# Piecewise Smooth Solutions of Some Difference-Differential Equations 

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## 1. Introduction

In this paper we consider certain difference-differential equations and look for solutions whose restriction to a given interval is a polynomial of given degree. We show that by imposing certain continuity requirements, we obtain a unique solution which coincides with a polynomial of given degree on this interval. We then show that as the degree of this polynomial tends to infinity, this solution converges to an entire function which is a solution of the given equation.

We first illustrate this procedure with a known example [5]. (For an extension of this see [4]). Let $t$ be a complex number $t \neq 0$ or 1 , arg $t \neq \pi$. Consider the functional equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x+1)=t f(x), \quad x \in R, f(0)=1 . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $n=1,2, \ldots$, it is shown in [5; see also 6], that there is a unique solution $S_{n}$ of (1.1) which satisfies the following two conditions:

$$
\begin{align*}
& S_{n} \text { coincides on }(0,1) \text { with a polynomial of degree } \leqslant n,  \tag{1.2}\\
& \qquad S_{n} \in C^{n-1} \text { in a neighborhood of } 0 \tag{1.3}
\end{align*}
$$

We note that by (1.1), condition (1.3) implies that $S_{n} \in C^{n-1}(R)$. This function $S_{n}$ is known as the exponential Euler spline. It is shown in [5] that for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$,

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n}(x)=t^{x}
$$

Since the function $t^{x}$ is entire and satisfies (1.1), we see that the imposition of $C^{n-1}$ continuity forces the spline solution to converge to an entire function as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
2. The Equation $f(x+1)-f(x)=h(x)$

Suppose $h$ is an entire function of exponential type $A<2 \pi$, i.e., $A$ is the infimum of all numbers $\gamma$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=O\left(e^{\gamma|x|}\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|h^{(v)}(0)\right| \leqslant C \gamma^{v} \quad(v=0,1,2, \ldots) \text { for some constant } C \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall apply the procedure described in Section 1 to the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x+1)-f(x)=h(x), \quad x \in R, f(0)=0 \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following result concerning entire solutions to (2.3) is close to that of Whittaker [7, Theorem 3, p. 22].

Lemma 1. There is precisely one solution of (2.3) which is an entire function of exponential type $<2 \pi$. It has exponential type $A$ and is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\sum_{v=0}^{\infty} \frac{h^{(v)}(0)}{(v+1)!}\left(B_{v+1}(x)-B_{v+1}\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B_{v}(x)$ is the Bernoulli polynomial of degree $v$ and $B_{v}=B_{v}(0)$ is the corresponding Bernoulli number.

Proof. Choose $A_{1}$ with $A<A_{1}<2 \pi$. By Hadamard's theorem applied to the generating function of Bernoulli numbers, we find that there is a constant $C$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left|B_{v}\right|}{v!} \leqslant \frac{C}{A_{1}^{v}} \quad(v=1,2, \ldots) \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\frac{B_{j}(x)-B_{j}}{j!}\right| & =\frac{1}{j!}\left|\sum_{i=1}^{j}\binom{j}{i} B_{j-i} x^{i}\right| \\
& \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{j} \frac{1}{i!}\left|\frac{B_{j-i}}{(j-i)!}\right||x|^{i},
\end{aligned}
$$

it follows, on using (2.5), that

$$
\left|\frac{B_{j}(x)-B_{j}}{j!}\right| \leqslant \frac{C}{A_{1}^{i}} e^{A_{1}|x|} .
$$

Choosing $A_{2}$ such that $A<A_{2}<A_{1}<2 \pi$, we conclude from (2.2) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|h^{(j)}(0)\right| \leqslant C_{1} A_{2}^{j} \quad(j=0,1, \ldots .) . \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.6) and (2.4), we see that for all $x$ in $R$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|f(x)| & =\left|\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{h^{(j-1)}(0)}{j!}\left(B_{j}(x)-B_{j}\right)\right| \\
& \leqslant \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} C_{1} A_{2}^{j-1} \frac{C}{A_{1}^{j}} e^{A_{1}|x|} \\
& =C_{3} e^{A_{1}|x|} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{A_{2}}{A_{1}}\right)^{j} \quad\left(C_{3} \text { some constant }\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $A_{1}$ can be arbitrarily close to $A$, we have shown that the type of $f(x)$ is $\leqslant A$. If $f$ had type $<A$, then by (2.3), $h(x)$ would also have exponential type $<A$. Since this is not the case, $f$ must have exponential type $A$. Next recalling that

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{j+1}(x+1)-B_{j+1}(x)=(j+1) x^{j}, \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

we see from (2.4) that for all $x \in R$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x+1)-f(x) & =\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{h^{(j)}(0)}{(j+1)!}\left\{B_{j+1}(x+1)-B_{j+1}(x)\right\} \\
& =\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{h^{(j)}(0)}{j!} x^{j}=h(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since clearly $f(0)=0, f$ is a solution of (2.3). It remains to show that this is the only solution of (2.3) which has exponential type $<2 \pi$. This follows from a general result that the difference of two solutions of (2.3) which are of exponential type $<2 \pi$ must vanish identically. (See [1, Theorem 6.10.1, P. 109]).

Theorem 1. For $n=1,2,3, \ldots$, there is a unique solution $S_{n}(x)$ of (2.3) which satisfies (1.2) and (1.3). Moreover $S_{n}(x) \in C^{n-1}(R)$ and converges to the function defined by (2.4) uniformly on $R$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Let $S_{n}(x)$ satisfying (1.2) and (1.3) be a solution of (2.3). Suppose $S_{n}(x)$ coincides on $[0,1)$ with a polynomial $P_{n}(x)$. Then by (2.3) we see that for $-1 \leqslant x<0$,

$$
S_{n}(x) \equiv P_{n}(x+1)-h(x)
$$

Since from (1.3), $S_{n}(x) \in C^{n-1}$ in a neighborhood of $x=0$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}^{(v)}(1)-h^{(v)}(0)=P_{n}^{(v)}(0), \quad v=0,1, \ldots, n-1 \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.3) we also have

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(0)=0 . \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly (2.8) and (2.9) form a nonsingular system of equations to determine $P_{n}(x)$. Thus (1.2) and (1.3) determine a unique solution of (2.3). Clearly (2.8) and (2.3) imply that $S_{n}(x) \in C^{n-1}(R)$.

We now consider the polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{h^{(j)}(0)}{(j+1)!}\left(B_{j+1}(x)-B_{j+1}\right) \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which, because of (2.7), satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n}(x+1)-Q_{n}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{h^{(j)}(0)}{j!} x^{\prime}, \quad x \in R \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n}^{(v)}(1)-Q_{n}^{(v)}(0)=h^{(v)}(0), \quad v=0,1, \ldots, n-1 \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since from (2.10), $Q_{n}(0)=0$, a comparison of (2.8) and (2.9) shows that $Q_{n}(x)=P_{n}(x)$.

Comparing (2.10) and (2.4) shows that $Q_{n}(x)$ converges uniformly in $[0,1]$ to $f$, i.e., $S_{n}(x)$ converges uniformly to $f(x)$ on $[0,1]$. Since $f(x)$ and $S_{n}(x)$ both satisfy (2.3), we get

$$
f(x+1)-S_{n}(x+1)=f(x)-S_{n}(x), \quad x \in R
$$

and so $S_{n}(x)$ converges uniformly to $f(x)$ on $R$.

## 3. A General Linear Difference-Differential Equation

We shall denote by $\mathscr{F}$ the space of entire functions $f$ such that $\left\{f^{(j)}(0)\right\}_{j=0}^{\infty} \in l_{2}$. If $f$ is an entire function of exponential type $<1$, then $f \in \mathscr{F}$. If $f \in \mathscr{F}$, then $f$ is of exponential type $\leqslant 1$. For any given function $h(x) \in \mathscr{F}$ and given complex numbers $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{p}, \mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{q}$ with $\lambda_{p} \mu_{q} \neq 0$, we shall apply our procedure to the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{p} \mu_{i} f^{(i)}(x+1)=\sum_{i=0}^{q} \lambda_{i} f^{(i)}(x)+h(x), \quad x \in R, f(0)=1 \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The key tool will be the following result which is taken from Theorem 7.1 (Sect. 1) and Theorem 2.1 of Chapter 3 of [2].

Theorem A (Gokhberg and Feldman[2]). Let $a(z)$ be an arbitrary function continuous on the unit circle and $a_{j}(j=0, \pm 1, \ldots)$ its Fourier coefficients. Let the operator $A: l_{2} \rightarrow l_{2}$ be defined by

$$
(A b)_{j}=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{j-k} b_{k} \quad j=1,2, \ldots ; b=\left\{b_{j}\right\}_{1}^{\infty} \in l_{2} .
$$

Then $A$ is invertible if and only if

$$
\begin{gather*}
a(z) \neq 0 \quad \text { for } \quad|z|=1  \tag{3.2}\\
\text { ind } \left.a:=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \arg a\left(e^{i \theta}\right)\right]_{0}^{2 \pi}=0 \tag{3.3}
\end{gather*}
$$

Moreover, if (3.2) and (3.3) are satisfied, then the following holds: The system of equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{j-k} \xi_{k}^{(n)}=\eta_{j}, \quad j=1, \ldots, n \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

is nonsingular for all large enough $n$. If $\left\{\eta_{j}\right\}_{1}^{\infty} \in l_{2},\left\{\xi_{k}^{(n)}\right\}_{k=1}^{n}$ denotes the solution of (3.4) and if $\xi^{(n)}:=\left\{\xi_{1}^{(n)}, \ldots, \xi_{n}^{(n)}, 0 \ldots\right\}$, then $\xi^{(n)}$ converges in $l_{2}$ to the unique solution $\xi:=\left\{\xi_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{\infty} \in l_{2}$ of the infinite system of equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{j-k} \xi_{k}=\eta_{j} \quad(j=1,2, \ldots) \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall now prove
Theorem 2. Suppose the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(z):=e^{z} \sum_{i=0}^{p} \mu_{i} z^{i-1}-\sum_{i=0}^{q} \lambda_{i} z^{i-1} \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

satisfies conditions (3.2) and (3.3) of Theorem A. Then for large enough $n$, there is a unique solution $S_{n}(x)$ of (3.1) which satisfies the conditions (1.2) and also

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
S_{n}(x) \in C^{n-1+q} & \text { in a neighbourhood of } 0 \\
S_{n}(x) \in C^{p-1} & \text { in }(0, \infty) \\
S_{n}(x) \in C^{q-1} & \text { in }(-\infty, 0) \tag{3.8}
\end{array}
$$

Moreover, there is a unique solution $f(x)$ of (3.1) in $\mathfrak{F}$ and for all $x \in R, S_{n}(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Suppose $S_{n}(x)$ coincides on $(0,1)$ with a polynomial $P_{n}(x)$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(x)=1+b_{1}^{(n)} x+\frac{b_{2}^{(n)}}{2!} x^{2}+\cdots+\frac{b_{n}^{(n)} x^{n}}{n!} \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose moreover that $S_{n}(x)$ also satisfies (1.3), (3.7), and (3.8) and is a solution of (3.1). Then by (3.1) we see that for $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 0$,

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{q} \lambda_{i} S_{n}^{(i)}(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{p} \mu_{i} P_{n}^{(i)}(x+1)-h(x)
$$

Differentiating $v$ times and letting $x \rightarrow 0^{-}$, gives

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{\varphi} \lambda_{i} S_{n}^{(i+v)}\left(0^{-}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{p} \mu_{i} P_{n}^{(i+v)}(1)-h^{(\nu)}(0), \quad v=0,1, \ldots, n-1
$$

Since $S_{n}(x) \in C^{n-1+4}$ in a neighborhood of 0 , this is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{p} \mu_{i} P_{n}^{(i+v)}(1)-h^{(v)}(0)=\sum_{i=0}^{q} \lambda_{i} P_{n}^{(i+v)}(0) \quad(v=0, \ldots, n-1) \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting (3.9) into (3.10) and adopting the usual convention that the reciprocal of the factorial of a negative integer is zero, we obtain the following system of $n$ equations ( $v=0,1, \ldots, n-1$ ):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{k}^{(n)} \sum_{i=0}^{p} \frac{\mu_{i}}{(k-i-v)!}-\sum_{i=0}^{q} \lambda_{i} b_{i+v}^{(n)}=h^{(v)}(0)+\alpha_{v} \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{v} & =\hat{\lambda}_{0}-\mu_{0}, & & v=0 \\
& =0, & & v>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The system (3.11) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{j-k} b_{k}^{(n)}=h^{(j-1)}(0)+\alpha_{j-1}, \quad j=1, \ldots, n, \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} \frac{\mu_{i}}{(1-l-i)!}-\sum_{i=0}^{q} \lambda_{i} \delta_{i, 1-l}, \quad l \in \mathbf{Z} . \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comparing with (3.4) and applying the first part of Theorem A shows that the system (3.12) is nonsingular for large enough $n$ provided conditions (3.2) and (3.3) of Theorem A are satisfied. Thus there is a unique polynomial $P_{n}(x)$ satisfying (3.10) and so conditions (1.2) and (3.6a) determine the solution $S_{n}(x)$ uniquely on [ 0,1 ). Applying (3.1) and condition (3.7), we can extend $S_{n}(x)$ uniquely to a solution on ( $0, \infty$ ). Similarly applying (3.1) and condition (3.8), $S_{n}(x)$ can be extended to a solution on $(-\infty, 0)$.

By an argument similar to the above we see that an entire function

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=1+\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_{k} x^{k} / k! \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a solution of (3.1) if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{j-k} b_{k}=h^{(j-1)}(0)+\alpha_{j-1}, \quad(j=1,2, \ldots), \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{I}$ is given by (3.13).
By Theorem A we know that there is a unique solution $\mathbf{b}=\left\{b_{k}\right\}_{1}^{\infty}$ of (3.15) with $\left\{b_{k}\right\}_{1}^{\infty} \in l_{2}$, and thus there is a unique solution $f \in \mathscr{F}$ of (3.1). Again, by Theorem A we know that $\mathbf{b}^{(n)}:=\left\{b_{1}^{(n)}, \ldots, b_{n}^{(n)}, 0,0, \ldots\right\}$ converges in $l_{2}$ to $\mathbf{b}$. Now for $x \in R$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|f(x)-P_{n}(x)\right| & =\left|\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left(b_{k}-b_{k}^{(n)}\right) \frac{x^{k}}{k!}\right| \\
& \leqslant\left\|\mathbf{b}-\mathbf{b}^{(n)}\right\|_{2}\left\|\left\{\frac{x^{k}}{k!}\right\}_{1}^{\infty}\right\|_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $f(x)-P_{n}(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
We have thus shown that $S_{n}(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $x$ in $[0,1)$ and applying (3.1) shows that $S_{n}(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for all $x$ in $R$.

Remark. We note that Eqs. (1.1) and (2.3) are special cases of (3.1). However the results mentioned in Section 1 cannot be deduced from

Theorem 2 because in this case the function $a(z)=\left(e^{z}-t\right) / z$ does not satisfy conditions (3.2) and (3.3) of Theorem A for all values of $t$. Similarly the results of Section 2 cannot be deduced from Theorem 2 because the conditions on $h(x)$ are weaker.

## 4. An Example

We now consider the particular equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=f^{\prime}(x+1), \quad x \in R, f(0)=1 \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

as an illustration of Theorem 2 because the solution in this case has an interesting form. The function $a(z)$ given by (3.6) is in this case

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(z)=e^{z}-z^{-1} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now $\operatorname{Im} a\left(e^{i \theta}\right)=e^{\cos \theta} \sin (\sin \theta)+\sin \theta>0$ for $0<\theta<\pi$. Since $a\left(e^{i \theta}\right)$ is real and positive for $\theta=0$ and $\pi$, we see that $a\left(e^{i \theta}\right) \neq 0$ for $0<\theta<\pi$ and arg $\left.a\left(e^{i \theta}\right)\right]_{0}^{\pi}=0$. Similarly, $a\left(e^{i \theta}\right) \neq 0$ for $\pi \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2 \pi$ and $\left.\arg a\left(e^{i \theta}\right)\right]_{\pi}^{2 \pi}=0$. Thus $a(z)$ satisfies conditions (3.2) and (3.3) of Theorem A and we can apply Theorem 2. It is easily seen that a solution $f$ of (4.1) which lies in $\mathscr{F}$ is $f(x)=e^{\lambda x}$, where $1=\lambda e^{\lambda}$ (In fact $\lambda \approx 0.5671432904$.). Thus Theorem 2 tells us that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n}(x)=e^{j x}, \quad x \in R
$$

We now find an explicit expression for the spline $S_{n}(x)$. In this case, Eq. (3.3) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}^{(v+1)}(1)=P_{n}^{(v)}(0) \quad(v=0,1, \ldots, n-1) . \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easily checked that for $n \geqslant 0$, this is satisfied by

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{(x+n-j)^{j}}{j!} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since we must have $S_{n}(0)=1,(4.4)$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}(x)=\gamma_{n} P_{n}(x), \quad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{n}^{-1}=\sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{(n-j)^{j}}{j!} \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now extend $S_{n}(x)$ uniquely to $[-1,0)$ by applying condition (4.1). Thus

$$
S_{n}(x)=S_{n}^{\prime}(x+1)=\gamma_{n} P_{n}^{\prime}(x+1)=\gamma_{n} P_{n-1}(x+1), \quad-1 \leqslant x<0
$$

Similarly we extend $S_{n}(x)$ uniquely to $[1,2)$ by applying (4.1) and condition (3.7) of Theorem 2:

$$
\begin{align*}
& S_{n}^{\prime}(x)=S_{n}(x-1)=\gamma_{n} P_{n}(x-1), \quad 1 \leqslant x<2 \\
& S_{n}(1)=\gamma_{n} P_{n}(1)=\gamma_{n} P_{n+1}^{\prime}(1)=\gamma_{n} P_{n+1}(0) . \tag{4.7}
\end{align*}
$$

We easily see that (4.7) is satisfied by

$$
S_{n}(x)=\gamma_{n} P_{n+1}(x-1), \quad 1 \leqslant x<2
$$

In this way we see by successive extensions to the right and to the left that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}(x)=\gamma_{n} P_{n+v}(x-v), \quad v \leqslant x<v+1, v \in Z \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{\mu} \equiv 0$ for $\mu<0$. A more compact and neat expression for $S_{n}(x)$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}(x)=\gamma_{n} \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+n-v)_{+}^{v}}{v!}=\gamma_{n} S_{0}(x+n) \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S_{0}(x)=\sum_{v=0}^{\infty}(x-v)_{+}^{v} / v!$.

## 5. A Conjecture

We close this note by mentioning the nonlinear equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=x f(x+1), \quad x \in R, f(1)=1 \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is satisfied by the entire function $f(x)=1 / \Gamma(x)$. It is shown in [3] that for $n=1,2, \ldots$, there is a unique solution $S_{n}(x)$ of (5.1) satisfying (1.2) and (1.3). We offer the following

Conjecture. For all $x \in R, S_{n}(x) \rightarrow 1 / \Gamma(x)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We remark that writing

$$
S_{n}(x)=x+\frac{b_{2}^{(n)}}{2!} x^{2}+\cdots+\frac{b_{n}^{(n)} x^{n}}{n!}, \quad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1
$$

the coefficients $b_{2}^{(n)}, \ldots, b_{n}^{(n)}$ are the unique solution of the system of equations

$$
\sum_{j=2}^{n}\left\{\frac{1}{(j-k)!}-\frac{1}{k+1} \delta_{j-k, 1}\right\} b_{j}^{(n)}=-\delta_{k, 1}, \quad k=0,1, \ldots, n-2
$$

which is very similar to the system of equations (3.4) in Theorem A. The validity of this conjecture would imply that as $n \rightarrow \infty, \frac{1}{2} b_{2}^{(n)} \rightarrow \gamma$, the Euler constant, a fact which is strongly supported by numerical evidence. For further details on this conjecture see [3].

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