

# MATH 2080 Introductory Analysis

## Chapter 3 Basic Topology of $\mathbb{R}$

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# The Cantor set

The Cantor set plays a very important role in solving many difficult problems in modern analysis. Here we only introduce the construction of the set. It is a subset of  $[0, 1]$ , obtained by removing some (infinitely many) open subintervals from  $[0, 1]$ . The precise process is as follows.

- Denote  $C_0 = [0, 1]$ .
- Divide  $C_0$  into three subintervals of equal length. Then remove the middle open interval. The remainder set is denoted by  $C_1$ . Precisely, the removed open interval is  $(1/3, 2/3)$  of length  $1/3$ , and  $C_1$  consists of two closed interval components  $[0, 1/3]$  and  $[2/3, 1]$ .
- Divide each component of  $C_1$  into three subintervals of equal length. Then remove the open middle third. The remainder set is denoted by  $C_2$ . In this step, 2 open intervals are removed, each of length  $1/3^2$ , and  $C_2$  consists of  $2^2 = 4$  closed interval components.

# The Cantor set - continued

Continue this “removing open middle third” process inductively. The remainder set after the  $n$ th stage is denoted by  $C_n$ .

- ①  $C_n$  has  $2^n$  closed interval components, each of length  $1/3^n$ .
- ② To get  $C_{n+1}$ , one needs to remove (from  $C_n$ )  $2^n$  open middle thirds, each of length  $1/3^{n+1}$ . The total length removed is  $2^n \times 1/3^{n+1} = 1/3 \times (2/3)^n$ .
- ③ After the whole process, the final remainder set is  $C = \cap_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$ , called **the Cantor set**.
- ④ It is not hard to see  $C \neq \emptyset$ . One can also prove that  $C$  has cardinality equal to that of  $\mathbb{R}$ . So  $C$  is uncountable and “**big**”.
- ⑤ On the other hand, the total length of the open intervals removed from  $[0, 1]$  after all stages is  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1/3 \times (2/3)^n = 1$ . Since the length of the mother set  $[0, 1]$  is 1, the “total length measure” of  $C$  is 0. In this sense  $C$  is very **small**, often referred to as Cantor “dust”.

# Open sets in $\mathbb{R}$

## Definition 3.1

- Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . The set  $V_\varepsilon(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - a| < \varepsilon\}$  is called the  $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood of  $a$ .
- A subset  $O$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  is called an open set if for every point  $a \in O$  there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $V_\varepsilon(a) \subset O$ .

Simple examples of open sets include  $\mathbb{R}$  itself and all (bounded or unbounded) open intervals. Empty set  $\emptyset$  is also regarded as an open set.

## Theorem 3.2

- If  $\{O_1, O_2, \dots, O_n\}$  is a finite collection of open sets, then  $O = \cap_{k=1}^n O_k$  is an open set.
- If  $\{O_\alpha : \alpha \in \Lambda\}$  is an arbitrary collection of open sets, then  $U = \cup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_\alpha$  is an open set.

# Limit points of a set

Let  $V_\varepsilon(a)$  be the  $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood of  $a$ . Remove  $a$  from  $V_\varepsilon(a)$ . The result set is called the **deleted  $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood** of  $a$ , denoted by  $\mathring{V}_\varepsilon(a)$ . Indeed,  $\mathring{V}_\varepsilon(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < |x - a| < \varepsilon\}$ .

## Definition 3.3

*Given a set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ , a point  $p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called a **limit point** of  $A$  if, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\mathring{V}_\varepsilon(p) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . Limit points are also called **accumulation points**.*

**Note**  $\mathring{V}_\varepsilon(p) \cap A \neq \emptyset$  really means that  $V_\varepsilon(p)$  contains at least one point of  $A$  other than  $p$ . A limit point itself may not belong to  $A$ .

## Example 1

- ① Let  $A = (a, b)$ . Then every point of  $[a, b]$  is a limit point of  $A$ .
- ② Let  $A = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Then 0 is the only limit point of  $A$ .
- ③ If  $A = \mathbb{Q}$ , then all real numbers are limit points of  $A$ . Similarly, the set of all limit points of  $\mathbb{I}$  is  $\mathbb{R}$ . While  $\mathbb{N}$  has no limit point.

# Isolated points

## Remark

- If  $p$  is a limit point of  $A$ , then,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A$  is an infinite set.
- The limit point  $p$  of  $A$  may not belong to  $A$ , and a point  $p \notin A$  is a limit point of  $A$  iff,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .
- Denote by  $A'$  the set of all limit points of  $A$ . Then  $A' \subset B'$  if  $A \subset B$ .

From the definition of a limit point, a point  $p \in \mathbb{R}$  is **not** a limit point of  $A$  iff there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A = \emptyset$ , meaning either  $V_\varepsilon(p)$  contains no point of  $A$  or  $p$  is the only point of  $A$  inside  $V_\varepsilon(p)$ .

Let  $p \in A$ . If there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $p$  is the only point of  $A$  inside  $V_\varepsilon(p)$ , then we call  $p$  an **isolated point** of  $A$ . In other words,  $p$  is an isolated point of  $A$  iff  $p \in A$  and  $p$  is not a limit point of  $A$ .

## Example 2

Let  $A = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Then every point  $\frac{1}{n}$  is an isolated point of  $A$ .

# Limit Characterization of limit points

## Theorem 3.4

*A point  $p \in \mathbb{R}$  is a limit point of  $A$  if and only if there is a sequence  $(a_n) \subset A$  such that  $a_n \neq p$  for all  $n$  and  $a_n \rightarrow p$ .*

### Proof.

$\Rightarrow$ : let  $p$  be a limit point of  $A$ . Then  $\overset{\circ}{V}_{\frac{1}{n}}(p) \cap A \neq \emptyset$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . So we may pick up  $a_n$  from  $\overset{\circ}{V}_{\frac{1}{n}}(p) \cap A$  to form  $(a_n) \subset A$ . Clearly  $a_n \neq p$ , and  $a_n \rightarrow p$  since  $|a_n - p| < \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ .

$\Leftarrow$ : If  $(a_n) \subset A$  such that  $a_n \neq p$  and  $a_n \rightarrow p$ , then for each  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $N$  such that  $a_n \in V_\varepsilon(p)$  for  $n \geq N$ . Of course, such  $a_n$  belongs to  $\overset{\circ}{V}_\varepsilon(p) \cap A$ . Thus  $\overset{\circ}{V}_\varepsilon(p) \cap A \neq \emptyset$  for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ . □

Theorem 3.4 reveals the meaning for  $p$  being a limit point of  $A$ . It means that  $p$  is the limit of a **non-constant sequence** from  $A$ .

# Closed sets in $\mathbb{R}$

## Definition 3.5

A set  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  is called a *closed set* if all limit points of  $F$  are included in  $F$ .

Simple examples of closed sets include  $\mathbb{R}$  and all closed intervals.

## Theorem 3.6

A set  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  is closed if and only if every Cauchy sequence in  $F$  converges to a point of  $F$ .

## Remark

From the Cauchy Criterion, a Cauchy sequence always converges to a point in  $\mathbb{R}$ . But this point may not be a point of  $F$ . The above theorem asserts that one can guarantee a Cauchy sequence taken from  $F$  converges to a point that still belongs to  $F$  only if  $F$  is a closed set.

# Relation between closed and open

## Theorem 3.7

A set  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  is closed if and only if its complement  $F^C$  is open.

### Proof.

$F$  is closed  $\Leftrightarrow$  all limit points of  $F$  are in  $F$   $\Leftrightarrow$  every  $x \in F^C$  is not a limit point of  $F$   $\Leftrightarrow$  every point  $x \in F^C$  has a neighborhood  $V_\varepsilon(x)$  that contains no point of  $F$   $\Leftrightarrow$  every point  $x \in F^C$  has a neighborhood  $V_\varepsilon(x)$  that is contained in  $F^C$   $\Leftrightarrow F^C$  is open. □

# Properties of closed sets

Using Theorems 3.2 and 3.7, we easily obtain the following result.

## Theorem 3.8

- ① If  $\{F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n\}$  is a finite collection of closed sets, then  $F = \bigcup_{k=1}^n F_k$  is a closed set.
- ② If  $\{F_\alpha : \alpha \in \Lambda\}$  is an arbitrary collection of closed sets, then  $V = \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} F_\alpha$  is a closed set.

## Proof.

Sketch: If  $F_k$  is closed, then  $F_k^C$  is open. Note  $F^C = \bigcap_{k=1}^n F_k^C$  by the De Morgan's Law. So  $F^C$  is open by Theorem 3.2. Thus  $F$  is closed by Theorem 3.7.

Similarly,  $V^C = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} F_\alpha^C$  is open and hence  $V$  is closed. □

# Closure

## Definition 3.9

Let  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$  and let  $A'$  be the set of all limit points of  $A$ . We call the union  $A \cup A'$  the **closure** of  $A$ , denoted by  $\overline{A}$ .

## Example 3

- ① If  $A = (a, b)$ , then  $\overline{A} = [a, b]$ .
- ② If  $A = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , then  $\overline{A} = A \cup \{0\}$ .
- ③  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}$ , and also  $\overline{\mathbb{I}} = \mathbb{R}$ .

## Remark

- ① It is clear from the definition that  $\overline{A} = A$  if  $A$  is closed.
- ② If  $A \subset B$ , then  $\overline{A} \subset \overline{B}$ . In particular, if  $B$  is closed and  $A \subset B$ , then  $\overline{A} \subset B$ .

# Closure-continued

## Theorem 3.10

*Let  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\overline{A}$  is a closed set. Moreover,  $\overline{A}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ .*

### Proof.

It suffices to show that  $\overline{A}^C$  is open. For this we only need to show that  $\forall p \in \overline{A}^C, \exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $V_\varepsilon(p) \subset \overline{A}^C$ .

If  $p \in \overline{A}^C$ , then  $p \notin A$  and  $p$  is not a limit point of  $A$ . So  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A = \emptyset$ . We claim further  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A' = \emptyset$ .

Proof by contradiction: Let  $q \in V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A'$ . Then there is  $\varepsilon' > 0$  such that  $V_{\varepsilon'}(q) \subset V_\varepsilon(p)$  since  $V_\varepsilon(p)$  is open. So  $V_{\varepsilon'}(q) \cap A = \emptyset$  since  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A = \emptyset$ . Then  $q \notin A'$ , contradicting to  $q \in V_\varepsilon(p) \cap A'$ .

Therefore, the claim is true. Then  $V_\varepsilon(p) \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$ . So  $V_\varepsilon(p) \subset \overline{A}^C$ .

$\overline{A}$  is the smallest since  $\overline{A} \subset B$  for every closed set  $B$  containing  $A$ . □

# Introduction to compact sets

## Definition 3.11

A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  is called **compact** if every sequence in  $K$  has a subsequence that converges to a point in  $K$ .

We are not going to discuss anything deep concerning compact sets.  
We only introduce the following characterization theorem.

## Theorem 3.12

a set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  is compact if and only if it is bounded and closed.

## Example 4

- ① Every bounded closed interval  $[a, b]$  is compact.
- ② Let  $A = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Then  $\overline{A} = A \cup \{0\}$  is compact.
- ③ In general, if  $B \subset \mathbb{R}$  is bounded, then  $\overline{B}$  is compact.

# Nested compact sets

## Theorem 3.13 (Nested Compact Set Property)

*Let  $\{K_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  be a sequence of non-empty compact sets such that  $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $K = \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset$  and is compact.*

### Proof.

To show  $K \neq \emptyset$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we take a point  $a_n \in K_n$ . Then, from the nested assumption,  $(a_n) \subset K_1$ . Moreover,  $(a_k)_{k=n}^{\infty} \subset K_n$ .

Since  $K_1$  is compact, There is a subsequence  $(a_{n_i})_{i=1}^{\infty}$  that converges to some  $p \in K_1$ . We claim  $p \in K_m$  for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Given  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is  $j \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n_j \geq m$ . Then

$(a_{n_i})_{i=j}^{\infty} \subset (a_k)_{k=m}^{\infty} \subset K_m$ . We have  $p = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_i} \in K_m$  since  $K_m$  is closed. The claim is proved.

Therefore,  $p \in \cap_{m=1}^{\infty} K_m = K$ . So  $K \neq \emptyset$ .

$K$  is clearly closed and bounded (as the intersection of compact sets). So  $K$  is compact. □