# On Certain Mean Values of Polynomials on the Unit Interval 

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For any continuous function $f:[-1,1] \mapsto \mathbb{C}$ and any $p \in(0, \infty)$, let $\|f\|_{p}:=$ $\left(2^{-1} \int_{-1}^{1}|f(x)|^{p} d x\right)^{1 / p}$; in addition, let $\|f\|_{\infty}:=\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}|f(x)|$. It is known that if $f$ is a polynomial of degree $n$, then for all $p>0$,

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leqslant C_{p} n^{2 / p}\|f\|_{p}
$$

where $C_{p}$ is a constant depending on $p$ but not on $n$. In this result of Nikolskiĭ (1951), which was independently obtained by Szegö and Zygmund (1954), the order of magnitude of the bound is the best possible. We obtain a sharp version of this inequality for polynomials not vanishing in the open unit disk. As an application we prove the following result. If $f$ is a real polynomial of degree $n$ such that $f(-1)=f(1)=0$ and $f(z) \neq 0$ in the open unit disk, then for $p>0$ the quantity $\left\|f^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} /\|f\|_{p}$ is maximized by polynomials of the form $c(1+x)^{n-1}(1-x)$, $c(1+x)(1-x)^{n-1}$, where $c \in \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$. This extends an inequality of Erdős (1940). © 1999 Academic Press

## 1. INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF RESULTS

For any continuous function $f:[-1,1] \mapsto \mathbb{C}$ and any $p \in(0, \infty)$ let

$$
\|f\|_{p}:=\left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1}|f(x)|^{p} d x\right)^{1 / p}
$$

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in addition, let

$$
\|f\|_{\infty}:=\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1}|f(x)|
$$

It is known (see $\left[7\right.$, Sect. 6.8]) that $\|f\|_{p}$ tends to the limit

$$
\exp \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \log |f(x)| d x\right)
$$

as $p \rightarrow 0$. This is exactly the value given to the functional $\|f\|_{p}$ when $p=0$.
It was proved by Erdős and Grünwald [5, Theorem III] that if $f$ is a polynomial having only real zeros and $-1,1$ as consecutive zeros, then $\|f\|_{1} \leqslant(2 / 3)\|f\|_{\infty}$. Considering the polynomial $1-x^{2}$ we see that the inequality is sharp. Mentioning $\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{n}$ as an example they remarked [5, p. 358] that the same ratio may assume values less than any preassigned number howsoever small. We may still ask for the precise lower bound for $\|f\|_{1} /\|f\|_{\infty}$ if the degree of $f$ does not exceed a fixed integer $n$. It turns out that this ratio is minimized by polynomials of the form $c(1+x)(1-x)^{n-1}$ and $c(1+x)^{n-1}(1-x)$, where $c \neq 0$. In fact, we shall consider the ratio $\|f\|_{p} /\|f\|_{\infty}$ for an arbitrary $p \geqslant 0$.

Let $\mathscr{F}_{n}$ be the class of all polynomials of degree at most $n$. We say that $f \in \mathscr{P}_{n}$ if
(i) $f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$;
(ii) $f(z) \neq 0$ for $|z|<1$;
(iii) $f(x)>0$ for $-1<x<1$.

Given $\mu \in\{0, \ldots,[n / 2]\}$, the set of all polynomials in $\mathscr{P}_{n}$ which have zeros of multiplicity at least $\mu$ at -1 and 1 will be denoted by $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$. Note that $\mathscr{P}_{n, 0}$ is the same as $\mathscr{P}_{n}$.

For $n \in \mathbb{N}, \mu \in\{0, \ldots,[n / 2]\}$ and $p \in[0, \infty)$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}:=\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}: f \in \mathscr{P}_{n, \mu},\|f\|_{\infty}=1\right\} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore for $k \in\{0, \ldots, n\}$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{n, k}(x):=(1+x)^{k}(1-x)^{n-k}, \quad q_{n, k, *}(x):=\frac{n^{n} q_{n, k}(x)}{2^{n} k^{k}(n-k)^{n-k}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\left\|q_{n, k, *}\right\|_{\infty}=1$.
We prove

Theorem 1. Let $f$ be a polynomial of degree at most $n$ with real coefficients and having no zeros in the open unit disk. Suppose, in addition, that
$f$ has zeros of multiplicity at least $\mu$ at -1 and 1 , where $0 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$. If $f$ is not a constant multiple of $q_{n, \mu}$ or of $q_{n, n-\mu}$, then

$$
\|f\|_{p}>\left\|q_{n, \mu, *}\right\|_{p}\|f\|_{\infty} \quad(0 \leqslant p<\infty)
$$

The analogue of the inequality of Nikolskiĭ, and Szegö and Zygmund, for polynomials not vanishing in $|z|<1$, is contained in the following simple consequence of Theorem 1.

Corollary 1. Let $f$ be a polynomial of degree at most $n$ having no zeros in the open unit disk but whose coefficients may be nonreal. Suppose, in addition, that $f(z):=\left(1-z^{2}\right)^{\mu} g(z)$, where $0 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$ and $g$ is a polynomial of degree at most $n-2 \mu$. Then for $0 \leqslant p<\infty$, we have

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leqslant \frac{\|f\|_{p}}{\left\|q_{n, \mu, *}\right\|_{p}}
$$

where equality holds only for constant multiples of $q_{n, \mu, *}$ and $q_{n, n-\mu, *}$.
Inequality (4) can also be written as
$\|f\|_{\infty} \leqslant \begin{cases}\frac{\mu^{\mu}(n-\mu)^{n-\mu}}{n^{n}}\left(\frac{\Gamma(p n+2)}{\Gamma(\mu p+1) \Gamma((n-\mu) p+1)}\right)^{1 / p}\|f\|_{p}, & 0<p<\infty \\ \frac{\mu^{\mu}(n-\mu)^{n-\mu}}{n^{n}} e^{n}\|f\|_{p}, & p=0,\end{cases}$
where $\mu$ is as in Corollary 1 .
Here is another consequence of Theorem 1.
Corollary 2. Let $f$ be a real polynomial of degree at most $n$, such that $f(-1)=f(1)=0$ and $f(z) \neq 0$ for $|z|<1$. If $f$ is not a constant multiple of $q_{n, 1}$ or of $q_{n, n-1}$, then

$$
\left\|f^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}<\frac{\left\|q_{n, 1}^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}}{\left\|q_{n, 1}\right\|_{p}}\|f\|_{p} \quad(0 \leqslant p<\infty) .
$$

This corollary is an extension of a result of Erdős [5, p. 310].

## 2. PROOF OF THEOREM 1

For the proof of Theorem 1, we shall assume that $f(x)>0$ for $-1<x$ $<1$ and $\|f\|_{\infty}=1$. We shall show that for each $\mu \in\{0, \ldots,[n / 2]\}$ and $0 \leqslant p<\infty$, the infimum $\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$ defined in (1) is attained only when $f$ is
$q_{n, \mu, *}$ or $q_{n, n-\mu, *}$. The proof of Theorem 1 is rather long, and so we shall present it as a sequence of lemmas and connecting paragraphs.

### 2.1. Preparatory Lemmas

Lemma 1. Given $n, \mu$, and $p$ as above, there exists a polynomial $F$ belonging to $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ with $\|F\|_{\infty}=1$ such that $\|F\|_{p}=\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$.

Proof. If $f(z):=\sum_{v=0}^{n} a_{v} z^{v}$ belongs to $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ and $\|f\|_{\infty}=1$, then

$$
\left|a_{v}\right| \leqslant\binom{ n}{v} \quad \text { for } \quad 0 \leqslant v \leqslant n .
$$

Indeed, $f(z)$ can be expressed as $a_{0} \prod_{v=1}^{n}\left(1-\zeta_{v} z\right)$, where $\left|\zeta_{v}\right| \leqslant 1$ for $1 \leqslant v \leqslant n$ and so

$$
\left|a_{v}\right| \leqslant a_{0}\binom{n}{v}=f(0)\binom{n}{v} \leqslant\binom{ n}{v} .
$$

Note in addition that

$$
1=\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1} f(x) \leqslant a_{0} \sum_{v=0}^{n}\binom{n}{v}=2^{n} a_{0} ;
$$

i.e.,

$$
a_{0} \geqslant 2^{-n} .
$$

For each positive integer $m$ there exists a polynomial

$$
h_{m}(z):=\sum_{v=0}^{n} a_{v, m} z^{v}
$$

belonging to $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ with $\left\|h_{m}\right\|_{\infty}=1$ such that

$$
\left\|h_{m}\right\|_{p}<\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}+m^{-1} .
$$

Since $\left|a_{v, m}\right| \leqslant\binom{ n}{v}$ for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 \leqslant v \leqslant n$, we can use a standard argument to select a subsequence $\left\{h_{m_{1}}, \ldots, h_{m_{k}}, \ldots\right\}$ of $\left\{h_{m}\right\}$ converging uniformly on any compact subset of $\mathbb{C}$ to a polynomial $F$ in $\mathscr{F}_{n}$. Since $h_{m}(0) \geqslant 2^{-n}$ for each $m$ we note that $F$ cannot be identically zero. Hence, by a well-known theorem of Hurwitz [1, p. 176], $F$ cannot have any zeros in $|z|<1$ although it must have zeros of multiplicity at least $\mu$ at -1 and 1 .

Hence, the limiting polynomial $F$ belongs to $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$. As regards the subsequence $h_{m_{1}}, \ldots, h_{m_{k}}, \ldots$, we could have assumed (by choosing a further subsequence if necessary) that if $\xi_{k}$ is the point of $[-1,1]$ where $h_{m_{k}}$ takes the value 1 , then $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{k}, \ldots$ tends to a point $\xi^{*}$. Using the mean value theorem and a well-known inequality of A. Markov, according to which $\left\|h^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} \leqslant n^{2}\|h\|_{\infty}$ for every polynomial $h$ of degree at most $n$, we conclude that $F\left(\xi^{*}\right)=1$. Thus, $\|F\|_{\infty}$ is equal to 1 since, obviously, it cannot be larger than 1 .

Lemma 2. If $F \in \mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ and $\|F\|_{p}=\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$, then the zeros of $F$ must be all real.

Proof. Let us suppose that

$$
F(z):=G(z)(z-a-i b)(z-a+i b),
$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, b \neq 0, a^{2}+b^{2} \geqslant 1$. Let $\xi$ be a point in $[-1,1]$ where $F$ assumes the value 1 and consider the polynomial

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(\varepsilon ; z) & :=F(z)-\varepsilon G(z)(z-\xi)^{2} \\
& =G(z)\left\{(1-\varepsilon) z^{2}-2(a-\varepsilon \xi) z+a^{2}+b^{2}-\varepsilon \xi^{2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For small positive $\varepsilon$ the zeros of the quadratic $(1-\varepsilon) z^{2}-2(a-\varepsilon \xi) z+a^{2}$ $+b^{2}-\varepsilon \xi^{2}$ are complex and the product of their moduli is $\left(a^{2}+b^{2}-\varepsilon \xi^{2}\right) /$ $(1-\varepsilon)$, which is greater than or equal to 1 . For such values of $\varepsilon$, the polynomial $F(\varepsilon ; \cdot)$ belongs to $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ and $\|F(\varepsilon ; \cdot)\|_{\infty}=F(\varepsilon ; \xi)=1$. However, $\|F(\varepsilon ; \cdot)\|_{p}<\|F\|_{p}$, which is a contradiction.

Remark 1. In Lemma 2 we have shown that the polynomial $F$ cannot have non-real zeros. So, while looking for a polynomial in $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ for which $\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$ is attained, we only need to examine those whose zeros are all real.

We shall say that $f \in \wp_{n, \mu}$ if

- $f \in \mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$;
- the zeros of $f$ are all real;
- $\|f\|_{\infty}=1$.

According to Lemma 2,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}=\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}: f \in \wp_{n, \mu}\right\} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is a simple consequence of Rolle's theorem that a polynomial with only real zeros has only one critical point between two consecutive zeros. So, each polynomial $f \in \wp_{n, \mu}$ attains the value 1 at exactly one point in $[-1,1]$, which we shall always denote by $\xi$.

Lemma 3. Let $f \in \wp_{n, \mu}$. If $\xi$ belongs to $[-1,1]$ and

$$
f(\xi)=\max _{-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1} f(x),
$$

then $|\xi| \leqslant 1-2 \mu / n$.
Proof. There is nothing to prove when $\mu=0$; so, let $\mu \geqslant 1$. Due to obvious symmetry, it is enough to prove that $\xi \notin(1-2 \mu / n, 1)$. Clearly, $f^{\prime}(\xi)$ must be zero. If $f(x):=c(x-1)^{\mu} \prod_{v=1}^{n-\mu}\left(x-x_{v}\right)$, then $f^{\prime}(\xi)$ can vanish only if

$$
A(\xi):=\sum_{v=1}^{n-\mu} \frac{1}{\xi-x_{v}}-\frac{\mu}{1-\xi}
$$

does. But $1 /\left(\xi-x_{v}\right) \leqslant 1 /(1+\xi)$ for $1 \leqslant v \leqslant n-\mu$. Hence

$$
A(\xi) \leqslant \frac{n-\mu}{1+\xi}-\frac{\mu}{1-\xi}=\frac{n-2 \mu-n \xi}{1-\xi^{2}}<0 \quad \text { if } \quad \xi \in\left(1-\frac{2 \mu}{n}, 1\right) .
$$

Lemma 4. Let $F \in \wp_{n, \mu}$ and $\|F\|_{p}=\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$. Then

$$
F(x):=c(1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k}(1+\alpha x) \quad(c>0, j+k=n-1,-1 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1) .
$$

In addition, $j \geqslant \mu$ or $j \geqslant \mu-1$ according to whether $\alpha \in(-1,1]$ or $\alpha=-1$ and $k \geqslant \mu$ or $k \geqslant \mu-1$ according to whether $\alpha \in[-1,1)$ or $\alpha=1$.

Proof. Let $\xi$ be the point of $[-1,1]$ where $F$ attains the value 1 . First we observe that $F$ cannot have zeros in $(-\infty,-1)$ and $(1, \infty)$ at the same time. Suppose it does. Let $\lambda_{1}$ be the smallest zero of $F$ and $\lambda_{m}$ the largest. It is easily seen that for all small $\varepsilon>0$ the polynomial

$$
F_{\varepsilon, 1}(x):=F(x)+\varepsilon \frac{F(x)}{\left(x-\lambda_{1}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{m}\right)}(x-\xi)^{2}
$$

belongs to $\wp_{n, \mu}$ and $F_{\varepsilon, 1}(x) \leqslant F(x)$ for all $x \in[-1,1]$, the inequality being strict in $(-1,1) \backslash\{\xi\}$. So $F$ may have zeros in $(-\infty,-1)$ or in $(1, \infty)$ but not in both.

Assume that $F$ has no zeros in $(-\infty,-1)$. We claim that $F$ cannot have two or more distinct zeros in $(1, \infty)$. Suppose it does. Let $\lambda_{m}$ be the largest zero and $\lambda_{l}$ the largest but one. It is geometrically evident that for all small $\varepsilon>0$, the polynomial

$$
F_{\varepsilon, 2}(x):=F(x)-\varepsilon \frac{F(x)}{\left(x-\lambda_{l}\right)\left(x-\lambda_{m}\right)}(x-\xi)^{2}
$$

belongs to $\wp_{n, \mu}$ and $F_{\varepsilon, 2}(x) \leqslant F(x)$ for all $x \in[-1,1]$, the inequality being strict in $(-1,1) \backslash\{\xi\}$. So $F$ can have at most one distinct zero in $(-\infty,-1) \cup(1, \infty)$.

Suppose that $F$ has a zero $\lambda_{m}$ in $(1, \infty)$. We claim that $\lambda_{m}$ cannot be a multiple zero. Suppose it is. Then for all small $\varepsilon>0$, the polynomial

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{\varepsilon, 3}(x) & :=F(x)-\varepsilon \frac{F(x)}{\left(x-\lambda_{m}\right)^{2}}(x-\xi)^{2} \\
& =\frac{F(x)}{\left(x-\lambda_{m}\right)^{2}}\left\{(1-\varepsilon) x^{2}-2\left(\lambda_{m}-\varepsilon \xi\right) x+\lambda_{m}^{2}-\varepsilon \xi^{2}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

belongs to $\wp_{n, \mu}$. Indeed, $F_{\varepsilon, 3}(\xi)=F(\xi)=1$ and there exists $\varepsilon^{*}>0$ such that for all $\varepsilon \in\left(0, \varepsilon^{*}\right)$ the quadratic $(1-\varepsilon) x^{2}-2\left(\lambda_{m}-\varepsilon \xi\right) x+\lambda_{m}^{2}-\varepsilon \xi^{2}$ has two different real zeros, both lying in $(1, \infty)$. In addition, $F_{\varepsilon, 3}(x)<F(x)$ for all $x \in(-1,1) \backslash\{\xi\}$. So, if $F$ has a zero in $(-\infty,-1) \cup(1, \infty)$, it should be simple.

We have proved that $F$ must be of the form

$$
F(x):=c(1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k}(1+\alpha x)
$$

with $c>0, j+k \leqslant n-1$ and $-1 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1$. In addition, $j \geqslant \mu$ or $j \geqslant \mu-1$ according to whether $\alpha \in(-1,1]$ or $\alpha=-1$ and $k \geqslant \mu$ or $k \geqslant \mu-1$ according as $\alpha \in[-1,1)$ or $\alpha=1$. We claim that the sum of the multiplicities of the zeros of $F$ at -1 and 1 cannot be less than $n-1$. Suppose it is. First let $\alpha \in(-1,0) \cup(0,1)$. The polynomial

$$
F_{\varepsilon, 4}(x):=F(x)-\varepsilon \frac{F(x)}{(1+\alpha x)}(x-\xi)^{2}
$$

belongs to $\wp_{n, \mu}$ for all small $\varepsilon>0$. Furthermore, $F_{\varepsilon, 4}(x)<F(x)$ for all $x \in(-1,1) \backslash\{\xi\}$. If $\alpha \in\{-1,0,1\}$ then we have to prove that $F(x)$ cannot be of the form $c(1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k}$ with $j+k \leqslant n-2$. For this we consider the polynomial

$$
F_{\varepsilon, 5}(x):=F(x)-\varepsilon F(x)(x-\xi)^{2},
$$

which is of degree at most $n$, and obtain a contradiction.

We say that a polynomial $f$ belongs to $\pi_{n, \mu}$ if

- it is of the form

$$
f(x):=c(1+x)^{k}(1-x)^{n-k-1}(1+\alpha x),
$$

where $0 \leqslant k \leqslant n-1,-1 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1, c>0$;

- it has zeros of multiplicity at least $\mu$ at -1 and +1 ;
- $\|f\|_{\infty}=1$.

Lemma 4 in conjunction with Lemma 2 says that while looking for a polynomial in $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$ for which $\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$ is attained, we may restrict our search to those which belong to $\pi_{n, \mu}$. In other words,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}=\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}: f \in \pi_{n, \mu}\right\} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Given $n \in \mathbb{N}, \mu \in\{0, \ldots,[n / 2]\}$ and $\xi \in[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n]$, we say that $f \in \pi_{n, \mu, \xi}$ if $f \in \pi_{n, \mu}$ and $f(\xi)=1$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}:=\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}: f \in \pi_{n, \mu, \xi}\right\}, \quad-1+\frac{2 \mu}{n} \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-\frac{2 \mu}{n} . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, clearly

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}=\inf _{|\xi| \leqslant 1-2 \mu / n} \mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}=\inf _{0 \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-2 \mu / n} \mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $0 \leqslant k \leqslant n-1$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi_{1, n, k}:=-1+\frac{2 k}{n}, \quad \xi_{2, n, k}:=-1+\frac{2 k+2}{n} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $I_{n, k}:=\left[\xi_{1, n, k}, \xi_{2, n, k}\right]$. The following lemma helps us to identify the elements of $\pi_{n, \mu, \xi}$.

Lemma 5. Let $n \geqslant 3$ and $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n-2$. For each $\xi$ in $I_{n, k}$ there exists one and only one $\alpha=\alpha(\xi)$ in $[-1,1]$ such that the derivative of

$$
P_{n, k}(\alpha ; x):=(1+x)^{k}(1-x)^{n-1-k}(1+\alpha x)
$$

vanishes at $\xi$. Moreover, $\alpha(\xi)$ increases strictly from -1 to 1 as $\xi$ increases from one end of the interval $\left[\xi_{1, n, k}, \xi_{2, n, k}\right]$ to the other.

Proof. The derivative of $P_{n, k}(\alpha ; \cdot)$ with respect to $x$ vanishes at $\xi$ if and only if

$$
\alpha=\alpha(\xi):=\frac{(n-1) \xi+(n-2 k-1)}{1-(n-2 k-1) \xi-n \xi^{2}} .
$$

We show that $|\alpha(\xi)| \leqslant 1$ if $\xi \in I_{n, k}$. Setting

$$
g_{n}(\xi):=n \xi^{2}+(n-2 k-1) \xi-1
$$

we see that

$$
g_{n}(-1)=2 k>0, \quad g_{n}\left(-1+\frac{2 k}{n}\right)=-\frac{2 k}{n}<0,
$$

$g_{n}\left(-1+\frac{2 k+2}{n}\right)=-\frac{2}{n}(n-k-1)<0, \quad g_{n}(1)=2(n-k-1)>0$.

Hence $g_{n}$ has a zero in $(-1,-1+2 k / n)$ and also in $(-1+(2 k+2) / n, 1)$. Consequently, it cannot have any zero in $I_{n, k}$. This implies that $\alpha(\xi)$ is a well-defined real number for all $\xi$ in $I_{n, k}$. Elementary calculations show that $\alpha(\xi) \leqslant 1$ for $\xi \in I_{n, k}$ if and only if $(1+\xi)(\xi+1-(2 k+2) / n) \leqslant 0$, which is certainly true for all $\xi$ in $I_{n, k}$. In addition, $-1 \leqslant \alpha(\xi)$ for $\xi \in I_{n, k}$ if and only if $(1-\xi)(\xi+1-2 k / n) \geqslant 0$ and so for all $\xi \in I_{n, k}$. Thus, we have proved that $-1 \leqslant \alpha(\xi) \leqslant 1$ for all $\xi \in I_{n, k}$.

As can be easily verified, $\alpha\left(\xi_{1, n, k}\right)=-1$ and $\alpha\left(\xi_{2, n, k}\right)=1$. We have to show that that $\alpha(\xi)$ increases strictly from -1 to +1 as $\xi$ increases from one end of the interval $I_{n, k}$ to the other. For all $\xi \in I_{n, k}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)=\frac{(n \xi+n-2 k-1)^{2}+n-1-n \xi^{2}}{\left\{1-(n-2 k-1) \xi-n \xi^{2}\right\}^{2}} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)>0$ if $n-1-n \xi^{2}>0$, which certainly holds if $|\xi| \leqslant 1-1 / n$. Since $I_{n, k} \subset[-1+1 / n, 1-1 / n]$ it follows that $\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)>0$ for all $\xi \in I_{n, k}$.

Remark 2. In Lemma 5, we have proved that for each $\xi$ in $I_{n, k}$, $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n-2$ there exists one and only one $\alpha \in[-1,1]$ such that

$$
\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial x} P_{n, k}(\alpha ; x)\right|_{x=\xi}=0,
$$

which is a necessary condition for the maximum of $c P_{n, k}(\alpha ; \cdot)$ to be attained at $\xi$. It follows that for any given $\xi$ in $I_{n, k}, 1 \leqslant k \leqslant n-2$ the set $\pi_{n, k, \xi}$ contains just one element, namely the polynomial

$$
\begin{align*}
P_{n, k, \xi}(x) & :=\frac{1}{P_{n, k}(\alpha ; \xi)} P_{n, k}(\alpha ; x),  \tag{12}\\
\alpha(\xi) & :=\frac{(n-1) \xi+(n-2 k-1)}{1-(n-2 k-1) \xi-n \xi^{2}} .
\end{align*}
$$

As $k$ varies from $\mu$ to $n-\mu-1$ the intervals $I_{n, k}$ cover the interval $[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n]$. Using the obvious symmetry we conclude that for each $\xi$ in $[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n], 1 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$ the set $\pi_{n, \mu, \xi}$ has one and only one element. The same can be said for $\xi$ in $(-1,-1+2 / n) \cup(1-2 / n, 1)$ when $\mu=0$. In fact, simple calculations show that for any $\xi$ in $(-1,-1+2 / n)$ the set $\pi_{n, 0, \xi}$ contains the polynomial

$$
\begin{gather*}
P_{n, 0, \xi}(x):=\left(\frac{1-x}{1-\xi}\right)^{n-1} \frac{n \xi-1-(n-1) x}{\xi-1}, \\
-1<\xi<-1+\frac{2}{n} \tag{13}
\end{gather*}
$$

and no other; for $\xi$ in $(1-2 / n, 1)$ the only element of $\pi_{n, 0, \xi}$ is the polynomial

$$
\begin{gather*}
P_{n, n-1, \xi}(x):=\left(\frac{1+x}{1+\xi}\right)^{n-1} \frac{n \xi+1-(n-1) x}{\xi+1}, \\
1-\frac{2}{n}<\xi<1 . \tag{14}
\end{gather*}
$$

It may be added that for $-1<\xi<-1+2 / n$ we have

$$
P_{n, 0, \xi}(x)=\frac{(1-x)^{n-1}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)}{(1-\xi)^{n-1}(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)},
$$

where $\alpha(\xi):=-(n-1) /(n \xi-1)$ increases from $(n-1) /(n+1)$ to 1 as $\xi$ increases from -1 to $-1+2 / n$. For $1-2 / n<\xi<1$ we have

$$
P_{n, n-1, \xi}(x)=\frac{(1+x)^{n-1}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)}{(1+\xi)^{n-1}(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)},
$$

where $\alpha(\xi):=-(n-1) /(n \xi+1)$ increases from -1 to $-(n-1) /(n+1)$ as $\xi$ increases from $1-2 / n$ to 1 .

Remark 3. For each $\xi \in[-1,1]$ there is only one $k \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $\xi \in I_{n, k}$ except when $\xi$ is of the form $-1+2 k / n$. In the latter case $\xi$ belongs to $I_{n, k}$ for two consecutive values of $k$; however, there is no ambiguity in the definition of $P_{n, k, \xi}$ because $P_{n, k, \xi}$ for $\xi=\xi_{2, n, k}$ and $P_{n, k+1, \xi}$ for $\xi=\xi_{1, n, k+1}$ are the same.

Definition. Given $n \in \mathbb{N}, \mu \in\{0, \ldots,[n / 2]\}, p \in[0, \infty)$ and $\xi$ in $[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n]$ let us denote by $\mathscr{E}_{n, \mu, \xi}$ the set of all polynomials $f$ in $\pi_{n, \mu, \xi}$ such that $\|f\|_{p}=\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}$.

Remark 4. It follows from above that for $1 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$ and any $\xi$ in $[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n]$ the set $\mathscr{E}_{n, \mu, \xi}$ consists of only one element, namely $P_{n, k, \xi}$ with $k \in\{\mu, \ldots, n-\mu-1\}$ such that $\xi \in I_{n, k}$. The same is true of $\mathscr{E}_{n, 0, \xi}$, except possibly for $\xi= \pm 1$.

What can we say about $\pi_{n, 0,1}$ and $\pi_{n, 0,-1}$ ? For this we note that a polynomial of the form

$$
f(x):=c(1+x)^{k}(1-x)^{n-1-k}(1+\alpha x), \quad-1 \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1, \quad f(1)=1,
$$

assumes its maximum on $[-1,1]$ at 1 if and only if

$$
f(x)=f_{\alpha}(x):=\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{n-1} \frac{1+\alpha x}{1+\alpha}, \quad-\frac{n-1}{n+1} \leqslant \alpha \leqslant 1 .
$$

It is easily checked that if $\alpha<\alpha^{\prime}$ than $0<f_{\alpha^{\prime}}(x)<f_{\alpha}(x)$ for all $x \in(-1,1)$. Hence $\left\|f_{\alpha}\right\|_{p}$ is a strictly decreasing function of $\alpha$ in $[-(n-1) /(n+1), 1]$. This implies that $\mathscr{E}_{n, 0,1}$ consists of just one polynomial, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}(x):=\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{n} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, $\mathscr{E}_{n, 0,-1}$ has only one element, namely the polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n, 0,-1}^{*}(x):=\left(\frac{1-x}{2}\right)^{n} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 5. We conclude that for all $p \in[0, \infty)$ the value of $\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}$ is determined as follows.
(i) First let $\xi \in[-1+2 / n, 1-2 / n]$. Then, as is easily seen, $f$ can belong to $\pi_{n, \mu}$ only if $\mu \in\{1, \ldots,[n / 2]\}$. Furthermore, $\xi \in I_{n, k} \subset[-1+2 \mu / n$, $1-2 \mu / n]$, for some $k \in\{1, \ldots, n-2\}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}=\left\|P_{n, k, \xi}\right\|_{p}, \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{n, k, \xi}$ is as in (12);
(ii) if $\xi \in(-1,-1+2 / n) \cup(1-2 / n, 1)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}=\left\|P_{n, 0, \xi}\right\|_{p} \quad \text { or } \quad \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}=\left\|P_{n, n-1, \xi}\right\|_{p} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

according to whether $\xi$ lies in $(-1,-1+2 / n)$ or in $(1-2 / n, 1)$, respectively;
(iii) finally for $\xi= \pm 1$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, 1}=\left\|P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}\right\|_{p}, \quad \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p,-1}=\left\|P_{n, 0,-1}^{*}\right\|_{p} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}$ and $P_{n, 0,-1}^{*}$ are as in (15) and (16), respectively.

### 2.2. The Case $p>0$ and $\mu \geqslant 1$ of Theorem 1

First we will find $\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}$ for $p>0$ and $\mu \geqslant 1$. Let us set

$$
\Phi_{p}(\xi):=\int_{-1}^{1}\left|\frac{(1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)}{(1-\xi)^{j}(1+\xi)^{k}(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)}\right|^{p} d x,
$$

where $k \in\{\mu, \ldots, n-1-\mu\}, j=n-1-k, p>0$. Then from statement (i) of Remark 5 we have

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, \xi, p}=\left(\frac{1}{2} \Phi_{p}(\xi)\right)^{1 / p} \quad\left(\xi \in I_{n, k} \subset[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n]\right) .
$$

In order to determine

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p}, \quad \mu \geqslant 1
$$

we shall study, in view of (9), the behaviour of $\Phi_{p}(\xi)$ over the subintervals $I_{n, k}=\left[\xi_{1, n, k}, \xi_{2, n, k}\right] \quad(k=\mu, \ldots, n-\mu-1) \quad$ of $\quad[-1+2 \mu / n, 1-2 \mu / n]$. Because of obvious symmetry we may assume $k \geqslant j(=n-1-k)$. We remind the reader that $\alpha\left(\xi_{1, n, k}\right)=-1, \alpha\left(\xi_{2, n, k}\right)=1$ and that there is one and only one point

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{*}=\xi_{n, k}^{*}:=\frac{k-j}{j+k}=\frac{2 k-(n-1)}{n-1} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

in $I_{n, k}$ such that $\alpha\left(\xi^{*}\right)=0$.
We shall end up with the conclusion

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\xi_{1, n, k} \leqslant \xi \leqslant \xi_{2, n, k}} \Phi_{p}(\xi)=\min \left\{\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{1, n, k}\right), \Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{2, n, k}\right)\right\} . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

The function $\Phi_{p}$, whose definition depends on $n$ as well as on $k$ is differentiable at each interior point of $I_{n, k}$. At $\xi_{1, n, k}$ the right-hand derivative exists and at $\xi_{2, n, k}$ the left-hand derivative exists. So, $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ is to be understood as $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)$ and $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ as $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{2}-\right)$. As we shall see, $\Phi_{p}$ has at
most two critical points in $I_{n, k}=\left[\xi_{1, n, k}, \xi_{2, n, k}\right]$ but only one point of local extremum. It lies in $\left(\xi_{1, n, k}, \xi_{2, n, k}\right)$ and is a point of local maximum. A straightforward calculation gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}= & p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\frac{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p-1} x d x}{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p} d x}\right. \\
& \left.-\frac{\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}\right\} . \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

It is important to know the sign of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)$ at the points

$$
\xi_{1}=\xi_{1, n, k}=\frac{k-j-1}{j+k+1}, \quad \xi^{*}=\frac{k-j}{j+k}, \quad \xi_{2}=\xi_{2, n, k}=\frac{k-j+1}{j+k+1} .
$$

For this we need the following well-known formula.
Lemma 6 [4, pp. 212-214]. If $\mathfrak{R}(a)>0$ and $\mathfrak{R}(b)>0$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-1}^{1}(1-t)^{a-1}(1+t)^{b-1} d t=2^{a+b-1} \frac{\Gamma(a) \Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)} . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

The quantity $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi) / \Phi_{p}(\xi)$ can be explicitly calculated at the points $\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}, \xi_{2}$ since $\alpha\left(\xi_{1}\right)=-1, \alpha\left(\xi^{*}\right)=0, \alpha\left(\xi_{2}\right)=1$. Writing $x$ in the form $-(1-x)+1$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)}{\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{1}\right)} & =p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)\left\{\frac{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p+p-1}(1+x)^{k p} x d x}{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p+p}(1+x)^{k p} d x}-\frac{\xi_{1}}{1-\xi_{1}}\right\} \\
& =p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)\left\{-1+\frac{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p+p-1}(1+x)^{k p} d x}{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p+p}(1+x)^{k p} d x}-\frac{\xi_{1}}{1-\xi_{1}}\right\} \\
& =p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)\left\{-1+\frac{1}{2} \frac{(j+k+1) p+1}{(j+1) p}-\frac{\xi_{1}}{1-\xi_{1}}\right\} \quad \text { by Lemma } 6 \\
& =\frac{\alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)}{2(j+1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have used the fact that $\xi_{1}=(k-j-1) /(j+k+1)$. As noted in the proof of Lemma $5, \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)>0$ for all $\xi$ in $[-1+2 / n, 1-2 / n]$; hence $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)>0$. Obviously then there exists $\delta_{1}>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)>0 \quad \text { for } \quad \xi_{1} \leqslant \xi<\xi_{1}+\delta_{1} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\alpha\left(\xi^{*}\right)=0$ we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)}{\Phi_{p}\left(\xi^{*}\right)} & =p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)\left\{\frac{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p} x d x}{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p} d x}-\xi^{*}\right\} \\
& =p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)\left\{-1+\frac{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p+1} d x}{\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p} d x}-\xi^{*}\right\} \\
& =p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)\left\{\frac{(k-j) p}{j p+k p+2}-\frac{k-j}{j+k}\right\} \\
& =-p \alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right) \frac{2(k-j)}{(j p+k p+2)(j+k)},
\end{aligned}
$$

wherein we have used (23) and the fact that $\xi^{*}=(k-j) /(j+k)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)<0 \quad \text { if } j<k, \quad \Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)=0 \quad \text { if } j=k . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, using the fact that $\alpha\left(\xi_{2}\right)=1$, we obtain

$$
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{2}-\right)}{\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{2}\right)}=-\frac{\alpha^{\prime}\left(\xi_{2}-\right)}{2(k+1)}
$$

There exists therefore a positive number $\delta_{2}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)<0 \quad \text { for } \quad \xi_{2}-\delta_{2}<\xi \leqslant \xi_{2} . \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\Phi_{p}$ is an increasing function of $\xi$ in $\left[\xi_{1}, \xi_{1}+\delta_{1}\right)$ and a decreasing function of $\xi$ in $\left(\xi_{2}-\delta_{2}, \xi_{2}\right]$, it must have at least one critical point in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right)$. Let $\{c\}_{n, k}$ be the set of all its critical points in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right)$. Our argument will show that $\{c\}_{n, k}$ contains at most two points and that only one of them is a point of local extremum. The point of local extremum is, in fact, a point of local maximum; so (21) holds. The details follow.

It is convenient to introduce the notation

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{1}(\xi) & :=\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p-1} \times x d x, \\
D_{0}(\xi) & :=\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p-1} \times 1 d x,
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
D(\xi):=\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p} d x
$$

Then

$$
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}=p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\frac{D_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}-\frac{\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}\right\} .
$$

So

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{D_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=\frac{\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi} \quad \text { if } \quad \xi \in\{c\}_{n, k} . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Taking (27) into account it is easily seen that if $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, k}$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)} & =\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}-\left\{\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}\right\}^{2} \\
& =p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\frac{D_{1}^{\prime}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}-\frac{D_{1}(\xi) D^{\prime}(\xi)}{(D(\xi))^{2}}-\frac{1-\alpha^{\prime}(\xi) \xi^{2}}{(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}}\right\} . \tag{28}
\end{align*}
$$

Clearly, $D(\xi)-D_{0}(\xi)=\alpha(\xi) D_{1}(\xi)$; hence if $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, k}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{D_{0}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=\frac{D(\xi)-\alpha(\xi) D_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=1-\alpha(\xi) \frac{\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}=\frac{1}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi} . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now the case $p=1$ has to be treated separately from the much harder case $p \neq 1$.

Lemma 7. (21) holds for $p=1$.
Proof. Using Lemma 6 we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k} x d x & =\int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j}\left\{(1+x)^{k+1}-(1+x)^{k}\right\} d x \\
& =2^{j+k+1} \frac{\Gamma(j+1) \Gamma(k+1)}{\Gamma(j+k+2)} \frac{k-j}{j+k+2},
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{-1}^{1} & (1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k}(1+\alpha(\xi) x) d x \\
& =2^{j+k+1} \frac{\Gamma(j+1) \Gamma(k+1)}{\Gamma(j+k+1)}\left\{1+\frac{(k-j) \alpha(\xi)}{j+k+2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence by (22),

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\Phi_{1}^{\prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{1}(\xi)} & =\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\frac{k-j}{j+k+2+(k-j) \alpha(\xi)}-\frac{\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}\right\} \\
& =\alpha^{\prime}(\xi) \frac{(k-j)-(j+k+2) \xi}{(j+k+2+(k-j) \alpha(\xi))(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)}
\end{aligned}
$$

which shows that $\Phi_{1}$ has one and only one critical point $\hat{\xi}:=(k-j) /$ $(j+k+2)$ in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right)$. In view of (24) and (26) it must be a point of local maximum. Thus, (21) holds.

In order to prove (21) when $p \neq 1$ we need the following representation for $D_{1}^{\prime}(\xi)$.

Lemma 8. If $\xi \in\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right), \xi \neq \xi^{*}$, then for $p \in(0, \infty) \backslash\{1\}$ we have

$$
D_{1}^{\prime}(\xi)=(p-1) \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{A_{1}(\xi)+A_{2}(\xi)+A_{3}(\xi)\right\},
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{1}(\xi):=\frac{1}{2(1-\alpha(\xi))}\left(D_{0}(\xi)-D_{1}(\xi)\right), \\
& A_{2}(\xi):=\frac{1}{2(1+\alpha(\xi))}\left(D_{0}(\xi)+D_{1}(\xi)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{3}(\xi):= & \frac{1}{(p-1) \alpha(\xi)(1-\alpha(\xi))(1+\alpha(\xi))}\left\{(k-j) p D_{0}(\xi)\right. \\
& \left.-((j+k) p+2) D_{1}(\xi)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Note that $0<|\alpha(\xi)|<1$ since $\xi \in\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{\xi^{*}\right\}$. Using Lagrange interpolation in the points $-1,+1$ and $-1 / \alpha=-1 / \alpha(\xi)$ where $\xi \neq \xi^{*}$, we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{2}= & \frac{1}{2(1-\alpha)}(1-x)(1+\alpha x)+\frac{1}{2(1+\alpha)}(1+x)(1+\alpha x) \\
& -\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)}\left(1-x^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, this formula also holds for $\xi=\xi^{*}$, i.e., when $\alpha(\xi)=0$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{1}^{\prime}(\xi) & =(p-1) \alpha^{\prime}(\xi) \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p-2} x^{2} d x \\
& =(p-1) \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{A_{1}(\xi)+A_{2}(\xi)+A_{3}(\xi)\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1}(\xi): & =\frac{1}{2(1-\alpha(\xi))} \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p-1}(1-x) d x \\
& =\frac{1}{2(1-\alpha(\xi))}\left(D_{0}(\xi)-D_{1}(\xi)\right), \\
A_{2}(\xi): & =\frac{1}{2(1+\alpha(\xi))} \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)^{p-1}(1+x) d x \\
& =\frac{1}{2(1+\alpha(\xi))}\left(D_{0}(\xi)+D_{1}(\xi)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{3}(\xi):= & -\frac{1}{(p-1) \alpha(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)} \\
& \times \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p+1}(1+x)^{k p+1}(p-1) \alpha(1+\alpha x)^{p-2} d x \\
= & \frac{1}{(p-1) \alpha(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)} \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{j p}(1+x)^{k p}(1+\alpha x)^{p-1} \\
& \times\{-(j p+1)(1+x)+(k p+1)(1-x)\} d x \\
= & \frac{1}{(p-1) \alpha(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)}\left\{(k-j) p D_{0}(\xi)-((j+k) p+2) D_{1}(\xi)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

i.e., Lemma 8 holds.

If $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, k}$, then we may use (27) along with (29) to conclude that if $p \in(0, \infty) \backslash\{1\}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{A_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=\frac{1}{2(1-\alpha(\xi))} \frac{D_{0}(\xi)-D_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=\frac{1}{2(1-\alpha(\xi))} \frac{1-\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}, \\
& \frac{A_{2}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=\frac{1}{2(1+\alpha(\xi))} \frac{D_{0}(\xi)+D_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}=\frac{1}{2(1+\alpha(\xi))} \frac{1+\xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi},
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{A_{3}(\xi)}{D(\xi)} & =\frac{1}{(p-1) \alpha(\xi)(1-\alpha(\xi))(1+\alpha(\xi))} \frac{(k-j) p-((j+k) p+2) \xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi} \\
& =\frac{1}{(p-1) \alpha(\xi)\left(1-\alpha^{2}(\xi)\right)}\left\{-\frac{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) \alpha(\xi) p}{(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}}-\frac{2 \xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{(p-1)\left(1-\alpha^{2}(\xi)\right)(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}}\left\{-\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) p-2 \xi^{2}-2 \frac{\xi}{\alpha(\xi)}\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

since

$$
\frac{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) \alpha(\xi)}{1+\xi \alpha(\xi)}=(j+k) \xi-(k-j) .
$$

Hence by Lemma 8,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{D_{1}^{\prime}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}= & (p-1) \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\frac{1-\xi}{2(1-\alpha(\xi))(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)}\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1+\xi}{2(1+\alpha(\xi))(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)}-\frac{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) p+2 \xi^{2}+2 \xi / \alpha(\xi)}{(p-1)\left(1-\alpha^{2}(\xi)\right)(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}}\right\} \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

It is clear that $D^{\prime}(\xi)=p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi) D_{1}(\xi)$ and so if $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, k}$, then by (27),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{D_{1}(\xi) D^{\prime}(\xi)}{(D(\xi))^{2}}=p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left(\frac{D_{1}(\xi)}{D(\xi)}\right)^{2}=p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi) \frac{\xi^{2}}{(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (30) and (31) in (28) we conclude that if $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, k}$, then for all $p \in(0, \infty) \backslash\{1\}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}= & p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\alpha ^ { \prime } ( \xi ) \left(\frac{(p-1)(1-\xi)}{2(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha \xi)}\right.\right. \\
& +\frac{(p-1)(1+\xi)}{2(1+\alpha)(1+\alpha \xi)}-\frac{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) p+2 \xi^{2}+2 \xi / \alpha}{(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}} \\
& \left.\left.-p \frac{\xi^{2}}{(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}}+\frac{\xi^{2}}{(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}}\right)-\frac{1}{(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}}\right\} \\
= & \frac{p \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}}\left\{-\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left(1+\xi^{2}\right)-2 \xi \frac{\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}{\alpha(\xi)}-\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
\frac{1}{\alpha(\xi)}=\frac{1+(k-j) \xi-(1+j+k) \xi^{2}}{(j+k) \xi-(k-j)}=\frac{1-\xi^{2}}{(j+k) \xi-(k-j)}-\xi,
$$

we conclude that

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}= & -\frac{p\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}} \\
& \times\left\{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(1+\frac{2 \xi}{(j+k) \xi-(k-j)}\right)+\frac{1-\alpha^{2}}{\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}\right\} \tag{32}
\end{align*}
$$

From (12) we deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1-\alpha(\xi)=(1+\xi) \frac{1+k-j-(1+j+k) \xi}{1+(k-j) \xi-(1+j+k) \xi^{2}} \\
& 1+\alpha(\xi)=(1-\xi) \frac{1-k+j+(1+j+k) \xi}{1+(k-j) \xi-(1+j+k) \xi^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)=\frac{(1+j+k)(j+k) \xi^{2}-2(1+j+k)(k-j) \xi+(k-j)^{2}+j+k}{\left\{1-(k-j) \xi-(1+j+k) \xi^{2}\right\}^{2}}
$$

Hence by Lemma 5,

$$
\sigma_{j, k}(\xi):=(1+j+k)(j+k) \xi^{2}-2(1+j+k)(k-j) \xi+(k-j)^{2}+j+k>0
$$

and for $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, k}$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}= & -\frac{p(1-\xi)^{2}\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}}\left\{\frac{(2+j+k) \xi-(k-j)}{(j+k) \xi-(k-j)}\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1-(k-j)^{2}+2(k-j)(1+j+k) \xi-(1+j+k)^{2} \xi^{2}}{\sigma_{j, k}(\xi)}\right\} \\
= & -\frac{p\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}}{\left\{(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}\right\}\{(j+k) \xi-(k-j)\}} \frac{\pi_{3}(\xi)}{\sigma_{j, k}(\xi)} \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{3}(\xi):= & (j+k)(j+k+1) \xi^{3}-3(k-j)(j+k+1) \xi^{2} \\
& +\{3(j+k)(j+k+1)-8 j k\} \xi-(k-j)(j+k+1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\pi_{3}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)=6(j+k+1)(j+k)\left(\xi-\xi^{*}\right)$ is negative for $\xi<\xi^{*}$ and positive for $\xi>\xi^{*}$; i.e., $\pi_{3}^{\prime}(\xi)$ is strictly decreasing on $\left[\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}\right)$ and strictly increasing on $\left(\xi^{*}, \xi_{2}\right]$. Since $\pi_{3}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)=(4 j k /(j+k))(j+k+3)>0$ it follows that $\pi_{3}^{\prime}(\xi)>0$ for all $\xi$ in $\left[\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right]$. So $\pi_{3}$ can have at most one zero in
[ $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$ ]. In fact, it does have one zero in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}\right)$. This is seen as follows. The quantity $(j+k) \xi-(k-j)$ is negative for $\xi<\xi^{*}$ and tends to zero as $\xi \rightarrow \xi^{*}-$. Hence, from (32) and (33) we conclude that $\pi_{3}(\xi)$ is positive in ( $\xi^{*}-\delta, \xi^{*}$ ) for all small $\delta>0$. The same formulae can be similarly used to conclude that $\pi_{3}(\xi)$ is negative in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{1}+\delta\right)$ for all small positive $\delta$. Alternatively, using "Mathematica" (Wolfram Research, Inc.) or by patient calculation we can check that $(j+k)^{2} \pi_{3}\left(\xi^{*}\right)=8 j k(k-j)>0$ for $k>j$, whereas $(j+k+1)^{2} \pi_{3}\left(\xi_{1}\right)=-8 k(j+1)^{2}<0$. Hence, $\pi_{3}$ must have a zero in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}\right)$ for $k>j$.

Let now $k>j$. If $\xi_{3}$ denotes the only zero of $\pi_{3}$ in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}\right)$ then $\pi_{3}$ is negative on $\left[\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$ and positive on ( $\left.\xi_{3}, \xi^{*}\right]$. From (32) and (33) we see that at any zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ which lies in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}\right)$, the sign of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)$ is the same as the sign of $\pi_{3}(\xi)$. Thus, $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)$ is negative at each $\xi$ belonging to $\{c\}_{n, k} \cap\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$ and positive at any $\xi$ that belongs to $\{c\}_{n, k} \cap\left(\xi_{3}, \xi^{*}\right)$. From (24) and (25) it follows that $\Phi_{p}$ has at least one critical point in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi^{*}\right)$ if $j<k$. If such a point lies in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$, then it must be a point of local maximum for $\Phi_{p}$. Since each point in $\{c\}_{n, k} \cap\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$ can only be a point of local maximum there can be at most one critical point of $\Phi_{p}$ in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$. Indeed, two local maxima are separated by a local minimum. If $\Phi_{p}$ has a critical point $\xi^{\prime}$ which lies in $\left(\xi_{3}, \xi^{*}\right)$ then it must be a point of local minimum for $\Phi_{p}$. Hence $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)$ should be positive in $\left(\xi^{\prime}, \xi^{\prime}+\delta^{\prime}\right)$ for some $\delta^{\prime}>0$. In view of (25), $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)$ must have at least one zero in $\left(\xi^{\prime}, \xi^{*}\right)$, too, which can only be a point of local minimum, since $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)>0$ at all the points in $\{c\}_{n, k} \cap\left(\xi_{3}, \xi^{*}\right)$. But, then there must be a point of local maximum between the two local minima, which is a contradiction. So, $\Phi_{p}$ does not really have a critical point in $\left(\xi_{3}, \xi^{*}\right)$. From (32) it follows that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)<0$ for all $\xi$ in $\{c\}_{n, k} \cap\left(\xi^{*}, \xi_{2}\right)$. So, any critical point of $\Phi_{p}$ in $\left(\xi^{*}, \xi_{2}\right)$ must be a local maximum. But if such a point $\xi^{\prime \prime}$ existed, $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)$ would be positive in $\left(\xi^{\prime \prime}-\delta^{\prime \prime}, \xi^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for some $\delta^{\prime \prime}>0$. In view of (25), there would then be a zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ in $\left(\xi^{*}, \xi^{\prime \prime}\right)$ if $j<k$. This zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ would again be a point of local maximum and we are led to a contradiction. So, $\Phi_{p}$ has no critical point in $\left[\xi^{*}, \xi_{2}\right]$ if $j<k$. As it has been pointed out earlier, $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ must, because of (24) and (26), vanish at least once in ( $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$ ). The above argument shows that it cannot do so in $\left(\xi_{3}, \xi_{2}\right)$ if $j<k$; but it may vanish in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$, though not more than once since a zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ in this interval is necessarily a point of local maximum for $\Phi_{p}$. Summarizing the above discussion we have noted that
(i) $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ has at least one zero in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right]$;
(ii) $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ has at most one zero in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$;
(iii) all the zeros of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$ are simple, i.e., $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime} \neq 0$ if $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}=0$;
(iv) $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ has no zero in $\left(\xi_{3}, \xi_{2}\right)$;
(v) $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}+\right)>0, \Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{2}-\right)<0$ and if $k>j$, then $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)<0$.

Now let us suppose that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ has a zero in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$, call it $\xi$. From (22) and the definition of $\Phi_{p}$ given in Remark 4 it can be concluded with the help of a known result [4, Sect. 5.51] that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ is an analytic function of (the complex variable $\xi$ ) in a small neighbourhood of the point $\xi_{3}$. This implies that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ can only have a zero of finite multiplicity at $\xi_{3}$. From (v) and (iii) it follows that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)>0$ for $\xi_{1}<\xi<\hat{\xi}$ and $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)<0$ for $\hat{\xi}<\xi<\xi_{3}$. Since $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)<0$, (iv) implies that $\xi_{3}$, if it is a zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$, must be of even multiplicity, so that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)<0$ for $\xi_{3}<\xi \leqslant \xi_{2}$. The conclusion is that, in this case, the function $\Phi_{p}(\xi)$ is strictly increasing on $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi\right)$ and strictly decreasing on ( $\hat{\xi}, \xi_{2}$ ); i.e., (21) holds.

The other possibility is that $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ has no zero in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$.Then it must have a zero at $\xi_{3}$. Since $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)<0$ it follows from (iv) that the zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$ at $\xi_{3}$ must be of odd multiplicity. So, in this case $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)$ is strictly increasing on $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{3}\right)$ and strictly decreasing on ( $\xi_{3}, \xi_{2}$ ); i.e., (21) holds again.

If $j=k$, then $\xi_{1}=-\xi_{2}$ and $\xi^{*}=0$. According to (25), $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(0)=0$. Furthermore, in this case, formulae (32) and (33) reduce to

$$
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}=-\frac{p\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}}\left\{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(\frac{k+1}{k}\right)+\frac{1-\alpha^{2}}{\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}\right\}
$$

and

$$
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}=-\frac{p\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}\left\{k(2 k+1) \xi^{2}+k(2 k+3)\right\}}{2 k\left\{k(2 k+1) \xi^{2}+k\right\}\left\{(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)(1+\alpha \xi)^{2}\right\}},
$$

respectively. Hence, $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)<0$ if $\xi$ is a critical point of $\Phi_{p}$ lying in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right)$. Taking also into account that $\Phi_{p}$ is even, no point of $\left(\xi_{1}, 0\right)$ or of $\left(0, \xi_{2}\right)$ can be a zero of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}$. Since $\Phi_{p}$ must have a critical point in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right)$ it (the critical point) must lie at $\xi=0=\xi^{*}$ and it must be a point of local as well as global maximum for $\Phi_{p}$.

Next we show that for all $p \in(0, \infty)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{1, n, k}\right)>\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{2, n, k}\right) \quad \text { if } \quad k>j=n-1-k . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

To start with we observe that

$$
\frac{\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{1, n, k}\right)}{\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{2, n, k}\right)}=\frac{j^{j p}(k+1)^{(k+1) p}}{(j+1)^{(j+1) p} k^{k p}} \frac{\Gamma((j+1) p+1) \Gamma(k p+1)}{\Gamma(j p+1) \Gamma((k+1) p+1)}=\frac{\varphi_{p}(j)}{\varphi_{p}(k)},
$$

where

$$
\varphi_{p}(x):=\frac{x^{x p}}{(x+1)^{(x+1) p}} \frac{\Gamma((x+1) p+1)}{\Gamma(x p+1)} .
$$

So, (34) follows from the following lemma.

Lemma 9. For all $p>0$, the function $\varphi_{p}$ is a strictly decreasing function of $x$ on $[1, \infty)$.

Proof. Clearly,

$$
\frac{1}{p} \frac{\varphi_{p}^{\prime}(x)}{\varphi_{p}(x)}=\frac{\Gamma^{\prime}((x+1) p+1)}{\Gamma((x+1) p+1)}-\frac{\Gamma^{\prime}(x p+1)}{\Gamma(x p+1)}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right) .
$$

According to a known formula [4, p. 228, Example 10],

$$
\frac{\Gamma^{\prime}(z)}{\Gamma(z)}=-\frac{1}{z}-\gamma+\sum_{v=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{1}{v}-\frac{1}{z+v}\right),
$$

where $\gamma$ is the Euler's constant. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{p} \frac{\varphi_{p}^{\prime}(x)}{\varphi_{p}(x)} & =\frac{1}{x p+1}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+1}+\sum_{v=1}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{1}{v}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+v+1}\right\} \\
& -\sum_{v=1}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{1}{v}-\frac{1}{x p+v+1}\right\}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right) \\
= & \sum_{v=1}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{1}{x p+v}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+v}\right\}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

since $1 / v-1 /((x+1) p+v+1)=O\left(v^{-2}\right)$ as $v \rightarrow \infty$.
Now we note that $1 /(x p+t)-1 /((x+1) p+t)$ is a positive decreasing function of $t$ and hence for all $v \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$
\frac{1}{x p+v}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+v}<\int_{v-1}^{v}\left\{\frac{1}{x p+t}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+t}\right\} d t .
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{p} \frac{\varphi_{p}^{\prime}(x)}{\varphi_{p}(x)} & <\int_{0}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{1}{x p+t}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+t}\right\} d t-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right) \\
& =\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{0}^{T}\left\{\frac{1}{x p+t}-\frac{1}{(x+1) p+t}\right\} d t-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right) \\
& =\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \log \left(\frac{x p+T}{(x+1) p+T}\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 9 is proved and so is (34).
The final step. We have shown that if $k \geqslant(n-1) / 2$ and $0<p<\infty$, then

$$
\min _{\xi_{1, n, k} \leqslant \xi \leqslant \xi_{2, n, k}} \Phi_{p}(\xi)=\Phi_{p}\left(\xi_{2, n, k}\right) .
$$

Since $\xi_{2, n, k}=\xi_{1, n, k+1}$ it follows that if $k>j=n-1-k$, then

$$
\min _{\xi \in I_{n, k+1}} \Phi_{p}(\xi)<\min _{\xi \in I_{n, k}} \Phi_{p}(\xi)
$$

and so for $1 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$ and $p>0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min _{-1+(2 \mu / n) \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-(2 \mu / n)} \Phi_{p}(\xi) & =\Phi_{p}\left(1-\frac{2 \mu}{n}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{n^{n}}{\mu^{\mu}(n-\mu)^{n-\mu}}\right)^{p} 2 \frac{\Gamma(\mu p+1) \Gamma((n-\mu) p+1)}{\Gamma(p n+2)}
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min _{-1+2 / n \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-2 / n} \Phi_{p}(\xi) & =\Phi_{p}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{n^{n}}{2^{n}(n-1)^{n-1}}\right)^{p} \int_{-1}^{1}(1-x)^{p}(1+x)^{(n-1) p} d x \\
& =\left(\frac{n^{n}}{(n-1)^{n-1}}\right)^{p} 2 \frac{\Gamma(p+1) \Gamma((n-1) p+1)}{\Gamma(p n+2)}
\end{aligned}
$$

As indicated earlier, $\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}=\left(2^{-1} \Phi_{p}(\xi)\right)^{1 / p}$ and so recalling that

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p,}=\inf _{-1+2 \mu / n \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-2 \mu / n} \mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, p, \xi}
$$

we obtain Theorem 1 for all $p>0$ and $\mu \geqslant 1$.

### 2.3. The Case $p=0$ and $\mu \geqslant 1$ of Theorem 1

Now let $p=0$. From the case $0<p<\infty$, which has already been settled, it follows that if $f \in \mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$, then

$$
\|f\|_{0}:=\exp \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \log |f(x)| d x\right) \geqslant \frac{n^{n}}{e^{n} \mu^{\mu}(n-\mu)^{n-\mu}}\|f\|_{\infty},
$$

wherein equality holds for all polynomials of the form $c(1+x)^{n-\mu}(1-x)^{\mu}$ and $c(1+x)^{\mu}(1-x)^{n-\mu}$. However, having proved it by a limiting process we cannot claim that the inequality is strict for all other polynomials belonging to $\mathscr{P}_{n, \mu}$. But this is true and can be seen as follows.

For $\xi \in I_{n, k}$, let

$$
\omega_{0, k}(\xi):=\int_{-1}^{1} \log \left|\frac{(1-x)^{j}(1+x)^{k}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)}{(1-\xi)^{j}(1+\xi)^{k}(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)}\right| d x
$$

where $j=n-1-k$ and $\alpha(\xi)$ is as in (12). The information given in Remark 5 shows that

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, 0, \xi}=\exp \left(\frac{1}{2} \omega_{0, k}(\xi)\right), \quad\left(\xi \in I_{n, k}\right) .
$$

Using the formula for $\alpha(\xi)$ given in (12) we see that for $\xi \in\left(\xi_{1, n, k}, \xi_{2, n, k}\right)$ we have

$$
\omega_{0, k}^{\prime}(\xi)=\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left\{\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{x}{1+\alpha(\xi) x} d x-\frac{2 \xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi}\right\} .
$$

Simple calculations show that

$$
\omega_{0, k}^{\prime}(\xi) \rightarrow+\infty \quad \text { as } \quad \xi \rightarrow \xi_{1}+,
$$

whereas

$$
\omega_{0, k}^{\prime}(\xi) \rightarrow-\infty \quad \text { as } \quad \xi \rightarrow \xi_{2}-
$$

Furthermore, if $\xi^{*}=\xi_{n, k}^{*}$ is as in (20), then

$$
\omega_{0, k}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)<0 \quad \text { if } j<k, \quad \omega_{0, k}^{\prime}\left(\xi^{*}\right)=0 \quad \text { if } j=k .
$$

We leave it to the reader to verify that if $\xi$ is a critical point of $\omega_{0, k}$ in $\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right)$, i.e., if

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{x}{1+\alpha(\xi) x} d x=\frac{2 \xi}{1+\alpha(\xi) \xi},
$$

then

$$
\begin{align*}
\omega_{0, k}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)= & \frac{2 \alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}} \\
& \times\left\{-\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\left(1+\xi^{2}\right)-2 \xi \frac{\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}{\alpha(\xi)}-\left(1-\alpha^{2}(\xi)\right)\right\}  \tag{35}\\
= & -\frac{2\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}\right)(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}} \\
& \times\left\{\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(1+\frac{2 \xi}{(j+k) \xi-(k-j)}\right)+\frac{(1-\alpha)(1+\alpha)}{\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)}\right\}
\end{align*}
$$

Compare this with (32). Imitating that part of the proof of Theorem 1 (in the case $p>0$ ), which follows formula (32), we arrive at the conclusion that for $1 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, 0}=\mathfrak{M}_{n, \mu, 0, \xi}
$$

if and only if $\xi= \pm(1-(2 \mu / n))$. Now, some fairly simple calculations lead us to the proof of Theorem 1 in the remaining case $p=0$.

### 2.4. The Case $\mu=0$ of Theorem 1

Now we consider the case $\mu=0$. From Remark 5 it follows that

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p}=\min \left\{\inf _{0 \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-2 / n} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 1, p, \xi}, \inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}, \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, 1}\right\} .
$$

Let us determine $\min \left\{\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}, \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, 1}\right\}$. In view of Remark 5, we have

$$
\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}=\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1}\left\|P_{n, n-1, \xi}\right\|_{p}=\min _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1}\left\|P_{n, n-1, \xi}\right\|_{p}
$$

First let $0<p<\infty$ and extend the definition of $\Phi_{p}(\xi)$ to values of $\xi$ in $(1-2 / n, 1]$. Note that $k=n-1$. Thus, for all $\xi$ in $[1-2 / n, 1]$ and all $p>0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi_{p}(\xi): & =2\left\|P_{n, n-1, \xi}\right\|_{p}^{p} \\
& =2 \int_{-1}^{1}\left|\frac{(1+x)^{n-1}(1+\alpha(\xi) x)}{(1+\xi)^{n-1}(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)}\right|^{p} d x \quad\left(\alpha(\xi):=-\frac{n-1}{n \xi+1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The formula (22) for $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi) / \Phi_{p}(\xi)$ remains valid. It shows that

$$
\Phi_{p}^{\prime}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}+\right)=\frac{n}{2(n-1)}>0
$$

and so $\Phi_{p}^{\prime}(\xi)$ increases with $\xi$ in the immediate neighbourhood of $1-2 / n$.
As in the proof of the case $\mu \geqslant 1$, we see that $\Phi_{1}$ has one and only one critical point in $(1-2 / n, 1)$, which lies at $(n-1) /(n+1)$. So,

$$
\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1} \Phi_{1}(\xi)=\min \left\{\Phi_{1}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right), \Phi_{1}(1)\right\} .
$$

Let $p \in(0, \infty) \backslash 1$ and let $\{c\}_{n, n-1}$ denote the critical points of $\Phi_{p}$ in $(1-2 / n, 1)$. Formula (32) which gives the value of $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi) / \Phi_{p}(\xi)$ at each point $\xi \in\{c\}_{n, n-1}$ remains valid and gives

$$
\frac{\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)}{\Phi_{p}(\xi)}=-\frac{p\left(\alpha^{\prime}(\xi)\right)^{2}}{\left(1-\alpha^{2}(\xi)\right)(1+\alpha(\xi) \xi)^{2}} \frac{1-\xi^{2}}{n-1} ;
$$

i.e., $\Phi_{p}^{\prime \prime}(\xi)$ is negative at all the critical points of $\Phi_{p}$ which lie in $(1-2 / n, 1)$. This means that any local extremum of $\Phi_{p}$ in $(1-2 / n, 1)$ can only be a local maximum. Hence,

$$
\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1} \Phi_{p}(\xi)=\min \left\{\Phi_{p}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right), \Phi_{p}(1)\right\}
$$

for all $p \in(0, \infty)$; i.e.,

$$
\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}=\min \left\{\left(\frac{1}{2} \Phi_{p}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right)\right)^{1 / p},\left(\frac{1}{2} \Phi_{p}(1)\right)^{1 / p}\right\} .
$$

As shown earlier (see the discussion following Remark 4), $\left(2^{-1} \Phi_{p}(1)\right)^{1 / p}>$ $\left\|P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}\right\|_{p}$; so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min \left\{\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}, \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, 1}\right\}^{p} & =\min \left\{\frac{1}{2} \Phi_{p}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right),\left\|P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}\right\|_{p}^{p}\right\} \\
& =\min \left\{\left\|q_{n, n-1, *}\right\|_{p}^{p},\left\|P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}\right\|_{p}^{p}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from Lemma 6 that

$$
\frac{\left\|q_{n, n-1, *}\right\|_{p}^{p}}{\left\|P_{n, n-1,1}^{*}\right\|_{p}^{p}}=\frac{n^{n p}}{(n-1)^{(n-1) p}} \frac{\Gamma((n-1) p+1) \Gamma(p+1)}{\Gamma(n p+1)},
$$

which, we claim, is larger than 1 . This is because

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\Gamma(x p+1)}{\Gamma((x-1) p+1)} \frac{(x-1)^{(x-1) p}}{x^{x p}}<\Gamma(p+1) \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x>1$. Indeed, if $\Delta(x)$ denotes the left-hand side of (36), then, using the formula for $\Gamma^{\prime}(z) / \Gamma(z)$ mentioned earlier, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{p} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}(x)}{\Delta(x)} & =\frac{\Gamma^{\prime}(x p+1)}{\Gamma(x p+1)}-\frac{\Gamma^{\prime}((x-1) p+1)}{\Gamma((x-1) p+1)}+\log \frac{x-1}{x} \\
& =\sum_{v=1}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{1}{(x-1) p+v}-\frac{1}{x p+v}\right\}+\log \frac{x-1}{x} \\
& <\int_{0}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{1}{(x-1) p+t}-\frac{1}{x p+t}\right\} d t+\log \frac{x-1}{x}
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\{1 /((x-1) p+t)-1 /(x p+t)\}$ is a positive decreasing function of $t$. Thus,

$$
\frac{1}{p} \frac{\Delta^{\prime}(x)}{\Delta(x)}<\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{0}^{T}\left\{\frac{1}{(x-1) p+t}-\frac{1}{x p+t}\right\} d t+\log \frac{x-1}{x}=0
$$

which proves (24). Hence,

$$
\min \left\{\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}, \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, 1}\right\}=\left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1}\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{n p} d x\right)^{1 / p} .
$$

In the course of the above argument we have also shown that

$$
\inf _{0 \leqslant \xi \leqslant 1-2 / n} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 1, p, \xi}>\min \left\{\inf _{1-2 / n \leqslant \xi<1} \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, \xi}, \mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p, 1}\right\} ;
$$

so

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{n, 0, p}=\left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1}\left(\frac{1+x}{2}\right)^{n p} d x\right)^{1 / p} \quad(0<p<\infty) .
$$

Equivalently, for each $f \in \mathscr{P}_{n, 0} \equiv \mathscr{P}_{n}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|f\|_{\infty} \leqslant(n p+1)^{1 / p}\|f\|_{p} \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we have an equality only for constant multiples of $q_{n, 0}$ or of $q_{n, n}$. This proves Theorem 1 in the case $\mu=0$ and $p>0$.

Letting $p$ tend to zero in (37) we conclude that for all $f \in \mathscr{P}_{n, 0}$, we have

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leqslant e^{n}\|f\|_{0}
$$

wherein equality holds for polynomials of the form $c(1+x)^{n}$ and $c(1-x)^{n}$. For other polynomials in $\mathscr{P}_{n, 0} \equiv \mathscr{P}_{n}$, the inequality is strict; that can be proved the way we identified the extremal polynomials in the case $p=0$ and $\mu \geqslant 1$. Little new is involved; we leave the details to the reader.

## 3. PROOF OF COROLLARY 1

Let $f$ be a polynomial of degree at most $n$ having no zero in the open unit disk. Suppose in addition, that $f$ has zeros of multiplicity at least $\mu$ at -1 and 1 where $0 \leqslant \mu \leqslant[n / 2]$. Then $F(z):=f(z) \overline{f(\bar{z})}$ is a polynomial of degree at most $2 n$ with real coefficients and having no zeros in the open unit disk. Besides, $F$ has zeros of multiplicity at least $2 \mu$ at -1 and 1 . Hence, by Theorem 1,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|F\|_{p / 2}>\left\|q_{2 n, 2 \mu, *}\right\|_{p / 2}\|F\|_{\infty}, \quad 0 \leqslant p<\infty \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

unless $F$ is a constant multiple of $q_{2 n, 2 \mu}$ or $q_{2 n, 2 n-2 \mu}$. However, $F$ can be a constant multiple of $q_{2 n, 2 \mu}$ or $q_{2 n, 2 n-2 \mu}$ only if $f$ is a constant (possibly nonreal) multiple of $q_{n, \mu}$ or of $q_{n, n-\mu}$. From this, Corollary 1 follows since

$$
\|F\|_{p / 2}=\|f\|_{p}^{2}, \quad\left\|q_{2 n, 2 \mu, 0}\right\|_{p / 2}=\left\|q_{n, \mu, 0}\right\|_{p}^{2}, \quad \text { and } \quad\|F\|_{\infty}=\|f\|_{\infty}^{2} .
$$

## 4. PROOF OF COROLLARY 2

According to Theorem 1 , if $f$ or $-f$ belongs to $\mathscr{P}_{n, 1}$, then

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leqslant \frac{(n-1)^{n-1}}{n^{n}}\left(\frac{\Gamma(p n+2)}{\Gamma(p n-p+1) \Gamma(p+1)}\right)^{1 / p}\|f\|_{p}
$$

where equality holds only for constant multiples of $q_{n, 1}$ or of $q_{n, n-1}$.
Corollary 2 follows by combining this result with another result according to which if $f$ or $-f$ belongs to $\mathscr{P}_{n, 0}$, then [3, p. 205, Corollary 1] (also see [9])

$$
\left\|f^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \frac{n^{n}}{(n-1)^{n-1}}\|f\|_{\infty},
$$

with equality only for constant multiples of $q_{n, 1}$ or of $q_{n, n-1}$.

## 5. FINAL REMARKS

It is not without interest that our inequalities are valid and also sharp for all $p \geqslant 0$. The case $p \in[0,1)$ usually presents difficulties because $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ ceases to be a norm for such values of $p$. This point is well illustrated by the paper [2].

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