

We recall first some operations with sets:

(28)

Let  $A$  be any set. We can use  $\alpha \in A$  to describe a family of sets  $\{E_\alpha\}$ .

Ex: If  $A = J = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , we would have  $E_1, E_2, E_3, \dots$

Notation:  $\Leftrightarrow$  means "if and only if"

$\exists$  means "there exists"

$\forall$  means "for all".

$\Rightarrow$  means "implies"

s.t. means "such that"

Union of sets:

$$S = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha$$

$$x \in S \Leftrightarrow \exists \alpha \in A \text{ s.t. } x \in E_\alpha$$

Intersection of sets:

$$P = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha$$

$$x \in P \Leftrightarrow x \in E_\alpha \quad \forall \alpha \in A.$$

Ex: If  $A = J = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  we write:

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i, \quad S = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i$$

If  $A = J_n$ :

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i, \quad S = \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$$

Note: If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$  then we say that  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint.

Ex: Let  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < x \leq 1\}$ . We define:  
 $E_x = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < y < x\}, x \in A.$

Claim:  $\bigcup_{x \in A} E_x = E_1$

Clearly,  $E_1 \subset \bigcup_{x \in A} E_x$

We need to show that  $(\bigcup_{x \in A} E_x) \subset E_1$  :

Let  $y \in \bigcup_{x \in A} E_x$ .

$\Rightarrow y \in E_x$ , for some  $x \in A$

$\Rightarrow 0 < y < x \leq 1$

$\Rightarrow 0 < y < 1$

$\Rightarrow y \in E_1$ , which gives the desired inclusion

(Recall, two sets are equal, say  $P = S$ , if and only if  $P \subset S$  and  $S \subset P$ ).

Claim  $\bigcap_{x \in A} E_x = \emptyset$

Let  $y > 0$ . Pick  $0 < x < y$ . Then  $y \notin E_x$  and hence  $y \notin \bigcap_{x \in A} E_x$ . We conclude that:

$$\bigcap_{x \in A} E_x = \emptyset.$$

Properties of unions and intersections:

(30)

(a)  $A \cup B = B \cup A$  (also,  $A \cap B = B \cap A$ )

(b)  $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$

[also,  $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$ ]

(c)  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$

(d)  $A \subset A \cup B$

(e)  $A \cap B \subset A$

(f)  $A \cup \emptyset = A$ ,  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$

(g) If  $A \subset B \Rightarrow A \cup B = B$ ,  $A \cap B = A$ .

Proof of (c) :

Let  $E = A \cap (B \cup C)$  and  $F = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$

The following is true:

$$x \in E \Leftrightarrow x \in A \text{ AND } x \in B \cup C$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x \in A \text{ AND } x \in B) \text{ OR } (x \in A \text{ AND } x \in C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in A \cap B \text{ or } x \in A \cap C$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in F.$$

Theorem 2.12 : Let  $\{E_n\}$ ,  $n=1, 2, \dots$  be a sequence of countable sets, then:

$$S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \text{ is also countable}$$

Proof: We arrange every  $E_n$  in a sequence  $\{x_{nk}\}$ ,  $k=1, 2, \dots$

$E_1 :$	<del><math>x_{11}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{12}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{13}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{14}</math></del>	$\dots$
$E_2 :$	<del><math>x_{21}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{22}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{23}</math></del>	$x_{24}$	$\dots$
$E_3 :$	<del><math>x_{31}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{32}</math></del>	<del><math>x_{33}</math></del>	$x_{34}$	$\dots$
$E_4 :$	<del><math>x_{41}</math></del>	$x_{42}$	$x_{43}$	$x_{44}$	$\dots$

All the elements of  $S$  can be arranged in a single sequence:

$$x_{11}, x_{21}, x_{12}, x_{31}, x_{22}, x_{13}, x_{41}, x_{32}, x_{23}, x_{14}, \dots$$

Since elements can repeat in this sequence, it follows that there is a set  $T \subset J$  such that:

$$S \sim T.$$

We note that  $S$  is an infinite set because  $E_1 \subset S$  and  $E_1$  is an infinite set. Therefore, Theorem 2.8 yields that  $S$  is countable.

Corollary: Suppose  $A$  is at most countable, and for every  $\alpha \in A$ ,  $B_\alpha$  is at most countable. Then:

$$T = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} B_\alpha$$

is at most countable.

Proof:  $T$  is equivalent to a subset of  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_n$

Theorem 2.13: Let  $A$  be a countable set, and let  $B_n$  be the set of all  $n$ -tuples  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ , where  $a_k \in A$ ,  $k=1, \dots, n$ , and the elements  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  need not be distinct. Then  $B_n$  is countable.

Proof:  $B_1$  is countable since  $B_1 = A$ . We now proceed by induction. Suppose  $B_{n-1}$  is countable ( $n \geq 2$ ). We note that:

$$B_n = \{ (b, a), b \in B_{n-1}, a \in A \}$$

For every fixed  $b$ :

$$C_b = \{ (b, a) : a \in A \} \sim A \text{ is countable.}$$

Since:

$$B_n = \bigcup_{b \in B_{n-1}} C_b,$$

it follows from Theorem 2.12 that  $B_n$  is countable (because it is the union of countable sets).

Corollary:  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable

Proof: Theorem 2.13 yields that:

$$B_2 = \{(a, b) : (a, b \text{ are integers})\}$$

is countable. The integers are  $A = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots\}$ .

Every element  $\frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$  can be identified with the pair  $(p, q)$ . Not all elements of  $B_2$  belong to  $\mathbb{Q}$  (i.e;  $(2, 0), (0, 0)$ ), but we can identify  $\mathbb{Q}$  with a subset of  $B_2$ . Then, from Theorem 2.8 it follows that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable.  $\square$



## Open and Closed Sets.

Def 2.18. Let  $X$  be a metric space

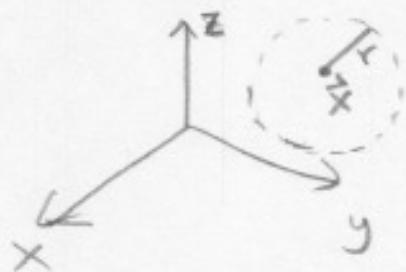
(a) A neighborhood of a point  $p$  is a set  $N_r(p)$  given by:

$$N_r(p) = \{q \in X : d(p, q) < r\}$$

Ex: If  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

$$N_r(\vec{x}) = \{\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{y} - \vec{x}| < r\}$$

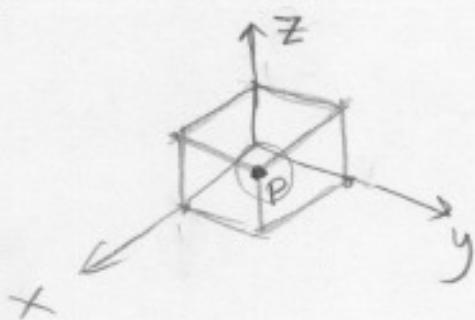
This is a ball of radius  $r$  that does not include its boundary.



If  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , neighborhoods are open intervals.

(b)  $p$  is a limit point of the set  $E$  if every neighborhood of  $p$  contains a point  $q \neq p$ ,  $q \in E$

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $E = (0, 1) \times (0, 1) \times (0, 1)$



$p = (1, 1, 1)$  is a limit point of  $E$

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ,  $p = 0$  is a limit point of  $E$  because every interval  $(-r, r)$  contains a point of  $E$ ,  $p = 1$  is not a limit point.

(c) If  $p \in E$  and  $p$  is not a limit point of  $E$ , then  $p$  is called an isolated point of  $E$ .

Ex: In previous example in (b),  $p=1$  is an isolated point.

(d)  $E$  is closed if every limit point of  $E$  is a point of  $E$ .

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$

$E = \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{x}| \leq r \}$  is closed.



Ex:  $E = \{ \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \}$  is not closed, since  $0 \notin E$

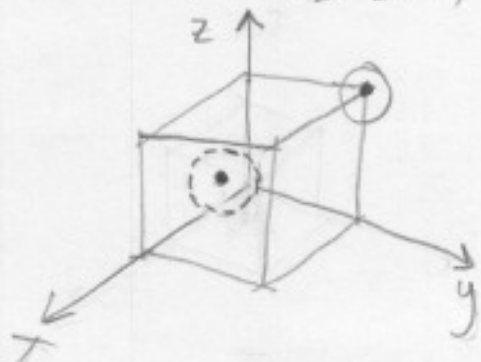
(e)  $p$  is an interior point of  $E$  if there is a neighborhood  $N(p)$  of  $p$  such that  $N(p) \subseteq E$

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$

$E = [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$

$p = (1, 1, 1)$  is not an interior point

$p = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  is an interior point.





(f)  $E$  is open if every point of  $E$  is an interior point of  $E$

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$



Note: if we take  $\bar{p} \in Br(\vec{x})$ , no matter how close  $p$  is to the boundary, we can find  $\tilde{r}$  very small such that  $Br(\vec{p}) \subset Br(\vec{x})$

Every neighborhood  $N_r(\vec{x})$  is an open ball, sometimes denoted as  $Br(\vec{x})$ .

(g) the complement of  $E$  is:

$$E^c = \{p \in X : p \notin E\}$$

(h)  $E$  is perfect if  $E$  is closed and if every point of  $E$  is a limit point of  $E$

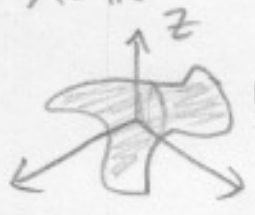
Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$

$E = [0,1] \times [0,1] \times [0,1]$  is perfect

$X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $E = [0,1] \cup \{2\}$  is not perfect since 2 is not a limit point of  $E$ .

(i)  $E$  is bounded if  $\exists M$  and  $q \in X$  s.t.  $d(p, q) < M, \forall p \in E$

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$



$E$  is bounded.

(j)  $E$  is dense in  $X$  if every point of  $X$  is a limit point of  $E$ , or a point of  $E$  (or both).

Claim:  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Proof: Let  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  an irrational number. and let  $r > 0$  arbitrary positive number. We need to show that  $(z-r, z+r)$  contains a rational number. Let  $x := z-r$ ,  $y := z+r$ . Since  $y-x > 0$ , the Archimedean property implies that there exists  $m \in \mathbb{J}$  such that  $0 < \frac{1}{m} < y-x$ . Again, the Archimedean property yields the existence of  $n \in \mathbb{J}$  such that

$$n\left(\frac{1}{m}\right) > x, \quad (\text{i.e., } x < \frac{n}{m})$$

and we let this  $n$  be the least such natural number; that is:

$$\frac{n-1}{m} \leq x < \frac{n}{m}$$

We must have that  $\frac{n}{m} < y$ , for otherwise we would have  $\frac{n-1}{m} \leq x < y \leq \frac{n}{m} \Rightarrow y-x \leq \frac{n}{m} - \frac{n-1}{m} = \frac{1}{m}$

which contradicts that  $y-x > \frac{1}{m}$ . We conclude;

$$x < \frac{n}{m} < y. \quad \square$$

Def:  $X$  metric space,  $E \subset X$ .

Define

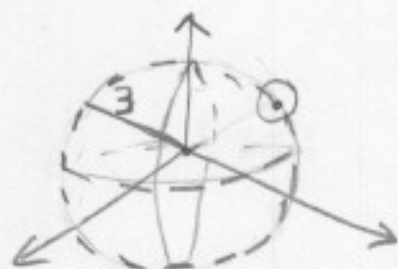
(a)  $E' = \{p \in X : p \text{ is a limit point of } E\}$

(b) The closure of  $E$  is defined as:

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

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{R}^3$

$$E = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{x}| < 3\}$$



$E$  is an open ball of radius 3.

$$E' = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{x}| \leq 3\}$$

$$\bar{E} = E \cup E' = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{x}| \leq 3\}$$

In the notation of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ :

$$\bar{E} = \bar{B}_3(0)$$

Remark: The topological boundary of  $E \subset X$  defined as:

$$\partial E = \bar{E} \setminus E^\circ$$

$$\text{Ex: } E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, \dots\}, \partial E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{0\}$$

$p \in \partial E$  if for every neighborhood  $N_r(p)$ :

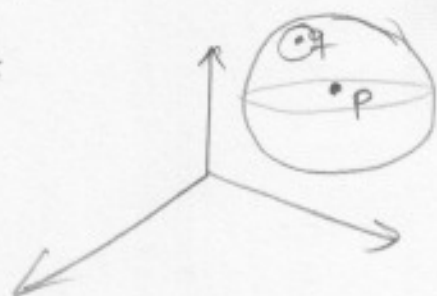
$$N_r(p) \cap E \neq \emptyset \text{ and } N_r(p) \cap E^c \neq \emptyset.$$

$$\text{Ex. For } E = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{x}| < 3\}, \partial E = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |\vec{x}| = 3\}.$$

Theorem 2.19. Every neighborhood is an open set.

(39)

Proof:



Let  $E = N_r(p)$  and let  $q \in E$ . Since  $d(p, q) < r$  then  $\exists h > 0$  such that:  
$$d(p, q) = r - h$$

We consider the neighborhood of  $q$ :

$$N_h(q) = \{s : d(s, q) < h\}$$

It remains to show that  $N_h(q) \subset E$ . Let  $s \in N_h(q)$ , then:

$$\begin{aligned} d(s, p) &\leq d(s, q) + d(q, p) \\ &< h + r - h = r, \end{aligned}$$

and thus  $s \in E$ .

Theorem 2.20: If  $p$  is a limit point of a set  $E$ , then every neighborhood of  $p$  contains infinitely many points of  $E$ .

Proof: Suppose that there exists  $N_r(p)$  that contains only a finite number of points of  $E$ , say  $q_1, \dots, q_n$ ,  $q_i \neq p$ . Let  $r = \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} d(p, q_i)$

Then,  $N_r(p) \cap E = \{p\}$  or  $\emptyset$ , which in any case means that  $p$  is not a limit point of  $E$ . This a contradiction.  $\square$

• Examples:

\* A finite point set has no limit points.

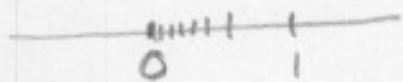
Ex:  $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$  has no limit points.

\*  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$  is closed, perfect, open but not bounded.

\*  $E = \{\text{integers}\} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is closed, not perfect, not bounded

\*  $E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  is not closed since 0 is a limit point and  $0 \notin E$ .  $E$  is not open since  $\frac{1}{2}$  is not an interior point.

(actually, for any  $n$ ,  $\frac{1}{n}$  is not an interior point)



Theorem 2.22:  $(\bigcup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha})^c = \bigcap_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}^c$

Proof: Let  $A := (\bigcup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha})^c$ ,  $B = \bigcap_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}^c$

Let  $x \in A \Rightarrow x \notin E_{\alpha} \forall \alpha \in A \Rightarrow x \in E_{\alpha}^c \forall \alpha \in A$   
 $\Rightarrow x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}^c \Rightarrow x \in B \Rightarrow A \subset B$

Let  $x \in B \Rightarrow x \in E_{\alpha}^c \forall \alpha \in A \Rightarrow x \notin E_{\alpha} \forall \alpha \in A$

$\Rightarrow x \notin \bigcup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha} \Rightarrow x \in (\bigcup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha})^c \Rightarrow x \in A \Rightarrow B \subset A$

Since  $A \subset B$ ,  $B \subset A \Rightarrow A = B$ .