

# HW #5

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## Problem 1

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a Hausdorff space and  $F, K \subset X$  such that  $F$  is closed and  $K$  is compact.

a)

Prove that  $K$  is closed.

Pick  $y$  in  $K^C$ . Then for every  $x \in K$ , choose an open neighborhood of  $x$ ,  $U_x$ , and an open neighborhood of  $y$ ,  $V_x$ , such that  $U_x \cap V_x = \emptyset$  for each  $x$ . This is possible since  $X$  is a Hausdorff space. Clearly,  $\{U_x\}_{x \in K}$  is an open cover of  $K$ . Since  $K$  is compact,  $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n$  such that  $\{U_{x_i}\}_{i=1}^n$  is an open cover of  $K$ . Let  $V = \bigcap_{i=1}^n V_{x_i}$ . Then  $V$  is open since it is a finite intersection of open neighborhoods. Let  $v \in V$ . Then for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $v \notin U_{x_i}$ . Then  $v \notin K$ , i.e.  $v \in K^C$ . Thus  $V \subset K^C$ . Thus  $K^C$  contains a neighborhood of each element of  $K^C$ , and so  $K^C \in \mathcal{T}$ . Thus  $K$  is closed.  $\square$

b)

Prove that  $F \cap K$  is compact.

Choose an open cover  $\{G_\alpha\}_\alpha$  of  $F \cap K$ . Since  $K$  is compact, it is closed (by part a), and since  $F$  is also closed,  $F \cap K$  is closed, i.e.  $(F \cap K)^C$  is open. Then  $\{\{G_\alpha\}_\alpha, (F \cap K)^C\}$  is an open cover of  $K$ . Then since  $K$  is compact, there is a finite open subcover, namely  $\{\{G_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^n, (F \cap K)^C\}$ . But since  $(F \cap K)^C \cap (F \cap K) = \emptyset$ , then  $\{G_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^n$  is an open cover of  $F \cap K$ . Since this is a subcover of  $\{G_\alpha\}$ , then  $F \cap K$  is compact.  $\square$

## Problem 2

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and  $K_1, K_2$  two compact subsets of  $X$ .

a)

Prove that  $K_1 \cup K_2$  is compact.

Let  $\{G_\alpha\}_\alpha$  be an open cover of  $K_1 \cup K_2$ . Then  $\{G_\alpha\}_\alpha$  is an open cover of both  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ . Then there are finite subcovers  $\{G_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\{G_{\alpha_j}\}_{j=1}^m$  of  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ , respectively. Then  $\{\{G_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^n, \{G_{\alpha_j}\}_{j=1}^m\}$  is a finite cover of  $K_1 \cup K_2$ , and is a subcover of  $\{G_\alpha\}_\alpha$ . Thus every open cover has a finite subcover, proving  $K_1 \cup K_2$  is compact.  $\square$

b)

Assuming  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is Hausdorff, prove that  $K_1 \cap K_2$  is compact.

By part 1.a), the compactness of  $K_1$  implies its closure. Thus by part 1.b),  $K_1 \cap K_2$  is compact.  $\square$

### Problem 3

If  $A$  is a subset of a topological space, then the interior  $A^\circ$  of  $A$  is the union of all open sets contained in  $A$ , the closure  $\overline{A}$  of  $A$  is the intersection of all closed sets that contain  $A$ , and the boundary  $\partial A$  of  $A$  is defined by  $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{A^C}$ .

**Lemma 1.**  $\overline{A^C} = (A^\circ)^C$

*Proof.* Let  $\{C_\alpha\}$  be the set of all closed sets containing  $A^C$ . Then by the definition of closure,  $\overline{A^C} = \bigcap_\alpha C_\alpha$ . Since  $A^C \subset C_\alpha$  for all  $\alpha$ , then  $C_\alpha^C \subset A$  for all  $\alpha$ . Also, since  $C_\alpha$  is closed for all  $\alpha$ ,  $C_\alpha^C$  is open for all  $\alpha$ . In addition, if  $G$  is an open set contained in  $A$ , then  $G = C_\alpha^C$  for some  $C_\alpha$ . Then by the definition of interior,  $A^\circ = \bigcup_\alpha C_\alpha^C$ . Thus,

$$(A^\circ)^C = (\bigcup_\alpha C_\alpha^C)^C = \bigcap_\alpha (C_\alpha^C)^C = \bigcap_\alpha C_\alpha = \overline{A^C}$$

$\square$

**Lemma 2.**  $\overline{A^C} = (A^C)^\circ$

*Proof.* Let  $B = A^C$ . Then by Lemma 1,  $\overline{B^C} = (B^\circ)^C$ . Then  $\overline{(A^C)^C} = ((A^C)^\circ)^C$ . Thus  $\overline{A} = ((A^C)^\circ)^C$ . Thus  $\overline{A^C} = (A^C)^\circ$ .  $\square$

a)

Show that a set is closed if and only if it contains its boundary.

“ $\implies$ ” Let  $A$  be closed. Then  $A = \overline{A}$ . Then  $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{A^C} \subset \overline{A} = A$ . Then  $A$  contains its boundary.

“ $\impliedby$ ” Let  $A$  contain its boundary, i.e.  $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{A^C} \subset A$ . We want to show  $A^C$  is open, i.e.  $A^C = (A^C)^\circ$ . Obviously,  $(A^C)^\circ \subset A^C$ . Let  $x \in A^C$ . Then  $x \notin A$ . Since  $\partial A \subset A$ ,  $x \notin \partial A$ . Then either  $x \notin \overline{A}$  or  $x \notin \overline{A^C}$ , i.e. either  $x \in \overline{A}^C$  or  $x \in \overline{A^C}^C$ . By Lemmas 1 and 2, either  $x \in (A^C)^\circ$  or  $x \in A^\circ$ . But since  $x \notin A$ ,  $x \notin A^\circ$ . Thus  $x \in (A^C)^\circ$ . Then  $A^C = (A^C)^\circ$ . Thus  $A^C$  is open, proving  $A$  is closed.  $\square$

b)

Show that a set is open if and only if it is disjoint from its boundary.

“ $\implies$ ” Let  $A$  be open. Then  $A = A^\circ$ . Then  $A \cap \partial A = A \cap (\overline{A} \cap \overline{A^C}) = A \cap (\overline{A} \cap (A^\circ)^C)$  (by Lemma 1) and thus  $A \cap \partial A = A \cap (\overline{A} \cap A^C) = (A \cap A^C) \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$ . Thus  $A$  is disjoint from its boundary.

“ $\impliedby$ ” Let  $A \cap \partial A = \emptyset$ , and choose  $x \in A$ . Then  $x \notin \partial A$ . Thus  $x \notin \overline{A}$  or  $x \notin \overline{A^C}$ . Since  $x \in A$ ,  $x \in \overline{A}$ . Thus  $x \notin \overline{A^C}$ . By Lemma 1,  $x \notin (A^\circ)^C$ . Thus  $x \in A^\circ$ . Since  $A^\circ$  is open, there is a neighborhood  $G$  of  $x$  such that  $G \subset A^\circ$ . But  $A^\circ \subset A$ . Thus  $A$  is open.  $\square$

c)

What are the closure, interior, and boundary of the Cantor set, considered as a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  with its usual topology? The Cantor set is defined in Example 1.40 of the textbook.

Define the function  $f$  whose domain is closed intervals of  $\mathbb{R}$  by

$$f([a, b]) = \left\{ \left[ a, a + \frac{b-a}{3} \right], \left[ b - \frac{b-a}{3}, b \right] \right\}$$

Define  $G_n$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} G_0 &= \{[0, 1]\} \\ G_1 &= \left\{ \left[ 0, \frac{1}{3} \right], \left[ \frac{2}{3}, 1 \right] \right\} \\ &\vdots \\ G_n &= \bigcup_{[a,b] \in G_{n-1}} f([a, b]) \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

and define  $F_n \equiv \bigcup_{[a,b] \in G_n} [a, b]$ . Finally, define the Cantor set  $\mathcal{C} = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n$ . Since for each  $n$ ,  $|G_n| = 2^n$ , label each element of  $G_n$  as  $G_{n,k}$  for  $k = 1, \dots, 2^n$ . Note that for each  $G_{n,k}$ ,  $\sup \{|x_1 - x_2| \mid x_1, x_2 \in G_{n,k}\} = 3^{-n}$ . Next we will show  $\mathcal{C}^\circ = \emptyset$ , which will show  $\mathcal{C} = \overline{\mathcal{C}}$  and  $\partial \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}$ .

Let  $x \in \mathcal{C}^\circ$ . Then since  $\mathcal{C}^\circ$  is open, there is some open neighborhood  $U$  such that  $x \in U \subset \mathcal{C}^\circ$ . Since  $U$  is an open neighborhood,  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $x \in B_\epsilon(x) \subset U \subset \mathcal{C}^\circ$ . Since  $\mathcal{C}^\circ \subset \mathcal{C} = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n$ , then  $\forall n$ ,  $\exists k$  such that  $B_\epsilon(x) \subset G_{n,k}$ . Thus  $\forall n$ ,  $\sup \{|y_1 - y_2| \mid y_1, y_2 \in B_\epsilon(x)\} = 2\epsilon < 3^{-n}$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $\mathcal{C}^\circ = \emptyset$ , and  $\overline{\mathcal{C}} = \mathcal{C}$ . Finally  $\partial \mathcal{C} = \overline{\mathcal{C}} \cap \overline{\mathcal{C}^C} = \mathcal{C} \cap (\mathcal{C}^\circ)^C = \mathcal{C} \cap \mathbb{R} = \mathcal{C}$ .  $\square$

## Problem 4

A topological space is connected if it is not the union of two disjoint non-empty open sets. A subset  $Y$  of a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is called connected if  $Y$  is a connected topological space with respect to the relative topology.

a)

Describe the connected subsets of  $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ .

**Lemma 3.** The connected subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  are intervals.

*Proof.* “ $\implies$ ” Suppose  $G \subset \mathbb{R}$  is not an interval. Then  $\exists x, \epsilon$  such that  $x \notin G$  but  $x - \epsilon \in G$  and  $x + \epsilon \in G$ . Then pick  $U_1 = (-\infty, x) \cap G$  and  $U_2 = (x, \infty) \cap G$ . Then  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are open in the relative topology on  $G$  and  $U_1 \cup U_2 = G$ . Thus  $G$  is not connected.

“ $\impliedby$ ” Suppose  $G \subset \mathbb{R}$  is not connected. Then  $G = U \cup V$  where  $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .  $U \in \mathcal{T} \implies U = (\cup_{\alpha \in I} (a_\alpha, b_\alpha)) \cap G$ , where  $a_\alpha \neq b_\alpha$  for every  $\alpha$  in the index set  $I$ . Similarly,  $V \in \mathcal{T} \implies V = (\cup_{\beta \in J} (c_\beta, d_\beta)) \cap G$  where  $c_\beta \neq d_\beta$  for every  $\beta$  in the index set  $J$ . Let  $\epsilon = \inf\{|u - v| \mid u \in U, v \in V\}$ .

If  $\epsilon = 0$ , then pick  $(u_n)_n \in U$  and  $(v_n)_n \in V$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n = L$ . If  $L \in U$ , then  $\exists \tilde{\epsilon} > 0$  such that  $B_{\tilde{\epsilon}}(L) \subset U$ . But since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n = L$ , then  $\exists N$  such that  $n \geq N \implies v_n \in B_{\tilde{\epsilon}}(L)$ , which is a contradiction since  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ . Thus  $L \notin U$ . Similarly,  $L \notin V$ . Thus  $L \notin G$ . However,  $\exists \bar{\epsilon}$  such that  $L \pm \bar{\epsilon} \in U \subset G$  and  $L \mp \bar{\epsilon} \in V \subset G$ . Thus  $G$  is not an interval.

If  $\epsilon > 0$ , then pick  $(u_n)_n \in U$  and  $(v_n)_n \in V$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n \pm \epsilon$ . Then let  $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n \pm \epsilon/2$ . Then  $L \notin U$  and  $L \notin V$  (thus  $L \notin G$ ) but  $\exists \bar{\epsilon}$  such that  $L \pm \bar{\epsilon} \in U \subset G$  and  $L \mp \bar{\epsilon} \in V \subset G$ . Thus  $G$  is not an interval.  $\square$

b)

Show that  $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$  is homeomorphic to the open interval  $(0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}$  with the relative topology.

Define the function  $f$  as

$$f(x) = \frac{\tan^{-1}(x) + \frac{\pi}{2}}{\pi}$$

Then since  $\tan^{-1}(x)$  is a continuous bijection from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , then since  $f(x)$  is a translation of  $\tan^{-1}(x)$ , then  $f(x)$  is a continuous bijection from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $(0, 1)$ . In addition,

$$f^{-1}(x) = \tan\left(\pi x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

is a continuous bijection from  $(0, 1)$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Thus  $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$  is homeomorphic to  $(0, 1)$ .

c)

Show that  $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$  is not homeomorphic to  $(\mathbb{R}^2, \|\cdot\|)$ , where  $\|\cdot\|$  is the Euclidean norm.

Suppose  $f$  is a homeomorphism from  $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$  to  $(\mathbb{R}^2, \|\cdot\|)$ . Then  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are indistinguishable as topological spaces. Then  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{x_0\}$  and  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{f(x_0)\}$  are indistinguishable as topological spaces. This is a contradiction since  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{x_0\}$  is not connected, but  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{f(x_0)\}$  is connected. Thus  $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$  is not homeomorphic to  $(\mathbb{R}^2, \|\cdot\|)$ .  $\square$

## Problem 5

Prove that the sequence  $(f_n)$  defined in Example 5.11 in the textbook is a Schauder basis of  $(C([0, 1]), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$ .

Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[0, 1]$ . Since  $[0, 1]$  is compact,  $f$  is uniformly continuous, and thus  $\forall \epsilon, \exists \delta$  such that  $\forall x, x_0 \in [0, 1], |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ .

Now choose  $x \in [0, 1]$  and  $k$  such that  $2^{-k} < \delta$ , and find  $m$  such that

$$x_m = \frac{m}{2^k} < x \leq \frac{m+1}{2^k} = x_{m+1}$$

By the definition of the sequence  $f_n$ , we can find  $c_n$  such that

$$f(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n f_n(x_m) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_{m+1}) - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n f_n(x_{m+1}) = 0$$

However, since  $x_m = \frac{m}{2^k}$  and  $x_{m+1} = \frac{m+1}{2^k}$ , then  $\forall \ell > k, f_\ell(x_m) = f_\ell(x_{m+1}) = 0$ . Thus,

$$f(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_{m+1}) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_{m+1}) = 0$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| f(x) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x) \right| &\leq |f(x) - f(x_m)| + \left| f(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) \right| + \left| \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x) \right| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 0 + \left| \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x) \right| \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n$  is a linear on  $[x_m, x_{m+1}]$ ,

$$\left| \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x) \right| \leq \left| \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_{m+1}) \right|$$

and thus

$$\left| f(x) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x) \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \left| \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_{m+1}) \right|$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \left| \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_m) - f(x_m) \right| + |f(x_m) - f(x_{m+1})| + \left| f(x_{m+1}) - \sum_{n=0}^k c_n f_n(x_{m+1}) \right| \\
&< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 0 + \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 0 \\
&= \epsilon
\end{aligned}$$

since  $|x_m - x_{m+1}| < \delta$ . Thus  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n f_n(x) = f(x)$  for each  $x \in [0, 1]$ , i.e.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n f_n$  converges pointwise to  $f$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n f_n$  converges uniformly to  $f$ . Thus  $(f_n)$  is a Schauder basis of  $C([0, 1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ .  $\square$

## Problem 6

For  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , consider the Banach space  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$  defined in Example 5.5 of the textbook. The set  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  is all sequences of the form  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots)$  whose terms vanish from some point onwards is an infinite-dimensional linear subspace of  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$  for any  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ .

**a)**

Show that  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  is not closed in  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ , so it is not a Banach space with respect to the norm of  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ .

Consider the sequence in  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
x_1 &= \left( \frac{1}{2}, 0, 0, 0, \dots \right) \\
x_2 &= \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, 0, 0, \dots \right) \\
x_3 &= \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, 0, \dots \right) \\
&\vdots \\
x_n &= \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots, \frac{1}{2^n}, 0, 0, \dots \right) \\
&\vdots
\end{aligned}$$

Then  $x = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i = \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \right) \notin \ell_c(\mathbb{N})$ , but  $x \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$  since  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (2^{-i})^p < \infty$ . So there is a limit point  $x$  of  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  that is not contained in  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ , but is contained in  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ . Thus  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  is not closed in  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ .  $\square$

**b)**

Show that  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  is dense in  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$  for  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ .

Let  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots) \in \ell^p(\mathbb{N})$ . Then construct the sequence

$$x_1 = (y_1, 0, 0, 0, \dots)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
x_2 &= (y_1, y_2, 0, 0, \dots) \\
x_3 &= (y_1, y_2, y_3, 0, \dots) \\
&\vdots \\
x_n &= (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, 0, 0, \dots) \\
&\vdots
\end{aligned}$$

Clearly  $x_i \in \ell_c(\mathbb{N})$ . Since  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |y_i| < \infty$ , then  $y_i \rightarrow 0$ . Then  $\forall \epsilon, \exists N$  such that  $|y_n| < \epsilon$  for each  $n \geq N$ . Then  $x_i \rightarrow y$ . Thus  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  is dense in  $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$  for  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ .

**c)**

Find the closure of  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  in  $\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$ .

Let  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots) \in \ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$  such that  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} |y_i| = 0$ . Then construct the sequence  $(x_n)_n \in \ell_c(\mathbb{N})$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
x_1 &= (y_1, 0, 0, 0, \dots) \\
x_2 &= (y_1, y_2, 0, 0, \dots) \\
x_3 &= (y_1, y_2, y_3, 0, \dots) \\
&\vdots \\
x_n &= (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, 0, 0, \dots) \\
&\vdots
\end{aligned}$$

Then choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $y_i \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\exists N$  such that  $n \geq N \implies |y_i| < \epsilon$ . Also, if  $n \geq N$ , then  $\|x_n - y\|_\infty = \|y\|_\infty < \epsilon$ . So  $y$  is a limit point of a sequence in  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$ , and thus  $y \in \overline{\ell_c(\mathbb{N})}$ .

Now let  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots) \in \ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$  such that  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} |y_i| \neq 0$ . Then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall M > 0, \exists i > M$  such that  $|y_i| > \epsilon$ . Assume there is a sequence  $(x_n)_n \in \ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow y$  (i.e.  $x_n - y \rightarrow 0$ ). Denote each  $x_n$  as

$$x_n = (x_{n,1}, x_{n,2}, x_{n,3}, \dots)$$

Then  $\exists N$  such that  $n \geq N \implies \|x_n - y\|_\infty < \epsilon$ . However, by the definition of  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$ , for each  $n, \exists M_n$  such that  $m \geq M_n \implies x_{n,m} = 0$ . Then for each  $n, \|x_n - y\|_\infty > \epsilon$ , which is a contradiction. Thus there is no sequence in  $\ell_c(\mathbb{N})$  that converges to  $y$ , and thus  $y \notin \overline{\ell_c(\mathbb{N})}$ .

Thus  $\overline{\ell_c(\mathbb{N})} = \{(a_n) \in \ell_c(\mathbb{N}) \mid \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} |a_i| = 0\}$ .  $\square$