# A CHARACTERIZATION OF THE CIRCLE AND INTERVAL 

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Consider a connected $T_{1}$-space $X$. Take the Cartesian product of $X$ with itself $n$ times ( $n \geqq 2$ ) and then remove the generalized diagonal $G D_{n}=\left\{\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) \in X^{n} \mid x_{i}=x_{j}\right.$ for some $i \neq j\}$ thus obtaining the deleted product $Z=X^{n}-G D_{n}$. If $Z$ should be disconnected then a great deal can be said about $X$. For example, if $X$ is compact and metrizable, then $X$ is homeomorphic to the closed interval $[0,1]$ or to the circle $C=\{(x, y) \in$ $\left.\boldsymbol{R}^{2} \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$. On the other hand, if it is only assumed (beyond $X$ being $T_{1}$ and connected and $Z$ disconnected) that $X$ is Hausdorff, locally connected and separable, then $X$ must be homeomorphic to either $(0,1),(0,1],[0,1]$ or $C$. In general, without any assumptions beyond $X$ being $T_{1}$ and connected and $Z$ disconnected it is possible to define an order on $X$ which is a total order when restricted to $X-a$ certain finite set, and such that the order topology is coarser (weaker, smaller) then the original topology on $X$. Furthermore, all connected subsets of $X$ and the components of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ for all $m \geqq 2(m$ not necessarily equal to $n)$ are determined. In particular the number of components of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ is either $(m-1)$ ! or $m!/ N!M!$ where $0 \leqq N, M<n$, $N+M \leqq m$ and each of these numbers is taken on for some $X$ satisfying our hypothesis. The "generalized" cut point behavior of $X$ is completely determined and an interesting result is that either there are no cut points or all but at most $n$ points are cut points.

The analysis presupposes nothing but elementary concepts from general topology. In order to facilitate references to preceding lemmas and definitions a table of contents is included at the end.

1. Let $X$ be a topological space. Set $X^{n}=\underbrace{X \times X \times \cdots \times X}_{n \text { times }}$. We will denote by $G D_{n}$ (the generalized diagonal) the subset of $X^{n}$ consisting of all $n$-tuplets $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ such that $x_{i}=x_{j}$ for some $i \neq$ $j, 1 \leqq i, j \leqq n$.

Convention. Throughout this paper we will assume $X$ is a connected $T_{1}$-space such that $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is not connected where $n$ is a fixed integer greater than one.

Definition 1.1. Let $Y$ be a topological space. Two points $x, y \in Y$ can be separated in $Y$ if there exists disjoint open sets $U$,
$V$ such that $x \in U, y \in V$ and $U \cup V=Y$. The open sets $U$ and $V$ are said to separate $x$ and $y$ in $Y$.

Definition 1.2. If $R$ is a relation on a set $S$ then the negative relation $R^{\prime}$ is defined by: for $x, y \in S, x R^{\prime} y$ if and only if $x R y$ fails to hold.

In the following definition we introduce the central concept in our analysis of $X$.

Definition 1.3. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be the collection of all finite subsets of $X$. For $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ we define the relation $R_{\alpha}$ on $\alpha$ by $x R_{\alpha} y$ if and only if $x, y \in \alpha, x \neq y$, and $x$ cannot be separated from $y$ in $(X-\alpha) \cup\{x, y\}$.

Clearly $R_{\alpha}$ is symmetric and $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x$ for all $x \in \alpha$.
We associate with $\alpha$ and $R_{\alpha}$ a network (which we also call $R_{\alpha}$ ) having the points of $\alpha$ as vertices and an edge between an $x$ and $y \in \alpha$ if and only if $x R_{\alpha} y$ (or equivalently $y R_{\alpha} x$ ).

Our analysis consists of bringing into sharper and sharper focus our picture of the $R_{\alpha}$ 's. First we see how the connectedness of $X$ implies that each $R_{\alpha}$ is connected. Next, the disconnectedness of $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is used to show that each vertex $x \in \alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ can have no more than $n$ edges (in $R_{\alpha}$ ) connected to it. The preceding two facts combine to show that there must be at least one long simple chain in $\alpha$ provided $\alpha$ has sufficiently many elements. Then bringing in the disconnectedness of $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ we see that except near the ends of such a long chain, each vertex $x$ in the chain has exactly two edges (of $R_{\alpha}$ ) connected to it which are of course the edges connecting $x$ to the preceding are following vertex in the chain. This in turn enables us to distinguish (provided cardinality of $\alpha$ is sufficiently large) a unique long chain $C(\alpha)$ such that each vertex in it has the above property. The $R_{\alpha}$ 's are sufficiently coherent for various $\alpha$ 's to make it possible to use the $C(\alpha)$ 's to define a simple order $<$ on most of $X$. Those points left out we will refer to here as exceptional points. The exceptional points are shown to be small in number (at most $n$ ) and clustered in two groups located at the ends of $C(\alpha)$. The simple order $<$ is then extended to a partial order on all of $X$ by putting one group of exceptional points $>$ all other points and the other group of exceptional points $<$ all other points.

The relations $R_{\alpha}$ can now be determined quite easily from $<$. In fact if $x, y \in \alpha, x R_{\alpha} y$ if and only if there does not exist a $z \in \alpha$ such that $x<z<y$ or $y<z<x$. Meanwhile the topology is related to $<$ and all the connected subsets of $X$ are determined (roughly
just intervals). The exceptional points are shown to be basically (there may be 1 or 2 exceptions) the noncut points in the case that there are some cut points. The way in which $X^{m}-G D_{m}, m \geqq 1$, ( $m$ not necessarily equal to $n$ ) is disconnected is analyzed in terms of the numbers $N$ and $M$ of points in the two groups of exceptional points. We conclude that $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ has $m!/(N!M!)$ components.

The topology about the exceptional points (with possibly 1 or 2 exceptions) is shown to be necessarily not nice where nice means either locally compact or locally connected. The topology about the other points may or may not be nice but we prove that if it is nice then the order topology induced by $<$ agrees with the given topology at the points in question (same neighborhood system). Furthermore if separability is assumed (locally or globally) one can set up a homeomorphism (locally or globally) with a connected subset of the real line $R$. Combining these observations we prove our characterization of $I=\{x \in R \mid 0 \leqq x \leqq 1\}$ and $C=\left\{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.
(Actually, there are two cases for the general shape of $C(\alpha)$. The first is the one described above which leads to the final conclusion $X \cong I$. In the other case $C(\alpha)$ is a closed chain (circular chain) and in this case we finally conclude $X \cong C$.)
2. To simplify notation we will write $x$ for the singleton $\{x\}$ when no confusion can arise.

Lemma 2.1. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{F}, \beta \subset \alpha, \alpha-\beta=\{z\}, x, y \in \beta$ and $x \neq y$. If $x R_{\beta} y$ and $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y$ then $x R_{\alpha} z$ and $z R_{\alpha} y$.

Proof. Assume $x R_{\beta} y$ and $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y$. We will show that $x R_{\alpha} z$. Assume the contrary, $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} z$. Set $X^{\prime}=(X-\beta) \cup\{x, y\}$. The relation $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y$ means that $x$ can be separated from $y$ in $(X-\alpha) \cup\{x, y\}=$ $X^{\prime}-z$ and consequently there exist sets $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ open in $X^{\prime}-z$ such that $x \in X_{1}, y \in X_{2}, \quad X_{1} \cap X_{2}=\phi$, and $X_{1} \cup X_{2}=X^{\prime}-z$. Since $X^{\prime}-z$ is open in $X, X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are open in $X$. Similarly $x R_{c}^{\prime} z$ implies the existence of open subsets of $X, Y_{1}$ and $Y_{2}$ such that $x \in Y_{1}, z \in Y_{2}, \quad Y_{1} \cap Y_{2}=\phi$, and $Y_{1} \cup Y_{2}=X^{\prime}-y$. Setting $X_{3}=z$ and $Y_{3}=y$ we have two partitions of $X^{\prime},\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}\right\}$ and $\left\{Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}\right\}$. Their product partition $\left\{X_{i} \cap Y_{j}\right\}$ is displayed below along with some relevant facts.

|  | $x \in Y_{1}$ | $z \in Y_{2}$ | $y=Y_{3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $x \in X_{1} \cap Y_{1}$ | $X_{1} \cap Y_{2}$ | $\phi$ |
| $y \in X_{2}$ | $X_{2} \cap Y_{1}$ | $X_{2} \cap Y_{2}$ | $y$ |
| $z=X_{3}$ | $\phi$ | $z$ | $\phi$ |

It is now apparent that $x$ is separated from $y$ in $X^{\prime}=(X-\beta) \cup\{x, y\}$ by the open sets $X_{1} \cap Y_{1}$ and $X_{2} \cup Y_{2}$, a contradiction. Therefore $x R_{\alpha} z$. It follows similarly that $z R_{\alpha} y$.

Definition 2.2. If $R$ is a relation on a set $S$ such that $x R^{\prime} x$ for all $x \in S$, and $T \subset S$ then $R$ induces a relation $R^{T}$ on $T$ as follows: For $x, y \in T, x R^{T} y$ if and only if $x \neq y$ and there is a finite sequence $x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{m} \in(S-T) \cup\{x, y\}$ such that $x=x_{0}, x_{i-1} R x_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ and $x_{m}=y$.

It is easy to verify that $R=R^{S}$ and if $P \subset T \subset S$ then $R^{P}=\left(R^{T}\right)^{P}$.
Lemma 2.3. If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{F}$ and $\beta \subset \alpha$ then $R_{\beta}=R_{\alpha}^{\beta}$.
Proof. In light of the above observation it is sufficient to prove the lemma under the added restriction that $\alpha-\beta$ is a singleton $\{z\}$. Assume first that $x, y \in \beta$ and $x R_{\beta} y$. Either $x R_{\alpha} y$ or $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y$. In the first case $x R_{\alpha}^{\beta} y$ follows immediately from Definition 2.2. If $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y$ then Lemma 2.1 implies $x R_{\alpha} z$ and $z R_{\alpha} y$. Thus again from Definition 2.2, $x R_{\alpha}^{\beta} y$.

Now assume $x, y \in \beta$ and $x R_{\alpha}^{\beta} y$. Then there is a finite sequence $x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m} \in(\alpha-\beta) \cup\{x, y\}=\{z, x, y\}$ such that $x=x_{0}, x_{i-1} R_{\alpha} x_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ and $X_{m}=y$. It follows readily that either $x R_{\alpha} y$ holds or both $x R_{\alpha} z$ and $z R_{\alpha} y$ hold. In the first case, $x R_{\alpha} y, x$ cannot be separated from $y$ in $(X-\alpha) \cup\{x, y\}$ and consequently $x$ cannot be separated from $y$ in $(X-\alpha) \cup\{x, y\} \cup\{z\}=(X-\beta) \cup\{x, y\}$. Hence, if $x R_{\alpha} y$ then $x R_{\beta} y$. Now in the second case, $x R_{\alpha} z$ and $z R_{\alpha} y$, and we again cannot separate $x$ from $y$ in $(X-\beta) \cup\{x, y\}$ because if $A$ and $B$ do so separate $x$ from $y$ then $z$ is in either $A$ or $B$, say $A$, and then $A-x$ and $B$ separate $z$ from $y$ in $(X-\alpha) \cup\{z, y\}$. But then $z R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y$ a contradiction. Thus $x R_{\beta} y$ in all cases.

Definition 2.4. If $R$ is a relation on a set $A$ then a related relation $\bar{R}$ on $A$ is defined by $x \bar{R} y$ if and only if there is a finite sequence $x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m} \in A$ such that $x=x_{0}, x_{i-1} R x_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ and $x_{n}=y$. Such a sequence, $x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m}$, is called an $R$-chain from $x$ to $y$. The relations $x_{i-1} R x_{i}$ are referred to as links and $m$ as the length of the $R$-chain.

Notation 2.5. We will let "s denote the cardinality of the set $s$.

Lemma 2.6. $x \bar{R}_{\alpha} y$ for all $x, y \in \alpha$ provided ${ }^{\#} \alpha>1$.
Proof. We will use induction on the number $N$ of elements of
$\alpha$. If $N=2$ the lemma follows from the fact that if $x, y \in \alpha$ and $x \neq y$ then $(X-\alpha) \cup\{x, y\}=X$ and $X$ is connected. Thus $x R_{\alpha} y$ and $y R_{\alpha} x$ which implies $a \bar{R}_{\alpha} b$ for all $a, b \in \alpha$. Now assume the lemma holds for $N=m$. Let $\alpha=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right\}$ where $x_{i} \neq x_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Take any two distinct elements of $\alpha$, say $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$. Set $\beta=$ $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{m}\right\}$. By the induction hypothesis $x_{1} \bar{R}_{\beta} x_{2}$, i.e., there is a sequence $y_{0}, \cdots, y_{p} \in \beta$ such that $x_{1}=y_{0}, y_{i-1} R_{\beta} y_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq p$ and $y_{p}=x_{2}$. This $R_{\beta}$ chain from $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$ can be converted into an $R_{\alpha}$ chain from $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$ as follows. For each $i, 1 \leqq i \leqq p$, if $y_{i-1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}$ then we replace the link $y_{i-1} R_{\beta} y_{i}$ by $y_{i-1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}$; if $y_{i-1} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y_{i}$ then by Lemma $2.1 y_{i-1} R_{\alpha} x_{m+1}$ and $x_{m+1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}$, and we replace $y_{i-1} R_{\beta} y_{i}$ by $y_{i-1} R_{\alpha} x_{m+1}$ and $x_{m+1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}$. Thus $x_{1} \bar{R}_{\alpha} x_{2}$. The relations $x \bar{R}_{\alpha} x$ for $x \in \alpha$ follow from $x \bar{R}_{\alpha} y$ and $y \bar{R}_{\alpha} x$ where $y$ is any element of $\alpha$ different from $x$. Therefore $x \bar{R}_{\alpha} y$ for all $x, y \in \alpha$. This completes the induction step and hence the lemma is proved.
3. For later reference we state the following trivial observations as lemmas.

Lemma 3.1. If $x, y \in B \subset A$ where $A$ is a topological space, $B$ is a subspace, and $x$ is separated from $y$ in $A$ then $x$ is separated from $y$ in $B$.

Lemma 3.2. If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{F}$ and $x, y \in \beta \subset \alpha$ then $x R_{\alpha} y$ implies $x R_{\beta} y$.

In the next lemma we start to investigate the relation between connectedness in $X$ and connectedness in $X^{n}-G D_{n}$.

Lemma 3.3. Suppose $\alpha=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n+1}\right\}$ and $x_{l} \neq x_{j}$ for $l \neq j$. If $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{n+1}$ then $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, x_{i}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ cannot be separated from $\bar{y}=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, x_{n+1}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ in $X^{n}-G D_{n}$.

Proof. Consider the set $X^{\prime}=x_{1} \times x_{2} \times \cdots \times x_{i-1} \times X \times x_{i+1} \times$ $\cdots \times x_{n} \subset X^{n} . X^{\prime}$ is homeomorphic to $X$ under the projection onto the $i^{\text {th }}$ coordinate $p_{i}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{i}\left(X^{\prime} \cap\left(X^{n}-G D_{n}\right)\right) & =X-\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right\} \\
& =(X-\alpha) \cup\left\{x_{i}, x_{n+1}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

The conclusion now follows from $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{n+1}$ and Lemma 3.1.
Corollary 3.4. Suppose $\alpha=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n+1}\right\}$ and $x_{i} \neq x_{j}$ for $i \neq j$ and $1 \leqq i, j \leqq n+1$. If $\alpha \subset \beta \in \mathscr{F}$ and $x_{i} R_{\beta} x_{n+1}$ then $\bar{x}=$ $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, x_{i}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ cannot be separated from

$$
\bar{y}=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, x_{n+1}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)
$$

in $X^{n}-G D_{n}$.
Proof. By Lemma $3.2 x_{i} R_{\beta} x_{n+1}$ implies $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{n+1}$ and so the conclusion follows from Lemma 3.3.
(3.5) Pictorial interpretation of Corollary 3.4. (see Figure 1.) Given an $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ let the vertices of the network $R_{\alpha}$ be represented by dots on a sheet of paper with lines between dots corresponding to the edges of $R_{\alpha}$. That is two dots corresponding to points $x, y \in \alpha$ have a line between them if and only if $x R_{\alpha} y$. Suppose we have $n$


Figure 1
markers labled $1,2, \cdots, n$. Then an $n$-tuplet $\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right) \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ such that $y_{i} \in \alpha$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq n$, corresponds in a natural manner with an arrangement of the $n$ markers on $n$ distinct dots. Call such an arrangement of markers admissible. The above correspondence is one to one and onto from the set of all $\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right) \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ such that $y_{i} \in \alpha$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq n$, to the set of all admissible arrangements of markers. Now the content of Corollary 3.4 is that if one admissible arrangement of markers is altered by moving one marker from the dot it is on to an unoccupied dot which is connected to the original dot by a line (such a change in the positions of the markers is called allowable) then the new and old arrangements correspond to connected (i.e., nonseparated) points of $X^{n}-G D_{n}$.

Definition 3.6. The relation $S$ is defined on $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ by: for $a, b \in X^{n}-G D_{n}, a S b$ if and only if $a$ can be separated from $b$ in $X^{n}-G D_{n}$. Note that $S^{\prime}$ is transitive and symmetric and reflexive, i.e., $S^{\prime}$ is an equivalence relation.

Definition 3.7. Let $S_{n}$ be the permutation group on $n$ objects. If $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) \in X^{n}$ then set $\sigma\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)=\left(x_{\sigma-1_{(1)}}, \cdots, x_{\sigma-1_{(n)}}\right)$. Note that $\sigma\left(X^{n}-G D_{n}\right)=X^{n}-G D_{n}$ for each $\sigma \in S_{n}$.

Definition 3.8. Let $R$ be a relation on a set $S$. An $R$-chain $x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m}$ is simple if and only if $x_{i} \neq x_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. If $x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m}$ is
an $R$-chain from $x_{0}$ to $x_{m}, x_{0} \neq x_{m}$, then one may obtain from $x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}$ a simple $R$-chain from $x_{0}$ to $x_{m}$ by removing "loops".

Lemma 3.9. If $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ and $\bar{y}=\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right)$ are elements of $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ then $\bar{x} S^{\prime} \sigma \bar{y}$ for some $\sigma \in S_{n}$.

Proof. Since $S^{\prime}$ is transitive and $\left\{y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right\}=B$ can be obtained from $\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right\}=A$ by replacing elements of $A-B$ one by one with elements of $B-A$ it is sufficient to consider the case where $A-B=\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ and $B-A=\left\{y_{j}\right\}$. Then $\alpha=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}, y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right\}$ is really a set of $n+1$ distinct elements of $X$. Because each $\tau \in S_{n}$ acts as a homeomorphism on $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ we have $\tau \bar{x} S^{\prime} \sigma \bar{y}$ if and only if $\bar{x} S^{\prime} \tau^{-1} \sigma \bar{y}$. Thus we need only show that $\tau \bar{x} S^{\prime} \sigma \bar{y}$ for some $\tau, \sigma \in S_{n}$. According to Lemma 2.6 there is a $R_{\alpha}$-chain from $y_{j}$ to $x_{i}$. Let $z_{0}, \cdots, z_{N}$ be a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain from $y_{j}$ to $x_{i}$. Let $z_{N+1}, \cdots, z_{n}$ be an enumeration of $\alpha-\left\{z_{0}, \cdots, z_{N}\right\}$. Then $\alpha=\left\{z_{0}, \cdots, z_{n}\right\}, z_{k} \neq z_{l}$ if $k \neq l$, $x_{i}=z_{N}, y_{j}=z_{0}$ and $z_{k-1} R_{\alpha} z_{k}$ for $1 \leqq k \leqq N$. It follows that $\left(\hat{z}_{0}, \cdots, z_{n}\right)=$ $\tau \bar{x}$ and $\left(z_{0}, \cdots, \hat{z}_{N}, \cdots, z_{n}\right)=\sigma \bar{y}$ for some $\tau, \sigma \in S_{n}$ where the hat ( ${ }^{\wedge}$ ) signifies that the element is missing. From Lemma 3.3, (with $z_{k-1}$ and $z_{k}$ taking the parts of the $x_{n+1}$ and $x_{i}$ of Lemma 3.3 respectively) $\left(z_{0}, \cdots, \widehat{z}_{k-1}, \cdots, z_{n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(z_{0}, \cdots, \hat{z}_{k}, \cdots z_{n}\right)$ for $1 \leqq k \leqq N$. Thus $\tau \bar{x} S^{\prime} \sigma \bar{y}$ as we wished to show.

Lemma 3.10. If $a \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ then $a S \sigma a$ for some $\sigma \in S_{n}$.
Proof. Let $a \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ and assume $a S^{\prime} \sigma a$ for all $\sigma \in S_{n}$. According to Lemma 3.9 for each $b$ and $c \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ there exist $\sigma, \tau \in S_{n}$ such that $b S^{\prime} \sigma \alpha$ and $c S^{\prime} \tau \alpha$. Since $S^{\prime}$ is transitive it follows from $b S^{\prime} \sigma a, \sigma a S^{\prime} a, a S^{\prime} \tau a, \tau a S^{\prime} c$ that $b S^{\prime} c$ for all $b$ and $c \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$. But this contradicts our fundamental assumption that $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is not connected.
4. Definition 4.1. If $R$ is a relation on a set $Y$ and $x \in Y$ then we will set $s p_{R} x={ }^{\sharp}\{y \in Y \mid x R y\}$.

Lemma 4.2. If $x \in \alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ then $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x \leqq n$.
Proof. Assume the contrary, i.e., assume $x \in \alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ and $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x \geqq n+1$. (see Figure 2.) Then there are $n+1$ distinct points $x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n+1}$ of $\alpha$ such that $x R_{\alpha} x_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq n+1$. From the definition of $R_{\alpha}$ we have $x$ distinct from each $x_{i}, 1 \leqq i \leqq n+1$. Let $a=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$. We will show that $a S^{\prime} \sigma a$ for all $\sigma \in S_{n}$. Since $S^{\prime}$ is transitive it is sufficient to show $a S^{\prime} \sigma \alpha$ for all simple permutations $\sigma$. Also because each $\tau \in S_{n}$ acts as a homeomorph-
ism on $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ we have $\tau a S^{\prime} \tau \sigma \alpha^{\prime}$ if and only if. $a S^{\prime} \sigma \alpha$ and consequently we may assume $\sigma\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)=\left(x_{2}, x_{1}, x_{3}, \cdots x_{n}\right)$. Using Corollary 3.4 it follows from $x_{1} R_{\alpha} x, x R_{\alpha} x_{n+1}, x_{2} R_{\alpha} x, x R_{\alpha} x_{1}, x_{n+1} R_{\alpha} x$ and


Figure 2
$x R_{\alpha} x_{2}$ that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x, x_{2}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{n+1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ $S^{\prime} \quad\left(x_{n+1}, x, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) \quad S^{\prime} \quad\left(x_{n+1}, x_{1}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) \quad S^{\prime} \quad\left(x, x_{1}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ $S^{\prime}\left(x_{2}, x_{1}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$. This calculation is illustrated in Figure 2. Thus $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{2}, x_{1}, x_{3}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ as we desired. So we have $a S^{\prime} \sigma a$ for all $\sigma \in S_{n}$ which contradicts Lemma 3.10. Therefore the present lemma holds.

In the light of Lemmas 2.6 and 4.2 the following lemma tells us that for ${ }^{\#} \alpha$ large, $\alpha$ must contain at least one long simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain.

Lemma 4.3. If $R$ is a relation on $a$ nonempty set $Y$ such that no simple $R$-chain has length more than $N, x \bar{R} y$ for all $x, y \in Y$, and $s p_{R} x \leqq M$ for all $x \in Y$ where $M \geqq 2$ then ${ }^{\#} Y \leqq M^{N+1}$.

Proof. Pick an $x_{0} \in Y$. Set $Y_{m}=\{y \in Y \mid$ there is a simple $R$-chain of length $m$ from $x_{0}$ to $\left.y\right\}$ for $m \geqq 0$. Note that $x_{0}$ is an $R$-chain of length 0 and the only $R$-chain of length 0 starting at $x_{0}$. Thus $Y_{0}=\left\{x_{0}\right\}$. Let $Z_{m}=\{$ all simple $R$-chains of length $m$ from $x_{0}$ to some point of $\left.Y\right\}$ for $m \geqq 0$. Clearly ${ }^{\#} Y_{m} \leqq{ }^{\#} Z_{m}$ for all $m$. From the hypothesis we have $Z_{m}=\varnothing$ for $m>N$. Hence $Y_{m}=\varnothing$ for $m>N$. Also $x \bar{R} y$ for all $x, y \in Y$ implies $\bigcup_{0}^{\infty} Y_{m}=Y$. Thus $Y=\bigcup_{0}^{\infty} Y_{m}=\bigcup_{0}^{N} Y_{m}$ and consequently ${ }^{\#} Y \leqq \sum_{0}^{N \#} Y_{m} \leqq \sum_{0}^{N *} Z_{m}$. Now each simple $R$-chain of length $m+1$ starting at $x_{0}$ is obtained from a simple $R$-chain of length $m$ starting at $x_{0}$ by adjoining a link. Since $s p_{R} x \leqq M$ for all $x \in Y$ we see that each simple $R$-chain of length $m$ can give rise to no more than $M$ simple $R$-chains of length $m+1$. It follows that ${ }^{*} Z_{m+1} \leqq M^{*} Z_{m}$ for $m \geqq 0$. Since ${ }^{\#} Z_{0}={ }^{\#}\left\{x_{0}\right\}=1$, an easy induction gives ${ }^{*} Z_{m} \leqq M^{m}$. Thus

$$
¥ Y \leqq \sum_{0}^{N} Z_{m} \leqq \sum_{m=0}^{N} M^{m}=\frac{M^{N+1}-1}{M-1} \leqq M^{N+1}
$$

Lemma 4.4. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ and $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{N}$ be a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain
in $\alpha$. If $2 n+1 \leqq i \leqq N-2 n$ then $x_{i} R_{\alpha} y$ holds only for $y=x_{i-1}$ and $y=x_{i+1}$. Thus $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$.

Proof. Assume the hypotheses and suppose $y \in \alpha, y \neq x_{i-1}, y \neq$ $x_{i+1}$, and $x_{i} R_{\alpha} y$. (see Figure 3.) We will show that $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime}$


Figure 3
$\sigma\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ for all $\sigma \in S_{n}$. It is sufficient to consider only simple interchanges of two adjacent objects. So assume $\sigma\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)=$ $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{l-1}, x_{l+1}, x_{l}, x_{l+2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$. We will consider three cases. Case 1: $y \neq x_{k}, i-n \leqq k \leqq i+n$. Case 2: $y=x_{k}$ with $i-n \leqq k \leqq i-2$. Case 3: $y=x_{k}$ with $i+2 \leqq k \leqq i+n$.

Consider Case 1. The diagram of dots is illustrated in Figure 3. It is now easy to see in light of the discussion 3.5 that $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime}$ $\left(x_{i-l}, x_{i-l+1}, \cdots, x_{i-1} x_{i}, x_{i+2}, \cdots, x_{i-l+n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{i-l}, x_{i-l+1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, y, x_{i+2}, \cdots\right.$, $\left.x_{i-l+n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{i-l}, x_{i-l+1}, \cdots, x_{i-2}, x_{i+1}, y, x_{i+2}, \cdots, x_{i-l+n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{i-l}, x_{i-l+1}, \cdots\right.$, $\left.x_{i-2}, x_{i+1}, x_{i}, x_{i+2}, \cdots, x_{i-l+n}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{l-1}, x_{l+1}, x_{l}, x_{l+2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$. Thus $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime} \sigma\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ as desired.

Next consider Case 2. It is easy to see that $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) S^{\prime}$ $\left(x_{k-l+1}, \cdots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}, x_{k+1}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{i+n-l-1}\right) \quad S^{\prime}\left(x_{k-l+1}, \cdots, x_{k-1}, x_{i}, x_{k+1}\right.$, $\left.x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{i+n-l-1}\right) S^{\prime}\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{l-1}, x_{l+1}, x_{l}, x_{l+2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$. Thus $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ $S^{\prime} \sigma\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ as we wished to show.

Case 3 is perfectly analogous to Case 2 and is left to the reader. This completes the proof.
5. Lemma 5.1. If ${ }^{\#} \alpha \geqq n^{8 n+1}+1$ then there is a unique subset $C(\alpha)$ of $\alpha$ satisfying
(i) $C(\alpha)$ is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain-i.e., $C(\alpha)$ can be indexed so that $C(\alpha)=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right\},{ }^{\sharp} C(\alpha)=m$, and $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}$ is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain.


Figure 4
(ii) ${ }^{\text { }} C(\alpha) \geqq 4 n+1$
(iii) $x \in C(\alpha) \Rightarrow s p_{R_{\alpha}} x=2$
(iv) $C(\alpha)$ is a maximal set satisfying (i), (ii) and (iii). (see Figure 4.)

Proof. By Lemma 4.2, $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x \leqq n$ for all $x \in \alpha$. Thus from Lemma 4.3 there must be a simple chain $C_{1}=x_{1}, \cdots, x_{8 n+1}$ of length $8 n+1$. Consider the simple chain $C_{2}=x_{2 n+1}, x_{2 n+2}, \cdots, x_{6 n+1}$. By Lemma $4.4 s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$ for $2 n+1 \leqq i \leqq 6 n+1$. Thus the set of points in the chain $C_{2}$ satisfies (i), (ii) and (iii). Since $\alpha$ is a finite set it is easy to see that there must be a maximal set $C_{3}$ satisfying (i), (ii), and (iii).

We will now prove that $C_{3}$ is the only subset of $\alpha$ satisfying (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv). Let $C_{4} \neq C_{3}$ be another such set and let $C_{3}=$ $\left\{y_{1}, \cdots, y_{m}\right\}$ and $C_{4}=\left\{z_{1}, \cdots, z_{p}\right\}$ where $y_{i} \neq y_{j}$ for $i \neq j, z_{i} \neq z_{j}$ for $i \neq j, y_{i-1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}$ for $2 \leqq i \leqq m, z_{i-1} R_{\alpha} z_{i}$ for $2 \leqq i \leqq p, m \geqq 4 n+1$ and $p \geqq 4 n+1$. Since $s p_{R_{\alpha}} y_{1}=2$ there must be a unique element $y_{0}$ of $\alpha$ such that $y_{0} R_{\alpha} y_{1}$ and $y_{0} \neq y_{2}$. Similarly there exists a unique $y_{m+1}$ such that $y_{m} R_{\alpha} y_{m+1}$ and $y_{m-1} \neq y_{m+1}$. Analogously we have $z_{0}$ and $z_{p+1}$ with corresponding properties.

We break up the proof into three cases. Case 1: $y_{0}=y_{m}$ or $z_{0}=z_{p}$; Case 2: $y_{0} \neq y_{m}, z_{0} \neq z_{p}$ and $C_{3} \cap C_{4} \neq \varnothing$; Case 3: $C_{3} \cap C_{4}=\varnothing$. We will reach a contradiction in each case. Consider Case 1 and for definiteness assume $y_{0}=y_{m}$. Note that in this case $y_{m+1}=y_{1}$. Since $C_{4} \neq C_{3}$ and $C_{4}$ is maximal we cannot have $C_{4} \subset C_{3}$. Thus there is a $z \in \alpha-C_{3}$. By Lemma 2.6 we know that there is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain $C_{5}$ from $z$ to $y_{1}$. Let $y_{i}$ be the first element of $C_{5}$ in $C_{3}$ and $t$ the element of $C_{5}$ preceding $y_{i}$. Note that $t \notin C_{3}$. Since $y_{0}=y_{m}, C_{6}=$ $y_{i-2 n}, y_{i-2 n+1}, \cdots, y_{i-1}, y_{i}, y_{i+1}, \cdots, y_{i+2 n}$ is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain where we temporarily have set $y_{j}=y_{m+j}$ if $j \leqq 0$ and $y_{j}=y_{j-m}$ if $j>m$. But, because $y_{i-1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}, y_{i} R_{\alpha} y_{i+1}, t R_{\alpha} y_{i}$ and $t \neq y_{i-1}, y_{i+1}$ and $y_{i-1} \neq y_{i+1}$ we must have $s p_{R_{\alpha}} y_{i} \geqq 3$. This contradicts Lemma 4.4.

Next consider Case 2. $y_{0} \neq y_{m}, z_{0} \neq z_{p}$ and $C_{3} \cap C_{4} \neq \varnothing$. In this case $y_{m+1} \neq y_{1}$. Also note that $y_{0} \notin C_{3}$ for otherwise $y_{j} R_{\alpha} y_{1}$ for some $j, 2<j<m$ which would contradict $s p_{R_{\alpha}} y_{j}=2$. Similarly $y_{m+1} \notin C_{3}$, $z_{0}, z_{p+1} \notin C_{4}$. Since $C_{3} \cap C_{4} \neq \varnothing$ we have $y_{i}=z_{j}$ for some $i, j$ satisfying $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ and $1 \leqq j \leqq p$. Because $y_{i+1} R_{\alpha} y_{i}, s p_{R_{\alpha}} z_{j}=2, z_{j-1} R_{\alpha} z_{j}$, and $z_{j} R_{\alpha} z_{j+1}$ we must have either $y_{i+1}=z_{j-1}$ or $y_{i+1}=z_{j+1}$. By renumbering if necessary we may assume $y_{i+1}=z_{j+1}$.

If $i+1=m+1$ but $j+1<p+1$ we can conclude that $s p_{R_{\alpha}} y_{m+1}=s p_{R_{\alpha}} z_{j+1}=2$. This then implies $y_{1}, \cdots, y_{m}, y_{m+1}$ is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain and in fact $C_{7}=\left\{y_{1}, \cdots, y_{m}, y_{m+1}\right\}$ satisfies conditions (i), (ii) and (iii). This contradicts the maximality of $C_{3}$. Using the same argument with the roles of $C_{3}$ and $C_{4}$ reversed we can conclude that
either $i+1=m+1$ and $j+1=p+1$ or $i+1<m+1$ and $j+1<p+1$. Now if the latter condition holds we may reason as above and use the additional facts that $y_{i+2} \neq y_{i}=z_{j}$ to conclude that $y_{i+2}=z_{j+2}$. And again either $i+2=m+1$ and $j+2=p+1$ or $i+2<m+1$ and $j+2<p+1$. The latter condition leads to another step in this process and since $\alpha$ is finite the process must stop. Hence $i+k=m+1$ and $j+k=p+1$ for some $k$.

Now start the above process going the other way. That is, consider $y_{i-1}$. It is easily seen that without renumbering again we must have $y_{i-1}=z_{j-1}$. Continuing as far as we can we discover that $i-l=0$ and $j-l=0$ for some $l$. Thus $i=l=j$ and from above $m+1=$ $i+k=j+k=p+1$. Hence $y_{q}=z_{q}$ for $1 \leqq q \leqq m=p$ and so $C_{3}=C_{4}$ a contradiction.

Finally consider Case $3-C_{3} \cap C_{4}=\varnothing$. By Lemma 2.6 there is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain $C_{8}$ from $y_{1}$ to $z_{1}$. Let $y_{r}$ be the last element of $C_{8}$ in $C_{3}$ and $z_{s}$ the first element of $C_{8}$ following $y_{r}$ and in $C_{4}$. In order not to contradict condition (iii) for either $C_{3}$ or $C_{4}$ we must have $r=1$ or $m$ and $s=1$ or $p$. By renumbering if necessary we may assume $r=m$ and $s=1$. Let $C_{9}=t_{0}, t_{1}, \cdots, t_{v}$ be that portion of $C_{8}$ from $y_{r}$ to $z_{s}$. Then $C_{10}=y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots, y_{m}=y_{r}=t_{0}, t_{1}, \cdots, t_{v}=z_{s}=$ $z_{1}, z_{2}, \cdots, z_{p}$ is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain of length at least $4 n+1$. It follows from Lemma $4.4, m \geqq 4 n+1$ and $p \geqq 4 n+1$ that $s p_{R_{\alpha}} t_{l}=2$ for $0 \leqq l \leqq v$. Thus $C_{11}=\left\{y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots, y_{m}, t_{1}, \cdots, t_{v-1}, z_{1}, \cdots, z_{p}\right\}$ satisfies conditions (i), (ii), (iii) and contradicts the maximality of $C_{3}$.

Since all cases lead to contradictions we conclude that there is no $C_{4} \neq C_{3}$ satisfying conditions (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv).

The following corollary follows readily from the proof of Lemma 5.1.

Corollary 5.2. If $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ and $\alpha \geqq n^{10 n+1}+1$ then ${ }^{*} C(\alpha) \geqq 6 n+1$.
Lemma 5.3. If $\alpha, \beta \in F$ and ${ }^{\#} \alpha,{ }^{\sharp} \beta \geqq n^{8 n+1}+1$ then $C(\alpha)=\alpha$ if and only if $C(\beta)=\beta$.

Proof. It is sufficient to prove the lemma in the special case $\alpha \subset \beta$, for the general case then follows by applying the special case to $\alpha, \alpha \cup \beta$, and $\alpha \cup \beta, \beta$. Now since $\beta$ can be obtained from $\alpha$ by adjoining the elements of $\beta-\alpha$ one at a time we may further assume that $\beta-\alpha=\{z\}$.

First assume $C(\beta)=\beta$. The conclusion $C(\alpha)=\alpha$ follows readily from the definitions and the fact that $R_{\alpha}=R_{\beta}^{\alpha}$.

Now assume $C(\alpha)=\alpha$. Let $\alpha=x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{m}$ with $x_{0}=x_{m}$,
$x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{i+1}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq m-1$ and $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$ for all $i$, i.e., $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{i+1}$, $0 \leqq i \leqq m-1$ are the only $R_{\alpha}$ relations to hold. (Such a representation of $\alpha$ is arrived at by writing $\alpha=C(\alpha)=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{m}\right\}$ and nothing that $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$ all $i$ leads to $x_{m} R_{\alpha} x_{1}$.) Since $\beta$ is $R_{\beta}$ connected (see Lemma 2.6) we must have $z R_{\beta} x_{j}$ for some $j, 1 \leqq j \leqq m$. Renumbering $\alpha$ if necessary we may assume $j=2 n+1$. If $x_{i} R_{\beta} x_{i+1}$ for all $i, 0 \leqq i \leqq m-1$, then $s p_{R \beta} x_{j} \geqq 3$ and Lemma 4.4 is contradicted since $j=2 n+1$. Thus $x_{i} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{i+1}$ for some $i, 0 \leqq i \leqq m-1$. Let $i_{0}$ be any such $i$, i.e., $x_{i_{0}} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{i_{0}+1}$. Consequently, by Lemma 2.1 $x_{i_{0}} R_{\beta} z$ and $z R_{\beta} x_{i_{0}+1}$. Since $x_{i_{0}} R_{\beta} z, z R_{\beta} x_{j}$ and $R_{\alpha}=R_{\beta}^{\alpha}$ we can conclude that $i_{0} \in\{j-1, j, j+1\}$. Similarly $i_{0}+1 \in\{j-1, j, j+1\}$ and therefore $i_{0}=j-1$ or $j$. We have thus shown that $x_{i} R_{\beta} x_{i+1}$ for all $i \neq j-1$ or $j$ and yet $x_{i} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{i+1}$ for some $i$. We have two cases. Case 1. $x_{j-1} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{j}$ and $x_{j} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{j+1}$. In this case we can conclude as above that $x_{j-1} R_{\beta} z$ and $z R_{\beta} x_{j+1}$. Combining this with $z R_{\beta} x_{j}$ we have $s p_{R_{\beta}} z \geqq 3$ and thus Lemma 4.4 is contradicted. Thus we are left with Case 2: $x_{j-1} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{j}$ or $x_{j} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{j+1}$ holds but not both. For definiteness we will assume $x_{j-1} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{j}$ and $x_{j} R_{\beta} x_{j+1}$. Again we can conclude that $z R_{\beta} x_{j-1}$. We cannot have $z R_{\beta} x_{i}$ for $i \notin\{j-1, j\}$ for if we did then $z R_{\beta} x_{j-1}$ and $z R_{\beta} x_{j}$ would imply $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{j-1}$ and $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{j}$ which is impossible. (Note that $m \geqq 4 n+1 \geqq 9$ and thus $x_{j+1}=x_{2 n+2} \neq x_{2 n-1}=x_{j-2}$.) It follows from Lemma 3.2 that $x_{i} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{k}$ for all $i, k, 0<i, k \leqq m,|i-k| \neq 1, m-1$. We have thus determined $R_{\beta}$ completely and it is easy to see that $\mathrm{C}(\beta)=\beta$. In fact $\beta$ is the simple closed (circular) $R_{\beta}$-chain $x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots$, $x_{j-1}, z, x_{j} x_{j+1} \cdots x_{m}$. This completes the proof.
6. Let $\mathscr{F}^{\prime}:=\left\{\left.\alpha \in \mathscr{F}\right|^{\#} \alpha \geqq n^{10 n+1}+1\right\}$. Lemma 5.3 implies $C(\alpha)=\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ or $C(\alpha) \neq \alpha$ for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. We will call $X$ circular or noncircular according to whether the first or second possibility holds. In §'s 6 through 11 we will consider the noncircular case exclusively. Thus in §'s 6 through 11 we assume $X$ is noncircular, i.e,. $C(\alpha) \neq \alpha$ for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$.

Definition 6.1. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. If $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ is an $m$-tuple such that $m={ }^{\#} C(\alpha), C(\alpha)=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right\}$ and $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{i+1}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m-1$, then $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ is called a presentation of $C(\alpha)$ (in symbols $C(\alpha) \sim$ $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ ). Condition (i) of Lemma 5.1 implies that $C(\alpha)$ always has at least one presentation for $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. It also follows from Lemma 5.1 that if $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ is a presentation for $C(\alpha), \alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$, then $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$ and consequently $x_{i} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{j}$ when $|i-j| \neq 1$ and $\{i, j\} \neq\{1, m\}$.

Lemma 6.2. If $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ and ( $y_{1}, \cdots, y_{p}$ ) are two presentations of $C(\alpha), \alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$, then $m=p$ and either $x_{i}=y_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ or $x_{i}=y_{m-i+1}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$.

Proof. First, $m={ }^{*} C(\alpha)=p$. Next, we claim that $x_{1} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{m}$. Assume the contrary, $x_{1} R_{\alpha} x_{m}$. Since $C(\alpha) \neq \alpha$ there is a $z \in \alpha-C(\alpha)$. By Lemma 2.6 there must be an $R_{\alpha}$-chain $C_{1}$ from $z$ to $x_{1}$. Let $x_{i}$ be the first element of $C(\alpha)$ on $C_{1}$ and $t$ the preceding element of $\mathrm{C}_{1}$. Then $t \in \alpha-C(\alpha)$ and $t R_{\alpha} x_{i}$. Consequently $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i} \geqq 3$ which contradicts condition (iii) for $C(\alpha)$. Thus $x_{1} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{m}$ and similarly $y_{1} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} y_{m}$.

Now note that $\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right\}=C(\alpha)=\left\{y_{1}, \cdots, y_{m}\right\}$ and that $x_{1}$ and $x_{m}$ are distinguished from all other elements of $C(\alpha)$ by the fact that $\left\{z \in C(\alpha) \mid z R_{\alpha} x_{1}\right\}$ and $\left\{z \in C(\alpha) \mid z R_{\alpha} x_{m}\right\}$ are singletons, ( $\left\{x_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{x_{m-1}\right\}$ respectively), whereas $\left\{z \in C(\alpha) \mid z R_{\alpha} x_{i}\right\}=\left\{x_{i-1}, x_{1+1}\right\}$ a set with two elements provided $x_{i} \neq x_{1}, x_{m}$. The same thing holds for $y_{1}$ and $y_{m}$ and thus $\left\{x_{1}, x_{m}\right\}=\left\{y_{1}, y_{m}\right\}$. Stated briefly,

$$
\left\{x_{1}, x_{m}\right\}=\left\{t \in C(\alpha) \mid \#\left\{z \in C(\alpha) \mid z R_{\alpha} t\right\}=1\right\}=\left\{y_{1}, y_{2}\right\} .
$$

Case 1: $x_{1}=y_{1}$ and $x_{m}=y_{m}$. Case 2: $x_{1}=y_{m}$ and $x_{m}=y_{1}$. Consider Case 1: $x_{1}=y_{1}$ and $x_{m}=y_{m} . \quad x_{2}$ is the unique element $z$ of $C(\alpha)$ such that $x_{1} R_{\alpha} z$. But this is also true of $y_{2}$, and thus $x_{2}=y_{2} . \quad x_{3}$ is the unique element of $C(\alpha)$ different from $x_{1}=y_{1}$ such that $x_{2} R_{\alpha} x_{3}$. But this is also true of $y_{3}$, and thus $x_{3}=y_{3}$. Proceeding in this way we arrive at the desired conclusion, $x_{i}=y_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$. Case 2 can be reduced to Case 1 by renumbering the $y_{i}$ 's in the reverse order $\left(y_{i}^{\prime}=y_{m-i+1}\right)$. We then conclude that $x_{i}=y_{i}^{\prime}=y_{m-i+1}$ as we wished.

In the first paragraph of the proof of Lemma 6.2 we proved the following result.

Lemma 6.3. If $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right), \alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ then $x_{1} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{m}$.
Definition 6.4. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ and $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$. Since $s p_{R \alpha} x_{1}=2$ and $x_{2}$ is the only element $t_{1}$ of $C(\alpha)$ such that $x_{1} R_{\alpha} t_{1}$ there must be a unique $t \in \alpha-C(\alpha)$ such that $x_{1} R_{\alpha} t$. Designate this $t$ by $x_{0}$. Similarly, let $x_{m+1}$ be the unique $\mathrm{t}_{2} \in \alpha-C(\alpha)$ such that $x_{m} R_{\alpha} t_{2}$. Note that the definitions of $x_{0}$ and $x_{m+1}$ depend on $\alpha$ and the presentation $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ of $C(\alpha)$. Taking into account Lemma 6.2 we see that if the presentation of $C(\alpha)$ is changed from one of the two possibilities to the other, then $x_{0}$ and $x_{m+1}$ simply interchange places. We will use the following notations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathscr{L}(\alpha) & =\left\{x_{0}, x_{m+1}\right\} \\
\mathscr{E}(\alpha) & =\alpha-\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right\} \\
& =\alpha-(C(\alpha) \cup \mathscr{L}(\alpha)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\alpha$ is the disjoint union of $C(\alpha), \mathscr{L}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}(\alpha)$.

Lemma 6.5. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ and $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$. If $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{j}$ and $0 \leqq i, j \leqq m+1$ then $|i-j|=1$.

Proof. Since $x_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{i+1}$ for $i=0,1, \cdots, m$ and $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ the conclusion clearly holds for all $i$ and $j$ such that $\{i,, j\} \cap\{0, m+1\}=\varnothing$. Next we shall show that $x_{0} \neq x_{m+1}$. Suppose the contrary, $x_{0}=x_{m+1}$. Using already familiar techniques and Lemmas 2.6 and 4.4 it is easily shown that $\alpha-C(\alpha)=\varnothing$, i.e., $\alpha=$ $C(\alpha)$. But then $X$ would be circular contrary to our assumption. Thus $x_{0} \neq x_{m+1}$. The same line of reasoning shows that $x_{0} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{m+1}$. From $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{i}=2$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ it now follows that $x_{0} R_{\alpha} x_{i}$ and $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ implies that $i=1$. Similarly $x_{m+1} R_{\alpha} x_{i}$ and $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ implies $i=m$. Thus we have established the conclusion in all but one case, $\{i, j\}=$ $\{0, m+1\}$. But $x_{0} R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{m+1}$ (see above) and so in this case the lemma is vacuously true. The lemma is thus proved.
7. In the proof of Lemma 7.1 we go into a fairly complete analysis of the structure of $R_{\beta}$ in terms of that of $R_{\alpha}$ when $\alpha \subset \beta$, $\beta-\alpha=\{z\}$, and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. We will have several occasions to refer back to this analysis.

Lemma 7.1. If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$ and $\alpha \subset \beta$ then $\mathscr{E}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}(\beta)$.
Proof. It is sufficient to consider the case where $\beta-\alpha=\{z\}$. In the following discussions it will be important to remember that due to $R_{\alpha}=R_{\beta}^{\alpha}$ we have $x R_{\alpha} y$ if and only if either $x R_{\beta} y$ or $x R_{\beta} z$ and $z R_{\beta} y$. Let $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$.

We will consider two cases.
Case 1: $z R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{i}$ for $i=1, \cdots, m$. In this case we must have $x_{i} R_{\beta} x_{i+1}$ for $i=0,1, \cdots, m$, and $x_{i} R_{\beta}^{\prime} t$ for $i=1, \cdots, m$ and $t \notin\left\{x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}\right\}$. Thus $C(\alpha)$ is an $R_{\beta}$-chain at least $4 n+1$ long such that $s p_{R_{\beta}} t=2$ for each $t \in C(\alpha)$. Since $C(\alpha)$, can be extended to a maximal such set in $\beta$ we can conclude that $C(\alpha) \subset C(\beta)$. Let $C(\beta) \sim\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{p}\right)$. It is clear that with the proper choice of presentation for $C(\beta)$ we may write $y_{j+i}=x_{i}$ for $i=1, \cdots, m$ where $0 \leqq j \leqq p-m$. (see proof of Lemma 6.2) It follows that $x_{0}=y_{j}$ and ' $x_{m+1}=y_{j+m+1}$.

We now claim that $j=0$ or 1 and if $j=1$ then $z=y_{0}$. In order not to contradict the maximality of $C(\alpha)$ we must have $s p_{R_{\beta}} x_{0} \neq 2$. We distinguish two cases: Case 1a, $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0}=1$; Case $1 \mathrm{~b}, s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0} \geqq 3$.

Consider Case 1a, $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0}=1$. Assume $j>0$. Then $s p_{R_{\beta}} x_{0}=$ $s p_{R_{\beta}} y_{j}=2$. Since $x_{0} R_{\beta} x_{i}$ only for $i=1$ we must have $x_{0} R_{\beta} t$ for some $t \notin\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right\}$. If $t \in \alpha$ then $x_{0} R_{\alpha} t$ which is impossible and so $t=z$. We assert that $s p_{R_{\beta}} z=1$. Suppose the contrary. Then $z R_{\beta} s$ for some $s \neq x_{0}$. Since we are considering Case 1 we have
assumed $z R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{i}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$. Thus we can conclude that $s \neq x_{1}$. From $x_{0} R_{\beta} z$ and $z R_{\beta} s$ we have $x_{0} R_{\alpha} s$ which contradicts $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0}=1$. Since $z R_{\beta} y_{j}, x_{0}=y_{j}$, and $z \neq y_{j+1}=x_{1} \in \alpha$ we must have $z=y_{j-1}$. It follows that $j-1=0$ and $z=y_{0}$ as we claimed. Thus the claim is established for Case 1 a .

Case $1 \mathrm{~b}, s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0} \geqq 3$. Assume $j>0$. Now there must be distinct elements $t_{1}, t_{2} \in \alpha-\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right\}$ such that $t_{1} R_{\alpha} x_{0}$ and $t_{2} R_{\alpha} x_{0}$. Since $s p_{R_{\beta}} x_{0}=s p_{R_{\beta}} y_{j}=2$ and $x_{0} R_{\beta} x_{1}$ we must have $t_{i} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{0}$ for $i=1$ or 2 , say for $i=1$. Then $t_{1} R_{\beta} z$ and $z R_{\beta} x_{0}$. Hence $t_{2} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{0} \quad\left(s p_{R_{\beta}} x_{0}=2\right)$ and consequently $t_{2} R_{\beta} z$ and $z R_{\beta} x_{0}$. Thus $s p_{R_{\beta}} z \geqq 3, \quad\left(t_{i} \neq x_{0}\right.$ since $\left.t_{i} R_{\alpha} x_{0}\right)$. Since $z R_{\beta} y_{j},\left(x_{0}=y_{j}\right), z$ must be $y_{j-1}$. It then follows that $j-1=0$ and so the claim has been established for Case 1 b . This completes the proof of the claim.

Using the same arguments (or just renumbering the $x_{i}$ and $y_{i}$ backwards) one may show that $j+m+1=p$ or $p+1$ and if $j+m+1=p$ then $z=y_{p+1}$. In all the above eventualities we never have an element of $\mathscr{E}(\alpha)=\alpha-\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right\}$ become an element of $\left\{y_{0}, y_{1}, \cdots, y_{p}, y_{p+1}\right\}$ as we go from $\alpha$ to $\beta$. Thus $\mathscr{E}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}(\beta)=$ $\beta-\left\{y_{0}, y_{1}, \cdots, y_{y}, y_{p+1}\right\}$ as we wished to show. This proves Case 1.

Case 2. $z R_{\beta} x_{i}$ for some $i, 1 \leqq i \leqq m$.
Case 2a. $z R_{\beta}^{\prime} y$ for all $y \neq x_{i} y \in \beta$. In this case $t, s \in \alpha$ and $t R_{\alpha} s$ implies $t R_{\beta} s$. Thus $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ is a simple $R_{\beta}$-chain. From Corollary 5.2 we have $m=C(\alpha) \geqq 6 n+1$. Lemma 4.4 implies $i \notin(2 n+1,2 n+2, \cdots, m-2 n\}$. We may assume without loss of generality that $m-2 n<i \leqq m$. Then $C_{1}=\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}\right\}$ satisfies conditions (i), (ii) and (iii) of Lemma 5.1 with respect to $\beta$ and from $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0}=s p_{R_{\beta}} x_{0} \neq 2, x_{0} R_{\beta} x_{1}, s p_{R_{\beta}} x_{i}=3$ and $x_{i-1} R_{\beta} x_{i}$ it is easily seen that $C_{1}$ is maximal. Thus $C_{1}=C(\beta), C_{1} \sim\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{i-1}\right)$ with $x_{j}=y_{j}$ for $1 \leqq j<i, y_{0}=x_{0}$, and $y_{i}=x_{i}$. It follows that

$$
\mathscr{E}(\alpha)=\alpha-\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right\} \subset \beta-\left\{y_{0}, y_{1}, \cdots, y_{i-1}, y_{i}\right\}=\mathscr{E}(\beta)
$$

This completes the proof of Case 2 a .
Case 2b. $z R_{\beta} y$ for some $y \neq x_{i}$. Then $x_{i} R_{\alpha} y$ and so $y=x_{i-1}$ or $y=x_{i+1}$. If both relations $z R_{\beta} x_{i-1}$ and $z R_{\beta} x_{i+1}$ held then $x_{i-1} R_{\alpha} x_{i+1}$ would hold, which is impossible. Thus just one holds.

We distinguish Case 2 b (i) $z R_{\beta} x_{i-1}$ and Case 2 b (ii) $z R_{\beta} x_{i+1}$. Consider Case 2 b (i) $z R_{\beta} x_{i-1}$. Since $z R_{\beta}^{\prime} x$ for all $x \in \beta$ except $x=x_{i-1}$ or $x_{i}$ it follows that, provided $x, y \in \alpha$ and $\{x, y\} \neq\left\{x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right\}$, we have $x R_{\alpha} y$ if and only if $x R_{\beta} y$. If $x_{i-1} R_{\beta}^{\prime} x_{i}$ then clearly

$$
C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, z, x_{i}, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)
$$

and $\mathscr{L}(\alpha)=\mathscr{L}(\beta)$. Thus $\mathscr{E}(\alpha)=\mathscr{E}(\beta)$ and hence $\mathscr{E}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{C}(\beta)$ as desired. On the other hand if $x_{i-1} R_{\beta} x_{i}$ then $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}$ is a simple
$R_{\beta}$-chain and from Lemma 4.4 we can conclude that

$$
i \notin\{2 n+1,2 n+2, \cdots, m-2 n\} .
$$

Assume $i \geqq m-2 n+1$. Then as in Case 2 a we can conclude that $C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-2}\right)$. It follows that $\mathscr{E}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}(\beta)$ as we wished. This proves Case $2 b$ (i). The proof of Case $2 b$ (ii) is very similar and thus left to the reader. Thus we have shown that $\mathscr{E}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}(\beta)$ is all cases and the lemma is established.

With the notation as in Lemma 7.1 and $\beta-\alpha=\{z\}, C(\alpha) \sim$ $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ we list possible presentations ( $y_{1}, \cdots, y_{p}$ ) for $C(\beta)$ occuring in all the various cases.

Case 1. $C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right) \text { and } z=y_{p+1} \\
& C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right) \text { and } z=y_{0} \\
& C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right) \text { and } y_{0}=z=y_{p+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(This case is impossible by Lemma 6.5.)
Case 2. $C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{j}\right)$ some $j, m-2 n-1 \leqq j<m$

$$
C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{j}, \cdots, x_{m}\right) \text { some } j, 1 \leqq j \leqq m
$$

$$
C(\beta) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i}, z, x_{i+1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right) \text { some }
$$

$$
i, 0 \leqq i \leqq m
$$

## 8. Lemma 8.1. $X$ is infinite.

Proof. Since $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is disconnected, $X^{n}-G D_{n} \neq 0$. Because $n \geqq 2, X$ has at least two distinct elements. Now using the fact that $X$ is a $T_{1}$-space we see that if $X$ were finite it would be disconnected. But $X$ is assumed connected and hence $X$ is infinite.

Remark. This lemma and its proof obviously hold in general, not just the noncircular case.

Lemma 8.2. If $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}, x \in \mathscr{E}(\alpha)$ and $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ then


Figure 5
either there is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain $C$ not intersecting $C(\alpha), C \cap C(\alpha)=$ $\varnothing$, from $x$ to $x_{0}$ or from $x$ to $x_{m+1}$ but not both. (see Figure 5.)

Proof. By Lemma 2.6 there is an $R_{\alpha}$-chain $C_{1}$, which we may assume to be simple, from $x$ to $x_{0}$. Let $x_{i}$ be the first element of $\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right\}$ on the $R_{\alpha}$-chain $C_{1}$. In order not to contradict $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{j}=2$ for $1 \leqq j \leqq m$, we must have $i=0$ or $m+1$. Thus, that portion of $C_{1}$ from $x$ to $x_{i}$ is the desired simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain.

Now if $C_{2}$ and $C_{3}$ are simple $R_{\alpha}$ chains from $x$ to $x_{0}$ and $x_{m+1}$ respectively each not intersecting $C(\alpha)$ then we may construct from them a simple $R_{\alpha}$ chain $C_{4}=y_{1}, \cdots, y_{p}$ from $x_{m+1}$ to $x_{0}$ not intersecting $C(\alpha)$. Now if we apply Lemma 4.4 to $x_{m+1}$ and the simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain $x_{m-2 n}, x_{m-2 n+1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\left(=y_{1}\right), y_{2}, \cdots, y_{p}\left(=x_{0}\right), x_{1}, \cdots, x_{2 n}$ we see that $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{m+1}=2$. But this contradicts the maximality of $C(\alpha)$. Consequently both $C_{2}$ and $C_{3}$ cannot exist. This completes the proof.

Definition 8.3. Set $\mathscr{E}=\mathbf{U}_{\alpha \in \mathscr{F}} \mathscr{E}(\alpha)$.
Lemma 8.4. $\mathscr{E}$ is a finite set.
Proof. In light of the fact that $\mathscr{E}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}(\beta)$ for $\alpha \subset \beta, \alpha$, $\beta \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$, it is sufficient to establish the inequality ${ }^{\prime} \mathscr{E}(\alpha) \leqq 2 n^{4 n+1}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. Assume the contrary, ${ }_{\mathscr{E}}(\alpha)>2 n^{4 n+1}$ for some $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. Let $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ and consider the sets $A^{( \pm)}=\{x \in \mathscr{E}(\alpha) \mid$ there is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain not intersecting $C(\alpha)$ from $x$ to $\left.\binom{x_{0}}{x_{m+1}}\right\}$. According to Lemma 8.2 we have $A^{+} \cup A^{-}=\mathscr{E}(\alpha)$ and $A^{+} \cap A^{-}=\varnothing$. Consequently either ${ }^{\#} A^{+}>n^{4 n+1}$ or ${ }^{\#} A^{-}>n^{4 n+1}$. For definiteness we will assume ${ }^{*} A^{+}>n^{4 n+1}$. Now consider the set $A^{+} \cup\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ and the restriction $R$ of the relation $R_{\alpha}$ to $A^{+} \cup\left\{x_{0}\right\}$. It follows from the definition of $A^{+}$that $x \bar{R} y$ for all $x, y \in A$. Thus by Lemma 4.3 $A^{+} \cup\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ must contain a simple $R$-chain $C_{1}=y_{1}, \cdots, y_{p}$ of length at least $4 n+1$. By considering an $R$-chain $C_{2}$ from $x_{0}$ to $y_{1}$ we can obtain a simple $R$-chain $C_{3}$ (made up of parts of $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ ) of length at least $2 n+1$ and starting from $x_{0} . \quad C_{3}$ is actually an $R_{\alpha}$-chain disjoint from $C(\alpha)$ and by combining $C_{3}$ and $C(\alpha)$ and using Lemma 4.4 we find that $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x_{0}=2$. But this contradicts the maximality of $C(\alpha)$. This completes the proof.

Definition 8.5. Set $\mathscr{M}=X-\mathscr{E}$. Note that $C(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{M}$ all $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. Since $X$ is infinite and $\mathscr{E}$ is finite, $\mathscr{M}$ must be infinite. Pick two distinct elements $u$ and $v$ of $\mathscr{M}$ and let them be fixed in all discussions of the noncircular case. Set $\mathscr{G}=\left\{\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime} \mid u, v \in \alpha\right\}$.

For each $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ set $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)=C(\alpha) \cup \mathscr{C}(\alpha)$. By a presentation for $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)$ (notation: $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right)$ ) we will mean an $m+2$ tuple $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}, x_{m+1}\right)$ such that $C(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right), x_{0}$ and $x_{m+1}$ are as is Definition 6.4 and if $u=x_{i}$ and $v=x_{j}$ then $i<j$. It is clear from Lemma 6.2 that for each $\alpha \in \mathscr{S}$ there is exactly one presentation for $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)$.

Definition 8.6. If $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ and $x \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)$ then set $I_{\alpha}(x)=$ the unique $i$ such that $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$ and $x=x_{i}$ with $0 \leqq i \leqq m+1$.

Definition 8.7. We define a relation $<$ on $\mathscr{l l}$ as follows. If $x, y \in \mathscr{I}$ pick any $\alpha \in \mathscr{S}$ such that $x, y \in \alpha$ and set $x<y$ if and only if $I_{\alpha}(x)<I_{\alpha}(y)$. We proceed with the obvious task of showing that $<$ is well defined.

Lemma 8.8. For $x, y \in \mathcal{I} \quad x<y$ is well defined.

Proof. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{G}$ and $x, y \in \alpha$, and $x, y \in \beta$. By considering the pairs $\alpha, \alpha \cup \beta$ and $\alpha \cup \beta, \beta$ we can reduce the proof to the case where $\alpha \subset \beta$. Then using induction we can further reduce the proof to the case $\alpha \subset \beta, \beta-\alpha=\{z\}$. In the proof of Lemma 7.1 we worked out a presentation for $C(\beta)$ in terms of one for $C(\alpha)$ in each of various cases. The present lemma follows by a direct inspection of these related presentations.

Now that we have seen that the relation $x<y$ is independent of the $\alpha$ used in its definition it is easy to see that $<$ is a total (linear) ordering of $/ \mathbb{C}$. We now take up the problem of extending $<$ in a natural way to a partial ordering on $X$.

DEFINITION 8.9. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ and $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$. Set $\mathscr{E}^{( \pm)}(\alpha)=\left\{x \in \mathscr{E}(\alpha) \mid\right.$ there is a simple $R_{\alpha}$-chain not intersecting $C(\alpha)$ from $x$ to $\left.\binom{x_{m+1}}{x_{0}}\right\}$. From Lemma 8.2 we have $\mathscr{E}(\alpha)=$ $\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \cup \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \cap \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)=\varnothing$. (see Figure 5.)

From the analysis in the proof of Lemma 7.1 and the idea in the proof of Lemma 2.6 we can draw the following conclusion.

Lemma 8.10. If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{C}$ and $\alpha \subset \beta$ then $\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}^{+}(\beta)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}^{-}(\beta)$.

Definition 8.11. Set $\mathscr{E}^{+}=\mathbf{U}_{\alpha \in=} \mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\mathbf{U}_{\alpha \in \mathscr{E}}-(\alpha)$.

It follows from $\mathscr{E}(\alpha)=\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \cup \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$ for $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ that $\mathscr{E}=$ $\mathscr{E}^{+} \cup \mathscr{E}^{-}$. Also, it is not hard to show from $\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \cap \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)=\varnothing$ for $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ and Lemma 8.10 that $\mathscr{E}^{+} \cap \mathscr{E}^{-}=\varnothing$.

Definition 8.12. Extend the definition of $<$ by setting $\mathscr{E}^{-}<$ $\mathscr{M}<\mathscr{E}^{+}$, i.e., by setting $y<x, x<z$ and $y<z$ for all $y \in \mathscr{E}^{-}$, $x \in \mathscr{M}$ and $z \in \mathscr{E}^{+}$. The resulting relation is still antisymmetric and transitive (i.e., a partial ordering) and of course is a total ordering when restricted to $\mathscr{M}$.
9. In this section we relate the ordering $<$ to the topology of $X$. This leads to a complete determination of all the $R_{\alpha}$ 's, $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$, in terms of $<$, and sharp bounds on the size of the sets $\mathscr{E}^{+}$and $\mathscr{E}$.

Lemma 9.1. If $x \in \mathscr{I l}$ then $\{y \mid y<x\}$ and $\{y \mid y>x\}$ are open subsets of $X$.

Proof. Consider first the case where there exists $s, t \in \mathscr{M}$ such that $s<x<t$. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ be such that $s, x, t \in \alpha$. Set $\beta=\{s, x, t\}$. Since $R_{\beta}=R_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ it is easy to calculate $R_{\beta}$. The important relation is that $s R_{\beta}^{\prime} t$. This means that there are disjoint open subsets $U$ and $V$ of $X$ such that $U \cup V=X-\{x\}, s \in U$, and $t \in V$. We will show that $U=\{y \mid y<x\}$ and $V=\{y \mid y>x\}$. First suppose $y \in X$ and $y<x$. Let $\gamma \in \mathscr{G}$ be such that $y, s, x \in \gamma$. Since $y<x$ we must have either $y \in \mathscr{C}(\gamma)$ and $I_{r}(y)<I_{r}(x)$ or $y \in \mathscr{E}-(\gamma)$. Also because $s \in \mathscr{M}=\bigcap_{i \in \mathscr{\mathscr { C }}}(\delta)$ and $s<x$ we have $s \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\gamma)$ and $I_{r}(s)<I_{r}(x)$. We now have a clear enough picture of $R_{r}$ to partially calculate $R_{\sigma}=R_{\gamma}^{\sigma}$ where $\sigma=\{y, s, x\}$. We get $y R_{\sigma} s$. This means that $y$ cannot be separated from $s$ in $(X-\sigma) \cup\{y, s\}=X-\{x\}$. This implies $y \in U$. We have thus shown that $\{y \mid y<x\} \subset U$. Similarly $\{y \mid y>x\} \subset V$ and consequently $\{y \mid y<x\}=U$ and $\{y \mid y>x\}=V$ as we wished to show.

Now we will consider the case where $x$ is either an initial or terminal element of $\mathscr{C}$. For definiteness we will assume that $x$ is an initial element, i.e., $y \geqq x$ for all $y \in \mathscr{A}$. Since $X$ is infinite and $\mathscr{E}$ is finite we must have a $t \in \mathscr{M}$ such that $x<t$. If $\{y \mid y<x\}=$ $\varnothing$ then $\{y \mid y<x\}$ and $\{y \mid y>x\}=X-\{x\}$ are clearly open. So assume $\{y \mid y<x\} \neq \varnothing$. Next note that $\{y \mid y<x\}=\mathscr{E}-$. Let $y<x$ and consider $\psi=\{y, x, t\}$. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ be such that $\psi \subset \alpha$, and $\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$. Then since $x, t \in \mathscr{L}$ we have $x, t \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$.

Next, from $R_{\psi}=R_{\alpha}^{\psi r}$ it follows that $y R_{\psi}^{\prime} t$. Thus there exist disjoint open sets $U_{y}$ and $V_{y}$ such that $U_{y} \cup V_{y}=X-\{x\}, y \in U_{y}$ and $t \in V_{y}$. As in the first case above we have $\{z \mid z>x\} \subset V_{y}$. Set $U=$ $\bigcup_{y \in \delta-}-U_{y}$ and $V=\bigcap_{y \in \varepsilon}-V_{y}$. Then we have $\{z \mid z<x\}=\mathscr{E}-\subset U$ and
$\{z \mid z>x\} \subset V$. Thus $\{z \mid z<x\}=U$ and $\{z \mid z>x\}=V$ and because $\mathscr{E}^{-}$is finite $U$ and $V$ are open. This completes the proof.

Lemma 9.2. If $\mathscr{I C}^{\text {contains }}$ a minimum element then $\mathscr{C}^{-}=$ $\varnothing$. Similarly, if $\mathscr{C l}^{\prime}$ contains a maximum element then $\mathscr{C}^{+}=\varnothing$.

Proof. Suppose $x \in \mathcal{I}$ and $x \leqq y$ for all $y \in$. $/ l$. Then $\{y \mid y<x\}=$ $\mathscr{E}^{-}$is an open set. $\mathscr{E}^{-}$is also finite and thus closed. ( $X$ is a $T_{1}$-space.) But this implies $X$ is disconnected unless $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\varnothing$. Thus $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\varnothing$ as we wish to show. The second statement follows similarly.

Lemma 9.3. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ and $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$. Then $x \in \delta^{-}(\alpha)$ implies $x R_{x_{0}} x_{0}$, and $x \in \mathscr{C}^{+}(\alpha)$ implies $x_{m+1} R_{a} x$. (see Figure 6.)


Figure 6
Proof. Suppose $x \in \mathscr{E}-(\alpha)$ and $x R_{\alpha}^{\prime} x_{0}$. Since in general $x \in \mathscr{C}-(\alpha)$ implies $x R_{a}^{\prime} y$ for all $y \in\left(\overline{\mathscr{G}}^{\prime}(\alpha) \cup \mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)\right)-\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ there is no $R_{\alpha}$-chain from $x$ to $x_{0}$ which does not intersect $\mathcal{C}-(\alpha)-\{x\}$. Thus $x R_{c}^{\prime} x_{0}$ where $\varphi=\mathscr{E}-(\alpha) \cup\left\{x_{0}\right\}$. Therefore there are disjoint open sets $U$ and $V$ such that $U \cup V=X-\left(\mathcal{S}^{-}(\alpha)-\{x\}\right), x \in U$ and $x_{0} \in V$.

We now claim that $\mathscr{l} \subset V$ or $\mathscr{C} \subset U$. Let $t, y \in M$. Set $\beta=$ $\alpha \cup\{t, y\}$. We must have $t, y \in \mathscr{G}(\beta)$ and consequently there is an $R_{\beta}$ chain from $y$ to $x_{0}$ which does not intersect $\mathcal{S}^{-}(\beta) \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$. Set $\gamma=$ $\left(\mathcal{E}^{-}-(\alpha)-\{x\}\right) \cup\left\{t_{0}, y\right\}$ and observe that $t_{0} R_{i} y$. Thus $x_{0}$ cannot be separated from $y$ in $X-(\mathscr{c}-(\alpha)-\{x\})$ and so $t, y \in V$ or $t, y \in U$. This shows that $\mathscr{l} \cup \mathscr{E}^{+} \subset V$ or $\mathscr{l} \subset U$ as claimed.

Now from $\mathscr{M} \subset V$ it follows that $U \subset \mathscr{C}$. Thus $U$ would be a nonempty open finite set which clearly contradicts the connectedness of $X$. Similarly, $\mathscr{C} \subset U$ leads to a contradiction. Therefore $x R_{\alpha} x_{0}$ as we wished to show. The second statement of the lemma follows similarly.

Lemma 9.4. If $\alpha \in \mathscr{S}$ and $x, y \in \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$ or $x, y \in \mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$ then $x R_{\alpha} y$. (see Figure 7.)


Figure 7
Proof. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ and $x, y \in \mathscr{E}-(\alpha)$, and $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$. According to Lemma 9.2 ll cannot contain a minimum element. Thus there is a $z \in \mathscr{A}$ such that $z<x_{0}$. Set $\beta=\alpha \cup\{z\}$ and note that $z \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\beta), \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}^{-}(\beta)$, and $\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{E}^{+}(\beta)$. It follows that $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\beta) \subset \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \cup\{z\}$ and since $z<x_{0} \leqq t$ for all $t \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)$ we must have $I_{\beta}(z) \leqq I_{\beta}(t)$ for all $t \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\beta)$. Thus $z=y_{0}$ where $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\beta) \sim$ $\left(y_{0}, \cdots, y_{p+1}\right)$. Now from Lemma 9.3 we have $x R_{\beta} z$ and $y R_{\beta} z$. It follows immediately that $x R_{\alpha} y$. The case where $x, y \in \mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$ is completely analogous. This completes the proof.

Lemma 9.5. $R_{\alpha}$ for $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ is completely determined by $<$. In fact for $x, y \in \alpha, x R_{\alpha} y$ if and only if $x \neq y$ and there does not exist $a z \in \alpha$ such that either $x<z<y$ or $y<z<x$. (see Figure 8.)


Figure 8
Proof. First consider an $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}=\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$. We have a complete description of $R_{\alpha}$. Indeed, $\alpha$ is the disjoint union of $\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha), \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$. For $x, y \in \alpha$ we have $x R_{\alpha} y$ if and only if $x \neq y$ and either (1) $x, y \in \mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$, (2) $x, y \in \mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$, (3) $x, y \in \overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha)$ and $\left|I_{\alpha}(x)-I_{\alpha}(y)\right|=1$ (Lemma 6.5), (4) $x_{0} \in\{x, y\}$ and $\{x, y\} \cap \mathscr{E}-(\alpha) \neq \varnothing$ where $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$, or (5) $x_{m+1} \in\{x, y\}$ and $\{x, y\} \cap \mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha) \neq \varnothing$.

It follows from $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}=\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$ that $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \subset \mathscr{l l}$. Now recalling the definition of $<$ (Definitions 8.7 and 8.12) we see that the lemma holds for $\alpha$.

Next consider an arbitrary $\beta \in \mathscr{F}$. Pick an $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha), \mathscr{E}^{+}=\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$ and $\beta \subset \alpha$. The lemma now follows for $\beta$ from the equation $R_{\beta}=R_{\alpha}^{\beta}$.

Lemma 9.6. \# $_{\mathscr{E}} \leqq n$, \# $_{\mathscr{E}}+<n$ and $\# \mathscr{E}-<n$.
Proof. We will rely heavily on the visual method introduced in (3.5). Consider the claim $\# \mathscr{E} \leqq n$. Suppose $\# \mathscr{E} \geqq n+1$. Set
${ }^{*} \mathscr{E}-=N$ and ${ }^{\#} \mathscr{E}+=M . \quad$ Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\mathscr{E}-(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}=\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$. Let

$$
\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right) .
$$

We know that $m \geqq 6 n+1$ (Corollary 5.2). Consider the $n$ marker placed on the "dots" $x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}$ in their natural order. We wish to rearrange them into an arbitrary permutation of this original placement through allowable changes. (see 3.5.) It is obviously sufficient to show how to interchange an arbitrary pair of markers. Let the markers be called $m_{1}, m_{2}$, etc. Then at the start $m_{1}$ is on $x_{1}, m_{2}$ is on $x_{2}$, etc. We wish to interchange the positions of $m_{i}$ and $m_{j}$ where $i<j$. We distinguish three cases. Case 1. $j \leqq N$, Case 2. $n-M<i$. Case 3. $i \leqq N$ and $n-M<j$. There are no other cases since $N+M>n$. In either Case 1 or Case 2 one simply uses the dots in $\mathscr{E}^{-}$or $\mathscr{E}^{+}$to perform the desired interchange. The moves are very similar to those in Lemma 4.2 and will be left to the reader.

Now for Case 3. Since $N+M=* \mathscr{E} \geqq n+1$ there must be a $k \leqq N$ and $n-M<k$. Using Cases 1 and 2 on the pairs $m_{i}, m_{k}$ and $m_{i}, m_{j}$ and $m_{k}, m_{j}$ in that order one can interchange $m_{i}$ and $m_{j}$. Thus the markers can be rearranged into an arbitrary permutation of their original placement through allowable changes. But this contradicts Lemma 3.9. Thus $\# \mathscr{E} \leqq n$ as we wished to show. The inequalities ${ }^{\notin E}+<n$ and ${ }^{\#} \mathscr{E}^{\prime}<n$ follow from the same considerations as in Cases 1 and 2 above.

Lemma 9.7. \#C̆ $^{-} \neq 1$ and \# $^{+}+\neq 1$.
Proof. Suppose $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\{y\}$. Pick an $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\mathscr{E}^{-}=\mathscr{E}^{-}(\alpha)$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}=\mathscr{E}^{+}(\alpha)$. It then follows from Lemma 9.5 that $y R_{\alpha} x_{0}$ holds only for $x \in \mathscr{E}-\cup\left\{x_{1}\right\}$ where $\overline{\mathscr{C}}(\alpha) \sim\left(x_{0}, \cdots, x_{m+1}\right)$. Since then $s p_{R_{\alpha}}\left(x_{0}\right)=2$ we must have $x_{0} \in \mathscr{C}(\alpha)$ which contradicts the definition of $x_{0}$. Thus $\mathscr{E}-$ cannot be a singleton, i.e., $\mathscr{E}^{-} \neq 1$. $\mathscr{E}_{\mathscr{E}}^{+} \neq 1$ follows analogously.
10. In this section we will determine all the connected subsets of $X$.

Lemma 10.1. If $x, y \in \mathscr{M}$ then the sets

$$
\left\{t \left\lvert\, x\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\leqq \\
\leqq \\
< \\
<
\end{array}\right\} t\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\leqq \\
< \\
\vdots \\
<
\end{array}\right\} y\right., y, \quad \mathscr{C} \cap\left\{t \left\lvert\, t\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\leqq \\
< \\
\vdots \\
>
\end{array}\right\} x\right.\right\}\right.
$$

and $\mathscr{A l}$ are connected. Furthermore, any connected subset of $\mathscr{M}$ is of one of the above forms.

Proof. We will show that $A=\{t \mid x \leqq t<y\}$ is connected. The other cases are very similar and so will be left to the reader. Suppose $A$ is not connected, that is suppose $U$ and $V$ are open subsets of $X$ such that $U \cup V \supset A, U \cap V \cap A=\varnothing, U \cap A \neq \varnothing$ and $V \cap A \neq \varnothing$. Let $a \in U \cap A$ and $b \in V \cap A$. We may assume without loss of generality that $a<b$. So we have $x \leqq a<b<y$. Set

$$
U^{\prime}=(U \cap\{t \mid t<b\}) \cup\{t \mid t<a\}
$$

and $V^{\prime}=(V \cap\{t \mid t>a\}) \cup\{t \mid t>b\}$. Then it is easy to see that $U^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime}$ are disjoint nonempty open sets whose union is all of $X$. But this contradicts the connectivity of $X$. Thus $A$ is connected.

Next we will show that if $A$ is a connected subset of $\mathscr{M}$ then $A$ is of one of the above forms. First we need to observe that Lemma 9.1 and the connectedness of $\mathscr{M}$ (proved in the above paragraph) imply that if $S$ is a subset of $\mathscr{M}$ with an upper bound a in $\mathscr{M}$ then $S$ has a least upper bound $b$ (notation: $b=\operatorname{lub} S$ ). For if $S$ had no least upper bound then $S$ could not have a maximum element and so $U=\bigcup_{s \in s}\{t \in \mathscr{M} \mid t<s\}$ and

$$
V=\bigcup_{c \text { an upper bound for } s \text { in } \mathscr{M}}\{t \in \mathscr{M} \mid c<t\}
$$

would be two disjoint nonempty open sets such that $U \cup V=\mathscr{M}$. But this contradicts the connectedness of $\mathscr{M}$. Similarly each subset of $\mathscr{M}$ with a lower bound has a greatest lower bound (glb).

Now $A$ may or may not have a lower or upper bound in $\mathscr{M}$ and should $\operatorname{glb} A$ or $\operatorname{lub} A$ exist, these points may or may not be elements of $A$. These various possibilities lead directly to the various forms given above. We will consider one typical case. Suppose $A$ has an upper bound but no lower bound and that $x=\operatorname{lub} A \in A$. We claim that $A=\mathscr{M} \cap\{t \mid t \leqq x\}$. Clearly $A \subset \mathscr{M} \cap\{t \mid t \leqq x\}$. Next we will show that $\mathscr{M} \cap\{t \mid t<x\}=\{t \in \mathscr{M} \mid t<x\} \subset A$. Suppose $z \in \mathscr{M}$ and $z<x$. Suppose further that $z \notin A$. Because $A$ has no lower bound $U=\{t \in A \mid t<z\} \neq \varnothing$. Because $x=\operatorname{lub} A$ and

$$
z<x, V=\{t \in A \mid t>z\} \neq \varnothing
$$

Clearly $U$ and $V$ are disjoint open (in the relative topology of $A$ ) subsets of $A$ such that $U \cup V=A$. Thus $A$ is not connected contradicting our hypothesis. Therefore

$$
\mathscr{M} \cap\{t \mid t<x\} \subset A \subset \mathscr{A} \cap\{t \mid t \leqq x\}
$$

Only the fate of $x$ is left to be decided. But $x \in A$ by our hypothesis.

Thus $A=\mathscr{M} \cap\{t \mid t \leqq x\}$ as we wish to prove.
Corollary 10.2. If $x, y \in X$ then $\{t \mid x<t<y\}, \quad\{t \mid x<t\}$, $\{t \mid t<x\}$ are connected. $\{t \mid x \leqq t\}$ and $\{t \mid t \geqq x\}$ are also connected provided $x \in \mathscr{M}$.

Proof. We will consider the set $\{t \mid t<x\}$ and leave the others to the reader. It is sufficient to consider the nontrivial case where $\mathscr{E}-\cap\{t \mid t<x\} \neq \varnothing$. Then $x \notin \mathscr{E}$ - and $x$ is not a minimum for $\mathscr{I}$ (see Lemma 9.2). Thus $\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{I} \neq \varnothing$. Now assume $\{t \mid t<x\}$ is not connected and let $U$ and $V$ be disjoint nonempty open subsets of $\{t \mid t<x\}$ such that $U \cup V=\{t \mid t<x\}$. Then neither $U$ nor $V$ can be completely contained in $\{t \mid t<x\}-(\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{L})=\mathscr{E}$ - because $\mathscr{E}-$ is a finite set and $X$ is connected. Thus $U \cap(\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{C}) \neq \varnothing$ and $V \cap(\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{M}) \neq \varnothing$ and consequently $\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{M}$ is not connected. But $\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{M}$ is connected when $x \in \mathscr{I}$ by Lemma 10.1 and if $x \in \mathscr{E}^{+}$then $\{t \mid t<x\} \cap \mathscr{M}=\mathscr{M}$ and again is connected by Lemma 10.1. Thus $\{t \mid t<x\}$ must be connected.

Lemma 10.3. $A$ is a connected subset of $X$ if and only if $A$ is of the form $A=I-E$ where $I$ is one of the sets listed in either Lemma 10.1 or Corollary 10.2 or is $X$ or is a singleton and $E \subset \mathscr{E}$.

Proof. First suppose $A$ is a connected subset of $X$. If $A \cap \mathscr{E}=$ $\varnothing$ the desired conclusion follows from Lemma 10.1. So assume $A \cap \mathscr{E} \neq \varnothing$. Consider the set $B=A \cap \mathscr{A}$. Consider the case where $B=\varnothing$. Then $A \subset \mathscr{E}$ and is thus a finite connected space. Since $X$ is a $T_{1}$-space, $A$ is also a $T_{1}$-space in its relative topology. Thus $A$ has the discrete topology and because $A$ is connected it must be a singleton. So the lemma holds in this case. Now assume $B \neq \varnothing$. If $B=\mathscr{M}$ then the conclusion is obvious. So assume $x \in \mathscr{M}-B$. Then either $\{t \mid t<x\} \cap A$ or $\{t \mid t>x\} \cap A$ is empty for otherwise $A$ would be disconnected. For definiteness assume $\{t \mid t>x\} \cap A=\varnothing$. Since we assumed at the outset that $A \cap \mathscr{E} \neq \varnothing$ we must now have $A \cap \mathscr{E}^{-} \neq \varnothing$. Set $b=\operatorname{lub} B$. Clearly $B \supset\{t \mid t<b\} \cap \mathscr{M}$ for otherwise we could disconnect $A$. Therefore $A=I-E$ where $I$ is either $\{t \mid t<b\}$ or $\{t \mid t \leqq b\}$ and $E=\mathscr{E}^{-}-A$. This proves the "only if" part of the lemma.

Now assume $A=I-E$ where $I$ is one of the sets listed in either Lemma 10.1 or Corollary 10.2 or is $X$ or is a singleton and $E \subset \mathscr{E}$. If $I$ is a set listed in Lemma 10.1 then $A=I$ and thus connected by Lemma 10.1. If $I$ is a singleton $I-\mathscr{E}$ is a singleton or the empty set and is thus connected. Consider a typical case where $I$ is a set listed in Corollary 10.2. Say $I=\{t \mid t \leqq x\}$ for some
$x \in \mathscr{M}$. Suppose $U$ and $V$ are open sets such that $U \cap V \cap A=\varnothing$, $U \cap A \neq \varnothing, V \cap A \neq \varnothing$, and $U \cup V \supset A$. We may assume without loss of generality that $x \notin U$. Replacing $U$ by $U \cap\{t \mid t<x\}$ if necessary we may assume $U \subset\{t \mid t<x\}$. Set

$$
B=A \cap \mathscr{M}=\mathscr{L} \cap\{t \mid t \leqq x\}
$$

We have $x \in V \cap B$ so $V \cap B \neq \varnothing$. We also must have $U \cap B \neq \varnothing$ for otherwise $U \subset \mathscr{E}^{-}$and $U$ would be a finite open subset of $X$ which is impossible. But this shows that $B$ is disconnected contradicting Lemma 10.1. Thus $A$ is connected. The other cases can be handled similarly. This completes the proof.

Since the connected subsets of $X$ are determined by a finite number of yes or no choices and at most two choices of points from $X$ we have the following corollary.

Corollary 10.4. The cardinality of the set of all connected subsets of $X$ equals the cardinality of $X$.
11. In this section we determine the number of components of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ for all $m \geqq 2$.

Definition 11.1. Let $x$ be a point of a topological space $Y$. The quasicomponent of $x$ is the set $[x]=\{y \in Y \mid y$ cannot be separated from $x$.

Lemma 11.2. Suppose \#尺्C $^{-}=N$ and ${ }^{\#} \mathscr{C}^{+}=M$. Then $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ has exactly $m!/(N!M!)$ components provided $m \geqq 2$ and $N+M \leqq m$. If $N+M>m$ then $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ is connected.

Proof. We will first investigate how the symmetric group $S_{m}$ acts on the set $Q$ of quasicomponents of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$. It turns out that $Q$ is in one-to-one correspondence with the left cosets of a certain subgroup $G$ of $S_{m}$. We then determine $G$ completely and calculate ${ }^{*} Q$ by ${ }^{*} Q={ }^{*} S_{n} /{ }^{*} G$. Finally, because the number of quasicomponents turns out to be finite, the quasicomponents of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ are in fact the components of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$.

If $y \in X^{m}$ set $y_{i}=$ the $i^{\text {th }}$ component of $y$, for $1 \leqq i \leqq m$. Then $y=\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{m}\right)$. For each $\sigma \in S_{m}\left(S_{m}\right.$ considered as the permutation group of the set $\{1, \cdots, m\}$ ) and $y \in X^{m}$, define $\sigma y$ by setting $(\sigma y)_{i}=$ $y_{\sigma-1_{(i)}}$. It follows that $\tau(\sigma y)=(\tau \sigma) y$ for all $\tau, \sigma \in S_{m}$ and $y \in X^{m}$. Clearly each $\sigma \in S_{m}$ considered as a function from $X^{m}$ into itself
takes $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ into $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ and is a homeomorphism of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ with itself. Hence each $\sigma$ takes quasicomponents of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ into quasicomponents of $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ and thus induces a function $\pi(\sigma): Q \rightarrow Q$. We have for each $y \in X^{m}-G D_{m}$ and $\sigma \in S_{m}$ the equation $\pi(\sigma)([y])=[\sigma y]$.

Now let $y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots, y_{m}$ be $m$ points of $\mathscr{l}$ such that $y_{1}<y_{2}<\cdots<$ $y_{m}$. Set $y=\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{m}\right) \in X^{m}-G D_{m}$. Consider the subgroup $G$ of $S_{m}$ consisting of all $\sigma \in S_{m}$ such that $\pi(\sigma)[y]=[y]$. It is easily seen that $\pi(\sigma)[y]=\pi(\tau)[y]$ for $\sigma, \tau \in S_{m}$ if and only if $\sigma$ and $\tau$ are in the same left coset of $G$. Furthermore, according to Lemma 3.9 for each $q \in Q$ there is some $\sigma \in S_{m}$ such that $q=\pi(\sigma)[y]$. (Lemma 3.9 is stated for the case where $m=n$ but its proof does not use the assumption that $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is disconnected and hold for any $m \geqq 2$ in place of $n$.) Thus there is a one-to-one correspondence between $Q$ and the set of left cosets of $G$. Therefore ${ }^{*} Q={ }^{\#} S_{m}{ }^{*} G$.

We will now find $G$ explicitly. We claim that $G=G^{\prime} \equiv$ $\left\{\sigma \in S_{n} \mid \sigma(i)=i\right.$ for $N<i \leqq m-M$, and $\sigma(i) \leqq N$ for $i \leqq N$, and $\sigma(i)>n-M$ for $i>n-M\}$. The argument used in Lemma 9.6, Cases 1 and 2, show that $G^{\prime} \subset G$. We will now prove the reverse inclusion. To this end, suppose $\sigma \in S_{m}-G^{\prime}$. We will show that $\pi(\sigma)[y] \neq[y]$, i.e., $\sigma y S y$ ( $\sigma y$ is separated from $y$ in $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ ). Consider the sets $U=\left\{w \in X^{m}-G D_{m} \mid w_{i}<w_{j}\right.$ for $i \leqq N$ and $j>m-M$, and $w_{i}\left\{\begin{array}{l}< \\ >\end{array} w_{j}\right.$ for $N<j \leqq m-M$ and $\left.i\{<\} j\right\}$ and $V=\left\{w \in X^{m}-G D_{m} \mid\right.$ either $w_{i}>w_{j}$ for some $i \leqq N$ and $j>m-M$ or $w_{i}>w_{j}$ for some $i$ and $j$ with $N<j \leqq m-M$ and $i<j$ or $w_{i}<w_{j}$ for some $i$ and $j$ with $N<j \leqq m-M$ and $i>j\}$. Using the fact that $X$ is connected and that $\mathscr{C}^{C}$ has no initial (terminal) point if $\mathscr{E}^{-} \neq \varnothing\left(\mathscr{E}^{+} \neq \varnothing\right)$ it is not hard to see that $U$ and $V$ are open. They are obviously disjoint and clearly $y \in U$ and $\sigma y \in V$. It is only necessary now to establish that $U \cup V=X^{m}-G D_{m}$ to show that $\sigma y S y$. So let $\omega \in X^{m}-G D_{m}$ and suppose $\omega \notin U \cup V$. Then from $\omega \notin U$ we can conclude that $\omega_{i}<\omega_{j}$ fails for an appropriate pair $i, j$. Consider a typical case: $i \leqq N$ and $N<j \leqq m-M$. Since $\omega \notin V$ we have that $\omega_{j}<\omega_{i}$ fails. Because $\mathscr{L}_{6}$ is totally ordered and $\mathscr{E}^{-}<\mathscr{E}^{+}$we must have $\omega_{i}, \omega_{j} \in \mathscr{E}^{-}$or $\omega_{i}, \omega_{j} \in \mathscr{E}^{+}$. We take the second case leaving the first to the reader. Now since $\omega \notin V, \omega_{k}<\omega_{j}$ cannot hold for any $k>m-M$. Thus $\omega_{k} \in \mathscr{E}^{+}$for all $k=m-M+1, m-M+2 \cdots, m$. Combining this with $\omega_{i}, \omega_{j} \in \mathscr{E}^{+}$we see that we have $M+2$ distinct $\left(\omega \in X^{m}-G D_{m}\right)$ elements in a set $\mathscr{E}^{+}$of $M$ elements. This is absurd. Thus $\omega \notin U \cup V$ is untenable and so $U \cup V=X^{m}-G D_{m}$ as we wished to show. Hence $U$ and $V$ separate $y$ and $\sigma y$ and consequently $\sigma y S y$. Therefore $\sigma \notin G^{\prime}$ implies $\sigma \notin G$ and this combined with $G^{\prime} \subset G$ shows that $G=G^{\prime}$ as claimed.

Now we can calculate ${ }^{*} Q={ }^{*} S_{m} /{ }^{*} G$. ${ }^{*} S_{m}=m$ ! and clearly ${ }^{*} G=N!M!$. Thus ${ }^{*} Q=m!/(N!M!)$ and because there are only a finite number of quasicomponents, the quasicomponents coincide with the components and thus the first statement of the lemma is proved. The proof of the second statement is completely analogous to the proof of Lemma 9.6.

Remark. It is not hard to show that the set $U=[y]$.
12. The circular case. We will now consider the circular case. That is, in this section we assume that $\mathscr{C}(\alpha)=\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime}$. Since $\alpha$ is $R_{\alpha}$ connected (i.e., $x \bar{R}_{\alpha} y$ for all $x, y \in \alpha$ ) and $s p_{R_{\alpha}} x=2$ for every $x \in \alpha$ it is clear that the network representing $R_{\alpha}$ (i.e., the network consisting of the points of $\alpha$ as vertices and having a line segment between two points $x, y \in \alpha$ if and only if $x R_{\alpha} y$ ) is one simple circular chain. (see Figure 9.) Choose a triplet $(u, v, w)$ of


Figure 9
distinct points of $X$ and let it be fixed from now on. (Recall that $X$ is infinite-see Lemma 8.1 and the remark that follows it.) Set $\mathscr{G}=\left\{\alpha \in \mathscr{F}^{\prime} \mid u, v, w \in \alpha\right\}$. It is clear that for each $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ there is a unique presentation $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ of $\mathscr{C}(\alpha)=\alpha$ such that $x_{1}=u$ and if $v=x_{i}$ and $w=x_{j}$ then $i<j$. We change our notation slightly and now write $\alpha \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ only for the distinguished presentation $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$ mentioned above. Next, let $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ and $x \in \alpha$, and $\alpha \sim\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)$. Set $I_{\alpha}(x)=$ the unique $i$ such that $x=x_{i}$.

Definition 12.1. Let $x, y \in X$ and pick an $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $x, y \in \alpha$. Set $x<y$ if and only if $I_{\alpha}(x)<I_{\alpha}(y)$. We need to show that $x<y$ is well defined, i.e., does not depend on choice of $\alpha$.

Lemma 12.2. If $x, y \in X, \alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{G}$ and $x, y \in \alpha \cap \beta$ then $I_{\alpha}(x)<$ $I_{\alpha}(y)$ if and only if $I_{\beta}(x)<I_{\beta}(y)$.

Proof. As in Lemma 8.8 it is sufficient to consider the case where $\beta-\alpha=\{z\}$ and $\alpha \subset \beta$. From $R_{\alpha}=R_{\beta}^{\alpha}$ it follows that the $R_{\beta}$
network is obtained from the $R_{\alpha}$ network by removing the link between $x_{i}$ and $x_{i+1}$ and adding the vertex $z$ along with a link from $x_{i}$ to $z$ and one from $z$ to $x_{i+1}$. It is now clear that $I_{\alpha}(x)<I_{\alpha}(y)$ if and only if $I_{\beta}(x)<I_{\beta}(y)$. This completes the proof.

It is clear that $<$ is a total order on $X$.
Lemma 12.3. If $a, b \in X$ and $a<b$ then $A=\{x \mid a<x<b\}$ and $B=\{x \mid x<a$ or $b<x\}$ are open subsets of $X$.

Proof. If either $A=\varnothing$ or $B=\varnothing$ then the other set equals $X-\{a, b\}$ and consequently both $A$ and $B$ would be open. So we may assume there is a $c \in A$ and $d \in B$. Let $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ be such that $a, b, c, d \in \alpha$. It is clear from the definition of $<$ that $a$ and $b$ separate $c$ and $d$ in the $R_{\alpha}$ network. That is in going around $\alpha$ we would come to $a$ then $c$ then $b$ then $d$ then $a$. It follows that $c R_{\gamma}^{\prime} d$ where $\gamma=\{a, b, c, d\}$. Consequently, there exists disjoint open sets $U$ and $V$ such that $c \in U, d \in V$ and $U \cup V=X-\{a, b\}$. We claim that $U=A$ and $V=B$. Let $x \in A$. Choose a $\beta \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\delta=$ $\{a, b, c, x\} \subset \beta$. From $c, x \in A$ it follows that $I_{\beta}(a)<I_{\beta}(c), I_{\beta}(x)<$ $I_{\beta}(b)$. Consequently $c R_{\dot{b}} x$ and so $c$ cannot be separated from $x$ in $X-\{a, b\}$. Thus $x \in U$. This shows that $A \subset U$. Similarly $B \subset V$ and it follows that $U=A$ and $V=B$ as claimed. Hence $A$ and $B$ are open and the proof is complete.

Lemma 12.4. Let $a, b \in X$ and $a<b$. The following sets are nonempty and connected:

Proof. Consider the sets $A=\{x \mid a<x<b\}$ and $B=\{x \mid x<a$ or $b<x\}$. We will show that $A \neq \varnothing$. Suppose $A=\varnothing$. Then $B \neq \varnothing$ for otherwise $X=\{a, b\}$ contradicting the fact that $X$ is infinite. Let $c \in B$ and assume $c>b$. The case where $c<a$ can be handled similarly. Consider $U=\{x \mid a<x<c)$ and $V=\{x \mid x<b$ or $x>c\}$. The sets $U$ and $V$ are open by Lemma 12.3 and we have $U \cup V=$ $X-\{c\}$. Also $U \cap V \subset A=\varnothing, a \in V$ and $b \in U$. By considering an $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\gamma=\{a, b, c\} \subset \alpha$ we see that $a R_{r} b$ and consequently a cannot be separated from $b$ in $X-\{c\}$. This is a contradiction. Thus $A \neq \varnothing$. Similarly we must have $B \neq \varnothing$. The other sets
mentioned in the lemma are nonempty because they contain either $A$ or $B$.

We will now show $A$ is connected. Suppose $W$ and $Z$ are two open subsets of $X$ such that $W \cap Z \cap A=\varnothing, W \cap A \neq \varnothing, Z \cap A \neq \varnothing$, $W \cup Z \supset A$. Let $d \in W \cap A$ and $e \in Z \cap A$ and we may assume without loss of generality that $a<d<e<b$. Let $f \in B$. We assume $f<a$. The case $f>b$ can be handled similarly. Now set $W_{1}=$ $(\{W \cap\{x \mid a<x<e\}) \cup\{x \mid f<x<d\}$ and

$$
Z_{1}=(Z \cap\{x \mid d<x<b\}) \cup\{x \mid e<x \text { or } x<f\} .
$$

Then $W_{1}$ and $Z_{1}$ are open in $X$,

$$
W_{1} \cap Z_{1} \subset W \cap Z \cap\{x \mid d<x<e\} \subset W \cap Z \cap A=\varnothing \text {, }
$$

$d \in W_{1}, e \in Z_{1}$, and $W_{1} \cup Z_{1}=X-\{f\}$. Now by considering a $\beta \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\delta=\{f, d, e\} \subset \beta$ we see that $d R_{\dot{\delta}} e$ and so $d$ cannot be separated from $e$ in $X-\{f\}$. We have reached a contradiction. Thus $A$ is connected. A similar argument shows that each of the other sets mentioned in the lemma are connected. This completes the proof.

The proofs of Lemma 10.1 and Corollary 10.4 are easily adapted to prove the following lemma and corollary.

Lemma 12.5. If $C$ is a connected subset of $X$ then either $C$ is a singleton or $C=\varnothing, X$ or $C$ is of the form of one of the sets listed in Lemma 12.4.

Corollary 12.6. The cardinality of the set of all connected subsets of $X$ is equal to the cardinality of $X$.

Lemma 12.7. $R_{\alpha}$ for $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ is completely determined by $<$. In fact, for $x, y \in \alpha, x \leqq y$ the relation $x R_{\alpha} y$ holds if and only if $x \neq y$ and there does not exists $z$ and $t$ elements of $\alpha$ such that $x<z<y$, and either $t<x$ or $y<t$.

Proof. The conclusion is obvious for $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$. The conclusion follows for an arbitrary $\beta \in \mathscr{F}$ by picking an $\alpha \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $\beta \subset \alpha$ and then calculating $R_{\beta}$ by $R_{\beta}=R_{\alpha}^{\beta}$.

Lemma 12.8. $X^{m}-G D_{m}$ has exactly $(m-1)$ ! components for all $m \geqq 2$.

Proof. We may proceed exactly as in the proof of Lemma 11.2 except for the determination of $G$. So we now address ourselves to the determination of $G$ for the circular case.

First we set up a little machinery. For each $\sigma \in S_{m}$ set

$$
A(\sigma)=\left\{\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right) \in X^{m}-G D_{m} \mid x_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}<x_{\sigma^{-1}(2)}<\cdots<x_{\sigma^{-1}(m)}\right\} .
$$

Let $\tau$ be the element of $S_{m}$ given by $\tau(i)=i+1$ for $i=1, \cdots, m-1$ and $\tau(m)=1$. Let $H$ be the subgroup of $S_{m}$ generated by $\tau$, i.e., $H=\left\{\tau, \tau^{2}, \cdots, \tau^{m}=\right.$ identity $\}$. Now set $U=\bigcup_{\sigma \in H} A(\sigma)$ and $V=$ $\bigcup_{\sigma \notin H} A(\sigma)$.

Now we claim that $G=H$. The inclusion $H \subset G$ follows easily from 3.5. To see the reverse inclusion we will separate $y$ (see proof of Lemma 11.2) from $\sigma y$ for each $\sigma \notin H$. We claim that the sets $U$ and $V$ do separate $y$ from all $\sigma y$ with $\sigma \notin H$. Clearly $y \in U$ and $\sigma y \in V$ for all $\sigma \notin H$. It is also easy to see that $U \cap V=\varnothing$ and $U \cup V=$ $X^{m}-G D_{m}$. Finally using Lemmas 12.3 and 12.4 one can readily establish that each point of $U$ or $V$ is an interior point of $U$ or $V$ respectively and thus $U$ and $V$ are open. Therefore $U$ and $V$ produce the desired separation as claimed. Consequently $G \subset H$ and so $G=H$ as claimed. It only remains for us to note that ${ }^{\#} G=m$ and so ${ }^{*} Q=$ ${ }^{*} S_{m} /{ }^{*} G=m!/ m=(m-1)!$.
13. In this section and all the following sections we do not assume a priori that $X$ is circular or noncircular.

This section is devoted to presenting simple characterizations of the circular case, the noncircular case, $\mathscr{l l}, \mathscr{E}, \mathscr{E}^{+}, \mathscr{E}^{-}$, and $\{x \in X \mid x$ is either a terminal or initial point of $\mathscr{A}$ under $<\}$. (The sets $\mathscr{A}, \mathscr{E}, \mathscr{E}^{+}$, and $\mathscr{E}^{-}$are of course defined only in the noncircular case.) We also delineate here the nature and number of cut points of $X$.

Lemma 13.1. $\quad X$ is circular or noncircular depending respectively on whether $X$ has none or at least one cut point.

Proof. This lemma follows readily from Lemmas 9.1 and 12.4 and the fact $\mathscr{I}$ is infinite. This latter fact comes from the observation that $X$ is infinite, $\mathscr{E}$ is finite and $\mathscr{M}=X-\mathscr{E}$.

Notation 13.2. Let $\mathscr{N}$ stand for the set of noncut points of $X$ and $T=\{x \mid x$ is either a terminal or initial point of $\mathscr{M}$ under $<\}$.

Lemma 13.3. $\mathscr{N}=\mathscr{E} \cup T$ provided $X$ is noncircular.
Proof. This follows from Lemmas 9.1, 9.2 and 10.3.

We now wish to characterize the sets $\mathscr{E}^{+}, \mathscr{E}^{-}$and $T$.

Lemma 13.4. Suppose that $x$ is a cut point of $X$. Let $U$ and $V$ be nonempty disjoint open sets such that $U \cup V=X-\{x\}$. Set

$$
\bar{U}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
U \cap \mathscr{N} & \text { if } U \cap \mathscr{N} \text { is not a singleton } \\
\varnothing & \text { if } U \cap \mathscr{N} \text { is a singleton }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Define $\bar{V}$ similarly. Then
(a) $\left\{\mathscr{E}^{-}, \mathscr{E}^{+}\right\}=\{\bar{U}, \bar{V}\}$ and
(b) $T=\{P \mid\{P\}=U \cap \mathscr{N}$ or $\{P\}=V \cap \mathscr{N}\}$.

Proof. It follows from Lemma 10.3 that

$$
\{U, V\}=\{\{t \mid t<x\},\{t \mid t>x\}\}
$$

Now the conclusion follows easily from Definition 8.12 and Lemmas 13.3, 9.2 and 9.7.

With the above characterizations of $\mathscr{E}^{-}, \mathscr{E}^{+}$and $T$ in mind, the formulas $\mathscr{I}=X-\mathscr{E}, \mathscr{E}=\mathscr{N}-T$, and $\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}-\cup \mathscr{E}+$ provide the desired characterizations of $\mathscr{M}$ and $\mathscr{E}$.

In the following theorem we state some facts about the cut points of $X$ which follow readily from the theory we have developed but do not involve that theory in their statement.

Theorem 13.5. Either $X$ has no cut points or all points of $X$ except for at most $n$ points are cut points. If $x$ is a cut point then $X-\{x\}$ has exactly two components. If $X$ has no cut points and $S$ is a subset of $X$ with exactly $m$ elements, $m \geqq 1$ then $X-S$ has exactly $m$ components. The set of cut points of $X$ is a connected Hausdorff space.

Proof. The first statement follows easily from Lemmas 13.1, 13.3, 9.2, and 9.6. The second follows from Lemmas 13.3, 9.1, and 10.3. The third conclusion follows from Lemmas 13.1, 12.3, and 12.4. The last statement follows from Lemmas 13.3 and 10.3 (for the connectedness) and Lemma 9.1 (for being Hausdorff).
14. This section is concerned with the concept of local connectivity at a point. Recall that a topological space $Y$ is locally connected at a point $p$ if for each open set $U$ containing $p$ there is a connected open set $V$ such that $p \in V \subset U$. A space is locally connected if it is locally connected at each of its points.

If $<$ is a partial ordering of a set $Y$ then we distinguish two topologies on $Y$ induced by $<$. The first is the linear topology, denoted by $<^{l}$, and has as a sub-base the sets $\{y \in Y \mid y<b\}$ and
$\{y \in Y \mid y>b\}$ where $b$ is an arbitrary element of $Y$. The second is the circular topology, denoted by $<^{c}$, and has as a base the sets $\{y \in Y \mid a<y<b\}$ and $\{y \in Y \mid y<a$ or $b<y\}$ where $a$ and $b$ are arbitrary elements of $Y$.

Let $\tau$ be a topology for $Y$ and $p \in Y$. We will mean by $\tau$ at $p$ the neighborhood system of $\tau$ at $p$, i.e., the set $\{A \mid p \in \operatorname{int} A\}$. Let $\tau$ be the given (original) topology of $X$.

Lemma 14.1. If $X$ is circular then $X$ is locally connected at $p$ if and only if $\tau$ at $p=<^{c}$ at $p$. If $X$ is noncircular then $X$ is locally connected at $p \in \mathscr{M}$ if and only if $\tau$ at $p=<^{l}$ at $p$.

Proof. The key observation is that most intervals with a closed condition at one or both ends, i.e., sets like $\{t \mid a \leqq t<b\}$ are not open. We will consider an example to display the technique. Suppose $X$ is noncircular and $a, b \in \mathscr{M}, \mathrm{a}<b, a$ is not an initial point of $\mathscr{M}$, and $A=\{t \mid a \leqq t<b\}$. We will show that $A$ is not open. Assume the contrary, $A$ is open. Then $U=\{t \mid t<a\}$ and $V=A \cup\{t \mid a<t\}$ are disjoint nonempty open sets such that $U \cup V=X$. This is impossible since $X$ is connected and so $A$ is not open. The theorem now follows easily in the circular case from Lemmas 12.3 and 12.5. In the noncircular case we make the observation that the sets $\{x \mid x<a\},\{x \mid x>a\}$, and $\{x \mid a<x<b\}$ where $a$ and $b$ are arbitrary elements of $X$ form a base for $<^{l}$ and then the theorem follows readily from Lemmas 9.1, 9.2, and 10.3.

Lemma 14.2. Suppose $X$ is noncircular and $x, y \in \mathscr{E}^{-}\left(\mathbb{E}^{+}\right)$. If there are disjoint open sets $U$ and $V$ such that $x \in U$ and $y \in V$ then $X$ is not locally connected at $x$.

Proof. Let $c \in \mathscr{M}$ and set $U^{\prime}=U \cap\{t \mid t<c\}$. Suppose $A$ is a connected open set such that $x \in A \subset U^{\prime}$. Then from Lemma 10.3 and $A \cap \mathscr{E}^{-} \neq \varnothing$ we conclude that $A=I-E$ where $I=\{t \mid t<a\}$ or $I=\{t \mid t \leqq a\}$ for some $a \in \mathscr{M}$ and $E \subset \mathscr{E}$. Now since

$$
U^{\prime} \cap V \subset U \cap V=\varnothing
$$

we have $V^{\prime}=V \cap\{t \mid t<a\} \subset \mathscr{E}^{-}$. Thus $V^{\prime}$ is a finite nonempty ( $y \in V^{\prime}$ ) open subset of $X$ which contradicts the connectedness of $X$. Therefore no such $A$ exists and so $X$ is not locally connected at $x$.

Counter Example 14.3. The following example shows that the Hausdorff type of separation assumed in Lemma 14.2 cannot be dropped. Let $X=\{-1\} \cup[0,1]$ with the topology generated by all sets of the form $\{t \mid t<x\}$ with $x>0$, and $\{t \mid t<x\}-\{0\}$ with $x>0$,
and $\{t \mid t>x\}$ with $x$ arbitrary. Then $X$ is $T_{1}$, connected, $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is disconnected for $n>2,\{-1,0\} \subset \mathscr{E}^{-}$(provided we make the right choice in ordering $X$ ) but $X$ is locally connected at -1 .

TheOrem 14.4. If $X$ is locally connected and Hausdorff then there is a total ordering $<$ of $X$ such that
(a) if $X$ has any cut points then all points of $X$ are cut points except an initial or terminal point of $X$ under $<$ (which if one of both exist are not cut points), and the topology of $X=<^{l}$, and
(b) if $X$ has no cut points then the topology of $X=<^{c}$.

Proof. This theorem follows readily from Lemmas 14.1, 14.2, 9.7, 13.3, and 13.1.
15. In this section we consider the concept of local compactness and obtain results very analogous to those of $\S 14$. Let $\tau$ be the given topology of $X$.

Lemma 15.1. If $X$ is circular and locally compact at $p$ then $\tau$ at $p=<^{c}$ at $p$. If $X$ is noncircular and locally compact at $p \in \mathscr{M}$ then $\tau$ at $p=<^{l}$ at $p$. (Note that the implications in Lemma 15.1 are only one way in contrast to the two way implications of Lemma 14.1.)

Proof. Consider the case where $X$ is noncircular and locally compact at $p \in \mathscr{M}$ and $p$ is not an initial or terminal point of $\mathscr{M}$. Let $C$ be a compact subset of $X$ such that $p \in \operatorname{interior}$ of $C=\operatorname{int} C$. We wish to show that $\tau$ at $p=<^{l}$ at $p$. The inclusion $<^{l}$ at $p \subset \tau$ at $p$ follows immediately from Lemma 9.1. Now let $B \in \tau$ at $p$. Then $p \in \operatorname{int} B$. We must show that there exists $a, b \in X$ such that $p \in\{t \mid a<t<b\} \subset B$.

Consider the open set $U=\operatorname{int} C \cap \operatorname{int} B$. Then $p \in U$ and it is sufficient to show that $p \in\{t \mid a<t<b\} \subset U$ for some $a, b \in X$.

First we claim that either $\{t \mid z<t<p\} \cap U \neq \varnothing$ for all $z<p$ or $\{t \mid p<t<y\} \cap U \neq \varnothing$ for all $y>p$. Suppose this were not so. Then we would have a $z<p$ and a $y>p$ such that $\{t \mid z<t<y\} \cap U=$ $\{P\}$. We now have a finite open subset of $X$ which is impossible. Thus the claim is established.

For definiteness we will assume $\{t \mid z<t<p\} \cap U \neq \varnothing$ for all $z<p$. We now claim that $\{t \mid z<t<p\} \subset U$ for some $z<p$. Suppose the contrary. Consider the open covering of $C$ consisting of all the sets $\{t \mid t<z\}$ with $z<p$ and the set $U \cup\{t \mid p<t\}$. Since $C$ is compact there is a finite subcovering and we thus conclude that there is a $z_{0}<p$ such that $\left\{t \mid z_{0} \leqq t \leqq p\right\} \cap C \subset U$. By our assumption of
the contrary to the claim we know that there must be a $z_{1}$ such that $z_{0}<z_{1}<p$ and $z_{1} \notin U$. Next, there must be a $z_{2}$ such that $z_{1}<z_{2}<p$ and $z_{2} \in U$. Finally there is a $z_{3}$ such that $z_{2}<z_{3}<p$ and $z_{3} \notin U$. It follows that $V=\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\} \cap C=\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\} \cap U=$ $\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\} \cap U$. Thus $V$ is a nonempty open subset of $X$ which does not equal $X(p \notin V)$. We now assert that $V$ is also closed. To see this, first note that since $z_{0}<z_{1}<z_{3}<p$ we must have $z_{1}, z_{3} \varepsilon \mathscr{M}$. Thus $\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\}=X-\left(\left\{t \mid t<z_{1}\right\} \cup\left\{t \mid t>z_{3}\right\}\right)$ showing that $\left\{t \mid z_{1}<t<z_{3}\right\}$ is closed. $V$ is consequently a closed subset of $C$ and is therefore compact. It follows from Theorem 13.5 that $\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\}$ is a Hausdorff space and thus $V$ is a closed subset of $\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\}$ in the relative topology of $\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\}$. But, since $\left\{t \mid z_{1} \leqq t \leqq z_{3}\right\}$ is closed in $X, V$ must be closed in $X$ as we asserted. We have thus contradicted the connectedness of $X$. Therefore $\{t \mid z<t<p\} \subset U$ for some $z<p$ as claimed above. Let $a$ be such a $z$.

Next we claim that $\{t \mid p<t<y\} \cap U \neq \varnothing$ for all $y>p$. Assume the contrary. Then $\left\{t \mid p<t<y_{0}\right\} \cap U=\varnothing$ for some $y_{0}>p$. Now consider the set $A=\left\{t \mid a<t<y_{0}\right\} \cap U=\{t \mid a<t \leqq p\}$. $A$ is clearly open. Consequently $Z=\{t \mid a<t \leqq p\} \cup\{t \mid t<p\}$ and $W=\{t \mid t>p\}$ are nonempty $\left(p \in Z, y_{0} \in W\right)$ disjoint open sets such that $Z \cup W=$ $X$. This is impossible and thus $\{t \mid p<t<y\} \cap U \neq \varnothing$ for all $y>p$ as claimed.

Now we claim that $\{t \mid p<t<y\} \subset U$ for some $y>p$. The proof of this claim is completely analogous to the proof of the second claim above and so will be left to the reader. Let $b$ be such a $y$. We then have $p \in\{t \mid a<t<b\} \subset U \subset \operatorname{int} B$ as desired.

The cases where $X$ is circular or $p$ is an initial or terminal point of $\mathscr{A}$ can be handled in a manner very similar to the above argument and so will be left to the reader. This completes the proof.

Lemma 15.2. Suppose $X$ is noncircular and $p, q \in \mathscr{E}^{+}\left(\mathscr{E}^{-}\right)$. If there are disjoint open sets $A$ and $B$ such that $p \in A$ and $q \in B$ then $X$ is not locally compact at $p$.

Proof. Suppose $C$ is a compact set such that $p \in \operatorname{int} C$. Consider the open set $U=A \cap \operatorname{int} C$. In order to avoid the absurdity of a nonempty finite open subset of $X$ we must admit that $\{t \mid z<t<p\} \cap U \neq$ $\varnothing$ for all $z<p$. Next it follows, just as in the proof of the second claim in the proof of Lemma 15.1, that $\{t \mid a<t<p\} \subset U \subset A$ for some $a<p$. Similarly there must be an $a^{\prime}<q$ such that $\left\{t \mid a^{\prime}<t<q\right\} \subset B$. Lemma 9.2 implies that $\mathscr{I}$ has no maximum and hence

$$
\varnothing \neq\{t \mid a<t<p\} \cap\left\{t \mid a^{\prime}<t<q\right\} \subset A \cap B=\varnothing
$$

which is absurd. Therefore no such $C$ exists which shows that $X$ is not locally compact at $p$.

Theorem 15.3. If $X$ is locally compact and Hausdorff then $X$ is locally connected and so the conclusions of Theorem 14.4 hold.

Proof. This follows easily from Lemmas 15.2, 15.1, 14.1, and 14.4 used in that order.
16. In this section we prove the major results of the paper. They are obtained from the preceding results with the help of the following well known result. We give a brief proof since our statement of it may not coincide exactly with the statements of it in the standard references.

Lemma 16.1. Let $\prec$ be a simple order on a set $S$. Let $S$ have the topology $<^{l}$ and suppose $S$ is connected, $D$ is a countable dense subset of $S$, and $a$ and $b$ are minimum and maximum elements of $S$ respectively, $a \neq b$. Then there is an order preserving homeomorphism of $S$ with the unit interval $I=[0,1]$.

Proof. Observe first that there is a one-to-one order preserving function $f$ from $D^{\prime}=D-\{a, b\}$ onto $D^{\prime \prime}=$ diatic rationals in $(0,1)$. (see Hocking and Young [1], Th. 2-22.) Next observe that the connectedness of $S$ implies that $S$ has the least upper bound property (see the proof of Lemma 10.1). Thus we can define the order preserving functions $\varphi: S \rightarrow I$ and $\psi: I \rightarrow S$ by

$$
\varphi(x)=\operatorname{lub}_{\substack{y \in D, D^{\prime} \\ y<x}} f(y) \quad \psi(t)=\operatorname{lub}_{\substack{s \in D^{\prime \prime} \\ s<t^{\prime}}} f^{-1}(s) .
$$

It is easy to verify that $\psi$ is the inverse of $\varphi$ and thus $\varphi$ is one-toone and onto. Since the topologies of $S$ and $I$ are determined by their respective orders, $\varphi$ must be a homeomorphism.

Definition 16.2 We will say that a topological space $S$ is locally separable at a point $p \in S$ provided there is a neighborhood $U$ of $p$ and a countable set $D$ which is dense in $U$. If $S$ is locally separable at each of its points then $S$ is locally separable.

Theorem 16.3. If $X$ is Hausdorff, locally connected (or locally compact), and locally separable then $X$ is locally homeomorphic to $\boldsymbol{R}^{+}=\{t \in \boldsymbol{R} \mid t \geqq 0\}$ (i.e., $X$ is a 1-dimensional manifold with boundary).

Proof. First note that the locally compact case reduces to the locally connected case by Theorem 15.3. There are four cases which depend upon $X$ and the point $p$ in question: Case 1, $X$ circular and $p$ the initial point $u$ of $<$; Case $2, X$ circular and $p$ not the initial point of $X$; Case 3, $X$ noncircular and $p$ either an initial or terminal point of $\mathscr{M}$; Case 4, $X$ noncircular and $p$ not an initial or terminal point of $\not /$. In the last three cases $p$ has a closed neighborhood of the form $S=\{t \mid a \leqq t \leqq b\}$ with the property that $<$ is a simple order on $S$ and $S$ has a countable dense subset. In the first case we can adjust $<$ in an obvious way so that the preceding statement holds for $p$. In each case it follows immediately from either Lemma 12.5 or Lemma 10.1 that $S$ is connected. Besides, by Theorem $14.4 S$ has the $<^{\prime}$ topology. The desired conclusion now follows from Lemma 16.1.

Remark. Note that the local homeomorphism in the above proof also preserves the order (adjusted order in Case 1).

Corollary 16.4. Under the hypothesis of Theorem 16.3, $X$ must be locally compact.

Theorem 16.5. If $X$ is Hausdorff, locally connected (or locally compact) and separable then $X$ is homeomorphic to one of the following spaces:
(a) the closed interval $[0,1]$,
(b) the open interval $(0,1)$,
(c) the half open, half closed interval ( 0,1$]$,
(d) the circle, $\left\{(x, y) \in \boldsymbol{R}^{2} \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.

Proof. This is a corollary to the proofs of Lemma 16.1 and Theorem 16.3. If $D$ is a countable dense subset of $X$ then $D \cap S$ is a countable dense subset of $S$ if $S$ is as in Theorem 16.3. Now by lining up $D^{\prime \prime}$ ( $D^{\prime \prime}=D$ - possible initial or terminal points) with the diatic rationals in $(0,1)$ once and for all, the local homeomorphism we get in Theorem 16.3 will be all coherent. (In fact we need only consider at most an appropriately chosen pair of sets like S.) The four possibilities (a)-(d) are determined by whether $X$ is noncircular or circular and if noncircular whether $X$ has 0,1 , or 2 end points.

Theorem 16.6. If $X$ is a compact metric space then $X$ is homeomorphic to either the closed interval $[0,1]$ or the circle $\left\{(x, y) \in \boldsymbol{R}^{2} \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.

Proof. Since a compact metric space is separable and locally compact the present theorem follows immediately from Theorem 16.5.

Lemma 16.7. If either $X$ is circular or $X$ is noncircular and $\mathscr{M}$ has an initial and a terminal point then local compactness and local separability for $X$ implies compactness and separability.

Proof. Assume $X$ is noncircular, locally compact and locally separable, $a=\min \mathscr{M}=\min X, b=\max \mathscr{M}=\max X$. Let $A$ be the set of all $x$ such that $\{y \mid a \leqq y \leqq x\}$ is compact and separable. We will show that $A$ is nonempty, open and closed.

First of all $a \in A$ so $A$ is nonempty. Secondly, by Theorem 16.3 the remark that follows we see that $A$ is open ( $X$ is obviously Hausdorff under the hypothesis). Finally, let $x_{0} \in$ closure of $A$. Consider a neighborhood of $x_{0}$ of the form $S=\{t \mid c \leqq t \leqq d\}$ which is order preservingly homeomorphic to $[0,1]$. Since $x_{0} \in$ closure of $A$ there is some $x \in A \cap S$. It then follows that $\left\{t \mid \alpha \leqq t \leqq x_{0}\right\}=$ $\{t \mid a \leqq t \leqq x\} \cup\left\{t \mid x \leqq t \leqq x_{0}\right\}$ is a compact and separable set being the union of two compact and separable sets. Thus $x_{0} \in A$ which shows that $A$ is closed.

Since $X$ is connected $A=X$. Thus $X=\{t \mid a \leqq t \leqq b\}$ is compact and separable. The circular case can be handled very similarly using a point $p$ as both $a$ and $b$ simultaneously. The details are left to the reader.

Theorem 16.8. If $X$ is Hausdorff, locally compact and locally separable and $X$ has at least two noncut points then $X$ is homeomorphic to either the closed interval [0,1] or the circle $\left\{(x, y) \in \boldsymbol{R}^{2} \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.

Proof. This follows immediately from Theorem 15.3, §13, Lemma 16.7 and Theorem 16.5 used in that order.
17. In this section we will present an example of an $X$ like we have been studying and then show how this example is rather typical of a large class of possible $X$ 's

The example is pictured in Figure 10. It is not hard to show


Figure 10
that this space really is an example of an $X$ with $n \geqq 10$, and with a proper choice of $<$ we ave $\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{C}}^{+}=4$ and $\#_{\mathscr{C}^{-}}=6$. This space is
clearly metric and separable and locally compact at points of $\mathscr{A}$. The following theorem is a sort of converse to this example.

Theorem 17.1. If $X$ is metric, separable, and locally compact at cut points and there are cut points then $X$ can be embedded in $\boldsymbol{R}^{3}$. In fact, $X$ is homeomorphic to the union of a finite number of points of $\boldsymbol{R}^{3}$ with the graph of a continuous one-to-one map of $(0,1)$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{3}$.

Proof. First note that the set $L$ of cut points of $X$ is homeomorphic to $(0,1)$ by the general arguments presented in $\S 16$, where $L=\mathscr{M}$ - possible end points. We will assume $L=(0,1)$. Consider $\boldsymbol{R}^{3}=\boldsymbol{R} \times \boldsymbol{C}$ where $\boldsymbol{C}$ is the complex numbers. Let $\#_{\mathscr{E}}-=N$, $\# \mathscr{C}^{+}=M, \mathscr{E}^{-}=\left\{e_{1}, \cdots, e_{N}\right\}$ and $\mathscr{E}^{+}=\left\{e_{N+1}, \cdots, e_{N+M}\right\}$. Set $\widetilde{e}_{j}=$ $(0, \exp 2 \pi i(j /(N+M))) \in \boldsymbol{R} \times \boldsymbol{C}$ for $1 \leqq j \leqq N+M$. Now for $t \in \boldsymbol{R}$ set $t^{+}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}t & \text { if } t \geqq 0 \\ 0 & \text { if } t<0 .\end{array}\right.$. Finally define $\varphi: X \rightarrow \boldsymbol{R}^{3}=\boldsymbol{R} \times \boldsymbol{C}$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi\left(e_{j}\right) & =\widetilde{e}_{j} \text { for } 1 \leqq j \leqq N \\
\varphi\left(e_{j}\right) & =\widetilde{e}_{j}+(1,0) \text { for } N+1 \leqq j \leqq N+M \\
\varphi(t) & =\sum_{j=1}^{N+M}\left(1-\varepsilon^{-1} d\left(t, e_{j}\right)\right)^{+} \widetilde{e}_{j}+(t, 0)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $d$ is the metric for $X$ and

$$
\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2} \min _{j \neq k} d\left(e_{j}, e_{k}\right) .
$$

The verification that $\varphi$ is the desired homeomorphism is left to the reader.
18. In this section we show how one of our fundamental hypotheses may be weakened and draw from this a theorem on "connectedness" in the deleted product $X^{n}-G D_{n}$.

Definition 18.1. We define the relation $T$ in $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ by setting $\bar{x} T \bar{y}$ for $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ if and only if $\bar{y}=\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right)=$ $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{i-1}, y_{j}, x_{j+1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ for some j where $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$, and $\bar{x}$ cannot be separated from $\bar{y}$ in

$$
\left\{x_{1}\right\} \times\left\{x_{2}\right\} \times \cdots \times\left\{x_{j-1}\right\} \times X \times\left\{x_{j+1}\right\} \times \cdots \times\left\{x_{n}\right\} \cap\left\{X^{n}-G D_{n}\right) .
$$

We observe that the fundamental hypothesis of this paper that (h): " $X^{n}-G D_{n}$ is not connected" can be replaced by the apparently weaker hypothesis ( $h^{\prime}$ ): " $\bar{x}(\bar{T})^{\prime} \bar{y}$ for some $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in X^{n}-G D_{n}$ " (see Definition 2.4 for $\bar{T}$ ). In fact hypothesis ( $h$ ) was used only to prove

Lemma 3.10 and the proof of Lemma 3.10 essentially uses only hypothesis ( $h^{\prime}$ ). We can now prove the following theorem.

Theorem 18.2. If $Y$ is a connected $T_{1}$-space and $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ and $\bar{y}=\left(y_{1}, \cdots, y_{n}\right)$ cannot be separated in $Z=Y^{n}-G D_{n}(Y)$ then $\bar{x} \bar{T} \bar{y}$ where $G D_{n}(Y)$ and $T$ are the same as $G D_{n}$ and $T$ above except defined for $Y$ instead of $X$.

Proof. Assume $x \bar{T}^{\prime} y$. Then from above we know that all the analysis of this paper holds for $Y$ in place of $X$. In the proof of Lemmas 11.2 and 12.8 we saw that the set of $\bar{z} \in Z$ such that $\bar{x} \bar{T} \bar{z}$ coincided with the set of $\bar{z} \in Z$ such that $\bar{x} S_{Z}^{\prime} \bar{z}$ when $\bar{x}$ was of the form $\bar{x}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ with $x_{1}<x_{2}<\cdots<x_{n}$ and $x_{i} \in \mathscr{M}, \quad i=$ $1, \cdots, n$, in the noncircular case. This can be seen to hold for any $\bar{x} \in Z$ by noting the following two facts. Fact 1: The proof of Lemma 3.9 really shows that if $\bar{u}, \bar{v} \in Z$ then $\bar{u} \bar{T} \sigma \bar{v}$ for some $\sigma \in S_{n}$. Fact 2: For each $\sigma \in S_{n}$ the map $\sigma: Z \rightarrow Z$ preserves all the structure (e.g., $T, S_{z}$ ) for which we are concerned. It follows that $\bar{x} S_{z} \bar{y}$ a contradiction. Thus $\bar{x} \bar{T} \bar{y}$ as we wished to prove.

Remark. Theorem 18.2 holds without the hypothesis that $Y$ is connected. The proof consists of reducing the general case to Theorem 18.2 by seeing how the partition of $Y^{n}$ induced by the partition of $Y$ into components behaves with respect to $G D_{n}(Y)$. The details are left to the reader.

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## Reference

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