# Probability <br> Theory ${ }^{2}$ 

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# Piecewise Invertible Dynamical Systems 

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#### Abstract

Summary. The aim of the paper is the investigation of piecewise monotonic maps $T$ of an interval $X$. The main tool is an isomorphism of $(X, T)$ with a topological Markov chain with countable state space which is described by a $0-1$-transition matrix $M$. The behavior of the orbits of points in $X$ under $T$ is very similar to the behavior of the paths of the Markov chain. Every irreducible submatrix of $M$ gives rise to a $T$-invariant subset $L$ of $X$ such that $L$ is the set $\omega(x)$ of all limit points of the orbit of an $x \in X$. The topological entropy of $L$ is the logarithm of the spectral radius of the irreducible submatrix, which is a $l^{1}$-operator. Besides these sets $L$ there are two $T$-invariant sets $Y$ and $P$, such that for all $x \in X$ the set $\omega(x)$ is either contained in one of the sets $L$ or in $Y$ or in $P$. The set $P$ is a union of periodic orbits and $Y$ is contained in a finite union of sets $\omega(y)$ with $y \in X$ and has topological entropy zero. This isomorphism of $(X, T)$ with a topological Markov chain is also an important tool for the investigation of $T$-invariant measures on $X$. Results in this direction, which are published elsewhere, are described at the end of the paper. Furthermore, a part of the proofs in the paper is purely topological without using the order relation of the interval $X$, so that some results hold for more general dynamical systems ( $X, T$ ).


## Introduction

The aim of this paper is the investigation of a class of topological dynamical systems ( $X, T$ ) called piecewise invertible. They are a generalization of piecewise monotonic transformations on [0, 1] and suggest applications to dynamical systems in higher dimensions. Mainly we shall investigate the nonwandering set of $(X, T)$ and the topological entropy of invariant subsets of $X$. Some results hold only for piecewise monotonic transformations. The method we use is an oriented graph, whose one-sided paths represent the orbits of $(X, T)$. It is used like the transition matrix of a Markov shift and hence called Markov diagram. A part of the results of this paper has been proved in [2] and [4] for
piecewise monotonic transformations, but only with the additional assumption that the partition of $[0,1]$ into intervals, on which $T$ is monotone, is a generator. This assumption excludes for example all $T$, which have an attracting periodic orbit. The more general case considered in this paper makes it necessary to give proofs different from those in [2] and [4], which use the order structure of piecewise monotonic transformations. Hence this paper can be read without any previous knowledge about piecewise monotonic transformations.

We call a topological dynamical system ( $X, T$ ) piecewise invertible, if the compact metric space $X$ has a finite partition 3 into closed sets (which are then also open), such that the continuous map $T: X \rightarrow X$ has the property that $T \mid Z$ is invertible for all $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$. A special case are piecewise monotonic transformations. In this case, $X$ is a totally ordered set, such that the topology of $X$ is the order topology, the elements of 3 are closed intervals and, for $Z \in \mathcal{3}, T \mid Z$ is monotone and $T(Z)$ is again an interval. One gets examples of piecewise monotonic transformations, if one considers maps $T:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1]$, where $[0,1]$ is the disjoint union of intervals $J_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq N$ such that $T \mid J_{i}$ is continuous and monotone. For $1<i \leqq N$, one substitutes the common endpoint of $J_{i-1}$ and $J_{i}$ and all its inverse images under all $T^{k}$ not equal 0 or 1 by two points and extends $T$, such that $T \mid J_{i}$ is continuous for all $i$. Then $T$ becomes a piecewise monotonic transformation and the $J_{i}$, which are now closed intervals, form the partition 3 . As an example consider $x \mapsto 2 x(\bmod 1)$. Here exactly those points are doubled, which have two dyadic expansions. One can generalize this to higher dimensions. Suppose $T:[0,1]^{2} \rightarrow[0,1]^{2}$ is such that $T \mid J_{i}$ is continuous and invertible, where the $J_{i}$ are pairwise disjoint, have piecewise smooth boundary, and their union is $[0,1]^{2}$. If a point belongs to the boundary of $m$ different $J_{i}$, then substitute it by $m$ different points, each of which belongs to one of the $m$ different $J_{i}$, and do the same with all its inverse images under all $T^{k}$. Then extend $T$ such that $T \mid J_{i}$ is continuous. In this way one gets a piecewise invertible dynamical system.

The paper is divided into two chapters. Chapter I contains those results, which can be proved without using the order structure of piecewise monotonic transformations. Chapter II contains those results about piecewise monotonic $(X, T)$, the proofs of which rely on the order structure of $(X, T)$. In $\S 1$ of Chap. I, the Markov diagram $\mathfrak{D}$ is defined and basic results about the representation of the orbits of $(X, T)$ as onesided paths are proved. For piecewise monotonic transformations, the investigation of $\mathcal{D}$ is continued in $\S 1$ of Chap. II. The order structure of $(X, T)$ gives in this case a special structure of the Markov diagram. In $\S 2$ of Chap. I, the nonwandering set $\Omega(X, T)$ of $(X, T)$ is investigated. Every irreducible subset $\mathfrak{C}$ of $\mathfrak{D}$ gives rise to a topologically transitive, $T$-invariant subset $L(\mathbb{C})$ of $X$, if either 3 is a generator or $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic. The other parts of $\Omega(X, T)$ are called $L_{\infty}, P$ and $W$. For $L_{\infty}$ a condition is shown, which one can hope will imply that $L_{\infty}$ is small in some sense. The elements of $W$ are not in the center of $(X, T)$. If $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, then $P$ consists only of periodic points, and, if 3 is a generator, then $P=\emptyset$. In $\S 3$ of Chap. I, we write the Markov diagram as a $\mathfrak{D}$ $\times \mathcal{D}$-matrix $M$ with entries 0 and 1 . Then $M$ is a $l^{1}(\mathcal{D})$-operator. We express
the topological entropy of certain $T$-invariant subsets of $X$ in terms of the spectral radius $r$ of submatrices of $M$. This and the results of $\S 1$ of Chap. II are then used in $\S 2$ of Chap. II to show for piecewise monotonic ( $X, T$ ), that $h_{\text {top }}(L(\mathbb{C}))=\log r(M \mid \mathbb{C})$ and that $h_{\text {top }}\left(L_{\infty}\right)=0$. Also a result about the growth rate of the number of inverse images of an $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$ under $T^{k} \mid L(\mathbb{C})$ is shown, which involves the topological entropy. In $\S 3$ of Chap. I we investigate also the correspondence of closed paths in $\mathfrak{D}$ and periodic points of $(X, T)$. In $\S 4$ an example of a twodimensional piecewise invertible transformation is given. Finally, § 3 of Chap. II describes further applications of the method of Markov diagrams to piecewise monotonic transformations.

## I. The Markov Diagram

## § 1. Imitating Markov Shifts

Let $(X, T)$ be a piecewise invertible dynamical system and let 3 be the partition into closed-open sets $Z$, such that $T \mid Z$ is invertible. We give now the main definitions:

Successor. Suppose that $D$ is a closed subset of some element of 3 . The nonempty sets among $T(D) \cap Z$ for $Z \in 3$ are called successors of $D$. We write $D \rightarrow C$, if $C$ is a successor of $D$. The successors of $D$ are again closed subsets of elements of 3 , so that one can iterate the formation of successors.

Markov Diagram. Let $\mathfrak{D}$ be the minimal set with $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ such that if $D \in \mathfrak{D}$, then $\mathfrak{D}$ contains also all successors of $D$. The oriented graph, which $\mathfrak{D}$ becomes, if one inserts arrows from every $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ to all successors of $D$, is called the Markov diagram of $(X, T)$ with respect to $\mathcal{Z}$.

Paths. A finite or infinite sequence $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ with $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{D}$ is called a path in $\mathcal{D}$, if $D_{i} \rightarrow D_{i+1}$ for $i \geqq 0$. We say that an infinite path $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ represents $x \in X$, if $T^{i}(x) \in D_{i}$ for $i \geqq 0$.

We begin the investigation of $\mathfrak{D}$ with a lemma. For $k \geqq 0$ set

$$
3_{k}=\bigvee_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i} 3=\left\{\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right) \neq \emptyset: Z_{i} \in \mathcal{Z}\right\}
$$

which is again a partition of $X$ into sets, which are closed and open, and $T^{k}$ is invertible on each element of $\boldsymbol{3}_{k}$.
Lemma 1. Suppose that $Z_{i} \in \mathcal{3}$ for $i \geqq 0$ and that $D \subset Z_{0}$. Set

$$
A_{k}=D \cap T^{-1}\left(Z_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap T^{-k}\left(Z_{k}\right) \quad \text { for } k \geqq 0
$$

and

$$
D_{0}=D, \quad D_{k}=T\left(D_{k-1}\right) \cap Z_{k} \quad \text { for } k \geqq 1 .
$$

Then $T^{k}\left(A_{k}\right)=D_{k}$ for $k \geqq 0$.

Proof by induction. For $k=0$, the assertion is trivial. Suppose that $T^{m}\left(A_{m}\right)=D_{m}$ is proved. The formula $f\left(R \cap f^{-1}(S)\right)=f(R) \cap S$ will be used often throughout the paper. We use it for $f=T^{m+1}$ and get

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{m+1}\left(A_{m+1}\right) & =T^{m+1}\left(A_{m} \cap T^{-(m+1)}\left(Z_{m+1}\right)\right)=T^{m+1}\left(A_{m}\right) \cap Z_{m+1} \\
& =T\left(D_{m}\right) \cap Z_{m+1}=D_{m+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The first theorem shows that the Markov diagram can serve as a transition diagram of $(X, T)$. The uniqueness of the representation of orbits as paths holds only partially. For $x \in X$ let $V_{k}(x)$ be that element of the partition $3_{k}$, which contains $x$. We have $V_{k+1}(x) \subset V_{k}(x)$ for $k \geqq 0$. If $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)=\{x\}$ for all $x \in X$, then 3 is called a generator.

Theorem 1. (i) Suppose $D \in \mathfrak{D}$. Every $x \in D$ is represented by a path $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ in the Markov diagram with $D_{0}=D$. On the other hand, every path in the Markov diagram represents an $x \in X$, which is unique, if $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)=\{x\}$.
(ii) Suppose that $x \in X$ is represented by the paths $C_{0} C_{1} C_{2} \ldots$ and $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ in the Markov diagram. If $C_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)=D_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)$, then $C_{i}=D_{i}$ for $i \geqq k$.

Proof. (i) Choose $Z_{i} \in 3$ such that $T^{i}(x) \in Z_{i}$. Set $D_{0}=D$ and $D_{j}=T\left(D_{j-1}\right) \cap Z_{j}$ for $j \geqq 1$. If $x \in D=D_{0}$, then $T^{i}(x) \in D_{i}$ for $i \geqq 0$ follows by induction. Hence $D_{i} \neq \emptyset$ and $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ is a path in the Markov diagram representing $x$. On the other hand, if $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ is a path in the Markov diagram, then $D_{i}=T\left(D_{i-1}\right) \cap Y_{i}$ for $i \geqq 1$, where $Y_{i} \in \mathcal{Z}$. Set $A_{k}=D_{0} \cap T^{-1}\left(Y_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap T^{-k}\left(Y_{k}\right)$. Since the sets $A_{k}$ are closed and decreasing, there is an $x \in \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_{k}$. By Lemma 1, we get $T^{k}(x) \in T^{k}\left(A_{k}\right)$ $=D_{k}$ for $k \geqq 0$, i.e. $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ represents $x$. If $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ represents also $y \in X$, then $T^{i}(y) \in D_{i} \subset Y_{i}$, i.e. $y \in V_{k}(x)=\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Y_{i}\right)$ for all $k$. Hence $y=x$, if $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)$
$=\{x\}$.
(ii) Choose $Z_{i} \in 3$, such that $T^{i}(x) \in Z_{i}$. Since $C_{0} C_{1} C_{2} \ldots$ and $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ represent $x$, we get $C_{0} \subset Z_{0}, D_{0} \subset Z_{0}, C_{j}=T\left(C_{j-1}\right) \cap Z_{j}$ and $D_{j}=T\left(D_{j-1}\right) \cap Z_{j}$ for $j \geqq 1$. Using Lemma 1 , we get for $i \geqq k$ that

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{i} & =T^{i}\left(C_{0} \cap T^{-1}\left(Z_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right)\right)=T^{i}\left(C_{0} \cap V_{i}(x)\right) \\
& =T^{i}\left(D_{0} \cap V_{i}(x)\right)=D_{i} . \quad \square
\end{aligned}
$$

The following two lemmas will be useful later.
Lemma 2. Suppose that $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ is a path in the Markov diagram. Then $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right)$ is contained in some element of $\mathcal{Z}_{k}$. If $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ is a path with $C_{0}$ $=D_{0}$ such that $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(C_{i}\right)$ and $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right)$ are contained in the same element $V$ of $\mathcal{3}_{k}$, then $C_{i}=D_{i}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq k$.

Proof. Choose $Z_{i} \in 3$ such that $D_{0} \subset Z_{0}$ and $D_{i}=T\left(D_{i-1}\right) \cap Z_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq k$. Then $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V:=\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}$. This shows the first assertion. If $Y_{i} \in \mathcal{B}$ is such that $C_{0} \subset Y_{0}$ and $C_{i}=T\left(C_{i-1}\right) \cap Y_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq k$, then $V$ is also $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Y_{i}\right)$, since $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(C_{i}\right) \subset V$. Since 3 is a partition, we get $Z_{i}=Y_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq k$. Since $C_{0}=D_{0}$, we get now $C_{i}=D_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq k$ by the definition of a successor.

Lemma 3. If $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, then all $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ are closed intervals with endpoints in $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{i}(K)$, where $K$ is the set of endpoints of the intervals in 3 .

Proof by induction. For $D \in \mathcal{Z}$, the assertion is trivial. If it holds for $D$, then it holds also for $T(D) \cap Z$, where $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$, i.e. for all successors of $D$, since $D$ is a closed subinterval of some $Y \in \mathcal{Z}$, which implies that $T(D)$ is again a closed interval by the monotonicity of $T \mid Y$ and the fact that $T(Y)$ is an interval.

## §2. The Nonwandering Set

An $x \in X$ is called wandering, if $x$ has a neighbourhood $U$ with $T^{k}(U) \cap U=\emptyset$ for all $k \geqq 1$. This is equivalent with the existence of a neighbourhood $U$ of $x$ and a $k_{0} \geqq 1$ with $T^{k}(U) \cap U=\emptyset$ for $k \geqq k_{0}$. We denote the set of all $x \in X$, which are not wandering, by $\Omega(X, T)$. For $z \in X$ let $\omega(z)$ be the set of limit points of the orbit $\left\{T^{i}(z): i \geqq 0\right\}$ of $z$. Then $\omega(z)$ is contained in $\Omega(X, T)$ and called the $\omega$ limit of $z$.

We begin with the investigation of correspondences between subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$ and subsets of $X$. If $\mathfrak{H} \subset \mathfrak{D}$, we set $H(\mathfrak{H})=\bigcup_{D \in \mathfrak{R}} D$ and $v(\mathfrak{H})=\{D \in \mathfrak{D}: \exists C \in \mathfrak{Y}$ with $C \rightarrow D\}$. We call a subset $\mathfrak{A}$ of $\mathfrak{D}$ closed, if $C \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $C \rightarrow D$ imply $D \in \mathfrak{A}$. We call $\mathfrak{H} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ perfect, if $\mathfrak{A}$ is closed and if for every $C \in \mathfrak{A}$ there is a $D \in \mathfrak{H}$ with $D \rightarrow C$.

Lemma 4. (i) $\mathfrak{A}$ closed $\Leftrightarrow v(\mathfrak{H}) \subset \mathfrak{U}$, $\mathfrak{A}$ perfect $\Leftrightarrow v(\mathfrak{H})=\mathfrak{H}$.
(ii) $\mathfrak{A}$ closed $\Rightarrow v(\mathfrak{H})$ is closed.
(iii) $H(v(\mathfrak{H}))=T(H(\mathfrak{P}))$.
(iv) If $\mathfrak{A}$ is closed, then $T(H(\mathfrak{U})) \subset H(\mathfrak{U})$. If $\mathfrak{A}$ is perfect, then $T(H(\mathfrak{U}))$ $=H(\mathfrak{H})$.
Proof. (i) and (ii) are direct consequences of the definitions. (iii) follows from the fact that, if $D \in \mathfrak{D}$, then $T(D)$ is the union of the successors of $D$. (iv) follows from (i) and (iii).

We say that a path leads from $C$ to $D$ in the Markov diagram, if there is a path $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ with $C_{0}=C$ and $C_{k}=D$. We call $\mathfrak{C} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ irreducible, if for every pair $C, D$ of elements of $\mathbb{C}$, a path leads from $C$ to $D$, and if every subset of $\mathcal{D}$, which contains $\mathbb{C}$ strictly, does not have this property.
Lemma 5. Suppose $\mathbb{C} \subset \mathcal{D}$ is irreducible. Let $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ be the set of all $D \in \mathcal{D}$ for which a path leads from some element of $\mathfrak{C}$ to $D$. Then $\overline{\mathfrak{C}}$ is perfect and $\overline{\mathfrak{C}}:=\overline{\mathfrak{C}} \backslash \mathfrak{C}$ is closed.

Proof. That $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ is closed, follows from the definition of $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$. That $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ is perfect, follows from the irreducibility of $\mathbb{C}$. Now suppose $D \in \tilde{\mathbb{C}}$ and $D \rightarrow C$. As $D \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}$, we get $C \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}$, since $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ is closed. If $C \in \mathbb{C}$, we get $D \in \mathbb{C}$ by the definition of irreducibility and of $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$, a contradiction to $D \in \tilde{\mathbb{C}}$. Hence $C \in \overline{\mathbb{C}} \backslash \mathbb{C}=\tilde{\mathbb{C}}$ and $\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}$ is closed.

If $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are closed subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$ with $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{Y}$, then set

$$
\Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})=\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} \overline{H(\hat{\mathfrak{H}}) \backslash T^{-i}(\overline{H(\mathfrak{B}))} .}
$$

For an irreducible subset $\mathbb{C}$ of $\mathfrak{D}$, we set $\Omega(\mathbb{C})=\Psi(\overline{\mathbb{C}}, \tilde{\mathbb{C}})$. By Lemma $5, \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ and $\tilde{\mathbb{C}}$ are closed. This definition of $\Omega(\mathbb{C})$ is introduced in [2] and a bit more convenient than those used in [4].
Lemma 6. Suppose $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{H} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ and that $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are closed.
(i) $x \notin \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$ if and only if $x$ has a neighbourhood $U$ with $T^{i}(U \cap H(\mathfrak{H}))$ $\subset H(\mathfrak{B})$ for some $i$.
(ii) $\Psi(\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{B})$ is $T$-invariant.
(iii) If $\mathfrak{F} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ is closed, then $\Psi(\mathfrak{H} \cup \mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{B} \cup \mathfrak{F}) \subset \Psi(\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{B})$.

Proof. (i) $x \notin \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$ is equivalent with $x \notin \overline{H(\mathfrak{A l}) \backslash T^{-i}(H(\mathfrak{B}))}$ for some $i$, and this is equivalent with $T^{i}(U \cap H(\mathfrak{U})) \subset H(\mathfrak{B})$ for some $i$ and some neighbourhood $U$ of $x$.
(ii) If $T(x) \notin \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$, then, by (i), $T^{i}(U \cap H(\mathfrak{A})) \subset H(\mathfrak{B})$ for some $i$ and some neighbourhood $U$ of $T(x)$. Since $T$ is continuous, $T^{-1}(U)$ is a neighbourhood of $x$ and $T^{i+1}\left(T^{-1}(U) \cap H(\mathfrak{U}) \subset H(\mathfrak{B})\right.$, since $T(H(\mathfrak{H})) \subset H(\mathfrak{A})$ by (iv) of Lemma 4. By (i), we get $x \notin \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$.
(iii) If $x \notin \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$, then $T^{i}(U \cap H(\mathfrak{U})) \subset H(\mathfrak{B})$ for some $i$ and some neighbourhood $U$ of $x$, by (i). As $T(H(\mathscr{F})) \subset H(\mathfrak{F})$ by (iv) of Lemma 4, this implies $T^{i}(U \cap H(\mathfrak{A} \cup \mathfrak{F})) \subset H(\mathfrak{B} \cup \mathfrak{F})$, and hence $x \notin \Psi(\mathfrak{A} \cup \mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{B} \cup \mathfrak{F})$.

Examples of piecewise monotonic transformations can be found in [3] and [4]. We give here an example, where 3 is not a generator. Let $T$ be the transformation shown by Fig. 1. The points $a$ and $b$ are doubled (cf. the introduction). Set $I=[0, a-], J=[a+, b-], K=[b+, 1], J_{1}=[T(a), a-], J_{2}$ $=\left[T^{2}(a), 1\right]$ and $K_{j}=\left[a+, T^{j}(1)\right]$ for $j \geqq 1$. Since $T(a)=T^{3}(a)$ we get the following Markov diagram


We have the irreducible subsets $\mathfrak{C}_{1}=\{I, J, K\}$ and $\mathfrak{C}_{2}=\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{C}_{1}$. This gives $\overline{\mathfrak{C}}_{1}$ $=\mathfrak{D}, \tilde{\mathfrak{C}}_{1}=\overline{\mathfrak{C}}_{2}=\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}_{2}$ and $\tilde{\mathbb{C}}_{2}=\emptyset$. Hence

$$
H\left(\overline{\mathbb{C}}_{1}\right)=[0,1], \quad H\left(\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}_{1}\right)=H\left(\overline{\mathfrak{C}}_{2}\right)=[T(a), x) \cup\left[T^{2}(a), 1\right], \quad \Omega\left(\mathbb{C}_{2}\right)=H\left(\overline{\mathbb{C}}_{2}\right)
$$

and $\Omega\left(\mathbb{C}_{1}\right)$ is a Cantor set.


Fig. 1

The next two lemmas give the method, how the Markov diagram is used for the study of $T$-invariant subsets of $X$. We shall use them several times in the sequel.

Lemma 7. Suppose that $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{A} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ and that $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are closed. Suppose $\mathfrak{A}^{\prime} \subset \mathfrak{H}$ and $V \in \mathcal{B}_{k}$ are such that $H(\mathfrak{H}) \supset(V \cap H(\mathfrak{C})) \backslash H(\mathfrak{B})$. If $V \cap \Psi(\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{B}) \neq \emptyset$, then there is a path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ in $\mathfrak{A} \backslash \mathfrak{B}$ with $D_{0} \in \mathfrak{Y}^{\prime}$ and $D_{k} \nleftarrow H(\mathfrak{B})$ such that $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right)$ $\subset V$.
Proof. Choose $Z_{i} \in \mathcal{3}$ such that $V=\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right)$. For every $D \in \mathfrak{Y} \mathfrak{V}^{\prime}$ set $D_{0}=D$ and $D_{i}=T\left(D_{i-1}\right) \cap Z_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq k$. For $V_{D}:=V \cap D$ we have

$$
H(\mathfrak{B}) \cup \bigcup_{D \in \mathscr{Y}} V_{D} \supset H(\mathfrak{B}) \cup\left(V \cap H\left(\mathfrak{A}^{\prime}\right)\right) \supset V \cap H(\mathfrak{P})
$$

If $V_{D} \neq \emptyset$, then $D \subset Z_{0}$ as $D \cap Z_{0} \neq \emptyset$, and $T^{k}\left(V_{D}\right)=D_{k}$ by Lemma 1. If for all $D \in \mathfrak{U}^{\prime}$ with $V_{D} \neq \emptyset$ we have $D_{k} \subset H(\mathfrak{B})$, then

$$
T^{k}(V \cap H(\mathfrak{H})) \subset T^{k}\left(H(\mathfrak{B}) \cup \bigcup_{D \in \mathscr{I}^{\prime}} V_{D}\right) \subset T^{k}(H(\mathfrak{B})) \cup \bigcup_{D \in \mathscr{\mathscr { I } ^ { \prime }}} D_{k} \subset H(\mathfrak{B})
$$

since $H(\mathfrak{B})$ is $T$-invariant by Lemma 4. As $V$ is open, we get $V \cap \Psi(\mathfrak{Y}, \mathfrak{B})=\emptyset$ by (i) of Lemma 6. Hence there is a $D \in \mathfrak{Y}^{\prime}$ with $V_{D} \neq \emptyset$ and $D_{k} \notin H(\mathfrak{B})$. This implies that $D_{k} \notin \mathfrak{B}$ and hence $D_{i} \notin \mathfrak{B}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq k$, as $\mathfrak{B}$ is closed. Furthermore, $D_{k}$ $=T^{k}\left(V_{D}\right) \neq \emptyset$ as $V_{D} \neq \emptyset$ and hence $D_{i} \neq \emptyset$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq k$ as $D_{k} \subset T^{k-i}\left(D_{i}\right)$. Since $D_{0}$ $=D \in \mathfrak{A}^{\prime} \subset \mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{H}$ is closed, the path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ is in $\mathfrak{H} \backslash \mathfrak{B}$. From $D_{i} \subset Z_{i}$ (for $i=0$ this follows from $D_{0} \cap Z_{0} \supset V_{D} \neq \emptyset$, as every element of $\mathfrak{D}$ is contained in an element of the partition 3) we get $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V$, finishing the proof.

Lemma 8. Let $\mathfrak{C}$ be an irreducible subset of $\mathfrak{D}$ such that $H(\overline{\mathbb{C}}) \backslash H(\widetilde{\mathbb{C}}) \neq \emptyset$. Then every infinite path in $\mathbb{C}$ represents an $x \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$.

Proof. We write $F$ for $H(\overline{\mathbb{C}})$ and $G$ for $H(\tilde{\mathbb{C}})$. As $F \backslash G \neq \emptyset$, we find a $y \in F \backslash G$. Hence there is a $C \in \overline{\mathfrak{C}} \backslash \tilde{\mathfrak{C}}=\mathfrak{C}$ with $y \in C$. Suppose $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ is an infinite path in $\mathbb{C}$. Since $\mathbb{C}$ is irreducible, we find for every $i$ an $m \geqq i$ and a finite path $C_{i} C_{i+1} \ldots C_{m}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $C_{i}=D_{i}$ and $C_{m}=C$. Choose $Z_{j} \in \mathcal{3}$ such that $D_{j}$ $=T\left(D_{j-1}\right) \cap Z_{j}$ for $1 \leqq j \leqq i$ and $C_{j}=T\left(C_{j-1}\right) \cap Z_{j}$ for $i<j \leqq m$. Set $A_{i}$ $=D_{0} \cap T^{-1}\left(Z_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right)$. By Lemma 1 we get $T^{m}\left(A_{i} \cap T^{-(i+1)}\left(Z_{i+1}\right)\right.$ $\left.\cap \ldots \cap T^{-m}\left(Z_{m}\right)\right)=C$. Hence we find an $x_{i} \in A_{i}$ with $T^{m}\left(x_{i}\right)=y$. The points $x_{i}$ have a limit point $x$ in $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} A_{i}$, since every $A_{i}$ is closed. Then $T^{i}(x) \in T^{i}\left(A_{i}\right)=D_{i}$ for all $i$ by Lemma 1 and $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ represents $x$. Furthermore, $T^{m}\left(x_{i}\right)=y \notin G$, i.e. $x_{i} \in F \backslash T^{-m}(G)$. Since $m \geqq i$ and the sets $\overline{F \backslash T^{-m}(G)}$ decrease to $\Omega(\mathbb{C})$ for $m \rightarrow \infty$, we get $x \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$. Remark that $T(G) \subset G$ by Lemmas 4 and 5 .

The sets $V_{k}(x)$ defined above are open neighbourhoods of $x \in X$. They define a topology on $X$, which has less open sets than the original one. We call limit points with respect to this topology 3 -limit points. If the two topologies coincide, i.e. if $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)=\{x\}$ for all $x \in X$, then 3 is called a generator of $(X, T)$.

Theorem 2. Suppose $\mathfrak{C} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ is irreducible.
(i) If $x \in \operatorname{int}(H(\overline{\mathbb{C}}) \backslash H(\tilde{\mathbb{C}}))$ and $x \notin \Omega(\mathbb{C})$ then $x$ is wandering.
(ii) If $H(\overline{\mathbb{C}}) \backslash H(\widetilde{\mathbb{C}}) \neq \emptyset$, then there is a path in $\mathbb{C}$, which contains every finite path of $\mathbb{C}$ and which represents a $z \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$. Furthermore, $\omega(z) \subset \Omega(\mathbb{C})$ and $\Omega(\mathbb{C})$ is a subset of the set of $\mathbf{3}$-limit points of the orbit of $z$.

Proof. (i) We can choose the neighbourhood $U$ of $x$ in (i) of Lemma 6 such that $U \subset H(\overline{\mathbb{C}}) \backslash H(\widetilde{\mathbb{C}})$ and get $T^{j}(U) \cap U=\emptyset$ for $j \geqq i$, since $H(\tilde{\mathbb{C}})$ is $T$-invariant by Lemmas 4 and 5.
(ii) As $\mathbb{C}$ is irreducible, we find an infinite path in $\mathbb{C}$, which contains every finite path of $\mathbb{C}$. By Lemma 8, it represents a $z \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$. By (ii) of Lemma $6, \Omega(\mathbb{C})$ is $T$-invariant, and by definition, $\Omega(\mathbb{C})$ is closed. Hence the limit points of the orbit of $z \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$ are in $\Omega(\mathbb{C})$. On the other hand consider some $V_{k}(x)$ of an $x \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$. Since $x \in V_{k}(x) \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C})$, we find by Lemma 7 applied to $\mathfrak{H}=\mathfrak{H}^{\prime}=\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\tilde{\mathbb{C}}$ a path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ in $\mathfrak{C}$ with $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V_{k}(x)$. As $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ is contained in the path in $\mathbb{C}$ representing $z$, there is an $m$ with $T^{m+i}(z) \in D_{i}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq k$. This implies $T^{m}(z) \in V_{k}(x)$. Since $k$ was arbitrary, this says that $x$ is a 3 -limit point of the orbit of $z$.

Theorem 2 clarifies, which points of $\operatorname{int}(H(\overline{\mathbb{C}}) \backslash H(\tilde{\mathbb{C}}))$ belong to $\Omega(X, T)$, if 3 is a generator. The next theorem deals with $H(\mathfrak{H})$ for a closed set $\mathfrak{H}$, e.g. $\mathfrak{U}=\tilde{\mathbb{E}}$. For a sequence $\mathfrak{A}_{1} \supsetneq \mathfrak{A}_{2} \supsetneq \mathfrak{A}_{3} \supsetneq \ldots$ of closed sets $\mathfrak{A}_{i} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ set $\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathfrak{H}_{i}$ and $\Omega\left(\left(\mathscr{\mathscr { H }}_{j}\right)_{j \geqq 1}\right)=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \Psi\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}, \mathfrak{U}_{\infty}\right)$. One easily checks that $\mathfrak{U}_{\infty}$ is a closed set. We say that a subset $Y$ of $X$ is represented at infinity in the Markov diagram, if for
every $x \in Y$, for every finite subset $\mathfrak{F}$ of $\mathfrak{D}$, and for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there is a path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ in $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{F}$ with $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V_{k}(x)$. The Markov diagram for piecewise monotonic transformations (cf. § 1 of Chap. II below) suggests, that there is not "enough space" for "large" sets at infinity in the Markov diagram. Hence representation at infinity can be considered as a kind of smallness condition.

Theorem 3. Suppose $\left(\mathfrak{R}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}$ is a decreasing sequence of closed subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$ and set $\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathfrak{M}_{i}$. Then $\Omega\left(\left(\mathfrak{M}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$ is represented at infinity in the Markov dia-
gram.
Proof. This follows from the fact that $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i} \backslash \mathfrak{H}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$ and Lemma 7 applied to $\mathfrak{U}=\mathfrak{H}^{\prime}=\mathfrak{U}_{i}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}$ for every $i$, since $x \in V_{k}(x) \cap \Psi\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}, \mathfrak{H}_{\infty}\right)$ for every $k$ and every $x \in \Omega\left(\left(\mathscr{H}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$.

We want to improve Theorem 2 in the case, when 3 is not a generator. This gives then a satisfactory result for piecewise monotonic transformations (cf. Theorem 4 below). To this end set $\mathcal{B}_{\infty}=\left\{\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right) \neq \emptyset: Z_{i} \in 3\right\}$. The elements of $3_{\infty}$ are closed and called $\mathcal{B}$-atoms. If $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ consists only of a single point, we call $I$ a trivial 3 -atom. 3 is a generator, if and only if all 3 -atoms are trivial.

Lemma 9. (i) $X$ is the disjoint union of all 3 -atoms and $T^{k} \mid I$ is invertible for all $k \geqq 1$ and all $I \in 3_{\infty}$.
(ii) The image of a 3-atom is contained in a 3-atom.
(iii) For $I \in \mathcal{X}_{\infty}$ and $k \geqq 1$, either $T^{k}(I) \cap I=\emptyset$ or $T^{k}(I) \subset I$.
(iv) Suppose $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic and $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$. Then $I$ is an interval and $T^{k} \mid I$ is monotone for all $k$.

Proof. $\mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ is the refinement of the partitions $\boldsymbol{3}_{k}$ for $k \geqq 0$. Hence (i) follows. Since the elements of $3_{k}$ are intervals, on which $T^{k}$ is monotone, if $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, we get also (iv). Every $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ can be written as $I$ $=Z \cap T^{-1}(J)$ with $Z \in 3$ and $J \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$. This gives (ii). Now (iii) follows from (i) and (ii).

For $x \in X$ let $\tilde{U}(x)$ be a neighbourhood system of $x$. We define $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ as follows. By (i) of Lemma 9 there is a unique $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ with $x \in I$. If $I=\{x\}$, set $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ $=\tilde{\mathfrak{U}}(x)$. Otherwise, if $I$ is nontrivial, set $\mathfrak{U}(x)=\{U \backslash I: U \in \mathfrak{U}(x)\}$. Since $I$ is closed, the elements of $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ are open. If $x \in$ int $I$, we can set $\mathfrak{U}(x)=\{\emptyset\}$.

Lemma 10. Suppose ( $X, T$ ) is piecewise monotonic. For every $x \in X$ one can choose $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ such that every nonempty element of $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ is an interval and a union of elements of $\bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{m}$.

Proof. Let $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ be such that $x \in I$. If $I=\{x\}$, set $\mathfrak{l l}(x)=\left\{V_{k}(x): k \geqq 0\right\}$. Now let $I$ be nontrivial. If $x \in \operatorname{int} I$, set $\mathfrak{U}(x)=\{\emptyset\}$. If $x \in b d I$, say the left endpoint of the interval $I$ (cf. (iv) of Lemma 9), set $\mathfrak{U}(x)=\left\{\left(V_{k}(x) \backslash I\right) \cap\{y \in X: y<x\}: k \geqq 0\right\}$. As $I$
is a subinterval of the interval $V_{k}(x)$, the set $V_{k}(x) \backslash I$ is the union of two intervals (the right one can be empty), the left one of which is an element of $\mathfrak{U}(x)$. It is the union over $m$ of the sets $\left(V_{m}(x) \backslash V_{m+1}(x)\right) \cap\{y: y<x\}$, each of which is a union of elements of $3_{m+1}$ or empty. Furthermore $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(V_{k}(x) \backslash I\right) \cap\{y: y<x\}=\emptyset$.

For closed subsets $\mathfrak{H}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ of $\mathfrak{D}$ with $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{M}$ define

$$
L(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B})=\{x \in X: Q \cap \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}) \neq \emptyset \text { for all } Q \in \mathfrak{l}(x)\}
$$

We have $L(\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{B}) \subset \Psi(\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{B})$, since $\Psi(\mathfrak{Y}, \mathfrak{B})$ is closed, and $L(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B})=\Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$, if 3 is a generator. One deduces from (ii) of Lemma 6, that $L(\mathscr{H}, \mathfrak{B})$ is $T$ invariant.

Let $\Gamma$ be the set of all irreducible subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$. For $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$ set $L(\mathbb{C})=L(\overline{\mathbb{C}}, \tilde{\mathfrak{C}})$. If $\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}$ is a decreasing sequence of closed subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$, we set $L\left(\left(\mathscr{A}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$ $=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} L\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i}, \mathfrak{A}_{\infty}\right)$, where $\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathfrak{M}_{i}$. Let $L_{\infty}$ be the union of all such sets $L\left(\left(\mathfrak{A l}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$.

Theorem 4. Suppose ( $X, T$ ) is piecewise monotonic.
(i) If $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$, then $L(\mathbb{C})=\emptyset$ or $L(\mathbb{C})=\omega(z)$ where $z$ is as in Theorem 2 .
(ii) If $x \in L_{\infty}$, then $x \in \omega(c)$ for some $c$ in the finite set $K$ (cf. Lemma 3).

Proof. (i) Let $z$ be as in Theorem 2. If such a $z$ does not exist, then $H(\overline{\mathbb{C}}) \backslash H(\tilde{\mathbb{C}})$ $=\emptyset$ and $L(\mathbb{C}) \subset \Omega(\mathbb{C})=\emptyset$. Fix some $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$. Then $Q \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C})=Q \cap \Psi(\overline{\mathbb{C}}, \widetilde{\mathbb{C}}) \neq \emptyset$ for all $Q \in \mathfrak{l}(x)$. By Lemma 10, for all $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$, there is a $V \in \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{m}$ with $V \subset Q$ and $V \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset$. By Theorem 2, $V \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset$ implies $T^{i}(z) \in V$ for some $i$. Hence $x \in \omega(z)$ and $L(\mathbb{C}) \subset \omega(z)$.

Now suppose $x \in \omega(z)$. Let $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ be such that $x \in I$. If $T^{i}(z) \in I$ for $i=m$ and $n$, then $T^{p}(I) \subset I$ for $p=n-m$, by (iii) of Lemma 9. Let $J$ be the union of the $3^{-}$ atoms which contain $T^{j}(I)$ for $0 \leqq j<p$. Then $T^{i}(z) \in J$ for $i \geqq m$, every 3 -limit point of the orbit of $z$ is in $J$, and $\Omega(\mathbb{C}) \subset J$ by Theorem 2. This implies $L(\mathbb{C})$ $=\emptyset$, if $I$ is nontrivial. If $T^{i}(z) \in I$ for at most one $i$ or if $I$ is trivial, then for every $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$ there is a $j$ with $T^{j}(z) \in Q$, as $x \in \omega(z)$. Since $T^{j}(z) \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$ for all $j$ by Theorem 2 and (ii) of Lemma 6, we get $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$. Hence $\omega(z) \subset L(\mathbb{C})$.
(ii) Suppose $x$ is in some $L\left(\left(\mathscr{U l}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$ and $x \notin \omega(c)$ for all $c \in K$. In particular, there is a $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$ with $T^{j}(c) \notin Q$ for all $c \in K$ and all $j \geqq 0$, as $K$ is finite. We choose $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ as in Lemma 10 . For every $i \geqq 1$, we find a $D \in \mathfrak{H}_{i}$ with $Q \cap D \neq \emptyset$, because otherwise $Q \cap H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)=\emptyset$, which implies $Q \cap \Psi\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i}, \mathfrak{H}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$ and $x \notin L\left(\left(\mathscr{H}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$. By Lemma 3, the interval $Q$ cannot contain an endpoint of the interval $D$, hence $Q \subset D$. Let $V$ be one of the elements of $\bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{m}$, whose union is $Q$ (cf. Lemma 10). If $V=\bigcap_{k=0}^{m} T^{-k}\left(Z_{k}\right)$, set $D_{0}=D$ and $D_{k}^{m=0}=T\left(D_{k-1}\right) \cap Z_{k}$ for $1 \leqq k \leqq m$. Since $V \subset Q \subset D$, we get $D_{m}=T^{m}(V)$, by Lemma 1 . Hence $D_{m}$ depends only on $V$ and not on $D$. Thus we get the same $D_{m}$ for every $i$. As $\mathfrak{H}_{i}$ is closed, we have $D_{m} \in \mathfrak{U}_{i}$ for all $i$ and hence $D_{m} \in \mathfrak{A}_{\infty}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathfrak{A}_{i}$. This implies $T^{m}(V)=D_{m}$
$\subset H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}\right)$ and $V \cap \Psi\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i}, \mathfrak{N}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$ for all $i$ by (i) of Lemma 6. Therefore $Q \cap \Psi\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i}, \mathfrak{\mathscr { A }}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$ for all $i$ and $x \notin L\left(\left(\mathfrak{M}_{i}\right)_{i \geq 1}\right)$, a contradiction. This proves (ii).

Now we state the main result about $\Omega(X, T)$. If $I$ is a nontrivial 3 -atom and $T^{k}(I) \nsubseteq I$ for all $k \geqq 1$, then int $I \cap \Omega(X, T)=\emptyset$ by (iii) of Lemma 9. If $p \geqq 1$ and $T^{p}(I) \subset I$, set $P(I)=\Omega\left(I, T^{p} \mid I\right)$ and let $P$ be the union of all such $P(I)$. If ( $X, T$ ) is piecewise monotone, then $P$ consists only of periodic points by (iv) of Lemma 9. Furthermore, set $\Omega^{1}(X, T)=\Omega(X, T)$. If $\Omega^{k}(X, T)$ is defined, let $\Omega^{k+1}(X, T)$ be the set of nonwandering points of $T \mid \Omega^{k}(X, T)$. Define $W$ as the set of all $x \in \Omega(X, T)$ with $x \notin \Omega^{m}(X, T)$ for some $m$.

Theorem 5. Let $(X, T)$ be a piecewise invertible dynamical system. Suppose that every perfect subset of $\mathfrak{D}$ is a finite union of sets $\overline{\mathfrak{C}}$ with $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$. Then

$$
\Omega(X, T) \subset \bigcup_{\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma} L(\mathbb{C}) \cup L_{\infty} \cup P \cup W .
$$

If 3 is a generator or if $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, then $L(\mathbb{C})=\omega(z)$ for some $z \in X . L_{\infty}$ can be represented at infinity in the Markov diagram. If $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, then $L_{\infty} \subset \bigcup_{c \in K} \omega(c)$, where $K$ is finite.

Proof. Fix $x \in \Omega(X, T)$ and suppose $x \notin L(\mathbb{C})$ for all $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$ and $x \notin L_{\infty}$. We have to show $x \in W \cup P$. To this end we construct a sequence $\Delta$ of closed subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$ with the following two properties. If $\mathfrak{H}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are two successive elements of the sequence $\Delta$, then
(a) $\mathfrak{B} \subsetneq \mathfrak{A}$,
(b) $Q \cap \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})=\emptyset$ for some $Q \in \mathfrak{U l}(x)$.

The construction of $\Delta$ is done by induction using the following three steps.
Step 1. Suppose $\Delta$ is finite and the perfect set $\mathfrak{A} \neq \emptyset$ is the last element of $\Delta$. Let $\Gamma^{\prime}$ be a minimal subset of $\Gamma$ with $\bigcup_{\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma^{\prime}} \overline{\mathfrak{C}}=\mathfrak{A}$. Fix some $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma^{\prime}$. Set $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ $=\Gamma^{\prime} \backslash\{\mathbb{C}\}, \mathfrak{F}=\bigcup_{\mathfrak{G} \in \Gamma^{\prime \prime}} \overline{\mathfrak{W}}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\mathfrak{F} \cup \widetilde{\mathfrak{C}}$. A union of closed sets is closed, hence $\mathfrak{F}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are closed by Lemma 5 . As $\Gamma^{\prime}$ was chosen minimal, we have $\mathfrak{C} \nsubseteq \mathfrak{F}$, because otherwise $\overline{\mathbb{C}} \subset \mathfrak{F}$, as $\mathfrak{F}$ is closed, and $\mathfrak{F}=\mathfrak{A}$. Hence $\mathfrak{B} \subsetneq \mathfrak{A}$, as $\mathfrak{C} \cap \tilde{\mathbb{C}}=\emptyset$. Since $x \notin L(\mathbb{C})$, we have for some $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$ that $Q \cap \Psi(\overline{\mathbb{C}}, \widetilde{\mathbb{C}})=\emptyset$ and hence $Q \cap \Psi(\mathfrak{N}, \mathfrak{B})=\emptyset$ by (iii) of Lemma 6 , as $\mathfrak{H}=\overline{\mathfrak{C}} \cup \mathfrak{F}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\tilde{\mathfrak{C}} \cup \mathfrak{F}$. We add $\mathfrak{B}$ to $\Delta$ as its last element and the two properties of $\Delta$ remain valid.
Step 2. Suppose $\Delta$ is finite and the closed set $\mathfrak{A} \neq \emptyset$ is the last element of $\Delta$. Set $\mathfrak{U}_{0}=\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{U}_{i+1}=v\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)$ for $i \geqq 0$. By (ii) of Lemma 4, all $\mathfrak{N}_{i}$ are closed. Let $m \leqq \infty$ be maximal, such that $\mathfrak{M}_{i}$ for $i<m$ is not perfect. Add $\mathfrak{H}_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ to $\Delta$, if $m<\infty$, and add $\mathfrak{M}_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i<\infty$ to $\Delta$, if $m=\infty$. For $0 \leqq i<m$, we have by (i) of Lemma 4, that $\mathfrak{N}_{i+1} \subsetneq \mathfrak{H}_{i}$, and by (iii) of Lemma 4, that $T\left(H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)\right)$ $=H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i+1}\right)$, which implies $\Psi\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i}, \mathfrak{A}_{i+1}\right)=\emptyset$. Hence the two properties of $\Delta$ remain valid.
Step 3. Suppose $\Delta$ is infinite, say $\Delta=\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}$. Set $\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathfrak{M}_{i}$. As $x \notin L_{\infty}$, we have $x \notin L\left(\mathfrak{U}_{j}, \mathfrak{\mathscr { A }}_{\infty}\right)$ for some $j$, that is $Q \cap \Psi\left(\mathfrak{H}_{j}, \mathfrak{A}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$ for some $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$. We
cancel $\mathfrak{N}_{i}$ for $i>j$ from $\Delta$ and add $\mathfrak{A}_{\infty}$ to $\Delta$. Since $\mathfrak{A}_{\infty} \subsetneq \mathfrak{A}_{i}$ for all $i \geqq 1$, by (a), the two properties of $\Delta$ remain valid.

We begin the construction letting $\Delta$ be the sequence consisting only of $\mathcal{D}$. If $\mathfrak{D}$ is perfect, apply Step 1, otherwise apply Step 2. After each Step 1 and 3 apply Step 1 or 2 , depending on whether the last element of $\Delta$ is perfect or only closed. After each Step 2 apply Step 1, if $m<\infty$, and Step 3, if $m=\infty$. Step 3 also makes $\Delta$ again finite, if it has become infinite by repetition of the steps. If $\Delta$ is finite, its last element is a strict subset of the last element of $\Delta$ at any earlier step at which $\Delta$ was finite. If $\Delta$ is infinite, it is again finite after one step, and the last element of $\Delta$ goes through a totally ordered set in the set of all closed subsets of $\mathcal{D}$ with inclusion as order relation. As the empty set is the minimum in this ordered set, the induction ends with a finite sequence $\Delta$ whose last element is the empty set. As $\Delta$ is finite, we can suppose that (b) holds for all successive $\mathfrak{H}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ in $\Delta$ with the same $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$.

Suppose $\Delta=\left(\mathfrak{U}_{i}\right)_{1 \leqq i \leqq n}$. Then $\mathfrak{A}_{1}=\mathfrak{D}$ and $\mathfrak{U}_{n}=\emptyset$. Hence $Q \cap \Omega^{1}(X, T) \subset X$ $=\overline{H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{1}\right)}$. Suppose we have shown that $Q \cap \Omega^{i}(X, T) \subset \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)}$. We show $Q \cap \Omega^{i+1}(X, T) \subset \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i+1}\right)}$. To this end, suppose $y \in Q \backslash \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i+1}\right)}$. Since $Q$ is open, we find a neighbourhood $U$ of $y$ with $U \subset Q, U \cap H\left(\mathscr{A}_{i+1}\right)=\emptyset$, and $T^{j}\left(U \cap \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)}\right) \subset \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i+1}\right)}$ for some $j$, by (b), (i) of Lemma 6 , and the continuity of $T$. As $Q \cap \Omega^{i}(X, T) \subset \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{i}\right)}$, the set $U \cap \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{i}\right)}$ contains a neighbourhood of $y$ in $\Omega^{i}(X, T)$. Since $U \cap H\left(\mathscr{A}_{i+1}\right)=\emptyset$ and $\overline{H\left(\mathcal{H}_{i+1}\right)}$ is $T$-invariant, we get that $y$ is wandering for $T \mid \Omega^{i}(X, T)$, that is $y \not \ddagger \Omega^{i+1}(X, T)$. This is the desired result.

We have shown by induction, that $Q \cap \Omega^{n}(X, T) \subset \overline{H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{n}\right)}=\emptyset$. Let $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$ be such that $x \in I$. If $I$ is trivial, we have $x \in W$, since $x \in Q$. If $I$ is nontrivial, then either $x \in P(I) \subset P$, or $x$ has a neighbourhood $U$ with $T^{m}(I \cap U) \cap(I \cap U)=\emptyset$ for $m \geqq 1$. As $Q \cap \Omega^{n}(X, T)=\emptyset$, the set $I \cap U$ contains a neighbourhood of $x$ in $\Omega^{n}(X, T)$. Hence $x \notin \Omega^{n+1}(X, T)$, that is $x \in W$, if $x \notin P$.

We have shown that $\Omega(X, T) \subset \bigcup_{\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma} L(\mathbb{C}) \cup L_{\infty} \cup P \cup W$. The other assertions follow from Theorems 2,3 and 4 , as $L(\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{B}) \subset \Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$ and equality holds, if 3 is a generator.

We conclude $\S 2$ with a result which shows once more the analogy with Markov shifts.

Theorem 6. Let $(X, T)$ be a piecewise invertible dynamical system and suppose that 3 is a generator. If $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$ and $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ has a finite subset $\mathbb{C}^{\prime}$ with $H\left(\mathbb{C}^{\prime}\right) \supset H(\mathbb{C})$, then $L(\mathbb{C})=\Omega(\mathbb{C})$ is the set of all $x \in X$ represented in $\mathbb{C}$.
Proof. The assumptions of Lemma 7 are satisfied for $\mathfrak{H}=\overline{\mathfrak{C}}, \mathfrak{H}^{\prime}=\mathfrak{C}^{\prime}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\widetilde{\mathbb{C}}$. If $x \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$, then $x \in V_{k}(x) \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C})$ for all $k$ and hence, by Lemma 7, for all $k$, there is a path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $D_{0} \in \mathbb{C}^{\prime}$ and $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V_{k}(x)$. Since $\mathbb{C}^{\prime}$ is finite, infinitely many of these paths must begin at some fixed $C \in \mathfrak{C}^{\prime}$. By Lemma 2, for two such paths the longer one is a continuation of the shorter one. Hence we can join these infinitely many paths beginning with $C$ to an infinite path $C_{0} C_{1} C_{2} \ldots$ in $\mathbb{C}$, which satisfies then $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{-i}\left(C_{i}\right) \subset \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)=\{x\}$, as 3 is a
generator. By (i) of Theorem I, every path in $\mathfrak{D}$ represents some element of $X$, hence $C_{0} C_{1} C_{2} \ldots$ represents $x$.

On the other hand, every infinite path in $\mathbb{C}$ represents a unique $x \in X$ by (i) of Theorem 1, as 3 is a generator, By Lemma 8, we get $x \in \Omega(\mathbb{C})$.

## § 3. Topological Entropy and Periodic Points

Lemma 11. Suppose $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic and $R \subset X$ is closed and $T$ invariant.
(i) If $\mu$ is a Tinvariant measure on $R$ with $\mu(I)>0$ for some $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$, then there is a T-invariant measure $\mu^{\prime}$ on $R$ with $h\left(\mu^{\prime}\right)>h(\mu)$, where $h$ denotes entropy.
(ii) $h_{\text {top }}(R)=\lim \frac{1}{k} \log$ card $\mathcal{3}_{k}^{\prime}$, where $\mathcal{J}_{k}^{\prime}=\left\{V \in \mathcal{B}_{k}: R \cap V \neq \emptyset\right\}$.

Proof. If $\mu(I)>0$ for $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$, then, by (iii) of Lemma 9, $T^{m}(I) \subset I$ for some $m$ and $\mu=q \mu^{\prime}+(1-q) \mu^{\prime \prime}$, where $0 \leqq q<1$ and $\mu^{\prime \prime}$ is concentrated on $\bigcup_{i=0}^{m-1} T^{i}(I)$. By (iv) of Lemma $9, h\left(\mu^{\prime \prime}\right)=0$ and by Theorem 8.1 of [17] we get $h(\mu)=q h\left(\mu^{\prime}\right)<h\left(\mu^{\prime}\right)$. This proves (i). In order to show (ii) we use the variational principle (Theorem 8.6 of [17]). By (i) it suffices to take the supremum in this theorem only over those $\mu$, which satisfy $\mu(I)=0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{Z}_{\infty}$. Hence $h_{\text {top }}(R)$ does not change, if we consider the 3 -atoms as single points, which is possible by (ii) of Lemma 9. But then $\mathcal{3}$ is a generator and (ii) follows.

We consider the Markov diagram as a $\mathfrak{D} \times \mathfrak{D}$-matrix $M$ with entries 0 and 1. For $C, D \in \mathfrak{D}$ set $M_{C D}=1$, if $C \rightarrow D$, and $M_{C D}=0$ otherwise. As every $C \in \mathfrak{D}$ has at most $N:=$ card 3 successors, $u \rightarrow u M$ is a positive $l^{1}(\mathfrak{D})$-operator with $\|M\|_{1} \leqq N$. The same holds for $M \mid \mathfrak{Q}$, where $\mathfrak{M} \subset \mathfrak{D}$. We denote the spectral radius by $r$. We need the complicated assumption of the following theorem in Chap. II. In particular, it is satisfied, if $\mathfrak{A}$ has a finite subset $\mathfrak{F}$ with $H(\mathfrak{F}) \supset H(\mathfrak{N}) \backslash H(\mathfrak{B})$.

Theorem 7. Suppose either that $(X, T)$ is piecewise invertible and 3 is a generator or that $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic.
(i) Suppose $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{N} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ and $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are closed. If there are $q \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathfrak{F}_{n} \subset \mathfrak{H}$ with card $\mathfrak{F}_{n} \leqq q$ for $n \geqq 1$ and with $H\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathfrak{F}_{n}\right) \supset H(\mathfrak{O}) \backslash H(\mathfrak{B})$ and if for every $n$ and $D \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$ there is a $C \in \mathscr{F}_{n+1}$ with $D \subset C$, then $h_{\text {top }}(\Psi(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B})) \leqq \log r(M \mid \mathfrak{H} \backslash \mathfrak{B})$.
(ii) Suppose $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$ and that there are $\mathfrak{F}_{n}$ with the same properties as in (i) for $\mathfrak{U}=\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}$. If $L(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset$, then

$$
h_{\mathrm{top}}(L(\mathbb{C}))=h_{\mathrm{top}}(\Omega(\mathbb{C}))=\log r(M \mid \mathbb{C}) .
$$

(iii) $h_{\text {top }}(X, T)=\log r(M)$.

Proof. (cf. [2]). Set $\tilde{M}=M \mid(\mathfrak{H} \backslash \mathfrak{B})$ and $\mathfrak{Y}_{k}^{\prime}=\left\{V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}: V \cap \Psi(\mathcal{H}, \mathfrak{B}) \neq \emptyset\right\}$. Fix $k \geqq 0$. If $V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}^{\prime}$, we find by Lemma 7 a path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ in $\mathfrak{G} \backslash \mathfrak{B}$ with $D_{0} \in \mathfrak{F}_{n}$ for some
$n, D_{k} \not \ddagger H(\mathcal{B})$ and $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V$. Choose $Z_{i} \in \mathcal{Z}$ such that $D_{i} \subset Z_{i}$. Then $V$ $=\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right)$. For all $m>n$ there is a $C_{0} \in \mathfrak{F}_{m}$ with $D_{0} \subset C_{0}$. Set $C_{i}$ $=T\left(C_{i-1}\right) \cap Z_{i}$. Then $D_{i} \subset C_{i}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq k$, as $D_{i}=T\left(D_{i-1}\right) \cap Z_{i}$, and $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ is a path in $\mathfrak{A}$, since $\mathfrak{H}$ is closed. We have $C_{i} \notin \mathfrak{B}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq k$, because otherwise $C_{k} \in \mathfrak{B}$, as $\mathfrak{B}$ is closed, and then $D_{k} \subset C_{k} \subset H(\mathfrak{B})$, a contradiction. Hence for $V \in \mathfrak{\mathcal { O }}_{k}^{\prime}$ there is an $n$ such that for all $m \geqq n$ there is a path $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ in $\mathfrak{H} \backslash \mathfrak{B}$ with $C_{0} \in \mathcal{F}_{m}$ and $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(C_{i}\right) \subset V$. Since $\mathcal{3}_{k}^{\prime}$ is finite we find such an $m$ independent of $\boldsymbol{V}$. The number of these paths is $\sum_{C \in \tilde{Y}_{m}} \sum_{D \in \mathscr{M}} \tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)}$, where $\tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)}$ denotes an entry of the matrix $\tilde{M}^{k}$. The elements of $\widehat{\mathcal{Z}}_{k}^{\prime}$ are pairwise disjoint. Hence different $V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}^{\prime}$ give rise to different paths $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$, as $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(C_{i}\right) \subset V$, and

$$
\operatorname{card} \mathcal{Z}_{k}^{\prime} \leqq \sum_{C \in \widetilde{\dddot{O}} m} \sum_{D \in \mathfrak{U}} \tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)} \leqq q\left\|\tilde{M}^{k}\right\|_{1} .
$$

This implies $h_{\text {top }}(\Psi(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})) \leqq \log r(\tilde{M})$ proving (i). If $\mathcal{B}$ is not a generator, we use Lemma 11.

For (ii) we set $\mathfrak{U}=\overline{\mathfrak{C}}, \mathfrak{B}=\tilde{\mathbb{C}}$ and for (iii) we set $\mathfrak{X}=\mathfrak{D}, \mathfrak{B}=\emptyset, \mathfrak{F}_{n}=\mathfrak{3}$ for all n. We get then by (i) that

$$
h_{\text {top }}(L(\mathbb{C})) \leqq h_{\text {top }}(\Omega(\mathbb{C})) \leqq \log r(M \mid \mathbb{C})
$$

as $L(\mathbb{C}) \subset \Omega(\mathbb{C})$, and that $h_{\text {top }}(X, T) \leqq \log r(M)$. On the other hand we have $\left\|\tilde{M}^{k}\right\|_{1}=\sup _{C} \sum_{D} \tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)}$. For fixed $C$, we get by $\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}$ a map from the set of all paths $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ of length $k$ in $\mathfrak{D}$ with $D_{0}=C$ to the set $\mathcal{Z}_{k}$, which is injective by Lemma 2. Hence $\left\|M^{k}\right\|_{1} \leqq \operatorname{card} \mathcal{Z}_{k}$. Furthermore, if $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{k}$ is in $\mathfrak{C}$, then it is an initial segment of infinitely many finite paths in $\mathbb{C}$ and occurs therefore infinitely often in a path representing a $z$ of Theorem 2. Hence $T^{j}(z) \in \bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V \in \mathfrak{Z}_{k}$ for infinitely many $j$ and $\omega(z) \cap V \neq \emptyset$, as $V$ is closed. Now $\omega(z)=L(\mathbb{C})$ by Theorem 4, if $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, and by Theorem 2 and the fact that $L(\mathbb{C})=\Omega(\mathbb{C})$, if $\mathcal{3}$ is a generator. This gives $V \in \mathfrak{Z}_{k}^{\prime \prime}$ $:=\left\{V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}: V \cap L(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset\right\}$. Hence $\left\|(M \mid \mathfrak{C})^{k}\right\|_{1} \leqq \operatorname{card} \mathcal{Z}_{k}^{\prime \prime}$. This and $\left\|M^{k}\right\|_{1} \leqq \operatorname{card} \mathcal{Z}_{k}$ imply (ii) and (iii) using Lemma 11.

Now we consider periodic points of $(X, T)$. We call a path $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ a closed path of length $n$, if $D_{i}=D_{i+n}$ for $i \geqq 0$.

Theorem 8. Suppose $x \in X$ satisfies $T^{n}(x)=x$.
(i) If for all $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ with $x \in D$ there is a $k$ with $V_{k}(x) \subset D$, then there is a unique closed path of length $n$ in the Markov diagram which represents $x$.
(ii) If $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic, $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)=\{x\}$ and $x \in b d$ for some $D \in \mathcal{D}$, then there are finitely many (at least one) closed paths in the Markov
diagram of length $n$ or $2 n$ representing $x$. If $(X, T)$ is piecewise increasing, then the length of these paths is $n$.

Proof. Existence: By (i) of Theorem 1, we find a path $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ which represents $x$. Then $D_{r n} D_{r n+1} D_{r n+2} \ldots$ represents $T^{r n}(x)=x$ for all $r$. If there is a $k$ with $D_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)=D_{n} \cap V_{k}(x)$, then $D_{i}=D_{i+n}$ for $i \geqq k$ by (ii) of Theorem 1 and we get a closed path $D_{j n} D_{j n+1} \ldots$ of length $n$ representing $x$, where $j$ is such that $j n \geqq k$. This happens always in case of (i). In case of (ii) it may happen that $D_{r n}=\{x\}$ for some $r$. Then $D_{r n+n}=\{x\}$ and we get a closed path of length $n$ as above. Otherwise suppose that $x$ is the left endpoint of $D_{0}$ (cf. Lemma 3). Then $T^{n}(x)=x$ is also an endpoint of $D_{n}$ by the definition of successor. If it is the left endpoint then we find a $V_{k}(x)$ with $D_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)=D_{n} \cap V_{k}(x)$, since $D_{n} \neq\{x\}$ and $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} V_{k}(x)=\{x\}$, and get a closed path of length $n$ as above. This happens always, if ( $X, T$ ) is piecewise increasing. If $x$ is the right endpoint of $D_{n}$, then $T^{n}$ is decreasing in a neighbourhood of $x$, and $T^{2 n}(x)=x$ is the left endpoint of $D_{2 n}$. As above, we find a $V_{k}(x)$ with $D_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)=D_{2 n} \cap V_{k}(x)$ and get a closed path of length $2 n$.

Uniqueness: Suppose $D_{0} D_{1} D_{2} \ldots$ and $C_{0} C_{1} C_{2} \ldots$ are closed paths representing $x$. In case of (i) we find a $k$ with $D_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)=V_{k}(x)=C_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)$. Hence, by (ii) of Theorem $1, D_{i}=C_{i}$ for $i \geqq k$. As the paths are closed, we get $D_{i}=C_{i}$ for $i \geqq 0$. In case of (ii) there are four possibilities for $D_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)$ with large enough $k$. It can be $V_{k}(x), V_{k}(x) \cap\{y: y \leqq x\}, V_{k}(x) \cap\{y: y \geqq x\}$, or $\{x\}$. The same holds for $C_{0} \cap V_{k}(x)$. We get as above, that there are at most four different closed paths representing $x$.

Remark. (i) Suppose that $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic and that 3 is a generator. By Lemma 3, the requirements of (i) of Theorem 8 hold for $x \notin \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{i}(K)$, and the requirements of (ii) of Theorem 8 hold for $x \in \bigcup_{i=0}^{i=\infty} T^{i}(K)$. Hence every $x$ of period $n$ is represented by a closed path, which is unique and of length $n$, if $x$ is not one of the finitely many periodic points in $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{i}(K)$.
(ii) The fixed point $y$ of the example in $\S 2$ above is represented by the path $K_{1} K_{2} K_{3} \ldots$, which is not closed.

## §4. A Two Dimensional Example

It seems to be difficult to compute the Markov diagram for higher dimensional $(X, T)$. One can compute it for the following simple class of transformations $T_{a}$ in $[0,1]^{2}$. Set $I=\left[0, \frac{2}{5}\right], J=\left(\frac{2}{5}, 1\right]$ and $K=[0,1]$ and define $T_{a}(x, y)=\left(1-y, \frac{5}{2} x\right)$ for $(x, y) \in I \times K$ and $T_{a}(x, y)=\left(\frac{5}{3} a\left(x-\frac{2}{5}\right), y\right)$ for $(x, y) \in J \times K$, where $a \in\left(\frac{2}{5}, 1\right)$. The points in $\left\{\frac{2}{5}\right\} \times K$ and their inverse images are doubled and $T_{a}$ is extended continuously (cf. the introduction), in order to get a piecewise invertible dynamical system. One can show that $3=\{I \times K, J \times K\}$ is a generator. We compute the Markov diagram only for $a=0.43 \ldots$ and write $T$ for $T_{a}$. The intervals $I_{1}, I_{2}, J_{1}, J_{2}, K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are indicated in Fig. 2 and defined such that


Fig. 2
the following hold:

$$
\begin{gathered}
J_{1} \times K=\left(\frac{2}{5}, a\right] \times K=T(J \times K) \cap(J \times K), \\
T\left(J_{1} \times K\right)=I_{1} \times K, \quad T\left(I_{1} \times K\right)=(I \cup J) \times K_{1},
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
T\left(I \times K_{1}\right)= & J_{2} \times K, \quad T\left(J \times K_{1}\right)=\left(I \cup J_{1}\right) \times K_{1}, \quad T\left(J_{2} \times K\right)=\left(I_{2} \cup J_{1}\right) \times K, \\
& T\left(I_{2} \times K\right)=(I \cup J) \times K_{2}, \quad T\left(J \times K_{2}\right)=\left(I \cup J_{1}\right) \times K_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally we have $T\left(I \times K_{2}\right)=I_{1} \times K$ because of the choice of $a$. Using these equations one gets the Markov diagram of $T$ :


One easily sees that $\Gamma$ consists of three irreducible subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$. Since $\mathfrak{D}$ is finite, we have $L_{\infty}=\emptyset$ (cf. Theorem 5). Hence all $\omega$-limit sets are in some $L(\mathbb{C})$ $=\Omega(\mathbb{C})$ with $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$. One gets $L(\mathbb{C})$, if one takes away $T^{-k}(H(\tilde{\mathbb{C}}))$ for $k=0,1,2, \ldots$ from $H(\overline{\mathbb{C}})$. In this way one gets that the three sets $L(\mathbb{C})$ are a product of two Cantor sets, a finite union of products of an interval and a Cantor set, and a finite union of rectangles. A similar result holds for arbitrary $a \in\left(\frac{2}{5}, 1\right)$, but there can be a countable number of topologically transitive subsets $L(\mathbb{C})$.

## II. Piecewise Monotonic Transformations

Throughout Chap. II we suppose that $(X, T)$ is piecewise monotonic.

## § 1. The Structure of the Markov Diagram

Our first goal is to show that the matrix $M$ introduced in $\S 3$ of Chap. I behaves in some sense like a finite matrix. Recall Lemma 3, which says that all elements of $\mathfrak{D}$ are closed intervals. This is used permanently throughout this chapter. We call the endpoints of the intervals in 3 critical points and denote the set of critical points by $K$. The cardinality of $K$ is at most twice the cardinality of $\mathcal{3}$. We call a subinterval of $X$ critical, if it has an endpoint in $K$. For a subinterval $I$ of some element of 3 set $\alpha(I)=\min \left\{i \geqq 1: T^{i}(I) \cap K \neq \emptyset\right\}$ and $\alpha(I)=\infty$, if this set is empty.

Lemma 12. (i) Suppose $C \in \mathfrak{D}$ has more than one successor. Then there are two successors of $C$, each of which has one common endpoint with $T(C)$ and has the other endpoint in $K$ (its two endpoints may coincide). All other successors of $C$ are in 3 .
(ii) If $D \in \mathfrak{D}$, set $D_{i}=T^{i}(D)$. For $0<i<\alpha(D), D_{i}$ is then in $\mathcal{D}$, is not critical and is the only successor of $D_{i-1}$. If $\alpha(D)<\infty$, then the successors of $D_{\alpha(D)-1}$ are $T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \cap Z \neq \emptyset$ for $Z \in \mathcal{3}$, which are all critical. If $\alpha(D)=\infty$, then $D$ is contained in some 3 -atom.

Proof. (i) Since $C$ has more than one successor, the endpoints of the interval $T(C)$ are contained in two different elements $Z$ and $Z^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{Z}$. Hence $T(C) \cap Z$ has a common endpoint with $T(C)$ and a common endpoint with $Z$. The same holds for $T(C) \cap Z^{\prime}$. For all other $Y \in \mathcal{Z}$, one has either $T(C) \cap Y=\emptyset$ or $T(C) \cap Y$ $=Y$.
(ii) Suppose we have shown that $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{D}$. If $i<\alpha(D)-1$, then $T\left(D_{i}\right) \cap K=\emptyset$. As $T\left(D_{i}\right)$ is an interval, we get $T\left(D_{i}\right) \subset Z$ for some $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$. Hence $D_{i+1}=T\left(D_{i}\right)$ is not critical and the only successor of $D_{i}$. If $\alpha(D)<\infty$ and $i=\alpha(D)-1$ then $T\left(D_{i}\right) \cap K \neq \emptyset$. If $T\left(D_{i}\right) \subset Z$ for some $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$, then $T\left(D_{i}\right)=T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \cap Z$ is critical and the only successor of $D_{\alpha(D)-1}$. Otherwise, the successors of $D_{\alpha(D)-1}$ are $T\left(D_{i}\right) \cap Z=T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \cap Z \neq \emptyset$ for $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$, which are all critical by (i). If $\alpha(D)=\infty$, choose $Z_{i} \in \mathcal{Z}$, such that $D_{i}=T^{i}(D) \subset Z_{i}$. Then $D \subset \bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right)$, which is a $\mathcal{Z}^{-}$ atom.

Now we consider a critical element $D \in \mathfrak{D}$. Set $\mathfrak{D}_{0}=3$ and $\mathfrak{D}_{i+1}=\mathfrak{D}_{i} \cup v\left(\mathfrak{D}_{i}\right)$, where $v$ is defined in $\S 2$ of Chap. I.

Lemma 13. Suppose that $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ has endpoints $c$ and $x$ with $c \in K$ and that $\alpha(D)<\infty$. Set $D_{i}=T^{i}(D) \in \mathfrak{D}$ for $0 \leqq i<\alpha(D)$ (cf. Lemma 12). Then all successors of $D_{\alpha(\mathcal{D})-1}$ are in 3 , except at most two. At most one of these two successors, call it $C$, is not in $\mathcal{D}_{\alpha(D)}$. If $C$ exists, then $C$ has endpoints $T^{\alpha(D)}(x)$ and $c^{\prime}$ with $c^{\prime} \in K$ (its two endpoints may coincide).

Proof. As $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{D}$ for $0 \leqq i<\alpha(D)$ we find $Z_{i} \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $D_{i}=T^{i}(D) \subset Z_{i}$. Set $E_{0}=Z_{0}$ and $E_{i}=T\left(E_{i-1}\right) \cap Z_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i<\alpha(D)$. We get by induction that $D_{i} \subset E_{i}$ and that $D_{i}$ and $E_{i}$ have the common endpoint $T^{i}(c)$ for $0 \leqq i<\alpha(D)$, since $T^{i}(c) \in D_{i} \subset Z_{i}$. For $i=0$ this holds, since the endpoint $c$ of $D$ is in $K$ and $D \subset Z_{0}$. Similarly, $T\left(D_{\alpha(D)-1}\right) \subset T\left(E_{\alpha(D)-1}\right)$ and these two intervals have the common endpoint $T^{\alpha(D)}(c)$. The other endpoint of $T\left(D_{\alpha(D)-1}\right)=T^{\alpha(D)}(D)$ is $T^{\alpha(D)}(x)$. Let $Z, Z^{\prime} \in 3$ be such that $T^{\alpha(D)}(c) \in Z$ and $T^{\alpha(D)}(x) \in Z^{\prime}$. Set $E_{\alpha(D)}=T\left(E_{\alpha(D)-1}\right) \cap Z$. Then $T^{\alpha(D)}(c) \in E_{\alpha(D)}$, hence $E_{\alpha(D)} \neq \emptyset$. As $E_{0} \in 3$ and $E_{i} \rightarrow E_{i+1}$ holds, we get $E_{\alpha(D)} \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha(D)}$. Suppose first that $Z=Z^{\prime}$, i.e. $T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \subset Z$ is the only successor of $D_{\alpha(D)-1}$. Together with $T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \cap K \neq \emptyset$ this implies that one of the endpoints of $T^{\alpha(D)}(D)$ is in $K$. If $T^{\alpha(D)}(c) \in K$, then $T^{\alpha(D)}(D)$ satisfies the requirements of $C$. If $T^{\alpha(D)}(x) \in K$, then $T^{\alpha(D)}(D)=T\left(D_{\alpha(D)-1}\right)$ has one endpoint in common with $Z$ and one in common with $T\left(E_{\alpha(D)-1}\right)$. This implies $T^{\alpha(D)}(D)=E_{\alpha(D)} \in \mathfrak{D}_{\alpha(D)}$ and $C$ does not exist. Now suppose $Z \neq Z^{\prime}$. For all $Y \in \mathcal{Z}$ between (with respect to the order relation) $Z$ and $Z^{\prime}$, one has $T^{\alpha(\mathcal{D})}(D) \cap Y=Y \in \mathcal{Z}$. Furthermore, $T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \cap Z$ $=E_{\alpha(D)} \in \mathcal{D}_{\alpha(D)}$, since $T^{\alpha(D)}(D)$ and $T\left(E_{\alpha(D)-1}\right)$ have the common endpoint $T^{\alpha(D)}(c)$. Finally $T^{\alpha(D)}(D) \cap Z^{\prime}$ is $C$, as it has a common endpoint with $Z^{\prime}$ and its other endpoint is $T^{\alpha(D)}(x)$.

Now we use Lemmas 12 and 13 to build up the Markovdiagram. For the sets $\mathfrak{D}_{i}$ defined above we have $\mathfrak{D}=\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{D}_{i}$. We start with $\mathfrak{D}_{0}=\mathcal{B}$. In a first step we add $\mathfrak{E}_{1}:=\mathfrak{D}_{1} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{0}$ to $\mathfrak{D}_{0}$. In the $k$-th step we add $\mathfrak{E}_{k}:=\mathfrak{D}_{k} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{k-1}$ to $\mathfrak{D}_{k-1}$. We fix some $D \in \mathcal{D}_{0}=3$ and observe, what successors of $D$ we get in $\mathfrak{E}_{1}$ in the first step. Then we observe what successors of these successors in $\mathfrak{E}_{1}$ we get in $\mathfrak{E}_{2}$ in the second step and so on.

By Lemma $12, D_{i}=T^{i}(D)$ is the only successor of $D_{i-1}$ for $1 \leqq i<\alpha(D)$. Hence in the $i$-th step we add the only successor $D_{i}$ of $D_{i-1}$ to $\mathcal{D}_{i-1}$, if $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{E}_{i}$. If $D_{i} \notin \mathfrak{C}_{i}$, then $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{D}_{i-1}$, by definition of $\mathfrak{D}_{i}$, and $D_{i}$ was added in an earlier step. All successors of $D_{\alpha(D)-1}$ are in $\mathcal{B}=\mathfrak{D}_{0}$ except at most two, say $B$ and $C$, by Lemma 12. We add $B$ and $C$ in the $\alpha(D)$-th step, if they are in $\mathfrak{F}_{\alpha(D)}$. Furthermore $B$ and $C$ are critical.

Now consider a critical interval $C \in \mathfrak{E}_{k}$ with $k \geqq 1$. As above $C_{i}=T^{i}(C)$ is the only successor of $C_{i-1}$ for $1 \leqq i<\alpha(C)$. Hence in the $(k+i)$-th step we add $C_{i}$ to $\mathfrak{D}_{k+i-1}$, if $C_{i} \in \mathfrak{E}_{k+i}$. By Lemma 13, all successors of $C_{\alpha(C)-1}$ except at most one, call it $C^{\prime}$, are in $\mathfrak{D}_{\alpha(\mathcal{C})} \cup \mathcal{B}=\mathfrak{D}_{\alpha(\mathcal{C})}$. Since $k \geqq 1, C^{\prime}$ is the only successor of $C_{\alpha(C)-1}$, which need not be in $\mathcal{D}_{k+\alpha(C)-1}$. Hence we add $C^{\prime}$ in the $(k+\alpha(C)$ )-th step, if $C^{\prime} \in \mathfrak{E}_{k+\alpha(C)}$. Furthermore $C^{\prime}$ is critical by Lemma 12, so that one can iterate this procedure just described for $C \in \mathfrak{F}_{k}$.


Fig. 3

The part of the Markov diagram one gets is shown in Fig. 3. The elements of $\mathfrak{E}_{j}$ are placed in the $j$-th column. Since one has such a part for every $D \in \mathcal{Z}$, we get card $\mathfrak{E}_{k} \leqq 2$ card 3 for all $k$. Figure 3 shows the case where all elements of $\mathfrak{D}$, which can be different, are different. It may happen, that a $D$ shown to be in $\mathfrak{E}_{j}$ by Fig. 3 coincides with a $C \in \mathfrak{F}_{i}$ for $i<j$. Then $D$ is not added in step $j$, but has already occured in the earlier step $i$. This makes the sets $\mathfrak{F}_{k}$ for $k \geqq j$ smaller. If $\mathfrak{E}_{k}=\emptyset$ for some $k$, then $\mathfrak{D}$ is finite. Otherwise, there is a $\gamma \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the sets $\mathfrak{E}_{k}$ for $k \geqq \gamma$ have all the same cardinality. Then it follows from the above results illustrated in Fig. 3, that the relation on $\mathcal{D} \times \mathfrak{D}$ given by $D \rightarrow C$ is a bijective map from $\mathscr{E}_{k}$ to $\mathscr{E}_{k+1}$ for $k>\gamma$.
Theorem 9 (cf. § 1 of [11]).
(i) For $k \geqq 0$ we have card $\mathfrak{E}_{k} \leqq 2$ card 3 .
(ii) There is a $\gamma \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for $k>\gamma$ the relation in $\mathfrak{D} \times \mathfrak{D}$ given by $C \rightarrow D$ is a bijection between $\mathfrak{E}_{k}$ and $\mathfrak{E}_{k+1}$, i.e. $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathcal{D}_{\gamma}$ is the disjoint union of finitely many sets $\mathfrak{I}=\left\{C_{i}: i>\gamma\right\}$ with $C_{i} \rightarrow C_{i+1}$ and $C_{i} \in \mathfrak{E}_{i}$ for $i>\gamma$.
(iii) Suppose that $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{D}$ for $0 \leqq i<m$ with $D_{i-1} \rightarrow D_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i<m$, that $D_{0}$ is critical and that $D_{m-1}$ has more than one successor. Then all successors of $D_{m-1}$ are in $\mathcal{3}$ except at most two, one of which is in $\mathfrak{D}_{m}$.
Proof. We have shown (i) and (ii) above. In order to show (iii), choose $j<m$ maximal, such that $D_{j}$ is critical. Then $j \geqq 0$, as $D_{0}$ is critical, and $\alpha\left(D_{j}\right)=m-j$ by Lemma 12, as $T\left(D_{m-1}\right)$ is the union of the successors of $D_{m-1}$ and hence $T\left(D_{m-1}\right) \cap K \neq \emptyset$. The result follows now from Lemma 13 with $D=D_{j}$.

We prove two corollaries of Theorem 9. The first one shows, that there are not "many" paths at infinity in the Markov diagram, and a consequence of this fact. For this we use the matrix $M$ introduced in $\S 3$ of Chap. I. The second corollary shows the assumption of Theorem 5.
Corollary 1. (i) If $n \rightarrow \infty$, then $r\left(M \mid \mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}\right) \rightarrow 1$.
(ii) Let $\mathfrak{H}$ be a subset of $\mathfrak{D}$ with $r(L)>1$, where $L=M \mid \mathfrak{N}$. Then the $\mathfrak{H} \times \mathfrak{M}$ matrix $L$ has a nonnegative left eigenvector $u \in l^{1}(\mathfrak{H})$ and a nonnegative right eigenvector $v \in l^{\infty}(\mathfrak{H})$ for the eigenvalue $\lambda=r(L)$.
Proof. (i) Suppose that $C \in \mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$ is critical. Set $C_{0}=C$. Suppose that $C_{i}$ is the only successor of $C_{i-1}$ in $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$ for $1 \leqq i<m$ and that $C_{m-1}$ has more than one successor in $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$. Then $m \geqq n$ by (iii) of Theorem 9 . Furthermore all
$D \in \mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$, which have more than one successor in $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$, have only two successors in $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$ by (iii) of Theorem 9 , which are both critical by (i) of Lemma 12. This implies that the number of paths of length $n k$ in $\mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$, which begin at some fixed $D \in \mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$, is at most $2^{k}$. This gives $r\left(M \mid \mathfrak{D} \backslash \mathcal{D}_{n}\right) \leqq \sqrt[n]{2}$.
(ii) Set $\mathfrak{l}^{\prime \prime}=\mathfrak{A} \backslash \mathfrak{D}_{n}$, where $n$ is such that $r(S)<r(L)$ and $S=L \mid \mathfrak{H}^{\prime \prime}$. This is possible by (i). Set $\mathfrak{H}^{\prime}=\mathfrak{A} \backslash \mathfrak{H}^{\prime \prime}$. Let $L=\left(\begin{array}{ll}P & Q \\ R & S\end{array}\right)$ be the partition of the $\mathfrak{A} \times \mathfrak{A}$ matrix $L$ according to the partition of $\mathfrak{A}$ into $\mathfrak{A}^{\prime}$ and $\mathfrak{A}^{\prime \prime}$. Then $(I-x S)^{-1}$ $=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{k} S^{k}$ exists for $|x| \leqq \lambda^{-1}$ and has nonnegative entries for $0 \leqq x \leqq \lambda^{-1}$, as $\lambda:=r(L)>r(S)$. Here $I$ is the unit matrix. For $E(x)=P+x Q(I-x S)^{-1} R$ one has the following matrix equation for $|x| \leqq \lambda^{-1}$ (cf. Lemma 2 of [11]).

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I-x E(x) & -x Q(I-x S)^{-1} \\
0 & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0 \\
-x R & I-x S
\end{array}\right]=I-x L
$$

Since $\lambda=r(L)$, we find an $x$ with $|x|=\lambda^{-1}$, such that $I-x L$ is not invertible. By this matrix equation, we get that $I-x E(x)$ is not invertible, i.e. $r(E(x)) \geqq \lambda$. Since the entries of $E(|x|)$ are greater than or equal to the absolute values of the entries of $E(x)$, we get $r\left(E\left(\lambda^{-1}\right)\right)=r(E(|x|)) \geqq r(E(x)) \geqq \lambda$. Remark that the $\mathfrak{M}^{\prime}$ $\times \mathfrak{H}^{\prime}$-matrix $E(x)$ is a finite matrix. For $t \in\left(0, \lambda^{-1}\right]$ the map $t \rightarrow r(E(t))$ is continuous and increasing, since the entries of $E(t)$ are continuous and increasing in $t$. Since $r\left(E\left(\lambda^{-1}\right)\right) \geqq \lambda$, we find a $y \in\left(0, \lambda^{-1}\right]$ with $r(E(y))=y^{-1}$. Since $E(y)$ has nonnegative entries, this implies that $I-y E(y)$ is not invertible. Hence $I-y L$ is not invertible by the above matrix equation. As $\lambda=r(L)$, we get $y=\lambda^{-1}$. Since $E(y)$ is a finite matrix, we find a nonnegative vector $u_{1}$ with $u_{1}(I-y E(y))=0$. Set $u_{2}=y u_{1} Q(I-y S)^{-1}$, which is a nonnegative $l^{1}\left(\mathfrak{Q}^{\prime \prime}\right)$-vector, since the rows of $Q$ are in $l^{1}\left(\mathfrak{U}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Hence $u=\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)$ is a nonnegative $l^{1}(\mathfrak{U l})$-vector and $u(I-y L)=0$ by the above matrix equation.

Carrying out the same for the transpose of $L$, one gets a nonnegative $l^{\infty}(\mathfrak{M})$ vector $v$ with $\left(I-\lambda^{-1} L\right) v=0$.

Corollary 2. (i) A closed subset $\mathfrak{A}$ of $\mathfrak{D}$ contains only finitely many elements, which have no predecessor in $\mathfrak{H}$. If $\mathfrak{G}$ is one of the sets in (ii) of Theorem 9 , then $\mathfrak{S} \cap \mathfrak{U}=\emptyset$ or $\mathfrak{G} \backslash \mathfrak{U}$ is finite.
(ii) If $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ is perfect, then there is a finite subset $\Gamma^{\prime}$ of $\Gamma$ such that $\mathfrak{B}$ $=\bigcup_{\mathbb{E} \in \Gamma^{\prime}} \overline{\mathbb{C}}$.

Proof. (i) Suppose $\mathfrak{G}=\left\{C_{i}: i>\gamma\right\}$. If $C_{j} \in \mathfrak{U}$, then $C_{i} \in \mathfrak{A}$ for $i \geqq j$, since $C_{i} \rightarrow C_{i+1}$ for $i>\gamma$ and $\mathfrak{Q}$ is closed. Hence $\mathfrak{S} \backslash \mathfrak{H}$ is finite. Furthermore $\mathfrak{G}$ contains at most one $D \in \mathfrak{A}$, which has no predecessor in $\mathfrak{X}$. We get (i), since there are only finitely many $\mathfrak{G}$ by Theorem 9 and since $\mathfrak{D}_{\gamma}$ is finite.
(ii) Set $\Gamma^{\prime}=\{\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma: \mathbb{C} \cap \mathfrak{B} \neq \emptyset\}$. Fix a $D \in \mathfrak{B}$. We show $D \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ for some $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma^{\prime}$. Set $D_{0}=D$. As $\mathfrak{B}$ is perfect, we find $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{B}$ for $i \geqq 1$ with $D_{i} \rightarrow D_{i-1}$. Let $\mathfrak{H}$ $=\left\{C_{i}: i>\gamma\right\}$ be one of the sets in (ii) of Theorem 9. If $D_{l}=C_{r}$ and $D_{m}=C_{s}$, where $m>l \geqq 0$ and $s \geqq r>\gamma$, then we have a closed path $D_{m} \rightarrow D_{m-1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow D_{1}$ $=C_{r} \rightarrow C_{r+1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow C_{s}=D_{m}$. It is contained in some $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$. Hence $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma^{\prime}$ and
$D \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}$. If this holds for no $\mathfrak{5}$, then each of the finitely many sets $\mathfrak{S}$ contains only finitely many $D_{i}$. Hence there is an $i_{0}$ such that $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{D}_{\gamma}$ for all $i \geqq i_{0}$. As $\mathfrak{D}_{\gamma}$ is finite, we get $D_{k}=D_{j}$ for some $j$ and $k$ with $i_{0} \leqq j<k$. This gives again a closed path $D_{k} \rightarrow D_{k-1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow D_{j}=D_{k}$ and we find a $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$ with $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma^{\prime}$ and $D \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ as above. Hence $\mathfrak{B} \subset \bigcup_{\mathfrak{G} \in \Gamma^{\prime}} \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ follows. On the other hand, as $\mathfrak{B}$ is closed, $\mathfrak{B} \cap \mathfrak{C} \neq \emptyset$ implies $\overline{\mathfrak{C}} \subset \mathfrak{B}$ and we get equality. If $\mathfrak{H} \cap \overline{\mathfrak{C}} \neq \emptyset$ then $\mathfrak{S} \backslash \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ is finite by (i). Hence by (ii) of Theorem 9 and as $\boldsymbol{D}_{\gamma}$ is finite, we can make $\Gamma^{\prime}$ finite.

## § 2. The Nonwandering Set

In Corollary 2 of Theorem 9 we have proved the requirement of Theorem 5. The next two results (Lemma 14 and Theorem 10) will be used to show the requirements of Theorems 6 and 7. The results, which follow from these theorems, are summarized in Theorem 11.
Lemma 14. (i) There are only finitely many critical $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$.
(ii) There is a closed $T$-invariant subset $Y$ of $X$, such that all $\omega$-limit points in $(X, T)$ are also $\omega$-limit points in $(Y, T \mid Y)$, and such that $(Y, T \mid Y)$ is a piecewise monotonic dynamical system, whose Markov diagram contains no critical $D$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \nsubseteq D$ for all $i \geqq 1$.

Proof. (i) By (ii) of Lemma 12 each set $\mathfrak{5}$ (cf. Theorem 9) contains at most one critical $D$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$. As there are only finitely many sets $\mathfrak{G}$ by Theorem 9 and as $\boldsymbol{D}_{\gamma}$ is finite, we get (i).
(ii) Suppose $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ is critical with $\alpha(D)=\infty$. By definition of the Markov diagram, we find a path $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ with $C_{0} \in 3$ and $C_{k}=D$. Choose $Z_{i} \in 3$ such that $C_{i} \subset Z_{i}$ and set $V=\bigcap_{i=0}^{k} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i}\right)$. By Lemma 1 we get $T^{k}(V)=D$. If $V$ does not have a common endpoint with $Z_{0}$, then $V^{\prime}=\bigcap_{i=0}^{k-1} T^{-i}\left(Z_{i+1}\right)$ has no common endpoint with $T\left(Z_{0}\right)$, as $T \mid Z_{0}$ is monotone, and we have $T^{k-1}\left(V^{\prime}\right)=D$. Choosing $k$ minimal, we can suppose that $V$ has a common endpoint with $Z_{0}$. Remark that $D$ itself has a common endpoint with $Z_{k}$. Furthermore $V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}$ is a 3-atom, since $T^{k}(V)=D$ and $\alpha(D)=\infty$ (cf. Lemma 12). As $K$ is finite, (i) of Lemma 9 implies that there are only finitely many such $V$.

Now fix a critical $D \in \mathfrak{D}$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \not \subset D$ for $i \geqq 1$. Let $\mathbb{E}$ be the set of all critical intervals $V$, such that $T^{k}(V)=D$ for some $k \geqq 0$ and that $V \in \mathcal{Z}_{m}$ for some $m \geqq k$. By the above, we get that $\mathfrak{E} \neq \emptyset$, that $\mathfrak{E} \subset \mathfrak{Z}_{\infty}$ and that $\mathfrak{E}$ is finite. The set $R=\bigcup_{V \in \mathbb{E}} \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{-i}(V)$ is open and $T^{-1}$-invariant. Hence $Y:=X \backslash R$ is closed and $T$-invariant. Suppose there is a $z \in X$ with $T^{i}(z) \in R$ for all $i \geqq 0$. Then $T^{i}(z)$ is in some $V \in \mathscr{E}$ for infinitely many $i$, as $\mathfrak{E}$ is finite. Hence we find $r$ and $s$ with $r<s$ such that $T^{r}(z) \in V$ and $T^{s}(z) \in V$. By (iii) of Lemma 9, we get $T^{s-r}(V) \subset V$, since $T^{s}(z) \in T^{s-r}(V) \cap V$. Because $T^{k}(V)=D$, we get $T^{s-r}(D) \subset D$, a contradiction. Hence for all $z \in R$ there is an $i$ with $T^{i}(z) \in Y$. This implies that the $\omega$-limit set of $z$ in $(X, T)$ is the $\omega$-limit set of $T^{i}(z)$ in $(Y, T \mid Y)$, since $Y$ is closed.

Let $J$ be a closed subinterval of $X$. We call $I$ a boundary interval of $J$, if $I$ contains an endpoint of $J$ and if $I \cap J=U \cap J$ for some $U \in \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} 3_{m}$. Define $g(J)$ as follows: For $V \in \mathfrak{F}$ and $i \geqq 0$, cancel $T^{i}(V)$ from $J$, if $T^{i}(V)$ is a boundary interval of $J$ and then cancel all elements of $R$ from $J$. Call the remaining set $g(J)$. For $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$, we show $g(Z)=Z \backslash R$. To this end suppose that $T^{i}(V)$ is a boundary interval of $Z$ for some $i \geqq 0$ and some $V \in \mathscr{E}$ and that $T^{k}(V)=D$. Then $T^{i}(V) \subset Z$, by (ii) of Lemma 9 and $\mathfrak{E} \subset \boldsymbol{3}_{\infty}$, and $T^{i}(V)$ is a critical interval. For $k<i, T^{i}(V)=T^{i-k}(D)$ is not critical by Lemma 12, hence $k \geqq i$. Now $T^{i}(V) \cap Z$ $=U \cap Z$ implies $T^{i}(V)=U$, where $U \in \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{m}$. Hence $T^{k-i}(U)=D$ and $T^{i}(V)$ $=U \in \mathfrak{E}$. Therefore $T^{i}(V) \subset R$ and $g(Z)=Z \backslash R$. This gives that $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}=\{g(Z): Z \in 3\}$ is a partition of $Y$ into intervals. Next we show for $C \in \mathfrak{D}$ that $g(T(C))$ $=T(g(C))$. Let $Z \in \mathcal{3}$ be such that $C \subset Z$. If $U \in \mathcal{Z}_{m}$ for some $m$ and if $U \cap Z \neq \emptyset$, then $U=Z \cap T^{-1}\left(U^{\prime}\right)$ for some $U^{\prime} \in \mathcal{Z}_{m-1}$. For $V \in \mathbb{E}$ and $i \geqq 0, T^{i}(V) \cap C=U \cap C$ is equivalent with $T^{i+1}(V) \cap T(C)=U^{\prime} \cap T(C)$, as $T: C \rightarrow T(C)$ is a homeomorphism. Hence $T^{i}(V)$ is a boundary interval of $C$, if and only if $T^{i+1}(V)$ is a boundary interval of $T(C)$, since $T \mid C$ is also monotone. Furthermore, if $V \cap C \neq \emptyset$ for $V \in \mathbb{E}$, then $V$ is a boundary interval of $C$, since $V$ is critical and $C$ $\subset Z$. These two facts imply that $g(T(C))=T(g(C))$. Now, for $Z \in З, T(g(Z))$ $=g(T(Z))$ gives that $(Y, T \mid Y)$ is piecewise monotonic with partition $\overline{3}$, since $g(J)$ is a subinterval of $Y$ for every subinterval $J$ of $X$. Finally we prove that $g(J \cap Z)=g(J) \cap g(Z)$, where $Z \in 3$ and $J$ is a closed subinterval of $X$. To this end suppose, that $V \in \mathcal{E}$, that $i \geqq 0$, and that $U \in \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{Z}_{m}$. If $T^{i}(V) \cap Z \neq \emptyset$, then $T^{i}(V) \subset Z$ by (ii) of Lemma 9 and $\mathfrak{E} \subset \mathcal{3}_{\infty}$, and then $T^{i}(V) \cap(J \cap Z)=U \cap(J \cap Z)$ is equivalent with $T^{i}(V) \cap J=U \cap J$ provided that $T^{i}(V) \cap J \neq \emptyset$. Hence, if $T^{i}(V) \cap Z \neq \emptyset$, then $T^{i}(V)$ is a boundary interval of $J \cap Z$ if and only if it is a boundary interval of $J$ or of $Z$. This gives $g(J \cap Z)=g(J) \cap g(Z)$. Together with $T(g(C))=g(T(C))$ this implies that the successors of $g(C)$ are the sets $g(E) \neq \emptyset$, where $E$ is a successor of $C \in \mathfrak{D}$. As $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}=\{g(Z): Z \in \mathcal{Z}\}$, the Markov diagram $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}$ of $(Y, T \mid Y)$ is $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}=\{g(C): C \in \mathfrak{D}\} \backslash\{\theta\}$ with an arrow $g(C) \rightarrow g(E)$ if $C \rightarrow E$ holds in D. One checks that $g(C)$ is a critical interval in $Y$ or empty, if $C \in \mathfrak{D}$ is critical. Hence $\alpha(g(C)) \leqq \alpha(C)$ by Lemma 12 and $\mathfrak{D}$ contains less critical $C$ with $\alpha(C)$ $=\infty$ than $\mathfrak{D}$, since $g(D)=\emptyset$. Repeating this procedure finitely many times, we can get rid of all critical intervals $D \in \mathcal{D}$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \notin D$ for all $i \geqq 1$, by (i). This proves (ii).
Theorem 10. Suppose $\mathfrak{H} \subset \mathfrak{D}$ is closed.
(i) $H(\mathfrak{H})=H\left(\mathfrak{Y}_{1}\right) \cup H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{2}\right) \cup H\left(\mathfrak{U}_{3}\right)$, where $\mathfrak{Q}_{1}$ is a finite subset of $\mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{H}_{2}$ is a finite union of sets $\left\{C_{i} \in \mathfrak{H}: i \geqq 0\right\}$, where $\alpha\left(C_{0}\right)=\infty, C_{i}=T^{i}\left(C_{0}\right)$ and $C_{i} \nsubseteq C_{0}$ for $i \geqq 1$, and $\mathfrak{H}_{3}$ is a finite union of sets $\left\{D_{i} \in \mathfrak{H}: i \geqq 0\right\}$, where $D_{i} \subset D_{i+1}$ for $i \geqq 0$ and all $D_{i}$ have a common left or right endpoint d.
(ii) For every set $\left\{D_{i} \in \mathfrak{H}: i \geqq 0\right\}$ of which $\mathfrak{G}_{3}$ consists the union of the $D_{i}$ is an interval with endpoints $d$ and $x$, say. Then $T^{p}(x)=x$ for some $p$ and $x$ is contained in a nontrivial 3 -atom $I$ with $T^{p}(I) \subset I$ and $I$ contains the other endpoint besides $d$ of every $D_{i}$.
Proof. For $c \in K$ set $\mathfrak{U}_{c}=\{D \in \mathfrak{A}: c \in D\}$. If $Z_{c}$ is that element of $\mathcal{J}$, which contains $c$, then all $D \in \mathfrak{U}_{c}$ are subintervals of $Z_{c}$ and have the common
endpoint c. Hence $A_{c}=H\left(\mathfrak{U}_{c}\right)$ is a subinterval of $Z_{c}$ with endpoint $c$. Let $K_{1}$ $\subset K$ be the set of those $c$, for which there is a $D \in \mathfrak{N}_{c}$ with $D=A_{c}$, i.e.
(1) $c \in K_{1} \Leftrightarrow A_{c} \in \mathfrak{H}$.

Let $K_{2}$ be the set of those $c \in K \backslash K_{1}$ which have nonempty $\mathfrak{A}_{c}$. As $c \in A_{c}$, $E \in \mathfrak{M}$ and $A_{c} \subset E$ imply $E \in \mathfrak{N}_{c}$. Hence
(2) $c \in K_{2} \Rightarrow A_{c} \not \ddagger E$, if $E \in \mathfrak{H}$, and there are $D_{i} \in \mathfrak{H}_{c}$ with $D_{i} \uparrow A_{c}$.

Set $\alpha(c)=\alpha\left(A_{c}\right)$. The endpoints of $A_{c}$ are $c$ and $x_{c}$, say. For $c \in K_{2}$ and $D_{i}$ as in (2) we have $\alpha(c)=\min \alpha\left(D_{i}\right)$ and $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(D_{i}\right) \uparrow T^{\alpha(c)}\left(A_{c}\right)$. Hence for all large $D_{i}$ we get $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(D_{i}\right) \cap Z_{d}=T^{\alpha(c)}\left(A_{c}\right) \cap Z_{d}$ for all $d \in K \cap T^{\alpha(c)}\left(A_{c}\right)$, except one, which we denote by $f(c)$ and which is uniquely determined by $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(x_{c}\right) \in Z_{f(c)}$. Set $\mathfrak{R}$ $=\{D \in \mathfrak{U}: \nexists C \in \mathfrak{A}$ with $C \rightarrow D\} \cup\left\{A_{c}: c \in K_{1} \cup K_{2}\right\}$. Together with (1) and (ii) of Lemma 12 we get for $B \in \mathfrak{R}$ and $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$ with $T^{\alpha(\mathcal{B})}(B) \cap Z \neq \emptyset$ that
(3) $Z \neq Z_{f(c)}$, if $B=A_{c}$ for some $c \in K_{2} \Rightarrow T^{\alpha(B)}(B) \cap Z \in \bigcup_{d \in K} \mathfrak{A}_{d}$.

Furthermore, the intervals $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(D_{i}\right) \cap Z_{f(c)}$, which are in $\mathfrak{H}_{f(c)}$ by Lemma 12 and definition of $f$, increase to $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(A_{c}\right) \cap Z_{f(c)}$. Hence
(4) $c \in K_{2} \Rightarrow T^{x(c)}\left(A_{c}\right) \cap Z_{f(c)} \subset A_{f(c)}$.

Now we can show
(5) $C \in \mathfrak{A} \Rightarrow C \subset T^{i}(B)$ where $B \in \mathfrak{R}$ and $0 \leqq i<\alpha(B)$.

If $C \in \mathfrak{R} \cup \bigcup_{d \in K} \mathfrak{H}_{d}$ then (5) holds. Suppose $C \subset T^{i}(B)$ is shown. Let $E$ $=T(C) \cap Z$ be a successor of $C$, where $Z \in 3$. If $i<\alpha(B)-1$, then $E \subset T^{i+1}(B)$ and (5) follows. If $i=\alpha(B)-1$, then $E \subset T^{\alpha(B)}(B) \cap Z$ and $E$ is a subset of some element of $\Re$ by (3) and (4). Hence (5) is proved by induction, since for every $C \in \mathfrak{A l}$ there is a path from $\mathfrak{R} \cup \bigcup_{d \in K} \mathfrak{A}_{d}$ to $C$ (cf. Fig. 3). Now (5) implies $H(\mathfrak{A l}) \subset \bigcup_{B \in \mathfrak{R}} \bigcup_{0 \leqq i<\alpha(B)} T^{i}(B)$. Set $\mathfrak{R}_{3}=\left\{A_{c}: c \in K_{2}\right\}, \quad \mathfrak{R}_{2}=\left\{B \in \mathfrak{R} \backslash \mathfrak{R}_{3}: \quad \alpha(B)=\infty\right.$, $T^{i}(B) \notin B$ for $\left.i \geqq 1\right\}$ and $\mathfrak{R}_{1}=\mathfrak{R} \backslash\left(\mathfrak{R}_{2} \cup \mathfrak{R}_{3}\right)$. If $B \in \mathfrak{R}_{1}$ and $\alpha(B)=\infty$, then $T^{k}(B) \subset B$ for some $k \geqq 1$. We redefine $\alpha(B)=k$ and get $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T^{i}(B)=\bigcup_{0 \leqq i<\alpha(B)} T^{i}(B)$. Set $\mathfrak{A}_{1}=\left\{T^{i}(B): B \in \mathfrak{R}_{1}, 0 \leqq i<\alpha(B)\right\}$ and $\mathfrak{H}_{2}=\left\{T^{i}(C): C \in \mathfrak{R}_{2}, 0 \leqq i<\infty\right\}$. By (i) of Corollary 2 , we get that $\mathfrak{R}$ is finite. Hence $\mathfrak{Q}_{1}$ and $\mathfrak{R}_{2}$ are finite. Let $\mathfrak{Q}_{3}$ be the union over $c \in K_{2}$ and $0 \leqq j<\alpha(c)$ of the sets $\left\{T^{j}\left(D_{i}\right): i \geqq 1\right\}$ where for every $c$ the $D_{i}$ are as in (2). This union is finite, since $\alpha(c)=\min \alpha\left(D_{i}\right)<\infty$, by (i) of Lemma 14. We have $H(\mathfrak{l l}) \subset H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right) \cup H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right) \cup H\left(\mathfrak{A}_{3}\right)$. By (1), we have $\mathfrak{R}_{1} \cup \mathfrak{R}_{2} \subset \mathfrak{H}$. By (ii) of Lemma 12, we get then $\mathfrak{H}_{1} \subset \mathfrak{H}, \mathfrak{H}_{2} \subset \mathfrak{H}$ and $\mathfrak{H}_{3} \subset \mathfrak{H}$. Hence (i) is shown.

It remains to show (ii). For $d \in K_{2}$, by (i) of Corollary 2, all $D_{i}$ in (2) except finitely many have a $C_{i} \in \mathfrak{A}$ with $C_{i} \rightarrow D_{i}$. By (5), $C_{i} \subset T^{j}(B)$ for some $B \in \mathfrak{R}$. As $d \in D_{i} \subset T\left(C_{i}\right)$, we get $j=\alpha(B)-1<\infty$, since $T^{j+1}(B) \cap K=\emptyset$ for $0 \leqq j<\alpha(B)-1$. Hence $T^{\alpha(B)}(B) \supset D_{i}$. As $\mathfrak{R}$ is finite, we get $T^{\alpha(B)}(B) \supset A_{d}$ for some $B \in \mathfrak{R}$. Since $A_{d} \subset Z_{d}$, we have $T^{\alpha(B)}(B) \cap Z_{d} \supset A_{d}$. Hence (2) and (3) imply that $B=A_{c}$ for some $c \in K_{2}$ and $d=f(c)$. By (4) we get then $T^{\alpha(B)}(B) \cap Z_{d}=A_{d}$. We have shown
(6) $\forall d \in K_{2} \exists c \in K_{2}$ with $f(c)=d$ and $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(A_{c}\right) \cap Z_{d}=A_{d}$.

In particular $f: K_{2} \rightarrow K_{2}$ is surjective and as $K_{2}$ is finite, we get
(7) $f: K_{2} \rightarrow K_{2}$ is bijective.

For $c \in K_{2}$ define $h: \mathfrak{Q}_{c} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}_{f(c)}$ by $h(D)=T^{a(c)}(D) \cap Z_{f(c)}$. If the $D_{i}$ are as in (2), we get from (6) and (7)
(8) $D_{i} \uparrow A_{c} \Rightarrow h\left(D_{i}\right) \uparrow A_{f(c)}$.

Let $c$ and $x_{c}$ be the endpoints of $A_{c}$ and let $c$ and $x_{D}$ be the endpoints of $D \in \mathfrak{U}_{c}$. For large $D \in \mathfrak{U}_{c}$, i.e. $\alpha(D)=\alpha(c)$, we have by definition of $f$ and $h$ and by (8)
(9) $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(x_{D}\right)=x_{h(D)}$ and $T^{\alpha(c)}\left(x_{c}\right)=x_{f(c)}$.

Now fix some $c \in K_{2}$. By (7) we find $c_{0}=c, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}=c$ in $K_{2}$ with $f\left(c_{i}\right)$ $=c_{i+1}$ for $0 \leqq i<n$. By (9) we get $T^{p}\left(x_{c}\right)=x_{c}$, where $p=\alpha\left(c_{1}\right)+\ldots+\alpha\left(c_{n}\right)$. We find a set $\mathfrak{H}=\left\{C_{i}: i>\gamma\right\}$ as in (ii) of Theorem 9 , which contains infinitely many elements of $\mathfrak{A}_{c}$. If $C_{j} \in \mathfrak{A}_{c}$, choose $k<j$ maximal such that $C_{k}$ is critical. By (ii) of Lemma 12, we have $T^{\alpha\left(C_{k}\right)}\left(C_{k}\right) \cap Z_{\mathrm{c}}=C_{j}$. Furthermore $T^{\alpha\left(C_{k}\right)}\left(x_{C_{k}}\right)=x_{C_{j}}$ by Lemma 13 applied to $D=C_{k}$, since $C_{j} \in \mathfrak{W}_{i+\alpha\left\{C_{k}\right\}}$, if $C_{k} \in \mathfrak{G}_{i}$, and $i>\gamma \geqq 0$. As $x_{C_{j}} \in C_{j} \subset Z_{c}$, by definition of $f$ we get $C_{k} \in \mathfrak{A}_{f^{-1}(c)}=\mathfrak{A}_{c_{n-1}}$ and $h\left(C_{k}\right)=C_{j}$. Furthermore $C_{i} \notin \mathfrak{A}_{c}$ for $k<i<j$, since $C_{i}$ is not critical. We can iterate this step and find a $j^{\prime}<j$ with $C_{j^{\prime}} \in \mathfrak{A}_{c}$ and $h^{n}\left(C_{j^{\prime}}\right)=C_{j}$. Furthermore, $C_{i} \notin \mathfrak{A}_{c}$ for $j^{\prime}<i<j$, if $c_{i} \neq c$ for $0<i<n$. Now fix some $m$ with $C_{m} \in \mathfrak{S} \cap \mathfrak{A}_{c}$, such that $x_{C_{j}} \in V_{p}\left(x_{c}\right)$ (this is defined before Theorem 1) for all $j \geqq m$ with $C_{j} \in \mathfrak{A}_{c} \cap \mathfrak{G}$. As $\mathfrak{G} \cap \mathfrak{V}_{c}$ is infinite, there is a $j>m$ with $C_{m} \subsetneq C_{j}$. We find $j^{\prime}<j$ as above. If $C_{j^{\prime}} \supset C_{j}$, we repeat the above argument and find $j^{\prime \prime}<j^{\prime}$ with $C_{j^{\prime}} \in \mathfrak{U}_{c^{\prime}}$. If $C_{j^{\prime \prime}} \supset C_{j^{\prime}}$, we iterate this, reach $C_{m}$, since $C_{i} \notin \mathfrak{Q}_{c}$ for $i \neq j, j^{\prime}, \ldots$ and get a contradiction to $C_{m} \subsetneq C_{j}$. Hence we can suppose $C_{j^{\prime}} \subset C_{j}$. Let $J$ be the interval with endpoints $x_{C_{j^{\prime}}}$ and $x_{c^{\prime}}$. By the choice of $m$, we have $J \subset V_{p}\left(x_{c}\right)$, since $j^{\prime} \geqq m$, and by (9) we get $T^{p}\left(x_{C_{j}}\right)=x_{C_{j}}$. Hence $T^{p}(J) \subset J$, as $C_{j^{\prime}} \subset C_{j}$, and there is a 3 -atom $I$ containing $J$ with $T^{p}(I) \subset I$ (cf. Lemma 9). Hence $I$ is the desired 3 -atom for the set $\left\{D_{i}: i \geqq 1\right\} \subset \mathfrak{A}_{c}$. Using the 3 -atom containing $T^{j}(I)$ for the set $\left\{T^{j}\left(D_{i}\right): i \geqq 1\right\}$, where $j<\alpha(c)$, we get (ii).

Remark. For the closed set $\mathfrak{C}_{2}$ in the example in $\S 2$ of Chap. I we have $H\left(\mathbb{C}_{2}\right)$ $=J_{1} \cup J_{2} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} K_{i}$ and $\mathfrak{Q}_{3}=\left\{K_{i}: i \geqq 1\right\}$.

Corollary. Assume that $\mathcal{D}$ contains no $D$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \notin D$ for all $i \geqq 1$. If $\mathfrak{H}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are closed subsets of $\mathfrak{D}$ with $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{Q}$, then there are subsets $\mathfrak{F}_{n}$ of $\mathfrak{U}$ for $n \geqq 1$ which satisfy the requirements of Theorem 7. Furthermore set $\mathfrak{C}$ $=\mathfrak{A} \backslash \mathfrak{B}$. Then $H(\mathfrak{C}) \backslash H\left(\mathfrak{F}_{n}\right)$ is a subset of a finite union of nontrivial $\mathfrak{3}$-atoms for all $n \geqq 1$. If $\mathfrak{3}$ is a generator, then there is a finite subset $\mathfrak{C}$ of $\mathfrak{2 l}$ with $H(\mathbb{C})$ $\subset H\left(\mathbb{C}^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. Let $\mathfrak{A}_{1}, \mathfrak{A}_{2}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{3}$ be the subsets of $\mathfrak{H}$ found in (i) of Theorem 10. As $\mathfrak{D}$ contains no $D$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \notin D$ for all $i \geqq 1$, we have $\mathfrak{H}_{2}=\emptyset$. Hence $H(\mathfrak{H}) \subset H\left(\mathfrak{H}_{1} \cup \mathfrak{H}_{3}\right)$. Let $\mathfrak{F}_{n}$ contain $\mathfrak{H}_{1}$ and the $n$-th element of each of the finitely many sets, of which $\mathfrak{H}_{3}$ consists. By (i) of Theorem 10, these $\mathfrak{F}_{n}$ satisfy the requirements of Theorem 7. That $H(\mathfrak{Q}) \backslash H\left(\mathscr{F}_{n}\right)$ and hence also $H(\mathbb{C}) \backslash H\left(\mathscr{F}_{n}\right)$ is contained in a finite union of nontrivial 3 -atoms, follows from (ii) of Theorem 10. If 3 is a generator, all 3 -atoms are trivial. Hence $\mathfrak{H}_{3}=\emptyset$ by (ii) of Theorem 10. We get $H(\mathfrak{H}) \subset H\left(\mathfrak{N}_{1}\right)$ and hence $H(\mathbb{C}) \subset H\left(\mathbb{C}^{\prime}\right)$ for $\mathbb{C}^{\prime}$ $=\mathfrak{M}_{1}$.

Remark. The proof of (i) of Theorem 10 shows even, that for every $D \in \mathfrak{A}$ there is a $C \in \mathfrak{H}_{1} \cup \mathfrak{H}_{2} \cup \mathfrak{H}_{3}$ with $D \subset C$. Let $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma, \mathfrak{A}=\overline{\mathfrak{C}}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\widetilde{\mathbb{C}}$. As $\mathbb{C}$ is irreducible, by the properties of the elements of $\mathfrak{A}_{2}$ it is impossible, that $D \subset C$ for
$D \in \mathbb{C}$ and $C \in \mathfrak{H}_{2}$ (cf. (ii) of Lemma 12). We get $H(\mathbb{C}) \subset H\left(\mathfrak{Q}_{1} \cup \mathfrak{H}_{3}\right)$. The above proof shows now, that the corollary holds without the assumption.

We state now the main results about $\Omega(X, T)$ for piecewise monotonic $(X, T)$. To this end we assume that the Markov diagram of $(X, T)$ contains no $D$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \notin D$ for all $i \geqq 1$. Otherwise we consider ( $Y, T \mid Y$ ) found in Lemma 14 instead of $(X, T)$. We can do this without loss of generality, since moving to ( $Y, T \mid Y$ ) may decrease the set $W$, but all other parts of $\Omega(X, T)$ remain unchanged by Lemma 14 and Theorem 5 . The proof of Lemma 14 gives a method, how one can reduce $(X, T)$ to $(Y, T \mid Y)$ and how one can get the Markov diagram of $(Y, T \mid Y)$ from that of $(X, T)$.

Theorem 11. Suppose ( $X, T$ ) is piecewise monotonic. Then

$$
\Omega(X, T)=\bigcup_{\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma} L(\mathbb{C}) \cup L_{\infty} \cup P \cup W .
$$

(i) For $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma, L(\mathbb{C})=\omega(z)$ for some $z \in X$ and $h_{\text {top }}(L(\mathbb{C}))=\log r(M \mid \mathbb{C})$. If 3 is a generator, then $L(\mathbb{C})$ is the set of all $x$ which are represented in $\mathbb{C}$.
(ii) $L_{\infty}$ is contained in a finite union of $\omega$-limit sets and satisfies $h_{\text {top }}\left(L_{\infty}\right)=0$.
(iii) If $x \in W$ then $x \notin \Omega^{n}(X, T)$ for some $n$.
(iv) $P$ is the set of periodic points contained in nontrivial 3-atoms.

Proof. By (ii) of Corollary 2 of Theorem 9 we can apply Theorem 5. As $L_{\infty}, P$ and every $L(\mathbb{C})$ consist of $\omega$-limit points and as $W \subset \Omega(X, T)$ by definition, we get the equality for $\Omega(X, T)$. If $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$, the corollary of Theorem 10 shows the requirements of Theorems 6 and 7. Hence (i) follows from Theorems 5, 6 and 7. We have assumed that the Markov diagram contains no $D$ with $\alpha(D)=\infty$ and $T^{i}(D) \nsubseteq D$ for all $i \geqq 1$. By the corollary of Theorem 10 , the requirements of Theorem 7 are satisfied. Hence $h_{\text {top }}\left(\Psi\left(\mathfrak{N}_{i}, \mathfrak{M}_{\infty}\right)\right) \leqq \log r\left(M \mid \mathfrak{G}_{i} \backslash \mathfrak{A}_{\infty}\right)$ for every decreasing sequence of closed sets $\mathfrak{U}_{i}$. As $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty}\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i} \backslash \mathfrak{H}_{\infty}\right)=\emptyset$, we get by (i) of Corollary 1 of Theorem 9 , that $h_{\text {top }}\left(\Omega\left(\left(\mathscr{M}_{i}\right)_{i \geq 1}\right)\right)=0$. We apply the variational principle in the version of Corollary 8.6.1 of [17]. Every ergodic $T$-invariant measure on $L_{\infty}$ is concentrated on one of the $T$-invariant sets $\Omega\left(\left(\mathscr{A}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right) \supset L\left(\left(\mathscr{A}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$ and has therefore entropy 0 . This implies $h_{\text {top }}\left(L_{\infty}\right)=0$. The other assertion of (ii) follows from Theorem 4. Finally (iii) is the definition of $W$ and (iv) follows from the definition of $P$ and (iv) of Lemma 9.

Remark. One can show that every path in $\mathfrak{C}$ represents an $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$, also if $\mathcal{B}$ is not a generator.

We conclude with a result about the growth rate of the number of inverse images of an $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$ under $T^{k} \mid L(\mathbb{C})$, where $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$. We need the following consequence of Corollary 1 of Theorem 9.

Lemma 15. Suppose $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$. Set $\tilde{M}=M \mid \mathbb{C}$ and $\lambda=r(\tilde{M})$. Let $u \in l^{1}(\mathbb{C})$ be the left and $v \in l^{\infty}(\mathbb{C})$ be the right eigenvector of $\tilde{M}$ for the eigenvalue $\lambda$ found in Corollary 1 of Theorem 9. We have $u_{C}>0$ and $v_{C}>0$ for all $C \in \mathbb{C}$. Set $P_{C D}$ $=\tilde{M}_{C D} v_{D} / \lambda v_{C}$ and $\pi_{C}=u_{C} v_{C}$, where $C, D \in \mathbb{C}$. The $\mathfrak{C} \times \mathbb{C}$-matrix $P$ is then a stochastic matrix and $\pi \in l^{1}(\mathbb{C})$ satisfies $\pi P=\pi$.
Proof. Since $\mathbb{C}$ is irreducible, we get from Corollary 1 of Theorem 9, that $u_{C}>0$ and $v_{C}>0$ for all $C \in \mathbb{C}$. The results about $\pi$ and $P$ follow by a simple computation from $u \tilde{M}=\lambda u$ and $\tilde{M} v=\lambda v$.

Theorem 12. Suppose $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$ and $L:=L(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset$. Set $\lambda=r(M \mid \mathbb{C})$ and $n_{k}(x)$ $=\operatorname{card}(T \mid L)^{-k}(\{x\})$ for $x \in L$. Then there are $c>0$ and $d<\infty$ with

$$
c \leqq \liminf _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left(\lambda^{-k} \inf _{x \in L} n_{k}(x)\right) \leqq \limsup _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left(\lambda^{-k} \sup _{x \in L} n_{k}(x)\right) \leqq d .
$$

Proof. We consider the finite sets $\mathfrak{F}_{n} \subset \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ of the corollary of Theorem 10 with $\mathfrak{A}$ $=\overline{\mathbb{C}}$ and $\mathfrak{B}=\tilde{\mathbb{C}}$. Fix $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$, fix some $C \in \mathbb{C}$ and fix some $\mathfrak{F}_{n}$. Set $\mathfrak{F}=\mathfrak{F}_{n}$. By the corollary, $H(\mathbb{C}) \backslash H(\mathfrak{F})$ is contained in a finite union of nontrivial 3-atoms. Hence, by the definition of $\mathfrak{U}(x)$, we can suppose that $Q \cap(H(\mathbb{C}) \backslash H(\mathfrak{F}))=\emptyset$ for all $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$. We suppose that $\mathfrak{U}(x)$ is as in Lemma 10 . For every $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$ we find an element $V$ of some $\mathcal{Z}_{m}$ with $V \subset Q$ and $V \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset$. Then $H(\mathfrak{F}) \supset V \cap H(\mathbb{C}) \supset(V \cap H(\overline{\mathbb{C}})) \backslash H(\widetilde{\mathbb{C}})$ and hence, by Lemma 7, for every $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$ there is a path $D_{0} D_{1} \ldots D_{m}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $D_{0} \in \mathfrak{F}$ and $\bigcap_{i=0}^{m} T^{-i}\left(D_{i}\right) \subset V \subset Q$. As $\mathfrak{F}$ is finite, there is a $D \in \mathscr{F}$ with $D_{0}=D$ for infinitely many $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$. Choosing a subsystem of $\mathfrak{U}(x)$, we can suppose $D_{0}=D$ for all $Q \in \mathfrak{H}(x)$. Let $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ be a path in $\mathfrak{C}$ with $C_{0}=C$, which was fixed above, and $C_{k}=D$. Then $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k-1} D_{0} \ldots D_{m}$ is a path in $\mathbb{C}$. Let $z$ be as in Theorem 2. Then $z$ is represented by a path, which contains every finite path of $\mathfrak{C}$. Hence for every $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$ there is an $i$ with

$$
T^{i}(z) \in \bigcap_{j=0}^{k-1} T^{-j}\left(C_{j}\right) \cap \bigcap_{j=0}^{m} T^{-j-k}\left(D_{j}\right) \subset \bigcap_{j=0}^{k-1} T^{-j}\left(C_{j}\right) \cap T^{-k}(Q) .
$$

Let $y$ be a limit point of these points $T^{i}(z)$. Then $y \in \bigcap_{j=0}^{k-1} T^{-j}\left(C_{j}\right)$, which is a closed set, $y \in L(\mathbb{C})$ by Theorem 4 , and $T^{k}(y)=x$, since $y \in \overline{T^{-k}(Q)}$ for all $Q \in \mathfrak{U}(x)$.

For every $x \in L(\mathbb{C})$ we have found a $D \in \mathscr{F}$, such that for every path $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $C_{0}=C$ and $C_{k}=D$ there is a $y \in \bigcap_{j=0}^{k-1} T^{-j}\left(C_{j}\right) \cap L(\mathbb{C})$ with $T^{k}(y)=x$. By Lemma 2, the sets $\bigcap_{j=0}^{k-1} T^{-j}\left(C_{j}\right)$ are contained in different elements of $\mathcal{Z}_{k}$, hence different paths $C_{0} C_{1} \ldots C_{k-1}$ give rise to different $y$. Therefore $n_{k}(x) \geqq \inf _{D \in \widetilde{\mathscr{Y}}} \tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)}$, where $\tilde{M}=M \mid \mathbb{C}$.

On the other hand $n_{k}(x) \leqq$ card $\mathfrak{Z}_{k}^{\prime}$, as

$$
\mathcal{3}_{k}^{\prime}:=\left\{V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}: V \cap \Omega(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset\right\} \supset\left\{V \in \mathcal{Z}_{k}: V \cap L(\mathbb{C}) \neq \emptyset\right\}
$$

and $T^{k}$ is monotone on $V \in \mathcal{3}_{k}$. The assumption of (i) of Theorem 7 is shown to hold by the corollary of Theorem 10. Hence we get as in the proof of Theorem 7, that $n_{k}(x) \leqq \sum_{C \in \widetilde{\mathscr{F}}_{m}} \sum_{D \in \mathbb{C}} \tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)}$ for some $m$.

By Lemma 15 and the renewal theorem (cf. [1]), we have

$$
\lambda^{-k} \tilde{M}_{C D}^{(k)}=P_{C D}^{(k)} v_{C} / v_{D} \rightarrow \pi_{D} v_{C} / v_{D}=u_{D} v_{C}>0
$$

Hence the result follows with $c=\inf _{D \in \mathscr{F}} u_{D} v_{C}$, which is greater than zero, since $\mathfrak{F}$ is finite, and with $d=q\|u\|_{1}\|v\|_{\infty}$, where $q \geqq \operatorname{card} \mathfrak{F}_{m}$ for all $m$.

## §3. Further Results

The Markov diagram has been used for the study of different properties of piecewise monotonic transformations. We give a description of these results:

The Nonwandering Set. A part of the results of Theorem 11 is shown in [2] and [4], in the case where 3 is a generator. Also some further results are proved there in this case: For $\mathfrak{C}, \mathbb{C}^{\prime} \in \Gamma$, it is shown that $L(\mathbb{C}) \cap L\left(\mathbb{C}^{\prime}\right)$ and $L(\mathbb{C}) \cap L_{\infty}$ are finite or empty. The set $W$ is finite and $W \cap \Omega^{2}(X, T)=\emptyset$. The geometric structure of $L(\mathbb{C})$ for $\mathbb{C} \in \Gamma$ is determined. The matrix $M \mid \mathbb{C}$ has period $p$, if and only if $T^{p} \mid L(\mathbb{C})$ consists of $p$ ergodic components, on each of which $T^{p}$ is weak mixing. The special case of monotonic mod 1 transformations is considered in [7]. The special structure of these transformations gives a special structure for the Markov diagram, which can be used to get further results about $\Omega(X, T)$. In [12], [13] and [14] other methods are used to investigate the nonwandering set of piecewise monotonic transformations on [ 0,1 ], which are additionally continuous. In [14] those parts of the nonwandering set are considered, to which most (in a topological sense) orbits converge. In the language of this paper, these parts are the sets $L(\mathbb{C})$ with $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$ and $\tilde{\mathfrak{C}}=\emptyset$, the sets $L\left(\left(\mathfrak{H}_{i}\right)_{i \geqq 1}\right)$ for decreasing sequences of closed sets $\mathfrak{Y}_{i}$ with $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{A r}_{i}=\emptyset$, and the attracting periodic orbits in $P$.
Maximal Measures. By Lemma 11, one can assume without loss of generality, that 3 is a generator. For $\mathfrak{C} \in \Gamma$, it is shown in [3], that there is a $1-1$ correspondence between maximal measures for $T \mid L(\mathbb{C})$ and maximal measures for the Markov shift $S$ with transition matrix $M \mid \mathbb{C}$. Furthermore it is shown that there is at most one maximal measure on $S$. Lemma 15 of this paper gives a maximal measure on $S$. Hence $S$ and $T \mid L(\mathbb{C})$ have unique maximal measure. This problem for the special case of the $\beta$-transformation is considered in [16], where a transition matrix is used, which is exactly the Markov diagram for this special case. In [5], it is shown that the transformations $x \rightarrow \beta x+\alpha(\bmod 1)$ with $\beta>1$ have unique maximal measure. Its support is a finite union $Y$ of intervals and the nonwandering set of $x \rightarrow \beta x+\alpha(\bmod 1)$ consists of $Y$ and finitely many periodic orbits. In [6], the region of the ( $\beta, \alpha$ )-plane is determined, where $Y$ is the whole unit interval.

Periodic Points. If 3 is a generator, then all periodic points are represented as closed paths in the Markov diagram by Theorem 8. Consider the set $Z(X, T)$ of $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that an $x \in X$ exists, which has minimal period $p$ under $T$. In [8], the sets, which occur as $Z(X, T)$ for monotonic $\bmod 1$ transformations, are determined. The $\zeta$-function of $(X, T)$ is defined by $\zeta(x)=\exp \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{n} \frac{x^{n}}{n}$, where $p_{n}$ is the number of fixed points of $T^{n}$. In [8] it is shown that $\frac{1}{\zeta(x)}$ is a kind of characteristic power series of the matrix $M$. This interpretation is supported by results of [11], where it is shown that, for $1<t \leqq r(M), 1 / \zeta\left(t^{-1}\right)=0$ if and only if $t$ is an eigenvalue of the $l^{1}(\mathfrak{D})$-operator $M$.

Transfer Operator. The transfer operator $P$ on the set of functions of bounded variation is defined by $\operatorname{Pf}(x)=\sum_{y \in T^{-1}\{x\}} g(y) f(y)$, where $g$ is a given positive function of bounded variation. It is shown in [9] and [15], that a spectral theorem about $P$, which holds under certain conditions on $g$, implies existence and ergodic properties of equilibrium states for $\log g$. In [10], the requirements of this spectral theorem are proved to hold in different situations, using the Markov diagram (cf. Theorem 1 of [10], a special case of Theorem 12 above and Theorem 3 of [10]). For piecewise constant $g$, the spectrum of $P$ is investigated further in [11] using the inverse of the $\zeta$-function as a characteristic power series of $M$.

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