

Section2 Basic Topology

FINITE,COUNTABLE,AND UNCOUNTABLE SETS

2.1 Definition

Consider two sets ,A and B and a mapping from A to B ,which we may call it 'f'.The 'f' should be some manner,or be said to be a **function**(mapping).

The elements $f(x)$ for all x in A,are called **values**.

The set of all values is called the **range** of f.

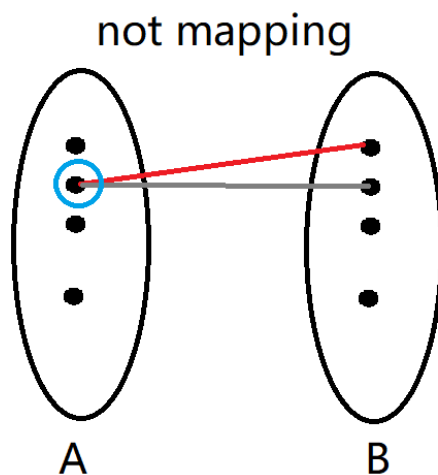
2.2 Definition

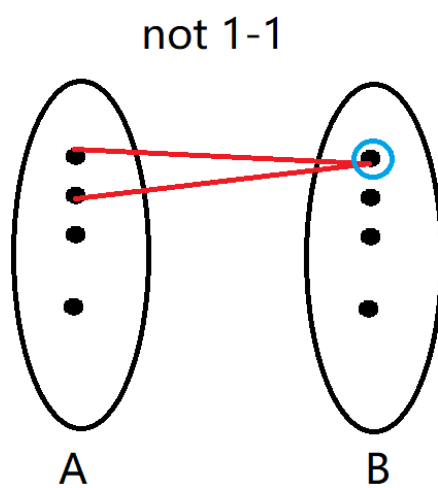
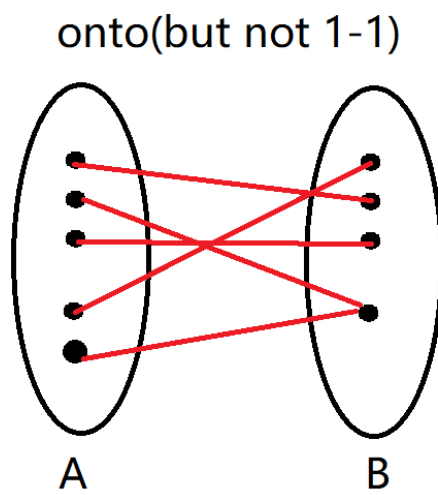
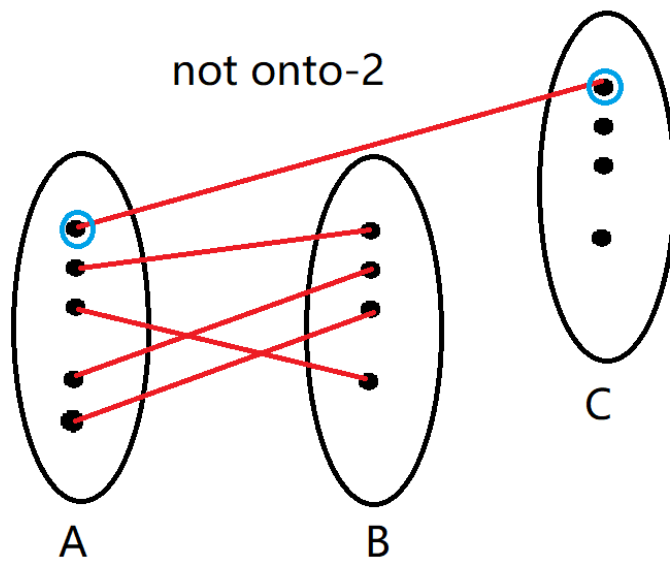
Clearly, $f(A)$ is the range of f and $f(A) \subseteq B$.

We say that f maps A **onto** B when $f(A) = B$.

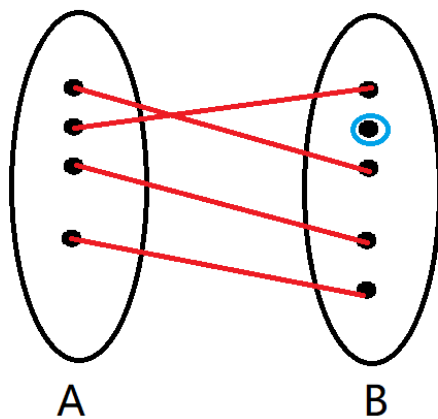
For each $y \in B$,when $f^{-1}(y)$ covers all the elements of A,f is said to be **1-1(one to one)** mapping of A into B.

We may illustrate the definition with these graphs below:

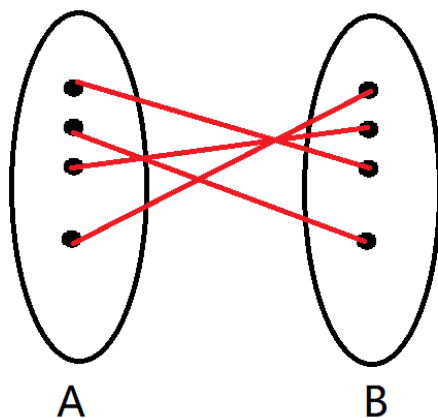




1-1 (but not onto)



1-1 and onto



2.3 Definition

Any relation with these properties is called an equivalence relation:

reflexive : $A \sim A$.

symmetric : If $A \sim B$, then $B \sim A$.

transitive : If $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C$, then $A \sim C$.

If there exists a 1-1 mapping of A onto B, we say that A and B are equivalent, that is, $A \sim B$.

2.4 Remark

if $J_m \sim J_n$, $m = n$.

if $m = n$, $J_m \sim J_n$.

where J_n is the set whose elements are the integers $1, 2, \dots, n$;

2.5 Definition

For any set A , we may say:

- a. A is **finite** if $A \sim J_n$ for some n . (empty set \emptyset is considered to be finite)
- b. A is **infinite** if A is not finite.
- c. A is **countable** if $A \sim J$.
- d. A is **uncountable** if A is neither **finite** or **countable**.
- e. A is **at most countable** (至多可数) if A is **finite** or **countable**.

2.6 Remark

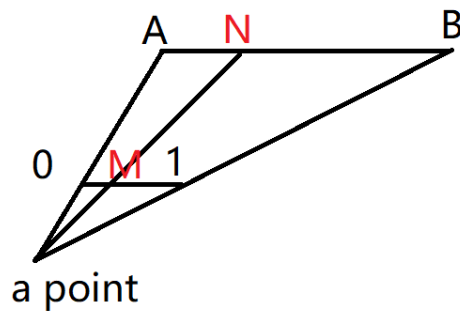
a. $N \sim Z$

For $: 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \rightarrow 0, -1, 1, -2, \dots$

We may even find out an explicit formula.

b. $\forall a, b \in R, (a, b) \sim (0, 1)$:

Graphic explanations:



$\forall x$ in (a, b) , denoted by N on the axis AB , has some linear pattern corresponding to M in axis 01 .

c. $(0, 1) \sim R$

We may even find the explicit function of it:

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} x - \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{x^2}{1-x^2}, 0 < x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ x - \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{x^2}{1-x^2}, \frac{1}{2} < x < 1 \end{cases}$$

d. $\forall a, b \in R, (a, b) \sim R$:

An equivalence relation is transitive, so it is clear.

In fact, we could replace the definition of infinite set 2.5.b by the statement below:

A is infinite if A is equivalent to one of its proper subsets.

2.7 Definition

We may sort of order or label the elements in a countable set A in the way of 'sequence in A ':

$$A = \{x_n\}, n \in J.$$

The elements in the set arranged in this way need not to be distinct. (For example, we may assume: $f(x) := x^2, x_1 = (-1)^2 = 1, x_2 = (+1)^2 = 1, x_1 = x_2$, which is valid)

2.8 Theorem

Every infinite subset of a countable set A is countable.

No uncountable set can be a subset of a countable set.

Proof:

The key operation is to find out the 'net mapping' of J_n , the subset of J :

k	n_k	x_{n_k}
1	n_1	x_{n_1}
2	n_2	x_{n_2}
...
n	n_n	x_{n_n}

In this way we found a mapping function from J_n to A such that n_k is the smallest integer greater than n_{k-1} and $x_{n_k} \in E$, where $f(k) = x_{n_k}$.

####

2.9 Theorem

Let $\{E_n\}, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, be a sequence of countable sets, and put

$$S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$$

Then S is countable.

2.10 Remark

Let $A = (0, 1)$ and $E_\alpha = (0, \alpha)$, then

$$(1) \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha = (0, 1)$$

$$(2) \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha = \emptyset.$$

(2) is clear, for:

$$\forall y > x > 0, y \notin E_x.$$

Hence $\forall y > 0, y \notin \bigcup_{x \in A} E_x$.

To prove (1), we let $M = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha$. $\forall x \in M, x \in (0, 1), M \subseteq (0, 1)$.

Suppose $\forall \beta \in (0, 1), \forall \alpha \in (0, 1), \beta \notin E_\alpha$, then $\beta \geq 1$. However $\beta < 1$.

Hence, $\forall \beta \in (0, 1), \exists \alpha \in (0, 1), s. t. \beta \in E_\alpha$, whereas $(0, 1) \subseteq M$.

Since $(0, 1) \subseteq M, M \subseteq (0, 1), M = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha = (0, 1)$.

2.11 Facts

A, B are two sets.

(1) If A has a 1-1 mapping f into B, $\exists g : B \rightarrow A, s. t. (g \circ f) = id_A$.

(2) If f maps A onto B, $\exists g : B \rightarrow A, s. t. (f \circ g) = id_B$.

2.12 Theorem

Let $\{E_n\}, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, be a sequence of countable sets, and put $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$. Then S is countable.

Proof:

Rearrange the order of the terms of the sets T in a sequence $\{x_{nk}\}$:

$$x_{11} \rightarrow x_{21} \rightarrow x_{12} \rightarrow x_{31} \rightarrow x_{22} \rightarrow x_{13} \rightarrow \dots$$

It is valid, because for each element on the specific diagonal

, the sum of the indexes ranges from (2) to $n+k$ with step 1.

However, some entries may appear more than once, so what we can assure is that it goes that

$$S \sim T \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$

Hence S and T are **at most countable**. Since S is infinite, S is countable.

Corollary

Suppose A is at most countable, and, for every $\alpha \in A$, B_α is at most countable. Put

$$T = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} B_\alpha$$

Then T is at most countable.

For T is the subset of the at most countable set $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$.

2.13 Theorem

Let A be a countable set, and let B_n be the set of all n -tuples $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$, where $\alpha_k \in A$ ($k = 1, \dots, n$), and the elements $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ need not to be distinct. Then B_n is countable.

Proof:

$B_n = \underbrace{A \times \dots \times A}_n$. By induction and Theorem 2.12, we know that $A \times A$ is countable, thus

$A \times A \times A$ is countable, ..., B_n is countable.

Corollary

The set of all **rational numbers** is countable.

That is because $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ is countable and \mathbb{Q} is at most countable but infinite, and thus countable.

2.14 Theorem

Let A be the set of all sequences whose elements are the digits 0 and 1. This set A is uncountable.

Outline of the proof:

To prove something wrong is usually hard, so we may try to prove it by contradiction.

We may assign E as a sequence of countless sequences:

$$E = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$$

, where $s_k, k = 1, 2, \dots$ is a sequence.

If a set is countable, it can be rearranged to a sequence like that:

$$E = \{\{a_{11}, \dots\}, \\ \{a_{21}, a_{22}, \dots\}, \\ \{a_{31}, a_{32}, a_{33}, \dots\}, \dots\}$$

Let's DIY a sequence to create the contradiction in the way below:

Consider a sequence $\{b_k\}$ like that:

$$b_k = \begin{cases} 1, & a_{kk} = 0 \\ 0, & a_{kk} = 1 \end{cases}$$

The sequence $b_k \neq E_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. However $b_k \in E$.

Thus A is uncountable.

Corollary

The set of all real numbers is uncountable.

METRIC SPACES

2.15 Definition

A set X is said to be a metric space if two points a and b in X associate a real number function $d(p, q)$ such that

<i>Non – negativity :</i>	$d(p, q) \geq 0$ if $p \neq q, d(p, p) = 0;$
<i>Symmetry :</i>	$d(p, q) = d(q, p);$
<i>Triangle Inequality :</i>	$d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q), \text{ for any } r \in X.$

Any function with these three properties is called a distance function, or a metric.

2.16 Definition

The **unit ball** is a set defined by

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid d(x, 0) \leq 1\}$$

2.17 Definition

Let X be a metric space, all points and sets mentioned below are elements and subsets of X .

1. A **neighborhood** of p is a set $N_r(p)$ consisting of all q such that $d(p, q) < r$, for some $r > 0$. The number r is called the radius of $N_r(p)$. (random r)
2. A point p is a **limit point** of the set E if every neighborhood of p contains a point $q \neq p$ such that $q \in E$. (no one but myself). i. e. $\forall r > 0, N_r(p) \cap E \neq \emptyset$
3. If $p \in E$ and p is not a limit point of E , then p is called an **isolated point** of E .
4. A point is an **interior point** of E if there is a neighborhood N of p such that $N \subset E$.
i. e. $\exists r > 0, N_r(p) \subseteq E$.
5. E is closed if **every limit point** of E is a point of E .
6. E is open if every point of E is a **interior point**. $\forall p \in E, \exists r > 0, s. t. N_r(p) \subseteq E$.
7. The **complement** of E , denoted by E^c , is the set of all points $p \in X$ such that $p \notin E$.
8. E is **perfect** if E is closed and if every point of E is a limit point of E .
9. E is **bounded** if there is a real number M and a point $q \in X$ such that $d(p, q) < M$ for all $p \in E$.
10. E is **dense** in X if every point of X is a limit point of E , or a point of E (or both).

Notice that an interior point is not necessarily a limit point.

2.18 Facts

Let X be a metric space, all points and sets mentioned below are elements and subsets of X .

1. If E is open, E^c is closed;
2. If E is closed, E^c is open.

Proof:

1. We need to show that if p is a limit point of E^c then $p \in E^c$.

Let p be a limit point, i. e. $\forall r > 0, N_r(p) \cap E^c \neq \emptyset$.

$\therefore \forall p \in E, \forall r > 0, N_r(p)$ doesn't $\subseteq E$.

Therefore p is not an interior point of E . However, every point in E is an interior point.

i. e. $p \notin E, p \in E^c$.

2. The statement is equivalent to "**If E is not open, then E^c is not closed**", which is trivial.

Since E is not open, that is $\exists p \in E, \forall r > 0, s. t. N_r(p) \cap E^c \neq \emptyset$.

Therefore E^c is not closed.

2.19 Facts

Let A_n, B_n be an open set and a closed set which are both subsets of a metric space X .

($n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$)

1. $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_n$ is open. $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_n$ is closed. $\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_n$ is open, $\bigcap_{i=1}^n B_n$ is closed.
2. $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is open. $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_n$ is closed.
3. $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_n$ may NOT be open. $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_n$ may NOT be closed.

2.20 Theorem

If p is a limit point of a set E , then every neighbourhood of p contains **infinitely** many points of E .

Corollary

A finite point set has no limit points.

Hence, a finite set is closed.

2.22 Theorem

Let $\{E_n\}$ be a (finite or infinite) collection of sets E_n . Then $(\cup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha})^c = \cap_{\alpha} (E_{\alpha}^c)$

2.23 Definition

If X is a metric space, if $E \subset X$, and if E' denotes the set of all limit points of E , then the *closure* of E is the set $\overline{E} = E \cup E'$.

2.24 Theorem

If X is a metric space and $E \subset X$, then

- (a) \overline{E} is closed,
- (b) $\overline{E} = E$ if and only if E is closed,
- (c) $\overline{E} \subset F$ for every closed set $F \subset X$ such that $E \subset F$.

2.25 Definition

If E is a metric space and E is a closed set, E is perfect if and only if $E' = E$.

2.26 Theorem

Let E be a nonempty set of real numbers which is bounded above. Let $y = \sup E$. Then $y \in \overline{E}$.

Proof

Assume $y \notin E$. For each $h > 0$ there exists a point $x \in E$, such that $y - h < x < y$, otherwise $y - h$ would be the upper bound of E . Thus y is a limit point and $y \in \overline{E}$.

(We omit some new definitions)

Compact Sets

2.31 Definition

By an open cover of a set E in a metric space X we mean a collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open subsets of x such that $E \subset \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$.

2.32 Definition

A subset K of a metric space X is said to be *compact* if every open cover of K contains a *finite* subcover.

More explicitly, the requirement is that if $\{G_\alpha\}$ is an open cover of K , then there are finitely many indices $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ such that $K \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$.

2.33 Theorem

Suppose $K \subset Y \subset X$. Then K is *compact relative to X* if and only if K is compact to Y .

Proof

The "if and only if" condition is equivalent to "sufficient and necessary".

(1) Suppose K is compact relative to X . We have

$$K \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup G_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n} \quad (1)$$

Let

$$V_\alpha = Y \cap G_\alpha$$

Then we have

$$K \subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup V_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n} \quad (2)$$

Thus we prove that K is compact relative to Y .

(2) Suppose K is compact relative to Y . Similarly Let $\{G_n\}$ be some finite collection of open subsets of X which covers K , and put $V_\alpha = Y \cap G_\alpha$. Then we get (2), which implies (1), and therefore K is compact relative to X .

2.34 Theorem

Compact subsets of metric spaces are closed.

Proof

这一证明表现出了紧性将局部推广至全局的作用.

我们等价于证明, "度量空间的紧子集 K 之补集 K^c 为开集".

我们考虑紧集中的任意一点 a 和其补集的任意一点 b . 现在为了方便我们不妨固定点 b , 考虑有限个子覆盖 (subcover) $\{A_n\}$ 及点 b 的有限个邻域 $\{B_n\}$, 使得

$$K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_n \\ V = \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_n$$

其中, 这两个邻域的“中心点”距离记为 $d(a_n, b)$.并令所有对应的领域 A_n 与 B_n 满足半径 $r_n < \frac{d(a_n, b)}{2}$.

这样就有 $V \cap K = \emptyset$.(局部不相交推广至全局不相交).因此对于补集中的任意一点 b ,总能以此法构造领域,使得 $N_r(b) \cap K = \emptyset, N_r(b) \subset K^c$.

因此等价命题得证, 原命题得证.

2.35 Theorem

Closed subsets of compact sets are compact.

Proof

Let K be a compact subset of a metric space X and let $F \subseteq K$ be closed(relative to X).

Let $\{G_n\}$ be an open cover of F , then $\{G_n \cap F^c\}$ is an open cover of K .(Since F^c is open)

Corollary

If F is closed and K is compact, then $F \cap K$ is compact.

The intersection of finite compact sets is compact.

2.36 Definition

Let $\{S_n\}$ be a collection of subsets of a metric space X . We say $\{S_n\}$ satisfies **finite intersection condition** if the intersection of every finite subcollection of $\{K_\alpha\}$ is nonempty.

2.37 Theorem

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 $\cap K_\alpha$ is nonempty.

Proof

The statement is equivalent to "If $\cap K_\alpha = \emptyset$, then $\cap_{i=1}^n K_i = \emptyset$ ".

We may fix a member K_1 such that $K_1 \cap (\cap_{i=2}^\infty K_i) = \emptyset, K_1 \subset (\cap_{i=2}^\infty K_i)^c, K_1 \subset (\cup_{i=2}^\infty K_i^c)$.

Since K_1 is compact, $K_1 \subset (\cup_{i=2}^n K_i^c), \cap_{i=1}^n K_i = \emptyset$.

Corollary

If $\{K_n\}$ is a sequence of nonempty compact sets such that $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$.($n=1,2,3,\dots$), then $\cap_1^\infty K_n$ is not empty.

2.38 Theorem

If E is a infinite subset of a compact set K , then E has a limit point in K .

Proof

The key idea is, let I be the k -cell, $\exists x^* \in I$, s.t. if $y \in K_n$, and $K_{n+1} \subset K_n, K_1 \subset I$, then $|y - x^*|$ must be covered by some neighborhood. Namely, $\forall r > 0, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, y \in K_n$, s.t. $|y - x^*| < r$. That is to say, there is always some finite subcollection of $\{G_n\}$ capable of covering I_n . Suppose $E' \cap E = \emptyset$. That is to say, $\forall p \in E, \forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{R}, N_\epsilon p \setminus \{p\} = \emptyset$. Then there is no finite subcollection of $\{V_q\}$ can cover E . Since $E \subset K$, therefore K is not compact. This contradicts the compactness of K .

我们应当指出，定理2.38可以用于证明闭区间套定理。

更严格的证明如下：

We prove it by contradiction.

Suppose no point of K is a limit point of a compact set K , then for each $q \in K$, $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $N_r(p) \cap E = \emptyset, \{p\}$. i.e. each point in K would have a neighborhood $N_r(p)$ containing at most one point of E .

Therefore, E cannot be covered by infinite open sets, and the same is true for K , since $E \subset K$, which contradicts the compactness of K .

2.39 Theorem

If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of intervals in \mathbb{R}^1 , such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1} (n=1,2,3,\dots)$, then $\bigcap_1^\infty I_n$ is not empty.

Proof

令 $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$, 由于实数集的稠密性，总能找到一个 $\{a_n\}$ 的上确界 α 使得 $\alpha \in I_n, (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$. 故原命题得证。

It is known that \mathbb{R} has the least-upper-bound property, and thus has the greatest-lower-bound property. Let $\{a_n\}$ be set of all the lower bounds of each interval I_n , and $\{b_n\}$ be the set of all the upper bounds of each interval I_n .

It is apparent that:

$$\begin{aligned} \exists x \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } x = \sup\{a_n\}. \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, a_n < x \leq b_1 \leq b_2 \leq \dots \leq b_n \end{aligned}$$

Therefore we find that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, x \in I_n, x \in \bigcap_1^\infty I_n$.

2.40 Theorem

Let k be a positive integer. If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of k -cells such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1} (n=1,2,3,\dots)$, then $\bigcap_1^\infty I_n$ is not empty.

Proof

我们对 k 维的每一维空间都作类似2.39定理的操作即可得证。

2.41 Theorem

Every k-cells is compact.

Proof

Let I be a k-cell,consisting of all points $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ such that $a_j < x_j < b_j (1 \leq j \leq k)$.Put

$$\delta = \sqrt{\sum_1^k (b_j - a_j)^2}$$

Then $|x - y| \leq \delta$,if $x \in I, y \in I$.

To get a contradiction,we suppose that there exists a open cover $\{G_n\}$ of I which contains no finite subcover of I .

Put $c_j = \frac{a_j+b_j}{2}$.The intervals will be separated into 2^k k-cells of Q_i whose union is I .

According the hypothesis,there must be at least one subset cannot be covered by $\{G_n\}$,call it I_1 .

Corollary:

Let $k \in N^*$,If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of k-cells such that $I_{n+1} \subset I_n (n=1,2,3,\dots)$,then $\cap_1^\infty I_n$ is not empty.

Proof:

For each dimension,apply Theorem 2.39.We then obtain $x^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_k^*)$.

$x^* \in I_n, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$,which makes the corollary follow.

2.42 Theorem(3 个等价命题)

需要指出的是,该定理中(a)与(b)的等价性被称作Heine-Borel theorem (海涅-博雷尔定理):

If a set E in R^k has one of the following three properties,then it has the other two:

- (a) E is closed and bounded.
- (b) E is compact.
- (c) Every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E .

Proof:

(a) \rightarrow (b):

$E \subset I$ for some k-cell I .Since a closed subset of a compact set is compact(Theorem 2.35) and each k-cell is compact(Theorem 2.40), E is compact.

(b) \rightarrow (c):

If E is a infinite subset of a compact set K ,then E has a limit point in K . (Theorem 2.38)

That implies (b) to (c).

(c) \rightarrow (a):

Suppose E is not bounded,then some subset of E (call it S) contains points x_n with $|x_n| > n, n \in N^*$.

Thus S clearly has no limit point,contradicting with (c).

Suppose E is not closed, consider a limit point of E but not in E . Let

$$S = \{x_n | x_n \in E, |x_n - x_0| < \frac{1}{n}\}.$$

Thus S is infinite, and S has no limit point but x_0 in R^k .

Let's prove it:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Fix } y \in R^k, y \neq x_0, \text{ then } |x_n - y| &\geq |x_0 - y| + |x_n - x_0| \\ &\geq |x_0 - y| - \frac{1}{n} \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2}|x_0 - y| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore x_0 is the only limit point of S .

Thus S has no limit point in E , contradicting with (c).

Hence it must be closed if (c) holds.

2.43 Weierstrass Theorem(魏尔斯特拉斯定理)

Every bounded infinite subset of R^k has a limit point in R^k .

Proof:

Let the set be S . Since it is bounded, there is some k -cell I_k s.t. $S \subset I_k$. I_k is compact, thus S has a limit point in I_k . Namely the theorem holds.

Perfect Sets and Connected Sets

2.44 Definition

A set E is **perfect** if and only if $E' = E$.

2.45 Theorem

Let P be a nonempty perfect set in R^k . Then P is uncountable.

Proof

Suppose P is countable, consider a sequence of neighborhood $\{V_n\}$ of these points x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots

Since $P' = P$, $V_n \cap P \neq \emptyset$. We may construct a sequence of $\{V_n\}$ following three properties below:

1. $\overline{V_{n+1}} \subset V_n$
2. $x_n \notin \overline{V_{n+1}}$
3. $V_{n+1} \cap P \neq \emptyset$

Put $K_n = \overline{V_n} \cap P$. Since $\overline{V_n}$ is closed and bounded, it is compact.

By (2), no points in P lies in $\cap_1^\infty K_n$. $K_n \subset P$, $\cap_1^\infty K_n = \emptyset$.

But each K_n is nonempty, by (3).

It contradicts the theorem "If $\{K_n\}$ is a sequence of nonempty compact sets such that $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, 3, \dots$), then $\cap_1^\infty K_n$ is not empty."

2.46 Cantor Set

Note:

It is a perfect set in \mathbb{R}^1 which contains no segment.

2.47 Definition

Two subsets A and B of a metric space X are said to be separated if both $A \cap \overline{B}$ and $\overline{A} \cap B$ are empty, i.e., if no point of A lies in \overline{B} and no points of B lies in \overline{A} .

A set $E \subset X$ is said to be connected if E is not a union of two nonempty separated sets.

If a set is NOT connected, it is a union of two nonempty separated sets.

Separated sets are disjoint, but disjoint sets need not to be separated.