

# The Cantor set

Andrew McKee

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The Cantor set is a topological space, constructed as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$ , with many interesting and surprising properties. It began appearing in the mathematical literature before 1880, in connection with developments in Topology and Integration, apparently first mentioned by Smith [Smi], later by du Bois-Reymond [dBR], Volterra [Vol], and Cantor [Can]. It is now named after Cantor.

## 1 Construction and basic properties

To begin we introduce some notation. Suppose that  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$  can be written as the union of finitely many closed, pairwise-disjoint intervals

$$A = [a_1, b_1] \cup [a_2, b_2] \cup \cdots \cup [a_n, b_n].$$

For a natural number  $b \geq 3$  define  ${}^*bA$  to be the union of the upper and lower  $1/b$  of each interval of  $A$ :

$$\begin{aligned} {}^*bA := & \left[ a_1, a_1 + \frac{1}{b}(b_1 - a_1) \right] \cup \left[ a_1 + \frac{b-1}{b}(b_1 - a_1), b_1 \right] \cup \cdots \\ & \cdots \cup \left[ a_n, a_n + \frac{1}{b}(b_n - a_n) \right] \cup \left[ a_n + \frac{b-1}{b}(b_n - a_n), b_n \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly  ${}^*bA$  is again the union of finitely many closed, pairwise-disjoint intervals, so we may apply the same construction again, forming a sequence

$$A, {}^*bA, {}^*b({}^*bA) = {}^{*^2_b}A, {}^{*^3_b}A, \dots$$

of unions of increasingly many disjoint intervals, of shrinking length.

We will only use this construction in the case our initial set  $A$  is the unit interval  $[0, 1]$ . In the next result we collect some easy observations about this operation.

**Lemma 1.1.** *Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . The set  ${}^*b^n[0, 1]$ :*

- (i) *is the union of  $2^n$  disjoint closed intervals;*
- (ii) *consists of intervals of length  $b^{-n}$ ;*
- (iii) *is constructed from  ${}^*b^{n-1}[0, 1]$  by removing  $2^{n-1}$  disjoint open intervals, each of length  $(b-2)/b^n$ ;*
- (iv) *consists of intervals with left endpoints in the set*

$$L_n^b = \left\{ \frac{c_1}{b} + \frac{c_2}{b^2} + \cdots + \frac{c_n}{b^n} : c_i \in \{0, b-1\} \right\}.$$

*Proof.* Points (i)–(iii) are immediate from the definition. For (iv) we proceed by induction. It is clear that the set of left endpoints of intervals in  ${}^*b^1[0, 1]$  is  $\{0, \frac{b-1}{b}\}$  so the claim is true for  $k = 1$ . Now suppose the claim holds for  $n = k$ . By definition of  ${}^*b^{k+1}[0, 1]$  from  ${}^*b^k[0, 1]$  each interval of  ${}^*b^k[0, 1]$ , hence each element  $c \in L_k^b$ , determines two intervals of  ${}^*b^{k+1}[0, 1]$ , hence two elements of  $L_{k+1}^b$ . The first of these elements is  $c$  again, while the second is  $c + \frac{b-1}{b^{k+1}}$ . This completes the induction and establishes the claim.  $\square$

It is most common to work with  $b = 3$  or  $b = 10$ . Here is an illustration of the first few steps of the process in the case  $b = 3$ .



**Definition 1.2.** *The Cantor set (in base  $b$ ) is defined as*

$$\text{Cantor}_b := \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} {}^*b^n[0, 1].$$

### 1.1 Properties of base $b$ representations

Our next aim is to answer the question *what is in  $\text{Cantor}_b$ ?* To discuss this first we recall some facts about base  $b$  representations of numbers. If  $b \geq 2$  is a natural number then any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  can be represented as

$$x = \sigma \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} a_k b^k$$

where  $\sigma \in \{+, -\}$  is the sign,  $a_k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, b-1\}$  and there is  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a_k = 0$  for all  $k > n_0$ , so the infinite sum clearly converges. We write this number using *positional notation* as

$$x = \sigma a_{n_0} a_{n_0-1} \dots a_2 a_1 a_0 . a_{-1} a_{-2} a_{-3} \dots_{[b]}.$$

Note that to avoid ambiguity in this notation when  $b \geq 10$  one may need to introduce additional symbols for the digits bigger than 9, since for example  $2113_{[b]} = 2b^3 + b^2 + b + 3$ ; the number  $2b^2 + 11b + 3$  must be written  $2\chi 3_{[b]}$  where  $\chi$  represents the eleventh base  $b$  digit. It is important to remember that the representation of a number in this way is not unique (for example  $1_{[10]} = 0.999 \dots_{[10]}$ ); this will be investigated in Lemma 1.4.

We will only be discussing numbers in the interval  $[0, 1]$ , so it is convenient to make a slight change to the above convention and represent a number  $x \in [0, 1]$  in base  $b$  as

$$x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b^{-k} = 0.c_1 c_2 c_3 \dots_{[b]}$$

(so  $c_k = a_{-k}$ ).

**Remark 1.3.** Suppose  $x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b^{-k}$  and  $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_m = 0$ , so in positional notation  $x = 0.00 \dots 0 c_{m+1} c_{m+2} \dots_{[b]}$ . In this case the largest  $x$  can be is when the non-zero  $c_k$  are all equal to  $b-1$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b^{-k} &\leq \sum_{k=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{b-1}{b^k} = \frac{b-1}{b^{m+1}} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{b^l} = \frac{b-1}{b^{m+1}} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{b}} = \frac{b-1}{b^{m+1}} \frac{b}{b-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{b^m}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, if  $x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b^{-k}$  and  $c_k = 0$  for all  $k > m$ , but  $c_m \neq 0$ , then the smallest  $x$  can be is when  $c_m = 1$  and  $c_k = 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{m\}$ , so  $x \geq 1/b^m$ .

**Lemma 1.4.** Let  $b \geq 2$  be a natural number,  $B = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, b-1\}$  and  $B^{\mathbb{N}}$  the collection of all sequences of elements of  $B$ . The function

$$\beta : B^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow [0, 1]; \quad \beta((c_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}) := \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{c_k}{b^k}$$

has the following properties:

(a)  $\beta$  is surjective;

(b) for  $c, d \in B^{\mathbb{N}}$  with  $c \neq d$  the following are equivalent, characterising when  $\beta$  fails to be injective:

(i)  $\beta(c) = \beta(d)$ ;

(ii) there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $c_n = d_n$  for all  $n < m$ ,  $c_m - d_m = 1$ , and  $c_n = 0$  for all  $n > m$  while  $d_n = b - 1$  for all  $n > m$  (or vice-versa).

In particular, an element of  $[0, 1]$  has either one or two preimages.

*Proof.* (a) Let  $x \in [0, 1)$ . Choose  $c_1 \in B$  to be the largest element for which  $\frac{c_1}{b} \leq x$ . Define inductively (with the help of Remark 1.3)  $c_{n+1}$  to be the largest element of  $B$  for which

$$0 \leq x - \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{c_k}{b^k} < \frac{1}{b^{n+1}}. \quad (1)$$

This gives a well-defined sequence  $c = (c_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  and it is immediate from the definition of  $c$  and equation (1) that

$$|x - \beta(c)| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{c_k}{b^k} < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{b^n} = 0$$

(we can remove the absolute value because the partial sum is by definition no greater than  $x$ ). Hence  $x = \beta(c)$ .

For  $x = 1$  consider the sequence  $c \in B^{\mathbb{N}}$  with  $c_k = b - 1$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$\beta(c) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{b-1}{b^k} = (b-1) \frac{1}{b-1} = 1.$$

(b) (ii)  $\implies$  (i) Suppose that  $c$  and  $d$  are as in (ii), so

$$\begin{aligned} \beta(d) &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{d_k}{b^k} = \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{d_k}{b^k} + \frac{d_m}{b^m} + \sum_{l=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{d_l}{b^l} = \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{c_k}{b^k} + \frac{d_m}{b^m} + \sum_{l=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{b-1}{b^l} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{c_k}{b^k} + \frac{d_m}{b^m} + \frac{1}{b^m} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{c_k}{b^k} + \frac{d_m + 1}{b^m} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{c_k}{b^k} = \beta(c), \end{aligned}$$

using Remark 1.3.

(i)  $\implies$  (ii) Suppose  $\beta(c) = \beta(d)$  but  $c \neq d$  and let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  be the smallest index for which  $c_m \neq d_m$ . Without loss of generality we may assume  $c_m > d_m$ . Then  $\beta(c) = \beta(d)$  implies

$$\frac{c_m - d_m}{b^m} + \sum_{k=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{c_k}{b^k} = \sum_{l=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{d_l}{b^l}. \quad (2)$$

We have  $\frac{c_m - d_m}{b^m} \geq \frac{1}{b^m}$  and by Remark 1.3 also  $\sum_{l=m+1}^{\infty} \frac{d_l}{b^l} \leq \frac{1}{b^m}$ . Hence the only way for (2) to hold is if  $c_m - d_m = 1$ ,  $c_n = 0$  for all  $n > m$ , and  $d_n = b - 1$  for all  $n > m$ . We have shown that the only two possible preimages of  $x \in [0, 1]$  are the ones given in (ii).  $\square$

The above lemma can be extended to give a surjection onto  $\mathbb{R}$ , but the definition of the domain needs to be refined.

**Corollary 1.5.** *The restriction of  $\beta$  to a subset  $B_1 \subseteq B$  such that no two elements of  $B_1$  have a difference of 1 is injective. In particular, for  $b \geq 3$  the restriction of  $\beta$  to  $\{0, b - 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  is injective.*

*Proof.* Follows from Lemma 1.4(b).  $\square$

## 1.2 Elements of Cantor sets

**Proposition 1.6.** *Let  $x \in [0, 1]$ . The following are equivalent:*

- (i)  $x \in \text{Cantor}_b$ ;
- (ii)  $x$  can be written in base  $b$  as  $x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{c_k}{b^k}$  where  $c_k \in \{0, b - 1\}$ , that is  $x = \beta(c)$  for some  $c \in \{0, b - 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

*Proof.* Since an element  $x \in {}^*b^n [0, 1]$  lies in one of the intervals which makes up this set, it follows from the definition of  ${}^*b^n [0, 1]$  that  $l \leq x \leq l + b^{-n}$ , where  $l \in L_n^b$  (see Lemma 1.1(ii)). By Remark 1.3 and Lemma 1.1(iv) it follows that  $x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{c_k}{b^k}$  where  $c_i \in \{0, b - 1\}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . The claimed equivalence follows because  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is the intersection of  ${}^*b^n [0, 1]$ .  $\square$

We temporarily work with ordinary base ten numbers ( $b = 10$ ) in order to illustrate the construction. The elements of  ${}^*10 [0, 1]$  are elements of  $[0, \frac{1}{10}] \cup [\frac{9}{10}, 1]$ , so in ordinary decimal form (positional notation base 10) have the form

$$0.0c_2c_3c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.9c_2c_3c_4 \dots_{[10]}.$$

The elements of  ${}^*_{10}[0, 1]$  are elements of  $[0, \frac{1}{10^2}] \cup [\frac{9}{10^2}, \frac{1}{10}] \cup [\frac{9}{10}, \frac{91}{10^2}] \cup [\frac{99}{10^2}, 1]$ , so in ordinary decimal form (positional notation base 10) have the form

$$0.00c_3c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.09c_3c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.90c_3c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.99c_3c_4 \dots_{[10]}.$$

The elements of  ${}^*_3[0, 1]$  have the form

$$\begin{aligned} &0.000c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.009c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.090c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.099c_4 \dots_{[10]} \\ &0.900c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.009c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.990c_4 \dots_{[10]} \quad \text{or} \quad 0.999c_4 \dots_{[10]}. \end{aligned}$$

This pattern continues.

**Corollary 1.7.** *The Cantor set  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is uncountable.*

*Proof.* Since  $b$  is at least 3 Proposition 1.6 implies that every element of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is equal to  $\beta(c)$  where  $c \in \{0, b-1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , and by Corollary 1.5  $\beta$  is injective when restricted to this set. Hence there is a bijective correspondence between  $\text{Cantor}_b$  and  $\{0, b-1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , so it suffices to see that the latter set is uncountable. This is a standard diagonal argument. Suppose there is a bijection between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\{0, b-1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , and let  $c^{(n)}$  denote the image of  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  under this bijection. Define  $d \in \{0, b-1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  by requiring  $d_k \neq c_k^{(k)}$  (so if  $c_k^{(k)} = 0$  then  $d_k = b-1$  and vice-versa). Then  $d \neq c^{(n)}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  as  $d_n \neq c_n^{(n)}$ , which means that the supposed bijection cannot exist.  $\square$

**Remark 1.8.** *The above result is quite surprising, because it seems like we removed a lot of the interval  $[0, 1]$  in constructing  $\text{Cantor}_b$ . Indeed, taking  $b = 10$  we see, using Lemma 1.1, that in constructing  ${}^*_b[0, 1]$  from  ${}^*_{b-1}[0, 1]$  we remove a total length of  $2^{n-1} \frac{8}{10^n}$ . Hence the total length removed in the construction of  $\text{Cantor}_{10}$  is*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{n-1} \frac{8}{10^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n 4}{2^n 5^n} = \frac{4}{5} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^n} = \frac{4}{5} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{5}} \right) = 1.$$

*So after removing a total length equal to the length of the original interval  $[0, 1]$  we are still left with uncountably many points.*

**Remark 1.9.** *It follows immediately from Proposition 1.6 and Lemma 1.1(iv) that the left and right endpoints of all intervals involved in the construction  $\text{Cantor}_b$  belong to  $\text{Cantor}_b$ . An example of one of the uncountably many other points in  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is*

$$\frac{1}{11} = 0.090909 \dots_{[10]}$$

belongs to  $\text{Cantor}_{10}$ , but is not the endpoint of any intervals involved in the construction.

**Remark 1.10.** Proposition 1.6 tells us that each element of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  can be identified with a sequence, where each term of the sequence is either 0 or  $b - 1$  (see the proof of Corollary 1.7). In other words, we have a bijection

$$\text{Cantor}_b \longleftrightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}},$$

induced by  $\beta$ . This bijection identifies a sequence  $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  (so  $a_n \in \{0, 1\}$ ) with the base  $b$  number  $0.d_1d_2d_3\dots_{[b]}$ , where the digits are  $d_i = (b - 1)a_i$ , which belongs to  $\text{Cantor}_b$  by Proposition 1.6. We will show this identification is correct from a topological point of view in Theorem 3.5.

We close this section by recording some facts about arithmetic and Cantor sets. The first is that the average of any pair of elements of  $\text{Cantor}_5$  does not belong to  $\text{Cantor}_5$ , but this is not true for  $\text{Cantor}_3$ , which means Cantor sets in different bases behave differently under certain arithmetic operations. Suppose  $x, y \in \text{Cantor}_5$  are distinct points, so in the base 5 expansions  $x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k 5^{-k}$  and  $y = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} d_k 5^{-k}$  there is a smallest  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $c_k = d_k$ . This means that the  $n$ th digit of the average  $\frac{1}{2}(x + y)$  will be a 2, or a 3 if there is carrying in the addition, so the average does not belong to  $\text{Cantor}_5$  by Proposition 1.6. On the other hand, 0 and  $2/3$  both belong to  $\text{Cantor}_3$  (they are left endpoints from the first step) and their average is  $1/3$ , which also belongs to  $\text{Cantor}_3$  — it is a right endpoint of the first step.

Second, we claim that  $\text{Cantor}_3 + \text{Cantor}_3 = [0, 2]$ . That  $\text{Cantor}_3 + \text{Cantor}_3 \subseteq [0, 2]$  is clear. To show the reverse inclusion we will show the equivalent statement that  $[0, 1] \subseteq \frac{1}{2}\text{Cantor}_3 + \frac{1}{2}\text{Cantor}_3$ . Let  $x \in [0, 1]$  and write  $x$  in base 3 as

$$x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{x_k}{3^k}, \quad x_k \in \{0, 1, 2\}.$$

Now for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  define

$$y_k := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_k = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x_k \in \{1, 2\}, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad z_k := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_k \in \{0, 1\}, \\ 1 & \text{if } x_k = 2. \end{cases}$$

Hence  $y_k + z_k = x_k$  for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Also  $y = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} y_k 3^{-k} \in \frac{1}{2}\text{Cantor}_3$  because

$$2y = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{2y_k}{3^k}, \quad 2y_k \in \{0, 2\},$$

and similarly  $z = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} z_k 3^{-k} \in \frac{1}{2} \text{Cantor}_3$ . We have

$$y + z = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{y_k}{3^k} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{z_k}{3^k} = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{y_k + z_k}{3^k} = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{x_k}{3^k} = x.$$

This completes the proof of the second fact.

The third arithmetic fact is that  ${}^*b^n[0, 1] = L_n^b + [0, \frac{1}{b^n}]$ , which is immediate from the definitions. Indeed, an element  $z \in {}^*b^n[0, 1]$  must be in one of the intervals which makes up this set, hence can be written as  $x + y$ , where  $x \in L_n^b$  is the left endpoint of the interval containing  $z$  and  $y \in [0, \frac{1}{b^n}]$  by Lemma 1.1(ii).

## 2 Topological properties

The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are topological spaces in the subspace topology from  $\mathbb{R}$  (or from  $[0, 1]$ ). Now we investigate topological properties of Cantor sets. The first lemma is immediate from the topological properties of  $\mathbb{R}$ , we state it for the record.

**Lemma 2.1.** *The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are metrisable and separable.*

**Proposition 2.2.** *The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are closed.*

*Proof.* By construction each set  ${}^*b^n[0, 1]$  is a finite union of closed intervals, therefore is closed. Hence  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is closed as the intersection of a family of closed sets.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.3.** *The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are compact.*

*Proof.* The Cantor sets are closed subsets of the compact set  $[0, 1]$ , hence compact.  $\square$

We now give some more information about neighbourhoods in Cantor sets.

**Proposition 2.4.** (i) *Every neighbourhood of a point  $x \in \text{Cantor}_b$  contains a set of the form  $\text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}]$ , where  $l \in \text{Cantor}_b$  is a left endpoint of an interval from the construction of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

(ii) *The sets of the form in (i) form a basis for the topology on  $\text{Cantor}_b$  which consists of closed-open sets.*



*Proof.* (i) Let  $N$  be a neighbourhood of  $x$  in the topology of  $\text{Cantor}_b$ . Using the definition of the subspace topology of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  inherited from  $\mathbb{R}$  there is  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\text{Cantor}_b \cap (x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \subseteq N$ . Choosing  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $b^{-n} < \epsilon$  then, since  $x \in {}^*b [0, 1]$ , there is a left end-point  $l \in L_n^b$  with  $x \in [l, l + b^{-n}]$  (see Lemma 1.1). By our choice of  $n$  we have  $[l, l + b^{-n}] \subseteq (x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon)$ , so  $\text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}] \subseteq N$ .

(ii) We first show the given sets are closed and open. It follows from Lemma 1.1 that if  $l \in L_n^b$  is a left endpoint of one of the intervals in the construction of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  then for  $n \geq 1$  we have

$$\text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}] = \text{Cantor}_b \cap (l - b^{-n}, l + 2b^{-n}).$$

This is obviously both closed and open in the topology of  $\text{Cantor}_b$ , which is the subspace topology inherited from  $\mathbb{R}$ . To see that the sets form a basis suppose  $U \subseteq \text{Cantor}_b$  is open. Then, by (i), for each  $x \in U$  there is a set  $B_x = \text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}]$  such that  $x \in B_x \subseteq U$ . Hence

$$U \subseteq \cup_{x \in U} B_x \subseteq U,$$

so  $U = \cup_{x \in U} B_x$ . This shows that sets of the form  $\text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}]$  form a basis for the topology of  $\text{Cantor}_b$ .  $\square$

An *isolated point* of a subset  $S$  of a topological space  $X$  is a point  $x \in S$  which has a neighbourhood containing no points of  $S$  except for  $x$ ; equivalently  $\{x\}$  is an open set in the subspace topology of  $S$ .

**Proposition 2.5.** *The Cantor set  $\text{Cantor}_b$  has no isolated points.*

*Proof.* Take  $x \in \text{Cantor}_b$ . By definition of the subspace topology it suffices to show that for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $y \in \text{Cantor}_b \cap (x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon)$ . Choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $1/b^n < \epsilon$ . Suppose  $x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b^{-k}$  where  $c_k \in \{0, b - 1\}$  and define  $y \in \text{Cantor}_b$  by

$$y = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} d_k b^{-k}, \quad \text{where} \quad d_k := \begin{cases} c_k & \text{if } k \neq n \\ (b - 1) - c_k & \text{if } k = n. \end{cases}$$

(So the base  $b$  expansion of  $y$  is the same as that of  $x$  except for the  $n$ th digit, which is the element of  $\{0, b - 1\} \setminus \{c_n\}$ .) Then  $x \neq y$  and  $y \in \text{Cantor}_b$  by Proposition 1.6, while Remark 1.3 tells us that  $|x - y| < 1/b^n < \epsilon$  as required.  $\square$

A subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$  is called *perfect* if  $A$  is closed and has no isolated points; equivalently each point of  $A$  is an accumulation point of  $A$ , or  $A$  is dense in itself.

**Corollary 2.6.** *The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are perfect.*

A set is called *nowhere dense* if its closure has empty interior.

**Proposition 2.7.** *The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are nowhere dense.*

*Proof.* It suffices to show that  $\text{Cantor}_b$  does not contain a non-empty open interval. Suppose  $c, d \in [0, 1]$  with  $c < d$  and choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $b^{-n} < d - c$ . By Lemma 1.1  $(c, d)$  is not contained in  ${}^*_b^n[0, 1]$ , so is not contained in  $\text{Cantor}_b$ .  $\square$

The above result can also be deduced from the computation of the “length” of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  in Remark 1.8: this computation (can be formalised so it) shows that the *Lebesgue measure* of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is 0, which is incompatible with  $\text{Cantor}_b$  containing a non-empty open interval.

Recall that a subset  $Y$  of a topological space is *disconnected* if it can be written as  $Y = A \cup B$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are nonempty disjoint open (equivalently closed) sets. A topological space is called *totally disconnected* if the only nonempty connected subsets are singletons. A topological space  $X$  is called *0-dimensional*<sup>1</sup> if each point has a neighbourhood base consisting of open-closed sets; equivalently, for every  $x \in X$  and closed set  $A$  not containing  $x$  there is an open-closed set which contains  $x$  and does not meet  $A$ . Since  $\{x\}$  is closed for each  $x \in \text{Cantor}_b$  it is clear that 0-dimensional is a stronger property than total disconnectedness.

**Proposition 2.8.** *The Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_b$  are 0-dimensional, hence totally disconnected.*

*Proof.* Proposition 2.4 shows that every point of  $\text{Cantor}_b$  has a neighbourhood base consisting of open-closed sets.  $\square$

### 3 Homeomorphisms

Finally, we prove the existence of some homeomorphisms involving Cantor sets. The first shows that Cantor sets behave like a fractal.

**Proposition 3.1.** *Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $l \in L_n^b$  a left endpoint of one of the intervals  $[l, l + b^{-n}]$  which make up  ${}^*_b^n[0, 1]$ . The intersection  $\text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}]$  is homeomorphic to  $\text{Cantor}_b$ .*

<sup>1</sup>This definition is taken from [Wil, Definition 29.4]. There are other notions of zero-dimensional topological space, which may not be equivalent to the one here in general. However, since Cantor sets are separable and metrisable the notions coincide.

*Proof.* Consider the map

$$[l, l + b^{-n}] \rightarrow [0, b^{-n}]; x \mapsto x - l.$$

This map is clearly a homeomorphism. Also, since  $l$  has the form stated in Lemma 1.1, we see from Remark 1.3 that the given map does not change any base  $b$  digit after the  $n$ th, while the first  $n$  base  $b$  digits of  $l$  are the same as the first  $n$  base  $b$  digits of every element of  $[l, l + b^{-n}]$ . It follows that the given map restricts to a homeomorphism

$$\text{Cantor}_b \cap [l, l + b^{-n}] \rightarrow \text{Cantor}_b \cap [0, b^{-n}]; x \mapsto x - l.$$

Now consider the map

$$\text{Cantor}_b \cap [0, b^{-n}] \rightarrow \text{Cantor}_b; y \mapsto b^n y,$$

which simply ‘removes’ the first  $n$  base  $b$  digits of  $y$  (all of which are 0). It is clear that this map is a homeomorphism between the stated sets. The composition of these two homeomorphisms gives the statement.  $\square$

The following result means that, from a topological point of view, there is no problem with referring to *the Cantor set*.

**Proposition 3.2.** *For any two bases  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  ( $b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $b_1, b_2 \geq 3$ ) the Cantor sets  $\text{Cantor}_{b_1}$  and  $\text{Cantor}_{b_2}$  are homeomorphic.*

*Proof.* Consider the natural map

$$\theta : \text{Cantor}_{b_1} \rightarrow \text{Cantor}_{b_2}; \theta \left( \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b_1^{-k} \right) := \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \left( \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} c_k \right) b_2^{-k}.$$

Since  $c_k \in \{0, b_1 - 1\}$  we have  $\frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} c_k \in \{0, b_2 - 1\}$ , so the definition makes sense. It is immediate from Proposition 1.6 that  $\theta$  is bijective. To show continuity of  $\theta$  take  $\epsilon > 0$ . Find  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $b_2^{-n} < \epsilon$ , then let  $\delta = b_1^{-n}$ . If  $x, y \in \text{Cantor}_{b_1}$  and  $|x - y| < \delta$  then, writing  $c_k$  and  $d_k$  for the base  $b_1$  digits of  $x$  and  $y$  respectively, we must have  $c_k = d_k$  for all  $k \leq n$  (see

Remark 1.3), so

$$\begin{aligned}
|\theta(x) - \theta(y)| &= \left| \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \left( \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} c_k \right) b_2^{-k} - \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \left( \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} d_k \right) b_2^{-k} \right| \\
&= \left| \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} b_2^{-k} (c_k - d_k) \right| \\
&= \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} \left| \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} b_2^{-k} (c_k - d_k) \right| \\
&< \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} b_2^{-n} < \frac{b_2 - 1}{b_1 - 1} \epsilon,
\end{aligned}$$

where the penultimate inequality follows from Remark 1.3. This proves that  $\theta$  is continuous. The same argument proves continuity of  $\theta^{-1}$ , as

$$\theta^{-1} \left( \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} c_k b_2^{-k} \right) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \left( \frac{b_1 - 1}{b_2 - 1} c_k \right) b_1^{-k}$$

(the roles of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are exchanged). Thus  $\theta$  is a homeomorphism. (In the proof of continuity of  $\theta$  we chose  $x$  and  $y$  in the same interval of  ${}^*_{b_1}[0, 1]$ , which ensures  $\theta(x)$  and  $\theta(y)$  are in the same interval of  ${}^*_{b_2}[0, 1]$ , therefore the distance between  $\theta(x)$  and  $\theta(y)$  is at most  $b_2^{-n}$ .)  $\square$

In fact it is possible to prove much more than the above result; the proof of the following result, sometimes called Brouwer's Theorem, can be found in [Wil, Theorem 30.3].

**Theorem 3.3.** *Any two totally disconnected, perfect, compact metric spaces are homeomorphic.*  $\square$

The following immediate consequence is due to Hausdorff [Hau].

**Corollary 3.4.** *The Cantor set is, up to homeomorphism, the unique totally disconnected, perfect, compact metric space.*

In Remark 1.10 we saw that Cantor sets can be written as an infinite product. We now show that this bijection is a homeomorphism.

**Theorem 3.5.** *The Cantor set is homeomorphic to the product space  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ .*

*Proof.* Consider the map induced by  $\beta$ , mentioned in Remark 1.10

$$\tilde{\beta} : \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \text{Cantor}_b; (a_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mapsto \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{a_k(b-1)}{b^k}.$$

Since  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  is compact and  $\text{Cantor}_b$  is Hausdorff a standard topological result (see for example [Wil, Theorem 17.14]) says that to prove  $\tilde{\beta}$  is a homeomorphism we only need to prove it is continuous. Choose  $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We want to find an open neighbourhood  $N$  of  $x$  such that if  $y \in N$  then  $|\tilde{\beta}(x) - \tilde{\beta}(y)| < b^{-n}$ ; this will show  $\tilde{\beta}$  is continuous at  $x$ , hence it is continuous as  $x$  is arbitrary. Define  $N := \cap_{i=1}^n \pi_i^{-1}(\{x_i\})$ , which is an open set in the product space  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ . (Here  $\pi_i : \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ ;  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mapsto x_i$  is the canonical projection.) Then  $y \in N$  means  $x_i = y_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , therefore  $|\tilde{\beta}(x) - \tilde{\beta}(y)| < b^{-n}$  by Remark 1.3. This shows that  $\tilde{\beta}$  is continuous, hence a homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.6.** *The Cantor set is (homeomorphic to) an abelian compact topological group.*

*Proof.* The set  $\{0, 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2$  is an abelian compact topological group, therefore so is the Cantor set by Theorem 3.5.  $\square$

A topological space  $X$  is called *homogeneous* if for any two points  $x, y \in X$  there is a homeomorphism on  $X$  which maps  $x$  to  $y$ .

**Proposition 3.7.** *The Cantor set is homogeneous.*

*Proof.* For any topological group  $G$  and any  $g \in G$  the map

$$G \rightarrow G; h \mapsto gh$$

is a homeomorphism (see [Wil, Section 13.G]). In particular, by Corollary 3.6, for any pair of elements  $x, y$  of the Cantor set there is a homeomorphism  $z \mapsto yx^{-1}z$ . This homeomorphism clearly maps  $x$  to  $y$ .  $\square$

Note that the above result shows that there is nothing topologically special about the endpoints of the intervals involved in the construction of the Cantor set.

To finish we quote a result of Alexandroff and Urysohn which gives a universal property of the Cantor set (see [Wil, Theorem 30.7]).

**Theorem 3.8.** *Every compact metric space is a continuous image of the Cantor set.*  $\square$

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