# Interpolation by Smooth Functions under Restrictions on the Derivatives 

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## Introduction

Interpolation by convex splines has recently attracted some attention, cf. McAllister et al. [4], McAllister and Roulier [5], Passow and Roulier [7] and Pence [8]. In this paper it is shown that the smoothest convex interpolating function to convex data is a cubic spline. The proof of this result is based on the degree theory of mappings in finite dimensional Euclidian space, cf. Ortega and Rheinboldt [6, Chap. 6]. The similar problem of finding the smoothest monotone interpolating function to monotone data was solved in Hornung [3].

## 1. The Problem and Main Results

Let a set $X=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ of fixed data points in the interval $[a, b]$ with $a=x_{n}<x_{1}<\cdots<x_{n}<x_{n-1}=b, n \geqslant 1$, and some boundary data $z_{0}, z_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ be given. The space of functions on $[a, b]$ having square integrable derivatives of the $k$-th order is denoted by $H^{\wedge}(a, b)$. It is a Hilbert space with norm

$$
u^{i}=\left(\sum_{j=0}^{k} \quad D^{j} u \cdot \cdot_{L^{2}(a . b)}^{2}\right)^{12} .
$$

(1.1) Definition. For an integer number $k$ with $2 \leqslant k \leqslant n-2$, a real number $\gamma$, and a vector $z=\left(z_{1} \ldots ., z_{n}\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of interpolation data, a function $u$ is called admissible, if $u \in H^{i}(a, b)$ satisfies $u\left(x_{i}\right)=z$, for $i=0, \ldots, n+1$ and $D^{\prime} u=\gamma$ a.e. on $[a, b]$. The set of all admissible functions is denoted by $M$, .
(1.2) Problem. A minimizer of the functional $F(u)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{h}\left(D^{n} u(x)\right)^{2} d x$ on the set $M_{\gamma}{ }^{\prime}$ of admissible functions is called a solution of problem $A^{\prime \prime}$.
(1.3) Definition. (a) We denote by $p^{k}$ the space of all splines $p$ on $[a, b]$ of degree $k-1$ with knots in $X$, which satisfy $D^{j} p\left(x_{i}\right)=0$ for $i=0$, $i=n-1$ and $j=0, \ldots, k-2$.
(b) For $p \in P^{k}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ we set

$$
p_{x}(x)= \begin{cases}p(x) . & \text { if } p(x) \geqslant x \\ \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

(c) We say that a function $u$ satisfies condition $C_{\gamma^{k}}$, if there is a $p \in P^{i}$ with $D^{k} u=p$, on $[a . b]$.

Theorem 1. If for a given data vector $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ there is an admissible function, problem $A_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$ has a unique solution. For an admissible function to solve problem $A_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$ condition $C_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$ is sufficient.
(1.4) Definition. (a) For $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ we denote by $\Delta(z)=q=\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}\right)^{T} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ the vector of second difference quotients

$$
q_{i}=\frac{2}{x_{i-1}-x_{i-1}}\left(\frac{z_{i+1}-z_{i}}{x_{i+1}-x_{i}}-\frac{z_{i}-z_{i-1}}{x_{i}-x_{i-1}}\right)
$$

(b) A data vector $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is called $\gamma$-convex, if $\Delta(z)$ is an element of the set $Q_{\%}=\left\{\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n^{\prime}} q_{i}>\gamma\right.$ for $i=1 \ldots . . n^{\prime}$.

Theorem 2. Let $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a $\gamma$-convex data vector. Then problem $A_{\gamma}{ }^{2}$ has a unique solution. For an admissible function to solve problem $A_{\gamma}{ }^{2}$ condition $C_{\gamma}{ }^{2}$ is necessary and sufficient. The solution is a cubic spline having at most

$$
m(n)= \begin{cases}3 \frac{n-1}{2}, & \text { if } n \text { odd } \\ 3 \frac{n}{2}, & \text { if } n \text { even }\end{cases}
$$

$k n o t s$ in $(a, b)$ : it depends continuously on the data $z$.
Since the interpolating natural spline of degree $2 k-1$ with knots in $X$ satisfies condition $C_{3}{ }^{k}$ if $-\beta$ is sufficiently large, theorems 1 and 2 are generalizations of the well known minimal properties of natural splines. First we prove theorem 1.
(1.5) Lemma. The functional $F$ is Fréchet-differentiable on $H^{k}(a, b)$,
strictly convex on $M_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$ and coercive over $M_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$, i.e. $\lim F(u)=+\propto$ holds for $\|u\| \rightarrow \infty$ and $u \in M_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$.

Proof. If

$$
\left\langle F^{\prime}(u), \varphi^{\prime}\right\rangle=\int_{a}^{b} D^{k} u(x) D^{k} \varphi(x) d x
$$

we have

$$
F(u \div \varphi)-F(u)-\left\langle F^{\prime}(u), \varphi\right\rangle=\frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{b}\left(D^{k} \varphi(x)\right)^{2} d x=a(\dot{\varphi})
$$

for $u, \varphi \in H^{k}(a, b)$, i.e. $F^{\prime}$ is the Fréchet-differential of $F$. For any $u, v \in M_{y}{ }^{k}$, $u \neq v$ we have

$$
\left\langle F^{\prime}(u)-F^{\prime}(v), u-v\right\rangle=\int_{a}^{b}\left(D^{k}(u-v)(x)\right)^{2} d x
$$

since $u\left(x_{i}\right)=v\left(x_{i}\right)=z_{i}$ for $i=0, \ldots, n-1$, and $k \leqslant n-2$, this integral is positive. Hence $F$ is strictly convex on $M_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$, cf. Ekeland/Temam [2, Chap. I, Prop. 5.4 and 5.5]. Let $\bar{u}$ be a polynomial of degree $k-1$, which interpolates exactly $k$ data $\left(x_{i}, z_{i}\right), i \in I \subset\{0, \ldots, n+1\}$. Then for $: \mid u \| \rightarrow \infty$ we have $\mid u-\bar{u} \| \rightarrow \infty$. On the subspace $U$ of $H^{k}(a, b)$ consisting of those functions $\tilde{u}$, for which $\tilde{u}\left(x_{i}\right)=0$ for $i \in I$, the norm

$$
\left(\int_{a}^{b}\left(D^{k} \tilde{u}(x)\right)^{2} d x\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

is equivalent to the norm induced from $H^{k}(a, b)$. Therefore $u ; \rightarrow \infty$ implies

$$
F(u)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{{ }_{c}}^{b}\left(D^{k} u(x)\right)^{2} d x=\frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{b}\left(D^{k}(u-\bar{u})(x)\right)^{2} d x \rightarrow \infty .
$$

i.e. $F$ is coercive over $M{ }_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$.

Proof of theorem 1. Since $M_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$ is nonvoid, closed and convex, existence and uniqueness of a minimizer follow from (1.5), cf. Ekeland/Temam [2, Chap. II, Prop. 1.2]. Let $u \in M_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$ satisfy condition $C_{\gamma}{ }^{k}$, and $p \in P^{k}$ be chosen according to (1.3c). Then from the proof of (1.5) we have

$$
\left\langle F^{\prime}(u), \varphi\right\rangle=\int_{a}^{b} p_{\gamma}(x) D^{k} \varphi(x) d x
$$

for any $\varphi \in H^{k}(a, b)$. If $p$ is extended by zero outside $[a, b]$, and $\lambda_{i}=D^{k-1}$ $p\left(x_{i}+0\right)-D^{k-1} p\left(x_{i}-0\right)$ for $i=0, \ldots, n \perp 1$, integration by parts yields

$$
\int_{a}^{b} p(x) D^{k} \varphi(x) d x=(-1)^{k} \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} \lambda_{i} \varphi\left(x_{i}\right)
$$

hence

$$
F^{\prime}(11) \cdot q=(--1)^{\prime} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{1} \lambda_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)-\int_{\ldots}^{\prime \prime}\left(p_{i}(x)-p(x)\right) D^{2} q(x) d x
$$

holds for $q \in H^{\prime \prime}(a . b)$. For $c \in M . .4$ we have $c\left(x_{i}\right)==u\left(x_{i}\right)$ for $i=0 \ldots, n-1$. therefore

$$
\therefore F^{\prime}(u), v-u,=\int_{\|}^{b}(p,(x)-p(x))\left(D^{u} c(x)-p_{y}(x)\right) d x .
$$

It is easy to see that this integral is nonnegative. Since $p,-p=0$, we have to consider only an $x \in[a, b]$, for which $p_{\gamma}(x)-p(x) \because 0$, i.e. $p(x)<\gamma$ and $p_{\gamma}(x)=\gamma$. From $D^{H} v(x) \geqslant \gamma$ for almost all $x \in[a, b]$ we deduce

$$
F^{\prime}(u), v-u \quad 0
$$

for any $v \in M_{y}{ }^{k}$. Therefore. $u$ is a minimizer of $F$ on $M_{\vartheta}{ }^{1}$. cf. Ekeland and Temam [2, Chap. II, Prop. 2.1].

The remainder of the paper is devoted to the proof of theorem 2. The first step is the demonstration that $\gamma$-convexity of a data vector $z$ implies the existence of an admissible function.
(1.6) Lemma. If $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is $\gamma$-convex, then there is a function $c \in C^{\alpha}[a, b]$ with $c\left(x_{i}\right)=z_{i}$ for $i=0 \ldots . \ldots-1$ and $D^{2} v \cdot \gamma$ on $[a, b]$ : the set $M{ }^{2}$ is nonroid.

Proof. Let $q=\left(q_{1}, \ldots . q_{n}\right)^{T}=\Delta(z)$ and $\bar{\gamma}$ be chosen such that $q, \because \bar{\gamma} \cdots \gamma$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$. Then we define

$$
s_{i-12}=\frac{z_{i-1}-z_{i}}{x_{i-1}-x_{i}}, \quad i=0, \ldots n,
$$

and

$$
\kappa_{r}=\frac{s_{i-1} \underline{2}-s_{i-1} \underline{2}}{x_{i-1}-x_{i-1}}-\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{2}, \quad i=1, \ldots n .
$$

Since $q \in Q_{\bar{\gamma}}$, we have $\kappa_{2}=0$. For

$$
\begin{gathered}
\kappa_{0} \cdot \kappa_{n-1}=1, \\
\sigma_{0}=s_{12}-\left(x_{1}-x_{0}\right)\left(\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{2}-1\right) . \\
\sigma_{1}-\frac{1}{x_{i-1}-x_{i-1}}\left(\left(x_{i-1}-x_{1}\right) s_{1}: 2-\left(x_{1}-x_{;-1}\right) s_{i+1}\right), i \cdots I_{\ldots} h,
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\sigma_{n+1}=s_{n+1 / 2}-\left(x_{n+1}-x_{n}\right)\left(\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{2}-1\right)
$$

we obtain

$$
\frac{\sigma_{i-1}-\sigma_{i}}{x_{i-1}-x_{i}}-\bar{\gamma}=\kappa_{i}-\kappa_{i-1}>0
$$

for all $i=0, \ldots, n$. For any $\eta \in(0,1)$ a nondecreasing function $\psi_{n} \in C^{x}[0,1]$ can be chosen such that $\psi_{\eta}(0)=0, \psi_{\eta}(1)=1, D^{j} \psi_{r_{r}}(0)=D^{j} \psi_{\eta}(1)=0$ for all $j=1,2, \ldots$, and $\int_{0}^{1} \psi_{n}(t) d t=\eta$. We define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta_{i} & =\frac{\kappa_{i}}{\kappa_{i}-\kappa_{i-1}}, \\
w_{i}(x) & =\left(\sigma_{i-1}-\sigma_{i}-\bar{\gamma}\left(x_{i-1}-x_{i}\right)\right) \psi_{\eta_{i}}\left(\frac{x-x_{i}}{x_{i-1}-x_{i}}\right)+\bar{\gamma}\left(x-x_{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
r_{i}(x)=z_{i}+\sigma_{i}\left(x-x_{i}\right)+\int_{x_{i}}^{a} w_{i}(\xi) d \xi
$$

for $i=:=0, \ldots, n$. Now we have $v_{i} \in C^{x}\left[x_{i}, x_{i-1}\right]$ and $v_{i}\left(x_{l}\right)=z_{l}, D v_{i}\left(x_{l}\right)=\sigma_{l}$, $D^{2} v_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)=\bar{\gamma}, D^{j} v_{i}\left(x_{l}\right)=0$ for $j=3.4 \ldots, l=i, i+1$ and $D^{2} v_{i} \geqslant \bar{\gamma}$ on [ $x_{i}, x_{1-1}$ ]. Therefore the function

$$
r(x)=c_{i}(x) \text { for } x \in\left[x_{i}, x_{i-1}\right]
$$

has the desired properties.
In the proof of theorem 2 the necessity of condition $C_{\gamma}{ }^{2}$ remains to be shown. As a preparation we reformulate this condition as an operator equation.
(1.7) Definition. (a) Let $r_{0}=r_{n-1}=0$. For a vector $r=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)^{T} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ we denote by $\Pi(r)=p \in P^{2}$ the polygonal function on $[a, b]$ with knots in $X$, for which $p\left(x_{i}\right)=r_{i}$ holds.
(b) Let $G$ be Green's function for the differential operator $D^{2}$ on $[a, b]$ with boundary conditions $u(a)=u(b)=0$. i.e.

$$
\left.G(x, t)=\frac{1}{b-a} \int(x-b)(t-a) . \quad \text { if } a \leq t=x-b\right)(t-b) . \quad \text { if } a \leqslant x<t<b .
$$

Then for $p \in P^{2}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ we denote by $\Gamma_{x}(p)=u$ the function on $[a, b]$ defined by

$$
u(x)=\frac{1}{b-a}\left((b-x) z_{0}+(x-a) z_{n-1}\right)-\int_{\|}^{b} G\left(x . t \mid p_{2}(t) d t\right.
$$

(c) For a function $u$ on $[a, b]$ let $A(u)=$ be the vector $\left(z_{1}, \ldots, z,\right)^{T}=\vec{P}$. with $z, \cdots(x$,$) for i$. I..... $n$.
(d) For $1=\mathbb{R}$ we define $S_{2}=\Gamma_{,} \Pi$ and $T \ldots .=A S_{2}$.
(1.8) Corollary. If $==\mathbb{R} r$ is $\gamma$-concex. q ... $\Delta(z), r \in \mathbb{R}^{\prime}$, and $T(r) \quad q$. then $u=S(r)$ is the solution of problem $A .{ }^{2}$.

Proof. Since $\lambda: \mathbb{F}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\prime \prime}$ is a regular affine mapping. we have $=.1$ $S_{\gamma}(r) \cdots A(u)$. i.e. $u(x)=$,$z , for i=0 \ldots, n-1$. For $p=\Pi(r)$ we obtain from (1.7b. $d$ ) $u=\Gamma_{,}(p)$ and $D^{2} u=p_{\gamma}=\gamma$ on [a.b]. Evidently $u$ is admissible and condition $C_{.}{ }^{2}$ is satisfied. According to theorem 1 the function $u$ solves problem A. ${ }^{2}$.

## 2. The Homotopy

In this paragraph we study the operator family $T_{2}$. We begin with a well known representation of the second difference quotient.
(2.1) Lemma. (a) If

$$
\omega_{i}(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{x-x_{i-1}}{x_{i}-x_{1-1}}, & \text { for } x_{i-1} \because x: x_{i} \\ \frac{x_{1}-1}{x_{i-1}-x_{i}} & \text { for } x_{i}<x \therefore x_{i-1}\end{cases}
$$

$r \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, q=T_{2}(r)$, and $p=\Pi(r)$, we have

$$
q_{1} \quad-\frac{2}{x_{1}-x_{1}} \int_{x_{1}, 1}^{x_{i-1}} p_{2}(x) \omega_{i}(x) d x
$$

(b) If $r_{j} \because$ a for $j=i-1, i . i-1$, then

$$
q:=\frac{1}{3} \frac{x_{1}-x_{i}}{x_{i 1}-x_{1-1}} r_{i-1}-\frac{2}{3} r_{1}+\frac{1}{3} \frac{x_{i-1}-x_{1}}{x_{i}-x_{1-1}} r_{i-1} .
$$

Proof. Since

$$
q_{1}=2 \Delta^{2}\left(x_{t-1} \cdot x_{i} \cdot x_{t-1}\right) \Gamma_{2}(p) .
$$

formula (a) follows from

$$
A_{1}{ }^{2}\left(x_{1-1}, x, x, 1\right)(x-t) \quad \frac{\omega,(t)}{x, 1-x, 1}
$$

according to Peano's theorem on the representation of linear functionals, cf. Werner:Schaback [9, example 4.5]. Formula (b) is a direct consequence of (a).
(2.2) Lemma. Let $r \in \mathbb{R}^{n} . T_{n}(r)=q$, and $-\rho \leqslant-\beta \leqslant a \leqslant \rho_{i} \sigma,-\rho<\sigma$.
(a) If $r_{i}=-\rho$ and $r_{i-1}, r_{,-1} \leqslant \sigma$, then

$$
q_{1}-\gamma<c_{1}=\frac{(\sigma-\gamma)^{3}}{3(\sigma-\rho)^{2}}
$$

(b) If $r_{i}=\sigma$ and $r_{i-1}, r_{i+1} \because-\rho$, then

$$
q_{i} \geqslant c_{2}=\frac{2 \sigma^{3}+3 \rho \sigma^{2}-3 \beta^{2} \rho-\beta^{3}-3 \beta \rho^{2}}{3(\sigma-\rho)^{2}} .
$$

Proof. From (2.1) we have $q_{1}=1:\left(x_{i+1}-x_{i-1}\right)\left(q_{,^{-}}+q_{,^{-}}\right)$with

$$
q_{i}^{-}=2 \int_{x_{i}}^{r_{i}} p_{2}(x) \omega_{i}(x) d x \quad \text { and } \quad q_{i}=2 \int_{x_{i}}^{r_{1-1}} p_{1}(x) \omega_{i}(x) d x
$$

(a) First we consider $q_{1}$. If we define $x=x_{i}-\left(x_{i-1}-x_{i}\right) \tau_{,} \tau_{11}=$ $\left(\rho-\gamma^{\prime}\right)(\rho-\sigma)$. and

$$
\bar{p}(\tau)=\begin{array}{ll}
(\gamma . & \text { if } 0 \leqslant \tau \leqslant \tau_{0} \\
1-\rho-(\sigma-\rho) \tau . & \text { if } \tau_{0}<\tau \leqslant 1
\end{array}
$$

the assumptions on $r$ imply $p_{3}(x) \leqslant \bar{p}(\tau)$ for $\tau \in[0,1]$. Since $\omega_{i} \geqslant 0$, we obtain the inequality

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{x_{i-1}-x_{i}} q_{i} & \leqslant \frac{2}{x_{i-1}-x_{i}} \int_{x_{i}}^{r_{i-1}} \bar{p}(\tau)(1-\tau) d x \\
& =2 \int_{0}^{1} \bar{p}(\tau)(1-\tau) d \tau \\
& =2\left(\int_{0}^{\tau} \gamma(1-\tau) d \tau-\int_{\tau_{0}}^{1}(-\rho \div(\sigma-\rho) \tau)(1-\tau) d \tau \mid\right. \\
& =\frac{\sigma-2 \rho}{3}-\frac{(\rho-\gamma)^{2}}{\rho-\sigma}-\frac{1}{3} \frac{(\rho-\gamma)^{3}}{(\rho-\sigma)^{2}}=c_{1}-\gamma .
\end{aligned}
$$

In a similar way we get

$$
\frac{1}{x_{1}-x_{i-1}} \boldsymbol{q}_{i}^{-}<c_{1} \cdots \gamma
$$

This yields

$$
\text { 4. } \left.\frac{1}{x, 1-x,}(x, 1-x) \cdot(x,-x, 1)\right)\left(c_{1}-\gamma\right) \quad c_{1} \quad \gamma
$$

(b) First we consider 4 , If we define $x: x,-\left(x_{i-1}-x_{i}\right) \tau, \tau_{11}=$ $(\sigma \cdots \beta)(\sigma \cdots \rho)$.

$$
\bar{p}(\tau)=\begin{array}{llllll}
\sigma-(\sigma-\rho) \tau . & \text { if } & 0 & \tau & \therefore \tau_{n} \\
-\beta, & \text { if } & \tau_{10} & \ddots & \ddots & 1 .
\end{array}
$$

the assumptions on $r$ imply $p_{2}(x) \geqslant \bar{p}(\tau)$ for $\tau \in[0,1]$. Since $\omega, \geq 0$, we obtain the inequality

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{x_{1}-x_{i}} q, & \quad \frac{2}{x_{1}-x_{i}} \int_{i}^{1,-1} \bar{p}(\tau)(1-\tau) d x \\
= & 2\left(\int_{0}^{-1 \prime}(\sigma-(\sigma \cdot \rho) \tau)(1-\tau) d \tau-\int_{-1}^{1}-\beta(1-\tau) d \tau\right) \\
& =\frac{(\sigma-\beta)^{2}}{\sigma \cdot \rho}-\frac{1}{3} \frac{(\sigma-\beta)^{3}}{(\sigma \cdot \rho)^{2}}-\beta=c_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In a similar way we get

$$
\frac{1}{x_{i},-x_{1}} q_{1}^{-} \quad \because c_{2} .
$$

This yields $q_{2}=c_{2}$.
(2.3) Lemma. If $-\beta=\gamma=\beta$ and $\epsilon$ - 0 . there are numbers $\rho$. $=\beta$ such that for $c_{1}$, $c_{2}$ in (2.2) the inequalities

$$
c_{1} \cdot \epsilon \quad \text { and } \quad c_{2} \quad 1
$$

are calid.
Proof. If $\rho=t^{5}$ and $\sigma=t^{3}$, we obtain from (2.2)

$$
c_{1}=\frac{\left(t^{3}-\gamma\right)^{3}}{3\left(t^{3}--\frac{t^{3}}{}\right)^{2}} \rightarrow 0
$$

and

$$
c_{2} \frac{2 t^{3}-3 t^{11}-3 \beta^{2} t^{5}-\beta^{3}-3 \beta t^{\prime \prime \prime}}{3\left(t^{\overline{5}}-t^{3}\right)^{2}} \rightarrow x
$$

for $t \rightarrow x$.
(2.4) Definition. For $\rho, \sigma>0$ let

$$
K(\rho, \sigma)=\left\{\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \quad-\rho<r_{1}<\sigma \text { for } i=1 \ldots, n\right\}
$$

and $\lambda K(\rho, \sigma)$ be the boundary of the cube $K(\rho, \sigma)$.
(2.5) Corollary. If $q \in Q_{\gamma}$ and $-\beta<\gamma<\beta$, there are numbers $\rho, \sigma \geqslant \beta$ such that

$$
q \notin T_{\alpha}(\partial K(\rho, \sigma))
$$

for all $x \in[-\beta, \gamma]$.
Proof. Since $q_{i}>\gamma$, there is an $\epsilon>0$ such that $q_{i}-\gamma>\epsilon$ and $q_{i}<\left(1_{i} \epsilon\right)$ for $i==1, \ldots, n$. If $\rho, \sigma \geqslant \beta$ are chosen according to (2.3) and $r \in \partial K(\rho, \sigma)$, we have $r_{i}=-\rho$ or $r_{i}=\sigma$ for some $i=1, \ldots, n$. If $q=T_{x}(r)$, then (2.2a) implies $\epsilon<q_{i}-\gamma \leqslant c_{1} \leqslant \epsilon$ in the first case and (2.2b) implies ( $1 / \epsilon$ ) $>q_{i}>$ $c_{2} \geqslant(1 / \epsilon)$ in the second. Thus we get a contradiction in both cases.

## 3. The Degree

In this paragraph we show that for $q \in Q_{\gamma}$ the degree $\operatorname{deg}\left(T_{\gamma}, K(\rho, \sigma), q\right)$ of the mapping $T_{y}$ is nonzero, if the cube $K(\rho, \sigma)$ is chosen appropriately. From this, theorem 2 is easily deduced.
(3.1) Lemma. If $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $q \in Q_{\gamma}$, there is a number $\beta>\gamma^{\prime} \gamma \mid$ such that

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(T_{-\beta}, K(\rho, \sigma), q\right) \neq 0
$$

for all $\rho, \sigma \geqslant \beta$.
Proof. Let $z=\left(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)^{T}=\Delta^{-1}(q)$ and $u^{*}$ be the natural cubic spline on $[a, b]$ with knots in $X$, which interpolates the data $\left(x_{i}, z_{i}\right), i=0, \ldots, n \div 1$. Let $r^{*}=\left(r_{1}^{*}, \ldots, r_{n}^{\star}\right), r_{i}^{*}=D^{2} u^{*}\left(x_{i}\right)$ for $i=1 \ldots, n$, and $\beta>\max _{1 \leqslant i \leqslant n} \mid r_{i}^{*} ;$. Then for $\alpha=-\beta$ we have $S_{x}\left(r^{*}\right)=u^{*}$ and $T_{\mathrm{a}}\left(r^{*}\right)=q$. Since (2.1b) applies for $r \in K(\beta, \sigma)$, the mapping $T_{\alpha}$ is linear on $K(\beta, \sigma)$. The matrix corresponding to $T_{\alpha}$ is diagonally dominant, therefore $T_{2}$ is regular and $r^{*}$ is the unique solution $r$ of the equation $T_{x}(r)=q$ in the cube $K(\beta, \sigma)$. From an elementary property of the degree we obtain

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(T_{2}, K(\beta, \sigma), q\right) \in\{+1,-1\}
$$

cf. Ortega and Rheinboldt [6, 6.1.2]. It follows that $\left.q \notin T_{x} \overline{(K(\rho, \sigma)}-K(\beta, \sigma)\right)$. For otherwise, we have two solutions of problem $A_{x}{ }^{2}$ according to (1.8),
namely $\|^{\circ} \quad S_{1}\left(r^{\prime}\right)$ with $r^{-}=K(\beta, \sigma)$, i.e. $-\beta \quad r_{i}^{\prime} \quad$ ofor $i \quad 1 \ldots . . n$ and on the other hand $u=S_{x}(r)$ for some $r=\overline{K(\rho, \sigma)}-K(\beta, \sigma)$. i.e..r. $--\beta \quad 1$ or $r, \quad \sigma \quad \beta$ for some $i=1, \ldots n$. Consequently we have for $p^{*}=\Pi\left(r^{*}\right)$ and $p \quad \Pi(r)$

$$
D^{2} u^{*} \quad-p^{2} \because p_{2} \quad D^{2} u
$$

so $u$ and $u$ are distinct. which contradicts theorem I. From the excision theorem, cf. Ortega and Rheinboldt [6, 6.2.8], it then follows

$$
\operatorname{deg}\left(T_{,}, K(\rho, \sigma), q\right)=-\operatorname{deg}\left(T_{\imath}, K(\beta, \sigma), q\right)=0 .
$$

(3.2) Corollary. If $\hat{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $q \in Q_{v}$, there are numbers $\rho, \sigma \cdots \gamma$. such that

$$
\operatorname{deg}(T, K(\rho, \sigma), q)=0
$$

equation $T_{\gamma}(r)=$ q has a solution $r \equiv K(\rho, \sigma)$.
Proof. Let $\beta, \gamma$ be chosen according to (3.1) and $\rho, \sigma \ldots \beta$ as in (2.5). Since the mapping $T:[-\rho, \gamma], K(\rho, \sigma) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\prime \prime}$ is continuous. we can apply the theorem on the homotopy invariance of the degree, cf. Ortega: $R$ heinboldt [ $6,6.2 .2]$. From (2.5) and (3.1) we deduce that the degree is nonzero. The solvability of the operator equation follows from Kronecker's theorem, ef. Ortega Rheinboldt [6. 6.3.1].

Proof of theorem 2. From theorem I and (1.6) we have the existence and uniqueness of a solution and the sufficiency of condition $C . \stackrel{ }{ }{ }^{2}$. For the demenstration of the necessity of $C .{ }^{2}$. let $q=\Delta(z) \in Q .$. and $u$ be the solution of $A_{i}{ }^{2}$. From (3.2) there is a solution of the equation $T_{i,}(r)=q$. Therefore, (1.8) implies that $\tilde{\pi}=-S_{v}(r)$ solves problem $A_{y} .2$. Since this solution is unique, we have $\tilde{u}=u$. For $p=\Pi(r) \in P^{2}$ we have $\Gamma_{\because}(p)=u$. i.e. $D^{2} u=p_{y}$. This means that $C .^{2}$ is satisfied. Evidently $p$. is a polygonal function on $[a, b$ ] having at most $m(n)$ knots. Therefore, $u$ is a cubic spline. From (2.1) it is easily seen that the solution of the equation $T_{\nu}(r)=q$ is in the open set $R$.. of those $r \in \mathbb{R}^{r}$ which satisfy $r_{1-1} \because \gamma$ or $r_{t-1} \therefore \gamma$ if $r_{1} \leq \gamma, i=1, \ldots, n$. Since the spline $u$ is unique, the function $p_{i}=D^{2} u$ and the vector $r_{,} r_{i}=p\left(r_{i}\right)$ are uniquely determined. Therefore, $T: R \rightarrow Q_{:}$is a continuous one-to-one mapping. The domain invariance theorem. cf. Deimling [1. Theorem 11. 3]. implies the continuity of $T_{\%}^{-1}$. Hence, $u=S .,: T_{\because}^{-1} \quad \Delta(z)$ depends continuously on z.

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