

# 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.

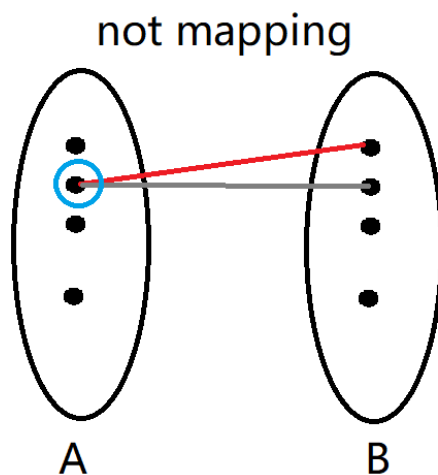
### 2.2 Definition

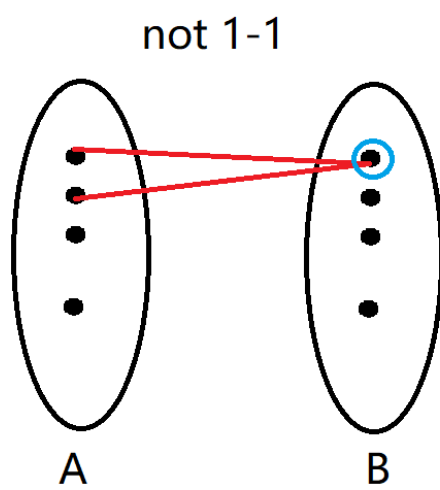
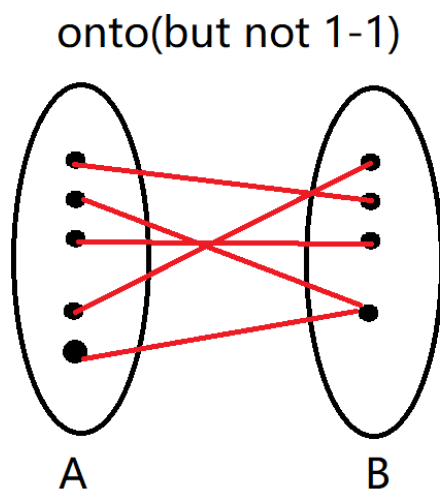
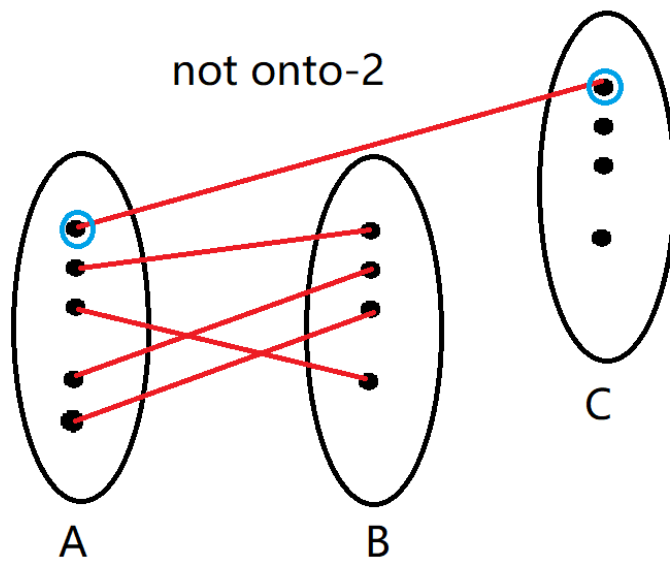
Clearly, $f(A)$  is the range of f and  $f(A) \subseteq B$ .

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

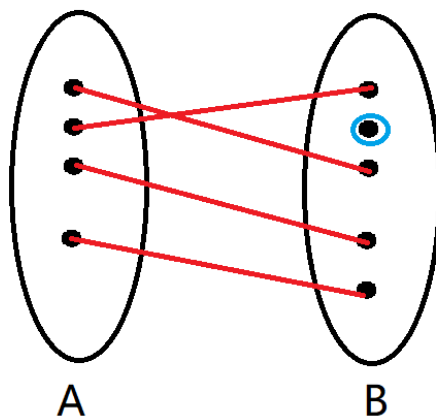
For each  $y \in B$ ,when  $f^{-1}(y)$  covers all the elements of A,f is said to be **1-1(one to one)** mapping of A into B.

We may illustrate the definition with these graphs below:

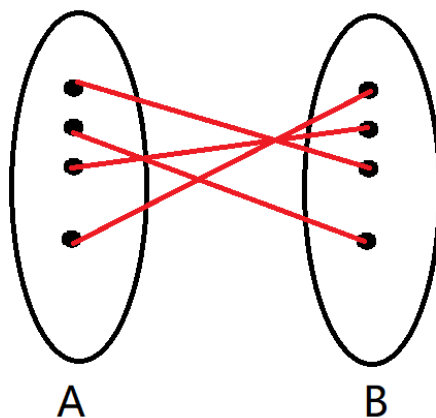




1-1 (but not onto)



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

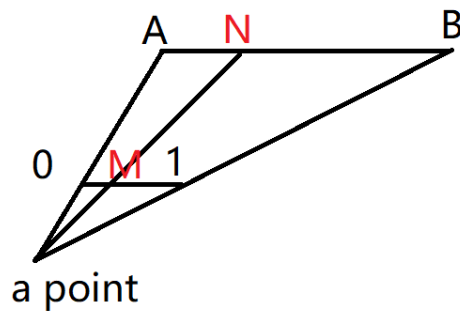
a.  $N \sim Z$

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  $\alpha \in A$ ,  $B_\alpha$  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)

# 2-3 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  $\alpha$  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.

## 2-4 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  $R^1$  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.