## Chapter 1

## Preliminaries

### 1.1 Spaces of integrable, continuous and absolutely continuous functions

In this section we listed definitions and properties of integrable functions, continuous functions, absolutely continuous functions and basic properties of the Laplace transform. Also we give required notation, terms and overview of some important results (more details could be found in monographs [57, 59, 70, 74]).

## $L_{p}$ spaces

Let $[a, b]$ be a finite interval in $\mathbb{R}$, where $-\infty \leq a<b \leq \infty$. We denote by $L_{p}[a, b], 1 \leq p<\infty$, the space of all Lebesgue measurable functions $f$ for which $\int_{a}^{b}|f(t)|^{p} d t<\infty$, where

$$
\|f\|_{p}=\left(\int_{a}^{b}|f(t)|^{p} d t\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
$$

and by $L_{\infty}[a, b]$ the set of all functions measurable and essentially bounded on $[a, b]$ with

$$
\|f\|_{\infty}=\operatorname{ess} \sup \{|f(x)|: x \in[a, b]\} .
$$

Theorem 1.1 (Integral HöLder's inequality) Let $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$ and $\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{q}=1$. Let $f, g:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be integrable functions such that $f \in L_{p}[a, b]$ and
$g \in L_{q}[a, b]$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b}|f(t) g(t)| d t \leq\|f\|_{p}\|g\|_{q} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality in (1.1) holds if and only if $A|f(t)|^{p}=B|g(t)|^{q}$ almost everywhere, where $A$ and $B$ are constants.

## Spaces of continuous and absolutely continuous functions

We denote by $C^{n}[a, b], n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, the space of functions which are $n$ times continuously differentiable on $[a, b]$, that is

$$
C^{n}[a, b]=\left\{f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: f^{(k)} \in C[a, b], k=0,1, \ldots, n\right\}
$$

In particular, $C^{0}[a, b]=C[a, b]$ is the space of continuous functions on $[a, b]$ with the norm

$$
\|f\|_{C^{n}}=\sum_{k=0}^{n}\left\|f^{(k)}\right\|_{C}=\sum_{k=0}^{n} \max _{x \in[a, b]}\left|f^{(k)}(x)\right|
$$

and for $C[a, b]$

$$
\|f\|_{C}=\max _{x \in[a, b]}|f(x)| .
$$

Lemma 1.1 The space $C^{n}[a, b]$ consists of those and only those functions $f$ which are represented in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{a}^{x}(x-t)^{n-1} \varphi(t) d t+\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_{k}(x-a)^{k} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varphi \in C[a, b]$ and $c_{k}$ are arbitrary constants $(k=0,1, \ldots, n-1)$.
Moreover,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi(t)=f^{(n)}(t), \quad c_{k}=\frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(k=0,1, \ldots, n-1) \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

By $C_{a}^{n}[a, b]$ we denote the subspace of the space $C^{n}[a, b]$ defined by

$$
C_{a}^{n}[a, b]=\left\{f \in C^{n}[a, b]: f^{(k)}(a)=0, k=0,1, \ldots, n-1\right\} .
$$

For $f \in C^{n}[a, b]$ and $0 \leq \mu<1$ we define

$$
|f|_{n, \mu}=\sup \left\{\frac{\left|f^{(n)}(x)-f^{(n)}(y)\right|}{|x-y|^{\mu}}: x, y \in[a, b], x \neq y\right\}
$$

Let $\alpha>0, \alpha \notin \mathbb{N}, n$ the integral part of $\alpha$ (notation $n=[\alpha]$ ) and let $\mu=\alpha-n$. By $\mathscr{D}^{\alpha}[a, b]$ we denote the space

$$
\mathscr{D}^{\alpha}[a, b]=\left\{f \in C^{n}[a, b]:|f|_{n, \mu}<\infty\right\},
$$

and by $\mathscr{D}_{a}^{\alpha}[a, b]$ the subspace of the space $\mathscr{D}^{\alpha}[a, b]$

$$
\mathscr{D}_{a}^{\alpha}[a, b]=\left\{f \in \mathscr{D}^{\alpha}[a, b]: f^{(k)}(a)=0, k=0,1, \ldots, n\right\} .
$$

Specially, for $\alpha=n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $\mathscr{D}^{n}[a, b]=C^{n}[a, b]$ and $\mathscr{D}_{a}^{n}[a, b]=C_{a}^{n}[a, b]$.
The space of absolutely continuous functions on a finite interval $[a, b]$ is denoted by $A C[a, b]$. It is known that $A C[a, b]$ coincides with the space of primitives of Lebesgue integrable functions $L_{1}[a, b]$ (see Kolmogorov and Fomin [53, Chapter 33.2]):

$$
f \in A C[a, b] \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f(x)=f(a)+\int_{a}^{x} \varphi(t) d t, \varphi \in L_{1}[a, b],
$$

and therefore an absolutely continuous function $f$ has an integrable derivative $f^{\prime}(x)=\varphi(x)$ almost everywhere na $[a, b]$. We denote by $A C^{n}[a, b], n \in \mathbb{N}$, the space

$$
A C^{n}[a, b]=\left\{f \in C^{n-1}[a, b]: f^{(n-1)} \in A C[a, b]\right\} .
$$

In particular, $A C^{1}[a, b]=A C[a, b]$.
Lemma 1.2 The space $A C^{n}[a, b]$ consists of those and only those functions which can be represented in the form (1.2), where $\varphi \in L_{1}[a, b]$ and $c_{k}$ are arbitrary constants ( $k=$ $0,1, \ldots, n-1)$.
Moreover, (1.3) holds.
The next theorem has numerous applications involving multiple integrals.
Theorem 1.2 (Fubini's theorem) Let $(X, \mathscr{M}, \mu)$ and $(Y, \mathcal{N}, v)$ be $\sigma$-finite measure spaces and $f \mu \times v$-measurable function on $X \times Y$. If $f \geq 0$, then next integrals are equal

$$
\int_{X \times Y} f(x, y) d(\mu \times v)(x, y), \int_{X}\left(\int_{Y} f(x, y) d v(y)\right) d \mu(x) \text { and } \int_{Y}\left(\int_{X} f(x, y) d \mu(x)\right) d v(y) \text {. }
$$

If $f$ is a complex function, then above equalities hold with additional requirement

$$
\int_{X \times Y}|f(x, y)| d(\mu \times v)(x, y)<\infty .
$$

Next equalities are consequences of this theorem:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \int_{a}^{b} d x \int_{c}^{d} f(x, y) d y=\int_{c}^{d} d y \int_{a}^{b} f(x, y) d x \\
& \int_{a}^{b} d x \int_{a}^{x} f(x, y) d y=\int_{a}^{b} d y \int_{y}^{b} f(x, y) d x \tag{1.4}
\end{align*}
$$

## The gamma and beta functions

The gamma function $\Gamma$ is the function of complex variable defined by Euler's integral of second kind

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma(z)=\int_{0}^{\infty} t^{z-1} e^{-t} d t, \quad \mathfrak{R}(z)>0 \tag{1,5}
\end{equation*}
$$

This integral is convergent for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\mathfrak{R}(z)>0$. It has next property

$$
\Gamma(z+1)=z \Gamma(z), \quad \Re(z)>0
$$

from which follows

$$
\Gamma(n+1)=n!, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_{0} .
$$

For domain $\mathfrak{R}(z) \leq 0$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma(z)=\frac{\Gamma(z+n)}{(z)_{n}}, \quad \mathfrak{R}(z)>-n ; n \in \mathbb{N} ; z \notin \mathbb{Z}_{0}^{-}=\{0,-1,-2, \ldots\}, \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $(z)_{n}$ is the Pochhammer's symbol defined for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ by

$$
(z)_{0}=1 ; \quad(z)_{n}=z(z+1) \cdots(z+n-1), n \in \mathbb{N}
$$

The gamma function is analytic in complex plane except in $0,-1,-2, \ldots$ which are simple poles.

The beta function is the function of two complex variables defined by Euler's integral of the first kind

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(z, w)=\int_{0}^{1} t^{z-1}(1-t)^{w-1} d t, \quad \Re(z), \mathfrak{R}(w)>0 . \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is related to the gamma function with

$$
B(z, w)=\frac{\Gamma(z) \Gamma(w)}{\Gamma(z+w)}, \quad z, w \notin \mathbb{Z}_{0}^{-}
$$

which gives

$$
B(z+1, w)=\frac{z}{z+w} B(z, w) .
$$

Next we proceed with examples of integrals often used in proofs and calculations in this book.

Example 1.1 Let $\alpha, \beta>0$ and $x \in\{a, b]$. Then by substitution $t=x-s(x-a)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.\int_{a}^{x}(x-t)\right)^{\alpha-1}(t-a)^{\beta-1} d t & =\int_{0}^{1}(x-a)^{\alpha+\beta-1} s^{\alpha-1}(1-s)^{\beta-1} d s \\
& =B(\alpha, \beta)(x-a)^{\alpha+\beta-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Analogously, by substitution $t=x+s(b-x)$, it follows

$$
\int_{x}^{b}(t-x)^{\alpha-1}(b-t)^{\beta-1} d t=B(\alpha, \beta)(b-x)^{\alpha+\beta-1} .
$$

Example 1.2 Let $\alpha, \beta>0, f \in L_{1}[a, b]$ and $x \in[a, b]$. Then interchanging the order of integration and evaluating the inner integral we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{a}^{x}(x-t)^{\alpha-1} \int_{a}^{t}(t-s)^{\beta-1} f(s) d s d t & =\int_{s=a}^{x} f(s) \int_{t=s}^{x}(x-t)^{\alpha-1}(t-s)^{\beta-1} d t d s \\
& =B(\alpha, \beta) \int_{a}^{x}(x-s)^{\alpha+\beta-1} f(s) d s
\end{aligned}
$$

Analogously,

$$
\int_{x}^{b}(t-x)^{\alpha-1} \int_{t}^{b}(s-t)^{\beta-1} f(s) d s d t=B(\alpha, \beta) \int_{x}^{b}(s-x)^{\alpha+\beta-1} f(s) d s
$$

## The Laplace transform

Let $f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function such that mapping $t \mapsto e^{-\sigma t}|f(t)|, \sigma>0$, is integrable on $[0, \infty)$. Then for each $p \geq \sigma$ the Lebesgue integral

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(p)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-p t} f(t) d t \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists. The mapping $f \mapsto F$ is called the Laplace transform and noted with $\mathscr{L}$, that is

$$
\mathscr{L}[f](p)=F(p) .
$$

Sufficient conditions for the Laplace transform existence are that function $f$ is locally integrable and exponentially bounded in $\infty$, that is $|f(t)| \leq M e^{\sigma t}$ for $t>\varepsilon$, where $M, \sigma$ and $\varepsilon$ are constant. The abscissa of convergence $\sigma_{0}$ is the smallest value of $\sigma$ for which $|f(t)| \leq M e^{\sigma t}$.
Example 1.3 Let $f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(t)=t^{\alpha}$, where $\alpha>-1$. Obviously $|f(t)|=t^{\alpha}<e^{\alpha t}$ for $t>0$ and $\alpha \geq 0$. For $-1<\alpha<0$, the function $f$ is locally integrable and $t^{\alpha} \leq 1$ for $t \geq 1$. Therefore, by substitution $p t=x$, the Laplace transform has the form

$$
\mathscr{L}[f](p)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-p t} t^{\alpha} d t=\frac{1}{p^{\alpha+1}} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{\alpha} d x=\frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{p^{\alpha+1}} .
$$

We give some properties and rules of the Laplace transform, and important uniqueness theorem ([74, Teorem 6.3]):

> convolution:
differentiation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathscr{L}\left[\int_{0}^{t} f(t-\tau) g(\tau) d \tau\right](p)=\mathscr{L}[f](p) \mathscr{L}[g](p) \\
& \mathscr{L}\left[f^{(n)}\right](p)=p^{n} \mathscr{L}[f](p)-\sum_{k=1}^{n} p^{n-k} f^{(k-1)}(0)
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 1.3 (UnIQUENESS THEOREM) Let $f, g:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two functions for which the Laplaceova transform exists. If

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

for each $p$ on common area of convergence, then $f(t)=g(t)$ for almost every $t \in[0, \infty)$.

### 1.2 Convex functions and Jensen's inequalities

Definitions and properties of convex functions and Jensen's inequality, with more details, could be found in monographs [61, 62, 67].

Let $I$ be an interval in $\mathbb{R}$.
Definition 1.1 A function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called convex if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f((1-\lambda) x+\lambda y) \leq(1-\lambda) f(x)+\lambda f(y) \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all points $x$ and $y$ in $I$ and all $\lambda \in[0,1]$. It is called strictly convex if the inequality (1.9) holds strictly whenever $x$ and $y$ are distinct points and $\lambda \in(0,1)$. If $-f$ is convex (respectively, strictly convex) then we say that $f$ is concave (respectively, strictly concave). If $f$ is both convex and concave, then $f$ is said to be affine.

Lemma 1.3 (The discrete case of Jensen's inequality) A real-valued function $f$ defined on an interval $I$ is convex if and only if for all $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ in I and all scalars $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ in $[0,1]$ with $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k}=1$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k} x_{k}\right) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k} f\left(x_{k}\right) \tag{1.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

The above inequality is strict if $f$ is strictly convex, all the points $x_{k}$ are distinct and all scalars $\lambda_{k}$ are positive.

Theorem 1.4 (JENSEN) Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then $f$ is convex if and only if $f$ is midpoint convex, that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \leq \frac{f(x)+f(y)}{2} \tag{1.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y \in I$.
Corollary 1.1 Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then $f$ is convex if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x+h)^{2}+f(x-h)-2 f(x) \geq 0 \tag{1.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in I$ and all $h>0$ such that both $x+h$ and $x-h$ are in $I$.
Proposition 1.1 (The operations with convex functions) (i) The addition of two convex functions (defined on the same interval) is a convex function; if one of them is strictly convex, then the sum is also strictly convex.
(ii) The multiplication of a (strictly) convex function with a positive scalar is also a (strictly) convex function.
(iii) The restriction of every (strictly) convex function to a subinterval of its domain is also a (strictly) convex function.
(iv) If $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a convex (respectively a strictly convex) function and $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a nondecreasing (respectively an increasing) convex function, then $g \circ f$ is convex (respectively strictly convex)
(v) Suppose that $f$ is a bijection between two intervals I and J. If $f$ is increasing, then $f$ is (strictly) convex if and only if $f^{-1}$ is (strictly) concave. If $f$ is a decreasing bijection, then $f$ and $f^{-1}$ are of the same type of convexity.

Definition 1.2 If $g$ is strictly monotonic, then $f$ is said to be (strictly) convex with respect to $g$ if $f \circ g^{-1}$ is (strictly) convex.

Proposition 1.2 If $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3} \in I$ are such that $x_{1}<x_{2}<x_{3}$, then the function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex if and only if the inequality

$$
\left(x_{3}-x_{2}\right) f\left(x_{1}\right)+\left(x_{1}-x_{3}\right) f\left(x_{2}\right)+\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right) f\left(x_{3}\right) \geq 0
$$

holds.
Proposition 1.3 If $f$ is a convex function on an interval I and if $x_{1} \leq y_{1}, x_{2} \leq y_{2}, x_{1} \neq x_{2}$, $y_{1} \neq y_{2}$, then the following inequality is valid

$$
\frac{f\left(x_{2}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)}{x_{2}-x_{1}} \leq \frac{f\left(y_{2}\right)-f\left(y_{1}\right)}{y_{2}-y_{1}}
$$

If the function $f$ is concave, then the inequality reverses.
The following theorems concern derivatives of convex functions.
Theorem 1.5 Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be convex. Then
(i) $f$ is Lipschitz on any closed interval in I;
(ii) $f_{+}^{\prime}$ and $f_{-}^{\prime}$ exist and are increasing in $I$, and $f_{-}^{\prime} \leq f_{+}^{\prime}$ (if $f$ is strictly convex, then these derivatives are strietly increasing);
(iii) $f^{\prime}$ exists, except possibly on a countable set, and on the complement of which it is continuous.

Proposition 1.4 Suppose that $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a twice differentiable function. Then
(i) $f$ is convex if and only if $f^{\prime \prime} \geq 0$;
(ii) $f$ is strictly convex if and only if $f^{\prime \prime} \geq 0$ and the set of points where $f^{\prime \prime}$ vanishes does not include intervals of positive length.

Next we need divided differences, commonly used when dealing with functions that have different degree of smoothness.

Definition 1.3 Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ and let $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in I$ be mutually different points. The $n$-th order divided difference of a function at $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$ is defined recursively by

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[x_{i} ; f\right] } & =f\left(x_{i}\right), \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n \\
{\left[x_{0}, x_{1} ; f\right] } & =\frac{\left[x_{0} ; f\right]-\left[x_{1} ; f\right]}{x_{0}-x_{1}}=\frac{f\left(x_{0}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)}{x_{0}-x_{1}}, \\
{\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2} ; f\right] } & =\frac{\left[x_{0}, x_{1} ; f\right]-\left[x_{1}, x_{2} ; f\right]}{x_{0}-x_{2}}  \tag{1.13}\\
\vdots & \\
{\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n} ; f\right] } & =\frac{\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1} ; f\right]-\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} ; f\right]}{x_{0}-x_{n}}
\end{align*}
$$

Remark 1.1 The value $\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2} ; f\right]$ is independent of the order of the points $x_{0}, x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$. This definition may be extended to include the case in which some or all the points coincide. Namely, taking the limit $x_{1} \rightarrow x_{0}$ in (1.13), we get

$$
\lim _{x_{1} \rightarrow x_{0}}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2} ; f\right]=\left[x_{0}, x_{0}, x_{2} ; f\right]=\frac{f\left(x_{0}\right)-f\left(x_{2}\right)-f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)\left(x_{0}-x_{2}\right)}{\left(x_{0}-x_{2}\right)^{2}}, x_{2} \neq x_{0}
$$

provided that $f^{\prime}$ exists, and furthermore, taking the limits $x_{i} \rightarrow x_{0}, i=1,2$ in (1.13), we get

$$
\lim _{x_{2} \rightarrow x_{0}} \lim _{x_{1} \rightarrow x_{0}}\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2} ; f\right]=\left[x_{0}, x_{0}, x_{0} ; f\right]=\frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{0}\right)}{2}
$$

provided that $f^{\prime \prime}$ exists.
Definition 1.4 A function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be $n$-convex ( $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ ) if for all choices of $n+1$ distinct points $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n} \in I$, the $n$-th order divided difference of $f$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n} ; f\right] \geq 0 \tag{1.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the 1-convex functions are the nondecreasing functions, while the 2 -convex functions are precisely the classical convex functions.
Definition 1.5 A function $f: I \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ is called log-convex if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f((1-\lambda) x+\lambda y) \leq f(x)^{1-\lambda} f(y)^{\lambda} \tag{1.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all points $x$ and $y$ in $I$ and all $\lambda \in[0,1]$.
If a function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is log-convex, then it is also convex, which is a consequence of the weighted AG-inequality.

We end this section with the integral form of Jensen's inequality.
Theorem 1.6 (Integral Jensen's inequality) Let $(\Omega, \mathscr{A}, \mu)$ be a finite measure space, $0<\mu(\Omega)<\infty$ and let $f: \Omega \rightarrow$ I be a $\mu$-integrable function. If $\varphi: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex function, then next inequality holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi\left(\frac{1}{\mu(\Omega)} \int_{\Omega} f d \mu\right) \leq \frac{1}{\mu(\Omega)} \int_{\Omega}(\varphi \circ f) d \mu \tag{1.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\varphi$ is strictly convex, then in (1.16) we have equality if and only $f$ is constant $\mu$-almost everywhere on $\Omega$.

### 1.3 Exponential convexity

Following definitions and properties of exponentially convex functions comes from [28], also [66]. Let $I$ be an interval in $\mathbb{R}$.

Definition 1.6 A function $\psi: I \nrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is n-exponentially convex in the Jensen sense on $I$ if

$$
\sum_{i, j=1}^{n} \xi_{i} \xi_{j} \psi\left(\frac{x_{i}+x_{j}}{2}\right) \geq 0
$$

holds for all choices $\xi_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x_{i} \in I, i=1, \ldots, n$.
A function $\psi: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is n-exponentially convex if it is $n$-exponentially convex in the Jensen sense and continuous on I.

Remark 1.2 It is clear from the definition that 1 -exponentially convex functions in the Jensen sense are in fact nonnegative functions. Also, $n$-exponentially convex functions in the Jensen sense are $k$-exponentially convex in the Jensen sense for every $k \in \mathbb{N}, k \leq n$.

By definition of positive semi-definite matrices and some basic linear algebra we have the following proposition.

Proposition 1.5 If $\psi$ is an n-exponentially convex in the Jensen sense, then the matrix $\left[\psi\left(\frac{x_{i}+x_{j}}{2}\right)\right]_{i, j=1}^{k}$ is a positive semi-definite matrix for all $k \in \mathbb{N}, k \leq n$. Particularly, $\operatorname{det}\left[\psi\left(\frac{x_{i}+x_{j}}{2}\right)\right]_{i, j=1}^{k} \geq 0$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}, k \leq n$.

Definition 1.7 A function $\psi: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is exponentially convex in the Jensen sense on I if it is $n$-exponentially convex in the Jensen sense for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

A function $\psi: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is exponentially convex if it is exponentially convex in the Jensen sense and continuous.

Remark 1.3 It is known (and easy to show) that $\psi: I \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ is log-convex in the Jensen sense if and only if

$$
\alpha^{2} \psi(x)+2 \alpha \beta \psi\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right)+\beta^{2} \psi(y) \geq 0
$$

holds for every $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y \in I$. It follows that a function is log-convex in the Jensen sense if and only if it is 2 -exponentially convex in the Jensen sense.

Also, using basic convexity theory it follows that a function is log-convex if and only if it is $2-$ exponentially convex.

One of the main features of exponentially convex functions is its integral representation given by Bernstein ([32]) in the following theorem.
Theorem 1.7 The function $\psi: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is exponentially convex on $I$ if and only if

$$
\psi(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{t x} d \sigma(t), \quad x \in I
$$

for some non-decreasing function $\sigma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

### 1.4 Opial-type inequalities

In 1960. Opial published an inequality involving integrals of a function and its derivative, which now bear his name ([64]). Over the last five decades, an enormous amount of work has been done on Opial's inequality: several simplifications of the original proof, various extensions, generalizations and discrete analogues. More details can be found in the monograph by Agarwal and Pang [5] which is dedicated to the theory of Opial-type inequalities and its applications in theory of differential and difference equations. We observe Beesack's, Wirtinger's, Willett's, Godunova-Levin's, Rozanova's, Fink's, Agarwal-Pang's and Alzer's versions of Opial's inequality.
Theorem 1.8 (OPIAL'S INEQUALITY) Let $f \in C^{1}[0, h]$ be such that $f(0)=f(h)=0$ and $f(x)>0$ for $x \in(0, h)$. then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{h}\left|f(x) f^{\prime}(x)\right| d x \leq \frac{h}{4} \int_{0}^{h}\left[f^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2} d x \tag{1.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where constant $h / 4$ is the best possible.
The novelty of Opial's result is thus in establishing the best possible constant $h / 4$.
Example 1.4 It is easy to construct the function which satisfy equality in (1.17). For instance, let $f$ be defined by

$$
f(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
c x, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{h}{2} \\
c(h-x), & \frac{h}{2} \leq x \leq h
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $c>0$ is arbitrary constant. Although this function is not derivable in $t=h / 2$, it could be approximated by the function belonging to $C^{1}[0, h]$ that satisfy (1.17). Then constant $h / 4$ is the best possible.

Opial's inequality (1.17) holds even if function $f^{\prime}$ has discontinuity at $t=h / 2$, provided that $f$ is absolutely continuous on both of the subintervals $\left[0, \frac{h}{2}\right]$ and $\left[\frac{h}{2}, h\right]$, with $f(0)=f(h)=0$. Also, the positivity requirement of $f$ on $(0, h)$ is unnecessary, that is, next Beesack's inequality holds ([31]).

Theorem 1.9 (Beesack's inequality) Let $f \in A C[0, h]$ be such that $f(0)=0$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{h}\left|f(x) f^{\prime}(x)\right| d x \leq \frac{h}{2} \int_{0}^{h}\left[f^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2} d x \tag{1.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality in (1.18) holds if and only if $f(x)=c x$, where $c$ is a constant.
Theorem 1.10 (WIRTINGER'S INEQUALITY) Let $f:[0, h] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be such that $f^{\prime} \in L_{2}[0, h]$. If $f(0)=f(h)=0$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{h}[f(x)]^{2} d x \leq\left(\frac{h}{\pi}\right)^{2} \int_{0}^{h}\left[f^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2} d x \tag{1.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality in (1.19) holds if and only if $f(x)=c \sin \frac{\pi x}{h}$, where $c$ is a constant.
Remark 1.4 A weaker form of Opial's inequality can be obtained by combining Cauchy-Schwarz-Buniakowski's inequality and Wirtinger's inequality:

$$
\int_{0}^{h}\left|f(x) f^{\prime}(x)\right| d x \leq\left(\int_{0}^{h}|f(x)|^{2} d x\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\int_{0}^{h}\left|f^{\prime}(x)\right|^{2} d x\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \frac{h}{\pi} \int_{0}^{h}\left[f^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2} d x
$$

Next inequality involving $x^{(n)}, n \geq 1$, is given by Willett [75] (see also [5, p. 128]).
Theorem 1.11 (WILLETT'S INEQUALITY) Let $x \in C^{n}[0, h]$ be such that $x^{(i)}(0)=0, i=$ $0, \ldots, n-1, n \geq 1$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{h}\left|x(t) x^{(n)}(t)\right| d t \leq \frac{h^{n}}{2} \int_{0}^{h}\left|x^{(n)}(t)\right|^{2} d t \tag{1.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

More generalizations and extensions of Willett's inequality are done by Boyd in [33].
Following generalization of Opial's inequality is due to Godunova and Levin [46] (see also [5, p. 74]).
Theorem 1.12 (GODUNOVA-LEVIN's INEQUALITY) Let $f$ be a convex and increasing function on $[0, \infty)$ with $f(0)=0$. Further, let $x$ be absolutely continuous on $[a, \tau]$ and $x(a)=0$. Then, the following inequality holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{\tau} f^{\prime}(|x(t)|)\left|x^{\prime}(t)\right| d t \leq f\left(\int_{a}^{\tau}\left|x^{\prime}(t)\right| d t\right) . \tag{1.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

An extension of the inequality (1.21) is embodied in the following inequality by Rozanova [69] (see also [5, p. 82]).

Theorem 1.13 (RoZANOVA'S INEQUALITY) Let $f, g$ be convex and increasing functions on $[0, \infty)$ with $f(0)=0$, and let $p(t) \geq 0, p^{\prime}(t)>0, t \in[a, \tau]$ with $p(a)=0$. Further, let $x$ be absolutely continuous on $[a, \tau]$ and $x(a)=0$. Then, the following inequality holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{\tau} p^{\prime}(t) g\left(\frac{\left|x^{\prime}(t)\right|}{p^{\prime}(t)}\right) f^{\prime}\left(p(t) g\left(\frac{|x(t)|}{p(t)}\right)\right) d t \leq f\left(\int_{a}^{\tau} p^{\prime}(t) g\left(\frac{\left|x^{\prime}(t)\right|}{p^{\prime}(t)}\right) d t\right) . \tag{1.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, equality holds in (1.22) for the function $x(t)=c p(t)$.

Remark 1.5 The condition in the two previous theorems that function $f$ is to be increasing is actually unneeded, and also, the condition $g \geq 0$ is missing in Theorem 1.13 (it can be easily seen from proofs of the theorems).

Among inequalities of Opial-type, there is a class of inequality involving higher order derivatives. First we have Fink's inequality ([45]).
Theorem 1.14 (FINK'S INEQUALITY) Let $q \geq 1, \frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{q}=1, n \geq 2$ and $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n-1$. Let $f \in A C^{n}[0, h]$ be such that $f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=\cdots=f^{(n-1)}(0)=0$ and $f^{(n)} \in L_{q}[0, h]$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{h}\left|f^{(i)}(x) f^{(j)}(x)\right| d x \leq C h^{2 n-i-j+1-\frac{2}{q}}\left(\int_{0}^{h}\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{q} d x\right)^{\frac{2}{q}} \tag{1.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C=C(n, i, j, q)$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
C=\left[2^{\frac{1}{q}}(n-i-1)!(n-j)![p(n-j)+1]^{\frac{1}{p}}[p(2 n-i-j-1)+2]^{\frac{1}{p}}\right]^{-1} \tag{1.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Inequality (1.23) is sharp for $j=i+1$, where equality in this case is achieved for $q>1$ and function $f$ such that

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{0}^{x}(x-t)^{n-1}(h-t)^{\frac{p}{q}(n-i-1)} d t
$$

Remark 1.6 Agarwal and Pang proved in [65] that Fink's inequality does not hold for $i=j$, and that is not necessary to assume that $f^{(k)}(0)=0$ for $k<i$.

Next inequality is due to Agarwal and Pang ([65]).
Theorem 1.15 (AgARWAL-PANG'S INEQUALITY) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f \in A C^{n}[0, h]$ be such that $f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=\cdots=f^{(n-1)}(0)=0$. Let $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ be positive, measurable functions on $[0, h]$. Let $r_{i}>0, i=0, \ldots, n-1$, and let $r=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r_{i}$. Let $s_{k}>1$ and $\frac{1}{s_{k}}+\frac{1}{s_{k}^{\prime}}=1$ for $k=1,2$, and $q \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $q>s_{2}$. Further, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
P & =\left(\int_{0}^{h}\left[w_{2}(x)\right]^{-\frac{s_{2}^{\prime}}{q}} d x\right)^{\frac{r}{s_{2}}}<\infty \\
Q & =\left(\int_{0}^{h}\left[w_{1}(x)\right]^{s_{1}^{\prime}} d x\right)^{\frac{1}{s_{1}}}<\infty
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{h} w_{1}(x) \prod_{i=0}^{n-1}\left|f^{(i)}(x)\right|^{r_{i}} d x \leq C h^{\rho+\frac{1}{s_{1}}}\left(\int_{0}^{h} w_{2}(x)\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{q} d x\right)^{\frac{r}{q}} \tag{1.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\rho=\sum_{i=0}^{n=1} 1 r_{i}+\sigma r, I=n-i-1, \sigma=\frac{1}{s_{2}}-\frac{1}{q}$, and $C=C\left(n,\left\{r_{i}\right\}, w_{1}, w_{2}, s_{1}, s_{2}, q\right)$ is given by

$$
C \leq Q P \prod_{i=0}^{n-1}(I!)^{-r_{i}}\left[\frac{I}{\sigma}+1\right]^{-r_{i} \sigma}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} I r_{i} s_{1}+\sigma r s_{1}+1\right]^{-\frac{1}{s_{1}}}
$$

provided that integral on the right side in (1.25) exists.

Alzer's inequalities are given in [10, 11], where second one includes higher order derivatives of two functions.

Theorem 1.16 (ALZER'S INEQUALITY 1) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f \in C^{n}[a, b]$ be such that $f(a)=$ $f^{\prime}(a)=\cdots=f^{(n-1)}(a)=0$. Let $w$ be continuous, positive, decreasing function on $[a, b]$. Let $r_{i} \geq 0, i=0, \ldots, n-1$, and $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r_{i}=1$. Let $p \geq 1, q>0$ and $\sigma=1 /(p+q)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b} w(x)\left(\prod_{i=0}^{n-1}\left|f^{(i)}(x)\right|^{r_{i}}\right)^{p}\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{q} d x \leq A_{1} \int_{a}^{b} w(x)\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{\mathrm{p}+q} d x \tag{1.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
A_{1}=\sigma q^{\sigma q}\left[n-\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i r_{i}\right]^{-\sigma p}(b-a)^{(n}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i r_{i}\right) p \prod_{i=0}^{n-1}\left[\left(\frac{1-\sigma}{n-i-\sigma}\right)^{1-\sigma} \frac{1}{(n-i-1)!}\right]^{r_{i} p} .
$$

Theorem 1.17 (ALZER'S INEQUALITY 2) Let $p \geq 0, q>0, r>1$ and $r>q$. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}_{0}, 0 \leq k \leq n-1$. Let $w_{1} \geq 0$ and $w_{2}>0$ be measurable functions on $[a, b]$. Further, let $f, g \in A C^{n}[a, b]$ be such that $f^{(i)}(a)=g^{(i)}(a)=0$ for $i=0, \ldots, n-1$ and let integrals $\int_{a}^{b} w_{2}(x)\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{r} d x$ and $\int_{a}^{b} w_{2}(x)\left|g^{(n)}(x)\right|^{r} d x$ exist. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \int_{a}^{b} w_{1}(x)\left[\left|g^{(k)}(x)\right|^{p}\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{q}+\left|f^{(k)}(x)\right|^{p}\left|g^{(n)}(x)\right|^{q}\right] d x \\
& \leq A_{2}\left(\int_{a}^{b} w_{2}(x)\left[\left|f^{(n)}(x)\right|^{r}+\left|g^{(n)}(x)\right|^{r}\right] d x\right)^{\frac{p+q}{r}} \tag{1.27}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{2}=\frac{2 M}{[(n-k-1)!]^{p}}\left[\frac{q}{2(p+q)}\right]^{\frac{q}{r}}\left[\int_{a}^{b}\left[w_{1}(x)\right]^{\frac{r}{r-q}}\left[w_{2}(x)\right]^{\frac{q}{q-r}}[s(x)]^{\frac{p(r-1)}{r-q}} d x\right]^{\frac{r-q}{r}}, \\
s(x)=\int_{a}^{x}(x-\mu)^{\frac{r(n-k-1)}{-1}}\left[w_{2}(u)\right]^{\frac{1}{1-r}} d u, \\
M=\left\{\begin{array}{r}
\left(1-2^{-\frac{p}{q}}\right)^{\frac{q}{r}}, p \geq q \\
2^{-\frac{p}{r}}, p \leq q .
\end{array}\right.
\end{gathered}
$$

