

## CHAPTER 2

# Basic Topology

### 2.1. Finite, Countable, and Uncountable Sets

We begin this section with a definition of the function concept.

DEFINITION 2.1. Consider two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , whose elements may be any objects whatsoever, and suppose that with each element  $x$  of  $A$  there is associated, in some manner, an element of  $B$ , which we denote by  $f(x)$ . Then  $f$  is said to be a *function* from  $A$  to  $B$  (or a *mapping* of  $A$  into  $B$ ). The set  $A$  is called the *domain* of  $f$  (we also say  $f$  is defined on  $A$ ), and the elements  $f(x)$  are called the *values* of  $f$ . The set of all values of  $f$  is called the *range* of  $f$ .

DEFINITION 2.2. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two sets and let  $f$  be a mapping of  $A$  into  $B$ . If  $E \subset A$ ,  $f(E)$  is defined to be the set of all elements  $f(x)$ , for  $x \in E$ . We call  $f(E)$  the *image* of  $E$  under  $f$ . In this notation,  $f(A)$  is the range of  $f$ . It is clear that  $f(A) \subset B$ . If  $f(A) = B$ , we say that  $f$  maps  $A$  *onto*  $B$ . (Note that, according to this usage, *onto* is more specific than *into*.)

If  $E \subset B$ ,  $f^{-1}(E)$  denotes the set of all  $x \in A$  such that  $f(x) \in E$ . We call  $f^{-1}(E)$  the *inverse image* of  $E$  under  $f$ . If  $y \in B$ ,  $f^{-1}(y)$  is the set of all  $x \in A$  such that  $f(x) = y$ . If, for each  $y \in B$ ,  $f^{-1}(y)$  consists of at most one element of  $A$ , then  $f$  is said to be a 1-1 (*one-to-one*) mapping of  $A$  into  $B$ . This may also be expressed as follows:  $f$  is a 1-1 mapping of  $A$  into  $B$  provided that  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$  whenever  $x_1 \neq x_2$ ,  $x_1 \in A$ ,  $x_2 \in A$ .

(The notation  $x_1 \neq x_2$  means that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are distinct elements; otherwise we write  $x_1 = x_2$ .)

DEFINITION 2.3. If there exists a 1-1 mapping of  $A$  *onto*  $B$ , we say that  $A$  and  $B$ , can be put in 1-1 *correspondence*, or that  $A$  and  $B$  have the same *cardinal number*, or briefly, that  $A$  and  $B$  are *equivalent*, and we write  $A \sim B$ . This relation clearly has the following properties:

- It is reflexive:  $A \sim A$ .
- It is symmetric: If  $A \sim B$ , then  $B \sim A$ .
- It is transitive: If  $A \sim B$  and  $B \sim C$ , then  $A \sim C$ .

Any relation with these three properties is called an *equivalence relation*.

DEFINITION 2.4. For any positive integer  $n$ , let  $J_n$  be the set whose elements are the integers 1, 2, ...,  $n$ ; let  $J$  be the set consisting of all positive integers. For any set  $A$ , we say:

- (1)  $A$  is *finite* if  $A \sim J_n$  for some  $n$  (the empty set is also considered to be finite).
- (2)  $A$  is *infinite* if  $A$  is not finite.
- (3)  $A$  is *countable* if  $A \sim J$ .
- (4)  $A$  is *uncountable* if  $A$  is neither finite nor countable.
- (5)  $A$  is *at most countable* if  $A$  is finite or countable.

Countable sets are sometimes called *enumerable*, or *denumerable*.

For two finite sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we evidently have  $A \sim B$  if and only if  $A$  and  $B$  contain the same number of elements. For infinite sets, however, the idea of “having the same number of elements” becomes quite vague, whereas the notion of 1-1 correspondence retains its clarity.

EXAMPLE 2.1. Let  $A$  be the set of all integers. Then  $A$  is countable. For, consider the following arrangement of the sets  $A$  and  $J$ :

$$\begin{array}{ll} A: & 0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots \\ J: & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, \dots \end{array}$$

We can, in this example, even give an explicit formula for a function  $f$  from  $J$  to  $A$  which sets up a 1-1 correspondence:

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & (n \text{ even}), \\ -\frac{n-1}{2} & (n \text{ odd}). \end{cases}$$

REMARK 2.1. A finite set cannot be equivalent to one of its proper subsets. That this is, however, possible for infinite sets, is shown by Example 2.1, in which  $J$  is a proper subset of  $A$ .

In fact, we could replace Definition 2.4(2) by the statement:  $A$  is infinite if  $A$  is equivalent to one of its proper subsets.

DEFINITION 2.5. By a *sequence*, we mean a function  $f$  defined on the set  $J$  of all positive integers. If  $f(n) = x_n$ , for  $n \in J$ , it is customary to denote the sequence  $f$  by the symbol  $\{x_n\}$ , or sometimes by  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$ . The values of  $f$ , that is, the elements  $x_n$ , are called the *terms* of the sequence. If  $A$  is a set and if  $x_n \in A$  for all  $n \in J$ , then  $\{x_n\}$  is said to be a *sequence in  $A$* , or a *sequence of elements of  $A$* .

Note that the terms  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  of a sequence need not be distinct.

Since every countable set is the range of a 1-1 function defined on  $J$ , we may regard every countable set as the range of a sequence of distinct terms. Speaking more loosely, we may say that the elements of any countable set can be “arranged in a sequence.”

Sometimes it is convenient to replace  $J$  in this definition by the set of all nonnegative integers, i.e., to start with 0 rather than with 1.

THEOREM 2.1. *Every infinite subset of a countable set  $A$  is countable.*

PROOF. Suppose  $E \subset A$ , and  $E$  is infinite. Arrange the elements  $x$  of  $A$  in a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  of distinct elements. Construct a sequence  $\{n_k\}$  as follows:

Let  $n_1$  be the smallest positive integer such that  $x_{n_1} \in E$ . Having chosen  $n_1, \dots, n_{k-1}$  ( $k = 2, 3, 4, \dots$ ), let  $n_k$  be the smallest integer greater than  $n_{k-1}$  such that  $x_{n_k} \in E$ .

Putting  $f(k) = x_{n_k}$  ( $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ), we obtain a 1-1 correspondence between  $E$  and  $J$ .

The theorem shows that, roughly speaking, countable sets represent the “smallest” infinity: No uncountable set can be a subset of a countable set.  $\square$

DEFINITION 2.6. Let  $A$  and  $\Omega$  be sets, and suppose that with each element  $\alpha$  of  $A$  there is associated a subset of  $\Omega$  which we denote by  $E_\alpha$ .

The set whose elements are the sets  $E_\alpha$  will be denoted by  $\{E_\alpha\}$ . Instead of speaking of sets of sets, we shall sometimes speak of a collection of sets, or a family of sets.

The *union* of the sets  $E_\alpha$  is defined to be the set  $S$  such that  $x \in S$  if and only if  $x \in E_\alpha$  for at least one  $\alpha \in A$ . We use the notation

$$(2.1) \quad S = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha.$$

$$(2.2) \quad S = \bigcup_{m=1}^n E_m$$

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The *intersection* of the sets  $E_\alpha$  is defined to be the set  $P$  such that  $x \in P$  if and only if  $x \in E_\alpha$  for every  $\alpha \in A$ . We use the notation

$$(2.5) \quad P = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha},$$

$$(2.6) \quad P = \bigcap_{m=1}^n E_m = E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \cdots \cap E_n,$$

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$$(2.7) \quad P = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} E_m,$$

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$$(2.8) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & \nearrow & & \\ x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} & x_{14} & \cdots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} & x_{24} & \cdots \\ & & \vdots & & \end{array}$$

$$(2.8) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & \nearrow & & \\ x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} & x_{14} & \cdots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} & x_{24} & \cdots \\ & & \vdots & & \end{array}$$