# On antipodal sets on the sphere and on continuous involutions \*

by

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#### I. Preliminaries

- **1. The sphere**  $S_n$ . Let  $S_n$  be the *n*-sphere in the (n+1)-dimensional Euclidean space  $E_{n+1}$ , i. e., the set of points  $x \in E_{n+1}$  with |x|=1. We denote by  $\alpha$  the antipodal mapping of  $S_n$ ; it is defined by  $\alpha(x) = -x$ , for every  $x \in S_n$ . The set  $A \subset S_n$  is called antipodal if  $\alpha(A) = A$ .
- 2. True chains. Let M be a metric space and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By an  $\varepsilon$ -simplex of M we understand a finite subset of M with diameter  $<\varepsilon$ . In a known manner we introduce the notions of  $\varepsilon$ -chains and  $\varepsilon$ -cycles modulo 2 of M. Since in the sequel we shall use the homology theory modulo 2 only (with the exception of Chapter IV), the words "modulo 2" will be omitted. The boundary of a chain  $\varepsilon$  we denote by  $\varepsilon \varepsilon$ . By the boundary of a 0-dimensional simplex we understand the number 1 considered as a rest modulo 2. The rests 0 and 1 modulo 2 may be considered as (-1)-dimensional cycles. A p-dimensional  $\varepsilon$ -cycle  $\gamma^p$  is said to be  $\eta$ -homologous to zero in M if there exists in M a (p+1)-dimensional  $\eta$ -chain  $\varepsilon^{p+1}$  such that  $\partial \varepsilon^{p+1} = \gamma^p$ .

A sequence of chains  $\mathbf{x} = \{z_i\}$  is called a p-dimensional true chain of M if there exists a compact subset C of M and a sequence  $\{z_i\}$  of positive numbers convergent to zero and such that  $z_i$  is a p-dimensional  $z_i$ -chain of C. A true chain  $\tau = \{\gamma_i\}$  is called a true cycle if  $\partial_{\tau} = \{\partial \gamma_i\} = 0$ . Let  $\tau = \{\gamma_i\}$  be a p-dimensional true cycle of M. Then  $\tau$  is said to be homologous to zero in M if, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $i_0$  such that  $\gamma_i$  is  $\varepsilon$ -homologous to zero in M, for  $i > i_0$ ; it is called convergent in M if the true cycle  $\{\gamma_i + \gamma_{i+1}\}$  is homologous to zero in M; if there exists a number  $\tau > 0$  such that no cycle  $\gamma_i$  is  $\tau$ -homologous to zero in T, then the true cycle  $\tau$  is called totally unhomologous to zero in T.

We shall denote by  $B^p(M)$  the p-dimensional homology group (modulo 2) of M based on the convergent cycles.

<sup>\*</sup> The main results of this paper were published without proof in [7] and [8].

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The space M is said to be p-acyclic provided that every (r-1)-dimensional true cycle of M with  $0 \le r \le p$  is homologous to zero in M. According to the definition of (-1)-dimensional cycles, a space is 0-acyclic if and only if it is not empty; a compact space is 1-acyclic if and only if it is a continuum; the sphere  $S_n$  is n-acyclic, but not (n+1)-acyclic.

The space M is said to be acyclic if it is p-acyclic for every p.

3.  $(p,\varphi)$ -system. Let  $\varphi$  be a continuous involution of M, i. e., a continuous mapping of M into itself such that  $\varphi\varphi(x)=x$ , for every  $x \in M$ . Any sequence of true chains of M of the form

$$\boldsymbol{\varGamma_{\varphi}^{p}} = (\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{-1}, \boldsymbol{\varkappa}^{0}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{0}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\varkappa}^{p}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{p})$$

is called a  $(p,\varphi)$ -system of M if the following conditions are satisfied:

1º  $7^{-1}$  is the number 1 considered as a (-1)-dimensional true cycle of M.

2º For every r=0,1,...,p, \* is an r-dimensional true chain of Msuch that

- $\partial x^r = \gamma^{r-1}$
- $\gamma^r = \varkappa^r + \varphi(\varkappa^r).$

Thus  $\tau$  is an r-dimensional true cycle of M.

Let us observe that

(\*) If the space M is p-acyclic, then there exists a  $(p,\varphi)$ -system in M.

For, given any true cycle  $r^{r-1}$  of M, of dimension r-1 < p, there exists an r-dimensional true chain  $x^r$  of M, such that  $\partial x^r = r^{r-1}$ . Hence the conditions 1° and 2° constitute the definition by induction of a p-system in M.

4. Chains in  $S_n$ . Antipodal system. 1-chains and 1-cycles in  $S_n$ are called briefly chains and cycles in  $S_n$ . The cycle  $\gamma$  in  $S_n$  which is 1-homologous to zero in  $S_n$  is called homologous to zero in  $S_n$  and written  $\gamma \sim 0$  in  $S_n$ .

An antipodal p-system in  $S_n$  (-1  $\leq p \leq n$ ) is assumed to be a sequence of chains in  $S_n$ ,

$$I^{p} = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^{0}, \gamma^{0}, \dots, \varkappa^{p}, \gamma^{p}) ,$$

defined as follows:

1º 
$$\gamma^{-1} = 1$$
.

2º For some  $r (0 \le r \le p)$  let an (r-1)-dimensional cycle  $\gamma^{r-1}$  in  $S_n$ such that  $\alpha(\gamma^{r-1}) = \gamma^{r-1}$  be already defined. Since r-1 < n, the cycle  $\gamma^{r-1}$ is homologous to zero in  $S_n$ . Let  $\varkappa^r$  be a chain in  $S_n$  such that

$$\partial x^r = \gamma^{r-1}$$
.

Then we put

$$\gamma^r = \varkappa^r + \alpha(\varkappa^r) .$$

Thus  $\gamma^r$  is an r-dimensional cycle in  $S_n$  and  $\alpha(\gamma^r) = \gamma^r$ .

5. Intersection number and linking coefficient. By the geometrical realization of a simplex o in S, we understand the smallest convex set in  $S_n^{-1}$ ) containing all the vertices of  $\sigma$ . The geometrical realization |z| of a chain z in  $S_n$  is assumed to be the sum of the geometrical realizations of all the simplexes belonging to z. By the geometrical realization of an antipodal p-system

$$\boldsymbol{\varGamma}^p = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^0, \gamma^0, \dots, \varkappa^p, \gamma^p)$$

in  $S_n$  we understand the set

$$|\mathbf{\Gamma}^p| = \sum_{s=0}^p (|\varkappa^s| + |\alpha(\varkappa^s)|).$$

We denote by  $X(x^p, \lambda^{n-p})$  the intersection number (see [2], p. 413) of any two chains  $x^p$  and  $\lambda^{n-p}$ , which are in a general position 2) in  $S_n$ . If  $\gamma^p$  and  $\delta^{n-p-1}$  are two cycles in  $S_n$  such that  $|\gamma^p| \cdot |\delta^{n-p-1}| = 0$ , then  $\mathfrak{p}(\gamma^p, \delta^{n-p-1})$  denotes their linking coefficient (see [2], p. 416). Since only chains modulo 2 are used in this paper, the values of X and y are 0 and 1. In the case  $p=n, \eta(\gamma^n, \delta^{-1})=1$  if and only if  $\delta^{-1}=1$  and  $\gamma^n$  is not homologous to zero in  $S_n$ .

Let us suppose that A and B are two disjoint subsets of  $S_n$  and let  $\gamma = \{\gamma_i\}$  be a p-dimensional true cycle in A and  $\delta = \{\delta_i\}$  an (n-p-1)-dimensional true cycle in B. Then, for almost all indices i and j,  $|\gamma_i| \cdot |\delta_j| = 0$ . If for almost all indices i and j  $\eta(\gamma_i, \delta_j) = 1$ , then the true cycles  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ are said to be linked. If there exists a p-dimensional true cycle 7 in A and an (n-p-1)-dimensional true cycle  $\delta$  in B, such that the cycles  $\tau$ and & are linked, then we say that the sets A and B are linked in the dimensions (p, n-p-1).

## II. Antipodal sets

1. Introduction. S. Eilenberg proved in 1935 the following theorem on antipodal subsets of the sphere: Any antipodal continuum on S. disconnects S. between every two antipodal points of its complement (see [4), théorème 4, p. 269). This theorem may also be expressed by saying that

<sup>1)</sup> We say that a set  $E \subset S_n$  of the diameter <1, is convex if, for every two points a,b  $\epsilon E$ , the lesser of the great circle arcs passing through a and b lies in E.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>) I. e., if  $\sigma^p = (a_0, a_1, ..., a_p)$  is a simplex of  $\kappa^p$  and  $\tau^{n-p} = (b_0, b_1, ..., b_{n-p})$  is a simplex of  $\lambda^{n-p}$ , then either  $|\sigma^p| \cdot |\tau^{n-p}| = 0$  or every system composed of n+1 of points  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_p, b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-p}$  is linearly independent.

any two antipodal continua on  $S_2$  have common points. Obviously, this theorem is not true for spheres of higher dimension. For instance, two great circles on  $S_3$  are antipodal continua and they may be taken to be disjoint. But, as can easily be checked, two disjoint great circles on  $S_3$  are linked (in dimensions (1,1)). Therefore, the question arises whether any two disjoint antipodal continua on  $S_3$  are linked. The main theorem of this paper gives a positive answer to this question. This theorem is formulated for spheres of an arbitrary dimension. The above-mentioned theorem of Eilenberg is a special case of it.

## 2. Fundamental results. Main Theorem 1. Let

$$\Gamma_{\alpha}^{p} = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^{0}, \gamma^{0}, \dots, \varkappa^{p}, \gamma^{p})$$

be a (p,a)-system lying in a set  $A \subset S_n$  and let

$$\mathbf{A}_{a}^{n-p-1}=(\boldsymbol{\delta}^{-1},\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{0},\boldsymbol{\delta}^{0},\ldots,\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{n-p-1},\boldsymbol{\delta}^{n-p-1})$$

be an  $(n-p-1,\alpha)$ -system lying in a set  $B \subset S_n$ , with  $A \cdot B = 0$ . Then the true cycles  $\gamma^p$  and  $\delta^{n-p-1}$  are linked.

First we shall prove two lemmas.

LEMMA 1. Let  $I^n = (\gamma^{-1}, z^0, \gamma^0, ..., z^n, \gamma^n)$  be an antipodal n-system in  $S_n$ . Then the true cycle  $\gamma^n$  is not homologous to zero in  $S_n$ .

Proof. We shall prove this lemma by induction with respect to n. Thus, Lemma 1 is evident if n=0. Let us suppose that Lemma 1 is proved for n=k-1, where  $k \ge 1$ . We shall prove it for n=k.

First we shall reduce the proof to the case in which all the chains of the system  $\Gamma^k$  are composed of simplexes of a certain triangulation of  $S_n$ .

Let  $\mathfrak T$  be an antipodal triangulation 3) of  $S_n$  and let  $\mathfrak T'$  be the first barycentric subdivision of  $\mathfrak T$ . Let us consider the covering of  $S_n$  by barycentric stars of  $\mathfrak T$ . Let  $\eta>0$  be the Lebesgue number of this covering. By applying, if necessary, successive barycentric subdivisions of simplexes belonging to the chains of  $\Gamma^k$ , we may assume that these simplexes are of diameter  $<\eta$ . Let us suppose that

(3) 
$$\gamma^k \sim 0$$
 in  $S_k$ .

We shall show that this assumption leads to a contradiction.

Let  $\psi$  be the canonical displacement assigning to every point of  $S_n$  the centre of a star which contains it. Since triangulations  $\mathfrak T$  and  $\mathfrak T'$  are antipodal, therefore if a star G contains x, then a(G) is a star which contains a(x). Consequently, we may assume that

$$\psi a = a \psi .$$



The displacement  $\psi$  maps the simplexes of  $S_n$  of diameter  $<\eta$  onto the simplexes of  $\mathfrak{T}$ . By (4), it maps the antipodal k-system  $I^k$  onto the antipodal k-system

$$\psi(\boldsymbol{\varGamma}^k) = \left(\psi(\gamma^{-1}), \psi(\varkappa^0), \psi(\gamma^0), \dots, \psi(\varkappa^k), \psi(\gamma^k)\right),$$

whose simplexes are composed of the simplexes of  $\mathfrak{T}$ . Since  $\psi$  is a canonical displacement, then by (3)

$$\psi(\gamma^k) \sim 0$$
 in  $S_k$ ,

and since  $\psi(\gamma^k)$  is a chain of a triangulation of  $S_k$ , then

By the definition of the antipodal system

$$\psi(\gamma^k) = \psi(\varkappa^k + \alpha(\varkappa^k)) = \psi(\varkappa^k) + \alpha\psi(\varkappa^k),$$

and then, by (5)

$$\psi(\varkappa^k) = a\psi(\varkappa^k) .$$

Hence the chains  $\psi(z^k)$  and  $a\psi(z^k)$  are composed of the same simplexes. Two cases can occur:

- (i) The chain  $\psi(z^k)$  contains all the k-dimensional simplexes of  $\mathfrak{T}$ .
- (ii) There exists a k-dimensional simplex  $\sigma_0$  of  $\mathfrak X$  which does not belong to  $\psi(z^k)$ .

In the first case, let U be the interior of an arbitrary k-dimensional simplex of  $\mathfrak{T}$ ; in the second case, let U be the interior of  $\sigma_0$ . The set  $W = S_k - U - \alpha(U)$  is a polytope. Let  $a \in U$  and let  $S'_{k-1}$  be the (k-1)-dimensional great sphere on  $S_k$  which is the intersection of  $S_k$  with the k-dimensional hyperplane in  $E_{k+1}$ , passing through the origin and perpendicular to the diameter  $\overline{aa(a)}$ . For every point  $x \in W$ , let f(x) be the point of  $S'_{k-1}$  lying on the great circle arc axa(a). Thus f is a continuous projection of W onto  $S'_{k-1}$  and satisfies the condition

$$fa = af.$$

Since W is compact, there exists a  $\zeta > 0$  such that for every set  $E \subset W$  with diameter  $<\zeta$  the set f(E) is of diameter <1. If we cancel the last two terms in the antipodal k-system  $\psi(\mathbf{r}^k)$ , then we obtain the antipodal (k-1)-system

$$\mathbf{J}^{k-1} = (\psi(\gamma^{-1}), \psi(z^0), \psi(\gamma^0), \dots, \psi(z^{k-1}), \psi(\gamma^{k-1}))$$

lying in W. Applying, if necessary, a barycentric subdivision, we may assume that the simplexes of W, and hence also the simplexes of  $\Gamma^{k-1}$ ,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>) I. e., if  $\sigma$  is a simplex of  $\mathfrak{T}$ , then  $\sigma(\sigma)$  is also a simplex of  $\mathfrak{T}$ .

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are of diameters  $<\zeta$ . Thus f maps such simplexes onto the simplexes of  $S'_{k-1}$ . Consequently, by (6), f maps the antipodal (k-1)-system  $\mathbf{A}^{k-1}$  onto the antipodal (k-1)-system

$$f(\mathbf{A}^{k-1}) = (f\psi(\gamma^{-1}), f\psi(\varkappa^0), f\psi(\gamma^0), \dots, f\psi(\varkappa^{k-1}), f\psi(\gamma^{k-1}))$$

on  $S'_{k-1}$ .

In the case (i) the chain  $\psi(\varkappa^k)$  is a cycle and then

$$f\psi(\gamma^{k-1}) = f(\partial \psi(\varkappa^k)) = 0$$
.

Hence the last cycle of the antipodal (k-1)-system  $f(A^{k-1})$  lying in  $S'_{k-1}$  is homologous to zero in  $S'_{k-1}$ . Therefore in this case we get a contradiction of the assumption that Lemma 1 is true for n=k-1.

In the case (ii) the chain  $\psi(x^k)$  lies in W. It follows that f maps it onto a chain in  $S'_{k-1}$ . Moreover,

$$\partial f \psi(\varkappa^k) = f(\partial \psi(\varkappa^k)) = f \psi(\gamma^{k-1})$$
.

Hence  $j_{\psi}(\gamma^{k-1}) \sim 0$  in  $S'_{k-1}$ , and we again have a contradiction. Therefore, Lemma 1 is proved.

LEMMA 2. Let  $-1 \leqslant p \leqslant n$  and let  $\Gamma^p = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^0, \gamma^0, ..., \varkappa^p, \gamma^p)$  be an antipodal p-system and  $A^{n-p-1} = (\delta^{-1}, \lambda^0, \delta^0, ..., \lambda^{n-p-1}, \delta^{n-p-1}) - an$  antipodal (n-p-1)-system in  $S_n$ , such that  $|\Gamma^p| \cdot |A^{n-p-1}| = 0$ . Then  $\mathfrak{y}(\gamma^p, \delta^{n-p-1}) = 1$ .

Proof. We shall prove Lemma 2 by finite induction with respect to p. Let p=n. Thus, by Lemma 1,  $\gamma^n$  is not homologous to zero in  $S_n$  and  $\delta^{n-p-1} = \delta^{-1} = 1$ . Hence  $\mathfrak{y}(\gamma^n, \delta^{-1}) = 1$ .

Now, let us assume that Lemma 2 is true for p=r. We shall prove it for p=r-1.

Let

$$I^{r-1} = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^{0}, \gamma^{0}, \dots, \varkappa^{r-1}, \gamma^{r-1})$$

$$I^{n-r} = (\delta^{-1}, \lambda^{0}, \delta^{0}, \dots, \lambda^{n-r-1}, \delta^{n-r-1}, \lambda^{n-r}, \delta^{n-r})$$

be two antipodal systems on  $S_n$  such that

$$|\mathbf{r}^{r-1}| \cdot |\mathbf{\Delta}^{n-r}| = 0.$$

Let us suppose that

(8) 
$$\eta(\gamma^{r-1}, \delta^{n-r}) = 0$$
.

By the definition of antipodal systems  $\Gamma^{r-1}$  and  $\Delta^{n-1}$ 

$$\gamma^s = z^s + a(z^s)$$
 for  $s = 0, 1, ..., r - 1$ ,  
 $\delta^t = \lambda^t + a(\lambda^t)$  for  $t = 0, 1, ..., n - r$ ,



and by (7)

(9) 
$$|\gamma^{r-1}| \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{n-r} |\lambda^t| = 0 , \quad |\gamma^{r-1}| \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{n-r} |\alpha(\lambda^t)| = 0 .$$

Since r-1 < n, then  $\gamma^{r-1} \sim 0$  in  $S_n$ . Hence there exists a chain  $\varkappa^r$  in  $S_n$  such that

$$\partial x^{r} = \gamma^{r-1}.$$

By (9),  $|\gamma^{r-1}| \cdot |\lambda^{n-r}| = 0$  and  $|\gamma^{r-1}| \cdot |\alpha(\lambda^{n-r})| = 0$ . Hence we may choose the chain  $z^r$  so that

- (11)  $\alpha'$  and  $\lambda''^{-1}$  are in a general position,
- (12)  $\kappa^r$  and  $\alpha(\lambda^{n-r})$  are in a general position.

Furthermore, by (9)

$$|\gamma^{r-1}| \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{n-r-1} |\lambda^t| = 0$$
 and  $|\gamma^{r-1}| \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{n-r-1} |\alpha(\lambda^t)| = 0$ .

Therefore, we may choose the r-dimensional chain  $x^r$  so that

(13) 
$$|x'| \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-r-1} |\lambda^i| = 0, \quad |x'| \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-r-1} |\alpha(\lambda^i)| = 0.$$

Since  $\alpha$  is an isometric involution, then also by (12) and (13)

(14) a(x') and  $\lambda^{n-r}$  are in a general position,

(15) 
$$|\alpha(\kappa')| \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{n-r-1} |\lambda^t| = 0$$
,  $|\alpha(\kappa')| \cdot \sum_{t=0}^{n-r-1} |\alpha(\lambda^t)| = 0$ .

Hence, by (11) and (14)

- (16) z' + a(z') and  $\lambda^{n-r}$  are in a general position,
- and by (11) and (12)
- (17)  $\varkappa'$  and  $\delta^{n-r} = \lambda^{n-r} + \alpha(\lambda^{n-r})$  are in a general position. By (8), (10) and (17)

(18) 
$$X(x^r, \delta^{n-r}) = 0.$$

Let

$$\gamma^r = \varkappa^r + \alpha(\varkappa^r)$$

and let us compute the intersection number  $X(\gamma', \lambda^{n-r})$ , which is defined by (16). By (19)

(20) 
$$X(\gamma^r, \lambda^{n-r}) = X(\varkappa^r, \lambda^{n-r}) + X(\alpha(\varkappa^r), \lambda^{n-r}).$$

Since  $\lambda^{n-r} + \alpha(\lambda^{n-r}) = \delta^{n-r}$ , it follows that

$$X(\varkappa^r, \lambda^{n-r}) = X(\varkappa^r, \delta^{n-r}) + X(\varkappa^r, \alpha(\lambda^{n-r}))$$
.

Hence by (18) and (20)

$$X(\gamma^r, \lambda^{n-r}) = X(\varkappa^r, \alpha(\lambda^{n-r})) + X(\alpha(\varkappa^r), \lambda^{n-r})$$
.

But, obviously,  $X(\varkappa',\alpha(\lambda^{n-r})) = X(\alpha(\varkappa'),\lambda^{n-r})$ . It follows that

$$X(\gamma^r,\lambda^{n-r})=0.$$

By (21), and since  $\partial \lambda^{n-r} = \delta^{n-r-1}$ , it follows that

$$\mathfrak{y}(\gamma^r, \delta^{n-r-1}) = 0.$$

The cycle  $\gamma'$  together with the chain  $\varkappa'$  and with the system  $I^{r-1}$  form an antipodal r-system

$$\boldsymbol{\varGamma}^r = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^0, \gamma^0, \dots, \gamma^{r-1}, \varkappa^r, \gamma^r) ,$$

and the system  $A^{n-r}$  after the cancelling of  $\delta^{n-r}$  and  $\lambda^{n-r}$  forms an antipodal (n-r-1)-system

$$A^{n-r-1} = (\delta^{-1}, \lambda^0, \delta^0, \dots, \lambda^{n-r-1}, \delta^{n-r-1}) .$$

By (7), (13) and (15)

$$|\mathbf{\Gamma}^r|\cdot|\mathbf{\Delta}^{n-r-1}|=0.$$

Thus the equality (22) contradicts the assumption that Lemma 2 is true for p=r. Hence the supposition (8) leads to a contradiction, and therefore Lemma 2 is proved for every p=-1,0,1,...,n.

Proof of the Main Theorem. Let

$$\gamma^s = \{\gamma_i^s\}, \quad \varkappa^s = \{z_i^s\}, \quad \delta^t = \{\delta_j^t\}, \quad \lambda^t = \{\lambda_j^t\}.$$

Thus  ${}_{i}I^{p} = (\gamma_{i}^{-1}, z_{i}^{0}, \gamma_{i}^{0}, \dots, z_{i}^{p}, \gamma_{i}^{p})$  is an antipodal p-system and  ${}_{j}I^{n-p-1} = (\delta_{j}^{-1}, \lambda_{j}^{0}, \delta_{i}^{0}, \dots, \lambda_{j}^{n-p-1}, \delta_{j}^{n-p-1}) -$ an antipodal (n-p-1)-system in  $S_{n}$ . The true chains of  $I_{a}^{p}$  lie in compact subsets of  $I_{a}$  and the true chains of  $I_{a}^{n-p-1}$  lie in compact subsets of  $I_{a}$ . Since  $I_{a}^{n-p-1} = I_{a}$  lie in compact subsets of  $I_{a}^{n-p-1} = I_{a}$  will be satisfied for almost all  $I_{a}^{n-p-1} = I_{a}^{n-p-1} = I_{a}^{n-p-1$ 

COROLLARY 1. Let A and B be two disjoint subsets of  $S_n$  such that A contains an  $(p,\alpha)$ -system and B contains an  $(n-p-1,\alpha)$ -system. Then A and B are linked in the dimensions (p,n-p-1).



THEOREM 2. Let A and B be two subsets of  $S_n$ . If A contains a (p,a)-system and B contains an (n-p,a)-system, then  $A \cdot B \neq 0$ .

Proof. Let  $\Gamma_a^p = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^0, \gamma^0, \dots, \varkappa^p, \gamma^p)$  be a (p,a)-system in A and  $A_a^{n-p} = (\delta^{-1}, \lambda^0, \delta^0, \dots, \delta^{n-p-1}, \lambda^{n-p}, \delta^{n-p})$  an (n-p,a)-system in B. If we suppose that  $A \cdot B = 0$ , then, by the Main Theorem, the true cycles  $\gamma^p$  and  $\delta^{n-p-1}$  are linked. But  $\delta^{n-p-1} = \partial \lambda^{n-p}$ , and consequently the true cycle  $\delta^{n-p-1}$  is homologous to zero in the set B which is disjoint with A. Therefore true cycles  $\gamma^p$  and  $\delta^{n-p-1}$  are not linked.

3. Conclusions with regard to antipodal sets. By (\*), any antipodal p-acyclic subset of  $S_n$  contains a (p,a)-system. Hence, by Corollary 1 and by Theorem 2 we obtain

THEOREM 3. If A and B are two disjoint antipodal subsets of  $S_n$  such that A is p-acyclic and B is (n-p-1)-acyclic, then A and B are linked in the dimensions (p, n-p-1).

THEOREM 4. If the set  $A \subset S_n$  is antipodal and p-acyclic and  $B \subset S_n$  is antipodal and q-acyclic with  $p+q \ge n$ , then  $A \cdot B \ne 0$ .

Thus, for instance, a p-dimensional great sphere  $S_p' \subset S_n$  is antipodal and p-acyclic. Two disjoint great spheres  $S_p'$  and  $S_{n-p-1}''$  are linked; if  $S_p'$  and  $S_q''$  are great spheres on  $S_n$  and  $p+q \gg n$ , then  $S_p' \cdot S_q'' \neq 0$ ; this can be checked immediately.

In the case of n=3 and p=1 we deduce from Theorem 3 the following

COROLLARY 2. Any two disjoint antipodal continua lying in S<sub>3</sub> are linked in the dimensions (1,1).

When n=2 and p=1 we obtain from Theorem 4 the following

COROLLARY 3. Any two antipodal continua lying in S<sub>2</sub> have common points (see [6]. No 3, Lemme, p. 244, and Remarque, p. 235).

A set  $A \subset S_n$  disconnects  $S_n$  between the points  $a, b \in S_n - A$ , if it is linked in the dimensions (n-1,0) with the two-point set (a) + (b). Hence, in the case p = n - 1 we obtain from Theorem 3 the following

COROLLARY 4. An (n-1)-acyclic subset of  $S_n$  disconnects  $S_n$  between every two antipodal points of its complement.

In particular, if n=2, we have the theorem of Eilenberg (see [4], théorème 4, p. 269):

COBOLLARY 5. Any antipodal continuum in S<sub>2</sub> disconnects S<sub>2</sub> between every two antipodal points of its complement.

For p=n, Theorem 4 reduces to the following

COROLLARY 6. The only antipodal n-acyclic subset of  $S_n$  is the whole  $S_n$ .

On antipodal sets on the sphere

**4. Remarks.** Theorems 3 and 4 show that an antipodal p-acyclic subset of  $S_n$  is situated in  $S_n$  in some sense similarly to the great sphere of dimension  $\geqslant p$ . Theorem 4 can be formulated as follows:

THEOREM 4'. If a set  $A \subseteq S_n$  is antipodal and p-acyclic and a set  $B \subseteq S_n$  — is antipodal and q-acyclic, with  $p+q \geqslant n$ , then the intersection  $A \cdot B$  contains an antipodal 0-acyclic set.

This suggests the following

Problem. Let A and B be two antipodal subsets of  $S_n$  such that A is p-acyclic and B is q-acyclic. The question is whether the set  $A \cdot B$  contains an antipodal (p+q-n)-acyclic subset.

The word "contains" cannot be replaced by "is", since in that case the answer would be negative. For example, let A and  $B_1$  be two great 2-dimensional spheres on  $S_3$  defined by the equations  $x_3=0$ , and  $x_4=0$ , respectively. Let  $B_2$  be a quarter of the great circle are on  $S_3$  defined by  $x_1=0$ ,  $x_2=0$ ,  $x_3>0$ ,  $x_4>0$ . Then  $B_1\cdot B_2$  consists of the single point (0,0,1,0). Let  $B=B_1+B_2+\alpha(B_2)$ . Then A and B are antipodal and 2-acyclic, but  $A\cdot B$  consists of the circle S,  $x_1^2+x_2^2=1$ ,  $x_3=0$ ,  $x_4=0$ , and of two points, (0,0,0,1) and (0,0,0,-1). Hence  $A\cdot B$  is not 1-acyclic, since it is not connected. However, the set  $A\cdot B$  contains an antipodal 1-acyclic subset, namely the circle S.

### III. Some properties of continuous involutions

1. Involutions and mappings in spheres. The Main Theorem, concerning the antipodal mapping of  $S_n$ , which is proved in Chapter II, enables us to investigate some properties of continuous involutions of more general metric spaces. Thus, a generalization of Borsuk's theorem on antipodes (see [3], p. 178) and theorems concerning fixed points of involutions can be proved.

Now, in the case of  $A = S_n$  and p = n, Theorem 1 can be formulated as follows:

(\*\*) Let  $\Gamma_n^a = (\tau^{-1}, *^0, \tau^0, \dots, *^n, \tau^n)$  be an (n, a)-system in  $S_n$ . Then the true cycle  $\tau^n$  is totally unhomologous to zero in  $S_n$ .

For, if  $\gamma^n = \{\gamma_i^n\}$ , then  $\gamma_i^n$  is not 1-homologous to zero in  $S_n$  for almost all i.

ILEMMA 3. Let  $\varphi$  be a continuous involution of a metric space M and let us suppose that M contains an  $(n,\varphi)$ -system  $\mathcal{A}_{\pi}^{*} = (\delta^{-1},\lambda^{0},\delta^{0},\ldots,\lambda^{n},\delta^{n})$ . Let f be a continuous mapping of M into  $S_{\pi}$  such that  $f(x) \neq f\varphi(x)$  for every  $x \in M$ . Then f maps the true cycle  $\delta^{n}$  of M onto a true cycle which is totally unhomologous to zero in  $S_{\pi}$ .

Proof. Let

(23) 
$$g(x) = \frac{f(x) - f\varphi(x)}{|f(x) - f\varphi(x)|}^{4}.$$

Since  $f(x) \neq f\varphi(x)$ , the function g defined by (23) for every  $x \in M$ , is a continuous mapping of M into  $S_n$  and satisfied the condition

$$g\varphi = ag$$
.

It follows that g maps the  $(n,\varphi)$ -system  $\mathcal{A}^n_{\varphi}$  onto a  $(n,\alpha)$ -system  $g(\mathcal{A}^n_{\varphi}) = (g(\delta^{-1}), g(\lambda^0), g(\delta^0), \dots, g(\lambda^n), g(\delta^n))$  in  $S_n$ . From (\*\*) we conclude that the true cycle  $g(\delta^n)$  is totally unhomologous to zero in  $S_n$ . Furthermore, we observe that

(24) 
$$f(x) \neq ag(x)$$
 for every  $x \in M$ .

Indeed, if we suppose that f(x) = ag(x), i. e..

$$f(x) = -\frac{f(x) - f\varphi(x)}{|f(x) - f\varphi(x)|}$$

then we obtain

(25) 
$$f\varphi(x) = f(x) \cdot (1 + |f(x) - f\varphi(x)|).$$

Since  $|f(x)| = |f\varphi(x)| = 1$ , we conclude from (25) that  $|1 + |f(x) - f\varphi(x)|| = 1 + |f(x) - f\varphi(x)| = 1$ , which is impossible since  $|f(x) - f\varphi(x)| > 0$ .

We conclude by (24) that f and g are homotopic (see [3], p. 179, 1)). Hence the true cycles  $f(\boldsymbol{\delta}^n)$  and  $g(\boldsymbol{\delta}^n)$  are homologous in  $S_n$ . Consequently, the true cycle  $f(\boldsymbol{\delta}^n)$  is totally unhomologous to zero in  $S_n$  and the proof of Lemma 3 is complete.

Every true cycle  $\{\tau_i\}$  modulo 2 of M contains a subsequence  $\{\tau_{i_k}\}$ , which is a convergent cycle in M (see [1], p. 180). Therefore, under the hypotheses of Lemma 3, f maps an n-dimensional convergent cycle of M onto a convergent cycle in  $S_n$  which is totally unhomologous to zero in  $S_n$ . Since the n-dimensional homology group of  $S_n$  contains only two elements, Lemma 3 yields

THEOREM 5. Let  $\varphi$  be a continuous involution of M and let us suppose that M contains a  $(n,\varphi)$ -system. Then every continuous mapping f of M into  $S_n$  which satisfies the condition  $f(x) \neq f\varphi(x)$ , for every  $x \in M$ , maps the n-dimensional homology group  $\mathbf{B}^n(M)$  of M onto the n-dimensional homology group  $\mathbf{B}^n(S_n)$  of  $S_n$ .

<sup>4)</sup> In the sense of operations with points in  $E_{n+1}$ .

2. Generalization of Borsuk's theorem on antipodes. By (\*), every n-acyclic space M contains an  $(n,\varphi)$ -system, for every continuous involution  $\varphi$  of M. Hence Theorem 5 implies

THEOREM 6. Let M be an n-acyclic space and  $\varphi - a$  continuous involution of M. Then every continuous mapping f of M into  $S_n$  satisfying the condition  $f(x) \neq f\varphi(x)$  for every  $x \in M$  maps the n-dimensional homology group  $\mathbf{B}^n(M)$  onto the n-dimensional homology group  $\mathbf{B}^n(S_n)$ .

Since the group  $B^n(S_n)$  is not trivial and since every continuous mapping of M into  $S_n$  homotopic to a constant maps the group  $B^n(M)$  into zero, we deduce

COROLLARY 7. Let M,  $\varphi$  and f be as in Theorem 6. Then f is not homotopic to a constant.

THEOREM 7. Let M and  $\varphi$  be as in Theorem 6. Then, for every continuous mapping f of M into the Euclidean space  $E_n$  there exists a point  $x_0 \in M$  such that  $f(x_0) = f\varphi(x_0)$ .

For, the mapping f of M into  $E_n$  may be considered as a mapping of M into a proper subset of  $S_n$ , and hence f is homotopic to a constant. If we suppose that  $f(x) \neq f\varphi(x)$ , for every  $x \in M$ , then we obtain a contradiction of Corollary 7.

THEOREM 8. Let M and  $\varphi$  be as in Theorem 6 and let  $M = M_0 + M_1 + \dots + M_n$  be a decomposition of M into the sum of n+1 closed subsets of M. Then at least one of the sets M contains an involution pair  $\{x, \varphi(x)\}$ .

The proof is based on the following Lemma of Borsuk (see [3], p. 188, Hilfssatz):

(\*\*) For any decomposition  $M = M_0 + M_1 + ... + M_n$  of a metric space M into the sum of n+1 closed subsets of M, there exists a continuous function f mapping M into  $E_n$  such that, for every  $y \in f(M)$ , the set  $f^{-1}(y)$  is contained in at least one of the sets  $M_1$ .

Proof of Theorem 8. Applying Theorem 7 to the mapping f provided by the Lemma of Borsuk, we conclude that there exists an  $x_0 \in M$  such that  $f(x_0) = f\varphi(x_0) = y_0$ . Hence, for some i,  $f^{-1}(y_0) \subset M_i$ . Therefore,  $x_0 \in M_i$  and  $\varphi(x_0) \in M_i$ .

If  $M=S_n$ , and  $\varphi=\alpha$ , Theorems 6, 7 and 8, reduce to Borsuk's theorems I, II. and III of [3], respectively.

3. Fixed points of involutions. THEOREM 9. Let M be a metric, separable, acyclic space, of finite dimension. Then any continuous involution  $\varphi$  of M has a fixed point.

Proof. Theorem of Menger-Nöbeling (see [9], p. 235) provides a homeomorphism h of M into  $E_n$ . Since M is acyclic, and hence also n-acyclic,

we conclude from Theorem 7 that there exists an  $x_0 \in M$  such that  $h(x_0) = h\varphi(x_0)$ . Hence  $x_0 = \varphi(x_0)$ .

Theorem 9 is a special case of a theorem of P. A. Smith concerning fixed points of periodic transformations (see [10], p. 367, (13.1)-Theorem, and also [5], p. 428, Theorem I). The assumption of finite dimension of M is essential (see [5], No 8, p. 435). In particular, any continuous involution of the Euclidean space has a fixed point. However, if M is compact, the hypothesis of finite dimension of M can be omitted:

THEOREM 10. Any continuous involution of a compact acyclic space has a fixed point.

The proof is given in [8], p. 292.

**4. Remarks.** C. T. Yang proved in [11] another generalization of Borsuk's theorem on antipodes. He introduced a notion of index of a pair  $\{M,\varphi\}$ , where  $\varphi$  is a continuous involution without fixed points of a compact space M. The notion of index is related to that of an  $(n,\varphi)$ -system in the sense of the present paper, as follows: The index of  $\{M,\varphi\}$  is the largest integer n such that M contains an  $(n,\varphi)$ -system. In this way Theorems 7 and 8 follow from Theorem (4.1) of C. T. Yang (see [11], p. 270).

#### IV. Generalization

The main result of this paper may be formulated by the use of a more general homology theory. Let  $\Re$  be a commutative ring, containing elements which are not divisible by 2. We consider the true chains of a metric space M with coefficients belonging to  $\Re$ .

Let  $\varphi$  be a continuous involution of M. The notion of a  $(p,\varphi)$ -system may be generalized as follows: the  $(p,\varphi)$ -system of M is a sequence of true chains of M

$$\Gamma_{\varphi}^{p} = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^{0}, \gamma^{0}, \dots, \varkappa^{p}, \gamma^{p})$$

such that:

1°  $\gamma^{-1} = \{\gamma_i^{-1}\}$ , where for almost all i,  $\gamma_i^{-1}$  is an element of  $\Re$  which is not divisible by 2, considered as a (-1)-dimensional cycle of M.

2° For every  $r=0,1,2,...,p, x^r$  is an r-dimensional true chain of M such that

$$\partial \mathbf{x}^r = \mathbf{\gamma}^{r-1},$$

$$\mathbf{\gamma}^r = \mathbf{x}^r - (-1)^r \alpha(\mathbf{x}^r).$$

Thus  $\gamma^r$  is an r-dimensional true cycle of M. Fundamenta Mathematicae. T. XLIII.

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By the use of these notions, the following theorem may be proved:

THEOREM 11. Let  $\Gamma_a^p = (\gamma^{-1}, \varkappa^0, \gamma^0, \dots, \varkappa^p, \gamma^p)$  be a (p, a)-system lying in a set  $A \subset S_n$  and let  $A_a^{n-p-1} = (\delta^{-1}, \lambda^0, \delta^0, \dots, \lambda^{n-p-1}, \delta^{n-p-1})$  be an (n-p-1)-system lying in a set  $B \subset S_n$ , with  $A \cdot B = 0$ . Let  $\gamma^p = \{\gamma_i^p\}$ ,  $\delta^{n-p-1} = \{\delta_j^{n-p-1}\}$ . Then, for almost all i and j, the linking coefficient  $\mathfrak{I}(\gamma_i^p, \delta_j^{n-p-1})$  is not divisible by 2.

The proof is not essentially different from the proof of Theorem 1.

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