Math 54 Summer 2015
Homework \#4: closed sets and limit points - Elements of solution
(1) Prove the following result:

Theorem Let $X$ be a set and $\gamma: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$ a map such that
(i) $\gamma(\emptyset)=\emptyset$;
(ii) $A \subset \gamma(A)$;
(iii) $\gamma(\gamma(A))=\gamma(A)$;
(iv) $\gamma(A \cup B)=\gamma(A) \cup \gamma(B)$.

Then the family $\mathcal{T}=\{X \backslash \gamma(A), A \subset X\}$ is a topology in which $\bar{A}=\gamma(A)$.
First, we prove that $A \subset B \Rightarrow \gamma(A) \subset \gamma(B)$. To do so, observe that $A \subset B$ is equivalent to $A \cup B=B$. Therefore, $\gamma(B)=\gamma(A \cup B) \stackrel{(\text { iv })}{=} \gamma(A) \cup \gamma(B) \supset \gamma(A)$. (O1) The subset $X=X \backslash \emptyset \stackrel{(\mathrm{i})}{=} X \backslash \gamma(\emptyset)$ is in $\mathcal{T}$. Moreover, (ii) implies that $X=\gamma(X)$ so $\emptyset=X \backslash \gamma(X)$ is also in $\mathcal{T}$.
(O2) Let $\left\{U_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be a family such that $U_{\alpha}=X \backslash \gamma\left(A_{\alpha}\right)$ for each $\alpha \in J$, and $U=\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}$. De Morgan's Laws imply that

$$
X \backslash U=\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}
$$

and we want to prove that this set is of the form $\gamma(B)$ for some subset $B$ of $X$. Since $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} \gamma\left(A_{\alpha}\right) \subset \gamma\left(A_{\alpha}\right)$ for all $\alpha \in J$, and $\gamma$ preserves inclusions, we get, for all $\alpha \in J$,

$$
\gamma(X \backslash U) \subset \gamma\left(\gamma\left(A_{\alpha}\right)\right) \stackrel{(\mathrm{iiii})}{=} \gamma\left(A_{\alpha}\right)
$$

so that $\gamma(X \backslash U) \subset \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} \gamma\left(A_{\alpha}\right)=X \backslash U$, the reverse inclusion is guaranteed by (ii), hence $X \backslash U=\gamma(X \backslash U)$, that is,

$$
U=X \backslash \gamma(X \backslash U)
$$

and $\mathcal{T}$ is stable under arbitrary unions.
(O3) Let $\left\{U_{i}=X \backslash \gamma\left(A_{i}\right)\right\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ be a finite family of elements of $\mathcal{T}$. De Morgan's Laws imply that

$$
X \backslash \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}=X \backslash \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \gamma\left(A_{i}\right)=X \backslash \gamma\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right)
$$

where the last equality follows from (iv) by induction. This shows that $\mathcal{T}$ is stable under finite intersections, which concludes the proof that it is a topology on $X$.
Let $A$ be a subset of $X$. Then $\gamma(A)$ is closed by definition of $\mathcal{T}$ and $A \subset \gamma(A)$ by (ii) so $\bar{A} \subset \gamma(A)$. Conversely, observe that $X \backslash \bar{A}$, being open, is of the form $X \backslash \gamma(B)$, that is, $\bar{A}=\gamma(B)$ for some $B \subset X$. Since $A \subset \bar{A}$, and $\gamma$ preserves inclusions, it follows that

$$
\gamma(A) \subset \gamma(\bar{A})=\gamma(\gamma(B)) \stackrel{(\mathrm{iii})}{=} \gamma(B)=\bar{A},
$$

hence $\gamma(A)=\bar{A}$.
(2) (a) Show that a topological space $X$ is Hausdorff if and only if the diagonal $\Delta=\{(x, x), x \in X\}$ is closed in $X \times X$.

A key observation is that for $A$ and $B$ subsets of $X$, the condition $A \cap B=\emptyset$ is equivalent to $(A \times B) \cap \Delta=\emptyset$.
Now, assume $X$ Hausdorff and let $(x, y) \in(X \times X) \backslash \Delta$. Since $x \neq y$, there exist disjoint open sets $U_{x} \ni x$ and $U_{y} \ni y$. By definition of the product topology, $U=U_{x} \times U_{y}$ is a neighborhood of $(x, y)$ and by the preliminary observation, $U \cap \Delta=\emptyset$ so $X \times X \backslash \Delta$ is open hence $\Delta$ is closed.
Conversely, assume that $\Delta$ is closed and let $x \neq y$ in $X$. Since $(x, y)$ belongs to $(X \times X) \backslash \Delta$ assumed open, there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $(x, y)$ such that $V \cap \Delta=\emptyset$. Product of open sets form a basis for the topology of $X \times X$, so there exist open sets $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ such that $(x, y) \in U_{1} \times U_{2} \subset V$ so $\left(U_{1} \times U_{2}\right) \cap \Delta=\emptyset$ which, by the preliminary observation again, guarantees that $U_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ are disjoint neighborhoods of $x$ and $y$ respectively.
(b) Determine the accumulation points of $A=\left\{\frac{1}{m}+\frac{1}{n}, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Let $A^{\prime}$ denote the set of accumulation points of $A$. The fact that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}=0$ implies that $\left\{\frac{1}{p}, p \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}\right\} \cup\{0\} \subset A^{\prime}$. Let us prove the converse inclusion. First, observe that if an interval $(a, b)$ with $a>0$ contains infinitely many elements of the form $\frac{1}{m}+\frac{1}{n}$, then one of the variables $m$ and $n$ must take only finitely many values, while the other takes infinitely many values. Now let $x \in A^{\prime}$ with $x>0$. For any $\varepsilon>0$, the set $B_{\varepsilon}=(x-\varepsilon, x+\varepsilon) \cap A$ must be infinite. Without loss of generality, we can assume that

$$
B_{\varepsilon}=\left\{\frac{1}{m}+\frac{1}{n}, m \in F, n \in I_{m}\right\}
$$

with $F$ finite and at least one $I_{m}$ infinite, say $I_{m_{0}}$. For all $n \in I_{m_{0}}$, we have

$$
\left|\left|x-\frac{1}{m_{0}}\right|-\frac{1}{n}\right| \leq\left|x-\frac{1}{m_{0}}-\frac{1}{n}\right|<\varepsilon
$$

For $n$ large enough, the left-hand side can be made arbitrarily close to $\left|x-\frac{1}{m_{0}}\right|$, in particular, we get that $\frac{1}{2}\left|x-\frac{1}{m_{0}}\right|<\varepsilon$. If $x>0$ is not of the form $\frac{1}{m_{0}}$ for any $m_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}$, then there exists a positive minimum value for the numbers $\frac{1}{2}\left|x-\frac{1}{m_{0}}\right|$ and $B_{\varepsilon}$ cannot be infinite for arbitrarily small values of $\varepsilon$.
(3) The boundary of a subset $A$ in a topological space $X$ is defined by

$$
\partial A=\bar{A} \cap \overline{X \backslash A} .
$$

(a) Show that $\bar{A}=\AA \sqcup \partial A^{1}$.

If $x \in \AA$, there exists a neighborhood of $A$ that is included in $A$. If $x \in \partial A$, in particular $x \in \overline{X \backslash A}$ so every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $X \backslash A$. This is a contradiction so $A \cap \partial A=\emptyset$.
The interior and boundary of $A$ are included in $\bar{A}$ by definition so the inclusion $\bar{A} \supset \AA \sqcup \partial A$ is trivial. Conversely, let $x \in \bar{A}$. If $x$ has a neighborhood $U$ such that $U \subset A$, then $x \in \AA$. The alternative is that every neighborhood of $x$ has non-empty intersection with $X \backslash A$, that is $x \in \overline{X \backslash A}$ so that $x \in \partial A$. Therefore, $\bar{A} \subset \AA \sqcup \partial A$, which concludes the proof.
(b) Show that $\partial A=\emptyset$ if and only if $A$ is open and closed.

By definition of the interior and the closure, $\AA \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}$ and $A$ is open and closed if and only if $\AA=\bar{A}$. By (a), this is equivalent to $\partial A=\emptyset$.
(c) Show that $U$ is open if and only if $\partial U=\bar{U} \backslash U$.

The result of (a) states that $U$ and $\stackrel{\circ}{U}$ are complements in $\bar{U}$, so $\stackrel{\circ}{U}=\bar{U} \backslash \partial U$ and $U$ is equal to $\stackrel{O}{U}$, that is, $U$ is open if and only if $U=\bar{U} \backslash \partial U$, which is equivalent to the condition $\partial U=\bar{U} \backslash U$.
(d) If $U$ is open, is it true that $U=\stackrel{\circ}{U}$ ?

If $U$ is open, the inclusion $U \subset \bar{U}$ implies that $U \subset \stackrel{\circ}{U}$. However, the reverse inclusion may fail: consider for instance $U=\mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$ in $\mathbb{R}$. It is open as the union of open intervals and $\bar{U}=\mathbb{R}$ so that $\stackrel{\circ}{U}=\mathbb{R} \supsetneq U$.

[^0](4) Find the boundary and interior of each of the following subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
(a) $A=\{(x, y), y=0\}$
(b) $B=\{(x, y), x>0$ and $y \neq 0\}$
(c) $C=A \cup B$
(d) $D=\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R}$
(e) $E=\left\{(x, y), 0<x^{2}-y^{2} \leq 1\right\}$
(f) $F=\left\{(x, y), x \neq 0\right.$ and $\left.y \leq \frac{1}{x}\right\}$

Note that, except for (d), a picture is very helpful to determine the boundary and interior of the subsets at hand before rigorously justifying the intuition, using what is known about the (metric) topology of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
(a) Observe that $A$ is closed, as the complement of $\mathbb{R} \times(-\infty, 0) \cup(0,+\infty)$ which is open as a product of open sets. Another way to see this is to remark that every element of $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash A$ is of the form $(x, y)$ with $y \neq 0$, and for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the basis element

$$
V=(x-1, x+1) \times\left(y-\frac{|y|}{2}, y+\frac{|y|}{2}\right)
$$

satisfies $(x, y) \in V \subset \mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash A$.
Moreover, the interior of $A$ is empty: every element of $A$ is of the form ( $x, 0$ ), any neighbourhood of which contains a basis element $(a, b) \times(c, d)$ with $c<0<d$, which in turn cannot be included in $A$, for it contains $\left(x, \frac{d}{2}\right) \notin A$.
We conclude that $\AA=\emptyset$ and $\partial A=A$.
(b) Note that $B=(0,+\infty) \times(-\infty, 0) \cup(0,+\infty)$ is open as a product of open sets. Another way to see this is to consider $(x, y) \in B$, that is, $x>0$ and $y \neq 0$. Then

$$
V=\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{3 x}{2}\right) \times\left(y-\frac{|y|}{2}, y+\frac{|y|}{2}\right)
$$

is a neighborhood of $(x, y)$ that is contained in $B$, which is therefore open.
Finally, $B$ is open because it is the inverse image of $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash A$ open under the continuous map $(x, y) \mapsto(\ln x, y)$.
Let us prove that the closure of $B$ is the closed half-plane $R$ defined by $x \geq 0$. Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $(x, y) \in R$. If $(x, y) \in B$, there is nothing to prove. If $x y=0$, then $V$ contains a subset of the form $(a, b) \times(c, d)$ with $0<b$ and $c d \neq 0$ so $\left(\frac{x+b}{2}, \frac{y+d}{2}\right)$ or $\left(\frac{x+b}{2}, \frac{y+c}{2}\right)$ belongs to $V \cap B$, which is therefore not empty. We have proved that $R \subset \bar{B}$. The converse inclusion follows from the same argument invoked to prove that $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash A$ is open.
Since $B$ is open, it follows from (c) in the previous problem that $\partial B=\bar{B} \backslash B$, that is $\partial B$ is the union of the vertical axis and the positive horizontal axis.
(c) Since $\overline{A \cup B}=\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$, it follows form (a) and (b) that $\bar{C}=R \cup A$ consists of the points $(x, y)$ such that $x \geq 0$ or $y=0$.

Next, $\dot{C}$ is the right half-plane $(0,+\infty) \times \mathbb{R}$ : this set is open as the product of open sets and it is maximal. Indeed, if $x \leq 0$, then any neighborhood of $(x, y)$ contains a subset of the form $(a, b) \times(c, d)$ with $a<0$ and $c d \neq 0$ so $\left(\frac{x+a}{2}, \frac{y+d}{2}\right)$ or $\left(\frac{x+a}{2}, \frac{y+c}{2}\right)$ belongs to $V \cap\left(\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash C\right)$, which is therefore not empty.
It follows from the result proved in (a) of the previous problem that $\partial C=\bar{C} \backslash \dot{C}$ is the union of the vertical axis and the negative horizontal axis.
(d) Every non-empty open interval of $\mathbb{R}$ contains infinitely many rational and irrational numbers, so every product of intervals contains infinitely many elements of $D$ and $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash D$. Therefore, $\partial D=\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and, since $\partial D=\bar{D} \backslash \stackrel{D}{D}$, it follows immediately that $D=\emptyset$.
(e) First, observe that the set $\Omega=\left\{(x, y), 0<x^{2}-y^{2}<1\right\}$ is open, for instance as the inverse image of the open set $(0,1)$ under the map $(x, y) \mapsto x^{2}-y^{2}$, which is polynomial, hence continuous.
A similar argument, shows that $\Gamma=\left\{(x, y), 0 \leq x^{2}-y^{2} \leq 1\right\}$ is closed. Since $\Omega \subset E \subset \Gamma$, we get the chain of inclusions $\Omega \subset E^{\circ} \subset \bar{E} \subset \Gamma$, hence

$$
\partial E=\bar{E} \backslash \stackrel{\circ}{E} \subset \Gamma \backslash \Omega
$$

In other words, a boundary point $(x, y)$ of $E$ satisfies either $x^{2}=y^{2}$ or $x^{2}-y^{2}=1$. Conversely, assume that $x^{2}-y^{2}=1$. Every neighbourhood of $(x, y)$ contains the points $P_{\delta}=(x+\delta, y)$ for $\delta \in\left(-\delta_{0}, \delta_{0}\right)$ with $\delta_{0}>0$. Since

$$
(x+\delta)^{2}-y^{2}=1+2 \delta(x+\delta)
$$

and the quantity $2 \delta(x+\delta)$ takes arbitrarily small positive values when $\delta$ runs over $\left(-\delta_{0}, \delta_{0}\right)$, we see that there are points $P_{\delta}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash E$ and $E$ so $(x, y)$ is a boundary point of $E$. One can proceed in the same way to verify that the two lines given by the equation $x^{2}=y^{2}$ are also included in $\partial E$, which concludes the proof that $\partial E$ consists exactly of the union of the hyperbola with equation $x^{2}-y^{2}=1$ and the lines with equations $y= \pm x$.
It also follows that $\stackrel{\circ}{E}=\Omega$. We have already obtained the inclusion $\Omega \subset \stackrel{\circ}{E}$. Conversely, assume that $(x, y)$ is a point in $E$ not in $\Omega$. Then $x^{2}-y^{2}=1$ so $(x, y)$ belongs to $\partial E$ which is disjoint from $\AA^{\circ}$. This proves that $E \subset \Omega$ and the equality.
(f) No new technique is needed to prove that $\stackrel{\circ}{F}$ is the region located strictly below the branches of the hyperbola with equation $x y=1$, that is,

$$
\stackrel{\circ}{F}=\left\{(x, y), x \neq 0 \text { and } y<\frac{1}{x}\right\}
$$

and that $\partial F$ is the union of the hyperbola and the vertical axis:

$$
\stackrel{\circ}{F}=\left\{(x, y), x=0 \text { or } y=\frac{1}{x}\right\} .
$$


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The disjoint union symbol $\sqcup$ is used to indicate that the sets in the union have empty intersection.

