# $n$-PARAMETER FAMILIES AND BEST APPROXIMATION 

Philip C. Curtis, Jr.

1. Introduction. Let $f(x)$ be a real valued continuous function defined on a closed finite interval and let $F$ be a class of approximating functions for $f$. Suppose there exists a function $g_{0} \in F$ such that $\left\|f-g_{0}\right\|=\inf _{g \in F}\|f-g\|$ where $\|f\| \equiv \sup _{x \in[a, b]}|f(x)|$. The problem of characterizing $g_{0}$ and giving conditions that it be unique is classical and has received attention from many authors. The well-known results for polynomials were generalized by Bernstein [2] to "Chebyshev" systems. Later Motzkin [10] and Tornheim [15] further extended these theorems to not necessarily linear families of continuous functions. The only essential requirement was that to any $n$-points in the plane with distinct abscissae lying in a finite interval [ $a, b]$, there should be a unique function in the class $F$ passing through the given points. Such a system $F$ is called an $n$-parameter family. Constructive methods for determining the function from $F$ of best approximation to $f$, due to Remes [14] in the polynomial case, were extended to the above situation by Novodvorskii and Pinsker [13]. In this paper and in the paper of Motzkin two apparently additional requirements were placed on the system $F$. One, a continuity condition, was shown by Tornheim to follow from the axioms of $F$. The other, a condition on the multiplicity of the roots of $f-g, f, g \in F$, also follows from the definitions as will be shown in $\S 2$. In § 3 the characterization of $g_{0}$ is discussed. Methods for constructing $g_{0}$ are given in $\S 4$. These are based on the maximization of a certain function of $n+1$ variables. In $\S 5$ it is shown that an $n$-parameter familiy has a unique function of best approximation to an arbitrary continuous function in the $L_{p, N}$ norm if and only if $F$ is the translate of a linear $n$-parameter family. The problem of the existence of $n$-parameter families on general compact spaces $S$ is discussed in $\S 6$. Under additional hypotheses on $F$ it is shown that $S$ must be homeomorphic to a subset of the circumference of the unit circle. If $n$ is even this subset must be proper.
2. $n$-parameter families functions. Following Tornheim we define, for a fixed integer $n \geq 1$, an $n$-parameter family of functions $F$ to be a class of real valued continuous functions on the finite interval $[a, b]$ such that for any real numbers

$$
x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}, a \leq x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots<x_{n} \leq b
$$

[^0]there exists a unique $f \in F$ such that $f\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} i=1, \cdots, n$. For convenience we will usually take $[a, b]$ to be the interval $[0,1]$. We will include the possibility that 0 and 1 are identified. Then of course $x_{1} \neq x_{n}$, and the functions of $F$ are periodic of period 1 . We call such a family a periodic $n$-parameter family. If we wish to consider specifically the case when 0 and 1 are not identified, we will refer to $F$ as an ordinary $n$-parameter family. If $F$ is a linear vector space of functions then we will call $F$ a linear $n$-parameter family (e.g., polynomials of degree $\leq$ $n-1$ ). The following continuity theorem of Tornheim [15] is a generalization of a result of Beckenbach [1] for $n=2$.

Theorem 1. Let $F$ be an n-parameter family on $[0,1]$. For

$$
k=1,2, \cdots, \text { let } x_{1}^{(k)}, \cdots, x_{n}^{(k)}, y_{1}^{(k)}, \cdots, y_{n}^{(k)}, 0 \leq x_{1}^{(k)}<\cdots<x_{n}^{(k)} \leq 1
$$

be given sequences of real numbers and let $f_{k}$ be the unique function from $F$ such that

$$
f_{k}\left(x_{i}^{(k)}\right)=y_{i}^{(k)} \quad i=1, \cdots, n
$$

Suppose for each

$$
i, \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{i}^{(k)}=x_{i}, \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} y_{i}^{(k)}=y_{i} \text { and } 0 \leq x_{1}<\cdots<x_{n} \leq 1 .^{1}
$$

Let $f$ be the unique function from $F$ such that $f\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} i=1, \cdots, n$. Then $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} f_{k}=f$ uniformly on $[0,1]$.

Proof. If 0 and 1 are not identified the proof is given in [15]. Therefore, let 0 and 1 be identified and the functions of $F$ be periodic. Suppose $f_{k}$ does not tend uniformly to $f$. For some $\varepsilon>0$, there exists a sequence $\left\{u_{k}\right\} \subset[0,1]$ such that for each $k,\left|f\left(u_{k}\right)-f_{k}\left(u_{k}\right)\right| \geq \varepsilon$. Since a subsequence of $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ converges, we may assume $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ does and let $u=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} u_{k}$. By a suitable rotation of [0,1] we may assume $u, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}$ all lie in the interior of an interval $[a, b], 0<a<b<1$. But $F$ forms an ordinary $n$-parameter family on $[a, b]$ and hence $f_{k} \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $[a, b]$ which is a contradiction. This completes the proof.

We now verify that $n$-parameter families are unisolvent in the sense of Motzkin [10]. Let $f, g \in F$ and let $x$ be an interior point of [0, 1]. If $x$ is a zero of $f-g$ and if $f-g$ does not change sign in a suitably small neighborhood about $x$ then we will say the zero $x$ has multiplicity 2, otherwise we say $x$ has multiplicity 1 . If 0 and 1 are not identified and either is a zero of $f-g$, then the multiplicity is taken to be 1. We shall denote the sum of the multiplicities of the zeros of $f-g$ within an interval $[a, b]$ by $m_{a, b}(f, g)$. The following generalized con-

[^1]vexity notion is also useful. A continuous function $h$ will be said to be convex to $F$ if $h$ intersects no function of $F$ at more than $n$ points. The following result extends Theorems 2 and 3 of [15].

Theorem 2. Let $F$ be an n-parameter family on $[0,1]$ and let $h$ be convex to $F$. Then for any $f, g \in F, m_{0,1}(f, h) \leq n$ and $m_{0,1}(f, g) \leq n-1$.

Proof. We assume first that 0 and 1 are not identified and that $F$ is an ordinary $n$-parameter family. We verify the first statement by induction on $n$. For $n=1$ the result follows by [15] Theorem 2. Hence, let $h$ be a continuous function convex to a $k+1$ parameter family $F$ and assume the conclusion holds for all $k$-parameter families. For $f \in F$ let $x_{i}, i=1, \cdots, m$, be the zeros of $f-h$ ordered from left to right and assume $m_{0,1}(f, h)>k+1$. Choose a point $u$ such that $x_{1}<u<x_{2}$. If $F_{1}=\left\{g \in F \mid g\left(x_{1}\right)=h\left(x_{1}\right)\right\}$, then $F_{1}$ is a $k$-parameter family on [u, 1]. $f \in F_{1}$ and $h$ is convex to $F_{1}$. By our inductive assumption $m_{u, 1}(f, h) \leq$ $k$. Therefore $x_{1}$ must be a zero of $f-h$, and $m_{0,1}(f, h)=k+2$. By the same reasoning we may assume $x_{m}$ is a double zero of $f-h$.

We now construct a set $E$ of $k$ points from [0,1] in the following manner. First choose an $\varepsilon>0$ such that $x_{i}+2 \varepsilon<x_{i+1}-2 \varepsilon, i=1, \cdots$, $m-1$. If $x$ is a single zero of $f-h$ then let $x$ belong to $E$. If $x$ is a double zero of $f-h, x \neq x_{1}, x_{m}$ let $x+\varepsilon$, and $x-\varepsilon$ belong to $E$. We add the points $x_{1}+\varepsilon, x_{m}-\varepsilon$. Since $m_{x_{1}+\varepsilon, x_{m}-\varepsilon}(f, h)=k-2$ it is clear that $E$ contains exactly $k$ points. Choose a point $x^{\prime}, x_{1}+\varepsilon<$ $x^{\prime}<x_{2}-\varepsilon$. Let $f_{n}$ be the unique function in $F$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{n}(x)=f(x), x \in E \\
& f_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=f\left(x^{\prime}\right)+\frac{1}{n} \operatorname{sgn}\left[f\left(x^{\prime}\right)-h\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $f_{n}-f$ has $k$ zeros which must all be simple by [15] Theorem 3. Within the interval $\left[x_{1}, x_{m}\right] f_{n}-h$ has exactly $k$ simple zeros since $f_{n}$ was chosen so that at the points $x_{i} \pm 2 \varepsilon, i=2, \cdots, m-1, x_{1}+2 \varepsilon$, $x_{m}-2 \varepsilon, f$ lies between $f_{n}$ and $h$. Hence for $0 \leq x<x_{1}$ and $x_{m}<x \leq 1, f_{n}$ and $h$ are on the same side of $f$ (i.e., $\operatorname{sgn}\left[f_{n}(x)-f(x)\right]=\operatorname{sgn}[h(x)-f(x)]$. But by Theorem 1, $f_{n}$ tends uniformly to $f$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence for $n$ sufficiently large $f_{n}-h$ must have at least $k+2$ zeros which is a contradiction.

The case when 0 and 1 are identified and $F$ is periodic causes no difficulty. For if $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}$ are the zeros of $f-h$, using a suitable rotation we may assume that there is an interval $[a, b]$, such that $0<a<x_{1}<\cdots<x_{m}<b<1 . \quad F$ is an ordinary $n$-parameter family on $[a, b]$ and $m_{0,1}(f, h)=m_{a, b}(f, h) \leq n$.

The verification of the second assertion is very similar to the above, and we leave the details to the reader.

Corollary. There are no periodic n-parameter families when $n$ is an even integer.

Proof. Suppose false. Let $F$ be a periodic $n$-parameter family and $n$ an even integer. Let $f \in F$ and choose $x_{i} i=1, \cdots, n$ such that $0<$ $x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots<x_{n}<1$. Choose $g \in T$ such that $g\left(x_{i}\right)=f\left(x_{i}\right) i=1, \cdots$, $n-1, g\left(x_{n}\right)=f\left(x_{n}\right)+1$. By Theorem $2, f-g$ changes sign at each of the points $x_{i}, i=1, \cdots n-1$; and since $f-g$ can have no other zeros within $[0,1], g(1)>f(1)$. On the other hand $g(0)<f(0)$ which is a contradiction, since $f, g$ are periodic of period 1 .
3. Best approximation in the $L_{\infty}$ norm. If $g$ is continuous on $[0,1], g \notin F$, then $\{g-f\}$ forms a new $n$-parameter family. Hence without loss of generality we may consider the characterization and construction of the function $\hat{f} \in F$ such that

$$
\|\hat{f}\|=\inf _{f \in F}\|f\| \equiv \delta
$$

We first adopt the following notation. If $S \subset[0,1]$

$$
\delta_{S}=\inf _{f \in F} \sup _{t \in S}|f(t)|
$$

Let $T$ denote the class of vectors $\boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ satisfying the condition that $0 \leq u_{1}<u_{2}<\cdots u_{n+1} \leq 1$. The statements and proofs of the results of this section are valid when $F$ consists of continuous periodic functions on $[0,1]$. We shall assume, however, that $F$ is an ordinary $n$-parameter family and leave the details in the periodic case to the reader.

The following two lemmas are appropriate generalizations of results of de la Vallee Poussin [6] for polynomials. Where possible we refer the reader to [13] for proofs.

Lemma 1. For any $\boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \in T$ there exists a unique $f \in F$ and unique real number $\lambda$ such that $f\left(u_{i}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda \cdot i=1, \cdots, n+1$. Moreover $|\lambda|=\delta_{u}$ and $f$ is the only function in $F$ with the property that $\max _{i=1, \cdots, n+1}\left|f\left(u_{i}\right)\right|=\delta_{u}$. In addition suppose for $k=1,2, \cdots$ that

$$
\boldsymbol{u}^{(k)}=\left(u_{1}^{(k)}, \cdots, u_{n+1}^{(k)}\right) \in T \text { and } f_{k}\left(u_{i}^{(k)}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda^{(k)} .
$$

Then if $\boldsymbol{u}^{(k)} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{u}$ and $\boldsymbol{u} \in T$, it follows that $f_{k} \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $[0,1]$ and $\lambda^{(k)} \rightarrow \lambda$.

Lemma 2. Let $\boldsymbol{u} \in T$ and a sequence of non-negative numbers $\lambda_{i}$ $i=1, \cdots, n+1$ be given. If there exists an $f \in F$ such that

$$
f\left(u_{i}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda_{i} i=1, \cdots, n+1 \text { or } f\left(u_{i}\right)=(-1)^{i+1} \lambda_{i} i=1, \cdots, n+1
$$

then either $\min \lambda_{i}<\delta_{u}<\max \lambda_{i}$ or $\lambda_{i}=\delta_{u} i=1, \cdots, n+1$.
Proof. Lemma 2 is a restatement of Lemma 1 of [13]. Everything in Lemma 1 except the facts that $|\lambda|=\delta_{u}$ and the function $f$ satisfying $\max _{i=1, \ldots, n+1}\left|f\left(u_{i}\right)\right|=\delta_{u}$ is unique is proved explicitly in [13]. To prove the latter statements observe that if there is a $g \in F$ satisfying $\left|g\left(u_{i}\right)\right|<$ $|\lambda|$ then $f\left(u_{i}\right)-g\left(u_{i}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda_{i} i=1, \cdots, n+1$ where either $\lambda_{i} \geq 0$, $i=1,2, \cdots, n+1$ or $\lambda_{i} \leq 0 i=1,2, \cdots, n+1$. In either case by [12], Lemma $1, f-g$ must have at least $n$ zeros between $u_{1}$ and $u_{n+1}$ counting multiplicity which is a contradiction.

For $\boldsymbol{u} \in T$ we will usually denote the function $f$ of Lemma 1 by $f_{u}$. Next we define a function $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ of $n+1$ variables.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta(\boldsymbol{u}) \equiv \delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) & =\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}} \text { if } \boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \in T \\
& =0 \text { otherwise } .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we restrict the points $u_{i}$ to lie in some subset $S \subset[0,1]$, then $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ will be denoted $\delta_{s}\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$.

Lemma 3. $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ is continuous on $R^{n+1}$
Proof. Assume that $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ is not continuous at some point $\boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$. We may assume $0 \leq u_{1} \leq u_{2} \leq \cdots \leq u_{n+1} \leq 1$, and by Lemma 1 we may assume that $m(\leq n)$ of the points $u_{i}$ are distinct. Consequently $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)=0$. Suppose there exists an $\varepsilon>0$ and a sequence $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right\} \subset T$ such that $\boldsymbol{u}_{k} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{u}$ and $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}} \geq \varepsilon$. Let $u_{i}^{(k)}$ be the $i$ th coordinate of $\boldsymbol{u}_{k}$. Choose $n$ points $u_{i}^{\prime}, 0 \leq u_{i}^{\prime}<\cdots<u_{n}^{\prime} \leq 1$ such that $m$ of the points $u_{i}^{\prime}$ coincide with the $m$ distinct points $u_{i}$. Let $f_{0}$ be the unique function in $F$ such that $f_{0}\left(u_{i}^{\prime}\right)=0$. Choose $\eta$ such that for any $i\left|u_{i}^{\prime}-u_{i}\right|<\eta$ implies $\left|f_{0}\left(u_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon / 2$. Choose $k$ so large that all coordinates of $\boldsymbol{u}_{k}$ are within $\eta$ neighborhoods of some coordinate of $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$. Then $f_{u_{k}}\left(u_{i}^{(k)}\right)-f_{0}\left(u_{i}^{(k)}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda_{i}$ where $\operatorname{sgn} \lambda_{i}^{(k)}=\operatorname{sgn} \lambda_{i+i}^{(k)} i=1, \cdots, n$. As in the proof of Lemma 1 it follows that $f_{u_{k}}-f_{0}$ must have at least $n$ zeros within $[0,1]$ which is a contradiction.

Using the function $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ one can give a simple proof of the Theorem of Motzkin and Tornheim characterizing the function $\hat{f}$ which has minimum deviation from zero.

Theorem 3. There exists a unique $\hat{f} \in F$ such that $\|\hat{f}\|=\inf _{f \in F}\|f\|$. $\hat{f}$ is uniquely characterized by the fact that for some $\boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \in T$
$\|\hat{f}\|=\delta_{u} . \quad \boldsymbol{u}$ will have this property if and only if $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ is an absolute maximum, and then $\hat{f}=f_{u}$.

Proof. Since $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ is a continuous function on a compact set, its maximum is attained for some $\boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \in T$. Assert $\left\|f_{u}\right\|=\delta_{u}$. If $\left\|f_{u}\right\|>\delta_{u}$, then there is a point $x^{\prime}$ in $[0,1]$ for which $\left|f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right|=\left\|f_{u}\right\|$. We form a new vector $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime} \in T$ by replacing one coordinate $u_{i}$ of $\boldsymbol{u}$ by $x^{\prime}$ in the following way. If $u_{i}<x^{\prime}<u_{i+1} i=1, \cdots, n$ and $\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(u_{i}\right)=\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ then let $u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{j}, j \neq i$, and $u_{i}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}$. If $\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(u_{i}\right)=(-1) \operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ let $u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{j} j \neq i+1$ and $u_{i+1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}$. If $x^{\prime}<$ $u_{1}\left(x^{\prime}>u_{n+1}\right)$ and $\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(u_{1}\right)=\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\left(\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(u_{n+1}\right)=\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)$ let $u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{\text {, }}$ $j \neq 1(j \neq n+1)$ and $u_{1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}\left(u_{n+1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}\right)$. If $\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(u_{1}\right)=(-1) \operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ $\left(\operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(u_{n+1}\right)=(-1) \operatorname{sgn} f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)$ then let $u_{1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}, u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{j-1} j=2, \cdots, n+1$ ( $u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{j+1}, j=1, \cdots, n, u_{n+1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}$ ). Now either $f_{u}\left(u_{i}^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda_{i} i=1, \cdots$, $n+1$ or $f_{u}\left(u_{1}^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{i+1} \lambda_{i} i=1, \cdots, n+1$ where $\lambda_{i}=\delta_{u}$ or $\lambda_{i}=\left\|f_{u}\right\|$. Therefore by Lemma $2, \delta_{\boldsymbol{u}}<\delta_{u^{\prime}}<\left\|f_{u}\right\|$ which contradicts the maximality of $\delta_{u}$.

It now follows immediately that $\left\|f_{u}\right\|=\inf _{f \in F}\|f\|$ and that $f_{u}$ is the only such function with this property. For if $f_{0} \in F$ and $\left\|f_{0}\right\| \leq\left\|f_{u}\right\|$ then $\left\|f_{0}\right\| \leq \delta_{u}$ which contradicts Lemma 1. Moreover the same argument shows that if there exists an $f_{0} \in F$ and a $\boldsymbol{v} \in T$ such that $\left\|f_{0}\right\|=\delta_{\boldsymbol{v}}$ then $\left\|f_{0}\right\|=\inf _{f \in F}\|f\|$. It is clear that $\delta\left(v_{1}, \cdots, v_{n+1}\right)$ must be an absolute maximum.

In the above theorem if $\|f\|$ is replaced by $\|f\|_{s}=\sup _{t \in s}|f(t)|$ where $S$ is any closed set of $[0,1]$ containing at least $n+1$ points, then the same conclusions hold. Here of course, the function $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ is replaced by $\delta_{S}\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ and the points $u_{k}$ are assumed to be in $S$. The following generalization of [11] Theorem 7.1 is therefore relevant.

Theorem 4. Let $S_{k}, S$ be closed sets of $[0,1]$ such that for each $k, S_{k}$, contains at least $n+1$ points; $S$ contains infinitely many points, and $S_{k} \subset S$. Let $\hat{f_{k}}, \hat{f_{0}}$ be functions from $F$ which minimize $\|f\|_{S_{k}},\|f\|_{S}$ respectively. If for each $\varepsilon>0$ there exists an integer $k_{0}$ such that for $k>k_{0}$ each point $u \in S$ is at a distance less than $\varepsilon$ from some point of $S_{k}$, than $\hat{f}_{k} \rightarrow \hat{f_{0}}$ uniformly on $[0,1]$.

Proof. We assume $\delta_{s}>0 . \quad S_{k} \subset S$ implies $\delta_{S_{k}} \leq \delta_{s}$. Choose $\boldsymbol{u}=$ $\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \in T, u_{i} \in S$ such that $\delta_{s}\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ is an absolute maximum. Let $\boldsymbol{u}_{k}=\left(u_{1}^{(k)}, \cdots, u_{n+1}^{(k)}\right) \in T, u_{j}^{(k)} \in S_{k}$ be chosen such that $\boldsymbol{u}_{k} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{u}$. By Lemma 1, $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}} \rightarrow \delta_{\boldsymbol{u}}$ and since $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}} \leq \delta_{S_{k}}, \delta_{S_{k}} \rightarrow \delta_{u}=\delta_{s}$. Let $\boldsymbol{v}_{k}=\left(v_{1}^{(k)}, \cdots, v_{n+1}^{(k)}\right)$ $\in T, v_{i}^{(k)} \in S_{k}$ be chosen so that for each $k, \delta_{S_{k}}\left(v_{1}^{(k)}, \cdots, v_{n+1}^{(k)}\right)$ is an absolute maximum. Extract any convergent subsequence $\boldsymbol{v}_{k_{j}}$ with limit $\boldsymbol{v}$.

If $\boldsymbol{v}=\left(v_{1}, \cdots, v_{n+1}\right)$, then $v_{i} \in S$ and $\delta_{v}=\delta_{s}$. Also $\hat{f}_{k_{j}}=f_{v_{k_{j}}}$ tends uniformly to $f_{v}$, the function from $F$ with minimum deviation on $\boldsymbol{v}$. But by the uniqueness of $f_{v}, f_{v}=\hat{f}_{0}$. The above argument shows that any subsequence of $\left\{\hat{f}_{k}\right\}$ contains a refinement which converges to $\hat{f}_{0}$. Hence $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \hat{f}_{k}=\hat{f_{0}}$ uniformly on $[0,1]$.
4. The estimation of $f$. In [13] Novodovorskii and Pinsker consider a direct method, due to Remes [14] in the polynomial case, for the estimation of $\hat{f}$. However the following Lemma shows that $\hat{f}$ is continuously dependent on estimates of the best approximation. Hence if $\boldsymbol{u}$ is a vector in $T$ for which $\delta(\boldsymbol{u})$ is an estimate of $\inf _{l \in F}\|f\|$, then the solution of the equation $f\left(u_{i}\right)=(-1)^{i} \lambda i=1, \cdots, n+1$ is the appropriate estimate of $\hat{f}$.

Lemma 4. Let $\left\{\delta_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence of non-negative numbers converging to $\delta=\inf _{f \in F}\|f\|$ from below. If $\boldsymbol{u}_{n}$ are vectors in $T$ for which $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{n}\right)=\delta_{n}$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f_{u_{n}}=\hat{f}$ uniformly on $[0,1]$.

Proof. If the conclusion is false there exists a subsequence $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right\}$ and a number $\varepsilon>0$ such that $\left\|\hat{f}-f u_{k_{j}}\right\| \geq \varepsilon$. But $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right\}$ may be further refined to obtain a convergent subsequence of vectors. Calling this $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right\}$ and letting $\boldsymbol{u}_{0}=\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty} \boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}$ we have by Lemma $1 \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)=\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right)$. By Theorem $3 f_{u_{0}}=\hat{f}$ which is a contradiction.

We shall consider two algorithms for estimating $\delta$ and prove convergence of both.

Each of these algorithms can be used efficiently for actual numerical calculations. A detailed description of method 2 for polynomials on a finite point set can be found in [5]. Also for polynomials on an interval a maximization procedure has been announced by Bratton [3].

For both methods the following notation is convenient. For $\boldsymbol{u}=$ $\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \in T$ define for $j=1, \cdots, n+1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{u}^{(j)}(x) & =\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{j-1}, x, u_{j+1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \text { if } u_{j-1} \leq x \leq u_{j+1} \\
& =0 \text { otherwise }
\end{aligned}
$$

where we take $u_{0}=0, u_{n+2}=1$. We now form $\eta_{u}(x) \equiv \max _{j=1, \cdots, n+1} \delta_{u}^{j}(x)$. From the continuity of $\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right)$ it follows that for each $j, \delta_{u}^{(j)}(x)$ is continuous, and hence $\eta_{u}(x)$ is continuous. Therefore there exists a point $x^{\prime}, 0 \leq x^{\prime} \leq 1$ and integer $1 \leq m \leq n+1$ such that

$$
\delta_{u}^{m}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\max _{j=1, \ldots, n+1}\left\|\delta_{u}^{i}\right\|=\left\|\eta_{u}\right\|
$$

For a given vector $\boldsymbol{u}$ we define $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}=\left(u_{1}^{\prime}, \cdots, u_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)$ by setting $u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{j}, j \neq m$, $u_{m}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}$.

Theorem 5. If vectors $\boldsymbol{u}_{k}$ are defined inductively in the above fashion with $\boldsymbol{u}_{1} \in T$ chosen arbitrarily, then $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right)$ exists and there exists $\boldsymbol{u}_{0} \in T$ such that $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right)$. Furthermore $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$ is an absolute maximum of the function $\delta(\boldsymbol{u})$.

Proof. $\left\{\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right)\right\}$ is a monotonically increasing, bounded sequence hence convergent. If $\delta=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right)$, then a suitable subsequence $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right\}$, converges to $\boldsymbol{u}_{0}$ and $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)=\delta$. We now assert $\eta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}}(x)$ converges uniformly to $\eta_{u_{0}}(x)$. It suffices to assume $u_{i} \leq x \leq u_{i+1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.\left|\eta_{u_{0}}(x)-\eta_{u_{k_{j}}}(x)\right|=\mid \max \left(\delta_{u_{0}}^{i}(x), \delta_{u_{0}}^{i+1}(x),\right)\right)-\max \left(\delta_{u_{k_{j}}}^{i}(x), \delta_{u_{k_{j}}}^{i+1}(x)\right) \mid \\
& \quad \leq\left|\delta_{u_{0}}^{i}(x)-\delta_{u_{k_{j}}}^{i}(x)\right|+\left|\delta_{u_{0}}^{i+1}(x)-\delta_{u_{k_{j}}}^{i+1}(x)\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\delta(\boldsymbol{u})$ is a uniformly continuous function the latter expression tends to zero uniformly in $x$.
Hence

$$
\left\|\eta_{u_{0}}\right\|=\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty}\left\|\eta_{u_{k_{j}}}\right\|
$$

But

$$
\left\|\eta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}}\right\|=\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}+1}\right) \leq \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j+1}}\right) \leq\left\|\eta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j+1}}}\right\|
$$

Therefore $\left\|\eta_{u_{0}}\right\|=\lim _{j \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right)=\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$. It now follows by the same argument as in the proof of Theorem 3 that $\left\|f_{\boldsymbol{u}_{0}}\right\|=\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$ and by Theorem 3 , $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$ is a maximum.

For the second method of estimation of $f$ we alter slightly our definition of $\delta_{u}^{1}(x)$ and $\delta_{u}^{n+1}(x)$. We now define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta_{u}^{1}(x) & =\delta\left(x, u_{2}, \cdots, u_{n+1}\right) \text { if } 0 \leq x \leq u_{2} \\
& =\delta\left(u_{2}, u_{3}, \cdots, u_{n+1}, x\right) \text { if } u_{n+1} \leq x \leq 1 \\
\delta_{u}^{n+1}(x) & =\delta\left(u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n}, x\right) \text { if } u_{n} \leq x \leq 1 \\
& =\delta\left(x, u_{1}, \cdots, u_{n}\right) \text { if } 0 \leq x \leq u_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The algorithm proceeds as follows. First let $\varepsilon>0$ be chosen. Select an arbitrary vector $\boldsymbol{u} \in T$. Maximize $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}}^{2}(x)$ over its domain of definition. Let $x^{\prime}$ be a point for which $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}}^{2}(x)$ is a maximum. If $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}}^{2}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \geq(1+\varepsilon) \delta(\boldsymbol{u})$, replace $u_{2}$ by $x^{\prime}$ forming a new vector $u^{\prime}$. If not, let $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{u}$. We now maximize $\delta_{u^{\prime}}^{3}(x)$ and continue inductively. Special attention is necessary for $\delta_{u}^{n+1}(x)$ and $\delta_{u}^{1}(x)$. If $x^{\prime}$ is a point for which $\delta_{u}^{n+1}(x)$ is a maximum and $\delta_{u}^{n+1}(x) \geq$ $(1+\varepsilon) \delta(\boldsymbol{u})$, then $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$ is formed in the following way. If $x^{\prime} \geq u_{n}$ then $u_{i}^{\prime}=u_{i}, i=1, \cdots, n, u_{n+1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime}$; if $x^{\prime} \leq u_{1}$ then $u_{1}^{\prime}=x^{\prime} u_{i}^{\prime}=u_{i-1} i=2, \cdots, n+1$. In the latter case, the next function maximized is $\delta_{\mu^{\prime}}^{2}(x)$. If the first case occurs then $\delta_{u^{\prime}}^{1}(x)$ is maximized. Let $x^{\prime \prime}$ be a point for which $\delta_{u^{\prime}}^{1}(x)$.
is a maximum and $\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}}^{1}\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right) \geq(1+\varepsilon) \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)$. If $x^{\prime \prime} \leq u_{2}^{\prime}$ then $u_{1}^{\prime \prime}=x^{\prime \prime}$ and $u_{i}^{\prime \prime}=u_{i}^{\prime} i=2,3, \cdots, n+1$. If $x^{\prime \prime} \geq u_{n+1}^{\prime}$ then $u_{i}^{\prime \prime}=u_{i+1} i=1, \cdots, n$ and $u_{n+1}^{\prime \prime}=x^{\prime \prime}$. For the first case the next function maximized is $\delta_{u^{\prime \prime}}^{2}(x)$; the second case, $\delta_{w^{\prime}}^{(1)}(x)$. If

$$
\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}}^{n+1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)<(1+\varepsilon) \delta(\boldsymbol{u})\left(\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}}^{1}\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right)<(1+\varepsilon) \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

then we take $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{u}\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime \prime}=u^{\prime}\right)$. When there have been $n+1$ consecutive maximizations with no change in the vector $\boldsymbol{u}, \varepsilon$ is now replaced by $\varepsilon / 2$ and the process is repeated. We now continue inductively and pass to the limit as $\varepsilon / 2^{k} \rightarrow 0$.

Theorem 6. The conclusions of Theorem 5 hold if the sequence $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right\}$ is chosen inductively in accordance with the above algorithm.

Proof. As before, $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right)=\delta$ exists. We choose a particular convergent subsequence $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right\}$ of $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right\}$. For each $j$ let $\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}$ be a vector of $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right\}$ such that for each $i, i=1, \cdots, n+1$ and all appropriate $x, \delta_{u_{k_{j}}}^{i}(x)<\left(1+\varepsilon / 2^{j}\right) \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right)$. The algorithm guarantees that for each integer $j$ such a vector $\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}$ exists in the sequence $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k}\right\}$. Since a refinement of this sequence is convergent, we assume $\left\{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right\}$ converges. Then if $\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}} \rightarrow$ $\boldsymbol{u}_{0}, \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)=\delta$. Suppose $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$ is not a maximum of $\delta(\boldsymbol{u})$, then $\left\|f_{\boldsymbol{u}_{0}}\right\|>\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$. Choose $x^{\prime}$ so that $\left|f_{u}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right|=\|f\|$, and form $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$ by replacing one point, the $i$ th say, of $\boldsymbol{u}_{0}$ by $x^{\prime}$ in the manner of the proof of Theorem 3. Form $\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}^{\prime}$ by replacing the $i$ th coordinate of $\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}$ by $x^{\prime}$ Then $\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}^{\prime} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$ and $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)$. Therefore for $j$ sufficiently large, since $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)>\delta$,

$$
\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}^{\prime}}^{\prime}\right)>\frac{\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)+\delta}{2}
$$

On the other hand for each $j$ there is a point $x$ and an integer $m$ such that

$$
\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}^{\prime}\right)=\delta_{\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}}^{m}(x) \leq\left(1+\frac{\varepsilon}{2^{j}}\right) \delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{k_{j}}\right) \leq\left(1+\frac{\varepsilon}{2^{j}}\right) \delta .
$$

For $j$ sufficiently large this is a contradiction, therefore $\left\|f_{u_{0}}\right\|=\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$ and $\delta\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}\right)$ is an absolute maximum.
5. Approximation in $L_{\rho, N}$ norm. For $N \geq n$ let $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{N}$ be $N$ distinct points of $[0,1]$. In place of the sup norm let $\|f\|=\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left|f\left(x_{i}\right)\right|^{p}\right\}^{1 / p}$ and assume $p>1$. The fundamental problem to be considered here is to give necessary and sufficient conditions that the function $\hat{f} \in F$ for which $\|\hat{f}\|=\inf _{f \in F}\|\hat{f}\|$ is unique. Now the image of $F$ under the mapping $f \rightarrow\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), \cdots, f\left(x_{N}\right)\right)$ is a closed set in $N$ dimensional Euclidean
space. By a theorem of Motzkin [9] as generalized by Busemann [4], to each point $x \in E_{N}$ there will exist a unique nearest point in a given set $S \subset E_{N}$ with respect to a strictly convex metric if and only if $S$ is closed and convex. Hence $\hat{f}$ will be unique if and only if $F$ is convex, but for $n$-parameter families we can say more. ${ }^{2}$

Theorem 7. An n-parameter family $F$ is convex if and only if $F$ is the translate of a linear n-parameter family.

Proof. If $F$ is the translate of a linear $n$-parameter family, i.e., there exists a continuous $g$ on $[0,1]$ and a linear $n$-parameter family $F_{0}$ such that each $f \in F$ can be written uniquely as $f=g+f^{\prime}, f \in F_{0}$, then $F$ is obviously convex. Conversely suppose $F$ is convex. Choose $n$ distinct points $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}$ in $[0,1]$. Let $f_{0}, f_{1}, \cdots, f_{n}$ be the unique functions of $F$ such that $f_{0}\left(x_{j}\right)=0, j=1, \cdots, n ; f_{k}\left(x_{j}\right)=\delta_{k j}$ for $k, j=1, \cdots, n$ where $\delta_{k j}$ is the Kronecker delta. We assert that each $f \in F$ has a representation as

$$
f=f_{0}+\sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k}\left(f_{k}-f_{0}\right) \text { where } \lambda_{k}=f\left(x_{k}\right) .
$$

If such a representation exists it is obviously unique. Also the vector space spanned by $f_{1}-f_{0}, \cdots, f_{n}-f_{0}$, is obviously an $n$-parameter family and the theorem is proved. To prove the assertion let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F_{k}=\left\{f \in F \mid f\left(x_{k+1}\right)=f\left(x_{k+2}\right)=\cdots=f\left(x_{n}\right)=0\right\} \\
& F_{k}^{\prime}=\left\{f \in F \mid f\left(x_{j}\right)=0 j \neq k\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

From the convexity of $F, F_{k}^{\prime}$ is a convex one parameter family on a suitably small interval containing $x_{k}$. We assert $f \in F_{k}^{\prime}$ implies $f=f_{0}+\lambda_{k}\left(f_{k}-f_{0}\right)$ where $\lambda_{k}=f\left(x_{k}\right)$. By convexity this is obviously true for $0 \leq \lambda_{k} \leq 1$. For $\lambda_{k}>1$ if $f \in F_{k}^{\prime}, f\left(x_{k}\right)=\lambda_{k}$ then by convexity

$$
f_{k}=\frac{1}{\lambda_{k}} f+\left(1-\frac{1}{\lambda_{k}}\right) f_{0}
$$

or $f=f_{0}+\lambda_{k}\left(f_{k}-f_{0}\right) . \quad$ If $\lambda_{k}<0$,

$$
f_{0}=\frac{1}{1-\lambda_{k}} f+\frac{\left(-\lambda_{k}\right)}{1-\lambda_{k}} f_{k}
$$

or $f=f_{0}+\lambda_{k}\left(f_{k}-f_{0}\right)$. To finish the proof we apply an induction. Assume $f \in F_{k}$ implies that $f=f_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{k} \lambda_{j}\left(x_{j}-x_{0}\right)$ where $f\left(x_{j}\right)=\lambda_{j}$ and

[^2]suppose $g \in F_{k+1}$ and $g\left(x_{j}\right)=\mu_{j}, j=1, \cdots, k+1$. Then if $g_{1}=f_{0}+$ $\sum_{j=1}^{k} 2 \mu_{j}\left(f_{j}-f_{0}\right), g_{2}=f_{0}+2 \mu_{k+1}\left(f_{k+1}-f_{0}\right)$ it follows that
$$
g^{\prime}=\frac{g_{1}+g_{2}}{2} \in F_{k+1}
$$
and $g^{\prime}\left(x_{j}\right)=\mu_{j}, j=1, \cdots, k+1$. Therefore
$$
g=g^{\prime}=f_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{k+1} \mu_{j}\left(f_{j}-f_{0}\right)
$$
6. The existence of $n$-parameter families on compact space. Let $f_{1}, \cdots, f_{n}$, be $n$ linearly independent real valued continuous functions defined on a compact set $S$ in finite dimensional Euclidean space. Let $V$ be the span of the functions $f_{1}, \cdots, f_{n}$. In 1918 Haar [7] showed that to each continuous real valued function $g$ defined on $S$, there is a unique $\hat{f} \in V$ satisfying $\|\hat{f}-g\|=\inf _{f \in V}\|f-g\|$ where $\|f\|=\sup _{s \in S}|f(s)|$ if and only if no non-zero function in $V$ vanished at more than $n-1$ points of $S$. Haar noted that the existence of such a set of functions $V$ placed a severe restriction on the set $S$. In 1956 Mairhuber [8] proved that if $V$ satisfied the above condition of Haar then $S$ is a homeomorphic image of a subset of the circumference of the unit circle. If $n$ is even this subset must be proper. It is clear that $V$ satisfies the condition of Haar if and only if $V$ is a linear $n$-parameter family. The characterization of those compact Hausdorff spaces on which there exist $n$-parameter families $F$ for $n>1$ seems to be quite difficult. One can give a characterization if one imposes a rather strong local condition on $F$. The result presented here includes the one of Mairhuber, and is proved by somewhat different means. The following fundamental lemma is perhaps of independent interest.

Lemma 5. Let $S$ be a compact connected Hausdorff space with the property that for each point $x \in S$ there exists a neighborhood $U_{x}$ and continuous real valued functions $f_{1}, f_{2}$ defined on $U_{x}$ such that for $y, z \in U_{x}, y \neq z$

$$
\left|\begin{array}{ll}
f_{1}(y) & f_{1}(z)  \tag{1}\\
f_{2}(y) & f_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right| \neq 0
$$

Then $S$ may be embedded homeomorphically into the circumference $C$ of the unit circle.

Proof. Without loss of generality we assume $U_{x}$ is a closed, therefore compact neighborhood of $x . f_{1}, f_{2}$ never vanish simultaneously on $U_{x}$ and therefore $f_{1} / f_{2}$ defines a continuous mapping of $U_{x}$ into the
compactified real line. (1) guarantees that the mapping is one to one and $\phi_{x}(u)=\operatorname{Arctan}\left(f_{1} / f_{2}\right)(u)$ gives a homeomorphism of $U_{x}$ into $C$.

We next verify that $S$ is locally connected. To do this it suffices to show that for each $x \in S$ there exists a connected neighborhood which can be mapped homeomorphically into $C$. In fact if $\phi_{x}$ is the homeomorphism for a point $x \in S$ constructed above, and if $C_{x}=\phi_{x}\left(U_{x}\right)$, it is enough to show that there exists a connected neighborhood $V_{x}$ in $C_{x}$ of $\lambda_{x} \equiv \phi_{x}(x)$. For then $\phi_{x}^{-1}\left(V_{x}\right)$ is a connected neighborhood of $x$ contained in $U_{x}$. But $C_{x}$ is a compact subset of $C$. Therefore let $I_{x}$ be the component of $\lambda_{x}$ in $C_{x} . \quad I_{x}$ is a compact connected subset of $C . \quad I_{x}$ is then either an interval or all of $C$. If $I_{x}$ is the latter we are through. Also if $I_{x}$ is an interval and $\lambda_{x}$ an interior point (relative to $C$ ) then $\phi_{x}^{-1}\left(I_{x}\right)$ is the required neighborhood. Hence assume that $\lambda_{x}$ is an end point of $I_{x}$. This will include that degenerate case when $I_{x}$ is just one point. We may also assume that there does not exist a suitably small connected neighborhood $N$ of $\lambda_{x}$ in $C$ such that $N \cap C_{x} \subset I_{x}$. For then $\phi_{x}^{-1}\left(N \cap N_{x}\right)$ is an appropriate neighborhood of $x$. Therefore it now must follow that for any connected neighborhood $N$ of $\lambda_{x}$ in $C$ there exists $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$ in the interior of $N$ such that $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \notin C_{x}$ and $\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \cap C_{x} \neq \phi$. If we let $F=$ $\phi_{x}^{-1}\left[\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right) \cap C_{x}\right]$ and $G=\phi_{x}^{-1}\left[C_{x} \sim\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}\right)\right]$ then $F \cup\left(S \sim U_{x}\right)$ and $G$ separate $S$ which is a contradiction.

We note that $S$ is certainly a separable metric since a finite number of homeomorphic images of subsets of $C$ cover $S$. Hence by [16] Theorem 5.1, $S$ is arc wise connected.

We now assert $S$ is homeomorphic to a subset of $C$. Let $U_{1}, \cdots, U_{n}$ be a finite collection of connected neighborhoods covering $S$ each of which is homeomorphic to a subset of $C$. By a suitable rearrangement we may assume that $U_{2} \cap U_{1} \neq \phi$ and $U_{2} \not \subset U_{1}$. Let $x_{1} \in U_{1} \sim U_{2}, x_{2} \in U_{2} \sim U_{1}$ $x \in U_{1} \cap U_{2}$. Let $A$ be the maximal subset of $U_{1} \cup U_{2}$ connecting $x_{1}, x, x_{2}$. This must be all of $U_{1} \cup U_{2}$, for if $y \in U_{1} \cup U_{2}$ and $y \notin A$, then $y$ may be connected to any point in $A$ by an arc in $U_{1} \cup U_{2}$. If $y$ is connected to $A$ at an end point of $A$, this is an enlargement of $A$ which contradicts maximality. If $y$ is connected to $A$ at a point other than an end point, then no neighborhood of this point is homeomorphic to a subset of $C$. This also is a contradiction. If $U_{1} \cup U_{2}$ is not all of $S$ then $U_{1} \cup U_{2}$ is homeomorphic to an arc, and by induction the homeomorphism may be extended to all of $S$.

Theorem 8. For $n>1$ let $F$ be an n-parameter family of functions defined on a compact Hausdorff space S. Suppose in addition that to each point $x \in S$ there exists a neighborhood $N_{x}$ and functions $f_{1}, f_{2} \in F$ such that

$$
\left|\begin{array}{ll}
f_{1}(y) & f_{1}(z) \\
f_{2}(y) & f_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right| \neq 0
$$

for $y, z \in N_{x}, y \neq z$. Then there exists a homeomorphism of $S$ into the circumference of the unit circle. If $n$ is even the image of $S$ must be a proper subset of $C$.

Proof. First we note that $S$ cannot have a proper subset $W$ homeomorphic to $C$. If $n$ is even this follows directly from the Corollary to Theorem 2. If $n$ is odd, choose $x \in S \sim W$ and let $F^{\prime}=\{f \in F \mid f(x)=0\}$; then $F^{\prime}$ is an $n-1$ parameter family defined on $W$. Since $n-1$ is even this is a contradiction. We may therefore assume that if $n$ is even $S$ is not homeomorphic to $C$.

If $I$ is a component of $S$ then by Lemma 5 there exists a homeomorphism $\phi$ of $I$ onto the closed interval $[0,1]$ considered as a subset of $C$. We assert that if $I$ is not all of $S$, then $\phi$ can be extended to an open and closed set $U \supset I . U$ and its complement then separate $S$. If $I$ is itself open in $S$ then we take $U=I$. If not, let $x=\phi^{-1}(0), y=$ $\phi^{-1}(1)$. Let $N_{x}, N_{y}$ be compact neighborhoods of $x$ and $y$ respectively and let $\phi_{x}, \phi_{y}$ be homeomorphisms of $N_{x}$ and $N_{y}$ respectively into $C$. We may assume $\phi_{x}(x)=0, \phi_{y}(y)=1$ and

$$
\phi_{x}\left(N_{x} \cap I\right) \subset[0,1] \text { and } \phi_{y}\left[N_{y} \cap I\right] \subset[0,1] .
$$

If we define $\phi^{\prime}$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi^{\prime}(z) & =\phi(z) \quad \text { if } z \in I \\
& =\phi_{x}(z) \text { if } z \in N_{x} \sim I \\
& =\phi_{y}(z) \text { if } z \in N_{y} \sim I
\end{aligned}
$$

then $\phi^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism of $N_{x} \cup N_{y} \cup I \equiv N$ into $C$. Also int. $N \supset I$. Now $[0,1]=\phi^{\prime}(I)$ is the maximal connected subset of $\phi^{\prime}(N)$ containing $\phi^{\prime}(I)$. Therefore there exist sequences $\left\{\lambda_{n}\right\},\left\{\mu_{n}\right\}$ of real numbers tending monotonically to 0 from below, and monotonically to 1 from above, respectively such that $\left\{\lambda_{n}\right\} \cap \phi^{\prime}(N)=\phi$ and $\left\{\mu_{n}\right\} \cap \phi^{\prime}(N)=\phi$. Choose $n$ large enough that $\phi^{\prime-1}\left[\lambda_{n}, 0\right] \subset$ interior of $N_{x}$ and $\phi^{\prime-1}\left[1, \mu_{n}\right] \subset$ interior of $N_{y}$. Clearly $J_{n}=\phi^{\prime-1}\left[\lambda_{n}, \mu_{n}\right]$ is a closed set containing $I$. $J_{n}$ is open in the interior of $N$. Hence $J_{n}$ is open in $S$.

Let $T$ be the class of open sets $O$ of $S$ which can be mapped homeomorphically into $C$. We partially order $T$ in the following way. If $O_{1}, O_{2} \in T$ then $O_{1} \leq O_{2}$ if $O_{1} \subset O_{2}$ and if there exist homeomorphisms $\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}$ of $O_{1}, O_{2}$ respectively into $C$ such that $\phi_{2}$ agrees with $\phi_{1}$ on $O_{1}$. By Zorn's lemma there exists a maximal element $O$ of $T$. We assert $O=S$. If not, let $x \in S \sim O$. Then there exists an open and closed set $U \ni x$ and mapping $\phi$ such that $\phi$ maps $U$ homeomorphically into $C$.
$O \cap U$ and $O \sim U$ are separated open sets of $S$. Hence if $\phi^{\prime}$ is any homeomorphism of $O$ into $C$ such $\phi^{\prime}(O) \cap \phi(U)=\phi . \quad \phi^{\prime \prime}$ defined by $\phi^{\prime \prime}(x) \equiv \phi(x), x \in O \cap U, \phi^{\prime \prime}(x) \equiv \phi^{\prime}(x), x \in O \sim U$ is also a homeomorphism of $O$ into $C$. $\phi^{\prime \prime}$ has an obvious extension to $U \cup O$ which contradicts the maximality of $O$.

Corollary. If $F$ is a linear $n$-parameter family $(n>1)$ defined on the compact Hausdorff space $S$, then $S$ is homeomorphic to a subset of $C$. If $n$ is even the subset must be proper.

Proof. We assume $S$ contains more than $n$ points. For a given $x \in S$ choose $n-2$ distinct points $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n-2}$ of $S$ outside a suitably small compact neighborhood $N_{x}$ of $x$. If $F_{x}=\left\{f \in F \mid f\left(x_{i}\right)=0, i=1, \cdots\right.$, $n-2\}$ then $F_{x}$ is a linear 2 -parameter family defined on $N_{x}$. Therefore, for any two linearly independent functions $f_{1}, f_{2}$ in $F_{x}$,

$$
\left|\begin{array}{ll}
f_{1}(y) & f_{1}(z) \\
f_{2}(y) & f_{2}(z)
\end{array}\right| \neq 0 \text { for } y, z \in N_{x}, y \neq z
$$

We now apply the theorem.

## Bibliography

1. E. F. Beckenbach, Generalized convex functions, Bull, Amer. Math. Soc. 43 (1937), 363-371.
2. S. Bernstein, Leçons sur les properties extremals et la meilleur approximation des functions analytiques d'une variable réelle, Paris, Gauthier-Villars, 1926.
3. D. Bratton, New results in the theory and techniques of Chebyshev fitting, Abstract No. 546-34, Notices of the Amer. Math. Soc. 5 (1958), 210.
4. H. Busemann, Note on a theorem of convex sets, Mathematisk Tidsskrift B (1947), 32-34.
5. P. C. Curtis, Jr. and W. L. Frank, An algorithm for the determination of the polynomial of best minimum approximation to a function defined on a finite point set, Jour. Assoc. Comp. Mach. 6 (1959), 395-404.
6. C. J. de la Valle Poussin, Lȩons sur l'approximations des functions d'une variable réelle, Paris, Gauthier-Villars, 1919.
7. A. Haar, Die Minkowskische Geometie and die Annäherung an stetige Funcktionen, Math. Ann. 18 (1918), 294-311.
8. J. C. Mairhuber, On Harr's theorem concerning Chebyshev approximation problems having unique solutions, Proc. Am. Math. Soc. 7 (1956), 609-615.
9. T. S. Motzkin, Sur quelques properiétes caracteristiqutes des ensembles convexes, Atti. Acad. Naz. Naz. Lincei Rend 6, 21 (1935), 562-567.
10. -, Approximation by curves of a unisolvent family, Bull, Amer. Math. Soc. 55 (1949), 789-793.
11.     - and J. L. Walsh, The least pth power polynomials on a finite point set, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc. 83 (1956), 371-396.
12. -, Polynomials of best approximation on a real finite point set $I$, Trans. Amer, Math. Soc. 91 (1959), 231-245.
13. E. N. Novodvorskii and I. S. Pinsker, On a process of equalization of maxima, Usp. Mat. Nauk 6 (1951), 174-181 (Russian).
14. Ya. L. Remes, On a method of Chebyshev type approximation of functions, Ukr. An. 1935.
15. L. Tornheim, On n-parameter families of functions and associated convex functions, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc. 69 (1950), 457-467.
16. G. T. Whyburn Analytic Topology, Amer Math. Soc. Colloquium Publications, 38, (1942)

University of California Los Angeles and
Yale University


[^0]:    Received February 17, 1959. This research was supported in part by the Space Technology Laboratories Inc..

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ If 0,1 are identified we assume $x_{n}^{(k)}<1$ and $x_{n}<1$,

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ For a discussion of related results see the article by Motzkin in the Symposium on Numerical Approximation, University of Wisconsin Press, 1959.

