

# Review - Chapter 4: Basic Topology

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## 4.1 Open and Closed Sets

### Interval notation

For real numbers  $a \leq b$ , we define

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b) &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\} \\ [a, b] &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\} \\ [a, b) &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\} \\ (a, b] &= \dots\end{aligned}$$

These are simplest open, closed, and half-open (half-closed, clopen) sets everyone knows.

**Definition 1** (open sets). A set  $U$  is **open** if  $\forall x \in U$  we can find an  $\epsilon > 0$  so that  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset U$

Basically the set is open if all points are "padded" by other points in set. For any  $x \in (0, 1)$  there's always an infintude of points surrounding that  $x$ .

### How to prove a set $U$ is open

The general strategy is to fix some  $x \in U$  and then find an  $\epsilon$  so that  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset U$ .

**Example 1.** Show that the set  $U = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - m| < d\}$  is open

We need to find the appropriate  $\epsilon$ .

Start by fixing  $x \in U$ . If  $|x - m| < d$  then  $d - |x - m| > 0$ . This just says that the maximum allowed distance  $d$  is greater than whatever distance  $x$  actually is from  $m$ .

So lets pick this difference for  $\epsilon$ . We set  $\epsilon = d - |x - m|$ .

Whatever distance  $x$  is from  $m$ , adding less than  $\epsilon$  distance will never take  $x$  more than distance  $d$  from  $m$ . So now we just use this info to prove it.

*Proof.* Fix  $x \in U$  and set  $\epsilon = d - |x - m| > 0$ . Let  $t \in N_\epsilon(x)$ . Then  $|t - x| < \epsilon$  and

$$\begin{aligned}|t - m| &= |(t - x) + (x - m)| \\ &\leq |t - x| + |x - m| \\ &< d - |x - m| + |x - m| \\ &= d \\ &\implies t \in U\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset U$ . Get fucked, we done. □

Moving on..

Things we are about to cover:

- 1) The (possibly infinite) union of open sets is  $\rightarrow$  open
- 2) The finite intersection of open sets is  $\rightarrow$  open. Not necessarily true for infinite (think  $(-\frac{1}{j}, \frac{1}{j})$ ).
- 3) The (possible infinite) intersection of closed sets is  $\rightarrow$  closed
- 4) The finite union of of closed sets is  $\rightarrow$  closed.

Infinite intersections do weird things to open sets.

Infinite unions do weird things to closed sets.

**Theorem 1.** If  $U_\alpha$  are open sets (possibly denumerable or uncountable), then

$$U = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$$

is open.

How do we go about proving this. Again for any  $x \in U$  we need to produce  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset U$ . In this case we can just borrow an  $N_\epsilon$  whatever  $U_\alpha$  our  $x$  comes from.

*Proof.* Fix  $x \in U$ . Then  $x \in U_\alpha$  for some  $\alpha$ .  $U_\alpha$  is open so there exists an  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset U_\alpha \subset U$ .  $U$  is open. come get some little bitch. □

**Theorem 2.**  $U_1, U_2, U_3, \dots, U_k$  are open sets, then

$$V = \bigcap_{j=1}^k U_j$$

is open.

This time we can't just take some  $N_\epsilon(x)$  from  $U_j$ , assume it'll be a subset of  $V$  and call it a day. The intersection with other sets may subtract away some of our chosen  $N_\epsilon(x)$ . We have to pick the 'right'  $N_\epsilon(x)$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $x \in V$ . Then  $x \in U_j, \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Each of these sets are open so they all have corresponding neighborhoods  $N_{\epsilon_j}(x)$ . Let  $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_j : j = 1, 2, \dots, k\}$ . Then  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset U_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$

$$\implies N_\epsilon(x) \subset V$$

.

□

Again this is not necessarily true. For a situation like

$$\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} = \left(-\frac{1}{j}, \frac{1}{j}\right) \quad \text{or even} \quad \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} = \left(0, 1 + \frac{1}{j}\right)$$

we get closed and clopen sets respectively. 1 is in the second set but a suitable  $N_\epsilon(1)$  doesn't exist.

**Theorem 3.**  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a nonempty open set. Then for either finitely many or countably many ( $k = \infty$ ) pairwise disjoint open intervals  $I_j$ .

$$U = \bigcup_{j=1}^k I_j$$

*Proof.* This is the proof by equivalence relation. Setting  $a \cong b$  if  $(a, b) \subset U$  creates a partition with equivalence classes  $I_\alpha$ . Being equivalence classes means their union equals  $U$ . We just need to show the classes are open intervals. Clearly they're intervals. Let  $x \in I_\alpha$ . Then  $x \in U$  so we have a  $N_\epsilon(x)$ . We constructed the equivalence relation so that  $N_\epsilon(x) \subset I_\alpha$ . All the points in  $N_\epsilon(x)$  would have to be in  $I_\alpha$ . □

Basically, open intervals are the building blocks of open sets. If you have an open set, you can build it from a union of open intervals. This is trivial for open sets that are intervals themselves.

The contrapositive is interesting here. If you can't set  $U$  equal to a union of open intervals then  $U$  isn't an open set.

## Closed Sets

**Definition 2.**  $F \subset R$  is closed in the complement  $R \setminus F$  is open.

Immediately we should notice the potential contradiction. The sets  $\emptyset$  and  $R$  are both open by definition (vacuously true for  $\emptyset$ ). They are mutual complements so they should both also be closed. In fact they're both closed and open.. At least that's what I read on math stack.

**Example 2.** The set  $B = \{\frac{1}{j} : j = 1, 2, 3, \dots\} \cup \{0\}$  is closed because its complement is the union of open sets given by

$$(-\infty, 0) \cup \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{j+1}, \frac{1}{j}\right) \cup (1, \infty)$$

**Theorem 4.**