

On Polynomial δ -Type Functions and Approximation by Monotonic Polynomials

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Some attention has been given in recent years to the problem of approximation of real functions by monotone polynomials. In 1965, O. Shisha [5] proved, among other things, the following result: If $1 \leq k \leq p$ and if a real function $f(x)$, defined on $[0, 1]$, satisfies

$$f^{(k)}(x) \geq 0, \quad |f^{(p)}(x)| \leq M, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1,$$

then for every integer $n (\geq p)$, there exists a real polynomial $Q_n(x)$ of degree not exceeding n such that the inequalities

$$Q_n^{(k)}(x) \geq 0$$

and

$$|f(x) - Q_n(x)| \leq \frac{C}{n^{p-k}} w\left(f^{(p)}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \tag{1}$$

hold for all $0 \leq x \leq 1$, where C depends only upon p and k and $w(\phi, h)$ is the modulus of continuity of the function ϕ .

Roulier [4], and Lorentz and Zeller [2] continued the investigation in this direction by relaxing, somewhat, the conditions on f , and by sharpening the estimate (1), particularly for large n .

In this note, we deal briefly with a related problem, namely, that of uniform approximation of a monotone continuous real-valued function by monotone polynomials, which, in addition, agree with the function on a finite set of points. Subsequently, we mention some applications.

The main theorems of this note are:

THEOREM A. *Let $0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n \leq 1$ and $0 < y_1 < \dots < y_n$ be fixed. There exists a polynomial $Q(x)$ such that*

- (a) $Q(0) = 0, Q(x_i) = y_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n;$
- (b) $Q'(x) \geq 0$ for all real x .

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THEOREM B. *Any strictly increasing continuous function defined on $[0, 1]$, can be uniformly approximated, as closely as desired, by a strictly increasing polynomial and in such a way that the two functions agree on an arbitrarily given finite set of points.*

In the proof of Theorem A, we shall need the following:

LEMMA 1. *Let $r, 0 < r < 1$, be a rational number. The polynomial*

$$P_r(x) = \frac{x^k(1-x)^{m-k}}{r^k(1-r)^{m-k}},$$

where $r = k/m$ (k and m positive even integers), has the following properties:

- (a) $P_r(0) = P_r(1) = 0, P_r(r) = 1, P_r(x) \geq 0$ for all real x .
- (b) $P_r(x)$ is strictly increasing in the interval $[0, r]$ and strictly decreasing in the interval $[r, 1]$.

LEMMA 2. *The polynomials*

$$Q_{r,n}(x) = c_n P_r^n(x), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where

$$c_n = \left(\int_0^1 P_r^n(x) dx \right)^{-1} = (mn + 1) \binom{mn}{kn} r^{kn} (1-r)^{mn-kn},$$

have the following properties:

- (a) $Q_{r,n}(0) = Q_{r,n}(1) = 0, Q_{r,n}(r) = c_n, Q_{r,n}(x) \geq 0$ for all real x .
- (b) $Q_{r,n}(x)$ is strictly increasing in the interval $[0, r]$ and strictly decreasing in the interval $[r, 1]$.
- (c) $\int_0^1 Q_{r,n}(x) dx = 1$.
- (d) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Q_{r,n}(x) = 0$ for $x \in [0, 1], x \neq r$.

Proof. (a), (b), and (c) follow immediately by Lemma 1 and the definition of c_n . To verify (d), we notice that by the binomial formula,

$$\binom{mn}{kn} r^{kn} (1-r)^{mn-kn} < 1.$$

Therefore, $c_n < mn + 1$ and, since $0 \leq P_r(x) < 1$ for $x \in [0, 1], x \neq r$, it follows that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [c_n P_r^n(x)] = 0$.

Remark. Actually, by performing a more rigorous calculation with the help of Stirling's formula, one obtains the asymptotic estimate

$$c_n \sim [2\pi r(1-r)]^{-1/2} (mn)^{1/2}.$$

Proof of Theorem A. Consider the polynomial

$$Q(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \int_0^x Q_{r_j, n_j}(t) dt, \tag{2}$$

where α_j , r_j and n_j are defined below and where $Q_{r_j, n_j}(x)$ is as in Lemma 2.

It is clear that $Q(0) = 0$ and that $Q'(x) \geq 0$ for all real x if all α_j are ≥ 0 .

Set $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$, $c_{ij} = \int_0^{e_i} Q_{r_j, n_j}(t) dt$, $u_j = (c_{1j}, c_{2j}, \dots, c_{nj})$, $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

To satisfy condition (a), we have to solve the system

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j u_j = y. \tag{3}$$

The point $y \in R_n$ is a strictly increasing sequence of positive numbers and for each j , the point $u_j \in R_n$ is a strictly increasing sequence of positive numbers bounded above by unity. It follows that the point y lies interior to the infinite "wedge" in R_n with vertex at the origin, spanned by the vectors $(0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$, $(0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 1), \dots, (1, 1, \dots, 1)$, which we shall denote by e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n , respectively. One deduces that the system (3) will have a strictly positive solution $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$ (that is, one with all $\alpha_j > 0$) provided the vectors u_j are sufficiently close to the vectors e_j . To this end, we choose the δ -type polynomials $Q_{r_j, n_j}(x)$ in the following manner. For a given j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, and a given positive $\epsilon < 1$, we select an r_j such that $x_{n-j} < r_j < x_{n-j+1}$ and construct a polynomial $Q_{r_j, n_j}(x)$ such that

$$Q_{r_j, n_j}(x) < \epsilon \quad \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq x_{n-j} \quad \text{and for } x_{n-j+1} \leq x \leq x_n.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < c_{ij} < \epsilon & \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq n - j; \\ 1 - \epsilon < c_{ij} \leq 1 & \quad \text{for } n - j + 1 \leq i \leq n. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that $u_j \rightarrow e_j$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$.

Now, the linear system

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j e_j = y$$

has the positive solution

$$(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n) = (y_n - y_{n-1}, y_{n-1} - y_{n-2}, \dots, y_2 - y_1, y_1).$$

By continuity, it follows that for sufficiently small $\epsilon = \epsilon(y)$, the linear system (3) has a positive solution $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$. This concludes the proof.

Theorem B is, of course, a direct consequence of Theorem A.

We shall mention, now, a few consequences of the previous results.

COROLLARY 1. *Let $J = [x_0, y_0]$ ($0 \leq x_0 < y_0 \leq 1$, $x_0 + y_0 < 1$). For every positive number M there exists a polynomial $P(x) (\neq 0)$ which is non-negative for all x such that*

$$\int_J P(x) dx = M \int_{[0,1]-J} P(x) dx.$$

Proof. Let $P(x) = Q'(x)$, where $Q(x)$ is a polynomial as in Theorem A, satisfying

$$Q(0) = 0, \quad Q(x_0) = \frac{\delta}{M+1}, \quad Q(y_0) = \frac{M+\delta}{M+1}, \quad Q(1) = 1,$$

with $0 < \delta < 1$ if $x_0 > 0$, $y_0 < 1$; $\delta = 0$ if $x_0 = 0$ and $\delta = 1$ if $y_0 = 1$. We deduce that

$$\int_J P(x) dx = Q(y_0) - Q(x_0) = \frac{M}{M+1}$$

and

$$M \int_{[0,1]-J} P(x) dx = M[Q(x_0) - Q(0) + Q(1) - Q(y_0)] = \frac{M}{M+1}.$$

Corollary 1 provides an elementary proof of the well-known

COROLLARY 2. *Let $f(x)$ be a bounded summable function on the interval $[0, 1]$, such that*

$$\int_0^1 x^k f(x) dx = 0, \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then $f(x)$ vanishes at every point of continuity.

Proof. Assume that $|f(x)| < M$ for $x \in [0, 1]$. Let x_1 , $0 \leq x_1 \leq 1$, be a point of continuity of $f(x)$. If $f(x_1) \neq 0$ then we may assume that $f(x) > \eta > 0$ in some interval J as in Corollary 1, containing x_1 .

By Corollary 1, there exists a polynomial $P(x) (\neq 0)$ such that

$$\int_J P(x) dx = \frac{M}{\eta} \int_{[0,1]-J} P(x) dx.$$

In addition, we have

$$\int_J f(x) P(x) dx \geq \eta \int_J P(x) dx = M \int_{[0,1]-J} P(x) dx$$

and

$$\left| \int_{[0,1]-J} f(x) P(x) dx \right| < M \int_{[0,1]-J} P(x) dx.$$

We obtain a contradiction, since $\int_0^1 f(x) P(x) dx = 0$ implies that

$$\left| \int_{[0,1]-J} f(x) P(x) dx \right| = \int_J f(x) P(x) dx.$$

This completes the proof. In particular, if $f(x)$ is Riemann integrable, then it vanishes almost everywhere in the interval $[0, 1]$.

It is interesting to relate Theorem A to a result which follows from a theorem due to Yamabe. He proved [6], using the Weierstrass approximation theorem, the following:

Given a continuous function $g(x)$ on $[0, 1]$, n linear functionals Φ_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) on the space $C[0, 1]$ and a positive number ϵ , there exists a polynomial $p(x)$ such that

$$\max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} |g(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon$$

and

$$\Phi_i[g(x)] = \Phi_i[p(x)].$$

If this result is used, Theorem A (with (b) asserted only on $[0, 1]$) can be proved by choosing a function $g(x)$ such that

$$g(x) \geq c > 0 \quad \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1,$$

$$\int_0^{x_1} g(t) dt = y_1, \quad \int_{x_{k-1}}^{x_k} g(t) dt = y_k - y_{k-1}, \quad k = 2, \dots, n,$$

and defining the Φ_i by $\Phi_i(h) = \int_0^{x_i} h(t) dt$. The theorem then follows by Yamabe's result, with $\epsilon = c/2$.¹

Normally, in a uniform approximation process by polynomials, it is desirable to carry over as many properties of the approximated function $f(x)$ as possible.

For example, the Bernstein polynomials

$$B_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)$$

¹ This proof and the reference to Yamabe's paper were suggested by the referee, to whom I am greatly indebted.

are strictly increasing on the interval $[0, 1]$, if $f(x)$ is also. A similar result holds [3] if $f(x)$ is starlike in $[0, 1]$ (that is, $f(\alpha x) \leq \alpha f(x)$ for $\alpha \in [0, 1]$, $x \in [0, 1]$). It would be, therefore, of interest to study properties which are inherited from a monotonic function to monotonic polynomials approximating it.

In the case of a three-point interpolation, one can actually construct a polynomial of the type of $Q(x)$ of Theorem A. Indeed, if $0 < a < b$, $0 < \rho < 1$, one verifies easily that the polynomial

$$R(x) = c[1 - x^n - (1 - x)^n] + bx^n,$$

where

$$c = \frac{a - b\rho^n}{1 - \rho^n - (1 - \rho)^n},$$

is strictly increasing and satisfies $P(0) = 0$, $P(\rho) = a$, and $P(1) = b$, provided n is a sufficiently large odd positive integer. It is enough to satisfy the conditions

$$1 - \left(1 - \frac{a}{b}\right)^{1/n} < \rho < \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{1/n},$$

since this implies that $0 < c < b$. Thus, the minimal admissible n depends only on ρ and the ratio a/b . It would be interesting to estimate the minimal degree of a $Q(x)$ satisfying (a) and (b) of Theorem A.

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