# Distribution of simple zeros of polynomials 

by

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## 1. Introduction and main results

It is well known that if $P_{n}(x)=x^{n}+\ldots$ is a monic polynomial of degree $n$, then its supremum norm on $[-1,1]$ is at least as large as $2^{1-n}$ :

$$
\left\|P_{n}\right\|_{[-1,1]} \geqslant \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}
$$

and here the equality sign holds only for the Chebyshev polynomials

$$
T_{n}(x)=2^{1-n} \cos (n \arccos x) .
$$

It is also known that if $\left\{P_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence of monic polynomials with the property

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|P_{n}\right\|_{[-1,1]}^{1 / n}=\frac{1}{2},
$$

then the zeros of the $P_{n}$ 's are distributed according to the arcsine distribution.
More precisely, we associate with $P_{n}$ the normalized zero counting measure

$$
\nu_{P_{n}}(A)=\frac{\text { number of zeros of } P_{n} \text { on } A}{n}
$$

where $A$ is any point set in $\mathbf{C}$. Let $\omega$ be the arcsine distribution, i.e.

$$
\omega([a, b])=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{a}^{b} \frac{d x}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}}
$$

for any subinterval $[a, b]$ of $[-1,1]$. Then the above statement about the zeros means that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu_{P_{n}}=\omega
$$

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in the weak* topology on measures on $\overline{\mathbf{C}}$. In particular, if all the zeros of the $P_{n}$ 's are real, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|\left(\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega\right)([a, b])\right|=0 \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

uniformly for $[a, b] \subseteq[-1,1]$. The supremum of the left hand side for all interval $[a, b] \subseteq$ $[-1,1]$ is called the discrepancy of the zeros of $P_{n}$.

From now on we shall assume that all the zeros $x_{i, n}$ of the $P_{n}$ 's are real and lie in $[-1,1]$.

In [6] Erdős and Turán gave a quantitative version of the convergence in (1.1) in the form

$$
\left|\left(\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega\right)([a, b])\right| \leqslant \frac{8}{\log 3} \sqrt{\frac{\log A_{n}}{n}}
$$

for any interval $[a, b] \subseteq[-1,1]$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|P_{n}\right\|_{[-1,1]} \leqslant A_{n} \frac{1}{2^{n}} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This result is sharp up to the constant $8 / \log 3$.
In the literature this basic estimate has been widely used in various discrepancy theorems. Erdős [4] proved a sharper estimate under the assumption that the maximum modulus of the polynomial on each interval determined by consecutive zeros is comparable to its maximum on the whole interval $[-1,1]$. Later Erdős and Turán [5] proved the analogue of the above result for the case when the norm is considered on the unit circle. (In such situations one gets discrepancy for the distribution of the arguments of the zeros.)

Returning to the real case, in a recent breaktrough H.-P. Blatt [3] noticed that if we know that all zeros of $P_{n}$ are simple, then the Erdős-Turán estimate may be strengthened. He assumed a lower bound for the derivative $\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(x_{i, n}\right)\right|$ at the zeros of $P_{n}$, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(x_{i, n}\right)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{B_{n}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}, \quad 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

He proved
Theorem A. Let $P_{n}$ be monic polynomials with zeros in $[-1,1]$ satisfying the conditions (1.2) and (1.3). Then there exists a constant $C$ (independent of $n$ ) such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left(\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega\right)([a, b])\right| \leqslant C \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \log n \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any interval $[a, b] \subset[-1,1]$, where

$$
C_{n}=\max \left(A_{n}, B_{n}, n\right)
$$

For two remarkable applications of this theorem concerning zeros of orthogonal polynomials and Kadec-type distribution of extremal points of best polynomial approximation see [3]. The point is that in these applications (and probably in many other ones) the additional assumption (1.3) is automatically satisfied, thus with no additional work we can get a remarkable improvement on the Erdös-Turán estimate.
H.-P. Blatt has also given an example which shows that in some cases his estimate is not very far from the best possible one, although in that example the additional log term on the right is missing. Let us also note that in certain cases this log factor places Blatt's result into a different category than the Erdős-Turán one, namely we do not get (1.1) from it. For example, if we know that $C_{n} \leqslant \exp \left(\varepsilon_{n} n\right)$, then (1.4) gives for the discrepancy only the estimate $O\left(\varepsilon_{n} \log n\right)$, although we know from (1.1) that this discrepancy tends to zero together with $\varepsilon_{n}$. However, we shall also see that in other ranges of $C_{n}$ (namely if $C_{n}=O\left(\exp \left(O\left(n^{\alpha}\right)\right)\right)$ with $\left.\alpha<1\right)$ Blatt's estimate is sharp.

In this paper our aim is to determine the best possible estimate for the discrepancy under the conditions of Theorem A. Since our estimate will be best possible, it will be continuous in the sense that it gives back (1.1) (as well as (1.4)). The methods reach beyond the theorems presented here, but we shall not pursue the most general form of our results.

Theorem 1.1. With the assumptions and notations of Theorem A we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left(\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega\right)([a, b])\right| \leqslant C \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \log \frac{n}{\log C_{n}} \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any interval $[a, b] \subset[-1,1]$.
Here $C$ is an absolute constant. Note that in the case $C_{n} \leqslant \exp \left(\varepsilon_{n} n\right)$ discussed above this gives the rate $\varepsilon_{n} \log 1 / \varepsilon_{n}$ for the discrepancy, which tends to zero together with $\varepsilon_{n}$.

Of course, in Theorem 1.1 one has to restrict $C_{n}$ to, say, $C_{n} \leqslant e^{n / 2}$, for otherwise nothing can be said about the distribution of the zeros. Actually, only the case $C_{n}=e^{o(n)}$ is interesting. Note also, that $C_{n} \geqslant n$ is always satisfied.

Theorem 1.1 is best possible.
Theorem 1.2. Let $\left\{C_{n}\right\}$ be an arbitrary sequence with the property that $n \leqslant C_{n} \leqslant$ $e^{n / 2}$. Then there are monic polynomials $P_{n}$ of corresponding degree $n=1,2, \ldots$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|P_{n}\right\|_{[-1,1]} \leqslant C_{n} \frac{1}{2^{n}} \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every zero $x_{i, n}$ of $P_{n}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(x_{i, n}\right)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{C_{n}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}, \quad 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and such that for some intervals $\left[a_{n}, b_{n}\right]$ of $[-1,1]$ the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left(\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega\right)\left(\left[a_{n}, b_{n}\right]\right)\right| \geqslant c \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \log \frac{n}{\log C_{n}} \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds with some positive $c$ independent of $n$.
Exactly as in [3] we shall get Theorem 1.1 by reformulating it in terms of logarithmic potentials, and then prove a discrepancy theorem for potentials. Since this reformulation is an integral part of the proof and it is not long, for the sake of completeness we copy the argument here from [3].

Let $G(z)$ denote Green's function of $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash[-1,1]$ with pole at infinity, i.e. $G(z)=$ $\log \left|z+\sqrt{z^{2}-1}\right|$, where we take that branch of $\sqrt{z}$ which is positive for positive $z$. Bernstein's inequality together with (1.2) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n} \log \left|P_{n}(z)\right|-G(z)-\log \frac{1}{2} \leqslant \frac{\log A_{n}}{n} \quad \text { for all } z \in \mathbf{C} . \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We also need a matching lower estimate on the left hand side. Lagrange's interpolation formula shows that

$$
1=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{P_{n}(z)}{P_{n}^{\prime}\left(x_{i, n}\right)\left(z-x_{i, n}\right)}
$$

For $z \notin[-1,1]$ let $d(z)$ denote the distance from the point $z$ to the interval $[-1,1]$. Then, the preceding inequality yields

$$
1 \leqslant n \frac{\left|P_{n}(z)\right|}{d(z)} B_{n} 2^{n}
$$

i.e.

$$
\left|P_{n}(z)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{n} \frac{d(z)}{B_{n}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}
$$

Let $\Gamma_{\varkappa}=\{z \in \mathbf{C} \mid G(z)=\log \varkappa\}, \varkappa>1$ be a level curve of the Green's function $G(z)$. Then $\Gamma_{\varkappa}$ is an ellipse with foci at $\pm 1$ and major axis $\varkappa+1 / \varkappa$. Hence,

$$
\inf _{z \in \Gamma_{\varkappa}} d(z)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\varkappa+\frac{1}{\varkappa}\right)-1 .
$$

Choosing

$$
\varkappa=\varkappa_{n}:=1+n^{-12}
$$

in the last inequality leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n} \log \left|P_{n}(z)\right|-G(z)-\log \frac{1}{2} \geqslant-d \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \tag{1.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $z \in \Gamma_{\varkappa_{n}}$, where $d>0$ is an absolute constant independent of $n$. The minimum principle for harmonic functions shows that (1.10) is actually satisfied for all $z$ with $G(z) \geqslant \log \varkappa_{n}$. (1.9) and (1.10) together show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{1}{n} \log \right| P_{n}(z)\left|-G(z)-\log \frac{1}{2}\right| \leqslant D \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \tag{1.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $z$ where $G(z) \geqslant \log \varkappa_{n}$.
Now we are going to rewrite this inequality in potential theoretical form. If $\mu$ is a Borel measure of compact support on $\mathbf{C}$, then its logarithmic potential is defined as

$$
U^{\mu}(z)=\int \log \frac{1}{|z-t|} d \mu(t)
$$

Since $-(1 / n) \log \left|P_{n}(z)\right|$ is the logarithmic potential $U^{\nu_{P_{n}}}$ of the measure $\nu_{P_{n}}$, and $-G(z)-\log \frac{1}{2}$ is the logarithmic potential $U^{\omega}(z)$ of the arcsine distribution $\omega$, (1.11) can be written as

$$
\left|U^{\nu_{P_{n}}}(z)-U^{\omega}(z)\right| \leqslant D \frac{\log C_{n}}{n}
$$

for all $z$ with $G(z) \geqslant \log \varkappa_{n}$. Now Theorem 1.1 follows from the last estimate and from the next theorem if we set $\sigma=\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega, \varepsilon=\left(\log C_{n}\right) / n$, and $\Delta=\frac{1}{2}$ in it.

THEOREM 1.3. Let $\sigma=\sigma_{+} \sigma_{-}$be a signed measure such that $\sigma_{ \pm}$are probability measures on $[-1,1]$ with the property that for some $0<\Delta \leqslant 1$ the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{-}(E) \leqslant C_{0} m(E)^{\Delta} \tag{1.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for every interval $E$, where $m$ denotes the linear Lebesgue measure. Then if with $L=5 / \Delta+2$ we have

$$
\left|U^{\sigma}(z)\right| \leqslant C_{1} \varepsilon
$$

for every $z$ with

$$
\operatorname{dist}(z,[-1,1]) \geqslant \varepsilon^{L}
$$

then

$$
|\sigma([a, b])| \leqslant C_{2} \varepsilon \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}
$$

holds for every interval $[a, b]$, where the constant $C_{2}$ depends exclusively on $C_{0}, C_{1}$ and $\Delta$.
The outline of the paper is as follows. In the next section we prove Theorem 1.3 with the help of a theorem on condenser potentials, which in turn will be proven in Section 4. The proof of Theorem 1.2 will be given in Section 3. The proof is distinctly different in the cases when $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$ and $C_{n}<n^{4}$. In the former case we can use weighted potentials with a discretization technique. This will be done in subsection 3.1. In the second case the theorem is proved by moving certain zeros of the Chebyshev polynomials, the details of which will be given in subsection 3.2.

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1.3

The main idea of the proof can be explained as follows. Let $[a, b] \subseteq[-1,1]$ be arbitrary. Suppose we had a signed measure $\mu$ of compact support lying at a distance $\geqslant \varepsilon^{L}$ from $[-1,1]$ such that $\|\mu\| \leqslant 2$, and if

$$
\chi_{[a, b]}:= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } x \in[a, b] \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

is the characteristic function of the interval $[a, b]$, then with

$$
\tau_{\varepsilon}=\frac{1}{\log 1 / \varepsilon}
$$

and some constant $c$ we have

$$
U^{\mu}(x)=c+\tau_{\varepsilon} \chi_{[a, b]}
$$

for all $x \in[-1,1]$. Then, using Fubini's theorem, we could write

$$
2 C_{1} \varepsilon \geqslant\left|\int U^{\sigma} d \mu\right|=\left|\int U^{\mu} d \sigma\right|=\left|\int_{a}^{b} \tau_{\varepsilon} d \sigma\right|=\tau_{\varepsilon}|\sigma(\{a, b])|,
$$

from which

$$
|\sigma([a, b])| \leqslant 2 C_{1} \varepsilon \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}
$$

follows immediately, and this is what we need to prove.
Unfortunately, the signed measure $\mu$ with the above properties does not exist. We can, however, get a measure, the properties of which will be close to the above ones; hence this measure can serve as a substitute. The rest of this section is devoted to the construction of that measure and to showing that the weaker properties it will possess are still sufficient for our purposes.

More precisely, we will construct a $\mu$ with the following properties.
Lemma 2.1. Let $L$ and $\Delta$ be the numbers from Theorem 1.3, and let $[a, b] \subseteq[-1,1]$, and $0<\varepsilon<\frac{1}{2}$ be arbitrary with $b-a \geqslant 2 \varepsilon^{1 / \Delta}$. Then there is a signed measure $\mu=\mu_{\varepsilon, a, b}$ and two numbers $c=c_{\varepsilon, a, b}$ and $\tau=\tau_{\varepsilon, a, b}$ with the following properties:
(1) $\operatorname{supp}(\mu)$ is compact and is at distance $\geqslant \varepsilon^{L}$ from $[-1,1]$,
(2) $\|\mu\| \leqslant 2$,
(3) $c \leqslant U^{\mu}(x) \leqslant c+\tau$ for every $x \in[-1,1]$,
(4) $\left|U^{\mu}(x)-\tau \chi_{[a, b]}(x)-c\right| \leqslant C_{3} \varepsilon$ for $x \in[a, b]$ and $x \in[-1,1] \backslash\left(a-\varepsilon^{2 / \Delta}, b+\varepsilon^{2 / \Delta}\right)$,
(5) $1 / C_{3} \leqslant \tau \log 1 / \varepsilon \leqslant C_{3}$.

Furthermore, here $C_{3}$ is an absolute constant.
The proof of Lemma 2.1 is quite long and involves explicit construction of some extremal measures, but before we set out to prove it we show how Theorem 1.3 can be obtained from it.

Proof of Theorem 1.3. First of all we simplify the problem, namely it is enough to prove the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma([a, b]) \leqslant C_{2} \varepsilon \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with some constant $C_{2}$ for all $[a, b] \subseteq[-1,1]$. In fact, then by applying (2.1) to the intervals $[-1, a]$ and $[b, 1]$ instead of $[a, b]$ and using that $\sigma([-1,1])=0$, we obtain the counterpart

$$
\sigma([a, b]) \geqslant-2 C_{2} \varepsilon \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}
$$

of (2.1), and with (2.1) this proves the claim.
Next we we observe that we may assume without loss of generality that $b-a \geqslant 2 \varepsilon^{1 / \Delta}$. In fact, suppose (2.1) has been verified in this case. Then if $a$ and $b$ are closer than $2 \varepsilon^{1 / \Delta}$, then we can enlarge $[a, b]$ to have length $2 \varepsilon^{1 / \Delta}$. If the enlarged interval is $\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]$, then we can apply (2.1) to $\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]$ instead of $[a, b]$ to get

$$
\sigma_{+}([a, b]) \leqslant \sigma_{+}\left(\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right) \leqslant \sigma_{-}\left(\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right)+C_{2} \varepsilon \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \leqslant 2 C_{0} \varepsilon+C_{2} \varepsilon \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}
$$

where, in the last step we applied (1.12). This proves (2.1) for all $[a, b]$ (with a possibly bigger constant).

Now we can apply Lemma 2.1. With the signed measure $\mu$ obtained there and with $\delta:=\varepsilon^{2 / \Delta}$ we get exactly as in the sketch above

$$
\begin{align*}
2 C_{1} \varepsilon & \geqslant \int U^{\sigma} d \mu=\int U^{\mu} d \sigma=\int\left(U^{\mu}-c\right) d \sigma \\
& =\int_{[a, b]}+\int_{[-1,1] \backslash[a-\delta, b+\delta]}+\int_{(a-\delta, a) \cup(b, b+\delta)} \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

where the domain of the last integral has to be appropriately adjusted if $a-\delta<-1$ or $b+\delta>1$. Using properties of $U^{\mu}$ we can continue this inequality as

$$
2 C_{1} \varepsilon \geqslant \int_{[a, b]} \tau d \sigma-\int_{(a-\delta, a) \cup(b, b+\delta)} \tau d \sigma_{-}-2 C_{3} \varepsilon \geqslant \tau \sigma[a, b]-2 \tau C_{0} \delta^{\Delta}-2 C_{3} \varepsilon
$$

where we have used (1.12) again. Since $\delta^{\Delta}=\varepsilon^{2}$, and by property (5) of the measure $\mu$

$$
\tau \sim \frac{1}{\log 1 / \varepsilon}
$$

we immediately arrive at (2.1) from this estimate.

### 2.1. Proof of Lemma 2.1

In the proof of Lemma 2.1 we shall use the so-called condenser potentials.
Let $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ be disjoint compact sets on $\mathbf{C}$ of positive capacity (the conductors) such that with $\Sigma=\Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}$ the complement $C \backslash \Sigma$ is connected. Such a pair ( $\Sigma_{1}, \Sigma_{2}$ ) is called a condenser. To each $j=1,2$ we assign a sign $\varepsilon_{j}= \pm 1$ (the sign of the charge), and let us agree that $\Sigma_{1}$ is the positive 'plate', i.e. $\varepsilon_{1}=+1$ and $\varepsilon_{2}=-1$. We want to minimize the energy

$$
\iint \log \frac{1}{|z-t|} d \mu(z) d \mu(t)
$$

for all signed measures of the form $\mu=\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}$, where $\mu_{j}$ is a positive measure on $\Sigma_{j}$ of total mass 1.

There is a unique extremal signed measure $\mu=\mu^{*}$ for which the infimum is attained. We call $\mu^{*}$ the equilibrium measure for the condenser $\left(\Sigma_{1}, \Sigma_{2}\right)$. The logarithmic potential of this extremal measure has the properties that there exist two constants $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ such that

$$
-F_{2} \leqslant U^{\mu^{*}}(z) \leqslant F_{1}
$$

for every $z \in \mathbf{C}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\mu^{*}}(z)=F_{1} \quad \text { for every } z \in \Sigma_{1} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the exception of a set of zero capacity (see Section 4; in what follows we shall abbreviate this fact as 'for quasi-every $z \in \Sigma_{1}$ '), and

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\mu^{*}}(z)=-F_{2} \quad \text { for quasi-every } z \in \Sigma_{2} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, if $\mathbf{C} \backslash \Sigma$ is regular with respect to the Dirichlet problem, then the last two equalities hold true for every $z \in \Sigma_{1}$ respectively $z \in \Sigma_{2}$. For all these results see [1] and [7].

Now we shall need to explicitly determine the extremal measure and the constant $F_{1}+F_{2}$ when $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ consist of finitely many intervals on the real line. Thus, let $\Sigma=\Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}$ be the union of some intervals $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right], b_{j}<a_{j+1}, j=1, \ldots, m$.

The following theorem is of independent interest, and will be proved in Section 4.
Theorem 2.2. Let $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ consist of intervals on the real line, $\Sigma=\Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}=$ $\bigcup_{j=1}^{m}\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{1}+F_{2}=\left|\int_{b_{j_{0}}}^{a_{j_{0}+1}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t\right| \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
d \mu^{*}(t)=\frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t
$$

where

$$
R(z)=\prod_{k=1}^{m}\left(z-a_{k}\right)\left(z-b_{k}\right)
$$

$j_{0}$ is an index such that $b_{j_{0}}$ and $a_{j_{0}+1}$ belong to different sets $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$, and where the coefficients of the polynomial

$$
P_{m-2}(t)=c_{m-2} t^{m-2}+\ldots+c_{0}
$$

are the solutions of the linear system of equations

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}}+\int_{b_{l(j)}}^{a_{l(j)+1}}\right) \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t=0, \quad j \neq j_{1}, j_{2} \\
\int_{\Sigma_{1}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t=1
\end{gathered}
$$

In this system for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant m$ the number $l(j) \geqslant j$ denotes the smallest index for which $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$ and $\left[a_{l(j)+1}, b_{l(j)+1}\right]$ belong to the same set $\Sigma_{1}$ or $\Sigma_{2}$, and $j_{1}$ and $j_{2}$ denote those two $j$ 's for which such an $l(j)$ does not exist. This system of equations has a unique solution.

Above we used that branch of the square root that is positive for positive $z$. We also note that the system of equations in the theorem is a real system for the coefficients of $P_{m-2}$ hence, $P_{m-2}$ is a real polynomial.

We shall need the following corollary of Theorem 2.2.
Corollary 2.3. In Theorem 2.2 let

$$
\Sigma_{1}=[-\alpha, \alpha] \quad \text { and } \quad \Sigma_{2}=[-2-\alpha,-\alpha-\eta] \cup[\alpha+\eta, 2+\alpha]
$$

with some $0<\eta \leqslant \alpha^{2} \leqslant \frac{1}{4}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{1}+F_{2} \sim \frac{1}{\log 1 / \eta}, \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\sim$ means that the ratio of the two sides is bounded away from 0 and $\infty$ by two absolute constants. Furthermore, the signed measure $\mu^{*}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure, and if we set

$$
d \mu^{*}(t)=v(t) d t
$$

then for $j=1,2,3$ and $t \in\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$

$$
\begin{equation*}
|v(t)| \leqslant \frac{1}{\eta} v_{j}(t)=: \frac{1}{\eta} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(t-a_{j}\right)\left(b_{j}-t\right)}} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that here $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$ denote the intervals of $\Sigma=\Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}$.
Proof of Corollary 2.3. According to Theorem 2.2 we have to solve the system of equations

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left(\int_{-\alpha-\eta}^{-\alpha}+\int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+\eta}\right) \frac{c_{1} t+c_{0}}{\sqrt{\left(t^{2}-(2+\alpha)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-(\alpha+\eta)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-\alpha^{2}\right)}} d t=0  \tag{2.8}\\
\int_{-\alpha}^{\alpha} \frac{1}{\pi i} \frac{c_{1} t+c_{0}}{\sqrt{\left(t^{2}-(2+\alpha)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-(\alpha+\eta)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-\alpha^{2}\right)}} d t=1 \tag{2.9}
\end{gather*}
$$

(we have incorporated the $-\operatorname{sign}$ from $-i \pi$ in (2.9) into $c_{1}$ and $c_{0}$ in order to get a positive $c_{0}$ below). Since the denominator in (2.8) takes opposite sign on $[-\alpha-\eta,-\alpha]$ and $[\alpha, \alpha+\eta]$, we get that $c_{1}$ must be zero. Then $c_{0}$ is obtained from the second equation:

$$
c_{0}=1 / \int_{-\alpha}^{\alpha} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left((2+\alpha)^{2}-t^{2}\right)\left((\alpha+\eta)^{2}-t^{2}\right)\left(\alpha^{2}-t^{2}\right)}} d t
$$

This easily yields

$$
c_{0} \sim \frac{\alpha}{\log \alpha / \eta} \sim \frac{\alpha}{\log 1 / \eta} .
$$

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{1}+F_{2} & =\left|\int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+\eta} \frac{c_{1} t+c_{0}}{\sqrt{\left(t^{2}-(2+\alpha)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-(\alpha+\eta)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-\alpha^{2}\right)}} d t\right| \\
& \sim \frac{\alpha}{\log 1 / \eta} \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+\eta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left((2+\alpha)^{2}-t^{2}\right)\left((\alpha+\eta)^{2}-t^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-\alpha^{2}\right)}} d t
\end{aligned}
$$

and if we use that

$$
\int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+\eta} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(t-\alpha)(\alpha+\eta-t)}} d t=1
$$

we get (2.6).
Since

$$
v(t)=\frac{1}{\pi i} \frac{c_{0}}{\sqrt{\left(t^{2}-(2+\alpha)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-(\alpha+\eta)^{2}\right)\left(t^{2}-\alpha^{2}\right)}}
$$

if $t \in \Sigma=[-2-\alpha,-\alpha-\eta] \cup[\alpha+\eta, \alpha+2] \cup[-\alpha, \alpha]$, while

$$
v_{j}(t)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(t-a_{j}\right)\left(b_{j}-t\right)}}
$$

(2.7) also easily follows.

Lemma 2.4. With the assumptions and notations of Corollary 2.3 we have for the potential of $\mu^{*}$ the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|U^{\mu^{*}}(x)-U^{\mu^{*}}(x \pm i \xi)\right| \leqslant \frac{6}{\eta}\left(\frac{\xi}{\alpha}\right)^{1 / 2} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $x \in \mathbf{R}$ and $0<\xi \leqslant \alpha / 2$.
Proof of Lemma 2.4. Using the second part of Corollary 2.3 we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|U^{\mu^{*}}(x)-U^{\mu^{*}}(x \pm i \xi)\right| & =\left|\int \log \right| \frac{x-t \pm i \xi}{x-t}\left|d \mu^{*}(t)\right| \\
& \leqslant \int \log \left|\frac{x-t \pm i \xi}{x-t}\right| d\left|\mu^{*}\right|(t) \\
& \leqslant \frac{1}{\eta} \int \log \left|\frac{x-t \pm i \xi}{x-t}\right|\left(v_{1}(t)+v_{2}(t)+v_{3}(t)\right) d t \\
& =\frac{1}{\eta} \sum_{j=1}^{3}\left|U^{v_{j}}(x)-U^{v_{j}}(x \pm i \xi)\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have used the self explanatory notation for the potential of a measure given by its density function. But with

$$
v(t)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}}
$$

we have

$$
U^{v_{j}}(z)=U^{v}(y)+\log \frac{2}{b_{j}-a_{j}}
$$

where $z$ and $y$ are connected by the formula

$$
y=\left(z-\frac{a_{j}+b_{j}}{2}\right) \frac{2}{b_{j}-a_{j}},
$$

hence the last sum is at most as large as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{3}{\eta} \max _{y \in \mathbf{R}}\left|U^{v}(y)-U^{v}\left(y \pm 2 i \frac{\xi}{b_{j}-a_{j}}\right)\right| \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{2 \xi}{b_{j}-a_{j}}\right| \leqslant \frac{2 \xi}{2 \alpha} \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
U^{v}(z)=-\log \left|z+\sqrt{z^{2}-1}\right|+\log 2
$$

One can easily prove that for fixed real $\zeta,|\zeta| \leqslant \frac{1}{2}$ the function

$$
\left|U^{v}(y)-U^{v}(y \pm i \zeta)\right|
$$

attains its maximum at $y= \pm 1$ and this maximum is at most $2 \sqrt{|\zeta|}$.
Substituting this into (2.11) we arrive at (2.10) (cf. also (2.12)).
Finally we can turn to the
Proof of Lemma 2.1. Suppose first that $[a, b]$ is symmetric on the origin, say $[a, b]=$ $[-\alpha, \alpha]$. Then we set $\eta=\varepsilon^{2 / \Delta}$ and choose $\mu$ to be equal to the translation of the measure $\mu^{*}$ from the previous two lemmas by $i \varepsilon^{L}$. With $c=-F_{2}$ and $\tau=F_{1}+F_{2}=F_{1}-\left(-F_{2}\right)$ the first two properties in Lemma 2.1 follow from the construction, the third one follows from the fact that for every $z$ the potential $U^{\mu^{*}}$ lies in between $F_{1}$ and $-F_{2}$ (see the discussion before Theorem 2.2). Property (4) is a consequence of the properties of $U^{\mu^{*}}$ (see the discussion before Theorem 2.2) and Lemma 2.4 if we also use that by the choice of the parameters we have $\alpha \geqslant \varepsilon^{1 / \Delta}$, and so

$$
\frac{1}{\eta}\left(\frac{\varepsilon^{L}}{\alpha}\right)^{1 / 2} \leqslant \varepsilon
$$

Note that this property (property (4)) actually holds in a wider range, namely for all

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \in \Sigma=[-2-\alpha,-\alpha-\eta] \cup[\alpha+\eta, \alpha+2] \cup[-\alpha, \alpha] . \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, the last property was proved in (2.6). These prove Lemma 2.1 in the symmetric case.

If $[a, b] \subseteq[-1,1]$ is arbitrary, then let $\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]=[-(b-a) / 2,(b-a) / 2]$, and let the just constructed signed measure for $\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]$ be $\mu^{\prime}$. Now we choose $\mu$ as the translation of the measure $\mu^{\prime}$ by $(a+b) / 2$. Since we have verified property (4) in the larger range (2.13), the translation of which (by $(a+b) / 2$ ) certainly covers the set appearing in (4), the signed measure $\mu$ satisfies all the requirements.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1.2

The proof is distinctively different in the ranges $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$ and $C_{n}<n^{4}$. We shall separate these two cases below. Of course, the sequence $\left\{C_{n}\right\}$ need not satisfy either $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$ or $C_{n}<n^{4}$ for all $n$, in which case one has to separate the terms with these two properties, respectively, and apply the two methods below to the appropriate terms.

### 3.1. Proof of Theorem 1.2 in the case when $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$

First we need a lemma.

Lemma 3.1. For any $x \in \mathbf{R}$ and $0<\eta<\theta$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\int_{\eta}^{\theta} \log \right| \frac{x+t}{x-t}\left|\frac{1}{t} d t\right| \leqslant 10 \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By the homogeneity of the integral we can assume without loss of generality that $\eta=1$ and $x \geqslant 0$. Furthermore, the ratio

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{x+t}{x-t}\right| \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is increasing as $x$ increases on $(0,1)$ for every fixed $t \geqslant 1$, hence we may even assume $x \geqslant 1$. Now we divide the domain of integration in (3.1) into three parts: $(1, x / 2),(x / 2,2 x)$ and ( $2 x, \theta$ ) with the obvious modifications if $x \leqslant 2$ or $x \geqslant \theta / 2$. On the first part we use that (3.2) is at most

$$
1+\frac{2 t}{x-t} \leqslant 1+\frac{4 t}{x}
$$

and so the integrand is at most $4 / x$, from which the contribution of this part to the left side of (3.1) is at most 2. In a similar manner, on $(2 x, \theta)$ we have for (3.2) the upper estimate

$$
1+\frac{2 x}{t-x} \leqslant 1+\frac{4 x}{t}
$$

so the contribution of the third integral is also at most 2 .
Finally,

$$
\left|\int_{x / 2}^{2 x} \log \right| \frac{x+t}{x-t}\left|\frac{1}{t} d t\right| \leqslant \frac{2}{x} \int_{x / 2}^{2 x} \log \left|\frac{x+t}{x-t}\right| d t=\frac{2}{x} \frac{x}{2}(2.5 \log 2+3 \log 3)<6
$$

With this technical lemma at our hand we can now prove Theorem 1.2 in the case when $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$.

Consider for an $0<\varepsilon \leqslant e^{-13}$ the function

$$
v_{\varepsilon}(t):= \begin{cases}(t-(1-\varepsilon))^{-1} & \text { if } \varepsilon^{3 / 2} \leqslant|t-(1-\varepsilon)| \leqslant \varepsilon \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

and the signed measure $\nu_{\varepsilon}$ that it defines:

$$
d \nu_{\varepsilon}(t)=c_{\varepsilon} v_{\varepsilon}(t) d t
$$

where the normalizing constant $c_{\varepsilon}$ is chosen so that the total variation of $\nu_{\varepsilon}$ be 2 , i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{\varepsilon}=\frac{2}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $\varepsilon^{3 / 2} \leqslant|t-(1-\varepsilon)| \leqslant \varepsilon$ we have

$$
\left|\varepsilon c_{\varepsilon} v_{\varepsilon}(t)\right| \leqslant \frac{2 \varepsilon}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{3 / 2}} \leqslant \frac{13}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-t^{2}}} \leqslant \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-t^{2}}}
$$

hence the signed measure

$$
\mu:=\omega+\varepsilon \nu_{\varepsilon}
$$

is a positive measure of total mass 1 which has density

$$
\begin{equation*}
\leqslant \frac{2}{\pi \sqrt{1-t^{2}}} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

on $[-1,1]$ (recall that $\omega$ denotes the arcsine measure). Furthermore, we can immediately get from Lemma 3.1 and the equality $U^{\omega}(x)=\log 2$ for $x \in[-1,1]$ that for such $x$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|U^{\mu}(x)-U^{\omega}(x)\right|=\left|U^{\omega}(x)\right|\left|\varepsilon U^{\nu_{\varepsilon}}(x)\right|=(\log 2) \varepsilon c_{\varepsilon}\left|\int_{\varepsilon^{3 / 2}}^{\varepsilon} \log \right| \frac{x+t}{x-t}\left|\frac{1}{t} d t\right| \leqslant \frac{20 \varepsilon}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we shall utilize an idea of E. A. Rahmanov on how to distribute the zeros of a polynomial if we want to get a discretized version of a potential. We need the following quantitative version (see [10, Lemma 6.1]).

For an integer $n$ let

$$
-1=y_{0, n}<y_{1, n}<\ldots<y_{n, n}=1
$$

be that partition of $[-1,1]$ for which $\mu\left(\left[y_{j, n}, y_{j+1, n}\right]\right)=1 / n$ for all $0 \leqslant j \leqslant n-1$. Consider the polynomials

$$
P_{n}(x)=\prod_{j=1}^{n-1}\left(x-y_{j, n}\right)
$$

Using the monotonicity of the logarithmic function it is not too hard to see (see [10, pp. 40-43]) that if for some constants $\alpha$ and $\beta$ the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{|x-t| \leqslant n^{-\alpha}}|\log | x-t| | d \mu(t) \leqslant \beta \frac{\log n}{n} \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds, then

$$
\left|P_{n}(x)\right| \leqslant n^{\alpha+\beta} \exp \left(-n U^{\mu}(x)\right), \quad x \in \mathbf{R}
$$

and

$$
\left|P_{n}(x)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{4} \exp \left(-n U^{\mu}(x)\right)\left|x-y_{n_{x}, n}\right|
$$

where $y_{n_{x}, n}$ denotes the zero of $P_{n}$ closest to $x$.

If the potential $U^{\mu}$ is continuous on $[-1,1]$, then the latter inequality immediately implies

$$
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(y_{j, n}\right)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{4} \exp \left(-n U^{\mu}\left(y_{j, n}\right)\right)
$$

for every zero $y_{j, n}$ of $P_{n}$ (actually this is true without the continuity assumption).
In our case the potential $U^{\mu}$ is obviously continuous, furthermore (3.6) holds with $\alpha=\frac{5}{2}$ and $\beta=\frac{1}{2}$ for large $n$ (cf. the estimate (3.4) for the density of $\mu$ ). On applying (3.5) we can thus write

$$
\left|P_{n}(x)\right| \leqslant \exp \left(\frac{20 \varepsilon}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} n+3 \log n\right) \frac{1}{2^{n}}
$$

and for each $j=1, \ldots, n$

$$
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(y_{j, n}\right)\right| \geqslant \exp \left(-\frac{20 \varepsilon}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} n-2\right) \frac{1}{2^{n}}
$$

Now if $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$ is given, then we define $\varepsilon=\varepsilon_{n}$ by the equality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log C_{n}=\frac{20 \varepsilon}{\log 1 / \varepsilon} n+3 \log n \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\log C_{n}-3 \log n \geqslant \frac{1}{4} \log C_{n}$, we can deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{n} \sim \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \log \frac{n}{\log C_{n}} \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now if we assume that this $\varepsilon$ satisfies $\varepsilon \leqslant e^{-13}$, then we can apply all of our estimates so far to deduce

$$
\left\|P_{n}\right\|_{[-1,1]} \leqslant \frac{C_{n}}{2^{n}}
$$

and

$$
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(y_{j, n}\right)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{C_{n}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}, \quad j=1, \ldots, n
$$

But the polynomial $P_{n}$ has $[n \mu([1-2 \varepsilon, 1-\varepsilon])]$ plus minus one zeros on the interval $[1-2 \varepsilon, 1-\varepsilon]$, hence for the discrepancy of its zeros we have

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left|\left(\nu_{P_{n}}-\omega\right)([1-2 \varepsilon, 1-\varepsilon])\right| \geqslant\left|\varepsilon \nu_{\varepsilon}([1-2 \varepsilon, 1-\varepsilon])\right|-\frac{1}{n} \\
\quad=\frac{\varepsilon\left\|\nu_{\varepsilon}\right\|}{2}-\frac{1}{n}=\varepsilon-\frac{1}{n} \geqslant c \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \log \frac{n}{\log C_{n}} \tag{3.9}
\end{gather*}
$$

with some absolute constant $c>0$, where at the last step we used (3.8).
These inequalities prove Theorem 1.2 in the case when $C_{n} \geqslant n^{4}$ and the $\varepsilon=\varepsilon_{n}$ from (3.7) satisfies $\varepsilon \leqslant e^{-13}$. If the latter condition is not satisfied, then all we have to do to copy the above argument is to choose $\varepsilon=e^{-13}$, for which the last inequality in (3.9) is still valid with some positive $c$.

### 3.2. Proof of Theorem 1.2 in the case $C_{n}<n^{4}$

Let

$$
T_{n}(x)=\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \cos (n \arccos x)
$$

be the monic Chebyshev polynomials. $T_{n}$ has the zeros $\cos ((2 k-1) \pi / 2 n), k=1, \ldots, n$ which are the projections onto $[-1,1]$ of the equidistant points $\exp ((2 k-1) \pi i / 2 n), k=$ $1,2, \ldots, 2 n$ lying on the unit circumference. This easily implies that the discrepancy of $T_{n}$ is at most $1 / n$. We shall construct our $P_{n}$ by moving some zeros of $T_{n}$.

For an $n$ define

$$
\varepsilon=\frac{\log ^{2} n}{n}
$$

and $a=1-2 \varepsilon$. The point $a$ will be the center of the zero movements, we shall, roughly speaking, reflect some zeros of $T_{n}$, distributed according to a logarithmic scale, onto $a$.

To this end we choose a large constant $C$ that will be specified later (we shall see that actually any $C>80$ will do the job), and with it we define some numbers $\xi_{0}, \ldots, \xi_{J}$ as follows: we set $\xi_{0}=\varepsilon^{4 / 3}$, and for other $j$ 's we define $\xi_{j+1}$ in terms of $\xi_{j}$ via the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\xi_{j}}^{\xi_{j+1}} \frac{1}{t} d t=\frac{C}{\log n} \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and let $J$ be the largest number for which $\xi_{J+1} \leqslant \varepsilon$. Then

$$
J \sim \frac{\log ^{2} n}{C}
$$

Now let $x_{j}$ be the nearest zero of $T_{n}$ to $a-\xi_{j}$ and $y_{j}$ the nearest zero of $T_{n}^{\prime}$ (note the prime!) to $a+\xi_{j}$, and form the rational function

$$
r_{J}(t)=\prod_{j=0}^{J} \frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}
$$

We transform the zeros of $T_{n}$ with the help of $r_{J}$, namely we set

$$
P_{n}(t):=T_{n}(t) r_{J}(t) .
$$

We claim that for large enough $C$ (to be chosen below) and large $n$ the following estimates hold: for every $t \in[-1,1]$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|P_{n}(t)\right|_{[-1,1]} \leqslant \frac{n^{3 / 4}}{2^{n}} \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and for every zero $\theta$ of $P_{n}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}(\theta)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{n^{3 / 4}} \frac{1}{2^{n}} \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

From these Theorem 1.2 immediately follows in the case $n \leqslant C_{n} \leqslant n^{4}$. In fact, by our construction we have removed $J+1$ zeros of $T_{n}$ from the interval [1-3, $\left.1-2 \varepsilon\right]$, hence the discrepancy of $P_{n}$ is at least as large as

$$
\frac{J}{n} \geqslant c \frac{\log ^{2} n}{n}
$$

which is

$$
\geqslant c \frac{\log C_{n}}{n} \log \frac{n}{\log C_{n}}
$$

in the present case.
Thus, it remains to prove (3.11) and (3.12). We start with (3.11). In the proof below $D$ will denote absolute constants that may vary from line to line, but $C$ is one and the same throughout the proof.

Proof of (3.11). First of all, the definition of the $\xi_{j}$ 's gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi_{j+1}-\xi_{j}=\xi_{j}\left(e^{C / \log n}-1\right)=\xi_{j} \frac{C}{\log n}+O\left(\frac{\xi_{j}}{\log ^{2} n}\right) \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is much larger than the largest distance between consecutive zeros of $T_{n}$ and $T_{n}^{\prime}$ on [ $1-4 \varepsilon, 1-\varepsilon / 2]$ which is

$$
\sim \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}{n} \leqslant D \frac{\log n}{n^{3 / 2}}
$$

Thus, we immediately get the estimates

$$
\left|y_{j}-\left(a+\xi_{j}\right)\right| \leqslant D \frac{\log n}{n^{3 / 2}}
$$

and

$$
\left|x_{j}-\left(a-\xi_{j}\right)\right| \leqslant D \frac{\log n}{n^{3 / 2}}
$$

Since every ratio

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}\right|, \quad j=0,1, \ldots, J \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

is increasing on the interval $\left[-1, x_{J}\right]$, and the polynomial $T_{n}$ attains its maximum on $\left[x_{J+1}, x_{J}\right]$, we can restrict our attention to $t \in\left[x_{J+1}, 1\right]$. It is also immediate that for $t \in\left[a+\varepsilon^{4 / 3} / 2,1\right]$ the rational function $r_{J}(t)$ is at most 1 in absolute value, so this leaves us to consider the case $t \in\left[x_{J+1}, a+\varepsilon^{4 / 3} / 2\right]$. We shall prove (3.11) for $t \in\left[x_{J}, x_{0}\right]$ because the consideration is the same (actually somewhat simpler) for $t \in\left[x_{J+1}, x_{J}\right]$ or $t \in$ $\left[x_{0}, a+\varepsilon^{4 / 3} / 2\right]$.

Thus, let $x_{j_{0}+1} \leqslant t \leqslant x_{j_{0}}$ for some $j=0, \ldots, J-1$. We separate the $j_{0}$ th and $\left(j_{0}+1\right)$ st terms in $r_{J}$, and first estimate the products of the terms with index smaller than $j_{0}$ and then with index greater than $j_{0}$, respectively.

We write

$$
\prod_{j=0}^{j_{0}-1} \frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}=\prod_{j=0}^{j_{0}-1} \frac{1-\left(y_{j}-\left(a+\xi_{j}\right)\right) /\left(t-\left(a+\xi_{j}\right)\right)}{1-\left(x_{j}-\left(a-\xi_{j}\right)\right) /\left(t-\left(a-\xi_{j}\right)\right)} \cdot \frac{t-\left(a+\xi_{j}\right)}{t-\left(a-\xi_{j}\right)}=: \Pi_{1} \Pi_{2}
$$

Here we have for the denominators

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|t-\left(a \pm \xi_{j}\right)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{2}\left|\xi_{j_{0}}-\xi_{j_{0}-1}\right| \geqslant \xi_{j_{0}-1} \frac{C}{3 \log n} \geqslant \frac{C}{3} \frac{\log ^{5 / 3} n}{n^{4 / 3}} \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

and so

$$
\left|\frac{y_{j}-\left(a+\xi_{j}\right)}{t-\left(a+\xi_{j}\right)}\right| \leqslant \frac{D n^{-3 / 2} \log n}{(C / 3) n^{-4 / 3} \log ^{5 / 3} n} \leqslant \frac{D}{C} n^{-1 / 6}
$$

and

$$
\left|\frac{x_{j}-\left(a-\xi_{j}\right)}{t-\left(a-\xi_{j}\right)}\right| \leqslant \frac{D n^{-3 / 2} \log n}{(C / 3) n^{-4 / 3} \log ^{5 / 3} n} \leqslant \frac{D}{C} n^{-1 / 6}
$$

These yield

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\Pi_{1}\right| \leqslant\left(\frac{1+(D / C) n^{-1 / 6}}{1-(D / C) n^{-1 / 6}}\right)^{J} \leqslant \exp \left(\frac{D}{C^{2}} \frac{\log ^{2} n}{n^{1 / 6}}\right) \tag{3.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the estimate of $\Pi_{2}$ we shall make use of Lemma 3.1. Using the monotonicity of the ratios (3.14) we can write with $\tau:=t-a<0$

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|\log \prod_{j=0}^{j_{0}-1}\right| \frac{\tau-\xi_{j}}{\tau+\xi_{j}}|\mid & =\frac{\log n}{C} \sum_{j=0}^{j_{0}-1} \log \left|\frac{\tau-\xi_{j}}{\tau+\xi_{j}}\right| \int_{\xi_{j}}^{\xi_{j+1}} \frac{1}{u} d u  \tag{3.17}\\
& \leqslant \frac{\log n}{C} \int_{\xi_{0}}^{\xi_{j_{0}}} \log \left|\frac{\tau-u}{\tau+u}\right| \frac{1}{u} d u \leqslant \frac{10 \log n}{C}
\end{align*}
$$

where, at the last step we used Lemma 3.1. From (3.16) and (3.17) we finally arrive at

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{j=0}^{j_{0}-1}\left|\frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}\right|=\left|\Pi_{1}\right|\left|\Pi_{2}\right| \leqslant \exp \left(\frac{D}{C^{2}} \frac{\log ^{2} n}{n^{1 / 6}}+\frac{10 \log n}{C}\right) . \tag{3.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\log \prod_{j=j_{0}+2}^{J}\right| \frac{\tau-\xi_{j}}{\tau+\xi_{j}}|\mid & =\frac{\log n}{C} \sum_{j=j_{0}+2}^{J} \log \left|\frac{\tau-\xi_{j}}{\tau+\xi_{j}}\right| \int_{\xi_{j}-1}^{\xi_{j}} \frac{1}{u} d u \\
& \leqslant \frac{\log n}{C} \int_{\xi_{j_{0}+1}}^{\xi_{.}} \log \left|\frac{\tau-u}{\tau+u}\right| \frac{1}{u} d u \leqslant \frac{10 \log n}{C}
\end{aligned}
$$

we get similarly

$$
\begin{equation*}
\prod_{j=j_{0}+2}^{J}\left|\frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}\right| \leqslant \exp \left(\frac{D}{C^{2}} \frac{\log ^{2} n}{n^{1 / 6}}+\frac{10 \log n}{C}\right) . \tag{3.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

As for the remaining two factors

$$
\frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}
$$

in $r_{J}$ with $j=j_{0}$ and $j=j_{0}+1$, we note that only one of them can be really large. In fact, $t$ lies either closer to $x_{j_{0}}$ or closer to $x_{j_{0}+1}$. Consider the first case, the other one is similar. Then for the second term we get from (3.13)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}\right| \leqslant \frac{3 \xi_{j_{0}}}{\xi_{j_{0}} C /(3 \log n)} \leqslant \frac{9}{C} \log n . \tag{3.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, for the other term with $j=j_{0}$ we get by the mean value theorem

$$
\left|T_{n}(t) \frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}\right|=\left|\frac{T_{n}(t)-T_{n}\left(x_{j_{0}}\right)}{t-x_{j_{0}}}\right|\left|t-y_{j_{0}}\right|=\left|T_{n}^{\prime}(\theta)\right|\left|t-y_{j_{0}}\right|
$$

with some $\theta \in[1-3 \varepsilon, 1-\varepsilon]$. We can explicitly calculate the derivative of $T_{n}$, and with the inequality $\left|t-y_{j_{0}}\right| \leqslant 2 \varepsilon$ we finally arrive at

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|T_{n}(t) \frac{t-y_{j}}{t-x_{j}}\right| \leqslant \frac{n}{2^{n-1}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(1-\varepsilon)^{2}}} 2 \varepsilon \leqslant \frac{4 \sqrt{n} \log n}{2^{n}} . \tag{3.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (3.18)-(3.21) it follows that

$$
\left|P_{n}(t)\right|=\left|T_{n}(t) r_{n}(t)\right| \leqslant \frac{4 \sqrt{n} \log n}{2^{n}} \frac{9 \log n}{C} \exp \left(\frac{D}{C^{2}} \frac{\log ^{2} n}{n^{1 / 6}}+\frac{20 \log n}{C}\right) \leqslant \frac{n^{3 / 4}}{2^{n}}
$$

if we choose $C$ larger than, say 80 , and $n$ is sufficiently large. This proves (3.11).
Proof of (3.12). Let $\theta$ be a zero of $P_{n}$. Then $\theta$ is either a $y_{j}$, or a zero of $T_{n}$ different from every $x_{j}$. Let us consider first the case when $\theta=y_{j_{0}}$ for some $j_{0} \in\{0, \ldots, J\}$. Then

$$
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}(\theta)\right|=\left|T_{n}^{\prime}(\theta) r_{J}(\theta)+T_{n}(\theta) r_{J}^{\prime}(\theta)\right|=\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}\left|r_{J}^{\prime}\left(y_{j_{0}}\right)\right|
$$

because $\theta$ is a zero of $T_{n}^{\prime}$ by the choice of the numbers $y_{j}$, and at every zero of $T_{n}^{\prime}$ the value of $T_{n}$ equals $2^{-n+1}$. The derivative of $r_{J}$ at $y_{j_{0}}$ equals

$$
\prod_{j \neq j_{0}} \frac{y_{j_{0}}-y_{j}}{y_{j_{0}}-x_{j}} \cdot \frac{1}{y_{j_{0}}-x_{j_{0}}}
$$

In the proof of (3.11) we have verified that

$$
\left|\prod_{j \neq j_{0}} \frac{y_{j_{0}}-x_{j}}{y_{j_{0}}-y_{j}}\right| \leqslant n^{3 / 4}
$$

more precisely we have proved in (3.18)-(3.21) a similar inequality in which the role of the $x_{j}$ 's and $y_{j}$ 's have been switched. Thus, taking reciprocal, we finally get

$$
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}(\theta)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{n^{3 / 4}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}
$$

which is exactly (3.12).
If $\theta$ is one of the zeros of $T_{n}$, then

$$
P_{n}^{\prime}(\theta)=T_{n}^{\prime}(\theta) r_{J}(\theta)+T_{n}(\theta) r_{J}^{\prime}(\theta)=T_{n}^{\prime}(\theta) r_{J}(\theta)
$$

Here

$$
\left|T_{n}^{\prime}(\theta)\right| \geqslant \frac{n}{2^{n-1}}
$$

while exactly as above

$$
\left|r_{J}(\theta)\right| \geqslant \frac{1}{n^{3 / 4}}
$$

by which (3.12) has been verified.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 2.2

Let $\mu^{*}=\mu_{1}^{*}-\mu_{2}^{*},\left\|\mu_{i}^{*}\right\|=1, \operatorname{supp}\left(\mu_{i}^{*}\right) \subset \Sigma_{i}, i=1,2$ be the equilibrium measure from the energy problem discussed in the beginning of Section 2.1. We know that $U^{\mu^{*}}$ equals some constant $F_{1}$ on $\Sigma_{1}$ and another one $-F_{2}$ on $\Sigma_{2}$. Using these facts, first we determine the signed measure $\mu^{*}$.

In the proof we need the concept of equilibrium measure associated with a compact set on the plane, and the concept of balayage measure.

The logarithmic energy of a measure $\nu$ of compact support is defined as

$$
I(\nu):=\int U^{\nu}(z) d \nu(z)=\iint \log \frac{1}{|z-t|} d \nu(t) d \nu(z)
$$

If $K$ is a compact set, then its logarithmic capacity $\operatorname{cap}(K)$ is defined by the formula

$$
\log \frac{1}{\operatorname{cap}(K)}:=\inf \{I(\nu) \mid \operatorname{supp}(\nu) \subset K, \nu \geqslant 0,\|\nu\|=1\}
$$

where $\|\nu\|$ denotes the total variation (total mass) of $\nu$.

If $K$ is of positive capacity, then there exists a unique probability measure $\nu=\nu_{K}$ on $K$ for which the infimum on the right is attained, that is, $\nu_{K}$ is the unique measure that minimizes the energy integral $I(\nu)$ among all probability measures defined on $K$ (see [12, Chapter II]).

This so-called equilibrium measure $\nu_{K}$ possesses the following properties:
(i) $U^{\nu_{K}}(z) \leqslant \log 1 / \operatorname{cap}(K)$ for $z \in \mathbf{C}$,
(ii) $U^{\nu_{K}}(z)=\log 1 / \operatorname{cap}(K)$ for quasi-every $z \in K$.

These properties can also be used to define $\nu_{K}$. Furthermore, the equilibrium measure $\nu_{K}$ is supported on the outer boundary of $K$, which is defined as the boundary of the unbounded component of $\mathbf{C} \backslash K$. For example, the equilibrium measure of the interval $[-1,1]$ is the arcsine measure $\omega$, while that of a disk or circle is the normalized Lebesgue measure on the circumference.

Consider in $\mathbf{C}$ an open set $G$ with compact boundary $\partial G$, and let $\mu$ be a measure with $\operatorname{supp}(\mu) \subseteq \bar{G}$. The problem of balayage (or 'sweeping out') consists of finding a new measure $\mu^{\prime},\left\|\mu^{\prime}\right\|=\|\mu\|$ supported on $\partial G$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\mu}(z)=U^{\mu^{\prime}}(z) \quad \text { for quasi-every } z \notin G \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For bounded $G$ such a measure always exists ([9, Chapter IV, §2, Section 2]), but for unbounded $G$ we must replace (4.1) by

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\mu}(z)=U^{\mu^{\prime}}(z)+c \quad \text { for quasi-every } z \notin G \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here the constant $c$ turns out to be equal to

$$
-\int_{\Omega} G_{\infty}(z) d \mu(y)
$$

where $\Omega$ is the component of $G$ that contains the point infinity and $G_{\infty}(z)$ is the Green function of that component with pole at infinity ([9, (4.2.6)]). Besides (4.1)-(4.2) we also know ([9, (4.210)]) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\mu^{\prime}}(z) \leqslant U^{\mu}(z) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

respectively

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\mu^{\prime}}(z) \leqslant U^{\mu}(z)+\int_{\Omega} G_{\infty}(y) d \mu(y) \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold for all $z \in \mathbf{C}$.
Furthermore, if $G$ is connected and regular with respect to the Dirichlet problem (i.e. every Dirichlet problem with continuous boundary function has a continuous solution up to the boundary), then in (4.1)-(4.2) we have equality for all $z \notin G$ ([9, Theorem 4.5]). The equality for $z \notin \bar{G}$ occurs automatically.

The balayage measure $\mu^{\prime}$ has the additional property (see [9, Chapter IV, §1]), that if $h$ is a continuous function on $\bar{G}$ which is harmonic in $G$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int h d \mu=\int h d \mu^{\prime} \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

After these preparations we return to the equilibrium measure $\mu^{*}=\mu_{1}^{*}-\mu_{2}^{*}$ associated with the condenser ( $\Sigma_{1}, \Sigma_{2}$ ).

Let us compare the measures $\mu_{1}^{*}$ and $\left(\mu_{2}^{*}\right)^{\prime}$, where the latter one is the measure that we get when we sweep $\mu_{2}^{*}$ out of $\mathbf{C} \backslash \Sigma_{1}$ onto $\Sigma_{1}$. Both of these measures are probability measures on $\Sigma_{1}$ and their difference is constant on $\Sigma_{1}$ by the properties of $\mu^{*}$ and the balayage measures. Thus, it follows from the principle of domination ([9, Theorem 1.27]) that the potential $U^{\mu_{1}^{*}-\left(\mu_{2}^{*}\right)^{\prime}}$ of $\mu_{1}^{*}-\left(\mu_{2}^{*}\right)^{\prime}$ is identically constant, and since this constant must be zero (consider the potential around infinity), we get that the two potentials $U^{\mu_{1}^{*}}$ and $U^{\left(\mu_{2}^{*}\right)^{\prime}}$ coincide, which implies that the measures $\mu_{1}^{*}$ and $\left(\mu_{2}^{*}\right)^{\prime}$ are the same ( $[9$, Theorem 1.12 ${ }^{\prime}$ ).

Since the same can be said when we sweep out the measure $\mu_{1}^{*}$ from $\mathbf{C} \backslash \Sigma_{2}$ onto $\Sigma_{2}$, we get that the measures $\mu_{1}^{*}$ and $\mu_{2}^{*}$ are each other's balayage measures.

We need one more thing before we can proceed with the proof of Theorem 2.2. Let us consider e.g. $\Sigma_{1}$, and let $G$ be a disk containing $\Sigma_{1}$. Since the equilibrium measure of $\bar{G}$ is the normalized Lebesgue measure $m_{\partial G}$ on the boundary of $G$, and the equilibrium potential of $\bar{G}$ is constant on $\Sigma_{\mathbf{1}}$, it follows exactly as in the preceding paragraph that if we take the balayage of $m_{\partial G}$ out of $\mathbf{C} \backslash \Sigma_{1}$ onto $\Sigma_{1}$, then we obtain $\nu_{\Sigma_{1}}$. Let us now apply (4.5) and let the radius of the disk $G$ tend to infinity. Then we arrive at the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(\infty)=\int h d \nu_{\Sigma_{1}} \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $h$ that is continuous on $\overline{\mathbf{C}}$ and harmonic on $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash \Sigma_{1}$.
After these preparations we set out to prove Theorem 2.2.
First we show that there are constants $c, C$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
c \nu_{\Sigma_{j}} \leqslant \mu_{j}^{*} \leqslant C \nu_{\Sigma_{j}}, \quad j=1,2 \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $h$ be an arbitrary nonnegative continuous function on $\Sigma_{1}$. Since $\Sigma_{1}$ is regular with respect to the solution of the Dirichlet problem in $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash \Sigma_{1}, h$ can be extended to a nonnegative harmonic function to $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash \Sigma_{1}$, which we continue to denote by $h$, so that $h$ is continuous on the whole Riemann sphere. Using that $\mu_{1}^{*}$ is the balayage of $\mu_{2}^{*}$ onto $\Sigma_{2}$ we have

$$
\int h d \mu_{2}^{*}=\int h d \mu_{1}^{*}
$$

As we have seen in (4.6), we also have

$$
h(\infty)=\int h d \nu_{\Sigma_{1}}
$$

Now Harnack's inequality for nonnegative harmonic functions implies that there are constants $c, C$ independent of $h$ such that

$$
c h(\infty) \leqslant h(t) \leqslant C h(\infty)
$$

for $t \in \operatorname{supp}\left(\mu_{2}^{*}\right) \subseteq \Sigma_{2}$. On integrating this inequality with respect to $\mu_{2}^{*}$ and taking into account the preceding relations, we arrive at

$$
\int h d\left(\mu_{1}^{*}-c \nu_{\Sigma_{1}}\right) \geqslant 0, \quad \int h d\left(C \nu_{\Sigma_{1}}-\mu_{1}^{*}\right) \geqslant 0
$$

The signed measures with respect to which the integrals are taken are supported on $\Sigma_{1}$, and since these inequalities hold for all nonnegative continuous function $h$ on $\Sigma_{1}$, we can conclude that the signed measures $\mu_{1}^{*}-c \nu_{\Sigma_{1}}$ and $C \nu_{\Sigma_{1}}-\mu_{1}^{*}$ are actually positive measures and this is the inequality (4.7) for $j=1$. When $j=2$, the proof is similar.

Next we need an estimate on the equilibrium measures $\nu_{\Sigma_{j}}$. Namely we need that they are absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure on $\Sigma_{j}$, and if

$$
\Sigma_{j}=\bigcup_{k=1}^{m_{j}}\left[a_{k}^{(j)}, b_{k}^{(j)}\right], \quad b_{k}^{(j)}<a_{k+1}^{(j)}, \quad k=1, \ldots, m_{j}-1
$$

then there are numbers $y_{k}^{(j)} \in\left(b_{k}^{(j)}, a_{k+1}^{(j)}\right), k=1, \ldots, m_{j}-1$ such that

$$
d \mu_{j}^{*}(t)=\frac{S_{j}(t)}{\pi \sqrt{\left|R_{j}(t)\right|}} d t
$$

where

$$
R_{j}(t)=\prod_{k=1}^{m_{j}}\left(t-a_{k}^{(j)}\right)\left(t-b_{k}^{(j)}\right)
$$

and

$$
S_{j}(t)=\prod_{k=1}^{m_{k}-1}\left|t-y_{k}^{(j)}\right|
$$

([11, Lemma 4.4.1]).
From this representation of the equilibrium measures $\nu_{\Sigma_{j}}$ and from (4.7), it easily follows that the function

$$
H(z)=\left(\int \frac{d \mu^{*}(t)}{z-t}\right)^{2}
$$

has a simple pole at each $a_{j}, b_{j}$. We claim that elsewhere $H$ is analytic. This is obvious in $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash \Sigma$, and the analyticity on each of $\left(a_{j}, b_{j}\right)$ can be proved as follows. If we cut $\mathbf{C}$ along $\Sigma$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int \frac{d \mu^{*}(t)}{z-t} \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

is purely imaginary on the cut, because the real part of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int \log (z-t) d \mu^{*}(t) \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the potential $U^{\mu^{*}}(z)$ and so it is constant on each interval of $\Sigma$; hence the real part of the derivative of (4.9) vanishes on $\Sigma$. Furthermore, (4.8) takes conjugate values for conjugate arguments; therefore, (4.8) takes opposite values on the upper and lower parts of the cut. Squaring these opposite values as in $H$ we get that $H$ is real on the cut and takes conjugate values for conjugate arguments on the upper and lower parts of the cut; hence the analyticity of $H$ on $\bigcup\left(a_{j}, b_{j}\right)$ follows from the continuation principle for analytic functions. Of course, to do all these deductions, we need that $H$, which on $\bigcup_{j=1}^{m}\left(a_{j}, b_{j}\right)$ must be understood in principal value sense, is continuous on the cut. Seeing however that e.g. on $\Sigma_{1}$ the measure $\mu_{1}^{*}$ is given as the balayage of $\mu_{2}^{*}$ onto $\Sigma_{1}$, the density function of $\mu^{*}$ is analytic on $\bigcup\left(a_{j}, b_{j}\right)$ (cf. [9, (4.1.6)]), from which the claimed continuity easily follows.

In summary, the function $H$ is a rational function. Obviously, $H$ has a zero at infinity with multiplicity 4 (recall that $\mu^{*}$ is orthogonal to constants) and each of its zeros is of even multiplicity; hence $H$ is of the form

$$
H(z)=\frac{\left(P_{m-2}(z)\right)^{2}}{R(z)}
$$

where

$$
R(z)=\prod_{k=1}^{m}\left(z-a_{k}\right)\left(z-b_{k}\right)
$$

and

$$
P_{m-2}(z)=c_{m-2} z^{m-2}+\ldots+c_{0}
$$

is a polynomial of degree at most $m-2$. Thus, by multiplying $P_{m-2}$ by -1 if necessary we can conclude that

$$
\int \frac{d \mu^{*}(t)}{z-t}=\frac{P_{m-2}(z)}{\sqrt{R(z)}}, \quad z \in \mathbf{C} \backslash \Sigma
$$

Here, and in what follows, we take that branch of the square root that is positive on the positive part of the real line. From Cauchy's formula applied to $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash \Sigma$ we can see that

$$
\frac{P_{m-2}(z)}{\sqrt{R(z)}}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \oint_{\Sigma} \frac{P_{m-2}(\xi)}{\sqrt{R(\xi)}} \frac{1}{\xi-z} d \xi=\int_{\Sigma} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} \frac{1}{t-z} d t
$$

where the first integral is taken on the cut in the clockwise direction and the second integral is an ordinary Lebesgue integral and the values of $\sqrt{R(t)}$ in it are taken on the upper part of the cut. Since Cauchy transforms determine their generating signed (or even complex) measures if these measures have support of zero two dimensional Lebesgue measure (see [2]), it follows from the preceding two formulae that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \mu^{*}(t)=\frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $i \sqrt{R(t)}$ is real on the upper part of the cut, we can also conclude that $P_{m-2}$ has real coefficients.

Let now $x$ and $y$ belong to the same interval $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$. Then the function

$$
\frac{P_{m-2}(z)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(z)}} \log \frac{x-z}{y-z}
$$

is analytic on $\overline{\mathbf{C}} \backslash \Sigma$ and has at least double zero at infinity; hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\oint_{\Sigma} \frac{P_{m-2}(\xi)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(\xi)}} \log \frac{x-\xi}{y-\xi} d \xi=0 . \tag{4.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Taking real parts, we can see that whatever the real polynomial $P_{m-2}$ of degree at most $m-2$ is, the potential of the (signed) measure

$$
d \sigma(t)=\frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t, \quad t \in \Sigma
$$

is constant on each interval $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$, in particular,

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\sigma}\left(a_{j}\right)=U^{\sigma}\left(b_{j}\right) \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we compute $U^{\sigma}\left(b_{j}\right)-U^{\sigma}\left(a_{j+1}\right)$. If $L=\Sigma \cup\left[b_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$, then (4.11) holds again if the integration on $\Sigma$ is replaced by integration around $L$, and for the same reason. Taking again real parts we can see from the facts that $\sqrt{R(t)}$ is real on $\left(b_{j}, a_{j+1}\right)$ and

$$
\log \frac{a_{j+1}-t}{b_{j}-t}=\log \left|\frac{a_{j+1}-t}{b_{j}-t}\right| \pm i \pi
$$

there, that

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left(\log \frac{a_{j+1}-t}{b_{j}-t} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}}\right)=-\frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}}
$$

on the upper part of the cut along $L$ on $\left(b_{j}, a_{j+1}\right)$; therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Sigma} \log \left|\frac{a_{j+1}-t}{b_{j}-t}\right| \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t=\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t \tag{4.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from (4.12) and (4.13) that for any $l \geqslant j$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Sigma} \log \left|\frac{a_{l+1}-t}{b_{j}-t}\right| \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t=\left(\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}}+\int_{b_{j+1}}^{a_{j+2}}+\ldots+\int_{b_{i}}^{a_{l+1}}\right) \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t \tag{4.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

From these formulae we can easily derive necessary and sufficient conditions for the fact that the potential $U^{\sigma}$ be constant on $\Sigma_{1}$ and on $\Sigma_{2}$. In fact, let $j_{1}$ and $j_{2}$ be the indices of the last (more precisely, rightmost) intervals of $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$, respectively, and set

$$
\mathcal{I}=\left\{j \mid j \neq j_{1}, j_{2},\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right] \subset \Sigma_{1} \text { and }\left[a_{j+1}, b_{j+1}\right] \subset \Sigma_{2} \text { or }\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right] \subset \Sigma_{2} \text { and }\left[a_{j+1}, b_{j+1}\right] \subset \Sigma_{1}\right\}
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{J}=\left\{j \mid j \neq j_{1}, j_{2},\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right] \subset \Sigma_{1} \text { and }\left[a_{j+1}, b_{j+1}\right] \subset \Sigma_{1} \text { or }\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right] \subset \Sigma_{2} \text { and }\left[a_{j+1}, b_{j+1}\right] \subset \Sigma_{2}\right\}
$$

Then $\mathcal{I} \cup \mathcal{J}$ has $m-2$ elements because the indices of the last intervals of $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ do not appear in $\mathcal{I} \cup \mathcal{J}$. If $j \in \mathcal{J}$ and $U^{\sigma}$ is constant on $\Sigma_{1}$ and on $\Sigma_{2}$, then $U^{\sigma}$ must take the same value on $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$ and $\left[a_{j+1}, b_{j+1}\right]$; hence by (4.13)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t=0, \quad j \in \mathcal{J} \tag{4.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

(note that the left hand side in (4.14) is nothing else than $U^{\sigma}\left(b_{j}\right)-U^{\sigma}\left(a_{j+1}\right)$ ). Let now $j \in \mathcal{I}$, and let $l(j) \geqslant j$ be the smallest index such that $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$ and $\left[a_{l(j)+1}, b_{l(j)+1}\right]$ belong to the same set $\Sigma_{1}$ or $\Sigma_{2} . j \in \mathcal{I}$ means that $l(j)>j$. If $U^{\sigma}$ is constant on $\Sigma_{1}$ and on $\Sigma_{2}$, then $U^{\sigma}$ must take the same value on $\left[a_{j}, b_{j}\right]$ and $\left[a_{l(j)+1}, b_{l(j)+1}\right]$; hence by (4.14)

$$
\left(\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}}+\int_{b_{j+1}}^{a_{j+2}}+\ldots+\int_{b_{k(j)}}^{a_{l(j)+1}}\right) \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t=0
$$

But the indices $j+1, j+2, \ldots, l(j)-1$ belong then to $\mathcal{J}$; hence in view of (4.15) we can see that the last sum is the same as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}}+\int_{b_{l(j)}}^{a_{l(j)+1}}\right) \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t=0 \tag{4.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

(4.15) and (4.16) give $m-2$ equations on the $m-1$ coefficients of $P_{m-2}$. The ( $m-1$ ) st condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Sigma_{1}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t=1 \tag{4.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

comes from (4.10) because we only consider signed measures that have total mass 1 on $\Sigma_{1}$. From Cauchy's formula it then follows from (4.17) that

$$
\int_{\Sigma_{2}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t=-1
$$

as is required for our measures.
From our considerations it is clear that if the coefficients of $P_{m-2}$ are chosen to satisfy (4.15)-(4.17), then

$$
d \sigma(t)=\frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{-\pi i \sqrt{R(t)}} d t
$$

is a signed measure on $\Sigma$ such that $\sigma\left(\Sigma_{1}\right)=1, \sigma\left(\Sigma_{2}\right)=-1$, and $U^{\sigma}$ is constant on each of $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$. We claim that then $\sigma$ must be $\mu^{*}$, i.e. the equilibrium measure for the signed energy problem (cf. [8]). In fact, since $\mu^{*}=\mu_{1}^{*}-\mu_{2}^{*}$ also has these properties, it follows that there are constants $\alpha$ and $\beta$ such that the potential of the signed measure $\sigma-\alpha \mu^{*}$ is identically equal to $\beta$ on $\Sigma$. Thus, if $\sigma=\sigma_{1}-\sigma_{2}$ where $(-1)^{j-1} \sigma_{j}$ denotes the restriction of $\sigma$ to $\Sigma_{j}$, and if $\nu_{ \pm}$denotes the positive and negative parts of a measure $\nu$, then we have for all $z \in \Sigma$

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{\sigma_{1+}+\sigma_{2-}+\alpha \mu_{2}^{*}}(z)=U^{\sigma_{2+}+\sigma_{1-}+\alpha \mu_{1}^{*}}(z)+\beta \tag{4.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here for the positive measures $\sigma_{1+}+\sigma_{2-}+\alpha \mu_{2}^{*}$ and $\sigma_{2+}+\sigma_{1-}+\alpha \mu_{1}^{*}$ we have

$$
\left\|\sigma_{1+}+\sigma_{2-}+\alpha \mu_{2}^{*}\right\|=\left\|\sigma_{2+}+\sigma_{1-}+\alpha \mu_{1}^{*}\right\|
$$

because $\left\|\sigma_{1+}\right\|-\left\|\sigma_{1-}\right\|=\sigma\left(\Sigma_{1}\right)=1,\left\|\sigma_{2+}\right\|-\left\|\sigma_{2-}\right\|=\sigma\left(\Sigma_{1}\right)=1$ and $\left\|\mu_{1}^{*}\right\|=\left\|\mu_{2}^{*}\right\|$. Furthermore they have finite logarithmic energy; hence it follows from the principle of domination (see [9, Theorem 1.27]) that (4.18) is true for all $z$. Then for $z \rightarrow \infty$ we get $\beta=0$ and so

$$
U^{\sigma_{1+}+\sigma_{2-}+\alpha \mu_{2}^{*}}(z) \equiv U^{\sigma_{2+}+\sigma_{1-}+\alpha \mu_{1}^{*}}(z)
$$

everywhere. Hence $\sigma_{1+}+\sigma_{2-}+\alpha \mu_{2}^{*}=\sigma_{2+}+\sigma_{1-}+\alpha \mu_{1}^{*}$, i.e. $\sigma=\alpha \mu^{*}$, and since $\sigma\left(\Sigma_{1}\right)=1=$ $\mu^{*}\left(\Sigma_{1}\right)$, we get $\sigma=\mu^{*}$ as we claimed above.

Finally we compute $F_{1}+F_{2}$. Since this is the difference of the potential values taken on $\Sigma_{1}$ and on $\Sigma_{2}$, the above formulae (see e.g. (4.13)) yield

$$
\left|F_{1}+F_{2}\right|=\left|\int_{b_{j}}^{a_{j+1}} \frac{P_{m-2}(t)}{\sqrt{R(t)}} d t\right|
$$

where $j$ is an index such that $b_{j}$ and $a_{j+1}$ belong to different sets $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$. But $F_{1}+F_{2}$ is nonnegative. In fact, $U^{\mu^{*}}$ coincides with $F_{1}$ on $\Sigma_{1}$ and with $-F_{2}$ on $\Sigma_{2}$, hence

$$
F_{1}+F_{2}=\int U^{\mu^{*}} d \mu^{*}=I\left(\mu^{*}\right) \geqslant 0
$$

because the logarithmic energy of any compactly supported signed measure $\mu^{*}$ with the property $\mu^{*}(\mathbf{C})=0$ is nonegative (see [9, Theorem 1.16]). This gives (2.5).

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