



# NEW BOUNDS FOR THE IDENTRIC MEAN OF TWO ARGUMENTS

OMRAN KOUBA

Department of Mathematics  
Higher Institute for Applied Sciences and Technology  
P.O. Box 31983, Damascus, Syria.  
EMail: [omran\\_kouba@hiast.edu.sy](mailto:omran_kouba@hiast.edu.sy)

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*Abstract:* Given two positive real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ , let  $A(x, y)$ ,  $G(x, y)$ , and  $I(x, y)$  denote their arithmetic mean, geometric mean, and identric mean, respectively. Also, let  $K_p(x, y) = \sqrt[p]{\frac{2}{3}A^p(x, y) + \frac{1}{3}G^p(x, y)}$  for  $p > 0$ . In this note we prove that  $K_p(x, y) < I(x, y)$  for all positive real numbers  $x \neq y$  if and only if  $p \leq 6/5$ , and that  $I(x, y) < K_p(x, y)$  for all positive real numbers  $x \neq y$  if and only if  $p \geq (\ln 3 - \ln 2)/(1 - \ln 2)$ . These results, complement and extend similar inequalities due to J. Sándor [2], J. Sándor and T. Trif [3], and H. Alzer and S.-L. Qiu [1].

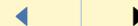
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## 1. Introduction

In this note we consider several means of two positive real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ . Recall that the arithmetic mean, the geometric mean and the identric mean are defined by  $A(x, y) = \frac{x+y}{2}$ ,  $G(x, y) = \sqrt{xy}$  and

$$I(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{e} \left( \frac{x^x}{y^y} \right)^{\frac{1}{x-y}} & \text{if } x \neq y \\ x & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$$

We also introduce the family  $(K_p(x, y))_{p>0}$  of means of  $x$  and  $y$ , defined by

$$K_p(x, y) = \sqrt[p]{\frac{2A^p(x, y) + G^p(x, y)}{3}}.$$

Using the fact that, for  $\alpha > 1$ , the function  $t \mapsto t^\alpha$  is strictly convex on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ , and that for  $x \neq y$  we have  $A(x, y) > G(x, y)$  we conclude that, for  $x \neq y$ , the function  $p \mapsto K_p(x, y)$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ .

In [3] it is proved that  $I(x, y) < K_2(x, y)$  for all positive real numbers  $x \neq y$ . Clearly this implies that  $I(x, y) < K_p(x, y)$  for  $p \geq 2$  and  $x \neq y$  which is the upper (and easy) inequality of Theorem 1.2 of [4].

On the other hand, J. Sándor proved in [2] that  $K_1(x, y) < I(x, y)$  for all positive real numbers  $x \neq y$ , and this implies that  $K_p(x, y) < I(x, y)$  for  $p \leq 1$  and  $x \neq y$ .

The aim of this note is to generalize the above-mentioned inequalities by determining exactly the sets

$$\mathcal{L} = \{p > 0 : \forall (x, y) \in D, K_p(x, y) < I(x, y)\}$$

$$\mathcal{U} = \{p > 0 : \forall (x, y) \in D, I(x, y) < K_p(x, y)\}$$

with  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}_+^* \times \mathbb{R}_+^* : x \neq y\}$ . Clearly,  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $\mathcal{U}$  are intervals since  $p \mapsto K_p(x, y)$  is increasing. And the stated results show that

$$(0, 1] \subset \mathcal{L} \subset (0, 2) \quad \text{and} \quad [2, +\infty) \subset \mathcal{U} \subset (1, +\infty).$$

The following theorem is the main result of this note.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{L}$  be as above, then  $\mathcal{L} = (0, p_0]$  and  $\mathcal{U} = [p_1, +\infty)$  with*

$$p_0 = \frac{6}{5} = 1.2 \quad \text{and} \quad p_1 = \frac{\ln 3 - \ln 2}{1 - \ln 2} \approx 1.3214.$$



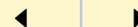
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## 2. Preliminaries

The following lemmas and corollary pave the way to the proof of Theorem 1.1.

**Lemma 2.1.** For  $1 < p < 2$ , let  $h$  be the function defined on the interval  $I = [1, +\infty)$  by

$$h(x) = \frac{(1-p+2x)x^{1-2/p}}{1+(2-p)x},$$

- (i) If  $p \leq \frac{6}{5}$  then  $h(x) < 1$  for all  $x > 1$ .
- (ii) If  $p > \frac{6}{5}$  then there exists  $x_0$  in  $(1, +\infty)$  such that  $h(x) > 1$  for  $1 < x < x_0$ , and  $h(x) < 1$  for  $x > x_0$ .

*Proof.* Clearly  $h(x) > 0$  for  $x \geq 1$ , so we will consider  $H = \ln(h)$ .

$$H(x) = \ln(1-p+2x) + \frac{p-2}{p} \ln x - \ln(1+(2-p)x).$$

Now, doing some algebra, we can reduce the derivative of  $H$  to the following form,

$$\begin{aligned} H'(x) &= \frac{2}{1-p+2x} - \frac{2-p}{px} - \frac{2-p}{1+(2-p)x} \\ &= -\frac{2(2-p)^2 Q(x)}{px(1-p+2x)(1+(2-p)x)}, \end{aligned}$$

with  $Q$  the second degree polynomial given by

$$Q(X) = X^2 - \frac{(p-1)(4-p)}{(2-p)^2} X - \frac{p-1}{4-2p}.$$



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The key remark here is that, since the product of the zeros of  $Q$  is negative,  $Q$  must have two real zeros; one of them (say  $z_-$ ) is negative, and the other (say  $z_+$ ) is positive. In order to compare  $z_+$  to 1, we evaluate  $Q(1)$  to find that,

$$Q(1) = 1 - \frac{(p-1)(4-p)}{(2-p)^2} - \frac{p-1}{4-2p} = \frac{(6-5p)(3-p)}{2(2-p)^2},$$

so we have two cases to consider:

- If  $p \leq \frac{6}{5}$ , then  $Q(1) \geq 0$ , so we must have  $z_+ \leq 1$ , and consequently  $Q(x) > 0$  for  $x > 1$ . Hence  $H'(x) < 0$  for  $x > 1$ , and  $H$  is decreasing on the interval  $I$ , but  $H(1) = 0$ , so that  $H(x) < 0$  for  $x > 1$ , which is equivalent to (i).
- If  $p > \frac{6}{5}$ , then  $Q(1) < 0$  so we must have  $1 < z_+$ , and consequently,  $Q(x) < 0$  for  $1 \leq x < z_+$  and  $Q(x) > 0$  for  $x > z_+$ . therefore  $H$  has the following table of variations:

$x$	1	$z_+$	$+\infty$
$H'(x)$	+	0	-
$H(x)$	0 ↗	∩	↘ $-\infty$

Hence, the equation  $H(x) = 0$  has a unique solution  $x_0$  which is greater than  $z_+$ , and  $H(x) > 0$  for  $1 < x < x_0$ , whereas  $H(x) < 0$  for  $x > x_0$ . This proves (ii).

The proof of Lemma 2.1 is now complete. □

**Lemma 2.2.** For  $1 < p < 2$ , let  $f_p$  be the function defined on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$  by

$$f_p(t) = \frac{t}{\tanh t} - 1 - \frac{1}{p} \ln \left( \frac{2 \cosh^p t + 1}{3} \right),$$



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(i) If  $p \leq \frac{6}{5}$  then  $f_p$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ .

(ii) If  $p > \frac{6}{5}$  then there exists  $t_p$  in  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$  such that  $f_p$  is decreasing on  $(0, t_p]$ , and increasing on  $[t_p, +\infty)$ .

*Proof.* First we note that

$$f_p'(t) = \frac{1}{\sinh^2 t} \left( \sinh t \cosh t - t - \frac{2 \sinh^3 t}{(2 + \cosh^{-p} t) \cosh t} \right),$$

so if we define the function  $g$  on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$  by

$$g(t) = \sinh t \cosh t - t - \frac{2 \sinh^3 t}{(2 + \cosh^{-p} t) \cosh t},$$

we find that

$$\begin{aligned} g'(t) &= 2 \sinh^2 t - \frac{6 \sinh^2 t}{2 + \cosh^{-p} t} + \frac{2 \sinh^4 t (2 + (1-p) \cosh^{-p} t)}{(2 + \cosh^{-p} t)^2 \cosh^2 t} \\ &= \frac{2 \tanh^2 t ((1 + (2-p) \cosh^p t) \cosh^2 t - (1-p + 2 \cosh^p t) \cosh^p t)}{(1 + 2 \cosh^p t)^2} \\ &= \frac{2 \sinh^2 t (1 + (2-p) \cosh^p t)}{(1 + 2 \cosh^p t)^2} \left( 1 - \frac{(1-p + 2 \cosh^p t) \cosh^p t}{(1 + (2-p) \cosh^p t) \cosh^2 t} \right) \\ &= \frac{2 \sinh^2 t (1 + (2-p) \cosh^p t)}{(1 + 2 \cosh^p t)^2} (1 - h(\cosh^p t)) \end{aligned}$$

where  $h$  is the function defined in Lemma 2.1. This allows us to conclude, as follows:

- If  $p \leq \frac{6}{5}$ , then using Lemma 2.1, we conclude that  $h(\cosh^p t) < 1$  for  $t > 0$ , so  $g'$  is positive on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ . Now, by the fact that  $g(0) = 0$  and that  $g$  is increasing



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on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$  we conclude that  $g(t)$  is positive for  $t > 0$ , therefore  $f_p$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ . This proves (i).

- If  $p > \frac{6}{5}$ , then using Lemma 2.1, and the fact that  $t \mapsto \cosh^p t$  defines an increasing bijection from  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$  onto  $(1, +\infty)$ , we conclude that  $g$  has the following table of variations:

$t$	0	$t_0$	$+\infty$
$g'(t)$	-	0	+
$g(t)$	0 ↘	↖	↗ $+\infty$

with  $t_0 = \arg \cosh \sqrt[p]{x_0}$ . Hence, the equation  $g(t) = 0$  has a unique positive solution  $t_p$ , and  $g(t) < 0$  for  $0 < t < t_p$ , whereas  $g(t) > 0$  for  $t > t_p$ , and (ii) follows.

This achieves the proof of Lemma 2.2. □

Now, using the fact that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} f_p(t) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f_p(t) = \ln \left( \frac{2}{e} \sqrt[p]{\frac{3}{2}} \right),$$

the following corollary follows.

**Corollary 2.3.** For  $1 < p < 2$ , let  $f_p$  be the function defined in Lemma 2.2.

- (i) If  $p \leq \frac{6}{5}$ , then  $f_p$  has the following table of variations:

$t$	0	$+\infty$
$f_p(t)$	0 ↗	$\ln \left( \frac{2}{e} \sqrt[p]{\frac{3}{2}} \right)$

(ii) If  $p > \frac{6}{5}$  then  $f_p$  has the following table of variations:

$t$	0				$+\infty$
$f_p(t)$	0	$\searrow$	$\smile$	$\nearrow$	$\ln\left(\frac{2}{e}\sqrt[p]{\frac{3}{2}}\right)$

In particular, for  $1 < p < 2$ , we have proved the following statements.

$$(2.1) \quad (\forall t > 0, f_p(t) > 0) \iff p \leq p_0,$$

$$(2.2) \quad (\forall t > 0, f_p(t) < 0) \iff \ln\left(\frac{2}{e}\sqrt[p]{\frac{3}{2}}\right) \leq 0 \iff p \geq p_1$$

where  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  are defined in the statement of Theorem 1.1.



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### 3. Proof of Theorem 1.1

*Proof.* In what follows, we use the notation of the preceding corollary.

- First, consider some  $p$  in  $\mathcal{L}$ , then for all  $(x, y)$  in  $D$  we have  $K_p(x, y) < I(x, y)$ . This implies that

$$\forall t > 0. \quad \ln(K_p(e^t, e^{-t})) < \ln(I(e^t, e^{-t})),$$

but  $I(e^t, e^{-t}) = \exp\left(\frac{t}{\tanh t} - 1\right)$  and  $A(e^t, e^{-t}) = \cosh t$ , so we have

$$\forall t > 0, \quad \frac{t}{\tanh t} - 1 - \frac{1}{p} \ln\left(\frac{2 \cosh^p t + 1}{3}\right) > 0,$$

Now, if  $p > 1$ , this proves that  $f_p(t) > 0$  for every positive  $t$ , so we deduce from (2.1) that  $p \leq p_0$ . Hence  $\mathcal{L} \subset (0, p_0]$ .

- Conversely, consider a pair  $(x, y)$  from  $D$ , and define  $t$  as  $\ln\left(\frac{\max(x, y)}{\sqrt{xy}}\right)$ . Now, using (2.1) we conclude that  $f_{p_0}(t) > 0$ , and this is equivalent to  $K_{p_0}(x, y) < I(x, y)$ . Therefore,  $p_0 \in \mathcal{L}$  and consequently  $(0, p_0] \subset \mathcal{L}$ . This achieves the proof of the first equality, that is  $\mathcal{L} = (0, p_0]$ .
- Second, consider some  $p$  in  $\mathcal{U}$ , then for all  $(x, y)$  in  $D$  we have  $I(x, y) < K_p(x, y)$ . This implies that

$$\forall t > 0, \quad \ln(K_p(e^t, e^{-t})) > \ln(I(e^t, e^{-t})),$$

so we have

$$\forall t > 0, \quad \frac{t}{\tanh t} - 1 - \frac{1}{p} \ln\left(\frac{2 \cosh^p t + 1}{3}\right) < 0,$$

Now, if  $p < 2$ , this proves that  $f_p(t) < 0$  for every positive  $t$ , so we deduce from (2.2) that  $p \geq p_1$ . Hence  $\mathcal{U} \subset [p_1, \infty)$ .

- Conversely, consider a pair  $(x, y)$  from  $D$ , and as before define  $t = \ln \left( \frac{\max(x,y)}{\sqrt{xy}} \right)$ . Now, using (2.2) we obtain  $f_{p_1}(t) < 0$ , and this is equivalent to  $I(x, y) < K_{p_1}(x, y)$ . Therefore,  $p_1 \in \mathcal{U}$  and consequently  $[p_1, \infty) \subset \mathcal{U}$ . This achieves the proof of the second equality, that is  $\mathcal{U} = [p_1, \infty)$ .

This concludes the proof of the main Theorem 1.1. □



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## 4. Remarks

*Remark 1.* The same approach, as in the proof of Theorem 1.1 can be used to prove that for  $\lambda \leq 2/3$  and  $p \leq \frac{3-\lambda-\sqrt{(1-\lambda)(3\lambda+1)}}{(1-\lambda)^2+1}$  we have

$$\sqrt[p]{\lambda A^p(x, y) + (1 - \lambda)G^p(x, y)} < I(x, y)$$

for all positive real numbers  $x \neq y$ . Similarly, we can also prove that for  $\lambda \geq 2/3$  and  $p \geq \frac{\ln \lambda}{\ln 2 - 1}$  we have

$$I(x, y) < \sqrt[p]{\lambda A^p(x, y) + (1 - \lambda)G^p(x, y)}.$$

for all positive real numbers  $x \neq y$ . We leave the details to the interested reader.

*Remark 2.* The inequality  $I(x, y) < \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}A^2(x, y) + \frac{1}{3}G^2(x, y)}$  was proved in [3] using power series. Another proof can be found in [4] using the Gauss quadrature formula. It can also be seen as a consequence of our main theorem. Here, we will show that this inequality can be proved elementarily as a consequence of Jensen's inequality.

Let us recall that  $\ln(I(x, y))$  can be expressed as follows

$$\ln(I(x, y)) = \int_0^1 \ln(tx + (1 - t)y) dt = \int_0^1 \ln((1 - t)x + ty) dt.$$

Therefore,

$$2 \ln(I(x, y)) = \int_0^1 \ln((tx + (1 - t)y)((1 - t)x + ty)) dt,$$

but

$$(tx + (1 - t)y)((1 - t)x + ty) = (1 - (2t - 1)^2)A^2(x, y) + (2t - 1)^2G^2(x, y),$$



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so that, by  $u \leftarrow 2t - 1$ , we obtain,

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \ln(I(x, y)) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \ln((1 - u^2)A^2(x, y) + u^2G^2(x, y)) du \\ &= \int_0^1 \ln((1 - u^2)A^2(x, y) + u^2G^2(x, y)) du. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$I^2(x, y) = \exp \left( \int_0^1 \ln((1 - u^2)A^2(x, y) + u^2G^2(x, y)) du \right)$$

Now, the function  $t \mapsto e^t$  is strictly convex, and the integrand is a continuous non-constant function when  $x \neq y$ , so using Jensen's inequality we obtain

$$I^2(x, y) < \int_0^1 \exp(\ln((1 - u^2)A^2(x, y) + u^2G^2(x, y))) du = \frac{2}{3}A^2(x, y) + \frac{1}{3}G^2(x, y).$$

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