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The Symnetric and Ordinary Derivotive

It is known that i.f $f(x)$ is a continuous real valued function whose symmetric derivative $f_{S}^{\prime}(x)$ exists everywhere, then $f^{\prime}(x)$ exists except on a set which is both of first category and of measure 0 . The most commonly occurring functions whose symmetric derivative exists everywhere are those which have finite right and left derivatives (such as functions which are the difference of two concave upward functions) and then the exceptional set where $f^{\prime}(x)$ does not exist is at most countable. That the exceptional set need not be countable is shown by the example below. However, the exceptional set of this example is 'small', i.e., of Hausdorff dimension 0 (it is arı enumerable set along with a perfect set which can be covered with $2^{r_{1}-1}$ intervals of size $\left.2^{-1 n}(n!)^{-2}\right)$. It is reasonable to ask whether the dimension of the exceptional set can be increased or whether any perfect set of measure 0 can be the exceptional set.

Example: There is a continuous function $f(x)$ suck that $f_{s}^{\prime}(x)$ exists everywhere but $f^{\prime}(x)$ fails to exist on an uncountable set.

Construction: The exceptional set $E$ for $f$ is constructed by dividing $[0,1]$ into 8 equal subintervals and selecting two of them. In general, each interval at the nth stage is divided into $2(n+1)^{2}$ equal subintervals of length $2^{-(n+1)}((n+1)!)^{-2}$ and two subintervals are selected in each interval of the nth stage. The points which are in infinitely many of these intervals form a perfect set.

Specifically, let $A_{n}$ be the set of numbers in $[0,1]$ of the form $k(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$ where $k$ is an integer. Let $E_{1}=[0,1]$ and for $N \geq 2$, let $E_{N}$ be the collection of all real numbers $x=\sum_{2}^{\infty} k_{n}(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$ where $0 \leq k_{n}<2 n^{2}$ and, furthermore, for each $n \leq N$ $k_{n}=n^{2}-n$ or $k_{n}=n^{2}+n$. Let $E=n E_{n}$. For each natural number $n \geq 2$, define:

$$
f_{n}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { dist }\left(x, A_{n}\right) \text { if } x \in E_{n-1} \backslash E_{n} \\
0 \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

It is readily observed that each $f_{n}(x)$ is continuous and that $f_{n}(x) \leq \frac{1}{2}(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$. Thus $f(x)=\sum_{2}^{\infty} f_{n}(x)$ is continuous. If $x \notin E$, then $f_{s}^{\prime}(x)$ exists, since both of the one-sided derivatives of $f$ exist. Let $x \in E$. Then $D_{+} f(x)=0$ and $D^{+} f(x) \geq 1 / 3$. To see this, given $\varepsilon>0$, choose $N$ so that $2\left(N_{0}\right)^{-2} 2^{-N+l}<\varepsilon$ and choose $k_{n}$ so thet $0 \leq k_{n}<2 n^{2}$ and $x \in[a, a+b]$ where $a=\sum_{2}^{N} k_{n}(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$ and $n=(N!)^{-2} 2^{-N+1}$. Let
$h_{l}=a+h-x, h_{2}=a+h-x+\frac{1}{2} h$. Then $f(x)=f\left(x+h_{1}\right)=0$ and $f\left(x+h_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2} h . \quad$ Thus $\frac{f\left(x+h_{j}\right)-f(x)}{h_{1}}=0$, $\frac{f\left(x+h_{2}\right)-f(x)}{h_{2}}=\frac{\frac{1}{2} h}{h_{2}} \geq 1 / 3$ since $h_{2} \leq 3 / 2 h$. Thus $f^{\prime}(x)$ does not exist. It remains to show that $f_{s}^{\prime}(x)$ does exist.

$$
\text { Given } h>0 \text {, suppose }(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1} \leq h
$$

$\leq((n-1):)^{-2} 2^{-n+2}$. If $x+h$ and $x-h$ belong to $E_{n-1} \backslash E_{n}$, then $|f(x+h)-f(x-h)|=\left|f_{n-1}(x+h)-f_{n-1}(x-h)\right|$ which is less than or equal to twice the distance of x to the center of the interval in $E_{n-1}$ which $x$ belongs to. That is, $|f(x+h)-f(x-h)|<2 n(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$ and $h>\frac{1}{2}\left(n^{2}-2 n\right)(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$. Thus

$$
\left|\frac{f(x+h)-f(x-h)}{2 h}\right|<\frac{2 n}{n^{2}-2 n} .
$$

If exactly one of $x+h, x-h$ belongs to $E_{n-1}$, say $x+h$ does, then

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left(n^{2}-2 n-1\right)(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1} \leq h \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(n^{2}+n\right)(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}
$$

and

$$
f(x+h)=f_{n-1}(x+h) \leq(2 n+1)(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}
$$

because $x+h$ extends at most this far out of the interval of $E_{n}$ which contains $x$.
Since $\quad f(x-h)=f_{n}(x-h) \leq \frac{1}{2}(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+l}$,
then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\frac{f(x+h)-f(x-h)}{2 h}\right| & \leq \frac{2 n+3 / 2}{n^{2}-2 n-1} \\
& 107
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose both $x+h$ and $x-h$ belong to $E_{n}$. If $h>n(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$, then, since $f(x+h)$ and $f(x-h)$ are both less than $n!2^{-n+1}$,

$$
\left|\frac{f(x+h)-f(x-h)}{2 h}\right|<\frac{1}{2 n} .
$$

On the other hand, if $h \leq n(n!)^{-2} 2^{-n+1}$, then $|f(x+h)-f(x-h)|$ is less than or equal to twice the distance of $x$ to the center of the interval in $E_{n}$ which contains $x$. That is

$$
|f(x+h)-f(x-h)| \leq 2(n+1)(n+1)^{-2} 2^{-n}
$$

and

$$
|f(x+h)-f(x-h)| \leq \frac{2(n+1)(n+1)^{-2} 2^{-n}}{2 h}=\frac{2}{(n+1)} .
$$

These represent ail possible cases.

$$
\text { Now, as } h \rightarrow 0, n \rightarrow \infty \text { and } \frac{f(x+h)-f(x-h)}{h} \rightarrow 0 \text {; }
$$

thus $f_{s}^{\prime}(x)=0$.

