

Chapter 2: Basic Topology

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Exercise 2.1. *Prove that the empty set is a subset of every set.*

Proof. By Definitions 1.3,

- (1) The set which contains no element will be called the **empty set**,
- (2) If A and B are sets, and if every element of A is an element of B , we say that A is a **subset** of B ,

every element of the empty set (there are none) belongs to every set. That is, the empty set is a subset of every set. \square

Exercise 2.2. *A complex number z is said to be algebraic if there are integers a_0, \dots, a_n , not all zero, such that*

$$a_0 z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} z + a_n = 0.$$

Prove that the set of all algebraic numbers is countable. (Hint: For every positive integer N there are only finitely many equations with

$$n + |a_0| + |a_1| + \cdots + |a_n| = N.$$

Might assume $a_0 \neq 0$.

For example, all rational numbers are algebraic since $p = \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ (where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$) is a root of $\beta z - \alpha = 0$.

Besides, $z = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$ is algebraic since $z^4 - 10z^2 + 1 = 0$. In fact, $z = \pm\sqrt{2} + \pm\sqrt{3}$ are also algebraic since $z^4 - 10z^2 + 1 = (z - \sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3})(z + \sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3})(z - \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})(z + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})$.

Lemma. *The set of all polynomials over \mathbb{Z} is countable implies that the set of algebraic numbers is countable.*

Proof of Lemma. By definition, we write the set of algebraic numbers as

$$S = \bigcup_{f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]} \{z \in \mathbb{C} : f(z) = 0\}.$$

Since each polynomial of degree n has at most n roots, $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : f(z) = 0\}$ is finite for each given $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. So S is a countable union (by assumption) of finite sets, and hence at most countable. S is infinite since every integer α is a root of $f(z) = z - \alpha$. So S is countable. \square

Thus, it suffices to show that *the set of all polynomials over \mathbb{Z} is countable*.

Proof (Hint). For every positive integer N there are only finitely many equations with $n + |a_0| + |a_1| + \cdots + |a_n| = N$. Write

$$P_N = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x] : n + |a_0| + |a_1| + \cdots + |a_n| = N\}$$

where $f(x) = a_0z^n + a_1z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1}z + a_n$ with $a_0 \neq 0$, and

$$P = \bigcup_{N=1}^{\infty} P_N.$$

P is the set of all polynomials over \mathbb{Z} .

Each P_N is finite for given N (since the equation $n + |a_0| + |a_1| + \cdots + |a_n| = N$ has finitely many solutions $(n, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+2}$). So P is a countable union of finite sets, and hence at most countable. P is infinite since \mathbb{Z} is a subring of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. So P is countable. \square

Proof (Theorem 2.13).

- (1) \mathbb{Z}^N is countable for any integer $N > 0$. Theorem 2.13.
- (2) The set of all polynomials over \mathbb{Z} is countable. Let

$$P_n = \{f \in \mathbb{Z}[x] : \deg f = n\},$$

and

$$P = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n = \mathbb{Z}[x].$$

Claim: P_n is countable. Define a 1-1 map $\varphi_n : P_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ by

$$\varphi_n(a_0z^n + a_1z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n) = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n).$$

By (1) and Theorem 2.8, P_n is countable. (P_n is infinite since $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$.) Now P is a countable union of countable sets, and hence countable by Theorem 2.12.

\square

Proof (Unique factorization theorem).

- (1) *The set of prime numbers is countable.* Write all primes in the ascending order as $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, \dots, p_{10001} = 104743, \dots$ (See ProjectEuler 7: 10001st prime. Use sieve of Eratosthenes to get p_{10001} .)
- (2) *The set of all polynomials over \mathbb{Z} is countable.* Let

$$P_n = \{f \in \mathbb{Z}[x] : \deg f = n\},$$

and

$$P = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n = \mathbb{Z}[x].$$

Claim: P_n is countable. Define a map $\varphi_n : P_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$ by

$$\varphi_n(a_0 z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n) = p_1^{\psi(a_0)} p_2^{\psi(a_1)} \dots p_{n+1}^{\psi(a_n)},$$

where ψ is a 1-1 correspondence from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z}^+ (Example 2.5). By the unique factorization theorem, φ_n is 1-1. So P_n is countable by Theorem 2.8. (P_n is infinite since $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$.) Now P is a countable union of countable sets, and hence countable by Theorem 2.12.

□

Exercise 2.10. 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?

(The statement holds even if X is finite.) We called d the discrete metric, and the corresponding topology on X induces the discrete topology. Conversely, if X has the discrete topology, X is always metrizable by the discrete metric.

Proof.

- (1) $d(p, q)$ is a metric.
- (a) $d(p, q) > 0$ if $p \neq q$; $d(p, p) = 0$. Trivial.
 - (b) $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$. Trivial.
 - (c) $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$ for any $r \in X$. If $p = q$, nothing to do. If $p \neq q$, $r \neq p$ or $r \neq q$ for any $r \in X$. (Assume not true, $r = p$ and $r = q$ implies that $p = q$ which is a contradiction.) In any cases $d(p, r) + d(r, q) \geq 1 = d(p, q)$.

- (2) *Every subset is open.* Let E be any subset of X . Then every point $p \in E$ is an interior point of E . In fact, we can pick one neighborhood $N_{\frac{1}{2}}(p)$ of p containing only one point $p \in E$ or $N_{\frac{1}{2}}(p) = \{p\}$, and such neighborhood $N_{\frac{1}{2}}(p)$ is a subset of E . So every subset of X is open.
- (3) *Every subset is closed.* Since every subset is open, every subset is closed by Theorem 2.23.

Supplement. Might use Definition 2.18 (d) to prove directly since there are no limit points in X if we consider one neighborhood $N_{\frac{1}{2}}(p)$ of p . Therefore, every subset is closed. Again we apply Theorem 2.23 to get that every subset is open without using Definition 2.18 (f).

- (4) *A subset is compact iff it is finite.*
- (a) *Any finite subset is compact.* Say $E = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$, and $\{G_\alpha\}$ be an open covering of E . From $\{G_\alpha\}$ we pick G_{α_1} containing p_1 , G_{α_2} containing p_2 , ..., and G_{α_k} containing p_k . This process can be done in the finitely many steps. Therefore,

$$\{G_{\alpha_1}, G_{\alpha_2}, \dots, G_{\alpha_k}\}$$

is a finite subcovering of $\{G_\alpha\}$ covering E .

- (b) *Any infinite subset is not compact.* Take a collection

$$\mathcal{G} = \{G_p = \{p\}\}$$

of open subsets where p runs all points in E . Clearly, $\{G_p\}$ is an open covering. Assume

$$\mathcal{G}' = \{G_{p_1}, G_{p_2}, \dots, G_{p_k}\}$$

is any finite subcovering of \mathcal{G} . Since E is infinite, there exist a point $p \in E$ such that $p \neq p_1, p \neq p_2, \dots, p \neq p_k$. Therefore, \mathcal{G}' does not cover p , or \mathcal{G} does not contain any finite subcovering \mathcal{G}' .

□

Notice that every subset is bounded. Therefore, every subset is closed and bounded, but only finite subset is compact, i.e., Heine-Borel theorem is not true in the infinite discrete topology.

Exercise 2.12. Let $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$ consist of 0 and the numbers $\frac{1}{n}$, for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Prove that K is compact directly from the definition (without using the Heine-Borel theorem).

Proof. Let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be an open covering of K . There is an open set $G_0 \in \{G_\alpha\}$ containing 0. So there exists a neighborhood $N_r(0)$ of 0 such that $N_r(0) \subseteq G_0$. So $N_r(0)$ contains all points $q = \frac{1}{n}$ of K whenever $n > \frac{1}{r}$. To construct a finite subcovering of $\{G_\alpha\}$, we need to pick finitely many open sets from $\{G_\alpha\}$ to cover the remaining points $q = \frac{1}{n}$ where $n = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil \frac{1}{r} \rceil$, say G_1 contains $q = \frac{1}{1}$, G_2 contains $q = \frac{1}{2}$, ..., $G_{\lceil \frac{1}{r} \rceil}$ contains $q = \frac{1}{\lceil \frac{1}{r} \rceil}$. (Might be duplicated.) Hence,

$$\left\{ G_0, G_1, G_2, \dots, G_{\lceil \frac{1}{r} \rceil} \right\}$$

is a finite subcovering of $\{G_\alpha\}$ covering K . \square

Proof (Heine-Borel theorem).

- (1) K is closed. In fact, the only limit point of K is 0, which is in K .
 - (a) $p = 0$ is a limit point. Given $r > 0$. There always exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $r > \frac{1}{n}$. So any neighborhood $N_r(0)$ of $p = 0$ contains at least one point $q = \frac{1}{n} \neq 0$ in K .
 - (b) $p < 0$ is not a limit point. Pick a neighborhood $N_r(p)$ of p where $r = |p| > 0$. Then $N_r(p) \cap K = \emptyset$.
 - (c) $p > 0$ is not a limit point. There always exists $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $p > \frac{1}{m}$ whenever $n \geq m$. Pick a neighborhood $N_r(p)$ of p where $r = p - \frac{1}{m} > 0$. Then $N_r(p)$ does not have all points $q = \frac{1}{n} \in K$ whenever $n \geq m$. By Theorem 2.20, p cannot be a limit point of K .
- (2) K is bounded. There is a real number $M = 2$ and a point $q = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^1$ such that $|p - q| = |p| < 2$ for all $p \in K$.

By Heine-Borel theorem, K is compact in \mathbb{R}^1 . \square

Exercise 2.14. Give an example of an open cover of the segment $(0, 1)$ which has no finite subcover.

Proof. In \mathbb{R}^1 , take a collection

$$\mathcal{G} = \left\{ G_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1 \right) \right\}$$

of open subsets where $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

- (1) \mathcal{G} is an open covering of $(0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$. Actually, given $x \in (0, 1)$, there exists an positive integer n such that $x > \frac{1}{n}$. That is, $x \in (\frac{1}{n}, 1) = G_n$.
- (2) There is no finite subcovering of \mathcal{G} . Assume

$$\mathcal{G}' = \{G_{n_1}, G_{n_2}, \dots, G_{n_k}\}$$

is any finite subcovering of \mathcal{G} where $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k$. Take $x \in \left(0, \frac{1}{n_k}\right) \neq \emptyset$, $x = \frac{1}{2n_k}$ for example. Then $x \notin G_{n_1}, x \notin G_{n_2}, \dots, x \notin G_{n_k}$, which contradicts that \mathcal{G}' is a finite subcovering of \mathcal{G} covering $(0, 1)$.

□