# Approximation Based on Nonscalar Observations 

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## INTRODUCTION

There are situations in which one wants to approximate a mathematical object $x$ in terms of mathematical observations of $x$. For example, $x$ may be a function on $[0,1]$ to $\mathbb{R}$, and the observations may be a table of values of $x$ at $s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m} \in[0,1]$. Here the observations are the $m$-tuple $x\left(s_{1}\right), \ldots, x\left(s_{m}\right)$. As another example, $x$ may be a function on the square $[0,1] \times[0,1]$ to $\mathbb{R}$, and the observations may be specified cross-sections of $x$, that is, the functions $x\left(s_{1}, \cdot\right), \ldots, x\left(s_{m}, \cdot\right)$, and $x\left(\cdot, t_{1}\right), \ldots, x\left(\cdot t_{m}\right)$ on $[0,1]$ to $\mathbb{R}$, where $s_{i}, t_{j} \in[0,1]$. In this instance the observations are functions and, therefore, contain more information than a finite number of scalars.

Whether the observations of $x$ are scalars or not, it is advantageous to combine them into one object which we denote $F x$ and which we call the observation of $x$. In the second example above, $F . x$ is the ( $m+m^{\prime}$ )-tuple of functions $x\left(s_{1}, \cdot\right) \ldots, x\left(s_{m}, \cdot\right) ; x\left(\cdot, t_{1}\right), \ldots, x\left(\cdot t_{m} \cdot\right)$

Besides approximating $x$, we may wish to approximate $G x$, where $G$ is a given operator, in terms of the observation Fx. Let us write

$$
A x=E F x,
$$

where $E$ is the operator which describes our operation on the observation and $A$ is the operator which describes the process of approximation. The crror in the approximation of $G x$ by $A x$ is

$$
R x=G x-A x=G x-E F x .
$$

This paper is concerned with the choice of $E$ and the study of $R$.
Suppose that the operators $G, F$, and $E$ have been specified. Whereas, $A x$ is determined by $F x$ alone, the error $R x$ need not be so determined. We will posit the existence of a coobservation operator $U$ such that $U x$ and $F x$
together determine $x$ and, therefore, $G x$ and $R x$. Then partial information about the coobservation $U x$, for example a bound on the norm of $U x$, will permit us to appraise $R x$.

The optimal approximation, in senses to be described, of $x$ is called the spline approximation of $x$, relative to $F$ and $U$. And the optimal approximation of $G x$ is simply $G \xi$, where $\xi$ is the spline approximation of $x$.

In particular cases $F x$ and $U x$ will not merely determine $x$ but will contain more information than is necessary. Such excess information permits us to draw conclusions about $R x$ which are not otherwise available. For example, in our first illustration above, if $U x=x_{n}=$ the $n$th derivative of $x$ on [0, 1]. where $n \leqslant m$, then the smaller $n$ is, the more valuable is knowledge about $x_{n}$. If $n<m$, the observation $x\left(s_{1}\right), \ldots, x\left(s_{m}\right)$ and the coobservation $x_{n}$ overdetermine $x$.

The present paper continues the work of my earlier [11], but treats the entire problem anew. Hypotheses are reduced. No conditions of completeness are required. Proofs are improved, and two errors are corrected. ${ }^{1}$

Splines, as defined in this paper, include all minimizing splines of other authors. Our hypotheses of linearity and inner products are justified, I think, by their power and by the fact that many preproblems can be put into our mold as easily as into another. A vague space which is part of a preproblem can often be exemplified by an inner product space [9, Chapter 9; 10].

Applications of the present theory are in Sections 8 and 9 below. In Section 8 the splines are harmonic functions and the observations are the boundary values of the unknown functions. Our theorems then pertain to the Dirichlet problem.

## 1. Hypotheses

Let $X$ be a linear space, $Y, Z$ be inner product spaces, and $W$ be a normed linear space, all over the real or the complex numbers. Let

$$
F: X \rightarrow Y, \quad U: X \rightarrow Z, \quad G: X \rightarrow W
$$

be linear operators. For any $x \in X$, we call $F x$ the observation of $x$ and $U x$ the coobservation. We wish to approximate $G x$ by $A x$, where $A x$ depends only on $F x$. In particular, $W$ may be $X$, and $G$ the identity.

Assume that

$$
F x=0, \quad U x=0, \quad x \in X
$$

imply that $x=0$. Thus, $F x$ and $U x$ together determine $x \in X$.

[^0]
## 2. The Hilbert Space $\bar{X}$ and the Splines

Following Golomb-Weinberger [5], who, however, consider only the scalar case ( $Y$ finite dimensional), we now construct a Hilbert space $\overline{\mathscr{T}}$. For $x, y \in X$, put

$$
(x, y)=(F x . F y)+(U x, U y),
$$

where the terms on the right are inner products on $Y$ and $Z$, respectively. Then $(x, x)=0$ iff $x=0$. Therefore, $(x, y)$ is a valid inner product on $X$. Let denote the space $X$ with this inner product. Then the operators $F$ and $U$ are bounded on $X$ and, hence, continuous on $\mathscr{X}$.

Take completions $\bar{X}, \bar{Y}, \bar{Z}$ of the spaces $\mathscr{X}, Y, Z$, and completions $\bar{F}, \bar{U}$ of the operators $F, U$, respectively [9, p. 302]. Then $\bar{X}, \bar{Y}, \bar{Z}$ are Hilbert spaces and $\bar{F}, \bar{U}$ are linear and continuous. We continue to call $\bar{F}$ the observation and $\bar{U}$ the coobservation operator. Note that

$$
\bar{F} x=0, \quad \bar{U} x=0, \quad x \in \bar{T}
$$

imply that $x=0$, and that

$$
(x, y)=(\bar{F} x, \bar{F} y)+(\bar{U} x, \bar{U} y), \quad x, y \in \bar{X} .
$$

Put

$$
N=\text { kernel } \vec{F}=\{x \in \vec{t}: \vec{F} x=0\}
$$

and

$$
M=N^{-}=\{x \in \bar{x}:(x, \zeta)=0 \text { whenever } \zeta \in N\} .
$$

Now if $\zeta \in N$, then $\bar{F} \zeta=0$ and $(x, \zeta)=(\bar{U} x, \bar{U} \zeta)$. Hence,

$$
M=\{x \in \bar{X}:(\bar{U} x, \bar{U} \zeta)=0 \text { whenever } \zeta \in N\}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \supset \text { kernel } \bar{U} \text {. } \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We call $M$ the space of splines, relative to $F, U$.
Assume that neither $M$ nor $N$ is the entire space $\bar{X}$; that is, assume that for some $x^{0} \in X, F x^{0} \neq 0$; and for some $y^{0} \in X$, both $F y^{0}=0$ and $y^{0} \neq 0$.

Put

$$
\Pi=\operatorname{Proj}_{M}=\text { orthogonal projection of } \bar{X} \text { onto } M .
$$

For $x \in \bar{X}$, we call $\Pi x$ the spline approximation of $x$. The error in the approximation of $x$ by $\Pi x$ is

$$
x-\Pi x=\operatorname{Proj}_{N} x .
$$

Note that the splines and other constructions of this section are independent of $W$ and $G$.

## 3. The Quohent Theorem

The quotient theorem is fundamental in linear approximation and is as follows [7: 9, p. 310].

Let $\alpha, \mathscr{A}, \%$ be normed, linear spaces, $\%$ and $\not \subset$ being complete. Let $P$ be a surjective linear continuous operator on onto $\mathscr{n}$, and $R$ be a linear continuous operator on $\%$ into \%. If $R x$ () whenever $P x=0, x \subset \%$ then there is a unique operator $Q$ on $\neq / \%$ to such that $R \because Q P$. And $Q$ (the quotient of $R$ by $P$ ) is linear with closed graph. Furthermore, $Q$ is continuous if $\mathscr{S}$ is complete.

Completeness of $\mathscr{B}$ is sufficient but not necessary for the continuity of $Q$. Of course, $\mathscr{B}$ is surely complete if $: \mathscr{夕}$ is finite dimensional.

Lemma 1 (dependence of error on coobservation). There is a unique map $q: \bar{U} \cdot \bar{T}>\bar{X}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Proj}_{N} \cdot \underline{q} \bar{U}:
$$

4 is linear and continuous, with Banach norm unity.
 If $\bar{U} x \cdots 0 . x \in \bar{T}$, then $x \in M$ by (1) and Proj$x \cdots 0$. Thus. $q$ exists and is unique and linear.

It remains to show that the Banach norm $q$ of $q$ is unity, as this will imply that $q$ is continuous. Now

$$
4 \quad \sup _{\substack{U r * n . \\ \text { uns }}} \frac{\operatorname{Proj} x \bar{U} x}{\bar{T}} \sup \frac{\zeta}{\bar{U} \xi} \bar{U} \zeta \sup \frac{\bar{U} \zeta}{\bar{U} \xi} \bar{U} \zeta,
$$

where $x=\xi \quad \xi, \xi \in M, \zeta \in N$. As $\xi$ may be zero, it follows that $q, 1$. On the other hand,

$$
\bar{U} \xi+\bar{U} \zeta^{2}=\bar{U} \xi^{2}+\bar{U} \zeta^{2} .
$$

since $(\xi, \zeta)-(\bar{U} \xi, \bar{U} \zeta)-0$. Hence, q 1.
Lemma 2 (dependence of spline on observation). There is a unique map $e: \bar{F} \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{X}$ such that

$$
\Pi=\operatorname{Proj}_{M}: e \bar{F}:
$$

$e$ is linear, with closed graph. And e is continuous iff $\bar{F} \bar{X}$ is closed in $\bar{Y}$. In any. case

$$
e \quad 1
$$

We may call $e$ the spline operator. It carries the observation of $x \in \mathscr{X}$ into the approximation of $x$. Continuity of $e$ is desirable because in practice $F x$
is often known only approximately. If $e$ is continuous, then $e$ may be extended so as to be bounded linear on all of $\bar{Y}$ to $\bar{X}$, with no increase of norm. Then a contaminated observation $(\omega+\delta \omega) \in \bar{Y}$, where $\omega=\bar{F} x, x \in \bar{X}$, can be used as an input, and $e(\omega+\delta \omega)=e \omega \div e(\delta \omega)$. The distortion $e(\delta \omega)$ is bounded in terms of " $\delta \omega$. If $\bar{F} \bar{X}$ is finite dimensional, then e is surely continuous.

Proof of Lemma 2. Apply the quotient theorem with $\theta=\vec{x}=6$ and $\mathscr{S}=\bar{F} x^{\prime}$. If $\bar{F} x=0, x \in \mathscr{X}$, then $x \in N$ and $\operatorname{Proj}_{M} x=0$. Hence, $e$ is linear with closed graph; and $e$ is continuous if $\mathscr{B}$ is closed.

We now show that conversely $\bar{F} \cdot \bar{X}$ is closed if $e$ is continuous. As $\bar{T} M \cdot N$ and $\bar{F} N=0$, it follows that $\bar{F} P=\bar{F} M$. Since $e$ is continuous. there exists $b<x$ such that

$$
e y: b y, \quad y=\bar{F} x, \quad x \in \bar{x} .
$$

Now e $\bar{F} x=x$ if $x \in M$; therefore,

$$
x: \quad b \mid \bar{F} x ; \quad x \in M .
$$

To show that $\bar{F} M$ is closed, suppose that $\xi^{\prime} \in M, v=1,2, \ldots$, and that $\bar{F} \xi^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow v \in \bar{Y}$ as $\nu \rightarrow \infty$. Then $\left\{\bar{F} \xi^{\prime}\right\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $\bar{Y}$ and, therefore, $\left\{\xi^{\prime \prime} ;\right.$ is a Cauchy sequence in $M$. Hence, $\xi^{r} \rightarrow \xi \in M$. Since $\bar{F}$ is continuous. $\bar{F} \xi^{*} \rightarrow \bar{F} \xi=r \in \bar{F} M$. Thus, $\bar{F} M$ is closed.

It remains to show that $1, e x$. Now
where $x-\xi+\zeta, \xi \subseteq M, \zeta \in N$, since $\bar{F} x=\bar{F} \xi$. This completes the proof of the lemma. Note that will be finite iff $\mid \bar{U} \xi \| \bar{F} \xi$ is bounded, $\xi \in M$, $\bar{F} \xi \neq 0$.

Remark. Observation and coobservation are dual in our hypotheses but not in our construction or in the roles that they play. Thus, $N=$ kernel $\bar{F}$, whereas $M$ Jernel $\bar{U}$ properly. We envisage calculations based on a known $\bar{F} x$, with $\bar{U} x$ unknown or partially unknown, $x \in \mathscr{X}$.

## 4. Properties of Splines

Theorem $\mid$ (spline interpolation $[5,3,14-16,1]$ ). For each $x \in \mathscr{T}$ there is a unique $\xi \in M$ such that $\bar{F} \xi=\bar{F} x ;$ and $\xi=\Pi x$.

Proof. The condition $\bar{F} \xi=\bar{F} x$ may be written $x-\xi \in N$. The decomposition theorem for $\mathscr{X}$ implies that the decomposition of $x$ into $\xi \in M$ and $x-\xi \in N$ is always possible and unique.

Corollary. For each possible observation $\omega \in \bar{F} \cdot \bar{X}$, there is a unique $\xi \in M$ such that $\bar{F} \xi=\omega$.

Proof. If $\omega=\bar{F} x^{0}$, then $\xi=\prod x^{0}=e \omega$, by Lemma 2. Thus, $\xi$ is unique.
Lemma 3. If $x \in \mathscr{T}$ and $\xi=\Pi x$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\bar{U} x^{2}-\bar{U} \xi^{2}-\bar{U}(x-\xi){ }^{2}=x^{2} \\
x-\left.\xi\right|^{2} \quad \operatorname{Proj}_{N} x^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
(\bar{U} \xi, \bar{U} x \quad \bar{U} \xi) \quad 0
$$

Proof. The last two of the continued equalities are immediate (Pythagoras). And

$$
x-\xi^{2}-\bar{F}(x-\xi)^{2}-\|\left.\bar{U}(x-\xi)\right|^{2}=\left.\bar{U}(x-\xi)\right|^{2},
$$

since $x-\xi \in N$. And

$$
\|x\|^{2}-\left|\xi \|^{2} \quad \bar{F} x\right|^{2}+\left|\bar{U} x^{2}-\bar{F} \xi^{2}-\right| \bar{U} \xi^{2}-U x^{2} \cdots U \xi^{2}
$$

Finally,

$$
(\xi, x-\xi)=0=(\bar{U} \xi, \bar{U} x-\bar{U} \xi) .
$$

Theorem 2 (optimal interpolation $[6,5,21,3,14-16,1]$ ). For each $x \in \bar{X}$, the norm $\| \bar{U} y$ is minimal among all $y \in \overline{\mathscr{x}}$ such that $\bar{F} y=\bar{F} x$ iff $y=\Pi x$.

Proof. Put $\xi=\Pi x$. Then $\bar{F} \xi=\bar{F} x$. Now consider $y \in \bar{X}$ such that $\bar{F} y=\bar{F} x$, that is, $y \quad \xi \in N$. Then $\xi=\Pi y$ and, by Lemma 3 ,

$$
0 \quad y \quad \xi^{2}=\bar{U} y^{2} \cdots \bar{U} \xi^{2}
$$

with equality iff $y=\xi$.
Theorem 3 (approximation of $\bar{U} x[21,3,14,16,1]$ ). For each $x \in \bar{X}$, the norm $\mid \bar{U}(\eta-x)$ is minimal among all $\eta \in M$ iff $\bar{U}(\eta-\xi)=0$, where $\xi=\Pi x$.

Proof. If $\eta \in M$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\eta-x-(\eta-\xi)+(\xi-x), \quad \eta-\xi \in M, \quad \xi-x \in N ; \\
\eta-\left.x\right|^{2}=\| \eta-\xi^{2}+\xi-\left.x\right|^{2} ; \\
\| \bar{F}(\eta-x)^{2}+|\bar{U}(\eta-x)|^{2}= \\
\\
\\
\\
-0+\left.\eta(\eta-\xi)\right|^{2}+: \bar{U}(\eta-\xi){ }^{2} \\
\end{gathered}
$$

Now $\bar{F}(\eta-x)=\bar{F}(\eta-\xi)$, since $x-\xi \in N$. Hence,

$$
\left.\bar{U}(\eta-x)\right|^{2}=\left|\bar{U}(\eta-\xi)^{2}+\| \bar{U}(\xi-x)^{2} \geqslant|\bar{U}(\xi-x)|^{2}\right.
$$

with equality iff $\bar{U}(\eta-\xi)=0$.
Theorem 4 (a lower bound on $\bar{U} x![17 \mathrm{a} ; 12$, p. 84]). For any $x \in \mathscr{X}$,

$$
\bar{U} x \geqslant \bar{U} e \bar{F} x
$$

with equality iff $x=e \bar{F} x$.
Proof. Lemma 3 implies that $\mid \bar{U} x \geqslant \bar{U} \xi, \xi=\Pi x$, with equality iff $x=\xi$. Now $\xi=e \bar{F} x$, by Lemma 2 . This completes the proof.

Note that the operator $\bar{U} e$ is accessible to us. Thus, Theorem 4 gives a lower bound on the norm of the coobservation in terms of the observation. If $Y$ is finite dimensional, $\|\bar{U} e \bar{F} x\|^{2}$ is a quadratic form in the observation $\bar{F} x$.

It may appear surprising that $\bar{F} x$ should give information about $\bar{U} x$, as our sole hypothesis has been that $F x=0, U x=0, x \in X$ imply that $x=0$. If $F$ and $U$ are independent, Theorem 4 will assert merely that $\| \bar{U} x \geqslant 0$ with equality iff $x=e \bar{F} x$. The more dependent $F$ and $U$ are, the more informative Theorem 4 is.

## 5. Approximation of Gx

Suppose that $G$ is a given operator on $X$ to a normed linear space $W$. We now seek an approximation of $G$ in terms of $F$. As the sets $X$ and $\mathscr{X}$ are the same, $G$ is an operator on $\mathscr{X}$ to $W$.

Assume that $G$ has an extension $\bar{G}: \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{W}$ which is linear on $\cdot \bar{X}$ and continuous on $N \subset \overline{\mathscr{T}}$. Let

$$
J=\bar{G}|N|^{2}
$$

be the square of the Banach norm of the restriction $\bar{G}\rangle N$ of $\bar{G}$ to $N$. Thus,

$$
J==\sup _{\substack{\zeta \in N,: \zeta h=1}}\|\bar{G} \zeta\|^{2}=\sup _{\substack{\xi \in N, \forall \bar{U} \zeta \|=1}} \mid \bar{G} \zeta \|^{2} .
$$

The last equality follows from the fact that $\mid \zeta\left\|^{2}=\right\| \bar{F} \zeta\left\|^{2}+\right\| \bar{U} \zeta^{2}=\| \bar{U} \zeta^{2}$.
Put

$$
A_{0}=\bar{G} \Pi=\bar{G} e \bar{F} .
$$

We shall see that $A_{0}$ is a natural approximation of $G$, among all maps which are independent of $\bar{U}$.

Lemma 4. For any $x \in \bar{x}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{G} x \cdots A_{0} x x^{2} \quad J\left(\left.{ }^{2}\right|^{2} \quad \bar{U} \xi^{2}\right) J \bar{U}_{x}^{2} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\xi=\prod x=e \bar{F} x . \quad A_{0} x=\bar{G} \xi
$$

The inequalities are sharp in the following strong sense. For each $\epsilon$. 0 , each $\omega \in \bar{F} \cdot \bar{x}$ and each $d>$ ' Uew, there is an $x^{\prime \prime} \in Y^{\prime}$ such that $\bar{F} x^{\prime \prime}{ }^{(1)}$. $\bar{U} x^{\prime \prime} \mid=d$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{G} x^{1}-A_{1,} x^{0}{ }^{2} \quad J\left(\bar{U} x^{3}-\bar{U} \xi^{0} \quad 2\right)-\epsilon \quad \xi^{0} \quad e \omega ; \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and for each $\in \quad 0$ and $d=0$, there is an $x^{1} \Leftrightarrow \bar{T}$ such that $\overline{U_{x}}=d$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{G} x^{4}-A_{0} x^{1}:^{2} \cdots x^{1}{ }^{2}-\epsilon \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $G$ is a functional, then equality occurs in the first part of (2) for any prescribed $\omega=\bar{F} x \in \bar{F} \bar{x}$ and $d=\bar{U} x \geq{ }^{\prime} \mid \bar{U} e \omega$, and equality occurs in both parts of (2) for any prescribed $d=\mid \bar{U} x=0$.

Proof. Since $\bar{G}-A_{11}=\bar{G} \operatorname{Proj}_{N}$, it follows that

$$
\left.\bar{G} x \cdots A_{0} x\right|^{2} \operatorname{Proj}_{N} x \|^{2}=J\left(\left\|_{1} x^{2} \cdots \mid \bar{U} \xi x^{2}, \quad \xi \cdots\right\| x, x \in \tilde{x}\right.
$$

by Lemma 3 and the definition of $J$. This implies (2).
Suppose that $\epsilon \quad 0, \omega=\bar{F} x, x \in \mathscr{X}$, and $d=\bar{U} e(\omega$ are prescribed. We shall show that $x^{\prime \prime}-x^{\prime}$ exists such that $\bar{F} x^{0} \quad \omega, \bar{U} x^{0}=d$, and (3) holds.

If $d=\mid \bar{U} e \omega!$, this is immediate, for we take $x^{0} \quad \xi$; then $\bar{G} x^{0}-A_{0} x^{01} \mid$ $0 \times-\epsilon$. Assume now that $d \geqslant \bar{U} e \omega$. Take $k$ so that

$$
k_{1}^{2}=d^{2} \quad \bar{U} e \omega:^{2} .
$$

The definition of $J$ implies that $\xi^{\prime \prime} \in N$ exists such that

$$
\xi^{\prime \prime} \mid-U \zeta^{\prime \prime}-1
$$

and

$$
\bar{G} G^{0}-\left.A_{0} S^{10}\right|^{2} \quad J \quad \epsilon / k i^{2},
$$

since $A_{0} \zeta^{\mathbf{0}} \bar{G} \Pi \zeta^{0} \quad 0$. Put

$$
x^{\prime \prime}=k \zeta^{0}+\xi^{\prime \prime}, \quad \xi^{\prime \prime}=e \omega=\prod \square x .
$$

Then $\Pi x^{0} \cdots \xi^{0}$, and

$$
\left.\bar{U} x^{0}\right|^{2}-\left.\left|\bar{U} \xi^{0}{ }^{2}=\left|\operatorname{Proj}_{N} x^{0}\right|^{2} \quad k\right|^{2} \zeta^{0}\right|^{2}=\left.k\right|^{2} d^{2}-\left.\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2},
$$

by Lemma 3. Hence, $\left.\mid \bar{U} x^{0}\right\}=d$, and $\bar{F} x^{0} \quad \bar{F} \xi^{0}=\bar{F} x=\omega$.

Now,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{G} x^{0} & \cdots k \bar{G} \zeta^{0}+\bar{G} \xi^{0}, \\
A_{1} x^{0} & =k A_{0} \zeta^{0}+A_{0} \xi^{0}=k A_{0} \zeta^{0}-\bar{G} \xi^{0}, \\
\bar{G} x^{0}-A_{0} x^{0}{ }^{2} & =k^{2} \mid \bar{G} \zeta^{n}-A_{0} \zeta^{0} V^{2}\left(J-\epsilon k v^{2}\right)=k k^{2} J \cdots \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

This establishes (3).
Next take $\omega=0$ in the preceding discussion. Then (3) reduces to (4) with $x^{1}=x^{\prime \prime}$.

Finally, suppose that $G$ is a functional. Then $\bar{G} N$ is a linear continuous functional on the Hilbert space $N$. Let $g \in N$ be the dual (representer) of $\bar{G} N$. Then, putting $\breve{\zeta}^{\prime \prime}=g /, g$, we see that

$$
\zeta^{0}:=\bar{U} \zeta^{0}:-1, \quad \bar{G} \zeta^{0} \cdots A_{0} S^{0}{ }^{2} \cdots J
$$

The rest of the argument establishes (3) and (4) with $\epsilon=0$ and inequality replaced by equality.

Theorem 5 (geometric property $[5,15,17,2]$ ). For $\omega \in \bar{F} \bar{T}$ and $d=0$, put

$$
\Gamma=\{x \in X: \bar{F} x=\omega \text { and } \mid \bar{U} x!\{d\} .
$$

Then $\Gamma$ is nonempty iff $d \geqslant$ Uew , and $\Gamma$ is the intersection of the closed ball in $x^{3}$ of radius $\left(\omega \|^{1}+d^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}$, center 0 , and the hyperplane $\xi^{0}-N$, where

$$
\xi^{0}:=e \omega \in M .
$$

And $\bar{G} \Gamma$, if nonempty, is a convex bounded subset of $\bar{W}$, with center $\bar{G} \xi^{0}$ and maximum radius $J^{1 / 2}\left(d^{2}-\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right)^{1 / 2}$.

As the center of a bounded set is unique, $\bar{G} \xi^{0}$ is a natural approximation of $\bar{G} x, x \in \Gamma$. But $\xi^{0}$ and $\bar{G} \xi^{0}$ are independent of $d$. Hence, $\bar{G} \xi^{0}$ is a natural approximation of $\bar{G} x$, for all $x \in \bar{X}$ for which $\bar{F} x=\omega$. As $\omega \in \bar{F} \bar{X}$ is arbitrary, $\bar{G} \xi$ is a natural approximation of $\bar{G} x$, for all $x \in \bar{T}$, where $\xi:=\Pi x=e \bar{F} x$.

Proof of Theorem 5. The set $\{x \in \bar{X}: \bar{F} x=\omega\}$ is $\xi^{0} \div N$, where $\omega=\bar{F} x^{0}$ for some $x^{0} \in \tilde{x}$ and $\xi^{0}=\Pi x^{0}=e \omega$. Thus, $\bar{F} \xi^{0}=\omega=\bar{F}\left(\xi^{0}-N\right)$; and $\bar{F} x=\omega, x \in \mathscr{X}$, implies that $x-\xi^{0} \in N$, and vice versa.

The set $\left\{x \in \mathscr{X}:\{ \}^{2} \leqslant d^{2}\right\}$ is the closed ball of square radius $\left.\omega\right|^{12}+d^{2}$ and center 0 . It is the set $\{x \in X: \bar{U} x \leqslant d\}$, since ${ }^{\prime} x^{1^{2}}=$ $\omega \omega^{2} \bar{U} x \|^{2}$.
Thus, $\Gamma$ is the intersection of the two sets and is nonempty iff $\left.\xi^{0}\right|^{2}|\omega|^{2}+d^{2}$, that is, $\|^{\prime} \bar{U} \xi^{0} \quad d$.
For any $x \in \Gamma, \Pi x=e=\omega=\xi^{0}$.

Since $\Gamma$ is convex, so is $\bar{G} \Gamma$. We now show that $\bar{G} \Gamma$, if nonempty, has center $\bar{G} \xi^{0}$. Thus, consider any $x \in \Gamma$. Put $y=2 \xi^{0}-x$. Then $\Pi y=\xi^{0}$, and, by Lemma 3.

$$
\left\|\bar{U} y^{2}-\left|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\left\|^{2}=\left.\bar{U}\left(y-\xi^{0}\right)\right|^{2}-\right\| \bar{U}\left(x-\xi^{0}\right)\right|^{2}=\right\| \bar{U} x^{2} \cdots \bar{U} \xi^{0} \|^{2} .
$$

Hence, $\mid \bar{U} y\|=\bar{U} x\|$. Also $\bar{F} y=2 \bar{F} \xi^{0}-\bar{F} x=\bar{F} x=\omega$. Hence, $y \in \Gamma$, and $\bar{G} x, \bar{G} y \in \bar{G} \Gamma$. Now $\bar{G} y=2 \bar{G} \xi^{0}-\bar{G} x$ and

$$
\bar{G} y-\bar{G} \xi^{0}=-\left(\bar{G} x \cdots \bar{G} \xi^{0}\right)
$$

Hence, $\bar{G} \Gamma$ has center $\bar{G} \xi^{0}$.
Lemma 4 implies that $\bar{G} \Gamma$ is bounded, with maximum square radius $\leqslant J\left(d^{2}-\left\|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right\|^{2}\right)$ and $\quad J\left(d^{2}-\left.\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2}\right)-\epsilon$, for any $\epsilon>0$. Hence, the maximum radius is as stated.

Corollary (optimality of $A_{0}$ ). For each $\beta \in \bar{W}$, each $\omega \in \bar{F} \bar{T}$, and each $d \geqslant \bar{U}^{2} \omega$

$$
\sup _{x \in \Gamma} \bar{G} x-\beta \|^{2} \geqslant J\left(d^{2}-\|\left.\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2}\right), \quad \xi^{0}=e \omega .
$$

If $\bar{W}$ is a Hilbert space and $\beta \neq G \xi^{0}$, then the supremum is strictly greater than the right member.

Thus, $\beta$, as an approximation of $\bar{G} x, x \in \Gamma$, is never better than $\bar{G} \xi^{0}==A_{0} x$ (cf. Lemma 4). And if $\bar{W}$ is a Hilbert space, $\beta$ is certainly worse, unless $\beta=\bar{G} \xi^{0}$.

Proof. By Lemma 4 there is a sequence $x^{v} \in \Gamma, v=1,2, \ldots$, such that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\bar{G} x^{\nu}-\bar{G} \xi^{0} \\
\left.\bar{F} x^{\nu}=\omega, \quad \text { and } \quad \bar{U} d^{2}-\left.\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2}\right)-1 / \nu, \\
x^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

Put

$$
y^{\prime \prime}=2 \xi^{0}-x^{\prime \prime}
$$

Then $y^{v} \in \Gamma$ for all $\nu$. Let $z^{v}$ denote $x^{v}$ or $y^{v}$ according as $\bar{G} x^{\nu}-\beta \geqslant$ $\left\|\bar{G} y^{\prime \prime}-\beta\right\|$ or the contrary. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\bar{G} z^{v}-\beta\right\| & =\max \left(\left\|\bar{G} x^{v}-\beta\right\|, \| \bar{G} y^{v}-\beta\right) \\
& =\max \left(\left|\left(\bar{G} x^{v}-\bar{G} \xi^{0}\right)+\left(\bar{G} \xi^{0}-\beta\right)\right|,\left\|\left(\bar{G} y^{\nu}-\bar{G} \xi^{0}\right)+\left(\bar{G} \xi^{0}-\beta\right)\right\|\right) \\
& =\max \left(\left\|\left(\bar{G} \xi^{0}-\beta\right)+\left(\bar{G} x^{v}-\bar{G} \xi^{0}\right)\right\|,\left(\bar{G} \xi^{0}-\beta\right)-\left(\bar{G} x^{v}-\bar{G} \xi^{0}\right) \mid\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now

$$
\max (\|u+v\|, u-v \|) \geqslant v \mid, \quad u, v \in \bar{W} .
$$

Hence,

$$
\sup _{x \in \Gamma} \bar{G} x-\beta\left\|^{2} \geqslant \sup _{v=1,2, \ldots}\right\| \bar{G} x^{v}-\bar{G} \xi^{0} \|^{2}=J\left(d^{2}-\left\|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right\|^{2}\right) .
$$

Furthermore, if $\bar{W}$ is a Hilbert space, $u \neq 0$, and $v$ is bounded, then

$$
\max (u+v, u-v \mid)-\| v=\delta
$$

for some $\delta>0[11, \mathrm{p} .230]$. In this case, then,

$$
\sup _{x \in \Gamma}\|\bar{G} x-\beta\|^{2} \geqslant \sup _{v=1,2 \ldots}\left\|\bar{G} x^{v}-\bar{G} \xi^{v}\right\|^{2}+\delta^{2}>J\left(d^{2}-\mid \bar{U} \xi^{0}{ }^{2}\right),
$$

if $\bar{G} \xi^{0} \cdots \beta=0$, since $\bar{G} x^{y}-\bar{G} \xi^{0}:$ is bounded.

## 6. Admissible Approximations

Let $A$ denote the set of operators $A: \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{W}$ such that

$$
A=E \bar{F} \quad \text { and } \quad R_{d \overline{e f}} \bar{G}-A=Q \bar{U}
$$

where $E: \bar{F} \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{W}$ and $Q: \bar{U} \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{W}$ are linear. The algebraic part of the quotient theorem implies that $A \in \mathscr{A}$ iff $A x$ depends linearly on the observation $\bar{F} x, x \in \mathscr{X}$, and $A x=\bar{G} x$ whenever $\widetilde{U} x=0$. We say that $A$ is an admissible approximation of $\bar{G}$ if $A \in, \mathcal{A}$.

Now $A_{0}=\bar{G} \Pi$ is an admissible approximation of $\bar{G}$. For

$$
A_{0}=E_{0} \bar{F}, \quad E_{0}=\bar{G} e
$$

by Lemma 2; and

$$
R_{0} \bar{G}-A_{0}=\bar{G} \operatorname{Proj}_{N}=Q_{0} \bar{U}, \quad Q_{0}=\bar{G} q
$$

by Lemma 1.
Theorem 6 (minimal ${ }^{2}$ quotient $[8 ; 9$, Chapter $2 ; 11 ; 15 ; 17 ; 18-20 ; 4 ; 2]$ ). For $A \in \Omega$, the Banach norm $\| Q$ of $Q$ is minimal if $A=A_{0}$, in which case

$$
Q{ }^{2}==J
$$

Conversely, if $W$ is one-dimensional and $Q \|$ is minimal, then $A=A_{0}$. If $W$ is many dimensional, then $\|Q\|$ may be minimal even though, $A \neq A_{0}$.

[^1]Proof. Part 1. Consider $A \in C$ and $R=\bar{G} A=Q \bar{U}$. From the definition of the Banach norm
since $A \zeta=0, \zeta \in N$, and $\bar{U} \zeta \zeta$. As $A_{0} \in \mathscr{C}$, it follows that

$$
\left.Q_{01}\right|^{2}:=J .
$$

Now
since the excluded case $\operatorname{Proj}_{N} x=0$ would give $R_{0} x \ldots 0$. By Lemma 3,

$$
0 \leqslant \operatorname{Proj}_{N} x \quad \bar{U}^{2}-\bar{U} \xi^{2}, \quad \xi-\prod x, x \in \bar{x}
$$

and

$$
0 \% \frac{\left.\operatorname{Proj}_{N} x\right|^{2}}{\bar{U} x^{2}} \quad 1-\frac{\bar{U} \xi_{1}^{2}}{\bar{U} x y^{2}} 1, \quad \bar{U} x<0 .
$$

Hence.

$$
\left.Q_{0}\right|^{2} \sup _{\substack{\left.x \in \bar{\pi} \\ \operatorname{Proj}_{N}, 0\right)}} \frac{\bar{G} \operatorname{Proj}_{N} x}{\mid \operatorname{Proj}_{N} x} \quad \|\left.\bar{G}^{2} N\right|^{2} \quad J
$$

Thus.

$$
Q_{0}: \quad J \quad Q^{2}
$$

for all $A \in \%$.
Part 2. Suppose that $W$ is one-dimensional. To fix our ideas, let the scalars be the complex numbers. We shall show that $A_{0}$ is the only element of $\triangle$ which minimizes $Q$; that is, that

$$
Q 1^{2} J \quad \text { if } A_{0} * A
$$

For all $\zeta \in N, R \zeta=\bar{G} \zeta=R_{0} \zeta$. Hence, there must be an element $\xi^{0} \in M$ such that $R \xi^{0} / 0$ (otherwise $R=R_{0}$ ). Then $\bar{U} \xi^{\theta} \neq 0$, since $R=Q \bar{U}$.

Now

$$
J=\sup _{\substack{G \in N, V E J=1}} \mid G \zeta \cong
$$

If $J \quad 0$, then $\bar{G} \zeta=0$ for all $\zeta \in N$, and $R_{0} x \quad \bar{G} \operatorname{Proj} x \quad 0$ for all $x \in \bar{X}$. Hence, $Q_{0}=0$. On the other hand, $Q=0$, else $R \xi^{0} \quad 0$. Hence, $Q$ $Q_{0}{ }^{\prime}=0$, as was to be shown. Now assume that $J \cdot 0$.

Since $\bar{G} \upharpoonright N$ is a linear continuous functional on the Hilbert space $N$, there exists $\zeta^{0} \in N$ such that

$$
\bar{U} \zeta^{\prime \prime}=1: \zeta^{\prime \prime} \quad-\quad 1, \quad \bar{G} \zeta^{\prime \prime}=J^{12} \quad 0
$$

Put

$$
x^{0}=\frac{\overline{R \xi^{0}}}{J^{1 / 2} \mid \bar{U} \xi^{0} \|^{2}} \xi^{0}+\zeta^{0} \in \bar{T} .
$$

Then

$$
R x^{0}=\frac{\mid R \xi^{0} \dot{2}^{2}}{J^{1 / 2}\left\|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right\|^{2}}+J^{1 / 2}=\frac{\left|R \xi^{0}\right|^{2}+J\left\|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right\|^{2}}{J^{1 / 2}\left|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2}}=\left|R x^{0}\right|
$$

And

$$
\bar{U} x^{-0}:^{2}--\frac{\left.R \xi^{0}\right|^{2}}{J\left\|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right\|^{1}}\left|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2}+\left|\bar{U} \xi^{01}\right|^{2}=\frac{\left.\left|R \xi^{0}\right|^{2}|J| \bar{U} \xi^{0}\right|^{2}}{J\left\|\bar{U} \xi^{0}\right\|^{2}},
$$

since $\left(\bar{U} \xi^{0}, \bar{U} \zeta^{0}\right)=\left(\xi^{0}, \zeta^{0}\right)=0$ and $\bar{U} \zeta^{0}=1$. Hence,

Hence.

$$
Q!^{2}>J
$$

Part 3. If $W$ is many dimensional, the following elementary example shows that $A_{0}$ need not be the only element of $\Omega$ which minimizes $Q$.

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
X & \mathbb{R}^{5}, \quad Y=Z=W=\mathbb{R}^{3}: \\
F x & =\left(x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right) \in Y \\
U x & =\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in Z \\
G x & =\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{4}\right) \in W \\
x & =\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}\right) \in X
\end{aligned}
$$

Completions of spaces and operators are not needed because of the finite dimensionality. Now [11, p. 238], $A \in \mathscr{i f f}$

$$
A x=\left(a x_{3}, b x_{3}, c x_{3}+x_{4}\right) . \quad a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Then

$$
R x==\left(x_{1}-a x_{3}, x_{2}-b x_{3},-c x_{3}\right)-Q U x
$$

where $Q: Z \rightarrow W$ is represented by the $3 \times 3$ matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & -a \\
0 & 1 & -b \\
0 & 0 & -c
\end{array}\right)
$$

Now $Q$ is the largest absolute autovalue of the product of this matrix by its transpose. And 1 is an autovalue. Hence.

$$
Q \geq 1
$$

Clearly $Q, 1$, if $a=-b=0$ and $c ; 1$. Thus, the minimum is not attained uniquely. The reader may verify that $Q=Q_{0}$ iff $a=b=c=0$.

## 7. The Completeness Condition

In some applications the space $X$ is normed and the norms in $X$ and $\bar{X}$ are equivalent. Then $X$ and $\bar{X}$ have the same topology and $\bar{X}=\bar{X}$. The simplest case is the one in which $X=\bar{X}=\bar{y}$; all the bars over our symbols may then be omitted.

Let us say that the completeness condition [5] holds if $X$ is normed, if $F$ and $U$ are continuous on $X$, and if $b<x$ exists such that

$$
x \|_{x}^{2}: b^{2}\left(\left\|\left.F x\right|^{2}+\right\| U x \|^{2}\right), \quad \text { all } \quad x \in X \text {. }
$$

This implies that kernel $F \cap$ kernel $U \ldots\{0\}$.
Lemma 5. Suppose that the completeness condition holds. Then $X$ and $X$ have equivalent norms. As sets $X=X$ and $\bar{X}=x$. Furthermore, if $G: X \rightarrow W$ is linear and continuous, then the completion $\bar{G}: \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{W}$ exists and is linear and continuous. Conversely, if $X$ is normed, if $F$. $U$ are continuous on $X$, and $\bar{X}=\bar{X}$, then the completeness condition holds.

Proof. Since $F$ and $U$ are continuous on $X . c<\infty$ exists such that

$$
\|x\|_{x}^{2}-\left.F x\right|^{2}+\left\|\left.U x\right|^{2} \leqslant c^{2}\right\| x \|_{x}^{2}, \quad \text { all } \quad x \in X-x
$$

Now the completeness condition implies that

$$
\left\|\left.x\right|_{X} ^{2} \leqslant b^{2} \mid x\right\|_{x}^{2} .
$$

Thus, $X$ and $X$ have equivalent norms. Hence, the completions $\bar{X}$ and $\bar{X}$ are equal as sets and have equivalent norms. Finally, $\bar{G}: \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{W}$ is linear and continuous since $G: X \rightarrow W$ is.

To prove the converse statement, note that if $\bar{X}=\bar{x}$, then the identity: $\bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{X}$ is continuous, by one of Banach's theorems [9, p. 307], and the completeness condition holds.

## 8. Harmonic Functions

In the following application of the theory, harmonic functions are splines. Let $\Omega$ be an open region of $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ on which the divergence theorem holds,
and let $\beta$ be the boundary of $\Omega$. Then $\beta$ is an admissible domain of integration of an $(m-1)$-fold integral in $\mathbb{R}^{m}$.

Let $X$ be the set of $C_{2}$ functions on the closure $\bar{\Omega}$. Thus, $x \in X$ iff $x: \bar{\Omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has an extension which is $C_{2}$ on a neighborhood of $\bar{\Omega}$.

Let $Y=L^{2}(\beta)$. Thus, $y \in Y$ means that $y: \beta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Hausdorff $(m-1)$ measurable and that $\int_{\beta}|y|^{2}<\infty$, with the usual convention that $y$ need be defined only almost everywhere $(m-1)$ on $\beta$ and that two functions which are equal almost everywhere $(m-1)$ on $\beta$ correspond to the same element of $Y$. Also

$$
(x, y)=\int_{\beta} x y, \quad x, y \in Y
$$

The integral here is relative to ( $m-1$ )-measure.
Let $Z=L^{2}(\Omega) \times L^{2}(\Omega) \times \cdots$ to $m$ factors, where $L^{2}(\Omega)$ is the usual $L^{2}$ space on $\Omega$. If $x=\left(x^{1} \ldots, x^{m}\right)$ and $y=\left(y^{1}, \ldots, y^{m}\right)$ are elements of $Z$, then

$$
(x, y)=\iint_{\Omega} \sum_{j=1}^{m} x^{j} y^{j}
$$

The integral here is relative to Lebesgue measure in $\mathbb{R}^{\prime \prime \prime}$. We shall use double and single integral signs to indicate $m$-fold and ( $m-1$ )-fold integrals, over the domains $\Omega$ and $\beta=\partial \Omega$, respectively (unless other domains are indicated explicitly).

Let $F: X \rightarrow Y$ be the operator of restriction to $\beta$, so that $F x=x \beta$. Since $x \upharpoonright \beta$ is continuous, it is surely an element of $Y$. The observation of $x$ is in effect the set of boundary values of $x$.

Let $U: X \rightarrow Z$ be the gradient operator. Thus,

$$
U x=\operatorname{grad} x=\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right]
$$

where subscripts indicate partial derivatives. The coobservation of $x$ is its gradient. And

$$
(U x, U y)=\iint \operatorname{grad} x \cdot \operatorname{grad} y=\iint\left(x_{1} y_{1}+\cdots-x_{m} y_{m}\right) .
$$

Now $F x=0, U x=0, x \in X$ imply that $x=0$. For $U x=0$ implies that $x$ is locally constant, hence constant on each connected component of $\bar{\Omega}$. And $F x=0$ implies that the constant is 0 . Thus, we may and shall consider splines relative to $F$ and $U$.

The space $\mathscr{X}$ is $X$ with the inner product

$$
(x, y)=\int x y+\iint \operatorname{grad} x \cdot \operatorname{grad} y, \quad x, y \in \mathscr{X}
$$

$\bar{X}$ is the completion of $\mathscr{X}$. The completions of $F, U$ are $\bar{F}, \bar{U}$. Thus, for example, $\bar{y}=\bar{F} \bar{x}, \bar{x} \in \bar{X}$, means that there is a sequence $x^{\nu} \in \mathscr{X}, \nu=1,2, \ldots$,
such that $x^{\prime} \rightarrow \bar{x}$ as $v \rightarrow \infty$ and $F x^{r} \rightarrow \bar{y} \in \bar{Y} L^{2}(\beta)$. We describe the situation informally by saying that $\bar{x}: \beta=\bar{y}$. Similarly, if $\bar{z} \bar{U} \bar{x}$, we say that $\operatorname{grad} \bar{x} \cdots$.

Now

$$
N \quad\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
x \in \cdot \bar{T}: x & \beta & 0
\end{array}\right.
$$

consists of the elements of $\bar{x}$ which vanish almost everywhere on the boundary of $\Omega$, and

$$
M=\left\{x \in \mathscr{x}: \iint \operatorname{grad} x \cdot \operatorname{grad} \zeta \cdots 0 \text { whenever } \zeta \Leftrightarrow N_{1}^{\prime}\right.
$$

Green`s first formula is

$$
\int(\operatorname{grad} x \cdot \operatorname{grad} y+y \operatorname{lap} x)=\int \ln \operatorname{grad} x \quad x, y \in x
$$

where lap $x=x_{1,1} \quad \cdots \quad x_{1, m}$ and $n$ is the unit normal of $\beta$. This implies that harmonic functions in $\mathscr{A}$ are splines and, conversely, elements of $M \cap . \notin$ are harmonic. For, suppose that $x \in \mathscr{T}$ and lap $x=0$. Consider any $\zeta \subseteq N$. Then there is a sequence $\zeta^{\prime \prime} \in \mathscr{x}, v=1,2, \ldots$, such that $\zeta^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \zeta$ and $\zeta^{\prime \prime} \beta \rightarrow 0$ as $\nu \rightarrow \infty$. Now

$$
\iint \operatorname{grad} x \cdot \operatorname{grad} \zeta^{v} \cdots \int n \cdot \operatorname{grad} x \quad \int 5^{\prime} \cdot \beta n \cdot \operatorname{grad} x \rightarrow 0
$$

Hence,

$$
\int \| \operatorname{grad} x \cdot \operatorname{grad} \leq=0
$$

and $x \in M$. Conversely, if $x \in M \cap x$, then

$$
\iint \zeta \operatorname{lap} x=0
$$

for all $\zeta \in N \cap \mathscr{X}$. Since $x \in X, \operatorname{lap} x$ is continuous and, therefore, vanishes on $\Omega$.

As the elements of $M \cap \mathscr{X}$ are harmonic functions, it is natural to call the elements of $M \cap \bar{X}=M$ generalized harmonic functions. We shall do this. Thus, splines relative to the present $F$ and $U$ are generalized harmonic functions.

Theorem I now states that there is one and only one generalized harmonic function with prescribed boundary values. The generalized Dirichlet problem has one and only one generalized solution.

Theorem 2 states that $\left.\iint \operatorname{grad} x\right|^{2}$ has a minimum among all $x \in \bar{x}$ with prescribed boundary values, that the minimum occurs uniquely, and that the minimizing $x$ is a generalized harmonic function. This is the generalized Dirichlet principle.

Theorem 5 implies that for any $x \in \tilde{x}$, among functions that agree with $x$ on the boundary, the generalized harmonic function is the bestapproximation.

The spline operator $e$ of Lemma 2 is the known integral operator, whose kernel is the normal derivative of Green's function, which produces the harmonic function having specified boundary values. If $\Omega$ has a Green's function with suitable properties, then $e$ is continuous.

## 9. Other Applications

(i) Let $X, Z$ and $U: X \rightarrow Z$ be as in the preceding section. For $x \in X$, let $F x$ be something more than $x \upharpoonright \beta$. For example, $F x$ may be the triple $\left(x \mid \beta, x \upharpoonleft \mathscr{\mathscr { L }}, \iint_{\mathscr{E}} x\right)$, where $\mathscr{\mathscr { L }}$ and $\mathscr{\delta}$ are preassigned subsets of $\Omega$. The essential point for our theory is that $F x \in Y$ and $Y$ be an inner product space. Here $Y$ may be $L^{2}(\beta) \times L^{2}(\alpha) \times \mathbb{R}$, so that

$$
(x, y)=\int_{B} x y+\int_{\delta} \int x y-\left(\int_{\delta} f x\right)\left(\int_{\delta} \int y\right), \quad x, y \in Y
$$

The present $F x$ contains more information than that of the preceding section. Hence, $F x=0, U x=0, x \in X$ imply that $x=0$. We may, therefore, apply our theory. The space $N$ will be smaller than before, and, therefore, $M$ will be larger. The splines in the present application constitute a stronger tool than do the generalized harmonic functions, but a tool which requires more complicated calculations.
(ii) We may use higher derivatives. With $X$ as before, a possible coobservation is the second derivative

$$
U x=D^{2} x: \Omega \times \mathbb{R}^{m} \times \mathbb{R}^{m \prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{R},
$$

where $Z$ is the space with inner product

$$
(U x, U y)=\iint \sum_{i, j} x_{i, j} y_{i, j}, \quad x, y \in X,
$$

and $x_{i, j}$ is the partial derivative $\dot{\partial}^{2} x / \partial s^{i} \partial s^{j},\left(s^{1}, \ldots, s^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \Omega$. The observation must be such that kernel $F \cap$ kernel $U=\{0\}$.
(iii) Even in the analysis of functions of one variable, there may be interesting applications involving nonscalar observations. One elementary instance, perhaps suggestive, is the following.

Let $a$ be the characteristic function of the interval [0, 2]:

$$
a(s)=-\begin{array}{ll}
1 & \text { if } 0 \leqslant s \leqslant 2 \\
10 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}
$$

and $b$ the characteristic function of $[1,3]$ :

$$
b(s)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } 1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Let $X=C_{0}[0,3]$ space of continuous functions on $[0,3]$ to $\mathbb{R}$. Let $Y: L^{2}[0,2]$, and $F: X \rightarrow Y$ be the operator $F x: a x:$ restriction of $x$ to [0, 2]. Let $Z \cdots L^{2}[1,3]$, and $U: X \rightarrow Z$ be the operator $U x \rightarrow b x \cdots$ restriction of $x$ to [1,3]. Then $F x=0, U x=0, x \in X$ imply that $x$ vanishes almost everywhere on $[0,3]$, hence, that $x=0$. We may, therefore, apply our theory.

The inner product in $\mathscr{X}$ is

$$
(x, y)=\int_{0}^{2} x y-\int_{1}^{3} x y-\int x d \mu, \quad x, y \in x .
$$

where

$$
d \mu= \begin{cases}2 d x & \text { on }[1,2] \\ d x & \text { on }[0,1) \text { and }(2,3] \\ 0 & \text { elsewhere }\end{cases}
$$

Hence, $\mathscr{X}=X \cap L^{2}(\mu)$. As $X$ is dense in $L^{2}(\mu)$, it follows that

$$
\bar{x}=-L^{2}(\mu) .
$$

Now $\bar{Y}=Y, \bar{Z}-Z$, and

$$
\bar{F} x=a x, \quad \bar{U} x \cdots b x, \quad x \in \bar{X} .
$$

Next

$$
\begin{aligned}
& N=\text { kernel } \bar{F} \cdots\{x \in \bar{X}: a x=0\}-\{x \in \bar{X}: x=0 \text { a.e. on }[0,2]\} . \\
& \begin{aligned}
M=N^{\perp} & =\left\{\xi \in \mathscr{F}: \int_{1}^{3} b \xi b \zeta=0 \text { whenever } \zeta \in \bar{X} \text { vanishes a.c. on }[0,2]\{ \right. \\
& =\left\{\xi \in \bar{X}: \int_{n}^{3} \xi \zeta=0 \text { whenever } \zeta \in L^{2}[2,3]\right. \\
& =\{\xi \in \mathscr{X}: \xi=0 \text { a.e. on }[2,3]\}=\{\xi \in \mathscr{X}:(1-a) \xi=0\} .
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

Also,

$$
\operatorname{Proj}_{M} x=a x, \quad \operatorname{Proj}_{N} x \quad(1-a) x, \quad x \in \mathscr{X}
$$

since $x=a x+(1-a) x$, and $a x \in M,(1-a) x \in N$.

Thus, the optimal approximation of $x \in \bar{x}$ is $a x$, as one would expect, and the optimal approximation of $\bar{G} x$ is $\bar{G}(a x)$, where $G: X \rightarrow W$ is linear continuous and $W$ is a normed linear space. One may calculate the operators $q$ and $e$ of Lemmas I and 2. Indeed,

$$
q y=(1-a) y, \quad y \in \bar{U} \cdot \bar{T} ; \quad \text { and } \quad e=\text { identity: } \bar{F} \bar{X} \rightarrow \bar{X} ;
$$

and

$$
q:=1, \quad e^{2}=2
$$

The reader may construct similar applications in which observation and coobservation involve derivatives or integrals.

In any application of our theory, the interchange of observation and coobservation produces a new application.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ On page 228 of [11], the hypothesis that $F^{i} X$ is closed does not imply that $V x$ is closed. Lemma 4, which is true, is misapplied to a space which need not be a Hilbert space.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Theorem 6 answers affirmatively a question raised in [9, p. 107] about broad and narrow interpolation. The spline approximation is best in both the broad and the narrow sense.

