

ON A PROBLEM OF TURÁN ABOUT POLYNOMIALS III

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Let

$$T_n(x) = \cos n\theta,$$

$$U_n(x) = \frac{\sin (n+1)\theta}{\sin \theta},$$

where $x = \cos \theta$, denote the n th degree Chebyshev polynomials of the first and second kind, respectively. Further, let

$$Q_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\cos \{(2n+1)\theta/2\}}{\cos (\theta/2)},$$

$$R_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\sin \{(2n+1)\theta/2\}}{\cos (\theta/2)},$$

$$x = \cos \theta.$$

Given non-negative integers λ and μ we define

$$\nu(n) = n - \left(\left[\frac{\lambda+1}{2} \right] + \left[\frac{\mu+1}{2} \right] \right) + 1$$

and

$$(1) \quad P_{n,\lambda,\mu}(x) = \begin{cases} (1-x)^{\lambda/2}(1+x)^{\mu/2}T_{\nu(n)-1}(x) & \text{if } \lambda \text{ and } \mu \text{ are both even} \\ (1-x)^{(\lambda+1)/2}(1+x)^{(\mu+1)/2}U_{\nu(n)-1}(x) & \text{if } \lambda \text{ and } \mu \text{ are both odd} \\ (1-x)^{\lambda/2}(1+x)^{(\mu+1)/2}Q_{\nu(n)-1}(x) & \text{if } \lambda \text{ is even and } \mu \text{ is odd} \\ (1-x)^{(\lambda+1)/2}(1+x)^{\mu/2}R_{\nu(n)-1}(x) & \text{if } \lambda \text{ is odd and } \mu \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Let

$$(2) \quad x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_{\nu(n)}$$

be the roots of the equation

$$(3) \quad 1 - \frac{P_{n,\lambda,\mu}^2(x)}{(1-x)^\lambda(1+x)^\mu} = 0,$$

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and put

$$F(x) := (1 - x)^{[(\lambda+1)/2]} (1 + x)^{[(\mu+1)/2]} \prod_{l=1}^{r(n)} (x - x_l).$$

Now set

$$(4) \quad F_l(x) := F(x)/(x - x_l)$$

and denote by

$$\xi_1 \leq \xi_2 \leq \dots \leq \xi_{n-j}, \quad \eta_1 \leq \eta_2 \leq \dots \leq \eta_{n-j}$$

the roots of

$$F_{\nu(n)}^{(j)}(x) = 0, \quad F_1^{(j)}(x) = 0,$$

respectively. We have proved [4] that if $p_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n such that

$$(5) \quad |p_n(x)| \leq (1 - x)^{\lambda/2} (1 + x)^{\mu/2} \quad \text{for } -1 < x < 1,$$

then

$$(6) \quad |p_n^{(j)}(z)| \leq |P_{n,\lambda,\mu}^{(j)}(z)|$$

for all real values of z lying outside the interval (ξ_1, η_{n-j}) .

Here we shall show (see Theorem 1') that (6) holds everywhere outside the open disk D^0 with (ξ_1, η_{n-j}) as diameter, and that too under a weaker assumption. The idea of such an extension was suggested by a result of Erdős [2, Theorem 7].

The proof of our main result depends on the following

LEMMA. *Let*

$$-1 = y_0 < y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_N = 1$$

and set

$$\omega(x) := (1 + x)^{n_1} (1 - x)^{n_2} \prod_{m=0}^N (x - y_m)$$

where n_1, n_2 are non-negative integers. Further, let

$$\omega_m(x) := \omega(x)/(x - y_m), \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

If we put $n := N + n_1 + n_2$ and denote by

$$\alpha_{m,1} \leq \alpha_{m,2} \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{m,n-j}, \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N$$

the zeros of $\omega_m^{(j)}(x)$, then for all z lying outside the closed disk \bar{D} with $[\alpha_{N,1}, \alpha_{0,n-j}]$ as diameter, the angle between any two of the vectors $\omega_m^{(j)}(z)$ is less than $\pi/2$.

Proof. First we show that if $0 < h < k \leq N$, then the zeros of $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ and $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ interlace. To be precise

$$(7) \quad \alpha_{k,1} \leq \alpha_{h,1} \leq \alpha_{k,2} \leq \alpha_{h,2} \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{k,n-j} \leq \alpha_{h,n-j}.$$

If we set

$$\omega_{h,k}(x) := \omega_h(x)/(x - y_k) = \omega_k(x)/(x - y_h)$$

then by Leibnitz's rule

$$(8) \quad \omega_h^{(j)}(x) = (x - y_k)\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x) + j\omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(x).$$

Thus, if β is a zero of $\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x)$, then

$$(9) \quad \omega_h^{(j)}(\beta) = j\omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(\beta).$$

It follows from Rolle's theorem that the zeros of $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$, $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ and $\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x)$ lying in $(-1, 1)$ must all be simple.

Now we distinguish three different cases.

Case (i). $0 < h < k < N$. If $\beta_1 < \beta_2 < \dots < \beta_Q$ are the zeros of $\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x)$ in $(-1, 1)$ then from (9) it follows that in each of the intervals $(\beta_1, \beta_2), (\beta_2, \beta_3), \dots, (\beta_{Q-1}, \beta_Q)$ there is at least one zero of $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$. Further, for sufficiently small and positive values of ϵ

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(-1 + \epsilon) &= (-1)^{n-n_1-1} \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(\beta_1) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(\beta_1) = (-1)^{n-n_1-2} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{if } j \leq n_1 + 1,$$

whereas

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(-1 + \epsilon) &= (-1)^{n-j} \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(\beta_1) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(\beta_1) = (-1)^{n-j-1} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{if } j > n_1 + 1.$$

Hence $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ must also have a zero in $(-1, \beta_1)$. Again, for sufficiently small and positive values of ϵ

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(1 - \epsilon) &= (-1)^{n_2+1-j} \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(\beta_Q) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(\beta_Q) = (-1)^{n_2+2-j} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{if } j \leq n_2 + 1,$$

whereas

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(1 - \epsilon) &= +1 \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(\beta_Q) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(\beta_Q) = -1 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{if } j > n_2 + 1,$$

and so $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ must have a zero in $(\beta_Q, 1)$ as well.

Since $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ has exactly $Q + 1$ zeros in $(-1, 1)$ it must have one and only one zero in each of the intervals $(-1, \beta_1), (\beta_1, \beta_2), \dots, (\beta_{Q-1}, \beta_Q), (\beta_Q, 1)$. Thus, if $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_Q < \alpha_{Q+1}$ be the zeros of $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ in $(-1, 1)$, then

$$(10) \quad \alpha_1 < \beta_1 < \alpha_2 < \beta_2 < \dots < \alpha_Q < \beta_Q < \alpha_{Q+1}.$$

From (8) and

$$(8') \quad \omega_k^{(j)}(x) = (x - y_h)\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x) + j\omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(x)$$

it follows that

$$(11) \quad \omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_q) = (y_k - y_h)\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(\alpha_q), \quad q = 1, 2, \dots, Q + 1.$$

Hence, in view of (10), the sign of $\omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_q)$ alternates as q increases from 1 to $Q + 1$. Consequently, $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must vanish at least once in each of the intervals

$$(12) \quad (\alpha_1, \alpha_2), (\alpha_2, \alpha_3), \dots, (\alpha_Q, \alpha_{Q+1}).$$

Further, for sufficiently small and positive values of ϵ

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(-1 + \epsilon) &= (-1)^{n-n_1-1} \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_1) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(\alpha_1) = (-1)^{n-n_1-2} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{if } j \leq n_1 + 1,$$

whereas

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(-1 + \epsilon) &= (-1)^{n-j} \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_1) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(\alpha_1) = (-1)^{n-j-1} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{if } j > n_1 + 1.$$

Hence $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must have a zero in $(-1, \alpha_1)$ as well. Thus, if $\gamma_1 < \gamma_2 < \dots < \gamma_{Q+1}$ are the zeros of $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ in $(-1, 1)$, then

$$\gamma_1 < \alpha_1 < \gamma_2 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \gamma_Q < \alpha_Q < \gamma_{Q+1} < \alpha_{Q+1}.$$

At the point -1 the polynomials $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ and $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ have a zero of the same multiplicity $m_1 \geq 0$, where

$$m_1 = \begin{cases} n_1 + 1 - j & \text{if } j < n_1 + 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } j \geq n_1 + 1. \end{cases}$$

Similarly at $+1$, the polynomials $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ and $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ have a zero of the same multiplicity $m_2 \geq 0$, where

$$m_2 = \begin{cases} n_2 + 1 - j & \text{if } j < n_2 + 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } j \geq n_2 + 1. \end{cases}$$

With this we see that (7) does hold in the case $0 < h < k < N$.

Case (ii). $0 = h < k < N$. The above proof with very little modification shows that if $\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x)$ has Q zeros $\beta_1 < \beta_2 < \dots < \beta_Q$ in $(-1, 1)$, then $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ must have $Q + 1$ zeros $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_{Q+1}$ in $(-1, 1)$ such that (10) holds. Again, $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must vanish at least once in each of the intervals (12). Besides, it must have a zero of multiplicity $m_1 + 1$ at -1 if $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ has a zero of multiplicity $m_1 (\geq 1)$ there. But if $\omega_h^{(j)}(-1) \neq 0$ then $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must have a zero in $[-1, \alpha_1)$. This follows from the fact that

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(-\infty) &= (-1)^{n-j}, \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_1) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(\alpha_1) = (-1)^{n-j-1}. \end{aligned}$$

At the point $+1$ the polynomials $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ and $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ have a zero of the same multiplicity $m_2 \geq 0$. These observations show that (7) holds in this case also.

Case (iii). $0 = h < k = N$. Let $\beta_1 < \beta_2 < \dots < \beta_Q$ be the zeros of $\omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x)$ in $(-1, 1)$. As before it can be shown that $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ must vanish at least once in each of the intervals $(\beta_1, \beta_2), (\beta_2, \beta_3), \dots, (\beta_{Q-1}, \beta_Q)$ as well as in $(-1, \beta_1)$.

Now let $j \leq n_2$. Then at $+1$ the polynomials $\omega_h^{(j)}(x), \omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(x)$ have a zero of multiplicities $n_2 + 1 - j, n_2 - j \geq 0$ respectively, whereas at -1 they have a zero of the same multiplicity $m_1 (\geq 0)$. Hence $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ has precisely Q zeros $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_Q$ in $(-1, 1)$ which satisfy

$$(13) \quad \alpha_1 < \beta_1 < \alpha_2 < \beta_2 < \dots < \alpha_Q < \beta_Q.$$

In each of the intervals $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2), (\alpha_2, \alpha_3), \dots, (\alpha_{Q-1}, \alpha_Q)$ the polynomial $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must have at least one zero. Besides, it has a zero of multiplicity $m_1 + 1$ at -1 if $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ has a zero of multiplicity $m_1 \geq 1$ there. But if $\omega_h^{(j)}(-1) \neq 0$ then $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must have a zero in $[-1, \alpha_1)$ since

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(-\infty) &= (-1)^{n-j}, \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_1) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(\alpha_1) = (-1)^{n-j-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Further, in view of (13) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(\alpha_Q) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j)}(\alpha_Q) = (-1)^{n_2-j+1}, \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_k^{(j)}(1 - \epsilon) &= (-1)^{n_2-j} \text{ if } \epsilon > 0 \text{ is small,} \end{aligned}$$

and so $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ has at least one zero in $(\alpha_Q, 1)$ as well. Thus we see that (7) holds if $j \leq n_2$.

If $j \geq n_2 + 1$ then $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ must have a zero in $(\beta_Q, 1)$ since

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(\beta_Q) &= \operatorname{sgn} \omega_{h,k}^{(j-1)}(\beta_Q) = -1, \\ \operatorname{sgn} \omega_h^{(j)}(1 - \epsilon) &= +1 \text{ if } \epsilon > 0 \text{ is small.} \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ has $Q + 1$ zeros $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_{Q+1}$ in $(-1, 1)$ such that (10) holds.

In each of the intervals (12), $\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$ must have at least one zero. At -1 , it has a zero of multiplicity $m_1 + 1$ if $\omega_h^{(j)}(x)$ has a zero of multiplicity $m_1 \geq 1$ there, whereas if $\omega_h^{(j)}(-1) \neq 0$ then it ($\omega_k^{(j)}(x)$) must have a zero in $[-1, \alpha_1)$. Hence again (7) holds.

Having established (7) we are ready to proceed with the proof of the lemma.

Now consider any two of the vectors $\omega_m^{(j)}(z)$, say $\omega_h^{(j)}(z)$ and $\omega_k^{(j)}(z)$ where $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \bar{D}$. Without loss of generality we may assume $h < k$ so that (7) holds. If $\operatorname{Im} z \geq 0$ and the values of "arg" are all taken between 0 and

π , then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq \arg \{ \omega_h^{(j)}(z) / \omega_k^{(j)}(z) \} \\ &= \arg \{ (z - \alpha_{h,n-j}) / (z - \alpha_{k,1}) \} \\ &\quad - \sum_{\mu=2}^{n-j} \arg \{ (z - \alpha_{k,\mu}) / (z - \alpha_{h,\mu-1}) \} < \pi/2 \end{aligned}$$

since

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq \sum_{\mu=2}^{n-j} \arg \{ (z - \alpha_{k,\mu}) / (z - \alpha_{h,\mu-1}) \} \\ &\leq \arg \{ (z - \alpha_{h,n-j}) / (z - \alpha_{k,1}) \} < \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the lemma holds in the case when $\text{Im } z \geq 0$. The proof is similar if $\text{Im } z < 0$.

THEOREM 1. *Let*

$$-1 = y_0 < y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_N = 1,$$

and suppose that $P_n(z)$ is a polynomial of degree $n = N + n_1 + n_2$ having the following properties:

- (i) it has zeros of multiplicities n_1 and n_2 at y_0 and y_N respectively, where either or both of the numbers n_1 and n_2 may be zero,
- (ii) the polynomial

$$\hat{P}_n(z) := P_n(z) / \{ (1 + z)^{n_1} (1 - z)^{n_2} \}$$

has alternating signs at the points $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N$.

Further, let $\omega(x), \omega_m(x)$ and $\alpha_{m,\mu}$ be as in the lemma.

Now, if $p(z)$ is a polynomial of degree n with real coefficients having zeros of multiplicities $n_1^* (\geq n_1), n_2^* (\geq n_2)$ at $-1, +1$ respectively, and

$$(14) \quad |p(y_m)| \leq |P_n(y_m)|, \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

then for z lying outside the open disk Δ^0 with $(\alpha_{N,1}, \alpha_{0,n-j})$ as diameter, we have

$$(15) \quad |p^{(j)}(z)| \leq |P_n^{(j)}(z)|.$$

Proof. Let

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{p}(z) &:= p(z) / \{ (1 + z)^{n_1} (1 - z)^{n_2} \}, \\ \Omega(z) &:= \omega(z) / \{ (1 + z)^{n_1} (1 - z)^{n_2} \}. \end{aligned}$$

By Lagrange's interpolation formula

$$\hat{p}(z) = \sum_{m=0}^N \frac{\hat{p}(y_m)}{\Omega'(y_m)} \frac{\Omega(z)}{z - y_m}$$

and so

$$(16) \quad p(z) = \sum_{m=0}^N \frac{\hat{p}(y_m)}{\Omega'(y_m)} \omega_m(z).$$

Clearly

$$\Omega'(y_m) = (-1)^{N-m} |\Omega'(y_m)|, \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

Hence, differentiating the two sides of (16) j times, we obtain

$$(17) \quad p^{(j)}(z) = (-1)^N \sum_{m=0}^N \frac{(-1)^m \hat{p}^{(j)}(y_m)}{|\Omega'(y_m)|} \omega_m^{(j)}(z).$$

In particular,

$$(17') \quad |P_n^{(j)}(z)| = \left| \sum_{m=0}^N \frac{|\hat{P}_n(y_m)|}{|\Omega'(y_m)|} \omega_m^{(j)}(z) \right|$$

since by hypothesis, the numbers

$$(-1)^m \hat{P}_n(y_m), \quad m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N$$

are all of the same sign.

If z lies outside the closed disk $\bar{\Delta}$ with $[\alpha_{N,1}, \alpha_{0,n-j}]$ as diameter then, according to the lemma, the angle between any two of the vectors $\omega_m^{(j)}(z)$ is less than $\pi/2$, and so

$$|p^{(j)}(z)| = \left| \sum_{m=0}^N \frac{(-1)^m \hat{p}^{(j)}(y_m)}{|\Omega'(y_m)|} \omega_m^{(j)}(z) \right| \leq \left| \sum_{m=0}^N \frac{|\hat{p}^{(j)}(y_m)|}{|\Omega'(y_m)|} \omega_m^{(j)}(z) \right|$$

which, in conjunction with (14) and (17'), implies the desired inequality (15) for $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \bar{\Delta}$. By continuity, the inequality must also hold for $z \in \partial\Delta$.

The following result is an immediate consequence of Theorem 1.

THEOREM 1'. *Given non-negative integers λ and μ let $P_{n,\lambda,\mu}(x)$ and the points $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{\nu(n)}$ be as in (1) and (2) respectively. Further, let $F_l(x)$ be defined as in (4) and denote by ξ_1 the smallest zero of $F_{\nu(n)}^{(j)}(x)$ and by η_{n-j} the largest zero of $F_1^{(j)}(x)$. If $p_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n with real coefficients having a zero of multiplicity at least $[(\lambda + 1)/2]$ at 1 and of multiplicity at least $[(\mu + 1)/2]$ at -1 such that (5) holds, or more generally*

$$|p_n(x_l)| \leq |P_{n,\lambda,\mu}(x_l)|, \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, \nu(n)$$

then

$$(18) \quad |p_n^{(j)}(z)| \leq |P_{n,\lambda,\mu}^{(j)}(z)|$$

for all z lying outside the open disk D^0 with (ξ_1, η_{n-j}) as diameter.

The zeros of $P_{n,\lambda,\mu}^{(j)}(z)$ are symmetric with respect to the imaginary

axis and so for all $\rho > 0$

$$\max_{|z| \leq \rho} |P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}^{(j)}(z)| = |P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}^{(j)}(\pm i\rho)|.$$

Moreover, if $\lambda = \mu$ then $\xi_1 = -\eta_{n-j}$. Hence, as a corollary of Theorem 1' we obtain

COROLLARY 1. *Let $p_n(x)$ be a polynomial of degree n with real coefficients satisfying the hypotheses of Theorem 1' with $\lambda = \mu$. Then for all $\rho \geq \eta_{n-j}$*

$$\max_{|z| \leq \rho} |p_n^{(j)}(z)| \leq |P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}^{(j)}(\pm i\rho)|.$$

As another consequence of Theorem 1' we have

COROLLARY 2. *Let n be an odd integer. If $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ is a polynomial of degree n with real coefficients satisfying the hypotheses of Theorem 1' with $\lambda = \mu$ and $\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}$ is the dominating coefficient of the polynomial $P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x)$, then*

$$(19) \quad |a_n| + |a_0| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}|.$$

Proof. Since the polynomial $P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(z)$ is clearly odd it must be of the form

$$\gamma_{n,\lambda,1}z + \gamma_{n,\lambda,3}z^3 + \dots + \gamma_{n,\lambda,n}z^n.$$

According to Theorem 1'

$$(18') \quad |p_n(z)| \leq |P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(z)| \quad \text{for } |z| \geq 1,$$

and so for all $\zeta \in \mathbf{C}$ such that $|\zeta| > 1$ the polynomial

$$p_n(z) - \zeta P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(z) = a_0 + (a_1 - \zeta\gamma_{n,\lambda,1})z + a_2z^2 + \dots + (a_n - \zeta\gamma_{n,\lambda,n})z^n$$

must have all its zeros in $|z| < 1$. Consequently

$$(20) \quad |a_0| < |a_n - \zeta\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}| \quad \text{for } |\zeta| > 1.$$

This implies in particular that $|a_n| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}|$. So we can choose $\arg \zeta$ such that

$$|a_n - \zeta\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}| = |\zeta| |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}| - |a_n|.$$

Thus from (20) it follows that if $|\zeta| > 1$, then

$$|a_0| < |\zeta| |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}| - |a_n|$$

and so (19) must hold.

Remark 1. The example $P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x)$ shows that (19) does not hold if n is even (note that $|P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(0)| = 1$) but the above proof with a slight modification shows that in that case

$$(19') \quad |a_n| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n}| - (1 - |a_0|).$$

Inequalities (19), (19') not only generalize but also strengthen the classical inequality of Chebyshev [1, page 63 (see Problem 8 (e))].

Earlier [4] we had proved the following

THEOREM A. *Let*

$$P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \gamma_{n,\lambda,k} x^k = \begin{cases} (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2} T_{n-\lambda}(x) & \text{if } \lambda \text{ is even} \\ (1-x^2)^{(\lambda+1)/2} U_{n-\lambda-1}(x) & \text{if } \lambda \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

If $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ is a polynomial of degree at most n with real coefficients such that

$$(21) \quad |p_n(x)| \leq (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2}$$

for $-1 < x < 1$, then

$$(22) \quad |a_{n-2j}| + |a_{n-2j-1}| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n-1}{2} \right] \right).$$

It is natural to ask if (22) remains valid for polynomials with complex coefficients. The answer turns out to be negative. In fact, we shall prove that for every given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a polynomial

$$p_{n,\lambda}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_{\lambda,k} x^k$$

of degree n satisfying the conditions of Theorem A such that

$$(23) \quad |a_{\lambda,n-2j}| + \epsilon |a_{\lambda,n-2j-1}| > |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|.$$

It is clearly enough to prove (23) for all sufficiently small $\epsilon > 0$. Now let

$$p_{n,\lambda}(x) := \{P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x) + i\epsilon^2 P_{n-1,\lambda,\lambda}(x)\} / \sqrt{1+\epsilon^4} = \sum_{k=0}^n a_{\lambda,k} x^k.$$

Then clearly

$$|p_{n,\lambda}(x)| \leq (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2} \quad \text{for } -1 \leq x \leq 1.$$

Further

$$a_{\lambda,n-2j} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\epsilon^4}} \gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}, \quad a_{\lambda,n-2j-1} = \frac{i\epsilon^2}{\sqrt{1+\epsilon^4}} \gamma_{n-1,\lambda,n-2j-1}$$

and so

$$|a_{\lambda,n-2j}| + \epsilon |a_{\lambda,n-2j-1}| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\epsilon^4}} \{ |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}| + \epsilon^3 |\gamma_{n-1,\lambda,n-2j-1}| \} > |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|$$

if

$$\epsilon < 2|\gamma_{n-1,\lambda,n-2j-1}|/|\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|.$$

We take this opportunity to present a short proof of Theorem A. In fact, we shall prove the somewhat stronger

THEOREM A'. *Let $P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x)$ be as in Theorem A and denote by*

$$(24) \quad x_{n,1} < x_{n,2} < \dots < x_{n,n-2[(\lambda+1)/2]+1}$$

the roots of the equation

$$1 - \frac{P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}^2(x)}{(1-x^2)^\lambda} = 0.$$

Then for a polynomial $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ of degree at most n with real coefficients, inequality (22) holds even if (21) is satisfied only at the points $x_{n,l}$ of (24).

Proof. First we show that if (21) is satisfied at the points $x_{n,l}$, ($1 \leq l \leq n - 2[(\lambda + 1)/2] + 1$), then

$$(25) \quad |a_{n-2j}| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n}{2} \right] \right).$$

It is clear that for $-1 < \theta < 1$ the polynomial

$$h_1(x, \theta) := \begin{cases} P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x) - (\theta/2)\{p_n(x) + p_n(-x)\} & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ P_{n,\lambda,\lambda}(x) - (\theta/2)\{p_n(x) - p_n(-x)\} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \end{cases}$$

changes sign between two consecutive points $x_{n,l}$ and so must have at least $n - 2[(\lambda + 1)/2]$ zeros in $(-1, 1)$. Besides, it has a zero of multiplicity $[(\lambda + 1)/2]$ at each of the points $-1, +1$ and so all its zeros are real. The coefficients of x^{n-1}, x^{n-3}, \dots being all zero, none of the other coefficients can vanish; for then by Descartes' rule of signs, the zeros of $h_1(x, \theta)$ could not all be real. This is possible only if (25) holds.

The preceding argument is based on an idea of O. D. Kellogg [3].

Next we show that if (21) is satisfied at the points $x = x_{n-1,1}, x_{n-1,2}, \dots, x_{n-1,n-2[(\lambda+1)/2]}$, then

$$(26) \quad |a_{n-2j+1}| \leq |\gamma_{n-1,\lambda,n-2j+1}|, \quad \left(j = 1, 2, \dots, \left[\frac{n+1}{2} \right] \right).$$

In fact, all we have to do is to apply the above reasoning to the function

$$h_2(x, \theta) := \begin{cases} P_{n-1,\lambda,\lambda}(x) - (\theta/2)\{p_n(x) + p_n(-x)\} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ P_{n-1,\lambda,\lambda}(x) - (\theta/2)\{p_n(x) - p_n(-x)\} & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Now let us consider the polynomial

$$f(x) := \frac{1}{2}\{(1+x)p_n(x) + (1-x)p_n(-x)\} = \sum_{k=0}^m b_k x^k \quad (\text{say}).$$

Note that m is equal to n or $n + 1$ according as n is even or odd respec-

tively. In view of the fact that

$$\frac{1}{2}(|1+x| + |1-x|) \equiv 1 \quad \text{for } -1 < x < 1$$

we have

$$|f(x)| \leq (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2} \quad \text{for } x = x_{n,1}, x_{n,2}, \dots, x_{n,n-2[(\lambda+1)/2]+1}$$

and so from (25), (26) we obtain

$$(27) \quad |a_{n-2j} + a_{n-2j-1}| = |b_{-2j}| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n-1}{2} \right] \right).$$

On the other hand, considering

$$g(x) := \frac{1}{2}\{(1-x)p_n(x) + (1+x)p_n(-x)\}$$

we can prove in the same way that

$$(28) \quad |a_{n-2j} - a_{n-2j-1}| \leq |\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n-1}{2} \right] \right).$$

Inequalities (27) and (28) together give us the desired result.

We observe that, at least in the case of odd n , the conclusion of Theorem A' can be considerably strengthened if $p_n(x)$ happens to be non-negative at the points (24). In fact, we have

THEOREM A''. *Let n be odd. If the polynomial $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem A' and is, in addition, non-negative at the points $x_{n,i}$ of (24), then*

$$(29) \quad |a_{n-2j}| + |a_{n-2j-1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\gamma_{n,\lambda,n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n-1}{2} \right] \right).$$

In the case of even n we can prove

THEOREM A'''. *Let n be even. If $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ is a polynomial of degree n with real coefficients such that*

$$0 \leq p_n(x) \leq (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2}$$

at the points $x = x_{n-1,1}, x_{n-1,2}, \dots, x_{n-1,n-2[(\lambda+1)/2]}$, then

$$(30) \quad |a_{n-2j+1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\gamma_{n-1,\lambda,n-2j+1}|, \quad \left(j = 1, 2, \dots, \left[\frac{n+1}{2} \right] \right).$$

Proof of Theorems A'', A'''. First of all we observe that if $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m b_k x^k$ is a polynomial of degree m (even) with real coefficients such that

$$(31) \quad 0 \leq f(x) \leq (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2}$$

at the points $x = x_{m-1,1}, x_{m-1,2}, \dots, x_{m-1,m-2[(\lambda+1)/2]}$, then

$$|f(x) - f(-x)| \leq (1-x^2)^{\lambda/2}$$

at these points. Since $f(x) - f(-x)$ is a polynomial of degree $m - 1$ it follows from (26) that

$$(32) \quad |b_{m-2j+1}| \leq \frac{1}{2} |\gamma_{m-1, \lambda, m-2j+1}|, \quad \left(j = 1, 2, \dots, \left[\frac{m+1}{2} \right] \right),$$

which proves Theorem A''''.

Now if $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ is a polynomial of degree n (odd) satisfying the hypotheses of Theorem A'', then

$$f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \{ (1+x)p_n(x) + (1-x)p_n(-x) \}$$

is a polynomial of degree $n + 1$ (even) with real coefficients such that (31) is satisfied at the points $x = x_{n,1}, x_{n,2}, \dots, x_{n, n+1-2\lfloor(\lambda+1)/2\rfloor}$ and so according to (32) we must have

$$(33) \quad |a_{n-2j} + a_{n-2j-1}| \leq \frac{1}{2} |\gamma_{n, \lambda, n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n-1}{2} \right] \right).$$

On the other hand, considering

$$g(x) := \frac{1}{2} \{ (1-x)p_n(x) + (1+x)p_n(-x) \}$$

we can prove in the same way that

$$(34) \quad |a_{n-2j} - a_{n-2j-1}| \leq \frac{1}{2} |\gamma_{n, \lambda, n-2j}|, \quad \left(j = 0, 1, \dots, \left[\frac{n-1}{2} \right] \right),$$

and so Theorem A'' holds.

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