## 4 The Topology of $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition 4.1.** A set  $G \subset \mathbb{R}$  is *open* if for every  $x \in G$  there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G$ . A set  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  is *closed* if  $F^c$  is open.

*Example 4.1.* Any open interval (a, b) is open. To see this, let  $x \in (a, b)$  and  $\varepsilon = \min\{x - a, b - x\}$ . Then  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset (a, b)$ .

Open half-lines are also open sets. For example, let  $x \in (a, \infty)$  and  $\varepsilon = x - a$ . Then  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset (a, \infty)$ .

A singleton set  $\{a\}$  is closed. To see this, suppose  $x \neq a$  and  $\varepsilon = |x - a|$ . Then  $a \notin (x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon)$ , and  $\{a\}^c$  must be open. The definition of a closed set then implies  $\{a\}$  is closed.

There are sets which are neither open nor closed. For example, consider the half-open interval [0,1). To see it isn't open or closed, let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $(0 - \varepsilon, 0 + \varepsilon) \not\subset [0, 1)$  shows it cannot be open. Since  $(1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon) \not\subset [0, 1)^c$ , we see  $[0, 1)^c$  is not open, so [0, 1) cannot be closed.

- **Theorem 4.1.** (a) If  $\{G_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is a collection of open sets, then  $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$  is open.
  - (b) If  $\{G_k : 1 \le k \le n\}$  is a finite collection of open sets, then  $\bigcap_{k=1}^n G_k$  is open.
  - (c) Both  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  are open.
- *Proof.* (a) If  $x \in \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$ , then there is a  $\lambda_x \in \Lambda$  such that  $x \in G_{\lambda_x}$ . Since  $G_{\lambda_x}$  is open, there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $x \in (x \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G_{\lambda_x} \subset \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$ . This shows  $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$  is open.
- (b) If  $x \in \bigcap_{k=1}^{n} G_k$ , then  $x \in G_k$  for  $1 \le k \le n$ . For each  $G_k$  there is an  $\varepsilon_k$  such that  $(x \varepsilon_k, x + \varepsilon_k) \subset G_k$ . Let  $\varepsilon = \min\{\varepsilon_k : 1 \le k \le n\}$ . Then  $(x \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G_k$  for  $1 \le k \le n$ , so  $(x \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset \bigcap_{k=1}^{n} G_k$ . Therefore  $\bigcap_{k=1}^{n} G_k$  is open.
- (c)  $\emptyset$  is open vacuously.  $\mathbb{R}$  is obviously open.

Applying DeMorgan's laws to the parts of Theorem 4.1 immediately yields the following.

- **Corollary 4.2.** (a) If  $\{F_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is a collection of closed sets, then  $\bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$  is closed.
  - (b) If  $\{F_k : 1 \le k \le n\}$  is a finite collection of closed sets, then  $\bigcup_{k=1}^n G_k$  is closed.
  - (c) Both  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  are closed.

Notice that  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  are both open and closed. They are the only subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  with this dual personality.

Section 4: The Topology of  $\mathbb{R}$ 

**Definition 4.2.**  $x_0$  is a limit point of  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $(x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \cap S \setminus \{x_0\} \neq \emptyset$ . The *derived set* of S is

$$S' = \{x : x \text{ is a limit point of } S\}.$$

A point  $x_0 \in S \setminus S'$  is an *isolated point* of S.

Notice that limit points of S need not be elements of S, but isolated points of S must be elements of S. In a sense, limit points and isolated points are at opposite extremes. The definitions can be restated as follows:

 $x_0$  is a limit point of S iff  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, S \cap (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \setminus \{x_0\} \neq \emptyset$  $x_0 \in S$  is an isolated point of S iff  $\exists \varepsilon > 0, S \cap (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \setminus \{x_0\} = \emptyset$ 

Example 4.2. If S = (0, 1], then S' = [0, 1] and S has no isolated points.

*Example 4.3.* If  $T = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}\}$ , then  $T' = \{0\}$  and all points of T are isolated points of T.

**Theorem 4.3.**  $x_0$  is a limit point of S iff there is a sequence  $x_n \in S \setminus \{x_0\}$  such that  $x_n \to x_0$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  choose  $x_n \in S \cap (x_0 - 1/n, x_0 + 1/n) \setminus \{x_0\}$ . Then  $|x_n - x_0| < 1/n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $x_n \to x_0$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $x_n$  is a sequence from  $x_n \in S \setminus \{x_0\}$  converging to  $x_0$ . If  $\varepsilon > 0$ , the definition of convergence for a sequence yields an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that whenever  $n \ge N$ , then  $x_n \in S \cap (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \setminus \{x_0\}$ . This shows  $S \cap (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \setminus \{x_0\} \neq \emptyset$ , and  $x_0$  must be a limit point of S.

**Theorem 4.4.** A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$  is closed iff it contains all its limit points.

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose S is closed and  $x_0$  is a limit point of S. If  $x_0 \notin S$ , then  $S^c$  open implies the existence of  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $(x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \cap S = \emptyset$ . This contradicts the fact that  $x_0$  is a limit point of S. Therefore,  $x_0 \in S$ , and S contains all its limit points.

 $(\Leftarrow)$  Since S contains all its limit points, if  $x_0 \notin S$ , there must exist an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $(x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ . It follows from this that  $S^c$  is open. Therefore S is closed.

**Definition 4.3.** The *closure* of a set S is the set  $\overline{S} = S \cup S'$ .

For the set S of Example 4.2,  $\overline{S} = [0, 1]$ . In Example 4.3,  $\overline{T} = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}\} \cup \{0\}$ . According to Theorem 4.4, the closure of any set is a closed set.

**Problem 16.** If  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\overline{S}$  is the smallest closed set containing S. (In this case "smallest" means that if T is any closed set with  $S \subset T$ , then  $\overline{S} \subset T$ .)

**Theorem 4.5 (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem).** A set which is both bounded and infinite has a limit point. *Proof.* For the purposes of this proof, if I = [a, b] is a closed interval, let  $I^L = [a, (a + b)/2]$  be the closed left half of I and  $I^R = [(a + b)/2, b]$  be the closed right half of I.

Suppose S is a bounded and infinite set. The assumption that S is bounded implies the existence of an interval  $I_1 = [-B, B]$  containing S. Since S is infinite, at least one of the two sets  $I_1^L \cap S$  or  $I_1^R \cap S$  is infinite. Let  $I_2$  be either  $I_1^L$  or  $I_1^R$  such that  $I_2 \cap S$  is infinite.

If  $I_n$  is such that  $I_n \cap S$  is infinite, let  $I_{n+1}$  be either  $I_n^L$  or  $I_n^R$ , where  $I_{n+1} \cap S$  is infinite.

In this way, a nested sequence of intervals,  $I_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , is defined such that  $I_n \cap S$  is infinite for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and the length of  $I_n$  is  $B/2^{n-2} \to 0$ . According to the Nested Interval Theorem, there is an  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n = \{x_0\}$ .

To see that  $x_0$  is a limit point of S, let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $B/2^{n-2} < \varepsilon$ . Then  $x_0 \in I_n \subset (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon)$ . Since  $I_n \cap S$  is infinite, we see  $S \cap (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \setminus \{x_0\} \neq \emptyset$ . Therefore,  $x_0$  is a limit point of S.

Using pretty much the same idea, the following can be proved.

## Corollary 4.6. Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

*Proof.* For the purposes of this proof, if I = [a, b] is a closed interval, let  $I^L = [a, (a + b)/2]$  be the closed left half of I and  $I^R = [(a + b)/2, b]$  be the closed right half of I.

Let  $a_n$  be a bounded sequence and choose B > 0 such that  $\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset I_1 = [-B, B]$ . At least one of the two sets  $\{n : a_n \in I_1^L\}$  or  $\{n : a_n \in I_1^L\}$  must be infinite. If  $\{n : a_n \in I_1^L\}$  is infinite, let  $I_2 = I_1^L$ . Otherwise,  $I_2 = I_1^R$ .

Assume that  $I_m$  has been chosen for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\{n : a_n \in I_m\}$  is infinite. At least one of the two sets  $\{n : a_n \in I_m^L\}$  or  $\{n : a_n \in I_m^L\}$  must be infinite. If  $\{n : a_n \in I_m^L\}$  is infinite, let  $I_{m+1} = I_m^L$ . Otherwise,  $I_{m+1} = I_m^R$ .

In this way, a nested sequence of closed intervals,  $I_n$ , has been inductively defined, where the length of  $I_n$  is  $B/2^{n-2} \to 0$ . An application of the Nested Interval Theorem yields  $\{x\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n$ . It suffices to find a subsequence of  $a_n$  converging to x.

To do this, let  $b_1 = a_{m_1}$ , where  $m_1$  is an arbitrary positive integer. Assuming  $b_n = a_{m_n}$  has been chosen, pick  $b_{n+1} = a_{m_{n+1}}$  from  $I_{n+1}$  so that  $m_{n+1} > m_n$ . It is possible to do this because  $\{n : a_n \in I_{n+1}\}$  is infinite. In this way, a subsequence  $b_n$  of  $a_n$  has been inductive defined. Since  $|b_n - x| \le B/2^{n-2} \to 0$ , it's clear  $b_n \to x$ .

**Corollary 4.7.** If  $\{F_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a nested collection of nonempty closed and bounded sets, then  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F_n \neq \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* Form a sequence  $x_n$  by choosing  $x_n \in F_n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since the  $F_n$  are nested,  $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset F_1$ , and the boundedness of  $F_1$  implies  $x_n$  is a bounded sequence. An application of Corollary 4.6 yields a subsequence  $y_n$  of  $x_n$  such that  $y_n \to y$ . It suffices to prove  $y \in F_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

To do this, fix  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ . Because  $y_n$  is a subsequence of  $x_n$  and  $x_{n_0} \in F_{n_0}$ , it is easy to see  $y_n \in F_{n_0}$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ . Using the fact that  $y_n \to y$ , we see  $y \in F'_{n_0}$ . Since  $F_{n_0}$  is closed, Theorem 4.4 shows  $y \in F_{n_0}$ .

**Extra Credit 6.** An uncountable subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  must have a limit point.