# Location of the critical points of certain polynomials 


#### Abstract

Let $\mathbb{D}$ denote the unit disk $\{z:|z|<1\}$ in the complex plane $\mathbb{C}$. In this paper, we study a family of polynomials $P$ with only one zero lying outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. We establish criteria for $P$ to satisfy implying that each of $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ has exactly one critical point outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$.


1. Introduction. Let $P$ be a polynomial in the complex plane $\mathbb{C}$. We denote the degree of $P$ by $\operatorname{deg} P$. We say that $\alpha$ is a critical point of $P$ if $P^{\prime}(\alpha)=0$. Throughout this paper, if not otherwise stated, when we talk about the number of zeros of a polynomial in a domain, we mean the number of zeros counting multiplicities. As the critical points of $P$ are the zeros of $P^{\prime}$, this applies also to the number of critical points. There are several known results involving the critical points of polynomials. The most classical one is the Gauss-Lucas Theorem, [8, p. 25].

Gauss-Lucas Theorem. Let $P$ be a polynomial of degree $n$ with zeros $z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}$, not necessarily distinct. The zeros of the derivative $P^{\prime}$ lie in the convex hull of the set $\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}\right\}$.

Another classical theorem concerning the location of the critical points is the Walsh's Two-Circle Theorem, [9].

[^0]Walsh's Two-Circle Theorem. Let $P$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 2$. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be positive integers with $n_{1}+n_{2}=n$, let $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ be two distinct complex numbers, and let $r_{1}, r_{2}$ be positive real numbers. Let $C_{1}=$ $\left\{z:\left|z-\alpha_{1}\right| \leq r_{1}\right\}, C_{2}=\left\{z:\left|z-\alpha_{2}\right| \leq r_{2}\right\}$, and let $C=\left\{z:\left|z-\alpha_{0}\right| \leq r\right\}$, where

$$
\alpha_{0}=\frac{\alpha_{2} n_{1}+\alpha_{1} n_{2}}{n} \quad \text { and } \quad r=\frac{n_{1} r_{2}+n_{2} r_{1}}{n} .
$$

Assume that $P$ has $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ zeros in $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ respectively. Then all critical points of $P$ lie in $C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup C$.

In this paper we are interested in the location of the critical points of a certain type of polynomials. If $P$ has a zero lying outside the closed unit disk $\overline{\mathbb{D}}=\{z \in \mathbb{C}:|z| \leq 1\}$, by the Gauss-Lucas Theorem, it follows that the zeros of its derivative are in the convex hull of the zeros of $P$, which includes a region outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. But we do not know how many zeros of $P^{\prime}$ are outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. We may ask the question of under what conditions does $P$ have only one critical point outside the closed unit disk? A consequence of Walsh's theorem gives a partial answer to the question. That is,

Theorem ([5, see (4.1.1) on p. 117]). If $S \in\left\{C_{1}, C_{2}, C\right\}$ is a disjoint component of $C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup C$, then $S$ contains exactly

$$
n(S)= \begin{cases}n_{j}-1 & \text { if } \quad S=C_{j} \\ 1 & \text { if } \quad S=C\end{cases}
$$

critical points of $P$.
Let $P$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 2$ that has only one zero, say $\alpha_{n}$, that lies outside the closed unit disk $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. Let $C_{1}=\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ and $C_{2}=\left\{z:\left|z-\alpha_{n}\right| \leq r_{2}\right\}$. By taking $r_{2} \rightarrow 0^{+}$we see by the above theorem that if $\left|\alpha_{n}\right|>\frac{n+1}{n-1}$, then $P$ has exactly one critical point $\alpha$ in $C=\left\{\left|z-\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right) \alpha_{n}\right| \leq \frac{1}{n}\right\}$ while $C$ does not intersect $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. Hence $P$ has exactly one critical point outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ whenever $\left|\alpha_{n}\right|>\frac{n+1}{n-1}$.

Here we give a general criterion for determining the number of critical points outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$.
Theorem 1.1. Let $Q(z)=c \prod_{k=1}^{n}\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 2$, where $c \neq 0$. Suppose that $\alpha_{k} \notin \mathbb{D}$ for $1 \leq k \leq m$, and the remaining points $\alpha_{k}$ are in $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. If we have

$$
\sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{1+\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}>\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{\left|\alpha_{k}\right|-1}
$$

then $Q$ has exactly $m$ critical points outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, counting multiplicities. If, in addition, all the points $\alpha_{k}$ lying on the unit circle are simple zeros of $Q$, then $Q^{\prime}$ has no zeros on the unit circle.

Note that if $Q$ has only one zero $\alpha_{n}$ lying outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ with $\left|\alpha_{n}\right|>\frac{n+1}{n-1}$, which is the same condition as discussed previously, then by Theorem 1.1, $Q$ has exactly one critical point outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. From Theorem 1.1, we can deduce that the result still holds even though $\left|\alpha_{n}\right| \leq \frac{n+1}{n-1}$ if $Q$ satisfies an additional condition.
Corollary 1.2. Let $Q(z)=c \prod_{k=1}^{n}\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 2$, where $c \neq 0$. Suppose that $\alpha_{1}=\alpha, \alpha_{2}=\alpha^{-1}$, where $\alpha$ is real and $|\alpha|>1$, and all the remaining points $\alpha_{k}$, if any, are in $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. Then $Q$ has exactly one critical point outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, counting multiplicities. If, in addition, all the points $\alpha_{k}$ that are on the unit circle are simple zeros of $Q$, then $Q$ has exactly $n-2$ critical points in $\mathbb{D}$, counting multiplicities.

A polynomial $P$ is said to be anti-reciprocal if $P(z)=-z^{\operatorname{deg} P} P\left(z^{-1}\right)$. If $P$ is anti-reciprocal, then so is $c P$ for any non-zero complex number $c$. Note that if $P$ is anti-reciprocal, then 1 is a zero of $P$, we have $P(0) \neq 0$, and for $\alpha \neq 0$, we have $P(\alpha)=0$ if, and only if, $P\left(\alpha^{-1}\right)=0$. Furthermore, $\alpha$ and $\alpha^{-1}$ have the same multiplicity as zeros of $P$, as we see (for $\alpha \neq \pm 1$ ) by writing $P(z)=(z-\alpha)^{m}(z-1 / \alpha)^{n} g(z)$, where $g(\alpha) g(1 / \alpha) \neq 0$ and using $P(z)=-z^{\operatorname{deg} P} P\left(z^{-1}\right)$. Therefore, if the leading coefficient of $P$ is real and each zero of $P$ is real or has modulus 1 , then the coefficients of $P$ are real. If $P$ is an anti-reciprocal polynomial with exactly one zero, counting multiplicities, lying outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, and which furthermore is real, then $P$ satisfies the assumptions of Corollary 1.2 , and so $P$ has only one critical point outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. Indeed, if $P$ is anti-reciprocal with exactly one zero, say $\alpha$, which is furthermore simple, outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, then $P$ has exactly one zero (namely, $1 / \alpha)$ in $\mathbb{D}$, and all the other zeros of $P$ must lie on $\partial \mathbb{D}$. In Theorem 1.3, we prove that if $P$ satisfies certain additional conditions, then not only does $P^{\prime}$ have only one zero outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ but the same is also true for $P^{\prime \prime}$.
Theorem 1.3. Let $Q$ be an anti-reciprocal polynomial with real coefficients of degree $n \geq 3$. Suppose that the zeros of $Q$ are simple and that $\alpha>1$ is the only zero of $Q$ lying outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. Then each of the polynomials $Q^{\prime}$ and $Q^{\prime \prime}$ has exactly one zero outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, counting multiplicities.

We can construct a family of anti-reciprocal polynomials satisfying Theorem 1.3. Let $P$ be a polynomial with real coefficients, and set $P^{*}(z):=$ $z^{\operatorname{deg} P} P\left(z^{-1}\right)$. Suppose that $P$ has a real zero greater than 1 , that the remaining zeros of $P$ are in $\mathbb{D}$ (so $P(1) \neq 0$ ), and that $P^{*} \neq P$. Boyd [1, p. 320] showed that the polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(z)=z^{n} P(z)-P^{*}(z) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

satisfies the assumptions of Theorem 1.3 provided that $n>\operatorname{deg} P-2 \frac{P^{\prime}(1)}{P(1)}$ and that all zeros of $P$ are simple. The polynomial in (1) was originally introduced by R. Salem [6, Theorem IV, p. 166], [7, p. 30]. Therefore, this gives the following corollary.

Corollary 1.4. Let $P$ be a polynomial with real coefficients such that $P^{*} \neq$ $P$. For $n>\operatorname{deg} P-2 \frac{P^{\prime}(1)}{P(1)}$, let $Q$ be defined as in (1). Suppose that $P$ has a real zero greater than 1 , that the remaining zeros of $P$ are in $\mathbb{D}$, and that all zeros of $P$ are simple. Then each of $Q, Q^{\prime}$, and $Q^{\prime \prime}$ has exactly one zero outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, counting multiplicities.

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1.1.

Lemma 2.1. Let $Q(z)=c \prod_{k=1}^{n}\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 2$, where $c \neq 0$. Suppose that $\alpha_{k} \notin \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ for $1 \leq k \leq m$, and that the remaining points $\alpha_{k}$ are in $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. If we have

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{1-\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}+\sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{1+\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}>0
$$

then there is a positive $\delta$ such that for any $r \in(1,1+\delta)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}>0 \text { on }|z|=r
$$

Furthermore, we have $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}>0$ whenever $|z|=1$ and $Q(z) \neq 0$.
Proof. By an elementary calculation, we can show that if $|z|>1$ and $\alpha_{k} \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z}{z-\alpha_{k}}\right\}>\frac{1}{1+\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}$ for $m+1 \leq k \leq n$, the two sides being equal if $\alpha_{k}=0$. Also, if $|z|=1$ then $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z}{z-\alpha_{k}}\right\} \geq \frac{1}{1-\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}$ for $1 \leq k \leq m$.

Let

$$
\varepsilon=\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{1-\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}+\sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{1+\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}>0
$$

Since $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z}{z-\alpha_{k}}\right\}$ is a continuous function except at $z=\alpha_{k}$ and since $\left|\alpha_{k}\right|>$ 1 for $1 \leq k \leq m$, there exists a positive constant $\delta$ with $1+\delta<\min \left\{\left|\alpha_{k}\right|\right.$ : $1 \leq k \leq m\}$ such that

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{m} \operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z}{z-\alpha_{k}}\right\}>\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{1-\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}
$$

on $|z|=r$, for all $r \in(1,1+\delta)$. Therefore, if $r \in(1,1+\delta)$ and $|z|=r$, we have
$\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z}{z-\alpha_{k}}\right\}>\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{1-\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{1+\left|\alpha_{k}\right|}=\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.
This proves Lemma 2.1.
Now we are ready to present a proof of Theorem 1.1.

Proof of Theorem 1.1. We are to show that $z Q^{\prime}(z)$ and $Q(z)$ have the same number of zeros lying in $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$. By Lemma 2.1, there is $\delta>0$ such that, for all $r \in(1,1+\delta)$, we have $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}>0$ on $|z|=r$. So, for each fixed $r \in(1,1+\delta)$, we have

$$
\left|1-\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right|<1+\left|\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right|,
$$

hence $\left|z Q^{\prime}(z)-Q(z)\right|<|Q(z)|+\left|z Q^{\prime}(z)\right|$, on $|z|=r$. Then, by Rouché's theorem [4, Theorem 3.6, p. 341], $z Q^{\prime}(z)$ and $Q(z)$ must have the same number of zeros lying in $\{z:|z| \leq r\}$ for all $r \in(1,1+\delta)$. This proves the first part of the theorem.

Next suppose that all the zeros $\alpha_{k}$ that are on the unit circle, if any, are simple. If $Q^{\prime}$ has a zero $\gamma$ on the unit circle, then $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{\gamma Q^{\prime}(\gamma)}{Q(\gamma)}\right\}=0$, which contradicts the fact that $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}>0$ on $|z|=1$ outside the zeros of $Q$. Hence $Q^{\prime}$ has no zeros on $\partial \mathbb{D}$. The proof of Theorem 1.1 is now complete.

For a proof of Corollary 1.2, we note that it follows from the fact that $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z}{z-\alpha}+\frac{z}{z-\alpha^{-1}}\right\}=1$ for all $z$ with $|z|=1$ and the argument in the proof of Lemma 2.1.
3. Preliminaries for Theorem 1.3. To prove Theorem 1.3, we need the following lemmas.

Lemma 3.1. If $x>1$ and $y \in[-1,1)$, then

$$
\frac{1+x^{4}-2 x\left(1+x^{2}\right) y+2 x^{2}\left(2 y^{2}-1\right)}{\left(x^{2}-2 x y+1\right)^{2}}-\frac{y}{2(1-y)}<2 .
$$

Proof. This can be proved by using only elementary calculus (see [3, Lemma 5.10, p. 54]).

Lemma 3.2. If $Q$ is an anti-reciprocal polynomial of degree $n \geq 2$ with real coefficients, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}\right\}=\frac{1}{2} \text { and } \operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{(n-1) Q(z)}\right\}=\operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

whenever $|z|=1$ and $Q(z) \neq 0$.
Proof. We give a proof that yields the entire statement of this lemma, but we note that the first equality in (2) has been proved in [8, (7.5), p. 229] for reciprocal polynomials $Q$.

Now, since $Q$ is anti-reciprocal, we have $Q(z)=-z^{n} Q\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$. Taking the derivative and multiplying both sides by $z$, we get

$$
z Q^{\prime}(z)=-n z^{n} Q\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)+z^{n-1} Q^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=n Q(z)+z^{n-1} Q^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)
$$

So, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
z^{n-1} Q^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=z Q^{\prime}(z)-n Q(z) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

After taking the derivative of both sides of this equation, and then multiplying both sides by $z$ and applying the identity (3), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
-z^{n-2} Q^{\prime \prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)+2(1-n) z Q^{\prime}(z)+n(n-1) Q(z) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $z \in \partial \mathbb{D}$ with $Q(z) \neq 0$. Next dividing both sides of $(4)$ by $n(n-1) Q(z)$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\frac{z^{n-2} Q^{\prime \prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}{n(n-1) Q(z)}=\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{n(n-1) Q(z)}-\frac{2 z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}+1 . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

By replacing $Q(z)$ on the left side of (5) by $-z^{n} Q\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$, the left-hand side becomes

$$
\frac{z^{n-2} Q^{\prime \prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}{n(n-1) z^{n} Q\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}=\frac{z^{-2} Q^{\prime \prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}{n(n-1) Q\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}=\overline{\left(\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{n(n-1) Q(z)}\right)} .
$$

Here we have used the fact that since $|z|=1$ and $Q$ has real coefficients, we have $Q(1 / z)=Q(\bar{z})=\overline{Q(z)}$, and similarly for $Q^{\prime \prime}$ instead of $Q$. Then from (5) we derive

$$
\overline{\left(\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{n(n-1) Q(z)}\right)}-\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{n(n-1) Q(z)}=1-\frac{2 z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}
$$

which gives $2 i \operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{n(n-1) Q(z)}\right\}=\frac{2 z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}-1$. This implies that $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}\right\}$ $=\frac{1}{2}$ and $\operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{(n-1) Q(z)}\right\}=\operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}$, as desired.

Lemma 3.3. Let $Q(z)=\prod_{k=1}^{n}\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)$ be an anti-reciprocal polynomial of degree $n \geq 3$. Suppose that $\alpha_{1}=\tau>1, \alpha_{2}=\tau^{-1}, \alpha_{3}=1$, and $\left|\alpha_{k}\right|=1$ for $k>3$. For $|z|=1$ with $Q(z) \neq 0$, if $\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{Q(z)}$ is a real number, then it is positive. In particular, then $Q^{\prime \prime}(z) \neq 0$.

Proof. Since $Q$ is monic and each zero of $Q$ is real or has modulus $1, Q$ has real coefficients. Let $z$ be a point on the unit circle with $Q(z) \neq 0$. We
have
$\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{Q(z)}=z^{2}\left(\left(\frac{Q^{\prime}}{Q}\right)^{\prime}(z)+\left(\left(\frac{Q^{\prime}}{Q}\right)(z)\right)^{2}\right)=\left(\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right)^{2}-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}$.
Suppose that $\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{Q(z)}$ is a real number. Thus, by Lemma 3.2, $\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}$ is real as well, and so is also $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}$. Since $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}\right\}=\frac{1}{2}$ on $|z|=1$ when $Q(z) \neq 0$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{Q(z)}=\frac{n^{2}}{4}-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we want to find an upper bound for the real part of $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}$ on the unit circle. Let $z=e^{i \theta}$, where $\theta \in(0,2 \pi)$ (note that $z \neq 1$ since $Q(1)=0)$. If $\alpha$ is real, we have

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z^{2}}{(z-\alpha)^{2}}\right\}=\frac{1-2 \alpha \cos \theta+\alpha^{2}\left(2 \cos ^{2} \theta-1\right)}{\left(1+\alpha^{2}-2 \alpha \cos \theta\right)^{2}}
$$

For $k \geq 3$, by letting $\alpha_{k}=e^{i \theta_{k}}, \theta_{k} \in[0,2 \pi)$, we have $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}\right\}=$ $\frac{-\cos \beta_{k}}{2-2 \cos \beta_{k}}$, where $\beta_{k}=\theta-\theta_{k}$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Re}\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}\right\} \\
& \quad=\frac{1+\tau^{4}-2 \tau\left(1+\tau^{2}\right) \cos \theta+2 \tau^{2}\left(2 \cos ^{2} \theta-1\right)}{\left(1+\tau^{2}-2 \tau \cos \theta\right)^{2}}-\sum_{k=3}^{n} \frac{\cos \beta_{k}}{2-2 \cos \beta_{k}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Taking $x=\tau$ and $y=\cos \theta$ in Lemma 3.1, we see that

$$
\frac{1+\tau^{4}-2 \tau\left(1+\tau^{2}\right) \cos \theta+2 \tau^{2}\left(2 \cos ^{2} \theta-1\right)}{\left(1+\tau^{2}-2 \tau \cos \theta\right)^{2}}-\frac{\cos \theta}{2-2 \cos \theta}<2
$$

It is easy to see that $\frac{-\cos \omega}{2-2 \cos \omega} \leq \frac{1}{4}$ for all $\omega \in(0,2 \pi)$. So, we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}\right\}<2+\frac{1}{4}(n-3)=\frac{n+5}{4} .
$$

Hence, from (6), we derive

$$
\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{Q(z)}=\frac{n^{2}}{4}-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{z^{2}}{\left(z-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}}>\frac{n^{2}}{4}-\frac{n+5}{4}>0
$$

if $n \geq 3$, as desired. This proves Lemma 3.3.
4. Proof of Theorem 1.3. Let the assumptions of Theorem 1.3 be satisfied. By Corollary 1.2 we know that $Q^{\prime}$ has only one zero outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ and has no zeros on $\partial \mathbb{D}$. Let $G(z)=-z^{n-2} Q^{\prime \prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$ and $T(z)=z^{n-1} Q^{\prime}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$. In order to prove that $Q^{\prime \prime}$ has exactly one zero outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$, it is equivalent to show that $G$ has only one zero in $\mathbb{D}$. Since $Q^{\prime}$ has only one zero outside $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ and has no zeros on $\partial \mathbb{D}, T$ has exactly one zero in $\mathbb{D}$ and has no zeros on $\partial \mathbb{D}$. If we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|G(z)+2(n-1) T(z)|<|G(z)|+2(n-1)|T(z)| \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

on $\partial \mathbb{D}$, then, by a form of Rouché's Theorem [4, Theorem 3.6, p. 341], both $G$ and $T$ have the same number of zeros inside $\mathbb{D}$. This will prove the theorem. From (3) and (4), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(z)+2(n-1) T(z)=z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)-n(n-1) Q(z) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $z \in \partial \mathbb{D}$. It is easy to see that if $Q(z)=0$, then $(7)$ holds. Now, for $Q(z) \neq 0$, write $\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{(n-1) Q(z)}=a+i b$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. So $G(z)+2(n-1) T(z)=$ $(a-n+i b)(n-1) Q(z)$. Since, by Lemma 3.2, $\operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)}{(n-1) Q(z)}\right\}=\operatorname{Im}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{Q(z)}\right\}$ and $\operatorname{Re}\left\{\frac{z Q^{\prime}(z)}{n Q(z)}\right\}=\frac{1}{2}$, we have $z Q^{\prime}(z)=\left(\frac{n}{2}+i b\right) Q(z)$. We also have $|G(z)|=$ $\left|z^{2} Q^{\prime \prime}(z)\right|=(n-1)|a+i b||Q(z)|$ and, by $(3)$,

$$
2|T(z)|=2\left|z Q^{\prime}(z)-n Q(z)\right|=|-n+2 i b||Q(z)|
$$

Thus, the inequality (7) is equivalent to

$$
|a-n+i b|<|a+i b|+|-n+2 i b|
$$

which is clearly true if $b \neq 0$. If $b=0$, then by Lemma 3.3 , we have $a>0$ and so the inequality above is true. Therefore, the inequality (7) holds on $\partial \mathbb{D}$, as desired. The proof of Theorem 1.3 is now complete.

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