

Figure 2.2

 $I_1, I_2, \ldots$  as follows: Let a be some point of S, and  $I_1 = [a, c]$ . Divide  $I_1$  at the midpoint (a + c)/2 into two congruent closed intervals. If (a + c)/2 is an upper bound for S, let  $I_2$  be the left-hand interval, otherwise let  $I_2$  be the right-hand interval. In general, suppose  $m \ge 1$  and  $I_m$  has been defined. If the midpoint of  $I_m$  is an upper bound for S, let  $I_{m+1}$  be the left half of  $I_m$ , otherwise the right half. The archimedean property implies that for any  $x \ge 0$ , the sequence  $[m^{-1}x]$  tends to 0 as  $m \to \infty$ . Since  $0 \le 2^{-m} \le m^{-1}$ , the sequence  $[2^{-m}x]$  also tends to 0. Let x = 2(c - a). Now  $I_1 \supset I_2 \supset \cdots$  and the length of  $I_m$  is  $2^{-m}x$ . By Theorem 2.3,  $I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \cdots$  contains a single point  $x_0$ . By the construction,  $x_0 = \sup S$  (see Figure 2.2).

### Infinite series

Formally, an infinite series is an expression written  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k$  or  $x_1 + x_2 + \cdots$ . To be more precise, with any sequence  $[x_k]$  is associated another sequence  $[s_m]$ , where  $s_m = x_1 + \cdots + x_m$  is called the *mth partial sum*. This pair of sequences defines an *infinite series*. If the sequence of partial sums has a limit s, then the series is *convergent* and s is its *sum*. This is denoted by  $s = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots$ . If the sequence of partial sums has no limit, then the series is *divergent*.

If  $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots$ ,  $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2 + \cdots$ , then  $\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{t} = (\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{y}_1) + (\mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{y}_2) + \cdots$  and  $c\mathbf{s} = (c\mathbf{x}_1) + (c\mathbf{x}_2) + \cdots$  for any scalar c. This follows from the definition and Proposition 2.6. Some further elementary properties are given in Problems 7(c) and 8.

#### **PROBLEMS**

In Problems 1 and 2 you may use the results of Problems 9 and 10.

- 1. Find the limit if it exists.
  - (a)  $x_m = (2^m 2^{-m})/(3^m + 3^{-m}).$
  - (b)  $x_m = \sin(m\pi/2)$ .
  - (c)  $x_m = \sin m\pi$ .
  - (d)  $x_m = ((m+1)/(m-1))^m$ . [Hint:  $(1+1/m)^m \to e$  as  $m \to \infty$ .]
  - (e)  $x_m = ((m^2 + 1)/(m^2 1))^m$ .
- 2. Find the limit if it exists, using Proposition 2.
  - (a)  $(x_m, y_m) = ((1 + m)/(1 2m), 1/(1 + m)).$
  - (b)  $(x_m, y_m) = (2^{-m}, 1 + m)$ .
  - (c)  $(x_m, y_m) = (1 2^{-m}, (m^2 + 3^m)/m!)$ .

- 3. Show that a sequence  $[\mathbf{x}_m]$  has at most one limit  $\mathbf{x}_0$ . [Hint: If  $\mathbf{y}_0$  were another limit, let  $\varepsilon = |\mathbf{x}_0 \mathbf{y}_0|/2$ .]
- **4.** (a) Let A be a closed set. Show that if  $\mathbf{x}_m \in A$  for m = 1, 2, ... and  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \lim_{m \to \infty} \mathbf{x}_m$ , then  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in A$ .
  - (b) If A is not closed, show that there exists a sequence  $[\mathbf{x}_m]$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_m \in A$  for  $m = 1, 2, \ldots$ , converging to a limit  $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin A$ .
- **5.** Show that if  $\mathbf{x}_m \in A$  for every  $m \ge l$  and  $\mathbf{x}_0 = \lim_{m \to \infty} \mathbf{x}_m$ , then  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \operatorname{cl} A$ .
- 6. (a) Prove Proposition 2.6.
  - (b) Prove Proposition 2.7.
- 7. (Comparison tests.) Show that:
  - (a) If  $0 \le x_m \le y_m$  for every  $m \ge l$  and  $y_m \to 0$  as  $m \to \infty$ , then  $x_m \to 0$  as  $m \to \infty$ .
  - (b) If  $[x_m]$ ,  $[y_m]$  are nondecreasing sequences such that  $x_m \le y_m$  for each m = 1, 2, ... and  $y_m \to y$  as  $m \to \infty$ , then  $[x_m]$  has a limit  $x \le y$ .
  - (c) If  $0 \le x_m \le y_m$  for every m = 1, 2, ... and  $t = y_1 + y_2 + ...$ , then the series  $x_1 + x_2 + ...$  converges with sum  $s \le t$ .
- 8. An infinite series  $\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots$  converges absolutely if the series of nonnegative numbers  $|\mathbf{x}_1| + |\mathbf{x}_2| + \cdots$  converges. Prove that any absolutely convergent infinite series is convergent. [Hint: Show that the sequence  $[\mathbf{s}_m]$  of partial sums is Cauchy.]
- 9. Show that if a > 0, then
  - (a)  $\lim_{m \to \infty} a^{1/m} = 1$ . (b)  $\lim_{m \to \infty} a^m/m! = 0$ .
  - (c)  $\lim_{m\to\infty} (x_m)^{1/m} = 1$  provided  $\lim_{m\to\infty} x_m = a$ . [Hints: For part (a) reduce to the case 0 < a < 1. By Example 1, if b < 1 then  $a \le b^m$  for only finitely many m. For part (b), compare with the sequence [c/m] for suitable c and suitable l in Problem 7(a).]
- 10. Let  $x_0 = \lim_{m \to \infty} x_m$ ,  $y_0 = \lim_{m \to \infty} y_m$ , and assume that  $y_m \neq 0$  for  $m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ Show that  $x_0/y_0 = \lim_{m \to \infty} x_m/y_m$ . [Hint: By (c) of Proposition 2.6 it suffices to show that  $y_0^{-1} = \lim_{m \to \infty} y_m^{-1}$ .]
- 11. Show that  $x_0 = y_0$  in Example 3.

#### 2.4 Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem

Suppose that an infinite number of points lie in a box. It is intuitively reasonable that they cannot remain scattered but must accumulate at some points of the box. The purpose of the present section is to put this idea on a precise basis. We begin with definitions of the concepts of isolated point and accumulation point of a set  $A \subset E^n$ .

**Definition.** A point  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is an *isolated point* of A if there exists a neighborhood U of  $\mathbf{x}_0$  such that  $A \cap U = {\mathbf{x}_0}$ .

**Definition.** A point  $x_0$  is an accumulation point of A if every neighborhood of  $x_0$  contains an infinite number of points of A.

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Let us consider the case when A is an infinite set. Then  $A \subset A_1$  since each  $A_m \subset A_1$ . Since  $A_1$  is bounded, A is bounded. Let  $\mathbf{x}_0$  be an accumulation point of A. As in the proof of Corollary 1, we have  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in A_1$  since  $A_1$  is a closed set and  $A \subset A_1$ . For each  $m = 1, 2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_0$  is also an accumulation point of the set  $\{\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_{m+1}, \dots\}$ . Since this set is contained in  $A_m$  and  $A_m$  is closed, we get in the same way  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in A_m$ . Since this is true for each  $m, \mathbf{x}_0 \in \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 3 shows the existence of a point in any closed set A nearest a given point  $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin A$ .

**Corollary 3.** Let A be a closed, nonempty subset of  $E^n$  and  $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin A$ . Then there exists  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in A$  such that  $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| \ge |\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0|$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in A$ .

PROOF. Let  $S_r = \{x : |x - x_0| \le r\}$  denote the closed spherical *n*-ball with center  $x_0$  and radius r. Let

$$d = \inf\{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| : \mathbf{x} \in A\}$$

$$d_m = d + \frac{1}{m}, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$A_m = A \cap S_{d_m}.$$

The sets  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  satisfy the hypotheses of Corollary 2. Let  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m$ . Then  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in A$  since each  $A_m \subset A$ . By definition of d,  $|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0| \ge d$ . Since  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in A_m$ , and  $A_m \subset S_{d_m}$ ,  $|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0| \le d + 1/m$  for each  $m = 1, 2, \ldots$  Thus  $|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0| = d$ .

*Note*. The point  $x_1$  in Corollary 3 need not be unique. However,  $x_1$  is unique if A is also convex (Problem 3).

#### **PROBLEMS**

- 1. Find all accumulation points of A:
  - (a)  $A = \{(-1)^m m(1+m)^{-1} : m = 1, 2, ...\}.$

(b) 
$$A = \left\{ \left( \cos \frac{2m\pi}{5}, \sin \frac{2m\pi}{5} \right) : m = 1, 2, \ldots \right\}$$

(c) 
$$A = \left\{ \left( \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \cos \frac{2m\pi}{5}, \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \sin \frac{2m\pi}{5} \right) : m = 1, 2, \ldots \right\}.$$

- (d)  $A = \{(x, y) : (x^2 + y^2)(y^2 x^2 + 1) \le 0\}.$
- (e)  $A = \{\cos m : m = 1, 2, \ldots\}.$
- 2. Prove Proposition 2.9.
- 3. Let A be a closed, convex, nonempty set, and  $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin A$ . Show that there is exactly one point  $\mathbf{x}_1 \in A$  nearest  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .

- **4.** A set A is called *dense in B* if every point of B is an accumulation point of A.
  - (a) Suppose that A has no isolated points. Show that A is dense in B if and only if  $B \subset \operatorname{cl} A$ .
  - (b) Suppose that A is dense in B and B is dense in C. Show that A is dense in C.
- 5. Let  $C = [0, 1] (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots)$ , where  $A_1 = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$ ,  $A_2 = (\frac{1}{9}, \frac{2}{9}) \cup (\frac{7}{9}, \frac{8}{9})$ ,  $A_3 = (\frac{1}{27}, \frac{2}{27}) \cup \cdots \cup (\frac{25}{27}, \frac{26}{27})$ , and  $A_j$  is the union of  $2^{j-1}$  open intervals of length  $3^{-j}$  chosen similarly (see Figure 2.4). [Note: C is called the Cantor set.]
  - (a) Show that C is a closed set.
  - (b) Show that C is dense in no open set.

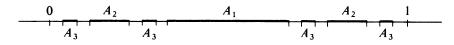


Figure 2.4

- **6.** (Subsequences.) Let  $[\mathbf{x}_m]$  be a sequence, and  $\mathbf{y}_l = \mathbf{x}_{m_l}$  for l = 1, 2, ..., where  $m_1 < m_2 < ...$  Then  $[\mathbf{y}_l]$  is called a subsequence of  $[\mathbf{x}_m]$ .
  - (a) Show that any bounded sequence in  $E^n$  has a convergent subsequence.
  - (b) A set S is called sequentially compact if: any bounded sequence  $[\mathbf{x}_m]$ , with  $\mathbf{x}_m \in S$  for  $m = 1, 2, \ldots$ , has a subsequence  $[\mathbf{y}_l]$  such that  $\mathbf{y}_l \to \mathbf{y}_0$  as  $l \to \infty$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in S$ . Show that a nonempty set  $S \subset E^n$  is sequentially compact if and only if S is closed and bounded.
- 7. Let y be any frontier point of a closed convex set K. Show that K has a supporting hyperplane P that contains y. [Hint: Let  $\{y_m\}$  be a sequence of points exterior to K such that  $y_m$  tends to y as  $m \to \infty$ . Let  $x_m$  be a point of K nearest to  $y_m$  and

$$\mathbf{u}_m = \frac{\mathbf{y}_m - \mathbf{x}_m}{|\mathbf{y}_m - \mathbf{x}_m|}.$$

Then  $|\mathbf{u}_m| = 1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_m$  tends to  $\mathbf{y}$  as  $m \to \infty$ . By the proof of Theorem 1.1 there is a supporting hyperplane of the form  $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{u}_m \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_m) = 0\}$ . Let  $\mathbf{u}$  be an accumulation point of the bounded set  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \ldots\}$  and  $P = \{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = 0\}$ .

# 2.5 Relative neighborhoods, continuous transformations

For the definition in Section 2.2 of a transformation continuous at a point  $x_0$ , it is assumed that  $x_0$  is interior to the domain D. However, we often wish to discuss continuity at points which are not interior to the domain. Moreover, even if the domain D is an open subset of  $E^n$ , we may be interested only in the restriction of the transformation to some set  $S \subset D$ .

We easily circumvent this apparent difficulty by introducing the idea of relative neighborhood.

**Definition.** Let S be a nonempty subset of  $E^n$ . A relative neighborhood of a point  $x \in S$  is any set U such that  $U = S \cap W$ , where W is a neighborhood of x in  $E^n$  (Figure 2.5).

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Next suppose that  $\mathbf{f}(S)$  is not closed. Then there exists  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in \operatorname{cl}[\mathbf{f}(S)] - \mathbf{f}(S)$ . For  $m = 1, 2, \ldots$  there exists  $\mathbf{y}_m \in \mathbf{f}(S)$  such that  $\mathbf{y}_m \to \mathbf{y}_0$  as  $m \to \infty$ . Choose  $\mathbf{z}_m \in S$  with  $\mathbf{y}_m = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z}_m)$ . As before, the set  $B = \{\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \ldots\}$  has an accumulation point  $\mathbf{z}_0 \in S$ . Since  $\mathbf{y}_0 \notin \mathbf{f}(S)$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_0 \neq \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z}_0)$ . Let V be a neighborhood of  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z}_0)$  of radius  $\frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z}_0) - \mathbf{y}_0|$ . Since  $\mathbf{f}$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{z}_0$ , there exists a relative neighborhood U of  $\mathbf{z}_0$  with  $\mathbf{f}(U) \subset V$ . In particular,  $\mathbf{y}_m = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z}_m)$  is in V for infinitely many m for which  $\mathbf{z}_m \in U$ . This contradicts the fact that  $\mathbf{y}_m \to \mathbf{y}_0$  as  $m \to \infty$ . Thus  $\mathbf{f}(S)$  is closed.

If we specialize Theorem 2.4 to real valued functions, we get a theorem about the existence of maxima and minima.

**Theorem 2.5.** Let f be a real valued function continuous on a closed, bounded set S. Then there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}_1) \le f(\mathbf{x}) \le f(\mathbf{x}_2)$$

for all  $x \in S$ .

PROOF. We recall that if  $T \subset E^1$  is bounded and closed, then  $y_1 = \inf T$  and  $y_2 = \sup T$  are points of T (Example 4, Section 1.4). Let T = f(S). By Theorem 2.4, T is closed and bounded. Take  $\mathbf{x}_i$  such that  $y_i = f(\mathbf{x}_i)$ , i = 1, 2.

The function f is said to have a minimum on S at  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and a maximum on S at  $\mathbf{x}_2$ .

#### **PROBLEMS**

- 1. In each case show that f has a minimum on S, but no maximum on S. Which assumption in Theorem 2.5 is violated?
  - (a)  $S = (0, 1], f(x) = x^{-1}$ .

(b) 
$$S = E^n, f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{|\mathbf{x}|}{1 + |\mathbf{x}|}.$$

- 2. Given  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , let  $f(\mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_0|$ . Show that f has a minimum on any closed, nonempty set  $A \subset E^n$ . (This gives another proof of Corollary 3, Section 2.4.)
- 3. Let  $S = \lceil azb \rceil$ .
  - (a) Show that the relative neighborhoods of a are the half open intervals [a, c) with a < c < b, and S.
  - (b) Let  $a < x_0 < \frac{1}{2}(a+b)$ . Show that the relative neighborhoods of  $x_0$  are as follows:  $(x_0 \delta, x_0 + \delta)$  if  $0 < \delta < x_0 a$ ;  $[a, x_0 + \delta)$  if  $x_0 a \le \delta < b x_0$ ; S.
  - (c) Describe the relative neighborhoods in the remaining cases  $\frac{1}{2}(a+b) \le x_0 \le b$ .
- **4.** Define the projection  $\pi$  from  $E^n$  onto  $E^s$  as in Problem 7, Section 2.1.
  - (a) Show that  $\pi(A)$  is closed and bounded if A is closed and bounded.
  - (b) Give an example of a closed set A such that  $\pi(A)$  is not closed.

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- 5. (a) Let f be continuous on S, and let  $S_1 \subset S$ . Show that the restriction  $f | S_1$  is continuous on  $S_1$ .
  - (b) Let f(x) = 1 x if  $x \ge 0$  and f(x) = 0 if x < 0. Let  $S_1 = [0, \infty)$ ,  $S = E^1$ . Show that  $f | S_1$  is continuous, but f is not continuous at each point of  $S_1$ .
- **6.** Let **f** be a transformation with domain S. Show that **f** is continuous at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \lim_{m \to \infty} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_m)$  for every sequence  $[\mathbf{x}_m]$  such that  $\mathbf{x}_m \in S$  for  $m = 1, 2, \ldots$  and  $\mathbf{x}_m \to \mathbf{x}_0$  as  $m \to \infty$ .
- 7. Let f be continuous on  $E^n$ . Suppose, moreover, that  $f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , and that  $f(c\mathbf{x}) = cf(\mathbf{x})$  for any  $\mathbf{x}$  and c > 0. Show that there exist a > 0 and b > 0 such that  $a|\mathbf{x}| \leq f(\mathbf{x}) \leq b|\mathbf{x}|$ . [Hint: First consider  $\{\mathbf{x} : |\mathbf{x}| = 1\}$ .]
- 8. (Uniform continuity.) A transformation  $\mathbf{f}$  is uniformly continuous on  $S \subset E^n$  if given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  (depending only on  $\varepsilon$ ) such that  $|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y})| < \varepsilon$  for every  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$  with  $|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{y}| < \delta$ . Show that if S is closed and bounded then every  $\mathbf{f}$  continuous on S is uniformly continuous on S. [Hint: If not, then there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  and for  $m = 1, 2, ..., \mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{y}_m \in S$  such that  $|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_m) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}_m)| \ge \varepsilon$  and  $|\mathbf{x}_m \mathbf{y}_m| \le 1/m$ . Let  $\mathbf{x}_0$  be an accumulation point of  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ...\}$ . Show that the continuity of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is contradicted.]

## 2.6 Topological spaces

In order to proceed further with the study of subsets of  $E^n$  and continuous transformations, it is convenient to introduce a very general concept—that of topological space. In this section S denotes a set, not necessarily a subset of  $E^n$ , and p denotes a point of S.

The notion of topological space occurs in practically all branches of mathematics. There are several equivalent definitions; of these, we give the one in terms of neighborhoods.

**Definition.** Let S be a nonempty set. For every  $p \in S$  let  $\mathcal{U}_p$  be a collection of subsets of S called *neighborhoods* of p such that:

- (1) Every point p has at least one neighborhood.
- (2) Every neighborhood of p contains p.
- (3) If  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are neighborhoods of p, then there is a neighborhood  $U_3$  of p such that  $U_3 \subset U_1 \cap U_2$ .
- (4) If U is a neighborhood of p and  $q \in U$ , then there is a neighborhood V of q such that  $V \subset U$ .

Then S is a topological space.

More precisely, the topological space is S together with the collections  $\mathcal{U}_p$  of neighborhoods. However, it is common practice to omit explicit reference to the collections of neighborhoods when no ambiguity can arise.

For our purposes, the following two examples of topological spaces are of primary importance.