

## LECTURE 24: SUMMARY

Last time, we discussed the notion of a limit point: in a metric space  $(X, d)$ , a point  $\ell \in X$  is a limit point of  $S \subseteq X$  iff  $\ell$  is the limit of some sequence (of distinct elements) in  $S$ . Further, we showed that this holds iff every neighbourhood of  $\ell$  contains some point of  $S$  (other than  $\ell$  itself).

What are the limit points of the open interval  $(0, 1)$  (in  $\mathbb{R}$ , under the usual metric)? First, every single point in  $(0, 1)$  is a limit point of  $(0, 1)$  (can you prove this?). But there are also two points which aren't in  $(0, 1)$  which are limit points: 0 and 1. Thus, the set of limit points of the open interval  $(0, 1)$  is the closed interval  $[0, 1]$ . The set of limit points of the closed interval  $[0, 1]$  is simply itself; no sequence of points ever converges to something outside the set itself. Inspired by this, we say that a set is closed if no sequence of points in the set converges to something outside the set. More precisely:

**Definition.** Given  $(X, d)$  a metric space. We say  $C \subseteq X$  is closed iff  $C$  contains all of its limit points.

Thus, for example, the closed interval  $[a, b]$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}$  (under the usual metric). The unit disk  $\{z \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |z| \leq 1\}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (under the Euclidean metric). And in any metric space, the set consisting of a single point is closed, since there are no limit points of such a set!

We now arrive at a fundamental result connecting open and closed sets.

**Theorem 1.** Given a metric space  $(X, d)$  and a set  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq X$ , let  $\mathcal{A}^c := X - \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is open iff  $\mathcal{A}^c$  is closed.

*Proof.* As usual, we do the two directions separately.

$(\implies)$

Given  $\mathcal{A}$  open. We want to show  $\mathcal{A}^c$  is closed, i.e. that  $\mathcal{A}^c$  contains all of its limit points. We do this by showing that no point of  $\mathcal{A}$  is a limit point of  $\mathcal{A}^c$ .

Take any  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is open, there exists a neighbourhood  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $\alpha$  which is entirely contained in  $\mathcal{A}$ . It follows that  $\mathcal{N} \cap \mathcal{A}^c = \emptyset$ , so  $\alpha$  cannot be a limit point of  $\mathcal{A}^c$ .

$(\impliedby)$

Suppose  $\mathcal{A}^c$  is closed. We want to show that  $\mathcal{A}$  is open, i.e. that every point of  $\mathcal{A}$  lives in a neighbourhood entirely contained in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Pick any  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}^c$  is closed, it contains all its limit points, so  $\alpha$  can't be a limit point of  $\mathcal{A}^c$ . It follows that there exists a neighbourhood  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $\alpha$  such that  $\mathcal{N} \cap \mathcal{A}^c = \emptyset$ . But this implies that  $\mathcal{N} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ .

□

Note that this theorem does *not* say that every subset of  $X$  is either open or closed. Some sets (such as  $[0, 1)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ ) are neither; other sets (such as  $\emptyset$ , or the entire space  $X$ ) are both. Still, the duality in the theorem above is useful. For example:

**Corollary 2.** *Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.*

*Proof.* Given a collection  $\{\mathcal{C}_\alpha\}$  of closed sets. Then

$$\bigcap_{\alpha} \mathcal{C}_\alpha = \bigcap_{\alpha} (X - \mathcal{C}_\alpha^c) = X - \bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{C}_\alpha^c = \left( \bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{C}_\alpha^c \right)^c.$$

Since  $\mathcal{C}_\alpha^c$  is open for each  $\alpha$ , and arbitrary unions of opens are open, we conclude that  $\bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{C}_\alpha^c$  is

open. But this implies that  $\left( \bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{C}_\alpha^c \right)^c = \bigcap_{\alpha} \mathcal{C}_\alpha$  is closed. □

Similarly, we can easily prove

**Corollary 3.** *Finite unions of closed sets are closed.*

Note that the assumption of finiteness is necessary here. For example,

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left[ \frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right] = (0, 1).$$

We finished lecture by discussing the Cantor set. This is a subset of  $[0, 1]$  which is formed by removing countably many disjoint intervals from  $[0, 1]$ . Despite the fact that the sum of all the lengths of the removed intervals equals 1, the Cantor set contains uncountably many points. It is also closed (in  $\mathbb{R}$ ).