

Homework: Vol. 3

5. Construct a bounded set of real numbers with exactly three limit points.

Consider the set $A = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$; that is, $\{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. I claim that $p = 0$ is a limit point. Let $1 > \epsilon > 0$. Then $\frac{1}{p+\epsilon} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} > 1$, and by the Archimedean Principle there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $N > \frac{1}{p+\epsilon}$. Then $\epsilon > p + \frac{1}{N} > p$, and so $p + \frac{1}{N} \in N_\epsilon(p)$.

That's one limit point. But there's nothing stopping us from joining three of these together; let's say $A = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots\} \cup \{1\frac{1}{2}, 1\frac{1}{3}, 1\frac{1}{4}, \dots\} \cup \{2\frac{1}{2}, 2\frac{1}{3}, 2\frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$. Using a similar argument to the above (this is why I was using p everywhere) this set has limit points at 0, 1 and 2. Note further that these sets are disjoint, so they cannot create new limit points. Finally, A is clearly bounded by $\frac{5}{2}$, so we have a set that fits the bill.

6. Let E' be the set of all limit points of a set E . Prove that E' is closed. Prove that E and \bar{E} have the same limit points.

(Recall that $\bar{E} = E \cup E'$.) Do E and E' always have the same limit points?

- Suppose $x \in E'^c$. Then x is not a limit point of E . This means that there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $N_\epsilon(x) \cap (E \setminus \{x\}) = \emptyset$. Let y be a point in this neighborhood, and let $\alpha = d(x, y)$ (note that $\alpha < \epsilon$). Since neighborhoods are open, there exists a neighborhood $N_{\epsilon'}(y) \subset N_\epsilon(x)$. In this neighborhood we've already established that there are no points of E . This means that y is not a limit point of E .

We thus conclude that $N_\epsilon(x)$ cannot have any limit points in it; this means that $N_\epsilon(x) \subset E'^c$. Therefore E'^c is open, and E' consequently closed.

- We want to show that E and \bar{E} have the same limit points. Suppose x is a limit point in E ; that is $x \in E'$ so $x \in \bar{E}$. Then any $N_\epsilon(x)$ has a point $y \in E$ such that $y \neq x$. But this point must also be in \bar{E} , so x is a limit point of \bar{E} . Conversely, suppose x is a limit point of \bar{E} . Then any $N_\epsilon(x)$ has infinitely many points either in E or E' . Suppose every point in $N_\epsilon(x)$ is in E' ; that is $N_\epsilon(x) \cap (E - \{x\}) = \emptyset$, and let y be one of those points (hence $y \in E'$). But $N_\epsilon(x)$ is open, so y is in the interior of $N_\epsilon(x)$; this means that there exists $\epsilon' > 0$ such that $N_{\epsilon'}(y) \subset N_\epsilon(x)$. This means that $N_{\epsilon'}(y) \cap E$ can contain at most x , a finite number. This means that y cannot be a limit point of E , directly contradicting our assumption that it was. Thus our supposition that $N_\epsilon(x) \cap (E - \{x\}) = \emptyset$ is false; the must be a point in $N_\epsilon(x)$ also in E . This means that x is a limit point of E .
- Do E and E' always have the same limit points? The way the question is worded suggests not, but surprisingly the discrete space won't be the one to throw a wrench in it. Consider the set $A = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$. As shown in Problem 5, $E' = \{0\}$. But this is a finite point set, which therefore has no limit points.

7. Let A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots be subsets of a metric space.

(a) If $B_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$, prove that $\overline{B_n} = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Since $\bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$ is closed and $B = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$, we have $\overline{B_n} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$.

(b) If $B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$, prove that $\overline{B} \supseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \overline{A_i}$.

Let $x \in \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \overline{A_i}$.

Then $x \in \overline{A_k}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, so $x \in A_k$ or $x \in A'_k$.

- $x \in A_k$ then $x \in B$, so $x \in \overline{B}$.
- If $x \in A'_k$ then any $N_\varepsilon(x)$ contains infinitely many points of A_k . Therefore it also contains infinitely many points of B . Thus we have $x \in B'$ and $x \in \overline{B}$.

Show, by an example, that this inclusion can be proper.

Consider A_1, A_2, \dots such that $A_k = \{\frac{1}{k}\}$. Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ devolves into the set given in problem 5. This has 0 as a limit point, but it's not the limit point of any A_k .

8. Is every point of every open set $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ a limit point of E ? Answer the same question for closed sets in \mathbb{R}^2 .

This is true for all open sets in \mathbb{R}^2 (proper or not so I don't know why the distinction is being made). If A is an open set and $x \in A$, then any $B(x; r) \in A$ (and we know there is one because A is open) contains infinitely (in fact uncountably) many points. Thus everything in A is a limit point.

However, this isn't true for closed subsets of \mathbb{R}^2 . If we look at the set $\{(0, 0)\}$, it has no limit points and in particular the one point in the set isn't a limit point.

9. Let E^o denote the set of all interior points of a set E .

(a) Prove that E^o is always open.

Let $p \in E^o$. Then $\exists B(p, r) \subseteq E$. Let $q \in B(p, r)$. Then there exists s such that $0 < s < r - d(p, q)$ and $B(q, s) \subseteq B(p, r) \subseteq E$. Therefore $q \in E^o$, and since q was arbitrary in $B(p, r)$ we have $B(p, r) \subseteq E^o$. Since we can do this for anything in E^o , it must be open.

(b) Prove that E is open if and only if $E^o = E$.

\Rightarrow It is always true that $E^o \subseteq E$. If E is open, then by definition $E \subseteq E^o$, and therefore $E = E^o$.

\Leftarrow If $E = E^o$, by (a) E^o is open and therefore E is open.

(c) If $G \subset E$ and G is open, prove that $G \subset E^o$.

Let $p \in G$. We want to show that $p \in E^o$. Since G is open and $G \subseteq E$, $\exists B(p, r) \subseteq G \subseteq E$. Therefore $p \in E^o$.

(d) Prove that the complement of E^o is the closure of the complement of E .

In other words, $(E^o)^c = \overline{E^c}$.

\subseteq : Let $x \in (E^o)^c$. If $x \in (E)^c$ then clearly $x \in \overline{(E)^c}$. If $x \in E$, then any neighborhood $N_\varepsilon(x)$ is not a subset of E . Thus there exists $y \in N_\varepsilon(x)$ such that $y \in (E)^c$. Since $x \neq y$, we have x is a limit point of E^c and $x \in \overline{E^c}$.

\supseteq : Let $x \in \overline{E^c}$. If $x \in E^c$, then again $x \in (E^o)^c$ is immediate. If $x \in E$, then for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $N_\varepsilon(x)$ contains a point $x \neq y$ such that $y \in E^c$. Thus x is not an interior point of E . This means that $\overline{E^c} \subseteq (E^o)^c$.

(e) Do E and \overline{E} always have the same interiors?

No. Consider in \mathbb{R}^2 the set $\{(x,y) \mid 0 < d(x,y) < 1\}$. $0 \notin E^o$, but $0 \in \overline{E}$ since it's the closed ball of radius 1 around $(0,0)$.

(f) Do E and E^o always have the same closures?

No. Consider $E = \mathbb{N}$ in \mathbb{R} . Since \mathbb{N} is a bunch of isolated points in \mathbb{R} , the interior is nothing; that is, $\mathbb{N}^o = \emptyset$. But $\overline{\mathbb{N}} = \mathbb{N}$ and $\overline{\emptyset} = \emptyset$.

10. Let X be an infinite set. For $p \in X$ and $q \in X$, define

$$d(p, q) = \begin{cases} 1 & (\text{if } p \neq q) \\ 0 & (\text{if } p = q). \end{cases}$$

Prove that this is a metric. Which subsets of the resulting metric space are open? Which are closed? Which are compact?

- First let's prove that it's a metric.

(a) Clearly $d(p, q) > 0$ if $p \neq q$ and $d(p, q) = 0$ if $p = q$, because that's how we defined it.

(b) $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$ is similarly clear.

(c) If $p = q$ then

$$\begin{aligned} d(p, q) &= 0 \\ &\leq 0 + 0 \\ &\leq d(p, r) + d(q, r). \end{aligned}$$

If $p \neq q$, then either $p \neq r$ or $q \neq r$; assume without loss of generality the former. Then $d(p, q) = 1$ and

$$d(p, r) + d(q, r) = 1 + d(q, r) \leq 1 = d(p, q).$$

- Every set is open; if A is a set in X and $x \in A$, then the ball of radius $\frac{1}{2}$ around x is just x , which is in A . Thus everything in A has a neighborhood around it contained in A , so $x \in A^o$. Since $A^o = A$, A is open.
- Furthermore, every set is also closed. If $A \subseteq X$ then $A^c \subseteq X$ and A^c is open (because every set is open), so $(A^c)^c = A$ is closed.
- Finite subsets of X are clearly compact. If a set A is infinite, however, it is not compact. For every $x \in A$, let $G_x = B(x, \frac{1}{2})$. Then

$$\bigcup_{x \in A} G_x$$

is a cover for A , but it cannot be reduced as removing any G_x uncovers x .

11. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^1$, define

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(x,y) &= (x-y)^2 \\ d_2(x,y) &= \sqrt{|x-y|} \\ d_3(x,y) &= |x^2 - y^2| \\ d_4(x,y) &= |x-2y| \\ d_5(x,y) &= \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|}. \end{aligned}$$

Determine, for each of these, whether it is a metric or not.

(a) Surprisingly (to me at least), d_1 is not a metric space, for it violates the triangle inequality. If $x = 1$, $y = 2$ and $z = 3$ then $d(d,z) = 4$, but $d(x,y) + d(y,z) = 2$.

(b) d_2 is a metric. We need to show the three properties defining a metric space.

2 If $x \neq y$, then $|x-y| > 0$, so $\sqrt{|x-y|} > 0$; also $d(x,x) = \sqrt{|x-x|} = \sqrt{0} = 0$.

2 $d(x,y) = \sqrt{|x-y|} = \sqrt{|y-x|} = d(y,x)$.

2 Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |x-y| &\leq |x-z| + |y-z| \\ d(x,y) = \sqrt{|x-y|} &\leq \sqrt{|x-z| + |y-z|} \\ &\leq \sqrt{|x-z|} + \sqrt{|y-z|} \\ &= d(x,z) + d(y,z). \end{aligned}$$

(c) d_3 is not a metric space, for $d(1, -1) = 0$ but $1 \neq -1$.

(d) d_4 is not a metric space because $d(1, 3) = 5$ but $d(3, 1) = 1$.

(e) d_5 is a metric space. What I'll do is show that if $d(x,y)$ is a metric space, then $d'(x,y) = \frac{1}{1+d(x,y)}$ is a metric space, and d_5 will be a corollary.

5 If $\frac{1}{1+d(x,y)} = 0$, then $d(x,y) = 0$, which implies that $x = y$.

5 $d'(x,y) = \frac{1}{1+d(x,y)} = \frac{1}{1+d(y,x)} = d'(y,x)$.

5 We need to show that $d'(x,z) \leq d'(x,y) + d'(y,z)$; that is,

$$\frac{1}{1+d(x,z)} \leq \frac{1}{1+d(x,y)} + \frac{1}{1+d(y,z)}$$

Let $\alpha = d(x, z)$, $\beta = d(x, y)$ and $\gamma = d(y, z)$. Then with some manipulation we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &\leq \beta + \gamma \\ \alpha &\leq \beta + \gamma + 2\beta\gamma + \alpha\beta\gamma \text{ (because each term is positive)} \\ \alpha + \alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \alpha\beta\gamma &\leq (\beta + \alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \alpha\beta\gamma) + (\gamma + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma + \alpha\beta\gamma) \\ \alpha(\beta + 1)(\gamma + 1) &\leq \beta(\gamma + 1)(\alpha + 1) + \gamma(\alpha + 1)(\beta + 1) \\ \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha} &\leq \frac{\beta}{1 + \beta} + \frac{\gamma}{1 + \gamma} \\ d'(x, z) &\leq d'(x, y) + d'(y, z). \end{aligned}$$

That's a lot of work, but now we have our claim. Now, since we know that \mathbb{R} under $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ is a metric, we have

$$d'(x, y) = \frac{|x - y|}{1 + |x - y|}$$

is also a metric.

12. Let $K \subset \mathbb{R}^1$ consist of 0 and the numbers $1/n$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Prove that K is compact directly from the definition (without using the Heine-Borel theorem).

Let $C = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha$ be an open cover of K . At least one G_0 covers 0 (or else C cannot be a cover); this means there is $G_0 \in C$ such that $0 \in G_0$. Since G_0 is open, there exists $r > 0$ such that $(-r, r) \subseteq G_0$. Since by the Archimedean Principle there are only a finite number of n such that $r < \frac{1}{n}$, there are only a finite number of points in K that are uncovered. Select one cover for each remaining point, and we have a finite subcover.

Since we can do this for any subcover C , K is compact.

13. Construct a compact set of real numbers whose limit points form a countable set.

For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, Let

$$D_k = \left\{ \frac{1}{10} \right\}^k \cup \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{10} \right)^k + \left(\frac{1}{10} \right)^m \right\}_{m=k+1}^\infty$$

and let $D = \{0\} \cup \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} D_k$. Thus $D_1 = \{.1, .11, .101, \dots\}$ while $D_2 = \{.01, .011, .0101, \dots\}$. and so on. Using a similar argument to problem 5, The limit points are $0, \frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{10^2}, \dots = \bigcup_{i=0}^\infty \left(\frac{1}{10} \right)^i$ which is countable, and nothing else (because each D_k is disjoint from the other sets). Thus the set of limit points is countable.

We're not hog-tied by having to use the definition this time, so all we have to do to show that D is compact is show that it's closed and bounded. Clearly A is bounded above by 2 and below by 0 so we're in the clear there. Furthermore, D contains all its limit points because we expressly included them, so D is closed. Since D is closed and bounded, it is compact.

14. Give an example of an open cover of the segment $(0, 1)$ which has no finite subcover.

Consider $A = (\frac{1}{2}, 1) \cup (\frac{1}{3}, 1) \cup (\frac{1}{4}, 1) \cup \dots$; that is, $A_n = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (\frac{1}{k}, 1)$. This is a cover for $(0, 1)$ because for any $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ we have $\alpha > \frac{1}{n}$ for some n by Archimedes, so $\alpha \in (\frac{1}{n}, 1) \in A_n$.

Let $G = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_{k_i}$ such that $k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_n$. Since $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset A_3 \supset \dots$, there is a “maximum” cover $(\frac{1}{k_n}, 1)$ such that $0 < \frac{1}{k_n}$ and so, for example, $\frac{1}{2M} \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_{k_i}$.

15. Show that Theorem 2.36 and its Corollary become false (in \mathbb{R}^1 for example) if the word “compact” is replaced by “closed” or by “bounded.”

- If $\{K_\alpha\}$ is a collection of **closed** subsets of a metric space X such that the intersection of every finite subcollection of $\{K_\alpha\}$ is nonempty, then is $\bigcap K_\alpha$ nonempty?

Consider $K_x = [x, \infty)$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Clearly any finite subcollection $A = \bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{k_i}$ is nonempty, because if α is the maximum of the k_i 's then $\alpha + 1$ is in every set. But for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $\alpha \notin A_{\alpha+1}$ and so $x \notin \bigcap K_\alpha = \emptyset$.

- If $\{K_\alpha\}$ is a collection of **bounded** subsets of a metric space X such that the intersection of every finite subcollection of $\{K_\alpha\}$ is nonempty, then is $\bigcap K_\alpha$ nonempty?

Let $K_x = (x, 1)$ for $x \in (0, 1)$. Then $A \neq \bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{k_i}$ is nonempty, because if α is the minimum of the k_i 's then $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ is in every set of the collection. However, $\bigcap K_\alpha$ is empty, because clearly anything not in $(0, 1)$ is not in $\bigcap K_\alpha$, and for any $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ we know $\alpha \notin K_{\alpha/2}$.

22. A metric space is called separable if it contains a countable dense subset. Show that \mathbb{R}^k is separable. Hint: Consider the set of points which have only rational coordinates.

Consider $\mathbb{Q}^k \subset \mathbb{R}^k$. This is countable (as we showed last homework). We need to show that $\overline{\mathbb{Q}^k} = \mathbb{R}^k$.

Let $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and suppose it's not in \mathbb{Q}^k (otherwise $x \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}^k}$ follows immediately). Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} , we know that for each x_i , there exists $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $|x_i - q_i| < \frac{\epsilon^2}{k}$. Let $q = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, q) &= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k |x_i - q_i|^2} \\ &\leq \sqrt{k \cdot \frac{\epsilon^2}{k}} \\ &\leq \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Since q cannot equal x (because q is in \mathbb{Q}^k and x is not), x is a limit point of \mathbb{Q}^k . Thus $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is also in $\mathbb{Q}^k \cup (\mathbb{Q}^k)'$; that is, $\mathbb{R}^k = \overline{\mathbb{Q}^k}$. Thus \mathbb{Q}^k , a countable subset of \mathbb{R}^k , is dense in \mathbb{R}^k , and so \mathbb{R}^k is separable.

23. A collection $\{V_\alpha\}$ of open subsets of X is said to be a base for X if the following is true: For every $x \in X$ and every open set $G \subset X$ such that $x \in G$, we have $x \in V_\alpha \subset G$ for some α . In other words, every open set in X is the union of a subcollection of $\{V_\alpha\}$.

Prove that every separable metric space has a countable base. Hint: Take all neighborhoods with rational radius and center in some countable dense subset of X .

X is separable so it has a countable dense subset. Let's call it Q . Let \mathcal{F} be the set of open balls with centers in Q and radius in \mathbb{Q} ; that is, let $\mathcal{F} = \{B_q(x) : q \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ and } x \in Q\}$. We want to show that \mathcal{F} is a base for X .

Let $x \in X$ and G be an open subset of X such that $x \in G$. Then there exists $r > 0$ such that $N_r(x) \subseteq G$. Since Q is dense in X , there exists a sequence $\{q_n\}$ in Q such that $\{q_n\} \rightarrow x$. Let r_n be such that $r_n < \frac{r}{3}$, and $G_\alpha \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $N_{r_n}(q_n) \subseteq N_r(x)$ for large enough n . Thus we have $x \in G_\alpha \in \mathcal{F}$ for some α , which is what we need to show that \mathcal{F} is a base for X .

24. Let X be a metric space in which every infinite subset has a limit point. Prove that X is separable. Hint: Fix $\delta > 0$, and pick $x_1 \in X$. Having chosen $x_1, \dots, x_j \in X$, choose $x_{j+1} \in X$, if possible, so that $d(x_i, x_{j+1}) \geq \delta$ for $i = 1, \dots, j$. Show that this process must stop after a finite number of steps, and that X can therefore be covered by finitely many neighborhoods of radius δ . Take $\delta = 1/n$ ($n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$), and consider the centers of the corresponding neighborhoods.

Let $\delta > 0$ and $x_1 \in X$. For any $x_i \in X$, choose x_{i+1} such that $d(x_i, x_{j+1}) \geq \delta$ for all $j = 1, 2, \dots, i$.

Suppose this process never stops. Then we have an infinite sequence $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that every point is at least δ away from every other point. This means that the sequence can never converge to anything. But X is limit-compact; which means the sequence is supposed to have a limit point. This is a contradiction, and we must conclude that the process must indeed stop; that is, the process yields a *finite* set of points $A_\delta = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i_\delta}\}$. Note that the specific value of i_δ (that is, the number of elements in A_δ) doesn't depend strictly on δ ; it can vary depending on our specific choices of each x_i . Note further that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{i_\delta} N_\delta(x_i)$ is a cover (indeed a finite cover) for X , because if there exists $x \notin A_\delta$, then $N_\delta(x)$ has no points of A_δ in it, and we can assign x as a new element of A_δ in the above process. Finally, note that since our only restriction on δ is that it's positive and fixed, we can create a new A_δ for any (fixed) positive number we choose.

For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$ and let $A_n = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i_\delta}\}$ be a set determined as above, and let G_n be the union of the set of δ -neighborhoods around the x_i 's. Let $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$; that is, A is the set of centers of δ -balls for all $\delta = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots$. I claim that A is dense in X .

Let $z \in X$. If $z \in A$ then $z \in \bar{A}$. Suppose $z \notin A$ (that is, z is not the center of any δ -neighborhood), let $r > 0$, and consider $N_r(z)$. Note that $N_{r/2}(z)$ is covered by a finite number of neighborhoods $N_\alpha(x_1), \dots, \dots, N_\alpha(x_k)$ of radius $\frac{1}{2/r+1}$ and each $x_i \in A$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$. Let $y \in N_{r/2}(z) \cap N_\alpha(x_1)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_1, z) &\leq d(x_1, y) + d(y, z) \\ &\leq \frac{r}{2} + \alpha \\ &\leq r. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $x_1 \in N_r(z)$ but $z \neq x_1$ (because $z \notin A$ but $x_1 \in A$). This means that z is a limit point of A .

Since z was arbitrary in X , we have that *every* point in X is either in A or a limit point of A . That is, $X = A \cup A' = \bar{A}$, so A , a countable set (it's the countable union of finite sets) is dense in X , and so finally X is separable. Whew!

25. Prove that every compact metric space K has a countable base, and that K is therefore separable. Hint: For every positive integer n , there are finitely many neighborhood of radius $1/n$ whose union covers K .

Suppose K is compact. Then by what we proved in class it's limit point compact, so by Problem 24 it's separable and by Problem 23 it has a countable base.

26. Let X be a metric space in which every infinite subset has a limit point. Prove that X is compact. Hint: By Exercises 23 and 24, X has a countable base. It follows that every open cover of X has a countable subcover $\{G_n\}$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. If no finite subcollection of $\{G_n\}$ covers X , then the complement F_n of $G_1 \cup \dots \cup G_n$ is nonempty for each n , but $\bigcap F_n$ is empty. If E is a set which contains a point from each F_n , consider a limit point of E , and obtain a contradiction.

Let X be a limit compact metric space. By the two exercises above, X has a countable base. This means that it has a countable subcover, $\{G_n\}$. Suppose X is not compact. Then there is no finite subcollection of $\{G_n\}$ that covers X . For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $F_n = (\bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i)^c$; for example, $F_1 = G_1^c$, $F_2 = (G_1 \cup G_2)^c = G_1^c \cap G_2^c$ and so on. Then F_n is always nonempty (otherwise the G_n 's would form a cover), but $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} F_i$ is empty. Let $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots\}$ be a set that contains a point from each F_n (that is, $e_1 \in F_1$, $e_2 \in F_2$ and so on), and let p be a limit point of E .

Since p is a limit point of E , there is a sequence $\{e_{\alpha}\} = \{e_{\alpha_1}, e_{\alpha_2}, e_{\alpha_3}, \dots\}$ in E (which remember is a subset of F_1) that converges to p . Note that for any $k \geq 2$, $F_{k-1} \subseteq F_k$. Therefore every F_k contains a subsequence of $\{e_{\alpha}\}$, which means that p is also a limit point of every F_k . Furthermore, each F_n is closed (because it's the complement of a finite union of open sets). This means that $p \in F_k$ for any F_k ; that is, $p \in \bigcap F_k$. But $\bigcap F_n$ was supposed to be empty. This is a contradiction.

Therefore, we must reject the assumption that X lacks a finite subcover of $\{G_n\}$ that covers X , which means X must be compact.