# On the set of complex points of a 2 -sphere 

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## 1. Introduction

Let $M$ be a 2 -dimensional $C^{1}$-smooth manifold in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$. A point $p$ on $M$ is called a complex point if the tangent plane $T_{p} M$ to $M$ at $p$ is a complex line. Denote by $\mathcal{E}$ the set of all complex points on $M$. If $M$ is smooth enough and in a general position, then the set $\mathcal{E}$ consists of isolated points. In this case the topology of $M$ can be described in terms of the local behaviour of $M$ near the points of $\mathcal{E}$ (see [L]). The structure of the set $M$ near the points in $\mathcal{E}$ plays a key roll in different questions of complex analysis (see, for example, $[\mathrm{B}],[\mathrm{BK}],[\mathrm{K}],[\mathrm{N}]$, [Wi] and $[J])$. In this paper we study the structure of the set $\mathcal{E}$ in the case when $M$ is a 2-dimensional sphere, denoted by $S$ in what follows, embedded into the boundary $\partial G$ of a $C^{\infty}$-smooth strictly pseudoconvex domain $G$ in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ (this case is important for applications as was shown in $[\mathrm{El}]$ and $[\mathrm{Er}])$. Our goal here is to describe the set $\mathcal{E}$ depending on the smoothness of $S$. Recall, that a manifold is said to be of class $C^{2-}$ if it can be represented locally as the graph of a function that belongs to the class $\operatorname{Lip}^{1, \alpha}$ for each positive $\alpha<1$. Our main result can now be formulated as follows.

Theorem. Let $G$ be a strictly pseudoconvex domain in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ with $C^{\infty}$-smooth boundary $\partial G$. Let $S$ be a 2-dimensional sphere embedded into $\partial G$. Then, depending on the smoothness of $S$, the following holds:

1) If $S$ is of class $C^{2}$, then the set $\mathcal{E}$ of complex points of $S$ is contained in a $C^{1}$-smooth nonclosed curve $\gamma \subset S$.
2) There exists a 2-dimensional sphere $S \subset \partial G$ of class $C^{2-}$ such that the set $\mathcal{E}$ contains a Jordan curve of positive 2-dimensional measure.

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## 2. Proof of the first part of the theorem

We start with an argument which goes back to Bishop [B] (see also [J]). Namely, if $p$ is a point of $\mathcal{E}$, then after a polynomial change of coordinates that moves $p$ to the origin we can locally represent $S$ as the disc

$$
D=\left\{(z, f(z)) \in \mathbb{C}^{2}: z \in \triangle\right\}
$$

with $\triangle$ being a small disc centred at the origin and $f$ being a complex valued $C^{2}$-smooth function. Moreover, after this change of coordinates the function $f$ will have the special form

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{2}|z|^{2}-\beta \operatorname{Re} z^{2}+o\left(|z|^{2}\right), \quad \beta \geq 0
$$

near zero. Recall, that zero is called an elliptic point if $0 \leq \beta<\frac{1}{2}$, a hyperbolic point if $\beta>\frac{1}{2}$ and a parabolic point if $\beta=\frac{1}{2}$. Elliptic and hyperbolic points are always isolated in $\mathcal{E}$. In the case of a parabolic point we can use the real coordinates $z=x+i y$ and represent $f$ as $f(z)=y^{2}+o\left(|z|^{2}\right)$. Hence $\partial_{\bar{z}} f(z)=i y+o(|z|)$ and then, by the implicit function theorem, we obtain that $\sigma=\left\{z \in \Delta: \operatorname{Im} \partial_{\bar{z}} f(z)=0\right\}$ is a $C^{1}$-smooth curve and locally $\mathcal{E}=\left\{(z, f(z)): z \in \sigma\right.$ and $\left.\operatorname{Re} \partial_{\bar{z}} f(z)=0\right\}$. Therefore, locally the set $\mathcal{E}$ is a closed subset of a $C^{1}$-smooth curve.

Since the set $\mathcal{E}$ is compact, the only obstruction for $\mathcal{E}$ to be a subset of a nonclosed $C^{1}$-smooth curve $\gamma \subset S$ is that there is a closed $C^{1}$-smooth curve $\Gamma \subset \mathcal{E}$.

Assume, to get a contradiction, that such a closed $C^{1}$-smooth curve $\Gamma \subset \mathcal{E}$ exists. Let $\Gamma^{\prime}$ be a complex tangential $C^{\infty}$-smooth closed curve in $\partial G$ (complex tangential here means that for each point $p \in \Gamma^{\prime}$ the tangent line $T_{p} \Gamma^{\prime}$ to $\Gamma^{\prime}$ at $p$ is contained in the complex tangent plane $T_{p}^{\mathbb{C}}(\partial G)$ to $\partial G$ at $\left.p\right)$ close enough to $\Gamma$ in the $C^{1}$-metric. Then there is a small $C^{1}$-perturbation $S^{\prime}$ of $S$ in $\partial G$ such that $\Gamma^{\prime} \subset S^{\prime}$ and each point in $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is a complex point on $S^{\prime}$. Moreover, one can choose $S^{\prime}$ to be $C^{\infty}$-smooth in a neighbourhood of $\Gamma^{\prime}$. For each point $p \in \Gamma^{\prime}$, consider the unit vector $\vec{u}(p)$ tangent to $\Gamma^{\prime}$, the vector $i \vec{u}(p) \in T_{p}^{\mathbb{C}}(\partial G)$ and the unit vector $\vec{n}(p) \in T_{p}(\partial G)$ orthogonal to $T_{p}^{\mathbb{C}}(\partial G)$ and such that the vectors $(\vec{u}(p), i \vec{u}(p), \vec{n}(p))$ define the positive orientation of $\partial G$ at the point $p$. Let $O(p)$ be the rotation of $T_{p}(\partial G)$ around the direction $\vec{u}(p)$ that transforms the vector $i \vec{u}(p)$ into the vector $\vec{n}(p)$. Using the tubular neighbourhood theorem (see, for example, Theorem 1.4 in $[\mathrm{H}]$ ) we can change $S^{\prime}$ in a neighbourhood of $\Gamma^{\prime}$ to get a new 2-sphere, $S^{\prime \prime} \subset \partial G$, $C^{\infty}$-smooth near $\Gamma^{\prime}$ such that $\Gamma^{\prime} \subset S^{\prime \prime}$ and $\vec{n}(p) \in T_{p}\left(S^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for each point $p \in \Gamma^{\prime}$. It is easy to see that $S^{\prime \prime}$ is totally real near $\Gamma^{\prime}$. Then we can perturb $S^{\prime \prime}$ slightly outside a small neighbourhood of $\Gamma^{\prime}$ to get a $C^{\infty}$-smooth 2-sphere $\tilde{S} \subset \partial G$ in general position. To finish the proof of the first part of our theorem we use an argument
of Gromov (see [G], p. 342). Namely, by the result of Bedford-Klingenberg [BK] and Kružilin $[\mathrm{K}]$, there is a smooth 3 -ball $\mathcal{B}$ which is the disjoint union of holomorphic discs $\left\{D_{\alpha}\right\}$, such that $\partial \mathcal{B}=\tilde{S}$. By Chirka's theorem [C] we know that discs $D_{\alpha}$ are $C^{\infty}$-smooth to the boundary $\partial D_{\alpha}$ near the totally real part of $\tilde{S}$ (i. e. outside of finitely many complex points of $\tilde{S}$ ) and, moreover, the boundary $\partial D_{\alpha}$ of each disc $D_{\alpha}$ is $C^{\infty}$-smooth at this part of $\tilde{S}$ and transversal there to the distribution $\left\{T_{p}^{\mathbb{C}}(\partial G)\right\}$ of complex tangencies to $\partial G$. Consider a disc $D_{\alpha_{0}}$ from the family $\left\{D_{\alpha}\right\}$ such that its boundary $\partial D_{\alpha_{0}}$ "touches" the curve $\Gamma^{\prime}$ "for the first time" and let $p$ be a point of $\partial D_{\alpha_{0}} \cap \Gamma^{\prime}$. More precisely, let $D_{\alpha_{0}} \subset \mathcal{B}$ be a holomorphic disc with the property that $\partial D_{\alpha_{0}} \cap \Gamma^{\prime} \neq \emptyset$ and such that for some connected component of the set $\mathcal{B} \backslash D_{\alpha_{0}}$, each holomorphic disc $D_{\alpha}$, which is contained in this component, satisfies $\partial D_{\alpha} \cap \Gamma^{\prime}=\emptyset$. Now we can see that, on the one hand, since the curves $\partial D_{\alpha_{0}}$ and $\Gamma^{\prime}$ are tangent to each other at the point $p$, and since the curve $\Gamma^{\prime}$ was chosen to be complex tangential, the curve $\partial D_{\alpha_{0}}$ is complex tangential at $p$. On the other hand, since the point $p$ is contained in the totally real part of $\tilde{S}$, the curve $\partial D_{\alpha_{0}}$ has to be transversal to $T_{p}^{\mathbb{C}}(\partial G)$. This gives the desired contradiction and completes the proof of the first part of the theorem.

## 3. Proof of the second part of the theorem

We prove the second part of the theorem in several steps. First, we construct a special arc $E \subset \mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$ of positive 2-dimensional measure. Then we define a function $G$ on $E$ such that $G \in C^{2-}(E)$ with the functions $G_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $G_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ chosen to be the first derivatives of $G$ on $E$. Next, following an idea of H . Whitney (see [Wh]), we contruct a nonconstant function $H \in C^{2-}(E)$ with $H_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ and $H_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$. Using $G$ and $H$ we define a function $F \in C^{2-}(E)$ with $F_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $F_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ which is zero at both endpoints of $E$. Then, using $E$, we contruct a Jordan curve $\tilde{E} \subset \mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$ of positive 2-dimensional measure and, using $F$, we define a function $\tilde{F}$ on $\tilde{E}$ of class $C^{2-}(\tilde{E})$ with derivatives $\tilde{F}_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $\tilde{F}_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$. Next, applying Whitney's extension theorem to the function $\tilde{F}$, we contruct a 2 -sphere $S^{2} \subset \mathbb{R}_{x, y, z}^{3}$ which contains a Jordan curve of positive 2-dimensional measure such that at each point of this curve the tangent plane to $S^{2}$ coincides with the corresponding plane of the standard contact distribution in $\mathbb{R}_{x, y, z}^{3}$ and finally, using the Darboux theorem, we embed this sphere into the boundary $b G$ of the given strictly pseudoconvex domain $G$.

1. Construction of the arc E. First, we define for each $\alpha \in(0,1)$ an auxiliary set

$$
\mathbb{E}^{\alpha}=\left(\left[0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right] \cup\left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, 1\right]\right) \times\left(\left[0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right] \cup\left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, 1\right]\right) \cup
$$

$$
(\{0\} \times[0,1]) \cup\left([0,1] \times\left\{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}\right\}\right) \cup(\{1\} \times[0,1])
$$

We denote $A=(0,0), B=(1,0), Q_{0}=\left[0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right] \times\left[0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right], Q_{1}=\left[0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right] \times$ $\left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, 1\right], Q_{2}=\left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, 1\right] \times\left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, 1\right]$ and $Q_{3}=\left[\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, 1\right] \times\left[0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right]$. Further, we denote $A_{0}=A=(0,0), B_{0}=\left(0, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right), A_{1}=\left(0, \frac{1+\alpha}{2}\right), B_{1}=\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2}, \frac{1+\alpha}{2}\right), A_{2}=$ $\left(\frac{1+\alpha}{2}, \frac{1+\alpha}{2}\right), B_{2}=\left(1, \frac{1+\alpha}{2}\right), A_{3}=\left(1, \frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right)$ and $B_{3}=B=(1,0)$ (see the set $\mathbb{E}^{\alpha}$ on Fig. 1).


Figure 1: The set $\mathbb{E}^{\alpha}$

To define the set $E$ we consider the sequence $\alpha_{n}=\frac{1}{(n+1)^{2}}, n=1,2, \ldots$ We construct the set $E$ as the intersection of a decreasing sequence of compact sets $E_{n}$ which will be defined inductively. We set $E_{1}=\mathbb{E}^{\alpha_{1}}$. To define the set $E_{2}$ we consider the image $\tilde{\mathbb{E}}^{\alpha_{2}}$ of the set $\mathbb{E}^{\alpha_{2}}$ under the homothety with coefficient $\frac{1-\alpha_{1}}{2}$. Then for each $i=0,1,2,3$ we consider the set $\mathbb{E}_{i}$ obtained from the set $\tilde{\mathbb{E}}^{\alpha_{2}}$ by an orthogonal transformation (if necessary) and translation in such a way that the image of the points $A$ and $B$ will coincide with the points $A_{i}$ and $B_{i}$, respectively. It is easy to see that we need an orthogonal transformation only for $i=0,3$. The set $E_{2}$ is obtained from the set $E_{1}$ by substituting for each $i=0,1,2,3$ the square $Q_{i}$ by the corresponding set $\mathbb{E}_{i}$. For each $j=0,1,2,3$ we denote by $Q_{i j}, A_{i j}$ and
$B_{i j}$ the images of the square $Q_{j}$ and the points $A_{j}, B_{j}$ in the corresponding set $\mathbb{E}_{i}$, respectively (the set $E_{2}$ is shown on Fig. 2).


Figure 2: The set $E_{2}$

To describe the inductive step of our construction we assume that the set $E_{n}$ is already constructed and define the set $E_{n+1}$. Consider the image $\tilde{\mathbb{E}}^{\alpha_{n+1}}$ of the set $\mathbb{E}^{\alpha_{n+1}}$ under the homothety with coefficient $\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{1-\alpha_{i}}{2}\right)$. Then for each multiindex $\left(i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{n}\right), i_{j}=0,1,2,3, j=1,2, \ldots, n$, consider the set $\mathbb{E}_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$ obtained from the set $\tilde{\mathbb{E}}^{\alpha_{n+1}}$ by an orthogonal transformation (if necessary) and translation in such a way that the image of the points $A$ and $B$ will coincide with the points $A_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$ and $B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$, respectively. The set $E_{n+1}$ is obtained from the set $E_{n}$ by substituting each square $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$ by the corresponding set $\mathbb{E}_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$. For each $i_{j}=0,1,2,3, j=1,2, \ldots, n+1$, we denote by $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n+1}}, A_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n+1}}$ and $B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n+1}}$ the images of the square $Q_{i_{n+1}}$ and the points $A_{i_{n+1}}, B_{i_{n+1}}$ in the corresponding set $\mathbb{E}_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$, respectively. Note, that for each multiindex $\left(i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}\right)$ one has $A_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n} 0}=$ $A_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$ and $B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n} 3}=B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$.

Since $\left\{E_{n}\right\}$ is a decreasing sequence of compact sets, $E=\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_{n}$ is a nonempty compact subset of $\mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$. It is easy to see that it is an arc (see the set $E$ on Fig. $3)$.


Figure 3: The set $E$

To estimate the area of the set $E$ we observe that

$$
\text { Area } \begin{aligned}
\left(E_{n}\right)=\left(1-\alpha_{n}\right)^{2} \text { Area }\left(E_{n-1}\right) & =\prod_{k=1}^{n}\left(1-\alpha_{k}\right)^{2}=\prod_{k=1}^{n}\left(1-\frac{1}{(k+1)^{2}}\right)^{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{n+1}\right)\right)^{2}>\frac{1}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $n=1,2, \ldots$. Hence, the set $E$ has a positive 2-dimensional measure (and, moreover, Area $(E)=\frac{1}{4}$ ).
2. Definition and properties of the function G. For each $n=1,2, \ldots$ let $\Omega_{n}$ be the connected component of the set $(0,1) \times(-1,1) \backslash E_{n}$ containing the square $(0,1) \times(-1,0)$ and let $J_{n}=\partial \Omega_{n} \cap([0,1] \times[0,1])$. On each curve $J_{n}$ we define a function $G_{n}$ in the following way. For a point $p \in J_{n}$ we denote by $J_{n}^{p}$ a part of $J_{n}$ with initial point $A$ and endpoint $p$ and then we set $G_{n}(p)=\int_{J_{n}^{p}} y d x$.

Now we define the function $G$ on the $\operatorname{arc} E$. Let $p$ be a point of $E$. Consider a sequence of points $p_{n} \in J_{n}, n=1,2, \ldots$, such that $p_{n} \rightarrow p$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and set $G(p)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} G_{n}\left(p_{n}\right)$. Since, by Green's theorem, for a piece-wise smooth Jordan curve $\gamma$ the integral $\int y d x$ represents the area of the domain bounded by $\gamma$, and
since for each $k \geq 0$ one has Area $\left(\Omega_{n+k} \backslash \bar{\Omega}_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, closing up the curve $J_{n+k}^{p_{n+k}}-J_{n}^{p_{n}}$ by the segment $\left[p_{n+k}, p_{n}\right]$ we see that for each $k \geq 0$ :

$$
G_{n+k}\left(p_{n+k}\right)-G_{n}\left(p_{n}\right)-\int_{\left[p_{n}, p_{n+k}\right]} y d x \rightarrow 0, \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty
$$

and therefore, by smoothness of the form $y d x$, we conclude that for each $k \geq 0$ we have $G_{n+k}\left(p_{n+k}\right)-G_{n}\left(p_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This means that the function $G$ is well defined on the $\operatorname{arc} E$.

Next, we prove that $G \in C^{2-}(E)$ with $G_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $G_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ chosen to be the first derivatives of $G$ at each point $(x, y) \in E$. To do this rigorously we recall the definition of a function belonging to the class $C^{2-}(E)$ (this definition is due to H . Whitney. Further details can be found, for example, in $[\mathrm{S}]$ ).

Definition. Let $E$ be a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$ and let $f$ be a function defined on $E$. We say that $f$ belongs to the class $C^{2-}(E)$ if there exist bounded functions $f_{x}^{\prime}$ and $f_{y}^{\prime}$ defined on $E$ with the property that for each $\varepsilon>0$ there is a constant $M$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|f(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y)-f(x, y)-f_{x}^{\prime}(x, y) \Delta x-f_{y}^{\prime}(x, y) \Delta y\right| \leq M(|\Delta x|+|\Delta y|)^{2-\varepsilon} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $(x, y),(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) \in E$.
To prove that $G \in C^{2-}(E)$ we consider two points $p, p+\Delta p \in E$. Since the function $G$ obviously is smooth on each of the segments $\left[B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}, A_{i_{1} \ldots\left(i_{n}+1\right)}\right], i_{n}=$ $0,1,2$, and satisfies condition (1) with $G_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $G_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ there, it is enough to verify that the condition (1) holds true for points $p$ and $p+\Delta p$ of the Cantor set $\mathbb{Q} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{\left(i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}\right)} Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$. Consider a number $m$ such that $p, p+\Delta p$ belong to a square $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m}}$ for some indexes $\left(i_{1}, \ldots, i_{m}\right)$, but not to a smaller square $Q_{i_{1}, \ldots i_{m} i_{m+1}}, i_{m+1}=0,1,2,3$. Since $p$ and $p+\Delta p$ belong to different squares $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m} i_{m+1}}$ and $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m i} i_{m+1}^{\prime}}$, it follows that the distance between these points is not less than the minimal distance between $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m} i_{m+1}}$ and $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m} i_{m+1}^{\prime}}$, that is,

$$
\begin{align*}
|\Delta p| \geq \alpha_{m+1}\left(\frac{1-\alpha_{1}}{2}\right) \ldots\left(\frac{1-\alpha_{m}}{2}\right) & =\frac{1}{(m+2)^{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{m}} \prod_{k=1}^{m}\left(1-\frac{1}{(k+1)^{2}}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \frac{1}{(m+1)(m+2)} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Now we estimate the left hand side of the condition (1) for our function $G$

$$
\mathcal{L}_{G}(p, p+\Delta p) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} G(p+\Delta p)-G(p)-G_{x}^{\prime}(p) \Delta x-G_{y}^{\prime}(p) \Delta y=G(p+\Delta p)-G(p)-y \Delta x
$$

where $p=(x, y)$ and $\Delta p=(\Delta x, \Delta y)$. It is easy to see that

$$
\int_{[p, p+\Delta p]} y d x=y \Delta x+\frac{1}{2} \Delta x \Delta y
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\mathcal{L}_{G}(p, p+\Delta p)\right| \leq\left|G(p+\Delta p)-G(p)-\int_{[p, p+\Delta p]} y d x\right|+\frac{1}{2}|\Delta x||\Delta y| \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from the definition of function $G$ and Green's theorem that $G(p+$ $\Delta p)-G(p)-\int_{[p, p+\Delta p]} y d x$ represents the sum (with signes) of the areas of domains bounded by the part of the arc $E$ from the point $p$ to the point $p+\Delta p$ and by the segment $[p, p+\Delta p]$. Since all these domains are contained in the square $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m}}$, we conclude that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left|G(p+\Delta p)-G(p)-\int_{[p, p+\Delta p]} y d x\right| \leq \operatorname{Area}\left(Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m}}\right) \\
& \quad=\left(\frac{1-\alpha_{1}}{2}\right)^{2} \ldots\left(\frac{1-\alpha_{m}}{2}\right)^{2}=\frac{1}{2^{2 m+2}}\left(\frac{m+2}{m+1}\right)^{2} \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $p, p+\Delta p \in Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m}}$, it follows that $|\Delta x|$ and $|\Delta y|$ can be estimated from above by the length of the side of $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m}}$, that is, by $\frac{1}{2^{m+1}}\left(\frac{m+2}{m+1}\right)$. Therefore, we have by (3) and (4) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\mathcal{L}_{G}(p, p+\Delta p)\right| \leq \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{2^{2 m+2}}\left(\frac{m+2}{m+1}\right)^{2} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, we conclude from the estimates (2) and (5) that to prove that $G$ satisfies condition (1) we only need to verify that for each $\varepsilon>0$ there is a constant $M$ such that

$$
\frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{2^{2 m+2}}\left(\frac{m+2}{m+1}\right)^{2} \leq M\left(\frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{(m+1)(m+2)}\right)^{2-\varepsilon} \quad \text { as } m \rightarrow \infty
$$

which is equivalent to the inequality

$$
\frac{1}{\left(2^{\varepsilon}\right)^{m+1}} \leq M \frac{2}{3}\left(\frac{1}{(m+1)(m+2)}\right)^{2-\varepsilon}\left(\frac{m+1}{m+2}\right)^{2} \text { as } m \rightarrow \infty
$$

The last inequality is obviously satisfied, since the left hand side tends to zero much faster than the right hand side, as $m \rightarrow \infty$. This proves that the function $G$ belongs to the class $C^{2-}(E)$.
3. Definition and properties of the functions $\mathbf{H}$ and $\mathbf{F}$. First, we define the function $H$ on the Cantor set $\mathbb{Q}$. Each point $p$ in this set is uniquely determined as the intersection of the decreasing sequence $Q_{i_{1}} \supset Q_{i_{1} i_{2}} \supset Q_{i_{1} i_{2} i_{3}} \supset \ldots$ of the squares $Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n}}$. Then, we define the value of $H$ at the point $p$ as $H(p)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i_{n}}{4^{n}}$. It is easy to see that for each $i_{n}=0,1,2$ one has $H\left(A_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n-1}\left(i_{n}+1\right)}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{i_{k}}{4^{k}}+\frac{1}{4^{n}}$ and $H\left(B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n-1} i_{n}}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{i_{k}}{4^{k}}+\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{4^{k}}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{i_{k}}{4^{k}}+\frac{1}{4^{n}}$, therefore, we can extend the function $H$ as a constant to each segment $\left[B_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n-1} i_{n}}, A_{i_{1} \ldots i_{n-1}\left(i_{n}+1\right)}\right], i_{n}=0,1,2$, with the value $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{i_{k}}{4^{k}}+\frac{1}{4^{n}}$ there. This defines the function $H$ on the whole set $E$.

Now we show that $H \in C^{2-}(E)$ with the functions $H_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ and $H_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=$ 0 chosen to be the first derivatives of $H$ on $E$. We proceed in the same way as in the case of the function $G$, namely, we consider two points $p, p+\Delta p \in E$. Since, by definition, $H$ is a constant on each of the intervals constituting the set $E \backslash \mathbb{Q}$, we only need to verify that the function $H$ satisfies condition (1) for points $p, p+\Delta p \in \mathbb{Q}$. Let, as above, $m$ be a number such that $p, p+\Delta p \in Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m}}$, but $p, p+\Delta p \notin Q_{i_{1} \ldots i_{m} i_{m+1}}$ for any $i_{m+1}=0,1,2,3$. Then the definition of $H$ gives us that $|H(p+\Delta p)-H(p)| \leq \frac{1}{4^{m}}$. Hence, by estimate (2), it is enough to show that for each $\varepsilon>0$ there is $M$ such that

$$
\frac{1}{4^{m}} \leq M\left(\frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{(m+1)(m+2)}\right)^{2-\varepsilon} \quad \text { as } m \rightarrow \infty
$$

which is obviously true with the same argument as above for the function $G$.
To define the function $F$ on the set $E$ we first note that by definition of $H$ one has $H(A)=0$ and $H(B)=1$. Then, since by definition of $G$ we have $G(A)=0$, there is a constant $C$ such that for the function $F=G+C H$ one has $F(A)=0$ and $F(B)=0$. Finally, we observe that since $G \in C^{2-}(E)$ with $G_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $G_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$, and since $H \in C^{2-}(E)$ with $H_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ and $H_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$, it follows that $F \in C^{2-}(E)$ with $F_{x}^{\prime}(x, y)=y$ and $F_{y}^{\prime}(x, y)=0$ at each point $(x, y) \in E$.
4. Construction of the sphere $\mathbf{S} \subset \partial \mathbf{G}$. Let $\mathbb{A}$ be the linear transformation of $\mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$ represented by the matrix $\left(\begin{array}{rr}0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0\end{array}\right)$. Consider the sets $E^{1}=E+\vec{e}_{y}, E^{2}=$ $-\mathbb{A} E+\vec{e}_{x}+\vec{e}_{y}, E^{3}=-E+\vec{e}_{x}$ and $E^{4}=\mathbb{A} E$, where $\vec{e}_{x}$ and $\vec{e}_{y}$ are the unit vectors in the coordinate directions $x$ and $y$, respectively, and then define the set $\tilde{E}$ as
$\tilde{E}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{4} E^{i}$ (the set $\tilde{E}$ is shown in Fig. 4). It is easy to see that $\tilde{E}$ is a Jordan


Figure 4: The set $\tilde{E}$
curve of positive 2-dimensional measure in $\mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$. Applying to each of the sets $E^{i}, i=1,2,3,4$, a construction similar to the one that we had above for the function $F$ on the set $E$, we will get functions $F^{i}$ defined on the corresponding sets $E^{i}$ with the properties:

1) $F^{i} \in C^{2-}\left(E^{i}\right)$,
2) $\frac{\partial F^{i}}{\partial x}(x, y)=y$ and $\frac{\partial F^{i}}{\partial y}(x, y)=0$ for each $(x, y) \in E^{i}$,
3) $F^{i}$ has zero values at the endpoints of the arc $E^{i}$.

Hence, we can define a function $\tilde{F}$ on the set $\tilde{E}$ as $\tilde{F}(p)=F^{i}(p)$ for $p \in$ $E^{i}, i=1,2,3,4$, and for this function we will obviously have that $\tilde{F} \in C^{2-}(\tilde{E})$ with $\frac{\partial \tilde{F}}{\partial x}(x, y)=y$ and $\frac{\partial \tilde{F}}{\partial y}(x, y)=0$ at each point $(x, y) \in \tilde{E}$. Then, by the classical extension theorem of Whitney (see, for example, Theorem 4 on p. 177 in $[\mathrm{S}])$, there is a function $\widetilde{\tilde{F}} \in C^{2-}\left(\mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}\right)$ such that $\tilde{\widetilde{F}} \in C^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2} \backslash \tilde{E}\right)$ and $\widetilde{F}(p)=\tilde{F}(p)$ for each $p \in \tilde{E}$. If we restrict the function $\widetilde{\widetilde{F}}$ to a disc $\mathbb{D} \subset \mathbb{R}_{x, y}^{2}$ such that $\tilde{E} \subset \mathbb{D}$ and consider a smooth extension of the graph of this restriction to a 2-dimensional sphere $S^{2}$ embedded into $\mathbb{R}_{x, y, z}^{3}$, then the set $\widetilde{F}(\tilde{E})$ will be a Jordan curve in $S^{2}$ of positive 2-dimensional measure and at each point of this curve the tangent plane to $S^{2}$ will coincide with the corresponding plane of the standard contact distribution $\{d z-y d x=0\}$.

Now let $G$ be a given strictly pseudoconvex domain in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ with $C^{\infty}$-smooth boundary and let $q$ be a point of $\partial G$. Then, by the theorem of Darboux, there is a neighbourhood $U$ of $q$ in $\partial G$ and a $C^{\infty}$-smooth diffeomorphism $\Phi$ of $U$ onto a neighbourhood $V$ of the origin in $\mathbb{R}_{x, y, z}^{3}$ such that the distribution of complex tangencies $\left\{T_{p}^{\mathbb{C}}(\partial G)\right\}$ will be transformed by $\Phi$ to the standard contact distribution in $\mathbb{R}_{x, y, z}^{3}$. We can assume without loss of generality that $S^{2} \subset V$ (if not, we consider a linear transformation $x \rightarrow c x, y \rightarrow c y, z \rightarrow c^{2} z$ of $\mathbb{R}_{x, y, z}^{3}$ which preserves the standard contact structure and use the image of $S^{2}$ under this transformation with $c>0$ sufficiently small instead of $\left.S^{2}\right)$. Then $S=\Phi^{-1}\left(S^{2}\right)$ will be a 2-dimensional sphere in $\partial G$ of class $C^{2-}$ and the set $\mathcal{E}=\Phi^{-1}(\tilde{\widetilde{F}}(\tilde{E})) \subset S$ will be a Jordan curve of positive 2 -dimensional measure such that at each point $p \in \mathcal{E}$ the tangent plane $T_{p} S$ to $S$ is a complex line. This proves the second part of the theorem.

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