# Minimum Moduli of Differential Operators from the Viewpoint of Approximation Theory 

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## 1. Introduction

One of the prettiest results in approximation theory is an old theorem of S. Bernstein which states that if $f^{(n)}$ is absolutely continuous on $[-1,1]$ and $f^{(n: 1)}$ is in $L^{\infty}[-1,1]$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dist}_{\infty}\left(f, \mathbf{P}_{n}\right) \leqslant \frac{2^{-n}}{(n-1)!}\left\|f^{(n+1)}\right\|_{\infty}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the distance is measured in the $L^{2}[-1,1]$ norm, ${ }_{\infty}$, and $\mathbf{P}_{n}$ is the space of algebraic polynomials of degree $n$. The inequality (1) is sharp, since when $f(x)=2^{-n} /(n+1)!\cos (n+1)$ arc $\cos x$, it becomes an equality. In approximation theoretic terms, (1) provides an estimate for the error in approximating $f$ in $\| \cdot{ }_{\infty}$ by elements of $\mathbf{P}_{n}$. Of course, it is of interest to obtain results for other norms (e.g., $L^{\prime \prime}$ ) and other spaces. This paper makes a modest contribution in this direction.

In order to provide the proper setting for our generalizations, we introduce the idea of the minimum modulus of a differential operator. Suppose $T$ is an ordinary linear differential operator of order $n$ with domain $\rho(T):$ : $\left\{f \in L^{p}[-1,1]: f^{(n-1)}\right.$ a.c., $T f \in L^{\eta}[-1,1\}$. Denote by $\mathcal{N}(T)$, the null space of $T$. When considered as a mapping on $\mathscr{C}(T) / \mathcal{N}(T)$ into $L^{q}[-1,1], T$ has an inverse. The reciprocal of the norm of this inverse operator is called the minimum modulus of $T, \gamma(T, p, q)$. It is easy to verify the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\gamma(T, p, q))^{-1}=\sup _{\| T S_{q}^{\prime \prime}} \operatorname{dist}_{p}(f, \mathcal{F}(T)) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]If there is a function $f$ in $\mathscr{D}(T)$ for which the supremum on the right-hand side of (2) is attained, we say $f$ is extremal.

We can now restate (1) in terms of the minimum modulus. We use $n+1$ instead of $n$ and consider the operator $T=D^{n+1}$. The null space of $T$ is $\mathbf{P}_{n}$. Hence, the inequality (1) and the fact that it is sharp is exactly the same as saying

$$
\gamma\left(D^{n+1}, \infty, \infty\right)=2^{n}(n+1)!
$$

Also, the function $2^{-n} /(n+1)!\cos (n+1)$ arc $\cos x$ is extremal.
In this sense, we see that (1) is really just the determination of $\gamma\left(D^{n+1}, \infty, \infty\right)$. It is in this spirit that we seek generalizations of (1). Thus, we will replace $D^{n+1}$ by more general operators $T$, and replace $\mathbf{P}_{n}$ by $\mathscr{N}(T)$. We would also like to replace $L^{\infty}$ by other $L^{p}$ spaces. The problem then is to determine $\gamma(T, p, q)$. When this is accomplished, we have the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dist}_{p}(f, \mathscr{N}(T)) \leqslant(\gamma(T, p, q))^{-1}\|T f\|_{q} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

as our generalization to (1), and of course (3) is sharp.
Our techniques will be applicable to operators $T$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
T=\left(D+\lambda_{n}(x)\right) \cdots\left(D+\lambda_{1}(x)\right), \quad \lambda_{k} \in C^{(n-k)}[-1,1] \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The functions $\lambda_{k}$ are assumed to be real valued. These requirements on $T$ guarantee, amongother things, that $\mathscr{N}(T)$ is a Chebyshev space of dimension $n$.

In Section 2, we will determine $\gamma(T, p, \infty)$, for each $1 \leqslant p \leqslant \infty$. The case $\gamma(T, \infty, \infty)$ is a result of M. Zedek [7]. The value of $\gamma(T, \infty, \infty)$ was also obtained by T. Rivlin [6] with a different point of view. Our approach differs from Rivlin's and Zedek's. It is more in line with the traditional proofs of Bernstein's inequality. In Section 3, we will determine $\gamma(T, 1,1)$. Here, our approach is approximation theoretic, relying heavily on duality and characterizations of best approximations in $L^{1}$.

The reader will find that conspicuously absent is the determination of $\gamma(T, 2,2)$, which on the surface would appear to be the most manageable because of all the structure in $L^{2}$. This case can be handled in a theoretical sense using a calculus of variations approach as is done in the paper of S. Goldberg and A. Meir [3]. However, the determination of the numerical value of $\gamma(T, 2,2)$, even for $T=D^{n}$, appears to be a formidable problem.

## 2. The Determination of $\gamma(T, p, \infty)$

When $T$ is a differential operator of the form (4), then $\mathscr{N}(T)$ is a Chebyshev space of dimension $n$ (Zedek [7]). This means that we can interpolate any
$n$ values by functions in $\mathscr{N}(T)$. We will use a remainder formula for this interpolation which is the analogue of Cauchy's formula for Lagrange interpolation.

Lemma 1. If $f \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ has $(n-1)$ distinct zeros in $[-1.1]$, then there is a point $\xi$ in $(-1,1)$ for which $\operatorname{Tf}(\xi) \quad 0$.

Proof. This is a result of Zedek [7].
Lemma 2. Suppose $\psi$ is a solution to the equation $T \psi=1$ on $[-1,1]$ which has exactly $n$ distinct zeros $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ in $[-1,1]$. If $f \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ and $P \in \mathscr{H}(T)$ interpolates $f$ at each point $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$, i.e., $P\left(x_{i}\right)=f\left(x_{i}\right)$, $i=-1,2, \ldots, n$, then for each $x \in[-1,1]$ there is a $\xi_{x} \in(-1,1)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)-P(x)=T f\left(\xi_{x}\right) \psi(x) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The proof is an exact mimic of the proof of Cauchy's formula for $T=: D^{n}$. The formula (5) is clear when $x$ is one of the points $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$. When $x \neq x_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$, let $\alpha=(\psi(x))^{-1} \cdot(f(x) \cdots P(x))$. The function $f(t)-P(t)-\alpha \psi(t)$ vanishes at the $n+1$ distinct points $x, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i n}$, and hence by Lemma 1 there is a point $\xi_{x}$ for which $T(f-P-\alpha \psi)\left(\xi_{x}\right)=0$. Since, $T P=0$ and $T \psi=1$ on $[-1,1]$, the last equation can be rewritten as $\alpha=T f\left(\xi_{x}\right)$ which gives (5) by the very definition of $\alpha$.

Now, let $\psi$ be any function in $C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ for which $T \psi=1$ on $[-1,1]$. We want to approximate $\psi$ by elements of $\mathcal{A}(T)$ in the $L^{p}[-1,1]$ norm. The existence and uniqueness of such approximants are classical results [4]. Denote by $P_{p}{ }^{*}$, the best $L^{\mu}[-1,1]$ approximation to $\psi$ from $\mathscr{N}(T)$, so that

$$
\psi-P_{n} \|_{n}=\inf _{P \in A(T)} \psi-\left.P\right|_{p} .
$$

Lemma 3. For each $1 \leqslant p \leqslant \infty$, the function $\psi_{p}=\psi \cdots P_{n} *$ has exactly $n$ distinct zeros in $[-1,1]$ and changes sign at each of these zeros.

Proof. We first show that $\psi_{p}$ has at least $n$ changes of sign in $[-1,1]$. For $p-1, \infty$, this follows from the classical alternation theorems. For $1<p<\infty$, the proof is simple enough. By the duality theorem for $L^{\mu}$ approximation [4, p. 84], the function $h_{p}=\left|\psi_{p}\right|^{p-1} \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{p}$ is orthogonal to $\mathscr{N}(T)$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-1}^{1} P(x) h_{p}(x) d x=0, \quad P \in \mathscr{N}(T) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that $h_{p}$ changes sign precisely at the points where $\psi_{p}$ changes sign. If $\psi_{p}$ and hence $h_{p}$ has less than $n$ changes of sign in $(-1,1)$, then we can
construct a function $P \in \mathscr{N}(T)$ which changes sign precisely at these points (this is a well-known property of Chebyshev systems [5, p. 30]). This makes it clear that

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} P(x) h_{j}(x) d x \neq 0
$$

which is the desired contradiction. Thus, $\psi_{p}$, has at least $n$ changes of sign in $(-1,1)$.

That $\psi_{,}$, can have no more than $n$ zeros in $[-1,1]$ follows from Lemma 1 . For if not there would be a point $\xi \in(-1,1)$, with $T \psi_{p}(\xi)=0$ which contradicts the fact that $T \psi_{p}=1$ on $[-1,1]$.

We can now easily prove the main result of this section.

Theorem 1. If $T$ is of the form (4), then for $1 \leqslant p \leqslant \infty, \gamma(T, p, \infty)=$ $\|\left.\psi_{p}\right|_{p} ^{i-1}$ and $\psi_{p}$ is an extremal function.

Proof. Let $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ be the $n$ distinct zeros of $\psi_{p}$ in $[-1,1]$. Suppose first that $f \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ and $P_{f} \in \mathscr{N}(T)$ is the function which interpolates $f$ at $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$. From Lemma 2, we see that if $x \in[-1,1]$, there is a point $\xi_{x} \in(-1,1)$ such that

$$
f(x)-P_{f}(x)=T f\left(\xi_{x}\right) \psi_{p}(x)
$$

So,

$$
\left|f(x)-P_{f}(x)\right| \leqslant|T f|_{\infty} \mid \psi_{p}(x), \quad-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1
$$

Taking the norm in $L^{p}$, we find

$$
\left\|f-P_{f}\right\|_{p} \leqslant i T f\left\|_{\infty}\right\|_{p} \|_{p}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dist}_{p}(f, \mathscr{N}(T)) \leqslant\left\|\psi_{p}\right\|_{p}\|T f\|_{\infty} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

This result also holds for all $f$ with $f^{(n-1)}$ absolutely continuous and $T f \in L^{\alpha}[-1,1]$, because of the denseness of $C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ in this space. The estimate (7) shows that $\gamma(T, p, \infty) \geqslant \psi_{p} \|^{-1}$. The opposite inequality is immediate when we take $f=\psi_{p}$.

When $T=D^{n}$, the functions $\psi_{p}$ and the values of $\gamma\left(D^{n}, p, \infty\right)$ are easily obtained for $p=1,2, \infty$. For $p=1, \psi_{1}$ is the normalized Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind and $\gamma\left(D^{n}, 1, \infty\right)=2^{n-1} n$ !. For $p=2, \psi_{2}$ is the normalized Legendre polynomial of degree $n$ and $\gamma\left(D^{n}, 2, \infty\right)=$ $(n+1 / 2)^{1 / 2}(2 n)!/ 2^{n} n!$. For $p=\infty, \psi_{\infty}$ is the Chebyshev polynomial of degree $n$ and $\gamma\left(D^{n}, \infty, \infty\right)=2^{n-1} n!$, which is again Bernstein's result (1).

## 3. The Determination of $\gamma(T, 1,1)$

In this case the situation is a little more subtle, mainly because there is no extremal function in $\mathscr{D}(T)$. We will use a well-known duality theorem for $L^{1}$ approximation which we now state.

Lemma 4. Let $f \in L^{1}[-1,1]$ and $\mathscr{A}$ be a finite dimensional subspace of $L^{1}[-1,1]$. Then,

$$
\operatorname{dist}_{1}(f, \mathscr{M})=\sup _{h \in \cdot \mathscr{M}^{\perp}} \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) h(x) d x
$$

where $\mathscr{M}^{\perp}=\left\{h \in L^{\infty}: h \|_{\infty}=1\right.$ and $\left.\int_{-1}^{1} P(x) h(x) d x=0, P \in \mathscr{M}\right\}$.
Recall, the function $\psi_{1}$ introduced in the last section. Since the span of $\mathscr{N}(T) \cup\left\{\psi_{\mathbf{1}}\right\}$ is a Chebyshev space (use Lemma 1), we also have available Markov's theorem for $L^{1}$ approximation [4, p. 67].

Lemma 5. Let $f \in C[-1,1]$ and $P_{f} \in \mathscr{N}(T)$ be that function which interpolates $f$ at $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ the zeros of $\psi_{1}$. If $f-P_{f}$ changes sign precisely at $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$, then $P_{f}$ is the best $L^{1}[-1,1]$ approximation to ffrom $\mathscr{N}(T)$ and

$$
\operatorname{dist}_{1}(f, \mathscr{N}(T))=\left|\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x\right| .
$$

Lemma 6. If $f \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ with $T f>0(T f<0)$ on $[-1,1]$, then $P_{f}$ is the best $L^{1}[-1,1]$ approximation to from $\mathscr{N}(T)$ and

$$
\operatorname{dist}_{\mathbf{1}}(f, \mathscr{N}(T))=\left|\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x\right| .
$$

Proof. From Lemma 2, we see that

$$
f(x)-P_{f}(x)=T f\left(\xi_{x}\right) \psi_{1}(x)
$$

Since $T f>0, f-P_{f}$ will change sign precisely when $\psi_{1}$ does and thus the result follows from Lemma 5 .

We can now determine $\gamma(T, 1,1)$. Let $T^{*}$ be the adjoint operator to $T$ (see [2, p. 1285]). Denote by $\Psi_{1}$, the solution to the differential equation $T^{*} \Psi=\operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}$, with initial conditions $\Psi_{1}^{(k)}(-1)=0, k=1,2, \ldots, n$. When $f \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ and $P \in \mathscr{N}(T)$ with $P^{(k)}(1)=f^{(k)}(1), k=1,2, \ldots, n$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x & =\int_{-1}^{1}(f(x)-P(x)) \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x \\
& =\int_{-1}^{1}(f(x)-P(x)) T^{*} \Psi_{1}(x) d x \\
& =\int_{-1}^{1} T(f-P)(x) \Psi_{1}(x) d x \\
& =\int_{-1}^{1} T f(x) \Psi_{1}(x) d x \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Similarly, if $h$ is any function in $\mathscr{N}(T)^{\perp}$ and $H$ satisfies $T^{*} H=h$, with $H^{(k)}(-1)=0, k=1,2, \ldots, n$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) h(x) d x=\int_{-1}^{1} T f(x) H(x) d x \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 2. If $T$ is of the form (4), then $\gamma(T, 1,1)=\left\|\Psi_{1}\right\|_{\infty}^{-1}$.
Proof. First, let $f_{0} \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$ with $\left\|T f_{0}\right\|_{1}=1$ and $h \in \mathscr{N}(T)^{\perp}$. Then, by (9)
$\int_{-1}^{1} f_{0}(x) h(x) d x=\int_{-1}^{1} T f_{0}(x) H(x) d x \leqslant \sup _{\|T\|_{1}=1} \int_{-1}^{1} T f(x) H(x) d x$.
It is to be understood in (10) and the sequel that the suprema are taken only over functions in $C^{(n)}[-1,1]$, unless explicitly stated otherwise. Now, the supremum in (10) is the $L^{\star}[-1,1]$ norm of $H$. If $\|H\|_{\infty}=H\left(x_{0}\right)$ for some $x_{0} \in[-1,1]$, then the supremum can be attained by considering only functions with $T f>0$. Hence, in this case,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{-1}^{1} f_{0}(x) h(x) d x \leqslant \sup _{\substack{T>0 \\
\| T\rangle_{1}=1}} \int_{-1}^{1} T f(x) H(x) d x \\
& \quad=\sup _{\substack{T r>0 \\
\| T T_{1}=1}} \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) h(x) d x \leqslant \sup _{\substack{T r>0 \\
T T f_{1}=1}}\left|\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x\right| \\
& \quad=\sup _{\substack{T r>0 \\
\|T\|_{1}=1}}\left|\int_{-1}^{1} T f(x) \Psi_{1}(x) d x\right| \leqslant\left\|\Psi_{1}\right\|_{\infty} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, for the second inequality, we used Lemmas 6 and 4.
Similarly, when $\|H\|_{\infty}=-H\left(x_{0}\right)$, we need only consider $f$ 's with $T f<0$. Arguing as we have above, we find that

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} f_{0}(x) h(x) d x \leqslant:\left|\Psi_{1}\right|_{x}
$$

for all $h \in \mathscr{H}(T)$. Hence, from Lemma 4, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dist}_{1}\left(f_{0}, \mathscr{N}(T)\right)<\Psi_{1} \|_{\infty} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

whenever $f_{0} \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$, with $T f_{0} l_{1} \cdots$ I. The restriction $f_{0} \in C^{(m)}$ is removed by a denseness argument. Thus, (II) shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma(T, 1,1), \Psi_{1, \infty}{ }^{3} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

To see the reverse inequality, consider any $f \in C^{(n)}[-1,1]$, with $T f>0$ $(T f<0)$ and $\|T f\|_{1}==1$. Then, from Lemma 6

$$
\operatorname{dist}_{1}(f, \mathscr{N}(T))=\left|\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x\right|=-\left|\int_{-1}^{1} T f(x) \Psi_{1}(x) d x\right|
$$

Taking a supremum over all such $f$ we see that the right-hand side becomes the $L^{\infty}[-1,1]$ norm of $\Psi_{1}$, so that

$$
\sup _{\| T f_{\mathbf{1}^{-1}}} \operatorname{dist}_{\mathbf{1}}(f, \mathscr{N}(T)) \geqslant\left\|\Psi_{1}\right\|_{\infty}
$$

In other words,

$$
\gamma(T, 1,1) \leqslant \Psi_{1} \|_{\infty}^{-1}
$$

This is the reverse inequality to (12) and proves the theorem.
When we take $T==D^{n}$, the function $\psi_{1}$ is the Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind of degree $n$. Hence $\operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}=\operatorname{sgn} \sin (n+1) \operatorname{arc} \cos x$. This means that $\operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}$ changes sign at the points $\cos (k \pi /(n+1)), k=1,2, \ldots, n$. The points $\cos (k \pi /(n \div 1))$ are spaced so that the distance between consecutive points increases as we move from -1 to 0 and decreases as we move from 0 to 1. Because of this, an induction argument shows that $\left\|\Psi_{1}\right\|_{\infty}$ is $\left|\Psi_{1}(0)\right|$ when $n$ is odd and $\Psi_{1}(\cos (n+2) \pi /(2 n \div 2)) \mid$ when $n$ is even.

Rather than try to determine $\Psi_{1} \|_{\infty}$ directly, it is easier to return to the ideas used in the proof of Theorem 2. Consider the case when $\Psi_{1} \|_{\infty}=\Psi_{1}(0)$. Then,

$$
\Psi_{1}(0)=\int_{-1}^{1} \Psi_{1}(x) d \mu(x)
$$

where $d \mu$ is the Dirac measure with unit mass at 0 . The measure $d \mu$ is not the $n$th derivative of a function from $\mathscr{O}\left(D^{n}\right)$ which is why we dont have an extremal function. However,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi_{1}(0) & =\int_{-1}^{1} \Psi_{1}(x) d \mu(x) \\
& =\frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{-1}^{1} x_{+}^{n-1} \operatorname{sgn} \psi_{1}(x) d x=\frac{1}{(n-1)!} \operatorname{dist}_{1}\left(x_{+}^{n-1}, \mathbf{P}_{n-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x_{+}^{n-1}$ is defined to be 0 if $x<0$ and $x^{n-1}$ if $x>0$.

Even though there is no extremal function in the strict sense $\left(x^{2-1}\right.$ is not in $\mathscr{F}\left(D^{n}\right)$ ), the function $x_{+}^{n-1} /(n-1)$ ! still serves the purpose of determining $\gamma\left(D^{\prime \prime}, 1,1\right)$ when $n$ is odd. Similarly,

$$
\left(\gamma\left(D^{n}, 1,1\right)\right)^{-1}=\frac{1}{(n-1)!} \operatorname{dist}_{1}\left((x-\cos (n+2) \pi /(2 n-2))^{n-1}, \mathbf{P}_{n-1}\right)
$$

when $n$ is even. The problem of determining $\operatorname{dist}_{1}\left(x_{+}^{\prime \prime,}, \mathbf{P}_{n-1}\right)$ is solved explicitly in [1] by means of a finite but complicated sum which we do not reproduce here. When $n$ is even, the results of [1] do not determine $\gamma\left(D^{n}, 1,1\right)$ explicitly but do provide asymptotic estimates.

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