

DENSITY AND APPROXIMATION PROPERTIES OF MARKOV
SYSTEMS ¹

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In memory of Oved Shisha, a dear friend, a respected colleague, and an honest and
compassionate man

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Abstract. Borwein, Bojanov, Erdélyi, and others, have studied density and approximation properties of those Markov systems of differentiable functions on a closed interval $[a, b]$, having the property that the system of derivatives is a Markov system on the open interval (a, b) .

In this paper we show that several of these results are valid for any Markov system of continuous functions on a closed interval.

Keywords: Chebychev and Markov systems. Density. Relative Differentiation.

1. INTRODUCTION

This article is organized as follows: in this section we introduce the basic definitions and some basic results from the theory of Chebychev and Markov systems. Section 2 is the key section: in it we introduce a generalized differentiation operator that we use extensively in the sequel. In section 3 we generalize the results of [2], and in sections 4 and 5 we generalize the results of [3] and [1], respectively. In sections 3 and 4 we bypass the assumption of differentiability by using the operator introduced in section 2. We also show that all the other restrictions imposed in [1, 2, 3] are unnecessary.

The theory of Chebychev systems is discussed, from different points of view, in the books [4, 5, 8, 9, 16], and in the survey papers [6, 13]. Here we mention only the basic definitions and essential properties.

Let A be a set of real numbers, let $F(A)$ denote the set of all real-valued functions defined on A , let $U_n := \{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$ be a sequence of functions, or *system*, and let $S(U_n)$ denote the linear span of $\{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$.

A system of functions $G_n \subset F(A)$ is called a *Chebychev system* or *T-system* if A contains at least $n + 1$ points, and all the determinants of the square collocation matrices

$$\bigcup \begin{pmatrix} g_0, \dots, g_n \\ t_0, \dots, t_n \end{pmatrix} := \det(g_j(t_i); 0 \leq i, j \leq n)$$

with $t_0 < \dots < t_n$ in A , are positive. If all these determinants are merely nonnegative, and, moreover, the functions in G_n are linearly independent on A , then G_n is called a *weak Tchebychev system* or *WT-system*. Tchebychev systems are also called *Haar systems*. A system G_n is called a *Markov system* (*weak Markov system*) if $G_k = \{g_0, \dots, g_k\}$ is a *T-system* (*weak T-system*) for each $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$. Markov systems are also called *Complete Chebychev systems* or *CT-systems*. If $g_0 = 1$, we say that G_n is *normalized*. If $G := \{g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots\} \subset F(A)$ and G_n is a (normalized) Markov system for all $n \geq 0$, we say that G is a (normalized) infinite Markov system.

The definition and properties of weak Markov systems will only be used in the proof of Lemma 3 below.

Let $f(t)$ be a real valued function defined on a set A of $n \geq 2$ elements. A sequence $x_0 < \dots < x_{n-1}$ of elements of A is called a strong alternation (weak alternation) of f of length n , if either $(-1)^i f(x_i)$ is positive (nonnegative) for all i , or $(-1)^i f(x_i)$ is negative (nonpositive) for all i .

It is well known that if G_n is a Tchebychev system on A , then the only function in $S(G_n)$ that has a weak alternation of length $n + 2$ on A is the zero function, and that if G_n is a weak Tchebychev system on A , then no function in $S(G_n)$ has a strong alternation of length $n + 2$ on A . It is also well known that the only function in $S(G_n)$ that has more than $n + 1$ zeros is the zero function (cf., e. g. [9, 15, 16]).

Let $I(A)$ denote the convex hull of A (thus, for example, if $A := (1, 2] \cup (3, \infty)$, then $I(A) = (1, \infty)$). We call $Z_n \subset F(A)$ *representable* if for all $c \in A$ there is a basis U_n of $S(Z_n)$, obtained from Z_n by a triangular transformation (i. e., $u_0(x) = z_0(x)$ and $u_i - z_i \in S(Z_{i-1}), 1 \leq i \leq n$); a strictly increasing function h (an “embedding function”) defined on A , with $h(c) = c$; and a set $P_n := \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ of continuous, increasing functions defined on $I(h(A))$, such that for every $t \in A$ and $1 \leq k \leq n$,

$$u_k(x) = u_0(x) \int_c^{h(x)} \int_c^{t_1} \dots \int_c^{t_{k-1}} dp_k(t_k) \dots dp_1(t_1). \quad (1)$$

In this case we say that (h, c, P_n, U_n) is a *representation* of Z_n . A linear space \mathcal{S} is called *representable*, if it has a representable basis, and (h, c, P_n, U_n) will be called a *representation for \mathcal{S}* , if it is a representation for some basis of \mathcal{S} .

The main result of [17] implies that a Markov system on an *open* interval is representable. However, not every Markov system on a *closed* interval is representable. The problem of the representability of Markov systems is studied in, e. g., [7, 10, 11] and references thereof.

Example 1. Let the functions u_k be given by (1) with $u_0(x) = 1$,

$$h(x) := \begin{cases} 2x - 1 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 2x & \text{if } x > 0, \end{cases} \quad p_1(x) := \begin{cases} (x + 1)/2 & \text{if } x < -1 \\ 0 & \text{if } -1 \leq x < 0 \\ x/2 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \end{cases}$$

and $p_k(x) := x$ for $k \geq 2$. Since $h(-\infty, \infty) = (-\infty, -1] \cup (0, \infty)$ and the functions p_k are strictly increasing on $h(-\infty, \infty)$, applying [11, Corollary 1] we deduce that, for any $n \geq 0$, U_n is a Markov system on $(-\infty, \infty)$. Thus U is an infinite Markov system on $(-\infty, \infty)$.

2. GENERALIZED DERIVATIVES

Proposition 1. *Let G_n be a Markov system on a set A , $n > 0$, and let (h, c, P_n, U_n) be a representation for G_n . Then u_1 depends only on g_0, g_1 , and c . If, moreover, $p_1(c) = 0$, then also $p_1 \circ h$ depends only on g_0, g_1 , and c .*

Proof. Since U_n is obtained from G_n by a triangular transformation, we have:

$$u_0 = g_0 \quad \text{and} \quad u_1 = g_1 + \alpha g_0.$$

However,

$$u_1(x) = u_0(x) \int_c^{h(x)} dp_1(t).$$

This implies that $u_1(c) = 0$ (whence thus $\alpha = -g_1(c)/g_0(c)$), and

$$u_1(x) = u_0(x)[(p_1 \circ h)(x) - (p_1 \circ h)(c)], \quad (2)$$

and therefore

$$(p_1 \circ h)(x) = u_1(x)/u_0(x) + (p_1 \circ h)(c) = g_1(x)/g_0(x) + \alpha + (p_1 \circ h)(c). \quad (3)$$

Since $h(c) = c$ and $p_1(c) = 0$, we conclude that $(p_1 \circ h)(c) = 0$, and the assertion readily follows. \square

Proposition 2. *Let G_n be a Markov system of continuous functions on a closed interval $[a, b]$ with $n \geq 2$, and let (h, c, P_n, U_n) be a representation for the restriction to (a, b) of the functions in G_n . Then, for $x \in [a, b]$,*

$$u_1(x) = g_0(x) \int_c^x d(g_1/g_0)(t)$$

and

$$u_k(x) = g_0(x) \int_c^x \int_c^{h(t_1)} \cdots \int_c^{t_{k-1}} dp_k(t_k) \cdots dp_2(t_2) d(g_1/g_0)(t_1), \quad 2 \leq k \leq n.$$

Proof. By continuity, it suffices to assume that $a < x < b$. The proof for $k = 1$ follows from (3). Assume therefore that $k \geq 2$.

Let

$$f(x) := \int_c^x \int_c^{t_2} \cdots \int_c^{t_{k-1}} dp_k(t_k) \cdots dp_2(t_2).$$

It is easy to see that the inverse function of h can be extended to an increasing (but not necessarily strictly increasing) function g , continuous on $(h(a+), h(b-))$: if $h(\alpha-) \leq y \leq$

$h(\alpha+)$, set $g(y) := \alpha$. Since $h(c) = c$, applying the standard change of variables theorem for Riemann–Stieltjes integrals we obtain

$$\int_c^x (f \circ h)(t) d(p_1 \circ h)(t) = \int_c^{h(x)} (f \circ h \circ g)(t) d(p_1 \circ h \circ g)(t).$$

Let $I(x)$ denote the closed interval with endpoints c and $h(x)$, let $\{\alpha_k; k \in \Lambda \subset \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ be the set of points of discontinuity of h in (a, b) , $A := h(a, b) \setminus \{h(\alpha_k); k \in \Lambda\}$, and

$$B := \bigcup_{k \in \Lambda} [h(\alpha_k-), h(\alpha_k+)].$$

Then

$$I(x) = [A \cap I(x)] \cup (B \cap I(x)).$$

From (2) we see readily see that $p_1(x)$ must be constant on each nonempty interval of the form $[h(\alpha_k-), h(\alpha_k+)]$. Thus $B \cap I(x)$ can be represented as the union of intervals where both p_1 and g are constant. Hence,

$$\int_{B \cap I(x)} (f \circ h \circ g)(t) d(p_1 \circ h \circ g)(t) = 0,$$

and

$$\int_{B \cap I(x)} f(t) dp_1(t) = 0.$$

Since $h \circ g = 1$ on A and $u_0 = g_0$, we thus conclude that

$$g_0(x) \int_c^x (f \circ h)(t) d(p_1 \circ h)(t) = u_0(x) \int_c^{h(x)} f(t) dp_1(t) = u_k(x),$$

and the assertion follows from (3). \square

As mentioned in the preceding section, we know that if G_n is a normalized Markov system on an open interval (a, b) , then it is representable. The question of under what conditions an infinite Markov system is representable is still open. In other words, given an infinite Markov system $G \subset F(A)$, we don't know under what conditions for all $c \in A$ there is a basis U of $S(G)$, obtained from G by a triangular transformation, a strictly increasing function $h \subset F(A)$ with $h(c) = c$, and a set $P := \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$ of continuous, increasing functions defined on $I(h(A))$, such that (1) holds for every $t \in A$ and $k \geq 1$. This is because, if (h, c, P_n, U_n) is a representation for G_n , it is not yet known under what conditions there exist functions p_{n+1} and u_{n+1} such that, if $P_{n+1} := \{p_1, \dots, p_{n+1}\}$ and $U_{n+1} := (u_0, \dots, u_{n+1})$, then (h, c, P_{n+1}, U_{n+1}) is a representation for G_{n+1} .

If $A = [a, b]$, u_1/u_0 is continuous, and h is discontinuous at α then, as remarked in the proof of the preceding proposition, (2) implies that p_1 must be constant on $(h(\alpha-), h(\alpha+))$. Thus we may assume, without essential loss of generality, that h is left-continuous on (a, b) . A representation (h, c, P_n, U_n) such that h is left-continuous and $p_1(c) = 0$ will be called *standard*. Since $d(p_1 - p_1(c)) = dp_1$, every (finite) Markov system of continuous functions on an open interval (a, b) has a standard representation for every $c \in (a, b)$.

For the functions h, p_k and u_k of Example 1, $(h, 0, P_n, U_n)$ is a standard representation of U_n for every $n > 0$; thus U is representable.

In the sequel, I will denote an interval and g a *continuous* real-valued strictly increasing function on I . If f is a real-valued function on I and $x \in I$ then, provided the limit exists, we define:

$$Df(x) := \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{g(x+h) - g(x)}$$

The operator D is called the *relative derivative* with respect to g . Some applications of relative differentiation in the theory of Markov systems can be found in, e. g., [12, 14, 17].

Note that f is differentiable with respect to g at x if and only if $f \circ g^{-1}$ is differentiable in the usual sense at $g(x)$. Moreover,

$$Df(x) = (f \circ g^{-1})'(g(x)),$$

i. e., $Df(x)$ equals the derivative of $f \circ g^{-1}$ evaluated at $g(x)$. In particular, if g is differentiable at x and $g'(x) \neq 0$, then f is differentiable with respect to g at x if and only if f is differentiable in the usual sense; in this case $Df(x) = f'(x)/g'(x)$.

The preceding displayed formula implies the following:

Lemma 1. *Let g be strictly increasing and continuous on I , and assume that f is integrable with respect to dg in I . If $c \in I$ and*

$$F(x) := \int_c^x f(t) dg(t),$$

then the relative derivative DF of F with respect to g exists a. e. in I , and $DF(x) = f(x)$. If f is continuous on I , then $DF(x) = f(x)$ for every $x \in I$.

Proof. Let $x \in I$. Then

$$(F \circ g^{-1})(x) = \int_c^{g^{-1}(x)} f(t) dg(t) = \int_{g(c)}^x (f \circ g^{-1})(t) dt \quad (4)$$

is of bounded variation on every closed subinterval of $g(I)$, and thus differentiable a. e. in $g(I)$. If f is continuous, then $f \circ g^{-1}$ is continuous, and therefore $(F \circ g^{-1})(x)$ is differentiable everywhere in $g(I)$. \square

For the functions u_k of Example 1, a straightforward computation shows that $u_1(x) = x$ and

$$u_2(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x^2 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus, differentiation with respect to u_1 coincides with ordinary differentiation, and we have:

$$Du_2(x) = \begin{cases} 2x - 1 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 2x & \text{if } x > 0, \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

and $Du_2(0)$ does not exist.

Given a representation (h, c, P_n, U_n) of a Markov system G_n on (a, b) with $n \geq 1$, we define the linear operator H_n on $S(G_n)$ as follows:

$$H_n u_0 := 0, \quad H_n u_1 := 1.$$

If $n \geq 2$,

$$H_n u_2(x) := \int_c^{h(x)} dp_2(t_2).$$

If $n \geq 3$,

$$H_n u_k(x) := \int_c^{h(x)} \int_c^{t_2} \cdots \int_c^{t_{k-1}} dp_k(t_k) \cdots dp_2(t_2), \quad 3 \leq k \leq n.$$

And for every $f \in S(G_n)$ by linearity.

The operator H_n is called the *weak relative derivative* with respect to (h, c, P_n, U_n) .

Proposition 3. *Let $G := \{g_0, g_1, \dots\}$ be a finite or infinite Markov system on a closed interval $[a, b]$, let $c \in (a, b)$, let $n \geq 1$, assume that $G_n \subset G$, and let H_n be the weak relative derivative with respect to some standard representation (h, c, P_n, U_n) of the restriction to*

(a, b) of the functions in G_n . Then $\{H_n \mu_1, H_n \mu_2, \dots\}$ is a normalized Markov system on (a, b) . If, moreover, the functions g_k are continuous on $[a, b]$, then

$$u_k(x) = u_0(x) \int_c^x H_n \mu_k(t) d(g_1/g_0)(t), \quad x \in [a, b], \quad 1 \leq k \leq n, \quad (6)$$

and the operator H_n depends neither on n nor on c , nor on the representation, but only on g_0 and g_1 .

Proof. We will assume that $n \geq 2$; the proof for the special case $n = 1$ is trivial.

From [17, Corollary 1] we know that the functions p_k , $1 \leq k \leq n$, must be strictly increasing on $h(a, b)$. Applying the Lemma of [11], we deduce that if

$$r_1(x) := \int_c^x dp_2(t_2)$$

and

$$r_k(x) = \int_c^x \int_c^{t_2} \dots \int_c^{t_k} dp_{k+1}(t_{k+1}) \dots dp_2(t_2), \quad 2 \leq k \leq n-1,$$

then $\{1, r_1, r_2, \dots\}$ is a Markov system on $h(a, b)$. Since $H_n u_k(x) = (r_{k-1} \circ h)(x)$ and h is strictly increasing, we deduce that $\{H_n \mu_1, H_n \mu_2, \dots\}$ is a Markov system on (a, b) .

Assume now that the functions g_k are continuous. Then (6) is a consequence of Proposition 2, and g_1/g_0 is strictly increasing and continuous. If D denotes the relative derivative with respect to (g_1/g_0) , from Lemma 1 and (6) we deduce that if $G_n \subset G$ and $f \in S(G_n)$, then $H_n f = Df$ a. e. on (a, b) . Thus, if (u, c, P_n, U_n) and (v, c, Q_n, V_n) are two standard representations of the restrictions to (a, b) of the functions in G_n , the left-continuity of u and v imply that both the weak relative derivative with respect to (u, c, P_n, U_n) and the weak relative derivative with respect to (v, c, Q_n, V_n) of a function in $S(G_n)$ are left-continuous, and each one coincides with D a.e., and therefore they coincide with each other on (a, b) , and the conclusion follows. \square

Combining Lemma 1 and Proposition 3, and bearing in mind the argument used to prove the latter part of Proposition 3, we obtain the following two theorems:

Theorem 1. *Let $G := \{g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots\}$ be a finite or infinite Markov system of continuous functions on a closed interval $[a, b]$. Then there is a unique linear operator \tilde{D} defined on the restriction of $S(G)$ to the open interval (a, b) and depending only on g_0 and g_1 , such that for every $n \geq 1$, if $G_n \subset G$ and (h, c, P_n, U_n) is a standard representation of the restriction to (a, b) of the functions in G_n , with associated operator H_n , then $\tilde{D} = H_n$ on $S(G_n)$.*

\tilde{D} will be called the *generalized derivative* associated with the system G .

Theorem 2. *Let $G := \{g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots\}$ be an infinite (resp. finite) Markov system of continuous functions on a closed interval $[a, b]$, and let (h, c, P_n, U_n) be any standard representation of the restriction to (a, b) of the functions in G_n . Then the generalized derivative \tilde{D} associated with G has the following properties:*

- (a) *The functions $\tilde{D}g_k$ are left-continuous on (a, b) , and if D denotes the relative derivative with respect to g_1/g_0 , and $f \in S(G)$, then $\tilde{D}f(x) = Df(x)$ a. e. in (a, b) .*
- (b)

$$u_k(x) = u_0(x) \int_c^x \tilde{D}u_k(t) d(g_1/g_0)(t), \quad x \in [a, b], \quad k \geq 1.$$

- (c) *$\{\tilde{D}g_1, \tilde{D}g_2, \tilde{D}g_3 \dots\}$ is an infinite (resp. finite) normalized Markov system on (a, b) .*

(d) For any $n > 0$, if $G_n \subset G$, then,

$$\tilde{D}u_0 = 0, \quad \tilde{D}u_1 = 1.$$

If $n \geq 2$,

$$\tilde{D}u_2(x) = \int_c^{h(x)} dp_2(t_2).$$

If $n \geq 3$,

$$\tilde{D}u_k(x) = \int_c^{h(x)} \int_c^{t_2} \cdots \int_c^{t_{k-1}} dp_k(t_k) \cdots dp_2(t_2), \quad 3 \leq k \leq n.$$

Since $\tilde{D}f(x) = Df(x)$ a. e., and $\tilde{D}u_2$ must be left-continuous, from (5) we deduce that, if u_1 and u_2 are defined as in Example 1, then

$$\tilde{D}u_2(x) := \begin{cases} 2x - 1 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 2x & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Proposition 4. Let G_n be a normalized Markov system of continuous functions on $[a, b]$, and let $f \in S(G_n)$. Then, for every $x_0, x_1 \in [a, b]$,

$$f(x_1) = f(x_0) + \int_{x_0}^{x_1} \tilde{D}f(t) dg_1(t).$$

Proof. Let (h, c, P_n, U_n) be any standard representation of the restriction to (a, b) of the functions in G_n (this implies that $c \in (a, b)$). Since $f = \alpha_0 u_0 + \cdots + \alpha_n u_n$ for some n , from the definition of \tilde{D} we have

$$\tilde{D}f = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \tilde{D}u_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \tilde{D}u_n.$$

Integrating the preceding identity term by term and applying Theorem 2(b), we see that for every $x \in [a, b]$

$$u_0(x) \int_c^x \tilde{D}f(t) d(g_1/g_0)(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n u_0(x) \int_c^x \tilde{D}u_k d(g_1/g_0)(t) = f(x) - \alpha_0 u_0(x).$$

Since $f(c) = \alpha_0 u_0(c)$ and $u_0 = g_0 = 1$, we conclude that

$$f(x) = f(c) + \int_c^x \tilde{D}f(t) dg_1(t), \quad x \in [a, b],$$

and the assertion follows. \square

3. DENSITY OF INFINITE MARKOV SYSTEMS AND ZEROS OF CHEBYCHEV POLYNOMIALS

The main result of this section is Theorem 3. A similar theorem is proved in [2], but only for normalized infinite Markov systems G that satisfy the so-called *Assumption 1*, i. e., each g_i is differentiable in (a, b) , and if $f \in S(G)$ and f' has $n - 1$ zeros on (a, b) then f is identically constant. Here we prove the same result but only with the assumption of continuity, thus achieving maximum generality. The key to our approach is that, although the functions in a Markov system are not necessarily differentiable in the ordinary sense, they are, nevertheless, in the domain of the operator \tilde{D} defined in the preceding section. This allows us to adapt the original proof. However, the range of \tilde{D} is not contained in the set of continuous functions, and this will introduce some complications.

Given an infinite Markov system G of continuous functions defined on a closed interval $I = [a, b]$, the *generalized Chebychev polynomials* T_n associated with this system are defined, for $n > 0$, by the following properties:

(a) $T_n \in S(G_n)$.

(b) There is a sequence $y_0 < y_1 < \dots < y_n$ in I , such that

$$\text{sign } T_n(y_{k+1}) = -\text{sign } T_n(y_k) = \pm \|T_n\|, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n. \quad (8)$$

(c) $\|T_n\| = 1$ and $T_n(b) > 0$,

where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the norm of the supremum. The sequence $\{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ will be called an *alternation* for T_n . We also set $T_0 := g_0$. As is well known [4], applying the alternation and the uniqueness of best approximation theorems for Chebychev systems [4, 5], we obtain:

Proposition 5. *Let G be an infinite Markov system of continuous functions defined on a closed interval $[a, b]$, and, for $n > 0$, let $v_n := \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k^n g_k$ be the element of best approximation in the norm of the supremum to g_n from $S(G_{n-1})$. Then*

$$T_n = C(g_n - v_n),$$

where C is chosen so that (c) above is satisfied.

We say that a function f has weakly constant sign on an interval I , if it is either nonnegative on I or nonpositive on I . We have:

Corollary 1. *Under the hypotheses of Proposition 5:*

- (a) $S(G_n) = S(T_0, \dots, T_n)$.
- (b) If $g_0 = 1$, then $T_0 = 1$ and, if $n \geq 1$ and $y_0 < y_1 < \dots < y_n$ is an alternation for T_n , then T_n is strictly monotonic on each interval $[y_{k-1}, y_k]$, $1 \leq k \leq n$.
- (c) If $g_0 = 1$, and $y_0 < y_1 < \dots < y_n$ is an alternation for T_n , then $y_0 = a$ and $y_n = b$.
- (d) If $g_0 = 1$, then for each n there is a unique alternation for T_n .
- (e) If $g_0 = 1$, then $\tilde{D}T_n$ has weakly constant sign on each interval (y_{k-1}, y_k) , $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Proof.

(a) Trivial.

(b) Assume T_n is not strictly monotonic on some interval $[y_{k-1}, y_k]$, and assume for example that $T_n(y_{k-1}) = -1 = -T_n(y_k)$. Then there exist points $\xi, \eta \in (y_{k-1}, y_k)$ such that $\xi < \eta$ and $-1 < T_n(\eta) \leq T_n(\xi) < 1$. But $T_n(\eta) \neq T_n(\xi)$, otherwise $T_n(x) - T_n(\xi)$ would have $n+1$ zeros in $[a, b]$. Choosing now some point $\delta \in (T_n(\eta), T_n(\xi))$ we see that $y_0, \dots, y_{k-1}, \xi, \eta, y_k, \dots, y_n$ is a strong (and therefore weak) alternation of length $n+2$ for $T_n - \delta$, which is contradiction.

(c) Assume $a < y_0$. If $T_n(a) = -T_n(y_0)$, then a, y_0, \dots, y_n is a strong alternation of length $n+2$ for T_n , which is a contradiction. If $T_n(a) = T_n(y_0)$ then a, y_1, \dots, y_n is an alternation for T_n , and (b) implies that T_n must be strictly monotonic on $[a, y_1]$, which is a contradiction. We have therefore established that $|T_n(a)| < 1$. This implies that $g := T_n - T_n(a)$ has a weak alternation of length $n+2$ on $[a, b]$, which is also a contradiction. The proof that $y_n = b$ is similar.

(d) This follows from (b) and (c).

(e) Assume for example that $T_n(y_{k-1}) = -1 = -T_n(y_k)$. Then (b) implies that T_n must be strictly increasing on $[y_{k-1}, y_k]$. We claim that $\tilde{D}T_n$ is nonnegative on (y_{k-1}, y_k) . Indeed, were it not so, there would be a point $x_1 \in (y_{k-1}, y_k)$ such that $\tilde{D}T_n(x_1) < 0$. Since $\tilde{D}T_n$ is left-continuous it must be strictly negative on some subinterval $[x_0, x_1]$ of (y_{k-1}, y_k) . Applying Proposition 4 we conclude that

$$T_n(x_1) - T_n(x_0) = \int_{x_0}^{x_1} \tilde{D}T_n(t) dg_1(t) < 0.$$

Thus T_n is not strictly increasing on $[y_{k-1}, y_k]$, and we have a contradiction. \square

Let G be an infinite Markov system on $[a, b]$, let T_n denote the generalized Chebychev polynomials associated with G , and let

$$M_n := \max \{|x_i - x_{i-1}| : 1 \leq i \leq n+1\},$$

where $x_1 \cdots < x_n$ are the zeros of T_n , $x_0 = a$, and $x_{n+1} = b$.

The following proposition generalizes [2, Lemma 1]. The method of proof is similar, using \tilde{D} instead of ordinary differentiation to bypass the assumption of differentiability. However, there is an important difference between the two operators: whereas a differentiable function must have a vanishing derivative at a relative extremum, this is not necessarily the case for \tilde{D} . Indeed, assume for example that f has a relative minimum at a point $x_0 \in (a, b)$, but that the relative derivative Df does not exist at x_0 . Since $Df(x) \leq 0$ a. e. on an interval of the form $(x_0 - \delta, x_0)$, and $\tilde{D}f$ equals Df wherever the latter is defined, the left-continuity of $\tilde{D}f$ implies that $\tilde{D}f(x_0) \leq 0$. Since $\tilde{D}f$ is not necessarily right-continuous at x_0 , this is all we can say, i. e., $\tilde{D}f$ may not vanish at x_0 . This introduces a complication, since the proof of [2, Lemma 1] is based on the number of zeros of the derivatives of functions in $S(G)$ (see the definition of Assumption 1 at the beginning of this section). We get around this difficulty by considering alternations instead of zeros.

Lemma 2. *Let $G \subset C[a, b]$ be a normalized infinite Markov system, let $a < a_1 < b_1 < b$, let f be the function defined in $A := [a, a_1] \cup [b_1, b]$ by*

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in [a, a_1] \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in [b_1, b], \end{cases}$$

and let $S_n \in S(G_n)$ denote the element of best approximation to f in A . Then

- (a) S_n is increasing on $[a_1, b_1]$.
- (b) Assume that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n = 0$. Then $\|f - S_n\|_A < 8M_n/(b_1 - a_1)$, where $\|\cdot\|_A$ denotes the norm of the supremum in A .

Proof. Since f is continuous on A , applying the alternation theorem for Chebychev systems ([5]), we deduce that for each n there is an element of best approximation S_n and an alternation $y_0 < y_1 < \cdots < y_{n+1}$ for $f - S_n$.

We have:

$$\varepsilon_n := \|f - S_n\|_A \leq \|f - 1/2\|_A \leq 1/2. \quad (9)$$

Since f vanishes on $[a, a_1]$, the $y_j \in [a, a_1]$ are local extrema of S_n ; since $f = 1$ on $[b_1, b]$, the $y_j \in [b_1, b]$ are local extrema of $S_n - 1$. Note that

$$\tilde{D}(S_n - 1) = \tilde{D}S_n \quad (10)$$

on $[a, b]$, and, for every $x, y \in [a, b]$

$$[S_n - 1](y) - [S_n - 1](x) = S_n(y) - S_n(x). \quad (11)$$

We now show that, for $1 \leq j < n+1$, there is a point $\xi_j \in (y_{j-1}, y_j)$ such that

$$\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}S_n(\xi_j) \right] = \text{sign}[S_n(y_j) - S_n(y_{j-1})]. \quad (12)$$

To verify this assertion first note that, since y_{j-1} and y_j belong to an alternation for $f - S_n$, we must have $S_n(y_j) - S_n(y_{j-1}) \neq 0$. Assume for instance that $S_n(y_j) - S_n(y_{j-1}) > 0$. Then, if $\tilde{D}S_n \leq 0$ in (y_{j-1}, y_j) , the identity

$$S_n(y_j) - S_n(y_{j-1}) = \int_{y_{j-1}}^{y_j} \tilde{D}S_n dg_1(t),$$

(which follows from Proposition 4), would yield a contradiction.

It is now easy to see that if $y_{j-1}, y_j \in [a, a_1]$ or $y_{j-1}, y_j \in [b_1, b]$, then

$$\text{sign}[\tilde{D}S_n(\xi_j)] = \text{sign}[(S_n - f)(y_j) - (S_n - f)(y_{j-1})]. \quad (13)$$

Indeed, if $y_{j-1}, y_j \in [a, a_1]$, this follows from (12), whereas for $y_{j-1}, y_j \in [b_1, b]$, this follows from (10), (11), and (12). Equation (13) implies that if all the y_j are contained in $[a, a_1]$ or all the y_j are contained in $[b_1, b]$, then $\{\xi_j\}_{j=1}^{n+1}$ must be a strong alternation of length $n+1$ for $\tilde{D}S_n$. Since $\tilde{D}S_n \in S(\tilde{D}g_1, \tilde{D}g_2, \dots, \tilde{D}g_n)$, and Theorem 2(c) implies that $\{\tilde{D}g_1, \tilde{D}g_2, \dots, \tilde{D}g_n\}$ is a Markov system, and therefore a weak Tchebychev system, this would be a contradiction. Thus there is an m such that $y_m \leq a_1 < b_1 \leq y_{m+1}$.

Note that if $m = 0$, then ξ_{m-1} is undefined, whereas if $m = n - 1$, ξ_{m+1} is undefined. If $0 < m < n - 1$, (13) implies that $\text{sign}[\tilde{D}S_n(\xi_{m-1})] = \text{sign}[\tilde{D}S_n(\xi_{m+1})]$.

Assume S_n is not monotonic in $[y_m, y_{m+1}]$. This implies that there are points $d_1 < d_2 < d_3$ in $[y_m, y_{m+1}]$ such that $S_n(d_1) > S_n(d_2) < S_n(d_3)$ or $S_n(d_1) < S_n(d_2) > S_n(d_3)$. Repeating the argument used to establish (12), we deduce that in either case there are points $\zeta_0 \in (y_m, d_2)$ and $\zeta_1 \in (d_2, y_{m+1})$ such that

$$\text{sign}[\tilde{D}S_n(\zeta_0)] \neq \text{sign}[\tilde{D}S_n(\zeta_1)].$$

Thus, redefining ξ_m to equal ζ_0 or ζ_1 , as appropriate, we see that $\{\xi_j\}_{j=0}^n$ is a strong alternation of length $n+1$ for $\tilde{D}S_n$, and again we have a contradiction. Since $[a_1, b_1] \subset [y_m, y_{m+1}]$ and $S_n(a_1) < \frac{1}{2} < S_n(b_1)$, we conclude that S_n is increasing on $[a_1, b_1]$.

To prove (b) we proceed as follows:

(i) Let $Q_n = \frac{3}{4}\varepsilon_n T_n + S_n$. Then, for $y_j \in [a, a_1]$ we have:

$$Q_n(y_j) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{4}\varepsilon_n T_n(y_j) + \varepsilon_n \geq \frac{1}{4}\varepsilon_n & \text{if } [S_n - f](y_j) = \varepsilon_n \\ \frac{3}{4}\varepsilon_n T_n(y_j) - \varepsilon_n \leq -\frac{1}{4}\varepsilon_n & \text{if } [S_n - f](y_j) = -\varepsilon_n, \end{cases}$$

which implies that

$$\text{sign}[Q_n(y_j)] = \text{sign}[S_n - f](y_j). \quad (14)$$

Similarly, we also see that if $y_j \in [b_1, b]$,

$$\text{sign}[Q_n(y_j) - 1] = \text{sign}[S_n - f](y_j). \quad (15)$$

Since

$$(S_n - f)(y_j) = \delta(-1)^j \varepsilon_n, \quad 0 \leq j \leq n,$$

where $\delta = \pm 1$, from (14) and (15) we deduce that

$$\text{sign}[(S_n - f)(y_j) - (S_n - f)(y_{j-1})] = \text{sign}[Q_n(y_j) - Q_n(y_{j-1})], \quad 1 \leq j \leq n,$$

and by an argument similar to the one employed in (a), we deduce that there is a strictly increasing sequence of points ξ_j , with $0 \leq j \leq n$, $j \neq m$, $0 \leq m \leq n - 1$, such that

$$\xi_j \in (y_j, y_{j+1}) \subseteq [a, a_1] \quad \text{if } j < m, \quad \xi_j \in (y_j, y_{j+1}) \subseteq [b_1, b] \quad \text{if } j \geq m + 1,$$

$$\text{sign}[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_j)] = \text{sign}([S_n - f](y_j) - [S_n - f](y_{j-1})), \quad 0 \leq j \leq n, j \neq m,$$

and

$$\text{sign}[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_{m-1})] = \text{sign}[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_{m+1})] \quad \text{if } m < n.$$

Since $0 \leq m \leq n$, ξ_{m-1} is undefined if $m = 0$, and ξ_{m+1} is undefined if $m = n - 1$.

(ii) Assume $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a_1, b_1]$ is such that T_n has three alternation points $\nu_1 < \nu_2 < \nu_3$, as in (8). We will show that $S_n(\beta) - S_n(\alpha) > \varepsilon_n$.

Since S_n is increasing on $[a_1, b_1]$, we have

$$S_n(\alpha) \leq S_n(x) \leq S_n(\beta), \quad x \in [\alpha, \beta].$$

If $0 \leq S_n(\beta) - S_n(\alpha) \leq \varepsilon_n$ then, for $\alpha \leq x \leq \beta$ we would have

$$S_n(x) - \frac{S_n(\alpha) + S_n(\beta)}{2} \leq \frac{S_n(\beta) - S_n(\alpha)}{2} \leq \frac{\varepsilon_n}{2}$$

and

$$S_n(x) - \frac{S_n(\alpha) + S_n(\beta)}{2} \geq -\frac{S_n(\beta) - S_n(\alpha)}{2} \geq -\frac{\varepsilon_n}{2}.$$

Therefore, for $i = 1, 2, 3$,

$$Q_n(\nu_i) - \frac{S_n(\alpha) + S_n(\beta)}{2} = \frac{3}{4}\varepsilon_n T_n(\nu_i) + \left[S_n(\nu_i) - \frac{S_n(\alpha) + S_n(\beta)}{2} \right]$$

is positive if $T_n(\nu_i) = 1$ and negative if $T_n(\nu_i) = -1$. This implies the existence of points $\eta_i \in (\nu_i, \nu_{i+1})$, $i = 1, 2$, such that

$$\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}Q_n(\eta_1) \right] \neq \text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}_1 Q_n(\eta_2) \right].$$

Setting $\xi_m := \eta_i$, where $i = 1$ or $i = 2$ is chosen in such a way that

$$\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_m) \right] \neq \text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_{m-1}) \right]$$

if ξ_{m-1} is defined (i. e. if $m > 0$), and

$$\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_m) \right] \neq \text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}Q_n(\xi_{m+1}) \right]$$

if ξ_{m-1} is undefined, we see that $\{\xi_j\}_{j=0}^n$ is a strong alternation of length $n+1$ for $\tilde{D}Q$ in $[a, b]$, which is a contradiction. Thus $S_n(\beta) - S_n(\alpha) > \varepsilon_n$.

(iii) Let $n \geq 4$. If T_n vanishes at α and at β and has exactly two additional zeros in $[\alpha, \beta]$, then $\beta - \alpha \leq 3M_n$, since M_n is the largest distance between consecutive zeros of T_n .

Since $M_n \rightarrow 0$, there is a number n_0 such that, for $n \geq n_0$, $[a_1, b_1]$ contains at least four zeros of T_n . For such an n , let α_1 denote the smallest of the zeros of T_n that is larger or equal to a_1 , and let α_2 be the zero of T_n satisfying the condition that (α_1, α_2) contains exactly two zeros of T_n . Once α_i has been chosen, let α_{i+1} be the zero of T_n satisfying the condition that (α_i, α_{i+1}) contains exactly two zeros of T_n . We continue in this fashion until we find the largest possible α_{m-1} that is smaller or equal to b_1 (note that $m-1 \geq 2$). Now let $\alpha_0 := a_1$ and $\alpha_m := b_1$; then

$$b_1 - a_1 \leq \sum_{i=1}^m |\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1}| \leq 3M_n m. \quad (16)$$

Since Corollary 1 implies that each interval (α_i, α_{i+1}) must contain three alternation points and, as we showed in (a) above, S_n is increasing on $[a_1, b_1]$, from (ii) we deduce that

$$S_n(b_1) - S_n(a_1) = \sum_{i=1}^m S_n(\alpha_i) - S_n(\alpha_{i-1}) \geq \sum_{i=2}^{m-1} S_n(\alpha_i) - S_n(\alpha_{i-1}) > (m-2)\varepsilon_n. \quad (17)$$

From (9) and (17) we obtain

$$2 \geq 1 + 2\varepsilon_n \geq S_n(b_1) - S_n(a_1) \geq (m-2)\varepsilon_n, \quad (18)$$

whereas from (16)

$$m-2 \geq \frac{b_1 - a_1}{3M_n} - 2. \quad (19)$$

Moreover, for n sufficiently large we have

$$\frac{b_1 - a_1}{3M_n} - 2 > \frac{b_1 - a_1}{4M_n}. \quad (20)$$

Finally, combining (18), (19), and (20), we obtain

$$2 \geq (m-2)\varepsilon_n > \frac{b_1 - a_1}{4M_n}\varepsilon_n,$$

i. e.

$$\|f - S_n\|_A = \varepsilon_n < \frac{8M_n}{b_1 - a_1}.$$

□

The following theorem generalizes part of [2, Theorem 1]. It uses Lemma 2 instead of [2, Lemma 1], but otherwise the proof is identical. Since the details were omitted in [2], we include them here for the sake of completeness.

Theorem 3. *Let G be an infinite normalized Markov system of continuous functions on a closed interval $[a, b]$. Then the following propositions are equivalent:*

- (a) $S(G)$ is dense in $C[a, b]$, in the norm of the supremum.
- (b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n = 0$.

Proof. (a) \Rightarrow (b) is [2, Theorem 1(A)].

(b) \Rightarrow (a): Assume $S(G)$ is not dense in $C[a, b]$. Then there exists a nonzero Borel measure μ such that for every function $g \in S(G)$

$$\int_a^b g(t) d\mu(t) = 0.$$

Let $b_1 \in (a, b)$ and $0 < \varepsilon < 1/2$ be arbitrary but fixed, let $a_1 \in (a, b_1)$ be such that

$$\mu([a_1, b_1]) < \frac{\varepsilon}{6}\mu([a, b]),$$

$A := [a, a_1] \cup [b_1, b]$, f the function defined in Lemma 2, and S one of the functions S_n defined in Lemma 2, such that $\|S - f\|_A < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$. Since $S \in S(G)$,

$$0 = \int_a^b S(t) d\mu(t) = \int_a^{a_1} S(t) d\mu(t) + \int_{a_1}^{b_1} S(t) d\mu(t) + \int_{b_1}^b S(t) d\mu(t).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \mu([b_1, b]) &= \int_{b_1}^b d\mu(t) = \int_{b_1}^b S(t) d\mu(t) - \int_{b_1}^b [S(t) - 1] d\mu(t) \\ &= - \int_a^{a_1} S(t) d\mu(t) - \int_{a_1}^{b_1} S(t) d\mu(t) - \int_{b_1}^b [S(t) - 1] d\mu(t). \end{aligned}$$

Since S is increasing on $[a_1, b_1]$,

$$\|S\|_{[a_1, b_1]} = \max\{|S(a_1)|, |S(b_1)|\}.$$

But

$$|S(a_1)| = |S(a_1) - f(a_1)| \leq \|S - f\|_{[a, a_1]} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3},$$

and

$$|S(b_1)| \leq |S(b_1) - f(b_1)| + |f(b_1)| \leq \|S - f\|_{[b_1, b]} + \|f\|_{[b_1, b]} \leq 1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \leq 2.$$

Thus

$$\|S\|_{[a_1, b_1]} \leq 2.$$

Moreover,

$$\|S\|_{[a,a_1]} = \|S - f\|_{[a,a_1]} < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \quad \text{and} \quad \|S - 1\|_{[b_1,b]} = \|S - f\|_{[b_1,b]} < \frac{\varepsilon}{3},$$

and we conclude that

$$\mu([b_1, b]) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3}\mu([a, a_1]) + 2\mu([a_1, b_1]) + \frac{\varepsilon}{3}\mu([b_1, b]) < \varepsilon\mu([a, b]).$$

This implies that $\mu = 0$, which is a contradiction. \square

4. DENSITY OF INFINITE MARKOV SYSTEMS AND UNBOUNDED BERNSTEIN INEQUALITIES

The main result of this section is Theorem 5. A similar result is proved in [3], but only for infinite Markov systems G that satisfy the additional hypotheses that each function g_i is two times differentiable in (a, b) and $(g_1/g_0)'$ does not vanish in (a, b) . Although here we make the assumption that $g_0 = 1$, dividing if necessary all the functions in G by g_0 , it is easy to see that this does not imply any essential loss of generality.

Let G be a normalized Markov system of continuous functions in $[a, b]$, and let $V \subset S(G)$. We say that V has an *everywhere unbounded Bernstein inequality* if for any real number γ and every $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b]$, there is a function $f \in V$ such that

$$\gamma\|f\|_{[a,b]} \leq \|\tilde{D}f\|_{[\alpha,\beta]}.$$

Example 2. Let

$$0 < \lambda_1 < \dots < \lambda_k < \lambda_{k+1} < \dots,$$

and $G^0 := \{1, x^{\lambda_1}, \dots, x^{\lambda_k}, \dots\}$. Then G^0 is a normalized infinite Markov system on $[0, 1]$ (cf., e. g., [3, p. 96], [13, p. 305]). Moreover, by a classical theorem of Müntz (cf. [5]), $S(G^0)$ is dense in $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ if and only if

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda_k} = \infty. \tag{21}$$

Taking

$$u_0 := 1, \quad u_1(x) := x^{\lambda_1}, \quad u_2(x) := x^{\lambda_2},$$

we have:

$$u_1(x) = \int_0^x d(t_1^{\lambda_1}), \quad \text{and} \quad u_2(x) = \int_0^x \int_0^{t_1} d((\lambda_2/\lambda_1)t_2^{\lambda_2-\lambda_1}) d(t_1^{\lambda_1}),$$

Thus, we have a representation with

$$h : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1], \quad h(x) := x, \quad c := 0, \quad p_1(t) := t^{\lambda_1}, \quad p_2(t) := (\lambda_2/\lambda_1)t^{\lambda_2-\lambda_1}.$$

If $p \in S(G^0)$, then p is differentiable in the usual sense. Thus, if D denotes the relative derivative with respect to u_1 , we have:

$$Dp(x) = \frac{\left(\frac{dp(x)}{dx}\right)}{\left(\frac{du_1(x)}{dx}\right)} = \lambda_1^{-1}x^{1-\lambda_1}p'(x),$$

which is continuous, and by Theorem 2(a) we deduce that $\tilde{D} \equiv D$. In particular, if $\lambda_k := \frac{k}{2}$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and $p \in S(G^0)$, then $\tilde{D}p(x) = 2\sqrt{x}p'(x)$.

Note that for this choice of the λ_k , Müntz's theorem implies that $S(G^0)$ is dense in $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$. Let us verify that $S(G^0)$ has an everywhere unbounded Bernstein inequality.

If $P_n(x)$ is the classical Chebyshev polynomial of degree n , we know that $P_n(x) \in S(G^0)$ and that $P_n(x)$ has exactly one alternation of length $n + 1$ such that the ξ_k are extrema of $P_n(x)$:

$$\xi_k = \cos\left(\frac{\pi k}{n}\right), \quad k = 0, \dots, n$$

(cf. Corollary 1 and [5]).

Given $0 \leq \alpha < \beta \leq 1$ and $\gamma > 0$, we can find an n such that $P_n(x)$ has consecutive extrema ξ_k, ξ_{k+1} of $P_n(x)$, such that

$$\alpha \leq \xi_k < \xi_{k+1} \leq \beta \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{k+1} - \xi_k < \frac{4\sqrt{\alpha}}{\gamma}.$$

Replacing if necessary $P_n(x)$ by $-P_n(x)$ so that $P_n(\xi_{k+1}) = -P_n(\xi_k) = 1$, and applying the Mean Value Theorem, we deduce the existence of a point $\zeta \in [\xi_k, \xi_{k+1}]$ such that

$$P'_n(\zeta) = \frac{2}{\xi_{k+1} - \xi_k}.$$

Since

$$\|\tilde{D}P_n\|_{[\alpha, \beta]} \geq 2\sqrt{\alpha}P'_n(\zeta) = \frac{4\sqrt{\alpha}}{\xi_{k+1} - \xi_k} > \gamma,$$

and $\|P_n\|_{[0, 1]} = 1$, the assertion follows.

The next theorem generalizes Theorem [3, Theorem 3]. It uses the operator \tilde{D} instead of ordinary differentiation. Otherwise the proof is the same.

Theorem 4. *Suppose $G := \{1, g_1, g_2, \dots\}$ is a normalized infinite Markov system of continuous functions on $[a, b]$, and let $f \in S(G_n)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then for every $z_0 \in [a, b]$ such that $|T_n(z_0)| \neq 1$,*

$$\frac{|\tilde{D}f(z_0)|}{\|f\|_{[a, b]}} \leq \frac{2}{1 - |T_n(z_0)|} |\tilde{D}T_n(z_0)|.$$

Proof. The hypotheses imply that z_0 is not an extremum of T_n . Thus, if $a = y_0 \leq \dots \leq y_n = b$ is the alternation for T_n , then

$$y_k < z_0 < y_{k+1}.$$

for some $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$.

Without essential loss of generality, we may assume that

$$\tilde{D}f(z_0) \neq 0, \quad \|f\|_{[a, b]} = 1, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}f(z_0) \right] = \text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}T_n(z_0) \right], \quad (22)$$

because, if $\tilde{D}f(z_0) = 0$ there is nothing to prove, and the other two conditions are readily obtained dividing by a suitable constant.

We may also assume that $T_n(y_k) = -1$, otherwise we may apply the argument that follows to the function $-T_n$.

Let $\delta := |T_n(z_0)| < 1$, let $\varepsilon, 0 < \varepsilon < 1$, be arbitrary but constant, and

$$\eta := T_n(z_0) - \frac{1 - \delta}{2}(1 - \varepsilon)f(z_0).$$

Then

$$|\eta| \leq \delta + \frac{1 - \delta}{2} = \frac{\delta + 1}{2}.$$

If

$$g(x) := \eta + \frac{1 - \delta}{2}(1 - \varepsilon)f(x)$$

it is clear that $g \in S(G_n)$, and

$$g(z_0) = T_n(z_0). \quad (23)$$

Moreover, from (22) we obtain

$$|g(x)| \leq \eta + \frac{1-\delta}{2}(1-\varepsilon)|f(x)| < \eta + \frac{1-\delta}{2} \leq 1, \quad (24)$$

and

$$\text{sign} [\tilde{D}g(z_0)] = \text{sign} [\tilde{D}f(z_0)] = \text{sign} [\tilde{D}T_n(z_0)]. \quad (25)$$

If

$$|\tilde{D}f(z_0)| > \frac{2}{1-|T_n(z_0)|}|\tilde{D}T_n(z_0)| = \frac{2}{1-\delta}|\tilde{D}T_n(z_0)|,$$

then, for ε sufficiently small,

$$|\tilde{D}g(z_0)| = \frac{1-\delta}{2}(1-\varepsilon)|\tilde{D}f(z_0)| > |\tilde{D}T_n(z_0)| \quad (26)$$

Since Corollary 1(e) implies that $\tilde{D}T_n \geq 0$ on (y_k, y_{k+1}) , from (25) and (26) we conclude that

$$0 \leq \tilde{D}T_n(z_0) < \tilde{D}g(z_0).$$

Moreover, since Theorem 2(a) implies that $\tilde{D}g$ and $\tilde{D}T_n$ are left-continuous, setting

$$r := (1/3)[\tilde{D}g(z_0) - \tilde{D}T_n(z_0)]$$

there must exist a number $\rho > 0$ such that if $y_k < z_0 - \rho < x < z_0 < y_{k+1}$, then

$$|\tilde{D}T_n(x) - \tilde{D}T_n(z_0)| < r \quad \text{and} \quad |\tilde{D}g(x) - \tilde{D}g(z_0)| < r,$$

which implies that for every $x \in (z_0 - \rho, z_0)$ we have

$$\tilde{D}T_n(x) < \tilde{D}T_n(z_0) + r < \tilde{D}g(z_0) - r < \tilde{D}g(x).$$

Thus,

$$T_n(z_0) - T_n(z_0 - \rho) = \int_{z_0 - \rho}^{z_0} \tilde{D}T_n(t) dg_1(t) < \int_{z_0 - \rho}^{z_0} \tilde{D}g(t) dg_1(t) = g(z_0) - g(z_0 - \rho)$$

and therefore, applying (23),

$$g(z_0 - \rho) < T_n(z_0 - \rho).$$

If

$$q := g - T_n$$

we see that

$$q(z_0) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad q(z_0 - \rho) < 0.$$

It is also easy to see that

$$q(y_k) = g(y_k) - T_n(y_k) > -1 + 1 = 0,$$

since (24) implies that $|g| < 1$. Thus $q(x)$ must have at least two zeros in (y_k, y_{k+1}) . But (24) also implies that $q(x)$ must have at least one zero in each interval (y_i, y_{i+1}) , $0 \leq i \leq n$. Thus $q(x)$ will have $n+2$ zeros in $[a, b]$. Since $q \in S(G_n)$ and G_n is a Markov system, this is a contradiction. \square

Although a real-valued function defined and bounded on a closed interval may not have extrema (unless it is continuous) its domain has, nevertheless, points that behave locally as if they were:

Proposition 6. *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function. Then there are points $\nu_0, \nu_1 \in [a, b]$, such that*

$$\inf\{f(x) : x \in [a, b]\} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} (\inf\{f(x) : |x - \nu_0| < r\})$$

and

$$\sup\{f(x) : x \in [a, b]\} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} (\sup\{f(x) : |x - \nu_0| < r\}).$$

Proof. Let $s_0 := \inf\{f(x) : x \in [a, b]\}$. Then, for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ there is a point $x_n \in [a, b]$ such that $f(x_n) - s_0 < 1/n$. Let ν_0 be an accumulation point of $\{x_n; n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$, and $\{x_{n_j}; j \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ a subsequence that converges to ν_0 .

Given $\varepsilon, r > 0$, there is a $j_0 > 1/\varepsilon$ such that $|x_{n_j} - \nu_0| < r$ for $j > j_0$. Thus,

$$s_0 \leq \inf\{f(x); |x - \nu_0| < r\} \leq f(x_{n_j}) < s_0 + 1/n_j.$$

Therefore

$$|\inf\{f(x); |x - \nu_0| < r\} - s_0| < \varepsilon,$$

i. e.,

$$\inf\{f(x); x \in [a, b]\} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \{\inf\{f(x); |x - \nu_0| < r\}\}.$$

The corresponding statement for ν_1 is established by a similar argument. \square

The points ν_0 and ν_1 are respectively called a *pseudominimum* and a *pseudomaximum* of $f(x)$.

Using Proposition 6 we will establish the following generalization of [3, Lemma 1]:

Lemma 3. *Suppose $G := \{1, g_1, g_2 \dots\}$ is a normalized infinite Markov system of continuous functions on $[a, b]$, and the sequence of associated Chebyshev polynomials $\{T_n\}$ has a subsequence $\{T_{n_i}\}$ with no zeros on some subinterval $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b]$. Then there exists another subinterval $[a_1, b_1]$ of $[a, b]$ and another infinite subsequence $\{T_{n_k}\}$ such that for some $\delta > 0$, $\gamma > 0$, and for each n*

$$\|T_{n_k}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} < 1 - \delta \tag{27}$$

and

$$\|\tilde{D}T_{n_k}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} < \gamma \tag{28}$$

Proof.

(i) We will find an interval $[a_2, b_2] \subset [a, b]$ and a sequence $\{n_{i,1}\} \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that either all the $T_{n_{i,1}}$ are increasing on $[a_2, b_2]$ or all the $T_{n_{i,1}}$ are decreasing on $[a_2, b_2]$.

Since, by hypothesis, the T_{n_i} do not vanish on $[\alpha, \beta]$, each alternation may have at most one point in $[\alpha, \beta]$. The set of such points is either finite or has an accumulation point $\xi \in [\alpha, \beta]$; in either case there is a closed interval I that contains ξ and is strictly contained in $[\alpha, \beta]$, and a subsequence $\{T_{n_j}\}$ of $\{T_{n_i}\}$, such that each T_{n_j} has an alternation point in I . Therefore, we may choose a subinterval $[a_2, b_2] \subset [\alpha, \beta]$, disjoint with I , such that no T_{n_j} has an alternation point in $[a_2, b_2]$. Applying Corollary 1(b) we deduce that each T_{n_j} is either increasing or decreasing on $[a_2, b_2]$. We will show that if the sequence of those T_{n_j} that are increasing on $[a_2, b_2]$ is infinite, then this will be the subsequence $\{T_{n_{i,1}}\}$, whereas if the sequence of the T_{n_j} that are increasing on $[a_2, b_2]$ is finite, then $\{T_{n_{i,1}}\}$ will be the sequence of those T_{n_j} that are decreasing on $[a_2, b_2]$.

(ii) Proceeding exactly as in the proof of the first inequality in [3, Lemma 1], we conclude that there is a subinterval $[a_3, b_3] \subset [a_2, b_2]$, $\delta > 0$, and a subsequence $\{T_{n_{i,2}}\}$ of $\{T_{n_{i,1}}\}$, such that (27) is satisfied. Without loss of generality, we may assume that all the elements of the sequence $\{n_{i,2}\}$ are strictly larger than 3.

(iii) Let n be any term of the sequence $\{n_{i,2}\}$, and let $a = y_0 < y_1 < \dots < y_{n-1} < y_n = b$ be the alternation points of T_n , as in (8). By Proposition 4 we know that for $x \in [a, b]$

$$T_n(x) = T_n(c) + \int_c^x \tilde{D}T_n(t) dg_1(t). \quad (29)$$

Since $T_n(x)$ is strictly monotonic on (y_k, y_{k+1}) , from (29) we deduce that if

$$y_k \leq z_1 < z_2 \leq y_{k+1}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n-1,$$

then there is a point $z \in (z_1, z_2)$ such that

$$\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}T_n(z) \right] = \text{sign} [T_n(y_{k+1}) - T_n(y_k)]$$

(z can be chosen to be an interior point because T_n is continuous).

In particular, there is a $\xi_k \in (y_k, y_{k+1})$ such that

$$\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}T_n(\xi_k) \right] = [\text{sign}[T_n(y_{k+1}) - T_n(y_k)]].$$

Thus, we have found a sequence $a < \xi_0 < \dots < \xi_{n-1} < b$, with $\xi_k \in (y_k, y_{k+1})$, and a constant η , where $\eta = \pm 1$, such that

$$\text{sign} \left[(-1)^k \tilde{D}T_n(\xi_k) \right] = \eta \quad (30)$$

Let (h, c, P_n, U_n) be a standard representation for the restrictions to (a, b) of the functions in G_n , $\tilde{G}_n := \{1, \tilde{D}g_2, \dots, \tilde{D}g_n\}$, $\tilde{U}_n := \{1, \tilde{D}u_2, \dots, \tilde{D}u_n\}$, and $\tilde{P}_n := \{p_2, \dots, p_n\}$. Since U_n is obtained from G_n by a triangular transformation, it follows that \tilde{U}_n is obtained from \tilde{G}_n by a triangular transformation. This implies that \tilde{U}_n is a basis for $S(\tilde{G}_n)$.

Let H_n^* be the linear operator defined on $S(\tilde{G}_n)$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} H_n^* \tilde{D}u_1 &= H_n^* 1 := 0, & H_n^* \tilde{D}u_2 &:= 1, \\ H_n^* \tilde{D}u_3 &= \int_c^x dp_3(t_3), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$H_n^* \tilde{D}u_k(x) := \int_c^x \int_c^{t_3} \dots \int_c^{t_{k-1}} dp_k(t_k) \dots dp_3(t_3), \quad 4 \leq k \leq n,$$

and for every $f \in S(\tilde{G}_n)$ by linearity.

Applying Theorem 2(d) and proceeding as in the proof of Proposition 4, we deduce that for every $f \in S(\tilde{G}_n)$ and every $x \in (a, b)$,

$$f(x) = f(c) + \int_c^{h(x)} H_n^* f(t) dp_2(t).$$

In particular,

$$\tilde{D}T_n(x) = \tilde{D}T_n(c) + \int_c^{h(x)} H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(t) dp_2(t). \quad (31)$$

From (30) and (31) we see that there are points $\eta_k \in (h(\xi_k), h(\xi_{k+1}))$, $0 \leq k \leq n-2$, such that

$$\text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\eta_k) \right] = \text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}T_n(\xi_{k+1}) - \tilde{D}T_n(\xi_k) \right] = -\text{sign} \left[\tilde{D}T_n(\xi_k) \right] \quad (32)$$

(η_k can be chosen to be an interior point because $H_n^* T_n$ is continuous).

(iv) Since, by construction, no T_{n_j} has an alternation point in $[a_2, b_2]$ and since $[a_3, b_3] \subset [a_2, b_2]$, there is an integer k_0 (that depends on n , as do the alternation points y_k), such that $[a_3, b_3] \subset (y_{k_0}, y_{k_0+1})$. Assume for example that $T_n(y_{k_0}) = -T_n(y_{k_0+1}) = T_n(y_{k_0+2}) = 1$. From Corollary 1(b) we know that $T_n(x)$ must be strictly decreasing on $[y_{k_0}, y_{k_0+1}]$, and

strictly increasing on $[y_{k_0+1}, y_{k_0+2}]$, and in particular on $[a_3, b_3]$. From Corollary 1(e) and (31) we deduce that $\tilde{D}T_n(x) \leq 0$ on $[a_3, b_3]$ and strictly negative on at least one point of this interval. Thus $\tilde{D}T_n$ will have a pseudominimum $e < 0$ at some point $\nu \in [a_3, b_3]$ (which will depend on n), although $\tilde{D}T_n$ may not have an absolute minimum on this interval (cf. Proposition 6). Moreover, since $\xi_k \in (y_k, y_{k+1})$, applying (32) we also conclude that $\text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\eta_{k_0}) \right] > 0$.

(v) We now show that $\tilde{D}T_n$ is monotonic on each of the intervals $[a_3, \nu]$ and $[\nu, b_3]$. Since $\tilde{D}T_n$ has a pseudominimum at ν , we have to show that this function is decreasing on $[a_3, \nu]$ and increasing on $[\nu, b_3]$.

First note that $\tilde{D}T_n$ cannot be constant on an interval I , for otherwise we would infer from Proposition 4 that there are constants α and β such that $T_n = \alpha + \beta g_1$ on I , i. e. $T_n - \alpha - \beta g_1 = 0$ on I . But the definition of T_n implies that $T_n \in S(G_n) \setminus S(G_{n-1})$, and we would have a contradiction.

Assume that $\nu < b_3$ and that $\tilde{D}T_n$ is not increasing on $[\nu, b_3]$. In view of the remarks made in the previous paragraphs, we conclude that there exist points $\nu < z_0 < z_1 < z_2 \leq b_3$ such that

$$e \leq \tilde{D}T_n(z_0) < \tilde{D}T_n(z_1) \leq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad e \leq \tilde{D}T_n(z_2) < \tilde{D}T_n(z_1) \leq 0. \quad (33)$$

We first consider the case $0 < k_0 < n - 1$.

Since T_n is strictly increasing on $[y_{k_0+1}, \xi_{k_0+1}]$, from (29) we deduce that there is a point $z_3 \in (y_{k_0+1}, \xi_{k_0+1})$ such that $\tilde{D}T_n(z_3) > 0$, i. e., $\tilde{D}T_n(z_3) > \tilde{D}T_n(z_2)$. Thus, applying (31) we deduce that there are points $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3$, such that

$$h(\xi_{k_0-1}) < h(y_{k_0}) \leq h(a_3) \leq h(\nu) < z_0 < \kappa_1 < z_1 < \kappa_2 < z_2 < \kappa_3 < z_3 < h(\xi_{k_0+1}),$$

and

$$1 = \text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\kappa_1) \right] = -\text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\kappa_2) \right] = \text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\kappa_3) \right] = \text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\eta_{k_0}) \right]. \quad (34)$$

Since $\xi_{k_0} \in (y_{k_0}, y_{k_0+1})$, we have $\tilde{D}T_n(\xi_{k_0}) \leq 0$, and from (30) we deduce that $\tilde{D}T_n(\xi_{k_0}) < 0$ and $\tilde{D}T_n(\xi_{k_0-1}) > 0$. Since $\tilde{D}T_n(z_1) \leq 0$ and $\eta_{k_0-1} \in (h(\xi_{k_0-1}), h(\xi_{k_0}))$, using (31) we may redefine η_{k_0-1} , if necessary, so that $\eta_{k_0-1} \in (h(\xi_{k_0-1}), z_0)$. Similarly, we may redefine η_{k_0+1} , if necessary, so that $\eta_{k_0+1} \in (z_3, h(\xi_{k_0+1}))$.

Thus $\{\eta_0, \dots, \eta_{k_0-1}, \kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3, \eta_{k_0+1}, \dots, \eta_{n-2}\}$ is a strong alternation of length $n + 1$ for $H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n$. But the Lemma of [11] implies that $\{1, H_n^* \tilde{D}u_2, \dots, H_n^* \tilde{D}u_n\}$ is a weak Markov system, and we have a contradiction.

If $k_0 = 0$, proceeding exactly as in the preceding case we see that there are points $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3$, such that

$$\nu < z_0 < \kappa_1 < z_1 < \kappa_2 < z_2 < \kappa_3 < z_3 < h(\xi_2),$$

and (34) is satisfied with $k_0 = 0$. Redefining η_1 , if necessary, so that $\eta_1 \in (z_3, h(\xi_2))$, we see that $\{\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \kappa_3, \eta_1, \dots, \eta_{n-2}\}$ is a strong alternation of length $n + 1$ for $H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n$, which yields a contradiction.

Finally, if $k_0 = n - 2$, and bearing in mind the definition of pseudominimum, we see that there are points z_{-1}, z_0, z_1, z_2 , with $h(\xi_{n-3}) < h(y_{n-2}) < h(a_3) \leq z_{-1} < h(\nu) < z_0 < z_1 < z_2 \leq h(b_3)$, such that (33) holds and $\tilde{D}T_n(z_{-1}) > \tilde{D}T_n(z_0)$. Using (31) we conclude that there are points $\kappa_0, \kappa_1, \kappa_2$, such that

$$h(\xi_{n-3}) < \kappa_0 < z_0 < \kappa_1 < z_1 < \kappa_2 < z_3 \leq h(b_3)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= -\text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\kappa_0) \right] = \text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\kappa_1) \right] \\ &= -\text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\kappa_2) \right] = \text{sign} \left[H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n(\eta_{n-2}) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

In this case $\{\eta_0, \dots, \eta_{n-2}, \kappa_0, \kappa_1, \kappa_2\}$ is a strong alternation of length $n + 1$ for $H_n^* \tilde{D}T_n$, which also yields a contradiction.

The proof that $\tilde{D}T_n$ is monotonic on $[a_3, \nu]$ is similar.

(vi) The set of pseudoextrema in $[a_3, b_3]$ of the functions $\tilde{D}T_{n_i,2}$ is either finite or has a point of accumulation. Repeating the argument used in (i), we conclude that we may choose a subinterval $[a_4, b_4] \subset [a_3, b_3]$ having the property that either an infinite number of the $\tilde{D}T_{n_i,2}$ are increasing thereon, or an infinite number of the $\tilde{D}T_{n_i,2}$ are decreasing thereon. We will see that this is the desired subsequence $\{T_{n_k}\}$.

Let a_1, b_1 , with $a_4 < a_1 < b_1 < b_4$, be arbitrary but fixed. Let us see that the functions $\tilde{D}T_{n_k}$ are uniformly bounded in $[a_1, b_1]$. Assume the contrary. Then, for each integer $q > 0$ there is a $n_{k,q}$ such that

$$\|\tilde{D}T_{n_{k,q}}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} \geq q.$$

If the functions $\tilde{D}T_{n_k}$ are increasing, then either

$$\tilde{D}T_{n_{k,q}}(x) \geq q, \quad x \in [b_1, b_4],$$

or

$$\tilde{D}T_{n_{k,q}}(x) \leq -q, \quad x \in [a_4, a_1].$$

Since $\|T_{n_{k,q}}\| = 1$, applying Proposition 4 we see that, either

$$q[g_1(b_4) - g_1(b_1)] = \int_{b_1}^{b_4} q dg_1(t) \leq \int_{b_1}^{b_4} \tilde{D}T_{n_{k,q}}(t) dg_1(t) = T_{n_{k,q}}(b_4) - T_{n_{k,q}}(b_1) \leq 2,$$

or

$$-2 \leq T_{n_{k,q}}(a_1) - T_{n_{k,q}}(a_4) = \int_{a_4}^{a_1} \tilde{D}T_{n_{k,q}}(t) dg_1(t) \leq - \int_{a_4}^{a_1} q dg_1(t) = -q[g_1(a_1) - g_1(a_4)].$$

Since q is arbitrary and $g_1(x)$ is strictly increasing, this is a contradiction.

A similar argument is applied if the functions $\tilde{D}T_{n_j}$ are decreasing \square

The next theorem generalizes [3, Theorem 1]. Apart from using Lemma 3 instead of [3, Lemma 1], the proofs are similar.

Theorem 5. *Let G be an infinite normalized Markov system of continuous functions on a closed interval $[a, b]$. Then $S(G)$ is dense in $C[a, b]$ if and only if $S(G)$ has an everywhere unbounded Bernstein inequality.*

Proof. If $S(G)$ is not dense in $C[a, b]$, then Theorem 3, implies that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n \neq 0$. Thus there is a sequence $\{T_{n_i}\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+}$ of generalized Chebychev polynomials and a number $r > 0$, such that $M_{n_i} > r$.

Let $\alpha_{n_i}, \beta_{n_i}$ be two consecutive zeros of T_{n_i} such that $M_{n_i} = \beta_{n_i} - \alpha_{n_i}$; then $\{\alpha_{n_i}\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+}$ has a point of accumulation in $[a, b]$. We may therefore choose a subinterval $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b]$, and a subsequence $\{T_{n'_i}\}$ of $\{T_{n_i}\}$, that has no zeros in $[\alpha, \beta]$.

Applying Lemma 3 we thus conclude that there is an interval $[a_1, b_1] \subset [a, b]$, a sequence $\{T_{n_j}\}_{j \in \mathbb{Z}^+}$ of generalized Chebychev polynomials, and constants $\delta > 0$ and $\gamma > 0$, such that for any n_j

$$\|T_{n_j}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} < 1 - \delta$$

and

$$\|\tilde{D}T_{n_j}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} < \gamma.$$

Let $f \in S(G)$; then $f \in S(G_n)$ for some n . If $n_j \geq n$ we have:

(i) For every $x \in [a_1, b_1]$

$$|T_{n_j}(x)| \leq \|T_{n_j}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} < 1 - \delta < 1.$$

Thus,

$$|T_{n_j}(x)| \neq 1 \tag{35}$$

and

$$\frac{1}{1 - |T_{n_j}(x)|} < \frac{1}{\delta}.$$

(ii) Since $f \in S(G_{n_j})$ and (35) holds, we may apply Theorem 4 to conclude that for every $x \in [a_1, b_1]$

$$\frac{|\tilde{D}f(x)|}{\|f\|_{[a, b]}} \leq \frac{2}{1 - |T_{n_j}(x)|} |\tilde{D}T_{n_j}(x)| \leq \frac{2}{\delta} \|\tilde{D}T_{n_j}\|_{[a_1, b_1]} < \frac{2\gamma}{\delta}.$$

Thus $S(G)$ does not satisfy an unbounded Bernstein inequality.

Conversely, given $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b]$ and $\gamma > 0$, let $a_1 = \alpha < b_1 \leq \beta$ be such that

$$g_1(b_1) - g_1(a_1) < \frac{1}{\gamma}, \tag{36}$$

and let $g \in C[a, b]$ be such that $g(t) = 0$ if $t \notin (a_1, b_1)$, $g((a_1 + b_1)/2) = 1$, and extended linearly to the rest of $[a, b]$. The density implies that for each $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a function $f \in S(G)$ such that $\|f - g\|_{[a, b]} < \varepsilon$.

Since $f(x) - f(a_1) \in S(G)$, we may assume without essential loss of generality that $f(a_1) = 0$. Thus, for ε sufficiently small there exists a point $x_0 \in (a_1, b_1)$ such that

$$f(x_0) = \|f\|_{[\alpha, \beta]} = \|f\|_{[a, b]}.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_{[a, b]} &= f(x_0) = f(x_0) - f(a_1) = \int_{a_1}^{x_0} \tilde{D}f(t) dg_1(t) \leq \\ &\leq [g_1(x_0) - g_1(a_1)] \|\tilde{D}f\|_{[\alpha, \beta]} \leq [g_1(b_1) - g_1(a_1)] \|\tilde{D}f\|_{[\alpha, \beta]}, \end{aligned}$$

and applying (36) we conclude that

$$\|f\|_{[a, b]} \leq \frac{\|\tilde{D}f\|_{[\alpha, \beta]}}{\gamma}.$$

□

5. A JACKSON TYPE THEOREM FOR FINITE MARKOV SYSTEMS

The main result of this section is Theorem 6. It generalizes [1, Theorem 1], which relies on the additional assumptions that the functions in the Markov system are differentiable, and that the system of derivatives is also a Markov system. Here we simplify Bojanov's proof in such a way that the differentiation operator is not used at all.

Given a Markov system G_n in $C[a, b]$ and a function $f \in C[a, b]$, $E_n(f)$ and $P_n(f, \cdot)$ will respectively denote the distance from f to $S(G_n)$ and the element of best approximation from $S(G_n)$ to f , in the norm of the supremum.

Let ω be an increasing function on $[a, b]$, \mathcal{A} a set of square-integrable functions with respect to $d\omega$ on $[a, b]$, and ψ a square-integrable function with respect to $d\omega$ on $[a, b]$.

We will say that ψ is ω -orthogonal to \mathcal{A} , and write $\psi \perp \mathcal{A}$, if ψ is orthogonal to \mathcal{A} in the inner product space defined by $d\omega$, i. e., if for every $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}$

$$\int_a^b \psi(t)\varphi(t) d\omega(t) = 0.$$

We will say that a function $f \in F[a, b]$ has a sign change at x_0 if there is a $\delta > 0$ with $a < x_0 - \delta < x_0 + \delta < b$ such that, if $x_0 - \delta < t_1 < x_0 < t_2 < x_0 + \delta$, then $\text{sign}[f(t_1)f(t_2)] = -1$.

We begin with two preliminary propositions:

Lemma 4. *Let $\{g_0, \dots, g_n\}$ be a Markov system on a bounded interval $[a, b]$, ω a strictly increasing function on $[a, b]$, and $\psi \in F[a, b]$. Assume, moreover, that $\psi(x) \neq 0$ a. e., and that ψ is ω -orthogonal to $S(G_n)$. Then ψ has at least n sign changes in $[a, b]$.*

Proof. Assume ψ has $p < n$ sign changes. Then there is a partition

$$a = t_0 < \dots < t_p < t_{p+1} = b$$

such that $(-1)^k \psi(x)$ has weakly constant sign on each interval (t_k, t_{k+1}) , $0 \leq k \leq p$.

Let

$$\varphi(t) := \bigcup \begin{pmatrix} g_0 & \dots & g_p & g_{p+1} \\ t_0 & \dots & t_p & t \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} g_0(t_0) & \dots & g_0(t_p) & g_0(t) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ g_p(t_0) & \dots & g_p(t_p) & g_p(t) \\ g_{p+1}(t_0) & \dots & g_{p+1}(t_p) & g_{p+1}(t) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\varphi = \sum_{k=0}^{p+1} \alpha_k g_k,$$

and therefore:

(i) $\varphi \in S_n$.

(ii) $\alpha_{p+1} = \bigcup \begin{pmatrix} g_0 & \dots & g_p \\ t_0 & \dots & t_p \end{pmatrix} > 0$ (whence $\varphi \neq 0$).

(iii) $(-1)^{p-k} \varphi(t) > 0$ if $0 \leq k \leq p$ and $t_k < t < t_{k+1}$.

Thus $\psi\varphi$ has weakly constant sign on (a, b) . Since $\psi\varphi \neq 0$ a. e., we conclude that

$$\int_a^b \psi(t)\varphi(t) d\omega(t) \neq 0,$$

which is a contradiction. \square

Lemma 5. *Assume that G_n is a normalized Markov system on $C[a, b]$, let*

$$a \leq x_0 < \dots < x_{n+1} \leq b, \tag{37}$$

and let \mathbf{D} denote the array

$$\{g_i(x_{j+1}) - g_i(x_j); 1 \leq i \leq n, 0 \leq j \leq n\}.$$

Let \mathbf{D}_k be obtained from \mathbf{D} by deleting the k^{th} column, and $d_k := \det \mathbf{D}_k$. Then $d_k \geq 0$, $0 \leq k \leq n-1$, and $d_n > 0$.

Proof. First note that

$$d_n = \bigcup \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g_1 & \dots & g_n \\ x_0 & x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix} > 0.$$

Since $G_n \subset C[a, b]$, to complete the proof it will suffice to assume that $a < x_0$ and $x_n < b$. We will prove that under these conditions all the d_k are strictly positive.

If $f \in S(G_n)$, then clearly

$$\bigcup \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g_1 & \cdots & g_n & f \\ x_0 & x_1 & \cdots & x_n & x_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

We now used an argument that was employed in [8, Chapter 1]: subtracting from each column in this determinant the preceding one and then developing by the first row, we thus obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ g_1(x_0) & g_1(x_1) - g_1(x_0) & \cdots & g_1(x_{n+1}) - g_1(x_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_n(x_0) & g_n(x_1) - g_n(x_0) & \cdots & g_n(x_{n+1}) - g_n(x_n) \\ f(x_0) & f(x_1) - f(x_0) & \cdots & f(x_{n+1}) - f(x_n) \end{pmatrix} = \\ &= \det \begin{pmatrix} g_1(x_1) - g_1(x_0) & \cdots & g_1(x_{n+1}) - g_1(x_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_n(x_1) - g_n(x_0) & \cdots & g_n(x_{n+1}) - g_n(x_n) \\ f(x_1) - f(x_0) & \cdots & f(x_{n+1}) - f(x_n) \end{pmatrix} = \\ &= (-1)^n \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)] d_k. \end{aligned} \tag{38}$$

Setting

$$\psi(t) := \begin{cases} (-1)^k d_k & \text{if } x_k \leq t < x_{k+1}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n-1, \\ (-1)^n d_n & \text{if } x_n \leq t \leq x_{n+1}, \end{cases}$$

and taking into account that

$$f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k) = \int_{x_k}^{x_{k+1}} \tilde{D}f(t) dg_1(t),$$

we obtain

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_{n+1}} \psi(t) \tilde{D}f(t) dg_1(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)] d_k = 0.$$

Thus, if $S(\tilde{G}_n, x_0, x_n)$ denotes the restrictions to $[x_0, x_n]$ of the functions in $S(\tilde{G}_n)$, we have shown that

$$f \perp S(\tilde{G}_n, x_0, x_n).$$

Since ψ has constant sign on each interval (x_{j-1}, x_j) , and moreover, it cannot have a sign change neither at x_0 nor at x_{n+1} , applying Lemma 4 we conclude that the d_k all have the same sign. Since $d_n > 0$, the assertion follows. \square

In view of the preceding lemma, we may define

$$a_k := \frac{d_k}{2 \sum_{j=0}^n d_j}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n. \tag{39}$$

If

$$\delta_n := \sup \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n a_k [g_1(x_{k+1}) - g_1(x_k)] \right\},$$

where the supremum is taken over the set of all sequences of the form (37), we have

Theorem 6. Let G_n be a normalized Markov system on $C[a, b]$. Then, for any function $f \in C([a, b])$,

$$E_n(f) \leq \frac{3}{2}\omega(f \circ g_1^{-1}; \delta_n).$$

Proof. Let $x_0 < \dots < x_{n+1}$ be the alternation points for $f - P_n(f; \cdot)$, i. e.

$$f(x_i) - P_n(f; x_i) = \varepsilon(-1)^i E_n(f), \quad 0 \leq i \leq n+1,$$

where ε is a constant and $\varepsilon = \pm 1$, and let $c_k := -\varepsilon a_k$, $0 \leq k \leq n$. Then, proceeding exactly as in the proof of [1, Theorem 1], we see that

$$E_n(f) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k c_k [f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)] = -\varepsilon \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k a_k [f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)]. \quad (40)$$

But, since $d_k \geq 0$, we see that also $a_k \geq 0$. Moreover, it readily follows from the definition of the a_k , that

$$\sum_{k=0}^n a_k = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Since $\omega(f; \lambda\delta) \leq (\lambda + 1)\omega(f; \delta)$, $\lambda > 0$, and, moreover, $g_1(x)$ is strictly increasing, (40) implies that for each $\delta > 0$ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} E_n(f) &\leq \sum_{k=0}^n a_k |f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \omega(f \circ g_1^{-1}; g_1(x_{k+1}) - g_1(x_k)) \\ &\leq \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \left[\frac{g_1(x_{k+1}) - g_1(x_k)}{\delta} + 1 \right] \omega(f \circ g_1^{-1}; \delta) \\ &= \left\{ \frac{1}{\delta} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k [g_1(x_{k+1}) - g_1(x_k)] + \frac{1}{2} \right\} \omega(f \circ g_1^{-1}; \delta). \end{aligned}$$

Setting $\delta = \delta_n$, the assertion follows. \square

Lemma 6. Let G_n , $n \geq 1$ be a normalized Markov system of continuous functions on $[a, b]$, and let

$$\sigma_t(s) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a \leq s \leq t \\ g_1(s) - g_1(t) & \text{if } t < s \leq b. \end{cases}$$

Then $E_n(\sigma_t)$ is a continuous real-valued function of t , with domain $[a, b]$.

Proof. Let $\theta_n(t; \cdot) := P_n(\sigma_t; \cdot)$. Then

$$E_n(\sigma_t) = \|\sigma_t - \theta_n(t; \cdot)\|.$$

If $t_1, t_2 \in [a, b]$ we have

$$\|\sigma_{t_1} - \theta_n(t_1; \cdot)\| \leq \|\sigma_{t_1} - \theta_n(t_2; \cdot)\| \leq \|\sigma_{t_1} - \sigma_{t_2}\| + \|\sigma_{t_2} - \theta_n(t_2; \cdot)\|,$$

whence

$$E_n(\sigma_{t_1}) - E_n(\sigma_{t_2}) \leq \|\sigma_{t_1} - \sigma_{t_2}\|.$$

By a similar argument we obtain

$$E_n(\sigma_{t_2}) - E_n(\sigma_{t_1}) \leq \|\sigma_{t_2} - \sigma_{t_1}\|.$$

Therefore

$$|E_n(\sigma_{t_1}) - E_n(\sigma_{t_2})| \leq \|\sigma_{t_1} - \sigma_{t_2}\|.$$

Assume that $t_1 < t_2$ and let $s \in [a, b]$. Then, if $t_2 < s$,

$$\sigma_{t_1}(s) - \sigma_{t_2}(s) = g_1(s) - g_1(t_1) - [g_1(s) - g_1(t_2)] = g_1(t_2) - g_1(t_1).$$

On the other hand, if $t_1 < s \leq t_2$,

$$\sigma_{t_1}(s) - \sigma_{t_2}(s) = g_1(s) - g_1(t_1) \leq g_1(t_2) - g_1(t_1).$$

Finally, if $s \leq t_1$,

$$\sigma_{t_1}(s) - \sigma_{t_2}(s) = 0 \leq g_1(t_2) - g_1(t_1).$$

Therefore

$$\|\sigma_{t_1} - \sigma_{t_2}\| \leq \|g_1(t_1) - g_1(t_2)\|.$$

Since g_1 is continuous, the assertion follows. \square

In view of the preceding lemma, we may define

$$\Delta_n := \max_{t \in [a, b]} E_n(\sigma_t) = \max_{t \in [a, b]} \|\sigma_t - \theta_n(t; \cdot)\|.$$

Using the operator \tilde{D} we obtain an estimate for δ_n :

Theorem 7. *Let G_n , $n \geq 1$, be a normalized Markov system of continuous functions on $[a, b]$. Then*

$$\delta_n \leq \sqrt{[g_1(b) - g_1(a)] \Delta_n}$$

Proof. For $a \leq x_0 < \dots < x_{n+1} \leq b$, let the coefficients a_k be defined as in (39), and let $\psi : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$\psi(t) = \begin{cases} (-1)^k a_k & \text{if } t \in (x_k, x_{k+1}], \quad 0 \leq k \leq n \\ 0 & \text{if } t \in [a, x_0] \cup (x_{n+1}, b] \end{cases},$$

where we adopt the convention that $(\alpha, \alpha] = \emptyset$. If $f \in S(G_n)$, proceeding as in the proof of Lemma 5 we have:

$$0 = \bigcup \begin{pmatrix} 1 & g_1 & \dots & g_n & f \\ x_0 & x_1 & \dots & x_n & x_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = (-1)^n \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)] d_k,$$

and an application of Proposition 4 yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}f(s) dg_1(s) &= \int_{x_0}^{x_{n+1}} \psi(s) \tilde{D}f(s) dg_1(s) \\ &= -\frac{\varepsilon}{2 \sum_{k=0}^n d_k} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)] d_k = 0. \end{aligned}$$

In particular, for every $t \in [a, b]$

$$\int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}\theta_n(t; s) dg_1(s) = 0.$$

We now extend the definition of \tilde{D} to the linear space generated by G_n and the functions $\sigma_t(s)$, $s \in (a, b)$, by stipulating that it should be a linear operator and defining

$$\tilde{D}\sigma_t(s) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s \leq t \\ 1 & \text{if } s > t \end{cases}.$$

Since

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \tilde{D}\sigma_t(s) dg_1(s) = \sigma_t(x_2) - \sigma_t(x_1),$$

we see that the conclusions of Proposition 4 are valid for this extended operator. Thus, setting $f_t(s) := \sigma_t(s) - \theta_n(t; s)$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}\sigma_t(s) dg_1(s) &= \int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}[\sigma_t(s) - \theta_n(t; s)] dg_1(s) = \\ \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k a_k \int_{x_k}^{x_{k+1}} \tilde{D}f_t(s) dg_1(s) &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k a_k [f_t(x_{k+1}) - f_t(x_k)]. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\left| \int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}\sigma_t(s) dg_1(s) \right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k| |f_t(x_{k+1}) - f_t(x_k)| \leq 2\Delta_n \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k| = \Delta_n.$$

On the other hand, if we define

$$a'_0 := a_0, \quad a'_{n+1} := (-1)^{n+1} a_n, \quad a'_k := (-1)^k (a_{k-1} + a_k), \quad 1 \leq k \leq n,$$

we obtain the following representation for ψ :

$$\psi(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} a'_k \tilde{D}\sigma_{x_k}(s).$$

This implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b [\psi(s)]^2 dg_1(s) &= \int_a^b \psi(s) \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} a'_k \tilde{D}\sigma_{x_k}(s) \right] dg_1(s) = \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} a'_k \int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}\sigma_{x_k}(s) dg_1(s). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b [\psi(s)]^2 dg_1(s) &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} |a'_k| \left| \int_a^b \psi(s) \tilde{D}\sigma_{x_k}(s) dg_1(s) \right| \leq \\ &\leq \Delta_n \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} |a'_k| \leq \Delta_n \left[2 \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k| \right] = \Delta_n, \end{aligned}$$

and applying the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k [g_1(x_{k+1}) - g_1(x_k)] &= \left| \int_a^b \psi(s) dg_1(s) \right| \\ &\leq \left[\int_a^b dg_1(s) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\int_a^b [\psi(s)]^2 dg_1(s) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &\leq \sqrt{[g_1(b) - g_1(a)] \Delta_n}. \end{aligned}$$

Taking the supremum over all sequences of the form (37), the conclusion follows. \square

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