## **Closed Sets**

### **Notation**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and  $p \in X$ :

$$\mathcal{U}_p = \{ U \in \mathcal{T} \mid p \in U \}$$

### **Definition: Limit Point**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space,  $A \subset X$ , and  $p \in X$ . To say that p is a *limit point* of A means:

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, (U - \{p\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

## **Example**

Let  $X=\mathbb{R}$  and A=(1,2). Verify that 0 is a limit point of A in the indiscrete and cofinite topologies but not in the standard nor discrete topologies.

**Indiscrete:** Since  $0 \notin (1,2)$ , it follows that  $(\mathbb{R} - \{0\}) \cap (1,2) = (1,2) \neq \emptyset$ .

Therefore 0 is a limit point of (1, 2).

**Cofinite**: Assume  $U \in \mathcal{T}$ .

This means that  $U = \mathbb{R} - X$  where X is some finite set. But (1,2) is uncountable and so:

$$(U - \{0\}) \cap (1, 2) = U \cap (1, 2)$$

$$= (\mathbb{R} - X) \cap (1, 2)$$

$$= (\mathbb{R} \cap (1, 2)) - (X \cap (1, 2))$$

$$= (1, 2) - (X \cap (1, 2))$$

$$\neq \emptyset$$

Therefore 0 is a limit point of (1, 2).

**Standard:** Let  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ .

$$B(0,\frac{1}{2})\cap(1,2)=\emptyset$$

Therefore 0 is not a limit point of (1, 2).

**Discrete:** Consider  $[0,1] \in \mathcal{T}$ .

$$0 \in [0,1]$$
 but  $[0,1] \cap (1,2) = \emptyset$ .

Therefore 0 is not a limit point of (1, 2).

#### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space,  $A \subset X$ , and  $p \in X$  but  $p \notin A$ . p is not a limit point of A iff there exists  $U \in \mathcal{U}_p$  such that  $U \cap A = \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* If  $p \notin A$  then the definition of a limit point becomes: p is a limit point of A iff for all  $U \in \mathcal{U}_p, U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . Negating both sides of the equivalence yields an equivalent proposition and gives the desired result.

#### **Definition: Isolated Point**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space,  $A \subset X$ , and  $p \in X$ . To say that p is an *isolated point* in A means that  $p \in A$  and p is not a limit point of A.

#### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space,  $A \subset X$ , and  $p \in X$ . If p is an isolated point in A then there exists  $U \in \mathscr{T}$  such that  $U \cap A = \{p\}$ .

*Proof.* Assume that p is an isolated point in A. This means that  $p \in A$  and p is not a limit point of A. Thus, there exists  $U \in \mathcal{U}_p$  such that  $(U - \{p\}) \cap A = \emptyset$ . But  $p \in U$  and  $p \in A$ .

Therefore 
$$U \cap A = \{p\}$$
.

## **Example**

Give examples of sets A in various topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  with:

1. A limit point of A that is an element of A.

Let 
$$X = \mathbb{R}$$
 and  $A = (-1, 1)$ .

For standard, discrete, indiscrete, cofinite, and cocountable: p=0.

2. A limit point of A that is not an element of A.

Let 
$$X = \mathbb{R}$$
 and  $A = (-1, 1)$ .

For standard, indiscrete, cofinite, and cocountable: p=1. For discrete, no such limit points can exist because if  $p \notin A$  then  $\{p\} \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $\{p\} \cap A = \emptyset$ .

3. An isolated point in A.

Let 
$$X = \mathbb{R}$$
 and  $A = \mathbb{Z}$ .

For standard, discrete, indiscrete, cofinite, and cocountable: p=0.

4. A point not in A that is not a limit point of A.

Let 
$$X = \mathbb{R}$$
 and  $A = \mathbb{N}$ .

For standard, discrete, indiscrete, cofinite, and cocountable: p = 0.

#### Notation

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and  $A \subset X$ :

$$A' = \{x \in X \mid x \text{ is a limit point of } A\}$$

#### **Definition: Closure**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space and let  $A \subset X$ . The *closure* of A in X, denoted by  $\bar{A}$ , is given by:

$$\bar{A} = A \cup A'$$

### **Definition: Closed**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space and let  $A \subset X$ . To say that A is *closed* means that  $\bar{A} = A$ . Thus, A contains all of its limit points.

## **Example**

Which sets are closed in a set X with the following topologies?:

**Discrete:** All  $A \subset X$ .

If  $p \notin A$  then it cannot be a limit point for A (see above), and therefore each A contains all of its limit points. Thus every  $A \subset X$  is actually clopen.

**Indiscrete:** Only  $\emptyset$  and X.

Assume  $p \in X$ . Since  $p \notin \emptyset$ ,  $(X - \{p\}) \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$  and so p is not a limit point for  $\emptyset$ . Since X contains everything then it must contain its limit points. For any other  $A \subset X$ , assume  $p \neq A$ . Then:  $(\mathbb{R} - \{p\}) \cap A = A \neq \emptyset$  and thus p is a limit point for A not in A and therefore A is not closed.

**Cofinite:**  $\emptyset$ , X, and all finite sets.

Assume  $p \in X$  and  $U \in \mathscr{T}$  such that  $p \in U$ . Since  $p \notin \emptyset$ ,  $(U - \{p\}) \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$  and so p is not a limit point for  $\emptyset$ . Since X contains everything then it must contain its limit points.

Now, assume A is finite and  $p \notin A$ . Let  $U = X - A \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then:

$$(U - \{p\}) \cap A = U \cap A$$

$$= (X - A) \cap A$$

$$= (X \cap A) - (A \cap A)$$

$$= A - A$$

$$= \emptyset$$

Thus p is not a limit point for A and therefore A is closed.

Finally, assume A is infinite and  $p \notin A$ . Assume  $U \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $p \in U$ . But U = X - F for some finite set F. Then:

$$(U - \{p\}) \cap A = U \cap A$$

$$= (X - F) \cap A$$

$$= (X \cap A) - (F \cap A)$$

$$= A - (F \cap A)$$

$$\neq \emptyset$$

Thus p is a limit point for A not in A and therefore A is not closed.

**Cocountable:**  $\emptyset$ , X, and all countable sets.

Assume  $p \in X$  and  $U \in \mathscr{T}$  such that  $p \in U$ . Since  $p \notin \emptyset$ ,  $(U - \{p\}) \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$  and so p is not a limit point for  $\emptyset$ . Since X contains everything then it must contain its limit points.

Now, assume A is countable and  $p \notin A$ . Let  $U = X - A \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then:

$$(U - \{p\}) \cap A = U \cap A$$

$$= (X - A) \cap A$$

$$= (X \cap A) - (A \cap A)$$

$$= A - A$$

$$= \emptyset$$

Thus p is not a limit point for A and therefore A is closed.

Finally, assume A is uncountable and  $p \notin A$ . Assume  $U \in \mathscr{T}$  and  $p \in U$ . But U = X - C for some countable set C. Then:

$$(U - \{p\}) \cap A = U \cap A$$

$$= (X - C) \cap A$$

$$= (X \cap A) - (C \cap A)$$

$$= A - (C \cap A)$$

$$\neq \emptyset$$

Thus p is a limit point for A not in A and therefore A is not closed.

#### Lemma

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space,  $A \subset X$ , and  $p \in X$ :

$$p \in \bar{A} \iff \forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, U \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

*Proof.* By definition,  $p \in \bar{A}$  iff  $p \in A$  or  $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, (U - \{p\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . Assume that  $U \in \mathcal{U}_p$ . If  $p \in A$  then  $p \in U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . If  $p \notin A$  then  $(U - \{p\}) \cap A = U \cap A$ . In either case:  $p \in A$  or  $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, (U - \{p\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$  is logically equivalent to  $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .

#### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. For all  $A \subset X$ :

$$\bar{\bar{A}} = \bar{A}$$

*Proof.*  $\bar{\emptyset} = \bar{\emptyset} = \emptyset$  is vacuously true, so assume  $A \neq \emptyset$ .

 $ar{A}\subset ar{A}$  by definition, so assume  $p\in ar{A}$ . This means that for all  $U\in \mathcal{U}_p, U\cap ar{A}\neq \emptyset$ . So assume that  $U\in \mathcal{U}_p$  and  $x\in U\cap ar{A}$ , meaning  $x\in U$  and  $x\in ar{A}$ . But this is only true if  $U\cap A\neq \emptyset$  and so  $p\in ar{A}$ .

Therefore  $\bar{A} = \bar{A}$ .

#### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. For all  $A \subset X$ , A is closed iff X - A is open.

*Proof.* X is closed iff  $X - X = \emptyset$  is open is true, so assume that  $A \neq X$ .

 $\implies$  Assume A is closed.

Assume  $p \in X - A$ . Since  $p \notin A$ , p is not a limit point of A. Thus, there exists a neighborhood  $U_p$  of p such  $U_p \cap A = \emptyset$ . But this means that  $U_p \subset X - A$ .

Therefore X - A is open.

 $\iff$  Assume X - A is open.

Assume  $p \in X - A$ . So there exists a neighborhood  $U_p$  of p such that  $U_p \subset X - A$ . But this means that  $U_p \cap A = \emptyset$  and hence p is not a limit point of A. Thus A contains all of its limit points.

Therefore A is closed.

#### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space,  $U \subset X$  open, and  $A \subset X$  closed. U - A is open and A - U is closed.

Proof.

1.  $U-A=U\cap (X-A)$ . But U and X-A are both open.

Therefore U - A is open.

2.  $X-(A-U)=X-(A\cap (X-U))=(X-A)\cap (X-(X-U))=(X-A)\cap U.$  But X-A and U are both open and so X-(A-U) is open.

Therefore A-U is closed.

### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space:

- 1.  $\emptyset$  is closed.
- 2. X is closed.
- 3. The union of finitely many closed sets is closed.
- 4. Let  $\{A_{\alpha}: \alpha \in \lambda\}$  be a family of closed sets.  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \lambda} A_{\alpha}$  is closed.

Proof.

- 1. X is open, so  $X X = \emptyset$  is closed.
- 2.  $\emptyset$  is open, so  $X \emptyset = X$  is closed.
- 3.  $X \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} (X A_i)$ .

But the  $X - A_i$  are open and thus  $X - \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  is open.

Therefore  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  is closed.

4.  $X - \bigcap_{\alpha \in \lambda} A_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \lambda} (X - A_{\alpha}).$ 

But the  $X-A_{\alpha}$  are open and thus  $X-\bigcap_{\alpha\in\lambda}A_{\alpha}$  is open.

Therefore  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \lambda} A_{\alpha}$  is closed.

Example

Give an example to show that the union of infinitely many closed sets in a topological space may be a set that is not closed.

Consider the standard topology on R and the family of closed sets:  $\{[-a,a]:a\in[0,1)\}$ . The union of these sets is (-1,1), which is open.

# Example

Give examples of topological spaces and sets in them that are:

- 1. closed but not open.
- 2. open but not closed.
- 3. both open and closed.
- 4. neither open nor closed.

1. closed but not open.

 $\textbf{Standard:} \ [0,1].$ 

Discrete: None

Indiscrete: None

Cofinite:  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ 

Cocountable:  $\mathbb{Q}$ 

2. open but not closed.

Standard: (0,1).

Discrete: None

Indiscrete: None

Cofinite:  $\mathbb{R} - \{1, 2, 3\}$ 

Cocountable:  $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ 

3. both open and closed.

For all topologies, both  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Discrete:** (0,1)

4. neither open nor closed.

Standard: (0,1]

Discrete: None

Indiscrete: (0,1)

Cofinite: (0,1)

Cocountable: (0,1)

# Example

State whether each of the following sets are open, closed, both, or neither.

- 1. In  $\mathbb{Z}$  with the cofinite topology:
  - (a)  $\{0,1,2\}$  (closed)
  - (b)  $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \text{ is a prime number}\}$  (neither)
  - (c)  $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid |n| \ge 10\}$  (open)
- 2. In  $\mathbb{R}$  with the standard topology:

(a) 
$$(0,1)$$
 (open)

(b) 
$$(0,1]$$
 (neither)

(c) 
$$[0,1]$$
) (closed)

(d) 
$$0, 1$$
 (closed)

(e) 
$$\left\{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in N\right\}$$
 (neither)

3. In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with the standard topology:

(a) 
$$\{(x,y) | x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$$
 (closed)

(b) 
$$\{(x,y) | x^2 + y^2 > 1\}$$
 (open)

(c) 
$$\{(x,y) | x^2 + y^2 \ge 1\}$$
 (closed)

## **Notation**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and  $A \subset X$ :

$$C = \{B \subset X \mid B \text{ is closed}\}$$

$$C_A = \{B \in C \mid A \subset B\}$$

#### **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space and  $A \subset X$ . The closure of A equals the intersection of all closed sets containing A:

$$\bar{A} = \bigcap \mathcal{C}_A$$

Thus,  $\bar{A}$  is the smallest closed set containing A.

*Proof.* Since  $A \subset \bar{A}$  and  $\bar{A}$  is closed,  $\bar{A} \in \mathcal{C}_A$  and so:

$$\bar{A}\supset\bigcap\mathcal{C}_{A}$$

ABC:

$$\bar{A} \supsetneq \bigcap \mathcal{C}_A$$

This means that there exists some  $B' \in \mathcal{C}_A$  such that:

$$\bar{A} \supseteq \bar{A} \cap B' \supset A$$

where  $\bar{A} \cap B' \in \mathcal{C}$ .

This would imply that there exists some closed set containing A with less limit points of A than  $\bar{A}$ , which contradicts the definition of  $\bar{A}$ .

Therefore, 
$$\bar{A} = \bigcap \mathcal{C}_A$$
.

# Example

Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and let:

$$A = \{0\}$$

$$B = (0, 1)$$

$$C = [0, 1]$$

$$D = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

topology	$\bar{A}$	$\bar{B}$	$\bar{C}$	$\bar{D}$	$ar{\mathbb{Z}}$	$\mathbb{R}^-\mathbb{Q}$
discrete	A	B	C	D	$\mathbb{Z}$	$\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$
indiscrete	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$
cofinite	A	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	D	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$
standard	A	C	C	D	$\mathbb{Z}$	$\mathbb{R}$

## **Theorem**

Let  $(X, \mathscr{T})$  be a topological space and  $A, B \subset X$ :

1. 
$$A \subset B \implies \bar{A} \subset \bar{B}$$

2. 
$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

Proof.

1. Assume  $A \subset B$ .

Assume  $p \in \bar{A}$ . This means that:

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, U \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

But  $A \subset B$  and so

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_p, U \cap B \neq \emptyset$$

meaning that  $p \in \bar{B}$  as well.

Therefore  $\bar{A} \subset \bar{B}$ .

2. ( $\subset$ ) Since  $A \subset \bar{A}$  and  $B \subset \bar{B}$ :

$$A \cup B \subset \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$$

But  $\bar{A}\cap \bar{B}$  is closed and the smallest closed set containing  $A\cup B$  is  $\overline{A\cup B}$ . Therefore:

$$A \cup B \subset \overline{A \cup B} \subset \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$$

 $(\supset)$  Since  $A \subset A \cup B$ :

$$\bar{A} \subset \overline{A \cup B}$$

and similarly:

$$\bar{B}\subset \overline{A\cup B}$$

Therefore:

$$\bar{A} \cup \bar{B} \subset \overline{A \cup B}$$

## **Example**

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and  $\{A_{\alpha} : \alpha \in \lambda\}$  be a family of subsets of X. It is not necessarily the case that:

$$\overline{\bigcup_{\alpha \in \lambda} A_{\alpha}} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \lambda} \overline{A_{\alpha}}$$

Consider the counterexample where  $(\mathbb{R},\mathscr{T}_{\mathrm{std}})$  and  $A=\{[-\alpha,\alpha]\,|\,\alpha\in(0,1)\}$ :

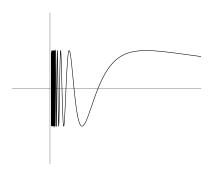
$$\overline{\bigcup_{\alpha \in \lambda} A_{\alpha}} = [-1, 1] \neq (-1, 1) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \lambda} \overline{A_{\alpha}}$$

# Example

Let  $(R^2, \mathscr{T})$ :

1. Topologist's Sine Curve

$$S = \left\{ \left( x, \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \right) \middle| x \in (0, 1) \right\}$$



$$\bar{S} = S \cup \{(1, \sin(1))\} \cup \{(0, y) \mid y \in [-1, 1]\}$$

2. Topologists Comb

$$C = \{(x,0) \mid x \in [0,1]\} \cap \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{n},1\right) \right) \mid y \in [0,1] \right\}$$



$$\bar{C} = C \cup \{(0,y) \, | \, y \in [0,1]\}$$

## **Example**

In  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathscr{T}_{\mathsf{std}})$ , the Cantor set  $\mathcal{C}$  is a non-empty subset of [0,1] such that:

- 1. C is closed.
- 2. C contains no non-empty open intervals.
- 3.  $\mathcal C$  contains no isolated points.