

# Basic Topology of $\mathbf{R}$

## 3.1. Open and Closed Sets

We have already defined the  $\epsilon$ -**neighborhood**  $V_\epsilon(a)$  of a number  $a \in \mathbf{R}$ ; namely,  $V_\epsilon(a) = (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon)$ , an open interval around  $a$ .

**Definition 3.1.** (i) Let  $a \in A$ . We say  $a$  is an **interior point** of  $A$  if  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  ( $V_\epsilon(a) \subseteq A$ ).  
(ii) A set  $O \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  is said to be **open** if every element  $a \in O$  is an interior point of  $O$ .

**Remark 3.2. Open intervals**  $(a, b)$ ,  $(a, \infty)$  and  $(-\infty, b)$  are open sets in  $\mathbf{R}$ . However, intervals of the form  $[a, b]$ ,  $(a, b]$  or  $[a, b)$  are not open sets. *Try to prove these statements yourselves.*

**Theorem 3.1.** (i) If  $O_\alpha \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  is open for each  $\alpha \in I$ , so is the union  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_\alpha$ .  
(ii) If  $O_1, O_2, \dots, O_n$  are open sets, so is the intersection  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n O_i$ .

**Proof.** To prove (i), let  $O = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_\alpha$ . Take any point  $a \in O$ . Then  $a \in O_\alpha$  for some  $\alpha \in I$ . For this  $\alpha$ , since  $O_\alpha$  is open, there exists a neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(a) \subseteq O_\alpha$  since  $a \in O_\alpha$ . Clearly this neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(a)$  is also contained in the union  $O$ . This proves  $O$  is open.

For (ii), let  $O = \bigcap_{i=1}^n O_i$ . Let  $a \in O$ . Then  $a \in O_i$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Since  $O_i$  is open, there exists a neighborhood  $V_{\epsilon_i}(a) \subseteq O_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , where  $\epsilon_i > 0$ . Let  $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n\}$ . Then  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $V_\epsilon(a) \subseteq V_{\epsilon_i}(a)$ . Hence  $V_\epsilon(a) \subseteq O_i$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . So  $V_\epsilon(a) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n O_i = O$ . Hence  $O$  is open.  $\square$

**Remark 3.3.** Part (ii) of Theorem 3.1 may be false for infinite number of open sets. For example,

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( -1 - \frac{1}{i}, 1 + \frac{1}{i} \right) = [-1, 1].$$

**Definition 3.4.** (i) A point  $x$  is called a **limit point** of a set  $A$  if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  ( $\hat{V}_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ ), where  $\hat{V}_\epsilon(x) = V_\epsilon(x) \setminus \{x\}$  is called the **punctured  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood** of  $x$ .  
The set of all limit points of  $A$  will be denoted by  $L(A)$ .

(ii) A point  $a$  in  $A$  is called an **isolated point** of  $A$  if  $a \notin L(A)$ .

(iii) A set  $F$  is called a **closed set** if  $L(F) \subseteq F$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** *A point  $x$  is a limit point of set  $A$  if and only if there exists a sequence  $(a_n)$  in  $A$  such that  $a_n \neq x$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  and  $(a_n) \rightarrow x$ .*

**Proof.** Assume  $x \in L(A)$ . Then  $\forall n \in \mathbf{N} \exists a_n \in \hat{V}_{1/n}(x) \cap A$ . Hence  $0 < |a_n - x| < 1/n$ ; so the sequence  $(a_n)$  has the required property.

Now assume  $(a_n)$  is a sequence such that  $a_n \in A$ ,  $a_n \neq x$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  and  $(a_n) \rightarrow x$ . Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $|a_N - x| < \epsilon$ ; hence  $a_N \in V_\epsilon(x)$ . Clearly  $a_N \neq x$ ; so  $a_N \in \hat{V}_\epsilon(x) \cap A$  and thus, by the definition,  $x \in L(A)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.3.** *A set  $F$  is closed if and only if the limit of every Cauchy sequence (or convergent sequence) in  $F$  belongs to  $F$ .*

**Proof.** 1. Let  $F$  be closed. Let  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence with  $x_n \in F$ . By the CC,  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ . We show  $x \in F$ . Suppose not:  $x \notin F$ . Then  $x_n \neq x$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . By the theorem above,  $x$  is a limit point of  $F$  and hence  $x \in F$ , a contradiction. So  $x \in F$ .

2. Now assume that the limit of every Cauchy sequence in  $F$  belongs to  $F$ . We show that  $F$  is closed. Let  $x \in L(F)$ . Then, by the theorem above, there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  with  $x_n \in F$ ,  $x_n \neq x$ , such that  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ . This implies  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $F$ ; hence  $x \in F$ . So  $L(F) \subseteq F$  and  $F$  is closed.  $\square$

EXAMPLE 3.1. (i) Each element in the set  $A = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbf{N}\}$  is an isolated point of  $A$ . Also 0 is the *only* limit point of  $A$ . Since  $0 \notin A$ , this set  $A$  is not closed.

(ii) **Closed intervals**  $[a, \infty)$ ,  $(-\infty, b]$  and  $[a, b]$  are closed sets. (*Exercise.*)

(iii) The interval  $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : a \leq x < b\}$  is neither open nor closed.

(iv) Every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  is a limit point of  $\mathbf{Q}$ ; this follows from the density of  $\mathbf{Q}$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition 3.5.** The **closure** of a set  $A$ , denoted by  $\bar{A}$ , is defined to be the union of  $A$  and  $L(A)$ ; namely  $\bar{A} = A \cup L(A)$ .

**Theorem 3.4.** *For any set  $A$ , the closure  $\bar{A}$  is a closed set and is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ .*

**Proof.** 1. We first prove  $\bar{A}$  is closed. Let  $a$  be a limit point of  $\bar{A}$ . We show  $a \in \bar{A}$ . If  $a \in A$  then  $a \in \bar{A}$ . So assume  $a \notin A$ . Since  $a$  is a limit point of  $\bar{A}$ , there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$  with  $(x_n) \rightarrow a$  and  $x_n \in \bar{A}$  and  $x_n \neq a$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . For any  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ , if  $x_n \in A$  define  $y_n = x_n$  and hence  $y_n \neq a$ ; if  $x_n \notin A$ , since  $x_n \in \bar{A}$ , then  $x_n \in L(A)$ , and in this case, define  $y_n \in A$  such that  $0 < |y_n - x_n| < |x_n - a|$  and hence  $y_n \neq a$ ; such a  $y_n$  exists from the definition of limit point  $x_n$  with  $\epsilon = |x_n - a| > 0$ . Therefore, we obtain a sequence  $(y_n)$  with the property:  $y_n \in A$ ,  $y_n \neq a$  and

$$|y_n - a| \leq |y_n - x_n| + |x_n - a| \leq 2|x_n - a| \quad \forall n \in \mathbf{N}.$$

Hence  $y_n \in A$ ,  $(y_n) \rightarrow a$  and  $y_n \neq a$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . By the theorem above, this shows that  $a$  is a limit point of  $A$ ; hence  $a \in \bar{A}$ . We have proved that  $\bar{A}$  is closed.

2. Clearly  $\bar{A}$  contains  $A$ . To show that  $\bar{A}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ , assume  $B$  is any closed set containing  $A$  and we want to show  $\bar{A} \subseteq B$ . Let  $x \in \bar{A}$  and we show  $x \in B$ . If  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$ . Assume  $x \in L(A)$ . Then  $\exists x_n \in A$ ,  $x_n \neq x$  such that  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ . Since  $x_n \in B$ , this shows that  $x$  is also a limit point of  $B$  (this actually shows that if  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $L(A) \subseteq L(B)$ ). Since  $B$  is closed, we have  $x \in B$ . So  $\bar{A} \subseteq B$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.5.** *If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $\bar{A} \subseteq \bar{B}$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $A \subseteq B$ . Then  $A \subseteq \bar{B}$ . Since  $\bar{B}$  is closed, by Theorem 3.4,  $\bar{A} \subseteq \bar{B}$ .  $\square$

**Complements.** Given a set  $A \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ , the **complement**  $A^c$  of  $A$  in  $\mathbf{R}$  is defined by

$$A^c = \mathbf{R} \setminus A = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x \notin A\}.$$

The result of the following theorem can be used as a definition for closed sets.

**Theorem 3.6.** *A set in  $\mathbf{R}$  is open if and only if its complement is closed. Likewise, a set in  $\mathbf{R}$  is closed if and only if its complement is open.*

**Proof.** 1. Assume  $O$  is open; we show that  $F = O^c$  is closed. Let  $x \in L(F)$ . Suppose  $x \notin F$ . Then  $x \in O$  and hence  $V_\epsilon(x) \subset O$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . This implies that  $V_\epsilon(x) \cap F = \emptyset$ , contradicting  $x \in L(F)$ .

2. Assume  $F$  is closed; we show that  $O = F^c$  is open. Let  $a \in O$ ; then  $a \notin F$ . Since  $F$  is closed,  $a \notin L(F)$ ; hence  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $\hat{V}_\epsilon(a) \cap F = \emptyset$ . Since  $a \notin F$ , it follows that  $V_\epsilon(a) \cap F = \emptyset$  and thus  $V_\epsilon(a) \subset F^c = O$ ; hence, by definition,  $O$  is open.

3. Since  $(A^c)^c = A$  for all sets in  $\mathbf{R}$ , it is easily seen that the two steps above complete the proof.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.7.** (i) *The union of a finite collection of closed sets is closed.*

(ii) *The intersection of an arbitrary collection of closed sets is closed.*

**Proof.** Use Theorem 3.1 and **De Morgan's Laws**.  $\square$

## 3.2. Compact Sets

**Definition 3.6.** A set  $K \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  is called **compact** if every sequence in  $K$  has a subsequence that converges to a limit in  $K$ .

**Theorem 3.8 (Heine-Borel Theorem (HBT)).** *A set  $K \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  is compact if and only if  $K$  is bounded and closed.*

**Proof.** First let  $K$  be compact and we show that  $K$  is bounded and closed. Assume first, for contradiction,  $K$  is not bounded. This means that, for every number  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ , there exists a  $x_n \in K$  such that  $|x_n| > n$ . Now, since  $K$  is compact, the sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $K$  has a subsequence, say  $(x_{n_k})$ , converging to a limit  $x \in K$ . However, since  $|x_{n_k}| > n_k \geq k$ , this convergent subsequence is not bounded, contradicting the result that every convergent sequence be bounded. So  $K$  must be bounded. Now we show  $K$  is closed. Assume  $x \in L(K)$ . Then, there exists a sequence  $(x_n)$ , with  $x_n \in K$  and  $x_n \neq x$ , such that  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ . Since  $K$  is compact,  $(x_n)$  has a convergent subsequence whose limit is in  $K$ ; however, since  $(x_n)$  converges, any convergent subsequence must have the same limit as  $(x_n)$ , which is  $x$ . So  $x \in K$ . So  $L(K) \subseteq K$ ; hence  $K$  is closed.

The proof of the converse statement is easier. For example, assume  $K$  is closed and bounded. Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $K$ . We show that  $(x_n)$  has a subsequence converging to some number in  $K$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is bounded, by the BW, there exists a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  converging to some number  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ . Then  $(x_{n_k})$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $K$ . Since  $K$  is closed, by Theorem 3.3 above,  $x \in K$ . Hence, by definition,  $K$  is compact.  $\square$

**EXAMPLE 3.2.** Let  $K \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  be compact. Show that both  $\sup K$  and  $\inf K$  are in  $K$ ; that is,  $\max K$  and  $\min K$  both exist.

**Proof.** Exercises!  $\square$

Our final result is a generalization of (NIP).

**Theorem 3.9.** *If  $K_1 \supseteq K_2 \supseteq K_3 \supseteq \cdots$  is a nested sequence of nonempty compact sets, then the intersection  $\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  is nonempty.*

**Proof.** For each  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ , since  $K_n$  is nonempty, select an element  $x_n \in K_n$ . Since  $x_n \in K_1$  and  $K_1$  is compact, it follows that  $(x_n)$  has a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  converging to some  $x \in K_1$ . We show that this  $x$  in fact belongs to every  $K_n$  for  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . Given a particular  $n_0 \in \mathbf{N}$ , since  $n_k \geq k$ , we have  $n_k \geq n_0$  for all  $k \geq n_0$ . We select a subsequence of  $(x_{n_k})$  consisting of terms with  $k \geq n_0$ ; then this subsequence also converges to  $x$  and each of its terms is also in the compact set  $K_{n_0}$ . Hence the limit  $x \in K_{n_0}$ . But  $n_0$  is arbitrary; so  $x \in \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  and hence  $\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset$ .  $\square$