# GENERALIZED HORSESHOE MAPS AND INVERSE LIMITS 

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#### Abstract

The now-classical example due to Smale, the horseshoe map, displays interesting dynamics as well as a topologically complicated attractor. In 1986 Marcy Barge showed that the full attracting sets of horseshoe maps are homeomorphic to inverse limits of the unit interval with a single bonding map. Here we extend Barge's results to a more general class of maps.


1. Introduction. In [Ba], Barge describes the attracting sets of horseshoe maps as inverse limits of the unit interval with a single bonding map. Topologically these spaces are chainable continua known as Knaster continua.

In this paper we consider a more general class of maps which we will refer to as generalized horseshoe maps. We will show that the attractors of these maps are homeomorphic to inverse limits of the unit interval with a single bonding map. Both the generalized horseshoe map and the bonding map which defines the inverse limit space described above "follow a pattern" in a sense we will define in the next section. In $\S 3$ we will prove two theorems about inverse limit spaces which will be needed in the proof of the main result given in §4. In the final section of the paper we will give some examples, and show that the horseshoe maps which Barge studied in [Ba] are special cases of the generalized horseshoes we consider here. For basic information on attractors and inverse limits see [ $\mathbf{S}]$.
2. Preliminaries. Let $I$ denote the unit interval and $\left\{f_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of maps of $I$ into $I$. Let

$$
\left(I, f_{n}\right)=\left\{\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right): x_{n} \in I \text { and } f_{n}\left(x_{n+1}\right)=x_{n}, n=1,2, \ldots\right\}
$$

be the inverse limit space with bonding maps $f_{n}$ and topology induced by the metric

$$
d\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right),\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right)\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left|x_{n}-y_{n}\right|}{2^{n}} .
$$



Figure 1
For $n=0,1, \ldots$, let $\pi_{n}:\left(I, f_{n}\right) \rightarrow I$ be defined by $\pi_{n}\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)\right)$ $=x_{n}$. It is often the case that we wish to consider inverse limit spaces with a single bonding map $f$, i.e., $f_{n}=f$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$ Let $(I, f)$ denote such an inverse limit space.

Next, let $Q:\{0,1,2, \ldots, m\} \rightarrow\{0,1,2, \ldots, m\}$ be a function such that $Q(j) \neq Q(j+1), 0 \leq j \leq m-1$, and $\{0, m\} \subset$ range $Q$. We will use the notation $Q=(Q(0), Q(1), \ldots, Q(m))$ to denote the map $Q:\{0,1, \ldots, m\} \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, m\}$. For example, $Q=(0,2,1)$ denotes the map $Q:\{0,1,2\} \rightarrow\{0,1,2\}$ where $Q(0)=0, Q(1)=$ 2 , and $Q(2)=1$. Let $D$ denote $(I \times I) \cup D_{0} \cup D_{m}$ where $D_{0}$ and $D_{m}$ are half disks attached to the opposites sides $\{0\} \times I$ and $\{1\} \times I$ respectively. Subdivide $I \times I$ as follows: For $1 \leq j \leq m-1$, let $D_{j}=\left[\frac{4 j-1}{4 m}, \frac{4 j+1}{4 m}\right] \times I$. Let $E_{1}=\left[0, \frac{3}{4 m}\right] \times I, E_{m}=\left[1-\frac{3}{4 m}, 1\right] \times I$, and for $2 \leq j \leq m-1$, let $E_{j}=\left[\frac{4 j-3}{4 m}, \frac{4 j-1}{4 m}\right] \times I$. The space $D$ is pictured in Figure 1.

Let $\pi: D \rightarrow I$ be defined by $\pi\left(D_{0}\right)=0, \pi\left(D_{m}\right)=1$, and $\left.\pi\right|_{I \times I}$ be projection onto the first coordinate. Define $p: I \rightarrow I$ as follows: $p(0)=0, p(1)=1, p\left(\pi\left(D_{j}\right)\right)=\frac{j}{m}, 1 \leq j \leq m-1$, and $p$ is linear on $\bigcup_{j=1}^{m} \pi\left(E_{j}\right)$. Let $P=p \circ \pi$. Note that $P: D \rightarrow I$ and $P\left(D_{j}\right)=\frac{j}{m}$ for $0 \leq j \leq m$.

We say that a map $F_{Q}: D \rightarrow D$ follows $Q$ if $F_{Q}$ is a homeomorphism of $D$ into $D$ which satisfies the following conditions (see Figure 2):
(i) $F_{Q}\left(P^{-1}(P(z))\right) \subset P^{-1}\left(P\left(F_{Q}(z)\right)\right)$ for each $z \in D$,
(ii) $F_{Q}\left(D_{j}\right) \subset$ interior $D_{Q(j)}, 0 \leq j \leq m$,
(iii) $\left.\operatorname{diam} F_{Q}^{k}\left(P^{-1}(P(z))\right)\right) \rightarrow 0$ uniformly in $z$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

If $F_{Q}: D \rightarrow D$ follows $Q$ we say that $F_{Q}$ is a $Q$-horseshoe map. Let $\Lambda_{Q}$ denote the set $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} F_{Q}^{k}(D)$ where $F_{Q}$ is a $Q$-horseshoe map.


Figure 2
We say that $g_{Q}: I \rightarrow I$ follows $Q$ if $g_{Q}\left(\frac{j}{m}\right)=\frac{Q(j)}{m}, 0 \leq j \leq m$, and $g_{Q}$ is linear on $\left[\frac{j}{m}, \frac{j+1}{m}\right], 0 \leq j \leq m-1$. Let $\left(I, g_{Q}\right)$ denote the inverse limit space of $I$ with the single bonding map $g_{Q}$. The following theorem is our main result, and relates $\Lambda_{Q}$ and $\left(I, g_{Q}\right)$.

Theorem 2.1. Suppose $Q=(Q(0), Q(1), \ldots, Q(m))$ is a function such that $Q(j) \neq Q(j+1), 0 \leq j \leq m-1$, and $\{0, m\} \subset$ range $Q$. If $F_{Q}$ is a $Q$-horseshoe map, and $g_{Q}: I \rightarrow I$ follows $Q$, then $\Lambda_{Q}$ is homeomorphic to $\left(I, g_{Q}\right)$.

We will prove this theorem in $\S 4$. To do so, two results about inverse limits of the interval are needed. These results constitute $\S 3$.

## 3. Inverse limits.

Theorem 3.1. Let $\left\{f_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\left\{g_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be sequences of surjective self-maps of $I=[0,1]$. Suppose that $A=\left\{0=a_{0}<a_{1}<\cdots<a_{m}=\right.$ $1\}$ is a finite subset of $I$ such that for each $n \in \mathbb{N}, f_{n}$ and $g_{n}$ are both strictly increasing or strictly decreasing on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right], f_{n}\left(a_{j}\right)=g_{n}\left(a_{j}\right)$, $0 \leq j \leq m$, and $f_{n}$ and $g_{n}$ are both invariant on A. Then $\left(I, f_{n}\right)$ is homeomorphic to $\left(I, g_{n}\right)$.

Proof. Let $I_{j}$ denote the interval $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$. We will show that if $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right) \in\left(I, f_{n}\right)$ then there exists a unique point $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right) \in$ $\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ such that $y_{0}=x_{0}$ and $x_{n} \in I_{j}$ if and only if $y_{n} \in I_{j}$. Then we can define $\phi:\left(I, f_{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ by setting $\phi\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)\right)$ equal to the unique point of $\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ described above. To complete the proof of Theorem 3.1 we will show that $\phi$ is one-to-one, onto, and continuous.

To define $\phi$, let $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)$ be an element of $\left(I, f_{n}\right)$. We inductively define a nested sequence $\left\{Q_{n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ of closed, nonempty subsets
of $\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ with the following properties: if $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right) \in Q_{n}$, then $y_{0}=x_{0}$, and $y_{i} \in I_{j}$ if and only if $x_{i} \in I_{j}$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$. Let $Q_{0}=$ $\pi_{0}^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right) \subset\left(I, g_{n}\right)$. Then $Q_{0}$ is closed and nonempty. Now suppose $Q_{n} \subset Q_{n-1} \subset \cdots \subset Q_{0}$ satisfy the above properties. Define $Q_{n+1}$ as follows: let $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right)$ be an element of $Q_{n}, I_{j(n)}$ an interval which contains $y_{n}$ and $x_{n}$, and $I_{j(n+1)}$ an interval which contains $x_{n+1}$. Then $f_{n}\left(x_{n+1}\right)=x_{n} \in I_{j(n)}$ so that $f_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right) \cap I_{j(n)} \neq \varnothing$. Also, $f_{n}$ is invariant on $A$, so $f_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)=\left[a_{k_{1}}, a_{k_{2}}\right]$, where $a_{k_{1}}$ and $a_{k_{2}}$ are elements of $A$. Thus $I_{j(n)} \subset f_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)$ or $I_{j(n)} \cap f_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)=\left\{x_{n}\right\}$. If $I_{j(n)} \subset f_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)=g_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)$ then $y_{n} \in I_{j(n)} \subset g_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)$, so there exists $y_{n+1} \in I_{j(n+1)}$ such that $g_{n}\left(y_{n+1}\right)=y_{n}$. In this case, set $Q_{n+1}=\pi_{n+1}^{-1}\left(y_{n+1}\right) \subset\left(I, g_{n}\right)$. If $I_{j(n)} \cap f_{n}\left(I_{j(n+1)}\right)=\left\{x_{n}\right\}$, then $x_{n}=a_{j(n)}$ or $x_{n}=a_{j(n+1)}$; so $y_{n}=x_{n}$. Let $y_{n+1}=x_{n+1}$ and $Q_{n+1}=\pi_{n+1}^{-1}\left(y_{n+1}\right) \subset\left(I, g_{n}\right)$. Obviously $Q_{n+1}$ is closed and nonempty and it is easy to check that $Q_{n+1} \subset Q_{n}$.

Since each $Q_{n}$ is closed and nonempty, and the sets $Q_{0}, Q_{1}, \ldots$ are nested, it follows that there exists $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right) \in \bigcap Q_{n}$. Suppose that $\left(y_{0}^{\prime}, y_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)$ is another point of $\cap Q_{n}$. Let $i$ be the first coordinate so that $y_{i}^{\prime} \neq y_{i}$. Then $i>0$ since $y_{0}^{\prime}=y_{0}=x_{0}$. Also, $y_{i}$ and $y_{i}^{\prime}$ are both elements of some interval $I_{j}$ and $g_{i-1}\left(y_{i}\right)=g_{i-1}\left(y_{i}^{\prime}\right)=y_{i-1}$. But this contradicts the fact that $g_{i-1}$ is one-to-one on $I_{j}$. Therefore there is only one point in $\bigcap Q_{n}$. Thus we define $\phi:\left(I, f_{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ by setting $\phi\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)\right)$ equal to the unique point $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right)$ in $\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ such that $x_{0}=y_{0}$ and $x_{n} \in I_{j}$ if and only if $y_{n} \in I_{j}$.

The same construction shows that given a point $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right)$ in $\left(I, g_{n}\right)$ we can find a unique point $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right) \in\left(I, f_{n}\right)$ such that $x_{0}=y_{0}$, and $x_{n} \in I_{j}$ if and only if $y_{n} \in I_{j}$. It follows that $\phi$ is one-to-one and onto. We now show that $\phi$ is continuous.

Let $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right) \in\left(I, f_{n}\right),\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right)=\phi\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)\right)$, and $L$ be the minimum of the lengths of the intervals [ $a_{j}, a_{j+1}$ ]. Given $\varepsilon>0$, choose $N$ so that $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}}<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $j$ between 0 and $m, g_{n}^{-1}: g_{n}\left(I_{j}\right) \rightarrow I_{j}$ is a homeomorphism since $\left.g_{n}\right|_{I_{j}}$ is one-to-one. From now on, let $g_{n}^{j}$ denote $g_{n}^{-1}: g_{n}\left(I_{j}\right) \rightarrow I_{j}$. Note that if $y_{n+1} \in I_{j}$, then $y_{n+1}=g_{n}^{j}\left(y_{n}\right)$. Next, for each $i, 0 \leq$ $i \leq N+1$, define $L_{i}$ as follows: if $x_{i} \in A$, let $L_{i}=L$. If $x_{i} \notin A$, then $x_{i} \in\left(a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right)$. In this case, let $L_{i}=\min \left\{a_{j+1}-x_{i}, x_{i}-\overrightarrow{a_{j}}\right\}$. Note that if $\left|x_{i}-x_{i}^{\prime}\right| \leq L_{i}$ then $x_{i}$ and $x_{i}^{\prime}$ both lie in some $I_{j}$.

As we noted above, $g_{N-1}^{j}: g_{N-1}\left(I_{j}\right) \rightarrow I_{j}$ is a homeomorphism. Thus, for each $j, 1 \leq j \leq m$, we may choose $\delta_{N-1}^{j}$ so that if $y$ and
$y^{\prime}$ are elements of $g_{N-1}\left(I_{j}\right)$ with $\left|y-y^{\prime}\right|<\delta_{N-1}^{j}$, then $\mid g_{N-1}^{j}(y)-$ $g_{N-1}^{j}\left(y^{\prime}\right) \left\lvert\,<\frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right.$. Let $\delta_{N-1}=\min \left\{\delta_{N-1}^{1}, \ldots, \delta_{N-1}^{m}\right\}$. Similarly, for each $j, 1 \leq j \leq m-1$, choose $\delta_{N-2}^{j}$ so that if $y$ and $y^{\prime}$ are elements of $g_{N-2}\left(I_{j}\right)$ with $\left|y-y^{\prime}\right|<\delta_{N-2}^{j}$, then $\left|g_{N-2}^{j}(y)-g_{N-2}^{j}\left(y^{\prime}\right)\right|<$ $\min \left\{\frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}, \delta_{N-1}\right\}$. Let $\delta_{N-2}=\min \left\{\delta_{N-2}^{1}, \ldots, \delta_{N-2}^{m}\right\}$.

Continue in this way to choose $\delta_{N-(i+1)}^{j}$ so that if $y$ and $y^{\prime}$ are elements of $g_{N-(i+1)}\left(I_{j}\right)$ with $\left|y-y^{\prime}\right|<\delta_{N-(i+1)}^{j}$, then $\mid g_{N-(i+1)}^{j}(y)-$ $g_{N-(i+1)}^{j}\left(y^{\prime}\right) \left\lvert\,<\min \left\{\frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}, \delta_{N-i}\right\}\right.$. Let

$$
\delta_{N-(i+1)}=\min \left\{\delta_{N-(i+1)}^{1}, \ldots, \delta_{N-(i+1)}^{m}\right\}
$$

Thus we obtain $\delta_{0}, \delta_{1}, \ldots, \delta_{N-1}$ such that if $y$ and $y^{\prime}$ are elements of $g_{i}\left(I_{j}\right)$ with $\left|y-y^{\prime}\right|<\delta_{i}$, then $\left|g_{i}^{j}(y)-g_{i}^{j}\left(y^{\prime}\right)\right|<\min \left\{\delta_{i+1}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right\}$.

Finally let $\delta=\min \left\{\delta_{0}, L_{0}, L_{1} / 2, \ldots L_{N+1} / 2^{N+1}, \varepsilon / 2 N\right\}$. Now suppose that $\left(x_{0}^{\prime}, x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right) \in\left(I, f_{n}\right)$ such that

$$
d\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right),\left(x_{0}^{\prime}, x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)\right)<\delta
$$

Let $\left(y_{0}^{\prime}, y_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)$ denote $\phi\left(\left(x_{0}^{\prime}, x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)\right)$. Since

$$
d\left(\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right),\left(x_{0}^{\prime}, x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)\right)<\delta \leq L_{i} / 2^{i}
$$

for $0 \leq i \leq N+1$, it follows that $\left|x_{i}-x_{i}^{\prime}\right|<L_{i}$. Therefore, there exists $I_{j(i)}$ such that $x_{i}$ and $x_{i}^{\prime}$ are both elements of $I_{j(i)}$. This implies that $y_{i}$ and $y_{i}^{\prime}$ are both elements of $I_{j(i)}$.

We now show inductively that $\left|y_{i}-y_{i}^{\prime}\right|<\min \left\{\delta_{i}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right\}$ for $0 \leq$ $i \leq N$. First, $\left|y_{0}-y_{0}^{\prime}\right|=\left|x_{0}-x_{0}^{\prime}\right|<\delta \leq \min \left\{\delta_{0}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right\}$. Now suppose that $\left|y_{i}-y_{i}^{\prime}\right|<\min \left\{\delta_{i}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right\}$. Let $I_{j(i+1)}$ be an interval which contains $y_{i+1}$ and $y_{i+1}^{\prime}$. Then $y_{i}$ and $y_{i}^{\prime}$ are elements of $g_{i}\left(I_{j(i+1)}\right)$. Furthermore, $\left|y_{i}-y_{i}^{\prime}\right|<\delta_{i}$ by the induction hypothesis, so $\left|g_{i}^{j}\left(y_{i}\right)-g_{i}^{j}\left(y_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right|<\min \left\{\delta_{i+1}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right\}$. But $g_{i}^{j}\left(y_{i}\right)=y_{i+1}$ and $g_{i}^{j}\left(y_{i}^{\prime}\right)=y_{i+1}^{\prime}$. Therefore $\left|y_{i+1}-y_{i+1}^{\prime}\right|<\min \left\{\delta_{i+1}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}\right\}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d\left(\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right),\left(y_{0}^{\prime}, y_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left|y_{i}-y_{i}^{\prime}\right|}{2^{i}} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{\left|y_{i}-y_{i}^{\prime}\right|}{2^{i}}+\sum_{i=N}^{\infty} \frac{\left|y_{i}-y_{i}^{\prime}\right|}{2^{i}} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{\varepsilon}{2 N}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}=\varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\phi$ is continuous, and this completes the proof of Theorem 3.1.


Figure 3
Theorem 3.2. Let $f: I \rightarrow I, A=\left\{0=a_{0}<a_{1}<\cdots<a_{m}=1\right\}$, and $B \subset I$ which has a finite number of nondegenerate components. Suppose that $f, A$, and $B$ satisfy the following conditions:
(i) $f$ is constant on each component of $B$,
(ii) $f$ is strictly monotone on each component of $I-B$,
(iii) $\left.f\right|_{\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]}$ is monotone, $0 \leq j \leq m-1$,
(iv) $f$ is invariant on $A$,
(v) $A \subset B$ and $A$ intersects each component of $B$ in at most one point.
If $g: I \rightarrow I$ satisfies $g\left(a_{j}\right)=f\left(a_{j}\right)$ for $a_{j} \in A$, and $g$ is linear on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right], 1 \leq j \leq m-1$, then $(I, f)$ is homeomorphic to $(I, g)$.

Proof. We will use the following notation: if $B_{i_{1}}$ and $B_{i_{2}}$ are components of $B$ such that $x<y$ for each $x \in B_{i_{1}}$ and $y \in B_{i_{2}}$ then write $B_{i_{1}}<B_{i_{2}}$. Let $B_{1}<B_{2}<\cdots<B_{r}$ be the components of $B$. Then each $B_{i}$ is an interval, $\left[b_{i}, c_{i}\right]$. Note that $0=b_{1}$ and $1=c_{r}$ since $\{0,1\} \subset B$. Let $L=\min \left\{b_{i+1}-c_{i}: 1 \leq i \leq r-1\right\}$ and choose $N$ so that if $n \geq N$, then $\frac{1}{n}<\frac{L}{2}$. For each $n \geq N$, let $b_{1}^{n}=b_{1}=0$, $b_{i}^{n}=b_{i}-\frac{1}{n}, 2 \leq i \leq r, c_{r}^{n}=c_{r}=1$, and $c_{i}^{n}=c_{i}+\frac{1}{n}, 1 \leq i \leq r-1$.

Define $f_{n}$ as follows: $f_{n}(x)=f(x)$ if $x \in A \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{r-1}\left[c_{i}^{n}, b_{i+1}^{n}\right]$. If $B_{i} \cap A=\left\{a_{j}\right\}$, define $f_{n}$ to be linear on $\left[b_{i}^{n}, a_{j}\right]$ and $\left[a_{j}, c_{i}^{n}\right]$. If $B_{i} \cap A=\varnothing$, define $f_{n}$ to be linear on $\left[b_{i}^{n}, c_{i}^{n}\right.$ ]. The graphs of $f$ and $f_{n}$ are pictured in Figure 3.

It is a straightforward check that $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ uniformly as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus it follows from Theorem 3 of $[\mathbf{B r}]$ that $(I, f)$ is homeomorphic to ( $I, f_{n_{k}}$ ) where $\left\{f_{n_{k}}\right\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a subsequence of $\left\{f_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. In order to show that $(I, f)$ is homeomorphic to $(I, g)$ we show that $(I, g)$ is
homeomorphic to $\left(I, f_{n_{k}}\right)$. For each $k \in \mathbb{N}$ let $g_{k}=g$. We will show that $\left\{f_{n_{k}}\right\}_{k=1}^{\infty},\left\{g_{k}\right\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$, and $A$ satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1. First note that for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a_{j} \in A, g_{k}\left(a_{j}\right)=g\left(a_{j}\right)=$ $f\left(a_{j}\right)=f_{n_{k}}\left(a_{j}\right)$. Therefore $f_{n_{k}}$ and $g_{k}$ agree on $A$. Furthermore, $f$ is invariant on $A$ and so $f_{n_{k}}$ and $g_{k}$ are also invariant on $A$.

Next we check that $g$ is strictly monotone on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right.$ ] for each $j$ between 0 and $m-1$. Since $g$ is linear on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$, it suffices to show that $g\left(a_{j}\right) \neq g\left(a_{j+1}\right)$. Suppose that $g\left(a_{j}\right)=g\left(a_{j+1}\right)$. Then $f\left(a_{j}\right)=f\left(a_{j+1}\right)$. Condition (iii) in the hypothesis of the theorem says that $\left.f\right|_{\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]}$ is monotone, so $f\left(a_{j}\right)=f\left(a_{j+1}\right)$ implies that $f$ is constant on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$. Also, $a_{j} \in B_{i_{1}}=\left[b_{i_{1}}, c_{i_{1}}\right]$ and $a_{j+1} \in B_{i_{2}}=$ [ $b_{i_{2}}, c_{i_{2}}$ ], where $i_{1}<i_{2}$. Thus, [ $\left.c_{i_{1}}, b_{i_{2}}\right] \subset\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$, which implies that $f$ is constant on [ $c_{i_{1}}, b_{i_{2}}$ ]. But [ $c_{i_{1}}, b_{i_{2}}$ ] must contain at least one component of $I-B$, and $f$ is strictly monotone on each component of $I-B$. We have reached a contradiction and so it must be the case that $g\left(a_{j}\right) \neq g\left(a_{j+1}\right)$.

Finally, we check that each $f_{n_{k}}$ is strictly increasing (decreasing) on [ $a_{j}, a_{j+1}$ ] if $g$ is strictly increasing (decreasing) on [ $a_{j}, a_{j+1}$ ]. Suppose that $g$ is strictly increasing on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$. Then $f$ is increasing on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$ and

$$
\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]=\left[a_{j}, c_{i}^{n_{k}}\right] \cup\left[c_{i}^{n_{k}}, b_{i+1}^{n_{k}}\right] \cup \cdots \cup\left[c_{i+s-1}^{n_{k}}, b_{i+s}^{n_{k}}\right] \cup\left[b_{i+s}^{n_{k}}, a_{j+1}\right]
$$

It is a straightforward check that $f_{n_{k}}$ is strictly increasing on each of these subintervals of [ $a_{j}, a_{j+1}$ ]. The case where $g$ is strictly decreasing is proved similarly.

Since Theorem 3.1 applies, it follows that $\left(I, f_{n_{k}}\right)$ and $\left(I, g_{k}\right)$ are homeomorphic. Furthermore, $\left(I, g_{k}\right)=(I, g)$ and $\left(I, f_{n_{k}}\right)$ is homeomorphic to $(I, f)$. Thus $(I, g)$ is homeomorphic to $(I, f)$.
4. Proof of Theorem 2.1. We are now ready for the proof of our main result, Theorem 2.1. Suppose $Q=(Q(0), Q(1), \ldots, Q(m))$ is a function such that $Q(j) \neq Q(j+1), 0 \leq j \leq m-1$, and $\{0, m\} \subset$ range $Q$ and let $F_{Q}$ be a $Q$-horseshoe. Define $f_{Q}: I \rightarrow I$ by $f_{Q}(x)=$ $P\left(F_{Q}\left(P^{-1}(x)\right)\right.$. The graph of $f_{Q}$ for $Q=(1,3,0,1)$ is pictured in Figure 4 (see next page) ( $F_{Q}$ is pictured in Figure 2).

It is easy to check that $f_{Q}$ is well defined, continuous, and that $P \circ F_{Q}=f_{Q} \circ P$. Thus we may define $\widehat{P}: \Lambda_{Q} \rightarrow\left(I, f_{Q}\right)$ by $\widehat{P}(z)=$ $\left(P(z), P\left(F_{Q}^{-1}(z)\right), P\left(F_{Q}^{-2}(z)\right), \ldots\right)$. It follows from the proof of Theorem 1 in [Ba] that $\widehat{P}$ is a homeomorphism. Thus $\Lambda_{Q}$ is homeomorphic to $\left(I, f_{Q}\right)$.


Figure 4
Next, we use Theorem 3.2 to show that $\left(I, f_{Q}\right)$ is homeomorphic to $\left(I, g_{Q}\right)$. To this end, let $A=\left\{\frac{j}{m}: 0 \leq j \leq m\right\}$ and let $B=$ $\bigcup_{j=0}^{m} P\left(F_{Q}^{-1}\left(D_{j} \cap F_{Q}(D)\right)\right)$. Then $f_{Q}, A$, and $B$ satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.2. Therefore ( $I, f_{Q}$ ) is homeomorphic to $(I, g)$ where $g\left(a_{j}\right)=f_{Q}\left(a_{j}\right)$ for $a_{j} \in A$ and $g$ is linear on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$. But

$$
f_{Q}\left(a_{j}\right)=P\left(F_{Q}\left(P^{-1}\left(a_{j}\right)\right)\right)=P\left(F_{Q}\left(D_{j}\right)\right) \subset P\left(D_{Q(j)}\right)=\frac{Q(j)}{m} .
$$

Therefore $g\left(a_{j}\right)=f_{Q}\left(a_{j}\right)=\frac{Q(j)}{m}$ and $g$ is linear on $\left[a_{j}, a_{j+1}\right]$. Thus $g$ follows $Q$, and the theorem is proved.
5. Examples. For our first example, we show that the horseshoe maps studied in [Ba] are special cases of the generalized horseshoes considered here. Consider

$$
Q=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
(0, m, 0, m, \ldots, m, 0): m \text { even } \\
(0, m, 0, m, \ldots, 0, m): m \text { odd }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then any $Q$-horseshoe map, $F_{Q}$, is an $m$-fold horseshoe map described in [Ba]. Its attracting set is a Knaster continuum. Next consider $Q=(0,2,1)$. Then $F_{Q}$ and $g_{Q}$ are pictured in Figure 5. It is well known that $\left(I, g_{Q}\right)$ is homeomorphic to the $\sin \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ continuum, and thus the attracting set of $F_{Q}$ is homeomorphic to this continuum.

Finally consider $Q=(1,2,0)$. Then $F_{Q}$ and $g_{Q}$ are pictured in Figure 6. It is well known that $\left(I, g_{Q}\right)$ is homeomorphic to the three point indecomposable continuum described in [HY], pages 141-142. Thus the attracting set of $F_{Q}$ is homeomorphic to this continuum.


Figure 5


Figure 6

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