}$, the sign of $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ changes on $(1, \infty)$.
Proof. Since $g_{1, \beta}(t)=-g_{\beta}(t)$, the case $\alpha=1$ of our assertion follows from Lemma 3.1. For the other $(\alpha, \beta)$ in question we have $\alpha \neq 1$ and $\alpha>\beta$ and thus

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{-(1+\alpha)} g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)=(1-\alpha)^{2}>0
$$

It will therefore be enough to show that $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ takes negative values in $(1, \infty)$ for $(\alpha, \beta) \in B$ with $\alpha \neq 1$.

We have $g_{\alpha, \beta}^{(n)}(1)=0$ for $n=0,1,2$ and

$$
\frac{g_{\alpha, \beta}^{(3)}(1)}{\alpha-\beta}=\varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)
$$

Consequently, for

$$
(\alpha, \beta) \in\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \beta<\alpha, \varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)<0\right\}
$$

$g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ takes negative values in $(1, \infty)$ and it only remains to show that the same is true for $(\alpha, \beta)$ in the triangle $\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \frac{1}{2}<\beta<\alpha<1\right\}$.

To that end, fix a $\beta \in\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$ and observe that by Lemma3.1 there is a $t^{*} \in(1, \infty)$ such that $g_{\beta}\left(t^{*}\right)=0$. Our claim will follow once we have shown that the function $h(\alpha):=g_{\alpha}\left(t^{*}\right), \alpha \in\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$, is negative for all $\alpha \in(\beta, 1)$, since

$$
g_{\alpha, \beta}\left(t^{*}\right)=g_{\alpha}\left(t^{*}\right)-g_{\beta}\left(t^{*}\right)=h(\alpha) .
$$

We calculate
$\left(t^{*}\right)^{1-\alpha} h^{\prime}(\alpha)=2\left(t^{*}-1\right)\left(\alpha\left(t^{*}-1\right)-t^{*}\right)+\log t^{*}\left(\alpha^{2}\left(t^{*}-1\right)^{2}-2 t^{*} \alpha\left(t^{*}-1\right)+t^{*}\left(t^{*}+1\right)\right)$, and thus $h^{\prime}(\alpha)$ vanishes for those $\alpha$ for which the rational function

$$
r(\alpha):=\frac{\alpha^{2}\left(t^{*}-1\right)^{2}-2 t^{*} \alpha\left(t^{*}-1\right)+t^{*}\left(t^{*}+1\right)}{\alpha\left(t^{*}-1\right)-t^{*}}
$$

cuts the horizontal $\alpha \mapsto 2\left(1-t^{*}\right) / \log t^{*}$. It is straightforward to verify that, in $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right), r(\alpha)$ has no pole and $r^{\prime}(\alpha)$ has exactly one zero and hence $h$ can have at most two local extrema in $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$.

Now, suppose that $h^{\prime}(\beta)>0$. Then, since $h(1)=0$ and

$$
h^{\prime}(1)=\log t^{*}\left(t^{*}+1\right)+2\left(1-t^{*}\right)>0
$$

for all $t^{*} \in(1, \infty), h$ must have at least two local extrema in $(\beta, 1)$. On the other hand, $4 \sqrt{t^{*}} h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)=\left(\sqrt{t^{*}}-1\right)^{4}>0$ and hence $h(\alpha)$ has to have at least one local minimum in $\left(\frac{1}{2}, \beta\right)$. But $h(\alpha)$ can have at most two local extrema in $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$ and therefore $h^{\prime}(\beta)<0$. If now $h(\alpha)>0$ would hold for an $\alpha \in(\beta, 1)$, then, since $h(1)=0$ and $h^{\prime}(1)>0, h(\alpha)$ would have to have more than two local extrema in $(\beta, 1)$. Thus, we must have $h(\alpha)<0$ for all $\alpha \in(\beta, 1)$, and the proof of the lemma is complete.

Lemma 3.3. For $(\alpha, \beta) \in H \backslash D$ we have $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t) \geq 0$ in $(1, \infty)$, and for $0 \leq \beta \leq \frac{1}{2}$ the function $g_{1, \beta}(t)$ is nonpositive in $(1, \infty)$.
Proof. The case $\alpha=\beta$ is trivial and since $g_{\alpha, 1}(t)=g_{\alpha}(t)$ and $g_{1, \beta}(t)=-g_{\beta}(t)$, the cases $\alpha=1$ and $\beta=1$ of our assertion follow from Lemma 3.1.

In order to prove the lemma also for the other $(\alpha, \beta)$ in question, set

$$
h_{\alpha}(t):=(1-\alpha)^{2} t^{2}+\left(1+2 \alpha-2 \alpha^{2}\right) t+\alpha^{2}, \quad \alpha, t \in \mathbb{R}
$$

The parabola $h_{\alpha}(t)$ opens upward for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, its discriminant is nonnegative exactly for $\frac{1}{2}(1-\sqrt{2}) \leq \alpha \leq \frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{2})<\frac{3}{2}$, and $h_{\alpha}^{\prime}(1)>0$ exactly if $\alpha<\frac{3}{2}$. Hence, $h_{\alpha}(t)>0$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $t>1$, and therefore $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t) \geq 0$ is equivalent to

$$
\log h_{\alpha}(t)-\log h_{\beta}(t) \geq(\beta-\alpha) \log t
$$



Figure 3. The sets $P$ and $N$. The interior of $P$ is hatched. The bold curves are $\partial N$. The dotted arc describes the set $H \cap\{(\alpha, \beta)$ : $\left.\varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\}$. The dashed curves describe the set $H \cap\{(\alpha, \beta)$ : $\left.\varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\}$. The four dots describe the location of the points $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{4}$.

Since this inequality holds for all $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}$ when $t=1$, it will suffice to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{h_{\alpha}^{\prime}(t)}{h_{\alpha}(t)}-\frac{h_{\beta}^{\prime}(t)}{h_{\beta}(t)} \geq \frac{\beta-\alpha}{t} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
t h_{\alpha}^{\prime}(t) h_{\beta}(t)-t h_{\beta}^{\prime}(t) h_{\alpha}(t)+(\alpha-\beta) h_{\alpha}(t) h_{\beta}(t) \geq 0 \quad \text { for } t>1
$$

The left-hand side of the latter inequality is equal to $(\alpha-\beta)(1-t)^{2} p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$, where

$$
p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)=t^{2}(1-\alpha)^{2}(1-\beta)^{2}+t\left(\beta(\beta-1)+\left(\alpha^{2}-\alpha\right)(1-2 \beta(\beta-1))\right)+\alpha^{2} \beta^{2}
$$

so that (3.1) is equivalent to

$$
p_{\alpha, \beta}(t) \geq 0 \quad \text { for } t>1
$$

The discriminant of the parabola (in the following we will always assume that $\alpha \neq 1$ and $\beta \neq 1) p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ is given by $-\varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta) \varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta)$. Since $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ opens upward, it therefore follows that the nonnegativity of $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ in $(1, \infty)$ only remains to be verified for $(\alpha, \beta) \in N:=H \backslash P$, where (cf. Figure 3)

$$
P:=D \cup\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta) \varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta) \geq 0\right\} \cup\{(1, \beta): \beta \in \mathbb{R}\} \cup\{(\alpha, 1): \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}
$$

A straightforward computation shows that if $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ has a zero at 1 , then $\varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)$ $=0$ must hold. Since $\left\{(\alpha, \beta): \varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta)=0\right\} \cap H$ is contained in $\bar{D}$, a continuity argument yields that the number of zeros of $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ in $[1, \infty)$ is constant in each component of $N$.

It is easy to verify that $N$ consists of exactly 4 components and that no two of the points $q_{1}:=\left(\frac{1}{4}, 0\right), q_{2}:=\left(\frac{3}{2}, 0\right), q_{3}:=\left(0,-\frac{3}{4}\right)$ and $q_{4}:=\left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{9}{8}\right)$ lie in the same component of $N$ (cf. Figure 3). Since one readily sees that $p_{q_{j}}(t)$ has no zeros in $(1, \infty)$ for $j=1, \ldots, 4$, it follows that $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ is positive in $(1, \infty)$ for all $(\alpha, \beta) \in N$.

The proof of the lemma is complete.
Lemma 3.4. The function $f_{\alpha, \beta}(x)$ is convex on $(0, \infty)$ if $(\alpha, \beta) \in C_{\text {conv. For }}$ $(\alpha, \beta) \in C \backslash C_{\text {conv }}$ and $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Gamma_{1}$ the sign of $f_{\alpha, \beta}^{\prime \prime}(x)$ changes on $(0, \infty)$.

Proof. It follows from the proof of Lemma 3.3 that $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ has a critical point $t$ in $(1, \infty)$ if, and only if, $t$ is a zero of $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$. Furthermore, since one easily checks that $\alpha, \beta \neq 1$ and $\varepsilon_{1}(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$ for all $(\alpha, \beta)$ in the connected set $C$, the proof of Lemma 3.3 also shows that the number of zeros of $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ in $[1, \infty)$ is constant in $C$. It is readily verified that $q_{5}:=\left(\frac{11}{10}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \in C$ (cf. Figure 22) and that $p_{q_{5}}(t)$ has exactly two zeros in $(1, \infty)$. Hence, for $(\alpha, \beta) \in C, g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ has exactly two local extrema in $(1, \infty)$. Since $\beta<\alpha \neq 1$ in $C$, it follows from the proof of Lemma 3.2 that $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ is positive for all $t$ large enough. Since moreover $g_{\alpha, \beta}(1)=0$ for all $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, the largest one, say $t^{*}$, of the critical points of $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ in $[1, \infty)$ must be a local minimum of $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$, and $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ will be nonnegative in $(1, \infty)$ if, and only if, $g_{\alpha, \beta}\left(t^{*}\right) \geq 0$. $t^{*}$ must be the largest zero of $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ and can thus be calculated to be $t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)$.

The set $\Gamma_{1}$ belongs to the boundary of both $C$ and $E$, where $E$ is the open bounded set that has the Jordan curve $\Gamma_{1} \cup\left\{(1, \beta): 0 \leq \beta \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\}$ as its boundary ( $E$ is shaded in Figure (2). The point $q_{6}:=\left(\frac{101}{100}, \frac{1}{4}\right)$ lies in $E$ and $p_{q_{6}}(t)$ has exactly one zero in $(1, \infty)$. Hence, on $\Gamma_{1}$, at least one of the zeros of $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ is equal to 1 . Since $\varepsilon_{2}(\alpha, \beta) \varepsilon_{3}(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$ for $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Gamma_{1}$, the function $p_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ cannot have a double zero at $t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)$ on $\Gamma_{1}$. Therefore $t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)$ is the only critical point of $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)$ in $(1, \infty)$ when $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Gamma_{1}$. Since $g_{\alpha, \beta}(1)=0$ and $g_{\alpha, \beta}(t)>0$ for large $t$, this means that we must have $g_{\alpha, \beta}\left(t^{*}(\alpha, \beta)\right)<0$ for $(\alpha, \beta) \in \Gamma_{1}$.

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Department of Mathematics and Statistics, The University of Cyprus, P. O. Box 20537, 1678 Nicosia, Cyprus

E-mail address: skoumand@ucy.ac.cy
Department of Mathematics and Statistics, The University of Cyprus, P. O. Box 20537, 1678 Nicosia, Cyprus

E-mail address: martin@ucy.ac.cy


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