# LOCUS OF CRITICAL POINTS FOR SOME POLYNOMIALS 

Haotian Xie \& Zheng Yang<br>Sichuan University—Pittsburgh Institute


#### Abstract

Given a polynomial with complex coefficients, the celebrated Gauss-Lucas's theorem and Marden's theorem offer us insights into the geometry of the locus of its critical points. In the following paper, the authors explore the geometry under certain restrictions of the roots of the polynomials. In particular, the authors identify some regions where all critical points do not occur.


Keywords: complex polynomial, critical points

## Introduction

The locus of critical points of polynomials is an exciting field Frayer et al. (2014); Marden (1949) with numerous connections and physical interpretations. For instance, the zeros of a polynomial's derivative are the equilibrium points because of the mass on the roots in the Newtonian field Marden (1949).

Marden's theorem is one of the well-known results Kalman (2008b) relevant to the zero of the derivative of a polynomial. Inspired by Linfield (1920), the theorem reveals a connection between geometry and analysis-namely, that the critical points of the polynomial are the foci of the ellipse Kalman (2008a). A fundamental result, the so-called Gauss-Lucas theorem Lucas (1879), shows that the critical points lie in the convex hull of given polynomial roots. When the polynomials have more restricted forms, such as with real coefficients or their roots are remarkable, more precise results are available. In particular, the region of locus of the polynomial roots in the real polynomials case is smaller than the result of Gauss-Lucas theorem (Jensen, 1913; Marden, 1949; Sendov, 2014). It has been proved that every non-real zero of the derivative of a real polynomial $f(z)$ lies in or on at least one of the Jensen circles ${ }^{1}$ of $f(z)$. Jensen's theorem provides a method to restrict the real polynomial roots to get a smaller region of the roots' locations. In this paper, we investigate the loci of polynomials with roots that occur on individual curves.

Motivated by Dan Kalman's new proof Kalman (2008a) of Marden's theorem, works such as Aghekyan and Sahakyan (2013) and Frayer et al. (2014) focus on cubic polynomials with roots on the unit circle or certain lines. Frayer and others Frayer et al. (2014) have studied the movement of the critical points of a complex cubic polynomial when its roots move. In this article, Frayer et al. made use of the result that there is a circumcircle through any three non-collinear points $r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}$. In particular,

[^0]the authors explored the unit circle with $r_{3}=1$ and $\left|r_{1}\right|=\left|r_{2}\right|=1$ and found that critical points cannot occur in an open disk $\left\{z \in \mathbb{C}:\left|z-\frac{2}{3}\right|<\frac{1}{3}\right\}$. Relevant results are provided in Aghekyan and Sahakyan (2013).

This paper investigates the locus of critical points of polynomials with roots that occur on certain curves. We extend some results known for cubic polynomials (see Frayer et al. (2014)). We use GeoGebra, a dynamic graphing tool, to help visualize critical points based on the motion of the polynomial roots. In section one, we give explicit examples for quartic polynomials; in section two, we identify regions that critical points do not occur for polynomials of any degree.

## 1 Quartic Polynomials

In this section, we work exclusively with the quartic polynomials with complex coefficients. In this case, a critical point is defined to be a zero of the first derivative of the polynomial, which is a root of a cubic polynomial Larson (2012). We assume the polynomials are of the form as in Notation 1.1. In this case, the roots form a parallelogram on the complex plane, and $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ move on a circle with radius $t$, centered at $(0,0)$.

Notation 1.1. Let $\Lambda$ denote the family of complex quartic polynomials $q(z)$ such that

$$
q(z)=(z-1)(z+1)(z-r)(z+r)
$$

for $r \neq \pm i,|r|=t, t>0$ and $r \in \mathbb{C}$.
Remark. For $r= \pm i, q(z)=z^{4}-1$, and $q^{\prime}(z)=4 z^{3}$ cases, all of critical points are zero.
Theorem 1.2. For the polynomial defined as above, the loci of its nonzero critical points satisfy the equation $t>0$,

$$
\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{2}=\left(a^{2}-b^{2}\right)+\frac{t^{4}}{4}-\frac{1}{4} .
$$

Proof. Suppose $p(z) \in \Lambda$, with roots $\pm 1$ and $\pm r$, and let $c$ be the critical points of $p$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(z) & =(z-1)(z+1)(z-r)(z+r) \\
p^{\prime}(z) & =4 z^{3}-2\left(r^{2}+1\right) z
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
0=4 c^{3}-2\left(r^{2}+1\right) c .
$$

For $c \neq 0$, we have

$$
c^{2}=\frac{r^{2}+1}{2} .
$$

Let $c=a+b i, a, b \in \mathbb{R}, r=t \cos \theta+i t \sin \theta, \theta \in(0, \pi)$, then

$$
a^{2}+2 a b i-b^{2}=\frac{t^{2} \cos 2 \theta+1}{2}+\frac{t^{2} \sin 2 \theta}{2} i .
$$

Thus, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{2}-b^{2} & =\frac{t^{2} \cos 2 \theta+1}{2} \\
2 a b & =\frac{t^{2} \sin 2 \theta}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Compute $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{2}$ by these two equations and simplify it,

$$
\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{2}=\left(a^{2}-b^{2}\right)^{2}+4 a^{2} b^{2}=\frac{t^{2} \cos 2 \theta}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{t^{4}}{4}=\left(a^{2}-b^{2}\right)+\frac{t^{4}}{4}-\frac{1}{4}
$$

We obtain the desired equation $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{2}=\left(a^{2}-b^{2}\right)+\frac{t^{4}}{4}-\frac{1}{4}$.
Remark. A family of Cassini ovals is represented by the equation,

$$
\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}=2 \alpha^{2}\left(x^{2}-y^{2}\right)+\beta^{4}-\alpha^{4}
$$

with $\alpha=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \beta=\frac{t \sqrt{2}}{2}$ as $t$ varies. A Cassini oval is described by a point such that the product of its distances from two fixed points a distance of $2 \alpha$ apart is a constant $\beta^{2}(\alpha>0, \beta>0)$ (Weisstein, 2004). The shape of the curve depends on the value of $\beta$ and $\alpha$. If $\alpha<\beta$, the curve is a single loop with an oval or dog bone shape. If $\alpha>\beta$, then the curve consists of two loops. The case $\alpha=\beta$ produces a lemniscate. We illustrate with an example.

Example 1.3. Suppose $p(z) \in \Lambda$, with roots $\pm 1, \pm r$ and $t=1$. The locus of nonzero critical points $a+b i$ and $-a-b i$ of $p(z)$ is

$$
\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{2}=a^{2}-b^{2}
$$

which is a Lemniscate with $\alpha=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}=\beta$.
We used GeoGebra to generate the trace. Readers are encouraged to engage in our construction at https://www.geogebra.org/m/zhahcbs2. Note that right-clicking on a critical point and then selecting the Show trace option generates clear traces of the point (See Figure 1).

| Show Object |
| :--- |
| AA Show Label |
| Show trace |
| Rename |
| Delete |
| Settings |

Figure 1. Show trace option from pop-up menu.

In Figure 2, circle $u$ is the unit circle that the roots move on, and curve $L$ represents the loci of the critical points of $p(z)$.


Figure 2. Lemniscate with $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{2}=a^{2}-b^{2}$.

## 2 General Case

In this section, we set $p(z)=\left(z-z_{1}\right)\left(z-z_{2}\right) \cdots\left(z-z_{n}\right)$ and assume all $z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and $\left|z_{1}\right|=\left|z_{2}\right|=\ldots=\left|z_{n}\right|=1$. We are interested in the question: Where will the critical points occur as the complex polynomial roots move on the circle? Frayer and others in Frayer et al. (2014) prove that when $n=3$, the cubic complex polynomial has a disk $\left\{z \in \mathbb{C}:\left|z-\frac{2}{3}\right|<\frac{1}{3}\right\}$ that the critical points cannot occur in it. To extend their result to polynomials of higher degrees, we modify the open disk that are used to identify the "deserts" in Frayer et al. (2014).

Notation 2.1. Given $\alpha>0, z_{t}=e^{i \theta_{t}}, t=1,2, \ldots, n$. For each $t$, we denote by $D_{\alpha}^{z_{t}}$, the circle of diameter $\alpha$ that passes through $z_{t}$ and $z_{t}-\alpha z_{t}$. Namely,

$$
D_{\alpha}^{z_{t}}=\left\{z \in \mathbb{C}:\left|z-\left(e^{i \theta_{t}}-\frac{\alpha}{2} e^{i \theta_{t}}\right)\right|=\frac{\alpha}{2}\right\} .
$$

We first prove a lemma about the circle $D_{\alpha}^{z_{t}}$ (Notation 2.1) that will be used in the theorems below.
Remark. In Frayer et al. (2014), given $\alpha>0$, they denote by $T_{\alpha}$ the circle of diameter $\alpha$ that passes through 1 and $1-\alpha$ in the complex plane. That is,

$$
T_{\alpha}=\left\{z \in \mathbb{C}:\left|z-\left(1-\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)\right|=\frac{\alpha}{2}\right\}
$$

Lemma 2.2. Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|z|<1$. If $z \in D_{\alpha}^{z_{t}}$, then

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{e^{i \theta_{t}}}{z_{t}-z}\right)=\frac{1}{\alpha}
$$

Proof. Let $A=(1,0), O=(0,0),\left|z_{t}\right|=1,|z|<1, r=\left|z_{t}-z\right|$, and set $\angle A O z_{t}=\theta_{t}, \angle O z_{t} z=\omega$ in Figure 3. It follows that

$$
\frac{z_{t}-z}{e^{i \theta_{t}}}=r e^{-i \omega} .
$$

That is

$$
\frac{e^{i \theta_{t}}}{z_{t}-z}=\frac{1}{r} e^{i \omega} .
$$

Hence,

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{e^{i \theta_{t}}}{z_{t}-z}\right)=\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{1}{r} e^{i \omega}\right)=\frac{1}{r} \operatorname{Re}\left(e^{i \omega}\right)=\frac{\cos \omega}{r} .
$$

The result holds since $\cos \omega=\frac{r}{\alpha}$.


Figure 3. Relationship between the circle $D_{\alpha}^{z_{t}}$ and the point $z$.
By Gauss-Lucas theorem, the critical points of a polynomial lie in the convex hull of its roots. Since we assume all roots are on the unit circle, the critical points are also in the interior of the unit disk.

Notation 2.3. Let $\Omega$ denote the family of complex polynomials $w$,

$$
w(z)=\left(z-z_{1}\right)\left(z-z_{2}\right) \cdots\left(z-z_{n}\right)
$$

where $z_{i}=e^{i \theta_{i}}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, and $z_{i} \neq z_{j}$ for any $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.
Lemma 2.4. Let $p(z) \in \Omega$ and $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n-1}$ denote critical points of $p(z)$ and $c_{k} \in D_{\alpha_{k}}^{z_{t}}, 1 \leq k \leq$ $n-1$. Then

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_{k}}=n-1
$$

Proof. We may write $p^{\prime}(z)=C\left(z-c_{1}\right)\left(z-c_{2}\right) \ldots\left(z-c_{n-1}\right)$ for some $C \in \mathbb{C}$. Since $\left(\ln \left(p^{\prime}(z)\right)\right)^{\prime}=$ $\frac{p^{\prime \prime}(z)}{p^{\prime}(z)}$, and $\ln \left(p^{\prime}(z)\right)=\ln C+\ln \left(z-c_{1}\right)+\cdots+\ln \left(z-c_{n-1}\right)$, we have

$$
\frac{p^{\prime \prime}(z)}{p^{\prime}(z)}=\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{z-c_{k}}
$$

Put $z=z_{t}$,

$$
\frac{p^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}{p^{\prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}=\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{z_{t}-c_{k}}
$$

Note by our assumption and Notation 2.3, we have $p^{\prime}\left(z_{t}\right) \neq 0, z_{t} \neq z_{k}$ for any $k$.
Hence, we have

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{p^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}{p^{\prime}\left(z_{t}\right)} e^{i \theta_{t}}\right)=\operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{e^{i \theta_{t}}}{z_{t}-c_{k}}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_{k}}
$$

by Lemma 2.2.
On the other hand, write $p(z)=\left(z-z_{t}\right) g(z)$, we get $p^{\prime}(z)=\left(z-z_{t}\right) g^{\prime}(z)+g(z)$ and $p^{\prime \prime}(z)=$ $\left(z-z_{t}\right) g^{\prime \prime}(z)+2 g^{\prime}(z)$. So,

$$
\frac{p^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}{p^{\prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}=\frac{2 g^{\prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}{g\left(z_{t}\right)}=\left.2(\ln (g(z)))^{\prime}\right|_{z=z_{t}}=2 \sum_{m \neq t}^{n-1} \frac{1}{z_{t}-z_{m}}
$$

Again, by Lemma 2.2, we get

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{p^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{t}\right)}{p^{\prime}\left(z_{t}\right)} e^{i \theta_{t}}\right)=2 \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} \operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{e^{i \theta_{t}}}{z_{t}-z_{m}}\right)=2 \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2}=n-1
$$

Since both $z_{t}$ and $z_{m}$ are on the unit circle whose diameter is 2 , we use Lemma 2.2 to obtain the second equality.

Together, we get

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_{k}}=n-1
$$

Finally, we obtain:
Theorem 2.5. If $z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{k}, k \leq n$, are the roots of a complex polynomial $p(z) \in \Omega$, there are $k$ disks $D_{\alpha_{k}}^{z_{k}}$, in which critical points cannot occur no matter how remaining roots varied on the unit circle.

Proof. Let $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n-1}$ denote the critical points of $p(z)$, and $c_{k} \in D_{\alpha_{k}}^{z_{k}}$ for each $k$. By GaussLucas theorem, we know that for any $1 \leq k \leq n-1,\left|c_{k}\right|<1$, which means that $\frac{1}{\alpha_{k}} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ for each $k$. By Lemma 2.4, $\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_{k}}=n-1$. Then we find that

$$
n-1=\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\alpha_{k}}=\frac{1}{\alpha_{g}}+\sum_{k \neq g}^{n-2} \frac{1}{\alpha_{k}} \geq \frac{1}{\alpha_{g}}+(n-2) \frac{1}{2} .
$$

So that,

$$
\alpha_{g} \geq \frac{2}{n}
$$

This means that the diameter of the disk $D_{\alpha_{g}}^{z_{g}}$ which critical points occur on cannot be smaller than $\frac{2}{n}$. As a result, for all of the roots $r_{k}$, there is no critical point of $p(z)$ inside the disks $\{z \in \mathbb{C}: \mid z-$ $\left.\left.\left(z_{k}-\frac{z_{k}}{n}\right) \right\rvert\,<\frac{1}{n}\right\}$.

Remark. The theorem works out the critical points' locations of polynomial, which roots are concyclic. For critical points' locations in other polynomials cases, such as a polynomial with roots on an ellipse, we find that Lemma 2.2 cannot be used because roots are on an ellipse instead of the circle. It means that the way we use in this paper to derive Theorem 2.5 cannot be used.

Here is an example that illustrates Theorem 2.5.


Figure 4. Critical points on Disk

Example 2.6. Suppose the complex quartic polynomial

$$
p(z)=\left(z-z_{1}\right)\left(z-z_{2}\right)\left(z-z_{3}\right)\left(z-z_{4}\right) \in \Omega
$$

for $z_{1}=1, z_{2}=-1$, and $\left|z_{3}\right|=1=\left|z_{4}\right|$.
Because $z_{1}=1, z_{2}=-1$, and $n=4$, by Theorem 2.5, there are two disks $\left\{a \in \mathbb{C}:\left|a-\frac{3}{4}\right|<\frac{1}{4}\right\}$ and $\left\{b \in \mathbb{C}:\left|b+\frac{3}{4}\right|<\frac{1}{4}\right\}$ that the critical points of $p(z)$ will not occur wherever other two roots $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are (for $p(z) \in \Omega,\left|z_{1}\right|$ and $\left|z_{2}\right|$ should equal to 1 ).

In Figure 4a, points $e$ and $f$ are the roots $\pm 1$ of the complex quartic polynomial. The yellow disks $a$ and $b$ are $\left\{a \in \mathbb{C}:\left|a-\frac{3}{4}\right|<\frac{1}{4}\right\}$ and $\left\{b \in \mathbb{C}:\left|b+\frac{3}{4}\right|<\frac{1}{4}\right\}$ that the critical points cannot occur in them as other roots $z_{1}, z_{2}$ varied on the unit circle $u$. In GeoGebra, we can see these two disks directly by using the Show trace tool (Figure 4b). See https: //www. geogebra.org/classic/ ere 36 kg 4 for the construction. The orange, blue, and green parts are traces of three critical points.

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Haotian Xie is an undergraduate student in Mechanical Engineering at Sichuan University Pittsburgh Institute from 2019. Mr. Xie graduated from the affiliate high school of Peking University in 2019. He is interested in the geometry of polynomials since high school.


Zheng Yang is an assistant professor at Sichuan University Pittsburgh Institute since 2018. Dr. Yang received a Ph.D. in Mathematics from University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 2015. Between 2015 and 2018, he worked at Miami University of Ohio as a visiting assistant professor. Dr. Yang's research interests are in the field of commutative algebra. His recent research interests also include math education and data science.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Jensen circle is formed by using the line segment that joins the pair of imaginary conjugate roots of a real polynomial as its diameter.

