

## VII.2 : Nonretraction and fixed point theorems

(H, §2.B; M, §55)

Recall that a continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a **retract** if there is a continuous mapping  $g : Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $g \circ f$  is the identity on  $X$ , and a continuous mapping  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  is a **retraction** if there is a continuous mapping  $q : Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $p \circ q$  is the identity on  $Y$ . It follows that the mappings  $q$  and  $f$  are 1–1 and the mappings  $p$  and  $g$  are onto; also,  $q$  is a retract and  $g$  is a retraction. Many but not all subspace inclusion mappings are retracts, and the following result shows the special natures of retracts.

**PROPOSITION 1.** *Suppose that the mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a retract. Then the induced maps in homology  $f_*$  are injections onto direct summands.*

**Proof.** The composite  $g_* \circ f_* = (g \circ f)_*$  is the identity on  $H_*(X)$ . Therefore the identity  $g_* f_*(a) = a$  implies that the kernel of  $f_*$  is zero so that  $f_*$  is 1–1. One can then check directly that each group  $H_q(Y)$  is isomorphic to the direct sum of the image of  $f_*$  and the kernel of  $g_*$ . ■

**COROLLARY 2.** *For every  $k \geq 2$ , the sphere  $S^{k-1}$  is not a retract of the disk  $D^k$ .*

This is true because the homology groups of  $D^k$  vanish in all positive dimensions but the group  $H_{k-1}(S^{k-1})$  is nonzero. ■

### *The Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem*

At this point it is almost traditional to state and prove the Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem.

**THEOREM 3.** (Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem) *For all  $n \geq 0$  every continuous map  $f : D^n \rightarrow D^n$  has a fixed point; in other words, there is a point  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $D^n$  such that  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$ .*

**Proof.** If  $n = 1$  this is a fairly simple exercise in point set topology. Suppose that  $i : S^0 \rightarrow D^1$  is the inclusion mapping and  $r : D^1 \rightarrow S^0$  is such that  $r \circ i$  is the identity on  $S^0$ . As noted before, it follows that  $r$  is onto; since  $D^1$  is connected but  $S^0$  is not, this is impossible and consequently there cannot be a continuous mapping  $r$  such that  $r \circ i$  is the identity.

In the remaining cases, the standard proof is analogous to the argument on page 32 of Hatcher for the case  $n = 2$ . Assume that there is a continuous mapping  $f : D^n \rightarrow D^n$  with no fixed point, so that  $f(x) \neq x$  for all  $x$ . For each point  $x \in D^n$ , let  $r(x) \in S^{n-1}$  be the unique point where the ray from  $f(x)$  through  $x$  meets the boundary sphere. By construction  $r(x) = x$  if  $x \in S^{n-1}$ , and if  $r$  is continuous then it follows that  $S^{n-1}$  is a retract of  $D^n$  because  $r \circ i$  is the identity.

The argument in Hatcher states that the “continuity of  $r$  is clear”; although this seems reasonable, it is still necessary to check the continuity of the geometrically described mapping  $r$  retraction explicitly. For the sake of completeness we have written up the details in the Appendix to this section.

### *An application to matrices with nonnegative entries*

The Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem and its generalizations play important roles in many branches of mathematics and their applications to other subjects. Here is one online reference for further information:

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brouwer\\_fixed-point\\_theorem](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brouwer_fixed-point_theorem)

In these notes we shall only use the theorem to prove a result on eigenvalues and eigenvectors of matrices. The first step is the following elementary fact:

**LEMMA 4.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space which is homeomorphic to  $D^n$  for some  $n \geq 0$ . Then every continuous map  $f : X \rightarrow X$  has a fixed point.*

**Proof.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be continuous, and let  $h : X \rightarrow D^n$  be a homeomorphism. Then  $h \circ f \circ h^{-1}$  is a continuous map from  $D^n$  to itself and thus has a fixed point  $\mathbf{p}$  by Brouwer's Theorem. In other words we have  $h \circ f \circ h^{-1}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{p}$ . If we take  $\mathbf{q} = h(\mathbf{p})$ , straightforward computation shows that  $f(\mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{q}$ . ■

**THEOREM 5.** (Perron – Frobenius) *Let  $n > 1$ , and let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix which is invertible and has nonnegative entries. Then  $A$  has a positive eigenvalue  $\lambda$  such that  $\lambda$  has a nonzero eigenvector with nonnegative entries.*

**Proof.** Recall that the 1-norm on  $\mathbf{R}^n$  is defined by  $|\mathbf{x}|_1 = \sum_j |x_j|$ , where the coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$  are given by  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . For each  $\mathbf{x} \in \Delta_n$  (the standard simplex whose vertices are the unit vectors), define

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (|A\mathbf{x}|_1)^{-1} \cdot A\mathbf{x}.$$

Observe that the coordinates of  $A\mathbf{x}$  are all nonnegative because the entries of  $A$  and the coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$  are nonnegative, this vector is nonzero because  $A$  is invertible, and if  $\mathbf{y}$  is a nonzero vector with nonnegative entries then  $|\mathbf{y}|_1^{-1}\mathbf{y}$  must lie in  $\Delta_n$ . Therefore we indeed have a continuous map  $f$  from the simplex to itself.

By the lemma, we know that  $f$  has a fixed point; in other words, there is some  $\mathbf{v} \in \Delta_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{v} = (|A\mathbf{v}|_1)^{-1} \cdot A\mathbf{v}$$

and since the latter is equivalent to saying that  $A\mathbf{v}$  is a positive multiple of  $\mathbf{v}$ , this completes the proof. ■

**COROLLARY 6.** *In the setting of the theorem above, if all the entries of the matrix  $A$  are positive, then the eigenvector has positive entries.*

**Proof.** Let  $\mathbf{y}$  be the eigenvector obtained in the theorem. Since  $A\mathbf{y}$  is a positive scalar multiple of  $\mathbf{y}$ , it will suffice to prove that the entries of  $A\mathbf{y}$  are all positive. But these entries are given by expressions of the form

$$z_i = \sum_j a_{i,j}y_j$$

and if we choose  $k$  such that  $y_k \neq 0$  then it follows that  $z_i \geq a_{i,k}y_k$ ; the right hand side is a product of

## APPENDIX: The retraction in Brouwer's Theorem

As indicated before, the idea is relatively simple. We start with two distinct points  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  on the disk  $D^n$  and consider the ray starting with  $\mathbf{y}$  and passing through  $\mathbf{x}$ ; algebraically, this is the set of all points expressible as  $\mathbf{y} + (1 - t)\mathbf{x}$ , where  $t \geq 0$ . Simple pictures strongly suggest that there is a unique scalar  $t \geq 1$  such that  $\mathbf{y} + (1 - t)\mathbf{x}$  lies on  $S^{n-1}$ , if  $\mathbf{x} \in S^{n-1}$  then  $t = 1$  so that

the point is equal to  $\mathbf{x}$ , and in fact the value of  $t$  is a continuous function of  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ . Our purpose here is to justify these assertions.

**PROPOSITION.** *There is a continuous function  $\rho : D^n \times D^n - \text{Diagonal} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$  such that  $\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}$  if  $\mathbf{x} \in S^{n-1}$ .*

If we have the mapping  $\rho$  and  $f$  is a continuous map from  $D^n$  to itself without fixed points, then the retraction from  $D^n$  onto  $S^{n-1}$  is given by  $\rho(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x}))$ .

**Proof of the proposition.** It follows immediately that the intersection points of the line joining  $\mathbf{y}$  to  $\mathbf{x}$  are given by the values of  $t$  which are roots of the equation

$$|\mathbf{y} + t(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})|^2 = 1$$

and the desired points on the ray are given by the roots for which  $t > 1$ . We need to show that there is always a unique root satisfying this condition, and that this root depends continuously on  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

We can rewrite the displayed equation as

$$|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 t^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle t + (|\mathbf{y}|^2 - 1) = 0.$$

If try to solve this nontrivial quadratic equation for  $t$  using the quadratic formula, then we obtain the following:

$$t = \frac{-\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle \pm \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle^2 + |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 \cdot (1 - |\mathbf{y}|^2)}}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2}$$

One could try to analyze these roots by brute force, but it will be more pleasant to take a more qualitative viewpoint.

(a) *There are always two distinct real roots.* We need to show that the expression inside the square root sign is always a positive real number. Since  $|\mathbf{y}| \leq 1$ , the expression is clearly nonnegative, so we need only eliminate the possibility that it might be zero. If this happens, then each summand must be zero, and since  $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}| > 0$  it follows that we must have both  $\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$  and  $1 - |\mathbf{y}|^2 = 0$ . The second of these implies  $|\mathbf{y}| = 1$ , and the first then implies

$$\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = |\mathbf{y}|^2 = 1.$$

If we combine this with the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality and the basic condition  $|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$ , we see that  $|\mathbf{x}|$  must equal 1 and  $\mathbf{x}$  must be a positive multiple of  $\mathbf{y}$ ; these in turn imply that  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ , which contradicts our hypothesis that  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ . Thus the expression inside the radical sign is positive and hence there are two distinct real roots.

(b) *There are no roots  $t$  such that  $0 < t < 1$ .* The Triangle Inequality implies that

$$|\mathbf{y} + t(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})| = |(1-t)\mathbf{y} + t\mathbf{x}| \leq (1-t)|\mathbf{y}| + t|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$$

so the value of the quadratic function

$$q(t) = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2 t^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle t + (|\mathbf{y}|^2 - 1)$$

lies in  $[-1, 0]$  if  $0 < t < 1$ . Suppose that the value is zero for some  $t_0$  of this type. Since there are two distinct roots for the associated quadratic polynomial, it follows that the latter does not take a maximum value at  $t_0$ , and hence there is some  $t_1$  such that  $0 < t_1 < 1$  and the value of the

function at  $t_1$  is positive. This contradicts our observation about the behavior of the function, and therefore our hypothesis about the existence of a root like  $t_0$  must be false.

(d) *There is one root of  $q(t)$  such that  $t \leq 0$  and a second root such that  $t \geq 1$ .* We know that  $q(0) \leq 0$  and that the limit of  $q(t)$  as  $t \rightarrow -\infty$  is equal to  $+\infty$ . By continuity there must be some  $t_1 \leq 0$  such that  $q(t_1) = 0$ . Similarly, we know that  $q(1) \leq 0$  and that the limit of  $q(t)$  as  $t \rightarrow +\infty$  is equal to  $+\infty$ , so again by continuity there must be some  $t_2 \geq 1$  such that  $q(t_2) = 0$ .

(d) *The unique root  $t$  satisfying  $t \geq 1$  is a continuous function of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .* This is true because the desired root is given by taking the positive sign in the expression obtained from the quadratic formula, and it is a routine algebraic exercise to check that this expression is a continuous function of  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ .

(e) *If  $|\mathbf{x}| = 1$ , then  $t = 1$ .* This just follows because  $|\mathbf{y} + 1(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})| = 1$  in this case.

The proposition now follows by taking

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y} + t(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$

where  $t$  is given as above by taking the positive sign in the quadratic formula. The final property shows that  $\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}$  if  $|\mathbf{x}| = 1$ . ■