

## Section 44. A Space-Filling Curve

**Note.** In this section, we give the surprising result that there is a continuous function from the interval  $[0, 1]$  onto the unit square  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ .

**Note.** We first refer to Hans Sagan's *Space-Filling Curves* (Springer-Verlag, Universitext series, 1994) for some historical comments.

**Note.** In 1878, George Cantor proved that the interval  $[0, 1]$  and the square  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  have the same cardinality so that there is a one to one and onto function from  $[0, 1]$  to  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . In 1879, E. Netto proved that such a function must be discontinuous (in "Beitrag zur Mannigfaltigkeitslehre," *Crelle Journal*, **86**, 265–268 (1879)). In 1890, Guiseppe Peano (1858–1932) constructed a continuous onto mapping from  $[0, 1]$  to  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  ("Sur une courbe, qui remplit toute une aire plane," *Mathematische Annalen*, **36**(1), 157–160 (1890)). The result image of  $[0, 1]$  is called a "space-filling curve" (or "Peano curve") and satisfies the surprising property that the one-dimensional interval is continuously mapped onto the two-dimensional square! Additional examples were given by David Hilbert (1862–1943), Eliakim H. Moore (1862–1932), Henri Lebesgue (1875–1941), Waclaw Sierpiński (1882–1969), George Pólya (1887–1985) and others [Sagan, page 1]. The references for these works are:

- David Hilbert, "Ueber die stetige Abbildung einer Line auf ein Flächenstück," *Mathematische Annalen*, **38**(3), 459–460 (1890).

- Eliakim H. Moore, “On certain crinkly curves,” *Transactions of the Amer. Math. Society*, **1**, 72–90 (1900).
- Henri Lebesgue, *Leçons sur l’Intégration et la Recherche des Fonctions Primitives*, Gauthier-Villars, Paris, 44–45 (1904).
- Waclaw Sierpiński, “Sur une nouvelle courbe continue qui remplit toute une aire plane,” *Bull. Acad. Sci. do Cracovie (Sci. math. et nat., Série A)*, 462–478 (1912).
- George Pólya, “Über eine Peanosche Kurve,” *Bull. Acad. Sci. do Cracovie (Sci. math. et nat., Série A)*, 1–9 (1913).

**Note.** The exercises in this section have you show:

1. There is a continuous functions from  $[0, 1]$  onto  $[0, 1]^n$  for any given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (Exercise 44.1).
2. There is a continuous function from  $\mathbb{R}$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for any give  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (Exercise 44.2).
3. There is not a continuous function from  $\mathbb{R}$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$  where  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$  is given the product topology (Exercise 44.3).

**Note.** The Hahn-Mazurkiewicz Theorem states that: “A non-empty Hausdorff topological space is a continuous image of the unit interval if and only if it is a compact, connected, weakly locally connected, metrizable space.” It is named for

Stefan Mazurkiewicz (1888–1945) and Hans Hahn (1879–1934). A Hausdorff space that is the continuous image of the closed unit interval is called a *Peano space*. See Exercise 44.4 for a little more information.

**Theorem 44.1.** Let  $I = [0, 1]$ . There exists a continuous map  $f : I \rightarrow I^2$  whose image fills up the entire square  $I^2$  (that is,  $f$  is onto).

**Proof.** We follow Munkres' 4-step proof. In Steps 1 and 2 we define a sequence of continuous functions  $(f_n)$  where  $f_n : I \rightarrow I^2$ . In Step 3 we show that  $(f_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence and use the results of Section 43 to show that  $(f_n)$  converges to a continuous function  $f : I \rightarrow I^2$ . In Step 4 we show that  $f$  is onto.

**Step 1.** First, we map  $I$  into  $I^2$  with  $f_0 = g$  as shown in Figure 44.1. It is easy to express  $f_0$  parametrically as

$$f_0(t) = \begin{cases} (t, t) & \text{for } t \in [0, 1/2] \\ (t, 1 - t) & \text{for } t \in (1/2, 1]. \end{cases}$$

We then modify  $f_0 = g$  to produce  $f_1 = g'$  as shown in Figure 44.2. Partition  $I$  into 8 pieces and partition  $I^2$  into 4 pieces such that  $f_1 = g'$  behaves similarly on the upper two squares and  $f_1 = g'$  behaves on the lower two squares as shown. We could describe  $f_1 = g'$  piecewise using 8 pieces.

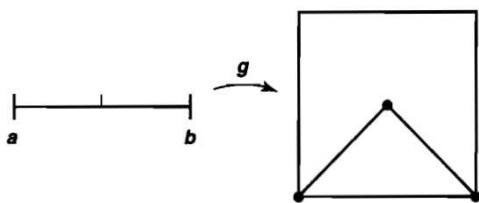


Figure 44.1

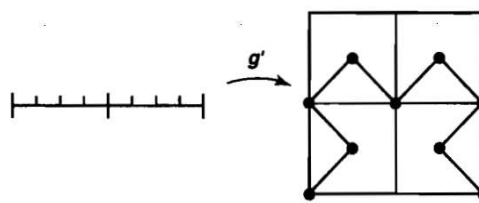


Figure 44.2

**Step 2.** We now partition each square of Figure 44.1 into 4 subsquares and produce  $f_2$  as given in Figure 44.4. Each square in Figure 44.4 is further partitioned into 4 squares and  $f_3$  produced as shown in Figure 44.5 (there are 64 subsquares in Figure 44.5, though only 16 of them are shown). The iterative process leads us to 4 cases in terms of how to define  $f_{n+1}$ , in terms of  $f$ . One of the cases is given in how  $g'$  is produced from  $g$  in Figures 44.1 and 44.2. The other three cases are symmetries of this case. If a square has  $f_n$  defined on it as given in Figure 44.1 rotated 180° (with the segment of  $f_n$  on this square starting and ending at the upper corners of the squares) then  $f_{n+1}$  on the subsquares is given in Figure 44.2 rotated 180°.

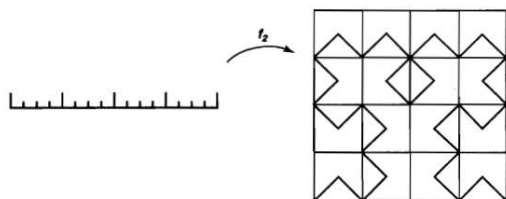


Figure 44.4

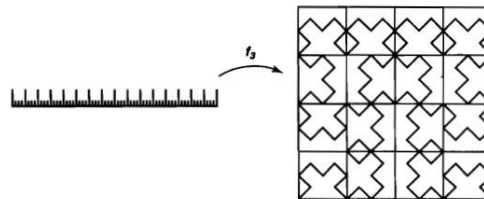


Figure 44.5

If a square has  $f_n$  defined as in Figure 44.3 then  $f_{n+1}$  is defined on the 4 subsquares as given by  $h'$  in Figure 44.3. If a square has  $f_n$  defined as it is given in Figure 44.3 rotated 180° (with the segment of  $f_n$  on the square starting and ending on the right corners of the square) then  $f_{n+1}$  on the subsquares is given by Figure 44.3 rotated 180°. Notice that  $f_n$  is defined on  $4^n$  subsquares, each containing 2 linear pieces of  $f_n$  (so  $f_n$  consists of  $2 \times 4^n$  linear pieces) and that the length of a side of each subsquare is  $1/2^n$ .

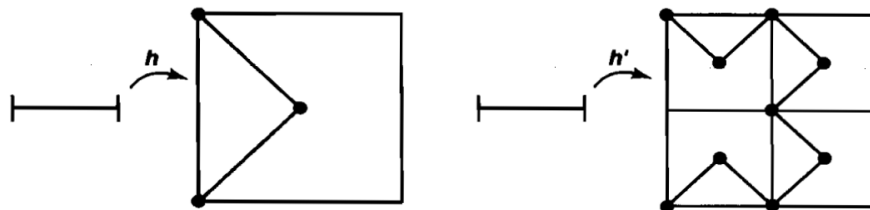


Figure 44.3

**Step 3.** Let  $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  denote the square metric on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \max\{|x_1 - y_1|, |x_2 - y_2|\}$$

(a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  introduced in Section 20). Let  $\rho$  denote the corresponding sup metric on  $(I, I^2)$ :

$$\rho(f, g) = \sup\{d(f(t), g(t)) \mid t \in I\}.$$

By Theorem 43.2,  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is complete under  $\rho$ . Since  $I^2$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , then any Cauchy sequence in  $I^2$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , but the limit of the Cauchy sequence is a limit point of  $I^2$  and since  $I^2$  is closed, then the limit is in  $I^2$ . That is, any Cauchy sequence in  $I^2$  converges in  $I^2$ . Hence  $I^2$  is complete under  $\rho$ . By Theorem 43.6,  $\mathcal{C}(I, I^2)$  is complete in the metric  $\bar{\rho}$ . Since a sequence is Cauchy under  $\rho$  if and only if it is Cauchy under  $\bar{\rho}$  (see the note on page 264 or the “Note” in the class notes before Lemma 43.1), then  $\mathcal{C}(I, I^2)$  is complete in the metric  $\rho$ .

We claim that  $(f_n)$  is defined piecewise on  $4^n$  squares each with a side of length  $1/2^n$ . Since  $f_{n+1}$  is based on  $f_n$  and each square is partitioned into 4 subsquares, then  $f_n$  under the square metric differed on each subsquare by at most  $1/2^n$ . So  $\rho(f_n, f_{n+1}) \leq 1/2^n$ . So by the Triangle Inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(f_n, f_{n+m}) &\leq \rho(f_n, f_{n+1}) + \rho(f_{n+1}, f_{n+2}) + \cdots + \rho(f_{n+m-1}, f_{n+m}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^{n+m-1}} < \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+2}} + \frac{1}{2^{n+2}} + \cdots = \frac{1/2^n}{1 - 1/2} = \frac{2}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \end{aligned}$$

for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . So for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $1/2^{n-1} < \varepsilon$  and so for all  $m, n \geq N$  we have  $\rho(f_n, f_{n+m}) < \varepsilon$ . That is,  $(f_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence with respect to  $\rho$ . Since  $\mathcal{C}(I, I^2)$  is complete, then  $(f_n)$  converges in  $\mathcal{C}(I, I^2)$  and so there is continuous  $f : I \rightarrow I^2$  such that  $(f_n) \rightarrow f$ .

**Step 4.** Finally, we show that  $f$  is onto. Let  $\mathbf{x} \in I^2$ . For given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  is in some subsquare with side of length  $1/2^n$  and so there is a point  $t_0 \in I$  such that  $d(f(t_0), \mathbf{x}) \leq 1/2^n$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . There there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $1/2^N < \varepsilon/2$  and so there is  $t_0 \in I$  such that  $d(f(t_0), \mathbf{x}) < \varepsilon$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{x}$  is a limit point of  $f(I)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous and  $I$  is compact (by Corollary 27.2) then  $f(I)$  is compact by Theorem 26.5. By Theorem 26.3,  $f(I)$  is therefore closed and so by Theorem 17.6  $f(I)$  includes its limit points. That is,  $\mathbf{x} \in F(I)$  and so  $f$  is onto, as claimed.

■

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