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Soient:

$$\begin{cases} h_0(x) = m \cdot u_0(x) + j \cdot v_0(x) \\ h_1(x) = m[u_1(x) + a_0] + j[v_1(x) + b_0] \\ \vdots \\ h_n(x) = m[u_n(x) + a_0 + \dots + a_{n-1}] + j[v_n(x) + b_0 + \dots + b_{n-1}]. \end{cases}$$
 If vient en vertu de (19) et (20):

(22)
$$h_n(x) = h_0(x),$$

d'où la formule (5) en raison de (18) et (21). Il existe donc une fonction $h \in (\mathcal{E}^2)^{\mathcal{L}}$ satisfaisant à la condition (6).

Nous allons démontrer que $f^m \cdot g^j \sim 1$, à savoir que

$$f^{m}(x) \cdot g^{j}(x) = e^{2\pi i h(x)}.$$

Posons $x \in B_k$. Il vient d'après (17) et (21):

$$f^{m}(x) \cdot g^{j}(x) = e^{2\pi i [mu_{h}(x) + jv_{h}(x)]} = e^{2\pi i h_{h}(x)},$$

d'où l'égalité (23) en vertu de (6).



On derivates of discontinuous functions.

By

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Stefan Mazurkiewicz has shown that there exists a function f(x) continuous on the right (therefore of class 1) and such that everywhere $f'_{+}(x) = +\infty^{-1}$). The object of this note is to prove the following:

Theorem 1. There exists a function f(x) continuous on the right, but discontinuous at an everywhere dense set such that everywhere $f'_{+}(x)=0$.

Proof. In order to prove the above we construct a simple example of a monotone function f(x) having the properties stated in theorem I.

Let x in (0,1) be expressed in the scale of 2 as

(1)
$$x = \frac{a_1}{2} + \frac{a_2}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{2^n} + \dots$$

with infinitely many $a_n=0$. This means that whenever x has two representations

(a)
$$x = \frac{a_1}{2} + \frac{a_2}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{a_m}{2^m}$$
 $(a_m \neq 0)$

(b)
$$= \frac{a_1}{2} + \frac{a_2}{z^2} + \dots + \frac{0}{z^m} + \frac{1}{z^{m+1}} + \frac{1}{z^{m+2}} + \dots,$$

we choose the form (a), i.e. the ending representation. There is, therefore, always an infinite number of zeros in the representation of x, which is unique in the form (1).

¹⁾ See S. Mazurkiewicz, Fund. Math. 23 (1934), pp. 9-10 and A. N. Singh Fund. Math. 33 (1945), pp. 106-107.

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We now define the function f(x) for x in (0,1) expressed in the form (1) as

$$f(x) = \frac{a_1}{3} + \frac{a_2}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{5^n} + \dots$$

Evidently the function f(x) is for $0 \le x < 1$ non diminishing. To prove that $f'_+(x) = 0$ for $0 \le x < 1$ it would be therefore sufficient to show that for any number x such that $0 \le x < 1$ there is an infinite series of numbers x_1, x_2, \ldots such that

$$x < x_n < 1$$
, $\lim_{n = \infty} x_n = x$ and $\lim_{n = \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(x)}{x_n - x} = 0$.

Let then (1) be the dyadic development of x containing infinitely many figures 0. Let n be a given natural number. Then there is a natural number k_n such that $a_{n+k_n}=0$.

Putting $x_n = x + \frac{1}{2^{n+k_n}}$ we shall obtain of course $x < x_n < 1$ and $\lim x_n = x$.

One can also see easily from the definition of the function f(x) that $f(x_n) = f(x) + \frac{1}{\sum_{n=k_n} x_n}$; one has then

$$\frac{f(x_n) - f(x)}{x_n - x} = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{n + h_n}$$

hence

$$\lim_{n=\infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(x)}{x_n - x} = 0 \quad \text{q. e. d.}$$

The formula $f'_{+}(x)=0$ for $0 \le x < 1$ is therefore established.

For x defined by the development (a), where m=n, one has of course for k=1,2,...:

$$x - \frac{1}{2^{n+k}} = \frac{a_1}{2} + \frac{a_2}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1}}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{0}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{2^{n+2}} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n+k}};$$

hence

$$f(x) = \frac{a_1}{3} + \frac{a_2}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{5^n}$$

$$f\left(x - \frac{1}{2^{n+k}}\right) = \frac{a_1}{3} + \frac{a_2}{3} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1}}{5^{n-1}} + \frac{0}{5^n} + \frac{1}{5^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{5^{n+2}} + \dots + \frac{1}{5^{n+k}}.$$

Having $a_n \neq 0$, therefore $a_n = 1$:

$$\begin{split} f(x) - f\!\!\left(x - \frac{1}{2^{n+k}}\right) &= \frac{1}{5^n} - \frac{1}{3^{n+1}} - \frac{1}{3^{n+2}} - \dots - \frac{1}{3^{n+k}} = \\ &= \frac{1}{5^n} \!\!\left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \!\left(1 - \frac{1}{5^k}\right)\right] > \!\!\frac{1}{2 \cdot 3^n} \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, \end{split}$$

and being $\lim_{k\to\infty} \left(x-\frac{1}{2^{n+k}}\right)=x$ this proves that the fraction f(x) is discontinuous at the point x. It is therefore discontinuous at any point x, 0< x<1 of which abscissa is a finite dyadic fraction, then at a set of points dense in the interval (0,1).

The theorem 1 is therefore proved.

The question whether there can exist a function discontinuous at an everywhere dense set such that its right (left) hand differential coefficient is zero everywhere is answered by the following

Theorem II. If f(x) has a finite right (left) hand differential coefficient everywhere, its discontinuities (if any) form a non-dense set.

Proof. Suppose that f(x) has in (a,b) an everywhere dense set of discontinuities. There exists then a point b_1 of discontinuity such that the oscillation of f(x) at b_1 , $\omega(b_1)>0$, and $a< b_1< b$. Then, there exists a point a_1 such that $a< a_1< b_1$ and $b_1-a_1< \min{[1,\omega(b_1)]}$. The points of discontinuity being everywhere dense, there exists a point b_2 in the interval (a_1,b_1) such that $\omega(b_2)>0$ and a point a_2 such that $a_1< a_2< b_2$, and $b_2-a_2< \min{[\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2},\omega(b_2)]}$. Reasoning in this manner we get an infinite set of intervals (a_n,b_n) $(n=1,2,\ldots)$ such that:

(i)
$$(a_n, b_n)$$
 is contained in (a_{n-1}, b_{n-1}) ,

(ii)
$$\omega(b_n) > 0$$
,

(iii)
$$b_n - a_n < \min \left[\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n} \omega(b_n) \right],$$

(iv)
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = x_0 \text{ (say)}.$$

It follows from the definition of $\omega(b_n)$ that there exist two points x_n and x'_n in the interior of the interval $(x_0, b_n + \overline{b_n - a_n})$ such that

(1)
$$f(x_n) - f(x'_n) > \frac{1}{2}\omega(b_n).$$

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Having

$$a_n < x_0 < x_n < b_n + (b_n - a_n)$$

and

$$a_n < x_0 < x_n' < b_n + (b_n - a_n),$$

we have:

$$0 < x_n - x_0 < 2(b_n - a_n),$$

$$0 < x_n' - x_0 < 2(b_n - a_n),$$

$$\lim_{n=\infty} x_n = \lim_{n=\infty} x'_n = x_0.$$

Now, $x_n > x_0$, $x'_n > x_0$ and $j'_+(x)$ exists and is finite by hypothesis, therefore there is a number A such that

$$\left| \frac{(fx_n) - f(x_0)}{x_n - x_0} \right| < A \quad \text{and} \quad \left| \frac{f(x_n') - f(x_0)}{x_n' - x_0} \right| < A \quad \text{for} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, ...,$$

whence

$$|f(x_n)-f(x_0)| < A(x_n-x_0) < 2A(b_n-a_n)$$

and

$$|f(x_n')-f(x_0)|<2A(b_n-a_n).$$

But

$$b_n - a_n < \frac{1}{n} \omega(b_n),$$

hence

$$|f(x_n)-f(x_n')| < 4A(b_n-a_n) < \frac{4A\omega(b_n)}{n}.$$

Using (1) we have

$$\omega(b_n) < \frac{8A}{n} \omega(b_n)$$
, and $\omega(b_n) > 0$,

therefore 8A > n (n=1,2,3,...), which is impossible.

The function f(x) cannot, therefore, have an everywhere dense set of points of discontinuity and theorem II is thus proved.

It may be noted that the existence of $f'_{+}(x)$ as a finite number involves the continuity of f(x) on the right, so that the points of discontinuity of f(x) are enumerable.

It is to be mentioned that a function of a real variable f(x) such that for any real x one has $f'_{+}(x)=0$, and, more generally, such that for any real x one has $f'_{+}(x) = -\infty$ is a function of a class ≤ 2 of Baire.

Indeed, one can see easily that if for a function f(x) of a real variable one has $f'_+(x_0) = -\infty$, then the function f(x) is semicontinuous lower at the right hand at the point x_0 , i. e., for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $f(x_0 + h) > f(x_0) - \varepsilon$ for $0 < h < \delta$. On the other side, one can easily show that every function of a real variable everywhere semicontinuous lower at the right hand is of a class ≤ 2 of Baire.

Hence, there is a function f(x) of the class 2 of Baire such that $f'_{+}(x) = 0$ for every real x.

Indeed, let P be a perfect non dense set of Cantor, and let H be the set of all left extremities of intervals contiguous to P. Putting (for $0 \le x < 1$) f(x) = 0 for $x \in P - H$ and f(x) = 1 for any other x such that $0 \le x < 1$ one can easily see that (for $0 \le x < 1$) $f'_{+}(x) = 0$. The function f(x) is therefore of a class ≤ 2 . Hence, the set H being dense in the perfect set P, the function f(x) is everywhere discontinuous at the set P; hence, according to the well known theorem of Baire the function cannot be of a class ≤ 1 ; it is therefore of the class 2.