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UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO

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## Lusin density and Ceder's differentiable restrictions of arbitrary real functions

by

Jack B. Brown (Auburn, Ala.)

Abstract. J. G. Ceder recently proved a theorem from which it follows that if A is an uncountable subset of the reals R, then for every  $f\colon A\to R$ , there exists a bilaterally dense in itself set  $B\subset A$  such that f|B is differentiable (infinite derivatives are allowed). Uncountability of A is necessary, and B cannot be made to have cardinality c (the cardinality of R). The main purpose of this paper is to characterize those sets  $A\subset R$  for which it is true that for every  $f\colon A\to R$ , there exists a bilaterally c-dense in itself set  $W\subset A$  and a dense in W set B such that f|W is differentiable on B. A new notion of density results, and this notion is compared to known types of categoric density in metric spaces.

1. Introduction. A set B is bilaterally dense (c-dense) in itself if every closed interval containing an element of B contains points (c-many points) of B. A real function f is differentiable at x if and only if f is continuous at x, x is a limit point of the domain  $D_f$  of f, and it is true that there is an extended number m (possibly  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$ ) such that if  $\{x_n\}$  is a sequence of elements of  $D_f$ —(x) converging to x, then  $\{(f(x)-f(x_n))/(x-x_n)\}$  converges to m.

In [4] Ceder gives the following:

THEOREM C. If A is an uncountable number set, then for every  $f\colon A\to R$ , there exists a countable set  $C\subset A$  such that for each  $x\in A-C$  there exists a bilaterally dense in itself set  $B\subset A-C$  containing x such that  $f\mid B$  is differentiable and monotonic.

B cannot be made to have cardinality c. Ceder's argument for the monotonicity part of Theorem C has a mistake in it, but a correction is given in [7], and a short alternative correction is given in this paper. It is easy to show that if  $A \subset R$  is countable, there exists  $f \colon A \to R$  which has no continuous restriction to any dense in itself subset of A.

The primary purpose here is to prove the following two theorems:

THEOREM 1. If A is an  $L_2$  set, then for every  $f\colon A\to R$ , there exists an  $L_1$  set  $C\subset A$  such that for each  $x\in A-C$  there exists a bilaterally c-dense in itself set  $W\subset A-C$  and a dense in W set B containing x such that f|W is differentiable on B.



" $L_1$ " and " $L_2$ " are notions of "scarcity" and "abundance", respectively, analogous to countability and uncountability, respectively, and defined as follows. A set M is Lusin in a set N if  $M \subset N$  and there is no subset of M of cardinality c which is nowhere dense in N (N. Lusin showed [9] that if the Continuum Hypothesis is true, there is a Lusin in R set of cardinality c). An  $L_1$  set is the union of countably many sets, each Lusin in itself, and an  $L_2$  set is one which is not an  $L_1$  set. Properties  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are termed "measures of Lusin density".

The phrase "and f|W is monotonic" cannot be added to the end of the statement of Theorem 1. This author has found it necessary to leave open the question as to whether the phrase "and f|B is monotonic" can be added to the end of the statement of Theorem 1.

THEOREM 2. If A is an  $L_1$  set, then there exists a function  $f \colon A \to R$  such that if  $W \subset A$  is bilaterally c-dense in itself and  $B \subset W$  is dense in W, then f | W is discontinuous at some element of B.

The relationship between Theorem 1 and Ceder's theorem is analogous to the relationship between the theorems the author presented in [3] and a theorem of Bradford and Goffman [2] concerning Blumberg's theorem [1].

THEOREM BG [2]. If A is a metric space, the following are equivalent:

1) for every fix A > R there exists D dense in A such that fID is

- 1) for every  $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , there exists D, dense in A, such that f|D is continuous,
  - 2) A is  $G_{II}$  [6] (i.e. every set open in A is 2nd category in A).

THEOREM B. [3]. If A is a separable metric space then the following are equivalent:

- 1) for every  $f: A \to R$ , there exists a c-dense in A set W and a dense in W set D such that f|W is continuous on D,
- 2) A is c-typically dense in itself (i.e. no open in A set is the union of a 1st category in A set and a Lusin in A set).

The separability of A in Theorem B is used only in showing  $1) \rightarrow 2$ ). In section 3,  $L_1$  sets,  $L_2$  sets, and  $L_2$ -density are defined for a general metric space setting, and these notions are investigated and compared to c-typical density and other forms of categoric density previously defined. Also, as a postscript, some possible variations of Theorem B are discussed.

2. Differentiable restrictions of real functions. A number x is a limit (c-limit)  $(L_2\text{-}limit)$  point of a number set A if for every open interval I containing x,  $I \cap A$  is infinite (of cardinality c) (an  $L_2$  set). The limits are termed bilateral if "open" can be replaced by "closed". Similarly, a point P of  $R^2$  is a bilateral limit (c-limit)  $(L_2\text{-}limit)$  point of a function f if for every square S (includes interior) with a vertical side having center

P,  $\pi(S \cap f)$  is infinite (of cardinality e) (an  $L_2$  set), where  $\pi$  denotes X-projection. A set A is (bilaterally)  $L_2$ -dense in itself if each element of A is a (bilateral)  $L_2$ -limit point of A.

It should be remarked that "cardinality e" could be replaced by "cardinality  $\aleph_1$ " in the definitions and in Theorem 1, but a difficulty would arise in the proof of the resulting Theorem 2 under this change.

The fact (see König's Theorem [6]) that the union of countably many sets having cardinality less than c has cardinality less than c is used repeatedly without so stating.

 $L_1$  sets and  $L_2$  sets have certain relationships to each other analogous to those which hold for countable sets and uncountable sets. Some of these are expressed in the following lemmas.

LEMMA 0. Any set of cardinality less than c is Lusin in itself. Any subset of a Lusin in itself (respectively  $L_1$ ) set is a Lusin in itself (respectively  $L_1$ ) set. The union of countably many  $L_1$  sets is an  $L_1$  set.

Proof. Follows directly from definitions.

LEMMA 1. If x is an element of a bilaterally  $L_2$ -dense in itself set M, then there exists a bilaterally c-dense in itself nowhere dense in M subset N of M containing x.

Proof. Suppose x is an element of a bilaterally  $L_2$ -dense in itself set M. For each positive integer n,  $A_n = [x, x+1/n] \cap M$  is an  $L_2$  set and therefore has a nowhere dense in  $A_n$  subset  $B_n$  of cardinality c, and  $B_n$  will have a bilaterally c-dense in itself subset  $R_n$ . Similarly, there will exist a bilaterally c-dense in itself subset  $L_n$  of  $[x-1/n, x] \cap M$ . Then  $N = L_1 \cup L_2 \cup ... \cup (x) \cup R_1 \cup R_2 \cup ...$  is the desired set.

LEMMA 2. If A is an  $L_2$  set, then  $A = B \cup C$ , where B is an  $L_1$  set and C is bilaterally  $L_2$ -dense in itself.

Proof. Let B be the set of all points of A which are not bilateral  $L_2$ -limit points of A. For each  $x \in A$ , let  $I_x$  be the longest interval containing x such that  $I_x \cap A$  is an  $L_1$  set.  $\{I_x \mid x \in B\}$  is a collection of a mutually exclusive intervals and therefore countable. Thus,  $\{I_x \cap A \mid x \in A\}^* = B$  is an  $L_1$  set ( $H^*$  denotes the union of the sets in a collection H of sets). Then each element of C = A - B is a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of A, and since B is an  $L_1$  set, it follows that C must be bilaterally  $L_2$ -dense in itself.

LEMMA 3. If A is an  $L_2$  set and f is a function from A into R. Then f contains a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of itself.

Proof. A modification of the proof of Lemma 4 of [5] will be used. Suppose the lemma is false, and for each  $x \in A$ , let  $S_x$  be a square with a vertical side of length  $l_x$  having center  $\langle x, f(x) \rangle$  such that  $\pi(f \cap S_x)$  is an  $L_1$  set. Assume that  $A' = \{x \mid \langle x, f(x) \rangle \text{ belongs to the left side of } S_x\}$ 

is an  $L_2$  set. For some positive integer n,  $B=\{x\in A'\mid l_x>1/n\}$  is an  $L_2$  set. Therefore, B contains a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of itself, so let x denote such a point. Then there exists a vertical square S with right side of length 1/2n and right side having center  $\langle x,j/2n\rangle$  for some integer j, such that  $\pi(S\cap f|B)=D$  is an  $L_2$  set. Let  $y\in D$  be a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of D. Then  $\pi(f\cap S_y)$  is an  $L_2$  set, and this is a contradiction.

LEMMA 4. If A is an  $L_2$  set and f is a function from A into R, then there exists an  $L_1$  subset B of A such that each point of f|(A-B) is a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of f|(A-B).

Proof. Let B be the set of all points of A which are not bilateral  $L_2$ -limit points of f. It follows from Lemma 3 that B cannot be an  $L_2$  set. Thus, each point of f|(A-B) is a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of f, and since B is an  $L_1$  set, it follows that each point of f|(A-B) is a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of f|(A-B).

LEMMA 5 (Ceder [4, Th. 3]). If D is an uncountable set and f is a function from D into E, then there exists a countable subset E of D such that for each  $x \in D-E$ ,

$$D_L(f|(D-E), x) \cap D_R(f|(D-E), x) \neq \emptyset$$
.

 $D_L(f,x) = \{m \in [-\infty,\infty] \mid m = \lim_n (f(x) - f(x_n))/(x - x_n) \text{ for some increasing sequence } \{x_n\} \text{ of elements of } D_f \text{ converging to } x\}.$   $D_E(f,x)$  is defined similarly for decreasing sequences.

LEMMA 6. If A is an  $L_2$  set and f is a function from A into R, then there exists an  $L_1$  subset C of A such that for each  $x \in A-C$ , there exists a bilaterally  $L_2$ -dense in itself subset M of A-C containing x such that f|M is differentiable at x.

Proof. Let  $B \subset A$  be the set described in Lemma 4. Then let D = A - B and let E be the set described in Lemma 5. Now, let  $C = B \cup E$ . C is an  $L_1$  set, and each point of f|(A-C) is a bilateral  $L_2$ -limit point of f|(A-C). Let  $x \in A-C$ .  $D_L(f|(A-C), x) \cap D_R(f|(A-C), x) \neq \emptyset$ , so let  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$  be increasing and decreasing sequences, respectively, from A-C converging to x such that

$$\lim_{n} (f(x_n) - f(x))/(x_n - x) = \lim_{n} (f(y_n) - f(x))/(y_n - x)$$
.

Now, for each integer  $n \ge 2$ , let  $U_n$  be an  $L_2$ -dense in itself subset of the open in A-C set  $((x_{n-1}+x_n)/2, (x_n+x_{n+1})/2) \cap (A-C)$  such that for each  $t \in U_n$ ,  $|(f(t)-f(x))/(t-x)-(f(x_n)-f(x))/(x_n-x)| < 1/n$ , and let  $V_n$  be a similar set associated with  $y_n$ . Then,  $M=(U_2 \cup U_3 \cup ...) \cup (x) \cup U(V_2 \cup V_3 \cup ...)$  is the desired set.

Proof of Theorem 1. Let A be an  $L_2$  set and f be a function from A into R. Let C be the set of Lemma 6, and let  $x \in A - C$ . Let  $C_1$  be



the set whose only element is A-C, and proceed inductively as follows: Given  $G_n$ , then for each  $S \in G_n$ , (1) let  $M_S$  be a bilaterally  $L_2$ -dense in itself subset of S such that  $f|M_S$  is differentiable at some element  $x_S$  of  $M_S$  (make sure  $x_S=x$  on the first step), (2) let  $N_S$  be a nowhere dense in  $M_S$  subset of  $M_S$  containing  $x_S$  which is bilaterally c-danse in itself, (3) let  $K_S$  be the collection to which k belongs if and only if k is a non-empty intersection  $M_S \cap I$  for some component I of R—Cl( $N_S$ ), and (4) let  $G_{n+1} = \{K_S \mid S \in G_n\}^*$ .

Now, let  $W = \{t | \text{ there is a positive integer } n \text{ and a set } S \text{ in } G_n \text{ such that } t \in N_S\}$ , and let  $B = \{t | \text{ there is a positive integer } n \text{ and a set } S \text{ in } G_n \text{ such that } t = x_S\}$ . Each set  $N_S$  is bilaterally c-dense in itself, so W is also. To show that B is dense in W, suppose  $t \in W$  and d > 0. There is a positive integer n and an element S of  $G_n$  such that  $t \in N_S$ .  $N_S$  is bilaterally c-dense in itself, so there is another element t' of  $N_S$  within d > 0 of t. There is a set T of  $K_S$  which lies between t and t'.  $T \in G_{n+1}$ , and  $x_T$  will be an element of B within d > 0 of t.

Now, let  $t \in B$ . There is a positive integer n and a set S in  $G_n$  such that  $t = x_S$ .  $f|M_S$  is differentiable at  $x_S$ , and  $M_S \cap W$  is open in W, so f|W is differentiable at t.

Proof of Theorem 2. Suppose A is an  $L_1$  set. Then there exists a sequence  $M_1, M_2, \ldots$  of sets, each Lusin in itself, such that  $A = M_1 \cup M_2 \cup \ldots$  Let  $g \colon R \to R$  be the function of Zygmund and Sierpiński [8] which has no continuous restriction of cardinality c. Let  $f \colon A \to R$  be defined by  $f(x) = 2n\pi + \arctan(g(x))$  if  $x \in M_n \setminus M_k$ . Now, suppose

 $W \subset A$  is bilaterally c-dense in itself, D is dense in W, and f|W is continuous on D. Let t be an element of D and n be the integer such that  $t \in M_n$ . It follows that there is a set V, open in W, which is a subset of  $M_n$ . f|V is continuous on a dense subset of V, and therefore continuous on a dense  $G_\delta$  subset U of V. Since  $M_n$  is Lusin in itself, so is V. It follows that U has cardinality c and f|U is continuous, which is a contradiction.

The remainder of section 2 concerns the monotonicity of f|B in Ceder's theorem.

The problem in Ceder's argument occurs in his Lemma 3, which states that if B is bilaterally dense in itself and  $f \colon B \to R$  is differentiable, then there exists  $A \subset B$  such that A is bilaterally dense in itself and  $f \mid A$  is differentiable and monotonic. Consider the following example. Let B be the set to which x belongs if and only if there is a sequence  $\{t_n\}$ , each term of which is either -1, 0, or 1 and only finitely many terms of which are not 0 such that  $x = \sum_n t_n 10^{-n}$ , in which case,  $f(x) = \sum_n (t_n 10^{-n})^2$ . If has derivative zero at each point. However, each point of f is a local proper minimum for f, so f can have no monotonic restriction to a bilaterally dense in itself subset of B.

In proving the monotonicity part of Theorem C, care must be taken to avoid local maxima and minima so that the sequences Ceder describes on lines 7-9 of the argument for Lemma 3 of [4] will exist. Therefore, define g'(x) = +0 (respectively -0) if and only if g'(x) = 0, and there exist sequences  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$ , increasing and decreasing, respectively. with limit x such that  $\{q(x_n)\}\$  and  $\{q(y_n)\}\$  are increasing and decreasing (decreasing and increasing), respectively. Then g is monotonically differentiable at x if and only if q is differentiable at x and either  $g'(x) \neq 0$ or else q'(x) = +0.

Notice that if "L<sub>1</sub>" and "L<sub>2</sub>" are replaced by "countable" and "uncountable", respectively, in Lemmas 2-6, the resulting statements (to be referred to as Lemmas 2'-6', respectively) are true.

LEMMA 7'. If  $A \subseteq R$  is uncountable and  $f: A \to R$  has no uncountable horizontal restriction, then there exists a countable set  $F \subset A$  such that if  $x \in A-F$ , there exists a bilaterally uncountably-dense in itself subset M of A-F such that  $f \mid M$  is monotonically differentiable at x.

Proof. Suppose f satisfies the hypothesis, but there exists no bilaterally uncountably dense in itself subset M of A such that f|M is monotonically differentiable at some element x of M. Let C be the set of Lemma 6'. It follows that for each  $x \in A - C$ , there exist positive numbers  $c_x$  and  $d_x$ such that either  $U_x = \{t \mid x < t < x + d_x \text{ and } 0 < (f(x) - f(t))/(x - t) < c_x\}$ or  $V_x = \{t | x < t < x + d_x \text{ and } -c_x < (f(x) - f(t))/(x - t) < 0\}$  is countable. Assume that the set  $B = \{x \in A - C \mid U_x \text{ is countable}\}\$  is uncountable, and let n be a positive integer such that  $D = \{x \in B | c_x > 1/n \text{ and }$  $d_x > 1/n$  is uncountable. Now, let M be a bilaterally uncountably dense in itself subset of D such that f|M is differentiable at some element yof M (Lemma 6'). (f|M)'(y) = 0 and  $(f|M)'(y) \neq -0$  and  $U_y$  is countable, so there must exist an element x of M such that y-1/2n < x < yand 0 < (f(x)-f(y))/(x-y) < 1/2n. It follows that  $U_x$  is uncountable, and this is a contradiction.

Proof of Theorem C. First it will be proved that there exists some bilaterally dense in itself subset B of A such that f|B is differentiable and monotonic. If f has an uncountable horizontal restriction, the proof is trivial, so assume otherwise. Let  $G_1 = (A)$  and make the following changes in the inductive process of the proof of Theorem 1. Replace "L<sub>1</sub>" and "L2" by "countable" and "uncountable", respectively. On part (1), make sure  $f|M_S$  is monotonically differentiable at  $x_S$ . On part (2) just let  $N_S$  be a nowhere dense in  $M_S$  subset of  $M_S$  containing  $x_S$  as a bilateral limit point. Ignore W and define B as before. To show that B is bilaterally dense in itself, let  $t \in B$  and d > 0. There is a positive integer n and a set S in  $G_n$  such that  $t = x_S$ .  $x_S$  is a bilateral limit point of  $N_S$ , so there are elements a and b of  $N_S$  to the left and right, respectively, of  $x_S$  and



within d>0 of  $x_S$ . Then there exist sets T and U in  $G_{n+1}$  such that T lies between a and  $x_S$  and U lies between  $x_S$  and b. Then  $x_T$  and  $x_U$  will be elements of B to the left and right, respectively, of t within d>0 of t.

Thus, B is a bilaterally dense in itself subset of A and f|B is differentiable (proof as before), which is the point to which Ceder arrives on line 13 of p. 357 of [4]. However, f|B is actually monotonically differentiable now, and with this additional hypothesis, Ceder's Lemma 3 and the rest of his argument for Theorem C is valid with only minor changes.

3. Lusin density in a metric setting. It is clear from Lemma 2 that the conclusion of Theorem 1 holds for a subset A of R if and only if A contains an  $L_2$ -dense in itself subset. To give a better idea of which sets do have this property,  $L_2$ -density will be compared with other types of categoric density. Because of possible future applications of this concept in more general situations, the comparison is given in a general metric setting.

The definition of a number set M being Lusin in a number set Ncould be generalized directly to sets in a metric space, but this leads to certain complications in non-separable spaces. The author encountered some of these complications in the preparation of an earlier paper [3], and the referee of that paper suggested defining the concept as follows: M is Lusin in N if and only if every nowhere dense in N subset L of M is a countable union  $L = L_1 \cup L_2 \cup ...$ , where each  $L_i$  is of local cardinality less than c (i.e. such that if  $x \in L_i$  for some i, then there is a neighborhood U of x such that  $U \cap L_i$  has cardinality less than c). The necessity for the change to "local cardinality" is fairly obvious due to non-separable spaces such as the following; let X be the unit square disc and  $\delta$  be the metric defined by  $\delta(\langle a,b\rangle,\langle c,d\rangle) = |b-d|$  if a=c and 1 otherwise. Then the set M of points in X with rational ordinates is Lusin in X because M is itself of local cardinality less than c. However, M would not satisfy the direct generalization of the definition given in Section 1 because M contains nowhere dense in X sets (containing just one point for each abscissa) with cardinality c. In this space, a set M is Lusin in X if and only if each nowhere dense in X subset L of M is itself of local cardinality less than c. However, this simplification of the definition would prove unsatisfactory because of non-separable spaces such as the following; let X be the set of all number sequences and  $\delta$  be the metric defined by  $\delta(\{x_n\}, \{y_n\})$  $=1/2^k$ , where k is the least positive integer such that  $x_k \neq y_k$ . Then, the set M of all sequences in X which have even subscripted terms equal to zero and which terminate in zeros is itself nowhere dense in X but of local cardinality c. However,  $M = M_1 \cup M_2 \cup ...$  where  $M_i = \{\{x_n\} \in M | x_j\}$ = 0 if  $i \ge i$ , and each  $M_i$  is locally finite.

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First it will be pointed out that the new definition does reduce to the direct generalization of the definition given in Section 1 in separable spaces.

THEOREM 3. If  $M \subset N \subset X$ , where X is separable, then M is Lusin in N if and only if there is no subset of M of cardinality c which is nowhere dense in N.

Proof. Suppose M is Lusin in N and  $L \subset M$  is nowhere dense in N. Then  $L = L_1 \cup L_2 \cup ...$ , where each  $L_t$  is of local cardinality less than c. Since each  $L_i$  is separable, it follows that each  $L_i$  is of cardinality less than c. Therefore  $L=L_1\cup L_2\cup ...$  is of cardinality less than c. The proof in the opposite direction is obvious.

The notions of an  $L_1$  set and an  $L_2$  set, as well as  $L_2$ -density are defined as before but in terms of the generalized notion of a Lusin set. Now, the notion of a subset M of a metric spaces X being a T, set (called "first c-type" in [3]) shall mean that it is the union of a first category set and a Lusin in X set. A  $T_2$  set (called "second c-type" in [3]) is one which is not a  $T_1$  set, and M is  $T_2$ -dense in X (called "c-typically dense in X" in [3]) if and only if for every open set Q,  $Q \cap M$  is a  $T_2$  set.

THEOREM 4. A metric space X is T2-dense in itself if and only if no open set is the union of a first category set and an L1 set.

Proof. Suppose X is  $T_2$ -dense in itself. If X is not  $G_{II}$ , the proof is immediate, so assume X is  $G_{II}$ , but that there is an open set  $O = K \cup N$ , where K is first category and N is an  $L_1$  set. Then  $N = N_1 \cup N_2 \cup ...$ , where each N<sub>i</sub> is Lusin in itself. Some N<sub>i</sub> must be second category, so for each  $N_i$ , let  $N_i' = \{x \in N_i | x \text{ is an element of some open set in which$  $N_1$  is dense. Then  $K' = K \cup (N_1 - N_1') \cup (N_2 - N_2') \cup ...$  is still first category. Let  $N' = N'_1 \cup N'_2 \cup ...$  Then  $O = K' \cup N'$ . Now let Q be a nowhere dense in X subset of N'. Then if i is a positive integer such that  $N_i'$  is not empty,  $N_i'$  is a dense subset of some open set U, so that  $Q \cap N_i'$  is nowhere dense in  $N_i$  and nowhere dense in  $N_i$ . Thus,  $Q \cap N_i'$  $=A_1^i \cup A_2^i \cup A_3^i \cup ...$ , where each  $A_i^i$  is of local cardinality less than c. So  $Q = A_1^1 \cup A_1^2 \cup A_2^1 \cup A_2^3 \cup A_2^2 \cup A_3^1 \cup ...$ , and N' is Lusin in X. Therefore O is a  $T_1$  set and this is a contradiction. The proof in the opposite direction is obvious.

Now, a standard version of the Baire Category Theorem states that every complete metric space is  $G_{II}$ . Hausdorff [6] defines various "density" or "compactness" properties which are intermediate to completeness and  $G_{TT}$ . It is shown that for metric spaces,

completeness 
$$\rightarrow$$
 absolute  $G_{\delta} \rightarrow F_{II} \rightarrow G_{II}$ ,

but that none of these implications is reversible. It will now be shown (using the Continuum Hypothesis CH when necessary) that in perfect



metric spaces,  $L_2$ -density and  $T_2$ -density compare nicely with property  $G_{TT}$ and property  $F_{\Pi}$ , which means that each perfect set is second category in itself.

THEOREM 5. If X is a perfect (i.e. having no isolated points) metric space, then

$$F_\Pi \stackrel{ ext{CH}}{\longrightarrow} T_2$$
-density  $\stackrel{L_2\text{-density}}{\longleftarrow}$  uncountable density,

but none of the implications is reversible.

Proof. Suppose X is  $F_{\Pi}$  but not  $T_2$ -dense in itself. Then there exists an open set O such that  $O = N_1 \cup N_2 \cup ... \cup L$ , where each  $N_i$  is nowhere dense and L is Lusin in X. We can assume, without loss of generality, that each  $N_i$  is closed and  $L = O - (N_1 \cup N_2 \cup ...)$ . Since  $F_{\Pi} \to G_{\Pi}$ , L must be dense in some open set W. Let  $G_1 = (W)$ ,  $P_W$  be a point of  $W \cap L$ , and proceed inductively as follows: Given  $G_n$  and  $P_J$  for each  $J \in G_n$ , then for each  $J \in G_n$ , (1) let  $Q_J$  be a point of  $J \cap L$  distinct from  $P_J$ , (2) let Uand V be mutually exclusive neighborhoods having centers  $P_J$  and  $Q_J$ , respectively, radii less than 1/n, and closures lying in  $J-N_n$ , (3) rename  $P_J=P_U$  and  $Q_J=P_V$ , and (4) let  $G_{n+1}=\{g| \text{ for some set } J\in G_n,\ g \text{ is}$ either the set U or the set V described in (2). Then, the set  $N = L \cap$  $\cap (G_1^* \cap G_2^* \cap ...)$  is a separable perfect subset of L. Since N is nowhere dense in X, it is the union of countable many sets each having cardinality less than c, and since N is separable, it follows that N is of cardinality less than c. Assuming CH, it follows that N is countable. So N is a perfect subset of X which is not second category in itself. This is a contradiction.

That  $T_2$ -density implies both  $L_2$ -density and  $G_{\rm II}$  follows immediately from Theorem 4. Furthermore, if there is a countable open set O, it follows that since X is perfect, O is both first category and an L<sub>1</sub> set, so the last two implications hold.

To show that the implications are not reversible, assume CH and consider a Lusin set L which is uncountably dense in R but has no uncountable nowhere dense subset. Let  $C_1, C_2, ...$  be a sequence of mutually exclusive Cantor sets such that  $C_1 \cup C_2 \cup ...$  is dense in R, and for each i, let  $C'_i$  be a subset of  $C_i$  which is uncountably dense in  $C_i$  but which has no uncountable nowhere dense in  $C_i$  subset. Then,  $X = C_1' \cup C_2' \cup ...$ would be uncountably dense in itself but neither  $L_2$ -dense in itself nor  $G_{\Pi}$ . Furthermore, L is  $G_{\Pi}$  but not  $L_2$ -dense in itself,  $C = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup ...$  is  $L_2$ -dense in itself but not  $G_{\Pi}$ , and  $L \cup C$  is both  $G_{\Pi}$  and  $L_2$ -dense in itself but not  $T_2$ -dense in itself. Finally, let E be the set of endpoints of  $C_1$  and  $Y = (R - C_1) \cup E$ . Then, Y is  $T_2$ -dense in itself but not  $F_{\Pi}$ .

COROLLARY. If the domain A of a real function f contains a perfect in R set, then the conclusion of Theorem 1 holds.



Properties  $G_{\Pi}$  and  $F_{\Pi}$  have been shown to have great significance in some theorems. For example, it is shown in [6, p. 287] that if A is  $G_{\Pi}$ , then every  $g \in \mathcal{B}(A)$  (the collection of pointwise limits of sequences of continuous real valued functions with domain A) is at most pointwise discontinuous (i.e. continuous on a dense subset of A). It follows immediately [6, p. 288] that if A is  $F_{\Pi}$ , then for every  $f \in \mathcal{B}(A)$  and every closed set  $M \subseteq A$ ,  $f \mid M$  is at most pointwise discontinuous. In a similar manner, Theorems BG, B, 1, 2, and C lead immediately to the following four theorems.

THEOREM BG+. If A is a metric space, then the following are equivalent:

1) for every  $f: A \to R$  and perfect  $M \subset A$ , there exists D, dense in M, such that f|D is continuous,

2) A is F<sub>II</sub>.

Theorem B+. If A is a separable metric space, then the following are equivalent:

1) for every  $f \colon A \to R$  and perfect  $M \subset A$ , there exists a c-dense in M set W and a dense in W set D such that  $f \mid W$  is continuous on D,

a) every perfect subset of A is  $T_2$ -dense in itself.

THEOREM 1+. If  $A \subset R$ , the following are equivalent:

1) for every  $f: A \rightarrow R$  and perfect in A subset M of A, there exists a bilaterally c-dense in itself subset W of M and a dense in W set B such that f|W is differentiable on B,

b) every perfect in A subset of A is an L2 set.

THEOREM C+. If  $A \subset R$ , the following are equivalent:

1) for every  $f: A \rightarrow R$  and perfect in A subset M of A, there exists a bilaterally dense in itself subset B of M such that  $f \mid B$  is differentiable and monotonic.

c) every perfect in A subset of A is uncountable.

On the basis of Theorem 5, it is easily seen that condition b and property  $F_{\Pi}$  are both intermediate in strength to conditions a and c. It is interesting that the following turns out to be true.

Theorem 6. In metric spaces A, property  $F_{\pi}$  and conditions a, b, and c are all equivalent.

Proof. It is easily seen that condition c and  $F_{\Pi}$  are equivalent [6, p. 336]. So it is necessary to show only that  $F_{\Pi}$  implies condition a. If condition a fails, it follows that there is a perfect subset M of A such that M is not  $T_2$ -dense in itself. Then, as in the first part of the proof of Theorem 5, it can be shown that there is a countable set N which is perfect in M. N will also be perfect in A, but of first category in itself, so A is not  $F_{\Pi}$ .

On more possible variation on Theorem B will now be considered. It follows from Theorem B that if  $f \colon R \to R$ , there exists a c-dense in R

set W such that f | W is at most pointwise discontinuous. Considering the relationship between pointwise discontinuity and Baire's first class B. it is natural to ask, "can W be chosen so that f|W is also in  $\mathcal{B}(W)$ ?" To show the impossibility of this, consider the function  $f: R \to R$  of Sierpiński and Zygmund constructed in the third paragraph on p. 423 of [8], except let  $\Phi$  be the family of all real valued Borel functions defined on  $G_{\bullet}$ subsets of R. Suppose  $W \subset R$  is c-dense in R and f(W) is in  $\mathfrak{B}(W)$ . Let  $f_1, f_2, \dots$  be a sequence of continuous functions with domain W converging to f. For each n, let  $g_n$  be a continuous extension of  $f_n$  to a  $G_n$ set  $M_n$ ; let M be the  $G_n$  set  $M = M_1 \cap M_2 \cap ...$ , and for each n, let  $h_n = g_n | M$ . Now,  $N = \{x | h_1(x), h_2(x), \dots \text{ converges} \}$  is  $F_{ab}$  relative to M[6, p. 307]. So if for each n,  $k_n(x) = h_n(x)$  if  $x \in N$  and  $k_n(x) = 0$  if  $x \in M - N$ , then  $k_n$  is a Borel function on M, and the pointwise limit k of  $k_1, k_2, ...$ is a Borel function on M and agrees with f on W. But f does not coincide with any function of the family  $\Phi$  on any set of cardinality c. This is a contradiction.

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AUBURN UNIVERSITY

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