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# Little Bernstein Theorem: New Perspectives

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# Some context

## Bohr-Mollerup Theorem (1922)

The log-gamma function  $f = \ln \circ \Gamma$  is the unique convex solution vanishing at  $x = 1$  to the equation

$$f(x+1) - f(x) = \ln(x) \quad (x > 0).$$

This result can actually be slightly generalized as follows: *All eventually convex solutions to the equation  $\Delta f(x) = \ln x$  on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  are of the form  $f(x) = c + \ln \Gamma(x)$ , where  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

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## Theorem (Krull (1948)-Webster (1997))

For any eventually concave function  $g : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  having the asymptotic property that the sequence  $n \mapsto \Delta g(n)$  converges to zero, there exists exactly one (up to an additive constant) eventually convex solution  $f : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  to the equation  $\Delta f = g$ .

# Completely monotone functions

A real-valued function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined on an open interval  $I$ , is called *completely monotone* if it is infinitely differentiable and satisfies

$$(-1)^n f^{(n)}(x) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in I \text{ and all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

## Bernstein's little Theorem (1928)

Any completely monotone function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined on an open interval  $I$ , is real analytic. That is, for any point  $a \in I$ , there exists an open neighborhood  $U \subset I$  of  $a$  such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x - a)^k \quad (x \in U),$$

which means that  $f$  coincides with its Taylor series expansion about  $a$ .

# Completely monotone functions

## Bernstein's Theorem on monotone functions (1928)

A function  $f: \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is completely monotone if and only if it is representable as a Laplace type integral of the form

$$f(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-xt} d\mu(t) \quad (x > 0),$$

where  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue-Stieltjes measure induced by an increasing function from the interval  $[0, \infty)$  into itself.

A real-valued function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined on an open interval  $I$ , is called *absolutely monotone* if it is infinitely differentiable and satisfies

$$f^{(n)}(x) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in I \text{ and all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Remark that  $f$  is completely monotone on  $I$  if and only if the function  $x \mapsto f(-x)$  is absolutely monotone on the reflected interval  $-I = \{-x : x \in I\}$ .

# Bernstein's little Theorem

## Bernstein's little Theorem

Let  $I$  be a real open interval. Suppose that a function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is infinitely differentiable and that  $f^{(q)}$  is absolutely monotone for some  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $f$  is real analytic on  $I$ .

## Proof.

For any  $a, x \in I$  and any  $n \in \mathbb{N}^* = \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ , with  $n \geq q$ ,

$$f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k = \sum_{k=q}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k + R_n(x),$$

where

$$R_n(x) = \int_a^x \frac{f^{(n)}(t)}{(n-1)!} (x-t)^{n-1} dt = \frac{(x-a)^n}{(n-1)!} \int_0^1 f^{(n)}(a+s(x-a)) (1-s)^{n-1} ds.$$

Now, fix  $a \in I$  and let us prove that  $f$  is real analytic at  $a$ . To this extent, we fix  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $x \in I$  such that  $x \in (a-\varepsilon, a+\varepsilon) \subset I$ . Let also  $b \in I$  with  $x < b$  and  $|x-a| < b-a$ . Since  $f^{(n+1)} \geq 0$ , it follows that  $f^{(n)}$  is increasing on  $I$ .

## Continuation of the proof.

Therefore, we obtain the estimate

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \frac{|x-a|^n}{(n-1)!} \int_0^1 f^{(n)}(a+s(b-a)) (1-s)^{n-1} ds,$$

or equivalently,

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \left| \frac{x-a}{b-a} \right|^n R_n(b).$$

We obtain:

$$f(b) - \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (b-a)^k - R_n(b) \geq 0,$$

and hence

$$0 \leq |R_n(x)| \leq \left| \frac{x-a}{b-a} \right|^n \left( f(b) - \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (b-a)^k \right).$$

This shows that the sequence  $n \mapsto R_n(x)$  converges pointwise to zero for any  $x \in (a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$ , and hence the function  $f$  is real analytic at  $a$ . Since  $a$  was chosen arbitrary in  $I$ , we conclude that  $f$  is real analytic on the entire interval  $I$ .  $\square$

# Newton Series Representation

We say that a function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined on a right-unbounded open interval  $I$ , admits a Newton series expansion on  $I$  at a point  $a \in I$  if the following identity holds:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{x-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) \quad (x \in I).$$



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- ▶ When  $x - a$  is a nonnegative integer, the identity always holds, and the series clearly reduces to a finite sum.
- ▶ when  $x - a$  is not a nonnegative integer, the identity may fail for an arbitrary function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , even if  $f$  is real analytic: Take for instance  $f: x > 0 \mapsto \sin(\pi x)$  and  $a = 1$ .

# About Newton Series

## Proposition

Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function defined on a real right-unbounded open interval. Let also  $a, x \in I$ , and let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $x \in \{a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1\}$ , then

$$f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{x-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) = 0.$$

If  $x \notin \{a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1\}$  or if  $f$  is differentiable at  $x$ , then

$$f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{x-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) = (x-a)^n f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1, x].$$

## Proof.

$$(x-a)^{n+1} f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n, x] = (x-a)^n f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1, x] - (x-a)^n f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n].$$

□

# $p$ -convexity

## Definition

Let  $I$  be any real interval and let  $p \geq -1$  be an integer. A function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be  $p$ -convex (resp.  $p$ -concave) if for any system  $x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{p+1}$  of  $p+2$  points in  $I$  the following inequality holds:

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{p+1}] \geq 0 \quad (\text{resp. } f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{p+1}] \leq 0).$$

We denote by  $\mathcal{K}_1^p(I)$  (resp.  $\mathcal{K}_{-1}^p(I)$ ) the set of functions  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that are  $p$ -convex (resp.  $p$ -concave), and we introduce the notation

$$\mathcal{K}^p(I) = \mathcal{K}_1^p(I) \cup \mathcal{K}_{-1}^p(I).$$

- ▶  $\mathcal{K}^{p+1}(I) \subset \mathcal{C}^p(I)$  ( $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ),
- ▶ If  $f$  lies in  $\mathcal{K}_1^p(I)$ , where  $I$  is right-unbounded, then  $\Delta f$  lies in  $\mathcal{K}_1^{p-1}(I)$ ,
- ▶ If  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable, then  $f$  lies in  $\mathcal{K}_1^p(I)$  if and only if  $f'$  lies in  $\mathcal{K}_1^{p-1}(I)$ ,
- ▶ If  $f$  lies in  $\mathcal{C}^p(I) \cap \mathcal{K}_1^p(I)$ , then the map

$$(z_0, z_1, \dots, z_p) \mapsto f[z_0, z_1, \dots, z_p]$$

from  $I^{p+1}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  is continuous and increasing in each place.

# $p$ -convexity

A function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is completely monotone if and only if

$$f \in C^\infty(I) \quad \text{and} \quad (-1)^n f^{(n)} \in \mathcal{K}_1^{-1}(I) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

This latter condition exactly means that

$$f \in \mathcal{K}_{(-1)^n}^{n-1}(I) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Similarly, the function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is absolutely monotone if and only if

$$f \in \mathcal{K}_1^{n-1}(I) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N},$$

and it is regularly monotone if and only if

$$f \in \mathcal{K}^{n-1}(I) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

# Newton Series Representation for CM functions

## Theorem (L., Marichal, Zenaïdi)

Let  $I$  be a real right-unbounded open interval. Suppose that a function  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is infinitely differentiable and that  $f^{(q)}$  is completely monotone for some  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, for any  $a \in I$ , the function  $f$  admits the Newton series expansion:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{x-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) \quad (x \in I)$$

and the convergence of the series is uniform on compact subsets of  $I$ .

## Proof.

Let  $a, x \in I$  and let  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ , with  $n \geq q$ ,

$$f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \binom{x-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) = \sum_{k=q}^{n-1} \binom{x-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) + R_n(x), \quad (1)$$

where  $R_n(x) = (x-a)^n f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1, x]$ .

## Continuation of the proof.

Let also  $b \in I$ , with  $b < \min\{a, x\}$ . Using the latter observation, we immediately derive the following inequalities:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq |R_n(x)| &= |(x-a)^n| |f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1, x]| \\ &\leq |(x-a)^n| |f[a, a+1, \dots, a+n-1, b]| \\ &= \left| \frac{(x-a)^n}{(b-a)^n} \right| |R_n(b)|, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

and

$$0 \leq |R_n(x)| \leq \left| \frac{(x-a)^n}{(b-a)^n} \right| \left| f(b) - \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \binom{b-a}{k} \Delta^k f(a) \right|.$$

□

# Examples

- We can readily see that the restriction of the reciprocal function  $f(x) = 1/x$  to  $\mathbb{R}_+$  is completely monotone. It follows that this function has a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ . For any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and any  $a > 0$ ,

$$\Delta^k f(a) = (-1)^k \frac{k!}{a(a+1) \cdots (a+k)} = \frac{(-1)^k}{a \binom{a+k}{k}}.$$

Hence, for any  $a > 0$ , the reciprocal function admits the Newton series expansion:

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{\binom{x-a}{k}}{\binom{a+k}{k}}} \quad (x > 0).$$



# Examples

- The classical *binomial theorem* states that the identity

$$(c + 1)^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{x}{k} c^k \quad (x \in \mathbb{R}),$$

or equivalently,

$$(c + 1)^x = (c + 1)^a \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{x-a}{k} c^k \quad (a, x \in \mathbb{R}),$$

holds for  $-1 < c < 1$ . When  $c > 1$ , the latter series diverges by the ratio test (unless  $x - a$  is a nonnegative integer). This result shows that the exponential function

$$f(x) = (c + 1)^x \quad (c > -1, x \in \mathbb{R})$$

admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}$  at every  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  when  $-1 < c < 1$ , but not when  $c > 1$ . Moreover, we can easily see that this function is completely monotone if  $-1 < c \leq 0$ , and absolutely monotone if  $c \geq 0$ .

# Examples

Consider functions  $f_1, f_2, f_3$  defined by  $f_1(x) = e^{-x}$ ,  $f_2(x) = (e/2)^x$  and  $f_3(x) = e^x$ .

- ▶ The completely monotone function  $f_1$  admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}$  at every point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , as does the absolutely monotone function  $f_2$ .
- ▶ The absolutely monotone function  $f_3$  does not admit such expansions.

The function  $f_2$  demonstrates that a function admitting a Newton series expansion at every point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  need not be completely monotone. The function  $f_3$  illustrates that an absolutely monotone function need not admit a Newton series expansion. Together,  $f_1$  and  $f_3$  illustrate that, although the map  $x \mapsto -x$  preserves real analyticity, it does not, in general, preserve the existence of Newton series expansions.

# Applications to Principal Indefinite Sums

For any  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ , we also let  $\mathcal{D}^p$  denote the set of functions  $g: \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that the sequence  $n \mapsto \Delta^p g(n)$  converges to zero.

## Theorem (Marichal, Zenaïdi (2022))

If  $g$  lies in  $\mathcal{D}^p \cap \mathcal{K}^p$  for some  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ , then there exists a unique solution  $f \in \mathcal{K}^p$ , satisfying  $f(1) = 0$ , to the difference equation  $\Delta f = g$  on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  given by

$$f(x) = \Sigma g(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} g(k) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} g(x+k) + \sum_{j=1}^p \binom{x}{j} \Delta^{j-1} g(n) \quad (x > 0), \quad (3)$$

where  $f$  is  $p$ -convex (resp.  $p$ -concave) on any right-unbounded subinterval of  $\mathbb{R}_+$  on which  $g$  is  $p$ -concave (resp.  $p$ -convex). Furthermore, the convergence in (3) is uniform on any bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}_+$ .

If  $g(x) = \ln(x)$  and  $p = 1$ ,  $\Sigma \ln x = \ln \Gamma(x)$  and it provides the additive form of Gauss' well-known limit:

$$\ln \Gamma(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \ln k - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \ln(x+k) + x \ln n \right) \quad (x > 0).$$

# Applications to Principal Indefinite Sums

## Proposition (L., Marichal, Zenaïdi)

Let  $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $p < q$ , and let  $g: \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an infinitely differentiable function. Suppose that  $g^{(p)}$  eventually tends monotonically to zero, and that  $g^{(q)}$  is regularly monotone. Then, the following assertions hold:

- (a)  $g^{(n)}$  eventually tends monotonically to zero for every  $n \geq p$ .
- (b)  $g^{(q-1)}$  or  $-g^{(q-1)}$  is completely monotone.

Consequently,  $g$  is real analytic and admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ .

## Theorem (L., Marichal, Zenaïdi)

Under the assumptions of the previous Proposition, the function  $\Sigma g$  exists and is infinitely differentiable. Moreover, the following assertions hold:

- (a)  $(\Sigma g)^{(n)}$  eventually tends monotonically to zero for every  $n \geq p + 1$ .
- (b) Both  $g^{(q-1)}$  and  $(\Sigma g)^{(q)}$ , or their negatives, are completely monotone.

Consequently,  $\Sigma g$  is real analytic and admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ .

# Applications to Principal Indefinite Sums

## Corollary (L., Marichal, Zenaïdi)

Let  $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $p < q$ , let  $I$  be a fixed right-unbounded interval of  $\mathbb{R}_+$ , and let  $g: \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function such that  $g|_I$  is infinitely differentiable. Assume further that the following two conditions hold:

- (a)  $g|_I^{(p)}$  eventually tends monotonically to zero.
- (b)  $g|_I^{(q)}$  is regularly monotone.

Suppose also that  $g$  is real analytic (resp. admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ ). Then the function  $\Sigma g$  exists and is real analytic (resp. admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ ).

# Examples (Log-gamma Function)

Returning to the functions  $g(x) = \ln x$  and  $\Sigma g(x) = \ln \Gamma(x)$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}_+$ , it is straightforward to verify that the assumptions are satisfied with  $p = 1$ ,  $q = 2$ , and  $I = \mathbb{R}_+$ . It follows that the function  $\ln \Gamma(x)$  is real analytic and admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ . Taking  $a = 1$  for instance, we obtain the following Newton series expansion

$$\ln \Gamma(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{x-1}{k} (\Delta_t^{k-1} \ln t)|_{t=1} \quad (x > 0),$$

which was already studied by Hermite (1900) and also Graham (1994).

# Examples (Stern's Series)

The restriction of the function  $g(x) = 1/x$  to  $\mathbb{R}_+$  clearly satisfies the assumptions with  $p = 0$ , and hence the corresponding principal indefinite sum (up to an additive constant) is given by

$$\Sigma g(x) = -\frac{1}{x} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{x+k} \right) \quad (x > 0).$$

It follows that

$$\Sigma g(x) = H_{x-1} = \psi(x) + \gamma \quad (x > 0),$$

where  $x \mapsto H_x$  denotes the *harmonic number function*,  $\psi(x) = \Gamma'(x)/\Gamma(x)$  is the *digamma function*, and  $\gamma$  is *Euler's constant*.

The function  $g(x) = 1/x$  on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  also satisfies the assumptions with  $p = 0$ ,  $q = 1$ , and  $I = \mathbb{R}_+$ . It follows that  $\Sigma g(x)$  is real analytic and admits a Newton series expansion on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  at every point  $a > 0$ . Taking  $a = 1$  for instance, we obtain the following series representation

$$\Sigma g(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{x-1}{k} \Delta_x^{k-1} \frac{1}{x} \Big|_{x=1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{x-1}{k} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k} \quad (x > 0),$$

which is commonly referred to as *Stern's series*.

# Conclusions

Define

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{AM}_{\pm 1}^p(I) &= \{f \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(I) : \pm f^{(p+n)} \geq 0, \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}\}, \\ \mathrm{CM}_{\pm 1}^p(I) &= \{f \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(I) : \pm (-1)^n f^{(p+n)} \geq 0, \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}\}, \\ \mathrm{RM}^p(I) &= \{f \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(I) : f^{(p+n)} \geq 0 \text{ or } f^{(p+n)} \leq 0, \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}\}.\end{aligned}$$

Remark that

$$\mathrm{AM}_{\pm 1}^p(I) = \bigcap_{n \geq p} \mathcal{K}_{\pm 1}^{n-1}(I), \quad \mathrm{CM}_{\pm 1}^p(I) = \bigcap_{n \geq p} \mathcal{K}_{\pm (-1)^{n-p}}^{n-1}(I), \quad \mathrm{RM}^p(I) = \bigcap_{n \geq p} \mathcal{K}^{n-1}(I)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{K}_{\pm 1}^{n-1}(I) &= \bigcup_{p \geq 0} \mathrm{AM}_{\pm 1}^p(I) \subset \mathcal{C}^\omega(I), \\ \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{K}^{n-1}(I) &= \bigcup_{p \geq 0} \mathrm{RM}^p(I) \subset \mathcal{C}^\omega(I).\end{aligned}$$



# Conclusions

Suppose now that  $I$  is a right-unbounded open interval of  $\mathbb{R}_+$ . Then,

$$\mathcal{D}^p \cap \text{RM}^q(I) \subset \text{CM}_1^{q-1}(I) \cup \text{CM}_{-1}^{q-1}(I) \quad (p, q \in \mathbb{N}, p < q).$$

Let also  $\mathcal{N}(I)$  denote the class of functions  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that admit a Newton series expansion on  $I$  at every point  $a \in I$  so that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{K}_{\pm(-1)^n}^{n-1}(I) = \bigcup_{p \geq 0} \text{CM}_{\pm(-1)^p}^p(I) \subset \mathcal{N}(I) \subset \mathcal{C}^\omega(I),$$

We have also observed the following significant fact:

$$\text{RM}^0(I) \not\subset \bigcup_{a \in I} \mathcal{N}_a(I),$$

where, for any  $a \in I$ , the notation  $\mathcal{N}_a(I)$  stands for the class of functions  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that admit a Newton series expansion on  $I$  at  $a$ .

# References

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Thank you for your attention !