

- 3.8. COROLLARY. If X is an arcwise connected continuum, then the set of all points at which X is colocally connected spans X.
- 3.9. Remark. The above corollary fails for continua with two arc-components. The well-known (sin 1/x)-curve is such an example.
- 3.10. Corollary. Let X be a continuum with two arc-components lying in a strongly locally connected space M. Then there is a point  $p \in \operatorname{Fr}_M X$  at which X is colocally connected.

Proof. Let A and B be the arc-components of X. There is a point  $x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ . Let  $E = \{x\}$ . Clearly,  $\operatorname{Fr}_M X \neq \emptyset$  (otherwise X would be a locally connected continuum). By 2.1 we have  $(\operatorname{Fr}_M X) \setminus E \neq \emptyset$ . Since there is no surjection from X onto an indecomposable continuum, by 3.1 we get a point in  $\operatorname{Fr}_M X$  with the desired properties.

- 3.11. COROLLARY. Every continuum with two arc-components contains a point at which it is colocally connected.
- 3.12. Remark. The above corollary fails for continua with three arc-components. The continuum pictured below is such an example.



In [7] some results similar to the above ones are established for continua with countable number of arc-components.

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# A hereditarily normal strongly zero-dimensional space containing subspaces of arbitrarily large dimension

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Abstract. We construct a hereditarily normal space X with  $\dim X = 0$  containing for every n = 1, 2, ... a perfectly normal subspace  $X_n$  such that  $\dim X_n = \operatorname{Ind} X_n = n$  and  $\operatorname{loc} \dim X_n = 0$ .

There was an old problem raised by E. Čech [3] whether the covering dimension dim is monotone in the class of hereditarily normal spaces; the analogous problem for the large inductive dimension Ind was raised by C. H. Dowker [4] (see also [1; Ch. VII] and [14; Problem 11-14]).

Under the assumption of an existence of Souslin's continuum V. V. Filippov [10] solved these problems in the negative exhibiting a hereditarily normal space X with dim X = 0 containing for n = 1, 2, ... a subspace  $X_n$  with dim  $X_n = \operatorname{Ind} X_n = n$ , and later on the authors [18] constructed (using only the usual set theory) a hereditarily normal space X with dim X = 0 containing a subspace Y with dim  $Y = \operatorname{Ind} Y = 1$  (1).

In this paper we improve our previous result [18] by a construction of a hereditarily normal space X with  $\dim X = 0$  containing for n = 1, 2, ... a subspace  $X_n$  with  $\dim X_n = \operatorname{Ind} X_n = n$ . This construction is in fact very similar to our former construction [18; Sec. 3]. However, to obtain the stronger result we needed another approach to the dimensional properties of this construction (exhibited in [17]) and some special results on the structure of complete metrizable spaces (proved in [20]) to apply this idea.

## 1. Terminology, notation and auxiliary results.

1.1. Our terminology follows [5]. We shall denote by N the set of natural numbers, by I the real unit interval [0, 1] and by  $I^n$  the unit n-dimensional cube;  $\partial I^n$  stands for the boundary of the cube  $I^n$ , i.e., the points in  $I^n$  at least one of whose

<sup>(1)</sup> It is worth while to notice that compact hereditarily normal spaces missing the monotonicity of the dimensions dim and Ind were constructed, under some set-theoretical hypothesis stronger than the continuum hypothesis, by V. V. Fedorčuk [6], [7] and A. Ostaszewski [15], and, more recently, under the continuum hypothesis, by V. V. Fedorčuk [8] and E. Pol [16]; these examples, especially those in [6] and [15] have many further very interesting properties.

coordinates is 0 or 1. If  $f: X \to Y$  is a mapping and  $Z \subset X$  then  $f \mid Z$  denotes the restriction of f to the set Z.

The word "dimension" stands for the covering dimension dim and Ind denotes the large inductive dimension. A space X is said to be of *local dimension at most* n (abbreviated locdim  $X \le n$ ) if each point  $x \in X$  has an open neighbourhood U with dim  $\overline{U} \le n$  (see [1] or [14]).

1.2. Given an ordinal  $\xi$  we denote by  $D(\xi)$  the space of all ordinals less than  $\xi$  endowed with the discrete topology. A set  $S \subset \omega_1$  (we identify  $\omega_1$  with the set of all countable ordinals) is said to be *stationary* if it intersects every cofinal and closed with respect to the order topology subset in  $\omega_1$  (see [12; Appendix 1.5]). An immediate consequence of non-measurability of  $\mathbf{s}_1$  (see [13; Ch. IX, § 3]) is that every stationary set in  $\omega_1$  can be split into two disjoint stationary sets (note that all not stationary sets in  $\omega_1$  form a  $\sigma$ -ideal containing all singletons).

1.3. For each ordinal  $\xi \leq \omega_1$  we put  $B(\xi) = D(\xi)^N$ , i.e.,  $B(\xi)$  is the space of all sequences of ordinals less than  $\xi$  endowed with the pointwise topology; in particular  $B(\omega_1) = B(\aleph_1)$  is the so called Baire's space of weight  $\aleph_1$  (see [5]). We put also

$$B_{\xi} = B(\xi) \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha < \xi} B(\alpha)$$
 and  $B(S) = \bigcup \{B_{\xi} : \xi \in S\}$  for  $S \subset \omega_1$ .

In the sequel we use the following

LEMMA (cf. [20; Sec. 3]). Let T be a stationary set in  $\omega_1$  and let U be an open set in  $B(s_1)$  containing the set B(T). Then the set  $\{\xi: B_{\xi} \neq U\}$  is not stationary.

The lemma can be justified shortly as follows: the closed set  $F = B(\aleph_1) \setminus U$  does not contain topologically the space  $B(\aleph_1)$  ([20; Lemma 3.2]), whence F being a completely metrizable space is the union of countably many locally separable subspaces (A. H. Stone's theorem [21; Theorem 2]) and therefore F intersects only "not stationary many" sets  $B_{\xi}$  ([20; Theorem 2.2]); see also the proof of Proposition 3.5 in [20] (2).

1.4. We shall describe a perfectly normal space B which will be a base for our construction (this space was also exploited in [18]).

We give the set  $B = B(\omega_1)$  a new topology, finer than the metrizable topology of the Baire's space, by taking as a base the sets  $U \cap B(\xi)$ , where U is an open set in the Baire's space  $B(\aleph_1)$  and  $\xi < \omega_1$ . In other words we enrich the topology of  $B(\aleph_1)$  by new open sets  $B(\xi)$ ; see also [18; Sec. 3] and [19; Example] for another description of the space B.

The properties of the space B were exactly investigated in [19]; let us recall that B is perfectly normal (but not paracompact) and that the sets  $B(\xi)$  are open—and—closed subspaces with a countable base which cover B. Note also that every set  $B_{\xi}$  is closed in B.

In the sequel the following statement parallel of Lemma 1.3 will play the key

LEMMA. Let S be a stationary set in  $\omega_1$  and let H be a  $G_{\delta}$ -set in B containing the set B(S). Then the set  $\{\xi\colon B_{\xi} \in H\}$  is not stationary, i.e., there exists a not stationary set  $K \subset \omega_1$  such that  $B \setminus B(K) \subset H$ .

It is easy to see that we can restrict ourselves to the case of open H. By [19; Lemma 2] there exists an open in  $B(\mathbf{s}_1)$  set  $U \subset H$  such that the set

$$L = \{ \xi \colon B_{\xi} \cap (H \setminus U) \neq \emptyset \}$$

is not stationary (observe, that for the function  $\varkappa$  defined in [19; Example] we have  $\varkappa^{-1}(\xi) = B_{\xi}$ ). Thus  $U \supset B(T)$ , where the set  $T = S \setminus L$  is stationary in  $\omega_1$ , and therefore by Lemma 1.3 the set  $\{\xi \colon B_{\xi} \oplus H\} \subset \{\xi \colon B_{\xi} \oplus U\}$  is not stationary.

2. THEOREM. There exists for every n=1,2,... a perfectly normal space  $X_n$  with locdim  $X_n=0$  and dim  $X_n=\operatorname{Ind} X_n=n$ . Moreover each  $X_n$  is locally second-countable.

**2.1.** We begin with some necessary notation. For every  $0 \le m \le n$  let us denote by  $R_n^m$  the set of points in the cube  $I^n$  exactly m of whose coordinates are rational and let us denote by  $L_n^m$  the set of points in  $I^n$  at least m of whose coordinates are rational, i.e.,  $L_n^m = \bigcup_{\substack{j=m \\ j=m}} R_n^j$  (see [11; Example II 12 and III 6]).

Recal ([11]) that dim  $R_n^m = 0$  and that each set  $L_n^m$  is the union of countably many compact subsets of  $I^n$ .

2.2. We pass to the definition of the spaces  $X_n$ .

Let us split  $\omega_1$  into n+1 disjoint stationary sets  $S_0, ..., S_n$  (see 1.2) and let us define (see 1.3 and 1.4)

$$X_n = \bigcup_{m=0}^n B(S_m) \times R_n^m \subset B \times I^n,$$

where  $X_n$  is endowed with the subspace topology of the product of the perfectly normal space B defined in 1.4 and the n-dimensional cube  $I^n$ . Thus  $X_n$  is perfectly normal [5; Problem 4.5.16] and locally second-countable.

2.3. Let us verify that  $\operatorname{locdim} X_n = 0$ .

The sets  $B(\xi)$  form an open — and — closed cover of B (see 1.4) and hence the sets  $V_{\xi} = B(\xi) \times I^n$  form an open — and — closed cover of  $B \times I^n$ . Since

$$V_{\xi} \cap X_n = \bigcup_{m=0}^n \bigcup \{B_{\alpha} \times R_n^m : \alpha \leqslant \xi \text{ and } \alpha \in S_m\}$$

and since each set  $B_{\alpha} \times R_n^m$  is closed in  $X_n$  (see 1.4) we infer from the sum theorem ([11; Theorem III 2]; notice that  $V_{\xi}$  is second-countable) that

$$\dim(V_{\varepsilon} \cap X_n) \leqslant \sup \{\dim(B_{\alpha} \times R_n^m) : \alpha \leqslant \xi, 0 \leqslant m \leqslant n\} = 0 \quad (cf. 2.1).$$

<sup>(2)</sup> The reader is referred to Fleissner [9; Corollary 3.5] for a straightforward combinatorial proof of this lemma.

2.4. The following lemma is crucial for our further reasonings:

LEMMA. Let G be a  $G_{\delta}$ -set in the space  $B \times I^n$  containing the space  $X_n$ . Then there exists a point  $x \in B$  such that the set  $\{x\} \times I^n$  is contained in G.

Proof. We shall define inductively a sequence  $K_n$ ,  $K_{n-1}$ , ...,  $K_1$  of not stationary sets in  $\omega_1$  such that the following condition (m) is satisfied for  $1 \le m \le n$ 

$$(m) (B \setminus B(K_m)) \times L_n^m \subset G.$$

For convenience let us put  $K_{n+1} = \emptyset = L_n^{n+1}$ , so condition (n+1) holds, and let us assume that we have defined the set  $K_{m+1}$  satisfying (m+1); we shall define the set  $K_m$ .

Let us put  $S = S_m \setminus K_{m+1}$  and let us observe that

$$(*) B(S) \times L_n^m \subset G.$$

Indeed, we have  $B(S_m) \times R_n^m \subset X_n \subset G$  and, by (m+1),  $(B \setminus B(K_{m+1})) \times L_n^{m+1} \subset G$ ; thus  $B(S) \times (R_n^m \cup L_n^{m+1}) \subset G$ , but  $R_n^m \cup L_n^{m+1} = L_n^m$  (see 2.1).

Let  $L_n^m = \bigcup_k Z_k$ , where  $Z_k$  is a compact set (see 2.1). Since, by (\*), we have  $B(S) \times Z_k \subset G$  for every k, there exist  $G_{\delta}$ -sets  $G_k$  in B such that  $B(S) \subset G_k$  and  $G_k \times Z_k \subset G$  (3). Let  $H = \bigcap G_k$ , then

$$H\times L_n^m\subset\bigcup_k G_k\times Z_k\subset G$$
.

Since H is a  $G_{\delta}$ -set in B containing the set B(S) with S stationary, there exists, by Lemma 1.4, a not stationary set  $K_m$  such that  $B \setminus B(K_m) \subset H$  which implies that  $(B \setminus B(K_m)) \times L_m^m \subset G$ , i.e., the condition (m) holds. The inductive step is done.

Now, let us look at the set  $K_1$ . By condition (1) we have  $(B \setminus B(K_1)) \times L_n^1 \subset G$  and, because  $K_1$  is not stationary, there exists a point  $x \in B(S_0 \setminus K_1)$ . We obtain thus  $\{x\} \times R_n^0 \subset X_n \subset G$  and  $\{x\} \times L_n^1 \subset G$  and hence  $\{x\} \times (R_n^0 \cup L_n^1) \subset G$ ; but

$$R_{n}^{0} \cup L_{n}^{1} = L_{n}^{0} = I^{n}$$

and this completes the proof.

**2.5.** LEMMA. Let E be a topological space and let  $f: F \rightarrow Z$  be a continuous mapping of a closed subset F of E into a compact metrizable space Z. Let A be a dense subset of E such that the restriction  $f \mid F \cap A$  has a continuous extension over A with values in Z. Then there exist a  $G_\delta$ -subset G of E containing A and a continuous extension  $g: G \rightarrow Z$  of the mapping  $f \mid F \cap G$  over G.

Proof. There exist a  $G_{\delta}$ -subset H of E containing A and a continuous extension  $h: H \rightarrow Z$  of the mapping  $f \mid F \cap A$  (first extend  $f \mid F \cap A$  over A and then choose H and h; see [2; Ch. IX, § 2, 3 and Ch. I, § 8, 5]). The set

$$W = \{x \in F \cap H : f(x) \neq h(x)\}$$

is an  $F_{\sigma}$ -set in H disjoint from A. One can take now  $G = H \setminus W$  and  $g = h \mid G$ .

2.6. We are ready for the proof that  $\dim X_n = \operatorname{Ind} X_n = n$ .

The inequality  $\operatorname{Ind} X_n \leq \operatorname{Ind} (B \times I^n) \leq n$  follows from the fact that  $\dim B = 0$  (which can be verified easily on the ground of the results of [19]) by some well-known theorems of the dimension theory (see for example [14; Corollary 11.11 and Theorem 25.6]). Because  $\dim \operatorname{Ind} \operatorname{In$ 

Let  $F = B \times \partial I^n$  and let  $f \colon F \to \partial I^n$  be the projection parallel of the space B. We shall verify that the mapping  $f \mid F \cap X_n$  cannot be extended continuously over  $X_n$  to a mapping with values in  $\partial I^n$ . Indeed, in the opposite case, by Lemma 2.5 (where  $E = B \times I^n$ ,  $Z = \partial I^n$  and  $A = X_n$ ), there would exist G, a  $G_\delta$ -set in E containing  $X_n$ , and a continuous mapping  $g \colon G \to \partial I^n$  which extends  $f \mid F \cap G$ . However, by Lemma 2.4, there exists a point  $x \in B$  such that the set  $\{x\} \times I^n$  is contained in G. Since  $f \mid \{x\} \times \partial I^n$  is in fact the identity of  $\partial I^n$ , the mapping  $r \colon I^n \to \partial I^n$  defined by r(t) = g(x, t) provides a retraction of the n-dimensional cube onto its boundary, a contradiction.

Thus  $X_n$  admits a continuous mapping of a closed subset into  $\partial I^n$  which is not extendable over  $X_n$  and hence, by a classical theorem of P. S. Aleksandroff (see [1] or [14]),  $\dim X_n \geqslant n$ .

3. THEOREM. There exists a hereditarily normal space X such that  $\dim X = 0$  and X contains for every n = 1, 2, ... a subspace  $X_n$  with  $\dim X_n = \operatorname{Ind} X_n = n$ . Moreover, X is a Lindelöf space and there exists a point  $p \in X$  such that the space  $X \setminus \{p\}$  is perfectly normal and locally second-countable.

Proof (cf. [14, Theorem 11.17] and [18; Example 2]). Let us add to the free union  $U = \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$  of the spaces  $X_n$  constructed in the precede section a point p which does not belong to U, i.e.,  $X = \{p\} \cup \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n$ . We give X a topology letting U to be an open subspace in X and taking as a base of neighbourhoods of the point p the sets  $\{p\} \cup V$ , where V is an open — and — closed set in U and the space  $U \setminus V$  has a countable base. All the properties of the space X stated in Theorem are easily verified (cf. [18; Example 2]).

Added in Proof. The reader is referred for a brief exposition of the main idea of this paper to a note of the authors in Proceedings of the Fourth Prague Top. Symp., 1976, Part B, Contributed Paper, pp. 357-359.

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<sup>(3)</sup> This follows easily, for example, from the closedness of the projection  $B \times Z_k \to B$  parallel of the compact space  $Z_k$ .



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# On the fixed point index and the Nielsen fixed point theorem of symmetric product mappings

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Abstract. In this paper we study essential fixed point sets of symmetric product maps. We define fixed point index of a symmetric product map of a finite polyhedron. In the special case when  $G = S_n$ , the symmetric group, we define fixed point classes and the Nielsen number of a symmetric product map and prove the Nielsen fixed point theorem for symmetric product maps of finite polyhedra.

1. Introduction. Let X be a topological space and  $X^n$  be the Cartesian product with usual topology. A group G of permutations of the numbers [1, 2, ..., n] can be considered as a group of homeomorphisms on  $X^n$  by defining, for  $\alpha \in G$  and  $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) \in X^n$ ,  $\alpha(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = (x_{\alpha(1)}, x_{\alpha(2)}, ..., x_{\alpha(n)})$ . The orbit space with identification topology is denoted by  $X^n/G$ . A map  $f: X \to X^n/G$  is called a symmetric product map. A point  $x \in X$  is said to be a fixed point of f if  $\eta(z) = f(x)$  implies that x is a coordinate of z, where  $z \in X^n$  and  $\eta: X^n \to X^n/G$  is the identification map. C. N. Maxwell defined the Lefschetz number L(f) of a symmetric product map and proved the Lefschetz fixed point theorem for symmetric product maps in the case when X is a compact polyhedron [6]. The Lefschetz fixed point theorem for symmetric product mappings also hold in the case when X is a metric absolute neighborhood retract and f is a compact map [5].

A fixed point x of the map  $f: X \to X''/G$  is called an *essential fixed point* if each map sufficiently close to f has a fixed point arbitrary close to x. Essential fixed points and essential fixed point sets for a single valued maps have been investigated by Fort [3] and O'Neill [7] respectively.

In this paper we study essential fixed point sets of symmetric product maps. We define fixed point index of a symmetric product map of a finite polyhedron. In the special case when  $G = S_n$ , the symmetric group, we define fixed point classes and the Nielsen number of a symmetric product map and prove the Nielsen fixed point theorem for symmetric product maps of finite polyhedra.

2. Preliminaries. Let  $\pi_i$ :  $X^n \to X$  be the *i*th projection and  $\alpha \in G$ , the for  $z \in X^n$   $\pi_i \alpha(z) = \pi_{\alpha(i)} z$ , where i = 1, 2, ..., n.