

The Peano Curve of Schoenberg Is Nowhere Differentiable*

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Let $f(t)$ be defined in $[0, 1]$ by

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= 0 && \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{3}, \\ &= 3t - 1 && \text{if } \frac{1}{3} \leq t \leq \frac{2}{3}, \\ &= 1 && \text{if } \frac{2}{3} \leq t \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

and extended to all real t by requiring that $f(t)$ should be an even function having period 2. The plane arc defined parametrically by the equations

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=0}^t \frac{f(3^{2n}t)}{2^{n+1}}, \quad y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^t \frac{f(3^{2n+1}t)}{2^{n+1}} \quad (0 \leq t \leq 1)$$

is known to be continuous, and to map the interval $I = \{0 \leq x \leq 1\}$ onto the entire square $I^2 = \{0 \leq x, y \leq 1\}$. (See I. J. Schoenberg, *Bull. Amer. Math. Soc.* **44** (1938), 519). Here it is shown that this arc is nowhere differentiable, meaning the following: There is no value of t such that both derivatives $x'(t)$ and $y'(t)$ exist and are finite.

1. INTRODUCTION

It came as quite a surprise to the mathematical world when, in 1875, Weierstrass constructed an everywhere continuous, nowhere differentiable function (see [1]). Equally startling though was the discovery by Giuseppe Peano [2] 15 years thereafter that the unit interval could be mapped continuously onto the entire unit square I^2 .

Well known now are examples of area-filling curves, and of continuous functions which are nowhere differentiable. This paper brings together these two pathological properties by showing that the plane Peano curve of Schoenberg [3], defined in Section 3 below, lacks at every point a finite derivative (Theorem 3). An analogous space curve is similarly shown to fill the unit cube I^3 (Theorem 2), and to be nowhere differentiable (Theorem 4).

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2. AN IDENTITY ON THE CANTOR SET F

The foundation of Schoenberg's curve is the continuous function $f(t)$, defined first in $[0, 1]$ by

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= 0 && \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{3}, \\ &= 3t - 1 && \text{if } \frac{1}{3} \leq t \leq \frac{2}{3}, \\ &= 1 && \text{if } \frac{2}{3} \leq t \leq 1. \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

We then extend its definition to all real t such that $f(t)$ is an even function of period 2 (see Fig. 1). Thus

$$f(-t) = f(t), \quad f(t + 2) = f(t) \quad \text{for all } t.$$

The main property of this function is that it produces the following remarkable identity on F .

LEMMA 1. *If t is an element of Cantor's Set F , then*

$$t = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2f(3^n t)/3^{n+1}. \tag{2.2}$$

Proof. If indeed $t \in F$, it can be expressed as

$$t = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n/3^{n+1} \quad (a_n = 0, 2); \tag{2.3}$$

then (2.2) would follow from the relations

$$a_n = 2 \cdot f(3^n t) \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots). \tag{2.4}$$

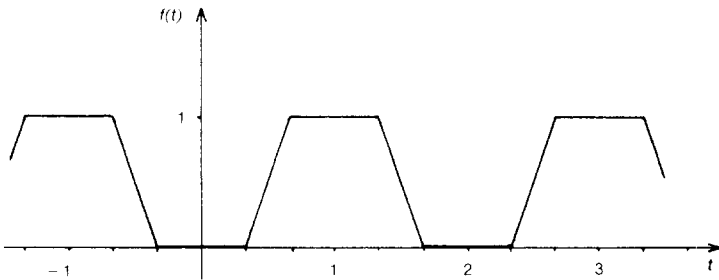


FIG. 1. The continuous function $f(t)$.

To prove (2.4) observe that (2.3) implies

$$3^n t = 3^n \left(\frac{a_0}{3} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1}}{3^n} \right) + \frac{a_n}{3} + \frac{a_{n+1}}{3^2} + \dots,$$

whence

$$3^n t = M_n + \frac{a_n}{3} + \frac{a_{n+1}}{3^2} + \dots \quad (M_n \text{ is an even integer}). \quad (2.5)$$

From the graph of $f(t)$ we conclude the following:

$$\text{If } a_n = 0, \text{ then } M_n \leq 3^n t \leq M_n + \frac{2}{3^2} + \frac{2}{3^3} + \dots = M_n + \frac{1}{3}$$

and therefore $f(3^n t) = 0$.

$$\text{If } a_n = 2, \text{ then } M_n + \frac{2}{3} \leq 3^n t \leq M_n + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3^2} + \dots = M_n + 1$$

and so $f(3^n t) = 1$.

This establishes (2.4) and thus the relation (2.2).

3. SCHOENBERG'S CURVE

This function is defined parametrically by the equations

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{2n}t), \quad (3.1)$$

$$y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{2n+1}t) \quad (0 \leq t \leq 1). \quad (3.2)$$

The mapping $t \rightarrow (x(t), y(t))$ indeed defines a curve: its continuity follows from the expansions (3.1), (3.2) being not only termwise continuous, but dominated by the series of constants

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = 1. \quad (3.3)$$

These conditions insure their uniform convergence, and therefore also the continuity of their sums.

Now if $t \in \Gamma$, hence

$$t = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{3^{n+1}} \quad (a_n = 0, 2), \quad (3.4)$$

by (2.4) we may write (3.1) and (3.2) as

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{a_{2n}}{2}, \quad y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{a_{2n+1}}{2}. \tag{3.5}$$

We then invert these relationships: let $P = (x(t), y(t))$ be an arbitrarily preassigned point of the square $I^2 = \{0 \leq x, y \leq 1\}$, and regard (3.5) as the binary expansions of the coordinates of P . This defines a_{2n} and a_{2n+1} , and therefore also the full sequence $\{a_n\}$. With it we define $t (\in I)$ by (3.4), and thus the expressions (3.5), being a consequence of (3.1) and (3.2), show that the point P is on our curve. This proves

THEOREM 1. *The mapping*

$$t \rightarrow (x(t), y(t))$$

from I into I^2 defined by (3.1), (3.2), is continuous, and covers the square I^2 , even if t is restricted to the Cantor Set Γ .

This result extends naturally to higher dimensions. We discuss only the case of the space curve

$$X(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{3n}t), \tag{3.6}$$

$$Y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{3n+1}t), \tag{3.7}$$

$$Z(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{3n+2}t) \quad (0 \leq t \leq 1). \tag{3.8}$$

The continuity of $X(t)$, $Y(t)$, and $Z(t)$, as in the two-dimensional case, is guaranteed by the continuity of each of their terms and by the convergence of the series of constants (3.3). If we define t by (3.4), so $a_n = 0, 2$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, then again (2.4) shows that

$$X(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{a_{3n}}{2}, \quad Y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{a_{3n+1}}{2}, \tag{3.9}$$

$$Z(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{a_{3n+2}}{2}.$$

If the right sides are the binary expansions of the coordinates of an arbitrarily chosen point of I^3 , then this point of I^3 is reached by our space curve for the value of $t \in \Gamma$ defined by (3.4). Thus we have proven

THEOREM 2. *The mapping*

$$t \rightarrow (X(t), Y(t), Z(t))$$

from I into I^3 defined by (3.6), (3.7), (3.8), is continuous, and fills the cube I^3 , even if t is restricted to the Cantor Set I .

Theorems 1 and 2 raise an interesting question. Just *how* does the plane curve, for example, fill the square as t varies from 0 to 1? Though by no means may this question be answered completely, we can gain some feeling for the curve's path by viewing it as the point-for-point limit of the sequence of continuous mappings

$$t \rightarrow (x_k(t), y_k(t)) \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \dots), \quad (3.10)$$

where x_k and y_k are the k th partial sums of the series (3.1) and (3.2) defining x and y . The graph of this sequence for $k = 0, 1, 2$ and $0 \leq t \leq 1$ is shown in Fig. 2. (The origin is at the lower left corners, with x_k and y_k on the

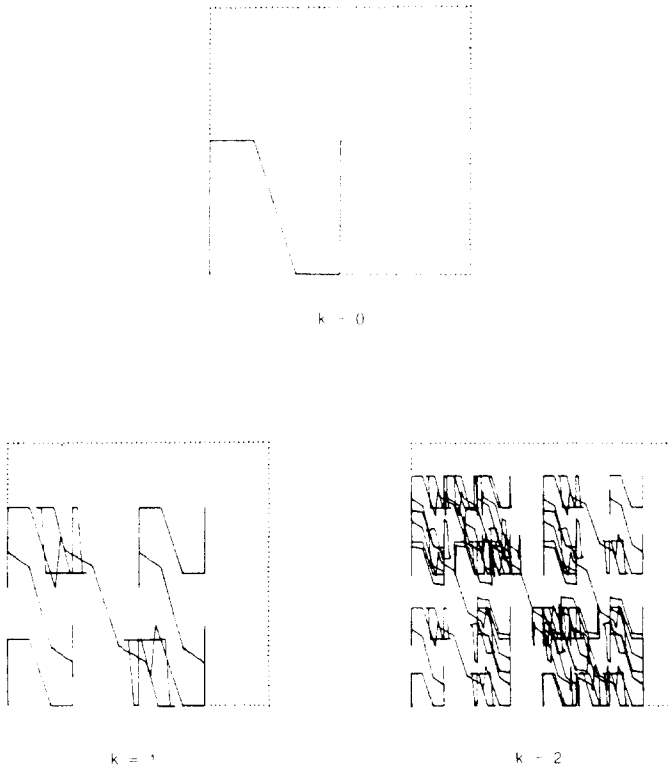


FIG. 2. The approximation curves $t \rightarrow (x_k(t), y_k(t))$ for $k = 0, 1, 2$.

horizontal and vertical axes, respectively. The dotted lines delineate the boundary of I^2 .)

Note in particular in Fig. 2 that the curves lack the one-to-one property for $k = 1, 2$. This fact, together with the promise for increased complexity in these approximation curves as $k \rightarrow \infty$, suggests that the limit curve itself may be many-to-one.

The implication is indeed correct, and not only for the case at hand. If an area-filling curve were one-to-one, it would be a homeomorphism. The unit interval and I^n (for $n \geq 2$), however, are not homeomorphic, since the removal of any interior point disconnects I but not I^n .

The point $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ of I^2 nicely illustrates this many-to-one property for Schoenberg's curve (3.1), (3.2). Since the number $\frac{1}{2}$ can be expressed in binary form either as .1000... or .0111..., (3.4) and (3.5) imply that $(x(t_0), y(t_0)) = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ is the image of *four* distinct elements of the Cantor Set F , namely,

$$t_0 = \frac{1}{9}, \frac{11}{36}, \frac{25}{36}, \frac{8}{9}.$$

In fact, the set of all (x, y) with four preimages in F is dense in the square. Theorem 1 asserted that F , a set of Lebesgue measure zero, is sufficiently large to be mapped onto I^2 , a set of plane measure 1. It would now seem that F has more points than I^2 !

In the next section, we explore yet another property of Schoenberg's curve, and prove our main result.

4. THE PEANO CURVE OF SCHOENBERG IS NOWHERE DIFFERENTIABLE

We say that a plane curve $(x(t), y(t))$ is *differentiable at t_0* if both derivatives $x'(t_0)$ and $y'(t_0)$ exist and are finite. Our goal will be to prove

THEOREM 3. *For no value of t do both functions*

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{2n}t), \tag{4.1}$$

$$y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{2n+1}t), \tag{4.2}$$

have finite derivatives $x'(t)$, $y'(t)$.

¹ More precisely, $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ is a quintuple point of the curve, having its fifth preimage, $t_0 = \frac{1}{2}$, in $[0, 1] \setminus F$.

Since $f(t)$ is an even function of period two, then so are $x(t)$ and $y(t)$. Thus it suffices to prove Theorem 3 for $t \in I = [0, 1]$. The theorem will follow from the proofs of two lemmas.

Let t be a fixed number in $[0, 1]$, expressed in ternary form by

$$t = \frac{a_0}{3} + \frac{a_1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{a_n}{3^{n+1}} + \cdots \quad (a_n = 0, 1, 2). \quad (4.3)$$

and corresponding to this t , define the following disjoint sets:

$$N_0 = \{n: a_{2n} = 0\},$$

$$N_1 = \{n: a_{2n} = 1\},$$

$$N_2 = \{n: a_{2n} = 2\}.$$

The first of our lemmas is

LEMMA 2. $x'(t)$ does not exist finitely if $N_0 \cup N_2$ is an infinite set.

In the proof we make use of several properties of the function $f(t)$:

$$f(t+2) = f(t) \quad \text{for all } t. \quad (4.4)$$

If M is an integer and $t_1 \in [M, M + \frac{1}{3}]$, $t_2 \in [M + \frac{2}{3}, M + 1]$, then

$$|f(t_1) - f(t_2)| = 1. \quad (4.5)$$

$f(t)$ also satisfies the Lipschitz condition

$$|f(t_1) - f(t_2)| \leq 3 \cdot |t_1 - t_2| \quad \text{for any } t_1, t_2. \quad (4.6)$$

Let us now assume that $m \in N_0 \cup N_2$, hence $a_{2m} = 0$ or $a_{2m} = 2$. For such m , we define the increment

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_m &= \frac{2}{3} 9^{-m} & \text{if } a_{2m} = 0, \\ &= -\frac{2}{3} 9^{-m} & \text{if } a_{2m} = 2. \end{aligned} \quad (4.7)$$

and seek to estimate the corresponding difference quotient

$$\frac{x(t + \delta_m) - x(t)}{\delta_m} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m}, \quad (4.8)$$

where

$$\gamma_{n,m} = \frac{f(9^n(t + \delta_m)) - f(9^n t)}{\delta_m}. \quad (4.9)$$

We must distinguish three cases.

(i) $n > m$. By (4.7), $9^n \delta_m = \pm \frac{2}{3} 9^{n-m}$, which is an even integer. Thus by (4.4), we conclude that

$$\gamma_{n,m} = 0 \quad \text{if } n > m, \quad (4.10)$$

regardless of the value of a_{2m} .

(ii) $n < m$. Here we make use of the Lipschitz inequality (4.6) to show that

$$|\gamma_{n,m}| \leq 3 \cdot |9^n \delta_m| / |\delta_m|,$$

whence

$$|\gamma_{n,m}| \leq 3 \cdot 9^n \quad \text{for } n < m. \quad (4.11)$$

(iii) $n = m$. By (4.3), we see that

$$9^m t = 3^{2m} t = M + \frac{a_{2m}}{3} + \frac{a_{2m+1}}{3^2} + \dots \quad (M \text{ is an integer}). \quad (4.12)$$

Here we must distinguish two subcases:

If $a_{2m} = 0$, and so, by (4.7), $9^m \delta_m = 2/3$, (4.12) implies that $M \leq 9^m t \leq M + 2/3^2 + 2/3^3 + \dots$. Since $2/3^2 + 2/3^3 + \dots = 1/3$, we find that $M \leq 9^m t \leq M + 1/3$, and therefore that $M + 2/3 \leq 9^m t + 9^m \delta_m \leq M + 1$.

If $a_{2m} = 2$, then, by (4.7), $9^m \delta_m = -2/3$. From (4.12), $M + 2/3 \leq 9^m t \leq M + 2/3 + 2/3^2 + \dots = M + 1$, while $M \leq 9^m t + 9^m \delta_m \leq M + 1/3$.

In either subcase, we can apply (4.5) to conclude that

$$|\gamma_{m,m}| = 1/|\delta_m| = \frac{3}{2} 9^m, \quad (4.13)$$

regardless of the value of a_{2m} .

The results (4.10), (4.11), and (4.13) hold under the sole assumption

$$m \in N_0 \cup N_2.$$

Applying them to the difference quotient

$$DQ_m = \frac{x(t + \delta_m) - x(t)}{\delta_m}, \quad (4.14)$$

we find by (4.8) that

$$\begin{aligned} |DQ_m| &= \left| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m} \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{n=0}^m \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m} \right| \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\geq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} |\gamma_{n,m}| - \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} |\gamma_{n,m}| \\
&\geq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{3}{2} 9^m - \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot 3 \cdot 9^n \\
&= \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{9}{2}\right)^m - \frac{3}{7} \left[\left(\frac{9}{2}\right)^m - 1 \right].
\end{aligned}$$

and finally

$$\left| \frac{x(t + \delta_m) - x(t)}{\delta_m} \right| \geq \frac{9}{28} \left(\frac{9}{2}\right)^m + \frac{3}{7} \quad \text{if } m \in N_0 \cup N_2. \quad (4.15)$$

This establishes Lemma 2 if, in (4.15), we let $m \rightarrow \infty$ through the elements of the infinite sequence $N_0 \cup N_2$.

We now turn our attention to the digits of t having odd subscripts, and define the sets

$$N'_0 = \{n: a_{2n+1} = 0\},$$

$$N'_1 = \{n: a_{2n+1} = 1\},$$

$$N'_2 = \{n: a_{2n+1} = 2\}.$$

Now if

$$t = \frac{a_0}{3} + \frac{a_1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{a_{2n+1}}{3^{2n+2}} + \cdots,$$

then for $\tau = 3t$ we find

$$\tau = a_0 + \frac{a_1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{a_{2n+1}}{3^{2n+1}} + \cdots.$$

As the same time

$$x(\tau) = \sum_{n=0}^{\tau} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{2n}\tau) = \sum_{n=0}^{\tau} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{2n+1}t) = y(t).$$

Applying Lemma 2 to $x(t)$ at the point $\tau = 3t$, we see that the digits a_{2n+1} are the digits of τ having *even* subscripts. We thus obtain

COROLLARY 1. $y'(t)$ does not exist finitely if $N'_0 \cup N'_2$ is an infinite set.

By Lemma 2 and Corollary 1 we can conclude that the only t for which

$x'(t)$ and $y'(t)$ might both exist and be finite, is one whose sets $N_0 \cup N_2$ and $N'_0 \cup N'_2$ are finite. This is the case if and only if the digits

$$a_n = 1 \quad \text{for all sufficiently large } n. \quad (4.16)$$

On the other hand, to prove the *nondifferentiability* of the mapping $t \rightarrow (x(t), y(t))$, it suffices to show that one of the derivatives $x'(t)$, $y'(t)$ fails to exist.

LEMMA 3. *If t is such that (4.16) holds, then $x'(t)$ does not exist finitely.*

The simplest t satisfying (4.16) is the one for which all $a_n = 1$, or

$$t = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

We must, however, treat the general case, where

$$t = \frac{a_0}{3} + \frac{a_1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{a_{2m-1}}{3^{2m}} + \frac{1}{3^{2m+1}} + \frac{1}{3^{2m+2}} + \cdots, \quad (4.17)$$

with $a_n = 0, 1, 2$ for $n = 0, 1, \dots, 2m - 1$. To prove the lemma, we proceed as in Lemma 2 by estimating the difference quotient

$$\frac{x(t + \delta_m) - x(t)}{\delta_m} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m}, \quad (4.18)$$

where

$$\gamma_{n,m} = \frac{f(9^n(t + \delta_m)) - f(9^n t)}{\delta_m}. \quad (4.19)$$

Here, though, we must abandon our former choice for the increment δ_m in favor of

$$\delta_m = \frac{2}{9} 9^{-m}. \quad (4.20)$$

We will once again examine the quantity $\gamma_{n,m}$ in terms of three cases:

(i) $n > m$. From (4.20), $9^n \delta_m = \frac{2}{9} 9^{n-m}$, which is an even integer. Thus, by property (4.4), the periodicity of $f(t)$, we see that

$$\gamma_{n,m} = 0 \quad \text{if } n > m, \quad (4.21)$$

(ii) $n < m$. In this case, we again use the Lipschitz condition (4.6) to conclude that

$$|\gamma_{n,m}| \leq 3 \cdot 9^n \quad \text{if } n < m. \quad (4.22)$$

(iii) $n = m$. By (4.17),

$$9^m t = 3^{2m} t = M + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{i}{3^2} + \cdots \quad (M \text{ is an integer}),$$

whence

$$9^m t = M + \frac{1}{2}$$

while

$$9^m \delta_m = \frac{2}{9}. \quad (4.24)$$

From the graph of $f(t)$, Fig. 1,

$$f(N + \frac{1}{2}) = f(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{for any integer } N, \quad (4.25)$$

and so from (4.23),

$$f(9^m t) = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (4.26)$$

The addition of (4.23) and (4.24) gives

$$9^m t + 9^m \delta_m = M + 13/18,$$

and since $2/3 < 13/18 < 1$, Fig. 1 shows us that

$$\begin{aligned} f(9^m t + 9^m \delta_m) &= 0 && \text{if } M \text{ is odd,} \\ &= 1 && \text{if } M \text{ is even.} \end{aligned} \quad (4.27)$$

Regardless of the value of M , (4.26) and (4.27) imply that

$$|f(9^m t + 9^m \delta_m) - f(9^m t)| = \frac{1}{2},$$

and therefore, by (4.19) and (4.20), that

$$|\gamma_{m,m}| = \frac{1/2}{|\delta_m|} = \frac{9}{4} 9^m. \quad (4.28)$$

Applying the results (4.21), (4.22), and (4.28) to the difference quotient (4.18),

$$\begin{aligned} |DQ_m| &= \left| \frac{x(t + \delta_m) - x(t)}{\delta_m} \right| = \left| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m} \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{n=0}^m \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m} \right| \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\geq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} |\gamma_{m,m}| - \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} |\gamma_{n,m}| \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{9}{4} 9^m - \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \cdot 3 \cdot 9^n, \end{aligned}$$

which yields

$$|DQ_m| \geq \frac{39}{56} \left(\frac{9}{2}\right)^m + \frac{3}{7}. \tag{4.29}$$

If, in (4.29), we let $m \rightarrow \infty$, $\delta_m \rightarrow 0$, hence x is not differentiable at t . This establishes Lemma 3, and therefore also Theorem 3.

While Lemma 3 alone is sufficient to prove the nondifferentiability of the mapping

$$t \rightarrow (x(t), y(t)) \tag{4.30}$$

for t defined by (4.17), $y'(t)$ as well may be shown not to exist for such t . This claim is easily verified by the same argument that produced Corollary 1.

5. THE GENERALIZATION OF THEOREM 3

Analogous to Schoenberg's plane Peano curve (4.1), (4.2) is the space curve

$$X(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{3n}t), \tag{5.1}$$

$$Y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{3n+1}t), \tag{5.2}$$

$$Z(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} f(3^{3n+2}t) \quad (0 \leq t \leq 1), \tag{5.3}$$

introduced in Section 3. By way of Theorem 2, we saw that these functions define a Peano curve filling the unit cube I^3 . Here, in a similar fashion, we seek to extend Theorem 3 to higher dimensions.

THEOREM 4. *The Peano curve defined by (5.1), (5.2), (5.3) above is nowhere differentiable.*

The technique of proof used for Theorem 3 will apply nicely; again we shall have two lemmas and a corollary.

Indeed, with t defined by

$$t = \frac{a_0}{3} + \frac{a_1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{a_n}{3^{n+1}} + \cdots \quad (a_n = 0, 1, 2).$$

we define the corresponding sets of integers

$$M_0 = \{n: a_{3n} = 0\}, \quad M_1 = \{n: a_{3n} = 1\}, \quad M_2 = \{n: a_{3n} = 2\},$$

and state

LEMMA 4. *The derivative $X'(t)$ does not exist finitely if $M_0 \cup M_2$ is an infinite set.*

For $m \in M_0 \cup M_2$, we define the increment

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_m &= \frac{2}{3} 3^{-3m} & \text{if } a_{3m} = 0, \\ &= -\frac{2}{3} 3^{-3m} & \text{if } a_{3m} = 2, \end{aligned}$$

and investigate the difference quotient

$$DQ_m = \frac{X(t + \delta_m) - X(t)}{\delta_m} = \sum_{n=0}^j \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \gamma_{n,m},$$

where

$$\gamma_{n,m} = \frac{f(3^{3n}(t + \delta_m)) - f(3^{3n}t)}{\delta_m}.$$

Proceeding as in the proof of Lemma 2, we find that

$$|DQ_m| \geq \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{27}{2}\right)^m - \frac{3}{25} \left(\left(\frac{27}{2}\right)^m - 1\right),$$

which proves Lemma 4, if we let $m \rightarrow \infty$ through the elements of $M_0 \cup M_2$.

Using the identities $Y(t) = X(3t)$, $Z(t) = X(3^2t)$, we obtain the following:

COROLLARY 2. (i) *If the sets $M'_0 = \{n: a_{3n+1} = 0\}$, $M'_2 = \{n: a_{3n+1} = 2\}$ are such that $M'_0 \cup M'_2$ is an infinite set, then $Y'(t)$ does not exist finitely.*

(ii) *If the sets $M''_0 = \{n: a_{3n+2} = 0\}$, $M''_2 = \{n: a_{3n+2} = 2\}$ are such that $M''_0 \cup M''_2$ is an infinite set, then $Z'(t)$ does not exist finitely.*

The only t for which all the derivatives $X'(t)$, $Y'(t)$, $Z'(t)$ might still exist is one whose sets

$$M_0 \cup M_2, \quad M'_0 \cup M'_2, \quad M''_0 \cup M''_2$$

are all finite. This condition is true if and only if

$$\alpha_n = 1 \quad \text{for all sufficiently large } n. \quad (5.4)$$

We now state our final

LEMMA 5. *Suppose t satisfies (5.4). Then none of the derivatives $X'(t)$, $Y'(t)$, $Z'(t)$ exists and is finite.*

The proof of the claim for $X'(t)$ follows from the choice of

$$\delta_m = \frac{2}{5} 3^{-3m},$$

and those for $Y'(t)$ and $Z'(t)$ from arguments similar to the proof of Corollary 1 in Section 4.

6. A FINAL REMARK

With its complete lack of differentiability, Schoenberg's plane curve provides an interesting contrast to the Peano curve from which it is derived, that of Lebesgue (see [3]).

Under Lebesgue's mapping $L(t)$, each (x_0, y_0) of I^2 , expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} x_0 &= \frac{\alpha_0}{2} + \frac{\alpha_2}{2^2} + \frac{\alpha_4}{2^3} + \cdots \\ y_0 &= \frac{\alpha_1}{2} + \frac{\alpha_3}{2^2} + \frac{\alpha_5}{2^3} + \cdots \quad (\alpha_i = 0, 1), \end{aligned}$$

is the image of a point t_0 in Cantor's Set F of the form

$$t_0 = \frac{2\alpha_0}{3} + \frac{2\alpha_1}{3^2} + \frac{2\alpha_2}{3^3} + \cdots.$$

This correspondence we now recognize as a restatement of the relations (3.5). As such, $L(t)$ coincides with Schoenberg's curve on F , and thus must lack a finite derivative there.

Lebesgue then extends the domain of $L(t)$ to all of $[0, 1]$ by means of linear interpolation over each of the open intervals which comprise the complement of F . Defined in this manner, $L(t)$ must indeed be differentiable on $[0, 1] \setminus F$, and hence constitutes an example of a Peano curve which, unlike Schoenberg's, is differentiable almost everywhere.

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