# $L^{1}$-Approximation and Finding Solutions with Small Support 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we study an interesting property of $L^{1}$-approximation. For many subspaces $M$, there exist $\alpha^{*}(M)>0$ with the following property: if $f$ vanishes off a set of measure at most $\alpha^{*}(M)$, then the zero function is a best $L^{1}$-approximant to $f$ from $M$. We explain this phenomenon, provide estimates for $\alpha^{*}(M)$ in many cases, and present some open questions.


Keywords $L^{1}$-approximation • Nikolskii-type inequalities • Sparsest solutions • Best approximation - Minimal support

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## 1 Introduction

For many subspaces $M$, there exist $\alpha^{*}(M)>0$ with the following property: if $f$ vanishes off a set of measure at most $\alpha^{*}(M)$, then the zero function is a best

[^0]$L^{1}$-approximant to $f$ from $M$. This relationship, between functions with small support and those whose best $L^{1}$-approximant from a given subspace is always the zero function, was first noted in the study of sparse representations (compressed sensing) in the $\ell_{1}^{m}$ setting. It is a relationship that is very $L^{1}$-norm dependent.

In Sect. 2, we explain the fundamentals of this relationship, starting with the characterization of best approximation from a linear subspace in the $L^{1}$-norm. We are then led to the definition of $\alpha^{*}(M)$, and discuss various basic properties thereof. In Sect. 3, we consider theoretical upper and lower bounds on $\alpha^{*}(M)$. Section 4 contains 18 specific examples of subspaces (or subsets), with lower bounds and sometimes upper bounds on the associated $\alpha^{*}(M)$. Finally, in Sect. 5, we examine three families of examples. The common feature of these examples is that $M$ will have the property that all $m \in M$ with a fixed $L^{1}$-norm have the same distribution. This implies that we can explicitly calculate or characterize $\alpha^{*}(M)$.

## $2 L^{1}$-Approximation and $\alpha^{*}(M)$

We start with some general results concerning $L^{1}$-approximation.
Let $B$ be a set, $\Sigma$ a $\sigma$-field of subsets of $B$, and $\nu$ a positive measure defined on $\Sigma$. Let $L^{1}(B, v)$ denote the usual space of real-valued functions with norm

$$
\|f\|_{1}:=\int_{B}|f(x)| d \nu(x) .
$$

For $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$, we define its zero set

$$
Z(f):=\{x: f(x)=0\}
$$

and its complement $N(f):=B \backslash Z(f)$. Note that $Z(f)$ and $N(f)$ are $v$-measurable. In addition, for $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$, we set

$$
\operatorname{sgn}(f(x)):= \begin{cases}1, & f(x)>0 \\ 0, & f(x)=0 \\ -1, & f(x)<0\end{cases}
$$

The following is the well-known elementary characterization of best approximation from linear subspaces in $L^{1}(B, v)$. This result goes back to James [13] and Kripke, Rivlin [16], see also Pinkus [30, Theorem 2.1].

Theorem 1 Let $M$ be a linear subspace of $L^{1}(B, \nu)$ and $f \in L^{1}(B, \nu) \backslash \bar{M}$. Then $m^{*}$ is a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant to $f$ from $M$ if and only if

$$
\left|\int_{B} m \operatorname{sgn}\left(f-m^{*}\right) d \nu\right| \leq \int_{Z\left(f-m^{*}\right)}|m| d \nu
$$

for all $m \in M$. In addition, if strict inequality holds for all $m \in M, m \neq 0$, then $m^{*}$ is the unique best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant to $f$ from $M$.

Thus, we see that the identically zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant to $f$ from the linear subspace $M$ if and only if

$$
\left|\int_{B} m \operatorname{sgn}(f) d v\right| \leq \int_{Z(f)}|m| d v
$$

for all $m \in M$, or equivalently,

$$
\left|\int_{N(f)} m \operatorname{sgn}(f) d v\right| \leq \int_{Z(f)}|m| d v
$$

for all $m \in M$. In fact, the subspace property of $M$ is not necessary. We have:
Proposition 2 Let $M$ be a homogeneous subset; i.e., $m \in M$ implies $c m \in M$ for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, \nu)$-approximant to $f$ from $M$ if and only if

$$
\left|\int_{N(f)} m \operatorname{sgn}(f) d v\right| \leq \int_{Z(f)}|m| d v
$$

for all $m \in M$.
This is a simple consequence of the fact that the above is equivalent to the zero function being a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant to $f$ from each 1-dimensional subspace $\operatorname{span}\{m\}$, with $m \in M$.

From Proposition 2, we easily obtain:
Proposition 3 Let $M$ be a homogeneous subset of $L^{1}(B, v)$. Let $Z$ be any $\nu$-measurable subset of $B$, and $N=B \backslash Z$. Then the zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, \nu)$ approximant from $M$ to every $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$ that vanishes on $Z$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{N}|m| d v \leq \int_{Z}|m| d v \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $m \in M$.
Indeed, given $m \in M$, (1) follows from Proposition 2 by taking any $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$ with $Z(f)=Z$ and $\operatorname{sgn}(f)=\operatorname{sgn}(m)$ on $N$. Equation (1) is a sufficient but not necessary condition implying that the zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to a particular $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$.

Based on Proposition 3, it is natural to ask how large $N$ might be for a given linear subspace $M$ of $L^{1}(B, v)$. In Pinchasi, Pinkus [29], it is shown that if $M$ is any finitedimensional linear subspace of $L^{1}[0,1]$ consisting of continuous functions, then for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists a subset $N \subset[0,1]$ of Lebesgue measure at least $1 / 2-\varepsilon$ such that (1) holds. (Note that if $M$ contains the constant function, then $N$ cannot have measure larger than $1 / 2$.) And, if $n$ is fixed, and $M$ is an $n$-dimensional linear subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ (with the usual $\ell_{1}^{m}$-norm), then there exists a subset $N \subset\{1, \ldots, m\}$ of cardinality $(1 / 2-o(1)) m$ such that (1) holds.

When is the zero function a best $L^{1}(B, \nu)$-approximant from $M$ to every $f \in$ $L^{1}(B, v)$ that does not vanish on a set of measure at most $\alpha>0$ ? It follows from Proposition 3 that we have:

Corollary 4 Fix $\alpha>0$, and let $M$ be a homogeneous subset of $L^{1}(B, \nu)$. Then the zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to every $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$ with $\nu(N(f)) \leq \alpha$ if and only if

$$
\int_{N}|m| d \nu \leq \int_{Z}|m| d v
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
2 \int_{N}|m| d v \leq\|m\|_{1}
$$

for all $m \in M$ and all $N$ such that $\nu(N) \leq \alpha$. Thus, the zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to every $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$ that does not vanish on a set of measure at most $\alpha>0$ if and only if

$$
\sup _{m \in M\{N: v(N) \leq \alpha\}} \sup \frac{\int_{N}|m| d v}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{2} .
$$

The quantity

$$
\|f\|_{\alpha}:=\sup _{\{N: v(N) \leq \alpha\}} \int_{N}|f| d v
$$

for $\alpha>0$ is a norm (provided there are no atoms of measure strictly larger that $\alpha$, otherwise it is a seminorm). We can thus restate Corollary 4 as:

Corollary 5 Fix $\alpha>0$, and let $M$ be a homogeneous subset of $L^{1}(B, \nu)$. Then the zero function is a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to every $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$ with $\nu(N(f)) \leq \alpha$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{\alpha}:=\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{2} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, if strict inequality holds in (2), then the zero function is the unique best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to every such $f$.

Equivalently, (2) holds if and only if for every set of measure at most $\alpha>0$ and every $f$ that is zero off this set, there exists a continuous linear functional that attains its norm on $f$ and annihilates $M$.

When $R_{\alpha}$ is strictly less than $1 / 2$, we actually have strong uniqueness, see Pinkus [30, p. 18] or Kroó, Pinkus [18].

Proposition 6 Let $M$ be a homogeneous subset, and assume that for a given $\alpha>0$ we have

$$
\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}}=R_{\alpha}<\frac{1}{2} .
$$

If $v(N(f)) \leq \alpha$, then the zero function is the unique best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to $f$, and

$$
\|f-m\|_{1}-\|f\|_{1} \geq\left(1-2 R_{\alpha}\right)\|m\|_{1}
$$

for all $m \in M$.
The characterization of best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximants was used to explicate and motivate Corollary 5. In fact, the previous two results can be both generalized and easily proven directly, as follows.

Let $G$ be any real-valued function on $M$ such that $G(0)=0$ and $\|m\|_{1}+G(m)>0$ for all $m \in M, m \neq 0$. Consider the problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\inf _{m \in M}\left\{\|f-m\|_{1}+G(m)\right\} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 7 Fix $\alpha>0$, and let $M$ be a homogeneous subset of $L^{1}(B, v)$. Then

$$
\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}+G(m)} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

if and only if the zero function is a solution of (3) for each $f$ with $\nu(N(f)) \leq \alpha$.

Proof Assume

$$
\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}+G(m)} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

Then $\nu(N) \leq \alpha$ implies

$$
2 \int_{N}|m| \leq\|m\|_{1}+G(m)
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\int_{N}|m| \leq \int_{N^{c}}|m|+G(m) .
$$

For $f$ that vanishes off $N$, and any $m \in M$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|f\|_{1}+G(0) & =\|f\|_{1}=\int_{N}|f| \leq \int_{N}|f-m|+\int_{N}|m| \\
& \leq \int_{N}|f-m|+\int_{N^{c}}|m|+G(m)=\|f-m\|_{1}+G(m) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $m=0$ is a solution to (3).
Now, assume $m=0$ is a solution to (3) for every $f$ that vanishes off a set of measure at most $\alpha$. Fix any $m^{*} \in M, m^{*} \neq 0$, and $N$ with $v(N) \leq \alpha$. Let $f=m^{*}$ on $N$ and vanish off $N$. Since $m=0$ is a solution to (3), it follows that

$$
\|f\|_{1}=\|f-0\|_{1}+G(0) \leq\left\|f-m^{*}\right\|_{1}+G\left(m^{*}\right) ;
$$

i.e.,

$$
\int_{N}\left|m^{*}\right| \leq \int_{N^{c}}\left|m^{*}\right|+G\left(m^{*}\right)
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
2 \int_{N}\left|m^{*}\right| \leq\left\|m^{*}\right\|_{1}+G\left(m^{*}\right)
$$

implying

$$
\frac{\int_{N}\left|m^{*}\right|}{\left\|m^{*}\right\|_{1}+G\left(m^{*}\right)} \leq \frac{1}{2} .
$$

As this is valid for every set $N$ of measure at most $\alpha$, we have

$$
\frac{\left\|m^{*}\right\|_{\alpha}}{\left\|m^{*}\right\|_{1}+G\left(m^{*}\right)} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

for every $m^{*} \in M$.
Consider, for example, $G(m)=\lambda\|m\|_{1}$, where $\lambda>-1$ (needed so that $\|m\|_{1}+$ $G(m)>0$ for $m \in M, m \neq 0$ ). For $-1<\lambda<0$, we are looking at strong uniqueness; i.e., this is just a repeat of Proposition 6. The case $\lambda \geq 1$ is valueless, since

$$
\|f\|_{1} \leq\|f-m\|_{1}+\|m\|_{1} \leq\|f-m\|_{1}+\lambda\|m\|_{1}
$$

for every $m \in M$, and thus $m=0$ always attains the above infimum. For $0<\lambda<1$, this result is of some interest. It shows us how, with the regularization term $\lambda\|m\|_{1}$, the associated $\alpha$ for which (3) holds grows with $\lambda$.

Of interest, given $M$, is to try to determine the largest $\alpha$ (if such exists) for which (2) holds. The main subject of this paper will be the study of the parameter

$$
\alpha^{*}(M)=\sup \left\{\alpha: \sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\} .
$$

It follows that if $\alpha<\alpha^{*}(M)$, and $f \in L^{1}(B, \nu)$ vanishes off a set of measure $\alpha$, then the zero function is the best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to $f$. Conversely, given any $\alpha>\alpha^{*}(M)$, there exists an $f \in L^{1}(B, \nu)$, vanishing off a set of measure $\alpha$, for which the zero function is not a best $L^{1}(B, v)$-approximant from $M$ to $f$.

If $v$ is a nonatomic measure (or a purely atomic measure with a finite number of atoms), then the above exterior supremum is a maximum. Easy examples show that this is not necessarily true in general.

We start the study of $\alpha^{*}(M)$ with a basic result. Recall that a subset $K \subset L^{1}(B, v)$ is uniformly integrable if for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists a $\delta>0$ such that $\int_{A}|f| d \nu<\varepsilon$ for every $f \in K$ and every set $A \subseteq B$ satisfying $v(A)<\delta$.

In the examples of this paper, we consider only nonatomic measures. As such, and in order to avoid unnecessary explanation, we shall assume in what follows that $v$ is a nonatomic measure. However, these next results, with correct interpretation, also hold without this assumption.

Theorem 8 Let $M$ be a closed linear subspace of $L^{1}(B, \nu)$, and consider the following conditions:
(i) $M$ is reflexive,
(ii) $M$ does not contain a subspace isomorphic to $\ell_{1}$,
(iii) the unit ball $B(M)=\left\{m:\|m\|_{1} \leq 1\right\}$ of $M$ is uniformly integrable,
(iv) $\alpha^{*}(M)>0$.

Then (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv). When $v$ is finite, all four conditions are equivalent.
Remark It follows that if $M \subset L^{1}(B, v)$ is a finite-dimensional subspace, then $\alpha^{*}(M)>0$, since every finite-dimensional space is reflexive. Note also that if $M$ is a subspace of finite codimension, then $\alpha^{*}(M)=0$, since the unit ball of a subspace $M$ of finite codimension contains functions of arbitrarily small support.

Before proving Theorem 8, we need some preliminary results.
Lemma 9 Let $K$ be a weakly closed set in $L^{1}(B, v)$. Then $K$ is weakly compact if and only if it is uniformly integrable and there are sets $B_{n}$ with finite measure for which $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{B \backslash B_{n}} f d \nu=0$ uniformly for $f \in K$.

Proof See Dunford, Schwartz [7, Corollary IV.8.11] for the proof when $v$ is finite (and the uniformity condition is then clearly redundant). For the general case, see Dunford, Schwartz [7, Exercise IV.13.54].

The following lemma and theorem are due to Kadec, Pelczynski [15] (the indicator function of a set $A$ is denoted by $\chi_{A}$ ).

Lemma 10 Let $v$ be a finite measure, and let $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ be a bounded nonuniformly integrable sequence in $L^{1}(B, v)$. Then, there are a $\tau>0$, a subsequence $\left\{f_{n_{k}}\right\}$, and disjoint sets $A_{k}$ such that $\lim \int_{A_{k}}\left|f_{n_{k}}\right| d \nu=\tau$ and such that the sequence $h_{n_{k}}=\chi_{A_{k}^{c}} f_{n_{k}}$ is weakly convergent.

Theorem $11 A$ close subspace of $L^{1}(B, v)$ is reflexive if and only if it does not contain a subspace isomorphic to $l_{1}$.

Proof of Theorem 8 The equivalence of (i) and (ii) is Theorem 11. Since the unit ball of a reflexive space is weakly compact, Lemma 9 shows that (i) implies (iii) and that they are equivalent when $v$ is finite.

That (iii) implies (iv) is immediate (and does not depend on the finiteness of $\nu$ ). Just choose any $\delta>0$ for which $\nu(A)<\delta,\|m\| \leq 1$, and $m \in M$ imply that $\int_{A}|m| d \nu<1 / 2$, and it follows that $\alpha^{*}(M) \geq \delta$.

Finally, to prove that (iv) implies (ii) when $v$ is finite, assume that $B(M)$ contains a sequence $\left\{m_{n}\right\}$ that is not uniformly integrable. We shall show that $\alpha^{*}(M)=0$. By Lemma 10, there are a subsequence (which we assume, to simplify notation, is the original sequence), $\tau>0$, and disjoint sets $A_{j}$ such that $\int_{A_{j}}\left|m_{j}\right| d \nu \rightarrow \tau$ and such that $h_{j}=\chi_{A_{j}^{c}} m_{j}$ is weakly convergent. Then $h_{2 j+1}-h_{j n}$ converges weakly to 0 , and it follows that there are convex combinations $\phi_{n}$ of $\left(h_{2 j+1}-h_{2 j}\right) / 2$ that converge in norm to zero; i.e., there are disjoint sets $J_{n}$ of indices and coefficients $\lambda_{j}^{n}$, for $j \in J_{n}$, with $\sum_{j \in J_{n}}\left|\lambda_{j}^{n}\right|=1$ such that the $\phi_{n}=\sum_{j \in J_{n}} \lambda_{j}^{n} h_{j}$ satisfy $\left\|\phi_{n}\right\| \rightarrow 0$. Note that since the summands of $\psi_{n}=\sum_{j \in J_{n}} \lambda_{j}^{n}\left(m_{j}-h_{j}\right)$ are supported in the disjoint sets $A_{j}$, for $j \in J_{n}$, it follows that the $B_{n}=\bigcup_{j \in J_{n}} A_{j}$ are disjoint, and that $\left\|\psi_{n}\right\|=$ $\int_{B_{n}}\left|\psi_{n}\right| d \nu \rightarrow \tau$.

Now fix $\varepsilon<\tau / 6$, and choose $n$ sufficiently large so that $\tau-\varepsilon<\left\|\psi_{n}\right\|<\tau+\varepsilon$, $\left\|\phi_{n}\right\|<\varepsilon$ and $\nu\left(B_{n}\right)<\varepsilon$. Then the function $F_{n}=\sum_{j \in J_{n}} \lambda_{j}^{n} m_{j}=\psi_{n}+\phi_{n} \in M$ satisfies $\left\|F_{n}\right\| \leq\left\|\psi_{n}\right\|+\left\|\phi_{n}\right\|<\beta+2 \varepsilon<2(\tau-2 \varepsilon)$ by our choice of $\varepsilon$. Thus,

$$
\int_{B_{n}}\left|F_{n}\right| d v \geq \int_{B_{n}}\left|\psi_{n}\right| d v-\int_{B_{n}}\left|\phi_{n}\right| d v \geq \int_{B_{n}}\left|\psi_{n}\right| d \nu-\left\|\phi_{n}\right\|>\tau-2 \varepsilon>\frac{1}{2}\left\|F_{n}\right\|,
$$

and $\nu\left(B_{n}\right)<\varepsilon$, which implies that $\alpha^{*}(M)<\varepsilon$. As $\varepsilon$ was arbitrarily chosen, it follows that $\alpha^{*}(M)=0$.

Remark The following examples show that (iii) or (iv) do not imply (ii) when $v$ is infinite. Let $M$ be the subspace of $L^{1}(\mathbb{R})$ spanned by the functions $\chi_{[n, n+1]}$. Then $M$ is isometric to $l_{1}$, yet $B(M)$ is uniformly integrable and $\alpha^{*}(M)=1 / 2$. To obtain an example of a space isometric to $l_{1}$ with $\alpha^{*}(M)>0$ and a nonuniformly integrable unit ball, fix a sequence $\delta_{n} \rightarrow 0$ and take the span of $f_{n}=\delta_{n}^{-1} \chi_{\left[n, n+\delta_{n}\right]}+\chi_{\left[n+\delta_{n}, n+1\right]}$.

What is the connection between this theoretical $L^{1}$-approximation problem and the subject of sparse representations (compressed sampling)? Consider the following model. Let $V$ be a linear space, and let $L: L^{1}(B, v) \rightarrow V$ be a linear operator with kernel $M$; i.e., $L m=0$ for all $m \in M$. Assume that $L f=v$ and $f$ vanishes off a set of measure smaller than $\alpha^{*}(M)$. Then

$$
\inf _{\{h: L h=v\}}\|h\|_{1}=\inf _{m \in M}\|f-m\|_{1}=\|f\|_{1},
$$

and $f$ uniquely attains this infimum. Thus, there cannot exist two distinct solutions to $L h=v$ that vanish off sets of measure smaller than $\alpha^{*}(M)$. In other words, if among the solutions $h$ of $L h=v$ there exists a solution that vanishes off a set of measure at most $\alpha$ for some $\alpha<\alpha^{*}(M)$, then it is the unique such solution, and it is obtained by solving the problem

$$
\inf _{\{h: L h=v\}}\|h\|_{1}
$$

The theory of sparse representations deals with exactly this problem in the discrete setting, i.e., when $L$ is an $n \times m$ matrix. The interested reader may consult Elad [8], and the references therein.

Remark We consider in this paper real-valued functions and spaces. Many of these results are also valid in the complex-valued setting.

## 3 Lower and Upper Bounds for $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{*}(M)$

In this section, we consider theoretical lower and upper bounds on $\alpha^{*}(M)$. Unfortunately, there do not seem to be many of either.

There is clearly no strictly positive lower bound on $\alpha^{*}(M)$ valid even for all 1-dimensional $M$. Indeed, if $M=\operatorname{span}\{m\}$ and $v(N(m))<2 \varepsilon$, then necessarily $\alpha^{*}(M)<\varepsilon$. However, for many classic examples, lower bounds do exist. The following elementary result will prove surprisingly useful.

Proposition 12 Assume that $M \subseteq L^{p}(B, v)$ for some $p \in(1, \infty]$. Define

$$
A_{p}:=\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{p}}{\|m\|_{1}}
$$

and assume that $A_{p}<\infty$. Then

$$
\alpha^{*}(M) \geq \frac{1}{\left(2 A_{p}\right)^{p^{\prime}}},
$$

where, as usual, $1 / p+1 / p^{\prime}=1$.

Proof Hölder's inequality gives, for each $\alpha>0$,

$$
\|m\|_{\alpha} \leq \alpha^{1 / p^{\prime}}\|m\|_{p}
$$

Thus,

$$
\frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{\alpha^{1 / p^{\prime}}\|m\|_{p}}{\|m\|_{1}}
$$

and

$$
\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \sup _{m \in M} \frac{\alpha^{1 / p^{\prime}}\|m\|_{p}}{\|m\|_{1}}=\alpha^{1 / p^{\prime}} A_{p}
$$

Hence,

$$
\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{2},
$$

whenever $\alpha^{1 / p^{\prime}} A_{p} \leq 1 / 2$, implying that

$$
\alpha^{*}(M) \geq \frac{1}{\left(2 A_{p}\right)^{p^{\prime}}} .
$$

Nikolskii-type inequalities are inequalities of the form

$$
\|m\|_{p} \leq C_{p, q}\|m\|_{q}
$$

for a given class of functions, where $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{q}$ are the usual $L^{p}$ and $L^{q}$ norms, respectively, see, e.g., Nikolskii [27]; Szegő, Zygmund [32]; Timan [34]; and Milovanović, Mitrinović, Rassias [23]. Note that $A_{p}=C_{p, 1}$ for the class of functions $M$. Thus, Nikolskii-type inequalities have immediate consequences for our problem. Numerous Nikolskii-type inequalities may be found in the literature. We list some of these inequalities and their consequences in Sect. 4.

Lower bounds on $\alpha^{*}(M)$ can also be obtained, under suitable conditions on the subspace $M$ and/or the domain $B$, via other inequalities. Two such conditions (both stronger than Nikolskii-type inequalities) are Bernstein-Markov inequalities (see Proposition 13(ii)) and Remez inequalities (see Proposition 14).

Let $B$ be a compact metric space, and recall that a subset $A \subset C(B)$ is said to be equicontinuous if there is a continuous function $\omega(\varepsilon)>0$, defined for $0<\varepsilon \leq$ $\operatorname{diam}(B)$, with $\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^{+}} \omega(\varepsilon)=0$ so that $d(x, y)<\varepsilon$ implies $|f(x)-f(y)|<\omega(\varepsilon)$ for all $f \in A$. Such a function $\omega(\varepsilon)$ is called a modulus of continuity for $A$.

Let $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be convex and compact with nonempty interior, and let $v$ be the Lebesgue measure on $B$. If $M$ is a linear subspace of $C(B)$ consisting of functions differentiable in the interior of $B$, then the Bernstein-Markov Factor of $M$ is

$$
b(M):=\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\left\|m^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}}{\|m\|_{\infty}} .
$$

(Here $m^{\prime}$ stands for the gradient of $m$, and $\left\|m^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty}$ is the sup of the $\ell_{2}^{d}$-norm of $m^{\prime}$.)
Proposition 13 Let $M$ be a subspace of $C(B)$ of dimension $>1$. Let $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be convex and compact with nonempty interior, and let v be the Lebesgue measure on $B$.
(i) Assume that the unit ball of $M$, under the uniform norm, is equicontinuous with modulus of continuity $\omega(\varepsilon)$. Then there is a constant $C>0$, depending only upon $B$, so that

$$
\alpha^{*}(M) \geq C \max _{t \in(0,1]}(1-t)\left(\omega^{-1}(t)\right)^{d} \geq \frac{C}{2}\left(\omega^{-1}(1 / 2)\right)^{d} .
$$

(ii) Assume, in addition, that the functions in $M$ are differentiable in the interior of $B$. Then there is a constant $C>0$, depending only upon $B$, such that

$$
\alpha^{*}(M) \geq \frac{C}{b(M)^{d}} .
$$

Proof We shall use the simple geometric observation that there is a constant $c>0$, depending only upon $B$, so that for any ball $B(y, \varepsilon)$ centered at some point $y \in B$ and of radius $0<\varepsilon \leq \operatorname{diam}(B)$, we have

$$
v(B(y, \varepsilon) \cap B) \geq c \varepsilon^{d} .
$$

(i) We shall show that

$$
A_{\infty}=\sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\infty}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{c(1-t)\left(\omega^{-1}(t)\right)^{d}}
$$

for every $t \in(0,1]$. The result then follows from Proposition 12 , with $C=c / 2$. Since $\operatorname{dim} M>1$, there exists a $\tilde{m} \in M$ with $\|\tilde{m}\|_{\infty}=1$ which vanishes at some point in $B$. Thus, the range of $\omega$ includes $(0,1]$ and therefore the value $t$. Let $m \in M$ satisfy $\|m\|_{\infty}=1$, and let $y \in B$ be such that $|m(y)|=1$. Taking $\varepsilon=\omega^{-1}(t)$, we obtain that $|m(z)| \geq 1-t$ whenever $z \in B(y, \varepsilon) \cap B$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|m\|_{1} & \geq \int_{B(y, \varepsilon) \cap B}|m| d \nu \geq(1-t) \nu(B(y, \varepsilon) \cap B) \geq(1-t) c \varepsilon^{d} \\
& =c(1-t)\left(\omega^{-1}(t)\right)^{d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) By the Mean Value theorem every $m \in M$ with $\|m\|_{\infty}=1$ satisfies

$$
|m(x)-m(y)| \leq\|y-x\|\left\|m^{\prime}\right\|_{\infty} \leq b(M)\|y-x\| .
$$

It follows that $M$ satisfies the conditions of (i) with $\omega(\varepsilon) \leq b(M) \varepsilon$ for $0<\varepsilon \leq$ $\operatorname{diam}(B)$, and $\omega^{-1}(1 / 2) \geq \frac{1}{2 b(M)}$.

Remark (i) The convexity of $B$ was used twice in the proof of Proposition 13. It was used to obtain the lower estimate on the measure of balls centered in $B$, and used in the application of the Mean Value theorem in part (ii). These properties can also be ensured by suitable geometric conditions for more general subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ and for more general compact metric spaces. For example, the Mean Value theorem can be similarly applied for subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ for which there is a constant $C>0$ so that any two points $x, y \in B$ can be connected by a differentiable curve whose length is bounded by $C\|x-y\|$.
(ii) The estimates in Proposition 13 may fail when $\operatorname{dim} M=1$ because $m$ need not vanish on $B$. An extreme example of this is when $M$ consists of the constant functions.

Let $B$ be a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, and $v$ the Lebesgue measure on $B$. The Remez Factor of a subspace $M$ of $C(B)$ is given by:

$$
r_{B}(M ; \delta):=\sup \left\{\frac{\|m\|_{C(B)}}{\|m\|_{C\left(B_{\delta}\right)}}: m \in M, B_{\delta} \subseteq B, v\left(B_{\delta}\right) \geq(1-\delta) v(B)\right\} .
$$

Inequalities for Remez factors imply Nikolski-type inequalities. We prove the following result.

Proposition 14 Let $M$ be a linear subspace of $C(B)$, with $B$, $v$, and $r_{B}(M ; \delta)$ as above. Then

$$
\alpha^{*}(M) \geq \sup _{\{\delta: 0<\delta<1\}} \frac{\delta \nu(B)}{2 r_{B}(M ; \delta)} .
$$

Proof Let $m \in M$ be such that $\|m\|_{1}=1$, and fix $\delta \in(0,1)$. Set $Q(m ; \delta)=$ $\{x:|m(x)| \geq 1 /(\delta v(B))\}$. Then

$$
1=\|m\|_{1}=\int_{B}|m(x)| d \nu(x) \geq \int_{Q(m ; \delta)}|m(x)| d \nu(x) \geq \frac{\nu(Q(m ; \delta))}{\delta \nu(B)} ;
$$

hence,

$$
\nu(B \backslash Q(m ; \delta))=\nu(B)-v(Q(m ; \delta)) \geq(1-\delta) \nu(B) .
$$

As $\|m\|_{C(B \backslash Q(m ; \delta))} \leq 1 /(\delta \nu(B))$, the definition of $r_{B}(M ; \delta)$ gives

$$
\|m\|_{C(B)} \leq r_{B}(M ; \delta)\|m\|_{C(B \backslash Q(m ; \delta))} \leq \frac{r_{B}(M ; \delta)}{\delta \nu(B)},
$$

which implies (the Nikolskii-type inequality)

$$
A_{\infty} \leq \frac{r_{B}(M ; \delta)}{\delta v(B)} .
$$

Remark Assume that $v(B)$ is finite and, to simplify notation, that $v(B)=1$. Analogous to the Remez factor with respect to the $C(B)$ norm, one can also define the Remez factor with respect to the $L^{1}$ norm by

$$
r_{B}^{1}(M ; \delta):=\sup \left\{\frac{\|m\|_{L^{1}(B)}}{\|m\|_{L^{1}\left(B_{\delta}\right)}}: m \in M, B_{\delta} \subseteq B, v\left(B_{\delta}\right) \geq 1-\delta\right\} .
$$

The $L^{1}$ Remez factor is closely related to the modulus of uniform integrability of the unit ball of $M$. Passing to complements, we can rewrite $r_{B}^{1}(M ; \delta)$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sup \left\{\frac{\|m\|_{L^{1}(B)}}{\|m\|_{L^{1}\left(N^{c}\right)}}: m \in M, N \subset B, \nu(N) \leq \delta\right\} \\
& \quad=1+\sup \left\{\frac{\|m\|_{L^{1}(N)}}{\|m\|_{L^{1}\left(N^{c}\right)}}: m \in M, N \subset B, \nu(N) \leq \delta\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $N^{c}$ is the complement to $N$ in $B$. Rewriting

$$
\alpha^{*}(M)=\sup \left\{\alpha: \sup _{m \in M} \frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{2}\right\}
$$

as the largest $\alpha$ for which

$$
\sup \left\{\frac{\|m\|_{L^{1}(N)}}{\|m\|_{L^{1}\left(N^{c}\right)}}: m \in M, N \subseteq B, \nu(N) \leq \alpha\right\} \leq 1,
$$

it follows that $\alpha^{*}(M)$ is the largest $\alpha>0$ for which

$$
r_{B}^{1}(M ; \alpha) \leq 2 .
$$

Unfortunately, we have found no Remez factors with respect to the $L^{1}$ norm that have proved relevant here.

We now consider upper bounds on $\alpha^{*}(M)$. If the $M_{n}$ are a nested sequence of $n$-dimensional subspaces that are fundamental, i.e., for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \min _{m \in M_{n}}\|f-m\|_{1}=0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $f \in L^{1}(B, v)$, then necessarily $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)=0$. Indeed, $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)$ is a nonincreasing function of $n$, and if $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right) \geq c>0$ for all $n$, then (4) cannot hold for any $f$ with $v(N(f))<c$. The converse need not hold, as may be easily verified.

Certain basic properties associated with good approximating subspaces imply small upper bounds on $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)$.

We recall that an $n$-dimensional subspace $M_{n}$ of $C[a, b]$ is said to be a weak Tchebycheff (WT)-system on $[a, b]$ if every $m \in M_{n}$ has at most $n-1$ sign changes on $[a, b]$. That is, there does not exist an $m \in M_{n}$ and points $a \leq x_{1}<\cdots<x_{n+1} \leq b$ for which $m\left(x_{i}\right) m\left(x_{i+1}\right)<0, i=1, \ldots, n$.

Proposition 15 Let v be a finite nonatomic positive measure on $[a, b]$ and $M_{n}$ an $n$-dimensional weak Tchebycheff (WT)-system on $[a, b]$. Then

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right) \leq \frac{v([a, b])}{n+1} .
$$

Proof By the Hobby-Rice theorem, see, e.g., Pinkus [30, p. 208], there exist $n$ points $a=x_{0}<x_{1}<\cdots<x_{n}<x_{n+1}=b$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \int_{x_{i}}^{x_{i+1}} m(x) d \nu(x)=0 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $m \in M_{n}$.
Fix $j$ so that

$$
v\left(\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}\right]\right) \leq \frac{v([a, b])}{n+1} .
$$

By Zielke [36, Lemma 4.1], there is an $m \in M_{n}, m \neq 0$, that weakly changes sign at all the $x_{i}$ in $(a, b)$ except for $x_{j}$ and $x_{j+1}$. That is, $(-1)^{i} \operatorname{sgn} m(x) \geq 0$ for $x \in$ $\left[x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right], i \neq j$, while $(-1)^{j} \operatorname{sgn} m(x) \leq 0$ for $x \in\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}\right]$. From (5) it therefore follows that

$$
\int_{x_{j}}^{x_{j+1}}|m(x)| d \nu(x)=\int_{\left[a, b \backslash \backslash\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}\right]\right.}|m(x)| d \nu(x) .
$$

As $m$ cannot vanish identically on either $\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}\right]$ or $[a, b] \backslash\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}\right]$, we have

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right) \leq v\left(\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}\right]\right) \leq \frac{v([a, b])}{n+1} .
$$

From the above proof we have the more exact:
Corollary 16 Let $v$ be a finite nonatomic positive measure on $[a, b]$, and let $M_{n}$ be an $n$-dimensional weak Tchebycheff (WT)-system on $[a, b]$. Let $a=x_{0}<x_{1}<\cdots<$ $x_{n}<x_{n+1}=b$ be the associated Hobby-Rice points. Then

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right) \leq \min _{0 \leq i \leq n} v\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right]\right) .
$$

We will use both Proposition 15 and Corollary 16 in the next section.

## 4 Examples

In this and the next section we provide estimates on $\alpha^{*}(M)$ for various specific $M$.

### 4.1 Trigonometric Polynomials, Functions of Exponential Type and More

Example 1 Let $B=(-\pi, \pi]$, and set

$$
\|f\|_{p}=\left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}|f(x)|^{p} d x\right)^{1 / p}
$$

for $p \in[1, \infty)$ with the usual definition of $\|f\|_{\infty}$. Let $\mathcal{T}_{n}$ denote the space of trigonometric polynomials of degree $n$. From Ibragimov [12]; Timan [34, p. 229]; see also DeVore, Lorentz [5, p. 102]; and Milovanović, Mitrinović, Rassias [23, p. 497]; we have the Nikolskii-type inequalities

$$
\|T\|_{p} \leq\left(\frac{2 n r+1}{2 \pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{p}}\|T\|_{q}
$$

for every $T \in \mathcal{T}_{n}$, where $r$ is the least integer $\geq q / 2$. (The correct asymptotics with a worse constant may be found in Nikolskii [27], and in Jackson [14] for $p=\infty$ and $q=1$.) Taking $p=\infty$ and $q=1$ gives

$$
\|T\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\frac{2 n+1}{2 \pi}\right)\|T\|_{1} .
$$

In fact, a better bound was obtained by Taikov [33]; namely,

$$
\|T\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\frac{c_{n} n}{2 \pi}\right)\|T\|_{1}
$$

where $c_{n} \in(1.078,1.16)+o(1)$. Bounds on $c_{n}$ have been improved upon, see Gorbachev [10] and references therein. Thus, $A_{\infty} \leq\left(c_{n} n\right) /(2 \pi)$, implying, by Proposition 12, the lower bound

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}\right) \geq \frac{\pi}{c_{n} n}
$$

It is known (and may be easily verified) that the $2 n+2$ equally spaced points on $[-\pi, \pi]$ satisfy the Hobby-Rice theorem for $\mathcal{T}_{n}$. As $\mathcal{T}_{n}$ is of dimension $2 n+1$, this implies by Proposition 15 that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}\right) \leq \frac{2 \pi}{2 n+2}=\frac{\pi}{n+1}
$$

Thus,

$$
\frac{\pi}{2 n+1} \leq \frac{\pi}{c_{n} n} \leq \alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}\right) \leq \frac{\pi}{n+1}
$$

Example 2 Let $B=[-\pi, \pi]^{d}$, and

$$
\|f\|_{p}=\left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cdots \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\left|f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)\right|^{p} d x_{1} \cdots d x_{d}\right)^{1 / p}
$$

for $p \in[1, \infty)$ with the usual definition of $\|f\|_{\infty}$. Let $K$ be any finite subset of $\mathbb{Z}^{d}$, and let $|K|$ denote the cardinality (number of points) in $K$. In Nessel, Wilmes [25], it is proven that for each $T \in \mathcal{T}_{K}=\operatorname{span}\{\exp (i k \cdot x): k \in K\}$, we have

$$
\|T\|_{p} \leq\left(\frac{|K|}{(2 \pi)^{d}}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{p}}\|T\|_{q}
$$

for $1 \leq q \leq 2, q \leq p \leq \infty$. We use this inequality for $p=\infty$ and $q=1$; namely,

$$
\|T\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{|K|}{(2 \pi)^{d}}\|T\|_{1},
$$

and we provide the elementary proof as given in [25]. Let

$$
D(x):=\sum_{k \in K} \exp (i k \cdot x)
$$

denote the corresponding Dirichlet kernel. Since $T=D * T$ for all $T \in \mathcal{T}_{K}$, and $\|D\|_{2}=\left(|K| /(2 \pi)^{d}\right)^{1 / 2}$, then from the inequalities

$$
\|T\|_{\infty}=\|D * T\|_{\infty} \leq\|D\|_{2}\|T\|_{2}=\|D\|_{2}\|D * T\|_{2} \leq\|D\|_{2}^{2}\|T\|_{1}=\frac{|K|}{(2 \pi)^{d}}\|T\|_{1},
$$

we obtain the desired result. Thus,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{K}\right) \geq \frac{(2 \pi)^{d}}{2|K|}
$$

Let

$$
\mathcal{T}_{m}=\bigcup\left\{\mathcal{T}_{K}:|K| \leq m\right\}
$$

Note that $\mathcal{T}_{m}$ is a not a linear subspace. Nonetheless, it is a homogeneous subset, and we have

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{m}\right) \geq \frac{(2 \pi)^{d}}{2 m}
$$

That is, if $f$ is a function defined on $[-\pi, \pi)^{d}$ whose support is of measure at most $(2 \pi)^{d} /(2 m)$, then the zero function is a best $L^{1}$-approximant from $\mathcal{T}_{m}$.

What about upper bounds? In general, $\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{K}\right)$ depends upon arithmetic and combinatorial properties of $K$, and there are no nontrivial upper estimates for it. In fact, there are known infinite sets $K$ for which $\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{K}\right)>0$. Recall that $K \subset \mathbb{Z}^{d}$ is called a $\Lambda_{p}$ set $(p>1)$ if the $L^{1}$ and $L^{p}$ norms are equivalent on $\mathcal{T}_{K}$; i.e., $A_{p}<\infty$ for $\mathcal{T}_{K}$. The constant $A_{p}$ for $\mathcal{T}_{K}$ is called the $\Lambda_{p}$ constant of $K$, and we recall that by Proposition 12 we have $\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{K}\right) \geq \frac{1}{\left(2 A_{p}\right)^{p^{\prime}}}$. We refer the reader to Rudin [31] for an early exposition of this classical notion. We just mention here that (for $d=1$ ) if $K=\left\{n_{k}\right\}$ is a lacunary sequence, i.e., if it satisfies $\inf \frac{n_{k+1}}{n_{k}}>1$, then it is already proven in Zygmund [37] that $K$ is a $\Lambda_{p}$ set for all $p<\infty$. Of course, if $K=\{-n, \ldots, 0, \ldots, n\}$ then $\mathcal{T}_{K}=\mathcal{T}_{n}$, as in Example 1. The analogous result holds whenever $K$ is any set of consecutive integers in $\mathbb{Z}$.

In certain cases, we have upper bounds that asymptotically agree with the lower bounds. For example, let $\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}$ denote the space of real trigonometric polynomials of total degree at most $n$. That is, $\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}$ is the real subspace generated by $\operatorname{span}\{\exp (i k \cdot x)$ : $\left.\left|k_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|k_{d}\right| \leq n\right\}$. Note that the number of such coefficients $k$ is of the order of $n^{d}$, and thus,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right) \geq \frac{C}{n^{d}}
$$

for some constant $C$. We prove an upper bound of the same order with some other generic constant $C$ :

Proposition 17 For $\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}$, as above, we have

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right) \leq \frac{C}{n^{d}}
$$

for some constant $C$.
Proof By the multivariate Jackson Theorem, see Timan [34, p. 273], for any $f \in$ $L^{1}(B, \nu)$, we have

$$
E_{n}(f)_{L^{1}}:=\inf _{t \in \mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}}\|f-t\|_{L^{1}} \leq c \sum_{j=1}^{d} \omega_{j}(f, 1 / n)_{L^{1}}
$$

where $\omega_{j}(f, \cdot)_{L^{1}}$ denotes the $L^{1}$-modulus of continuity with respect to the $j$ th variable, and $c$ is some generic constant.

Let $A$ be any cube in $B$ with edge length $a$, and denote by $\chi_{A}$ the indicator function of $A$; i.e., $\chi_{A}=1$ on $A$, and 0 otherwise. Clearly, for any $h>0$, we have

$$
\omega_{j}\left(\chi_{A}, h\right)_{L^{1}} \leq 2 a^{d-1} h, \quad j=1, \ldots, d
$$

Thus, by Jackson's theorem,

$$
E_{n}\left(\chi_{A}\right)_{L^{1}} \leq 2 c d \frac{a^{d-1}}{n}
$$

Set $a:=\left(\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right)\right)^{1 / d}$. Then $\nu(A)=a^{d}=\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right)$. By the definition of $\alpha^{*}\left(T_{n}^{d}\right)$, the zero function is a best $L^{1}$-approximant to $\chi_{A}$ from $\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}$; i.e.,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right)=v(A)=\left\|\chi_{A}\right\|_{1}=E_{n}\left(\chi_{A}\right)_{L^{1}} \leq 2 c d \frac{a^{d-1}}{n}=2 c d \frac{\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right)^{(d-1) / d}}{n}
$$

that yields

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{T}_{n}^{d}\right) \leq\left(\frac{2 c d}{n}\right)^{d}
$$

Example 3 In this and the next two examples, $B=\mathbb{R}^{d}$, and we take the usual $L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ norm. From Nessel, Wilmes [25], we also have the following result. Let $f \in L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$, and assume its Fourier transform $\hat{f}$ has compact support. Then $f \in L^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ and

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\frac{|\operatorname{supp} \hat{f}|}{(2 \pi)^{d}}\right)\|f\|_{1}
$$

where $|\operatorname{supp} \hat{f}|$ is the Lebesgue measure of the support of $\hat{f}$. The proof of this fact is similar to the proof of the analogous result in the previous example. Thus, if $K$ is any compact set of finite measure, and $\mathcal{S}_{K}$ denotes the space of functions in $L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ whose Fourier transform have their support in $K$, then

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{S}_{K}\right) \geq \frac{(2 \pi)^{d}}{2|K|}
$$

And if

$$
\mathcal{S}_{\beta}=\bigcup\left\{\mathcal{S}_{K}:|K| \leq \beta\right\}
$$

then

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{S}_{\beta}\right) \geq \frac{(2 \pi)^{d}}{2 \beta}
$$

Note that $\mathcal{S}_{\beta}$ is a homogeneous set, but is not a linear subspace. The above states that if $f$ is a function in $L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ whose support is of measure at most $(2 \pi)^{d} /(2 \beta)$, then the zero function is a best $L^{1}$-approximant from $\mathcal{S}_{\beta}$.

Example 4 Let $\mathcal{G}_{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}}$ denote the space of entire functions $f$ defined on $\mathbb{C}^{d}$ of rectangular exponential type $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}>0$. That is, $f \in \mathcal{G}_{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}}$ if $f$ is entire and for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists a constant $C_{\varepsilon}$ such that

$$
|f(z)| \leq C_{\varepsilon} \exp \left\{\sum_{k=1}^{d}\left(\sigma_{k}+\varepsilon\right)\left|z_{k}\right|\right\}
$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{C}^{d}$. When $d=1$, we have that $f \in \mathcal{G}_{\sigma}$ if

$$
f(z)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{k} z^{k}
$$

where

$$
\limsup _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left(k!\left|a_{k}\right|\right)^{1 / k} \leq \sigma .
$$

From Ibragimov [12]; see also Nessel, Wilmes [25] (and references therein); Nikolskii [27]; Timan [34, p. 234]; and Nikolskii [28, p. 126]; we have the following

Nikolskii-type inequality. Let $f \in L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ be the restriction to $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ of an entire function of rectangular exponential type $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}>0$. Then $f$ belongs to $L^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$, and

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\prod_{k=1}^{d} \frac{\sigma_{k}}{\pi}\right)\|f\|_{1}
$$

This therefore implies that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{G}_{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2}\left(\prod_{k=1}^{d} \frac{\pi}{\sigma_{k}}\right)
$$

Example 5 From Nessel, Wilmes [25], we also have the following result. Let $\mathcal{H}_{\sigma}$ denote the space of entire functions defined on $\mathbb{C}^{d}$ of radial type $\sigma>0$. That is, $f \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}$ if $f$ is entire and for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists a constant $C_{\varepsilon}$ such that

$$
|f(z)| \leq C_{\varepsilon} \exp \{(\sigma+\varepsilon)|z|\}
$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{C}^{d}$. If $f \in L^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ is the restriction to $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ of an entire function of radial type $\sigma$, then

$$
\|f\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\frac{\sigma^{d}}{d \Gamma(d / 2) 2^{d-1} \pi^{d / 2}}\right)\|f\|_{1} .
$$

This therefore implies the lower bound

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{H}_{\sigma}\right) \geq\left(\frac{d \Gamma(d / 2) 2^{d-2} \pi^{d / 2}}{\sigma^{d}}\right)
$$

### 4.2 Algebraic Polynomials, Splines, Müntz Polynomials and More

Example 6 Let $B=[0,1]$, and $\Pi_{n}$ denote the set of algebraic polynomials of degree at most $n$. In Ho Tho Kau [11]; see also Amir, Ziegler [1]; it is shown that $A_{\infty} \leq$ $(n+1)^{2}$, implying the lower bound

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2(n+1)^{2}}
$$

(The standard Nikolskii-type inequalities as found in Timan [34, p. 236] and DeVore, Lorentz [5, p. 102] are somewhat weaker.) The points that satisfy the Hobby-Rice theorem are known. They are the zeros of the Chebyshev polynomials of the second kind, renormalized to the interval $[0,1]$. As such,

$$
\min _{0 \leq i \leq n}\left\{x_{i+1}-x_{i}\right\}=x_{1}-x_{0}=x_{n+1}-x_{n}=\frac{1-\cos (\pi /(n+2))}{2} \leq \frac{\pi^{2}}{4(n+2)^{2}}
$$

Thus, from Corollary 16,

$$
\frac{1}{2(n+1)^{2}} \leq \alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}\right) \leq \frac{\pi^{2}}{4(n+2)^{2}}
$$

Example 7 Let $B=\mathbb{R}$, and $\Pi_{n}$ denote the set of algebraic polynomials of degree at most $n$. As a special case of Mhaskar [22], we have the following Nikolskii-type inequalities. For $\gamma \geq 2$, let $w_{\gamma}(x)=e^{-|x|^{\gamma}}$. Then, for each $P \in \Pi_{n}$, we have

$$
\left\|w_{\gamma} P\right\|_{p} \leq\left(\gamma^{1 / \gamma} n^{1-1 / \gamma}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{p}}\left\|w_{\gamma} P\right\|_{q}
$$

for every $1 \leq q \leq p \leq \infty$. Taking $p=\infty$ and $q=1$ gives

$$
\left\|w_{\gamma} P\right\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\gamma^{1 / \gamma} n^{1-1 / \gamma}\right)\left\|w_{\gamma} P\right\|_{1} .
$$

Thus, $A_{\infty} \leq \gamma^{1 / \gamma_{n}}{ }^{1-1 / \gamma}$, implying the lower bound

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(w_{\gamma} \Pi_{n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2 \gamma^{1 / \gamma} n^{1-1 / \gamma}} .
$$

This example was generalized by Nevai, Totik [26] to the case where $0<\gamma<2$. They proved that

$$
\left\|w_{\gamma} P\right\|_{\infty} \leq c \Lambda_{n}(\gamma)\left\|w_{\gamma} P\right\|_{1}
$$

for some constant $c$ that depends only upon $\gamma$, where

$$
\Lambda_{n}(\gamma)= \begin{cases}n^{1-1 / \gamma}, & 1<\gamma<2 \\ \ln n, & \gamma=1 \\ 1, & 0<\gamma<1\end{cases}
$$

Thus, we obtain

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(w_{\gamma} \Pi_{n}\right) \geq \frac{C}{n^{1-1 / \gamma}}
$$

for $1<\gamma<2$, while for $\gamma=1$,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(w_{1} \Pi_{n}\right) \geq \frac{C}{\ln n},
$$

and for $0<\gamma<1$,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(w_{\gamma} \Pi_{n}\right) \geq C
$$

for some constants $C>0$ that depend only upon $\gamma$. (Note that the last of these lower bounds does not tend to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.) Nikolskii-type inequalities for other weighted algebraic polynomials on all of $\mathbb{R}$ (with properties similar to those in the next Example 8) may be found in Mthembu [24].

Example 8 Let $B=[-1,1]$, and $\Pi_{n}$ denote the set of algebraic polynomials of degree at most $n$. Lubinsky, Saff [21] consider Nikolskii-type inequalities for algebraic polynomials on $B$ with weights of the form $w:=\exp (-Q)$ where $Q$ satisfies:
(i) $Q$ is even and continuously differentiable in $(-1,1)$, while $Q^{\prime \prime}$ is continuous in $(0,1)$;
(ii) $Q^{\prime} \geq 0$ and $Q^{\prime \prime} \geq 0$ in $(0,1)$;
(iii) $\int_{0}^{1} t Q^{\prime}(t) / \sqrt{1-t^{2}} d t=\infty$;
(iv) the function

$$
T(x):=1+\frac{x Q^{\prime \prime}(x)}{Q^{\prime}(x)}, \quad x \in(0,1)
$$

is increasing in $(0,1), T(0+)>1$ and $T(x)=O\left(Q^{\prime}(x)\right)$, as $x \rightarrow 1-$.
The constants $a_{m}:=a_{m}(Q)$, defined by

$$
m=\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{a_{m} t Q^{\prime}\left(a_{m} t\right)}{\sqrt{1-t^{2}}} d t
$$

are called the $m$ th Mhaskar-Rahmanov-Saff numbers. Lubinsky, Saff [21] proved that for every such weight $w$ and for $P \in \Pi_{n}$, we have

$$
\|w P\|_{p} \leq c\left(n T\left(a_{2 n}\right)^{1 / 2}\right)^{1 / q-1 / p}\|w P\|_{q}
$$

for all $0<q<p \leq \infty$ for some universal constant $c$. Setting $p=\infty$ and $q=1$, we obtain

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(w \Pi_{n}\right) \geq \frac{C}{n T\left(a_{2 n}\right)^{1 / 2}}
$$

for some constant $C$.
Example 9 Let $B=[-1,1]$ and $\mathrm{GAP}_{n}$ denote the set of all generalized nonnegative algebraic polynomials of degree $n$, i.e., the set of functions

$$
P(x)=\lambda \prod_{j=1}^{m}\left|x-x_{j}\right|^{r_{j}},
$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, r_{j}>0$ (not necessarily integers), $x_{j} \in \mathbb{C}$, and

$$
n:=\sum_{j=1}^{m} r_{j}
$$

(Note that the $m$ is arbitrary and $n$ is not necessarily an integer.) GAP $_{n}$ is not a linear subspace, but it is a homogeneous set. From Borwein, Erdélyi [4, p. 395], we have for $0<q<p \leq \infty$ the Nikolskii-type inequalities

$$
\|P\|_{p} \leq\left(\frac{e^{2}(2+q n)}{2 \pi}\right)^{2 / q-2 / p}\|P\|_{q}
$$

for every $P \in \operatorname{GAP}_{n}$. Setting $p=\infty$ and $q=1$ gives

$$
\|P\|_{\infty} \leq\left(\frac{e^{2}(2+n)}{2 \pi}\right)^{2}\|P\|_{1} .
$$

Thus,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\operatorname{GAP}_{n}\right) \geq \frac{2 \pi^{2}}{e^{4}(2+n)^{2}}
$$

Similar results hold for generalized nonnegative trigonometric polynomials, see Borwein, Erdélyi [4, p. 394], where the asymptotics is of order $1 / n$.

Example 10 Let $B=[0,1]$ and $\mathcal{S}_{n, r}$ denote the space of splines of degree $n$ with $r$ simple knots at $\{i /(r+1)\}_{i=1}^{r}$. That is, $\mathcal{S}_{n, r}$ is the subspace of functions in $C^{n-1}[0,1]$ that, when restricted to each $[(i-1) /(r+1), i /(r+1)], i=1, \ldots, r+1$, are algebraic polynomials of degree at most $n$. We have, for $\mathcal{S}_{n, r}$,

$$
\frac{1}{2(r+1)(n+1)^{2}} \leq \alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{S}_{n, r}\right) \leq \frac{1}{n+r+2} .
$$

The upper bound is a consequence of Proposition 15, since $\mathcal{S}_{n, r}$ is a WT-system of dimension $n+r+1$. The lower bound follows from the estimate in Example 6: Let $\mathcal{Q}_{n, r}$ denote the space of functions whose restriction to $[(i-1) /(r+1), i /(r+1)]$, $i=1, \ldots, r+1$, are algebraic polynomials of degree at most $n$; i.e., there are no continuity restrictions at the knots $\{i /(r+1)\}_{i=1}^{r}$. As $\mathcal{S}_{n, r} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}_{n, r}$, we have

$$
A_{\infty}=\sup _{s \in \mathcal{S}_{n, r}} \frac{\|s\|_{\infty}}{\|s\|_{1}} \leq \sup _{q \in \mathcal{Q}_{n, r}} \frac{\|q\|_{\infty}}{\|q\|_{1}} .
$$

From Example 6, we have

$$
\|P\|_{\infty} \leq(n+1)^{2}\|P\|_{1}
$$

for every $P \in \Pi_{n}$ on $[0,1]$. A simple change of variable argument therefore implies that

$$
\|q\|_{\infty} \leq(r+1)(n+1)^{2}\|q\|_{1}
$$

for every $q \in \mathcal{Q}_{n, r}$ which vanishes on $r$ of the $r+1$ intervals $[(i-1) /(r+1)$, $i /(r+1)], i=1, \ldots, r+1$, hence for every $q \in \mathcal{Q}_{n, r}$. This gives the lower bound for $\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{S}_{n, r}\right)$.

When $n=0$, i.e., $\mathcal{S}_{0, r}$ is the space of piecewise constants with knots at $\{i /(r+1)\}_{i=1}^{r}$, then it is readily verified that $\alpha^{*}\left(\mathcal{S}_{0, r}\right)=1 / 2(r+1)$.

Example 11 Let $B=[0,1]$. We will look at a subclass of Müntz polynomials. Let $0=$ $\lambda_{1}<\lambda_{2}<\cdots<\lambda_{n}$, where $\lambda_{k+1}-\lambda_{k} \geq 1$ for every $k$. Set $\Lambda_{n}=\operatorname{span}\left\{x^{\lambda_{1}}, \ldots, x^{\lambda_{n}}\right\}$. Then, see Borwein, Erdélyi [4, p. 298], we have the Nikolskii-type inequalities

$$
\|g\|_{p} \leq\left(18 \cdot 2^{q} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k}\right)^{1 / q-1 / p}\|g\|_{q}
$$

for all $g \in \Lambda_{n}$, and for any $0<q<p \leq \infty$. Setting $q=1$ and $p=\infty$, we obtain

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Lambda_{n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{72 \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k}} .
$$

Note that as $\lambda_{k+1}-\lambda_{k} \geq 1$ for every $k$, it follows that $72 \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k} \geq 36 n(n-1)$. (From the Bernstein inequality in Borwein, Erdélyi [4, p. 287] and Proposition 13(ii), we get a similar estimate.) $\Lambda_{n}$ is a WT-system on [0, 1] for any choice of $0 \leq \lambda_{1}<$ $\lambda_{2}<\cdots<\lambda_{n}$. As such, Proposition 15 gives

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Lambda_{n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{n+1},
$$

which is undoubtedly not sharp, as it is independent of the values of the $\lambda_{k}$ 's.

Example 12 Let $B=[0, \infty)$, and $\Gamma_{n}[0, \infty]=\operatorname{span}\left\{e^{-\gamma_{1} x}, \ldots, e^{-\gamma_{n} x}\right\}$, where the $\gamma_{k}$ are distinct positive numbers. Then, see Borwein, Erdélyi [4, p. 281], we have the Nikolskii-type inequalities over $[0, \infty)$ of

$$
\|g\|_{p} \leq\left(18 \cdot 2^{q} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \gamma_{k}\right)^{1 / q-1 / p}\|g\|_{q}
$$

for any $0<q<p \leq \infty$ and every $g \in \Gamma_{n}[0, \infty]$. Set $q=1$ and $p=\infty$ to obtain

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Gamma_{n}[0, \infty]\right) \geq \frac{1}{72 \sum_{k=1}^{n} \gamma_{k}} .
$$

Note that as there is no gap condition on the $\left\{\gamma_{k}\right\}$ (as in the previous Example 11), then for any $c>0$ we can find an infinite number of distinct positive numbers $\left\{\gamma_{k}\right\}$ such that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Gamma_{n}[0, \infty]\right) \geq c
$$

for all $n$.

Example 13 Let $B=[a, b]$ be any finite interval, and $\Gamma_{n}[a, b]=\operatorname{span}\left\{e^{-\gamma_{1} x}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.e^{-\gamma_{n} x}\right\}$, where the $\gamma_{k}$ are distinct real numbers. From Erdélyi [9], we have the Nikolskii-type inequalities over $[a, b]$ of

$$
\|g\|_{p} \leq c\left(n^{2}+\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|\gamma_{k}\right|\right)^{1 / q-1 / p}\|g\|_{q},
$$

for any $0<q<p \leq \infty$ and every $g \in \Gamma_{n}[a, b]$. The constant $c$ depends upon $p, q, a$ and $b$. Set $q=1$ and $p=\infty$ to obtain

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Gamma_{n}[a, b]\right) \geq \frac{C}{n^{2}+\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|\gamma_{k}\right|}
$$

for some constant $C$ depending on $a$ and $b$.
Example 14 For a convex body $K$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, we denote by $\omega_{K}$ its width, i.e., the minimal distance between two parallel supporting hyperplanes of $K$. A set $B$ is said to be noncuspidal if there exists a constant $c_{B}>0$ such that each point of $B$ is contained in some convex subset $K \subseteq B$ whose width is larger than $c_{B}$.

Let $B$ be a compact noncuspidal subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, and let $v$ be the $d$-dimensional Lebesgue measure on $B$. Let $\Pi_{n}^{d}$ denote the space of algebraic polynomials of total degree at most $n$; that is,

$$
\Pi_{n}^{d}:=\left\{\sum_{|k| \leq n} a_{k} x^{k}: a_{k} \in \mathbb{R}, k \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}^{d}, x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}\right\}
$$

where for $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and $k=\left(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}^{d}$, we set $x^{k}=x_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdots x_{d}^{k_{d}}$ and $|k|=k_{1}+\cdots+k_{d}$. From Kroó, Schmidt [19, p. 426], we have that

$$
r_{B}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right) \leq \exp \left(c^{\prime} n \delta^{1 /(2 d)}\right)
$$

(If $B$ is convex, then we can set $c^{\prime}=6$.) Choosing $\delta=\left(c^{\prime} n\right)^{-2 d}$,

$$
r_{B}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right) \leq e,
$$

and by Proposition 14 and the choice of $\delta$,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \geq \sup _{\{\delta: 0<\delta<1\}} \frac{\delta v(B)}{2 r_{B}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right)} \geq \frac{c}{n^{2 d}}
$$

for some constant $c>0$.
It is known, see Wilhelmsen [35], that the Bernstein-Markov factor $b\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right)$ is bounded above by $4 n^{2} / c_{B}$. Thus, if $B$ is convex, then Proposition 13(ii) also gives the lower bound

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \geq \frac{c}{n^{2 d}}
$$

This includes the case $d=1$ considered in Example 6, but there we have an explicit constant $c$.

Remark Kroó, Saff, Yattselev [20] studied the Remez factors of homogeneous polynomials $H_{n}^{d}$ in $d$ variables of degree $n, d \geq 2$, on star-like surfaces, namely on images $\mathcal{S}_{r}$ of $S^{d-1}$ under maps of the form $u \rightarrow r(u) u$, where $r: S^{d-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$is an even Lip $\alpha$ function. Under these assumptions, the surface area is well defined, and they obtained tight estimates with respect to this measure. In particular, when $\alpha=1$ (for example when the interior of $\mathcal{S}_{r}$ is convex), they obtained that

$$
r_{\mathcal{S}_{r}}\left(H_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right) \leq \exp \left(c n \delta^{1 /(d-1)} \ln \frac{1}{\delta}\right)
$$

Thus,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(H_{n}^{d}\right) \geq\left(\frac{c}{n \ln n}\right)^{d-1}
$$

If $r$ is smooth, the $\ln$ terms can be eliminated in both formulae.
Example 15 As above, let $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be a compact set, $\Pi_{n}^{d}$ denote the space of algebraic polynomials of total degree at most $n$, and $v$ be the usual $d$-dimensional Lebesgue measure on $B$. For each $x \in B$, let $R_{B}(x)$ denote the radius of the largest ball contained in $B$ such that $x$ is on the surface of this ball. Set

$$
R(B):=\inf _{x \in B} R_{B}(x) .
$$

We say that the compact $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is smooth if $R(B)>0$. This condition essentially requires that $B$ have $C^{2}$ boundary. Under these assumptions on $B$, it is proven, in Kroó, Schmidt [19], that

$$
r_{B}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right) \leq \exp \left(c^{\prime} n \delta^{1 /(d+1)}\right)
$$

Choosing $\delta=\left(c^{\prime} n\right)^{-(d+1)}$ gives $r_{B}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right) \leq e$. Thus, under these assumptions on $B$, we have

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \geq \frac{c}{n^{d+1}}
$$

for some constant $c$. Compare this with Example 14.

Remark The notion of $C^{2}$-smoothness used in the above example is based on inscribing Euclidean balls into a domain. If we use instead $l_{p}$-balls, with $1 \leq p \leq 2$, then we are led to the more general notion of $C^{p}$-smoothness. It is shown, in Kroó [17], that for $C^{p}$-domains the Remez factor can be bounded by

$$
r_{B}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d} ; \delta\right) \leq \exp \left(c n \delta^{\frac{p}{2 d+2 p-2}}\right)
$$

hence,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \geq \frac{c}{n^{\frac{2 d+2 p-2}{p}}} .
$$

Note that when $p=1$ (e.g., when $B$ is convex), this leads to the lower bound of Example 14, while for $p=2$ ( $C^{2}$-boundary), the lower estimate of Example 15 follows.

In Examples 14 and 15, we gave two different lower bounds for $\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right)$ dependent upon the geometry of $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$. We will here prove upper bounds that, up to powers of $\ln n$, are of the same orders, and also depend upon the geometry of $B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$. The geometric conditions on $B$ are similar, but different, from those in Examples 14 and 15, and we therefore consider them as distinct examples.

Example 16 As previously, assume that $B$ is a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}, \Pi_{n}^{d}$ is the space of algebraic polynomials of total degree at most $n$, and $v$ is the usual $d$-dimensional Lebesgue measure on $B$. We say that $B$ has a vertex at $a \in \partial B$ if there exist convex polytopes $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ such that $a$ is a vertex for both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, and $D_{1} \subseteq B \subseteq D_{2}$.

Proposition 18 If $B$, as above, has a vertex, then there exists a constant $c$, dependent upon $B$ and $d$ but independent of $n$, such that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \leq c\left(\frac{\ln n}{n}\right)^{2 d}
$$

Proof We assume, without loss of generality, that $a=(-1,0, \ldots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is a vertex of $B$, and $D_{1}, D_{2}$ are convex polytopes such that $a$ is a vertex for both $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$, and $D_{1} \subseteq B \subseteq D_{2}$. We also assume, without loss of generality, that

$$
D_{2} \subset\left\{x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right):\left|x_{1}\right| \leq 1\right\},
$$

and if $x \in D_{2} \backslash\{a\}$, then $x_{1}>-1$.
It therefore follows that if

$$
B_{h}=\left\{x: x \in B,-1 \leq x_{1} \leq-1+h\right\},
$$

then, for all $h$ sufficiently small,

$$
c_{2} h^{d} \leq v\left(B_{h}\right) \leq c_{1} h^{d} .
$$

Now, there exists a univariate polynomial $P$ of degree $n$ such that $|P(t)| \leq 1$ for all $t \in[-1+h, 1]$, while $|P(t)| \geq \exp \left(c_{3} n \sqrt{h}\right)$ for $t \in[-1,-1+h / 2]$. (This $P$ can be taken to be the standard Chebyshev polynomial transformed to the interval [ $-1+h, 1]$, see Borwein, Erdelyi [4, p. 30].)

Thus, for $P$ and $B_{h}$, as above,

$$
\int_{B \backslash B_{h}}\left|P\left(x_{1}\right)\right| d v(x) \leq v(B),
$$

while

$$
\int_{B_{h}}\left|P\left(x_{1}\right)\right| d \nu(x) \geq \int_{B_{h / 2}}\left|P\left(x_{1}\right)\right| d \nu(x) \geq c_{4} h^{d} \exp \left(c_{3} n \sqrt{h}\right) .
$$

Setting $h=c_{5}^{2}(\ln n / n)^{2}$, we obtain

$$
c_{4} h^{d} \exp \left(c_{3} n \sqrt{h}\right)=c_{4} c_{5}^{2 d}\left(\frac{\ln n}{n}\right)^{2 d} n^{c_{3} c_{5}}
$$

Thus, for $c_{5}$ sufficiently large (but independent of $n$ ),

$$
c_{4} c_{5}^{2 d}\left(\frac{\ln n}{n}\right)^{2 d} n^{c_{3} c_{5}}>v(B)
$$

and therefore

$$
\int_{B_{h}}\left|P\left(x_{1}\right)\right| d \nu(x)>\int_{B \backslash B_{h}}\left|P\left(x_{1}\right)\right| d v(x) .
$$

This implies that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \leq \nu\left(B_{h}\right) \leq c_{1} h^{d}=c\left(\frac{\ln n}{n}\right)^{2 d}
$$

Does a similar upper bound hold for $\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right)$ for all $B$ ? It cannot, as is evident from Example 14. In fact, again up to a $(\ln n)^{d+1}$ factor, the asymptotics given in Example 15 are optimal if we assume that $B$ has a $C^{2}$ boundary.

Example 17 As previously, we assume that $B$ is a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}, \Pi_{n}^{d}$ is the space of algebraic polynomials of total degree at most $n$, and $v$ is the usual $d$-dimensional Lebesgue measure on $B$.

Proposition 19 If $B$, as above, has $C^{2}$ boundary, then there exists a constant $c$, dependent upon $B$ and $d$ but independent of $n$, such that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \leq c\left(\frac{\ln n}{n}\right)^{d+1}
$$

Proof The proof is very similar to that of Proposition 18, except that here we use the fact that as the boundary of $B$ is $C^{2}$, then there exists a point $a \in \partial B$, and balls $B_{1}, B_{2}$, such that $a \in \partial B_{1}, \partial B_{2}$ and $B_{1} \subseteq B \subseteq B_{2}$. To see this, let $B_{2}$ be the smallest ball containing $B$. Then the boundaries of $B$ and $B_{2}$ must have nonempty intersection. Let $a$ be in this intersection. By the $C^{2}$ smoothness, there exists a ball $B_{1} \subseteq B$ with $a$ being on the boundary of $B_{1}$.

As above, without loss of generality, let us assume that $a=(-1,0, \ldots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, and

$$
B \subset\left\{x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right):\left|x_{1}\right| \leq 1\right\} .
$$

Set $B_{h}=\left\{x: x \in B,-1 \leq x_{1} \leq-1+h\right\}$. As $B_{1} \subseteq B \subseteq B_{2}$, it follows that

$$
c_{2} h^{(d+1) / 2} \leq \nu\left(B_{h}\right) \leq c_{1} h^{(d+1) / 2} .
$$

We now follow the proof of Proposition 18, essentially verbatim.
Remark In the proof of Proposition 19, we only used the property that there exists a point $a \in \partial B$ and balls $B_{1}, B_{2}$ such that $a \in \partial B_{1}, \partial B_{2}$ and $B_{1} \subseteq B \subseteq B_{2}$. This can, of course, hold without the boundary of $B$ being $C^{2}$.

Remark It would be interesting to know whether the $\ln n$ terms in Propositions 18 and 19 are necessary. Note that in the trigonometric case, this term does not appear, see Proposition 17.

Example 18 Let $B=[-1,1]^{d}$, and $\Pi_{n}^{d}$ be the space of algebraic polynomials of total degree at most $n$. Ditzian, Tikhonov [6] consider Nikolskii-type inequalities for this space with Jacobi weights $w$ on the cube $B$. That is, let $w:=w_{\alpha, \beta}(x)=$ $\prod_{i=1}^{d} w_{\alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}}\left(x_{i}\right)$, where $w_{\alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}}\left(x_{i}\right)=\left(1-x_{i}\right)^{\alpha_{i}}\left(1+x_{i}\right)^{\beta_{i}}, \alpha_{i}>-1, \beta_{i}>-1$, $\alpha_{i}+\beta_{i}>-1$. Then, for all $P \in \Pi_{n}^{d}$ and $0<q<p \leq \infty$, we have

$$
\|w P\|_{p} \leq c n^{\gamma(1 / q-1 / p)}\|w P\|_{q}
$$

where $c$ is some constant and $\gamma=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \max \left(2+2 \max \left\{\alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}\right\}, 1\right)$. Set $q=1$ and $p=\infty$ to obtain

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(w \Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \geq \frac{C}{n^{\gamma}}
$$

for some other constant $C$. If $w=1$, i.e., $\alpha_{i}=\beta_{i}=0$ for all $i$, we obtain $\alpha^{*}\left(\Pi_{n}^{d}\right) \geq$ $\left(C / n^{2 d}\right)$, as also follows from Example 14.

## 5 Dimension Independent Exact and Lower Bounds

In this section, we present three examples, or rather three families of examples, where $\alpha^{*}(M)$ is either exactly computed or bounded below by a constant independent of the dimension of $M$. The common feature of these examples, which makes it relatively easy to do the computations, is that $M$ will have the property that all $m \in M$ with a fixed $L^{1}$ norm have the same distribution. Thus, $\alpha^{*}(M)$ can be computed by considering any $m \in M, m \neq 0$.

Finding the optimal $\alpha^{*}(M)$ for a one-dimensional subspace $M=\operatorname{span}\{m\}$ is intimately connected with the topic of decreasing rearrangements of functions. What immediately follows is mainly taken from Bennett, Sharpley [2], but can also be found in many other sources. We assume, as previously, that $v$ is a nonatomic measure.

Let $m \in L^{1}(B, \nu)$. The distribution function $\mu_{m}$ of the function $|m|$ is defined on $[0, \infty)$ by

$$
\mu_{m}(\lambda):=v\{x:|m(x)|>\lambda\}, \quad \lambda \geq 0 .
$$

$\mu_{m}$ is nonnegative, nonincreasing, and right-continuous on $[0, \infty)$. The decreasing rearrangement of $m$ is defined by

$$
m^{*}(t):=\inf \left\{\lambda: \mu_{m}(\lambda) \leq t\right\}, \quad t \geq 0,
$$

where it is to be understood that the infimum of the empty set is defined as $\infty$. Note that we have

$$
m^{*}(t)=\sup \left\{\lambda: \mu_{m}(\lambda)>t\right\}, \quad t \geq 0 .
$$

Thus, $m^{*}$ may also be regarded as a distribution function (of $\mu_{m}$ ) and, as such, is also nonnegative, nonincreasing, and right-continuous on $[0, \infty)$. An important property of $m^{*}$ is that $|m|$ and $m^{*}$ are equimeasurable, i.e., have the same distribution function, the former with respect to $v$ and the latter with respect to Lebesgue measure.

An additional important property of $m^{*}$ is that

$$
\int_{B}|m(x)|^{p} d \nu(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} m^{*}(t)^{p} d t=p \int_{0}^{\infty} \lambda^{p-1} \mu_{m}(\lambda) d \lambda
$$

for all $p \in(0, \infty)$ (and the integrals are infinite together). Also $\|m\|_{\infty}=\left\|m^{*}\right\|_{\infty}$. Our interest is in the case $p=1$, where we have

$$
\int_{B}|m(x)| d \nu(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} m^{*}(t) d t=\int_{0}^{\infty} \mu_{m}(\lambda) d \lambda .
$$

As $v$ is nonatomic, it follows that

$$
\|m\|_{\alpha}=\sup _{\nu(N) \leq \alpha} \int_{N}|m| d \nu=\int_{0}^{\alpha} m^{*}(t) d t
$$

Thus,

$$
\frac{\|m\|_{\alpha}}{\|m\|_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

if and only if

$$
\frac{\int_{0}^{\alpha} m^{*}(t) d t}{\int_{0}^{\infty} m^{*}(t) d t} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

Example 19 (Symmetric $p$-Stable Random Variables) A random variable $m$ on a probability space $(B, \Sigma, \nu)$ is called a symmetric $p$-stable random variable if there is a constant $c>0$ such that its characteristic function $\varphi_{m}(t)=\mathbb{E} e^{i t m}$ is given by $\varphi(t)=e^{-c|t|^{p}}$. The $p$-stable laws were introduced and studied by Paul Lévy in the 1920s, and they play an important role in probability theory. For a proof of the following classical theorem, see parts (i) and (iii) of Benyamini, Lindenstrauss [3, Appendix D, Theorem D.8]. (And also see there references to further basic facts on symmetric $p$-stable random variables.)

## Theorem 20

(i) For each $0<p \leq 2$, there is a symmetric $p$-stable random variable with characteristic function $\varphi(t)=e^{-|t|^{p}}$.
(ii) If $p<2$ and $m$ is a symmetric $p$-stable random variable, then $\|m\|_{r}=$ $\left(\mathbb{E}|m|^{r}\right)^{1 / r}$ is finite if and only if $r<p$. (When $p=2$, we obtain Gaussian random variables, which will be discussed in detail in the next example. In this case, $\mathbb{E}|m|^{r}<\infty$ for every $r<\infty$.)

A standard fact in measure theory is that when $X$ is any random variable and $(B, \Sigma, v)$ is nonatomic, then it carries a random variable with the same distribution as $X$. More generally, it carries a sequence of independent random variables $\left\{X_{j}\right\}$ with the same distribution as $X$.

Recall also that when $X$ and $Y$ are independent random variables with characteristic functions $\varphi_{X}, \varphi_{Y}$, respectively, then the characteristic function of $a X+b Y$ is given by

$$
\varphi_{a X+b Y}(t)=\mathbb{E} e^{i t(a X+b Y)}=\mathbb{E} e^{i t a X} \mathbb{E} e^{i t b Y}=\varphi_{X}(a t) \varphi_{Y}(b t)
$$

Now fix $p \leq 2$, and let $\left\{m_{j}\right\}$ be a sequence (finite or infinite) of independent random variables with the same characteristic function $e^{-|t|^{p}}$. It follows that if $m=\sum a_{j} m_{j}$, then

$$
\varphi_{m}(t)=\prod e^{-|t|^{p}\left|a_{j}\right|^{p}}=e^{-|t|^{p} \sum\left|a_{j}\right|^{p}} .
$$

Thus, $m$ is also $p$-stable and has the same distribution as $\left(\sum\left|a_{j}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p_{m}} m_{1}$.
By (ii), $\left\{m_{j}\right\} \subset L^{1}(B, v)$, and we let $M$ be the closed subspace they span in $L^{1}(B, v)$. By the above computations, every $m=\sum a_{j} m_{j}$ satisfies

$$
\|m\|_{1}=\left(\sum\left|a_{j}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{1}
$$

and $M=\left\{\sum a_{j} m_{j}: \sum\left|a_{j}\right|^{p}<\infty\right\}$.
Now fix any $r$ with $1<r<p$; then similarly, every $m=\sum a_{j} m_{j} \in M$ satisfies

$$
\|m\|_{r}=\left(\sum\left|a_{j}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{r}
$$

Thus, $\frac{\|m\|_{r}}{\|m\|_{1}}$ is the constant $\frac{\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{r}}{\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{1}}$ for all $0 \neq m \in M$, and therefore

$$
A_{r}=\sup \frac{\|m\|_{r}}{\|m\|_{1}}=\frac{\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{r}}{\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{1}}<\infty
$$

From Proposition 12, we obtain $\alpha^{*}(M) \geq\left(\frac{\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{1}}{2\left\|m_{1}\right\|_{r}}\right)^{1 / r^{\prime}}$.
Example 20 (Gaussian Random Variables) Let $(B, \Sigma, v)$ be a nonatomic probability space, and let $\left\{m_{j}\right\}$ be a sequence (finite or infinite) of independent standard Gaussian random variables on $(B, \Sigma, v)$; i.e., each $m_{j}$ has $N(0,1)$ distribution. Let $M=\left\{\sum a_{j} m_{j}: \sum\left|a_{j}\right|^{2}<\infty\right\}$ be the closed linear span in $L^{1}(B, v)$ of the $m_{j}$ 's. Rather then just obtaining a lower bound, as above, we shall here compute $\alpha^{*}(M)$ explicitly to obtain:

$$
\alpha^{*}(M)=\tilde{\alpha} \approx 0.239 \ldots
$$

As in Example 19, all $m \in M$ with the same $L^{1}$ norm have the same distribution, and we may therefore assume that $M$ is actually one dimensional, spanned by an $m$ which is a standard Gaussian random variable on $(B, \Sigma, v)$. Thus,

$$
v\{x: m(x)<\lambda\}=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\lambda} e^{-s^{2} / 2} d s
$$

for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Using previous notation, the distribution function of each $|m|$ is given by

$$
\mu_{m}(\lambda):=v\{x:|m(x)|>\lambda\}=\frac{2}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} \int_{\lambda}^{\infty} e^{-s^{2} / 2} d s
$$

for all $\lambda \geq 0$, and $m^{*}$ is given by

$$
m^{*}(t)= \begin{cases}\infty, & t=0, \\ \lambda, & \frac{2}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} \int_{\lambda}^{\infty} e^{-s^{2} / 2} d s=t \text { if } t \in(0,1) \\ 0, & t \geq 1\end{cases}
$$

In addition,

$$
\|m\|_{1}=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}|s| e^{-s^{2} / 2} d s=\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}
$$

We therefore want to calculate

$$
\alpha^{*}(M)=\sup \left\{\alpha: \sup _{\nu(N) \leq \alpha} \int_{N}|m| d \nu \leq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\right\} .
$$

The interior supremum is clearly attained on the set

$$
N=\{x:|m(x)|>\beta\},
$$

where $\beta>0$ is defined by

$$
\int_{\{x:|m(x)|>\beta\}}|m(x)| d \nu(x)=2 \int_{\{x: m(x)>\beta\}} m(x) d \nu(x)=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} .
$$

Now

$$
\int_{\{x: m(x)>\beta\}} m(x) d v(x)=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} \int_{\beta}^{\infty} s e^{-s^{2} / 2} d s=\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{1 / 2}} e^{-\beta^{2} / 2},
$$

whence $\beta=\sqrt{2 \ln 2}$. The value $\alpha^{*}(M)$ is therefore given by

$$
\alpha^{*}(M)=v(N)=v\{x:|m(x)|>\sqrt{2 \ln 2}\}=2(1-\Phi(\sqrt{2 \ln 2})),
$$

where $\Phi(t)=\nu\{x: m(x) \leq t\}$. Using tables, we get $\alpha^{*}(M):=\widetilde{\alpha} \approx 0.239 \ldots$
In fact, we conjecture the following:
Conjecture For every infinite dimensional subspace $M$ of $L^{1}(B, v)$, with finite $v(B)$, we have $\alpha^{*}(M) \leq \widetilde{\alpha} v(B)$.

What is the largest value of $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)$ as we vary over all $M_{n}$ of dimension $n$ ? We do not know the answer to this question. Let us assume that $v(B)<\infty$. Then among all
subspaces $M_{1}$ of dimension 1 , the largest $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{1}\right)$ is $(1 / 2) \nu(B)$, and it is attained if $M_{1}$ is spanned by a function $\tilde{m}$ such that $|\tilde{m}|$ is a constant function. Indeed $m^{*}(t)=0$ for all $t \geq v(B)$, and if $\|m\|_{\alpha} \leq(1 / 2)\|m\|_{1}$, then $\alpha \leq(1 / 2) v(B)$ with equality if and only if $|m|$ is a constant function. What can be said when $M_{n}$ is of dimension $n>1$ ? Example 20 shows that

$$
\sup \left\{\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right): \operatorname{dim} M_{n}=n\right\} \geq \widetilde{\alpha} v(B) .
$$

In fact, strict inequality holds in the above, as is verified in this next example:
Example 21 (Linear Functions on the Sphere) Let $\|\cdot\|_{2}$ denote the Euclidean norm on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and let $S^{n-1}=\left\{x:\|x\|_{2}=1\right\}$ denote the unit sphere. For $n>1$, let $M_{n}$ denote the $n$-dimensional linear space of functions $\{\langle x, a\rangle\}$ restricted to $S^{n-1}$. That is, the elements of $M_{n}$ are the linear functions $m_{a}(\cdot)=\langle\cdot, a\rangle$ for $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$.

We consider $L^{1}\left(S^{n-1}, v_{n}\right)$ equipped with the normalized Lebesgue measure $v_{n}$. The rotation invariance of $v_{n}$ implies that if $\left\|a_{1}\right\|_{2}=\left\|a_{2}\right\|_{2}$, then $m_{a_{1}}$ and $m_{a_{2}}$ have the same distribution function. Hence, in particular, they have the same norm in $L^{1}\left(S^{n-1}, v_{n}\right)$ and the same $\alpha$-norms. Thus, in order to compute $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)$, it suffices to compute what happens with $m=m_{e_{1}}$, where $e_{1}=(1,0, \ldots, 0)$; i.e.,

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)=v_{n}\left\{x:\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right|>\beta_{n}\right\},
$$

where $\beta_{n}>0$ is defined by the equation

$$
\int_{\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right|>\beta_{n}}\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right| d v_{n}=\frac{1}{2} \int_{S^{n-1}}\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right| d v_{n} .
$$

The surface area of $S^{n-1}$ is given by

$$
I_{n}=\frac{2 \pi^{n / 2}}{\Gamma(n / 2)}
$$

If $\theta$ is the angle between a point $x \in S^{n-1}$ and the hyperplane spanned by $e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}$, then we have

$$
I_{n}=I_{n-1} \int_{-\pi / 2}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta
$$

for $n=2,3, \ldots$, and thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{S^{n-1}}\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right| d v_{n} & =\frac{2 I_{n-1}}{I_{n}} \int_{0}^{\pi / 2} \sin \theta \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta=\left.\frac{-2 I_{n-1}}{(n-1) I_{n}} \cos ^{n-1} \theta\right|_{0} ^{\pi / 2} \\
& =\frac{2 I_{n-1}}{(n-1) I_{n}}
\end{aligned}
$$

while

$$
\int_{\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right|>\beta_{n}}\left|\left\langle x, e_{1}\right\rangle\right| d v_{n}=\frac{2 I_{n-1}}{I_{n}} \int_{\beta_{n}}^{\pi / 2} \sin \theta \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta=\frac{2 I_{n-1}}{(n-1) I_{n}} \cos ^{n-1} \beta_{n} .
$$

Thus, $\beta_{n}$ is explicitly given by

$$
\cos ^{n-1} \beta_{n}=\frac{1}{2}
$$

We also have the following asymptotics for $\beta_{n}$. From Taylor's theorem, $\cos x=$ $1-\frac{x^{2}}{2}+O\left(x^{4}\right)$ and $(1 / 2)^{x}=1+x \ln \frac{1}{2}+O\left(x^{2}\right)$, and therefore,

$$
1-\frac{\beta_{n}^{2}}{2}+O\left(\beta_{n}^{4}\right)=\cos \beta_{n}=\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}}=1+\frac{1}{n-1} \ln \frac{1}{2}+O\left(n^{-2}\right)
$$

Solving, we obtain

$$
\beta_{n}=\sqrt{\frac{2 \ln 2}{n-1}}+O\left(n^{-1}\right)
$$

We can precisely compute $\beta_{n}$ and $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)$ in the cases $n=2$ and $n=3$. For $n=2$, we have $\beta_{2}=\pi / 3$ and $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{2}\right)=1 / 3$, while for $n=3$, we have $\beta_{3}=\pi / 4$ and $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{3}\right)=(\sqrt{2}-1) / \sqrt{2} \approx 0.293$.

In the next result, we prove that $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ is a monotone decreasing sequence tending to zero, while the $\left\{\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)\right\}$ monotonically decrease to $\widetilde{\alpha}$, where $\widetilde{\alpha}$ is the value from the Gaussian space (see the previous Example 20).

Theorem 21 Let $\beta_{n}$ and $\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)$ be as above. Then
(i) $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ is a monotone decreasing sequence tending to zero.
(ii) $\left\{\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)\right\}$ is a monotone decreasing sequence.
(iii) $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)=\widetilde{\alpha}$.

Proof (i) The montonicity of the $\left\{\beta_{n}\right\}$ follows from the fact that since $\cos ^{n-1} \beta_{n}=$ $\cos ^{n} \beta_{n+1}=\frac{1}{2}$, then $\cos ^{n} \beta_{n}<\cos ^{n} \beta_{n+1}$. As $\beta_{n}, \beta_{n+1} \in(0, \pi / 2)$, we have $\beta_{n}>$ $\beta_{n+1}$.
(ii) We have that

$$
\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)=\frac{2 \int_{\beta_{n}}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta}{2 \int_{0}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta},
$$

while

$$
\cos ^{n-1} \beta_{n}=\frac{1}{2}
$$

Substitute $t=\cos ^{n-1} \theta$ to obtain $d t=-(n-1) \cos ^{n-2} \theta \sin \theta d \theta$. Since $\sin \theta=$ $\sqrt{1-\cos ^{2} \theta}$, we obtain

$$
-\frac{1}{n-1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}=\cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta
$$

Thus,

$$
\int_{\beta_{n}}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta=\frac{1}{n-1} \int_{0}^{1 / 2} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}
$$

while

$$
\int_{0}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta=\frac{1}{n-1} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}
$$

We therefore wish to prove that

$$
\frac{\int_{0}^{1 / 2} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}}{\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}}>\frac{\int_{0}^{1 / 2} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 / n}}}}{\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 / n}}}}
$$

We claim that

$$
\frac{\int_{0}^{c} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}}{\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}}>\frac{\int_{0}^{c} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 / n}}}}{\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 / n}}}}
$$

for every $c \in(0,1)$; i.e.,

$$
\int_{0}^{c} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}>A \int_{0}^{c} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 / n}}}
$$

where the positive constant $A$ is such that equality holds for $c=1$.
To prove this, it suffices to prove that

$$
\frac{\sqrt{1-t^{2 / n}}}{\sqrt{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}}
$$

is decreasing on $(0,1)$; i.e.,

$$
\frac{1-t^{2 / n}}{1-t^{2 /(n-1)}}
$$

is decreasing on $(0,1)$.
Set $s=t^{2 / n(n-1)}$. Thus, $t^{2 / n}=s^{n-1}$ and $t^{2 /(n-1)}=s^{n}$, and we wish to show that

$$
\frac{1-s^{n-1}}{1-s^{n}}
$$

is decreasing on $(0,1)$. Differentiating, this is then equivalent to

$$
-(n-1) s^{n-2}\left(1-s^{n}\right)+\left(1-s^{n-1}\right) n s^{n-1}<0,
$$

which can be rewritten as

$$
s<\frac{n-1}{n}+\frac{1}{n} s^{n},
$$

which, in turn, is easily proven.
(iii) To show the desired convergence, write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right) & =\frac{\int_{\beta_{n}}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta}{\int_{0}^{\pi / 2} \cos ^{n-2} \theta d \theta} \\
& =\frac{\int_{\beta_{n} \sqrt{n-2}}^{\pi \sqrt{n-2}} \cos ^{n-2}(t / \sqrt{n-2}) d t}{\int_{0}^{\pi \sqrt{n-2} / 2} \cos ^{n-2}(t / \sqrt{n-2}) d t}=\frac{\int_{\beta_{n} \sqrt{n-2}}^{\infty} f_{n}(t) d t}{\int_{0}^{\infty} f_{n}(t) d t}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $t=(\sqrt{n-2}) \theta$ and where $f_{n}(t)=\cos ^{n-2}(t / \sqrt{n-2})$ for $0 \leq t \leq \pi \sqrt{n-2} / 2$ and 0 for $t>\pi \sqrt{n-2} / 2$.

From the asymptotics for $\beta_{n}$, we have

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_{n} \sqrt{n-2}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(\sqrt{\frac{2 \ln 2}{n-1}}+O\left(n^{-1}\right)\right) \sqrt{n-2}=\sqrt{2 \ln 2}
$$

We also note that $0 \leq f_{n}(t) \leq e^{-t^{2} / 2}$ (because $\cos x \leq e^{-x^{2} / 2}$ for $x \in[0, \pi / 2]$ ), and that

$$
0 \leq\left(1-\frac{1}{2}(t / \sqrt{n-2})^{2}\right)^{n-2} \leq f_{n}(t)
$$

when $0 \leq t / \sqrt{n-2} \leq \sqrt{2}$ (because $0 \leq 1-x^{2} / 2 \leq \cos x$ for $x \in[0, \sqrt{2}]$ ).
It follows from these inequalities that $f_{n}(t) \rightarrow e^{-t^{2} / 2}$ pointwise, and since $e^{-t^{2} / 2}$ is integrable and $0 \leq f_{n}(t) \leq e^{-t^{2} / 2}$, Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem gives

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha^{*}\left(M_{n}\right)=\frac{\int_{\sqrt{2 \ln 2}}^{\infty} e^{-t^{2} / 2} d t}{\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t^{2} / 2} d t}=\widetilde{\alpha}
$$

Remark The above is an example of the known fact (usually attributed to Maxwell) that for a fixed $k$ (here we have $k=1$ ), the projections of the uniform measures on $\sqrt{n-1} S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{k}$ converge, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, to the standard Gaussian measure on $\mathbb{R}^{k}$.

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