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# Almost disjoint families of connected sets 

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#### Abstract

We investigate the question which (separable metrizable) spaces have a 'large' almost disjoint family of connected (and locally connected) sets. Every compact space of dimension at least 2 as well as all compact spaces containing an 'uncountable star' have such a family. Our results show that the situation for 1 -dimensional compacta is unclear.


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## 1. Introduction

All topological spaces under discussion are separable and metrizable.
Let $X$ be a set and $\mathcal{A}$ be a family of subsets of $X$. As usual we say that $\mathcal{A}$ is almost disjoint if $\mathcal{A} \subseteq[X]^{|X|}$ and for all distinct $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $|A \cap B|<|X|$. It is well known and easy to prove that every infinite set $X$ has an almost disjoint family of subsets $\mathcal{A}$ with $|\mathcal{A}|>|X| ;$ in particular, $\mathbb{R}$ has an almost disjoint family of size greater than $\mathfrak{c}$. The full binary tree of height $\mathfrak{c}$ has cardinality $2^{<\mathfrak{c}}$ and $2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ cofinal branches, hence $2^{<\mathfrak{c}}=\mathfrak{c}$

[^0](in particular the Continuum Hypothesis) implies that there is an almost disjoint family of maximal size $2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ in $[c]^{c}$.

If $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is connected and nontrivial (meaning that it has cardinality at least 2 ) then it contains an interval with rational endpoints. Hence $\mathbb{R}$ has a family of countably many nontrivial connected sets $\mathcal{B}$ such that every nontrivial connected set $C$ contains a member of $\mathcal{B}$ (so $\mathcal{B}$ is sort of a $\pi$-base for the connected sets). For $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ a family with similar properties must have size at least $\mathfrak{c}$, as the collection $\{\{x\} \times \mathbb{R}: x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ clearly demonstrates. Can there be such a family of size $\mathfrak{c}$ ? We will answer this question in the negative by proving the existence of an almost disjoint family of more than $\mathfrak{c}$ connected and locally connected subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. This motivated us to study the following question: which spaces have 'large' almost disjoint families of nontrivial connected sets? Here 'large' means: any size greater than $\mathfrak{c}$ (for which there exists an almost disjoint family of subsets of $\mathbb{R}$ ). Let $\Gamma$ denote the class of spaces $X$ for which such families can be found. We prove that if $X$ is compact and $\operatorname{dim} X \geqslant 2$ then $X \in \Gamma$. Moreover, if $X$ contains a certain uncountable 'star' then $X \in \Gamma$. These results suggest that the rational continua are precisely the continua that are not in $\Gamma$. We disprove this by showing that the Sierpiński triangular curve which is rational is in $\Gamma$ and that there is a certain continuum which is not rational at a dense open set of points is not in $\Gamma$. We conclude by asking for a transparent characterization of all the 1-dimensional compacta that are in $\Gamma$.

## 2. Preliminaries

If $X$ is a set then $\mathcal{P}(X)$ denotes its powerset. A space $X$ is locally of cardinality $\kappa$ if each nonempty open subset $U$ of $X$ has size $\kappa$. A set $T$ is a transversal for a collection of sets $\mathcal{A}$ provided that $|A \cap T|=1$ for every $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Let $\mathbb{A D}(\mathfrak{c})$ be the set of all cardinals $\kappa>\mathfrak{c}$ for which there exist $\kappa$ almost disjoint subsets of $\mathbb{R}$. As noted above, we have $\mathfrak{c}^{+} \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$. We denote by $\Gamma$ the class of all spaces $X$ for which there exists for every $\kappa \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$ an almost disjoint family of $\kappa$ connected sets in $X$. In addition, $\Delta$ is the collection of all spaces in which there exists for every $\kappa \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$ an almost disjoint family of size $\kappa$ of connected and locally connected sets.

Lemma 2.1. Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$. If $X$ is a set with $|X|=\mathfrak{c}$ then there are families $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ such that
(1) $\mathcal{A}$ is almost disjoint and $\mathcal{B}$ is pairwise disjoint,
(2) $|\mathcal{A}|=\kappa$,
(3) $|\mathcal{B}|=\mathfrak{c}$ and $|B \cap A|=\mathfrak{c}$ for all $B \in \mathcal{B}, A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ be almost disjoint with $|\mathcal{G}|=\kappa$. For every $G \in \mathcal{G}$ let $f_{G}: G \rightarrow X$ be a surjection such that $\left|f^{-1}(t)\right|=\mathfrak{c}$ for every $t \in X$. Let $E(G)=\left\{\left\langle x, f_{G}(x)\right\rangle: x \in G\right\}$, the graph of $f_{G}$ in $G \times X$. It is clear that the family $\mathcal{E}=\{E(G): G \in \mathcal{G}\}$ is almost disjoint in $X^{2}$ such that $|\mathcal{G}|=|\mathcal{E}|$. Moreover, $\mathcal{F}=\{X \times\{x\}: x \in X\}$ is pairwise disjoint, and $|F \cap E(G)|=\mathfrak{c}$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$ and $G \in \mathcal{G}$. Since $|X|^{2}=|X|$, we are done.

Corollary 2.2. Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$. If $X$ is a space with $|X|=\mathfrak{c}$ then for every pairwise disjoint family $\mathcal{E} \subseteq[X]^{\mathfrak{c}}$ there is a family $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ such that
(1) $\mathcal{A}$ is almost disjoint,
(2) $|\mathcal{A}|=\kappa$ and every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ is locally of size $\mathfrak{c}$,
(3) $|E \cap A|=\mathfrak{c}$ for all $E \in \mathcal{E}, A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}, \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ be as in Lemma 2.1. Since $|\mathcal{E}| \leqslant \mathfrak{c}$ and $|\mathcal{B}|=\mathfrak{c}$, there is a bijection $f: X \rightarrow X$ such that $f(E) \in \mathcal{B}$ for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$. So we may assume without loss of generality that $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$.

Fix an arbitrary $A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}^{\prime}$. The collection $\mathcal{U}$ of all relatively open subsets of $A^{\prime}$ of cardinality less than $\mathfrak{c}$ has a countable subcollection with the same union. Since $\mathfrak{c}$ has uncountable cofinality, this means that $|\bigcup \mathcal{U}|<\mathfrak{c}$. Hence $A=A^{\prime} \backslash \bigcup \mathcal{U}$ is locally of cardinality $\mathfrak{c}$. The collection $\mathcal{A}=\left\{A: A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}^{\prime}\right\}$ is almost disjoint and $|\mathcal{A}|=\left|\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\right|$. In addition, if $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ then $|A \cap B|=\mathfrak{c}$ since $\left|A^{\prime} \backslash A\right|<\mathfrak{c}$.

Remark 2.3. It is not true that for every almost disjoint family $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ there are two disjoint subsets of $\mathbb{R}$ both meeting each $A \in \mathcal{A}$. To prove this, let $\left\{A_{\alpha}: \alpha<2^{c}\right\}$ be almost disjoint in $\mathbb{R}$ (observe that such a family exists, e.g., under the Continuum Hypothesis, see Section 1). Let $\left\{\left\langle B_{\alpha}^{0}, B_{\alpha}^{1}\right\rangle: \alpha<2^{\text {c }}\right\}$ list all pairs of disjoint subsets of $\mathbb{R}$. For $\alpha<2^{\text {c }}$ we will define sets $A_{\alpha}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, as follows. If $\left|A_{\alpha} \cap B_{\alpha}^{0}\right|=\mathfrak{c}$ then $A_{\alpha}^{\prime}=A_{\alpha} \cap B_{\alpha}^{0}$. If this is not true then we put $A_{\alpha}^{\prime}=A_{\alpha} \cap B_{\alpha}^{1}$ if this intersection has size $c$. Finally, if $\left|A_{\alpha} \cap\left(B_{\alpha}^{0} \cup B_{\alpha}^{1}\right)\right|<\mathfrak{c}$ then $A_{\alpha}^{\prime}=A_{\alpha} \backslash\left(B_{\alpha}^{0} \cup B_{\alpha}^{1}\right)$. The family $\left\{A_{\alpha}^{\prime}: \alpha<2^{\mathfrak{c}}\right\}$ is almost disjoint and for every $\alpha<2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ we have $B_{\alpha}^{0} \cap A_{\alpha}^{\prime}=\emptyset$ or $B_{\alpha}^{1} \cap A_{\alpha}^{\prime}=\emptyset$.

Remark 2.4. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a family of at most $\kappa$ sets, each of cardinality $\kappa$. It is well known and easy to prove that for every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ there is a set $B(A) \subseteq A$ of size $\kappa$ such that the family $\{B(A): A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ is pairwise disjoint. This is called the 'Disjoint Refinement Lemma' and will be used frequently in the remaining part of this note.

Remark 2.5. A space is analytic if it is a continuous image of a complete space. It is an old result of Souslin that every analytic space is either countable or contains a Cantor set, $[5,1.5 .12]$. This implies that a complete space is either countable or of cardinality c. This will be used frequently without explicit reference in the remaining part of this note.

## 3. The first method for constructing almost disjoint families

In this section we will describe our first method for constructing almost disjoint families of connected sets. We will conclude that if $X$ is compact and $\operatorname{dim} X \geqslant 2$ then $X \in \Gamma$ and if $n \geqslant 2$ then $\mathbb{R}^{n} \in \Delta$.

For a space $X$ we let $\mathcal{S}(X)$ denote the collection of all closed subsets of $X$ that separate $X$.

Theorem 3.1. Let $X$ be a space containing a set $S$ of size less than $\mathfrak{c}$ such that:
(1) $X$ is connected and nontrivial,
(2) every $A \in \mathcal{S}(X)$ that misses $S$ has cardinality c .

Then $X \in \Gamma$.
Assume that $X$ is connected, locally connected and nontrivial, and that for every connected open $U \subseteq X$ we have
(3) every $A \in \mathcal{S}(U)$ that misses $S$ has cardinality c .

Then $X \in \Delta$.
Proof. We may assume without loss of generality that $S$ is dense in $X$. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the collection of all $F_{\sigma}$-subsets of $X$ that miss $S$ and have cardinality $\mathfrak{c}$. Then, clearly, $|\mathcal{B}| \leqslant \mathfrak{c}$. (It is easy to see that $\mathcal{B} \neq \emptyset$.) The Disjoint Refinement Lemma gives us for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ a set $E(B) \subseteq B$ of size $\mathfrak{c}$ such that the collection

$$
\{E(B): B \in \mathcal{B}\}
$$

is pairwise disjoint. Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$ be arbitrary. By Corollary 2.2 there is an almost disjoint family $\mathcal{A}$ of subsets of $X$ such that $|\mathcal{A}|=\kappa$ and $|E(B) \cap A|=\mathfrak{c}$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and $A \in \mathcal{A}$. So every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ intersects every $B \in \mathcal{B}$, hence to establish the first part of the theorem it clearly suffices to prove the following:

Claim 1. If $Y \subseteq X$ intersects every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ then $Y \cup S$ is connected.
Assume that $Y \cup S$ can be written as the union of the disjoint relatively open and nonempty sets $E$ and $F$. Since $Y \cup S$ is dense in $X$ there exist disjoint and open sets $E^{\prime}$ and $F^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $E^{\prime} \cap(Y \cup S)=E$ and $F^{\prime} \cap(Y \cup S)=F$. Then by (2), $B=X \backslash\left(E^{\prime} \cup F^{\prime}\right) \in \mathcal{B}$. Since $Y \cap B \neq \emptyset$, this is a contradiction.

For the second part of the theorem, simply observe that if $U \subseteq X$ is open and connected and $A \in \mathcal{S}(U)$ then $A$ is an $F_{\sigma}$-subset of $X$. Hence if such an $A$ misses $S$ then $A \in \mathcal{B}$ by (3). So the proof of Claim 1 can be repeated to show that if $Y \subseteq X$ intersects every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ then $U \cap(Y \cup S)$ is connected for every connected open set $U$. Consequently, $\{A \cup S: A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ is now an almost disjoint family of connected and locally connected sets.

Remark 3.2. A space $X$ is punctiform if it contains no nondegenerate continuum. Knaster and Kuratowski [3, pp. 236 and 237] proved that if $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$ is punctiform then $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash X$ is connected and locally connected. Their proof is similar to the argument in Claim 1 in the proof of Theorem 3.1 (observe that if $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$ is connected and open and $B \in \mathcal{S}(U)$ then $B$ contains a nondegenerate continuum). See also Jones [2] where similar arguments were used.

Corollary 3.3. If $n \geqslant 2$ then $\mathbb{R}^{n} \in \Delta$.

Proof. Observe that no countable set separates a connected open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ if $n \geqslant 2$. So we can apply Theorem 3.1 with $S=\emptyset$.

Remark 3.4. If $E$ and $F$ are two opposite faces of $\mathbb{I}^{n+1} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, then the almost disjoint sets we get from the proof of Theorem 3.1 evidently meet each continuum that intersects both $E$ and $F$. By the results in Rubin, Schori and Walsh [7] this means that they are all of dimension at least $n$. Since every $(n+1)$-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ has nonempty interior, [5, 3.7.1], only countably many of them are of dimension $n+1$. So we conclude that in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ there exists a 'large' almost disjoint family of connected and locally connected $n$ dimensional sets. Moreover, these sets can be assumed to be pairwise non-homeomorphic. This is clear since for every set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ the collection $\left\{f(A): f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}\right.$ continuous $\}$ has size at most $\mathfrak{c}$ (use that $A$ is separable).

A continuum $X$ is decomposable if it is the union of two proper subcontinua. A continuum that is not decomposable, is called indecomposable. It is known that a continuum is indecomposable if and only if all of its proper subcontinua are nowhere dense, [5, 1.10.13].

The following lemma is well known. It can be proved by observing that every indecomposable continuum has uncountably many composants and that they are all dense and connected, [5, Exercise 1.10.23]. We include a somewhat simpler proof.

Lemma 3.5. Let $X$ be an indecomposable continuum. Then no countable closed subset of $X$ separates $X$.

Proof. Striving for a contradiction, let $K \subseteq X$ be a countable closed set such that $X \backslash K$ can be written as $E \cup F$, where $E$ and $F$ are disjoint nonempty open subsets of $X$. Let $\mathcal{E}$ be the collection of components of $E \cup K$. Since $X$ is a continuum, and $E \cup K$ is a proper closed subset of $X$, every $E \in \mathcal{E}$ meets $K$, [5, A.10.5]. This means that $\mathcal{E}$ is countable. Similarly, the collection $\mathcal{F}$ of components of $F \cup K$ is countable. Since $X$ is indecomposable, the countable closed cover $\mathcal{E} \cup \mathcal{F}$ of $X$ consists of nowhere dense sets. But this violates the Baire Category Theorem for $X$.

Corollary 3.6. Let $X$ be a compact space with $\operatorname{dim} X \geqslant 2$. Then $X \in \Gamma$.
Proof. It was shown by Bing that $X$ contains a (hereditarily) indecomposable continuum $K,[5,3.8 .3]$. By Lemma 3.5 it follows that no countable closed subset of $K$ separates $K$. This means that if $T \in \mathcal{S}(K)$ then $T$ is uncountable, hence $|T|=\mathfrak{c}$. So $K \in \Gamma$ by Theorem 3.1 (let again $S=\emptyset$ ), hence $X \in \Gamma$.

## 4. The second method for constructing almost disjoint families

We will now present our second method that concerns uncountable stars, i.e., uncountable collections of subcontinua 'emanating' from a single common point.

If $X$ is compact then $\mathcal{C}(X)$ denotes the hyperspace of subcontinua of $X$ with the Vietoris topology. It is known that $\mathcal{C}(X)$ is compact, [5, 1.11.14]. The topology of $\mathcal{C}(X)$ can also be
described in terms of a metric. Indeed, if $\varrho$ is an admissible metric for $X$ then the Hausdorff metric $\varrho_{H}$ is an admissible metric for $\mathcal{C}(X)$.

Lemma 4.1. Let $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{C}(X)$. If $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is dense in $\mathcal{A}$ in $\mathcal{C}(X)$ then $\bigcup \mathcal{D}$ is dense in $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ in $X$.

Proof. Let $x \in \bigcup \mathcal{A}$. If $U$ is an open neighborhood of $x$ then the collection $\mathcal{U}=\{A \in \mathcal{A}$ : $A \cap U \neq \emptyset\}$ is a nonempty open subset of $\mathcal{A}$. So there is an element $D \in \mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{U}$. Clearly, $D \cap U \neq \emptyset$, hence $\bigcup \mathcal{D}$ meets $U$.

Theorem 4.2. Let $X$ be a compact space containing a point $p$ and an uncountable family $\mathcal{C}$ of subcontinua such that for all distinct $C, C^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}$ we have $C \cap C^{\prime}=\{p\}$. Then $X \in \Gamma$.

Proof. We may clearly assume that $X$ is a continuum. Since $\mathcal{C}$ is an uncountable subspace of $\mathcal{C}(X)$, it contains by the Cantor-Bendixson Theorem, [5, Exercise A.2.13], an uncountable dense-in-itself subspace. So we may assume without loss of generality that $\mathcal{C}$ is dense-in-itself.

Let $\varrho$ be an admissible metric for $X$. For $x \in X$ and $\varepsilon>0$ we let $U_{\varepsilon}(x)$ denote the open ball $\{y \in X: \varrho(x, y)<\varepsilon\}$. If $C \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ and $\varepsilon>0$ then we let $\mathcal{V}_{\varepsilon}(C)$ denote the closed ball

$$
\left\{C^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}(X): \varrho_{H}\left(C, C^{\prime}\right) \leqslant \varepsilon\right\}
$$

in $\mathcal{C}(X)$. Our aim is to construct a Cantor set $\mathcal{K}$ in $\mathcal{C}(X)$ with certain additional desirable properties. Start with two distinct elements $C_{0}, C_{1} \in \mathcal{C}$. Observe that

$$
C_{0} \backslash U_{2^{-1}}(p), \quad C_{1} \backslash U_{2^{-1}}(p)
$$

are (possibly empty) disjoint compacta in $X$. Pick disjoint open sets $E$ and $F$ in $X$ such that $C_{0} \backslash U_{2^{-1}}(p) \subseteq E, C_{1} \backslash U_{2^{-1}}(p) \subseteq F$ and $\bar{E} \cap \bar{F}=\emptyset$. There exists $\delta_{0}>0$ such that $\delta_{0}<2^{-1}, \mathcal{V}_{\delta_{0}}\left(C_{0}\right) \cap \mathcal{V}_{\delta_{0}}\left(C_{1}\right)=\emptyset$, and

$$
\bigcup \mathcal{V}_{\delta_{0}}\left(C_{0}\right) \subseteq E \cup U_{2^{-1}}(p), \quad \bigcup \mathcal{V}_{\delta_{0}}\left(C_{1}\right) \subseteq F \cup U_{2^{-1}}(p)
$$

Observe that this implies that if $\varrho_{H}\left(C_{0}, A\right) \leqslant \delta_{0}$ and $\varrho_{H}\left(C_{1}, B\right) \leqslant \delta_{0}$ then $A \cap B \subseteq$ $U_{2^{-1}}(p)$. This completes the first step. In the second step, pick pairwise distinct elements $C_{00}, C_{01}, C_{10}, C_{11}$ in $\mathcal{C}$ such that for $i, j=0,1, \varrho_{H}\left(C_{i}, C_{i j}\right)<\delta_{0}$. This is possible since $\mathcal{C}$ is dense in itself. By the same argument as the one above we find $0<\delta_{1}<2^{-2}$ such that the closed balls

$$
\left\{\mathcal{V}_{\delta_{1}}\left(C_{i j}\right): i, j=0,1\right\}
$$

are pairwise disjoint, while moreover for all distinct $i_{0} j_{0}$ and $i_{1} j_{1}$ and elements $A \in$ $\mathcal{V}_{\delta_{1}}\left(C_{i_{0} j_{0}}\right)$ and $B \in \mathcal{V}_{\delta_{1}}\left(C_{i_{1} j_{1}}\right)$ we have

$$
A \cap B \subseteq U_{2^{-2}}(p)
$$

Continuing in this way in the standard manner clearly yields a Cantor set $\mathcal{K}$ in $\mathcal{C}(X)$ such that for all distinct $A, B \in \mathcal{K}$ we have $A \cap B=\{p\}$.

Let $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ be locally of cardinality $\mathfrak{c}$, and put $Y=\bigcup \mathcal{Y}$. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the collection of all closed subsets $B$ of $Y$ such that $p \notin B$ and

$$
|\{C \in \mathcal{Y}: C \cap B \neq \emptyset\}|=c
$$

Since $|\mathcal{B}| \leqslant \mathfrak{c}$, there is a transversal $T_{\mathcal{Y}}$ for the collection $\{C \backslash\{p\}: C \in \mathcal{Y}\}$ such that $T_{\mathcal{Y}} \cap B \neq \emptyset$ for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$. We claim that $T_{\mathcal{Y}} \cup\{p\}$ is connected.

Let $U$ and $V$ be disjoint nonempty relatively open subsets of $T_{\mathcal{Y}} \cup\{p\}$ such that $p \in U$. It suffices to prove that $T_{\mathcal{Y}} \backslash(U \cup V) \neq \emptyset$. Let $U^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime}$ be disjoint open subsets of $Y$ such that $U^{\prime} \cap\left(T_{\mathcal{Y}} \cup\{p\}\right)=U$ and $V^{\prime} \cap\left(T_{\mathcal{Y}} \cup\{p\}\right)=V,\left[5\right.$, A.8.2]. Put $B=Y \backslash\left(U^{\prime} \cup V^{\prime}\right)$. Then $B$ is closed in $Y$ and does not contain $p$. Suppose first that $\mathcal{E}=\{C \in \mathcal{Y}: C \cap B=\emptyset\}$ is dense in $\mathcal{Y}$. Then by Lemma 4.1, the dense connected set $\bigcup \mathcal{E}$ in $Y$ is contained in $U$ (since $p \in U$ and it misses $B$ ). But this would imply that $U=Y$, which contradicts the fact that $V \neq \emptyset$. Hence $\mathcal{Y} \backslash \mathcal{E}$ contains a nonempty open subset of $\mathcal{Y}$ and hence is of size c . This shows that $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and hence, by construction, $T_{\mathcal{Y}} \cap B \neq \emptyset$ or equivalently $T \mathcal{Y} \backslash(U \cup V) \neq \emptyset$.

Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{A} \mathbb{D}(\mathfrak{c})$, and let $\left\{\mathcal{Y}_{\alpha}: \alpha<\kappa\right\}$ be an almost disjoint family of subsets of $\mathcal{K}$ consisting of sets that are all locally of cardinality $\mathfrak{c}$ (Corollary 2.2). Then the collection

$$
\left\{T_{\mathcal{Y}_{\alpha}} \cup\{p\}: \alpha<\kappa\right\}
$$

is clearly almost disjoint and consists of connected sets.
Corollary 4.3. Let $X$ be a continuum containing a point $p$ such that $X \backslash\{p\}$ has uncountably many components. Then $X \in \Gamma$.

Proof. Let $K$ be a component of $X \backslash\{p\}$. We claim that $K$ is not compact. For if it is, then we can find an open neighborhood of $K$ such that $K \subseteq U \subseteq \bar{U} \subseteq X \backslash\{p\}$. It is clear that $K$ is a component of the compact space $\bar{U}$. Since components and quasi-components in a compact space agree, [5, A.10.1], there is a relatively clopen subset $C$ of $\bar{U}$ such that $K \subseteq$ $C \subseteq U$. Since $C$ is open in $U$, it is open in $X$. And since $C$ is compact, it is closed in $X$. This contradicts $X$ being connected. (Alternatively, use the Boundary Bumping Theorem, [6, Theorem 5.4].)

So if $\mathcal{K}$ is the family of all components of $X \backslash\{p\}$ then $K \cup\{p\}$ is a continuum for every $K \in \mathcal{K}$. Hence we are in a position to apply Theorem 4.2.

## 5. Examples

A space $X$ is said to be rational at the point $x \in X$ if $x$ has arbitrarily small neighborhoods the boundaries of which are countable. A space is rational if it is rational at any of its points.

In view of the results in Section 4, one would be tempted to conjecture that for a continuum $X$ we have $X \in \Gamma$ if and only if $X$ is not rational. The following examples demonstrate that this is not true.

Example 5.1. There is a continuum $X$ which is not rational at a dense open set of points but which does not belong to $\Gamma$.

Proof. Let $\left(K_{n}\right)_{n}$ be a sequence of pairwise disjoint Cantor sets in $\mathbb{I}$ such that every nondegenerate interval $(r, s)$ in $\mathbb{I}$ contains one of the $K_{n}$. Let $Z=\mathbb{I} \backslash \bigcup_{n} K_{n}$, and put

$$
X=(\mathbb{I} \times\{0\}) \cup \bigcup_{n \geqslant 1}\left(K_{n} \times[0,1 / n]\right)
$$

It is clear that $X$ is closed in $\mathbb{I}^{2}$, and is connected. We claim that $X$ is not rational at any point of the dense open set $X \backslash(\mathbb{I} \times\{0\})$. To prove this, observe that if $\langle x, y\rangle \in X \backslash(\mathbb{I} \times\{0\})$, say $\langle x, y\rangle \in K_{n} \times(0,1 / n]$, then there are a clopen neighborhood $C$ of $x$ in $K_{n}$ and a positive real number $s \in(0,1 / n]$ with $s<y$ such that $V=C \times[s, 1 / n]$ is a neighborhood of $\langle x, y\rangle$ in $X$. The boundary $\partial$ of $V$ is clearly equal to $C \times\{s\}$. Let $U$ be an arbitrary open neighborhood of $\langle x, y\rangle$ in $X$ such that $\bar{U} \subseteq V \backslash \partial$. We claim that $\bar{U} \backslash U$ is uncountable. If not, then $B=\pi(\bar{U} \backslash U)$ is also countable, where $\pi: V \rightarrow C$ is the projection along the $y$-axis. By connectivity, if $p \in C \backslash B$ then either $\{p\} \times[s, 1 / n] \subseteq U$ or $\{p\} \times[s, 1 / n] \subseteq$ $V \backslash \bar{U}$. But, clearly, $\{p\} \times[s, 1 / n] \nsubseteq U$ since $\bar{U}$ misses $\partial$. Since $C$ is a Cantor set and $B$ is countable, $C \backslash B$ is dense in $C$. Hence $V \backslash \bar{U}$ contains the set $(C \backslash B) \times[s, 1 / n]$ that is clearly dense in $V$. This, however, contradicts the fact that $U$ is a nonempty open subset of $V$.

Next we show that $X$ has no large almost disjoint family of connected sets, hence $X \notin$ $\Gamma$. Striving for a contradiction, assume that $\mathcal{A}$ is an almost disjoint family of connected subsets of $X$ such that $|\mathcal{A}|>\mathfrak{c}$. For every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ let $D(A) \subseteq A$ be countable and dense. Since $X$ has only $\mathfrak{c}$ countable subsets, there is a subcollection $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{A}$ of size greater than $\mathfrak{c}$ such that $D(A)=D\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ for all $A, A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}^{\prime}$. This observation shows that we may assume without loss of generality that there is a subcontinuum $Y$ of $X$ such that every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ is a dense subset of $Y$.

Put $Z^{\prime}=Y \cap(Z \times\{0\})$.
Claim 1. $Z^{\prime}$ is countable.
Assume indirectly that $Z^{\prime}$ is uncountable. Hence $Z^{\prime}$ is an uncountable $G_{\delta}$-subset of $Y$, and consequently has cardinality $c$. Observe that at most two elements of $Z^{\prime}$ are endpoints of $Y$ (the possible 'minimum' and 'maximum' of $Z^{\prime}$ ). So $Z^{\prime}$ contains a subset $Z^{\prime \prime}$ of cardinality $\mathfrak{c}$ which consists entirely of cutpoints of $Y$. Pick two distinct elements $A, A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}$. Since $Z^{\prime \prime}$ consists of cutpoints of $Y$ and both $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ are dense in $Y$ and connected, we clearly have $Z^{\prime \prime} \subseteq A \cap A^{\prime}$. But this contradicts $\mathcal{A}$ being almost disjoint.

So by Claim $1, Y$ is covered by the countable disjoint collection

$$
\left\{Y \cap\left(K_{n} \times[0,1 / n]\right): n \in \mathbb{N}\right\} \cup\left\{\{z\}: z \in Z^{\prime}\right\} .
$$

By the Sierpiński Theorem, [5, A.10.6], at most one element of that collection is nonempty. Since that element clearly is not a singleton, this means that there is a unique $n$ such that $Y \subseteq K_{n} \times[0,1 / n]$. But this means that $Y$ is contained in a topological copy of $\mathbb{I}$. This clearly leads to a contradiction (see the remarks in Section 1).

Example 5.2. There is a rational continuum $S$ such that $S \in \Delta$.
Proof. Let $S$ be the Sierpiński triangular curve, [4, p. 276]. It is a locally connected rational plane continuum containing a countable dense set of local cutpoints $D$ such that no
point in $X \backslash D$ locally separates $X$. (It is even rim-finite, i.e., it has a base for the open sets the boundary of each element of which is finite.) We claim that if $U$ is open and connected in $S$ and $K \in \mathcal{S}(U)$ then $K$ is uncountable provided that $K \cap D=\emptyset$. Striving for a contradiction, assume that there exists such a set $K$ that is countable. Write $U \backslash K$ as the union of two disjoint nonempty open subsets $E$ and $F$. Pick arbitrary $x \in E$ and $y \in F$. Then $K$ separates between $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ in the (connected and) locally connected space $U$. Since $U$ is locally connected, we may assume that $K \cap U$ is irreducible, i.e., no proper closed subset $K^{\prime} \subseteq K$ separates between $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ in $U$, [5, Exercise 3.10.2]. Since $K$ is countable and locally compact, $K$ has an isolated point, say $p$. If $p \notin \overline{E \cup F}$ then $V=U \backslash \overline{E \cup F}$ is a nonempty open subset of $U$ which is contained in $K$ and contains $p$. Since $p$ is isolated in $K$, we then get that $p$ is isolated in $U$ which contradicts the connectivity of $U$. So we may assume without loss of generality that $p \in \bar{E}$. Suppose that $p \notin \bar{F}$. Let $W$ be a neighborhood of $p$ such that $W \subseteq U \backslash \bar{F}$ and $W \cap K=\{p\}$. Then $E \cup W$ is open, misses $F$ and $U \backslash(E \cup W \cup F)$ is equal to $K \backslash\{p\}$. But this contradicts the fact that $K$ is irreducible. So it follows that $p \in \bar{F}$. Let $X \subseteq U$ be a connected open neighborhood of $p$ such that $X \cap K=\{p\}$. Since $X \cap E \neq \emptyset$ and $X \cap F \neq \emptyset, p$ is a local cutpoint of $X$, which contradicts the fact that $K$ misses $D$.

So we conclude from Theorem 3.1 that $S \in \Delta$.

## 6. Remarks

(1) Let $p \in \mathbb{R} \times(0, \infty)$ be an arbitrary point in the upper half-plane. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$ we let $[x, p]$ denote the straight-line segment in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ connecting $\langle x, 0\rangle$ and $p$. For $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ let

$$
\Delta_{A}^{p}=\bigcup_{x \in A}[x, p] .
$$

A set $T \subseteq \Delta_{A}^{p} \backslash\{p\}$ is called a transversal for $\triangle_{A}^{p}$ if $|T \cap[x, p]|=1$ for every $x \in A$. The following result, which motivated Theorem 4.2 and which can be proved easily along the same lines, is inspired by the classical Knaster-Kuratowski fan from [3].

Proposition 6.1. If $p \in \mathbb{R} \times(0, \infty)$ and $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is locally of cardinality $\mathfrak{c}$ then there is a transversal $T$ for $\triangle_{A}^{p}$ such that $T \cup\{p\}$ is connected.

If $A$ is zero-dimensional then clearly any transversal $T$ for $\triangle_{A}^{p}$ is totally disconnected, i.e., any pair of points of $T$ can be separated by a clopen set. It is clear however that the transversal $T$ given by proposition Proposition 6.1 cannot be zero-dimensional since $T \cup\{p\}$ is connected, hence $T$ is totally disconnected but not zero-dimensional. That there exist totally disconnected spaces $X$ that can be embedded in a connected space $Y$ such that $|Y \backslash X|=1$ is well known, see e.g., [1, Problem 6.3.24]. Our construction seems to be an efficient way of getting such an example.
(2) The examples in Section 5 demonstrate that the 1-dimensional continua that are in $\Gamma$ form a rather peculiar class. Can they be characterized in a transparent way?

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