

OPTIMAL POLYNOMIAL LOWER BOUNDS FOR THE EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT. In this paper, for each natural number n , we construct a polynomial $p_n(x)$ of degree n so that $p_n(x) \leq p_{n+1}(x) \leq e^x$ for $x \geq -1$. These polynomials are optimal in the sense that if $p(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n with $p_{n-1}(x) \leq p(x) \leq e^x$, then $p(x) \leq p_n(x)$.

1. Introduction

A typical bound of the exponential function is

$$(1.1) \quad 1 + x \leq e^x \quad \text{or} \quad e^x \leq \frac{1}{1-x}.$$

Here the first inequality holds on the whole real line but the second holds for $x < 1$. Pólya proved the inequality between the arithmetic and geometric means using this simple inequality (see [2, §4.2], [7]). In fact, almost the same proof can be applied to show the inequality between the generalized arithmetic and geometric means:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j a_j \geq \prod_{j=1}^n a_j^{\lambda_j}$$

where λ_j 's and a_j 's are nonnegative real numbers with $\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j = 1$.

As a part of an effort to approximate e^x by other (algebraic) functions, various bounds for the exponential function have been developed (see [3], [5, pp. 266-270], [6]). Recently, Kim established the following densely algebraic bounds in [1], [4]

$$e^x \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1 + (1 - \frac{1}{n})x}{1 - \frac{x}{n}} \right)^n$$

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for real $n \geq 1$ and $-\frac{n}{n-1} < x < n$. In this paper, we present the following simple polynomial bounds of e^x extending (1.1).

THEOREM 1.1. For $n \geq 1$, let

$$p_n(x) = 1 + \alpha_1 x + \sum_{j=2}^n \alpha_j x^2 (x+1)^{j-2}$$

where $\alpha_1 = 1$ and

$$\alpha_n = \frac{n-2}{e} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \frac{1}{j!} - e \right) + \frac{1}{(n-2)!e}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

Then $p_n(x) \leq p_{n+1}(x) \leq e^x$ for $x \geq -1$. Furthermore, these are optimal in the sense that if $p(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n with $p_{n-1}(x) \leq p(x) \leq e^x$ for $x \geq -1$, then $p(x) \leq p_n(x)$ for $x \geq -1$.

This theorem gives lower bounds of e^x but by writing $-x$ for x , we have the following rational upper bound version.

THEOREM 1.2. For all natural numbers n , we have

$$e^x \leq \frac{1}{p_{n+1}(-x)} \leq \frac{1}{p_n(-x)}, \quad x < 1.$$

If $p(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n with $e^x \leq \frac{1}{p(x)} \leq \frac{1}{p_{n-1}(-x)}$, $x < 1$, then

$$\frac{1}{p_n(-x)} \leq \frac{1}{p(x)}, \quad x < 1.$$

With some preliminaries in the next section, we will prove the theorem. We assume that all functions in this paper are real valued on \mathbf{R} and analytic on \mathbf{C} . Also, note that when we say the number of zeros of a function, it includes all the multiplicities.

2. Preliminaries

At first, we give a couple of observations on calculus.

PROPOSITION 2.1. Let a be a fixed real number. Suppose $f^{(k-1)}(a) = 0$ and $f^{(k)}(a) > 0$ for some positive integer k .

- (i) If k is even, then there exists an interval around a on which $f(x)$ achieves the unique minimum $f(a) = 0$.
- (ii) If k is odd, then there exists an interval around a on which $f(x)$ is strictly increasing.

Proof. Let $h(x)$ be a function defined on an open interval I containing a . Let's say that $h(x)$ has unique minimum (UM) property when $h(a) = 0$ and it is the unique minimum on I , and $h(x)$ has strictly increasing (SI) property when $h(a) = 0$ and $h(x)$ is strictly increasing on I . It's easy to see that if $h'(x)$ has UM-property and $h(a) = 0$ then $h(x)$ has SI-property. On the other hand, if $h'(x)$ has SI-property and $h(a) = 0$ then $h(x)$ has UM-property. Since $f^{(k)}(a) > 0$, by the continuity of $f^{(k)}(x)$, there exists an open interval I containing a on which $f^{(k)}(x) > 0$. Hence, on the interval I , $f^{(k-1)}(x)$ has SI-property, $f^{(k-2)}(x)$ has UM-property, $f^{(k-3)}(x)$ has SI-property, \dots , and so on. Pursuing these alternations k times, we have the conclusions of the proposition. \square

PROPOSITION 2.2. Let $p(x)$ be a polynomial of degree n . Then $e^x - p(x)$ has at most $n + 1$ zeros.

Proof. Suppose a function $f(x)$ has k zeros. Applying Roll's Theorem, we know that its derivative $f'(x)$ has at least $k - 1$ zeros. In other words, if $f'(x)$ has $k - 1$ zeros, then $f(x)$ has at most k zeros. Now the proof is straightforward by using induction on n , the degree of $p(x)$. \square

We introduce one more proposition. We need the following lemma for the proof of it.

LEMMA 2.3. Suppose there exists an interval $[a, a + \delta]$ on which $f(x) \geq 0$ and $f(a) = 0$. Then there exists λ ($0 < \lambda < \delta$) such that $f'(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, a + \lambda]$.

Proof. We may assume $f(x)$ is not constant. Let $\beta = \inf \{x \in [a, a + \delta] \mid f'(x) < 0\}$. If $\beta > a$, then we may take any real number between a and β as our λ . In fact, $\beta = a$ is impossible because (as an analytic function) $f(x)$ has only finitely many zeros on $[a, a + \delta]$ and for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is no open interval $(a, a + \epsilon)$ on which $f(x) < 0$. \square

DEFINITION 2.4. We say that a is an m -multiple zero of $f(x)$ when $f^{(j)}(a) = 0$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m - 1$ and $f^{(m)}(a) \neq 0$. In this case, $Z(a, f) = m$ is called the multiplicity of the zero a of f .

PROPOSITION 2.5. Suppose $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for $x \geq a$ and $Z(a, g) = m$. Then $Z(a, f) \geq m$ and $f^{(m)}(a) \leq g^{(m)}(a)$.

Proof. By the definition of a multiple zero, $g^{(j)}(a) = 0$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m - 1$. Hence, for each $j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m\}$, it suffices to show that $0 \leq f^{(j)}(x) \leq g^{(j)}(x)$ on the interval $[a, a + \lambda_j]$ for some $\lambda_j > 0$. We use an induction on j . Assume $0 \leq f^{(j-1)}(x) \leq g^{(j-1)}(x)$ on the interval $[a, a + \lambda_{j-1}]$. Then note $f^{(j-1)}(a) = g^{(j-1)}(a) = 0$. Now applying Lemma 2.3 twice, one for $f^{(j-1)}(x)$ and another for $g^{(j-1)}(x) - f^{(j-1)}(x)$, we can find an interval $[a, a + \lambda_j]$ on which $0 \leq f^{(j)}(x) \leq g^{(j)}(x)$. \square

3. Proof of the main theorem

In this section, we prove Theorem 1.1. At first, we establish some properties of the sequence α_n .

LEMMA 3.1. For $n \geq 1$, we have

- (i) $\alpha_n > 0$
- (ii) $\alpha_{n+2} = 2\alpha_{n+1} - \alpha_n + \frac{1}{n!e}$
- (iii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n = \frac{3}{2}$.

Proof. In this proof, we will use the following inequality frequently.

$$(3.1) \quad e - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{j!} = \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)} + \dots \right) < \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \dots \right) = \frac{n+1}{n!n}$$

By this inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_n &= \frac{n-2}{e} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \frac{1}{j!} - e \right) + \frac{1}{(n-2)!e} \\ &> \frac{n-2}{e} \frac{-n}{(n-1)!(n-1)} + \frac{1}{(n-2)!e} = \frac{1}{(n-2)!e} \left(1 - \frac{n(n-2)}{(n-1)^2} \right) > 0. \end{aligned}$$

For (ii), the direct calculation shows that

$$\begin{aligned} &2\alpha_{n+1} - \alpha_n + \frac{1}{n!e} \\ &= \frac{2n-2}{e} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{j!} - e \right) + \frac{2}{(n-1)!e} - \frac{n-2}{e} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} \frac{1}{j!} - e \right) - \frac{1}{(n-2)!e} + \frac{1}{n!e} \\ &= \frac{n}{e} \left(\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} - e \right) + \frac{1}{n!e} = \alpha_{n+2}. \end{aligned}$$

For (iii), it's enough to show that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \left(e - \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \right) = \frac{1}{2}e$ since $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n-2)!e} = 1$. Let $\sigma_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ with $\sigma_0 = 0$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{k=1}^n k \left(e - \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{1}{j!} \right) \\ &= \sigma_n e - \sigma_n \frac{1}{0!} - \sum_{j=1}^n (\sigma_n - \sigma_{j-1}) \frac{1}{j!} = \sigma_n \left(e - \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j!} \right) + \sum_{j=2}^n \frac{\sigma_{j-1}}{j!}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that, by (3.1), the first term of the last expression goes to zero as n goes to infinity. Thus we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \left(e - \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \right) &= \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma_{j-1}}{j!} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sigma_j}{(j+1)!} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} j(j+1) \frac{1}{(j+1)!} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} = \frac{1}{2}e. \end{aligned}$$

□

LEMMA 3.2. For $n \geq 1$, let $g_n(x) = e^x - p_n(x)$. Then

- (i) $g_n(0) = g'_n(0) = 0$, $g''_n(0) = 1 - 2 \sum_{j=2}^n \alpha_j > 0$ (with $g''_1(0) = 1$).
(ii) For $n \geq 2$, $g_n(x)$ has $n-1$ -multiple zeros at -1 and $g_n^{(n-1)}(-1) > 0$.

Proof. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} p'_n(x) &= 1 + 2 \sum_{j=2}^n \alpha_j x(x+1)^{j-2} + \sum_{j=3}^n (j-2) \alpha_j x^2(x+1)^{j-3}, \\ p''_n(x) &= 2 \sum_{j=2}^n \alpha_j (x+1)^{j-2} \\ &\quad + 4 \sum_{j=3}^n (j-2) \alpha_j x(x+1)^{j-3} + \sum_{j=4}^n (j-2)(j-3) \alpha_j x^2(x+1)^{j-4}. \end{aligned}$$

Invoking Lemma 3.1, (i) is immediate now. For $k \geq 2$, let us define $f_k(x) = \alpha_k x^2(x+1)^{k-2}$. Then we observe that

$$\begin{aligned} f_k^{(j)}(-1) &= 0 \quad \text{if } 0 \leq j < k-2 \quad \text{or } j > k \\ f_k^{(k)}(x) &= k! \alpha_k \\ (3.2) \quad f_k^{(k-1)}(x) &= (k-1)! 2 \alpha_k x + (k-1)! (k-2) \alpha_k (x+1) \\ f_k^{(k-2)}(x) &= (k-2)! \alpha_k x^2 + (k-2)! 2(k-2) \alpha_k x(x+1) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} (k-2)! (k-2)(k-3) \alpha_k (x+1)^2. \end{aligned}$$

To prove (ii), let $n \geq 2$. Since $g_n(x) = e^x - 1 - \alpha_1 x - \sum_{k=2}^n f_k(x)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} g_n^{(n-1)}(-1) &= \frac{1}{e} - f_{n-1}^{(n-1)}(-1) - f_n^{(n-1)}(-1) \\ &= \frac{1}{e} - (n-1)! \alpha_{n-1} + (n-1)! 2 \alpha_n \\ &= (n-1)! \left(2 \alpha_n - \alpha_{n-1} + \frac{1}{(n-1)! e} \right) = (n-1)! \alpha_{n+1} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

by (3.2) and Lemma 3.1 (ii). Finally, it remains to show $g_n^{(j)}(-1) = 0$, for $0 \leq j \leq n-2$. Clearly, $g_n^{(0)}(-1) = g_n(-1) = \frac{1}{e} - 1 + \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 = 0$ and $g_n^{(1)}(-1) = \frac{1}{e} - \alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 - \alpha_3 = 0$. Using (3.2) and Lemma 3.1 (ii) again for

$2 \leq j \leq n - 2$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} g_n^{(j)}(-1) &= \frac{1}{e} - \sum_{k=2}^n f_k^{(j)}(-1) = \frac{1}{e} - f_j^{(j)}(-1) - f_{j+1}^{(j)}(-1) - f_{j+2}^{(j)}(-1) \\ &= \frac{1}{e} - j! \alpha_j + j! 2 \alpha_{j+1} - j! \alpha_{j+2} \\ &= j! \left(-\alpha_{j+2} + 2\alpha_{j+1} - \alpha_j + \frac{1}{j!e} \right) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

□

Now we are ready to prove the main theorem.

Proof of Theorem 1.1.

Since α_n is a positive sequence by Lemma 3.1 and $x^2(x + 1) \geq 0$ for $x \geq -1$, it's clear that $p_n(x) \leq p_{n+1}(x)$ for $x \geq -1$. We are to show $g_n(x) \geq 0$ for $x \geq -1$. Lemma 3.2 shows that $g_n(x)$ has double zeros at $x = 0$ and $n - 1$ -multiple zeros at $x = -1$. Also, Proposition 2.2 says that these are all the zeros of $g_n(x)$. Lemma 3.2 (i) implies that $g_n(0) = 0$ is a local minimum. Moreover, combining Lemma 3.2 (ii) with Proposition 2.1, we realize that $g_n(-1) = 0$ is a local minimum for odd $n(> 1)$ and $g_n(x)$ is increasing in some neighborhood of $x = -1$ for even n . Based on these analyses, we may conclude $g_n(x) \geq 0$ for $x \geq -1$. Finally, suppose $p(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n with $p_{n-1}(x) \leq p(x) \leq e^x$ for $x \geq -1$. This means $0 \leq p(x) - p_{n-1}(x) \leq g_{n-1}(x)$ for $x \geq -1$. Let $f(x) = p(x) - p_{n-1}(x)$. Then $f(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n and by Lemma 3.2 and Proposition 2.5, it has double zeros at 0 and $n - 2$ -multiple zeros at -1 . Hence

$$f(x) = \alpha x^2(x + 1)^{n-2}$$

for some $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$. Proposition 2.5 also says that

$$(n - 2)! \alpha = f^{(n-2)}(-1) \leq g_{n-1}^{(n-2)}(-1) = (n - 2)! \alpha_n$$

which implies $\alpha \leq \alpha_n$. Therefore we have

$$p_n(x) - p(x) = p_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x) - f(x) = (\alpha_n - \alpha)x^2(x + 1)^{n-2} \geq 0$$

for $x \geq -1$.

□

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