## Chebyshev approximation and Helly's Theorem

Helly's Theorem states that $m \geq n+2$ convex bodies in $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ have non-empty intersection if any $n+1$ of them have non-empty intersection. This Theorem stated by German mathematician Helly in 1913 has many different proofs. It can be proved using just elementary mathematics (excellent topic for pupils in the school). On the other hand one of its proofs uses such elaborated notion as Chech cohomology.

In this etude I try to show application of Helly's Theorem to theory of approximation of functions. I am writing this etude inspired and based on the wonderful article of V.G.Boltiansky and N.M.Yaglom "Convex bodies" (Encyclopaedia of Elementary Mathematics. Volume 5. Geometry. Moscow 1966 (in Russian))

Helly's theorem on convex bodies have the following very interesting application to theory of approximation of continuous functions by polynomials. Here we consider in detail the case when we approximate a function by lines (polynomials of order $n=1$ ) and briefly formulate the general case. (The idea of the proof is not very different for general case).

We consider continuous functions on the interval $[a, b]$. We define the distance $d_{\infty}$ between continuous functions as

$$
d(f, g)=\|f-g\|_{\infty}=\max _{x \in[a, b]}|f(x)-g(x)|
$$

We say that the line $L_{f}=k x+b$ is a line which is the closest to the function $f$ if for an arbitrary line $l, d(f, l) \geq d\left(f . L_{f}\right)$ :
$\max _{x \in[a, b]}|f(x)-k x-b|=\varepsilon$, and for arbitrary line $y=k^{\prime} x+b^{\prime} \max _{x \in[a, b]}\left|f(x)-k^{\prime} x-b^{\prime}\right| \geq \varepsilon$.
The following Theorem is obeyed:
Theorem 1 Let the line $L_{f}$ be a closest line to the continuous function $f=f(x)$, $x \in[a, b]$. If $\varepsilon$ is the distance between this line and the function $f$ then there exist three points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, a \leq x_{1}<x_{2}<x_{3} \leq b$ such that the differences between function $f$ and the line $L_{f}$ at these points are $\pm \varepsilon$, and signs are alternating:

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ f ( x _ { 1 } ) - L _ { f } ( x _ { 1 } ) = \varepsilon }  \tag{1}\\
{ f ( x _ { 2 } ) - L _ { f } ( x _ { 2 } ) = - \varepsilon , } \\
{ f ( x _ { 3 } ) - L _ { f } ( x _ { 3 } ) = \varepsilon }
\end{array} , \quad \text { or } \quad \left\{\begin{array}{l}
f\left(x_{1}\right)-L_{f}\left(x_{1}\right)=-\varepsilon \\
f\left(x_{2}\right)-L_{f}\left(x_{2}\right)=\varepsilon \\
f\left(x_{3}\right)-L_{f}\left(x_{3}\right)=-\varepsilon
\end{array},\right.\right.
$$

Respectively for approximation by polynomials of order $n$ we have:
Theorem $1^{*}$ Let the $n$-th order polynomial $P_{f}^{(n)}$ is the closest $n$-th order polynomial to the continuous function $f=f(x),(x \in[a, b])$ in the $n+1$-dimensional linear space of all polynomials of the order at most $n: P^{(n)}(x)=a_{0} x^{n}+a_{1} x^{n-1}+a_{1} x+a_{0},\left(a_{0}, \ldots a_{n}\right.$ are arbitrary real numbers.). If $\varepsilon$ is the distance between the polynomial $P_{f}^{(n)}$ and the function $f$ then in the interval $[a, b]$ there exist $n+2$ points $x_{1}, \ldots x_{n+2}, a \leq x_{1}<\ldots<x_{n+2} \leq b$
such that the differences between function $f$ and the polynomial $P_{f}^{(n)}$ at these points are $\pm \varepsilon$ and signs are alternating, i.e.

$$
\left\{\begin{array} { l } 
{ f ( x _ { 1 } ) - P _ { f } ^ { ( n ) } ( x _ { 1 } ) = \varepsilon }  \tag{*}\\
{ f ( x _ { 2 } ) - P _ { f } ^ { ( n ) } ( x _ { 2 } ) = - \varepsilon } \\
{ f ( x _ { 3 } ) - P _ { f } ^ { ( n ) } ( x _ { 3 } ) = \varepsilon } \\
{ \cdots } \\
{ f ( x _ { n + 2 } ) - P _ { f } ^ { ( n ) } ( x _ { n + 2 } ) = ( - 1 ) ^ { n + 1 } \varepsilon }
\end{array} \quad , \quad \text { or } \quad \left\{\begin{array}{l}
f\left(x_{1}\right)-P_{f}^{(n)}\left(x_{1}\right)=-\varepsilon \\
f\left(x_{2}\right)-P_{f}^{(n)}\left(x_{2}\right)=\varepsilon \\
f\left(x_{3}\right)-P_{f}^{(n)}\left(x_{3}\right)=-\varepsilon \\
\cdots \\
f\left(x_{n+2}\right)-P_{f}^{(n)}\left(x_{n+2}\right)=(-1)^{n} \varepsilon
\end{array} .\right.\right.
$$

Example Chebyshev approximation and Chebyshev polynomials.
Consider Chebyshev polynomials $\left\{T_{k}\right\}$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
T_{k}(x)=\frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \cos k \arccos x, \quad-1 \leq x \leq 1 \\
T_{1}(x)=x, \quad T_{2}(x)=\frac{2 x^{2}-1}{2}, \quad T_{3}(x)=\frac{4 x^{3}-3 x}{4}, \quad T_{4}(x)=\frac{8 x^{4}-8 x^{2}+1}{8} \ldots, \ldots \\
\left(\frac{1}{2} T_{k-1}(x)+2 T_{k+1}(x)=x T_{k}(x) .\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

The basic property of Chebyshev polynomials is that for every natural $n$, the polynomial $T_{n}(x)$ is the polynomial which is closest to zero in the $n$-dimensional affine space of all polynomials of order $n$ with leading term $x^{n}$ :

$$
d\left(T_{n}\right)=\max _{x \in[-1,1]}\left|T_{n}(x)\right|=\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \leq \min _{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}} \max _{x \in[-1,1]}\left|x^{n}+a_{1} x^{n-1}+\ldots+a_{n-1} x+a_{n}\right|
$$

It implies that the polynomial $P^{(n)}(x)=x^{n+1}-T_{n+1}(x)$ is the closest to the parabola $f=x^{n+1}$ in the linear space of polynomials of order at most $n^{1)}$. The distance between the parabola $y=x^{n+1}$ and the polynomial $P^{(n)}(x)$ is equal to $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2^{n}}$. At the $n+2$ points $\left\{x_{1}\right\}, x_{i}=\arccos \frac{\pi i}{n+1},(i=0,1,2, \ldots, n+1)$ the difference is $\pm \varepsilon$ and signs are alternating:

$$
x_{i}^{n+1}-P^{(n)}\left(x_{i}\right)=T_{n+1}\left(x_{i}\right)=-\frac{(-1)^{i}}{2^{n}}, \quad(i=0,1, \ldots, n+1)
$$

In this special case the nodes of Chebyshev polynomials are equidistant. The Theorem tells that the property of changing the signs is kept in the general case. This statement is important for practical calculations of approximation.

What about a proof of this Theorem? First of all formulate the following Corollary from Helly's Theorem:

1) In formulation of Theorem $1^{*}$ we deal with $n+1$-dimensional linear space polynomials of order at most $n$. Regarding the basic property of Chebyshev polynomials we deal with $n$ dimensional affine space of $n$-th order polynomials with leading term $x^{n}$. E.g. polynomial $T_{4}(x)-x^{4}$ belongs to the 4-dimensional linear space of polynomials of order at most 3 , in spite of the fact that its leading term is proportional to $x^{2}$.

Corollary Let $\mathcal{M}$ be the set of parallel segments such that this set belongs to bounded domain in $\mathbf{R}^{2}$. Suppose that for an arbitrary three segments there exists a line which intersects these segments. Then there exists a line which intersects all the segments.

Respectively if for arbitrary $k+2$ segments there exists $k$-th order polynomial which intersects these segments, then there exists $k$-th order polynomial which intersects all the segments.

We first sketch the proof of Theorem based on this Corollary then prove the Corollary.
We will prove the Theorem for lines, i.e. for approximation by polynomials of the order $n=1$. The idea of proof is the same for an arbitrary $n$.

Proof
Let $L_{f}: y=k x+b$ be a closest line to the function $f$. Let a distance be equal to $\varepsilon$ :

$$
\max _{x \in[a, b]}|f(x)-k x-b|=\varepsilon, \quad \forall k^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, \quad \max _{x \in[a, b]}\left|f(x)-k^{\prime} x-b^{\prime}\right| \geq \varepsilon
$$

Pick an arbitrary $\varepsilon^{\prime}: 0<\varepsilon^{\prime}<\varepsilon$. Consider the set $\mathcal{M}=\left\{d_{x}\right\}(x \in[a, b])$ of vertical segments centered at the points of graph of the function $f$ with length $2 \varepsilon^{\prime}$, i.e. the segments $d_{x}=\left[a_{x}, b_{x}\right]$ such that points $a_{x}, b_{x}$ have coordinates

$$
a_{x}=\left(x, f(x)-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right), b_{x}=\left(x, f(x)+\varepsilon^{\prime}\right) .
$$

It follows from Corollary of Helly's Theorem that there exist three points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ such that there is no a line which intersects corresponding segments $d_{x_{1}}, d_{x_{2}}, d_{x_{3}}$. Indeed if for arbitrary three points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ there exists a line which intersects corresponding segments $d_{x_{1}}, d_{x_{2}}, d_{x_{3}}$ then due to the Corollary there exists a line $L^{\prime}$ which intersects all the segments $\left\{d_{x}\right\}$, i.e. the distance between line $L^{\prime}$ and a function $f$ is less or equal to $\varepsilon^{\prime}$. This contradicts to the fact the line $L_{f}$ is the closest line.

We come to the following observation:
Observation 1 For every $\varepsilon^{\prime}: 0<\varepsilon^{\prime}<\varepsilon$ there exist three points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3} \in[a, b]$ such that the distance between arbitrary line and the function $f$ at one of these points is greater than $\varepsilon^{\prime}$.

This observation plus continuity arguments implies the following observation:
Observation 2 There exist three points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, a \leq x_{1} \leq x_{2} \leq x_{3} \leq b$ such that the distance between arbitrary line and the function $f$ at one of these points is greater or equal than $\varepsilon$.

Indeed consider the sequence $\left\{\varepsilon_{n}\right\}$ such that $0<\varepsilon_{n}<\varepsilon$ and $\varepsilon_{n} \rightarrow \varepsilon$, e.g. $\varepsilon_{n}=\varepsilon-\frac{1}{n+M}$ (for enough big $M$ ). Choose for every $\varepsilon_{n}$ points $\left\{x_{1}^{(n)}, x_{2}^{(n)}, x_{3}^{(n)}\right\}$ such that for an arbitrary line (including the line $L_{f}$ ) at one of these points the distance between the function $f$ and this line is greater than $\varepsilon_{n}$. Due to compactness of the segment $[a, b]$ we can pick from this sequence the subsequence $\left\{x_{1}^{\left(n_{k}\right)}, x_{2}^{\left(n_{k}\right)}, x_{3}^{\left(n_{k}\right)}\right\}$ such that $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{1}^{\left(n_{k}\right)}=x_{1}$, $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{2}^{\left(n_{k}\right)}=x_{2}, \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{3}^{\left(n_{k}\right)}=x_{3}$. One can see that points $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ are the points such that for an arbitrary line $L$ and for an arbitrary $n$, the distance between function $f$ and the line $L$ at on eof these points is bigger than $\varepsilon_{n}$. Thus we come to the the statement of Observation 2.

Now prove the Theorem using the Observation 2. Using Observation 2 choose the points $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ and show that the relations (1) are obeyed for these points.

Consider the line $L_{f}$ which is closest to the function $f,\left(d\left(f, L_{f}\right)=\varepsilon\right)$. Consider $\Delta_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right)-L_{f}\left(x_{i}\right), i=1,2,3$. We have to show that all $\Delta_{i}$ have the modulus $\varepsilon$ and signes are alternating:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\Delta_{1}\right|=\left|\Delta_{2}\right|=\left|\Delta_{3}\right|=\varepsilon, \quad \Delta_{1} \Delta_{3}>0, \quad \Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}<0 \tag{1a}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e. conditions (1) are obeyed. If these conditions are not obeyed then it is easy to show that one can always find a line $L$ such that its distance to the function $f$ at all points $x_{1}, x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$ is less than $\varepsilon$. This contradicts to Observation 2.

Suppose for example that $\Delta_{1}>0$ and $\Delta_{2}>0$. If $\Delta_{3}>0$ then one can choose $\delta>0$ such that all the distances between function $f$ and the line $L=L_{f}+\varepsilon$ at points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ are less than $\varepsilon$. If $\Delta_{3}<0$ then rotating the line $L_{f}$ around the point $\left(x_{2}, L_{f}\left(x_{2}\right)\right)$ on a smal angle we again come to the line $L^{\prime}$ such that all the distances between function $f$ and the line $L^{\prime}$ at points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ are less than $\varepsilon$. Hence if $\Delta_{1}>0$ then $\Delta_{2}<0$.

By analogous considerations one can easy show that in all the cases when conditions (1),(1a) are not obeyed then one can choose another line $L^{\prime}$ such that the distance between the line $L^{\prime}$ and a function $f$ at all points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ is less than $\varepsilon$. This implies the statement of Theorem.

Finally we prove the Corollary 1.
Let $\mathcal{M}$ be the set of parallel segments. WLOG we may suppose that all the segments are vertical. Consider an arbitrary vertical segment $d$, Denote by $\Pi_{d}$ the set of lines which intersect with the segment $d$. Every line which intersect this segment is non-vertical line, $y=k x+b$. We parameterise all not-vertical lines by pairs $(k, b)$. One can see that the set of the pairs $(k, b)$ which correspond to the set of line $\Pi_{d}$ is the convex set: If segment connects the points $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right),\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+d\right)(d>0)$ then the condition that the line $k x+b$ intersect this segment is:

$$
y_{0} \leq k x_{0}+b \leq y_{0}+d
$$

These conditions define the strip, the convex set in the plane $(k, b)$. Now the Corollary follows from Helly's Theorem.

## Application in approximation theory

In the Theorem 1 we considered a polynomial $P_{f}^{(n)}$ which is the closest polynomial to the continuous function $f(x),(x \in[a, b])$ in the linear space of all the polynomials of the order at most $n$. This polynomial sometimes is called minimax polynomial for the function $f$ in the linear space of all polynomials of order at most $n$. The existence of this polynomial is followed from continuity arguments. The Theorem 1 gives necessary condition that polynomial is minimax polynomial. In fact conditions $\left(1,1^{*}\right)$ not only are necessary but they are sufficient conditions which define the minimax polynomial:

Theorem(Chebychev equi-oscillation Theorem)
Minimax polynomial $P_{f}^{(n)}$ is uniquely defined by the condition that there exist $n+2$ points in which the difference $f(x)-P_{f}^{(n)}(x)$ attains maximum values with alternating signs (condition ( $1^{*}$ ) is obeyed.)

Proof
Suppose that for polynomial $\left(P_{n}(x)\right.$ of order at most $\left.n\right)$ conditions (1*) are obeyed. Show that this polynomial is minimax polynomial. Let $Q(x)$ be a polynomial of order at most $n$ such that

$$
d(f, Q)=\|f-Q\|_{\infty}=\max _{x}|f(x)-Q(x)|<\varepsilon
$$

Then compare polynomials $Q(x)$ and $P(x)$. Since $d(f, Q)<\varepsilon$ and $P_{n}\left(x_{i}\right)-f\left(x_{i}\right)=\varepsilon(-1)^{i}$, then $P\left(x_{i}\right)-Q\left(x_{i}\right) \neq 0$ and signs are alternating at these points. We have $n+2$ points hence polynomial $P(x)-Q(x)$ has at least $n+1$ roots (between these points). On the other hand $P(x)-Q(x)$ is a polynomial of order at most $n$. Hence $P(x) \equiv Q(x)$. Contradiction.

We have proved that $P_{n}(x)$ is a minimax polynomial (in the linear space of polynomials of order at most $N)$. It remains to prove its uniqueness.

Suppose $P_{n}^{\prime}(x)$ is another minimax polynomial. Prove that $P_{n}^{\prime} \equiv P_{n}$. Using triangle inequality it is easy to see that polynomial $\tilde{P}_{n}=\frac{P_{n}+P_{n}^{\prime}}{2}$ is minimax polynomial also. Let $\tilde{x}_{0}, \tilde{x}_{2}, \tilde{x}_{n+1}$ be points where $\tilde{P}_{n}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)-f\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)= \pm(-1)^{i} \varepsilon$. We have

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left|\frac{P_{n}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)+P_{n}^{\prime}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)}{2}-f\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)\right|=\varepsilon \\
\left|P_{n}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)-f\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)\right| \leq \varepsilon \\
\left|P_{n}^{\prime}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)-f\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)\right| \leq \varepsilon
\end{array} \Rightarrow P_{n}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)-f\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)=P_{n}^{\prime}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)-f\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)=|\varepsilon| \Rightarrow P_{n}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)=P_{n}^{\prime}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right) .\right.
$$

Thus these two polynomials coincide since they coincide at $n+2$ points and both are polynomials of order $\leq n$

We can use these Theorems 1 for finding minimax polynomials.
Example Find the line closest to the function $f=\sin x$ on the interval [ $0, \pi / 2$ ]. If $L_{f}: y=k x+b$ is the closest line, and the distance is equal to $\varepsilon$ then

$$
\varepsilon=\left.(k x+b-\sin x)\right|_{x_{1}}=-\left.(k x+b-\sin x)\right|_{x_{2}}=\left.(k x+b-\sin x)\right|_{x_{3}} .
$$

The points $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ are: $x_{1}=0, x_{3}=\frac{\pi}{2}$ and the middle point $x_{2}$ is defined by the stationary point condition. We come to simultaneous equations

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
k x_{1}+b-\sin x_{1}=b=\varepsilon \\
k x_{2}+b-\sin x_{2}=-\varepsilon \\
k-\cos x_{2}=0 \\
k x_{3}+b-\sin x_{3}=k \frac{\pi}{2}+b-1=\varepsilon
\end{array}\right.
$$

Solving this system we come to $k=\frac{2}{\pi}, x_{0}=\arccos \frac{2}{\pi}$ and

$$
\varepsilon=b=\frac{1}{2}\left(\sin \arccos \frac{2}{\pi}-\frac{2}{\pi} \arccos \frac{2}{\pi}\right)=\frac{\sqrt{\pi^{2}-4}-2 \arccos \frac{2}{\pi}}{2 \pi} \approx 0.10526
$$

The line $y=\frac{2}{\pi} x+b$ with $b \approx 0.10526$ is the closest line to the function $f=\sin x$ on the interval $[0, \pi / 2]$. The distance is equal to $\varepsilon \approx 0.10526$.

