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1,  $E$  is closed. We will show this by showing that  $E^c$  is open. Observe that  $E^c = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} \mid x^2 > 3\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Q} \mid x^2 < 2\}$ , and call these sets  $A$  and  $B$ . Consider any point  $p \in A$ , and let  $\delta = \frac{3-p^2}{|p|+3}$ , and take  $N_\delta(p) = (p-\delta, p+\delta)$ . If  $p > 0$ , then

$$p-\delta = \frac{p^2+3p+3+p^2}{p+3} = \frac{3p+3}{p+3} = 3 - \frac{6}{p+3}$$

$$(p-\delta)^2 = \left(\frac{3p+3}{p+3}\right)^2 = \frac{9p^2+18p+9}{p^2+6p+9} = 3 - \frac{6(p^2-3)}{(p+3)^2}$$

Since  $p^2 > 3$ ,  $(p-\delta)^2 > 3$ , so  $p-\delta \in A$ , and since  $\delta > 0$ ,  $p+\delta$  is clearly also in  $A$ , so the interval is in  $A$ . Similarly, for  $p < 0$ , we find  $(p+\delta)^2 > 3$  and  $p-\delta < p$ , so both endpoints of the interval must be in  $A$ , and so the interval must be contained in  $A$ . We have thus found a neighborhood of any point  $p$  that is a subset of  $A$ , so  $A$  is open.

Next, consider  $p \in B$  and let  $\delta = \frac{2-p^2}{|p|+2}$ , we find that  $N_\delta(p) = (p-\delta, p+\delta)$  is a subset of  $B$  by the same sort of reasoning (tedious details omitted, see also Rudin example 1.1). So  $B$  is open. Since  $E^c = A \cup B$ , and  $A$  and  $B$  are open,  $E^c$  is open  $\Rightarrow E$  is closed. ✓

It is easy to see that  $E$  is bounded; for example, consider  $M=2$  and  $p=0$ ; obviously for any  $q \in E$ ,  $d(p,q) < M$ ; otherwise  $|q| > 2 \Rightarrow q^2 > 4 \Rightarrow q \notin E$ . ✓

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$E$  is not compact. To be compact embedded in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , it must also be compact in  $\mathbb{R}$ . But the set  $\{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid 2 < p^2 < 3\}$  is not closed in  $\mathbb{R}$  (it has limit points at  $\sqrt{2}$  and  $\sqrt{3}$  but does not contain them) so  $E$  is not closed and bounded in  $\mathbb{R}$ , so it is not compact in  $\mathbb{R}$  so it is not compact.

$E$  is open in  $\mathbb{Q}$  because a neighborhood can be found for any point  $p \in E$  that is a subset of  $E$ . Specifically, consider the nbhd of radius  $\min\left(\frac{2-p^2}{|p+2|}, \frac{3-p^2}{|p+3|}\right)$  (proof omitted)

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2. Consider the set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  w/ only rational coordinates. We know that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable, so this set is countable because it can be expressed as a  $k$ -tuple of  $\mathbb{Q}$ . (Rudin, thm 2.13 and 2.14). Now we show that any point  $p$  in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is a limit pt for  $\mathbb{Q}^k$ . Let  $p \in \mathbb{R}^k = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$ , and consider some nbhd  $N_r(p)$ . We can find a point  $q \in \mathbb{Q}^k$  that is in  $N_r(p)$  for any  $r > 0$ : for every component  $p_i$ , there exists a real number  $p_i - r/k$ . Because  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , we can find a rational  $q_i$  between  $p_i$  and  $p_i - r/k$  (Rudin, thm 1.20b). The distance  $d(p, q) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - q_i)^2}$  is not greater than  $\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - (p_i - r/k))^2}$  because of how we defined  $q_i$ . So  $d(p, q) \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k (r/k)^2} = \sqrt{k(r/k)^2} = r/\sqrt{k}$ , which is certainly smaller than  $r$ , so  $q \in N_r(p)$ . Thus any point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is a limit pt for  $\mathbb{Q}^k$ , so  $\mathbb{Q}^k$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . It is a countable dense subset, so  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is separable.

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3. Let  $X$  be a separable metric space. Then  $X$  has a countable dense subset  $Y$ . For each element in  $Y$ , consider the set of neighborhoods  $N_r(y_i)$ ,  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ . This is a countable number of neighborhoods per element of  $Y$ , and  $Y$  has a countable number of elements, so the union of all these neighborhoods is a union of a countable set of countable sets, which is countable. Call this union  $\{V_\alpha\}$ .

Now consider an open set  $G \subseteq X$  and a point  $p \in G$ . We know that  $p$  is a limit point of  $Y$ , since  $Y$  is dense in  $X$  (or  $p$  is a point of  $Y$ , in which case it is trivially in at least one neighborhood in  $\{V_\alpha\}$ ). Since  $G$  is open, there exists a  $r > 0$  such that  $N_r(p) \subseteq G$ . Since the rationals are dense in the reals, we can find  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  st  $0 < q < r$  and note that  $N_q(p) \subseteq N_r(p) \subseteq G$ . Since  $p$  is a limit point of  $Y$ , we know that any neighborhood of  $p$ , including  $N_q(p)$  contains a point  $x \in Y$ . Since  $y \in N_q(p)$ ,  $d(p, y) < q \Rightarrow d(y, p) < q \Rightarrow p \in N_q(x)$ . So  $p$  is contained in a neighborhood of a point of  $Y$  with rational radius - that is, it is contained in some member of  $\{V_\alpha\}$ . Since  $x$  was an arbitrary point of an arbitrary open set  $G$ , any arbitrary open set consists of points in sets of  $\{V_\alpha\}$ . We showed above that  $\{V_\alpha\}$  is countable, so  $X$  has a countable base.

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4. Given  $X$  a metric space where every infinite subset has a limit point, note that  $X$  has a countable base, so every open cover is a countable cover. Suppose  $X$  is not compact. Then there is an open cover that has no finite subcover. Write the countable subcover as  $\{b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots\}$ . Since no finite collection of these  $\{b_n\}$  covers  $X$ ,  $F_n = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}^c$  must be non-empty for any  $n$ , but  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$  is empty. The sets  $F_n$  are open by definition, and the sets  $F_n$  are finite unions of complements of  $b_i$ 's, so every  $F_n$  is closed. Thus  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$  is also closed. Also note that the sets  $F_n$  are nested such that  $F_n \supset F_{n+1}$ . Let  $E$  be a set consisting of a point from each  $F_n$ , and note that  $E$  is infinite so it must have a limit point which we will call  $p$ .  $p$  cannot be in  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$ , since this intersection is empty. Any neighborhood of  $p$  contains infinitely many points of  $E$ . (Rudin, Thm 2.20). So since  $E$  contains only one point from each  $F_n$ , every set  $F_n$  except finitely many must contain a point in any neighborhood of  $p$ . So we can say that  $p$  is a limit point of every  $F_n$  for  $n$  greater than some value  $k$ . (discarding the finite number that may not have  $p$  as a limit pt.) The  $F_n$ 's are closed, so  $p \in F_n$  for  $n > k$ . But  $F_n \subset F_{n+1}$ , so  $p$  must also be in  $F_n$  for  $n \leq k$ . So  $p \in F_n$  for all  $n$ . Thus  $p \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$ , which is a contradiction, since we said this intersection was empty, so  $X$  must be compact.

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5. a. Let  $A \subseteq X$  and  $B \subseteq X$  be disjoint closed sets.  $A \cap B = \emptyset$  since they are disjoint, and  $\bar{A} = A$  and  $\bar{B} = B$  since they are closed. So  $A \cap \bar{B} = A \cap B = \emptyset$  and  $\bar{A} \cap B = A \cap B = \emptyset \Rightarrow \checkmark A$  and  $B$  are separated.

b. Let  $A \subseteq X$  and  $B \subseteq X$  be disjoint open sets.

Consider a point  $p \in A$ . We would like to show that  $p \notin \bar{B}$ . Certainly  $p \notin B$  since  $p \in A$  and  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint. So

suppose  $p \in B'$ . Since  $p \in A$  and  $A$  is open,  $p$  is an interior point and there exists a nbhd  $N_r(p) \subseteq A$ . But  $p$  is

a limit point of  $B'$  since  $p \in B'$ . So any nbhd of  $p$ , including  $N_r(p)$  contains a point  $q \in B$ . But  $q$  is also in  $A$ , which

is a contradiction since  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint. So  $p \notin B' \Rightarrow p \notin \bar{B} \Rightarrow A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$ .

Using the same argument with  $A$  and  $B$  reversed, we find  $\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ , so  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint.  $\checkmark$

c.  $A$  is a neighborhood of radius  $\delta$  around

$p$ , so  $A$  is open. Next we show  $B$  is open: consider any point  $q \in B$ , and let

$d(p, q) = x$ .  $x > \delta$ , so write  $x = \delta + \epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Thus  $d(p, q) = \delta + \epsilon$ . Now consider the neighborhood  $N_\epsilon(q)$ , and any point  $r$  in this neighborhood.

By definition,  $d(r, q) < \epsilon$ . From the triangle

inequality,  $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$

$\Rightarrow \delta + \epsilon \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$   $\checkmark$

$\Rightarrow \delta + \epsilon - d(r, q) \leq d(p, r)$

$\Rightarrow d(p, r) > \delta$ , since  $d(r, q) < \epsilon$ .

$\Rightarrow r \in B \Rightarrow N_\epsilon(q) \subseteq B \Rightarrow B$  is open.

So  $A$  and  $B$  are both open. They are clearly disjoint, since  $d(p, q)$  cannot be

both greater and less than  $\delta$ , so by part b, they are separable.

Let  $X$  be a metric space that contains at least two points  $x$  and  $y$ .

We first show that for some  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $0 < r < d(x, y)$

We can find a point  $z \in X$  such that  $d(x, z) = r$ .

Suppose no such point existed, then we could take the set  $A = \{p \in X, d(x, p) < r\}$

and  $B = \{p \in X, d(x, p) > r\}$ . From c,  $A$  and

$B$  are separated. We know that  $X = A \cup B$

Since any point  $p \in X$  has  $d(x, p) < r$  or  $d(x, p) > r$

(we assumed there was no point that has

$d(x, p) = r$ ). But then  $X$  is a union of

two separated sets  $\Rightarrow X$  is not connected,

a contradiction. So for any

$r \in (0, d(x, y))$  we can find such a point

$z$ . There are uncountably many such  $r$ 's

in the interval, so there must be

uncountably many points  $z$  in  $X$ .

$\Rightarrow X$  is uncountable.

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