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## Radial and Optimal Selections of Metric Projections onto Balls


#### Abstract

We characterize differentiability of radial selections of metric projections onto balls, and derive (estimations of) their best Lipschitz constants for Banach spaces $L^{p}$ (2-convex spaces, respectively). Moreover, the optimal selections are determined for several normed lattices, which enabled to prove Ky Fan's approximation principle for order intervals in the Banach lattice $L^{\infty}$.


1. Introduction. Let $X$ be a normed linear space, and let

$$
B=\{x \in X:\|x\| \leq 1\}
$$

be the unit ball in $X$. Denote by $\mathcal{P}: X \rightarrow 2^{B}$ the metric projection onto $B$,

$$
\mathcal{P}(x)=\left\{z \in B:\|x-z\|=\inf _{y \in B}\|x-y\|\right\} .
$$

Since

$$
\|x-x /\| x\|\|=\| x\|-1 \leq\|x\|-\|y\| \leq\|x-y\|
$$

whenever $x \notin B$ and $y \in B$, it follows that $\mathcal{P}(x) \neq \emptyset$ for every $x \in X$, and that the mapping

$$
R(x)= \begin{cases}x /\|x\|, & \text { if } x \notin B  \tag{1.1}\\ x, & \text { if } x \in B\end{cases}
$$

is a selection of the metric projection $\mathcal{P}$, which is said to be a radial projection $[4,16]$. Clearly, $\mathcal{P}$ is a multivalued mapping if and only if $X$ is not strictly convex.

It is well-known, and elementary to prove that the radial selection $R$ is Lipschitz continuous, and that the best Lipschitz constant

$$
\begin{equation*}
k(X)=k_{R}(X):=\sup \left\{\frac{\|R(x)-R(y)\|}{\|x-y\|}: x \neq y\right\} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

satisfies the inequality $1 \leq k(X) \leq 2$. Moreover, de Figueiredo and Karlovitz [4] and Thele [16] proved that identities $k(X)=1$ and $k(X)=2$ hold if and only if the Birkhoff's orthogonality is symmetric (this is equivalent to $X$ being an inner-product space, whenever the dimension of $X$ is greater than 2 ), and iff $X$ is not uniformly non-square, respectively.

If $X$ is not strictly convex, then we define the optimal Lipschitz constant by

$$
k_{0}(X)=\inf k_{P}(X)
$$

where the infimum is taken over all selections $P$ of $\mathcal{P}$ and $k_{P}(X)$ is defined as in (1.2). Further, a metric selection $T$ of $\mathcal{P}$ is said to be optimal if $k_{o}(X)=k_{T}(X)$. Clearly, we have $1 \leq k_{o}(X) \leq k(X) \leq 2$, and $k_{o}(X)=k(X)$ if $X$ is strictly convex.

In this paper, we first characterize differentiability of radial selections, and derive the constants $k\left(L^{p}\right)$ for $1<p<\infty$ and estimates of $k(X)$, whenever $X$ is 2-convex. Next, we show that there exist optimal selections $T \neq R$ of metric projections $\mathcal{P}$ $: X \rightarrow 2^{B}$ in several normed linear spaces with $k(X)=2$ for which $k_{T}(X)$ is equal to 1. The result is applied to prove Ky Fan's approximation principle for nonexpansive mappings on order intervals in the Banach lattice $L^{\infty}$.
2. The differentiability of radial projections. Denote by $\tau(x, h)$ and $R^{\prime}(x) h$ directional derivatives of the norm and radial selection $R$ which are defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau(x, h)=\lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{\|x+t h\|-\|x\|}{t} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{\prime}(x) h=\lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{R(x+t h)-R(x)}{t} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

respectively. Clearly, if $\|x\|<1$, then $R^{\prime}(x) h=h$. In the following, we study the derivative $R^{\prime}(x) h$ for $x \in X \backslash B$, where $B$ is the unit ball.

Lemma 2.1. Let $x \notin B$ be an element of a normed linear space $X$. Then the derivative $R^{\prime}(x) h$ exists and

$$
R^{\prime}(x) h=\frac{h-\tau(x, h) R(x)}{\|x\|}
$$

for all $h \in X$.
Proof. Let $x \notin B$ and $h \in X$. Since $\tau(x, h)$ exists [12], and $x+$ th $\notin B$ for sufficiently small $t$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{R(x+t h)-R(x)}{t} & =\lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}}\left[\frac{x+t h}{\|x+t h\|}-\frac{x}{\|x\|}\right] / t \\
& =\frac{1}{\|x\|^{2}} \lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{t\|x\| h+x(\|x\|-\|x+t h\|)}{t} \\
& =\frac{1}{\|x\|}(h-\tau(x, h) R(x))
\end{aligned}
$$

which completes the proof.

Theorem 2.1. Let $X$ be a normed linear space. Then the radial projection $R$ is Gateaux differentiable on $X \backslash B$ if and only if $X$ is a smooth space.

Proof. The operator $R^{\prime}(x): X \rightarrow X$ from Lemma 2.1 is continuous, whenever $\|x\|>1$. Indeed, by (2.1) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|R^{\prime}(x) h_{1}-R^{\prime}(x) h_{2}\right\| & \leq \frac{1}{\|x\|}\left(\left\|h_{1}-h_{2}\right\|+\|R x\|\left|\tau\left(x, h_{1}\right)-\tau\left(x, h_{2}\right)\right|\right) \\
& \leq \frac{1+\|R x\|}{\|x\|}\left\|h_{1}-h_{2}\right\| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, the operator $R^{\prime}(x)$ is linear if and only if $h \rightarrow \tau(x, h)$ is a linear functional on $X$. Since $\tau(\lambda x, h)=\tau(x, h)$ for every $\lambda>0$, it follows that $h \rightarrow \tau(x, h)$ is linear for all $x \neq 0$. Finally, the last statement is equivalent to smoothness of $X$ [7].

Recall that a (smooth) normed linear space $X$ is said to have the Fréchèt differentiable norm if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|x+h\|-\|x\|-\tau(x, h)}{\|h\|}=0 \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \neq 0$. For such spaces $X$, the above characterization can be improved as follows.

Theorem 2.2. Let $X$ be a normed linear space. Then the radial projection $R$ is Fréchèt differentiable on $X \backslash B$ if and only if the norm of $X$ is Fréchèt differentiable.

Proof. For the proof of sufficiency, we have to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(h):=\frac{R(x+h)-R x-R^{\prime}(x) h}{\|h\|} \rightarrow 0 \text { as } h \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

whenever $\|x\|>1$. By Lemma 2.1 and (1.1) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|f(h)\|= & \| \frac{h}{\|h\|}\left(\frac{1}{\|x+h\|}-\frac{1}{\|x\|}\right)-\frac{x(\|x+h\|-\|x\|-\tau(x, h))}{\|x\|^{2}\|h\|} \\
& -\frac{x(\|x+h\|-\|x\|)}{\|x\|\|h\|}\left(\frac{1}{\|x+h\|}-\frac{1}{\|x\|}\right) \| \\
\leq & 2\left|\frac{1}{\|x+h\|}-\frac{1}{\|x\|}\right|+\left|\frac{\|x+h\|-\|x\|-\tau(x, h)}{\|h\|}\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

This in conjunction with (2.3) proves (2.4). Conversely, suppose that (2.4) holds for all $x \in X$ with $\|x\|>1$. Then we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|f(h)\| \geq\left|\frac{\|x+h\|-\|x\|-\tau(x, h)}{\|h\|\|x\|}\right|-2\left|\frac{1}{\|x+h\|}-\frac{1}{\|x\|}\right| \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

in a similar way as (2.5). Hence we obtain (2.3) in the case when $\|x\|>1$. This directly implies that $\tau(\lambda x, h)=\tau(x, h)$ exists in the Fréchèt sense for all $\lambda>0$, which completes the proof of (2.3) for all $x \neq 0$.

An additional property of $R$ can be established if $X$ is uniformly smooth, which is equivalent [2] to the fact that the limit

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|x+t h\|-\|x\|}{t}
$$

exists uniformly for all $x$ and $h$ in the unit sphere. Clearly, this is equivalent to the existence of this limit uniformly for all $x$ and $h$ in each sphere $S_{r}=\{z:\|z\|=r\}$ of radius $r>0$. In this case, the norm of $X$ is said to be uniformly Fréchèt differentiable. By analogy, we say that $R$ is uniformly Fréchèt differentiable if the limit

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(x+t h)-R x}{t}
$$

exists uniformly for all $x, h$ in each sphere $S_{r}$ with $r>1$.
Theorem 2.3. The radial projection $R$ is uniformly Fréchèt differentiable if and only if $X$ is uniformly smooth.

Proof. If $\|x\|=\|y\|=r>1$ and $|t|<1$, then we have

$$
\left|\frac{1}{\|x+t h\|}-\frac{1}{\|x\|}\right|=\frac{|\|x\|-\|x+t h\||}{\|x+t h\|\|x\|} \leq \frac{|t|}{(1-|t|) r}
$$

Hence one can insert th for $h$ in (2.5) and (2.6) to finish the proof.
3. Best Lipschitz constants for 2-convex spaces. A normed linear space $X$ is said to be 2 -convex [13] if there exists a constant $c>0$ such that the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|\frac{x+y}{2}\right\|^{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}\right)-c\left\|\frac{x-y}{2}\right\|^{2} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $x, y \in X$. Clearly, we always have $c \leq 1$. The estimation $k(X)<2$ can be improved, whenever $X$ is 2 -convex. In order to do this, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1. If $X$ is 2 -convex, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|(1-t) x+t y\|^{2} \leq(1-t)\|x\|^{2}+t\|y\|^{2}-c t(1-t)\|x-y\|^{2} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y \in X$ and $0<t<1$, where $c$ is as in (3.1).
Proof. The inequality was proved in [15] for an abstract $L^{p}$-space $X$ with $1<$ $p \leq 2$ and $c=p-1$. However, the proof applies without any change to our more general case.

Theorem 3.1. Let $X$ be a 2-convex normed linear space. Then we have

$$
k(X) \leq \frac{2}{c+1}
$$

where $c$ is as in (3.1).
Proof. By the Thele formula [16], we have

$$
k(X)=\sup \left\{\frac{1}{\|y-\lambda x\|}: x, y \in X,\|x\|=\|y\|=1, x \perp y, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\right\}
$$

where $x \perp y$ means that the distance $\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})$ of $x$ to the one-dimensional subspace $\hat{y}=\operatorname{span}\{y\}$ spanned by $y$ is equal to 1 . Therefore, the Thele formula can be rewritten in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
k(X)=\sup \left\{\frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})}: x, y \in X,\|x\|=\|y\|=\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1\right\} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\hat{x}=\operatorname{span}\{x\}$. Now, suppose that $x, y \in X$ and $\|x\|=\|y\|=\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1$. Next, insert $y=x-z$ into (3.2) and use $\|x\|=1$ to get

$$
t \leq t\|x-z\|^{2}-c t(1-t)\|z\|^{2}-\left(\|x-t z\|^{2}-\|x\|^{2}\right) .
$$

Dividing this inequality by $t$ and letting $t \rightarrow 0$, we obtain

$$
1 \leq\|x-z\|^{2}-c\|z\|^{2}-2 \tau(x,-z) .
$$

Since $0 \in \hat{y}$ and $\|x\|=1$, we conclude that $m=0$ is a best approximation in $\hat{y}$ to $x$. Hence we get $\tau(x,-z) \geq 0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
1 \leq\|x-z\|^{2}-c\|z\|^{2} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $z \in \hat{y}$. Now, suppose additionally that the best approximation to $y$ in $\hat{x}$ is equal to $\beta x$ with $\beta \neq 0$. Then it follows from (3.4) that

$$
d^{2}=\|y-\beta x\|^{2}=|\beta|^{2}\left\|x-\frac{y}{\beta}\right\|^{2} \geq|\beta|^{2}\left(1+c\left\|\frac{y}{\beta}\right\|^{2}\right)=|\beta|^{2}+c
$$

where $d=\operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})$. On the other hand, we have

$$
|\beta|=\|\beta x\| \geq\|y\|-\|y-\beta x\|=1-d .
$$

Therefore, we get

$$
d^{2} \geq(1-d)^{2}+c
$$

which yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{d}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})} \leq \frac{2}{c+1} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that this inequality is also true when $\beta=0$, which follows directly from the fact that

$$
d=1 \geq \frac{c+1}{2}
$$

in this case. Hence one can take the supremum in (3.5) to finish the proof.
The theorem yields the following estimate for best Lipschitz constants of Banach spaces $L^{p}=L^{p}(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$, where $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ is a positive measure space.

Corollary 3.1. The estimate

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right) \leq \frac{2}{p} \max \{p-1,1\}
$$

holds, whenever $1<p<\infty$.
Proof. The best constant $c=c\left(L^{p}\right)$ in (3.1) is equal to $p-1$, whenever $1<p \leq 2$ [15]. Hence Theorem 3.1 gives

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right) \leq 2 / p
$$

If $p>2$, then we can apply the Franchetti identity $k(X)=k\left(X^{*}\right)$ [5] and the last inequality to get

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right)=k\left(L^{p /(p-1)}\right) \leq \frac{2(p-1)}{p}
$$

which completes the proof.
Note that the estimate of $k\left(L^{p}\right)$ is exact, whenever $p=2$, and that it is asymptotically sharp as $p \rightarrow 1$ and $p \rightarrow \infty$.
4. Best Lipschitz constants for $L^{p}$. In this section we derive $k\left(L^{p}\right)$ for the real Banach spaces $L^{p}=L^{p}(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$, whenever $1<p<\infty$ and $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ is a positive measure space. By usual isometric embeddings [11], it follows that the assumption $L^{p}$ is over the real field - does not restrict the generality. Since $k(X)=1$ for each space $X$ of dimension 1 , it will be also assumed below that the dimension of $L^{p}$ is greater than 1 , which is equivalent to the existence of disjoint measurable sets $A$ and $B$ in $\Omega$ such that $A \cup B=\Omega$ and $\mu(A) \mu(B)>0$. The main result of this section is included in the following theorem.

Theorem 4.1. If $1<p<\infty$, then

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right)=\max _{0 \leq t \leq 1}\left[t^{p-1}+(1-t)^{p-1}\right]^{1 / p}\left[t^{1 /(p-1)}+(1-t)^{1 /(p-1)}\right]^{(p-1) / p}
$$

For the proof of Theorem 4.1, we need the following results about best Lipschitz constants $k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)$ of the Banach spaces $l_{n}^{p}$ which consists of all real $n$-tuples $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ equipped with the norm

$$
\|x\|=\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|x_{k}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}
$$

Lemma 4.1. The inequality

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right) \geq k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)
$$

holds for each space $L^{p}=L^{p}(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$.
Proof. Choose disjoint measurable sets $A$ and $B$ such that $A \cup B=\Omega$ and $\mu(A) \mu(B)>0$, and define the subspace

$$
M=\left\{\alpha \chi_{A} /[\mu(A)\}^{1 / F}+\beta \chi_{B} /[\mu(B)]^{1 / p}: \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}\right\}
$$

of $L^{p}$. Since we have

$$
\|x\|=\left(|\boldsymbol{\alpha}|^{p}+|\beta|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}
$$

for every $x \in M$, it follows that $M$ is isometrically isomorphic to $l_{2}^{p}$. Hence Thele's formula (3.3) yields

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right) \geq \sup \left\{\frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})}: x, y \in M,\|x\|=\|y\|=\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1\right\}=k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)
$$

which completes the proof.
Lemma 4.2. The functions

$$
g(z)=|z-\lambda|^{p}+\lambda_{2}|z|^{p}+\lambda_{3} z
$$

and

$$
g^{\prime}(z)=p|z-\lambda|^{p-2}(z-\lambda)+\lambda_{2} p|z|^{p-2} z+\lambda_{3}
$$

have at most two common real zeros, whenever $p>2, \lambda \neq 0$ and $\lambda_{2} \leq 0$.
Proof. Suppose that $g$ and $g^{\prime}$ are equal to zero at some points $z_{1}<z_{2}<z_{3}$. Then one can apply Rolle's theorem to conclude that the first derivative $g^{\prime}(z)$ has (at least) five distinct real zeros, and that the second derivative

$$
g^{\prime \prime}(z)=p(p-1)\left(|z-\lambda|^{p-2}+\lambda_{2}|z|^{p-2}\right)
$$

has four distinct zeros $t_{k}$. Since $\lambda \neq 0$ and $\lambda_{2} \leq 0$, we have $t_{k} \neq 0$ and

$$
\left|\frac{t_{k}-\lambda}{t_{k}}\right|=\left(-\lambda_{2}\right)^{1 /(p-2)} \quad(k=1,2,3,4)
$$

This contradicts the fact that the function $t \rightarrow|t-\lambda| /|t|$ has exactly three intervals of the (strict) monotonicity.

Lemma 4.3. The identity

$$
k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)=k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)
$$

holds for all $n \geq 2$ and $p>2$.
Proof. By Lemma 4.1 we have

$$
k\left(l_{n}^{P}\right) \geq k\left(l_{2}^{P}\right)
$$

To prove the reversed inequality, denote

$$
s_{n}=1 /\left(k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)\right)^{p}
$$

and use Thele's formula (3.3) to get

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{n}=\min \left\{\operatorname{dist}^{p}(y, \hat{x}): x, y \in l_{n}^{p},\|x\|=\|y\|=\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1\right\} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof will be completed if we show that $s_{n} \geq s_{2}$. For this purpose, suppose that $s_{n-1} \geq s_{2}$ and $n>2$. Without loss of generality, we may only take the minimum in (4.1) over all vectors $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ such that $x_{i} \neq 0$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. Indeed, if the minimum is attained for a vector $x$ with a coordinate $x_{i}$ equal to zero, then the minimal value of

$$
\operatorname{dist}^{p}(y, \hat{x})=\left|y_{i}\right|^{p}+\inf _{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{k \neq i}\left|y_{k}-\lambda x_{k}\right|^{p}
$$

is attained whenever $y_{i}=0$. To verify this assertion, one can suppose that $\left|y_{i}\right| \neq 1$ and take $\bar{y}=\left(y-y_{i} e_{i}\right) /\left\|y-y_{i} e_{i}\right\|$, where $e_{i}$ is the $i$ th unit vector. Then we have $\|\bar{y}\|=1, x \perp y, x \perp y_{i} e_{i}, x \perp \bar{y}$, and $\operatorname{dist}(\bar{y}, \hat{x}) \leq \operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})$, which yields our assertion. Thus $s_{n}=s_{n-1}$ in this case, which finishes our inductive proof. Since $\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=$ $\|x\|=1$, it follows that 0 is the best approximation in $\hat{y}$ to $x$. Consequently, by the characterization [9] of best approximations in $l_{n}^{p}$, the condition $\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1$ in (4.1) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|x_{k}\right|^{p-2} x_{k} y_{k}=0 \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence (4.1) can be rewritten in the equivalent form

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{n}=\min _{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}} s_{n}(\lambda) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{n}(\lambda)=\min \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the minimum is taken over all real numbers $z_{k}=y_{k} / x_{k}$ and $\alpha_{k}=\left|x_{k}\right|^{p}>$ $0(k=1, \ldots, n)$ which satisfy the following conditions:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}=1, \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}\right|^{p}=1, \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k} z_{k}=0 \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now denote by $\lambda, \alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$, and $z=\left(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)$ a solution of minimization problem (4.3)-(4.5), and consider the function

$$
F(\lambda, \alpha, z)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p}+\lambda_{1}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}-1\right)+\lambda_{2}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}\right|^{p}-1\right)+\lambda_{3} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k} z_{k} .
$$

Then the Euler equations:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p-2}\left(z_{k}-\lambda\right)=0 \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
p \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p-2}\left(z_{k}-\lambda\right)+\lambda_{2} p \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}\right|^{p-2} z_{k}+\lambda_{3} \alpha_{k}=0 \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold for $k=1, \ldots, n$, whenever $(\lambda, \alpha, z)$ is the solution of (4.3)-(4.5). If we multiply equations (4.7) ((4.8)) by $\alpha_{k}\left(z_{k}\right.$, resp.) and take the sum of them over $k$, then we can use (4.3)-(4.5) to get

$$
s_{n}+\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}=0
$$

and

$$
p \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_{k}\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p-2}\left(z_{k}-\lambda\right)\left[\left(z_{k}-\lambda\right)+\lambda\right]+\lambda_{2} p=p s_{n}+\lambda_{2} p=0 .
$$

Hence $\lambda_{2}=-s_{n} \leq 0$ and $\lambda_{1}=0$. This in conjunction with (4.7)-(4.8) and the fact that $\alpha_{k}>0$ yields

$$
\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p}+\lambda_{2}\left|z_{k}\right|^{p}+\lambda_{3} z_{k}=0
$$

and

$$
p\left|z_{k}-\lambda\right|^{p-2}\left(z_{k}-\lambda\right)+\lambda_{2} p\left|z_{k}\right|^{\mid p-2} z_{k}+\lambda_{3}=0
$$

for $k=1, \ldots, n$. Since $n>2$, it follows from Lemma 4.2 that either $\lambda=0$ or $z_{k}=z_{j}$ for some $k \neq j$. In the first case, we have $s_{n}=s_{n}(\lambda)=1$ and $k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)=1$, which leads to the contradiction with $k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)>1$. In the second case, identities (4.4)-(4.5) yield $s_{n}(\lambda)=s_{n-1}(\lambda)$. By the induction hypothesis, it follows that $s_{n}=s_{n-1} \geq s_{2}$, which completes the proof.

Lemma 4.4. If $p>2$ then

$$
k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)=\max _{0 \leq t \leq 1}\left[t^{p-1}+(1-t)^{p-1}\right]^{1 / p}\left[t^{1 /(p-1)}+(1-t)^{1 /(p-1)}\right]^{(p-1) / p} .
$$

Proof. By (4.1) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)=\max \frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})}=\max \frac{1}{\|y-\lambda x\|} \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some uniquely determined $\lambda$, where the maxima are taken over all $x=(z, s)$ and $y=(u, v)$ in $l_{2}^{p}$ with $\|x\|=\|y\|=\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1$ and $z, s \neq 0$. It follows from (4.2) that the restriction $\operatorname{dist}(x, \hat{y})=1$ is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
|z|^{p-2} z u+|s|^{p-2} s v=0 \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Additionally, by the characterization of best approximations in $l_{2}^{p}[9]$, the number $\lambda$ in (4.9) is the unique solution of the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
z|u-\lambda z|^{p-2}(u-\lambda z)+s|v-\lambda s|^{p-2}(v-\lambda s)=0 . \tag{4.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $z, s \neq 0$ and $\|y\|=1$, it follows from (4.10) that $u, v \neq 0$. Further, if $x, y$ and $\lambda$ satisfy (4.10) and (4.11), then the same is true for $a=(-z, \mp s), b=(-u, \mp v)$ and $\lambda$. Moreover, we have $\operatorname{dist}(b, \hat{a})=\|y-\lambda x\|$. Therefore, we can assume that $z, s>0$. Hence (4.10) yields $u v<0$. By the symmetry, we can assume that $u<0$ and $v>0$. This in conjunction with (4.10) and the identity $\|y\|=1$ yields

$$
\left(\frac{z}{s}\right)^{p-1}=-\frac{v}{u}=-\left[1-(-u)^{p}\right]^{1 / p} / u
$$

and

$$
u=-\left[1+\left(\frac{z}{s}\right)^{p(p-1)}\right]^{-1 / p}
$$

Hence one can use the identity $\|x\|=1$ to obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
z v-s u=u\left(z \frac{v}{u}-s\right)=u\left(-\frac{z^{p}}{s^{p-1}}-s\right)=-u / s^{p-1} \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
=\left(z^{p(p-1)}+s^{p(p-1)}\right)^{-1 / p} .
$$

Since $\|y-\lambda x\|>0$, it follows from (4.11) that

$$
(u-\lambda z)(v-\lambda s)<0
$$

and

$$
\frac{u-\lambda z}{\lambda s-v}=r \quad \text { with } r=\left(\frac{s}{z}\right)^{1 /(p-1)}
$$

Hence we get

$$
\lambda=\frac{u+r v}{z+r s}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{dist}^{p}(y, \hat{x}) & =|u-\lambda z|^{p}+|\lambda s-v|^{p}=\left(1+r^{p}\right)|\lambda s-v|^{p} \\
& =\left(1+r^{p}\right)\left|\frac{z v-s u}{z+r s}\right|^{p}=\left(z^{p /(p-1)}+s^{p /(p-1)}\right)^{1-p}|z v-s u|^{p} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This together with (4.12) and the identity $s^{p}=1-z^{p}:=1-t$ gives

$$
\frac{1}{\operatorname{dist}(y, \hat{x})}=\left[t^{p-1}+(1-t)^{p-1}\right]^{1 / p}\left[t^{1 /(p-1)}+(1-t)^{1 /(p-1)}\right]^{(p-1) / p}
$$

which completes the proof.
Proof of Theorem 4.1. By the Franchetti formula $k\left(X^{*}\right)=k(X)$ [5] and the fact that $k\left(L^{2}\right)=1$ for the Hilbert space $L^{2}$, we can assume that $p>2$. Therefore, in view of Lemmas 4.1 and 4.3, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)=k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right) \leq k\left(L^{p}\right) \tag{4.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every integer $n \geq 2$. For the proof of reversed inequality, suppose that $\epsilon>0$ and $x, y \in L^{p}=L^{p}(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$. Since the subspace of all simple functions in $L^{p}$ is dense in $L^{p}$, there exist simple functions $x_{e}$ and $y_{e}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|x-x_{e}\right\| \leq \epsilon \quad \text { and } \quad\left\|y-y_{\epsilon}\right\| \leq \epsilon . \tag{4.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, we can write these simple functions in the form

$$
x_{e}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k} \chi_{A_{k}} \quad \text { and } \quad y_{e}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} y_{k} \chi_{A_{k}},
$$

for some integer $n$, where $x_{k}, y_{k} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\chi_{A_{k}}$ are characteristic functions of pairwise disjoint measurable subsets $A_{k}(k=1, \ldots, n)$ of $\Omega$. Hence $x_{\epsilon}$ and $y_{\epsilon}$ can be identified in the usual way with the elements $\left(x_{k} \mu\left(A_{k}\right)\right)$ and $\left(y_{k} \mu\left(A_{k}\right)\right)$ of the space $l_{n}^{p}$. Consequently, we obtain

$$
\left\|R x_{\epsilon}-R y_{\epsilon}\right\| \leq k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)\left\|x_{e}-y_{e}\right\|
$$

This in conjunction with (4.13)-(4.14) and inequality $k(X) \leq 2$ yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|R x-R y\| & \leq\left\|R x-R x_{e}\right\|+k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)\left\|x_{e}-y_{e}\right\|+\left\|R y_{e}-R y\right\| \\
& \leq 4 \epsilon+k\left(l_{n}^{p}\right)\left(\left\|x_{e}-x\right\|+\|x-y\|+\left\|y-y_{e}\right\|\right) \\
& \leq 8 \epsilon+k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)\|x-y\| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, we get

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right) \leq k\left(l_{2}^{p}\right)
$$

Hence one can apply (4.13) and Lemma 4.4 to finish the proof.
An exact computation of the maximal value of the function

$$
h_{p}(t)=\left[t^{p-1}+(1-t)^{p-1}\right]^{1 / p}\left[t^{1 /(p-1)}+(1-t)^{1 /(p-1)}\right]^{(p-1) / p}, 0 \leq t \leq 1
$$

occurring in Theorem 4.1, seems to be a hard problem except for a few values of $p$. More precisely, it is easy to compute that $k\left(L^{2}\right)=1$ and

$$
k\left(L^{3 / 2}\right)=k\left(L^{3}\right)=\frac{1}{3}(7 \sqrt{7}+17)^{1 / 3}
$$

For example, if $p=3 / 2$ then the function

$$
h_{3 / 2}(t)=\{[1+2 \sqrt{t(1-t)}][1-2 t(1-t)]\}^{1 / 3}, 0 \leq t \leq 1,
$$

attains its maximum at the point

$$
t_{3 / 2}=\frac{3-\sqrt{1+2 \sqrt{7}}}{6}
$$

Corollary 4.1. If $1<p<\infty$ then

$$
h_{p}\left(t_{p}\right) \leq k\left(L^{p}\right) \leq 2^{|p-2| / p},
$$

where

$$
t_{p}= \begin{cases}0.08345\left[1-(2-p)^{5.83}\right], & \text { if } 1<p \leq 2 \\ t_{p /(p-1)}, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Since $t_{p} \in(0,1)$, the lower estimate is a direct consequence of Theorem 4.1. Further, if $1<p \leq 2$ then maximal values of the functions

$$
f(t)=t^{p-1}+(1-t)^{p-1} \text { and } g(t)=t^{1 /(p-1)}+(1-t)^{1 /(p-1)}, 0 \leq t \leq 1 .
$$

are attained at the points $t=1 / 2$ and $t=0$, respectively. In the case $p>2$, the same is true for the points $t=0$ and $t=1 / 2$. Hence by Theorem 4.1 we get

$$
k\left(L^{p}\right) \leq \max \left\{f^{1 / p}(1 / 2) g^{(p-1) / p}(0), f^{1 / p}(0) g^{(p-1) / p}(1 / 2)\right\}=2^{|p-2| / p}
$$

which completes the proof.
Note that estimates given in Corollary 4.1 are exact in the case $p=2$, and that they are asymptotically sharp as $p \rightarrow 1$ and $p \rightarrow \infty$. Moreover, the lower estimate $h_{p}\left(t_{p}\right)$ is much more exact than the upper estimate $2^{|p-2| / p}$. In fact, the numerical experiments show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|h_{p}\left(t_{p}\right)-k\left(L_{p}\right)\right| \leq 4 * 10^{-6} . \tag{4.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

For example, if $p=3 / 2$ then $h_{3 / 2}\left(t_{3 / 2}\right)=1.0957314 \cdots$ and $k\left(L^{3 / 2}\right)=1.0957314 \cdots$. Moreover, the upper estimate $2^{|p-2| / p}$ is better than the estimate $(2 / p) \max \{p-1,1\}$ from Corollary 3.1. In Fig.1, we present the graphs of these estimates in the case $1 \leq$ $p \leq 2$. By (4.15) the graphs of $h_{p}\left(t_{p}\right)$ and $k\left(L^{p}\right)$ can not be distinguished at the picture.


Fig. 1. Estimates $h_{p}\left(t_{p}\right)$ (dotted), $2^{(2-p) / p}$ (solid) and $2 / p$ (dashed) of $k\left(L^{p}\right)$.
5. Optimal selections. Let $X$ be a normed lattice with an order $\leq$ and lattice operatons $\vee$ and $\wedge$, and let $|x|=(x \vee 0)+(x \wedge 0)$ denote the absolute value in $X$ [11]. Moreover, let

$$
J=[c, d]:=\{x \in X: c \leq x \leq d\}
$$

be an order interval with endpoints $c, d \in X$ such that $c \leq d$. Replacing the unit ball $B$ of $X$ by $J$, we define the metric projection $\mathcal{P}: X \rightarrow 2^{J}$, the best Lipschitz constant $k_{P}(X)$ of a selection $P$ of $\mathcal{P}$, the optimal Lipschitz constant $k_{o}(X)$, and the optimal selection $T$ of $\mathcal{P}$ as in Section 1.

Theorem 5.1. Let $J=[c, d]$ be an order interval in a normed lattice $X$. Then the mapping $T: X \rightarrow J$ defined by

$$
T x=c \vee(d \wedge x), x \in X
$$

is an optimal selection of the metric projection $\mathcal{P}: X \rightarrow 2^{J}$. Moreover, we have $k_{T}(X)=k_{o}(X)=1$.

Proof. In a Banach lattice $X$, we have $\|x\| \leq\|y\|$ whenever $|x| \leq|y|$. Hence we have to show that

$$
|x-c \vee(d \wedge x)| \leq|x-z|
$$

and

$$
|c \vee(d \wedge x)-c \vee(d \wedge y)| \leq|x-y|
$$

for all $x, y \in X$ and $z \in J$. By Yudin's principle of invariance of relations [8, p.279], it is sufficient to prove these inequalities for real numbers $c, d, x, y, z$ with $c \leq z \leq d$, which is a consequence of the fact that $c \vee(d \wedge x)$ is equal to $c, x$, and $d$, whenever $x \leq c, \mathrm{c} \leq x \leq d$, and $d \leq x$, respectively.

If $X=C(S)$ is the normed lattice of all bounded continuous real valued functions on a topological Hausdorff space $S$, equipped with the sup-norm and the usual pointwise order, then $B=[-e, e]$, where $e\left(s_{0}\right)=1$ for all $s \in S$. Hence Theorem 5.1 yields the following result which is due to Goebel and Komorowski [6].

Corollary 5.1. The mapping $T: C(S) \rightarrow B$ defined by

$$
(T x)(s)=\max \{-1, \min \{1, x(s)\}\} ; x \in C(S), s \in S
$$

is an optimal selection of the metric projection $\mathcal{P}: C(S) \rightarrow 2^{B}$, and $k_{T}(C(S))=1$.
Clearly, the same results are also true in the classical normed lattices $B(S)$ and $L^{\infty}(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ of all real valued bounded functions on a set $S$ and all real valued $\mu$ essentially bounded measurable functions on a set $S$ with a positive measure $\mu$, respectively. It should be also noticed that Theorem 5.1 remains true for each sublattice $Y$ of the lattice $X$, whenever $c, d \in X$ and $c \vee(d \wedge x) \in Y$ for every $x \in Y$. For example, let $C_{o}(S)$ be the sublattice of $C(S)$, which consists of all $x \in C(S)$ such that the inequality $|x(s)| \leq \varepsilon$ holds for each $\varepsilon>0$ and for all $s$ outside a.compact subset $Q \subset S$ dependent on $x$ and $\varepsilon$. Then we get

Corollary 5.2. The mapping $T: C_{0}(S) \rightarrow B$ defined by

$$
(T x)(s)=\max \{-1, \min \{1, x(s)\}\} ; x \in C_{o}(S), s \in S
$$

is an optimal selection of the metric projection $\mathcal{P}$ from $C_{o}(S)$ into its unit ball $B$, and $k_{T}\left(C_{o}(S)\right)=1$.

As a final application of Theorem 5.1, we prove Ky Fan's approximation principle [3] for nonexpansive mappings $F$ defined on an order interval $J$ in $L^{\infty}(S, \Sigma, \mu)$ (see [10] for related results and related references). For this purpose, recall that a mapping $F: J \rightarrow X$ is said to be nonexpansive if $\|F x-F y\| \leq\|x-y\|$ for all $x, y \in J$.

Theorem 5.2. Let $J$ be an order complete order interval in an abstract $M$ space $X$ with a unit e, and let $F: J \rightarrow X$ be a nonexpansive mapping. Then there exists an element $x \in J$ such that

$$
\|F x-x\|=\inf _{y \in J}\|F x-y\| .
$$

Proof. Since $X$ is order isometric to $C(Q)$ for some compact Hausdorff space $Q$ [11, p.16], it follows from Theorem 5.1 that there exists an optimal selection $T$ of the metric projection $\mathcal{P}: X \rightarrow 2^{J}$ with $k_{T}(X)=1$. Hence the mapping $T F: J \rightarrow J$ is nonexpansive. Therefore, one can apply Borwein-Sims's fixed point theorem [1,

Theorem 7.1] to get a point $x \in J$ such that $T F x=x$. Since $T$ is a selection of the metric projection $\mathcal{P}$ onto $J$, it follows that

$$
\|F x-x\|=\|F x-T(F x)\| \leq\|F x-y\|
$$

for all $y \in J$. Take infimum over $y$ to complete the proof.
In the particular case when $X=L^{\infty}(S, \Sigma, \mu)$, the assumptions that $J$ is order complete and that $X$ has a unit $e$ are superfluous and Sine's fixed point theorem [14] can be applied in the proof. Further, if $J=B$ then the distance

$$
d(F x, B)=\inf _{y \in B}\|F x-y\|
$$

occurring in Theorem 5.2, can be easily computed. Indeed, we have $d(F x, B)=0$, if $F x \in B$, and $d(F x, B)=\|F x-R F x\|=\|F x\|-1$, otherwise. Finally, note that the results presented above remain true in a slightly more general case, when $B=B(z, r)$ is a ball with a center $z \in X$ and a radius $r>0$. For example, the formulae for the radial selection and its directional derivative should be translated to

$$
R x=z+r \frac{x-z}{\|x-z\|}
$$

and

$$
R^{\prime}(x) h=\frac{r h-\tau(x-z, h)(R x-z)}{\|x-z\|}
$$

whenever $x \notin B$ and $h \in X$.

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