# Translation of Sur une courbe cantorienne qui contient une image biunivoque et continue de toute courbe donnée. 

Translated by Katherine Williams Booth*

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## On a Cantor curve which contains a one-to-one and continuous image of any given curve.

Note by W. Sierpiński, presented by Émile Picard.
The goal of this note is to construct a (planar) Cantor curve $C_{0}$ such that, if $C$ is a given (planar) Cantor curve, there always exists a one-to-one and continuous image $C^{\prime \prime}$ of the curve $C$ where all of the points are points of the curve $C_{0}$.

The curve $C_{0}$ will be defined as follows. Let $Q$ be a given square, for example the square whose vertices are the points $(0,0),(0,1),(1,0)$ and $(1,1)$. Divide the square $Q$ into nine smaller squares and exclude the interior of the one which contains the center of the square $Q$. For each of the eight remaining squares, do the same process ad infinitum. Together, all of the points of $Q$ which are not excluded obviously constitute a Cantor line; this is the curve $C_{0}$.

Let $C$ now be an arbitrarily given Cantor curve: I claim that there exists a curve $C^{\prime}$, completely contained within $C_{0}$, which is the one-to-one and continuous image of the curve $C$. To demonstrate this, it is obvious that it suffices to show that there exists a curve $K$ which is a one-to-one and continuous image of the curve $C_{0}$ and which contains all of the points of the curve $C$.

To define the curve $K$, first construct a square $U$ such that the curve $C$ is contained in the interior of $U$. Like the coordinates axes, take the sides of the square $U$. Divide the square $U$ into nine new squares: let $V$ be the one of them which contains the center of the square $U$.

We say, to be brief, that $a$ rectangle $R$ has the property $P$, if the sides are parallel to the coordinate axes and it does not contain any point of the curve $C$ in its interior.

[^0]Let $R$ be a rectangle that has the property $P$ which is in the interior of the square $V$ (such a rectangle obviously exists, since the curve $C$ is nowhere dense in the plane). Denote by $x_{1}$, the abscissa ${ }^{1}$ of the left side of the rectangle $R$; by $x_{2}$ for the right side; by $y_{1}$ the ordinate ${ }^{2}$ of the bottom, and by $y_{2}$ for the top. Also set $x_{0}=0, y_{0}=0$. The four lines

$$
x=x_{1}, \quad x=x_{2}, \quad y=y_{1}, \quad y=y_{2}
$$

divide the square $U$ into 9 rectangles whose lower left points are $\left(x_{\alpha}, y_{\beta}\right)(\alpha=$ $0,1,2 ; \beta=0,1,2)$; we denote by $U_{\alpha, \beta}$ the rectangle which has the point $\left(x_{\alpha}, y_{\beta}\right)$ in the lower left (obviously, we have that $U_{1,1}=R$ ). Divide each of the nine rectangles $U_{\alpha, \beta}$ into nine equal rectangles; let $V_{\alpha, \beta}$ always be the one which contains the center of the rectangle $U_{\alpha, \beta}$.

We are going to now construct nine rectangles $S_{\alpha, \beta}$ that have the property $P$. In general, if $\sigma$ denotes a symbol defining a rectangle $S_{\sigma}$ having sides that are parallel to the coordinate axes, we will always denote by $x_{\sigma}^{\prime}$ the abscissa of the left side of the rectangle $S_{\sigma}$, by $x_{\sigma}^{\prime \prime}$ the abscissa of the right side, by $y_{\sigma}^{\prime}$ the ordinate of the bottom and by $y_{\sigma}^{\prime \prime}$ for the top.

The nine rectangles $S_{\alpha, \beta}$ will now be defined by recursion as follows. In the interior of $V_{\alpha, \beta}$, we will choose a rectangle $S_{\alpha, \beta}$ having the property $P$ at contained in one part between the parallel lines $y=y_{\alpha-1, \beta}^{\prime}, y=y_{\alpha-1, \beta}^{\prime \prime}$ and the other part between the parallel lines $x=x_{\alpha, \beta-1}^{\prime}, x=x_{\alpha, \beta-1}^{\prime \prime}$ (if $\alpha=0$ or $\beta=0$, one can omit one or the other of these conditions). We have

$$
x_{\alpha_{1}}=x_{\alpha, 2}^{\prime}, \quad x_{\alpha_{2}}=x_{\alpha, 2}^{\prime \prime}, \quad y_{\beta_{1}}=y_{2, \beta}^{\prime}, \quad y_{\beta_{2}}=y_{2, \beta}^{\prime \prime}
$$

where $\alpha=0,1,2 ; \beta=0,1,2$ and we denote by $R_{\alpha, \beta}$ the rectangle formed by the lines

$$
x=x_{\alpha_{1}}, \quad x=x_{\alpha_{2}}, \quad y=y_{\beta_{1}}, \quad y=y_{\beta_{2}} .
$$

One easily sees that the rectangle $R_{\alpha, \beta}$ will be contained in $S_{\alpha, \beta}$; thus it does not contain any point of the curve $C$ in its interior. We also have

$$
x_{\alpha_{0}}=x_{\alpha}, \quad y_{\beta_{0}}=y_{\beta}
$$

where $\alpha, \beta=0,1,2$. The lines

$$
x=x_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}}, \quad y==_{\beta_{1} \beta_{2}} \quad\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \beta_{1}, \beta_{2}=0,1,2\right)
$$

divide the square $U$ into 81 rectangles whose lower left points are ( $x_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}}, y_{\beta_{1} \beta_{2}}$ ); we denote by $U_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}, \beta_{1} \beta_{2}}$ the rectangle whose lower left is the point $\left(x_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}}, y_{\beta_{1} \beta_{2}}\right)$.

We now suppose that we have already defined the rectangles

$$
S_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \ldots \alpha_{n-1}, \beta_{1} \beta_{2} \ldots \beta_{n-1}} \quad \text { and } \quad U_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \beta_{2} \ldots \beta_{n}}
$$

where $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \ldots, \beta_{n}=0,1,2$.

[^1]Divide each of these rectangles $U_{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \beta_{2} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ into nine equal rectangles and let $V_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ always be the one in the middle.

The indices $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \ldots, \beta_{n}$ have been given, we denote by $U_{\gamma_{1} \ldots \gamma_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ the rectangles $U_{\xi_{1} \ldots \xi_{n}, \eta_{1} \ldots \eta_{n}}$ whose right edge coincides with the left edge of rectangle $U_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ and by $U_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \delta_{1} \ldots \delta_{n}}$ the ones whose top edge coincides with the bottom edge of rectangle $U_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$.

In the interior of the rectangle $V_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ we find a rectangle $S_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ which possesses property P and is contained in one part between the parallels $y=y_{\gamma_{1} \ldots \gamma_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}^{\prime}$ and $y=y_{\gamma_{1} \ldots \gamma_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}^{\prime \prime}$ and in the other part between the parallels $x=x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \delta_{1} \ldots \delta_{n}}^{\prime}$ and $x=x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \delta_{1} \ldots \delta_{n}}^{\prime \prime}$. (In the case $\alpha_{1}=\ldots=\alpha_{n}=0$ omit the first condition and in the case $\beta_{1}=\ldots=\beta_{n}=0$, the other.) The rectangles $S_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ will thus be determined by recurrence. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} 1} & =x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} 2 \ldots 2}^{\prime}, & x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} 2} & =x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} 2 \ldots 2}^{\prime \prime} \\
y_{\beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n} 1} & =y_{2 \ldots 2 \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}^{\prime}, & y_{\beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n} 2} & =y_{2 \ldots 2 \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}^{\prime \prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

and we denote by $R_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$ a rectangle formed by the lines

$$
x=x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} 1}, \quad x=x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} 2}, \quad y=y_{\beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n} 1}, \quad y=y_{\beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n} 2}
$$

The lines

$$
x=x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n} \alpha_{n+1}}, \quad y=y_{\beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n} \beta_{n+1}}, \quad\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n+1}, \beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{n+1}=0,1,2\right)
$$

divide the square $U$ into $3^{2 n+2}$ rectangles whose bottom left sides are respectively the points $\left(x_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n+1}}, y_{\beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n+1}}\right)$ : which we respectively denote by $U_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n+1}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n+1}}$.

Thus, having already defined (for a given value $n$ ) the rectangles $U_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}$, we can always define the rectangles $U_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n+1}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n+1}}$.

We now exclude from the square $U$ the interior of the rectangle $R$ and of all the rectangles $R_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{n}}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{n}=0,1,2 ; n=1,2,3, \ldots\right)$. We denote by $K$ the set of all the points of square $U$ which remain : this is obviously a Cantor curve and any point of the curve $C$ is a point of the curve $K$.

Now let $t$ be an element of the interval $(0,1)$ and

$$
t=\left(0 . c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} \ldots\right)_{3}
$$

be the representation of the fraction in base 3. We have

$$
\varphi(t)=\lim _{n=\infty} x_{c_{1} c_{2} \ldots c_{n}}, \quad \psi(t)=\lim _{n=\infty} y_{c_{1} c_{2} \ldots c_{n}} .
$$

One easily sees that the functions $\varphi(t)$ and $\psi(t)$ are well-defined in the interval $(0,1)$ and that in this interval they are continuous and increasing functions of the variable $t$.

By making the correspondence of any point $(x, y)$ of the curve $C_{0}$ to the point $[\varphi(x), \psi(y)]$ of the curve $K$, we have, as one easily sees, a one-to-one and continuous map from the curve $C_{0}$ to the curve $K$. The property of the curve $C_{0}$ is thus demonstrated.

We remark that we have demonstrated, as observed by M. E. Mazurkiewicz, that any point of $C_{0}$ is a ramification point of infinite order.


[^0]:    *All footnotes have been added by the translator. This is a rough translation of the article by this name published in the 'Comptes Rendus De L'Academie Sciences' in 1916. It can be found at gallica.bnf.fr/ark:/12148/bpt6k3115n/

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ the perpendicular distance from a point to the vertical axis, ie, the horizontal coordinate
    ${ }^{2}$ the perpendicular distance from a point to the horizontal axis, ie, the vertical coordinate

