

# Lecture 16

## Compact sets, Perfect Sets, Connected Sets, and Cantor set

MATH 411H, FALL 2025

October 27, 2025

# Compactness in Euclidean spaces

## Theorem

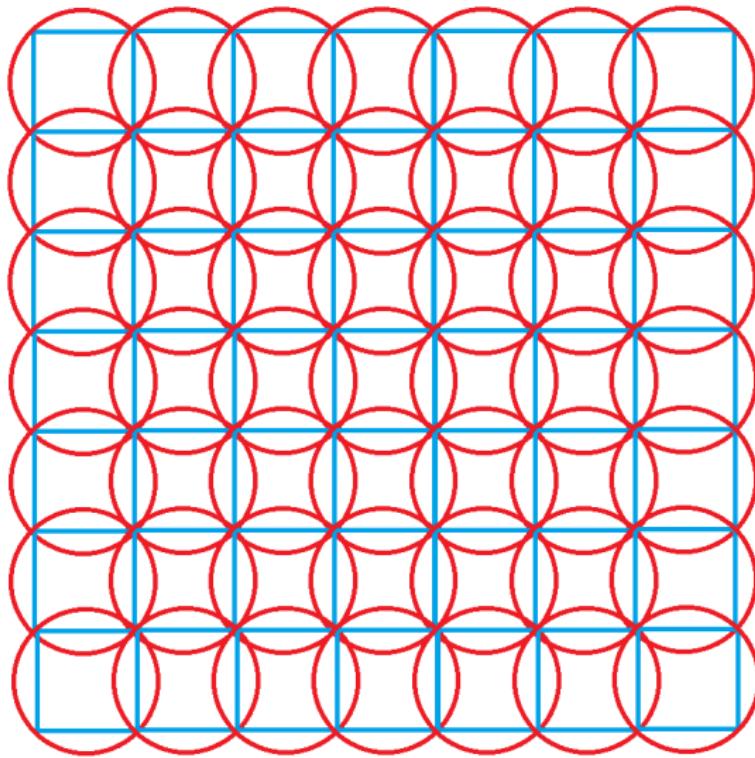
Every closed and bounded set of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete.

**Proof.** We deduce compactness by showing completeness and total boundedness.

- Since every closed subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete it suffices to show that bounded subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are totally bounded.
- Since every bounded set is contained in some cube  $Q = [-R, R]^n$  it is enough to show that  $Q$  is totally bounded.
- Given  $\varepsilon > 0$  pick the integer  $k > \frac{R\sqrt{n}}{\varepsilon}$  and express  $Q$  as the union of  $n^n$  congruent subcubes by dividing the interval  $[-R, R]$  into  $k$  equal pieces.
- The side length of these subcubes is  $\frac{2R}{k}$  and hence the diameter is  $\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{2R}{k} \right) < 2\varepsilon$ , so they are contained in the balls of radius  $\varepsilon$  about their centers.



$Q = [-R, R]^n$  is totally bounded



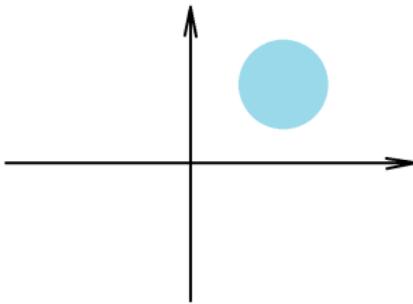
# Example

## Example

Determine if the set

$$X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x - 1)^2 + (y - 1)^2 < 1\}$$

is compact or not in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with Euclidean metric.



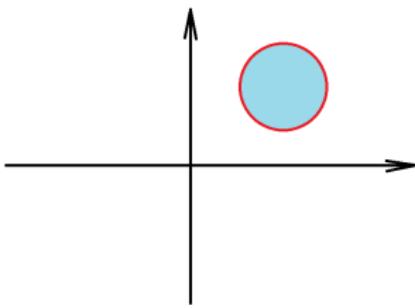
**Solution.** Note that  $(2, 0)$  is an accumulation point of  $X$ , but  $(2, 0) \notin X$ . Therefore,  $X$  is **not closed**, so it is **not compact**. □

# Example

## Example

Determine if the set is compact or not in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with Euclidean metric:

$$X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x - 1)^2 + (y - 1)^2 \leq 1\}.$$



**Solution.**  $X$  contains all of its accumulation points so it is **closed**. It is contained in the ball  $B(0, 10)$ , so it is **bounded**. Therefore, by the previous theorem, it is **compact**. □

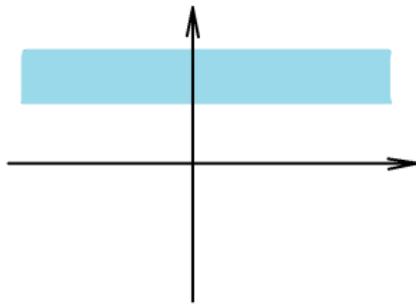
# Example

## Example

Determine if the set

$$X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 < y < 2\}$$

is compact or not in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with Euclidean metric.



**Solution.** Note that  $(0, 2)$  is an accumulation point of  $X$ , but  $(0, 2) \notin X$ . Therefore,  $X$  is **not closed**, so it is **not compact**. □

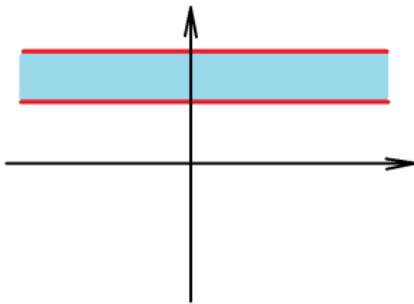
# Example

## Example

Determine if the set

$$X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 \leq y \leq 2\}$$

is compact or not in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with Euclidean metric.



**Solution.** It can be checked that  $X$  is closed, although it is not contained in any ball, so it is **not bounded**, so it is **not compact**. □

# Examples

## Example

Determine if the set  $\mathbb{Q}$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution.**  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not contained in any interval, so it is **not compact**. □

## Example

Determine if the set  $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution.**  $\mathbb{Q}$  is contained in  $(-1, 2)$ , but  $\text{cl } \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1] = [0, 1] \neq \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ , so it is not closed, so it is **not compact**. □

# Accumulation and isolated points

## Accumulation point

Let  $(X, \rho)$  be a metric space,  $x \in X$  is called **an accumulation point of  $E \subseteq X$**  if for every open set  $U \ni x$  we have

$$(E \setminus \{x\}) \cap U \neq \emptyset.$$

An accumulation point  $x$  of  $E \subseteq X$  is sometimes also called **a limit point of  $E$**  or **a cluster point of  $E$** .

## Isolated point

A point  $x \in E$  is called **an isolated point of  $E$**  if it is not an accumulation point of  $E$ .

# Perfect sets

## Perfect sets

We say that a subset  $E$  of a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  is **perfect** if  $E$  is closed and every point of  $E$  is its limit point or equivalently

$$E = \text{acc } E.$$

## Theorem

Let  $\emptyset \neq P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$  be a perfect set. Then  $P$  is uncountable.

In the proof we will use the fact that we have just proved:

## Proposition

Every closed and bounded set of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is compact.

## Proof: 1/3

**Proof.** Since  $P$  has limit points,  $P$  must be infinite. In fact, for every  $x \in P$  and  $r > 0$

$$B(x, r) \cap P \quad \text{is infinite.}$$

- Suppose not, i.e. there is  $x_0 \in P$  and  $r_0 > 0$  such that

$$B(x_0, r_0) \cap P = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}.$$

- Consider

$$\rho(x_0, x_1), \dots, \rho(x_0, x_n)$$

and let

$$r = \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \rho(x_0, x_i) > 0.$$

- Then

$$B(x_0, r) \cap P = \emptyset,$$

thus  $x_0$  is not a limit point, contradiction.

## Proof: 2/3

Now we can assume  $\text{card}(P) \geq \text{card}(\mathbb{N})$ . Suppose for a contradiction that  $\text{card}(P) = \text{card}(\mathbb{N})$ , i.e.  $P = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ .

- Let  $V_1 = B(x_1, r)$ , then of course  $V_1 \cap P \neq \emptyset$ . Suppose that  $V_n$  has been constructed so that  $V_n \cap P \neq \emptyset$ .
- Since every point of  $P$  is a limit point of  $P$  there is an open set  $V_{n+1}$  such that
  - $\text{(i)} \quad \text{cl}(V_{n+1}) \subseteq V_n$ ,
  - $\text{(ii)} \quad x_n \notin \text{cl}(V_{n+1})$ ,
  - $\text{(iii)} \quad V_{n+1} \cap P \neq \emptyset$ .
- Let  $K_n = \text{cl}(V_n) \cap P$ , this set is **closed and bounded**, thus compact. Since  $x_n \notin K_{n+1}$ , no point of  $P$  lies in  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$ , but  $K_n \subseteq P$ , so

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n = \emptyset.$$

## Proof: 3/3

- On the other hand,  $K_n \neq \emptyset$ , compact, and  $K_{n+1} \subseteq K_n$ , and the family  $K_n$  has a finite intersection property, i.e. any finite intersection of members of  $(K_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is nonempty,

$$K_{n_1} \cap \dots \cap K_{n_k} \neq \emptyset.$$

- Thus

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset,$$

which is a contradiction. Hence  $P$  must be uncountable. □

## Corollary

Every interval  $[a, b]$  with  $a < b$ , and also  $\mathbb{R}$  are uncountable.

# Separated and connected sets

## Separated sets

Two subsets  $A$  and  $B$  of a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  are said to be **separated** if both

$$A \cap \text{cl}(B) = \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad \text{cl}(A) \cap B = \emptyset.$$

In other words, no points of  $A$  lies in the closure of  $B$  and vice versa.

## Connected set

A set  $E \subseteq X$  is said to be **connected** if  $E$  is not a union of two nonempty separated sets.

## Example

- $[0, 1]$  and  $(1, 2)$  are not separated since  $1$  is a limit point of  $(1, 2)$ .
- However,  $(0, 1)$  and  $(1, 2)$  are separated.

# Theorem

## Theorem

$E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is connected iff for all  $x, y \in E$  if  $x < z < y$ , then  $z \in E$ .

**Proof ( $\Rightarrow$ ).** If there exist  $x, y \in E$  and  $z \in (x, y)$  such that  $z \notin E$ , then

$$E = A_z \cup B_z, \quad \text{where} \quad A_z = E \cap (-\infty, z) \quad \text{and} \quad B_z = E \cap (z, \infty).$$

Since  $x \in A_z$  and  $y \in B_z$ , then  $A_z \neq \emptyset$ ,  $B_z \neq \emptyset$  and also  $A_z \subseteq (-\infty, z)$ ,  $B_z \subseteq (z, \infty)$ , so they are separated. Hence  $E$  is not connected.

## Proof

**Proof ( $\Leftarrow$ ).** Conversely, suppose that  $E$  is not connected.

- Then there are non-empty separated sets  $A, B$  such that  $A \cup B = E$ .
- Pick  $x \in A$  and  $y \in B$  and without loss of generality assume  $x < y$ .  
Define

$$z = \sup(A \cap [x, y]).$$

hence  $z \in \text{cl}(A)$  and  $z \notin B$ . In particular,  $x \leq z < y$ .

- If  $z \notin A$  it follows  $x < z < y$  and  $z \notin E$ .
- If  $z \in A$  then  $z \notin \text{cl}(B)$  hence there is  $z_1$  such that  $z < z_1 < y$  and  $z_1 \notin B$ . Then  $x < z_1 < y$  and  $z_1 \notin E$ .

□

## Example

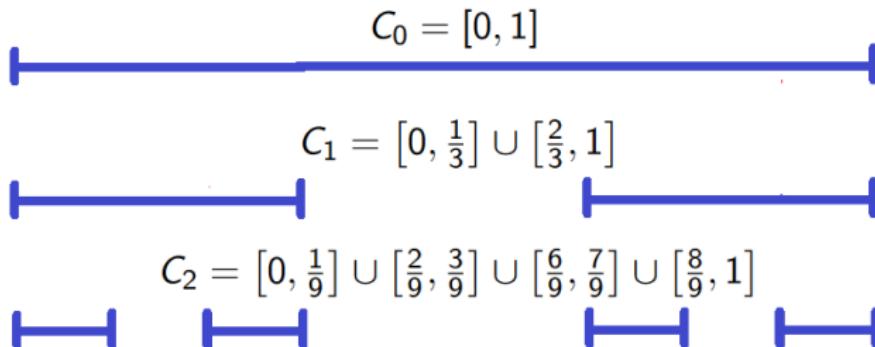
Prove that  $X = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  is not connected.

**Solution.** We have  $-1, 1 \in X$ , but  $-1 < 0 < 1$  and  $0 \notin X$ , so  $X$  is not connected.

□

There exists a perfect set in  $\mathbb{R}$  which contains no segment.

- Let  $C_0 = [0, 1]$ . Given  $C_n$  that consist of  $2^n$  disjoint closed intervals each of length  $3^{-n}$  take each of these intervals and delete the open middle third to produce two closed intervals each of length  $3^{-n-1}$ .



- Take  $C_{n+1}$  to be the union of  $2^{n+1}$  closed intervals so formed and continue.

# Cantor set

## Cantor set

The set

$$\mathcal{C} = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$$

is called **the Cantor set** or ternary Cantor set.

- Each  $C_0 \supseteq C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \dots$  is closed and bounded thus compact, and the family  $(C_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  has finite intersection property thus the Cantor set is **compact** and  $\mathcal{C} \neq \emptyset$ .

### Property (\*)

By the construction for each  $k, m \in \mathbb{N}$  we see that no segment of the form

$$\left( \frac{3k+1}{3^m}, \frac{3k+2}{3^m} \right) \quad \text{has a point in common with } \mathcal{C}.$$

# Properties of the Cantor set

- Since every segment  $(\alpha, \beta)$  contains a segment of the form  $(*)$  if  $m$  is sufficiently large, since the set

$$\left\{ \frac{\ell}{3^m} : m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } 0 \leq \ell \leq 3^m - 1 \right\}$$

is dense in  $[0, 1]$ . Thus  $\mathcal{C}$  contains no segment  $(\alpha, \beta)$ . This also shows  $\text{int } \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$ .

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- To prove that  $\mathcal{C}$  is perfect it is enough to show that  $\mathcal{C}$  contains no isolated point. Let  $x \in \mathcal{C}$  and let  $I_n$  be the unique interval from  $C_n$  which contains  $x \in I_n$ . Let  $x_n$  be the endpoint of  $I_n$  such that  $x \neq x_n$ . It follows from the construction of  $\mathcal{C}$  that  $x_n \in \mathcal{C}$ . Hence  $x$  is a limit point of  $\mathcal{C}$  thus  $\mathcal{C}$  is **perfect**.

# More about Cantor set

- Each component of  $C_n$  can be described as the set

$$C_n = \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} : \varepsilon_j \in \{0, 1, 2\} \text{ and } \varepsilon_j \neq 1 \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n \right\}.$$

- Consequently,

$$\mathcal{C} = \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} : \varepsilon_j \in \{0, 2\} \right\}.$$

## Fact

## Fact

Any number  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j}$  is uniquely determined by its sequence  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $\varepsilon_j \in \{0, 2\}$ .

**Proof.** Take  $\varepsilon = (\varepsilon_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\delta = (\delta_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $\varepsilon_j, \delta_j \in \{0, 2\}$  such that  $\varepsilon \neq \delta$ . Let  $N = \min\{j \in \mathbb{N} : \varepsilon_j \neq \delta_j\}$  and assume  $0 = \varepsilon_N < \delta_N = 2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} &= \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} + \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \frac{\delta_j}{3^j} + \frac{2}{3^{N+1}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^j} \\ &\leq \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \frac{\delta_j}{3^j} + \frac{2}{3^{N+1}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3}}}_{\frac{3}{2}} = \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \frac{\delta_j}{3^j} + \frac{1}{3^N} < \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \frac{\delta_j}{3^j} + \frac{2}{3^N} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\delta_j}{3^j}. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. □

# Remarks

## Remark

We have two different representations

$$\frac{1}{3} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} = A, \quad \varepsilon_1 = 1, \quad \varepsilon_j = 0 \quad \text{for } j \geq 2.$$

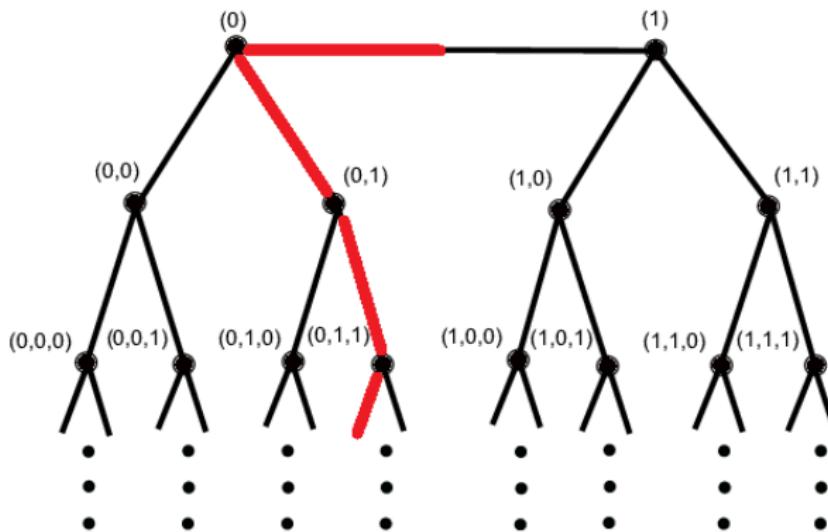
$$\frac{1}{3} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_j}{3^j} = B, \quad \varepsilon_1 = 0, \quad \varepsilon_j = 2 \quad \text{for } j \geq 2.$$

There is a bijection  $\phi : \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$  defined by

$$\phi(z) = \frac{2}{3} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z_j}{3^j} \quad \text{for } z = (z_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad z_j \in \{0, 1\},$$

and consequently  $\text{card}(\mathcal{C}) = \text{card}(\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}) = \text{card}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathfrak{c}$ .

## Cantor tree



$$\varepsilon = (0, 1, 1, 0, \varepsilon_4, \varepsilon_5, \dots)$$