# $\varepsilon$-ENTROPY OF THE BROWNIAN MOTION WITH THE MULTI-DIMENSIONAL SPHERICAL PARAMETER 

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## § 1. Introduction

M.S. Pinsker [3] has given a general method of calculating the $\varepsilon$-entropy of a Gaussian process and obtained, for example, an exact proof of the estimate for the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the ordinary Brownian motion $B(t), 0 \leqq t \leqq 1$, which was presented without proof by A.N. Kolmogorov [1].

In this article, we estimate the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the Brownian motion with the multidimensional spherical parameter, by using the expansion of the Brownian motion with a multidimensional parameter by H.P. McKean [4] and by generalizing the Pinsker's method of calculating the $\varepsilon$-entropy.

Let $X(A, \omega), A \in E^{d}$ ( $d$-dimensional Euclidean space), $\omega \in \Omega(P)$, be a Brownian motion with a parameter space $E^{d}$, that is, $\left\{X(A), A \in E^{d}\right\}$ forms a Gaussian system and

1) $E[X(A)]=0$ for every $A$,
2) $X(O)=0$, where $O$ is the origin of $E^{d}$,
3) $E\left[(X(A)-X(B))^{2}\right]=\operatorname{dis}(A, B)$, where $E(X)$ and $\operatorname{dis}(A, B)$ denote the expectation of a random variable $X$ and the Euclidean distance between $A$ and $B$, respectively.

We shall call $X(A)$ when the parameter $A$ is restricted to the unit sphere ${ }^{1)} S^{d-1}$ in $E^{d}$ the Brownian motion with the $d$-dimensional spherical parameter and denote it, as in the preceding case, by $X(A), A \in S^{d-1}$.

The $\varepsilon$-entropy $H_{\varepsilon}(X)$ of the process $X(A)$ is defined as follows:
Let $\varepsilon>0$ be arbitrarily fixed, and consider an approximating process $X^{\prime}(A)$ for the process $X(A)$ on $S^{d-1}$ satisfying the condition of reproducing accuracy,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{S^{d-1}} E\left[\left(X^{\prime}(A)-X(A)\right)^{2}\right] d \sigma(A) \leqq \varepsilon^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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1) Without loss of generality we may consider the unit sphere only.
where $d \sigma$ is the uniform probability measure on $S^{d-1}$. Then, the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the process $X(A)$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varepsilon}(X)=\inf I\left(X^{\prime}, X\right), \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)$ is the amount of information contained in a process $X^{\prime}$ with respect to the process $X$ and the infimum is taken for all processes $X^{\prime}$ satisfying the condition (1).

Our aim is to prove that the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the Brownian motion on $S^{d-1}$ is of order $\varepsilon^{-2(d-1)}$ (Theorem 2);

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varepsilon}(X)=O\left(\varepsilon^{-2(d-1)}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It seems to be interesting to note that the $\varepsilon$-entropy (in KolmogorovTihomirov's sense, cf. Kolmogorov-Tihomirov [2]) of the space of $\frac{1}{2}$-Hölder continuous functions of ( $d-1$ )-variables with the sup-norm has the same order $O\left(\varepsilon^{-2(d-1)}\right)$.

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## § 2. The generalization of Pinsker's method

Pinsker's method of calculating the $\varepsilon$-entropy of a Gaussian process with one dimensional parameter is as follows: Let $X(t), 0 \leqq t \leqq T$, be a Gaussian process with mean 0 whose covariance function $r(s, t)=E[X(s) X(t)]$ is continuous in $(s, t)$. Then the $\varepsilon$-entropy $H_{\varepsilon}(X)$ of the process $X(t)$ is given by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varepsilon}(X)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_{i}>\theta^{2}} \log \frac{\lambda_{i}}{\theta^{2}}, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{i}(i=1,2, \cdots)$ are the eigen-values of the integral operator with the kernel $r(s, t)$ in $L^{2}[0, T], \quad \lambda_{1} \geqq \lambda_{2} \geqq \cdots \geqq 0$, and $\theta$ is determined (uniquely) by the equation
(5)

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \min \left(\theta^{2}, \lambda_{i}\right)=\varepsilon^{2} \cdot{ }^{2)}
$$

[^0]The right-hand side of the relation (4) also equals to the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the infinite dimensional Gaussian random variable $X^{*}=\left(X_{1}^{*}, X_{2}^{*}, \cdots\right)^{3}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{i}^{*}=\int_{0}^{T} \varphi_{i}(t) X(t) d t^{4)} \quad(i=1,2, \cdots) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varphi_{i}(t)$ is the eigen-function of the integral operator corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda_{i}$ and $E\left[X_{i}^{*} X_{j}^{*}\right]=\lambda_{i} \delta_{i j}$.

As an example, if in particular the sequence $\lambda_{1} \geqq \lambda_{2} \geqq \cdots \geqq 0$ of the eigen-values of the integral operator with the kernel corresponding to a Gaussian process takes the form: $\lambda_{k}=c k^{-s}(s>1 ; k=1,2, \cdots)$, then, the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the process is

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\mathrm{s}}(X)=O\left(\varepsilon^{-\frac{2}{s-1}}\right) . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we proceed to a Gaussian process $X(A), A \in S^{d-1}$, with mean 0 . Assume the continuity of the covariance function $r(A, B)=E[X(A) X(B)]$ in $S^{d-1} \times S^{d-1}$, so $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{i}$ is finite (see the discussion in the footnote 2)) where $\lambda_{i}$, $i=1,2, \cdots$, are the eigenvalues of the integral operator with the kernel $r(A, B)$ in $L^{2}\left(S^{d-1}, d \sigma\right)$. Then, the following entirely analogous result holds, and we state it as a theorem.

Theorem 1. The e-entropy $H_{\varepsilon}(X)$ of the above Gaussian process $X(A)$, $A \in S^{d-1}$ is

$$
H_{\varepsilon}(X)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_{i}>\theta^{2}} \log \frac{\lambda_{i}}{\theta^{2}}
$$

where $\lambda_{i}(i=1,2, \cdots)$ with $\lambda_{1} \geqq \lambda_{2} \geqq \cdots \geqq 0$ are eigen-values of the integral operator and $\theta$ is determined by the equation (5). The right-hand side of the relation (4') equals also to the e-entropy of the infinite dimensional Gaussian random variable $X^{*}=\left(X_{1}^{*}, X_{2}^{*}, \cdots\right)$ :

$$
X_{i}^{*}=\int_{S^{d-1}} \varphi_{\imath}(A) X(A) d \sigma(A) \quad(i=1,2, \cdots)
$$

3) The $\varepsilon$-entropy of $X^{*}$ is defined as $H_{\varepsilon}\left(X^{*}\right)=\inf I\left(\tilde{X}^{*}, X^{*}\right)$ where the infimum is taken for all infinite dimensional approximating random variables $\tilde{X}^{*}=\left(\widetilde{X}_{1}^{*}, \widetilde{X}_{2}^{*}, \cdots\right)$ satisfying the condition: $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} E\left[\left(\widetilde{X}_{i}^{*}-X_{i}^{*}\right)^{2}\right] \leqq \varepsilon^{2}$.
4) This (Bochner) integral is determined as an element of $L^{2}(\Omega)$.
where $\varphi_{i}(A)$ is the eigen-function of the integral operator corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda_{i}$, and $E\left[X_{i}^{*} X_{j}^{*}\right]=\lambda_{i} \delta_{i j}$.

Proof. The proof is quite similar to the proof for one dimensional parameter case dealt by M.S. Pinsker [3], except for the construction of the process $\dot{\xi}$ ([3], formula (132)). The proof, however, can be carried out by using the extension theorem of Urysohn, so that we shall not continue the proof further.

## §3. The main result

We are now in a position to prove our main result.
Theorem 2. The e-entropy of the Brownian motion with the d-dimensional spherical parameter is of order $\varepsilon^{-2(d-1)}$;

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varepsilon}(X)=O\left(\varepsilon^{-2(d-1)}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. According to H.P. McKean [4] the Brownian motion with the $d$-dimensional parameter can be expanded as a sum of mutually independent Gaussian processes associated with spherical harmonics. We state this expansion and some related results with the Gaussian process $X(A), A \in S^{d-1}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(A)=\sum_{n \geq 0} \sum_{l=1}^{D(n)} x_{n}^{l}(1) h_{n}^{l}(A), A \in S^{d-1} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $h_{n}^{l}(A)$ is a spherical harmonics of degree $n$ satisfying

$$
\int_{S^{d-1}} h_{n}^{l}(A) h_{m}^{k}(A) d \sigma(A)= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } l=k, n=m  \tag{10}\\ 0, & \text { otherwise },\end{cases}
$$

$D(n)$ is the dimension of the vector space spanned by all the spherical harmonics of degree $n$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(n)=(2 n-2+d) \frac{(n-3+d)!}{(d-2)!n!} \quad(d \geqq 2, n \geqq 0)^{5} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $x_{n}^{l}(1)(n \geqq 0,1 \leqq l \leqq D(n))$ are mutually independent Gaussian random variables which can be expressed in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{n}^{l}(1) \equiv x_{n}^{l}=C(d) \int_{0}^{1} C_{n}(u) d B_{n}^{l}(u) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^1]The processes $B_{n}^{l}(u)(n \geqq 0,1 \leqq l \leqq D(n))$ appeared in the above expression are mutually independent standard Brownian motions and

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{n}(u)=\frac{\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} p_{n}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{d-2} \theta d \theta}{\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin ^{d-2} \theta d \theta}, n \geqq 0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $p_{n}(\cos \theta)=C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(\cos \theta) / C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(1)$, where $C_{n}^{\nu}(\cdot)$ is the Gegenbauer polynomial and $C(d)$ is a constant depending only on $d$.

By the expansion (9) and by the independence of the random variables $x_{n}^{l}$ with $E\left[x_{n}^{l}\right]=0 \quad(n \geqq 0,1 \leqq l \leqq D(n))$ we easily see that the covariance function of the process $X(A)$ is expressed in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(A, B)=\sum_{n \geq 0} \sum_{l=1}^{D(n)} E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right] h_{n}^{l}(A) h_{n}^{l}(B) . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using this, Mercer's expansion theorem shows us that the eigen-values $\lambda_{n}^{l}(n \geqq 0,1 \leqq l \leqq D(n))$ of the integral operator with the kernel $r(A, B)$ are equal to $E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]$. Therefore, if we know the amount $E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]$ we can obtain the $\varepsilon$-entropy of the Brownian motion with the parameter space $S^{d-1}$ by the formula (4'). In fact, we can prove in the following that for large $n, E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]=O\left(n^{-d}\right), 1 \leqq l \leqq D(n)$, holds. Once the result is shown, then just by renumbering the double sequence of random variables $x_{0}^{1}, x_{1}^{1}, x_{1}^{2}$, $\cdots, x_{1}^{D(1)}, x_{2}^{1}, \cdots$ into the ordinary sequence $x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{2}^{\prime}, \cdots$, while keeping the original order, we can easily apply Theorem 1 in $\S 2$. If $x_{k}^{\prime}$, for large $k$, corresponds to the original random variable $x_{N}^{M}(1 \leqq M \leqq D(N))$, then by the relation $\sum_{n=0}^{N} n^{d-2}=O\left(N^{d-1}\right)$ (this nearly equals to $k$ ) and by the formula (11) $\left(D(n)=O\left(n^{d-2}\right)\right.$ for large $\left.n\right)$, we obtain $N=O\left(k^{\frac{1}{d-1}}\right)$, so that $E\left[\left(x_{k}^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right]=O\left(\left(k^{\frac{1}{d-1}}\right)^{-d}\right)=O\left(k^{-\frac{d}{d-1}}\right)$. Then, by this and the formula (7), follows the desired result $H_{\varepsilon}(X)=O\left(\varepsilon^{-\frac{d}{d-1}-1}\right)=O\left(\varepsilon^{-2(d-1)}\right)$.

Therefore, in the following, we are to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]=O\left(n^{-d}\right), \quad 1 \leqq l \leqq D(n) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for large $n$.

First of all, we show the formula (15) in case the dimension $d=2$ and 3 , and then, generalizing it, we proceed to prove the formula (15) for $d \geqq 4$, that is, (I) in case $d$ is an even integer and (II) when $d$ is odd.

In case $d=2, p_{n}(\cos \theta)$ in the expression (13) turns out to be $\cos n \theta$, so that $C_{n}(u)=\frac{1}{n \pi} \sin \left(n \cos ^{-1} u\right)$. From this we have,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]=\frac{1}{n^{2} \pi} \int_{0}^{1} \sin ^{2}\left(n \cos ^{-1} u\right) d u \\
& \quad=\frac{1}{n^{2} \pi} \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin ^{2} n \theta \sin \theta d \theta \\
& \quad=O\left(n^{-2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

While in case $d=3, \quad p_{n}(\cos \theta)=P_{n}(\cos \theta)$, hence we have $C_{n}(u)=\frac{1}{2} \frac{P_{n-1}(u)-P_{n+1}(u)}{2 n+1}$ where $P_{n}(\cdot)$ is the $n-t h$ Legendre polynomial. Then, by the orthogonality of the Legendre polynomials, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right] & =\frac{1}{(2 n+1)^{2}}\left\{\int_{0}^{1}\left(P_{n+1}(u)\right)^{2} d u+\int_{0}^{1}\left(P_{n-1}(u)\right)^{2} d u\right\} \\
& =O\left(n^{-3}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In case $d \geqq 4$, by the formula (12), we have

$$
E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]=(C(d))^{2} \int_{n}^{1}\left(C_{n}(u)\right)^{2} d u
$$

$$
=(\mathrm{a} \text { constant depending on } d \text { only }) \times\left\{C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(1)\right\}^{-2}
$$

$$
\times \int_{0}^{1}\left\{\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{d-2} \theta d \theta\right\}^{2} d u
$$

and this expression becomes,

$$
O\left(n^{-2 d+\theta}\right) \times \int_{0}^{1}\left\{\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{d-2} \theta d \theta\right\}^{2} d u
$$

for large $n$, since $C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(1)=\frac{\Gamma(n+d-2)}{n!\Gamma(d-2)}=O\left(n^{d-3}\right)$.
To prove $E\left[\left(x_{n}^{l}\right)^{2}\right]=O\left(n^{-d}\right)$, we must show that the above integral (we denote it by $I_{d}$ ) is of order $O\left(n^{d-6}\right)$.
(I) The proof of the fact that $I_{d}=O\left(n^{d-6}\right)$ for $d=2 p+2(p \geqq 1$, integer).

First we estimate the integrand of the above integral. Let the following integral be denoted by $I_{p}(u)$,

$$
I_{p}(u)=\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{d-2} \theta d \theta=\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} C_{n}^{p}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2 p} \theta d \theta .
$$

The integrand $C_{n}^{p}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2 p} \theta$ of the above integral becomes, by using the recurrence formula for the Gegenbauer polynomials

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin ^{2} \theta C_{n}^{\nu+1}(\cos \theta)=\frac{1}{2 \nu}\left\{(n+2 \nu) C_{n}^{\nu}(\cos \theta)-(n+1) \cos \theta C_{n+1}^{\nu}(\cos \theta)\right\} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the formula $\sin \theta C_{n}^{1}(\cos \theta)=\sin (n+1) \theta$,
$C_{n}^{p}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2 p} \theta=\sin ^{2} \theta C_{n}^{p}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2(p-1)} \theta$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\frac{1}{2(p-1)}\left\{(n+2(p-1)) C_{n}^{p-1}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2(p-1)} \theta-(n+1) \cos \theta C_{n+1}^{p-1}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2(p-1)} \theta\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{2^{p-1}(p-1)!}\left\{A_{1}^{p}(n) \sin \theta \sin (n+1) \theta+A_{2}^{p}(n) \cos \theta \sin \theta \sin (n+2) \theta\right. \\
& \left.\quad \quad+A_{3}^{p}(n) \cos ^{2} \theta \sin \theta \sin (n+3) \theta+\cdots+A_{p}^{p}(n) \cos ^{p-1} \theta \sin \theta \sin (n+p) \theta\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $A_{1}^{p}(n), A_{2}^{p}(n), \cdots, A_{p}^{p}(n)$ are polynomials of $n$ of order $(p-1)$. Noticing that $\sin \theta \sin (n+1) \theta, \cos \theta \sin \theta \sin (n+2) \theta, \cdots$ and $\cos ^{p-1} \theta \sin \theta \sin (n+p) \theta$ are all expressed as the linear combinations of $\cos n \theta, \cos (n+2) \theta, \cdots$, $\cos (n+2 p) \theta$, we can show that the integral becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{p}(u)=\sum_{k=0}^{p} \frac{B_{k}^{p}(n)}{n+2 k} \sin (n+2 k) \alpha, \quad \alpha=\cos ^{-1} u \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B_{k}^{p}, k=0,1, \cdots, p$, are polynomials of $n$ of order at most ( $p-1$ ). Therefore, changing the variable of integration into $\alpha$, and making use of the fact

$$
\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin (n+2 k) \alpha \sin (n+2 l) \alpha \sin \alpha d \alpha=\frac{1}{2}\left\{\frac{1}{1-4(k-l)^{2}}+O\left(n^{-2}\right)\right\}
$$

we have

$$
I_{d}=\int_{0}^{1}\left\{I_{p}(u)\right\}^{2} d u=\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}}\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{p} \frac{B_{k}^{p}(n)}{n+2 k} \sin (n+2 k) \alpha\right\}^{2} \sin \alpha d \alpha
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum_{k, l=0}^{p} \frac{B_{k}^{p}(n) B_{l}^{p}(n)}{(n+2 k)(n+2 l)} \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin (n+2 k) \alpha \sin (n+2 l) \alpha \sin \alpha d \alpha \\
& =O\left(n^{2 p-4}\right)\left(=O\left(n^{d-6}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The last estimation is valid if the coefficient of the term $n^{2 p-4}$ never vanishes, that is, if at least one of the coefficients of the term $n^{p-1}$ of the polynomials $B_{k}^{p}(n)(k=0,1, \cdots, p)$ does not vanish. But this is true, for example, $B_{0}^{p}(n)$ has non zero coefficient of $n^{p-1}$.
(II) The proof of the fact that $I_{d}=O\left(n^{d-6}\right)$ for $d=2 p+3(p \geqq 1$, integer).
Similarly to (I), we denote the following integral by $I_{p}(u)$,

$$
I_{p}(u)=\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} C_{n}^{\frac{d-2}{2}}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{d-2} \theta d \theta=\int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} C_{n}^{p+\frac{1}{2}}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{2 p+1} \theta d \theta
$$

then, by the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{n}^{p+\frac{1}{2}}(\cos \theta)=\frac{2^{p} p!}{(2 p)!\sin ^{p} \theta} P_{n+p}^{p}(\cos \theta) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

for the half-integer Gegenbauer polynomial $C_{n}^{p+\frac{1}{2}}$ and the associated Legendre polynomial $P_{n+p}^{p}$, we have

$$
I_{p}(u)=c(d) \int_{0}^{\cos ^{-1} u} P_{n+p}^{p}(\cos \theta) \sin ^{p+1} \theta d \theta
$$

where $c(d)$ is a constant depending on $d$. By definition,

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

and by changing the variable of integration into $x=\cos \theta$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{c(d)} I_{p}(u) & =\int_{u}^{1} \frac{d^{p}}{d x^{p}} P_{n+p}(x)\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p} d x \\
& =-\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)+2 p \int_{u}^{1} x\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x) d x
\end{aligned}
$$

From this, the desired integral $I_{d}$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
& {[c(d)]^{2} \cdot I_{d}=[c(d)]^{2} \int_{0}^{1}\left\{I_{p}(u)\right\}^{2} d u=\int_{0}^{1}\left\{\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)\right\}^{2} d u} \\
& \text { (19) } \quad-4 p \int_{0}^{1}\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)\left\{\int_{u}^{1} x\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x) d x\right\} d u \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
+4 p^{2} \int_{0}^{1}\left\{\int_{u}^{1} x\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x) d x\right\}^{2} d u
$$

To estimate these integrals, we first express $\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p}}{d u^{p}} P_{n}(u)$ in terms of $P_{n}(u)$ and $P_{n-1}(u)$. For this purpose, we make use of the recurrence formula of the Legendre polynomials $\left(1-x^{2}\right) P_{n}^{\prime}(x)=n\left(P_{n-1}(x)-x P_{n}(x)\right)$ and the differential equation derived from the Legendre's differential equation

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(1-x^{2}\right) \frac{d^{k}}{d x^{k}} P_{n}(x)-2(k-1) x \frac{d^{k-1}}{d x^{k-1}} P_{n}(x)  \tag{20}\\
+ & (n+(k-1))(n-(k-2)) \frac{d^{k-2}}{d x^{k-2}} P_{n}(x)=0, \quad(k \geqq 2) .
\end{align*}
$$

For any $p \geqq 1$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p}}{d u^{p}} P_{n}(u)=P_{n-1}(u) Q_{n-1, p}(u)+P_{n}(u) Q_{n, p}(u) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q_{n-1, p}(u)$ and $Q_{n, p}(u)$ are polynomials of $u$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{n-1, p}(u)=\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} C_{k}(n) u^{k}, \quad Q_{n, p}(u)=\sum_{k=0}^{p} D_{k}(n) u^{k} . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

The coefficients $C_{0}(n), C_{1}(n), \cdots, C_{p-1}(n), D_{0}(n), D_{1}(n), \cdots, D_{p}(n)$ have the following properties: (i) $C_{p-1}(n) \neq 0, D_{p}(n) \neq 0$ (ii) they are the polynomials of $n$ with the order at most $p$ (iii) if $p$ is an even integer, then $D_{0}(n)$ is the polynomial of order $p$ and if $p$ is odd, $C_{0}(n)$ is the polynomial of order $p$. By these facts and by the property of the Legendre polynomial: $\int_{0}^{1}\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}^{2} d x=O\left(n^{-1}\right)$ for large $n$, we can easily show that the first integral of the right-hand side of the equality (19) becomes,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1}\left\{\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)\right\}^{2} d u & =\int_{0}^{1}\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{2}\left\{\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)\right\}^{2} d u \\
& =O\left(n^{2(p-1)}\right) \cdot O\left(n^{-1}\right)=O\left(n^{d-8}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

For the second integral of the right-hand side of (19), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\int_{0}^{1}\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)\left\{\int_{u}^{1} x\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x) d x\right\} d u\right| \\
& \leqq\left\{\int_{0}^{1}\left\{\left(1-u^{2}\right)^{p} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d u^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(u)\right\}^{2} d u\right\}^{1 / 2} \cdot\left\{\int_{0}^{1}\left\{\int_{u}^{1} x\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x) d x\right\}^{2} d u\right\}^{1 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The first term of the product on the right-hand side of the inequality, by the above result, has the order $O\left(n^{\frac{d-6}{2}}\right)$ and the integrand of the second term can be evaluated as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{\int_{u}^{1} x\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}}\right. & \left.P_{n+p}(x) d x\right\}^{2} \leqq \int_{u}^{1} x^{2} d x \cdot \int_{u}^{1}\left\{\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x)\right\}^{2} d x \\
& <\int_{0}^{1} x^{2} d x \cdot \int_{0}^{1}\left\{\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{p-1} \frac{d^{p-1}}{d x^{p-1}} P_{n+p}(x)\right\}^{2} d x=O\left(n^{d-6}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the second integral is at most of order $O\left(n^{d-6}\right)$. As for the last integral of the equality (19), by a similar approach, we estimate it to be at most of order $O\left(n^{d-6}\right)$. This proves the desired result for $d=2 p+3(p \geqq 1)$, and thus we have proved the theorem completely.

## References

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[^0]:    2) By Mercer's theorem

    $$
    \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{i} \int_{0}^{T}\left[\varphi_{i}(t)\right]^{2} d t=\int_{0}^{T} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{i}\left[\varphi_{i}(t)\right]^{2} d t=\int_{0}^{T} r(t, t) d t<\infty .
    $$

[^1]:    5) For $d=2$ and $n=0, D(n)=1$.
