

Michelle L. Knox*, Department of Mathematics, Midwestern State University,
3410 Taft Blvd., Wichita Falls, TX, 76308, USA.
email: michelle.knox@mwsu.edu

A CHARACTERIZATION OF RINGS OF DENSITY CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

Abstract

A density continuous function is defined as a continuous function from a Tychonoff space X into the real numbers with the density topology. The collection of density continuous functions on X is denoted by $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$. It is shown that $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a ring precisely when each density continuous function is locally constant, and in this case X is defined to be a density P -space. Examples of density P -spaces are given.

1 Introduction.

Historically, the study of the density topology on the real numbers can be traced back to A. Denjoy in 1915. Denjoy defined a function from the real numbers into the real numbers as being *approximately continuous* at a point x if the inverse image M of an open subset of the real numbers is dense about x in terms of Lebesgue measure; that is, if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2h} |M \cap (x - h, x + h)| = 1 \quad (1)$$

where $|A|$ denotes the Lebesgue measure of a set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$. In the 1950s, this idea was used to construct the density topology on the real numbers, denoted \mathbb{R}_d , where a set $O \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is open in the density topology if equation (1) holds for all $x \in O$. An approximately continuous function, as defined by Denjoy, turned out to be a continuous function $f : \mathbb{R}_d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Later, mathematicians called a continuous function $f : \mathbb{R}_d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_d$ a *density continuous* function.

Key Words: Density topology, density continuous function, P -space
Mathematical Reviews subject classification: Primary 54C30; Secondary 26A15
Received by the editors February 7, 2005
Communicated by: Krzysztof Chris Ciesielski

*Parts of this paper can be found in the author's doctoral dissertation at Bowling Green State University.

It is known that the density topology is finer than the usual topology on \mathbb{R} and that subsets of \mathbb{R} of measure zero are closed in the density topology. In particular, countable subsets of \mathbb{R}_d are closed; that is, \mathbb{R}_d is a weak P -space. It follows that the only compact subsets of \mathbb{R}_d are the finite ones. Sometimes we will have cause to consider the real numbers with the discrete topology which will be denoted by \mathbb{R}^d .

Let X be an arbitrary topological space. We will assume that all spaces are Tychonoff; that is, completely regular and Hausdorff. Given a subset A of X , $\text{int } A$ denotes the interior of A in X , and $\text{cl } A$ denotes the closure of A in X . Given two spaces X and Y , the collection of continuous functions $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is denoted by $C(X, Y)$. When $Y = \mathbb{R}$ with the usual topology, we will write $C(X)$ instead, and this set is a ring under pointwise addition and multiplication. Given $f \in C(X)$, the set $Z(f) = \{x \in X : f(x) = 0\}$ is called the zeroset of f , and the set $\text{coz}(f) = \{x \in X : f(x) \neq 0\}$ is called the cozeroset of f . In a Tychonoff space, the cozerosets form a base for the topology on X . It is shown in [6] that \mathbb{R}_d is a Tychonoff space which is not normal.

Previous authors have used the term *density continuous* function to refer specifically to elements of $C(\mathbb{R}_d, \mathbb{R}_d)$. We will generalize this phrase to refer to any member of $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$. The density topology is finer than the usual topology, so we have that $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d) \subseteq C(X)$ for any topological space X . We will also use the notation $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)^+$ to denote the set $\{f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d) : f \geq 0\}$.

A function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called *(real) analytic* if, at each $x_o \in (a, b)$, f is represented by a power series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_o)^n$$

that converges in some open interval $I_\delta = (x_o - \delta, x_o + \delta)$, $\delta > 0$. It is known that the sum, product, reciprocal, composite, and inverse function of real analytic functions is again real analytic. Polynomials are obviously analytic functions on \mathbb{R} . The exponential function $g(x) = e^x$ is analytic on \mathbb{R} , so its inverse function $g^{-1}(x) = \ln x$ is analytic on $(0, \infty)$. The following theorem concerning density continuity of real analytic functions was proved independently by [1] and [2].

Theorem 1.1. *Real analytic functions are density continuous.*

2 The Sum of Density Continuous Functions.

For any space X , it is known that $C(X)$ is a ring and a lattice under pointwise operations. It is natural to ask if $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ has the same properties. In [7], it is shown that $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a sublattice of $C(X)$. The focus of this paper is the investigation of when $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a group or a ring. In the case of $X = \mathbb{R}_d$, as we are about to see in Example 2.1, the set $C(\mathbb{R}_d, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is not closed under addition and hence not a group. This example comes from Theorem 2 of [1] and is the motivation for our characterization of rings of density continuous functions.

Example 2.1. Consider the function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 - x & \text{if } x \geq \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{n} - x & \text{if } \frac{1}{2n} \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2(n-1)} - 2^{-n-10} \text{ for some } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

and f is linear and continuous on $[\frac{1}{2(n-1)} - 2^{-n-10}, \frac{1}{2(n-1)}]$ for $n \geq 2$. The function f is a density continuous function. However, adding the identity function $i(x) = x$ to f yields a function $g(x) = f(x) + x$ which is not an element of $C(\mathbb{R}_d, \mathbb{R}_d)$. The function g fails to be density continuous at zero. In particular, the inverse image of the closed set $F = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is not a density closed set.

It follows from Example 2.1 that $C(\mathbb{R}_d, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is not a group under addition. Example 2.1 leads us to the following characterization of when $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a group (and a ring).

Theorem 2.2. *For a space X , the following are equivalent:*

- (1) $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d) = C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$; that is, every density continuous function is locally constant.
- (2) $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a ring.
- (3) $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is closed under multiplication.
- (4) $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a group.
- (5) $Z(f)$ is open for each $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$.

The proof of Theorem 2.2 will involve a construction in Proposition 2.5 of two density continuous functions whose sum is not density continuous. There was nothing unique about $i(x) = x$ in Example 2.1 or even the domain \mathbb{R}_d . Given any space X and any $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ whose zeroset is not open, we can construct a function $g \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ such that $f + g$ is not an element of $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$. We will need the next lemmas for the proof of Theorem 2.2.

Lemma 2.3. *For any topological space X , $C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$ is a von Neumann regular ring; that is, for each $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$ there exists $f_0 \in C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$ such that $f^2 f_0 = f$.*

Lemma 2.4. *If O is an open neighborhood of zero in \mathbb{R}_d , then the set*

$$O' = ((-\infty, 0] \cap O) \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\left(\left(\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{10^n}, \frac{1}{n} \right) \cap O \right) - \frac{1}{10^n} \right)$$

is also an open neighborhood of zero in \mathbb{R}_d .

PROOF. The set $V = (-\infty, 0] \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{10^n}, \frac{1}{n} \right)$ is a density open neighborhood of zero, and the density open set $V \cap O$ can be written as

$$V \cap O = ((-\infty, 0] \cap O) \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\left(\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{10^n}, \frac{1}{n} \right) \cap O \right).$$

Take $\epsilon > 0$, and choose a natural number N such that $\frac{1}{N+1} \leq \epsilon \leq \frac{1}{N}$. Let

$$A = \left(\frac{1}{N+1} + \frac{1}{10^N}, \frac{1}{N} \right).$$

Then

$$|O' \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)| = \left| O' \cap \left(-\epsilon, \frac{1}{N+1} \right) \right| + \left| \left((A \cap O) - \frac{1}{10^N} \right) \cap (0, \epsilon) \right|.$$

Lebesgue measure is translation invariant, so

$$\left| O' \cap \left(-\epsilon, \frac{1}{N+1} \right) \right| = \left| O \cap V \cap \left(-\epsilon, \frac{1}{N+1} \right) \right|$$

implies that

$$|O' \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)| = \left| O \cap V \cap \left(-\epsilon, \frac{1}{N+1} \right) \right| + \left| \left((A \cap O) - \frac{1}{10^N} \right) \cap (0, \epsilon) \right|.$$

Notice also that

$$\left| \left((A \cap O) - \frac{1}{10^N} \right) \cap (0, \epsilon) \right| \geq |A \cap O \cap (0, \epsilon)|,$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned} |O' \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)| &\geq \left| O \cap V \cap \left(-\epsilon, \frac{1}{N+1}\right) \right| + |A \cap O \cap (0, \epsilon)| \\ &= |O \cap V \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)| \end{aligned}$$

From the previous inequality it follows that

$$1 \geq \frac{|O' \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)|}{2\epsilon} \geq \frac{|O \cap V \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)|}{2\epsilon}.$$

However, $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{|O \cap V \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)|}{2\epsilon} = 1$ since $O \cap V$ is a density open set. Hence $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{|O' \cap (-\epsilon, \epsilon)|}{2\epsilon} = 1$; that is, O' is an open subset of \mathbb{R}_d . \square

Proposition 2.5. *Let $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)^+$ with $Z(f)$ not open. For each $n \geq 2$ let $g_n : \mathbb{R}_d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_d$ be the linear mapping of $[\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n}, \frac{1}{n}]$ onto $[\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{10^{n-1}}]$. Define a function $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_d$ by*

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{10} + f(x) & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}([\frac{1}{2}, \infty)) \\ \frac{1}{10^n} + f(x) & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}([\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n}]) \text{ for some } n \geq 2 \\ (g_n \circ f)(x) & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}([\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n}, \frac{1}{n}]) \text{ for some } n \geq 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in Z(f). \end{cases}$$

Then g is a density continuous function. If $h : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_d$ is defined by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{10} & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}([\frac{1}{2}, \infty)) \\ \frac{1}{10^n} & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}([\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n}]) \text{ for some } n \geq 2 \\ h_n(x) & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}([\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n}, \frac{1}{n}]) \text{ for some } n \geq 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in Z(f). \end{cases}$$

where each h_n is continuous and h is well-defined, then h is not density continuous on $Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$. In particular, $g - f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not density continuous on $Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$.

PROOF. It is straightforward to verify that g is well-defined on X . Since the pieces of g are either linear or the composition of a linear and a density continuous function, g is density continuous on $X \setminus Z(f)$. Clearly g is constant on $\text{int } Z(f)$; we need only show that g is density continuous on $Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$.

Let $a \in Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$ and let O be a density open neighborhood of zero. The set O' as defined in Lemma 2.4 is also a density open neighborhood of zero. Thus by continuity of f there exists an open neighborhood V of a such that $f(V) \subseteq O'$. To see that $g(V) \subseteq O$, take $x \in V$. If $x \in Z(f)$, then $g(x) = 0 \in O$ as needed. If $x \notin Z(f)$, then $f(x)$ being an element of O' means also that $f(x) \in ((\frac{1}{N+1} + \frac{1}{10^N}, \frac{1}{N}) \cap O) - \frac{1}{10^N}$ for some $N \geq 1$. It follows that

$$g(x) = f(x) + \frac{1}{10^N} \in \left(\frac{1}{N+1}, \frac{1}{N} - \frac{1}{10^N} \right) \cap O \subseteq O$$

and thus $g(V) \subseteq O$. Consequently, g is an element of $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$.

The function h is not density continuous on $Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$. Let U be the density open set $U = (-\infty, 0] \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n})$, let $C = h^{-1}(\{\frac{1}{10^n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\})$, and let $a \in Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$. If $X \setminus C$ is open, then the set

$$W = (X \setminus C) \cap f^{-1}(U) = (X \setminus C) \cap \left(Z(f) \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1} \left(\left(\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n} \right) \right) \right)$$

is an open neighborhood of a . Moreover, we claim that $W \subseteq Z(f)$. If $x \in W$, then $x \in X \setminus C$ where C contains the set $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}((\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n}))$ which implies $x \notin \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{10^n})$ and so $x \in Z(f)$. But $a \notin \text{int } Z(f)$ means $W \cap \text{coz}(f)$ is nonempty, which is a contradiction. Consequently, $X \setminus C$ is not open in X ; that is, $h^{-1}(\{\frac{1}{10^n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\})$ is not closed where $\{\frac{1}{10^n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a closed subspace of the weak P -space \mathbb{R}_d . As a result, h is not density continuous on $Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$. \square

PROOF OF THEOREM 2.2. Clearly (1) and (5) are equivalent and (2) implies (3). Suppose (1) holds. By Lemma 2.3, $C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$ is a ring. It follows that $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d) = C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$ is a ring, so (1) implies (2).

Assume $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is closed under multiplication. To show $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is a group, it suffices to show it is closed under addition. Recall from Theorem 1.1 that the exponential function $h(x) = e^x$ is density continuous. The functions $(h \circ f)(x) = e^{f(x)}$ and $(h \circ g)(x) = e^{g(x)}$ are compositions of density continuous functions and hence are density continuous. The product $e^{f(x)} e^{g(x)} = e^{f(x)+g(x)}$ is density continuous by assumption. The natural logarithm is a density continuous function on $(0, \infty)$ again by Theorem 1.1, so the function $\ln(e^{f(x)+g(x)}) = f(x) + g(x)$ is density continuous; i.e. $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is closed under addition.

Now suppose $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d) \neq C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$; that is, there is a function f in $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ with $Z(f)$ not open. Since $Z(f) = Z(|f|)$ and $|x|$ is density continuous, without loss of generality we may assume $f \geq 0$. Let $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_d$ be the density continuous function defined in Proposition 2.5. By the same proposition, $g - f$ is the sum of two density continuous functions which is not density continuous on $Z(f) \setminus \text{int } Z(f)$. We conclude that $C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ is not a group, and so (4) implies (1). \square

Definition 2.6. We will call a space that satisfies the conditions of Theorem 2.2 a *density P -space*. Observe that a space X is a density P -space if and only if every point of X has an open neighborhood which is a density P -space. Let us compare the definition of a density P -space to that of a P -space. A point $p \in X$ is called a P -point if $Z(f)$ contains an open neighborhood of p for all $f \in C(X)$. A space X is a P -space if each point of X is a P -point. In fact, X is a P -space if and only if $Z(f)$ is open for every $f \in C(X)$ if and only if $C(X)$ is a von Neumann regular ring. It should be obvious that every P -space is a density P -space, but the converse fails. The compact interval $[0, 1]$ is a density P -space, as we will soon see, but it is not a P -space. Examples of spaces which are not density P -spaces include \mathbb{R}_d and the following example.

Example 2.7. Let τ be any nondiscrete topology on \mathbb{R} which is finer than the density topology, and let \mathbb{R}_τ denote the real numbers with the topology τ . Since τ is not discrete, there is a non-isolated point $r \in \mathbb{R}_\tau$. The space \mathbb{R}_τ is not a density P -space because the function $i - \mathbf{r} : \mathbb{R}_\tau \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_d$ is density continuous but its zeroset $\{z\}$ is not open.

3 Examples of Density P -Spaces.

In this section we explore which topological spaces are density P -spaces. More information on pseudocompact spaces, totally ordered spaces, and other spaces mentioned below can be found in [4].

Definition 3.1. Recall that a space X is *pseudocompact* if for each $f \in C(X)$ there exists a real number M such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in X$. In other words, every real-valued continuous function on X is bounded. An open cover \mathcal{O} of X is *locally finite* if for each $x \in X$ there is an open set O containing x which intersects only finitely many elements of \mathcal{O} . Since we are assuming X is Tychonoff, pseudocompactness is equivalent to the condition that every locally finite open cover of X is finite.

Theorem 3.2. *If X is a pseudocompact space, then X is a density P -space. Furthermore, if $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$, then $f(X)$ is a finite subset of \mathbb{R}_d .*

PROOF. Suppose X is not a density P -space. We will construct a locally finite open cover which is infinite. Select a nonnegative density continuous function f whose zerset is not open. Because $Z(f)$ is not open, we can find a sequence of distinct positive real numbers $A = \{r_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq f(X)$ which decrease to zero. Next define sets $O_1 = \mathbb{R}_d \setminus A$ and $O_i = (r_i - \frac{r_i - r_{i+1}}{10^i}, r_i + \frac{r_{i-1} - r_i}{10^i})$ for each natural number $i \geq 2$. The set O_1 is cocountable, and each O_i is open in the usual topology for $i \geq 2$, thus each O_i is open in the density topology. It follows that the family $\mathcal{F} = \{f^{-1}(O_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty$ is a family of nonempty open sets which covers X .

Next we will show that this family is locally finite. To see this, take $y \in X$. First consider the case when $f(y) = 0$. The set

$$U = (-\infty, 0] \cup \bigcup_{i=2}^{\infty} \left(r_i + \frac{r_{i-1} - r_i}{10^i}, r_{i-1} - \frac{r_{i-1} - r_i}{10^{i-1}} \right)$$

is a density open neighborhood of zero, so the set $f^{-1}(U)$ is an open neighborhood of y in X . Furthermore, $f^{-1}(U) \cap O_i$ is empty except when $i = 1$, so U is an open neighborhood of y such that U intersects exactly one member of \mathcal{F} . Next consider the case where $f(y) \neq 0$. If $y \in f^{-1}([r_1, \infty))$, then y can only be an element of O_1 . If $y \in f^{-1}((r_{N+2}, r_N))$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, then $f^{-1}((r_{N+1}, r_N))$ only meets O_i for $i \leq N + 3$. Hence \mathcal{F} is a locally finite open cover of X . But \mathcal{F} is not a finite family. Indeed, if a point $x \in f^{-1}(\{r_n\})$ for some n , then $x \in f^{-1}(O_{n+1})$ but $x \notin f^{-1}(O_i)$ for every $i \neq n + 1$. The existence of a locally finite open cover of X which is not finite implies that X is not pseudocompact.

Now suppose $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d) = C(X, \mathbb{R}^d)$ with $f(X)$ infinite, say $\{r_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq f(X)$. Then for each n , we have $f^{-1}(\{r_n\})$ is a clopen subset of X . Define $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } x \in f^{-1}(\{r_n\}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then g is an unbounded element of $C(X)$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $f(X)$ is finite. \square

Definition 3.3. A space X is *locally compact* if for each $x \in X$ there is a compact subspace K of X containing x . A space X is called *sequentially compact* if every sequence of points of X has a convergent subsequence, and

it is said to be *locally sequentially compact* if, for every $x \in X$ and any open neighborhood O of x , there exists an open neighborhood U of x such that $\text{cl}U \subseteq O$ and $\text{cl}U$ is sequentially compact.

Corollary 3.4. *Locally compact and locally sequentially compact spaces are density P -spaces.*

PROOF. Compact and sequentially compact spaces are pseudocompact. So if each point of the space has an open neighborhood which is pseudocompact and hence a density P -space, then the entire space is a density P -space. \square

Definition 3.5. A set X is called *totally ordered* if there exists a partial order \leq on X such that for any two elements $x, y \in X$, either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. A totally ordered set can be equipped with the interval (or order) topology in which open intervals of the form $(a, b) = \{x \in X : a < x < b\}$ form a base for the topology, where we allow for $a = -\infty$ and $b = \infty$. Such a space is called a *totally ordered space*.

Proposition 3.6. *If X is a totally ordered space, then X is a density P -space.*

PROOF. Let $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ and fix a point $z \in X$. If z is not the limit of an increasing or decreasing sequence, then by 5.O.1 in [5] we know that z is a P -point; i.e., every element g of $C(X)$ is constant on an open neighborhood of z . Hence f is constant on an open neighborhood of z .

Now suppose z is the limit of an increasing or decreasing sequence; without loss of generality, say z is the limit of the increasing sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Suppose, by means of contradiction, that f is not constant on any neighborhood of z . Let $y_1 = x_1$, then inductively define a sequence $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ such that $x_n < y_n < z$ and $f(y_n) \neq f(z)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Notice that the sequence $\{y_n\}$ converges to z because $\{x_n\}$ converges to z and $y_n > x_n$ for all n . The set $A = \{f(y_n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a countable subset of the weak P -space \mathbb{R}_d and thus closed in \mathbb{R}_d . But then $f^{-1}(\mathbb{R}_d \setminus A)$ is an open neighborhood of z disjoint from the sequence $\{y_n\}$ which converges to z . This is a contradiction. As a result, f is constant on a neighborhood of z , and we conclude that X is a density P -space. \square

Proposition 3.7. *Let X be a separable space; that is, a space which contains a countable, dense subset. Then X is a density P -space. Moreover, $|f(X)| = \aleph_0$ for all $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$.*

PROOF. Let $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$, and let A be a countable dense subset of X . The set $f(A)$ is a countable subset of the weak P -space \mathbb{R}_d and thus closed in \mathbb{R}_d . Continuity of f yields that $f^{-1}(f(A))$ is a closed subset of X containing A , and since A is dense we must have $f^{-1}(f(A)) = X$; that is, $f(X) = f(A)$. Since $f(A)$ is a countable subset of \mathbb{R}_d , it is a discrete subspace. It follows that $f^{-1}(\{r\})$ is a clopen subset of X for all $r \in f(X)$; i.e., f is a locally constant function. \square

Definition 3.8. A space X is said to be *locally connected* if for each $x \in X$ and each open set O containing x there is a connected set $C \subseteq O$ containing x .

Proposition 3.9. *Any locally connected space is a density P -space.*

PROOF. First suppose X is a locally connected topological space, $x \in X$, and $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$. Note that $O = (\mathbb{R}_d \setminus \mathbb{Q}) \cup \{f(x)\}$ is an open neighborhood of $f(x)$ in \mathbb{R}_d . By continuity of f there exists an open neighborhood U of x so that $f(U) \subseteq O$. Moreover, using local connectedness of X we can choose U to be connected, and thus $f(U)$ is connected. However, we claim that no subspace of O containing $f(x)$ is connected except $\{f(x)\}$. This is true because a connected subspace of \mathbb{R}_d is necessarily connected in \mathbb{R} , and no subspace of O as a subspace of \mathbb{R} is connected except for singleton sets. Hence $f(U) = \{f(x)\}$; i.e., f is constant on U . \square

Remark 3.10. It is not possible to generalize the above argument to connected spaces. The space \mathbb{R}_d is connected but not a density P -space, so it is not locally connected.

Definition 3.11. Given a point $x \in X$, we say X is *countably tight at x* if, for any subset A of X , $x \in \text{cl } A$ implies $x \in \text{cl } C$ for some countable set $C \subseteq A$. If X is countably tight at all points of X , then X is said to be a *countably tight space*.

Proposition 3.12. *Let x be a countably tight point in a topological space X and let $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$, then there is a neighborhood of x on which f is constant. In particular, a countably tight space is a density P -space.*

PROOF. Let $A = f^{-1}(\mathbb{R}_d \setminus \{f(x)\})$ and note that A is open in X by continuity of f . Assume, to get a contradiction, that $x \in \text{cl} A$. Then because x is a countably tight point, there exists a countable subset C of A such that $x \in \text{cl} C$. The set $f(C)$ is a countable subspace of the weak P -space \mathbb{R}_d and hence closed. So $f^{-1}(\mathbb{R}_d \setminus f(C))$ is an open neighborhood of x disjoint from C , which is a contradiction. Hence $x \notin \text{cl} A$, and $X \setminus \text{cl} A$ is an open neighborhood of x on which the function f is constant. \square

Corollary 3.13. *First countable spaces are density P -spaces.*

Remark 3.14. We now have that each of the following types of spaces are density P -spaces:

- (1) pseudocompact
- (2) totally ordered
- (3) separable
- (4) locally connected
- (5) locally compact
- (6) locally sequentially compact
- (7) P -space
- (8) countably tight

A topological sum is a density P -space if and only if each summand is a density P -space. Examples of non-density P -spaces include the spaces mentioned in Example 2.7 as well as a topological sum of a non-density P -space with any other space. The product of an arbitrary space with a non-density P -space is a non-density P -space. We do not know if the product of density P -spaces is again a density P -space.

Recall that every subspace of a P -space is again a P -space. This does not hold for density P -spaces. One example is \mathbb{R}_d as a subspace of its Stone-Ćech compactification $\beta\mathbb{R}_d$. We have already seen that \mathbb{R}_d is not a density P -space, but $\beta\mathbb{R}_d$ is a density P -space because it is compact. However, open subspaces of density P -spaces are density P -spaces in certain situations. To explore this, we need the following definition.

Definition 3.15. A space X is called *density Tychonoff* if for each closed set $A \subset X$ and for each point $x \in X$ not in A there exists $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ such that $f(x) = 0$ and $f(A) = 1$. In this case, the cozerosets of density continuous functions form a base for the topology on X .

Zero-dimensional spaces; that is, spaces in which clopen sets form a base for the topology, are common examples of density Tychonoff spaces. When X is a density P -space it is easy to see that density Tychonoff and zero-dimensional are equivalent. We do not, at this time, have an example of a density Tychonoff space which is not zero-dimensional.

Proposition 3.16. *Suppose X is a density Tychonoff, density P -space. Then every open subspace of X is a density P -space.*

PROOF. Let O be an open subset of X , $f \in C(O, \mathbb{R}_d)$, and $x \in O$. Since X is density Tychonoff, there exists $g \in C(X, \mathbb{R}_d)$ such that $\text{coz}(g) = C$ contains x and $C \subseteq O$. This means C is a clopen subset of X and hence also a density P -space. Now let $\bar{f} = f|_C$, then $\bar{f} \in C(C, \mathbb{R}_d)$ means \bar{f} is constant on some open neighborhood of x in C . It follows that f is constant on some open neighborhood of x in O . \square

Question 3.17. Can we drop the assumption that X be a density Tychonoff space in Proposition 3.16?

Acknowledgement. I would like to thank the referee for helpful suggestions and remarks.

References

- [1] M. Burke, *Some Remarks on Density-Continuous Functions*, Real Analysis Exchange, **14** (1988-89), 235–242.
- [2] K. Ciesielski, L. Larson, *The Space of Density Continuous Functions*, Acta Math Hung., **58** (1991), 289–296.
- [3] A. Denjoy, *Sur Les Fonctions Derivees Sommables*, Bull. Soc. Math. France, **43** (1915), 161–248.
- [4] R. Engelking, *General Topology*, Sigma Series in Pure Mathematics Volume 6, 1989, Heldermann Verlag.
- [5] L. Gillman, M. Jerrison, *Rings of Continuous Functions*, The University Series in Higher Mathematics, 1960, D. Van Nostrand.

- [6] C. Goffman, C. J. Neugebauer, T. Nishiura, *Density Topology and Approximate Continuity*, Duke Math Journal, **28** (1961), 497–505.
- [7] M. L. Knox, Dissertation, Bowling Green State University, 2005.

