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## Spaces of continuous functions (IV)

(On isomorphical classification of spaces of continuous functions)

by

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In this paper (Theorem 1) we give a complete isomorphical and dimensional<sup>(1)</sup> classifications of the spaces of (all) continuous functions defined on countable intervals of ordinal numbers.

Applying Theorem 1 we obtain: a) the complete isomorphical classification of the spaces  $C(Q)$  (i. e. of the spaces of all continuous real functions defined on  $Q$ ),  $Q$  being zero-dimensional metrisable compact spaces (Theorem 3)<sup>(2)</sup> and b) the complete dimensional classification of all the spaces  $C(Q)$  for arbitrary metrisable compact spaces  $Q$  (Collorary 1).

In the last part of this paper we formulate several problems concerning the spaces of continuous functions.

**1. Preliminaries.** Two Banach spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  are called *isomorphic* (written  $X \sim Y$ ), if and only if there exists a linear homeomorphic mapping of  $X$  onto  $Y$ .

It is known that  $X \sim Y$  if and only if there are a linear mapping  $U$  of  $X$  onto  $Y$  and a constant  $K$  such that

$$(1) \quad \|x\| \leq \|U(x)\| \leq K\|x\|.$$

If condition (1) is satisfied for some  $U$  we shall write  $X \stackrel{K}{\sim} Y$ . In particular,  $X \stackrel{1}{\sim} Y$  means that  $X$  and  $Y$  are isometric.

The spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to *have an equal linear dimension* (written  $X = Y$ ) if each of the spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  is isomorphic to some subspace  $\stackrel{\dim}{=}$  of the other. We say that  $X$  *has a smaller linear dimension than*  $Y$  (written  $X < Y$ ) if there is a subspace of  $Y$  isomorphic to  $X$  and no subspace of  $X$   $\stackrel{\dim}{<}$  is isomorphic to  $Y$ .

<sup>(1)</sup> i. e. classification with respect to linear dimension.

<sup>(2)</sup> Hence, in particular we obtain a solution of the problem 48 in the Scottish Book posed by Banach and Mazur.

In the sequel we shall denote by  $t, s, \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots$  — arbitrary ordinal numbers <sup>(3)</sup>, by  $m, n, N, \dots$  — finite ordinal numbers; the symbols  $\omega$  and  $\omega_1$  will denote the first infinite ordinal number and the first uncountable ordinal number, respectively. If  $\alpha < \beta$ , then  $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \{t: \alpha \leq t \leq \beta\}$ , and  $(\alpha, \beta) = \{t: \alpha < t \leq \beta\}$ ,  $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \{t: \alpha \leq t < \beta\}$ .

Sets of ordinal numbers will be always assumed to be topological spaces with the order topology.

The symbols  $Q, Q_1, \dots$  will denote metrisable compact topological spaces.

The symbols  $X, Y$  will be used for denoting arbitrary Banach spaces.

$C$  will denote the one-dimensional Banach space (we do not use the standard notation, in which  $C$  denotes the space of continuous functions on the unit interval).

$C(Q)$  will denote the Banach space of all continuous real functions  $x = x(g)$  defined on  $Q$  <sup>(4)</sup> with the norm  $\|x\| = \sup_g |x(g)|$ ; in particular, by  $C(\mathcal{S})$  and  $C(\mathcal{C})$  we shall denote the spaces of all continuous real functions defined on the unit interval  $\mathcal{S}$  of real numbers and on the Cantor discontinuum  $\mathcal{C}$  respectively.

$X^\alpha$  will denote the space of all continuous functions  $x = x(t)$  defined on  $\langle 1, \alpha \rangle$  having values in the Banach space  $X$  with the norm  $\|x\| = \sup_t \|x(t)\|$ ; we set

$$X^\alpha = \{x \in X^\alpha: x(\alpha) = 0\}.$$

(Observe that the symbols  $C(\langle 1, \alpha \rangle)$  and  $C^\alpha$  denote the same.)

The symbol  $X \times Y$  will denote the Cartesian product of the spaces  $X$  and  $Y$ , i. e. the space of all pairs  $(x, y)$ ,  $x \in X$ ,  $y \in Y$  — with the norm  $\|(x, y)\| = \max(\|x\|, \|y\|)$ .

The following properties are obvious:

I. If  $X \stackrel{k}{\sim} Y$ , and  $l \geq k$ , then  $Y \stackrel{l}{\sim} X$ ; if  $X \stackrel{k}{\sim} Y$ ,  $Y \stackrel{l}{\sim} Z$ , then  $X \stackrel{k+l}{\sim} Z$ .

II.  $X^\alpha \times X^\beta \stackrel{1}{\sim} X^{\beta+1} \times X^\alpha \stackrel{1}{\sim} X^{\alpha+\beta+1} \stackrel{1}{\sim} X^{\beta+\alpha}$ .

III.  $X^1 \stackrel{1}{\sim} X$ ;  $(X^\alpha)^\beta \stackrel{1}{\sim} X^{\alpha \cdot \beta}$ .

IV. If  $X \sim Y$ ,  $X_1 \sim Y_1$ , then  $X^\alpha \sim Y^\alpha$  and  $X \times X_1 \sim Y \times Y_1$  (moreover if  $X \stackrel{k}{\sim} Y$ ,  $X_1 \stackrel{k}{\sim} Y_1$ , then  $X^\alpha \stackrel{k}{\sim} Y^\alpha$  and  $X \times X_1 \stackrel{k}{\sim} Y \times Y_1$ ).

2. LEMMA 1. If  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$  and  $\alpha \leq \beta < \alpha^\omega$ , then for arbitrary  $X$  we have  $X^\alpha \sim X^\beta$ .

<sup>(3)</sup> For terminology, notation and basic arithmetical properties concerning ordinal numbers see [11], Chap. XIV.

<sup>(4)</sup> With the usual definitions of addition and multiplication by scalars.

The proof will be given in several stages:

2.1. If  $\alpha \geq \omega$ , then  $X^\alpha \sim X_0^\alpha$ .

Indeed, the required isomorphism is realized by the mapping  $U(x) = x'$  ( $x \in X^\alpha$ ,  $x' \in X_0^\alpha$ ), where  $x'(1) = x(\alpha)$ ,  $x'(1+t) = x(t) - x(\alpha)$ .

2.2. Let  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$ . Then for arbitrary  $n$  and  $X$  we have: 1°  $X^\alpha \sim X^a$  (2°  $X^\alpha \sim X^a$ ).

For any ordinal number  $\alpha$  let the symbol  $\alpha'$  denote the greatest prime component  $\leq \alpha$  <sup>(5)</sup>. Proposition 2.2 is an immediate consequence of the properties  $(\alpha n)' = \alpha'$ ,  $(\alpha \omega)' = \alpha' \cdot \omega$  (for  $\alpha \geq \omega$ ) and of the following two propositions:

2.21. If  $\alpha$  with  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$  is a prime component, then for arbitrary  $n$  and  $X$  we have 1°  $X^\alpha \sim X^a$  (2°  $X^\alpha \sim X^a$ ).

2.22. If  $\omega \leq \alpha \leq \omega_1$ , then  $X^\alpha \sim X^{\alpha'}$ .

Proof of 2.21. The set  $\langle 1, \alpha \rangle$  can be decomposed into  $n$  disjoint parts  $\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_n$  (into parts  $\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \dots$ ) in such a way that each of the sets  $\Delta_i$  is ordered according to the type  $\alpha$  and that each two of these sets have unique common limit-point  $\alpha$  (and, moreover, in case 2° if  $t_n \in \Delta_n$  ( $n < \omega$ ), then  $t_n \rightarrow \alpha$ ) <sup>(6)</sup>. Thus we obtain  $X_0^\alpha \sim (X_0^\alpha)^n \sim (X_0^\alpha)^\omega$ . This, according to 2.1 and IV, gives our assertion.

Proof of 2.22. The number  $\alpha$  is of the form  $\alpha = \alpha' n + \gamma$ , where  $\gamma < \alpha'$ ; therefore by 2.21 and by II,  $X^\alpha \sim X^{\gamma + \alpha' n} \sim X^{\alpha' n} \sim X^{\alpha'}$  (because  $\gamma + \alpha' n = \alpha' n$ ).

2.3. If  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$  and  $\beta < \alpha$ , then  $X^{\alpha+\beta} \sim X^{\beta+\alpha} \sim X^\alpha$ .

This follows from 2.22 and from the property:  $(\alpha + \beta)' = (\beta + \alpha)' = \alpha'$ .

2.4. If  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$ ,  $0 < \beta \leq \alpha$ , then for arbitrary  $X$  we have  $X^{\alpha\beta} \sim X^\alpha$ .

Proof. It can easily be verified that the space  $X_0^{\alpha\beta}$  is a direct sum

$$(2) \quad X_0^{\alpha\beta} = Y \oplus Z,$$

where  $Y$  consists of those functions  $y(t)$  ( $1 \leq t \leq \alpha\beta$ ) belonging to  $X_0^{\alpha\beta}$  which are constant on each of the intervals

$$T_\xi = (\alpha\xi, \alpha(\xi+1)) \quad \text{for} \quad 0 \leq \xi < \beta;$$

<sup>(5)</sup>  $\alpha$  is called a prime component if the condition  $\alpha = \gamma + \delta$  implies  $\delta = \alpha$ .

<sup>(6)</sup> Let us prove this fact, for instance, for  $n = 2$ . The condition that  $\alpha$  is a prime component makes it possible to choose a sequence of ordinal numbers  $(\gamma_n)$  in such a way that  $\gamma_n \rightarrow \alpha$  and the ordinal types of the segments  $(\gamma_n, \gamma_{n+1})$  are also convergent to  $\alpha$ . Now the required decomposition is

$$\Delta_1 = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\gamma_{2k-1}, \gamma_{2k}), \quad \Delta_2 = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\alpha_{2k}, \alpha_{2k+1}) \quad (\gamma_0 = 0).$$

$Z$  is composed of the functions  $z(t)$  ( $1 \leq t \leq a\beta$ ) vanishing at all the points  $a\xi$  ( $1 \leq \xi \leq \beta$ ).

It is easily seen that  $Y \stackrel{1}{\sim} X_0^\beta$ , whence, by 2.1,

$$(3) \quad Y \sim X^\beta.$$

One can easily establish that if  $z \in Z$  then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  the set  $\{\xi: \sup_{1 \leq t \leq a\xi} \|z(t)\| \geq \varepsilon\}$  is finite. It follows that  $Z \stackrel{1}{\sim} (X_0^\alpha)^\omega$ . Hence, by 2.1, 2.2, III and IV, we obtain

$$(4) \quad Z \sim X^\alpha.$$

Thus, using in turn: 2.1, (2), (3), (4), IV, II, and 2.3, we obtain (?)  $X^{\alpha\beta} \sim X_0^{\alpha\beta} \sim Y \times Z \sim X^\beta \times X^\alpha \sim X^{\beta+\alpha} \sim X^\alpha$ , q. e. d.

2.5. If  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$ , then for every  $n$  and  $X$  we have  $X^\alpha \sim X^{an}$ .

For  $n = 2$  this proposition follows from 2.4; for arbitrary  $n$  one can give a simply inductive proof by the use of property IV.

2.6. Now the proof of Lemma 1 can be completed. If  $\omega \leq \alpha < \omega_1$  and  $\alpha \leq \beta < \alpha^\omega$ , then  $\beta$  is of the form  $\beta = \alpha^n \gamma + \delta$ , where  $\gamma < \alpha \leq \alpha^n$ ,  $\delta < \alpha^n$ . By 2.3 we have  $X^{\alpha^n \gamma + \delta} \sim X^{\alpha^n \gamma}$ , and, by 2.5 and 2.4,  $X^{\alpha^n \gamma} \sim X^\alpha$ . Hence  $X^\beta \sim X^\alpha$ , q. e. d.

3. LEMMA 2. Let  $\alpha$  be an arbitrary ordinal number. If for every  $\gamma < \alpha$  the relation  $C^\gamma < C^\alpha$  holds, then  $C^\alpha < C^{\alpha^\omega}$ .

Proof. According to 2.1 it is enough to prove that the assumptions of Lemma 2 imply that  $C_0^\alpha < C^{\alpha^\omega}$ . Suppose that the last condition is false, i. e. that there exists a subspace  $X$  of the space  $C_0^\alpha$  and a constant  $K > 0$  such that  $C^{\alpha^\omega} \stackrel{K}{\sim} X$ . Let  $N$  be arbitrary fixed positive integer. Since the space  $C^{\alpha^N}$  is isometric with a subspace of  $C^{\alpha^\omega}$ , there exists a subspace  $X_N$  of the space  $X$  such that  $C^{\alpha^N} \stackrel{K}{\sim} X_N$ , i. e. there exists a linear mapping  $U$  of the space  $X_N$  onto  $C^{\alpha^N}$  such that

$$(6) \quad \|x\| \leq \|U(x)\| \leq K\|x\| \quad \text{for each } x \in X_N.$$

We shall show that this is impossible for  $N > 4K$ , whence it follows that our supposition that  $C_0^\alpha \geq C^{\alpha^\omega}$  leads to a contradiction.

Let  $y_0 \in C^{\alpha^N}$  be the function identically equal 1;  $x_0 = U^{-1}(y_0)$ . Let  $\gamma_1$  with  $\gamma_1 < \alpha$  be chosen in such a way that  $x_0(t) < 1/(N+1)$  for  $t > \gamma_1$  (such a number  $\gamma_1$  exists because  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \alpha} x(t) = 0$ ). Write

$$\Delta_\xi^1 = (\alpha^{N-1}\xi, \alpha^{N-1}(\xi+1)) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq \xi < \alpha.$$

(?) Here we make use of the obvious fact that if a Banach space  $X$  is a direct sum of its two subspaces  $Y$  and  $Z$ , then that space is isomorphic to the Cartesian product  $Y \times Z$ .

Let

$$Y_1 = \bigcap_{\xi < \alpha} \{y \in C^{\alpha^N}: y(t) \text{ is constant on } \Delta_\xi^1\}.$$

Obviously  $Y_1$  is a subspace of  $C^{\alpha^N}$  and

$$(7) \quad Y_1 \stackrel{1}{\sim} C^\alpha.$$

To begin with, we shall prove that there exist elements  $x_1$  in  $X_N$  and  $y_1$  in  $Y_1$  such that

$$x_1 = U^{-1}(y_1), \quad \|x_1\| \leq \|y_1\| = 1,$$

and

$$|x_1(t)| < \frac{1}{N+1} \quad \text{for } t \leq \gamma_1.$$

For every  $x \in C^\alpha$  let  $P_{\gamma_1}(x)$  denote the "restriction" of the function  $x$  to the set  $\langle 1, \gamma_1 \rangle$ , more exactly  $P_{\gamma_1}(x) = z$ , where  $z \in C^{\gamma_1}$  and  $z(t) = x(t)$  for  $t \leq \gamma_1$ . We consider the operation  $P_{\gamma_1} U^{-1}$  of the space  $Y_1$  into the space  $C^{\gamma_1}$ . By (7) and according to the fact that  $C^{\gamma_1} < C^\alpha$ , this operation cannot be any isomorphic mapping of  $Y_1$  into  $C^{\gamma_1}$ . Hence, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an element  $y$  in  $Y_1$  such that  $\|P_{\gamma_1} U^{-1}(y)\| < \varepsilon \|y\|$ . In particular we may choose an element  $y_1 \in Y_1$  in such a way that  $\|y_1\| = 1$  and  $\|P_{\gamma_1} U^{-1}(y_1)\| < 1/(N+1)$ . Putting  $x_1 = U^{-1}(y_1)$  we obtain

$$\sup_{t < \gamma_1} |x_1(t)| = \|P_{\gamma_1}(x_1)\| = \|P_{\gamma_1} U^{-1}(y_1)\| < \frac{1}{N+1}.$$

By (6) we have

$$\|x_1\| \leq \|U(x_1)\| = \|U U^{-1}(y_1)\| = \|y_1\| = 1.$$

Now let  $\xi_1$  be such an ordinal number that  $|y_1(t)| \geq 1/2$  for  $t \in \Delta_{\xi_1}^1$  (such a number must exist because  $\|y_1\| = 1$ ). Consider the new family of intervals

$$\Delta_\xi^2 = (\alpha^{N-1}\xi_1 + \alpha^{N-2}\xi, \alpha^{N-1}\xi_1 + \alpha^{N-2}(\xi+1)) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq \xi < \alpha.$$

Let

$$Y_2 = \bigcap_{\xi < \alpha} \{y \in C^{\alpha^N}: y(t) \text{ is constant on } \Delta_\xi^2 \text{ and } y(t) = 0 \text{ for } t \in \Delta_{\xi_1}^1\}.$$

It is easy to establish that  $Y_2 \stackrel{1}{\sim} C^\alpha$ .

Let  $\gamma_2$  with  $\gamma_1 < \gamma_2 < \alpha$  be chosen in such a way that

$$|x_1(t)| < \frac{1}{N+1} \quad \text{for } t > \gamma_2.$$

Since no subspace of  $C^1$  is isomorphic to  $Y_2$ , we infer in the same way as above that there exist  $y_2 \in Y_2$  and  $x_2 \in X_N$  such that

$$x_2 = U^{-1}(y_2), \quad \|x_2\| \leq \|y_2\| = 1$$

and

$$|x_2(t)| < \frac{1}{N+1} \quad \text{for } t \leq \gamma_2.$$

Now we choose  $\xi_2$  such that  $|y_2(t)| \geq 1/2$  for  $t \in \Delta_{\xi_2}^2$  etc.

Repeating this procedure  $N$  times we shall find the elements

$$x_0, x_1, \dots, x_N; \quad y_0 = U(x_0), \dots, y_N = U(x_N),$$

the ordinal numbers

$$1 = \gamma_0 < \gamma_1 < \gamma_2 < \dots < \gamma_N < \alpha,$$

and the sets of ordinal numbers (intervals)

$$\Delta_0 = \langle 1, \alpha^N \rangle \supset \Delta_1 = \Delta_1^1 \supset \Delta_2 = \Delta_2^2 \supset \dots \supset \Delta_N$$

such that

$$(8) \quad \|x_k\| \leq 1, \quad |x_k(t)| < \frac{1}{N+1} \quad \text{for } t \notin \langle \gamma_k, \gamma_{k+1} \rangle,$$

$$(9) \quad y_k(t) = a_k = \text{const for } t \in \Delta_k, \quad \text{where } |a_k| \geq 1/2, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, N.$$

Let us put  $\varepsilon_k = \text{sgn } a_k$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, N$  and  $z = \sum_{k=0}^N \varepsilon_k x_k$ . Since  $\Delta_N = \bigcap_{k=1}^N \Delta_k$  there is a point  $t_0$  belonging to all  $\Delta_k$  ( $k = 0, 1, \dots, N$ ). We have

$$\|U(z)\| = \left\| \sum_{k=0}^N \varepsilon_k U(x_k) \right\| \geq \sum_{k=0}^N \varepsilon_k y_k(t_0) = \sum_{k=0}^N |a_k| \geq \frac{N+1}{2}.$$

On the other hand, by (8) and by the fact that the intervals  $\langle \gamma_k, \gamma_{k+1} \rangle$  are disjoint for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1, N$ , we have

$$|x_i(t)| < \frac{1}{N+1}$$

for every  $t \leq \alpha$  and for all indices  $i$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, N$ ) except at most one. Thus, according to the fact  $\|x_k\| \leq 1$ , we obtain

$$\|z\| \leq 1 + N \cdot \frac{1}{N+1} < 2.$$

Hence  $\|U\| \geq \|U(\|z\|^{-1}z)\| \geq N/4$  and for  $N > 4K$  we obtain a contradiction with (6), q. e. d.

**4. THEOREM 1.** Let  $\omega \leq \alpha \leq \beta < \omega_1$ . Then  $C^\alpha \sim C^\beta$  if and only if  $C^\alpha = C^\beta$  if and only if  $\beta < \alpha^\omega$ .

This theorem is an immediate consequence of Lemmas 1 and 2 (8).

**Remark 1.** For two isomorphic Banach spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  let us define the function

$$[X, Y] = \inf\{K: X \overset{K}{\sim} Y\}$$

(cf. Banach [1], Remarques, p. 242). Investigating the proofs of Lemmas 1 and 2 we see that if  $\omega \leq \alpha \leq \alpha^N \leq \beta < \alpha^{N+1} < \omega_1$ , then

$$N \leq [C^\beta, C^\alpha] \leq 4^{N+3}.$$

It would be interesting to obtain an estimation of the form

$$G(N) \leq [C^\alpha, C^\beta] \leq H(N),$$

where  $\sup(H(N)/G(N)) < +\infty$ , or to compute the exact values of  $[C^\alpha, C^\beta]$ .

Let  $Q$  be countable. Denote by  $\kappa(Q)$  the smallest ordinal number  $\gamma$  such that the  $\gamma$ -th derivative  $Q^{(\gamma)}$  is empty, and set

$$\chi(Q) = [\kappa(Q)]^\omega.$$

It is not difficult to verify that

$$\max(\alpha, \beta) \leq [\min(\alpha, \beta)]^\omega \text{ if and only if } \chi(\langle 1, \alpha \rangle) = \chi(\langle 1, \beta \rangle).$$

Using this fact we may give a new formulation of Theorem 1:

(\*) Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be countable infinite ordinal numbers.  $C^\alpha \sim C^\beta$  if and only if  $C^\alpha = C^\beta$  if and only if  $\chi(\langle 1, \alpha \rangle) = \chi(\langle 1, \beta \rangle)$ .  $C^\alpha < C^\beta$  if and only if  $\chi(\langle 1, \alpha \rangle) < \chi(\langle 1, \beta \rangle)$ .

According to a well-known theorem of Mazurkiewicz and Sierpiński [6] and to the fact that  $\chi(Q)$  is a topological invariant of the space  $Q$  (because  $\kappa(Q)$  is invariant), the proposition (\*) gives

**THEOREM 2.** Let  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  be countable compact metric spaces. Then  $C(Q) \sim C(Q_1)$  if and only if  $C(Q) = C(Q_1)$  if and only if  $\chi(Q) = \chi(Q_1)$ .  $C(Q) < C(Q_1)$  if and only if  $\chi(Q) < \chi(Q_1)$ .

Also the following is true:

(\*) To prove the necessity of this condition we apply Lemma 2 for the ordinal number  $\alpha_1 =$  the smallest  $\gamma$  for which  $C^\gamma = C^\alpha$ .

**THEOREM 3.** Let  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  be zero-dimensional metrisable compact spaces. Then  $C(Q) \sim C(Q_1)$  if and only if  $C(Q) = C(Q_1)$  if and only if one of the following conditions:

- (i)  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  are finite and have the same number of elements,
- (ii)  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  are countable and  $\chi(Q) = \chi(Q_1)$ ,
- (iii)  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  are uncountable

holds.

**Proof.** In the case where  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  are finite, this theorem is obvious; for countable  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  it follows from Theorem 2. Now let us suppose that  $Q$  is zero-dimensional and uncountable. Then, according to the Cantor-Bendixon Theorem ([5], Chap. II, p. 141) and according to the fact that every zero-dimensional perfect compact metric space is homeomorphic to the Cantor discontinuum,  $Q$  is the sum of a set  $\mathcal{C}$  homeomorphic to the Cantor discontinuum and a countable set. To complete the proof it is enough to apply the following

**LEMMA 3.** Let  $Q$  be an uncountable compact metric space. If  $Q_1$  and  $A$  are closed subsets of  $Q$  such that  $Q = Q_1 \cup A$  and  $A$  is countable, then  $C(Q) \sim C(Q_1)$ .

**Proof.** Let us denote by  $C(Q/A)$  the subspace of  $C(Q)$  consisting of all functions which vanish on the set  $A$ . According to Borsuk's theorem on simultaneous extensions [2], one can easily establish that

$$C(Q) \sim C(Q_1) \times C(A/Q_1 \cap A).$$

It may easily be shown that there exists a countable compact  $B$  such that  $C(B) \sim C(A/Q_1 \cap A)$ . Let  $B'$  be a subset of  $Q_1$  homeomorphic to  $B$  (such subsets exist because  $Q_1$  is an uncountable metric compact space and  $B$  is a countable one). According to Borsuk's theorem quoted above and to the fact that  $C(B') \times C(B') \sim C(B')$  (this fact follows from proposition 2.2 and the Mazurkiewicz-Sierpiński theorem already cited) we have

$$\begin{aligned} C(Q_1) \times C(A/Q_1 \cap A) &\sim C(Q_1) \times C(B) \sim C(Q_1/B') \times C(B') \times C(B) \\ &\sim C(Q_1/B') \times (C(B') \times C(B')) \sim C(Q_1/B') \times C(B') \sim C(Q_1). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $C(Q) \sim C(Q_1)$ , q. e. d.

Banach and Mazur have proved (see [1], p. 186) that for every separable Banach space  $X$  there is a subspace  $X'$  of the space  $C(\mathcal{C})$  such that  $X \overset{1}{\sim} X'$ .

On the other hand, since every uncountable compact metric space  $Q$  contains a subset  $\mathcal{C}'$  homeomorphic to  $\mathcal{C}$ , according to Borsuk's theorem we have  $C(Q) \sim C(Q/\mathcal{C}') \times C(\mathcal{C}')$ . Thus  $C(Q)$  contains a subspace isomorphic to  $C(\mathcal{C})$ .

From these two facts it follows that  $C(Q) = C(\mathcal{C})$  for arbitrary uncountable  $Q$ ; and, according to Theorem 2, we obtain

**COROLLARY 1.** Let  $Q$  and  $Q_1$  be metrisable compact spaces. Then the spaces  $C(Q)$  and  $C(Q_1)$  have an equal linear dimension if and only if one of the conditions (i), (ii), (iii) (formulated in Theorem 3) is satisfied.

Since all the intervals  $\langle 1, \alpha \rangle$  are dispersed topological compact spaces, it follows from a result of [8] (see also [7]) and Lemma 2 that all the spaces conjugate to  $C^\alpha$  with  $\alpha = \aleph_\tau$  are isometric. Hence

**COROLLARY 2.** There are  $\aleph_{\tau+1}$  isomorphically different (and having different linear dimensions) spaces  $C^\alpha$  with  $\alpha = \aleph_\tau$ , whose first conjugate spaces are all isometric.

This implies, in particular,

**COROLLARY 3.** There are at least  $\aleph_1$  separable Banach spaces, different with regard to linear dimension, whose first conjugate spaces are isometric to the space  $l$  (composed of all absolutely convergent real series).

## 5. Remarks and unsolved problems

**5.1.** Give an isomorphic classification of the spaces  $C(Q)$  for arbitrary metrisable compact topological spaces  $Q$ . In particular establish whether the spaces  $C(\mathcal{S})$  and  $C(\mathcal{C})$  are isomorphic.

**5.2.** Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be arbitrary ordinal numbers. Give a necessary and sufficient condition (concerning  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ) for the spaces  $C^\alpha$  and  $C^\beta$  to be isomorphic.

Z. Semadeni [10] has proved that  $C^{\omega^1} \overset{\dim}{<} C^{\omega^{1-2}}$ ; hence Lemma 1 cannot be generalized to the case of uncountable  $\alpha$ .

**5.3.** We say that the space  $X$  has a smaller linear dimension in the sense of Kolmogoroff [4] than the space  $Y$  (briefly  $X \overset{\delta}{<} Y$ ) if  $X$  is a linear image of a subspace of  $Y$  and no subspace of  $X$  can be linearly mapped onto  $Y$ .

Does Lemma 2 hold true if we replace the symbol " $<$ " by " $\overset{\dim}{<}$ "?

We know that such a modification of Lemma 2 is true for  $\alpha < \omega^{\omega^3(\alpha)}$ .

**5.4.** We introduce the following classification of the separable Banach spaces:

(\*) The proof of this fact is based on a certain property of weakly convergent series in the space  $C^{\omega^\omega}$ . Series having this property may be constructed in the same manner as that by Schreier in [9] in the case of  $C([0,1])$ .

Let  $\mathfrak{U}_0$  be the class of all separable Banach spaces having an unconditional basis (see [3], Chapt. IV, § 4). Suppose that we have defined the classes  $\mathfrak{U}_\beta$  for all  $\beta < \alpha$  ( $\alpha < \omega_1$ ). We define  $\mathfrak{U}_\alpha$  as the class of all separable Banach spaces  $X$  which have the following properties:

- (a)  $X \notin \mathfrak{U}_\beta$  for each  $\beta < \alpha$ ;
- (b) there exist sequences  $(X_n)$  of subspaces of  $X$  and  $(\beta_n)$  of ordinal numbers  $< \alpha$  such that  $X_n \in \mathfrak{U}_{\beta_n}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ) and every element  $x \in X$  may be uniquely represented as a sum of an unconditionally convergent series  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$ , where  $x_n \in X_n$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

We say that the separable Banach space belongs to the class  $\mathfrak{U}_{\omega_1}$  if  $X \in \mathfrak{U}_\alpha$  for no  $\alpha < \omega_1$ .

Questions:

- 1. Are all classes  $\mathfrak{U}_\alpha$  (for  $\alpha \leq \omega_1$ ) non-empty?
- 2. Does there exist for every  $0 \leq \alpha \leq \omega_1$  a compact metric space  $Q$  such that  $C(Q) \in \mathfrak{U}_\alpha$ ?

We know only that  $C^\omega \in \mathfrak{U}_0$ ,  $C^\omega \in \mathfrak{U}_1$ ,  $C(Q) \in \mathfrak{U}_{\omega_1}$  for uncountable  $Q$ .

**5.5.** Let  $X$  be a Banach space with the conjugate space  $X^*$  isomorphic to  $l$ . Does there exist an ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $X \sim C^\alpha$ ?

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#### States of operator algebras

by

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**§ 0. Introduction & summary.** Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a fixed Hilbert space and denote by  $B = B(\mathcal{H})$  the algebra of all bounded endomorphisms of  $\mathcal{H}$ .  $B$  is a complete normed algebra with an involution which carries  $T \in B$  into its adjoint  $T^*$ ; this algebra is non-commutative unless  $\mathcal{H}$  is one-dimensional. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a self-adjoint (i. e. stable under  $*$ ) subalgebra of  $B$ , we follow Segal [5] in extending the customary language of statistical quantum mechanics by applying the name "state of  $\mathcal{A}$ " to any positive-definite linear form  $f$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ , i. e. a linear form  $f$  on  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $f(T^*) = \overline{f(T)}$  and  $f(T^*T) \geq 0$  for arbitrary  $T \in \mathcal{A}$ . These correspond to the "mixed states" of a quantum mechanical assemblage and are therefore thought of as being compounded in some way from the "pure states"

$$(0.1) \quad f_x: T \rightarrow (Tx, x),$$

where  $x$  is an arbitrary element of  $\mathcal{H}$ . The main aim of this paper is to discover more precisely how some at least of these mixed states are obtained from the pure ones.

When  $\mathcal{A} = B$ , von Neumann gives one answer to this problem, at least for those states which are weakly continuous. On the other hand, Segal [5] discusses a fairly general type of algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  and shows that there exist always sufficiently many pure or minimal states to make plausible the possibility of expressing a wide class of states in terms of these. However, Segal does not concern himself with any explicit representation of this kind. von Neumann's approach ([6], Chapter IV) for  $\mathcal{A} = B$  is very direct and leads to a representation in terms of the trace. Unfortunately his approach is not adaptable in any obvious way to states initially defined only on some subalgebra  $\mathcal{A}$  of  $B$ . This is one reason for seeking an apparently different representation.

The proposed alternative is a representation in terms of positive integral combinations of pure states:

$$(A) \quad f(T) = \int_E (Tx, x) dm(x),$$