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THE SET OF CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS WITH ZERO TOPOLOGICAL ENTROPY

Abstract

Let $I = [0, 1]$. We show that those functions in $C(I, I)$ possessing zero topological entropy form a nowhere dense perfect subset of the continuous self maps of the interval. We also show that every function with zero topological entropy that possesses an infinite ω -limit set is the uniform limit of functions having only finite ω -limit sets.

1 Introduction

In the study of chaotic and dynamical systems, those functions possessing zero topological entropy have received considerable attention. Topological entropy, as introduced in [1], was initially used to provide a numerical measure for the complexity of an endomorphism of a compact topological space. The notion has since been extended to provide a way of describing the chaotic behavior of a self map of a compact interval. As the following results of Misiurewicz and Sarkovskii indicate, those functions with zero topological entropy must have relatively benign iterative structures [8], [9], [7].

Theorem 1. *Let $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be continuous. The following conditions are equivalent.*

- f has positive topological entropy.
- For some $x \in I = [0, 1]$, the ω -limit set $\omega(x, f)$ is infinite and contains a periodic point.
- f has a cycle of order not a power of two.
- There are closed intervals J and K in I having at most one point in common, and positive integers m, n such that $J \cup K \subset f^m(J) \cap f^n(K)$.

Key Words: topological entropy, continuous function, ω -limit set
Mathematical Reviews subject classification: 54H20, 26A18
Received by the editors May 22, 1998

Four years later V. Fedorenko, A. Sarkovskii and J. Smítal published a more extensive list of conditions equivalent to a function having zero topological entropy; the interested reader is referred to Theorem A of [6]. From Theorem 1, one sees that each periodic orbit of f must have order 2^n for some nonnegative integer n whenever f has zero topological entropy. Our next theorem, due to Smítal, sheds considerable light onto the structure of the infinite ω -limit sets of a function with zero topological entropy [10].

Theorem 2. *If ω is an infinite ω -limit set of $f \in C(I, I)$ possessing zero topological entropy, then there exists a sequence of closed intervals $\{J_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ in $[0, 1]$ such that*

- *for each k , $\{f^i(J_k)\}_{i=1}^{2^k}$ are pairwise disjoint, and $J_k = f^{2^k}(J_k)$.*
- *for each k , $J_{k+1} \cup f^{2^k}(J_{k+1}) \subset J_k$.*
- *for each k , $\omega \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} f^i(J_k)$.*
- *for each k and i , $\omega \cap f^i(J_k) \neq \emptyset$.*

Given the very specific behavior that functions of zero topological entropy must demonstrate on their infinite ω -limit sets, it may not be too surprising that Bruckner and Smítal have been able to characterize these sets [4].

Theorem 3. *An infinite compact set $W \subset (0, 1)$ is an ω -limit set of a map $f \in C(I, I)$ with zero topological entropy if and only if $W = Q \cup P$ where Q is a Cantor set and P is empty or countably infinite, disjoint with Q , and satisfies the following conditions:*

- *every interval contiguous to Q contains at most two points of P ;*
- *each of the intervals $[0, \min Q)$, $(\max Q, 1]$ contains at most one point of P , and*
- *$\overline{P} = Q \cup P$.*

More recently in [2], Block and Coppel have turned their attention to the structure of the collection $\mathcal{E} = \{f \in C(I, I) : f \text{ has zero topological entropy}\}$ as a subset of $C(I, I)$. We extend their results by first recalling that \mathcal{E} is a nowhere dense perfect subset of $C(I, I)$. We then go on to prove that every function in \mathcal{E} possessing an infinite ω -limit set is the uniform limit of functions possessing only finite ω -limit sets. That \mathcal{E} is a nowhere dense perfect subset of $C(I, I)$ follows from earlier work of Block and Misiurewicz; we present an alternate proof of this fact since it complements the second part of Theorem 4, which answers a specific query of [2].

2 Preliminaries

We write $\mathbf{h}(f) = 0$ in order to indicate that f in $C(I, I)$ possesses zero topological entropy, so that $\mathcal{E} = \{f \in C(I, I) : \mathbf{h}(f) = 0\}$. While we can take I to be any compact interval of the real line, for convenience we set $I = [0, 1]$. We let $\|f - g\| = \sup\{|f(x) - g(x)| : x \in I\}$, and work in the complete metric space $(C(I, I), \|\cdot\|)$. Also, let \mathbb{P}_n denote the set of all continuous functions $f : I \rightarrow I$ which possess a point of period n , and let \mathbb{P}_{2^∞} represent those functions with zero topological entropy that possess a point of period 2^n for all natural numbers n . From the Sarkovskii ordering on periodic orbits of continuous self-maps of a compact interval, one sees that $\mathbb{P}_{2^\infty} \subset \cdots \subset \mathbb{P}_{2^{n+1}} \subset \mathbb{P}_{2^n} \subset \cdots \subset \mathbb{P}_4 \subset \mathbb{P}_2 \subset \mathbb{P}_1$.

We make the following definitions with Smítal's Theorem 2 in mind. Let ω be an infinite compact subset of I , and let f map ω into itself. We call f a simple map on ω if ω has a decomposition $S \cup T$ into compact portions that f exchanges, and f^2 is simple on each of these portions. From Smítal's Theorem one sees that every map f with zero topological entropy is simple on each of its infinite ω -limit sets. Let $\{J_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ be a nested sequence of compact periodic intervals of ω and f as described in Smítal's Theorem. Every set of the form $\omega \cap f^i(J_k)$ is periodic of period 2^k , and we call each such set a periodic portion of rank k . This system of periodic portions of ω , or of the corresponding periodic intervals, is called the simple system of ω with respect to f . We now recall a device from [5] that allows us to code the sets $f^i(J_k)$ with finite tuples of zeros and ones. Let \mathbb{N} denote the natural numbers, and take \mathcal{N} to be the set of sequences composed of zeros and ones. If $\mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{N}$ and $\mathbf{n} = \{n_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$, we let $\mathbf{n}|k = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$. Set $\mathbf{0} = \{0, 0, \dots\}$ and $\mathbf{1} = \{1, 1, \dots\}$. Now, define a function $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ given by $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{n}) = \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{10}$, where addition is modulus two from left to right. For each $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$ put $F_{\mathbf{1}|k} = J_k$ and $F_{\mathcal{A}^i(\mathbf{1}|k)} = f^i(J_k)$. Thus, for each \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{n} in \mathcal{N} and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there is a $j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathcal{A}^j(\mathbf{m}|k) = \mathbf{n}|k$; the above relations define $F_{\mathbf{n}|k}$ for all $\mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{N}$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Now, set $F_{\mathbf{n}} = \bigcap_{k=1}^\infty F_{\mathbf{n}|k}$, and let $K = \bigcup_{\mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{N}} \bigcap_{k=1}^\infty F_{\mathbf{n}|k}$. Then K and each $F_{\mathbf{n}}$ are compact, and the components of K consist of the $F_{\mathbf{n}}$ sets. Let G be the component of $[0, 1] - K$ which contains the interval between $F_{\mathbf{1}}$ and $F_{\mathbf{0}}$. In general, let $G_{\mathbf{n}|k}$ be that component of $[0, 1] - K$ which contains the interval between $F_{\mathbf{n}|k0}$ and $F_{\mathbf{n}|k1}$. We set $\mathcal{G} = \{G\} \cup \{G_{\mathbf{n}|k} : \mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{N}, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$, $G^0 = G \cup [0, \inf K) \cup (\sup K, 1]$ and $G^k = \bigcup \{G_{\mathbf{n}|k} : \mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{N}\}$. Thus, $[\inf K, \sup K] = K \cup \mathcal{G}$ and $[0, 1] = K \cup (\bigcup_{j=0}^\infty G^j)$.

3 Results

We are now in a position to state precisely as well as prove our main result; this is the content of the following theorem.

Theorem 4. *Let $\mathcal{E} = \{f \in C(I, I) : \mathbf{h}(f) = 0\}$. Then*

- \mathcal{E} is a nowhere dense perfect subset of $C(I, I)$.
- $\overline{\cup_{k \geq 0}(\mathbb{P}_{2^k} \cap \mathcal{E})} = \mathcal{E}$.

PROOF. We first prove that \mathcal{E} is a nowhere dense closed subset of $C(I, I)$. From [2] we know that the function $\mathbf{h} : C(I, I) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{+\infty\}$, given by $f \mapsto \mathbf{h}(f)$, is lower semicontinuous. Thus, if $\mathbf{h}(f) > \alpha > 0$, then $\mathbf{h}(g) > \alpha$ for all $g \in C(I, I)$ sufficiently close to f . In particular, the set $\mathcal{S} = \{f \in C(I, I) : \mathbf{h}(f) > 0\}$ is open. Now, suppose that $f \in \mathcal{E}$. Since f must have a fixed point in I , for any $\varepsilon > 0$ we can find g in $C(I, I)$ so that $\|f - g\| < \varepsilon$, yet $\mathbf{h}(g) > 0$. In fact, we can take g to equal f outside of a neighborhood of the fixed point, and define g on a subinterval of that neighborhood so that it is an appropriately scaled copy of the hat map $h : I \rightarrow I$ given by $x \mapsto 2x$ for $x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$, and $x \mapsto 2(1 - x)$ for $x \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1]$. To show that \mathcal{E} is perfect in addition to being nowhere dense and closed in $C(I, I)$, we let $\{\varphi_n\}$ be a sequence of homeomorphisms from I to I that converge uniformly to the identity map on I . Let f be an element of \mathcal{E} , and set $f_n = \varphi_n f \varphi_n^{-1}$. Since f_n is topologically conjugate to $f \in \mathcal{E}$, one sees that $\mathbf{h}(f_n) = 0$ for each n , too. Moreover, $f_n \rightarrow f$ since the uniform limit of $\{\varphi_n\}$ is the identity map.

It remains to show that $\overline{\cup_{k \geq 0}(\mathbb{P}_{2^k} \cap \mathcal{E})} = \mathcal{E}$. To this end, it suffices to show that for any f in \mathbb{P}_{2^∞} , there exists $\{f_n\}$ contained in $\cup_{k \geq 0}(\mathbb{P}_{2^k} \cap \mathcal{E})$ for which $f_n \rightarrow f$. Let $f \in \mathbb{P}_{2^\infty}$. We proceed through two cases. First, let us suppose that f is not chaotic in the sense of Li and Yorke, so that $|F_{\mathbf{n}}| = 0$ for all the components $F_{\mathbf{n}}$ in a simple system of f , should the function possess an infinite ω -limit set [3]. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ with the property that $|F_{\mathbf{n}|k}| < \varepsilon$ for all \mathbf{n} in \mathcal{N} , whenever $k \geq N$. We let g equal f on $I - (\cup_{\mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{N}} F_{\mathbf{n}|N})$, and extend g linearly on each of the 2^N intervals of the form $F_{\mathbf{n}|N}$. Since $g^{2^N} : F_{\mathbf{n}|N} \rightarrow F_{\mathbf{n}|N}$ is linear for each \mathbf{n} in \mathcal{N} , it follows that g has periodic points of order no more than 2^{N+1} . In a similar fashion one constructs g a 2^{N+1} function so that $\|f - g\| < \varepsilon$ whenever f is a 2^∞ function that does not possess an infinite ω -limit set.

For our second case, let us suppose that f is chaotic in the sense of Li and Yorke, so that $\text{int } F_{\mathbf{n}} \neq \emptyset$ for some component of the simple system of f . Let $x \in \text{int } F_{\mathbf{n}}$, and take $\varepsilon > 0$. Since f is uniformly continuous, there exists N a natural number such that $|G_{\mathbf{m}|n}| < \varepsilon$ and $|f(G_{\mathbf{m}|n})| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > N$

for all \mathbf{m} in \mathcal{N} . Also, there exists \mathbf{m} in \mathcal{N} and M in \mathbb{N} so that $|F_{\mathbf{m}|n}| < \varepsilon$ and $|F_{\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{m})|n}| < \varepsilon$ for any $n > M$. Let $n > \max\{M, N\}$, and without loss of generality we may presume that $F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}$ lies between $G_{\mathbf{m}|n}$ and $G_{\mathbf{m}|n+1}$. There exists a $k \in \mathbb{N}$ for which $f^k(x) \in F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}$, and since $f^{2^{n+2}-k}(F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}) = F_{\mathbf{n}|n+2}$, there is x^* in $F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}$ such that $f^{2^{n+2}-k}(x^*) = x$. We modify f on $F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}, G^n$ and G^{n+1} to get a function g so that $g \in \mathbb{P}_{2^{n+2}}$, and $\|f - g\| < \varepsilon$. If y is in $I - (F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2} \cup G^n \cup G^{n+1})$, we let $g(y) = f(y)$. If $y \in F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}$, let $g(y) = f(x^*)$. We extend g in a linear fashion on G^n and G^{n+1} to get $g \in C(I, I)$ for which $\|f - g\| < \varepsilon$. Since $g^k(x) = f^k(x) \in F_{\mathbf{m}|n+2}$, $g(g^k(x)) = f(x^*)$ and $g^{2^{n+2}-(k+1)}(g(g^k(x))) = f^{2^{n+2}-(k+1)}(f(x^*)) = x$, it follows that x has period 2^{n+2} . Since g possesses a unique periodic point of period 2^n in G^n , and a unique periodic point of period 2^{n+1} in G^{n+1} , it follows that g is a 2^{n+2} function. \square

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