



FIXED POINT THEOREMS.

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FIXED POINT THEOREMS.

The problems whose history is the subject of this thesis is as follows. One wishes to obtain criteria for the existence or non-existence of points in a topological space which remain fixed under a transformation of the space into itself. Such criteria will of course be expressed in terms of the properties of the space and of the mapping. One desires further that the properties of the space be topological invariants while those of the mapping be invariant under homotopy.

Two main attacks have been made on the problem, by L. E. J. Brouwer in 1910 and by S. Lefschetz in 1925. Presentation of the results of the work of these two mathematicians forms the main part of the thesis. A less detailed account is also given of some of the lesser known researches in the subject. The thesis concludes with selected applications particularly in the field of Functional Analysis.

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INTRODUCTION.

The problem stated in its most general terms is this. Given a space  $S$  and a mapping  $t$  of  $S$  into itself, under what circumstances is there or is there not a fixed point? By a fixed point we mean, simply, a point  $x$  in  $S$  for which  $tx=x$ . Most investigations are concerned with single valued continuous mappings and the trend has been to search for ever larger classes of spaces for which fixed point conditions can be derived. Studies have, however, been made notably by M. H. A. Newman (15) and P. A. Smith (17) of the question of periodic transformations i.e. transformations some power of which is the identity. We shall not, however, be concerned with these. Two main attacks have been launched on the problem. Our first three chapters consist of a faithful account of the first of these due to L. E. J. Brouwer (4). This paper is regarded as the classical paper on the subject. The fourth chapter deals with subsequent discussions of the Brouwer theorems. In the fifth chapter we give an account of the second main attack begun by S. Lefschetz (10) and taken up by H. Hopf (6). The concluding chapter is devoted to selected applications. We may mention here the close relation between the question of fixed points and existence questions in analysis. For suppose one seeks a solution to an equation  $\Delta f = 0$  where  $f$  is an element of some function space and  $\Delta$  an operator on that space. The existence of a solution is equivalent to the existence of a fixed point under the mapping  $(\Delta+I)$  where  $I$  is the identity for them:  $(\Delta+I)f=f$  i.e.  $\Delta f=0$ . We have attempted, where possible, to lay emphasis on

the methods employed and to point out crucial steps in a proof, in the hope that this paper may prove instructive rather than merely informative.

## CHAPTER 1. The Brouwer Degree.

We wish to define an  $n$ -dimensional manifold in the sense of L. E. J. Brouwer and in order to do so we first introduce some preliminary notions.

A simplex star in an  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space is a finite collection of non-overlapping simplices with a common vertex,  $O$ , the union of which is a finite neighbourhood of  $O$  and each pair of which have a common  $p$ -face (open) but no other common points.

By an  $n$ -dimensional element,  $E$ , we mean a homeomorphic image of a simplex,  $S$ , in an  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space. The images of the vertices and faces of  $S$  are taken as the vertices and faces of  $E$ .

An  $n$ -dimensional manifold is a connected set which is made up of a set of  $n$ -dimensional elements each pair of which have no point in common or a single  $p$ -face together with its proper faces in common but no other points. The elements having a vertex in common are related in the same way as the simplices of a Euclidean simplex star defined above.

Such is the definition as given by Brouwer. We may state it briefly thus: An  $n$ -dimensional manifold is a Euclidean complex which is such that the star of each vertex is isomorphic with a set of simplices in  $E_n$  having a common vertex  $P$  and constituting a neighbourhood of  $P$  in  $E_n$ .

Concerning the properties of the manifold we observe immediately that if it is made up of a finite number of elements it is closed with respect to fundamental sequences. On the other hand if there are infinitely many elements the manifold is certainly not closed in view of the fact that the infinite covering by elements is locally finite (i.e. an arbitrary point of the manifold has a neighbourhood which intersects only finitely many elements.)

Fixing our attention now on a closed  $n$ -dimensional manifold we shall show that it is a compactum, which means that we must prove, in addition to the compactness just mentioned, that it is metric. In order to do this we will introduce a continuous, normalized, non-negative, homogeneous coordinate system from which a metric will follow. A coordinate system will be introduced into each element but in such a way that for different elements the systems will coincide for points on their common faces. Let us see just how such a system can in fact be introduced.

Let the coordinates of a side  $A_p A_q$  be denoted by  $U_p$  and  $U_q$  with the  $U$ 's positive and the ratio  $U_p/U_q$  decreasing continuously from  $\infty$  at  $A_p$  to 0 at  $A_q$ . To determine the coordinates of the points of a 2-face  $A_p A_q A_r$  we map it topologically onto a plane Euclidean triangle  $FCH$  in such a way that the sides of  $FCH$  correspond to the faces  $A_p A_q$ , etc. of  $A_p A_q A_r$ . We represent the points of  $FCH$  by homogeneous barycentric coordinates with respect to  $F$ ,  $G$  and  $H$  and select an arbitrary point,  $O$ , inside the triangle. Let  $B'$  be the image in  $FCH$  of a point in  $A_p A_q A_r$ . The straight segment  $OB'$  produced beyond  $B'$  meets some side, say  $GH$ , in  $C'$ . Let  $C$  be the inverse image of  $C'$  in  $A_q A_r$ ;  $U_q, U_r$  its coordinates and  $C''$  the point in  $GH$  with barycentric coordinates  $(0, cU_q, cU_r)$ . The line through  $B'$  parallel to  $GH$  will meet  $OC''$  in some point  $B''$ . We choose as the coordinates of  $B$  the barycentric coordinates of  $B''$ .

In an analogous manner the coordinates of the points of the 3-faces are obtained with the aid of the barycentric coordinates of a homeomorphic Euclidean tetrahedron. The process is continued until coordinates of all the points of the manifold are assigned with the aid of those of the  $(n-1)$ -faces and the barycentric coordinates of homeomorphic  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean simplices.

We may now associate with each element a homeomorphic Euclidean

simplex with edges of fixed length and whose barycentric coordinates with respect to its vertices are the same as the normal coordinates of the corresponding points in the element. We shall refer to it as the representative simplex. By a subsimplex or a plane  $p$ -dimensional subregion of an element we shall simply mean the image of a corresponding subset of its representative simplex. Similarly, by a straight segment and its length in an element we mean the image of a straight segment and its length in the representative simplex. We can now define the distance between points of the manifold as the minimum of the lengths of the straight segmental paths joining them. Such notions as the centroid of weighted points and the volume of a subregion can be introduced for an element with the aid of its representative simplex and the homeomorphism.

The "indicatrix of an element" is defined, uniquely up to even permutations, as a sequence of its vertices. Only two indicatrices are thereby possible. One of these is arbitrarily taken as positive, the other negative. Through the choice of the positive indicatrix of an element the positive indicatrix of its representative simplex is also determined. Hence also those of each subsimplex and thus also those of the faces of the element.

We consider a finite closed series of elements each consecutive pair of which have  $n$  vertices in common and choose a positive indicatrix for some element. This choice determines the negative indicatrix of the succeeding element by means of the  $n$  vertices already arranged and the new one placed in the position where it is first lacking. The positive indicatrix of each element in the sequence is thus fixed by the choice for one element. If on returning to this initial element the same positive indicatrix is induced and if this is the case for all closed sequences we call the manifold "two-sided", otherwise, "one-sided". The choice of positive indicatrix for a single element in a two-sided metric  $n$ -dimensional manifold fixes the choice for each element and each



face so that we can speak of "the positive indicatrix of the manifold".

We now turn to consideration of single-valued continuous mappings of one two-sided manifold into another. The method of studying such a mapping will be by means of approximating simplicial mappings and will lead eventually to an important property of the mapping called by Brouwer its degree and by whose name it is now designated.

Let  $\mu, \mu'$ , be two  $n$ -dimensional closed metric two-sided manifolds and let  $\alpha: \mu \rightarrow \mu'$  be single-valued and continuous. We decompose each element of  $\mu$  into a finite number of subsimplices each two of which either have no common point or have a common  $p$ -face ( $0 \leq p < n$ ) and then also the lower dimensional faces in it but no other common points. Let  $\epsilon$  be the least upper bound of the diameters of the subsimplices that is to say the mesh of the simplicial decomposition described. Let us denote the decomposition by  $\mathcal{F}$  and refer to the subsimplices, their faces, and vertices as the base simplices etc. of  $\mathcal{F}$ . We choose a positive indicatrix for  $\mu$  and therewith for the base simplices of  $\mathcal{F}$  also: Among the subsimplices we distinguish those which are mapped completely by  $\alpha$  into one element of  $\mu'$  and refer to them as general base simplices.

Let us now define what is meant by a simplicial mapping  $\beta$  belonging to  $\mathcal{F}$  which approximates  $\alpha$ .  $\beta$  is applied only to the general base simplices and in the following way. Let  $\pi = A_0 \dots A_{n+1}$  be a general base simplex of  $\mu$  and  $\pi' = \alpha(\pi) = B_0 \dots B_{n+1}$  be the image of  $\pi$  under  $\alpha$  lying of course entirely in a single element of  $\mu'$ . Then  $\beta(A_i) = B_i$  and  $\beta(\sum \lambda_i A_i) = \sum \lambda_i B_i$  i.e.  $\beta$  is a linear mapping of the points of  $\pi$  with respect to their barycentric coordinates relative to the  $A_i$ . If the  $B_i$  do not lie in a plane ( $n-1$ ) dimensional region we shall take the volume of  $\pi'$  to be positive or negative

according as its indicatrix is positive or negative while if  $\pi'$  is singular its volume is 0. For  $p \in \pi$ , the distance  $\overline{\alpha(p)\beta(p)}$  in  $\pi'$  has an upper bound  $\epsilon$  which along with  $\epsilon$  decreases on each boundary.

We consider further a modified simplicial mapping  $\gamma$  belonging to  $\mathcal{L}$  and approximating  $\alpha$ .  $\gamma$  is applicable to those base simplices of  $\mu$  whose images have vertices not more than  $\epsilon$  apart.  $\gamma$  is determined for these simplices in the same way as  $\beta$  was determined on the general base simplices. These latter are not necessarily admissible for  $\gamma$ .

We choose now in each element of  $\mu'$  an inner simplex i.e. a subsimplex whose edges do not meet the edges of the element.  $\epsilon$  can now be so chosen that each point of  $\mu$  mapped by one of  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  into an inner simplex belongs to a suitable subsimplex of  $\mu$  with respect to both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ . This last subsimplex must then of course be mapped into the same element of  $\mu'$ . We consider now a mapping  $\gamma$  which yields no singular image simplex. Applying  $\gamma$  to an inner simplex  $J$  of a particular element  $E$ , let  $\sigma$  denote the set of points of the interior  $J^\circ \subset J$  which do not lie in the image of an  $(n-2)$  base face. Clearly, any two points of  $\sigma$  can be joined by a path of finitely many segments lying wholly in  $\sigma$ . The set  $\eta$  of points of  $\sigma$  which do not lie in the image of  $\sum_{i=1}^n (n-1)$ -face we call general points of  $J$ . Let  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  be arbitrarily fixed points and  $P$  a variable point in  $\eta$ . Each point of  $\eta$  is covered by a number of image simplices, some positive, some negative. Let the numbers of positive and negative simplices covering  $P$  be denoted by  $p$  and  $p'$  respectively and let  $p_1, p'_1; p_2, p'_2$  be these numbers corresponding to  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .

Confining  $P$  to a segmental path  $\mathcal{S}$  lying in  $\sigma$  which joins  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ , the numbers  $p$  and  $p'$  can change only when the image,  $\tau$ , of an  $(n-1)$ -face is crossed. In fact, when the two image simplices meeting in  $\tau$  lie on different sides of  $\tau$  they have the same sign and the crossing of  $\tau$  leaves  $p, p'$  and hence also  $p-p'$  unaltered. If, however, the image simplices lie on the same side of  $\tau$  they have

opposite sign so that  $\rho$  and  $\rho'$  are each either increased or decreased by 1 and again  $\rho - \rho'$  is unaltered. Thus  $\rho_1 - \rho'_1 = \rho_2 - \rho'_2$  and, for the general points of  $J$  under the mapping  $\gamma$ ,  $\rho - \rho'$  is a constant.

Similar numbers  $p$  and  $p'$  may be defined with respect to the mapping,  $\beta$ . Let  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in  $J$ , be general points with respect to  $\beta$  and suppose that  $\rho_1 - \rho'_1 \neq \rho_2 - \rho'_2$ .  $\beta$  may be approximated so closely by a map  $\gamma_p$  of type  $\gamma$  that  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are general points of  $J$  under  $\gamma_p$ , while  $\rho_i, \rho'_i$  have the same values relative to  $\gamma_p$  as to  $\beta$ . Then  $p - p'$  would not be constant for  $\gamma_p$  either which is a contradiction. Hence  $p - p'$  is constant for the general points of  $\beta$  also.

We shall prove that this constant, call it  $C$ , is the same for all simplicial maps approximating  $\alpha$ . Let  $\beta'_1$  be a simplicial map with underlying decomposition  $\mathcal{K}'_1$  of  $\mu$  and let  $\beta'_2$  be one whose underlying decomposition  $\mathcal{K}'_2$  is a refinement of  $\mathcal{K}'_1$ ; i.e. the base simplices of  $\mathcal{K}'_2$  are obtained by simplicial decomposition of those of  $\mathcal{K}'_1$ . The images under  $\beta'_1$  of the base points of  $\mathcal{K}'_1$  can be translated continuously along the shortest connecting path into the corresponding images under  $\beta'_2$  if the latter exist so that at least where  $J$  is concerned the mapping  $\beta'_1$  can be transformed continuously into  $\beta'_2$ . The total volume of the parts of the image simplices contained in  $J$  can have no discontinuities under such a continuous transformation, therefore, insofar as this is  $C$  times the volume of  $J$  and  $C$  is an integer, it must remain fixed. That is to say, the integer  $C$  for a given simplicial map is invariant under a simplicial refinement of that map. This fact will enable us to prove the assertion made at the beginning of this paragraph.

Let  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  be two arbitrary simplicial maps approximating  $\alpha$  with underlying decompositions  $\mathcal{K}_1$  and  $\mathcal{K}_2$  of  $\mu$ . We consider a decomposition,  $\mathcal{K}_3$ , of  $\mathcal{K}_1$  of such small mesh that under the corresponding mapping  $\beta_3$ , it is possible to choose a general point  $P$  in  $J$  which is a general point relative

to  $\beta_2$  also. The vertices of each image simplex under  $\beta_3$  covering  $P$  are contained in each such image under  $\beta_2$ . But then there will belong to each  $P$ -covering image simplex under  $\beta_2$  one and only one  $P$ -covering simplex for  $\beta_3$  and indeed each pair of image simplices corresponding in this way have the indicatrix in the same sense. We therefore conclude that  $C$  which was just shown the same for  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_3$  is also the same for  $\beta_2$  and  $\beta_3$  and hence also for  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ .

Our next step is to prove that the values  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  which  $C$  takes on in the inner simplices  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  of two elements,  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  with a common  $(n-1)$ -face,  $S$  are equal. As Euclidean antecedents of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  we choose regular simplices  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  which are mirror images of each other with respect to a common  $(n-1)$ -face  $\Sigma$  and such that  $\Sigma$  corresponds to  $S$ . The definitions of subsimplex  $p$ -dimensional region, barycentre and volume of  $T_1 + T_2$  are carried over to  $E_1 + E_2$  in precisely the same way as was done for a single element. We determine in  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  subsimplices  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  containing  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  and having a common  $(n-1)$ -face lying in  $S$  but whose boundaries do not meet the remaining faces of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ . Those simplices whose vertex images under  $\alpha$  all lie in the interior of  $E_1 + E_2$  we count in with the general base simplices. We determine a simplicial mapping  $\beta'$  approximating  $\alpha$  which may be applied to these additional simplices also. To  $\beta'$  there again belong modified simplicial mappings  $\delta'$ . We may now choose  $\mathcal{E}$  so that relative to  $U_1 + U_2$  and the general simplices in the new sense the same property, earlier imposed for the inner simplices and general simplices again remains valid. By the method used above we can deduce from this that for  $\beta'$  the number  $p - p'$  is constant on the general points of  $U_1 + U_2$ . But this constant may be identified with  $C_1$  belonging to  $\beta'$  and  $J_1$  and with  $C_2$  belonging to  $\beta'$  and  $J_2$  from which it follows that  $C$  has the same value

in  $J_1$  and  $J_2$ . By a simple extension we could show that  $C$  is constant in all the elements of  $\mu'$ .

This number,  $C$ , constant in all the elements of  $\mu'$  and furthermore having the same value for all simplicial mappings approximating  $\alpha$  thus characterizes a property of  $\alpha$ . We refer to it as "the degree of the single-valued continuous mapping  $\alpha$ ". A fundamental property of the degree is that it is the same for two single-valued continuous mappings of  $\mu$  into  $\mu'$  which can be continuously transformed into each other. That is, the degree depends only on the homotopyclass!

Let us approximate two homotopic continuous mappings by simplicial mappings each pair of which have the same underlying decomposition. We can then introduce between each pair of these mappings a finite sequence of simplicial mappings based on the same decomposition for which each is a map of the type  $\beta$  above; each consecutive pair differ only in the images of one of the base points and then by as little as one pleases. Then there will certainly exist an inner simplex of  $\mu'$  in which each consecutive pair determine the same image set and hence the same value of  $C$ . This value of  $C$  will be unaltered along the sequence of mappings considered which means that the original mappings have the same degree.

Remark: In order to see that any positive or negative integer can arise as the degree of a mapping one has only to consider the mappings of one sphere onto another as represented by the rational functions of a complex variable. In fact the degree of such a mapping is identical with the degree of the function representing it.

Finally we notice that when  $\alpha(\mu)$  is not everywhere dense in  $\mu'$  the degree of  $\alpha$  must be zero. For in such a case there will exist an approximating simplicial mapping  $\beta$  for which we can select an inner simplex  $J$  in  $\mu'$

in which the image set is not everywhere dense. There will then exist a subregion  $J^*$  of  $J$  for which  $\mathcal{T}^*_{\beta}(\mu) = \Lambda$ . Hence  $p$ ,  $p'$  and consequently  $C$  are zero there.

Hitherto we have considered only the case when  $\mu$  is two-sided and closed. However when  $\mu$  is one-sided and closed the above results still hold both with respect to a single inner simplex and with respect to a pair contained in elements with a common  $(n-1)$ -face. Let us consider a closed sequence of elements in which the indicatrix is reversed. Since on the one hand  $C$  must remain constant and on the other hand its sign changes in traversing the complete cycle we can only conclude that it must be zero. Again, if  $\mu$  is open we can, since  $\alpha(\mu)$  is closed in  $\mu'$ , specify a finite collection  $\mu''$  of elements which both for  $\alpha$  and the various  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  contains completely the image of  $\mu$  which is however not everywhere dense in  $\mu''$ . This last fact together with the fact that the previous considerations are again valid for a single inner simplex or a pair contained in adjacent elements leads again to the conclusion that the degree of  $\alpha$  must be zero.

To sum up: When a closed, two-sided, metric  $n$ -dimensional manifold  $\mu$  is mapped single-valuedly and continuously into a metric  $n$ -dimensional manifold  $\mu'$  there exists an integer  $C$  called the degree of the mapping which is the same for all homotopic mappings and which designates the number of times the image of  $\mu$  covers positively each subregion of  $\mu'$ . In particular, if  $\mu$  is one-sided or open,  $C$  is equal to zero.

# CHAPTER 11. Continuous Vector Fields on n-dimensional spheres.

In what follows the term "sphere" will be reserved for spherical surfaces while solid spheres we shall call "disks".

We consider a  $n$ -dimensional sphere  $K$  in a Euclidean space  $R_{n+1}$  of dimension  $(n+1)$ . This may be represented in a right angled Cartesian coordinate system by the equation:  $\sum_{h=1}^{n+1} x_h^2 = 1$ .  $K$  may be regarded as a metric  $n$ -dimensional manifold as defined above by taking, as its elements the  $2^{n+1}$  simplices into which it is decomposed by the hyperplanes  $x_h = 0$ , and as its  $p$ -dimensional regions the subregions of the  $p$ -disks lying in it. As the unit point of normal coordinates in each element we choose the points with coordinates  $\pm \sqrt{n^{-1}}$ . A positive indicatrix is chosen for one of the elements and hence also for each spherical simplex. (A spherical simplex is made up of  $n+1$  different  $(n-1)$ -disks and lies entirely in one hemisphere of  $K$ .)

Through each point,  $P$ , of  $K$  passes an  $(n-1)$  dimensional direction sphere  $\lambda_P$  which can be handled precisely as  $K$  itself. The positive indicatrix of  $\lambda_P$  is made to depend on that of  $K$  in the following way. Let  $S$  be an  $(n-1)$  dimensional spherical simplex lying in  $\lambda_P$ . We determine in  $K$  an  $n$ -dimensional simplex  $S$  having  $P$  as a vertex and its  $(n-1)$ -faces through  $P$  determined by the  $(n-2)$  faces of  $S$  with the remaining one arbitrary. We then write the positive indicatrix of  $S$  with  $P$  in the last place. The others in this arrangements determine a specific order of the edges of  $S$  meeting in  $P$  hence also of the vertices of  $S$ . This last arrangement is chosen as the positive indicatrix of  $S$ .

We consider a continuous vector field in  $K$  in which we are concerned only with the directions but not the magnitudes of the vectors.

Let this field possess only a finite number of singularities, i.e. points on the sphere at which the continuity of the vector direction is disturbed. Let  $K$  be decomposed by means of an  $(n-1)$  dimensional great sphere (generalization of great circle)  $\mathcal{X}$  which contains no singular points into hemispheres  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  with poles  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$ . We consider  $\mathcal{X}$  as belonging to both  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ . The hemispheres may themselves be decomposed into finitely many spherical simplices  $S_{11}, S_{12}, \dots$  in  $H_1$  and  $S_{21}, S_{22}, \dots$  in  $H_2$  by means of singularity-free  $(n-1)$  great spheres. In this way the decomposition of  $H_1$  will be the mirror image in  $\mathcal{X}$  of that of  $H_2$ .

Let  $\sigma$  be an  $(n-1)$ -face of some particular  $S_{\alpha\beta}$ . From the positive indicatrix of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  we introduce that for  $\sigma$  when considered as a face of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$ . Writing the vertices in a positive indicatrix of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  in such a way that the one not in  $\sigma$  comes last the others determine the positive indicatrix of  $\sigma$  considered as a face of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$ . Simultaneously a positive indicatrix is fixed for the whole boundary of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  in that  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  may be regarded as a two-sided closed  $(n-1)$  dimensional manifold whose elements are the  $(n-1)$ -faces of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  and whose  $p$ -dimensional regions are the subregions of the  $p$ -disks lying in it.

We now project the circumference  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  together with the vectors on it through a point  $Q$  of  $K$  outside  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  onto the  $n$ -dimensional hyperplane  $\Theta$  tangent to  $K$  at the point  $O$  diametrically opposite  $Q$ . This determines a single-valued continuous map of  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  onto the sphere of directions in  $\Theta$  whose positive indicatrix is determined by that of  $\lambda_O$ . We shall establish that the degree of this mapping does not depend on the choice of  $Q$ . For let  $P$  be a point in  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  then under this stereographic projection  $\lambda_P$  is placed in a congruence relation with the direction sphere of  $\Theta$  and hence also with any other sphere  $\lambda_R, R \in U_{\alpha\beta}$ . This congruence relation  $\mathfrak{b}_{PR}$  between  $\lambda_P$  and  $\lambda_R; P, R \in U_{\alpha\beta}$  arises in the following manner. Let  $V$  be some direction belonging to  $\lambda_P$ . Together with  $Q$  and  $R$  it



determines a 2-sphere  $\ell$  lying in  $K$  and on which  $P$ ,  $Q$  and  $R$  determine a circle (1-sphere)  $k$ . There will exist a direction through  $k$  belonging to  $\ell$  which determines makes the same angle with  $k$  as  $V$ . This direction corresponds to  $V$  for the relation  $b_{PR}$ .

By continuous translation of  $Q$  through a finite distance from  $P$  and  $R$  this relation can only change continuously. Thus by a continuous translation of  $Q$  through a finite distance from  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  the whole system of congruence relations between the  $(n-1)$  dimensional direction spheres of the points of  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  can only change continuously. Hence the degree of the mapping of  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  onto the direction sphere of  $\theta$  (i.e. the mapping determined by the vector field) can admit no discontinuities. It must therefore be a constant,  $C_{\alpha\beta}$  say, which we may call the degree of  $S_{\alpha\beta}$ . We wish to evaluate the sum  $\sum_{\alpha,\beta} C_{\alpha\beta}$ .

Let us project  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  respectively through  $\pi_2$  and  $\pi_1$  onto the  $n$ -dimensional hyperplanes  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  tangent to  $K$  at  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  and evaluate the sum of the degrees of the resulting mappings of  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  onto the direction sphere of  $\theta_1$ . In this sum each such  $(n-1)$ -face of an  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  which does not lie in  $\mathcal{X}$  occurs twice but with opposite indicatrices thus cancelling each other's contributions. We need therefore consider only those faces  $\sigma_x$  which lie in  $\mathcal{X}$ .

We can regard  $\mathcal{X}$  as a two-sided manifold with the  $\sigma_x$  as elements. Its positive indicatrix is given by that of a  $\sigma_x$  considered as a side of an  $S_{1\beta}$ . The projection of  $x$  onto  $\theta_1$  has degree  $C_1$  to which the contributions of  $\sigma_x$  are the same as they make to  $C_{1\beta}$ . Hence  $C_1 = \sum C_{1\beta}$ . But take the indicatrix of  $x$  now to be concordant with that of the  $\sigma_x$  considered as sides of  $S_{2\beta}$  and project  $\mathcal{X}$  from  $\pi_1$  onto  $\theta_2$ . As before the degree  $C_2$  of this map is  $\sum C_{2\beta}$ .

Let  $\rho$  be the  $n$ -dimensional hyperplane in  $R_{n+1}$  which contains  $\mathcal{X}$ . By reflection in  $\rho$  we have the following correspondences. The projection  $\mathcal{X}_2$

of  $x$  in  $\theta_2$  corresponds to  $x$ , the projection of  $x$  in  $\theta_1$ , but with opposite indicatrix. The direction sphere of  $\theta_2$  corresponds to that of  $\theta_1$ , again with opposite indicatrix. Finally, the vector distribution in  $\chi_2$  corresponds to the reflected distribution in  $\chi_1$ , i.e. that distribution over the image points in  $\theta_1$ . The problem of evaluating  $\sum C_{\alpha\beta}$  i.e.  $C_1 + C_2$  is thus reduced to the question: What is the sum of the degrees of the mappings,  $\delta$  and  $\rho$  of an  $(n-1)$ -sphere  $\mathcal{J}$  onto the direction sphere  $\lambda$  of an  $n$ -dimensional hyperplane  $\theta$  as determined by a continuous vector distribution over the points of  $\mathcal{J}$  and by the same distribution reflected in the plane of  $\mathcal{J}$ ?

By means of an  $(n-1)$ -hyperplane we determine in  $\mathcal{J}$  an  $(n-2)$ -disk and poles  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ . We consider a sequence  $\mathcal{F}_1', \mathcal{F}_2' \dots \mathcal{F}_m'$  of simplicial decompositions of  $\mathcal{J}$  for which  $q_1$  is not contained in any proper face and whose mesh decreases with increasing  $m$ . Denote by  $\mathcal{J}_m$  that simplex of  $\mathcal{F}_m'$  which contains  $q_1$  and by  $\mathcal{U}_m$  the boundary of  $\mathcal{J}_m$ .

For each  $m$  we construct from  $\delta$  a new single valued continuous mapping  $\delta_m: \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \lambda$  as follows. Let  $j$  be an arbitrary great semicircle in  $\mathcal{J}$  joining  $q_1$  to  $q_2$  and  $h$  its point of intersection with  $\mathcal{U}_m$ . The arc  $q_1 h$  is mapped by magnification onto the whole of  $j$ . Suppose a point  $F \in q_1 h$  is thereby mapped into a point  $F'$  then  $\delta_m$  is defined thus:- For  $F \in q_1 h$ ,  $\delta_m F = \delta F'$  but if  $F \in j$  but  $F \notin q_1 h$ ,  $\delta_m F = \delta q_2 = q_2$ , say.

The reflection mapping (i.e. the one belonging to the reflected distribution) of  $\delta_m$  we denote by  $\rho_m$ . Since  $\delta$  can be deformed continuously into  $\delta_m$  and  $\rho$  into  $\rho_m$  the basic sums of  $\delta$  and  $\rho$  are the same as those of  $\delta_m$ ,  $\rho_m$ . Through further simplicial decomposition of the base simplices of  $\mathcal{F}_m'$  we arrive at a simplicial decomposition  $\mathcal{F}_m''$  of  $\mathcal{J}$  whose associated simplicial maps  $\delta_m'$  and  $\rho_m'$  approximating  $\delta_m$  and  $\rho_m$  have the properties of  $\beta$  in Chapter 1.

We next seek the contribution to the sum of the degrees of  $\delta_m$  and  $\rho_m$  made by the image sets under  $\delta_m'$  and  $\rho_m'$ . Let us denote by  $q'$  the reflexion vector of the direction  $q$  at the point  $q_1 \in \mathcal{J}$ . The number  $\rho - \rho'$  is constant outside a neighbourhood of  $q'$  whose diameter decreases with increasing  $m$  both

for  $\delta'_m z_m$  and  $\rho'_m z_m$ . The latter of these two constants is unaltered if we modify  $\rho'_m z_m$  in such a way that as the image of each vertex  $P_i$  of  $\xi_m$  lying in  $z_m$  to which the direction  $e_p$  corresponds under  $\delta'_m$  the reflected vector of  $e_p$  in  $q$ , takes the place of the reflected vector of  $e_p$  in  $P$ . But the result of this modification is that  $\rho'_m z_m$  becomes the mirror image in  $f$  of  $\delta'_m z_m$ . In particular, two such mirror images have opposite indicatrices so that the two image sets covering two points of  $\lambda$  which are mirror images of each other determine opposite values of  $\rho - \rho'$ . Thus the images of  $z_m$  under  $\delta'_m$  and  $\rho'_m$  have opposite values everywhere outside a neighbourhood of  $q'$  of decreasing diameter and so destroy the two-part contribution to the sum of the degrees of  $\delta'_m, \rho'_m$ .

There remains for us yet to determine the contribution which the images under  $\delta'_m$  and  $\rho'_m$  of a certain residual set  $t_m$  of  $z_m$  in  $\mathcal{F}$  makes to the degree-sum of  $\rho'_m$  and  $\delta'_m$ . If the image  $\delta'_m z_m$  reduces to the single point  $q$ , there is no contribution made. Thus, for the image under  $\rho'_m$  outside a neighbourhood of  $q'$  which decreases with increasing  $m$ , the degree of the mapping of  $\mathcal{F}$  onto  $\lambda$  determined by the reflected distribution of a constant vector through the points of  $\mathcal{F}$  is constant.

To ascertain this degree we denote: by  $x_1$  that point of  $\mathcal{F}$  whose radius is opposite the constant vector; by  $x_2$  the point in  $\mathcal{F}$  diametrically opposite  $x_1$ ; by  $\omega$  the  $(n-1)$ -dimensional <sup>great-sphere</sup>  $\lambda$  having  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as poles; and by  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  the halves of  $\mathcal{F}$  determined by  $\omega$  containing  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  respectively. We can decompose  $a_1$  simplicially so that the images of the simplices with positive indicatrix cover  $\lambda$  once only and positively. Furthermore let us decompose  $a_2$  into simplices diametrically opposite those of  $a_1$  and let us equip these with indicatrices diametrically opposite those of the corresponding

simplices in  $\alpha_1$ . The resulting indicatrix is positive for even  $n$  and negative for odd  $n$ . Thus, two corresponding simplices in  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  determine the same image simplex in  $\lambda$  with positive indicatrix. Equipping the simplices of  $\alpha_2$  with a positive indicatrix their images cover  $\lambda$  again just once and positively for even  $n$ , negatively for odd  $n$ .

Hence the degree we seek is equal to 2 for even  $n$  and to 0 for odd  $n$ . Thus, also, the sum of the degrees for  $\delta_n$  and  $\rho_n$ , for  $\delta$  and  $\rho$  and finally for  $C_{\alpha\beta}$ , is 2 for even  $n$  and 0 for odd  $n$ .

When the vector field on  $K$  has no singularities its continuity is uniform. We can then choose  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  so small that the variation in the directions of the stereographically projected vectors of the same  $U_{\alpha\beta}$  onto  $\Theta_1$  and  $\Theta_2$  does not exceed a number chosen arbitrarily small. This would mean that  $C_{\alpha\beta}$  is zero, which cannot occur if  $n$  is even. We have thus shown that a continuous vector field on a sphere of even dimension contains at least one singular point.

CHAPTER III. Single-Valued Continuous Transformation of n-Spheres into Themselves.

Let us consider a single-valued continuous mapping  $\tau$  of an n-sphere  $K$  into itself which has no fixed points.  $K$  may be covered by simplices, such as  $S_{\alpha\beta}$  in Chapter II, with arbitrarily small mesh. Let us consider the corresponding simplicial transformations which approximate  $\tau$ .

. There certainly exists such a simplicial transformation,  $t$ , which has no fixed point. But there can also be found a sequence of approximating simplicial maps which converge to  $\tau$  and which leave the points  $f_1, f_2, \dots$  say, fixed. Then, however, every limit point of this set would be a fixed point of  $\tau$ .

We choose a point,  $O$ , of  $K$ , which is general with respect to  $t$  and which does not lie on any proper face. We join each point,  $P$ , of  $K$ , to its image  $tP$  by the arc of a circle through  $O$  and affix to  $P$  the vector determined by the directed arc  $\widehat{PtP}$  not containing  $O$ . The result is a vector field on  $K$  whose only singularities occur at the finite number of points which  $t$  takes into  $O$  and at  $O$  itself.

We select a positive indicatrix in  $K$  and denote by  $S_1, \dots, S_p$  those simplices whose images  $bS_1, \dots, bS_p$  cover  $O$  positively and by  $S'_1, \dots, S'_p$  those whose images  $bS'_1, \dots, bS'_p$  cover  $O$  negatively. Let  $S''$  be that simplex in which  $O$  is situated. We may assume the decomposition of  $K$  underlying  $t$  so dense that  $S \cap tS = \Lambda$  for all  $S$ , and in particular  $S'' \cap S_\alpha = \Lambda$  and  $S'' \cap S'_\alpha = \Lambda$ .

To determine the degrees of  $S_\alpha$  and  $S'_\alpha$  we project  $K$  stereographically from  $O$  onto the hyperplane  $\Theta$  tangent to  $K$  at the point  $O'$  diametrically opposite  $O$ . Denote the projection of  $S_\alpha$  by  $C_\alpha$ , the projection of its boundary by  $\mathcal{U}_\alpha$  and the projections of the boundaries of  $bS_\alpha$  by  $b\mathcal{U}_\alpha$ . Now the image indicatrix

of  $b\alpha$  in  $\Theta$  belongs to a negative indicatrix of a simplex  $b\alpha'$  bounded by  $b\alpha$ . The vectors through the points  $\beta \in \alpha$  to which the points  $\beta' \in b\alpha$  correspond are determined through the rectilinear connecting segments  $\beta\beta'$ . Through a uniformly continuous transformation these are carried over into those vectors which through each point  $\beta$  are parallel to the straight segments  $O'\beta'$ . But the latter vectors cover  $\lambda_{O'}$  exactly once and negatively so that the degree of  $S_\alpha$  is  $-1$ . Through similar argument the degree of each  $S_\alpha'$  is  $+1$ . The degree of  $S''$  is found as follows. We continuously deform the vector distribution on the boundary  $T''$  of  $S''$  into that in which the vector through  $P \in T''$  is determined by the great-circular arc  $OP$  which does not contain  $O'$ . Let us then project  $T''$  and its vector field through  $O'$  onto the  $n$ -dimensional hyperplane  $\Theta'$  tangent to  $K$  at  $O$ . Let  $\alpha''$  be the image of  $T''$  in  $\Theta'$ . Thereby, at each point  $\beta \in \alpha''$  the vector is determined by the straight segment  $O\beta$ . Thus the vector distribution on  $\alpha''$  covers  $\lambda_O$  just once and with positive indicatrix so that the degree of  $S''$  is  $+1$ . As regards the remaining simplices they may be so decomposed that under stereographic projection the variation of the vector direction inside each is arbitrarily small. Hence each such simplex has degree zero and this is also true for such simplices joined together.

Adding up, the sum of the degrees of the simplices is  $-p+p'+1$  which for even  $n$  must be  $2$  and for odd  $n$ ,  $0$ . Hence the degree  $p-p'$  for  $r$  or  $t$  is  $-1$  for even  $n$  and  $1$  for odd  $n$ . We have thus proved the following:

Theorem 1.

A single-valued continuous transformation of an  $n$ -sphere into itself which has no fixed point has degree  $-1$  for even  $n$  and  $1$  for odd  $n$ . From this we can formulate the following special cases:

Corollary 1.

When under a single-valued continuous transformation of an  $n$ -sphere into itself the image set is not everywhere dense in the whole sphere there exists a fixed point.

Corollary 2.

Every homeomorphic mapping of an even dimensional sphere onto itself which can be deformed into the identity has a fixed point.

Corollary 3.

Every homeomorphism of a sphere of odd dimension into itself which can be deformed into a reflection must have a fixed point.

That transformations of degree  $(-1)^{n+1}$  need not have fixed points may be illustrated by the rotations and reflections of  $R_{n+1}$  about a particular point.

We turn now to consider a single-valued continuous transformation  $\mathcal{L}$  of an  $n$ -dimensional element  $E$  into itself.  $E$  can be regarded as the homeomorphic image of a hemisphere  $H_1$  determined in an  $n$ -sphere  $K$  by an  $(n-1)$  dimensional great-sphere  $\alpha$ . A single-valued continuous transformation of  $E$  into itself thus corresponds to a like transformation  $\mathcal{L}_1$  of  $H_1$  into itself. Let us now extend  $\mathcal{L}_1$  to the other half  $H_2 \subset K$  in such a way that each pair of points which are mirror images in  $\alpha$  are taken by  $\mathcal{L}_1$  into the same point of  $H_1$ . Then this will be a single valued continuous transformation of  $K$  into itself for which the image set is not everywhere dense in  $K$  and which must therefore have a fixed point, lying of course in  $H_1$ . But this fixed point must correspond to a fixed point of  $E$  under  $\mathcal{L}$ . We have thus proved:

Theorem 2.

continuous

A single-valued transformation of an  $n$ -dimensional element into itself must possess a fixed point.

It is this theorem which is to-day known as "The Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem".

Chapter IV. Subsequent treatments of the Brouwer Theorems.

The next contributions to the subject appear in two papers by B. von K  r  kj  rto (8,9) in December 1918. In the first of these considerations are restricted to the 2-disk and the 2-sphere. As regards the 2-disk, it is proved that a homeomorphism  $\tau$  into itself has at least one fixed point. Two classical theorems are used for the proof, namely Brouwer's theorem on the "invariance of domain" (5) and the Jordan-Brouwer "separation theorem". Applied to the closed set of points,  $H$ , for which the polar angles  $\phi(P) = \phi(\tau P)$ , the first theorem demands that a point on the perimeter is mapped into the perimeter so that if  $H$  has points on the perimeter they must be fixed points. The second theorem is used to establish, in the event  $H$  is entirely inside the disk, the existence of a subcontinuum  $K \subset H$  containing the centre  $O$  and the point  $P_0$  mapped into  $O$ . One then considers the single-valued function  $S(P) = r(\tau P) - r(P)$  where  $r(P)$  is the length of the radius vector of  $P$ . We have  $S(P) = -r(P_0)$  for  $P = P_0$  and  $S(P) = r(\tau O)$  for  $P = O$ , i.e. a negative and positive value of  $S(P)$ . Hence there must be a point,  $P_1$ , for which  $S(P_1) = 0$  i.e.  $r(\tau P_1) = r(P_1)$  but  $P_1$  being in  $H$ ,  $\phi(\tau P_1) = \phi(P_1)$  so that  $P_1$  must be a fixed point. Similar considerations are used to prove that a sense-preserving homeomorphism of the 2-sphere has a fixed point and that a sense-preserving mapping of a 2-disk onto a subregion has a fixed point.

The second paper establishes criteria for the existence under homeomorphism of fixed points in a non-simply connected closed region, namely that bounded by and including two concentric circles in the plane. Of significance is the fact that the behaviour of the bounding circles already provides the criteria. It is in fact proved that, a) a sense-preserving homeomorphism leaving the bounding circles invariant has in general no fixed point but one



in which the circles are interchanged has at least two; b) a sense-reversing homeomorphism with invariant boundary circles has at least four fixed points while one which interchanges them has, in general, none.

There is an interesting contribution to the subject made by J. W. Alexander (1) in 1922; interesting in that results from classical analysis are utilized to obtain original proofs of the Brouwer theorems. The detailed discussion is restricted to 3 dimensions but can readily be extended to  $n$ .

The key to the method is the "Gaussian Integral":

$$\iint \begin{vmatrix} x & y & z \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} \frac{du dv}{r^3}$$

where  $x, y, z$  are the coordinates in real 3-space of the points on the image of the unit sphere  $S_1$  under continuous transformation;  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$  and  $u$  and  $v$  are parametric coordinates for the unit sphere (e.g. latitude and longitude). For continuous mappings

$$x = x(u, v) ; \quad y = y(u, v) ; \quad z = z(u, v)$$

are continuous functions. The integral taken over  $S_1$  has the value  $\pm 4\pi$  and in fact  $\pm 4\pi$  by suitable choice of  $u$  and  $v$ . Evaluation of the integral for a given continuous mapping  $S_2 = \tau S_1$ , leads to the definition of an index,  $k$ , of the mapping  $\tau$ . It is shown that the integral for  $S_2$  is  $4k\pi$  where  $k$  is an integer which is the difference between the number of times a ray from the origin cuts  $S_2$  from the negative to the positive side and the number of times it cuts  $S_2$  the opposite way. Although the image,  $S_2$ , is considered provisionally as made up of finitely many analytic pieces this condition is later removed in so far as  $S_2$  may be closely approximated by a second image which is of the analytic type. The value of the integral for  $S_2$  is then defined to be its value for a such a sufficiently well approximating

analytic surface. In that a continuous deformation of the integration surface which does not cross the origin (discontinuities would then arise) leaves the value of the integral unaltered the definition above of the value of the integral over an arbitrary image  $S_1$  is sufficiently invariant.

The properties of this integral and the resulting definition of the index,  $k$ , are now used in studying a continuous transformation  $\sigma$  of  $S_1$  into itself. Letting  $\sigma(x_1, y_1, z_1) = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$  one considers

$$\iint \left| \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\partial}{\partial u}(x_1 - x_2) & \frac{\partial}{\partial u}(y_1 - y_2) & \frac{\partial}{\partial u}(z_1 - z_2) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial v}(x_1 - x_2) & \frac{\partial}{\partial v}(y_1 - y_2) & \frac{\partial}{\partial v}(z_1 - z_2) \end{array} \right| \frac{du dv}{r^3}$$

where  $r = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2}$ . The absence of fixed points is characterised by  $r \neq 0$  everywhere. Under these circumstances the integral is well defined.

By radial contraction of  $\sigma S_1$  into the origin the integral is seen to be  $4\pi$  while similar contraction of  $S_1$  shows it to be  $-4k\pi$  where  $k$  is the index of  $\sigma$ . It is thus proved that a continuous transformation of  $S_1$  into itself must have a fixed point if the index,  $k$ , is different from  $-1$ .

We conclude this chapter with a very elegant proof of Theorem 2 as we have found it in Lefschetz "Introduction to Topology" (11). Aside from its elegance we have found it particularly instructive for the following reason. It may be recalled that the technique used by Brouwer consisted in simplicial decomposition of the manifold which led to consideration of associated simplicial maps which approximated the continuous mapping in question. Indeed, the very property of continuity of the mapping enabled the successful approximation by means of simplicial maps referred to decom-

positions of sufficiently small mesh. The success of this technique culminated in the definition of the degree of the mapping a characteristic of satisfactory invariance in that one could prove its invariance with respect to homotopy. In short, then, this powerful technique concerns itself not so much with the underlying triangulations but with their associated linear mappings.

In contrast with this, the proof which is to follow is based on results of a study of the decomposition per se! We refer to the result known as Sperner's Lemma (18) which states the following:

Consider a complex  $K = \mathcal{U} \sigma^n$  where  $\sigma^n = A_0 \dots A_n$ , i.e. the  $n$ -dimensional simplex  $\sigma^n$  together with all its faces. Let  $K^{(s)}$  be a barycentric subdivision of  $K$  with vertices  $\{a_i\}$  and  $t$  an assignment which associates with each  $a_i$  a vertex  $R_j(i)$  which is a vertex of that face of  $\sigma^n$  which contains  $a_i$ . Then there exists a simplex (and in fact an odd number of them)  $a_{i_0} \dots a_{i_n}$  such that the  $t a_{i_n}$  are all distinct. Now to prove the theorem.

The  $n$ -dimensional element, or  $n$ -disk, may be taken to be an  $n$ -dimensional simplex  $\sigma^n = A_0 \dots A_n$  with barycentric coordinates  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ . Then a continuous mapping  $t: \sigma^n \rightarrow \sigma^n$  consists of relations

$$x'_i = f_i(x_0, \dots, x_n) \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where  $(x'_0, \dots, x'_n) = t(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  in which the  $f_i$  are continuous functions.

Consider the closed subsets  $F_i$  of  $\sigma^n$  given by

$$f_i(x_0, \dots, x_n) \leq x_i$$

Intersection of the  $F_i$  implies the existence of a point for which  $x'_i \leq x_i$  ( $i=0, \dots, n$ )

But  $\sum x'_i = \sum x_i = 1$  so that  $x'_i = x_i$  ( $i=0, \dots, n$ ) i.e.  $(x_0, \dots, x_n)$  is a fixed point.

Thus in order to prove the theorem it suffices to show that

$$\bigcap_{i=0}^n F_i \neq \emptyset$$

Consider the faces  $A_i \dots A_j$ . Here we have  $x_i + \dots + x_j = 1$

while  $x_k = 0$  for  $k \neq i, \dots, j$ . Since  $x'_i + \dots + x'_j \leq 1$  for at

least one index,  $r$ , among  $i, \dots, j$ ,  $x'_r \leq x_r$  so that

$$A_i \dots A_j \subset F_i \cup \dots \cup F_j$$

Let us take a barycentric subdivision of  $\mathcal{C}l\sigma^n$  of mesh  $\varepsilon$  with vertices  $\{B_h\}$ . We assign to each vertex  $B_h$  a vertex  $A_{i(h)}$  in the following way. If  $B_h \in A_i \dots A_j$  then  $B_h \in F_r$  for some  $F_r$  among  $F_i, \dots, F_j$ . We may take that  $F_r$  with smallest  $r$  and then assign to  $B_h$  the vertex  $A_{i(h)} = A_r$ . Now, by Sperner's Lemma there is a simplex  $B_{h_0} \dots B_{h_n}$  such that  $A_i$  is assigned distinctly to  $B_{h_i}$  which means  $B_{h_i} \in F_i$ . Hence this set  $B_{h_0}, \dots, B_{h_n}$  of diameter  $\leq \varepsilon$  meets all the  $F_i$ . But  $\varepsilon$  may be chosen as small as we please and so even smaller than the Lebesgue number of the covering  $\{F_i\}$ . It follows therefore that the  $F_i$  must intersect thus proving the theorem.

# CHAPTER V. "The Lefschetz Fixed Point Formula."

Prerequisite to proving the Lefschetz Fixed Point Theorem we must quote two essential results. The first of these is due to J. W. Alexander (2) and may be stated thus: Every mapping,  $\varphi$ , of one polyhedron  $|K|$  into another  $|L|$  is  $\varepsilon$ -homotopic to a simplicial mapping  $\sigma: K_1 \rightarrow L_1$ , where  $K_1$  and  $L_1$  are suitable subdivisions of the complexes  $K$  and  $L$ . Indeed, mesh  $L_1$  is less than  $\varepsilon$  and the homotopy paths are each contained in the closure of a simplex of  $L_1$ .

The second result to which we refer, asserts that a mapping  $\sigma$  of one polyhedron,  $|K|$  into another,  $|L|$  induces a homomorphism  $\sigma^*$  of the homology groups of  $|K|$  into the corresponding homology groups of  $|L|$ . Furthermore,  $\sigma^*$  is the same for all mappings homotopic to  $\sigma$ . We speak here of the homology groups of a polyhedron. This we may do in virtue of the fact that the homology groups of different triangulations of the same polyhedron are isomorphic.

After these preliminaries we turn now to the development of the fixed point formula. The first step consists of an investigation of the homomorphism of the homology groups induced by the mapping of a complex  $K$  into itself.

Suppose  $\{S_i^p\}$  is a basis for the rational  $p$ -cycles, i.e. a maximum set of  $p$ -cycles independent with respect to homology;  $i$  will range from 1 to  $R^p$  where  $R^p$  is the  $p^{\text{th}}$  Betti number. A simplicial map  $\sigma$  of  $K$  into  $K$  induces a transformation:

$$\sigma S_i^p \sim \sum_j a_{ij}^p S_j^p.$$

$S_j^p$  we shall consider fixed it appears in  $\sum a_{ij}^p S_j^p$ . Denoting the matrix  $\|a_{ij}^p\|$  by  $A^p$  we shall study the number  $\sum_p (-1)^p \text{trace } A^p$

which we may denote by  $\varphi(\sigma)$ .

Suppose that  $\{T_i^p\}$  is a new base for the module of  $p$ -cycles then there will be relations

$$\begin{aligned} T_i^p &= \sum \lambda_{ij}^p S_j^p & \text{with } \lambda^p \text{ non-singular and} \\ \sigma T_i^p &= \sum b_{ij}^p T_j^p \end{aligned}$$

so that  $b^p = (\lambda^p)^{-1} \alpha^p \lambda^p$ . Hence trace  $b^p$  = trace  $\alpha^p$  which proves that  $\varphi(\sigma)$  is independent of the choice of bases for the cycles.

Now let  $\{\beta_i^p\}, \{\gamma_i^p\}, \{\delta_i^p\}$  be successively extended bases for the  $p$ -boundaries,  $p$ -cycles and  $p$ -chains respectively; so chosen that  $\partial \delta_i^{p+1} = \beta_i^p$  for all admissible  $p$ .  $\sigma$  will now induce the following transformations:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \beta_i^p &= \sum b_{ij}^p \beta_j^p \\ \sigma \gamma_i^p &= \sum b_{ij}'^p \beta_j^p + \sum c_{ij}^p \gamma_j^p \\ \sigma \delta_i^p &= \sum b_{ij}''^p \beta_j^p + \sum c_{ij}'^p \gamma_j^p + \sum d_{ij}^p \delta_j^p \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Let } \varphi(\sigma) = \sum (-1)^p (\text{trace } b^p + \text{trace } c^p + \text{trace } d^p).$$

Applying  $\partial$  to the last of the three relations above,

$$\partial \sigma \delta_i^p = \partial \sum b_{ij}''^p \beta_j^p + \partial \sum c_{ij}'^p \gamma_j^p + \partial \sum d_{ij}^p \delta_j^p$$

Since  $\partial \sigma = \sigma \partial$  and  $\partial \delta_i^p = \beta_i^{p-1}$  we get

$$\sigma \beta_i^{p-1} = \sum d_{ij}^p \beta_j^{p-1}$$

so that comparing this with the first relation for  $p-1$  we see that  $d_{ij}^p = b_{ij}^{p-1}$  and hence trace  $d^p = \text{trace } b^{p-1}$ . The ingenuity of including the factor  $(-1)^p$  now becomes apparent in that  $(-1)^p \text{trace } d^p$  cancels  $(-1)^{p-1} \text{trace } b^{p-1}$  and  $d^0$  and  $b^n$  being 0 anyway  $\varphi(\sigma)$  reduces to

$$\varphi(\sigma) = \sum (-1)^p \text{trace } c^p$$

In other words,  $\varphi(\sigma)$  is completely determined by the transformation of the rational cycles and since  $c_{ij}^p$  are integers,  $\varphi(\sigma)$  is an integer.

Since no linear combination of the  $\gamma_i^p$  is a boundary their homology classes  $\{\pi_i^p\}$  form a base for the  $p^{\text{th}}$  rational homology group  $H^p(K)$ . The homomorphism  $\sigma^*$  induced by  $\sigma$  is given precisely by

$$\sigma^* \pi_i^p = \sum c_{ij}^p \pi_j^p$$

Hence  $\varphi(\sigma)$  is completely determined by  $\sigma^*$ . In particular a sufficient

condition that  $\sigma$  have fixed elements, as defined above, is that  $\varphi(\sigma) \neq 0$

We shall now use the consequences of the first result we quoted in order to prove:

Theorem 111

The 'trace invariant'  $\varphi(f)$  of a continuous mapping  $f$  of a polyhedron  $|K|$  into itself has the property that  $\varphi(f) \neq 0$  is a sufficient condition for  $f$  to have a fixed point.

In speaking of  $\varphi(f)$  when  $f$  is a continuous mapping we mean of course  $\varphi$  as determined by any simplicial mapping homotopic to  $f$ .

Let us assume that  $f$  has no fixed points, i.e.  $d(x, f(x)) > 0$  for all  $x \in |K|$ . Since  $|K|$  is a compactum there exists a  $\rho$  such that  $d(x, f(x)) \geq \rho > 0$  for all  $x \in |K|$ . Let  $K_1$  be a simplicial subdivision of  $K$  with the property that each simplex in  $K_1$  has diameter less than  $\rho/2$ . Now,  $f$  is homotopic to a simplicial mapping  $g: K_1 \rightarrow K_1$  so that for each  $x \in |K|$ ,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are in the same simplex of  $K_1$ . Now suppose that for some simplex  $S \in K_1$ ,  $gS = S$ . This will mean that for  $x \in S$ ,  $g(x) \in S$  so that  $d(x, g(x)) < \rho/2$ . But we have also  $f(x), g(x) \in S \in K_1$  so that  $d(f(x), g(x)) < \rho/2$ . Hence  $d(x, f(x)) \leq d(x, g(x)) + d(g(x), f(x)) \leq \rho/2 + \rho/2 = \rho$  which is a contradiction.

It follows then that under the assumption that  $f$  be free of fixed points the chain transformation induced by a simplicial map homotopic to  $f$  can have no fixed element i.e.  $\varphi(f) = 0$  which proves the theorem.

We shall give one or two examples to illustrate the theorem. In theorem 11,  $K = \mathbb{C}P^n$ .  $K$  is therefore zero-cyclic, i.e. all the  $p$ -cycles are homologous to zero for  $p > 0$  and every 0-cycle is homologous to a multiple of a given one. Hence  $\varphi(f) = 1$  so that  $f$  always has a fixed point.

The rational homology groups of the projective plane are those of a point so that here again  $\varphi(f) = 1$  and hence every continuous mapping of the projective plane into itself has a fixed point.

The  $n$ -sphere may be considered on the boundary of an  $n$ -simplex. The latter is cyclic at dimension 0 and dimension  $n$ . Thus, if  $A$  is the class of a vertex and  $\pi^n$  the basic  $\wedge^{n+1}$  homology class we have  $\int A = 1; \int \pi^n = d \int \pi^n$  where  $d$  is the degree of  $f$ . Hence  $\varphi(f) = 1 + (-1)^n d$  from which we conclude that every sense-preserving mapping ( $d > 0$ ) of an even dimensional sphere and every sense-reversing mapping ( $d < 0$ ) of an odd-dimensional sphere must have a fixed point. Indeed every mapping of an  $n$ -sphere into itself whose degree is different from  $\pm 1$  has a fixed point. This is the converse of Theorem 1.

The examples just cited illustrate the power of the fixed point formula. Lefschetz (12) in 1937 generalized the theorem still further to apply to  $LC^*$  spaces.

An  $LC$  space is defined in the following way. Let  $K = \{0\}$  be a finite Euclidean complex and  $L$  a closed subcomplex of  $K$  which contains all its vertices. An  $LC^*$  space,  $R$ , is characterized by the properties:  
 1)  $R$  is a compactum 2) For any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $\eta > 0$  such that if there is a pair  $(K, L)$  as just defined and a continuous mapping  $t_0$  of  $|L|$  into  $R$  such that  $\text{mesh } \{t_0(L \cap \partial \varepsilon)\} < \eta$  then  $t_0$  can be extended to a continuous mapping  $t$  of  $|K|$  such that  $\text{mesh } \{t_0\} < \varepsilon$ .

It has been shown by Lefschetz (13) that the  $LC^*$  spaces may be identified with the "absolute neighbourhood retracts" as defined by K. Borsuk. The latter are defined in the following way. Given a topological space  $B$  and a subspace  $A$ , a continuous mapping  $t: B \rightarrow A$  which is the identity on  $A$  is called "a retraction of  $B$  onto  $A$ ." If a retraction of  $B$  onto  $A$  exists then  $A$  is known as a retract of  $B$ . More generally,  $A$  is a "neighbourhood retract of  $B$ " if there is a neighbourhood,  $C$ , of  $A$  (i.e. an open set containing  $A$ ) which may be retracted into  $A$ . When  $A$  is a separable metric space it is said to be "an absolute neighbourhood retract" if every homeomorphic image  $A_1$  of  $A$  as a closed subset of any other separable metric space,  $B$ ,



is a neighbourhood retract of  $B$ . A detailed presentation of the theory of retraction may be found in Lefschetz' "Topics in Topology," (14).

## CHAPTER VI - Applications.

Noteworthy applications of fixed point theorems have been made in the field of functional analysis in endeavouring to obtain "existence theorems". The first major contribution is to be found in a paper by G. D. Birkhoff and O.D. Kellogg (3) which appeared in 1922. The procedure followed here has essentially two steps. The first is to generalize results for two and three dimensions to spaces of dimension  $n$  and then to function space by means of a limiting process. Methods of classical analysis are used to prove that a bounded connected region of  $E_n$  has a fixed point under a mapping for which the coordinate transformations  $x'_i = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  are algebraic. This is then extended to arbitrary continuous functions by means of the Weierstrass theorem on the approximation of continuous functions by polynomials.

The authors then pass to consideration of the space  $R_f$  of real functions which consists of the totality of real functions  $f(s)$  defined on the closed interval  $[0, 1]$  which are uniformly bounded, i.e.  $|f| < B < +\infty$  for all  $f$  and all  $s \in [0, 1]$  and equicontinuous  $\eta(\epsilon)$ ,  $\eta(\epsilon)$  being convex. The last property means that there exists a function defined and bounded on which approaches 0 with  $\epsilon$  such that  $|f(s+h) - f(s)| \leq \eta$  for  $|h| \leq \epsilon$  all  $s$  and  $s+h$  in  $[0, 1]$  and all  $f$ . The convexity of  $\eta(\epsilon)$  means that for every  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $\theta$  in  $[0, 1]$

$$\eta(a + \theta(b-a)) \geq \eta(a) + \theta(\eta(b) - \eta(a))$$

It is proved that a single valued continuous mapping,  $S$  of  $R_f$  into itself has a fixed point. This is done by considering the effect of  $S$  on polygonal functions  $\pi(s, x)$  at the points  $x \in R_n$  where  $R_n$  is a region of  $n$ -space whose points have coordinates satisfying the relations:

$$|x_i| \leq B ; \quad |x_{i+j} - x_i| \leq \eta\left(\frac{j}{n-1}\right) \quad \left( \begin{matrix} i=1, 2, \dots, n \\ j=1, 2, \dots, n-i \end{matrix} \right)$$

The function  $\pi(s, x) = x_i$  for  $s = s_i = \frac{i-1}{n-1}$  ( $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ )

and is linear for intermediate values of  $S$ . The functions,  $\pi(s, x)$ , as thus

defined are evidently in  $R_f$ .

A transformation  $T$  of  $R_n$  is now defined by means of  $\pi'(s, x) = S\pi(s, x)$ .  $Tx = x'$  is obtained by setting  $x'_i = \pi'(s_i, x)$ . The authors assert that  $x' \in R_n$  and in fact that  $R_n$  is a bounded connected region.  $T$  is algebraic on  $R_n$  and so  $R_n$  has a fixed point under  $T$ . Let us denote this fixed point by  $\alpha$ .

The function  $\pi(s, \alpha)$  coincides with  $S\pi(s, \alpha)$  at the  $n$  points  $s_i$  and between these points the variation of either function is not greater than  $\eta(\frac{1}{n-1})$  so that for all  $s \in [0, 1]$ ,  $|\pi(s, \alpha) - S\pi(s, \alpha)| \leq 2\eta(\frac{1}{n-1})$ .

Denoting by  $\delta_f = \int_0^1 (f(s) - Sf(s))^2 ds$  the distance by which  $f$  is moved by  $S$ ,

$$\delta_\pi \leq 2\eta(\frac{1}{n-1});$$

clearly  $\delta_\pi \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  so that

$$\inf \delta_f = 0$$

which means that  $R_f$  has a fixed point under  $S$ .

This result is used to answer affirmatively the question as to the existence in  $R_f$  of a solution of a differential equation  $y^{(n)} = F(x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)})$  satisfying  $n$  linear conditions on the interval  $(0, \alpha)$ :

$$\int_0^\alpha \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} p_{ij}(x) y^{(j)}(x) dx + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^m q_{ijk} y^{(j)}(x_k) = c_i$$

( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;  $0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_m \leq \alpha$ )

where the  $p_{ij}(x)$  are continuous and the conditions are such as to determine uniquely a polynomial  $y$  of degree  $n-1$ . The problem is reduced to proving the existence of a fixed point of the transformation  $S$ :

$$Sy = \int_0^x \int_0^x \dots \int_0^x F(x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)}) dx dx \dots dx$$

$$+ \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} x^{n-1}.$$

Results of a more general nature which include those obtained by Birkhoff

and Kellogg have been obtained by J. Schauder (16) in 1930. We shall merely state the theorems which he has proved.

1. Every single valued continuous mapping of a convex compactum in a real vector space into itself has a fixed point.

2. If  $H$  is convex and closed in a Banach space and  $t$  is a continuous mapping such that  $tH$  is conditionally compact then  $t$  has a fixed point. (The conditional compactness of a subspace  $A$  in a space  $R$  means that every sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in  $A$  has a subsequence  $\{x_{n'}\}$  convergent to a point  $x$  in  $R$ ).

3. Let  $R$  be a strongly separable Banach space and  $H$  a strongly closed and convex subset of  $R$  which is weakly, sequentially conditionally compact. Then every weakly continuous mapping of  $H$  into itself has a fixed point. ("Strongly" refers to the 'strong' topology, namely that with which  $R$  is equipped in virtue of the metric. The 'weak' topology is induced by means of the space,  $R^*$ , conjugate to  $R$ , i.e. the space of linear functionals on  $R$ , in the following way. If  $\{I\}$  are the intervals of the real line and  $R^* = \{f\}$  then the intersections of finitely many  $f^{-1}I$  constitute a base for the weak topology of  $R$ .

A further application, in quite a different field may be found in a paper by H. Hopf and H. Samelson (7) which appeared in 1940. The problem considered there is that of determining topological properties which spaces must have in order to serve as "operation spaces" (Wirkungs räume) for closed Lie groups. An operation space  $W$  is a manifold related to a Lie group  $G$  in the following way. To each element  $a$  of  $G$  there corresponds an analytic topological mapping  $f_a$  of  $W$  onto itself. The mappings  $f_a$  must satisfy the conditions:

1.  $f_a(f_b(\xi)) = f_{ab}(\xi)$
2. The point  $f_a(\xi)$  depends continuously on the pair  $(a, \xi)$
3. For each pair  $(\xi, \eta)$  of elements in  $W$  there is at least one  $a$  in  $G$  for which  $f_a(\xi) = \eta$

Up to 1940 it had been known that the fundamental group of  $W$  has an abelian subgroup of finite index and that the Betti numbers  $\rho_r$ ,  $r=1,2,\dots$  satisfy the inequalities  $\rho_r \geq \binom{p_i}{r}$  and  $\rho_r \geq \binom{n}{r}$ . The authors prove that the Euler-Poincaré characteristic  $\chi(W)$  must be either zero or positive and then proceed to restrict still further the positive numbers which are admissible as characteristics. The method utilizes the trace invariants of the  $\int_a$  and the fact that  $\varphi(f)$  where  $f$  can be deformed into the identity is the same as  $\chi(W)$  both being in fact  $\sum (-1)^r \rho_r$ .

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