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## On Approximate Polynomials,

By

## Sôichi Kareya in Sendai.

Lately, Mr. J. Pál has proved the following interesting theorem: (1) Let f(x) be a continuous function of a real variable x in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le \alpha < 1$ , which vanishes at the point x=0, and let  $\varepsilon$  be an arbitrary positive number, then there exists a polynomial P(x) with integral coefficients such that

$$|f(x)-P(x)|<\varepsilon$$
,

for all values of x in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le a$ .

In his theorem, it is necessary that the number a, which is the upper limit of |x|, is less than unity. To extend the theorem to the case when  $\alpha$  is equal to unity is the aim of the following lines.

1. For our purpose, it is necessary to introduce a certain new condition for the given function f(x); and the theorem thus extended runs as follows:

Let a function f(x) be continuous in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le 1$  and

$$f(0)=f(1)=f(-1)=0$$
,

then, for any given positive number &, there exists a corresponding polynomial P(x) with integral coefficients such that

$$|f(x)-P(x)|<\varepsilon$$

for all values of x in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le 1$ .

To prove this theorem, we first consider an auxiliary polynomial

$$y = x(x+1)(x-1).$$
 (1)

As it is easily seen, the new variable y varies monotonously from 0 to  $\frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}$ , while x varies from -1 to  $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ , and y varies monotonously

from  $\frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}$  to 0, while x varies from  $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$  to 0. Consequently the two values p and q of x such that

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Since  $\varphi(x)$ define it in the Take any values  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ 

- i)  $\varphi(x) = 0$
- ii)  $\varphi(x)$  vs
- iii)  $\varphi(x)=1$

Then the form ed as follows:

- iv)  $\varphi(x) = 0$
- $\mathbf{v}$ )  $\varphi(x)$   $\mathbf{v}$  $\leq |x| \leq 1-q$ vi)  $\varphi(x) =$

According

<sup>(</sup> ¹ ) Tôhoku Math. Jour. vol. 6, 1914, p. 42.

function of y

$$y(-1+q) = y(-p),$$
 (2)

$$y(-1+q) = y(-p), 0 \le q \le 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad 0 \le p \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}},$$
 (3)

correspond one to one, and any one of them vanishes when the other vanishes. When x varies in the interval (0, 1), the variation of y is symmetric with respect to the former, only the signs being different. Consequently we must have

$$y(1-q) = y(p). \tag{4}$$

Therefore, if a function  $\varphi(x)$  is continuous in the interval (-1, 1)and has the properties

extres 
$$\varphi(-1+q) = \varphi(-p), \quad \varphi(1-q) = \varphi(p),$$
 (5)

then  $\varphi(x)$  is evidently a uniform continuous function of y in the interval

$$\left(-\frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}, \frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}\right)$$
 (6)

Let it be denoted by

$$\varphi(x) = \psi(y). \tag{7}$$

Since  $\varphi(x)$  is arbitrary in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ , we can define it in the following manner.

Take any two values  $p_1$  and  $p_2(>p_1)$  of p and corresponding two values  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  of q, and let

i) 
$$\varphi(x)=0$$
 for  $0 \le |x| \le p_1$ ,

ii)  $\varphi(x)$  varies linearly from 0 to 1 in the intervals  $p_1 \leq |x| \leq p_2$ ,

iii) 
$$\varphi(x)$$
 values  $=$  for  $p_2 \leq |x| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ .

Then the form of  $\varphi(x)$  in the remaining intervals is necessarily determined as follows:

iv) 
$$\varphi(x)=1$$
 for  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \leq |x| \leq 1-q_2$ ,

v)  $\varphi(x)$  varies monotonously from 1 to 0 in the intervals  $1-q_2$  $\leq |x| \leq 1-q_1$ 

$$\begin{array}{ll} |x| \stackrel{\scriptstyle =}{=} 1 - q_1, \\ \text{vi)} \quad \varphi(x) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad 1 - q_1 \stackrel{\scriptstyle =}{=} |x| \stackrel{\scriptstyle =}{=} 1. \end{array}$$

According to this definition of  $\varphi(x)$ ,  $\psi(y)$  is a uniform continuous  $\mathbf{vi}) \quad \varphi(x) = 0$ function of y in the interval  $0 \le |y| \le \frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}} < 1$  and vanishes at the

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point y=0. Consequently, by the theorem of Mr. Pál, we can find a polynomial Q(y) with integral coefficients such that

$$|\psi(y) - Q(y)| < \varepsilon_1 \quad \text{for} \quad 0 \leq |y| \leq \frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}.$$
 (8)

If we put

$$Q(y) = R(x),$$

R(x) is also a polynomial with integral coefficients and is such that

$$|\varphi(x) - R(x)| < \varepsilon_1 \quad \text{for} \quad 0 \le |x| \le 1.$$
 (10)

Again, by the same theorem, we can find a polynomial S(x) with integral coefficients such that

$$|f(x)-S(x)|<\varepsilon_2 \quad \text{for} \quad 0\leq |x|\leq 1-q_1.$$
 (11)

From (10) and (11), we get

$$|f(x) \varphi(x) - S(x) R(x)| < |f(x)| \varepsilon_1 + |\varphi(x)| \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2 < M \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2,$$
(12)

for the interval  $0 \le |x| \le 1-q_1$ , where M is the greatest magnitude of |f(x)| in the interval (-1, 1). Specially, if we consider only the interval in which  $\varphi(x)$  becomes 1, we get

$$|f(x) - S(x) R(x)| < M \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2$$
for  $p_2 \le |x| \le 1 - q_2$ . (13)

Since, in the intervals  $p_1 \le |x| \le p_2$  and  $1-q_2 \le |x| \le 1-q_1$ ,  $\varphi(x)$  varies monotonously from 1 to 0, we have

$$|f(x) - S(x) R(x)| \leq |f(x) \varphi(x) - S(x) R(x)| + |f(x) - f(x) \varphi(x)|$$

$$< M(p_1, p_2) + M \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2$$
(14)

for 
$$p_1 \leqq |x| \leqq p_2$$
 or  $1-q_2 \leqq |x| \leqq 1-q_1$ ,

where  $M(p_1, p_2)$  is the greatest magnitude of |f(x)| in the intervals of (14).

In the remaining intervals  $\varphi(x)$  becomes zero and hence |R(x)| becomes less than  $\epsilon_1$ , so we have

$$|f(x) - S(x)| R(x)| \le |f(x)| + |S(x)| |R(x)|$$
 $< M(p_1) + N(p_1) \varepsilon_1$  (15)

for 
$$0 \le |x| \le p_1$$
 or  $1-q_1 \le |x| \le 1$ ,

where  $M(p_i)$  and  $N(p_i)$  are the greatest magnitudes of |f(x)| and |S(x)| respectively in the intervals of (15).

Take  $p_1$   $M(p_1, p_2)$  as function vanismall, then t that  $M \varepsilon_1$  anhand member ficiently small.

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Take  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  in the above discussion sufficiently small, then  $M(p_1, p_2)$  and  $M(p_1)$  become sufficiently small, for f(x) is a continuous function vanishing at the points 0, 1 and -1. Next take  $\varepsilon_2$  sufficiently small, then the quantity  $N(p_1)$  is determined. Lastly, take  $\varepsilon_1$  so small that  $M \varepsilon_1$  and  $N(p_1) \varepsilon_1$  also become sufficiently small. Then the right hand members of all the inequalities (13), (14) and (15) become sufficiently small. Hence, combining those three inequalities, we get

$$|f(x) - S(x)| < \varepsilon \tag{16}$$

for all values of x in the combined interval  $0 \le |x| \le 1$ , where  $\varepsilon$  can be supposed to be an arbitrarily small number.

If we put

$$S(x) R(x) = P(x), \tag{17}$$

P(x) is also a polynomial with integral coefficients, and, from (16) we get

$$|f(x) - P(x)| < \varepsilon \tag{18}$$

for all values of x in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le 1$ . Thus our theorem is proved.

2. In the preceding theorem, we have given the condition that f(x) vanishes at the points 0, 1 and -1. This condition can be replaced by the condition that f(x) takes such the integral values at the points 0, 1 and -1 that f(1)+f(-1) is even. For, in such a case, the function

$$g(x) = f(x) - \left[ f(0) + \frac{f(1) - f(-1)}{2} x + \frac{f(1) + f(-1) - 2f(0)}{2} x^2 \right]$$

vanishes at the said three points and g(x)-f(x) is a polynomial with integral coefficients.

The above new condition is also necessary. For, since f(0), f(1), f(-1) can be approached indefinitely near by the integers P(0), P(1), P(-1) respectively, they must be also integers and

$$f(0) = P(0), f(1) = P(1), f(-1) = P(-1),$$

for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon$ . That

$$f(1)+f(-1)=P(1)+P(-1)$$

must be even is a special consequence of the following general theorem: (1)

The necessary and sufficient condition that the integral values u<sub>1</sub>, u<sub>2</sub>,

<sup>(1)</sup> This follows at once from Newton's formula of interpolation.

...,  $u_n$  can be attained by a polynomial P(x) with integral coefficients, for the integral values  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  of x, is that all of the n-1 expressions

$$\frac{u_1}{(a_1-a_2)(a_1-a_3)\dots(a_1-a_k)} + \frac{u_2}{(a_2-a_1)(a_2-a_3)\dots(a_2-a_k)} + \dots + \frac{u_k}{(a_k-a_1)(a_k-a_2)\dots(a_k-a_{k-1})} \qquad k=2, 3, \dots, n$$

should be integers.

To extend the theorem to an interval greater than or equal to (-2, 2) is impossible, unless the function f(x) itself is a polynomial in that interval. For if there are two different polynomials  $P_1(x)$  and  $P_2(x)$  with integral coefficients such that

 $|f(x)-P_1(x)| < 1$ ,  $|f(x)-P_2(x)| < 1$ , and  $P_1(x)-P_2(x) \neq \text{const.}$ in the interval  $0 \le |x| \le a$  ( $a \ge 2$ ), then we get a polynomial

$$P_1(x) - P_2(x) = C_0 x^n + C_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + C_n \qquad (C_0 \neq 0)$$

with integral coefficients such that

graf coefficients such that 
$$|C_0 x^n + C_1 x^{n-1} + \ldots + C_n| < 2 \quad \text{for} \quad 0 \le |x| \le \alpha;$$

and this contradicts the known theorem of Tschebyscheff(1) that there exists at least one point x in the interval  $(-\alpha, \alpha)$  for which

$$|C_0 x^n + C_1 x^{n-1} + \ldots + C_n| \ge \frac{C_0}{2^{n-1}} a^n \ge 2C_0.$$

I can not yet find out the upper limit of the intervals to which the theorem can be extended.

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<sup>(1)</sup> Oeuvres, t. 1, pp. 273-378.