

A Generalised Korovkin Theorem

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The main result of this paper is a general Korovkin-type approximation theorem for an injective isometry between $C(X)$ and $C(Y)$, where X, Y are compact Hausdorff spaces.

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1. Introduction

Throughout the paper, X will denote a compact Hausdorff space and $C(X)$ (respectively, $C_{\mathbb{R}}(X)$) the space of continuous complex-valued (resp., real-valued) functions on X equipped with the supremum norm.

Korovkin proved that a sequence of positive linear operators T_n on $C_{\mathbb{R}}[0, 1]$ that converges to the identity operator, I , on the quadratic polynomials, also converges to I for all $f \in C_{\mathbb{R}}[0, 1]$.

The Korovkin Theorem has beautiful applications and many generalisations. In the early literature on Korovkin-type approximations, many results were proved for subspaces of $C_{\mathbb{R}}(X)$ (for a small sampling, see [3, 4, 12]: for a discussion of such problems in the setting of normed linear spaces, see [11]). With the exception of [1], we are unaware of analogous results for complex subspaces of $C(X)$. The main purpose of the present paper is to formulate and prove a general Korovkin-type approximation theorem for an injective isometry between $C(X)$ and $C(Y)$, where Y is also compact Hausdorff, and this yields as a special case results for complex subspaces of $C(X)$ which do not necessarily contain the constants. Several results in the literature follow as easy consequences of our main Theorem 3.3. Many examples that illustrate our points of departure

have been given. Several results in [9], which rely heavily on Choquet theory, provided the impetus for the solutions of the problems discussed here.

For background information on the subject, the well-written account [2] may be consulted.

2. Notations and preliminary remarks

For a normed linear space V , let $V_1 = \{x \in V : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ denote the closed unit ball of V . For normed linear spaces E and F , let $B(E, F)$ denote the space of all bounded linear operators $T : E \rightarrow F$. Let $\mathbb{T} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ denote the unit circle. Let X, Y be compact Hausdorff spaces. To avoid confusion, we will denote the sup norm on $C(X)$, $C(Y)$ etc. as $\|\cdot\|_X$, $\|\cdot\|_Y$ instead of $\|\cdot\|_\infty$.

We will be following, with some exceptions explained below, the notations of [9]. We summarise them here for the reader's convenience.

Let $M(X)$ be the Banach space of all complex regular Borel measures on X endowed with the total variation norm. By the Riesz Representation Theorem, $M(X)$ is isometrically isomorphic to the dual space of $C(X)$.

Let A be a complex subspace of $C(X)$. For $x \in X$, let ε_x be Dirac measure at x , and $\phi(x) \in A^*$ denote the *evaluation functional* at x , i.e., $\phi(x) = \varepsilon_x|_A$. The evaluation map $\phi : X \rightarrow A^*$ is a homeomorphism of X into the w^* -compact set A_1^* .

Definition 2.1. The Choquet boundary of A is defined as

$$\partial A = \{x \in X : \phi(x) \in \text{ext}(A_1^*)\},$$

where $\text{ext}(D)$ denotes the set of extreme points of a convex set D .

This definition coincides with the classical definition of the Choquet boundary when A separates points of X and contains constants [8, Proposition 6.2]. We use the same definition even otherwise. One sees easily that ∂A is non-empty [5, p. 441] and

$$\text{ext}(A_1^*) = \mathbb{T}\phi(\partial A).$$

Assumption 2.2. For the rest of the paper, unless otherwise specified, we assume that A is a subspace of $C(X)$ with the following two properties:

- (I) A is *point-separating*, i.e., given two points $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$, there exists $g \in A$ such that $g(x) \neq g(y)$;
- (II) $\|\phi(x)\| = 1$ for all $x \in X$.

The following will be a very important space for this paper [9, p. 306]:

Definition 2.3. Let A be a subspace of $C(X)$ satisfying our assumptions. $\tilde{A} = \{f \in C(X) : f(x) = \alpha f(y) \text{ whenever } g(x) = \alpha g(y) \text{ for all } g \in A, \text{ for some } \alpha \in \mathbb{T}, x, y \in X\}$.

$\tilde{A}$ is a closed linear subspace of $C(X)$. Clearly, $A \subseteq \tilde{A} \subseteq C(X)$.

Definition 2.4. Let A be a subspace of $C(X)$ satisfying our assumptions. If $\lambda, \mu \in M(X)$ with $\|\lambda\| = \|\mu\| = 1$, we write $\lambda \approx \mu$ if $\mu(h) = \lambda(h)$ for all $h \in \tilde{A}$.

Definition 2.5. Let A be a subspace of $C(X)$ satisfying our assumptions. For $x \in X$, let $M_{x,A} = \{\mu : \mu \in M(X), \|\mu\| = 1, \mu|_A \equiv \phi(x)\}$ and $M_{x,A}^+$ the probability measures in $M_{x,A}$. We call the members of $M_{x,A}$ the complex *representing measures* of x . If A is fixed, as is most often the case in this paper, we will abbreviate $M_{x,A}$ and $M_{x,A}^+$ by M_x and M_x^+ respectively.

All other unexplained terms below, if any, will be found in [9].

We recall the following characterization of ∂A .

Theorem 2.6 ([9, Proposition 3.7]). *Let A be a subspace of $C(X)$ satisfying our assumptions. Let $x \in X$. Then $x \in \partial A$ if and only if $\mu \in M_x$ implies $\mu \approx \varepsilon_x$.*

We shall find it convenient in our subsequent work to use the following particular version of a representation theorem from [5, p. 490]:

Theorem 2.7. *If $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ is a bounded linear operator, then there is a unique continuous map $\tau : Y \rightarrow (M(X), w^*)$ such that*

$$(Tf)(y) = \tau(y)(f), \quad (y \in Y, f \in C(X)) \quad (1)$$

$$\|T\| = \sup\{\|\tau(y)\| : y \in Y\} \quad (2)$$

where $\|\tau(y)\|$ is the total variation norm of the measure $\tau(y)$.

Conversely, any continuous map $\tau : Y \rightarrow (M(X), w^)$ uniquely defines a bounded linear operator $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ with both (1) and (2) satisfied.*

The following result will be used crucially and repeatedly in our proofs.

Definition 2.8. A set $K \subseteq X$ is said to be a boundary for a subspace $A \subseteq C(X)$, if for every $g \in A$, there exists $t \in K$ such that $|g(t)| = \|g\|_X$.

Theorem 2.9 (Holsztyński's Theorem, [6]). *Let $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ be a linear isometry. Then there is a closed boundary $Y_0 \subseteq Y$ for $T(C(X)) \subseteq C(Y)$, $u : Y_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$ continuous and $\lambda : Y_0 \rightarrow X$ continuous onto such that*

$$(Tf)(z) = u(z)f(\lambda(z)), \quad \text{for all } f \in C(X), z \in Y_0. \quad (3)$$

3. The Main Results

We begin with an example that motivates the results that follow and illustrates their points of departure.

Example 3.1. Let $A = \{f \in C[0, 1] : f(0) = if(1)\}$. Then A satisfies our assumptions and $1 \notin A$.

Clearly, $A = \tilde{A}$, hence by Theorem 2.6, $\partial A = [0, 1]$.

It is instructive to compute M_x for $x \in [0, 1]$.

Let $\mu_x \in M_x$. Then $\mu_x - \varepsilon_x = \alpha(\varepsilon_0 - i\varepsilon_1)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Hence, for $x \in (0, 1)$, $\mu_x = \varepsilon_x$, that is, $M_x = \{\varepsilon_x\}$.

On the other hand, for $x = 0$, this implies $\mu_0 = (1 + \alpha)\varepsilon_0 - i\alpha\varepsilon_1$ and therefore, $1 = |1 + \alpha| + |\alpha|$. It follows that $\alpha = -\gamma$ with $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$. Thus,

$$M_0 = \{(1 - \gamma)\varepsilon_0 + i\gamma\varepsilon_1 : 0 \leq \gamma \leq 1\}.$$

Similarly,

$$M_1 = \{(1 - \gamma)\varepsilon_1 - i\gamma\varepsilon_0 : 0 \leq \gamma \leq 1\}.$$

If $f \in C[0, 1] \setminus A$, we can write $f = g + \lambda 1$ where $g \in A$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. If $\{T_n\}$ is a sequence of operators on $C[0, 1]$ with $\|T_n\| \leq 1$ for each n and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(g) = g$ uniformly for each $g \in A$, then it is clear that $\lim_n T_n(f) = f$ uniformly for each $f \in C[0, 1]$ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(1) = 1$ uniformly, but this fails as we now see by defining $T_n \in B(C[0, 1], C[0, 1])$:

$$T_n(f) = 1/2(\varepsilon_0 + i\varepsilon_1)(f)h_n + (1 - h_n)f, \quad f \in C[0, 1],$$

where

$$h_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - nt, & 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{n} \\ 0, & \frac{1}{n} \leq t \leq 1 \end{cases} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Recall that $1/2(\varepsilon_0 + i\varepsilon_1) \in M_0$. One checks easily that $\|T_n\| \leq 1$, that

$$T_n(g) - g = (g(0) - g)h_n \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{uniformly for each } g \in A,$$

but

$$T_n(1)(0) - 1 = \frac{1}{2}(i - 1) \not\rightarrow 0.$$

This suggests that the Korovkin closure of A (Definition 3.2) need not necessarily be the whole of $C(X)$ in general and this will be vindicated in Theorem 3.3 below.

We will now ready to state and prove our main theorem.

Definition 3.2. Let X, Y be compact Hausdorff spaces. Let A be a subspace of $C(X)$ satisfying our assumptions. Let $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ be a linear isometry and $Z \subseteq Y$ a closed set. The (T, Z) -Korovkin closure of A is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A}_Z^T = \{f \in C(X) : & \text{ if } \{T_\alpha\} \subseteq B(C(X), C(Z))_1 \text{ is such that for all } g \in A, \\ & \lim_\alpha \|T_\alpha(g) - T(g)\|_Z = 0, \text{ then } \lim_\alpha \|T_\alpha(f) - T(f)\|_Z = 0\}. \end{aligned}$$

In what follows, we will most often use $Z = Y_0$ as in Theorem 2.9.

If $X = Y$ and $T = I$, the identity operator, then $Z = Y_0 = Y$ and we simply write $\hat{A}$ instead of $\hat{A}_Y^I$ and call it the Korovkin closure of A .

We are now ready for our main theorem:

Theorem 3.3. *Let X, Y be compact Hausdorff spaces. Let A be a subspace of $C(X)$ satisfying our assumptions. Let $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ be a linear isometry. Let $\tilde{A}$ and $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T$ be as in Definitions 2.3 and 3.2 respectively. The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $\partial A = X$.
- (b) $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T = \tilde{A}$.

Proof. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b): We adapt to our context the proof of Saskin's theorem [8, Section 9].

Let $Y_0 \subseteq Y$, $u : Y_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$ and $\lambda : Y_0 \rightarrow X$ be as given by Theorem 2.9. Let $\{T_\alpha\} \subseteq B(C(X), C(Y_0))_1$ be such that $\lim_\alpha \|T_\alpha(g) - T(g)\|_{Y_0} = 0$ for all $g \in A$. By Theorem 2.7, let $\tau_\alpha, \tau : Y_0 \rightarrow (M(X)_1, w^*)$ correspond to T_α and T respectively. Then for each $g \in A$,

$$\limsup_\alpha \{|\tau_\alpha(z)(g) - \tau(z)(g)| : z \in Y_0\} = 0. \quad (4)$$

Let $f \in \tilde{A}$. We have to show that

$$\limsup_\alpha \{|\tau_\alpha(z)(f) - \tau(z)(f)| : z \in Y_0\} = 0.$$

It suffices to show that every subnet τ_β of τ_α has a further subnet τ_γ such that $\lim_\gamma \sup_{Y_0} |(\tau_\gamma(z)(f) - \tau(z)(f))| = 0$.

Now, since $z \rightarrow \tau_\beta(z)(f) - \tau(z)(f)$ is continuous on Y_0 ,

$$\sup_{Y_0} |\tau_\beta(z)(f) - \tau(z)(f)| = |\tau_\beta(z_\beta)(f) - \tau(z_\beta)(f)|$$

for some $z_\beta \in Y_0$. By compactness, there is a subnet $\{z_\gamma\}$ such that $z_\gamma \rightarrow z_0 \in Y_0$ and $\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma) \xrightarrow{w^*} \tau_0 \in M(X)_1$. If $g \in A$,

$$\begin{aligned} |\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma)(g) - \tau(z_0)(g)| &\leq |\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma)(g) - \tau(z_\gamma)(g)| + |\tau(z_\gamma)(g) - \tau(z_0)(g)| \\ &\leq \sup_{Y_0} |\tau_\gamma(z)(g) - \tau(z)(g)| + |\tau(z_\gamma)(g) - \tau(z_0)(g)| \end{aligned}$$

and (4) implies, $\text{RHS} \xrightarrow{\gamma} 0$. So $\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma)(g) \xrightarrow{\gamma} \tau(z_0)(g)$. But, since $\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma) \xrightarrow{w^*} \tau_0$,

$$\tau_0(g) = \tau(z_0)(g) = (Tg)(z_0) = u(z_0)g(\lambda(z_0)), \quad \text{for all } g \in A,$$

by (3). It follows that $\overline{u(z_0)}\tau_0 \in M_{\lambda(z_0)}$. By (a), $\lambda(z_0) \in \partial A$. Therefore, by Theorem 2.6, $\overline{u(z_0)}\tau_0(f) = f(\lambda(z_0))$ and so

$$\tau_0(f) = u(z_0)f(\lambda(z_0)) = (Tf)(z_0) = \tau(z_0)(f).$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{z \in Y_0} |\tau_\gamma(z)(f) - \tau(z)(f)| &= |\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma)(f) - \tau(z_\gamma)(f)| \\ &\leq |\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma)(f) - \tau_0(f)| + |\tau_0(f) - \tau(z_\gamma)(f)| \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $\tau_\gamma(z_\gamma) \xrightarrow{w^*} \tau_0$ and $|\tau_0(f) - \tau(z_\gamma)(f)| \rightarrow |\tau_0(f) - \tau(z_0)(f)| = 0$.

This proves that $\tilde{A} \subseteq \hat{A}_{Y_0}^T$. To prove the equality, we will need the following construction that will be used later again.

Let $x_0 \in X$. Let $\{U_\alpha\}$ be a net of neighbourhood base at x_0 ordered by reverse inclusion. By Urysohn's lemma, for each α , we can find $h_\alpha \in C(X)$ such that $0 \leq h_\alpha \leq 1$, $h_\alpha|_{U_\alpha^c} \equiv 0$ and $h_\alpha(x_0) = 1$. For $\mu \in M(X)_1$, define $T_\alpha \in B(C(X), C(Y_0))$ by

$$(T_\alpha f)(z) = \mu(f)u(z)h_\alpha(\lambda(z)) + [1 - h_\alpha(\lambda(z))](Tf)(z) \quad \text{for } z \in Y_0. \quad (5)$$

It is easily checked that $\|T_\alpha\| \leq 1$. For $z \in Y_0$ and $f \in C(X)$,

$$\begin{aligned} |(T_\alpha f)(z) - (Tf)(z)| &= |\mu(f)u(z)h_\alpha(\lambda(z)) - u(z)f(\lambda(z))h_\alpha(\lambda(z))| \\ &= h_\alpha(\lambda(z))|\mu(f) - f(\lambda(z))|, \quad \text{as } |u(z)| = 1. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Now, let $f_0 \in C(X) \setminus \tilde{A}$. By definition of $\tilde{A}$, there are points $x_0 \neq x_1 \in X$ and $t \in \mathbb{T}$ such that $\phi(x_0) = t\phi(x_1)$ and $f_0(x_0) \neq tf_0(x_1)$. Thus, the measure $1/2(\varepsilon_{x_0} + t\varepsilon_{x_1}) \in M_{x_0}$.

Let $\{U_\alpha\}$ be as above. Define $T_\alpha \in B(C(X), C(Y_0))$ by (5) with $\mu = 1/2(\varepsilon_{x_0} + t\varepsilon_{x_1})$. Then, by (6), for $z \in Y_0$ and $g \in A$,

$$|(T_\alpha g)(z) - (Tg)(z)| = h_\alpha(\lambda(z))|\mu(g) - g(\lambda(z))| = h_\alpha(\lambda(z))|g(x_0) - g(\lambda(z))|$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. There is a neighbourhood U of x_0 such that $|g(x) - g(x_0)| < \varepsilon$ for $x \in U$. There is an α_0 so that $U_{\alpha_0} \subseteq U$. If $z \notin \lambda^{-1}(U_{\alpha_0})$, then $h_{\alpha_0}(\lambda(z)) = 0$ and hence, $(T_{\alpha_0}g)(z) - (Tg)(z) = 0$. It follows that for $\alpha \geq \alpha_0$, $|(T_\alpha g)(z) - (Tg)(z)| < \varepsilon$ for all $z \in Y_0$. That is, $\lim_\alpha \|T_\alpha(g) - T(g)\|_{Y_0} = 0$ for each $g \in A$. On the other hand, if $\lambda(z_0) = x_0$,

$$|(T_\alpha f_0)(z_0) - (Tf_0)(z_0)| = h_\alpha(x_0)|\mu(f_0) - f_0(x_0)| = 1/2|tf_0(x_1) - f_0(x_0)| \neq 0.$$

Hence, $f_0 \notin \hat{A}_{Y_0}^T$.

(b) $\Rightarrow$ (a). Fix $x_0 \in X$ and $\mu \in M_{x_0}$. Let $\{U_\alpha\}$ and $\{h_\alpha\}$ be as above. Let $\lambda(z_0) = x_0$. Define $T_\alpha \in B(C(X), C(Y_0))$ by (5). It follows as above that $\|T_\alpha g - Tg\|_{Y_0} \xrightarrow{\alpha} 0$.

By (b), for any $f \in \tilde{A}$ also, $\|T_\alpha f - Tf\|_{Y_0} \xrightarrow{\alpha} 0$. In particular,

$$|(T_\alpha f)(z_0) - (Tf)(z_0)| = |\mu(f) - f(x_0)| \rightarrow 0.$$

So $\mu(f) = f(x_0)$ for each $f \in \tilde{A}$ and one concludes by Theorem 2.6 that $x_0 \in \partial A$. $\square$

Remark 3.4. Notice that in $(b) \Rightarrow (a)$, we only use $\tilde{A} \subseteq \widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T$.

Corollary 3.5. *If $A = \tilde{A}$, then $\partial A = X$.*

Remark 3.6. This clearly also follows from Theorem 2.6. Example 3.1 is a case in point.

Since the statement (a) in Theorem 3.3 does not involve the operator T , the statement can be strengthened to read:

Corollary 3.7. *The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $\partial A = X$.
- (b) *For some compact Hausdorff space Y and some linear isometry $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$, $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T = \tilde{A}$.*
- (c) *For all compact Hausdorff spaces Y and all linear isometries $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$, $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T = \tilde{A}$.*
- (d) $\widehat{A} = \tilde{A}$.

Let us now study the situation where $\tilde{A} = C(X)$. [9, Proposition 3.4] characterizes this phenomenon. It follows that

Corollary 3.8 ([1]). *If $1 \in A$, then $\widehat{A} = C(X)$ if and only if $\partial A = X$.*

Corollary 3.9. *If A is a function algebra, then $\widehat{A} = C(X)$ if and only if $\partial A = X$.*

Proof. If A is a function algebra, then $1 \in \tilde{A}$ and hence, $\tilde{A} = C(X)$ [9, Proposition 3.4]. $\square$

Another example where $\tilde{A} = C(X)$ is

Example 3.10. Let $A = \{f \in C[0, 1] : \int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0\}$. A satisfies our assumptions and $1 \notin A$. It is clear that $\tilde{A} = C(X)$. It is also easy to see that $\partial A = [0, 1]$. And therefore, $\widehat{A} = C(X)$.

Now we give an example such that $A \subsetneq \tilde{A} \subsetneq C(X)$.

Example 3.11. Let $A = \{f \in C[0, 1] : \int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0 \text{ and } f(0) + f(1) = 0\}$. Arguing as in Example 3.1, and noting that A is of codimension two, one sees that $\partial A = [0, 1]$. And hence A satisfies our assumptions and $1 \notin A$. It is clear that $\tilde{A} = \{f \in C[0, 1] : f(0) + f(1) = 0\}$ and therefore, $A \subsetneq \tilde{A} = \widehat{A} \subsetneq C(X)$.

Remark 3.12. It is an interesting question whether one can replace $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T$ in Theorem 3.3 by $\widehat{A}_Y^T$. Our next example shows that the answer, in general, is "no"!

Example 3.13. Let X and A be as in Example 3.11 above and $Y = [0, 1] \cup \{2\}$. We may identify $C(Y) = C(X) \oplus_{\infty} \mathbb{C}$. Define $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ by

$$Tf = \left(f, \int_0^1 f(x) dx \right)$$

Then $Y_0 = X$ and hence, as noted above, $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T = \widetilde{A}$.

Notice that if $f \in \widehat{A}_Y^T$, then $Tf \in \widehat{T(A)}$. Therefore, if $\widetilde{A} = \widehat{A}_Y^T$, then $T(\widetilde{A}) \subseteq \widehat{T(A)}$.

Now, $T(A) = \{(g, 0) : g \in A\}$. Define $U_n : C(Y) \rightarrow C(Y)$ by

$$U_n(h, \gamma) = \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)h, 0 \right), \quad h \in C(X), \gamma \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Clearly, $\|U_n\| \leq 1$ and for $(g, 0) \in T(A)$,

$$\|U_n(g, 0) - (g, 0)\|_Y = \frac{1}{n}\|g\|_X \rightarrow 0.$$

Now suppose $(f, \alpha) \in \widehat{T(A)}$. Then

$$\|U_n(f, \alpha) - (f, \alpha)\|_Y = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{n}\|f\|_X, |\alpha| \right\} \rightarrow 0.$$

It follows that $\alpha = 0$.

Since $T(\widetilde{A}) = \{(h, \int_0^1 h(x) dx) : h \in \widetilde{A}\}$, we cannot have $T(\widetilde{A}) \subseteq \widehat{T(A)}$. That is, in general, $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T \neq \widehat{A}_Y^T$, even when $\partial A = X$.

The natural next question is: *when* can one replace $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T$ by $\widehat{A}_Y^T$ in Theorem 3.3?

This can surely be done if T is onto. In this case, $Y_0 = Y$ and $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T = \widehat{A}$.

On the other hand, if we define T to satisfy (3), that is, suppose $u : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$ is continuous and $\lambda : Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous onto and we define $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ by

$$(Tf)(y) = u(y)f(\lambda(y)), \quad \text{for all } f \in C(X), y \in Y. \quad (7)$$

then we can surely have $Y_0 = Y$. If λ is not 1-1, such a T cannot be onto.

Example 3.14. As a concrete example, define $T : C(\mathbb{T}) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{T})$ by

$$(Tf)(z) = f(z^2), \quad \text{for all } f \in C(\mathbb{T}), z \in \mathbb{T}. \quad (8)$$

Let us now obtain a necessary and sufficient condition for $Y_0 = Y$.

Let $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$ be a linear isometry. Let $T(C(X)) = R$. Then R is a closed subspace of $C(Y)$. Instead of $T : C(X) \rightarrow C(Y)$, we prefer to look at the

isometry $T : C(X) \rightarrow R$. Note that $T^* : R^* \rightarrow C(X)^* = M(X)$ is also an onto isometry and that $T^*(\text{ext}(R_1^*)) = \text{ext}(M(X)_1)$.

We will need to recall some definitions from [6]. For $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, define

$$S_x = \{f \in C(X) : \|f\|_X = 1 \text{ and } |f(x)| = 1\} \quad \text{and} \\ R_y = \{g \in C(Y) : \|g\|_Y = 1 \text{ and } |g(y)| = 1\}.$$

For $x \in X$, define

$$Q_x = \{y \in Y : T(S_x) \subseteq R_y\}.$$

And finally,

$$Y_0 = \bigcup_{x \in X} Q_x.$$

Proposition 3.15. $Y_0 = \partial(R)$.

Proof. Let $y \in \partial(R)$. Then $\phi(y) \in \text{ext}(R_1^*)$ and hence, $T^*(\phi(y)) = \alpha \varepsilon_x$, where $x \in X$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{T}$. It follows that for any $f \in C(X)$, $(Tf)(y) = \alpha f(x)$. Thus, if $f \in S_x$, then $|(Tf)(y)| = |f(x)| = 1$. Therefore, $y \in Q_x \subseteq Y_0$.

Conversely, let $y \in Y_0$. Then, by (3), for all $f \in C(X)$, $(Tf)(y) = u(y)f(\lambda(y))$. It follows that $T^*(\phi(y)) = u(y)\varepsilon_{\lambda(y)} \in \text{ext}(M(X)_1)$. It follows that $y \in \partial(R)$. $\square$

Corollary 3.16. $Y = Y_0$ if and only if $Y = \partial(R)$.

Remark 3.17. It is not clear if R , in general, would satisfy our assumptions, but if it does, it follows that $Y = Y_0$ if and only if $\widehat{R} = \widetilde{R}$.

We can now ask for similar results when T and $\{T_\alpha\}$ are *positive operators*.

Definition 3.18. Let T be a positive isometry. Let $A \subseteq C(X)$ and $Y_0 \subseteq Y$ be as before. Define

$$\widehat{A}_+^T = \{f \in C(X) : \text{if } \{T_\alpha\} \subseteq B(C(X), C(Y_0))_1 \text{ is such that } T_\alpha \geq 0 \\ \text{and } \lim_{\alpha} \|T_\alpha(g) - T(g)\|_{Y_0} = 0 \text{ for all } g \in A, \text{ then} \\ \lim_{\alpha} \|T_\alpha(f) - T(f)\|_{Y_0} = 0\}.$$

Clearly, $\widehat{A}_{Y_0}^T \subseteq \widehat{A}_+^T$.

Theorem 3.19. Let T be a positive isometry. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) For all $x \in X$, $M_x^+ = \{\varepsilon_x\}$.
- (b) $\widehat{A}_+^T = C(X)$.

Proof. Notice that if T is a positive isometry, then in Theorem 2.9, $u \equiv 1$. The proof is almost the same as that of Theorem 3.3 once we observe:

(i) If T is positive and $\tau : Y_0 \rightarrow (M(X)_1, w^*)$ corresponds to T , then $\tau(z)$ is a non-negative measure for each $z \in Y_0$. Similarly, $\tau_\alpha(z)$ is a non-negative measure for each α and each $z \in Y_0$. As a consequence, the measure $\tau_0 = \lim_\alpha \tau_\alpha(z_\alpha) \in M(X)_1$ that was obtained in the proof of (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b) in Theorem 3.3 is necessarily non-negative.

(ii) If T is positive and μ is a non-negative measure, then the operators T_α constructed in (5) are positive. $\square$

Remark 3.20. Notice that the condition $\partial A = X$ implies the condition (a) above. To see this, note that if $\phi(x) \in \text{ext}(A_1^*)$, then M_x^+ is a w^* -closed face of $M(X)_1$ and hence, any extreme point of M_x^+ is necessarily of the form ε_y . Since A is point-separating, $M_x^+ = \{\varepsilon_x\}$. Moreover, the two are equivalent if $1 \in A$. But not in general, as the following example shows.

Example 3.21. Let $A = \{f \in C[0, 1] : f(0) + \int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0\}$. It is not difficult to see that A satisfies our assumptions and $1 \notin A$. It is clear that $\tilde{A} = C(X)$. It also follows from Theorem 2.6 that $\partial A = (0, 1]$. But, clearly, $M_0^+ = \{\varepsilon_0\}$. And therefore, $\hat{A} \subsetneq \tilde{A} = C(X) = \hat{A}_+$. Notice that since A is of codimension 1, we have $A = \hat{A}$.

Essentially similar proof also yields

Theorem 3.22. *Let T be a positive isometry. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) *If $x \in X$ and $\mu \in M_x^+$, then $\mu \approx \varepsilon_x$.*
- (b) $\tilde{A} \subseteq \hat{A}_+^T$.

Remark 3.23.

- (a) Theorem 3.22 was suggested by a reading of [7].
- (b) Unlike Theorem 3.3, in this case we do not have $\tilde{A} = \hat{A}_+$.
- (c) In fact, Example 3.1 satisfies the condition (a) above and shows that $A = \tilde{A} = \hat{A} \subsetneq C(X) = \hat{A}_+$.

We can interpret the preceding theorem in terms of extreme points. First, a bit of notation. If $\mu \in M(X)$, then $\mu \circ \phi^{-1}$ is the image measure defined on A_1^* by $\mu \circ \phi^{-1}(E) = \mu(\phi^{-1}(E))$, E a Borel subset of A_1^* with its weak* topology. Let $D = \overline{\text{conv}}^{w^*} \{\phi(x) : x \in X\}$. We will need the following

Lemma 3.24. $\phi(x) \in \text{ext}(D)$ if and only if $\mu \in M_x^+$ implies $\mu \approx \varepsilon_x$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) First note by Milman's theorem, $\text{ext}(D) \subseteq \{\phi(x) : x \in X\}$ since the latter set is w^* -closed. Let $\phi(x) \in \text{ext}(D)$ and suppose $\mu \in M_x^+$. To show $\mu \approx \varepsilon_x$, we have to prove that $\text{hom}(\mu \circ \phi^{-1}) = \text{hom}(\varepsilon_x \circ \phi^{-1}) = \text{hom } \varepsilon_{\phi(x)}$ (by [9,

p. 308]). Consider the measure $\lambda = R(\mu \circ \phi^{-1})$ defined by

$$\lambda(g) = \int_U g(\phi(x)) d(\mu \circ \phi^{-1}), \quad g \in C(U)$$

where $U = (A_1^*, w^*)$ (Note that the definition works equally well with $g \in C(D)$ as $\mu \circ \phi^{-1}$ is supported on $\phi(X)$). λ is a probability measure on $\phi(X)$ with resultant $\phi(x) \in D$, consequently $\lambda = \varepsilon_{\phi(x)}$ as $\phi(x) \in \text{ext}(D)$. Now $\text{hom } R(\mu \circ \phi^{-1}) = \text{hom}(\mu \circ \phi^{-1})$, by [9, p. 309], i.e., $\text{hom } \lambda = \text{hom}(\mu \circ \phi^{-1}) = \text{hom}(\varepsilon_{\phi(x)})$ as was to be shown.

($\Leftarrow$) As this proof is an easier version of the proof of ($\Leftarrow$) in [9, Proposition 3.7], we will take the liberty of omitting it. $\square$

Remark 3.25. Thus, we can replace condition (a) in Theorem 3.22 by for each $x \in X$, $\phi(x) \in \text{ext}(D)$, where $D = \overline{\text{conv}}^{w^*} \{\phi(x) : x \in X\}$.

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