# On the infimum of the absolute value of successive derivatives of a real function defined on a bounded interval <br> Michel Balazard 

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# On the infimum of the absolute value of successive derivatives of a real function defined on a bounded interval 

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#### Abstract

A study of the greatest possible ratio of the smallest absolute value of a higher derivative of some function, defined on a bounded interval, to the $L^{p}$-norm of the function.


## Keywords

Chebyshev polynomials, Legendre polynomials, extremal problems, inequalities for derivatives MSC classification: 26D10, 41A10

To the memory of Eduard Wirsing, master of analysis, and of its applications to number theory.

## 1 Introduction

Let $n$ be a positive integer, $I=[a, b]$ a bounded segment of the real line, of length $L=b-a$. Define $\mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$ as the set of real functions $f$ defined on $I$, with successive derivatives $f^{(k)}$ defined and continuous on $I$ for $0 \leqslant k \leqslant n-1$, and $f^{(n)}$ defined on $\left.\grave{I}=\right] a, b[$. We will use the notation

$$
m_{n}(f)=\inf _{a<t<b}\left|f^{(n)}(t)\right| .
$$

Let $p$ be a positive real number, or $\infty$.
The problem addressed in this article is that of determining the best constant $C^{*}=C^{*}(n, p, I)$ in the inequality

$$
m_{n}(f) \leqslant C^{*}\|f\|_{p} \quad\left(f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)\right),
$$

where

$$
\|f\|_{p}=\left(\int_{a}^{b}|f(t)|^{p} d t\right)^{1 / p}
$$

with the usual convention when $p=\infty$, here: $\|f\|_{\infty}=\max |f|$.
This problem has been posed by Kwong and Zettl in their 1992 Lecture Notes [11] (see Lemma 1.1, p. 6). They give upper bounds for $C^{*}(n, p, I)$, but their reasoning and results are erroneous. In her 1993 PhD Thesis [5], Huang has pointed out that this problem is equivalent to a classical problem in the theory of polynomial approximation: that of determining the minimal $L^{p_{-}}$ norm of a monic polynomial of given degree on a given bounded interval. Our purpose in this text is to give a new proof of the equivalence, and to list the consequences of the known results about this extremal problem for the evaluation of $C^{*}(n, p, I)$.

## 2 First observations

### 2.1 Homogeneity

Defining $g(u)=f(a+u L)$ for $f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$ and $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, one has

$$
g \in \mathcal{D}^{n}([0,1]) \quad ; \quad g^{(n)}(u)=L^{n} f^{(n)}(a+u L) \quad(0<u<1) \quad ; \quad\|g\|_{p}=L^{-1 / p}\|f\|_{p}
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
C^{*}(n, p, I)=C^{*}(n, p,[0,1]) L^{-n-1 / p} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and one is left with determining $C^{*}(n, p,[0,1])=C(n, p)$, or in fact $C^{*}(n, p, I)$ for any fixed, chosen segment $I$. We will see that $I=[-1,1]$ is particularly convenient.

### 2.2 An extremal problem

One has

$$
\begin{aligned}
C^{*}(n, p, I) & =\sup \left\{m_{n}(f) /\|f\|_{p}, f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I), m_{n}(f) \neq 0\right\} \\
& \left.=\sup \left\{m_{n}(f) /\|f\|_{p}, f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I), m_{n}(f)=\lambda\right\} \quad \text { (for every } \lambda>0\right) \\
& =\lambda / D^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I),
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
D^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I) & =\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}, f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I), m_{n}(f)=\lambda\right\} \\
& =\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}, f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I), m_{n}(f) \geqslant \lambda\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

the last equality being true since $D^{*}(n, p, \mu, I)=\frac{\mu}{\lambda} D^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I) \geqslant D^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I)$ if $\mu \geqslant \lambda$.

Also, since a derivative has the intermediate value property (cf. [3], pp. 109-110), the inequality $m_{n}(f) \geqslant \lambda>0$ implies that $f^{(n)}$ has constant sign on $I$, so that

$$
D^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I)=\inf \left\{\|f\|_{p}, f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I), f^{(n)}(t) \geqslant \lambda \text { for } a<t<b\right\} .
$$

Thus, determining $C^{*}(n, p, I)$ is equivalent to minimizing $\|f\|_{p}$ for $f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$ with the constraint $f^{(n)}(t) \geqslant \lambda>0$ for $a<t<b$. We will denote this extremal problem by $\mathcal{E}^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I)$.

## 3 The relevance of monic polynomials

Let $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ be the set of monic polynomials of degree $n$, with real coefficients, identified with the set of the corresponding polynomial functions on $I$, which is a subset of $\mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$. Since $m_{n}(f)=n$ ! for $f \in \mathcal{P}_{n}$, one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
D^{*}(n, p, n!, I) \leqslant D^{* *}(n, p, I), \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
D^{* *}(n, p, I)=\inf \left\{\|Q\|_{p}, Q \in \mathcal{P}_{n}\right\} .
$$

A basic fact in the study of the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I)$ is that (2) is in fact an equality.
Proposition 1 For all $n, p, I$, one has $D^{*}(n, p, n!, I)=D^{* *}(n, p, I)$.
It follows from this proposition that $C^{*}(n, p, I)=n!/ D^{* *}(n, p, I)$ and, by (1),

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(n, p)=L^{n+1 / p} n!/ D^{* *}(n, p, I) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us review the history of Proposition 1.
For $p=\infty$, it is a corollary to a theorem of S. N. Bernstein from 1937. Denoting by $E_{k}(f)$ the distance (for the uniform norm on $I$ ) between $f$ and the set of polynomials of degree at most $k$, he proved in particular that

$$
E_{n-1}\left(f_{0}\right)>E_{n-1}\left(f_{1}\right) \quad\left(f_{0}, f_{1} \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)\right),
$$

provided that the inequality $f_{0}^{(n)}(\xi)>\left|f_{1}^{(n)}(\xi)\right|$ is valid for every $\xi \in \stackrel{\circ}{I}$ (cf. [2], p. 48, inequalities (47bis)-(48bis)). Proposition 1 follows by taking $f_{1}(x)=x^{n}$ and $f_{0}(x)=\lambda f(x)$, where $f$ is a generic element of $\mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$ such that $f^{(n)}(t) \geqslant n$ ! for $a<t<b$, and $\lambda>1$, then letting $\lambda \rightarrow 1$.

This theorem of Bernstein was generalized by Tsenov in 1951 to the case of the $L^{p}$-norm on $I$, where $p \geqslant 1$ (cf. [15], Theorem 4, p. 477), thus providing a proof of Proposition 1 for $p \geqslant 1$. The case $0<p<1$ was left open by Tsenov.

The study of the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{*}(n, p, \lambda, I)$ was one of the themes of the 1993 PhD thesis of Xiaoming Huang [5]. In Lemma 2.0.7, pp. 9-10, she gave another proof (due to Saff)
of Proposition 1 in the case $p=\infty$. For $1 \leqslant p<\infty$, she gave a proof of Proposition 1 which is unfortunately incomplete (cf. [5], pp. 28-30). Again, the case $0<p<1$ was left open.

We present now a self-contained proof of Proposition 1, valid for $0<p \leqslant \infty$. As it proceeds by induction on $n$, we will need the following classical-looking division lemma, for which we could not locate a reference (compare with [16] or [13]).

Proposition 2 Let $n \geqslant 2$ and $f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$. Let $c \in[a, b]$. Put

$$
g(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} & (x \in I, x \neq c)  \tag{4}\\ f^{\prime}(c) & (x=c) .\end{cases}
$$

Then $g \in \mathcal{D}^{n-1}(I)$. For every $\left.x \in\right] a, b[$, one has

$$
g^{(n-1)}(x)=\frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n},
$$

where $\xi \in] a, b[$.

## Proof

Since $f^{\prime}$ is continuous, one has

$$
g(x)=\int_{0}^{1} f^{\prime}(c+t(x-c)) d t \quad(x \in I) .
$$

Using the rule of differentiation under the integration sign, one sees that $g$ is $n-2$ times differentiable on $I$, with

$$
g^{(n-2)}(x)=\int_{0}^{1} t^{n-2} f^{(n-1)}(c+t(x-c)) d t \quad(x \in I) .
$$

As $f^{(n-1)}$ is continuous on $I$, this formula yields the continuity of $g^{(n-2)}$ on $I$.
The function $g$ is $n$ times differentiable on $I \backslash\{c\}$ (this set is just $I$ if $c=a$ or $c=b$ ), being a quotient of $n$ times differentiable functions, with non-vanishing denominator. In the case $a<c<b$, we have now to check that $g$ is $n-1$ times differentiable at the point $c$.

The function $f^{(n-1)}$ being continuous on $I$ and differentiable at the point $c$, there exists a function $\varepsilon(h)$, defined and continuous on the segment $[a-c, b-c]$ (the interior of which contains 0 ), vanishing for $h=0$, such that

$$
f^{(n-1)}(c+h)=f^{(n-1)}(c)+h f^{(n)}(c)+h \varepsilon(h) \quad(a \leqslant c+h \leqslant b) .
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{(n-2)}(x) & =\int_{0}^{1} t^{n-2} f^{(n-1)}(c+t(x-c)) d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} t^{n-2}\left(f^{(n-1)}(c)+t(x-c) f^{(n)}(c)+t(x-c) \varepsilon(t(x-c))\right) d t \\
& \left.=\frac{f^{(n-1)}(c)}{n-1}+\frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n}(x-c)+(x-c) \int_{0}^{1} t^{n-1} \varepsilon(t(x-c))\right) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

When $x$ tends to $c$, the last integral tends to 0 , so that the function $g^{(n-2)}$ is differentiable at the point $c$, with

$$
g^{(n-1)}(c)=\frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n}
$$

If $x \in \stackrel{\circ}{I} \backslash\{c\}$, one may use the general Leibniz rule and Taylor's theorem with the Lagrange form of the remainder in order to compute $g^{(n-1)}(x)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{(n-1)}(x) & =\frac{d^{n-1}}{d x^{n-1}}\left((f(x)-f(c)) \cdot \frac{1}{x-c}\right) \\
& =(f(x)-f(c)) \cdot \frac{(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!}{(x-c)^{n}}+\sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\binom{n-1}{k} f^{(k)}(x) \cdot \frac{(-1)^{n-1-k}(n-1-k)!}{(x-c)^{n-k}} \\
& =\frac{(n-1)!}{(c-x)^{n}}\left(f(c)-f(x)-\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!}(c-x)^{k}\right) \\
& =\frac{(n-1)!}{(c-x)^{n}} \cdot \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!}(c-x)^{n} \quad(\text { where } \xi \text { belongs to the open interval bounded by } c \text { and } x) \\
& =\frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In the next proposition, we stress the main element of our proof of Proposition 1, namely the fact that the condition $f^{(n)} \geqslant n$, for some $f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$, implies that the absolute value of $f$ dominates the absolute value of some monic polynomial of degree $n$.

Proposition 3 Let $n \geqslant 1$ and $f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$ such that $f^{(n)}(x) \geqslant n$ ! for every $\left.x \in\right] a, b[$.
Then there exists a monic polynomial $P$ of degree $n$, with all its zeros in $I$, such that the inequality $|f(x)| \geqslant|P(x)|$ is valid for every $x \in I$.

Moreover, if $|f(x)|=|Q(x)|$ for every $x \in I$, where $Q$ is a monic polynomial of degree $n$ with real coefficients, then $f(x)=Q(x)$ for every $x \in I$.

## Proof

The assertion about the zeros may be obtained a posteriori, by replacing the zeros of $P$ by their projections on $I$. The following proof leads directly to a polynomial $P$ with all zeros in $I$.

We use induction on $n$.
For $n=1$, the function $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on $] a, b\left[\right.$, with $f^{\prime}(x) \geqslant 1$ for $a<x<b$.

If $f(a) \geqslant 0$, one has, for $a<x \leqslant b, f(x)=f(a)+(x-a) f^{\prime}(\xi)$ (where $\left.a<\xi<x\right)$, thus $f(x) \geqslant x-a$. Hence, one has $|f(x)| \geqslant|x-a|$ for every $x \in I$.

If $f(b) \leqslant 0$, one proves similarly that $|f(x)| \geqslant|x-b|$ for every $x \in I$.
If $f(a)<0<f(b)$, there exists $c \in] a, b[$ such that $f(c)=0$. One has then, for every $x \in I$,

$$
f(x)=f(x)-f(c)=(x-c) f^{\prime}(\xi) \quad(\text { where } a<\xi<b)
$$

Hence $|f(x)| \geqslant|x-c|$ for every $x \in I$, and the result is proven for $n=1$.
Let now $n \geqslant 2$, and suppose that the result is valid with $n-1$ instead of $n$. Let $f \in \mathcal{D}^{n}(I)$ such that $f^{(n)}(x) \geqslant n!$ for every $\left.x \in\right] a, b[$.

If $f$ vanishes at some point $c \in I$, it follows from Proposition 2 that the function $g$ defined on $I$ by

$$
g(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{f(x)}{x-c} & (x \in I, x \neq c) \\ f^{\prime}(c) & (x=c)\end{cases}
$$

belongs to $\mathcal{D}^{n-1}(I)$ and that, for every $\left.x \in\right] a, b[$, one has

$$
g^{(n-1)}(x)=\frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n}
$$

where $\xi \in] a, b\left[\right.$, thus $g^{(n-1)}(x) \geqslant(n-1)!$. By the induction hypothesis, there exists a monic polynomial $Q$ of degree $n-1$, with all its roots in $I$, such that $|g(x)| \geqslant|Q(x)|$ for every $x \in I$. Hence, one has the inequality $|f(x)| \geqslant|P(x)|$ for every $x \in I$, where $P(x)=(x-c) Q(x)$ is a monic polynomial of degree $n$, with all its roots in $I$.

If $f>0$, it reaches a minimum at some point $c \in I$. Again, it follows from Proposition 2 that the function $g$ defined on $I$ by (4) satisfies the required hypothesis for degree $n-1$. Thus there exists a monic polynomial $Q$ of degree $n-1$, with all its roots in $I$, such that $|g(x)| \geqslant|Q(x)|$ for every $x \in I$. Hence, one has the inequality

$$
f(x)-f(c)=|f(x)-f(c)| \geqslant|P(x)| \quad(x \in I)
$$

where $P(x)=(x-c) Q(x)$. It follows that

$$
|f(x)|=f(x) \geqslant f(c)+|P(x)|>|P(x)| \quad(x \in I)
$$

If $f<0$, the reasoning is similar by considering a point $c \in I$ where $f$ reaches a maximum.
Let us prove the last assertion. The hypothesis $|f|=|P|$ is equivalent to the equality $f^{2}=P^{2}$, that is $(f-P)(f+P)=0$. The set $E=\{x \in I, f(x)+P(x)=0\}$ has empty interior, since $f^{(n)}(x)+P^{(n)}(x)=0$ on every open subinterval of $E$, whereas $f^{(n)}(x)+P^{(n)}(x) \geqslant 2 n$ ! on $\dot{I}$. The set $I \backslash E$ is therefore dense in $I$; its elements $x$ all verify $f(x)=P(x)$, hence $f=P$ on $I$ by continuity.

Proposition 1 is an immediate corollary of Proposition 3: by taking $f$ and $P$ as stated there, one has $|f(x)| \geqslant|P(x)|$ for every $x \in I$, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b}|f(x)|^{p} d x \geqslant \int_{a}^{b}|P(x)|^{p} d x \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $p>0($ for $p=\infty$ : $\max |f| \geqslant \max |P|)$.
Moreover, if $p<\infty$, equality in (5) implies that $|f|=|P|$ on $I$, hence $f=P$.
In other words, if $0<p<\infty$, the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{*}(n, p, n!, I)$ has exactly the same solutions (value of the infimum and extremal functions) as the problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, p, I)$ obtained by considering only monic polynomials of degree $n$, which one may even take with all their roots in $I$.

For $p=\infty$, our reasoning does not prove that an extremal function for $\mathcal{E}^{*}(n, p, n!, I)$ (if it exists) must be a polynomial. This is true anyway, as proved by Huang in [5], pp. 10-13.

## 4 Extremal polynomials

One may now use the results of the well developed theory of the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, p, I)$ for polynomials. Thus, since the integral

$$
\int_{a}^{b}\left|\left(x-x_{1}\right) \cdots\left(x-x_{n}\right)\right|^{p} d x \quad\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in I\right)
$$

(or the value $\max _{x \in I}\left|\left(x-x_{1}\right) \cdots\left(x-x_{n}\right)\right|$ ) is a continuous function of $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$, the compactness of $I^{n}$ yields the existence of an extremal (polynomial) function for $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, p, I)$, hence for $\mathcal{E}^{*}(n, p, n!, I)$.

It is a known fact that the polynomial extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, p, I)$ has a unique solution for all $p \in] 0, \infty]$, but there is no proof valid uniformly for all values of $p$.

- For $p=\infty$, uniqueness was proved by Young in 1907 (cf. [18], Theorem 5, p. 340)) and follows from the general theory of uniform approximation (cf. [12], Theorem 1.8, p. 28).
- For $1<p<\infty$, as proved by Jackson in 1921 (cf. [7], $\S 6$, pp. 121-122), this is a consequence of the strict convexity of the space $L^{p}(I)$.
- For $p=1$, this is also due to Jackson in 1921 (cf. [6], §4, pp. 323-326).
- For $0<p<1$, the uniqueness of the extremal polynomial was proved in 1988 by Kroó and Saff (cf. [10], Theorem 2, p. 184). Their proof uses the uniqueness property for $p=1$ and the implicit function theorem.

We will denote by $T_{n, p, I}$ the unique solution of the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, p, I)$. Uniqueness gives immediately the relation

$$
T_{n, p, I}(a+b-x)=(-1)^{n} T_{n, p, I}(x) \quad(x \in \mathbb{R}) .
$$

Another property of these polynomials is the fact that all their roots are simple. For $p=1$, this fact was proved by Korkine and Zolotareff in 1873 (cf. [8], pp. 339-340), before their explicit determination of the extremal polynomial (see $\S 5.4$ below), and their proof extends, mutatis mutandis, to the case $1<p<\infty$. For $p=\infty$, this is a property of the Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind (see $\S 5.2$ below). Lastly, for $0<p<1$, this was proved by Kroó and Saff in [10], p. 187.

Define $T_{n, p}=T_{n, p,[-1,1]}$, and write $n=2 k+\varepsilon$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\varepsilon \in\{0,1\}$. It follows from the mentioned results that

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{n, p}(x)=x^{\varepsilon}\left(x^{2}-x_{n, 1}(p)^{2}\right) \cdots\left(x^{2}-x_{n, k}(p)^{2}\right) \quad(x \in \mathbb{R}) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
0<x_{n, 1}(p)<\cdots<x_{n, k}(p) \leqslant 1 .
$$

Kroó, Peherstorfer and Saff have conjectured that all the $x_{n, k}$ are increasing functions of $p$ (cf. [9], p. 656, and [10], p. 192).

## 5 Results on $C(n, p)$

### 5.1 The case $n=1$

The value $n=1$ is the only one for which $C(n, p)$ is explicitly known for all $p$.
Proposition 4 One has $C(1, p)=2(p+1)^{1 / p}$ for $0<p<\infty$, and $C(1, \infty)=2$.
Proof
By (6), one has $T_{1, p}(x)=x$, so that, for $0<p<\infty$,

$$
D^{* *}(1, p,[-1,1])=\left(\int_{-1}^{1}|t|^{p} d t\right)^{1 / p}=(2 /(p+1))^{1 / p}
$$

and, by (3),

$$
C(1, p)=2^{1+1 / p} / D^{* *}(1, p,[-1,1])=2(p+1)^{1 / p}
$$

Note that the Lemma 1.1, p. 6 of [11], asserts that $C(1, p) \leqslant 2 \cdot 3^{1 / p}$ for $p \geqslant 2$, and that bound is $<2(p+1)^{1 / p}$ for $p>2$.

### 5.2 The case $p=\infty$

This is the classical case, solved by Chebyshev in 1853 by introducing the polynomials $T_{n}$ defined by the relation $T_{n}(\cos t)=\cos n t$ (now called Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind): the unique solution of the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, \infty,[-1,1])$ is $2^{1-n} T_{n}$. Let us record a short proof of this fact.

Take $I=[-1,1]$ and suppose that $P$ is a monic polynomial of degree $n$ satisfying the inequality $\|P\|_{\infty} \leqslant\left\|2^{1-n} T_{n}\right\|_{\infty}=2^{1-n}$. Then, for $\lambda>1$ the polynomial

$$
Q_{\lambda}=\lambda 2^{1-n} T_{n}-P
$$

is of degree $n$, with leading coefficient $\lambda-1$. Moreover, it satisfies

$$
(-1)^{k} Q_{\lambda}(\cos k \pi / n)=\lambda 2^{1-n}-(-1)^{k} P(\cos k \pi / n)>0 \quad(k=0, \ldots, n)
$$

By the intermediate value property, $Q_{\lambda}$ has at least $n$ distinct roots, hence exactly $n$, and these roots, say $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, have absolute value not larger than 1 . Hence,

$$
\left|Q_{\lambda}(x)\right|=(\lambda-1)\left|\left(x-x_{1}\right) \cdots\left(x-x_{n}\right)\right| \leqslant(\lambda-1)(1+|x|)^{n} \quad(x \in \mathbb{R}) .
$$

When $\lambda \rightarrow 1, Q_{\lambda}(x)$ tends to 0 for every real $x$, which means that $P=2^{1-n} T_{n}$.
One deduces from this theorem the value of $C(n, \infty)$. One has

$$
D^{* *}(n, \infty,[-1,1])=\max _{|x| \leqslant 1}\left|2^{1-n} T_{n}(x)\right|=2^{1-n},
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(n, \infty)=2^{n} \cdot n!/ D^{* *}(n, \infty,[-1,1])=2^{2 n-1} n! \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(compare with the upper bound $C(n, \infty) \leqslant 2^{n(n+1) / 2} n^{n}$ of [4], 3 (a), p. 185). This result is essentially due to Bernstein (1912, cf. [1], p. 65).

Qualitatively, the result expressed by (7) was nicely described by Soula in [14], p. 86, as follows.

Bernstein's principle: the minimum of the absolute value of the $n$-th derivative of an $n$ times differentiable function and the maximum of the absolute value of the $n$-th derivative of an analytic function have similar orders of magnitude.

### 5.3 The case $p=2$

In this case, the extremal problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, 2,[-1,1])$ is an instance of the general problem of computing the orthogonal projection of an element of a Hilbert space onto a finite dimensional subspace. Here, the Hilbert space is $L^{2}(-1,1)$, the element is the monomial function $x^{n}$, and
the subspace is the set of polynomial functions of degree less than $n$. The solution follows from the theory of orthogonal polynomials: the extremal polynomial for $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, 2,[-1,1])$ is

$$
\frac{2^{n}(n!)^{2}}{(2 n)!} P_{n}(x) \quad(|x| \leqslant 1)
$$

where $P_{n}$ is the $n$-th Legendre polynomial, defined by

$$
P_{n}(x)=\frac{1}{2^{n} n!} \frac{d^{n}}{d x^{n}}\left(x^{2}-1\right)^{n}
$$

Hence,

$$
D^{* *}(n, 2,[-1,1])=\frac{2^{n}(n!)^{2}}{(2 n)!}\left\|P_{n}\right\|_{2}=\frac{2^{n}(n!)^{2}}{(2 n)!} \sqrt{\frac{2}{2 n+1}}
$$

(see [17], §15•14, p. 305) and

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(n, 2)=2^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \cdot n!/ D^{* *}(n, 2,[-1,1])=\frac{(2 n)!}{n!} \sqrt{2 n+1} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

a result given by Soula in 1932 (cf. [14], pp. 87-88).

### 5.4 The case $p=1$

The problem $\mathcal{E}^{* *}(n, 1,[-1,1])$ was solved by Korkine and Zolotareff in [8]: the extremal polynomial is $2^{-n} U_{n}(x)$, where $U_{n}$ is the $n$-th Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind, defined by the relation $U_{n}(\cos t)=\sin (n+1) t / \sin t$.

Therefore, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
D^{* *}(n, 1,[-1,1]) & =2^{-n} \int_{-1}^{1}\left|U_{n}(x)\right| d x=2^{-n} \int_{0}^{\pi}\left|U_{n}(\cos t)\right| \sin t d t \\
& =2^{-n} \int_{0}^{\pi}|\sin (n+1) t| d t=2^{-n} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin u d u \\
& =2^{1-n}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(n, 1)=2^{n+1} \cdot n!/ D^{* *}(n, 1,[-1,1])=2^{2 n} n!. \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 5.5 Bounds for $C(n, p)$

We begin with a simple monotony result.
Proposition 5 For every positive integer $n$, the function $p \mapsto C(n, p)$ is decreasing on the interval $0<p \leqslant \infty$.

## Proof

Let $I=[0,1]$. Equivalently, we will see that the function $p \mapsto D^{* *}(n, p, I)$ is increasing. This is due to the fact that, for a fixed $f \in L^{\infty}(I)$ such that $|f|$ is not equal almost everywhere to a constant, the function $p \mapsto\|f\|_{p}$ is increasing (a consequence of Hölder's inequality). Thus, for every $Q \in \mathcal{P}_{n}$ and $0<p<p^{\prime} \leqslant \infty$,

$$
\|Q\|_{p^{\prime}}>\|Q\|_{p} \geqslant D^{* *}(n, p, I),
$$

which implies that $D^{* *}\left(n, p^{\prime}, I\right)>D^{* *}(n, p, I)$.
In particular, (7) and (9) yield the inequalities

$$
2^{2 n-1} n!<C(n, p)<2^{2 n} n!\quad(1<p<\infty)
$$

The next proposition implies that the limit of $C(n, p)$ when $p$ tends to 0 is $(2 e)^{n} n$ !.
Proposition 6 For every positive integer $n$ and every positive real number p, one has

$$
2^{n}(1+n p)^{1 / p} n!\leqslant C(n, p) \leqslant(2 e)^{n} n!
$$

## Proof

Equivalently, we will prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2 e)^{-n} \leqslant D^{* *}(n, p, I) \leqslant 2^{-n}(1+n p)^{-1 / p}, \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I=[0,1]$.
Let $Q(t)=\left(t-x_{1}\right) \cdots\left(t-x_{n}\right)$, where $0 \leqslant x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \leqslant 1$. One has

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ln \|Q\|_{p} & =\frac{1}{p} \ln \int_{0}^{1}|Q(t)|^{p} d t \\
& \geqslant \frac{1}{p} \int_{0}^{1} \ln \left(|Q(t)|^{p}\right) d t \quad \text { (by Jensen's inequality) } \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \ln |Q(t)| d t \\
& =\sum_{k=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{1} \ln \left|t-x_{k}\right| d t
\end{aligned}
$$

Now,

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \ln |t-x| d t=(1-x) \ln (1-x)+x \ln x-1 \quad(0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1)
$$

attains its minimal value, namely $-1-\ln 2$, when $x=1 / 2$. This implies the first inequality of (10).

To prove the second inequality of (10), we just compute $\|Q\|_{p}^{p}$ when $Q(t)=(t-1 / 2)^{n}$ :

$$
\int_{0}^{1}|t-1 / 2|^{n p} d t=2 \frac{(1 / 2)^{n p+1}}{n p+1}
$$

For $0<p<1$, we can also prove the following result.
Proposition 7 Let $n$ be a positive integer, and $p$ such that $0<p<1$. One has

$$
1 \leqslant \frac{C(n, p)}{2^{2 n} n!} \leqslant \frac{1}{2}(8 / \pi)^{1 / p}
$$

Proof
The first inequality is just $C(n, 1) \leqslant C(n, p)$.
To prove the second inequality, let $r$ and $s$ such that $1<s<2$ and $r^{-1}+s^{-1}=1$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{1}(s)=\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{d t}{\left(1-t^{2}\right)^{s / 2}} \\
& I_{2}(s)=\int_{-1}^{1}|t|^{(s-1) / s} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The integrals $I_{1}(s)$ and $I_{2}(s)$ may be computed, using the eulerian identity

$$
\int_{0}^{1} t^{x-1}(1-t)^{y-1} d t=\mathrm{B}(x, y)=\frac{\Gamma(x) \Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)} \quad(x>0, y>0)
$$

The results are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{1}(s)=2^{1-s} \frac{\Gamma\left(1-\frac{s}{2}\right)^{2}}{\Gamma(2-s)} \\
& I_{2}(s)=\frac{\Gamma\left(1-\frac{1}{2 s}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}-\frac{1}{2 s}\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, let $Q \in \mathcal{P}_{n}$ and put $p^{\prime}=p / r$. By Hölder's inequality, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{-1}^{1}|Q(t)|^{p^{\prime}} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} & \leqslant\left(\int_{-1}^{1}|Q(t)|^{p^{\prime} r} d t\right)^{1 / r}\left(\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{d t}{\left(1-t^{2}\right)^{s / 2}}\right)^{1 / s} \\
& =\|Q\|_{p}^{p^{\prime}} I_{1}(s)^{1 / s} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It was proved by Kroó and Saff (cf. [10], pp. 182-183) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
2^{(n-1) p^{\prime}} \int_{-1}^{1}|Q(t)|^{p^{\prime}} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} & \geqslant \int_{-1}^{1}\left|T_{n}(t)\right|^{p^{\prime}} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} \\
& =\int_{0}^{\pi}|\cos n u|^{p^{\prime}} d u=\int_{0}^{\pi}|\cos u|^{p^{\prime}} d u \\
& =\int_{-1}^{1}|t|^{p^{\prime}} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} \\
& \geqslant \int_{-1}^{1}|t|^{1 / r} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} \quad \text { (one has } p^{\prime}=p / r<1 / r \text { ) } \\
& =I_{2}(s) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, with $I=[-1,1]$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|Q\|_{p} \geqslant 2^{1-n} I_{2}(s)^{1 / p^{\prime}} I_{1}(s)^{-1 / p^{\prime} s}=2^{1-n} A(s)^{1 / p} \quad(1<s<2) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
A(s)=I_{2}(s)^{s /(s-1)} I_{1}(s)^{-1 /(s-1)}
$$

Hence

$$
A(s)=2\left(\frac{\Gamma\left(1-\frac{1}{2 s}\right)^{s} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{s} \Gamma(2-s)}{\Gamma\left(1-\frac{s}{2}\right)^{2} \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}-\frac{1}{2 s}\right)^{s}}\right)^{1 /(s-1)} \quad(1<s<2)
$$

Putting $f(s)=\ln \Gamma(s)$, one has

$$
\ln A(s)=\ln 2+\frac{s f(1-1 / 2 s)+s f(1 / 2)+f(2-s)-2 f(1-s / 2)-s f(3 / 2-1 / 2 s)}{s-1} .
$$

When $s$ tends to 1 , the last fraction tends to

$$
\ln \pi+\frac{3}{2} \psi(1 / 2)-\frac{3}{2} \psi(1)=\ln \pi-3 \ln 2,
$$

with the usual notation $f^{\prime}=\Gamma^{\prime} / \Gamma=\psi$. It follows that

$$
A(s) \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{4} \quad(s \rightarrow 1)
$$

Together with (11), this gives the inequality

$$
D^{* *}(n, p,[-1,1]) \geqslant 2^{1-n}(\pi / 4)^{1 / p}
$$

and (3) now implies

$$
C(n, p) \leqslant 2^{2 n-1} n!(8 / \pi)^{1 / p}
$$

We now prove an inequality involving three values of the function $C$.

Proposition 8 Let $p, q, r$ be positive real numbers such that

$$
\frac{1}{p}=\frac{1}{q}+\frac{1}{r}
$$

Let $m$ and $n$ be positive integers. Then,

$$
\frac{C(m+n, p)}{(m+n)!} \geqslant \frac{C(m, q)}{m!} \cdot \frac{C(n, r)}{n!} .
$$

## Proof

Equivalently, by (3), one has to prove that

$$
D^{* *}(m+n, p, I) \leqslant D^{* *}(m, q, I) \cdot D^{* *}(n, r, I),
$$

where $I$ is a segment of the real line.
In fact, if $P \in \mathcal{P}_{m}$ and $Q \in \mathcal{P}_{n}$, then $P Q \in \mathcal{P}_{m+n}$ hence

$$
D^{* *}(m+n, p, I)^{p} \leqslant \int_{I}|P(t) Q(t)|^{p} d t \leqslant\left(\int_{I}|P(t)|^{q} d t\right)^{p / q} \cdot\left(\int_{I}|Q(t)|^{r} d t\right)^{p / r}
$$

by the definition of $D^{* *}(m+n, p, I)$ and Hölder's inequality. The greatest lower bound of the last term, when $P$ runs over $\mathcal{P}_{m}$ and $Q$ runs over $\mathcal{P}_{n}$, is

$$
D^{* *}(m, q, I)^{p} \cdot D^{* *}(n, r, I)^{p} .
$$

The result follows.

### 5.6 An open question

Finally, observing that

$$
C(n, 2) \sim \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot 2^{2 n} n!\quad(n \rightarrow \infty)
$$

(an exercise on Stirling's formula from (8)), we ask the following question.
Is it true that, for every $p>0$, the quantity $2^{-2 n} C(n, p) / n$ ! tends to a limit when $n$ tends to infinity?

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