

We can now recover the three classical inequalities cited in section 2 from the results of section 3 by taking the limit as  $\alpha \rightarrow -1^+$ . In fact, it is clear that the Fejér-Riesz inequality (Theorem 1) follows from Theorem 4, Proposition 8, and Fatou's lemma; Hardy's inequality (Theorem 2) is a consequence of Theorem 5, Proposition 8, and Fatou's lemma; and the Hardy-Littlewood inequality (Theorem 3) can be deduced from Theorem 6, Proposition 8, and Fatou's lemma.

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A Simple Proof of Descartes's Rule of Signs

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"Descartes' Rule of Signs is a staple of high school algebra, but a proof is seldom seen, even at the college level" [2]. A proof of the theorem is usually several pages long [2]. In this note we give a simple proof.

**Theorem (Descartes's Rule of Signs).** *Let  $p(x) = a_0x^{b_0} + a_1x^{b_1} + \cdots + a_nx^{b_n}$  denote a polynomial with nonzero real coefficients  $a_i$ , where the  $b_i$  are integers satisfying  $0 \leq b_0 < b_1 < b_2 < \cdots < b_n$ . Then the number of positive real zeros of  $p(x)$  (counted with multiplicities<sup>1</sup>) is either equal to the number of variations in sign in the sequence  $a_0, \dots, a_n$  of the coefficients or less than that by an even whole number. The number of negative zeros of  $p(x)$  (counted with multiplicities) is either equal to the number of variations in sign in the sequence of the coefficients of  $p(-x)$  or less than that by an even whole number.*

In the following we denote the number of variations in the signs of the sequence of the coefficients of  $p$  by  $v(p)$  and the number of positive zeros of  $p$  counting multiplicities by  $z(p)$ . We need the following simple lemma.

**Lemma.** *Let  $p(x) = a_0x^{b_0} + a_1x^{b_1} + \cdots + a_nx^{b_n}$  be a polynomial as in the theorem. If  $a_0a_n > 0$ , then  $z(p)$  is even; if  $a_0a_n < 0$ , then  $z(p)$  is odd.*

*Proof.* We consider only the case when  $a_0 > 0$  and  $a_n > 0$ . The other cases can be handled similarly. Because  $p(0) \geq 0$  and  $p(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , it is clear that the graph of  $p$  crosses the positive  $x$ -axis an even number of times, where we count crossings without regard to multiplicity. If  $x = a$  is a point at which the graph of  $p$  touches but does not cross the positive  $x$ -axis, then the multiplicity of  $a$  is even. If the graph

<sup>1</sup>The theorem would be false if the positive real roots were counted without multiplicity, as the example  $x^2 - 2x + 1$  shows.

of  $p$  crosses the positive  $x$ -axis at a multiple zero  $x = a$ , then  $x = a$  is a zero of odd multiplicity. Thus the multiple zeros contribute an additional even number to  $z(p)$ , whence  $z(p)$  is even. ■

*Proof of the theorem.* We need prove only the first part of the theorem. Without loss of generality we may assume that  $b_0 = 0$ . We argue by induction on  $n$ . It is obvious that for  $n = 1$ ,  $v(p) = z(p)$ . Assume that for  $n \leq k - 1$ ,  $v(p) \geq z(p)$  and  $z(p) \equiv v(p)(\text{mod } 2)$ , and consider the situation for  $n = k$ . We need to treat the following cases.

Case 1:  $a_0 a_1 > 0$ . In this instance  $v(p) = v(p')$ . By the lemma,  $z(p) \equiv z(p')(\text{mod } 2)$ . By the induction hypothesis,  $z(p') \equiv v(p')(\text{mod } 2)$  and  $z(p') \leq v(p')$ . Thus  $z(p) \equiv v(p)(\text{mod } 2)$ . An appeal to Rolle's theorem gives  $z(p') \geq z(p) - 1$ . It follows that

$$v(p) = v(p') \geq z(p') \geq z(p) - 1 > z(p) - 2,$$

so  $z(p) \leq v(p)$ .

Case 2:  $a_0 a_1 < 0$ . Here  $v(p') + 1 = v(p)$  and  $z(p) - z(p') \equiv 1(\text{mod } 2)$  in view of the lemma. By the induction hypothesis,  $z(p') \equiv v(p')(\text{mod } 2)$  and  $z(p') \leq v(p')$ . Again we infer that  $z(p) \equiv v(p)(\text{mod } 2)$ . By Rolle's theorem,  $z(p') \geq z(p) - 1$ . Thus  $v(p) = v(p') + 1 \geq z(p') + 1 \geq z(p)$ . ■

**Remark.** All steps of the foregoing proof remain valid if we drop the requirement that the  $b_i$  be nonnegative integers and instead allow them to be arbitrary real numbers (possibly negative) satisfying  $b_0 < b_1 < \cdots < b_n$ . As a result, the first part of the theorem can be generalized to polynomials with real exponents.

**Example.** Let  $p(t) = a_0 + a_1 e^{b_1 t} + a_2 e^{b_2 t}$ . Letting  $x = e^{b_1 t}$  yields  $p(t) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^{b_2/b_1} = Q(x)$ . Since  $Q$  has at most two positive zeros,  $p$  has at most two real zeros.

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