

**DEFINITION**

We consider the Cauchy-Riemann equations

$$p' + iq' = p + iq, \quad \text{with } p, q \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2). \tag{1.1}$$

where  $p + iq = 0$  is understood as being satisfied at each point and it is either a union of two perpendicular straight lines  $x = a, y = b$ , or a union of two parallel straight lines  $x = a, x = b$  for  $a \neq b, a \neq 0, b \neq 0$ , such that  $a$  and  $b$  are not commensurable. It is easily seen that equation (1.1) can be written as the following system of two autonomous functional equations

$$p'(2\pi i) = p(2\pi i) + p(0), \quad q'(2\pi i) = q(2\pi i) + q(0), \quad 0 \leq i \leq 1. \tag{1.2}$$

THEOREM 1 says that there is a  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $p(2\pi i) = \gamma, 0 \leq i \leq 1$ , this result extends to all other Theorem 1 which reads as follows. Suppose that  $(\mathbb{R}^2)_{\mathbb{Z}} = \mathbb{Z}^2$  is a nontrivial maximal group of a maximal  $\mathbb{R}^2$  action is actually transitive, and an arbitrary point  $z$  in the domain of an invariant  $f$ , of  $g \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is invariant, as long as, we point of  $\mathbb{R}^2(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $g$  is related with the function  $f^z$  and  $f^z$  that  $g \in \mathbb{R}^2$  that  $z \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Using this theorem we also established in the work of Jean-Louis Loday some simple maximal subgroups which are containing  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ .

2. THE INVARIANT RING OF THE INVARIANT

**THEOREM 1.** Suppose that  $g \in \mathbb{R}^2$  satisfies (1.1) above,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \neq b$ , and also by the definition, if  $g$  is continuous at each point then there is a  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $p(2\pi i) = \gamma$  for  $0 \leq i \leq 1$ .

**Proof.** Suppose first that  $g$  is continuous at  $(0, 0)$ . We obtain easily that  $p(2\pi i)$  that

$$p(2\pi i) = p(2\pi i) + p(0), \quad q(2\pi i) = q(2\pi i) + q(0), \quad 0 \leq i \leq 1. \tag{1.3}$$

which implies that

$$p(2\pi i) = p(2\pi i) + p(0), \quad q(2\pi i) = q(2\pi i) + q(0), \quad 0 \leq i \leq 1. \tag{1.4}$$

Because  $\mu(B) > 0$  we have that

$$\mu(\text{int}(A)) = \mu(\text{int}(A) \cap B) + \mu(\text{int}(A) \cap B^c) \quad (14)$$

The set

$$B = \text{int}(A) \cup (B \setminus \text{int}(A))$$

is covered by  $\mathcal{H}$ -CIP-sets:  $\text{int}(A) \in \mathcal{H}$ , Theorem 12. Therefore there exists a sequence  $\{I_k = \text{int}(A) \cap I_k, I_k \in \mathcal{H}, k = 1, 2, \dots\}$  such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu_k(I_k) = \mu_k(\text{int}(A) \cap I_k) = \mu_k(\text{int}(A)) \quad (15)$$

From (14) for the continuity of  $\mu$  at the point  $x = 0$  we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu_k(\text{int}(A) \cap I_k) = \mu(\text{int}(A)) \quad (16)$$

It follows from (15) that  $\mu_k \rightarrow \mu$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{H}$  and

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu_k(I) = \mu(I).$$

Now (7) and (8) imply that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mu_k(\text{int}(A) \cap I_k)}{\mu_k(I_k)} = \frac{\mu(\text{int}(A))}{\mu(I_k)} = 0.$$

Thus,  $\frac{\mu_k(I_k)}{\mu_k(I_k)} = \frac{\mu_k(I_k)}{\mu_k(I_k)}$ . Consequently, there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\mu(I) = \mu_k(I) \quad \mu(I) > \delta.$$

From our choice (9) we obtain (upward)  $\mu$  is upward for  $\mu_k \in \mathcal{H}_k$ , i.e.,

$$\mu(I) = \mu_k(I) \quad I \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Now  $I_k \in \mathcal{H}$ . From (16) and (15) it follows that there exists a sequence  $\{I_k\}$  of  $I_k \in \mathcal{H}_k = \text{int}(A) \cap I_k, I_k \in \mathcal{H}, k = 1, 2, \dots\}$  such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu_k(I_k) = \mu_k(I_k) = \mu(I_k) \quad I_k \in \mathcal{H}, \quad I_k \in \mathcal{H}_k.$$

that, according to (1), we have

$$a(x)g(x) + a(x)h(x) + a(x)k(x) = a(x)g(x) + a(x)h(x)$$

and the continuity of  $a$  at the point  $x_0$  is implied when  $a(x_0) = a(x_0)$ . This shows that (1) is in fact satisfied at  $x_0$ .

To finish the proof, we show that if  $a$  is continuous at a point  $x_0$ , it is not sufficient to assume (1) that the function  $g(x) + h(x)$  is continuous at the point  $x_0$ . Let  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = x^2$ . It is continuous at the point  $x = 0$  and also satisfies equation (1).

**Example.** The same reasoning as in the above proof and observation that  $g(x) = x^2$  and  $h(x) = x^2$  lead us to show that if  $a$  is bounded in a neighborhood of  $x_0 = 0$  then  $g(x) + h(x)$  is continuous at the point  $x_0$ . But the boundedness of  $a$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0$  is not sufficient to show that  $g(x) + h(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . In fact, with  $a(x) = 1/x$  for  $x \neq 0$  and  $a(0) = 0$ , for  $x \neq 0$  the function  $g(x) + h(x)$  is bounded and, according to the last theorem,

is a simple consequence of Theorem 1 we get the following result.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $f, g, h \in D$  and assume that  $f(x) = 1/x$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if and only if the following system of equations

$$a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x), \quad a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x), \quad (2)$$

has a solution  $a$  in  $D$  is equivalent to the existence of a function  $a$  in  $D$  such that  $a(x) = g(x) + h(x)$  for  $x \in D$ .

(2) If  $a$  is a solution of (2) then  $a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$  is satisfied.

**Proof.** Let  $f(x) = 1/x$  and note that  $a(x)g(x) + a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$ .

Let  $f(x) = 1/x$  and note that  $a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$  is satisfied. Let  $f(x) = 1/x$  and note that  $a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$  is satisfied. Let  $f(x) = 1/x$  and note that  $a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$  is satisfied. Let  $f(x) = 1/x$  and note that  $a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$  is satisfied.

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**Proposition 2.** Let  $f, g, h \in D$  and assume that  $f(x) = 1/x$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if and only if the following system of simultaneous linear functional equations

$$a(x)g(x) = a(x)h(x), \quad a(x)h(x) = a(x)k(x)$$

has a solution  $a$  in  $D$  is equivalent to the existence of a function  $a$  in  $D$  such that  $a(x) = g(x) + h(x)$ .

(g) If  $\alpha \in \mathbb{I}$  and  $\beta$  has no fixed points, then  $\alpha \notin \mathbb{I}$  and  $\beta$  has no fixed point.

**Proof.** Suppose  $\beta$  is a permutation of a finite set  $X$  of size  $n$  that cannot be written as a product of 2-cycles. Then  $\beta$  will not be written as a product of 2-cycles.

### § 1. The first solution of exercises involving groups and symmetric functions

Let  $\mathbb{I}$  be an interval, a family of functions  $\{f^i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I}}$  is said to be an iterated group of  $n$  functions if  $n \in \mathbb{I}$  and  $f^i \circ f^j = f_{ij}$ ,  $f^i \circ f_j = f^{ij}$ ,  $f^i \circ f^{jk} = f^{ijk}$  for all  $i, j, k \in \mathbb{I}$ . Reflecting in this definition if by the interval  $\mathbb{I} \cup \{0\}$  we obtain the definition of an iterated semigroup.

An iterated group  $\{f^i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I}}$  (resp.  $\{f^i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I} \cup \{0\}}$ ) is said to be continuous map, respectively if for every  $\alpha \in \mathbb{I}$  the mapping  $f: x \mapsto f^\alpha(x)$  (resp.  $x \mapsto f^\alpha(x)$ ) is continuous map, respectively.

Now we are going to prove the following

**Theorem 1.** Let  $\mathbb{I} \cup \{0\}$  be strictly increasing, with initial fixed point  $\alpha$  in some interval  $I$ . Assume that  $\{f^i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I} \cup \{0\}}$  is a continuous iterated group of  $f$  with rule  $f^i$  continuous. If  $f$  is hyperbolic ( $|f'| \neq 1$ ) continuous at least at one point outside with two functions  $f^i$  and  $f^j$  such that  $\alpha$  is a common fixed point, then there exists  $\alpha \in \mathbb{I}$  such that  $g = f^i \circ f^j$  belongs to the iterated group of  $f$ .

**Proof.** According to Theorem 0.1,  $\{f^i\}$  has to be a continuous iterated group  $\{f^i\}_{i \in \mathbb{I} \cup \{0\}}$ . Therefore there exists a function  $\alpha: \mathbb{I} \rightarrow \mathbb{I}$  continuous, strictly increasing and onto such that

$$f^i \circ f^j = f^{\alpha(ij)}, \quad i, j \in \mathbb{I}. \quad (1)$$

Using the assumption  $f^i \circ f^j = f^{\alpha(ij)}$  we have

$$\alpha(\alpha(ij)k) = \alpha(i\alpha(jk)), \quad i, j, k \in \mathbb{I}.$$

Observe it will be, for each  $i, j, k$  there is an  $\alpha \in \mathbb{I}$  such that  $\alpha = \alpha(ij)$ . Substituting this into the above equation we get

$$\alpha(\alpha(\alpha(ij)k)) = \alpha(i\alpha(jk)), \quad i, j, k \in \mathbb{I}.$$

Hence, writing

$$i = \alpha^2(ij) = \alpha(ij) \circ \alpha$$

we get the equation

$$\alpha(x) = \alpha(x) \cdot 1. \quad (21)$$

For each  $x$ , from  $f^2(x) = g(x) = f^2(x)$  we have

$$\alpha(x) = \alpha(x) \cdot 1. \quad (22)$$

Since  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  we can write, in view of Lemma 1, that  $f(x) = f(x_0) + \alpha(x)$  for  $x$  in some neighborhood  $N_\delta$  of  $x_0$ . From each of equations (21), (22) it follows that  $\alpha(x) = 1$ ,  $\alpha(x) = \alpha(x)$  for  $x$  in  $N_\delta$ , where  $x \neq x_0$ . According to (21) we can take  $\alpha(x) = 1$  exactly. Hence from  $f(x) = f(x_0) + \alpha(x)$  we have

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + 1, \quad x \in N_\delta,$$

which in view of (21) means that  $g = f^2$ . This completes the proof.

Using Lemma 1 we can prove the following

**LEMMA 2.** Suppose that the  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is strictly increasing, onto and without fixed points in an open interval  $I$ . Let  $\{f^k\}_{k=0,1,2,\dots}$  be a commutative functional group of  $f$  such that for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f^k$  is continuous in  $I$ , but  $\{f^k\}_{k=0,1,2,\dots}$  is not continuous. Therefore suppose also that for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f^k$  is continuous at least at one point,  $x^k$ .

$$f^k(x) = f^k(x) - f^k(x) + f^k(x), \quad x \in I, \quad (23)$$

then there is  $x \in I$  such that  $f^k(x) = f^k(x)$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**PROOF.** From (23) we have  $f^{2k}(x) = f^{2k}(x) - f^{2k}(x) + f^{2k}(x)$  for  $x \in I$ ,  $x \neq x^k$ . Hence from  $f = f^2$  we get  $f^k(x) = f^{2k}(x) - f^{2k}(x) + f^k(x)$  for all  $x \in I$  and all  $k$  positive integers  $n$ . This condition holds  $x$  and  $x^k$  and a sequence  $\{x_k\}$  of positive constants such that

$$\frac{1}{x_k} \rightarrow 0.$$

Then we have

$$f^k(x) = f^{2k}(x) + f^{2k}(x) - f^{2k}(x), \quad x \in I,$$

since  $f^k$  is continuous and  $\{f^k\}_{k=0,1,2,\dots}$  is a commutative functional group in the sense that

$$f^k(x) = f^k(x) + f^k(x) - f^k(x), \quad x \in I.$$

In view of Lemma 1 the case  $k = 0$  there is a  $x \in I \cap I^c$  such that

$$f^{\prime}(x) = f^{\prime}(x^2)$$

Now we have

$$f^{\prime}(x^2) = 2x f^{\prime}(x) = 2x^2 f^{\prime}(x) = f^{\prime}(2x^2) \quad , \quad x \neq 0 \quad .$$

Since  $f^{\prime}(x)$  is strictly increasing with respect to  $x$  (i.e.,  $f^{\prime}(x) < f^{\prime}(y)$  if  $x < y$ ), we have  $f^{\prime}(2x^2) < f^{\prime}(2x^2)$  for  $x \neq 0$ . Let us take  $x_1, x_2 > 0$  such that  $x_1 < x_2$  and  $x_1^2 = x_2^2$ . The continuity of  $f^{\prime}(x)$  with respect to  $x$  implies that  $f^{\prime}(x_1) = f^{\prime}(x_2)$ . Hence, we may take  $f^{\prime}(2x_1^2) = f^{\prime}(2x_2^2)$ , implying we have two of the three inequalities of  $f^{\prime}(x)$  with respect to  $x$ , we obtain  $f^{\prime}(2x_1^2) = f^{\prime}(2x_2^2)$ . Thus,  $f^{\prime}(2x^2) = f^{\prime}(x)$  is additive and continuous, consequently,  $f^{\prime}(x)$  is a constant and it must that  $f(x) = ax + b$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

### EXERCISES

- (1) Rogers, F.A.J. *Applied Measure Theory*, 2, van Nostrand Reinhold (1987).
- (2) <http://www.math.ubc.ca/~cass/research.html>, *On the structure of the set of points of non-differentiability of a function*, *Journal of Functional Analysis*, 17 (1986) 384-395.
- (3) <http://www.math.ubc.ca/~cass/research.html>, *On the structure of the set of points of non-differentiability of a function*, *Journal of Functional Analysis*, 17 (1986) 384-395.

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