

**Applied
Mathematical
Sciences
75**

**R. Abraham
J. E. Marsden
T. Ratiu**

Manifolds, Tensor Analysis, and Applications

Second Edition

流形、张量分析和应用 第2版



Springer

世界图书出版公司
www.wpcbj.com.cn

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Mathematics Subject Classifications (1991): 34-01, 58-01, 70-01, 76-01, 93-01

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Abraham, Ralph

Manifolds, tensor analysis, and applications, Second Edition

(Applied Mathematical Sciences; v. 75)

Bibliography: p. 631

Includes index.

I. Global analysis (Mathematics) 2. Manifolds (Mathematics) 3. Calculus of tensors.

I. Marsden, Jerrold E. II. Ratiu, Tudor S. III. Title. IV. Series.

QA614.A28 1983514.382-1737 ISBN 0-387-96790-7

Reprint from English language edition:

Manifolds, Tensor Analysis, and Applications 2nd ed.

by R. Abraham, J. E. Marsden, T. Ratiu

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Applied Mathematical Sciences

Volume 75

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Preface

The purpose of this book is to provide core material in nonlinear analysis for mathematicians, physicists, engineers, and mathematical biologists. The main goal is to provide a working knowledge of manifolds, dynamical systems, tensors, and differential forms. Some applications to Hamiltonian mechanics, fluid mechanics, electromagnetism, plasma dynamics and control theory are given in Chapter 8, using both invariant and index notation. The current edition of the book does not deal with Riemannian geometry in much detail, and it does not treat Lie groups, principal bundles, or Morse theory. Some of this is planned for a subsequent edition. Meanwhile, the authors will make available to interested readers supplementary chapters on Lie Groups and Differential Topology and invite comments on the book's contents and development.

Throughout the text supplementary topics are given, marked with the symbols  and . This device enables the reader to skip various topics without disturbing the main flow of the text. Some of these provide additional background material intended for completeness, to minimize the necessity of consulting too many outside references.

We treat finite and infinite-dimensional manifolds simultaneously. This is partly for efficiency of exposition. Without advanced applications, using manifolds of mappings, the study of infinite-dimensional manifolds can be hard to motivate. Chapter 8 gives a hint of these applications. In fact, some readers may wish to skip the infinite-dimensional case altogether. To aid in this we have separated into supplements some of the technical points peculiar to the infinite-dimensional case. Our own research interests lean toward physical applications, and the choice of topics is partly molded by what is useful for this kind of research. We have tried to be as sympathetic to our readers as possible by providing ample examples, exercises, and applications. When a computation in coordinates is easiest, we give it and do not hide things behind complicated invariant notation. On the other hand, index-free notation sometimes provides valuable geometric and computational insight so we have tried to simultaneously convey this flavor.

The prerequisites required are solid undergraduate courses in linear algebra and advanced calculus. At various points in the text contacts are made with other subjects, providing a good way for students to link this material with other courses. For example, Chapter 1 links with point-set topology, parts of Chapter 2 and 7 are connected with functional analysis, Section 4.3 relates to ordinary differential equations, Chapter 3 and Section 7.5 are linked to differential topology and algebraic topology, and Chapter 8 on applications is connected with applied mathematics, physics, and engineering.

This book is intended to be used in courses as well as for reference. The sections are, as far as possible, lesson sized, if the supplementary material is omitted. For some sections, like 2.5, 4.2, or 7.5, two lecture hours are required. A standard course for mathematics graduate students could omit Chapter 1 and the supplements entirely and do Chapters 2 through 7 in one semester with the possible exception of Section 7.4. The instructor could then assign certain supplements for reading and choose among the applications of Chapter 8 according to taste. A shorter course, or a course advanced undergraduates, probably should omit all supplements, spend about two lectures on Chapter 1 for reviewing background point set topology, and cover Chapters 2 through 7 with the exception of Sections 4.4, 7.4, 7.5 and all the material relevant to volume elements induced by metrics, the Hodge star, and codifferential operators in Sections 6.2, 6.4, 6.5, and 7.2. A more applications oriented course could skim Chapter 1, review without proofs the material of Chapter 2, and cover Chapters 3 to 8 omitting the supplementary material and Sections 7.4 and 7.5. For such a course the instructor should keep in mind that while Sections 8.1 and 8.2 use only elementary material, Section 8.3 relies heavily on the Hodge star and codifferential operators, and Section 8.4 consists primarily of applications of Frobenius' theorem dealt with in Section 4.4.

The notation in the book is as standard as conflicting usages in the literature allow. We have had to compromise among utility, clarity, clumsiness, and absolute precision. Some possible notations would have required too much interpretation on the part of the novice while others, while precise, would have been so dressed up in symbolic decorations that even an expert in the field would not recognize them.

In a subject as developed and extensive as this one, an accurate history and crediting of theorems is a monumental task, especially when so many results are folklore and reside in private notes. We have indicated some of the important credits where we know of them, but we did not undertake this task systematically. We hope our readers will inform us of these and other shortcomings of the book so that, if necessary, corrected printings will be possible. The reference list at the back of the book is confined to works actually cited in the text. These works are cited by author and year like this: deRham [1955].

During the preparation of the book, valuable advice was provided by Malcolm Adams, Morris Hirsch, Charles Pugh, Alan Weinstein, and graduate students in mathematics, physics and engineering at Berkeley, Santa Cruz and elsewhere. Our other teachers and collaborators from whom we learned the material and who inspired, directly and indirectly, various portions of the text are too numerous to mention individually, so we hereby thank them all collectively. We have taken the opportunity in this edition to correct some errors kindly pointed out by our readers and to rewrite numerous sections. This book was typeset on a Macintosh using Mathwriter (Cooke Publications Inc, Ithaca, N.Y.); we thank Connie Calica, Dotty Hollinger, Marnie MacElhiny and Esther Zack for their invaluable help with the typing.

We intend this book to be an evolving project. That is, we invite corrections and comments from our readers to be incorporated into future printings. We are

currently preparing some supplementary chapters and plan to include a differential topology and Lie groups chapter in the next printing—space permitting. Meanwhile, if you wish to see these chapters, we will be happy to send them to you in exchange for your comments.

February, 1988

RALPH ABRAHAM
JERROLD E. MARSDEN
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Background Notation

The reader is assumed to be familiar with the usual notations of set theory such as \in , \subset , \cup , \cap and with the concept of a mapping. If A and B are sets and if $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a mapping, we write $a \mapsto f(a)$ for the effect of the mapping on the element of $a \in A$; "iff" stands for "if and only if" (= "if" in definitions). Other notations we shall use without explanation include the following:

◆	end of an example or remark
■	end of a proof
▼	proof of a lemma is done, but the proof of the theorem goes on
\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}	real, complex numbers
\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}	integers, rational numbers
$A \times B$	Cartesian product
$\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}^n$	Euclidean n -space, complex n -space
$(x^1, \dots, x^n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$	point in \mathbb{R}^n
$A \subset B$	set theoretic containment (means same as $A \subseteq B$)
$A \setminus B$	set theoretic difference
I or Id	identity map
$f^{-1}(B)$	inverse image of B under f
$\Gamma_f = \{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in \text{domain of } f\}$	graph of f
$\inf A$	infimum (greatest lower bound) of the set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$
$\sup A$	supremum (least upper bound) of $A \subset \mathbb{R}$
e_1, \dots, e_n	basis of an n -dimensional vector space
$\ker T$, range T	kernel and range of a linear transformation T
$D_r(m)$	open ball about m of radius r
$B_r(m)$	closed ball of radius r (also denoted $\overline{D}_r(m)$).

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Supplementary Chapters—Available from the authors as they are produced

S-1 Lie Groups

S-2 Introduction to Differential Topology

S-3 Topics in Riemannian Geometry

Chapter 1

Topology

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce just enough topology for later requirements. It is assumed that the reader has had a course in advanced calculus and so is acquainted with open, closed, compact, and connected sets in Euclidean space (see for example Marsden [1974a] and Rudin [1976]). If this background is weak, the reader may find the pace of this chapter too fast. If the background is under control, the chapter should serve to collect, review, and solidify concepts in a more general context. Readers already familiar with point set topology can safely skip this chapter.

A key concept in manifold theory is that of a differentiable map between manifolds. However, manifolds are also topological spaces and differentiable maps are continuous. Topology is the study of continuity in a general context; it is therefore appropriate to begin with it. Topology often involves interesting excursions into pathological spaces and exotic theorems. Such excursions are deliberately minimized here. The examples will be ones most relevant to later developments, and the main thrust will be to obtain a working knowledge of continuity, connectedness, and compactness.

We shall take for granted the usual logical structure of analysis without much comment, except to recall one of the basic axioms that is in common use and an equivalent result. These will be used occasionally in the text.

Axiom of choice *If S is a collection of nonempty sets, then there is a function*
$$\chi : S \rightarrow \bigcup_{S \in S} S \text{ such that } \chi(S) \in S \text{ for every } S \in S.$$

The function χ chooses one element from each $S \in S$ and is called a **choice function**. Even though this statement seems self-evident, it has been shown to be equivalent to a number of nontrivial statements, using other axioms of set theory. To discuss them, we need a few definitions. An **order** on a set A is a binary relation, usually denoted by " \leq " satisfying the following conditions:

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| $a \leq a$ | (<i>reflexivity</i>) |
| $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$ implies $a = b$ | (<i>antisymmetry</i>), and |
| $a \leq b$ and $b \leq c$ implies $a \leq c$ | (<i>transitivity</i>). |

An ordered set A is called a **chain** if for every $a, b \in A$, $a \neq b$ we have $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$. The set A is said to be **well ordered** if it is a chain and every nonempty subset B has a first element; i.e., there exists an element $b \in B$ such that $b \leq x$ for all $x \in B$. An **upper bound** $u \in A$ of a chain $C \subset A$ is an element for which $c \leq u$ for all $c \in C$. A **maximal element** m of an ordered set A is an element for which there is no other $a \in A$ such that $m \leq a$, $a \neq m$; in other words $x \leq m$ for all $x \in A$ that are comparable to m . We state the following without proof.

Theorem *Given other axioms of set theory, the following statements are equivalent:*

- (i) *The axiom of choice*
- (ii) **Product Axiom** *If $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a collection of nonempty sets then the product space $\prod_{i \in I} A_i = \{(x_i) \mid x_i \in A_i\}$ is nonempty.*
- (iii) **Zermelo's Theorem** *Any set can be well ordered.*
- (iv) **Zorn's Theorem** *If A is an ordered set for which every chain has an upper bound (i.e., A is inductively ordered), then A has at least one maximal element.*

§1.1 Topological Spaces

Abstracting ideas about open sets in \mathbb{R}^n leads to the notion of a topological space.

1.1.1 Definition *A topological space is a set S together with a collection O of subsets called open sets such that*

- T1** $\emptyset \in O$ and $S \in O$;
- T2** if $U_1, U_2 \in O$, then $U_1 \cap U_2 \in O$;
- T3** the union of any collection of open sets is open.

A basic example is the real line. We choose $S = \mathbb{R}$, with O consisting of all sets that are unions of open intervals. As exceptional cases, the empty set $\emptyset \in O$ and \mathbb{R} itself belong to O . Thus **T1** holds. For **T2**, let U_1 and $U_2 \in O$; to show that $U_1 \cap U_2 \in O$, we can suppose that $U_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$. If $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$, then x lies in an open interval $]a_1, b_1[\subset U_1$ and also in the interval $]a_2, b_2[\subset U_2$. We can write $]a_1, b_1[\cap]a_2, b_2[=]a, b[$ where $a = \max(a_1, a_2)$ and $b = \min(b_1, b_2)$. Thus $x \in]a, b[\subset U_1 \cap U_2$. Hence $U_1 \cap U_2$ is the union of such intervals, so is open. Finally, **T3** is clear by definition.

Similarly, \mathbb{R}^n may be topologized by declaring a set to be open if it is a union of open rectangles. An argument similar to the one just given for \mathbb{R} shows that this is a topology, called the **standard topology** on \mathbb{R}^n .

The **trivial topology** on a set S consists of $O = \{\emptyset, S\}$. The **discrete topology** on S is defined by $O = \{A \mid A \subset S\}$; i.e., O consists of all subsets of S .

Topological spaces are specified by a pair (S, O) ; we shall, however, simply write S if there is no danger of confusion.

1.1.2 Definition Let S be a topological space. A set $A \subset S$ will be called **closed** if its complement $S \setminus A$ is open. The collection of closed sets is denoted C .

For example, the closed interval $[0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is closed as it is the complement of the open set $]-\infty, 0[\cup]1, \infty[$.

1.1.3 Proposition The closed sets in a topological space satisfy:

C1 $\emptyset \in C$ and $S \in C$;

C2 if $A_1, A_2 \in C$ then $A_1 \cup A_2 \in C$;

C3 the intersection of any collection of closed sets is closed.

Proof **C1** follows from **T1** since $\emptyset = S \setminus S$, $S = S \setminus \emptyset$. The relations

$$S \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2) = (S \setminus A_2) \cap (S \setminus A_1) \quad \text{and} \quad S \setminus \left(\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i \right) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (S \setminus B_i)$$

for $\{B_i\}_{i \in I}$ a family of closed sets show that **C2**, **C3** are equivalent to **T2**, **T3**, respectively. ■

Closed rectangles in \mathbb{R}^n are closed sets, as are closed balls, one-point sets, and spheres. Not every set is either open or closed. For example, the interval $[0, 1[$ is neither an open nor a closed set. In a discrete topology on S any set $A \subset S$ is both open and closed, whereas in the trivial topology any $A \neq \emptyset$ or S is neither.

Closed sets can be used to introduce a topology just as well as open ones. Thus, if C is a collection satisfying **C1-C3** and O consists of the complements of sets in C , then O satisfies **T1-T3**.

1.1.4 Definition An **open neighborhood** of a point u in a topological space S is an open set U such that $u \in U$. Similarly, for a subset A of S , U is an **open neighborhood** of A if U is open and $A \subset U$. A **neighborhood** of a point (or a subset) is a set containing some open neighborhood of the point (or subset).

Examples of neighborhoods of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ are $[x-1, x+3]$, $]x-\epsilon, x+\epsilon[$ for any $\epsilon > 0$, and \mathbb{R} itself; only the last two are open neighborhoods. The set $[x, x+2[$ contains the point x but is not one of its neighborhoods. In the trivial topology on a set S , there is only one neighborhood of any point, namely S itself. In the discrete topology any subset containing p is a neighborhood of the point $p \in S$, since $\{p\}$ is an open set.

1.1.5 Definition A topological space is called **first countable** if for each $u \in S$ there is a sequence $\{U_1, U_2, \dots\} = \{U_n\}$ of neighborhoods of u such that for any neighborhood U of u , there is an integer n such that $U_n \subset U$. A subset B of O is called a **basis** for the topology, if each open set is a union of elements in B . The topology is called **second countable** if it has a countable basis.

Most topological spaces of interest to us will be second countable. For example \mathbb{R}^n is second countable since it has the countable basis formed by rectangles with rational side length and centered at points all of whose coordinates are rational. Clearly every second-countable space is also first countable, but the converse is false. For example if S is an infinite noncountable set, the discrete topology is not second countable, but S is first countable, since $\{p\}$ is a neighborhood of $p \in S$. The trivial topology on S is second countable (see Exercises 1.1I, 1.1J for more interesting counter-examples).

1.1.6 Lindelöf's Lemma *Every covering of a set A in a second countable space S by a family of open sets U_α (that is $\bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha \supset A$) contains a countable subcollection also covering A .*

Proof Let $\mathcal{B} = \{B_n\}$ be a countable basis for the topology of S . For each $p \in A$ there are indices n and α such that $p \in B_n \subset U_\alpha$. Let $\mathcal{B}' = \{B_n \mid \text{there exists an } \alpha \text{ such that } B_n \subset U_\alpha\}$. Now let $U_{\alpha(n)}$ be one of the U_α that includes the element B_n of \mathcal{B}' . Since \mathcal{B}' is a covering of A , the countable collection $\{U_{\alpha(n)}\}$ covers A . ■

1.1.7 Definition *Let S be a topological space and $A \subset S$. The closure of A , denoted $\text{cl}(A)$ is the intersection of all closed sets containing A . The interior of A , denoted $\text{int}(A)$ is the union of all open sets contained in A . The boundary of A , denoted $\text{bd}(A)$ is defined by*

$$\text{bd}(A) = \text{cl}(A) \cap \text{cl}(S \setminus A).$$

By **C3**, $\text{cl}(A)$ is closed and by **T3**, $\text{int}(A)$ is open. Note that as $\text{bd}(A)$ is the intersection of closed sets, $\text{bd}(A)$ is closed, and $\text{bd}(A) = \text{bd}(S \setminus A)$.

On \mathbb{R} , for example, $\text{cl}([0, 1]) = [0, 1]$, $\text{int}([0, 1]) =]0, 1[$, and $\text{bd}([0, 1]) = \{0, 1\}$. The reader is assumed to be familiar with examples of this type from advanced calculus.

1.1.8 Definitions *A subset A of S is called dense in S if $\text{cl}(A) = S$, and is called nowhere dense if $S \setminus \text{cl}(A)$ is dense in S . The space S is called separable if it has a countable dense subset. A point in S is called an accumulation point of the set A if each of its neighborhoods contains a point of A other than itself. The set of accumulation points of A is called the derived set of A and is denoted by $\text{der}(A)$. A point of A is said to be isolated if it has a neighborhood in S containing no other points of A than itself.*

The set $A = [0, 1[\cup \{2\}$ in \mathbb{R} has the element 2 as its only isolated point, its interior is $\text{int}(A) =]0, 1[$, $\text{cl}(A) = [0, 1] \cup \{2\}$ and $\text{der}(A) = [0, 1]$. In the discrete topology on a set S , $\text{int}\{p\} = \text{cl}\{p\} = \{p\}$, for any $p \in S$.

Since the set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is dense in \mathbb{R} and is countable, \mathbb{R} is separable. Similarly \mathbb{R}^n is separable. A set S with the trivial topology is separable since $\text{cl}\{p\} = S$ for any $p \in S$. But $S = \mathbb{R}$ with the discrete topology is not separable since $\text{cl}(A) = A$ for any $A \subset S$. Any second-countable space is separable, but the converse is false; see Exercises 1.1I, 1.1J.

1.1.9 Proposition Let S be a topological space and $A \subset S$. Then

- (i) $u \in \text{cl}(A)$ iff for every neighborhood U of u , $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$;
- (ii) $u \in \text{int}(A)$ iff there is a neighborhood U of u such that $U \subset A$;
- (iii) $u \in \text{bd}(A)$ iff for every neighborhood U of u , $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ and $U \cap (S \setminus A) \neq \emptyset$.

Proof (i) $u \notin \text{cl}(A)$ iff there exists a closed set $C \supset A$ such that $u \notin C$. But this is equivalent to the existence of a neighborhood of u not intersecting A , namely $S \setminus C$. (ii) and (iii) are proved in a similar way. ■

1.1.10 Proposition Let A, B and $A_i, i \in I$ be subsets of S .

- (i) $A \subset B$ implies $\text{int}(A) \subset \text{int}(B)$, $\text{cl}(A) \subset \text{cl}(B)$, and $\text{der}(A) \subset \text{der}(B)$;
- (ii) $S \setminus \text{cl}(A) = \text{int}(S \setminus A)$, $S \setminus \text{int}(A) = \text{cl}(S \setminus A)$, and $\text{cl}(A) = A \cup \text{der}(A)$;
- (iii) $\text{cl}(\emptyset) = \text{int}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$, $\text{cl}(S) = \text{int}(S) = S$, $\text{cl}(\text{cl}(A)) = \text{cl}(A)$ and $\text{int}(\text{int}(A)) = \text{int}(A)$;
- (iv) $\text{cl}(A \cup B) = \text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B)$, $\text{der}(A \cup B) = \text{der}(A) \cup \text{der}(B)$, $\text{int}(A \cup B) \supset \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$;
- (v) $\text{cl}(A \cap B) \subset \text{cl}(A) \cap \text{cl}(B)$, $\text{der}(A \cap B) \subset \text{der}(A) \cap \text{der}(B)$, $\text{int}(A \cap B) = \text{int}(A) \cap \text{int}(B)$;
- (vi) $\text{cl}(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \supset \bigcup_{i \in I} \text{cl}(A_i)$, $\text{cl}(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) \subset \bigcap_{i \in I} \text{cl}(A_i)$,
 $\text{int}(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \supset \bigcup_{i \in I} \text{int}(A_i)$, $\text{int}(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) \subset \bigcap_{i \in I} \text{int}(A_i)$.

Proof (i), (ii), and (iii) are consequences of the definition and of Proposition 1.1.9. Since for each $i \in I$, $A_i \subset \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$, by (i) $\text{cl}(A_i) \subset \text{cl}(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)$ and hence $\bigcup_{i \in I} \text{cl}(A_i) \subset \text{cl}(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)$. Similarly, since $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \subset A_i \subset \text{cl}(A_i)$ for each $i \in I$, it follows that $\bigcap_{i \in I} \text{cl}(A_i)$ is a subset of the closed set $\bigcap_{i \in I} \text{cl}(A_i)$; thus by (i) $\text{cl}(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i) \subset \text{cl}(\bigcap_{i \in I} \text{cl}(A_i)) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (\text{cl}(A_i))$. The other formulas of (vi) follow from these and (ii). This also proves all the other formulas in (iv) and (v) except the ones with equalities. Since $\text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B)$ is closed by C2 and $A \cup B \subset \text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B)$, it follows by (i) that $\text{cl}(A \cup B) \subset \text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B)$ and hence equality by (vi). The formula $\text{int}(A \cap B) = \text{int}(A) \cap \text{int}(B)$ is a corollary of the previous formula via (ii). ■

The inclusions in the above proposition can be strict. For example, if we let $A =]0, 1[$ and $B = [1, 2[$, then one finds $\text{cl}(A) = \text{der}(A) = [0, 1]$, $\text{cl}(B) = \text{der}(B) = [1, 2]$, $\text{int}(A) =]0, 1[$, $\text{int}(B) =]1, 2[$, $A \cup B =]0, 2[$, and $A \cap B = \emptyset$, and therefore $\text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B) =]0, 1[\cup]1, 2[\neq]0, 2[= \text{int}(A \cup B)$, and $\text{cl}(A \cap B) = \emptyset \neq \{1\} = \text{cl}(A) \cap \text{cl}(B)$. Let $A_n =]-1/n, 1/n[$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$; then $\bigcap_{n \geq 1} A_n = \{0\}$, $\text{int}(A_n) = A_n$ for all n , and $\text{int}(\bigcap_{n \geq 1} A_n) = \emptyset \neq \{0\} = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} \text{int}(A_n)$. Dualizing this via (ii) gives $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} \text{cl}(\mathbb{R} \setminus A_n) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \neq \mathbb{R} = \text{cl}(\bigcup_{n \geq 1} (\mathbb{R} \setminus A_n))$. If $A \subset B$, there is, in general, no relation between the sets $\text{bd}(A)$ and $\text{bd}(B)$. For example, if $A = [0, 1]$ and $B = [0, 2]$, $A \subset B$, yet we have $\text{bd}(A) = \{0, 1\}$ and $\text{bd}(B) = \{0, 2\}$.

1.1.11 Definition Let S be a topological space and $\{u_n\}$ a sequence of points in S . The sequence is said to **converge** if there is a point $u \in S$ such that for every neighborhood U of u , there is an N such that $n \geq N$ implies $u_n \in U$. We say that u_n **converges** to u , or u is a **limit point** of $\{u_n\}$.

For example, the sequence $\{1/n\}$ in \mathbb{R} converges to 0. It is obvious that limit points of sequences u_n of distinct points are accumulation points of the set $\{u_n\}$. In a first countable topological space any accumulation point of a set A is a limit of a sequence of elements of A . Indeed, if $\{U_n\}$ denotes the countable collection of neighborhoods of $a \in \text{der}(A)$ given by definition 1.1.5, then choosing for each n an element $a_n \in U_n \cap A$ such that $a_n \neq a$, we see that $\{a_n\}$ converges to a . We have proved the following.

1.1.12 Proposition *Let S be a first-countable space and $A \subset S$. Then $u \in \text{cl}(A)$ iff there is a sequence of points of A that converges to u (in the topology of S).*

It should be noted that a sequence can be divergent and still have accumulation points. For example $\{2, 0, 3/2, -1/2, 4/3, -2/3, \dots\}$ does not converge but has both 1 and -1 as accumulation points. In arbitrary topological spaces, limit points of sequences are in general *not* unique. For example, in the trivial topology of S any sequence converges to all points of S . In order to avoid such situations several *separation axioms* have been introduced, of which the three most important ones will be mentioned.

1.1.13 Definition *A topological space S is called Hausdorff if each two distinct points have disjoint neighborhoods (that is, with empty intersection). The space S is called regular if it is Hausdorff and if each closed set and point not in this set have disjoint neighborhoods. Similarly, S is called normal if it is Hausdorff and if each two disjoint closed sets have disjoint neighborhoods.*

Most standard spaces in analysis are normal. The discrete topology on any set is normal, but the trivial topology is not even Hausdorff. It turns out that "Hausdorff" is the necessary and sufficient condition for uniqueness of limit points of sequences in first countable spaces (see Exercise 1.1E). Since in Hausdorff space single points are closed (Exercise 1.1F), we have the implications: normal \Rightarrow regular \Rightarrow Hausdorff. Counterexamples for each of the converses of these implications are given in Exercises 1.1I and 1.1J.

1.1.14 Proposition *A regular second-countable space is normal.*

Proof Let A and B be two disjoint closed sets in S . By regularity, for every point $p \in A$ there are disjoint open neighborhoods U_p of p and U_B of B . Hence $\text{cl}(U_p) \cap B = \emptyset$. Since $\{U_p \mid p \in A\}$ is an open covering of A , by the Lindelöf lemma (1.1.6), there is a countable collection $\{U_k \mid k = 1, 2, \dots\}$ covering A . Thus $\bigcup_{k \geq 1} U_k \supset A$ and $\text{cl}(U_k) \cap B = \emptyset$.

Similarly, find a family $\{V_k\}$ such that $\bigcup_{k \geq 1} V_k \supset B$ and $\text{cl}(V_k) \cap A = \emptyset$. Then the sets $G_{n+1} = U_{n+1} \setminus \bigcup_{k=0,1,\dots,n} \text{cl}(V_k)$, $H_n = V_n \setminus \bigcup_{k=0,1,\dots,n} \text{cl}(U_k)$, $G_0 = U_0$, are open and $G = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} G_n \supset A$, $H = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} H_n \supset B$ are also open and disjoint. ■

In the remainder of this book Euclidean n -space \mathbb{R}^n will be understood to have the standard topology (unless explicitly stated to the contrary).