On the Modes of Polynomials Derived from Nondecreasing Sequences

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Abstract

Wang and Yeh proved that if P(x) is a polynomial with nonnegative and nondecreasing coefficients, then P(x + d) is unimodal for any d > 0. A mode of a unimodal polynomial $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_mx^m$ is an index k such that a_k is the maximum coefficient. Suppose that $M_*(P, d)$ is the smallest mode of P(x + d), and $M^*(P, d)$ the greatest mode. Wang and Yeh conjectured that if $d_2 > d_1 > 0$, then $M_*(P, d_1) \ge M_*(P, d_2)$ and $M^*(P, d_1) \ge M^*(P, d_2)$. We give a proof of this conjecture.

Keywords: unimodal polynomials, the smallest mode, the greatest mode.

1 Introduction

This paper is concerned with the modes of unimodal polynomials constructed from nonnegative and nondecreasing sequences. Recall that a sequence $\{a_i\}_{0 \le i \le m}$ is unimodal if there exists an index $0 \le k \le m$ such that

$$a_0 \leq \cdots \leq a_{k-1} \leq a_k \geq a_{k+1} \geq \cdots \geq a_m.$$

Such an index k is called a mode of the sequence. Note that a mode of a sequence may not be unique. The sequence $\{a_i\}_{0 \le i \le m}$ is said to be spiral if

$$a_m \le a_0 \le a_{m-1} \le a_1 \le \dots \le a_{\lceil \frac{m}{2} \rceil},\tag{1.1}$$

where $\left[\frac{m}{2}\right]$ stands for the largest integer not exceeding $\frac{m}{2}$. Clearly, the spiral property implies unimodality. We say that a sequence $\{a_i\}_{0 \le i \le m}$ is log-concave if for $1 \le k \le m-1$,

$$a_k^2 \ge a_{k+1}a_{k-1}$$

and it is ratio monotone if

$$\frac{a_m}{a_0} \le \frac{a_{m-1}}{a_1} \le \dots \le \frac{a_{m-i}}{a_i} \le \dots \le \frac{a_{m-[\frac{m-1}{2}]}}{a_{[\frac{m-1}{2}]}} \le 1$$
(1.2)

and

$$\frac{a_0}{a_{m-1}} \le \frac{a_1}{a_{m-2}} \le \dots \le \frac{a_{i-1}}{a_{m-i}} \le \dots \le \frac{a_{[\frac{m}{2}]-1}}{a_{m-[\frac{m}{2}]}} \le 1.$$
(1.3)

It is easily checked that ratio monotonicity implies both log-concavity and the spiral property.

Let $P(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_m x^m$ be a polynomial with nonnegative coefficients. We say that P(x) is unimodal if the sequence $\{a_i\}_{0 \le i \le m}$ is unimodal. A mode of $\{a_i\}_{0 \le i \le m}$ is also called a mode of P(x). Similarly, we say that P(x) is log-concave or ratio monotone if the sequence $\{a_i\}_{0 \le i \le m}$ is log-concave or ratio monotone.

Throughout this paper P(x) is assumed to be a polynomial with nonnegative and nondecreasing coefficients. Boros and Moll [2] proved that P(x + 1), as a polynomial of x, is unimodal. Alvarez et al. [1] showed that P(x + n) is also unimodal for any positive integer n, and conjectured that P(x + d) is unimodal for any d > 0. Wang and Yeh [6] confirmed this conjecture and studied the modes of P(x+d). Llamas and Martínez-Bernal [5] obtained the log-concavity of P(x+c) for $c \ge 1$. Chen, Yang and Zhou [4] showed that P(x + 1) is ratio monotone, which leads to an alternative proof of the ratio monotonicity of the Boros-Moll polynomials [3].

Let $M_*(P,d)$ and $M^*(P,d)$ denote the smallest and the greatest mode of P(x+d) respectively. Our main result is the following theorem, which was conjectured by Wang and Yeh [6].

Theorem 1.1 Suppose that P(x) is a monic polynomial of degree $m \ge 1$ with nonnegative and nondecreasing coefficients. Then for $0 < d_1 < d_2$, we have $M_*(P, d_1) \ge M_*(P, d_2)$ and $M^*(P, d_1) \ge M^*(P, d_2)$.

From now on, we further assume that P(x) is monic, that is $a_m = 1$. For $0 \le k \le m$, let

$$b_k(x) = \sum_{j=k}^m \binom{j}{k} a_j x^{j-k}.$$
(1.4)

Therefore, $b_k(x)$ is of degree m - k and $b_k(0) = a_k$. For $1 \le k \le m$, let

$$f_k(x) = b_{k-1}(x) - b_k(x), \tag{1.5}$$

which is of degree m - k + 1. Let $f_k^{(n)}(x)$ denote the *n*-th derivative of $f_k(x)$.

Our proof of Theorem 1.1 relies on the fact that $f_k(x)$ has at most one real zero on $(0, +\infty)$. In fact, the derivative $f_k^{(n)}(x)$ of order $n \le m - k$ has the same property. We establish this property by induction on n.

2 Proof of Theorem 1.1

To prove Theorem 1.1, we need the following three lemmas.

Lemma 2.1 For any $0 \le k \le m$, we have $b'_k(x) = (k+1)b_{k+1}(x)$.

Proof. Let $B_{j,k}(x)$ denote the summand of $b_k(x)$. It is readily checked that

$$B'_{j,k}(x) = (k+1)B_{j,k+1}(x).$$

The result immediately follows.

Lemma 2.2 For $n \ge 1$ and $1 \le k \le m$, we have

$$f_k^{(n)}(x) = (k+n-1)_n b_{k+n-1}(x) - (k+n)_n b_{k+n}(x),$$
(2.1)

where $(m)_j = m(m-1)\cdots(m-j+1)$.

Proof. Use induction on n. For n = 1, we have

$$f_k^{(n)}(x) = f_k'(x) = kb_k - (k+1)b_{k+1}.$$

Assume that the lemma holds for n = j, namely,

$$f_k^{(j)}(x) = (k+j-1)_j b_{k+j-1}(x) - (k+j)_j b_{k+j}(x).$$

Therefore,

$$f_k^{(j+1)}(x) = (k+j-1)_j b'_{k+j-1}(x) - (k+j)_j b'_{k+j}(x)$$

= $(k+j)(k+j-1)_j b_{k+j}(x) - (k+j+1)(k+j)_j b_{k+j+1}(x)$
= $(k+j)_{j+1} b_{k+j}(x) - (k+j+1)_{j+1} b_{k+j+1}(x).$

This completes the proof.

Lemma 2.3 For $1 \le k \le m$ and $0 \le n \le m-k$, the polynomial $f_k^{(n)}(x)$ has at most one real zero on the interval $(0, +\infty)$. In particular, $f_k(x)$ has at most one real zero on the interval $(0, +\infty)$.

Proof. Use induction on n from m-k to 0. First, we consider the case n = m-k. Recall that

$$f_k(x) = \sum_{j=k-1}^m \binom{j}{k-1} a_j x^{j-k+1} - \sum_{j=k}^m \binom{j}{k} a_j x^{j-k}.$$

Thus $f_k(x)$ is a polynomial of degree m - k + 1. Note that

$$f_k^{(m-k)}(x) = (m-k+1)! \binom{m}{k-1} a_m x + \left[\binom{m-1}{k-1} a_{m-1} - \binom{m}{k} a_m\right] (m-k)!.$$

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Clearly, $f_k^{(m-k)}(x)$ has at most one real zero x_0 on $(0, +\infty)$. So the lemma is true for n = m - k.

Suppose that the lemma holds for n = j, where $m - k \ge j \ge 1$. We proceed to show that $f_k^{(j-1)}(x)$ has at most one real zero on $(0, +\infty)$. From the inductive hypothesis it follows that $f_k^{(j)}(x)$ has at most one real zero on $(0, +\infty)$. In light of (2.1), it is easy to verify that $f_k^{(j)}(+\infty) > 0$ and

$$f_k^{(j)}(0) = (k+j-1)_j a_{k+j-1} - (k+j)_j a_{k+j} \le 0.$$

It follows that either the polynomial $f_k^{(j-1)}(x)$ is increasing on the entire interval $(0, +\infty)$, or there exists a positive real number r such that $f_k^{(j-1)}(x)$ is decreasing on (0, r] and increasing on $(r, +\infty)$. Again by (2.1) we find $f_k^{(j-1)}(+\infty) > 0$ and

$$f_k^{(j-1)}(0) = (k+j-2)_{j-1}a_{k+j-2} - (k+j-1)_{j-1}a_{k+j-1} \le 0.$$

So we conclude that $f_k^{(j-1)}(x)$ has at most one real zero on $(0, +\infty)$. This completes the proof.

Proof of Theorem 1.1. In view of (1.4), we have

$$P(x+d) = \sum_{k=0}^{m} a_k (x+d)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{m} b_k (d) x^k.$$

Let us first prove that $M^*(P, d_1) \ge M^*(P, d_2)$. Suppose that $M^*(P, d_1) = k$. If k = m, then the inequality $M^*(P, d_1) \ge M^*(P, d_2)$ holds. For the case $0 \le k < m$, it suffices to verify that $b_k(d_2) > b_{k+1}(d_2)$. By Lemma 2.2, $f_{k+1}(x)$ has at most one real zero on $(0, +\infty)$. Note that

$$f_{k+1}(0) \le 0$$
 and $f_{k+1}(+\infty) > 0$.

From $M^*(P, d_1) = k$ it follows that $b_k(d_1) > b_{k+1}(d_1)$, that is $f_{k+1}(d_1) > 0$. Therefore, $f_{k+1}(d_2) > 0$, that is, $b_k(d_2) > b_{k+1}(d_2)$.

Similarly, it can be seen that $M_*(P, d_1) \ge M_*(P, d_2)$. Suppose that $M_*(P, d_2) = k$. If k = 0, then we have $M_*(P, d_1) \ge M_*(P, d_2)$. If $0 < k \le m$, it is necessary to show that $b_{k-1}(d_1) < b_k(d_1)$. Again, by Lemma 2.2, we know that $f_k(x)$ has at most one real zero on $(0, +\infty)$. From $M_*(P, d_2) = k$, it follows that $b_{k-1}(d_2) < b_k(d_2)$, that is $f_k(d_2) < 0$. By the boundary conditions

$$f_k(0) \le 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f_k(+\infty) > 0,$$

we obtain $f_k(d_1) < 0$, that is $b_{k-1}(d_1) < b_k(d_1)$. This completes the proof.

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