

On a d'abord pour ξ_1 par l'application itérée de (2) et (v):

$$(9) \quad [(xy)(zu)] = \{[x(zu)][y(zu)]\} = \{[(xz)(xu)][(yz)(yu)]\} = \\ = \{[(xz)(ux)][(zy)(yu)]\},$$

$$(10) \quad [(xy)(zu)] = \{[(xy)z][(xy)u]\} = \{[(xz)(yz)][(xu)(yu)]\} = \\ = \{[(xz)(zy)][(ux)(yu)]\} = \{[(xz)(ux)][(zy)(yu)]\} = \\ = \{[(xz)(ux)][(xz)(yu)]\} \{[(zy)(ux)][(zy)(yu)]\}.$$

On a de même:

$$(11) \quad [(zy)(ux)] = \{[(zy)u][(zy)x]\} = \{[(zy)u][x(yz)]\} = \\ = \{[(zu)(yu)][(xy)(xz)]\},$$

$$(12) \quad [(zy)(ux)] = \{[z(ux)][y(ux)]\} = \{[(zu)(zx)][(yu)(yx)]\} = \\ = \{[(zu)(xz)][(yu)(xy)]\} = \{[(zu)(xz)][(yu)]\} \{[(xy)(zu)(xz)]\} = \\ = \{[(zu)(yu)][(xz)(yu)]\} \{[(xy)(zu)][(xy)(xz)]\}.$$

Ainsi, en posant

$$\alpha = [(xz)(ux)], \quad \beta = [(zy)(yu)],$$

$$\xi_2 = [(zy)(ux)],$$

$$\gamma = [(xy)(xz)], \quad \delta = [(zu)(yu)],$$

les formules (9)-(12) deviennent d'après (8)

$$\xi_1 = (\alpha\beta) = [(\alpha\xi_2)(\xi_2\beta)], \quad \xi_3 = (\delta\gamma) = [(\delta\xi_2)(\xi_1\gamma)].$$

Reste à appliquer (v) aux couples $\alpha\xi_2$, $\delta\gamma$, $\delta\xi_2$ et $(\delta\xi_2)(\xi_1\gamma)$ pour que ces formules prennent exactement la forme des prémisses de (5), c. q. f. d.

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A NOTE ON A THEOREM OF HELSON

BY

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Helson has proved the following theorem ¹⁾:

If \circ is a group operator on the subsets of a set M with zero the empty set, invariant under simple transformations, and such that $A \circ B \subset A + B$ for all subsets A, B of M , then \circ is symmetric difference.

The purpose of this note is to strengthen his result by dropping the requirement about zero as the empty set and the invariance of \circ under simple transformations.

Theorem. If the subsets of a set M form a group under the operation \circ , and if $A \circ B \subset A + B$ for all subsets A, B of M , then \circ is symmetric difference.

I give the proof in six steps.

1° The empty set 0 is the identity element of the group.

In fact, the relation $0 \circ 0 \subset 0 + 0 = 0$ implies $0 \circ 0 = 0$.

2° If A is a one-element set, then $A^{-1} = A$.

If A is a one-element set, the relation $A \circ A \subset A$ implies either $A \circ A = 0$ or $A \circ A = A$. The latter is impossible since A is not the identity.

3° If A is a one-element set and B is any set, then

$$A \circ B = B \circ A = A + B,$$

where the operator $+$ denotes symmetric difference.

Assume to begin with that $A \text{ non } \subset B$.

Now $B = A \circ A \circ B \subset A + (A \circ B)$, hence $B \subset A \circ B$. Since A is not the identity element of the group, this inclusion is proper. Since A has only one element, one of the two inclusions $B \subset A \circ B \subset A + B$ must be improper, hence $A \circ B = A + B$.

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¹⁾ Henry Helson, *On the symmetric difference of sets as a group operation*, Colloquium Mathematicum 1 (1948), p. 203-205.

Now if $A \subset B$, let $C = B - A$. As we have just shown, $A \circ C = A + C = B$ and $A \circ B = A \circ A \circ C = C = B - A$.

In any case $A \circ B = A \dot{-} B$. A similar argument shows that $B \circ A = A \dot{-} B$.

4° If A is any set, then $A^{-1} = A$.

It is sufficient to show that $A^{-1} \subset A$. Suppose not. Choose $p \in A^{-1} - A$. Then $A \circ (p) = A + (p)$ and $A^{-1} - (p) = A^{-1} \circ (p) = [(p) \circ A]^{-1} = [A + (p)]^{-1}$. Furthermore we have $[A + (p)]^2 = [A \circ (p)] \circ [(p) \circ A] = A^2$.

Now for any set B we have $B = B^{-1} \circ B^2 \subset B^{-1} + B^2$. In this relation put $B = A + (p)$. We obtain

$$A + (p) \subset [A + (p)]^{-1} + [A + (p)]^2 = [A^{-1} - (p)] + A^2.$$

Since $A^2 \subset A$ and $p \text{ non } \in A$, we find that p appears in the set on the left of this relation but not in the set on the right: a contradiction.

5° If A and B are disjoint, then $A \circ B = A + B = B \circ A$.

$B = A \circ A \circ B \subset A + (A \circ B)$, hence $B \subset A \circ B$. Similarly, $A \subset A \circ B$. Hence $A + B \subset A \circ B \subset A + B$. In the same way $B \circ A = A + B$.

6° If A and B are any two sets, then $A \circ B = A \dot{-} B$.

$$\begin{aligned} A \circ B &= [(A - B) \circ AB] \circ [AB \circ (B - A)] = (A - B) \circ (B - A) = \\ &= (A - B) + (B - A) = A \dot{-} B. \end{aligned}$$

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ON A PROBLEM OF SIKORSKI

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Sikorski has posed the following problem¹):

For each $\gamma < \omega_\mu$ let Z_γ be a family of sequences composed of zeros and ones, each of ordinal type γ ; and suppose, for any $\delta < \gamma$, Z_δ consists exactly of those sequences which are segments of type δ of the sequences of Z_γ . Does it follow that there is a family Z of sequences of type ω_μ , such that every Z_γ consists of the segments of type γ of the sequences belonging to Z ?

The answer is evidently positive if ω_μ is the limit of a sequence of ordinals of type ω , which implies that μ is a limit ordinal.

We shall show that the answer is negative for every ω_μ smaller than the first regular initial ordinal whose index is a limit ordinal, unless ω_μ is the limit of a denumerable sequence; and that the answer is negative whenever μ is not a limit ordinal.

The proof consists in constructing a counter-example.

First suppose μ is not a limit ordinal, and write $\mu = \tau + 1$. Consider the sequences $A'_\beta = \{e_\gamma\}_{\gamma < \beta}$ of type β (for an arbitrary $\beta < \omega_\mu$), composed of non-zero ordinals smaller than ω_τ , such that no ordinal appears twice in A'_β , and such that the ordinals smaller than ω_τ which do not appear form themselves a sequence of type ω_τ . For each $\beta < \omega_\mu$ denote the set of all such sequences by Z'_β . Then for any $\alpha < \beta$, Z'_α consists exactly of the segments of type α of the sequences of Z'_β .

For each sequence A'_β of the sort defined we shall construct a sequence $A_{\nu(\beta)} = \{a_\gamma\}_{\gamma < \nu(\beta)}$ of zeros and ones, of type $\nu(\beta)$, where for each $\alpha \leq \beta$ we set $\nu(\alpha) = \sum_{\gamma < \alpha} e_\gamma$. Take $a_0 = 1$, and adjoin a sequence of zeros of type $(-1 + e_0)$, where $(-1 + e_0)$ is the unique ordinal such that $1 + (-1 + e_0) = e_0$, thus defining a_γ for $\gamma < e_0$, all zero except the first. Continue by adjoining a sequence of

¹) See Colloquium Mathematicum 1 (1948), p. 35, P 19.