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SOME APPLICATIONS OF THE GAUSS-LUCAS THEOREM 1)

par L. A. Rubel

The Gauss-Lucas Theorem, that the zeros of the derivative of a non-constant polynomial lie in the convex hull of the set of zeros of the polynomial, is a surprisingly powerful and versatile tool in classical analysis, despite its simplicity. To illustrate this point, we prove several results, using the Gauss-Lucas Theorem as our principal tool. To begin with, we present a short proof of the Gauss-Lucas Theorem. As applications, we first give a new lower bound on the largest modulus of the zeros of a polynomial, in terms of the coefficients of the polynomial. Next, we strengthen slightly a result of Edrei [2] on the zeros of the partial sums of a power series. Finally, we reformulate a method of Fejér, and use it to strengthen some classical results on lacunary polynomials and entire functions with lacunary power series.

The Gauss-Lucas Theorem. The zeros of the derivative of a non-constant polynomial P lie in the convex hull of the set of zeros of P.

Proof. It is enough to prove that any open half-plane that contains the zeros of P contains the zeros of P'/P. Without loss of generality, we may suppose that all the zeros of P lie in the open right half-plane. Writing.

$$P(z) = a \prod (z - z_n),$$

with $z_n = x_n + iy_n$, $x_n > 0$, we have

$$P'(z)/P(z) = \sum (z-z_n)^{-1}$$
,

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so that

$$Re(P'(z)/P(z)) = \sum (x-x_n)|z-z_n|^{-2}$$
.

Hence, if x < 0, then Re(P'(z)/P(z)) < 0, and P'/P consequently has no zeros in the open left half-plane.

THEOREM. If $P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + ... + a_n z^n$, $a_n \neq 0$, then P has a zero of modulus at least

$$\max_{0 \le v \le n-1} \left\{ \binom{n}{v}^{-1} \mid \frac{a_{n-v}}{a_n} \mid \right\}^{1/v},$$

Proof. First, considering the v-th derivative of P,

$$P^{(v)}(z) = \sum_{k=v}^{n} a_k \frac{k!}{(k-v)!} z^{k-v} ,$$

we see that the product of the zeros of $P^{(v)}$ is

$$\pm \frac{a_{\nu}}{a_{n}} \frac{\nu ! (n-\nu) !}{n !},$$

so that $P^{(v)}$ must have a zero of modulus at least

$$\left|\frac{a_{\nu}}{a_{n}}\frac{\nu!(n-\nu)!}{n!}\right|^{1/(n-\nu)},$$

since there are n-v roots. But by the Gauss-Lucas Theorem, the modulus of the largest root of P cannot be smaller than this, and the result is proved on interchanging v and n-v.

COROLLARY. If $Q(z) = b_0 + b_1 z + ... + b_n z^n$, $b_0 \neq 0$, then Q has a zero of modulus at most

$$\min_{0 \leq v \leq n-1} \left\{ \binom{n}{v} \mid \frac{b_0}{b_v} \mid \right\}^{1/v}.$$

Proof. Apply the preceding theorem to $P(z) = z^n Q(1/z)$. The first part of the next result was proved, in a different way, by Edrei [2].

THEOREM. Suppose that the formal power series, not a polynomial,

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots, \quad a_0 \neq 0,$$

has the property that for infinitely many n, there is a closed half-plane T_n that contains the origin and that contains all the zeros of the partial sum $S_n(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + ... + a_n z^n$. Then no two consecutive coefficients of f(z) may vanish. If one coefficient vanishes, then there is a line through the origin that contains all the zeros of all the partial sums.

Proof. Suppose, by way of contradiction, that two consecutive coefficients of f do vanish. They are contained in a block of zero coefficients, flanked left and right by non-zero coefficients, say a_p and a_q , respectively. Choose $n \ge q$, and differentiate S_n successively p times, to get $S_n^* = S_n^{(p)}$,

$$S_n^*(z) = a_p^* + a_q^* z^r + z^{r+1} R(z),$$

where $a_p^* \neq 0$, $a_q^* \neq 0$, r = q - p, R is a polynomial, and S_n^* has degree n - p. Now define S_n^{**} by $S_n^{**}(z) = z^{n-p} S_n^*(1/z)$, so that S_n^{**} is again a polynomial. Differentiate S_n^{**} successively m times, where m = n - q, to get a polynomial S_n^{***} ,

$$S_n^{***}(z) = a_q^{**} + a_p^{**} z^s,$$

where $a_q^{**} \neq 0$, $a_p^{**} \neq 0$, and $s = q - p \geq 3$. Now if S_n has all its zeros in a closed half-plane T_n that contains the origin, then repeated applications of the Gauss-Lucas Theorem show that S_n^* also has all its zeros in T_n . Then S_n^{**} has all its zeros in the closed half-plane $T_n^* = \{1/z : z \in T_n\} \cup \{0\}$. Again repeatedly applying the Gauss-Lucas Theorem, we see that S_n^{***} has all its zeros in T_n^* . But the zeros of S_n^{***} are just s-th roots of $-a_q^{**}/a_p^{**}$, and since $s \geq 3$, we have a contradiction.

In the sequel, the word « set » will denote subsets of the finite complex plane.

Definition. If P is a polynomial, then Z(P) denotes the set of zeros of P.

DEFINITION. If E is a finite set, then K(E) denotes the convex hull of E, and $K^*(E)$ denotes $K(E) \cup \{0\}$.

Definition. If E is a set, then 1/E denotes the set

$$1/E = \{ 1/z : z \in E, z \neq 0 \}$$
.

DEFINITION: If P is a polynomial,

$$P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + ... + a_n z^n, \quad n > 0,$$

then P# denotes the polynomial

$$P^{\#}(z) = \frac{1}{n} \left\{ a_0 + (a_0 + a_1 z) + \dots + (a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1}) \right\},\,$$

that is,

$$P^{\#}(z) = a_0 + \frac{n-1}{n} a_1 z + \frac{n-2}{n} a_2 z^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} a_{n-1} z^{n-1}.$$

In other words, $P^{\#}$ is just the arithmetic mean of the proper partial sums of P. The next result is latent in the paper of Fejér [3].

Theorem. If $a_0 \neq 0$ and $a_n \neq 0$, then

$$Z(P^{\#}) \subseteq \frac{1}{K\left(\frac{1}{Z(P)}\right)},$$

or equivalently,

$$K\left(\frac{1}{Z(P^{\#})}\right) \subseteq K\left(\frac{1}{Z(P)}\right).$$

Addendum. It will be clear from the proof that if $a_0 \neq 0$, then $Z(P^{\#}) \subseteq 1/K^* (1/Z(P))$. Further, $Z(P^{\#}) \subseteq \{0\} \cup 1/K (1/Z(P))$ if $a_n \neq 0$ and $P(z) \neq a_n z^n$. In any event, so long as $P(z) \neq a_n z^n$, $Z(P^{\#}) \subseteq \{0\} \cup 1/K^* (1/Z(P))$.

Proof. A straightforward computation shows that if

$$R(z) = z^n P\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) = a_n + a_{n-1} z + \dots + a_0 z^n.$$

and

$$Q(z) = \frac{d}{dz} R(z) = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2} z + \dots + na_0 z^{n-1},$$

then

$$P^{\#}(z) = \frac{1}{n} z^{n-1} Q \frac{1}{z} = a_0 + \frac{n-1}{n} a_1 z + \dots + \frac{1}{n} a_{n-1} z^{n-1}.$$

Hence.

$$Z(P^{\#}) \subseteq \frac{1}{Z(O)} \quad if \quad a_0 \neq 0 ,$$

while

$$Z(P^{\#}) \subseteq \{0\} \cup \frac{1}{Z(Q)} \quad \text{if} \quad a_0 = 0.$$

Since $R \neq \text{const.}$, we may apply the Gauss-Lucas Theorem to get

$$Z(Q) \subseteq K(Z(R))$$
.

Now

$$Z(R) \subseteq \frac{1}{Z(P)}$$
 if $a_n \neq 0$

while

$$Z(R) \subseteq \{0\} \cup \frac{1}{Z(P)} \quad \text{if} \quad a_n = 0.$$

Combining these results, the theorem is proved.

Corollary. If a disc with center at the origin is free of zeros of P, then it is free of zeros of $P^{\#}$.

COROLLARY. If $a_0 a_n \neq 0$ and if $P^{\#}$ has at least three zeros whose reciprocals are non-collinear, then so does P.

The first corollary is the basis of the proofs of the next results. These results are quite classical, except that the first is somewhat elaborated. THEOREM. Suppose that

$$P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z^{k_1} + a_2 z^{k_2} + \dots + a_n z^{k_n}$$

where $0 < k_1 < k_2 < ... < k_n$, and $a_j \neq 0$ for j = 0, 1, ..., n.

Let

$$A = \frac{a_0}{a_1} \frac{k_2}{k_2 - k_1} \frac{k_3}{k_3 - k_1} \dots \frac{k_n}{k_n - k_1}.$$

Then P has at least one zero in the disc

$$|z| \leq |A|^{-1/k_1}.$$

If $k_1 \ge 3$, then P must have at least two distinct zeros in this disc, and at least three distinct zeros whose reciprocals lie on or outside the regular polygon whose vertices are the k_1 -th roots of -1/A.

Proof. Apply the operation # repeatedly, taking into account the degrees of the resulting polynomials, to get the polynomial

$$P^*(z) = a_0 + \frac{k_2 - k_1}{k_2} \frac{k_3 - k_1}{k_3} \dots \frac{k_n - k_1}{k_n} a_1 z^{k_1}.$$

Applying the first corollary, we obtain the first part of the theorem, since the zeros of P^* are the roots of $z^{k_1} = -A$. The other parts follow from simple geometric considerations and the fact that

$$K\left(\frac{1}{Z(P^*)}\right) \subseteq K\left(\frac{1}{Z(P)}\right).$$

Theorem. Suppose that f is a transcendental entire function with power series expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^{n_k}, \quad a_k \neq 0 \quad \text{for} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

and suppose that

$$\sum_{n_k>0}\frac{1}{n_k}<\infty.$$

Then the range of f contains each complex number.

Proof. It is enough to prove that f has a zero, and we may clearly suppose that $n_0 = 0$. From the proceding result, we see that the n_k -th partial sum of the power series for f has a zero in the disc

$$|z| \le \left\langle \frac{|a_0|}{|a_1|} \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{n_1}{n_2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{n_1}{n_3}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{n_1}{n_k}\right)} \right\rangle^{1/n_k}$$

But since $\sum 1/n_k < \infty$, the product $\prod_{k=1}^{\infty} (1 - (n_1/n_k))$ converges, so that there is a fixed disc with center at the origin that contains a zero of the n_k -th partial sum for $k=2,3,4,\ldots$. It follows that $k=1,2,3,4,\ldots$ has a zero in this disc, and the result is proved.

It should be pointed out that Biernacki [1] proved, under the same hypotheses, and using a stronger form of the Gauss-Lucas Theorem, that f takes each complex value infinitely often. It is likely that our method can give a slight improvement of the preceding result, but not to the full strength of Biernacki's result. A recent result of G. and M. Weiss [5] gives a partial analogue for functions regular in the unit disc.

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