# Chapter 2: Basic Topology

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### Notation.

- (1)  $E^{\circ}$  or int(E) is the interior of E.
- (2)  $\overline{E}$  is the closure of E.
- (3)  $\widetilde{E}$  is the complement of E.
- (4) B(p;r) or B(p) is the set of all points q in a metric space (M,d) such that  $d_M(p,q) < r$ .

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.  $\Box$ 

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

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

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

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

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  $\alpha$  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

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

where  $f(x) = a_0 z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} z + a_n$  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  $(n,a_0,a_1,...,a_n)\in\mathbb{Z}^{n+2}$ ). 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  $\varphi_n: P_n \to \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$  by

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

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.

Proof (Unique factorization theorem).

- (1) The set of prime numbers is countable. Write all primes in the ascending order as  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n, ...$  where  $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, ..., p_{10001} = 104743, ...$  (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  $\varphi_n: P_n \to \mathbb{Z}^+$  by

$$\varphi_n(a_0z^n + a_1z^{n-1} + \dots + a_n) = p_1^{\psi(a_0)}p_2^{\psi(a_1)} \cdots p_{n+1}^{\psi(a_n)},$$

where  $\psi$  is a 1-1 correspondence from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  (Example 2.5). By the unique factorization theorem,  $\varphi_n$  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 2.3. Prove that there exist real numbers which are not algebraic.

*Proof (Exercise 2.2).* If all real numbers were algebraic, then  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable by Exercise 2.2, contrary to the fact that  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable (Corollary to Theorem 2.43).  $\square$ 

Proof (Liouville, 1844).

(1) **Lemma.** If  $\xi$  is a real algebraic number of degree n > 1, then there is a constant A > 0 (depending on  $\xi$ ) such that

$$\left|\xi - \frac{h}{k}\right| \ge \frac{A}{k^n}$$

for all rational numbers  $\frac{h}{k}$ .

- (a) If  $|\xi \frac{h}{k}| \ge 1$ , pick A = 1 > 0.
- (b) If  $\left|\xi \frac{h}{k}\right| < 1$ , let  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$  be an irreducible polynomial of degree n > 1 over  $\mathbb{Z}$  such that  $f(\xi) = 0$ . By the mean value theorem,

$$f(\xi) - f\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) = \left(\xi - \frac{h}{k}\right)f'(c)$$

for some  $c \in \left(\xi - \frac{h}{k}, \xi + \frac{h}{k}\right) \subseteq (\xi - 1, \xi + 1)$ . Notice that

- (i)  $f(\xi) = 0$  by definition.
- (ii)  $f(\frac{h}{k}) \neq 0$  since  $\frac{h}{k}$  cannot be a root of f(x). Otherwise f is of degree 1, contrary to the assumption of f.
- (iii)  $|f(\frac{h}{k})| \ge \frac{1}{k^n}$  since

$$f\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) = a_0 + a_1\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) + \dots + a_n\left(\frac{h}{k}\right)^n \neq 0,$$
  
$$k^n f\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) = a_0 k^n + h k^{n-1} a_1 + \dots + h^n a_n \neq 0,$$
  
$$k^n \left| f\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) \right| \geq 1.$$

(iv)  $|f'(c)| \leq \sup_{x \in [\xi-1, \xi+1]} |f'(x)|$  since  $c \in [\xi-1, \xi+1]$  and f'(x) is continuous or bounded on a compact set  $[\xi-1, \xi+1]$ .

By (i)-(iv),

$$\left| f(\xi) - f\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) \right| = \left| \left(\xi - \frac{h}{k}\right) f'(c) \right|,$$

$$\frac{1}{k^n} \le \left| f\left(\frac{h}{k}\right) \right| = \left| \xi - \frac{h}{k} \right| |f'(c)| \le \left| \xi - \frac{h}{k} \right| \cdot \sup_{x \in [\xi - 1, \xi + 1]} |f'(x)|.$$

Pick  $A = (1 + \sup_{x \in [\xi - 1, \xi + 1]} |f'(x)|)^{-1} > 0.$ 

By (a)(b), we arrange  $A = \min(1, (1 + \sup_{x \in [\xi - 1, \xi + 1]} |f'(x)|)^{-1}) > 0$  to fit the inequality.

- (2)  $\xi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 10^{-n!}$  is transcendental.
  - (a) Let  $k_j = 10^{j!}$ ,  $h_j = 10^{j!} \sum_{n=0}^{j} 10^{-n!}$ . Then

$$\left|\xi - \frac{h_j}{k_j}\right| = \sum_{n=j+1}^{\infty} 10^{-n!} < \sum_{n=(j+1)!}^{\infty} 10^{-n} = \frac{A_j}{k_j^j}$$

where  $A_j = \frac{10}{9} \cdot 10^{-j!}$ .

(b) If  $\xi$  were a real algebraic number of degree d>1, then by Lemma and (a),

$$\left|\frac{A}{k_j^d} < \left|\xi - \frac{h_j}{k_j}\right| < \frac{A_j}{k_j^j} < \frac{A_j}{k_j^d}$$

for some A > 0 and  $j \ge d$ , or  $0 < A < A_j$ . Since j is arbitrary,  $A_j \to 0$  as  $j \to \infty$ , contrary to A > 0.

(c) If  $\xi$  were a real algebraic number of degree  $d=1,\,\xi=\frac{h}{k}$  is a rational number. So

$$\left|\xi - \frac{h_j}{k_j}\right| = \left|\frac{h}{k} - \frac{h_j}{k_j}\right| = \left|\frac{hk_j - kh_j}{kk_j}\right| \ge \left|\frac{1}{kk_j}\right| = \frac{|k|^{-1}}{k_j}$$

for all j. (It is impossible that  $hk_j - kh_j = 0$  or  $\frac{h}{k} = \frac{h_i}{k_j}$  since  $|\frac{h}{k} - \frac{h_j}{k_j}| = \sum_{n=j+1}^{\infty} 10^{-n!} > 0$  for all j.) Again by (a),

$$\frac{|k|^{-1}}{k_j} \le \left| \xi - \frac{h_j}{k_j} \right| < \frac{A_j}{k_j^j} < \frac{A_j}{k_j},$$

or  $0 < |k|^{-1} < A_j$ . (Similar to (b).) Since j is arbitrary,  $A_j \to 0$  as  $j \to \infty$ , contrary to  $|k|^{-1} > 0$ .

Exercise 2.4. Is the set of all irrational real numbers countable?

*Proof (Reductio ad absurdum).* If  $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$  were countable, then  $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q} \bigcup (\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q})$  is countable (Theorem 2.12), contrary to the fact that  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable (Corollary to Theorem 2.43).  $\square$ 

Exercise 2.5. Construct a bounded set of real numbers with exactly three limit points.

Proof (Exercise 2.12). Let

$$K_p = \{p\} \bigcup \left\{ p + \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$$

be a compact set of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  with exactly one limit point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^1$  (Exercise 2.12). Then

$$K_{1989} \cup K_6 \cup K_4$$

is a compact set of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  with exactly three limit points 1989, 6,  $4 \in \mathbb{R}^1$ .  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.6.** Let E' be the set of all limit points of a set E. Prove that E' is closed. Prove that E and  $\overline{E}$  have the same limit points. (Recall that  $\overline{E} = E \cup E'$ .) Do E and E' always have the same limit points?

Proof.

- (1) Show that E' is closed.
  - (a) Use Definition 2.18 (d).
    - (i) It suffices to show every limit point of E' is a limit point of E. Given a limit point p of E', so that every open neighborhood U of p contains a point  $q_0 \neq p$  such that  $q_0 \in E'$ .
    - (ii) Since  $q_0$  is a limit point of E, there is an open neighborhood V of  $q_0$  contains a point  $q \neq q_0$  such that  $q \in E$ , where

$$V = U \cap B\left(q_0; \frac{1}{2}d_E(p, q_0)\right) \subseteq U$$

(B(x;r)) is the open ball with center at x and radius r).

- (iii) By the construction of V, for such open neighborhood U of p, there is  $q \neq p$  and  $q \in V \subseteq U$  and  $q \in E$ . That is, p is a limit point of E.
- (b) Use Definition 2.18 (e).
  - (i) To show E' is closed or X E' is open, it suffices to show every point of X E' is an interior point of X E'.
  - (ii) Given a point  $p \in X E'$ , or p is not a limit point of E. There is an open neighborhood U of p contains no point  $q \neq p$  such that  $q \in E$ .
  - (iii) To show U is an open neighborhood of p such that  $U \subseteq X E'$ , it suffices to no point  $q \neq p$  such that  $q \in E'$ . If there were a limit point q of E such that  $q \neq p$  and  $q \in U$ , then

$$V=U\cap B\left(q;\frac{1}{2}d_E(p,q)\right)\subseteq U$$

is an open neighborhood of q contains no point of E, contrary to the assumption  $q \in E'$ . So  $U \subseteq X - E'$  is an open neighborhood of  $p \in X - E'$ .

- (2) Show that  $E' = \overline{E}'$ . It suffices to show  $E' \supseteq \overline{E}'$ .  $(E' \subseteq \overline{E}' \text{ holds trivially since } E \subseteq \overline{E})$ . Given a limit point p of  $\overline{E} = E \cup E'$ .
  - (a) p is a limit point of E. Nothing to do.
  - (b) p is a limit point of E'. Since p is a limit point of E' and E' is a closed set,  $p \in E'$ , or p is a limit point of E.

In any case,  $E' \supseteq \overline{E}'$ .

(3) E and E' might not have the same limit points. Let

$$E = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1.$$

Then  $E' = \{0\}$  and thus  $(E')' = \emptyset$ .

**Exercise 2.7.** Let  $A_1, A_2, A_3, ...$  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, ...
- (b) If  $B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ , prove that  $\overline{B} \supseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \overline{A_i}$ .

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

Proof of (a).

(1) Show that  $\overline{B_n} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$ . Since  $A_i \subseteq \overline{A_i}$  for any i, we have

$$B_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}.$$

Since  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$  is a union of finitely many closed set  $\overline{A_i}$ ,  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$  is closed (Theorem 2.24(d)). By Theorem 2.27(c),  $\overline{B_n} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$ .

(2) Show that  $\overline{B_n} \supseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{A_i}$ . Same argument in the proof of (b).

Proof of (b). Since  $\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \supseteq A_i$  for any i, by the monotonicity of closure, we have  $\overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j} \supseteq \overline{A_i}$  for any i, or  $\overline{B} \supseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \overline{A_i}$ .  $\square$ 

Proof of proper inclusion in (b). Let

$$A_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, \infty\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$$

for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = (0, \infty) \Longrightarrow \overline{\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n} = \overline{(0, \infty)} = [0, \infty),$$

$$\overline{A_n} = \left[\frac{1}{n}, \infty\right) \Longrightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{A_n} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{n}, \infty\right) = (0, \infty).$$

**Exercise 2.8.** Is every point of every open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  a limit point of E? Answer the same question for closed sets in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

It is not true for all metric spaces X. The (discrete) metric in Exercise 2.10 implies no limit point exists in X.

Proof.

- (1) Show that for every open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $E \subseteq E'$ . Given any point  $\mathbf{p} \in E$ , we shall show  $\mathbf{p}$  is a limit point of E.
  - (a) Since E is open, there is an open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{p}; r_0) \subseteq E$  for some  $r_0 > 0$ .
  - (b) In particular, given any  $s \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < s < r_0$ , we can find

$$\mathbf{q} \in B(\mathbf{p}; s) \subseteq B(\mathbf{p}; r_0) \subseteq E$$

such that  $\mathbf{q} \neq \mathbf{p}$ . Explicitly, write

$$\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_k)$$

and choose

$$\mathbf{q} = \left(p_1 + \frac{s}{89}, p_2, \dots, p_k\right) \neq \mathbf{p}$$

(since s > 0). Clearly,  $\mathbf{q}$  is well-defined in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and  $|\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{p}| = \frac{s}{89} < s$  or  $\mathbf{q} \in B(\mathbf{p}; s)$ .

(c) Now given every open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{p},r)$  of  $\mathbf{p}$ . We can choose  $s \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < s < \min\{r_0, r\} \le r_0$ . (might pick  $s = \frac{1}{64} \min\{r_0, r\}$ .) By (b), there exists  $\mathbf{q} \neq \mathbf{p}$  such that

$$\mathbf{q} \in B(\mathbf{p}; s) \subseteq B(\mathbf{p}; r) \subseteq E$$
.

(2) Give an example of a closed set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$  such that  $E \not\subseteq E'$ . Pick  $E = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ . So  $E' = \emptyset$  and thus  $E \not\subseteq E'$ .

**Exercise 2.9.** Let  $E^{\circ}$  denote the set of all interior points of a set E. [See Definition 2.18(e);  $E^{\circ}$  is called the interior of E.]

- (a) Prove that  $E^{\circ}$  is always open.
- (b) Prove that E is open if and only if  $E^{\circ} = E$ .
- (c) If G is contained in E and G is open, prove that G is contained in  $E^{\circ}$ .

- (d) Prove that the complement of  $E^{\circ}$  is the closure of the complement of E.
- (e) Do E and  $\overline{E}$  always have the same interiors?
- (f) Do E and  $E^{\circ}$  always have the same closures?

Similar to Theorem 2.27.

Proof of (a). It is equivalent to show that  $E^{\circ} \subseteq (E^{\circ})^{\circ}$ .

- (1) Given any point  $x \in E^{\circ}$ , there is r > 0 such that  $B(x; r) \subseteq E$ .
- (2) It suffices to show that  $B\left(x;\frac{2}{r}\right) \subseteq E^{\circ}$ . Given any point  $y \in B\left(x;\frac{2}{r}\right)$ , we will show that there is an open neighborhood  $B\left(y;\frac{2}{r}\right)$  of y such that  $B\left(y;\frac{2}{r}\right) \subseteq E$ .
- (3) Given any point  $z \in B\left(y; \frac{2}{r}\right)$ , we have

$$d(z,x) \le d(z,y) + d(y,x) < \frac{2}{r} + \frac{2}{r} = r,$$

or  $z \in B(x;r) \subseteq E$ . Therefore,  $B\left(y;\frac{2}{r}\right) \subseteq E$ , or  $y \in E^{\circ}$ , or  $B\left(x;\frac{2}{r}\right) \subseteq E^{\circ}$ , or  $x \in (E^{\circ})^{\circ}$ , or  $E^{\circ} \subseteq (E^{\circ})^{\circ}$ .

Proof of (b).

- (1) ( $\Longrightarrow$ )(Definition 2.18) Since E is open, every point of E is an interior point of E. Hence  $E \subseteq E^{\circ}$ . Note that  $E^{\circ} \subseteq E$  is trivial, and thus  $E^{\circ} = E$ .
- (2)  $(\Leftarrow)((a))$  By (a),  $E = E^{\circ}$  is always open.
- (3) ( $\Leftarrow$ )(Definition 2.18) Every point of E is an interior point of E since  $E = E^{\circ}$ . Hence E is open by Definition 2.18(f).

Proof of (c).  $G \subseteq E$  implies  $G^{\circ} \subseteq E^{\circ}$ .  $G = G^{\circ}$  since G is open ((b)). Hence  $G = G^{\circ} \subseteq E^{\circ}$ , that is,  $E^{\circ}$  is the largest open set contained in E. (Similarly,  $\overline{E}$  is the smallest closed set containing E.)  $\square$ 

Proof of (d). Show that  $X - E^{\circ} = \overline{X - E}$  and  $(X - E)^{\circ} = X - \overline{E}$ .

(1) (Theorem 2.27 and (c))

$$X - E^{\circ} = X - \bigcup_{\text{Open } V \subseteq E} V$$

$$= \bigcap_{\text{Open } V \subseteq E} (X - V)$$

$$= \bigcap_{\text{Open } V \subseteq E} W$$

$$= \overline{X - E}.$$

$$X - \overline{E} = X - \bigcap_{\text{Closed } W \supseteq E} W$$

$$= \bigcup_{\text{Closed } W \supseteq E} (X - W)$$

$$= \bigcup_{\text{Open } V \subseteq X - E} V$$

$$= (X - E)^{\circ}.$$

(2) (Brute-force)

$$x \in E^{\circ} \iff \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } B(x;r) \subseteq E$$
 
$$\iff \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } B(x;r) \cap (X-E) = \varnothing$$
 
$$\iff x \notin \overline{X-E}$$
 
$$\iff x \in X - \overline{X-E}.$$
 
$$x \in (X-E)^{\circ} \iff \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } B(x;r) \subseteq (X-E)$$
 
$$\iff \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } B(x;r) \cap E = \varnothing$$
 
$$\iff x \notin \overline{E}$$
 
$$\iff x \in X - \overline{E}.$$

Note that  $X-E^\circ=\overline{X-E}$  is equivalent to  $(X-E)^\circ=X-\overline{E}$  by mapping  $E\mapsto X-E$ .  $\square$ 

Proof of (e). No.

- (1) Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^1$  equipped with the Euclidean metric, and  $E = \mathbb{Q} \subseteq X$ .
- (2)  $E^{\circ} = \emptyset$  since  $\widetilde{\mathbb{Q}}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- (3)  $(\overline{E})^{\circ}=(\mathbb{R}^1)^{\circ}=\mathbb{R}^1$  since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{R}^1$  is open.

Proof of (f). No.

- (1) Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^1$  equipped with the Euclidean metric, and  $E = \mathbb{Q} \subseteq X$ .
- (2)  $\overline{E} = \mathbb{R}^1$  since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- (3)  $\overline{E^{\circ}} = \overline{\varnothing} = \varnothing$  since  $\widetilde{\mathbb{Q}}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Exercise 2.10.** Let X be an infinite set. For  $p \in X$  and  $q \in X$ , define

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

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 case  $d(p,r) + d(r,q) \geq 1 = d(p,q)$ .
- (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 open neighborhood  $U = B\left(p; \frac{1}{2}\right)$  of p containing only one point  $p \in E$  or  $U = \{p\}$ , and such open neighborhood U is a subset of E. So every subset of E 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 open neighborhood  $U=B\left(p;\frac{1}{2}\right)$  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  $E = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_k\}$ , and  $\{G_{\alpha}\}$  be an open covering of E. From  $\{G_{\alpha}\}$  we pick  $G_{\alpha_1}$  containing  $p_1, G_{\alpha_2}$  containing  $p_2, ...,$  and  $G_{\alpha_k}$  containing  $p_k$ . This process can be done in the finitely many steps. Therefore,

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

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

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

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

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

$$\mathscr{G}' = \{G_{p_1}, G_{p_2}, ..., G_{p_k}\}$$

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

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

$$d_1(x,y) = (x-y)^2,$$

$$d_2(x,y) = \sqrt{|x-y|},$$

$$d_3(x,y) = |x^2 - y^2|,$$

$$d_4(x,y) = |x-2y|,$$

$$d_5(x,y) = \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|}.$$

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

Proof.

(1)  $d = d_1$  is not a metric. (Reductio ad absurdum) If d were a metric, then

$$d(0,2) > d(0,1) + d(1,2),$$

contrary to Definition 2.15(c) that  $d(p,q) \leq d(p,r) + d(r,q)$ .

(2)  $d = d_2$  is a metric. It suffices to show that  $d'(x, y) = \sqrt{d(x, y)}$  is a metric if d(x, y) is a metric. For any  $p, q, r \in \mathbb{R}^1$ ,

(a) 
$$d'(p,q) = \sqrt{d(p,q)} > 0$$
 if  $p \neq q$ ;  $d'(p,p) = \sqrt{d(p,p)} = 0$ .

(b) 
$$d'(p,q) = \sqrt{d(p,q)} = \sqrt{d(q,p)} = d'(q,p)$$
.

(c)

$$\begin{split} \sqrt{d(p,r)+d(r,q)} &\leq \sqrt{d(p,r)} + \sqrt{d(r,q)} \\ \iff &(\sqrt{d(p,r)+d(r,q)})^2 \leq (\sqrt{d(p,r)} + \sqrt{d(r,q)})^2 \\ \iff &d(p,r)+d(r,q) \leq d(p,r) + d(r,q) + 2\sqrt{d(p,r)}\sqrt{d(r,q)} \\ \iff &0 \leq 2\sqrt{d(p,r)}\sqrt{d(r,q)}. \end{split}$$

(d)

$$\begin{split} d'(p,q) &= \sqrt{d(p,q)} \\ &\leq \sqrt{d(p,r) + d(r,q)} \\ &\leq \sqrt{d(p,r)} + \sqrt{d(r,q)} \\ &= d'(p,r) + d'(r,q). \end{split} \tag{Triangle inequality}$$

By Definition 2.15, d' is a metric.

(3)  $d = d_3$  is not a metric. (Reductio ad absurdum) If d were a metric, then

$$d(1,-1) = 0,$$

contrary to Definition 2.15(a): d(p,q) > 0 if  $p \neq q$ ; d(p,p) = 0.

(4)  $d = d_4$  is not a metric. (Reductio ad absurdum) If d were a metric, then

$$d(1,1) = 1,$$

contrary to Definition 2.15(a): d(p,q) > 0 if  $p \neq q$ ; d(p,p) = 0.

(5)  $d = d_5$  is a metric. It suffices to show that  $d'(x,y) = \frac{d(x,y)}{1+d(x,y)}$  is a metric if d(x,y) is a metric. For any  $p,q,r \in \mathbb{R}^1$ ,

(a) 
$$d'(p,q) = \frac{d(p,q)}{1+d(p,q)} > 0$$
 if  $p \neq q$ ;  $d'(p,p) = \frac{d(p,p)}{1+d(p,p)} = 0$ .

(b) 
$$d'(p,q) = \frac{d(p,q)}{1+d(p,q)} = \frac{d(q,p)}{1+d(q,p)} = d'(q,p).$$

(c) Write x = d(p,q), y = d(p,r) and z = d(r,q). So  $x, y, z \ge 0$  and

$$x \leq y + z$$

$$\iff x + x(y + z) \leq y + z + x(y + z)$$

$$\iff x(1 + y + z) \leq (1 + x)(y + z)$$

$$\iff \frac{x}{1 + x} \leq \frac{y + z}{1 + y + z}.$$

$$\begin{split} d'(p,q) &= \frac{d(p,q)}{1+d(p,q)} \\ &\leq \frac{d(p,r)+d(r,q)}{1+d(p,r)+d(r,q)} \\ &= \frac{d(p,r)}{1+d(p,r)+d(r,q)} + \frac{d(r,q)}{1+d(p,r)+d(r,q)} \\ &= \frac{d(p,r)}{1+d(p,r)} + \frac{d(r,q)}{1+d(r,q)} \\ &= d'(p,r)+d'(r,q). \end{split}$$

(e) Or we can show  $d'(p,q) \leq d'(p,r) + d'(r,q)$  by

$$\frac{x}{1+x} \le \frac{y}{1+y} + \frac{z}{1+z}$$

$$\iff x(1+y)(1+z) \le y(1+z)(1+x) + z(1+x)(1+y)$$

$$\iff x + xy + xz + xyz$$

$$\le (y+xy+yz+xyz) + (z+xz+yz+xyz)$$

$$\iff x \le y+z+2yz+xyz$$

$$\iff x \le y+z \qquad (d \text{ is nonnegative})$$

By Definition 2.15, d' is a metric.

# 

**Exercise 2.12.** Let  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$  consist of 0 and the numbers  $\frac{1}{n}$ , for n = 1, 2, 3, .... 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 an open neighborhood U = B(0; r) of 0 such that  $U \subseteq G_0$ . So U 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  $n = 1, 2, ..., \left[\frac{1}{r}\right]$ , say  $G_1$  contains  $q = \frac{1}{1}$ ,  $G_2$  contains  $q = \frac{1}{2}$ , ...,  $G_{\left[\frac{1}{r}\right]}$  contains  $q = \frac{1}{\left[\frac{1}{r}\right]}$ . (Might be duplicated.) Hence,

$$\left\{G_0,G_1,G_2,...,G_{\left[\frac{1}{r}\right]}\right\}$$

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 open neighborhood B(0;r) 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 an open neighborhood B(p;r) of p where r = |p| > 0. Then  $B(p;r) \cap K = \emptyset$ .
- (c) p>0 is not a limit point. There always exists  $m\in\mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $p>\frac{1}{n}$  whenever  $n\geq m$ . Pick an open neighborhood B(p;r) of p where  $r=p-\frac{1}{m}>0$ . Then B(p;r) 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 2.13. Construct a compact set of real numbers whose limit points form a countable set.

Proof (Exercise 2.12). Let  $K(p;r) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$  be

$$K(p;r) = \left\{ p + \frac{r}{n} : n = 2, 3, \ldots \right\} \bigcup \left\{ p \right\}$$

and

$$K = \left(\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} K(2^{-i}; 2^{-i})\right) \bigcup \{0\}.$$

- (1) The set of limit points of K is  $K' = \{2^{-i} : i = 0, 1, 2, ...\} \bigcup \{0\}$ , which is (infinitely) countable.
  - (a) The unique limit point of  $K(2^{-i}; 2^{-i})$  is  $2^{-i}$  for each i = 0, 1, 2, ... (Exercise 2.12).
  - (b) 0 is a limit point of K.
  - (c) No other limit points of K. Similar to the argument of the proof of Exercise 2.12.
- (2) K is closed. All limit points are in K.
- (3) 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  $\mathbb{R}^1$ , and has infinitely countable limit points.  $\square$ 

**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

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

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

- (1)  $\mathscr{G}$  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,  $x\in\left(\frac{1}{n},1\right)=G_n$ .
- (2) There is no finite subcovering of  $\mathscr{G}$ . Assume

$$\mathscr{G}' = \{G_{n_1}, G_{n_2}, ..., G_{n_k}\}$$

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

**Exercise 2.15.** 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."

Recall:

- (1) Theorem 2.36: If  $\{K_{\alpha}\}$  is a collection of compact subsets of a metric space X such that the intersection of every finite subcollection of  $\{K_{\alpha}\}$  is nonempty, then  $\bigcap K_{\alpha}$  is nonempty.
- (2) Corollary: If  $\{K_n\}$  is a sequence of nonempty compact sets such that  $K_n$  contains  $K_{n+1}$   $(n=1,2,3,\ldots)$ , then  $\bigcap K_n$  is not empty.

*Proof.* Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^1$  with the usual Euclidean metric.

- (1) For the closeness, let  $K_n = [n, \infty) \subseteq X$ .
- (2) For the boundedness, let  $K_n = (0, \frac{1}{n}) \subseteq X$ .

In any case,  $K_1 \supseteq K_2 \supseteq \cdots$  and  $\bigcap K_n = \emptyset$ .  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.16.** Regard  $\mathbb{Q}$ , the set of all rational numbers, as a metric space, with d(p,q) = |p-q|. Let E be the set of all  $p \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $2 < p^2 < 3$ . Show that E is closed and bounded in Q, but that E is not compact. Is E open in  $\mathbb{Q}$ ?

**Lemma.** Assume  $S \subseteq T \subseteq M$ . Then S is compact in (M,d) if, and only if, S is compact in the metric subspace (T,d).

Proof of Lemma.

(1)  $(\Longrightarrow)$  Let  $\mathscr{F}$  be an open covering of S in (T,d), say  $S\subseteq\bigcup_{A\in\mathscr{F}}A$  where A is open in T. Then  $A=B\cap T$  for some open set B in M (Theorem 3.33). Let  $\mathscr{G}$  be the collection of B. Then

$$S\subseteq\bigcup_{A\in\mathscr{F}}A=\bigcup_{B\in\mathscr{G}}(B\cap T)\subseteq\bigcup_{B\in\mathscr{G}}B,$$

or  $\mathcal{G}$  be an open covering of S in (M,d). Since S is compact in (M,d),  $\mathcal{G}$  contains a finite subcovering, say

$$S \subseteq B_1 \cap \cdots \cap B_p$$
.

So

$$S \cap T \subseteq (B_1 \cap T) \cap \cdots \cap (B_p \cap T),$$

or

$$S \subseteq A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_p$$

(since  $S \subseteq T$  or  $S \cap T = S$ ). So there is a finite subcovering of  $\mathscr{F}$  covering S, or S is compact in (T,d).

(2) ( $\iff$ ) Let  $\mathscr G$  be an open covering of S in (M,d), say  $S\subseteq\bigcup_{B\in\mathscr G}B$  where B is open in M. Then  $A=B\cap T$  is open in T. Let  $\mathscr F$  be the collection of A. Then

$$S\cap T\subseteq\bigcup_{B\in\mathscr{G}}(B\cap T)=\bigcup_{A\in\mathscr{F}}A,$$

or  $\mathscr{F}$  be an open covering of  $S \cap T = S$  in (T, d). Since S is compact in (T, d),  $\mathscr{F}$  contains a finite subcovering, say

$$S \subseteq A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_p$$
.

Clearly,  $S \subseteq B_1 \cap \cdots \cap B_p$  since  $A = B \cap T \subseteq B$ . So there is a finite subcovering of  $\mathscr{G}$  covering S, or S is compact in (M, d).

*Proof.* Write  $E_0 = (\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) \bigcup (-\sqrt{3}, -\sqrt{2})$ , and  $E = E_0 \cap \mathbb{Q}$ .

- (1) E is a subset of  $\mathbb{Q}$ .
- (2) Show that E is bounded in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , there is  $p \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $\sqrt{2} , or <math>p \in E$ . Let  $r = p + \sqrt{3} > 0$ . Therefore,  $E \subseteq B(p; r)$  for some r > 0 and  $p \in E$ , or E is bounded.

(3) Show that E is closed in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . It suffices to show its complement is open in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Given any

$$p \in \widetilde{E} = ((-\infty, -\sqrt{3}] \cup [-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}] \cup [\sqrt{3}, \infty)) \cap \mathbb{Q}.$$

 $p \le -\sqrt{3}$  or  $-\sqrt{2} \le p \le \sqrt{2}$  or  $p \ge \sqrt{3}$ .

- (a)  $p \le -\sqrt{3}$ .  $p \ne -\sqrt{3}$  since  $p \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $-\sqrt{3}$  is irrational. So  $p < -\sqrt{3}$  and thus there exists  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $p < q < -\sqrt{3}$  since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $r = \max\{-\sqrt{3} q, q p\} > 0$ . The ball B(q; r) is contained in  $\widetilde{E}$ .
- (b)  $-\sqrt{2} \le p \le \sqrt{2}$ . Similar to (a).
- (c)  $p \ge \sqrt{3}$ . Similar to (a).

By (a)(b),  $\widetilde{E}$  is open in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , or E is closed in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

- (4) Show that E is not compact in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $E_0$  were compact in the metric space  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $E_0$  is compact in the metric space  $\mathbb{R}$  (Lemma), which is absurd.
- (5) Show that E is open. Similar to (3).

**Exercise 2.17.** Let E be the set of all  $x \in [0,1]$  whose decimal expansion contains only the digits 4 and 7. Is E countable? Is E dense in [0,1]? Is E compact? Is E perfect?

Proof.

- (1) Show that E is uncountable. Same as Theorem 2.14. Or show that E is perfect and then apply Theorem 2.43.
- (2) Show that E is not dense in [0,1]. Note that  $E\subseteq \left[\frac{4}{9},\frac{7}{9}\right]$ . So

$$B\left(0;\frac{1}{64}\right)\bigcap E\subseteq B\left(0;\frac{1}{64}\right)\bigcap \left[\frac{4}{9},\frac{7}{9}\right]=\varnothing$$

or 0 is not a limit point of E. Hence E is not dense in [0,1].

- (3) Show that E is compact. It is equivalent to show that E is closed and bounded (Theorem 2.41). Let a decimal expansion of  $x \in (0,1)$  be  $0.x_1x_2\cdots$ .
  - (a) Show that  $\widetilde{E}$  is open. Since  $E \subseteq \left[\frac{4}{9}, \frac{7}{9}\right]$ , it suffices to show that every point  $x \in (0,1) \cap \widetilde{E}$  is an interior point of  $\widetilde{E}$ . Say a decimal expansion of x containing at least one digit  $x_n \neq 4, 7$ . Note that

$$|x-y| > 10^{-n} > 0$$

for any  $y = 0.y_1y_2 \cdots \in E$ . Hence there is an open neighborhood  $B(x; 10^{-n})$  of x such that  $B(x; 10^{-n}) \cap E = \emptyset$ , or  $B(x; 10^{-n}) \subseteq \tilde{E}$ , or x is an interior point of  $\tilde{E}$ .

- (b) Show that E is closed. Given any limit point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$  of E, we want to show that  $x \in E$ . (Reductio ad absurdum) Similar to (a).
- (c) Show that E is bounded.  $E \subseteq B(0;1)$ .
- (4) Show that E is perfect.
  - (a) E is closed (by (3)).
  - (b) Show that every point of E is a limit point of E. Given any  $x \in E$ . Given any open neighborhood B(x;r) of x, there is a positive integer n such that

$$\frac{3}{10^n} < r.$$

For such n, pick  $y = 0.x_1x_2 \cdots x_{n-1}y_n \cdots x_{n+1} \cdots \in E$  where

$$y_n = \begin{cases} 4 & (x_n = 7), \\ 7 & (x_n = 4). \end{cases}$$

 $y \neq x$ , and  $|y-x| = \frac{3}{10^n} < r$ . So that there is  $y \neq x$  such that  $y \in B(x;r)$ , or x is a limit point of E.

**Exercise 2.18.** Is there a nonempty perfect set in  $\mathbb{R}^1$  which contains no rational number?

Yes.

**Lemma.**  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  if and only if has repeating decimal expansion.

Proof of Lemma.

(1)  $(\Leftarrow)$  Given any repeating decimal

$$x = x_0.x_1x_2\cdots x_n\overline{x_{n+1}\cdots x_{n+m}}$$

where  $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $x_1, \dots, x_{n+m} \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ . Thus x = p/q where

$$p = (10^m - 1) \sum_{i=0}^n 10^{n-i} x_i + \sum_{j=1}^m 10^{m-j} x_{n+j} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

and

$$q = 10^n (10^m - 1) \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

- (2) ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) (Euler's totient function) Given any x = p/q where  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q > 0$ .
  - (a) Write  $q = 2^a 5^b q_1$  where a, b are nonnegative integers and  $(q_1, 10) = 1$  (Unique factorization theorem).
  - (b) Let  $n = \max\{a, b\}$ . Then  $2^{n-a}5^{n-b}q = 10^n q_1$ .
  - (c) Since  $(q_1, 10) = 1$ ,  $10^m \equiv 1 \pmod{q_1}$  where  $m = \varphi(q_1)$  is Euler's totient function of  $q_1$ . Hence  $10^m 1 = q_1q_2$  for some  $q_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ , or

$$2^{n-a}5^{n-b}q_2q = 10^n(10^m - 1).$$

Here  $2^{n-a}5^{n-b}q_2$ , n, m are nonnegative integers.

(d) Now write

$$x = \frac{p}{q} = \frac{2^{n-a}5^{n-b}q_2p}{10^n(10^m - 1)} = \frac{(10^m - 1)q_3 + r}{10^n(10^m - 1)} = \frac{q_3}{10^n} + \frac{r}{10^n(10^m - 1)}$$

where  $q_3, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $0 \le r < 10^m - 1$ . Might assume  $q_3 \ge 0$ . (If  $q_3 < 0$ , apply the same argument to  $-q_3$  and then add the minus symbol "—" in the front of a decimal expansion.) Hence

$$x = x_0.x_1x_2\cdots x_n\overline{x_{n+1}\cdots x_{n+m}}$$

where

$$x_0 = \left\lfloor \frac{q_3}{10^n} \right\rfloor$$

$$x_i = \text{last digit of } \left\lfloor \frac{q_3}{10^{n-i}} \right\rfloor \qquad (1 \le i \le n)$$

$$x_{n+j} = \text{last digit of } \left\lfloor \frac{r}{10^{m-j}} \right\rfloor \qquad (1 \le j \le m)$$

- (3) ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) (Pigeonhole principle) Given any x = p/q where  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q > 0$ .
  - (a) Might assume  $p \ge 0$ . (If p < 0, apply the same argument to -p and then add the minus symbol "—" in the front of the decimal expansion.) Write

$$x = x_0.x_1x_2\cdots$$

(b) Apply Euclidean algorithm to get

$$p = x_0 q + r_0$$
 with  $0 \le r_0 < q$ .

 $x_0$  is the integer part of x = p/q. Continue Euclidean algorithm to get  $x_1$  by

$$10r_0 = x_1q + r_1$$
 with  $0 < r_1 < q$ .

In general, for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $x_n$  is given by

$$10r_{i-1} = x_i q + r_i$$
 with  $0 \le r_i < q$ .

(c) The pigeonhole principle shows that there must be two equal remainders, that is,

$$r_n = r_{n+m}$$
 with  $m > 0$ .

By induction,  $r_{n+k} = r_{n+m+k}$  for any  $k \ge 0$ . Thus  $x_{n+k} = x_{n+m+k}$  holds for any k > 0, that is, x has a decimal expansion

$$x = x_0.x_1x_2 \cdots x_n \overline{x_{n+1} \cdots x_{n+m}}.$$

Proof (Exercise 2.17). Let A be the set of all  $y \in [0,1]$  whose decimal expansion contains only the digits 4 and 7. Though  $A \cap \mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset$  since  $\frac{4}{9} \in A$ , we can shift A by a number  $\xi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 10^{-n!}$  (Exercise 2.3), that is, we construct

$$E = \{y + \xi : y \in A\}$$

and show that E is our desired nonempty perfect set in  $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ .

- (1) Any number  $x \in E$  has decimal expansion  $x = 0.x_1x_2\cdots$  with  $x_n \in \{5, 8\}$  if n is a factorial number; otherwise  $x_n \in \{4, 7\}$ .
- (2) E is a perfect set (Exercise 2.17).
- (3)  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mathbb{Q}$ . It suffices to show that each  $x \in E$  has no repeating decimal expansions (Lemma). It is clear by the construction of  $\xi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 10^{-n!}$ .

Proof (Exercise 2.3). Let E be a subset of Liouville numbers as

$$E = \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{10^{n!}} : a_n \in \{4, 7\} \right\}.$$

E is perfect. (The same argument of Exercise 2.17.) Besides, all numbers of E are transcendental. (Set  $k_j = 10^{j!}$  and  $h_j = 10^{j!} \sum_{n=0}^{j} \frac{a_n}{10^{n!}}$  and apply the same argument of Exercise 2.3.)  $\square$ 

*Note.* Or using Lemma to prove all numbers of E are irrational.

Proof (Theorem 3.32). Let

$$E = \left\{ \sum_{n=1989}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n!} : a_n \in \{6, 4\} \right\}.$$

E is perfect. (The same argument of Exercise 2.17.) Besides, all numbers of E are irrational (The same argument of Theorem 3.32.)  $\square$ 

Proof (Non constructive existence proof). By Cantor-Bendixson theorem (Exercise 2.28), it suffices to find a uncountable closed set in  $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ .

(1) Write  $\mathbb{Q} = \{r_1, r_2, \ldots\}$  since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable. Let

$$I_n = B\left(r_n; \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}\right) \supseteq \{r_n\}$$

and

$$A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \supseteq \mathbb{Q}.$$

Hence A is an open subset in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- (2) Let  $E = \mathbb{R} A$ . By construction, E is closed and  $E \cap \mathbb{Q} = \emptyset$ .
- (3) Show that E is uncountable. It suffices to show that  $m^*(E) > 0$ . In fact, the outer measure of U is

$$m^*(A) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} m^*(I_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1.$$

Thus,

$$m^*(E) \ge m^*(\mathbb{R}) - m^*(A) = \infty - 1 = \infty.$$

Hence, the set of all condensation points of E is our desired nonempty perfect set in  $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ .  $\square$ 

*Note.* In fact, we can replace  $\mathbb Q$  by the set of all real algebraic numbers (Exercise 2.2).

#### Exercise 2.19.

- (a) If A and B are disjoint closed sets in some metric space X, prove that they are separated.
- (b) Prove the same for disjoint open sets.
- (c) Fix  $p \in X$ ,  $\delta > 0$ , define A to be the set of all  $q \in X$  for which  $d(p,q) < \delta$ , define B similarly, with > in place of <. Prove that A and B are separated.
- (d) Prove that every connected metric space with at least two points is uncountable. Hint: Use (c).

Proof of (a). Since

$$A \cap \overline{B} = A \cap B$$
 (B is closed)  
 $= \varnothing$ , (A and B are disjoint)  
 $\overline{A} \cap B = A \cap B$  (A is closed)  
 $= \varnothing$ . (A and B are disjoint)

A and B are separated.  $\square$ 

Proof of (b)(Theorem 2.27(c)). Note that  $\widetilde{A}$  is a closed set containing B. Since  $\overline{B}$  is the smallest closed set containing B,  $\widetilde{A} \supseteq \overline{B}$  (Theorem 2.27(c)). Hence

$$A \cap \overline{B} \subseteq A \cap \widetilde{A} = \emptyset.$$

Similarly,  $\overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ . Hence A and B are separated.  $\square$ 

Proof of (c). Since both

$$A = \{q \in X : d(p,q) < \delta\} \text{ and } B = \{q \in X : d(p,q) > \delta\}$$

are open in X, they are separated by (b).  $\square$ 

Proof of (d). Let X be a connected metric space.

- (1) Let  $p, q \in X$  with  $p \neq q$ . Hence  $d_X(p,q) = r > 0$  (Definition 2.15(a)).
- (2) Given any  $\delta \in (0, r)$ . Define

$$A = \{x \in X : d(p, x) < \delta\} \text{ and } B = \{x \in X : d(p, x) > \delta\}.$$

 $p \in A \neq \emptyset$  and  $q \in B \neq \emptyset$ .

- (3) If there were no  $y_{\delta} \in X$  such that  $d(p, y_{\delta}) = \delta$ , we can write  $X = A \cup B$  as a union of two nonempty separated sets ((c)), contrary to the connectedness of X.
- (4) Collect these y as E. Since d is a function, there is a one-to-one map from (0,r) to E defined by  $\delta \mapsto y_{\delta}$  in (3). Since (0,r) is uncountable,  $X \supseteq E$  is uncountable.

**Exercise 2.20.** Are closures and interiors of connected sets always connected? (Look at subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .)

Proof.

(1) Interiors of connected sets are not always connected. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$  with the usual Euclidean metric be a metric space. Take

$$E = B(89; 1) \bigcup B(64; 1) \bigcup \{(x, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 64 \le x \le 89\}.$$

E is connected and

$$E^{\circ} = B(89; 1) \bigcup B(64; 1)$$

is disconnected.

- (2) Closures of connected sets are always connected. It suffices to show that E is disconnected if  $\overline{E}$  is disconnected.
  - (a) Write  $\overline{E} = A \cup B$  as a union of two nonempty separated sets. Here  $A \neq \emptyset, B \neq \emptyset, A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset$  and  $\overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ .
  - (b) Write

$$E = (A \cap E) \bigcup (B \cap E)$$

and we will show that E is disconnected.

(c) Show that  $A \cap E$  and  $B \cap E$  are separated. In fact,

$$(A \cap E) \cap \overline{B \cap E} \subseteq A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset,$$
$$\overline{A \cap E} \cap (B \cap E) \subseteq \overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset.$$

(d) Show that  $A\cap E$  and  $B\cap E$  are nonempty. (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $A\cap E=\varnothing$ , then

$$E = (A \cap E) \bigcup (B \cap E) = B \cap E \Longrightarrow E \subseteq B.$$

So

$$A = (A \cup B) \bigcap A \qquad (A \subseteq A \cup B)$$

$$= \overline{E} \bigcap A$$

$$\subseteq \overline{B} \bigcap A \qquad (E \subseteq B)$$

$$= \emptyset$$

which contradicts  $A \neq \emptyset$  in (a). Therefore,  $A \cap E \neq \emptyset$ . Similarly,  $B \cap E \neq \emptyset$ .

Hence, E is disconnected if  $\overline{E}$  is disconnected, or closures of connected sets are always connected.

**Exercise 2.21.** Let A and B be separated subsets of some  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , suppose  $\mathbf{a} \in A$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in B$ , and define

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = (1 - t)\mathbf{a} + t\mathbf{b}$$

for  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ . Put  $A_0 = \mathbf{p}^{-1}(A)$ ,  $B_0 = \mathbf{p}^{-1}(B)$ . [Thus  $t \in A_0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{p}(t) \in A$ .]

- (a) Prove that  $A_0$  and  $B_0$  are separated subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .
- (b) Prove that there exists  $t_0 \in (0,1)$  such that  $\mathbf{p}(t_0) \notin A \bigcup B$ .

(c) Prove that every convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is connected.

Proof of (a).

- (1) Note that
  - (a)  $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{b}$  or  $|\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}| > 0$  since  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .
  - (b)  $|\mathbf{p}(t) \mathbf{p}(s)| = |t s||\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}|$  by a direct calculation.
  - (c)  $\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{p}(s)$  if and only if t = s by (a)(b).
- (2) Show that  $A_0 \cap \overline{B_0} = \emptyset$ . (Reductio ad absurdum) If there were  $t \in A_0 \cap \overline{B_0}$ , then  $t \in A_0$  and t is a limit point of  $B_0$ .
  - (a)  $t \in A_0$  implies that  $\mathbf{p}(t) \in A$ .
  - (b) Show that t is a limit point of  $B_0 \Longrightarrow \mathbf{p}(t)$  is a limit point of B. Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $s \in B_0$  such that

$$|t - s| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|}$$
 with  $s \neq t$ 

since t is a limit point of  $B_0$ . So by (1),

$$|\mathbf{p}(t) - \mathbf{p}(s)| = |t - s||\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}| < \varepsilon.$$

Here  $\mathbf{p}(s) \in B$  and  $\mathbf{p}(s) \neq \mathbf{p}(t)$ . So  $\mathbf{p}(t)$  is a limit point of B.

By (a)(b),  $\mathbf{p}(t) \in A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset$ , contrary to the assumption that A and B are separated.

- (3) Show that  $\overline{A_0} \cap B_0 = \emptyset$ . Similar to (2).
- By (2)(3),  $A_0$  and  $B_0$  are separated.  $\square$

Proof of (b). (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $\mathbf{p}(t)$  were in  $A \cup B$  for all  $t \in (0,1)$ , we will show that [0,1] is separated by  $A_0 \cap [0,1]$  and  $B_0 \cap [0,1]$  to get a contradiction.

(1)  $\mathbf{p}(t)$  were in  $A \bigcup B$  for all  $t \in [0,1]$  since  $\mathbf{p}(0) = \mathbf{a} \in A \bigcup B$  and  $\mathbf{p}(1) = \mathbf{b} \in A \bigcup B$ . Therefore,

$$[0,1] \subseteq \mathbf{p}^{-1}(A \cup B) = \mathbf{p}^{-1}(A) \cup \mathbf{p}^{-1}(B) = A_0 \cup B_0.$$

- (2) Let  $A_1 = A_0 \cap [0,1]$  and  $B_1 = B_0 \cap [0,1]$ . So  $[0,1] = A_1 \bigcup B_1$ .
- (3) Show that  $A_1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $B_1 \neq \emptyset$ .

$$\mathbf{p}(0) \in A \iff 0 \in \mathbf{p}^{-1}(A) = A_0$$
$$\iff 0 \in A_0 \text{ and } 0 \in [0, 1]$$
$$\iff 0 \in A_0 \cap [0, 1] = A_1.$$

Similarly,  $1 \in B_1$ .

*Note.* That's why we consider [0,1] instead of (0,1).

(4) Show that  $A_1 \cap \overline{B_1} = \emptyset$  and  $\overline{A_1} \cap B_1 = \emptyset$ . Since  $A_1 \subseteq A_0$  and  $B_1 \subseteq B_0$ ,  $A_1 \cap \overline{B_1} \subseteq A_0 \cap \overline{B_0} = \emptyset$  or  $A_1 \cap \overline{B_1} = \emptyset$ . Similarly,  $\overline{A_1} \cap B_1 = \emptyset$ .

By (2)(3)(4), [0, 1] is separated, contrary to the connectedness of [0, 1] (Theorem 2.47).  $\square$ 

Proof of (c).

(1) Let E be a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Recall

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = (1 - t)\mathbf{a} + t\mathbf{b} \in E$$

whenever  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in E$  and  $t \in (0, 1)$ .

- (2) (Reductio ad absurdum) If E were separated by A and B, pick  $\mathbf{a} \in A \subseteq E$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in B \subseteq E$ .
- (3) By (b), there exists  $t_0 \in (0,1)$  such that  $\mathbf{p}(t_0) \notin A \cup B = E$ , contrary to the convexity of E.

**Exercise 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.)

*Proof.* Let E be the set of points which have only rational coordinates.

- (1) Show that E is countable.  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable and thus  $E = \mathbb{Q}^k$  is countable (Theorem 2.13).
- (2) Show that E is dense. Given any  $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . We want to show that  $\mathbf{p}$  is a limit point of E.
  - (a) Given any open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{p}; r)$  of  $\mathbf{p}, r > 0$ .
  - (b) Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  (Theorem 1.20), every coordinate of  $\mathbf{p}$  is a limit point of  $\mathbb{Q}$ . In particular, for every  $i=1,2,\ldots,k$ , the open neighborhood  $B\left(p_i,\frac{r}{\sqrt{k}}\right)$  of  $p_i$  contains a point  $q_i\neq p_i$  and  $q_i\in\mathbb{Q}$ .
  - (c) Collect all  $q_i$  in (b) and define  $\mathbf{q}=(q_1,\ldots,q_k)\in\mathbb{Q}^k=E$ . By construction  $\mathbf{q}\neq\mathbf{p}$  and

$$|\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}| = \sqrt{(p_1 - q_1)^2 + \dots + (p_k - q_k)^2}$$

$$< \sqrt{\left(\frac{r}{\sqrt{k}}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{r}{\sqrt{k}}\right)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{k \cdot \frac{r^2}{k}}$$

$$= r$$

or  $\mathbf{q} \in B(\mathbf{p}; r)$ .

By (a)(b)(c), E is dense in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

By (1)(2),  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is separable.  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.23.** 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  $G \subseteq X$  such that  $x \in G$ , we have  $x \in V_{\alpha} \subseteq G$  for some  $\alpha$ . 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.)

*Note.*  $\mathbb{R}^k$  has a countable base (Exercise 2.22).

*Proof (Hint)*. Let X be a separable metric space, and E be a countable dense subset of X. Let  $\mathscr{B}$  be a collection of all neighborhoods with rational radius and center in E.

- (1)  $\mathcal{B}$  is countable (Theorem 2.12).
- (2)  $\mathscr{B}$  is a base for X. Similar to Exercise 2.9(a). Given any  $p \in X$  and every open set  $G \subseteq X$  such that  $p \in G$ . Since p is in an open set G, there exists an open neighborhood B(p;r) of p such that  $B(p;r) \subseteq G$ .
- (3) Let  $r_0$  be rational such that  $0 < r_0 < \frac{r}{2}$  (Theorem 1.20(b)). Since E is dense in X, there is  $q \in E$  such that  $d_X(p,q) < r_0$ . For such  $r_0 \in \mathbb{Q}$  we pick an open neighborhood  $B(q;r_0)$  of q. Clearly,  $B(q;r_0) \in \mathcal{B}$ .
- (4)  $p \in B(q; r_0)$  since  $d_X(p, q) < r_0$ .
- (5) Show that  $B(q; r_0) \subseteq B(p; r) \subseteq G$ . For any  $z \in B(q; r_0)$ ,  $d_X(z, p) \le d_X(z, q) + d_X(q, p) < r_0 + r_0 < \frac{r}{2} + \frac{r}{2} = r$ . That is,  $z \in B(p; r)$ .

By (3)(4)(5), (2) is established. By (1)(2),  $\mathscr{B}$  is a countable base for X.  $\square$ 

#### Supplement.

- (1) In topology, a second-countable space, also called a completely separable space, is a topological space whose topology has a countable base.
- (2) Every second-countable space is separable.
- (3) The reverse implication of (2) does not hold in general. However, for metric spaces the properties of being second-countable and separable are equivalent.
- (4) Show that every second-countable metric space X is separable.

- (a) Let  $\mathscr{B} = \{B_n : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  be a countable base of X.
- (b) For every  $B_n \in \mathcal{B}$ , pick any point  $p_n$  of  $B_n$  and collect them as

$$E = \{ p_n : p_n \in B_n \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \}.$$

- (c) E is countable.
- (d) Show that E is dense. Given any  $x \in X$ . For any open neighborhood B(x) of x, B(x) is a union of subcollection of  $\mathscr{B}$ . That is, there is always a point in E by the construction of E.

**Exercise 2.24.** 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  $x_1, \ldots, x_j \in X$ , choose  $x_{j+1}$ , if possible, so that  $d(x_i, x_{j+1}) \geq \delta$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, j$ . Show that this process must stop after finite number of steps, and that X can therefore be covered by finite many neighborhoods of radius  $\delta$ . Take  $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$   $(n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots)$  and consider the centers of the corresponding neighborhoods.)

*Note.* The reverse implication does not hold (Exercise 2.10).

Proof (Hint).

- (1) Fix  $\delta > 0$ , and pick  $x_1 \in X$ . Show that every limit point compact metric space X is totally bounded.
  - (a) Having chosen  $x_1, \ldots, x_j \in X$ , choose  $x_{j+1}$ , if possible, so that  $d(x_i, x_{j+1}) \geq \delta$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, j$ . Let  $E_{\delta}$  be the set of these  $x_i$ .
  - (b) Show that this process must stop after finite number of steps, and that X can therefore be covered by finite many neighborhoods of radius  $\delta$ . (Reductio ad absurdum)
    - (i) If not,  $E_{\delta}$  is an infinite subset of X. By assumption there is a limit point of  $E_{\delta}$ , say  $p \in X$ .
    - (ii) In particular, an open neighborhood  $B\left(p; \frac{\delta}{64}\right)$  of p contains a point  $x_n \in E_{\delta}$  with  $p \neq x_n$ .
    - (iii) The neighborhood  $B\left(p; \frac{\delta}{64}\right)$  contains no other point  $x_m \in E_{\delta}$  with  $m \neq n$ . If so,

$$d_X(x_n, x_m) \le d_X(x_n, p) + d_X(p, x_m) < \frac{\delta}{64} + \frac{\delta}{64} < \delta,$$

contrary to the construction of  $E_{\delta}$ .

(iv) Note that  $p \notin E_{\delta}$  as a corollary to (iii).

- (v) So another open neighborhood B(p;r) of p with  $r = d_X(p,x_n) > 0$  contains no points  $x_m \in E_{\delta}$  with  $p \neq x_m$ , contrary to the assumption that p is a limit point of  $E_{\delta}$ .
- (2) Show that every totally bounded metric space X is separable. Take  $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$  (n = 1, 2, 3, ...) in (1), and union all  $E_{\frac{1}{n}}$  as

$$E = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_{\frac{1}{n}} \subseteq X.$$

Show that E is a countable dense subset of X.

- (a) Show that E is countable. Since E is the countable union of finite set  $E_{\frac{1}{n}}$ , E is countable (Theorem 2.12).
- (b) Show that E is dense in X. Given any  $p \in X$ . It suffices to show that given any open neighborhood B(p;r) of  $p \in X E$ , there exists  $q \in E$  such that  $q \in B(p;r)$ . Pick any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < r$  (Theorem 1.20(a)). By the construction of  $E_{\frac{1}{n}}$ , there is  $q \in E_{\frac{1}{n}}$  such that  $p \in B\left(q; \frac{1}{n}\right)$ , or  $d_X(p,q) < \frac{1}{n} < r$ , or  $q \in B(p;r)$ .

#### Supplement.

- (1) A topological space X is said to be limit point compact or weakly countably compact if every infinite subset of X has a limit point in X.
- (2) In a metric space, limit point compactness, compactness, and sequential compactness are all equivalent. For general topological spaces, however, these three notions of compactness are not equivalent.
- (3) A metric space X is totally bounded if and only if for every real number  $\delta > 0$ , there exists a finite collection of open balls in X of radius  $\delta$  whose union contains X.

**Exercise 2.25.** 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  $\frac{1}{n}$  whose union covers K.)

Proof (Exercise 2.24(a)).

- (1) Show that every compact metric space K is limit point compact. Given any subset  $E \subseteq K$ . It suffices to show that if E has no limit point, then E must be finite.
  - (a) Since E has no limit point, E is closed.

- (b) For any point  $p \in E$ . Since p is not a limit point, there is an open neighborhood B(p) such that B(p) contains no point other than p.
- (c) Similar to the proof of Theorem 2.35, let

$$\mathscr{F} = \{B(p) : p \in E \text{ with } B(p) \cap E = \{p\}\} \bigcup \widetilde{E}.$$

Hence  $\mathscr{F}$  is an open covering of K.

- (d) Since K is compact by assumption, there is an finitely subcovering  $\mathscr{F}'$  of K. Since  $\widetilde{E}$  does not intersect E, each  $B(p) \in \mathscr{F}'$  contains only one point of E and so E is finite.
- (2) Since K is limit point compact, K is separable (Theorem 2.24).

Proof (Exercise 2.24(b)).

(1) Show that every compact metric space K is totally bounded. Given any real number  $\delta > 0$ , define an open covering  $\mathscr{F}$  of K by

$$\mathscr{F} = \{B(p; \delta) : p \in K\}.$$

Since K is compact, there exists a finite subcovering  $\mathscr{F}'$  of K.  $\mathscr{F}'$  is our desired finite collection of open balls in X of radius  $\delta$  whose union contains X.

(2) Since K is totally bounded, K is separable (Theorem 2.24).

Proof (Hint).

(1) Given any positive integer n > 0, define an open covering  $\mathscr{F}_n$  of K by

$$\mathscr{F}_n = \left\{ B\left(p; \frac{1}{n}\right) : p \in K \right\}.$$

Since K is compact, there exists a finite subcovering  $\mathscr{G}_n$  of K.

- (2) Show that every compact metric space K is second-countable.
  - (a) Define

$$\mathscr{B}=\bigcup_{n\geq 1}\mathscr{G}_n$$

be a collection. Since  $\mathscr{B}$  is a countable union of finite set  $\mathscr{G}_n$ ,  $\mathscr{B}$  is countable. Hence it suffices to show that for every  $p \in K$  and every open set  $G \subseteq K$  such that  $p \in G$ , there is  $B \in \mathscr{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq G$ .

- (b) Since G is open, there is an open neighborhood B(p;r) of p such that  $B(p;r) \subseteq G$ .
- (c) For such r > 0, there is  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  with  $0 < \frac{1}{n} < \frac{r}{2}$  (Theorem 1.20(a)). So p is in some  $B\left(q; \frac{1}{n}\right) \in \mathscr{G}_n \subseteq \mathscr{B}$  since  $\mathscr{G}_n$  is a subcovering of K.
- (d) Show that  $B\left(q;\frac{1}{n}\right)\subseteq B(p;r)\subseteq G$ . For any  $z\in B(q;\frac{1}{n})$ ,

$$d_K(z,p) \le d_K(z,q) + d_K(q,p) < \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} < \frac{r}{2} + \frac{r}{2} = r.$$

That is,  $z \in B(p;r)$ , or  $B\left(q;\frac{1}{n}\right) \subseteq B(p;r) \subseteq G$ .

By (a)(b)(c)(d), K is second-countable.

(3) Show that every second-countable metric space is separable. Supplement (4) to Exercise 2.23.

**Exercise 2.26.** Let X be a metric space in which every infinite subsets has a limit point. Prove that X is compact.

By Exercises 2.23 and 2.24, X has a countable base. It follows that every open cover of X has a countable subcovering  $\{G_n\}$ ,  $n=1,2,3,\ldots$  If no finite subcollection of  $\{G_n\}$  covers X, then the complement  $F_n$  of  $G_1 \cup \cdots \cup G_n$  is nonempty for each n, but  $\bigcap F_n$  is empty. If E is a set contains a point from each  $F_n$ , consider a limit point of E, and obtain a contradiction.

*Note.* In every metric space, we have

Proof (Hint).

- (1) Since X is limit point compact, X is separable (Exercise 2.24). Since X is separable, X is second-countable (Exercise 2.23).
- (2) Show that X is Lindelof if X is second-countable. Let X be a second-countable metric space. Let  $\mathscr{B} = \{B_n\}$  be a countable base of X. Given any open covering  $\mathscr{F}$  of X.

(a) Iterate each  $B_n \in \mathcal{B}$ , pick one  $G_n \in \mathcal{F}$  containing  $B_n$ , and collect them as

$$\mathscr{G} = \{G_n : G_n \supseteq B_n \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}.$$

 $(G_n \text{ might be duplicated.})$ 

- (b)  $\mathscr{G}$  is a countable subset of  $\mathscr{F}$ .
- (c)  $\mathscr{G}$  covers X since  $\mathscr{B}$  is a countable base of X.
- (3) Hence, given any open covering  $\mathscr{F}$  of X, there is a countable subcovering  $\mathscr{G} = \{G_n\}$  of X. (Reductio ad absurdum) If there were no finite subcovering of  $\mathscr{G}$ , then the complement  $F_n$  of  $G_1 \cup \cdots \cup G_n$  is nonempty for each n, but  $\cap F_n$  is empty.
- (4) Let E bet a set contains a point from each  $F_n$ . E is infinite and thus E has a limit point, say p.  $p \in G_n$  for some n since  $\mathscr{G} = \{G_n\}$  is an open covering of X. Since  $G_n$  is open, there is an open neighborhood B(p) of p such that  $B(p) \subseteq G_n$ . By the construction of  $F_n$ ,

$$B(p) \cap F_m = \emptyset$$

whenever  $m \geq n$ , contrary to the assumption that p is a limit point of E.

Hence, X is compact if X is limit point compact.  $\square$ 

#### Supplement.

- (1) Lindelof space is a topological space in which every open covering has a countable subcovering.
- (2) Show that X is second-countable if X is Lindelof. Same as the Proof (Hint) of Exercise 2.25 except changing the word "compact" to "Lindelof" and "finite" to "countable."  $\square$
- (3) In every metric space, we have

 $\{\text{compact}\} \iff \{\text{limit point compact}\} \iff \{\text{sequentially compact}\}.$ 

**Exercise 2.27.** Define a point p in a metric space X to be a condensation point of a set  $E \subseteq X$  if every neighborhood of p contains uncountably many points of E.

Suppose  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ , E is uncountable, and let P be the set of all condensation points of E. Prove that P is perfect and that at most countably many points of E are not in P. In other words, show that  $\widetilde{P} \cap E$  is at most countable.

(Hint: Let  $\{V_n\}$  be a countable base of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , let W be the union of those  $V_n$  for which  $E \cap V_n$  is at most countable, and show that  $P = \widetilde{W}$ .)

*Note.* The statement is also true for separable metric space.

Proof.

- (1) Let  $\{V_n\}$  be a countable base of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  (Exercise 2.22 and 2.23). Let W be the union of those  $V_n$  for which  $E \cap V_n$  is at most countable.
- (2) Show that  $P = \widetilde{W}$ .
  - (a)  $(P \subseteq \widetilde{W})$  Given any  $x \in P$ .
    - $x \in P \Longrightarrow x$  is a condensation points of E  $\Longrightarrow \forall V_n \ni x, \exists B(x) \subseteq V_n \text{ such that } E \cap B(x) \text{ is uncountable}$   $\Longrightarrow E \cap V_n \text{ is uncountable}$  $\Longrightarrow x \notin W.$
  - (b)  $(P \supseteq \widetilde{W})$  Given any  $x \in \widetilde{W}$ . Let  $P(V_n)$  be the proposition that  $E \cap V_n$  is at most countable.

$$x \in \widetilde{W} \Longrightarrow x \not\in W = \bigcup_{P(V_n)} V_n$$
 
$$\Longrightarrow x \not\in V_n \text{ for which } E \cap V_n \text{ is at most countable}$$
 
$$\Longrightarrow \forall B(x) \text{ of } x, \ x \in V_m \subseteq B(x) \text{ for some } V_m \qquad (\{V_n\}: \text{ base of } X)$$
 
$$\Longrightarrow E \cap V_m \text{ is uncountable}$$
 
$$\Longrightarrow E \cap B(x) \supseteq E \cap V_m \text{ is uncountable}$$
 
$$\Longrightarrow x \text{ is a condensation point of } E$$
 
$$\Longrightarrow x \in P.$$

- (3) Show that P is closed. P is the complement of an open subset W.
- (4) Show that  $P \subseteq P'$ . (Reductio ad absurdum)
  - (a) If there were an isolated point  $x \in P$ , then there exists an open neighborhood B(x) of x such that  $B(x) \cap P = \{x\}$ .
  - (b) Since x is a condensation point of E, there are uncountably many points of E in B(x), and such points y are not a condensation points of E except y=x.
  - (c) Given any point  $y \in E \cap B(x)$  with  $y \neq x$ . Since y is not a condensation point, there exists a neighborhood B(y) of y such that  $B(y) \cap E$  is at most countable. Since  $\{V_n\}$  is a base, for each B(y) there exists  $V_{n(y)}$  such that  $y \in V_{n(y)} \subseteq B(y)$ . Hence

$$V_{n(y)} \cap E \subseteq B(y) \cap E$$

is at most countable.

(d) Hence,

$$E \cap B(x) - \{x\} \subseteq \bigcup_{y \in E \cap B(x) - \{x\}} V_{n(y)}$$
$$= \bigcup_{n(y)} V_{n(y)}$$

is a countable union of at most countable sets, which is countable. Hence  $E \cap B(x) - \{x\}$  or  $E \cap B(x)$  is countable, contrary to the assumption that  $E \cap B(x)$  is uncountable.

(5) Show that  $E \cap \widetilde{P}$  is at most countable.

$$E \cap \widetilde{P} = E \bigcap \left( \bigcup_{P(V_n)} V_n \right) = \bigcup_{P(V_n)} (E \cap V_n)$$

is at most countable.

**Exercise 2.28.** Prove that every closed set in a separable metric space is the union of a (possible empty) perfect set and a set which is at most countable. (Corollary: Every countable closed set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  has isolated points.) (Hint: Use Exercise 2.27.)

Proof (Exercise 2.27). Let E be a closed set in a separable metric space.

(1) E contains all limit points of E, especially contains all condensation points of E. So we can write

$$E = P \cup (E - P)$$

where P is the set of all condensation points of E.

(2) By Exercise 2.27, P is perfect and  $E - P = E \cap \widetilde{P}$  is at most countable.

## Cantor-Bendixson theorem.

- (1) Closed sets of a Polish space X have the perfect set property in a particularly strong form: any closed subset of X may be written uniquely as the disjoint union of a perfect set and a countable set.
- (2) A Polish space is a separable completely metrizable topological space; that is, a space homeomorphic to a complete metric space that has a countable dense subset.

**Exercise 2.29.** Prove that every open set in  $\mathbb{R}^1$  is the union of an at most countable collection of disjoint segments. (Hint: Use Exercise 2.22.)

*Proof.* Let E be an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .

(1) For each  $x \in E$ , let  $I_x$  denote the largest open interval containing x and contained in E. More precisely, since E is open, x is contained in some small (non-trivial) interval, and therefore if

$$a_x = \inf\{a < x : (a, x) \subseteq E\}$$
 and  $b_x = \sup\{b > x : (x, b) \subseteq E\}$ 

we must have  $a_x < x < b_x$  (with possibly infinite values for  $a_x$  and  $b_x$ ).

(2) Let  $I_x = (a_x, b_x)$ , then by construction we have  $x \in I_x$  as well as  $I_x \subseteq E$ . Hence

$$E = \bigcup_{I_x \in \mathscr{F}} I_x,$$

where  $\mathscr{F} = \{I_x\}_{x \in E}$ .

- (3) Suppose that two intervals  $I_x$  and  $I_y$  intersect. Then their union (which is also an open interval) is contained in E and contains x (and y). Since  $I_x$  is maximal,  $I_x \cup I_y \subseteq I_x$ , and similarly  $I_x \cup I_y \subseteq I_y$ . This can happen only if  $I_x = I_y$ .
- (4) Therefore, any two distinct intervals in  $\mathscr{F}$  must be disjoint. Hence  $\mathscr{F}$  is countable since each open interval  $I_x \in \mathscr{F}$  contains a rational number.

Exercise 2.30. Imitate the proof of Theorem 2.43 to obtain the following result:

If  $\mathbb{R}^k = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$ , where each  $F_n$  is a closed subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , then at least one  $F_n$  has a nonempty interior.

Equivalent statement: If  $G_n$  is a dense open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ , then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n$  is not empty (in fact, it is dense in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ ).

(This is a special case of Baire's theorem; see Exercise 3.22 for the general case.)

**Baire category theorem.** If  $G_n$  is a dense open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ , then

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n$$

is dense in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

Proof of Baire category theorem. Given any open set  $G_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , will show that

$$\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n \neq \emptyset.$$

(1) Since  $G_1$  is dense,  $G_0 \cap G_1$  is nonempty. Take any one point  $\mathbf{x}_1$  in the open set  $G_0 \cap G_1$ , there exists open neighborhood

$$V_1 = \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k : |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_1| < r_1 \}$$

of  $\mathbf{x}_1$  such that

$$\overline{V_1} = {\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k : |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_1| \le r_1} \subseteq G_0 \cap G_1.$$

(2) Suppose  $V_n$  has been constructed, take any one point  $\mathbf{x}_{n+1}$  in the open set  $V_n \cap G_{n+1}$ , there exists open neighborhood

$$V_{n+1} = \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k : |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_{n+1}| < r_{n+1} \}$$

of  $\mathbf{x}_1$  with  $r_{n+1}$  such that

$$\overline{V_{n+1}} = \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k : |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_{n+1}| \le r_{n+1} \} \subseteq V_n \cap G_{n+1}.$$

- (3) Note that
  - (a) each  $\overline{V_n}$  is nonempty (containing  $\mathbf{x}_n$ ) and compact.
  - (b)  $\overline{V_1} \supseteq \overline{V_2} \supseteq \cdots$  (since  $\overline{V_{n+1}} \subseteq V_n \cap G_{n+1} \subseteq V_n \subseteq \overline{V_n}$ ).

By Corollary to Theorem 2.36,

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{V_n} \neq \emptyset.$$

(4) Pick  $\mathbf{x} \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{V_n}$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{x} \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{V_n} \Longleftrightarrow \mathbf{x} \in \overline{V_n} \text{ for all } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\implies \mathbf{x} \in \overline{V_1} \subseteq G_0 \cap G_1 \text{ and } \mathbf{x} \in \overline{V_{n+1}} \subseteq V_n \cap G_{n+1} \subseteq G_{n+1}$$

$$\implies \mathbf{x} \in G_0 \cap G_1 \cap \dots = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n$$

$$\implies \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n \neq \emptyset.$$