

Contents

1	General Topology	3
1.0.1	3 Relation	3
1.0.2	5 Cartesian Product	3
1.0.3	11 The Maximum Principle	3
2	Topological Spaces and Continuous Functions	4
2.0.1	12 Topological Spaces	4
2.0.2	13 Basis for a Topology	4
2.0.3	14 Order Topology	5
2.0.4	15 Product Topology	5
2.0.5	16 Subspace Topology	5
2.0.6	17 Closed Sets and Limit Points	6
2.0.7	18 Continuous Functions	8
2.0.8	18 The Product Topology	9
2.0.9	19 The Metric Topology	10
2.0.10	21 The Metric Topology Continued	12
2.0.11	22 The Quotient Topology	13
3	Connectedness and Compactness	14
3.0.1	23 Connected Spaces	14
3.0.2	24 Connected Subspaces of the Real Line	15
3.0.3	26 Compact Spaces	16
3.0.4	27 Compact Subspaces of the Real Line	17
3.0.5	28 Limit Point Compactness	18
4	Countability and Separation Axioms	20
4.0.1	30 The Countability Axioms	20
4.0.2	31 The Separation Axioms	20
4.0.3	32 Normal Spaces	21
4.0.4	33 The Urysohn Lemma	22
4.0.5	34 The Urysohn Metrization Theorem	22
4.0.6	35 The Tietze Extension Theorem	23
5	The Tychonoff Theorem	24
5.0.1	37 The Tychonoff Theorem	24

1. Functions

- **injective** $f : X \rightarrow Y$ injective or one-to-one if $\forall a, b \in X, f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow a = b$
- **surjective** $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is surjective if any $y \in Y \Rightarrow y = f(x)$ for some $x \in X$
- composition of injective/surjective/bijective functions are injective/surjective/bijective
- If f is injective with range Y , then its inverse function $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is a bijective function

2. Set Relations

- **De Morgan's Law**

$$X \setminus \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha} \right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} (X \setminus A_{\alpha}) \quad X \setminus \left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha} \right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (X \setminus A_{\alpha})$$

- **how functions acts on sets** Let $A, B \subseteq X$ and $C, D \subseteq Y$

- f well-behaved for union

$$f(A \cup B) = f(A) \cup f(B)$$

- f not well-behaved for intersection, difference

$$f(A \cap B) \subseteq f(A) \cap f(B)$$

$$f(A) \setminus f(B) \subseteq f(A \setminus B)$$

- f^{-1} well-behaved with union, intersection, difference, and set complement

$$f^{-1}(C \cup D) = f^{-1}(C) \cup f^{-1}(D)$$

$$f^{-1}(C \cap D) = f^{-1}(C) \cap f^{-1}(D)$$

$$f^{-1}(C \setminus D) = f^{-1}(C) \setminus f^{-1}(D)$$

$$f^{-1}(Y \setminus C) = X \setminus f^{-1}(C)$$

- f and f^{-1} mixed

$$A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$$

(with equality if f is injective)

$$f(f^{-1}(C)) \subseteq C$$

(with equality if f surjective)

Remark. Read

1. chapter 1, 1-8
2. chapter 2, 12-22
3. chapter 3, 23-29
4. chapter 4. 30-35

1 General Topology

1.0.1 3 Relation

1. A relation on a set A is a subset C of cartesian product $A \times A$. xCy means $(x, y) \in C$
2. **equivalence relation** is a relation if it satisfies reflexivity, symmetry, transitivity
3. **equivalence class** a subset of A determined by some $x \in A$, i.e. $E = \{y \mid y \sim x\}$
4. **partition** of a set A is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets of A whose union is all of A
5. **order relation** is a relation if it satisfies comparability (any $x \neq y \in A$ either xCy or yCx but not both) nonreflexivity (xCx does not hold for any $x \in A$) and transitivity
6. **dictionary order relation** Let A, B be sets and $<_A$ and $<_B$ be order relations. The order relation on $A \times B$ is defined by $a_1 <_A a_2$ or if $a_1 = a_2$ and $b_1 <_B b_2$
7. **least upper bound property** An ordered set A has the property if every nonempty subset A_0 of A that is bounded above ($\exists b \in A$ s.t. $x \leq b$ for all $x \in A_0$) has a least upper bound (all bounds of A_0 has a smallest element)
 - \mathbb{R} and $(-1, 1)$ has least upper bound property
 - $B = (-1, 0) \cup (0, 1)$ does not have least upper bound property, $\{-1/2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ is bounded above by any $b \in (0, 1)$ but its least upper bound $0 \notin B$

1.0.2 5 Cartesian Product

1. **indexed family of sets** Let \mathcal{A} be nonempty collection of sets, let $f : J \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a surjective indexing function. (\mathcal{A}, f) is called indexed family of sets, denoted by $\{\mathcal{A}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J} = \{\mathcal{A}_\alpha\}$ where $f(\alpha) = \mathcal{A}_\alpha$
2. **m-tuple** Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, Given a set X , define m-tuple of X to be a function $\mathbf{x} : \{1, \dots, m\} \rightarrow X$ and denote $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$
3. **cartesian product** Let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$ be indexed family of sets, let $X = \cup_{i=1}^m A_i$. Then cartesian product of \mathcal{A} is

$$X^m = \prod_{i=1}^m A_i \quad A_1 \times \dots \times A_m$$

to be the set of all m-tuples \mathbf{x} of elements of X such that $x_i \in A_i$ for each i

4. **ω -tuple** Given a set X , define ω -tuple of elements of X be a function $\mathbf{x} : \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow X$. \mathbf{x} is an *infinite sequence*, of elements of X . Denote $x_i = \mathbf{x}(i)$ as i -th coordinate of \mathbf{x} . Denote \mathbf{x} itself by (x_1, x_2, \dots) or $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$
5. **cartesian product (infinite)** Let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ be indexed family of sets and X be union of sets in \mathcal{A} , the cartesian product of \mathcal{A}

$$X^\omega = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} A_i \quad A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots$$

is defined to be the set of all ω -tuples (x_1, x_2, \dots) of elements of X such that $x_i \in A_i$ for each i

1.0.3 11 The Maximum Principle

Definition. (Strict Partial Ordering) Given a set A , and a relation \prec on A is a strict partial order if

1. (nonreflexivity) $a \prec a$ never holds
2. (transitivity) If $a \prec b$ and $b \prec c$, then $a \prec c$

Idea is not all $x, y \in A$ is comparable, i.e. either $x \prec y$ or $y \prec x$. Although a subset $S \subset A$ can be simply ordered.

Theorem. (The Maximum Principle) Let A be a set and \prec be a strict partial order on A . Then exists a maximal simply ordered subset B of A , i.e. does not exists $B' \subset A$ such that $B \subsetneq B'$ and B' simply ordered.

Definition. (upper bound and maximal element) Let A be a set and \prec be a strict partial order on A . If $B \subset A$, an **upper bound** on B is $c \in A$ such that $b = c$ or $b \prec c$ for all $b \in B$. A **maximal element** of A is an element $m \in A$ such that for no element $a \in A$ does $m \prec a$ hold.

Lemma. (Zorn's Lemma) Let A be a strictly partially ordered set. If every ordered subset of A has an upper bound in A , then A has a maximal element.

2 Topological Spaces and Continuous Functions

2.0.1 12 Topological Spaces

Definition. (Topology) Topology on a set X is a collection \mathcal{T} of subsets of X having properties

1. $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$
2. Arbitrary union of subcollection of \mathcal{T} is in \mathcal{T} (If $\forall \alpha \in I, U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$, then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$)
3. Finite intersection of subcollection of \mathcal{T} is in \mathcal{T} (If $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n, U_i \in \mathcal{T}$, then $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \in \mathcal{T}$)

A topological space is a pair (X, \mathcal{T}) , where \mathcal{T} are the open sets.

- Standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n is $\mathcal{T}_0 = \mathcal{T}_{std} = \{U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mid \forall x \in U, \exists \epsilon > 0 B_\epsilon(x) \subset U\}$
- Standard topology on \mathbb{R} is generated by $\mathcal{B}_{std} = \{(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\} \text{ the open intervals}$
- Lower limit topology on \mathbb{R} is generated by $\mathcal{B}_{l.l.} = \{x \mid a \leq x < b\} \text{ the half-open intervals}$
- Discrete topology $\mathcal{T}_1 = \mathcal{T}_{disc} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ all subsets are open
- Trivial topology $\mathcal{T}_2 = \mathcal{T}_{triv} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ only empty set and X are open
- Finite complement topology $\mathcal{T}_{f.c.} = \{U \subseteq X \mid X - U \text{ is finite or all of } X\}$
- Countable complement topology $\mathcal{T}_c = \{U \subseteq X \mid X - U \text{ is countable or all of } X\}$

Lemma. (Arbitrary intersection of topologies is a topology) $\forall \alpha \in I \mathcal{T}_\alpha$ is a topology, so is $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{T}_\alpha$

Definition. (Compare topology) If $\mathcal{T}' \subset \mathcal{T}$, then \mathcal{T}' is coarser / weaker / smaller than \mathcal{T} , \mathcal{T} is finer / stronger / larger than \mathcal{T}' . \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are comparable if $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{T}'$ or $\mathcal{T}' \subset \mathcal{T}$

$$\mathcal{T}_{triv} \subset \mathcal{T}_{f.c.} \subset \mathcal{T}_{std} \subset \mathcal{T}_{disc} \quad \mathcal{T}_{std} \subset \mathcal{T}_{l.l.}$$

2.0.2 13 Basis for a Topology

A terser representation of \mathcal{T}

Definition. (Basis) If X is a set, a basis for (X, \mathcal{T}) is a collection \mathcal{B} (basis elements) of subsets of X s.t.

1. For each $x \in X$, exists at least one basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$ containing it
2. If $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, then exists $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ s.t. $x \in B_3 \subset B_1 \cap B_2$

A topology $\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ generated by \mathcal{B} is defined as

$$\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B} = \{U \subset X \mid \forall x \in U, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}, x \in B \subset U\}$$

- $\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ is the unique minimal topology containing \mathcal{B}

$$\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B} = \bigcap_{\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{T}} \mathcal{T}$$

where $\mathbb{T} = \{\mathcal{T} \mid \mathcal{T} \supset \mathcal{B} \text{ and } \mathcal{T} \text{ is a topology}\}$

- For any X , all one point sets of X is a basis for \mathcal{T}_{disc}

Lemma. ($\mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$) $\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ equals the collections of all unions of elements of \mathcal{B}

$$\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B} = \{\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} B_\alpha \mid B_\alpha \in \mathcal{B} \quad \forall \alpha \in I\}$$

Lemma. ($\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$) Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be topological space. Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of open sets of X such that

$$\forall U \subset X, \quad \forall x \in U, \quad \exists C \in \mathcal{C} \text{ s.t. } x \in C \subset U$$

Then \mathcal{C} is a basis for \mathcal{T} (handy in deciding $\mathcal{B}_Y = \{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a basis for $Y \subset X$)

Lemma. (compare topology by basis) Let \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' be bases for \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' , respectively, on X . Then following equivalent

1. $\mathcal{T}' \supset \mathcal{T}$ (\mathcal{T}' is finer than \mathcal{T})
2. For each $x \in X$ and each $B \in \mathcal{B}$ containing x , there is a basis element $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subset B$

2.0.3 14 Order Topology

Definition. (Order Topology) Let X be a set with simple order relation. Let \mathcal{B} be a collection of all sets of the following type

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{B} = & \{(a, b) \mid a < b \quad a, b \in X\} \\ & \bigcup \{(a_0, b) \mid a_0 \text{ is minimal element (if any) of } X \quad b \in X \quad b \neq a_0\} \\ & \bigcup \{(a, b_0) \mid b_0 \text{ is maximal element (if any) of } X \quad a \in X \quad a \neq b_0\}\end{aligned}$$

Generated topology $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ is called order topology

- In \mathbb{R} , $\mathcal{T}_{ord} = \mathcal{T}_{std}$
- In \mathbb{Z}_+ , $\mathcal{T}_{ord} = \mathcal{T}_{disc}$ (since any $\{n\} = (n-1, n+1) \in \mathcal{T}_{ord}$)
- In $\{1, 2\} \times \mathbb{Z}_+$ in \mathcal{T}_{dict} is not in \mathcal{T}_{disc} (althogh most single point set are open, 2×1 is not open)
- In \mathbb{R}^2 , both \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' generates \mathcal{T}_{dict}

$$\mathcal{B} = \{(a \times b, c \times d) \mid a < c \vee (a = c \wedge b < d)\} \quad \mathcal{B}' = \{(a \times b, a \times d) \mid b < d\}$$

2.0.4 15 Product Topology

Definition. (Product Topology) Let X, Y be topological spaces, the product topology on $X \times Y$ is generated by the basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{U \times V \mid U \in \mathcal{T}_X \quad V \in \mathcal{T}_Y\}$$

Alternatively define product topology with basis. If \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C} are basis for X and Y respectively. Then

$$\mathcal{D} = \{B \times C \mid B \in \mathcal{B} \quad C \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

is a basis for topology of $X \times Y$

- $X \times \{y\} \cong X$
- $X \times Y \cong Y \times X$
- $(X \times Y) \times Z \cong X \times (Y \times Z)$
- Product spaces does not work well with order topology.
 - Consider $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $Y = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, then $\{0.5\} \times [0, 1]$ is not open in \mathcal{T}_{ord} but is open in $\mathcal{T}_{subspace}$

Definition. (Projection) Let $\pi_1 : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ be defined by $\pi_1(x, y) = x$. π_1 is a projection of $X \times Y$ **onto** the first factor. (note projections are surjective)

Definition. (Product Topology by Continuity of Functions) Given X, Y , there exists unique topology on $X \times Y$ such that

1. projections π_X and π_Y are continuous
2. If $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$, then $f \times g : Z \rightarrow X \times Y$ is continuous

Proof. Define $\mathcal{B} = \{U \times V \mid U \subset X \text{ open} \quad V \subset Y \text{ open}\}$. Show $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ satisfies the above 2 conditions. Prove uniqueness by showing $id : (X, \mathcal{T}') \rightarrow (X, \mathcal{T}'')$ is a homeomorphism utilizing the above 2 conditions. \square

2.0.5 16 Subspace Topology

Definition. (Subspace Topology) Let (X, \mathcal{T}) . Let $Y \subset X$, then

$$\mathcal{T}_Y = \{Y \cap U \mid U \in \mathcal{T}\}$$

is the subspace topology on Y . Alternatively, define using basis. If \mathcal{B} generates \mathcal{T} , then

$$\mathcal{B}_Y = \{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$$

is a basis for \mathcal{T}_Y .

- (**lemma**) $Y \subset X$. U open in Y and Y open in X , then U open in X
- (**lemma**) A subspace of a subspace is a subspace
- (**theorem**) A product of subspaces is a subspace of the product (subspace and product topology work well)

- X ordered and $Y \subset X$. order topology on Y may not be same as order topology of Y inherited as a subspace of X (subspace and order topology does not work well)
 - Let $Y = [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$. \mathcal{B}_Y are of the form $(a, b) \cap [0, 1]$. Note
 1. $[0, b)$ where $b \notin [0, 1]$ is open in $[0, 1]$ but not in \mathbb{R}
 2. $\mathcal{T}_{ord} \cong \mathcal{T}_{subspace}$ since the basis elements of the same form
 - Let $Y = [0, 1) \cup \{2\} \subset \mathbb{R}$.
 1. $\{2\}$ open in $\mathcal{T}_{subspace}$ since $(1.5, 2.5) \cap Y = \{2\}$.
 2. $\{2\}$ not open in order topology since any basis of the form $\{x \in Y \mid a < x \leq 2, a \in Y\}$ contains some other point other than $\{2\}$
 3. $\mathcal{T}_{ord} \not\cong \mathcal{T}_{subspace}$
- (theorem) subspace and order topology works well if the subspace is convex

Definition. (convex) Given ordered X and subset $Y \subset X$ is convex if $(a, b) \subset X$ lies in Y completely

Theorem. (subspace and order topology works well if the subspace is convex)

Let X be ordered and $Y \subset X$ be convex. Then order topology on Y same as topology Y inherits as a subspace of X .

Definition. (Subspace Topology by Continuity of Functions) Let X be topological space, $Y \subset X$, there exists unique topology on Y such that

1. inclusion $i_Y : Y \hookrightarrow X$ is continuous
2. If $f : Z \rightarrow Y$ such that $i_Y \circ f : Z \rightarrow X$ is continuous, then f is continuous

2.0.6 17 Closed Sets and Limit Points

Definition. (Closed) A subset A of X is closed if $X - A$ is open.

- In $\mathcal{T}_{f.c.}$, all finite subsets and X are closed
- In \mathcal{T}_{disc} every set is closed.
- In $Y = [0, 1] \cup (2, 3)$, $[0, 1]$ and $(2, 3)$ are open and closed in subspace topology of Y
- C closed in Y does not imply C is closed in X . However a closed set in a closed subspace is closed overall, i.e. in X (Let Y be a subspace of X . If A is closed in Y and Y is closed in X , then A is closed in X .)

Theorem. (Topology by closed sets)

1. \emptyset and X are closed
2. Arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed
3. Finite unions of closed sets are closed

Theorem. (Closedness in Subspace) Let Y be a subspace of X . Then A is closed in Y if and only if it equals the intersection of a closed set X with Y ($Y \subset X$, then $A \subset Y$ closed in Y if exists $K \subset X$ s.t. $A = K \cap Y$)

Definition. (Closure and Interior) If $A \subset X$

1. **Interior** $\text{Int}_X A = \overset{\circ}{A}$ is
 - the union of all open sets in X contained in A , i.e. $\text{Int}_X A = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{T}_X : U \subset A} U$
 - maximal open subsets of A in X
2. **Closure** $\text{Cl}_X A = \overline{A}$ is
 - the intersection of all closed sets containing A , i.e. $\text{Cl}_X A = \bigcap_{U \in \mathcal{T}_X : U \supset A} U$
 - minimal closed set containing A

- Set relationship

$$\text{Int} A \subset A \subset \overline{A}$$

- (theorem). Let $A \subset Y \subset X$, Let \overline{A} denote closure of A in X . Then the closure of A in Y is $\overline{A} \cap Y$
 - In \mathbb{R} , $Y = (0, 1]$, let $A = (0, 0.5) \subset Y$. $\text{Cl}_{\mathbb{R}} A = [0, 0.5]$, $\text{Cl}_Y A = \text{Cl}_{\mathbb{R}} A \cap Y = (0, 0.5]$
- If A open, then $\text{Int}(A) = A$; If A closed, then $\overline{A} = A$
- If $A \subset X$, then $(\overset{\circ}{A})^c = \overline{(A^c)}$ (Complement of interior is closure of the complement)

- In \mathbb{R} , let $A = \mathbb{Q}$ or $A = \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$, $\text{int}(A) = \emptyset$ and $\overline{A} = \mathbb{R}$ ($\text{int}(A) = \emptyset$ since no (a, b) contained fully in \mathbb{Q} or $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$)

Definition. (*neighborhood*) U is an open set containing x is equivalent to U is a neighborhood of x

Definition. (*intersects*) A intersects B if and only if $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$

Theorem. (*define closure using neighborhoods*) Let A be a subset of X ,

1. then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if every neighborhood of x intersects A
2. Let \mathcal{B} be basis of X , then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if every basic neighborhood B of x intersects A

proof by contraposition. Following are examples which uses this theorem to test/determine the closure

- If $A = (0, 1]$ then $\overline{A} = [0, 1]$ (since every neighborhood of $\{0\}$ intersects A)
- If $B = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$, then $\overline{B} = \{0\} \cup B$
- If $C = \{0\} \cup (1, 2)$ then $\overline{C} = \{0\} \cup [1, 2]$
- In \mathbb{R} , $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}$ since every neighborhood of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ contains some rational number, so intersects \mathbb{Q}
- In \mathbb{Z}_+ , $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_+} = \mathbb{Z}_+$

Definition. (*Limit Point*) Let $A \subset X$ and $x \in X$, x is a limit point of A if every neighborhood of x intersects A in some point other than x itself. In other words,

$$x \in \overline{A - \{x\}}$$

- In \mathbb{R} , $A = (0, 1]$, then any $x \in [0, 1]$ is a limit point of A and no other point in \mathbb{R} is a limit point
- In \mathbb{R} , $B = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$, 0 is the only limit point of B (any other $x \in \mathbb{R}$ has neighborhood that does not intersect B or intersects at x itself)
- In \mathbb{R} , $C = \{0\} \cup (1, 2)$, all $x \in [1, 2]$ are limit points of C
- In \mathbb{R} , every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a limit point of \mathbb{Q}
- In \mathbb{R} , no point is a limit point of \mathbb{Z}_+

Theorem. (*define closure using limit point*) Let $A \subset X$, let A' be set of all limit points, then

$$\overline{A} = A \cup A'$$

- (corollary) $A \subset X$ is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points, i.e. $A' \subset A$

Remark. ways to prove A is closed

1. show A^c is open
2. show $\overline{A} = A$ by proving that every $x \in A^c$ has open neighborhood that does not intersect A
 - $A = \{x_0\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ closed since every point different from x_0 has neighborhood not intersecting $\{x_0\}$

Definition. (*Sequence Convergence*) A sequence (x_n) converges to a point $x \in X$, denoted $x_n \rightarrow x$ or $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ if

$$\forall \text{ neighborhood } U \text{ of } x \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall n \geq N \ x_n \in U$$

For metric spaces

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq N \ |x_n - x| < \epsilon$$

Definition. (*Separated*) Let $x, y \in X$, x and y can be separated if each lies in a neighborhood which does not contain the other point. (neighborhood not necessarily disjoint)

Definition. (T_1 Space) X is T_1 if any two distinct points in X are separated.

- (*theorem*) Let $A \subset X$ T_1 . $x \in A'$ if and only if every neighborhood of x contains infinitely many points of A .
- (*theorem*) Every finite point set, specifically one-point set, in a T_1 space is closed

Definition. (T_2 Hausdorff Space) A topological space X is called Hausdorff space if for each pair x_1, x_2 of distinct points of X , there exists neighborhoods U_1 and U_2 of x_1 and x_2 , respectively that are disjoint.

$$\forall x \neq y \in X \exists \text{ neighborhoods } U, V \text{ of } x \text{ and } y \text{ respectively s.t. } U \cap V = \emptyset$$

- (*motivation*) Generally, one point set not always closed; Sequences converges can converge to more than limit.

- (theorem) Every finite point set, specifically one-point set, in a Hausdorff space is closed
- (theorem) If X is T_2 , then a sequence of points of X converges to at most 1 point of X
- (theorem) Every simply ordered set is T_2 in the order topology. Product of two T_2 space is T_2 ; Subspace of a T_2 space is T_2 (order/product/subspace topology well behaved with T_2)
- (examples)
 - \mathbb{R}_{std}^n , X_{disc} are T_2
 - X_{triv} not T_2 except when $|X_{triv}| = 1$
 - $X_{f.c.}$ not T_2 when X is infinite (since any $x, y \in X_{f.c.}$ are infinite and intersects)

2.0.7 18 Continuous Functions

Definition. (Continuous) A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if each open subset $V \subset Y$, the set $f^{-1}(V)$ is open. Alternatively formulated with basis, f is continuous if every basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$, $f^{-1}(B)$ is open

- $id : \mathbb{R}_{std} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{l.l.}$ is not continuous; $id : \mathbb{R}_{l.l.} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{std}$ is continuous

Theorem. (TFAE for continuous function) $f : X \rightarrow Y$

1. f is continuous
 2. For every subset A of X , $f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$ (convergence: $x_n \rightarrow x \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ to $x \in \overline{A} \Rightarrow f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$)
 3. For every closed set B of Y , the set $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed
 4. (generalized ϵ - δ) $\forall x \in X$ and \forall neighborhood V of $f(x)$, \exists neighborhood U of x such that $f(U) \subset V$
- In metric space, 4 can be reformulated with ϵ - δ definition. A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous if

$$\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$$

i.e. $(x \in B_\delta(x_0) \Rightarrow f(x) \in B_\epsilon(f(x_0)))$

Definition. (Homeomorphism) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijection. If f and the inverse function $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ are continuous, then f is called a homeomorphism. (continuous bijection)

- (theorem) If $X \cong Y$, then X and Y share topological property, i.e. property expressed in terms of topology only.
- (example) $(-1, 1) \cong \mathbb{R}$ since $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = \tan(x)$ is a homeomorphism
- (example) A function can be continuous but not homeomorphic. Consider $S^1 = \{x \times y \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ the unit circle. Let $f : [0, 1) \rightarrow S^1$ by $f(t) = (\cos(2\pi t), \sin(2\pi t))$. f is bijective and continuous but f^{-1} not continuous
- If $\mathcal{T}_1 \subset \mathcal{T}_2$, then $Id : (X, \mathcal{T}_2) \rightarrow (X, \mathcal{T}_1)$ is continuous
- If $\mathcal{T}_1 = \mathcal{T}_2$, then $Id : (X, \mathcal{T}_1) \rightarrow (X, \mathcal{T}_2)$ is a homeomorphism

Definition. (Imbedding) An injective map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a topological imbedding of X in Y if $f' : X \rightarrow Z$ is a homeomorphism (note the image set $Z = f(X)$ carries subspace topology inherited from Y)

- Intuitively, an imbedding $f : X \rightarrow Y$ let us treat X as a subspace of Y .
- (theorem) Every map that is injective, continuous, and either open or closed is an imbedding.
- (example) $f : [0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(t) = (\cos(2\pi t), \sin(2\pi t))$ maps to S^1 . f is a continuous injective map but not an imbedding.

Theorem. (Constructing Continuous Functions) Given X, Y, Z

1. (constant function) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ by $f(X) = \{y_0\}$, then f is continuous
2. (inclusion) If $A \subset X$ with subspace topology, inclusion $i_A : A \hookrightarrow X$ is continuous
3. (composition) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ are continuous, then $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$ is continuous
4. (restricting domain) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and $A \subset X$, then $f|_A : A \rightarrow Y$ is continuous ($f|_A = f \circ i_A$)
5. (restricting or expanding range) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ continuous. If $f(X) \subset A \subset Y \subset B$, then $g : X \rightarrow A$ obtained by restricting range of f is continuous. $h : X \rightarrow B$ obtained by expanding range of f also continuous ($h = i_Y \circ f$)

6. (local formulation of continuity) $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if $X = \cup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ such that $f|_{U_\alpha}$ is continuous for each $\alpha \in I$
7. (map to products) Let $f : A \rightarrow X \times Y$ given by $f(t) = (f_1(t), f_2(t))$ and $f_1 : A \rightarrow X$, $f_2 : A \rightarrow Y$. Then f is continuous if and only if f_1 and f_2 are continuous
8. (Algebraic Operations) If $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous, then $f + g$, $f - g$, $f \cdot g$, f/g ($g(x) \neq 0$) are all continuous
9. (Uniform Limit Theorem) If a sequence of continuous real-valued functions of a real variable converges **uniformly** to a limit function, then the limit function is continuous

Theorem. (the pasting lemma) Let $X = A \cup B$, where A and B are both closed or both open in X . Let $f : A \rightarrow Y$ and $g : B \rightarrow Y$ be continuous. If $f(x) = g(x)$ for every $x \in A \cap B$, set $h : X \rightarrow Y$

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in A \\ g(x) & x \in B \end{cases}$$

then h is continuous

- $h(x) = x$ for $x \leq 0$ and $h(x) = x/2$ for $x \geq 0$ is continuous

2.0.8 18 The Product Topology

Definition. (J-tuple) Let J be index set. Define **J-tuple** of elements of X be a function $\mathbf{x} : J \rightarrow X$. Given $\alpha \in J$, denote α th coordinate as \mathbf{x} at α by x_α instead of $\mathbf{x}(\alpha)$. Denote \mathbf{x} as $(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$. Denote the **set of all J-tuples** of elements of X by X^J

Definition. (Cartesian Product) Let $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be an indexed family of sets; Let $X = \cup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$. The cartesian product of this indexed family is given by

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha = \{(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} \in X \mid x_\alpha \in A_\alpha\} = \{\mathbf{x} : J \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} X \mid \forall \alpha \in J \mathbf{x}(\alpha) \in A_\alpha\}$$

is the set of all J -tuples $(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$ of elements of X such that $x_\alpha \in A_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$. Equivalently, the set of all functions $\mathbf{x} : J \rightarrow \cup_{\alpha \in J} X$ such that $\mathbf{x}(\alpha) \in A_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$

Definition. (Projection) The projection mapping associated with index β is defined by

$$\pi_\beta : \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta \quad \pi_\beta((x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}) = x_\beta$$

Definition. (Box Topology) Let $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be indexed family of topological spaces. Basis

$$\mathcal{B}_{\text{box}} = \left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \mid U_\alpha \text{ open in } X_\alpha \forall \alpha \in J \right\}$$

generates box topology

- (theorem) Given basis \mathcal{B}_α for each X_α , $\prod_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{B}_\alpha$ where $B_\alpha \in \mathcal{B}_\alpha$ is a basis for $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$

Definition. (Product Topology) Let $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be indexed family of topological spaces. Basis

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{B}_{\text{prod}} &= \left\{ \pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(U_{\beta_1}) \cap \cdots \cap \pi_{\beta_n}^{-1}(U_{\beta_n}) \mid U_{\beta_i} \in \mathcal{T}_{X_{\beta_i}} \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n \in J \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \mid \forall \alpha \in J U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_{X_\alpha} \text{ for almost all } \alpha U_\alpha = X_\alpha \right\} \end{aligned}$$

generates product topology

- (theorem) Let $f : A \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ defined by $f(a) = (f_\alpha(a))_{\alpha \in J}$ where $f_\alpha : A \rightarrow X_\alpha$ for each α , Then f is continuous if and only if each function f_α is continuous
- (theorem) For finite products, $\mathcal{T}_{\text{box}} = \mathcal{T}_{\text{prod}}$
- (example where product topology works while box topology does not) In $\mathbb{R}^\omega = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \mathbb{R}$, countably infinite product of \mathbb{R} . Define $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\omega$ by $f(t) = (t, t, \dots)$. Each $f_\alpha = \pi_\alpha \circ f$ is continuous so f is continuous in product topology. However f is not continuous in box topology. Consider $B = \{(-1/n, 1/n) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} \in \mathcal{B}_{\text{box}}$ open,

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{t \mid (t, t, \dots) \in B\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}) = \{0\}$$

not open in \mathbb{R}

Definition. (product topology by continuity of functions) There is a unique topology $\mathcal{T}_{\text{prod}}$ on $X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ with

1. $\pi_\beta : X \rightarrow X_\beta$ continuous for every $\beta \in J$
2. Given $f : Z \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$. If $f_\alpha = \pi_\alpha \circ f$ is continuous for every α , then f is continuous

Note $\mathcal{B}_{\text{prod}}$ satisfies the two condition

Proof. 1. by design. proof for 2 as follows

$$f^{-1} \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n \pi_{\beta_i}^{-1}(U_{\beta_i}) \right) = \{z \in Z \mid \forall i \ f_{\beta_i} \in U_{\beta_i}\} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n f_{\beta_i}^{-1}(U_{\beta_i})$$

is open as finite intersection of open sets □

Theorem. (Both box and product topology works well with subspace/ T_2 /closure)

1. Let $A_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$. Then $\prod A_\alpha$ is a subspace of $\prod X_\alpha$
2. If X_α is T_2 , then $\prod X_\alpha$ is T_2
3. Let $A_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$, then $\prod \overline{A_\alpha} = \overline{\prod A_\alpha}$

Proof. proof of 2. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_\alpha)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_\alpha)$ where $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$. So exists $\beta \in J$ such that $x_\beta \neq y_\beta$. Since X_β is T_2 , exists neighborhoods U_β, V_β for x_β and y_β s.t. $U_\beta \cap V_\beta = \emptyset$. Note $\pi^{-1}(U_\beta)$ and $\pi^{-1}(V_\beta)$ are disjoint neighborhoods of \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} . **proof of 3.** Mainly use the definition of closure using neighborhoods. (\Rightarrow) Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_\alpha) \in \prod \overline{A_\alpha}$. Need to show $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{\prod A_\alpha}$. Let $U = \prod U_\alpha$ be basic neighborhood of \mathbf{x} in \mathcal{T}_{box} or $\mathcal{T}_{\text{prod}}$. For each α , since $x_\alpha \in A_\alpha$, can find $y_\alpha \in U_\alpha \cap A_\alpha$. Note $\mathbf{y} = (y_\alpha) \in U \cap \prod A_\alpha$. Since U arbitrary, $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{\prod A_\alpha}$. (\Leftarrow) Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_\alpha) \in \overline{\prod A_\alpha}$. Want to show $x_\beta \in \overline{A_\beta}$ for all β . Let V_β be arbitrary neighborhood of x_β . Consider $\pi^{-1}(V_\beta)$, which is open in both \mathcal{T}_{box} and $\mathcal{T}_{\text{prod}}$. By definition of closure, exists $\mathbf{y} = (y_\alpha) \in \pi^{-1}(V_\beta) \cap \prod A_\alpha$. Hence $y_\beta \in V_\beta \cap A_\beta$. Hence, $x_\beta \in \overline{A_\beta}$ □

2.0.9 19 The Metric Topology

Definition. (Metric) A metric on X is a function

$$d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

with properties

1. (non-negativity) $d(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $x, y \in X$, with equality if $x = y$
2. (symmetry) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$
3. (triangle inequality) $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$

Definition. (ϵ -ball centered at x)

$$B_d(x, \epsilon) = \{y \mid d(x, y) < \epsilon\}$$

Definition. (norm) Given $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the norm of \mathbf{x} defined by $\|\mathbf{x}\| = (x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$.

Definition. (Metric Topology) Given X and a metric d , basis

$$\mathcal{B}_d = \{B_d(x, \epsilon) \mid x \in X, \epsilon > 0\}$$

generates the metric topology \mathcal{T}_d induced by d . Therefore

$$\mathcal{T} = \{U \subset X \mid \forall x \in U \exists \epsilon > 0 \ B(x, \epsilon) \subset U\}$$

1. **discrete metric** d_{disc} , defined by $d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) = 1$ if $x \neq y$ and $d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) = 0$ if $x = y$ induces $\mathcal{T}_{\text{disc}}$
2. **standard metric** on \mathbb{R} defined by $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ induces \mathcal{T}_{ord}
3. **(diamond)** $d_1 = \sum_i |x_i - y_i|$
4. **euclidean metric (circle)** on \mathbb{R}^n , $d_2 = d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$
5. **square metric (square)** on \mathbb{R}^n , $d_\infty = \rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \max\{|x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n|\}$ (furthest coordinate within ϵ)
6. (theorem) In \mathbb{R}^n , $\mathcal{T}_{d_1} = \mathcal{T}_{d_2} = \mathcal{T}_\infty$ induces same topology \mathcal{T}_{std} (proof by showing basis elements nests!)
7. (theorem) If X is metrizable, then X is T_2
8. (theorem) Subspaces of metric space behaves well $d|_{A \times A}$ induces subspace topology for $A \subset X$.

Definition. (Metrizable) If X is topological space, X is **metrizable** if there exists metric d that induces the topology of X . A **metric space** is a metrizable space X together with a specific metric d that gives the topology of X

- Metrizable is a topological property
- (not every topology comes with a metric) consider X_{triv} where $|X| \geq 2$, X not metrizable since it's not T_2
- \mathbb{R}^n is metrizable (d_1, d_2, d_∞ induces \mathbb{R}_{std}^n)
- \mathbb{R}^ω is metrizable under product topology but not box topology
- \mathbb{R}^J where J uncountable is not metrizable
- (theorem) countable products of metrizable spaces is metrizable
- (by sequence lemma) sequences are sufficient to describe metrizable spaces

Definition. (Bounded and Diameter) Given (X, d) , $A \subset X$ is **bounded** if there is some M such that

$$d(a_1, a_2) \leq M$$

for all $a_1, a_2 \in A$. The **diameter** of A is defined

$$\text{diam}(A, d) = \sup\{d(a_1, a_2) \mid a_1, a_2 \in A\}$$

- boundedness is not a topological property, since it depends on a specific d (consider d and \bar{d})

Definition. (Standard Bounded Metric) Given (X, d) , define $\bar{d} : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$\bar{d}(x, y) = \min\{d(x, y), 1\}$$

to be the standard bounded metric corresponding to d

- (theorem) d and \bar{d} induces the same topology, i.e. $\mathcal{T}_d = \mathcal{T}_{\bar{d}}$
- (trick) by above theorem, we can say $\text{diam}(A) \leq 1$ without loss of generality by replacing d with \bar{d}

Definition. (Uniform Metric and Uniform Topology) Generalize square metric to \mathbb{R}^J . Given $\mathbf{x} = (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} \in \mathbb{R}^J$. Define metric $\bar{\rho}$ by

$$\bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sup\{\bar{d}(x_\alpha, y_\alpha) \mid \alpha \in J\}$$

is called **uniform metric** on \mathbb{R}^J inducing **uniform topology**.

Theorem. (Relationship of Topologies on \mathbb{R}^J)

$$\mathcal{T}_{prod} \subset \mathcal{T}_{uniform} \subset \mathcal{T}_{box}$$

where the three topologies are all different if J is infinite.

Theorem. (Metric inducing product topology) If $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$, define

$$D(x, y) = \sup \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} \right\}$$

is a metric that induces product topology on \mathbb{R}^ω

Proof. Show D is a metric. Then show D gives product topology. Now show $\mathcal{T}_D = \mathcal{T}_{prod}$. To show \mathcal{T}_{prod} is finer, show there exists basis element in product topology that contains in a basis element of the metric topology. Let $B_D(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)$ be basic neighborhood of \mathbf{x} . Let N be such that $1/N < \epsilon$. Consider $V \subset \mathcal{T}_{prod}$ defined as

$$V = (x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \cdots \times (x_N - \epsilon, x_N + \epsilon) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \cdots$$

Show $V \subset B_D(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)$. Note for any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$, $\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)/i \leq 1/N$ for $i \geq N$. Therefore,

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sup \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}(x_1, y_1)}{1}, \dots, \frac{\bar{d}(x_N, y_N)}{N}, \frac{1}{N} \right\}$$

If $\mathbf{y} \in V$, then $\bar{d}(x_i, y_i) < \epsilon$ for all $i < N$. So $D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) < \epsilon$. Hence $V \subset B_D(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)$. Conversely, want to show \mathcal{T}_D is finer. The key here is recognize that product topology $\prod U_i$ where each component is metrizable and induced by d . Let $U = \prod_{i \in I} U_i \times \prod_{i \notin I} \mathbb{R}$ be a basis element in \mathcal{T}_{prod} where I is finite. Let $\mathbf{x} \in U$, want to find a basic neighborhood $V \in \mathcal{T}_D$ such that $\mathbf{x} \in V \subset U$. For each $i \in I$, find an interval $(x_i - \epsilon_i, x_i + \epsilon_i)$ such that $i\epsilon < \epsilon_i$ and $\epsilon \leq 1$. We can achieve this by setting $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_i/i \mid i \in I\}$. Now we claim that $\mathbf{x} \in B_D(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon) \subset U$. Let $\mathbf{y} \in B_D(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)$, then for all i ,

$$\frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} \leq D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) < \epsilon$$

We need to show that $\mathbf{y} \in U$. We only care about $i \in I$ since $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $i \notin I$. When $i \in I$, $\bar{d}(x_i, y_i) < i\epsilon < \epsilon_i \leq 1$. Therefore, $d(x_i, y_i) < \epsilon_i$ implying $\mathbf{y} \in U$ \square

2.0.10 21 The Metric Topology Continued

Definition. (Continuity in Metric Spaces) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ where (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) are metrizable. Then f is continuous if and only if $\forall x \in X$ and $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$d_X(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$$

Definition. (almost always) means all but finitely many

Definition. (Convergence) $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ if for all neighborhood U of x , almost always $x_n \in U$.

Definition. (Uniform Convergence) Let $f_n : X \rightarrow Y$ be a sequence of functions where Y is metrizable. Let d be metric for Y . The sequence (f_n) **converges uniformly** to the function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ if given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$ such that

$$d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$$

for all $n > N$ and all $x \in X$.

- depends on \mathcal{T}_Y and metric d
- stronger than point-wise convergence
- (uniform limite theorem) Given $f_n : X \rightarrow Y$ where Y metrizable. If (f_n) converges uniformly to f , then f is continuous.

Definition. (Sequential Closure) Given $A \subset X$, sequential closure is given by

$$\text{seq-cl}(A) = \{x \in X \mid \exists (x_n) \rightarrow x, x_n \in A\}$$

- (fact) $A \subset \text{seq-cl}(A) \subset \bar{A}$
- (the sequence lemma) $\text{seq-cl}(A) \subset \text{cl}(A)$ and with equality if X is metrizable.

Lemma. (The sequence lemma) Let X be a topological space and let $A \subset X$. If there is a sequence of points of A converging to x , then $x \in \bar{A}$. The converse holds if X is metrizable.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) If $x_n \rightarrow x$ where $x_n \in A$. Let U be any neighborhood of x . By definition of convergent sequence, $\exists N$ such that $\forall n \geq N$, $x_n \in U$. Since U arbitrary, every neighborhood of x contains some $x_n \in A$, hence $x \in \bar{A}$. Conversely, let d be metric inducing topology of X . Consider neighborhood $B_d(x, 1/n)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, pick n -th term for the sequence as $x_n \in B_d(x, 1/n) \cap A$. We claim that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$ is convergent. Indeed, take $B_d(x, \epsilon)$ be arbitrary basic neighborhood of x , take $N > 0$ such that $1/N < \epsilon$. Therefore, for all $i \geq N$, $x_i \in B_d(x, \epsilon)$ by construction. \square

Theorem. (Sequence Continuity) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. If f continuous, then every convergent sequence $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X , the sequence $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$. The converse is true if X is metrizable.

Definition. (First countability axiom) A space X that has a countable basis at each point satisfies first countability axiom. A space X said to have **countable basis at the point** x if there is a countable collection $\{U_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$ of neighborhoods of x such that any neighborhood U of x contains at least one of the sets U_n .

- used to prove the above lemma/theorem; metrizable is not necessary.

Definition. Spaces that are not metrizable

1. \mathbb{R}^ω in box topology is not metrizable
2. \mathbb{R}^J where J uncountable is not metrizable in product topology

Proof. Generally, to show that a space X is not metrizable, we can show that the space does not satisfy the sequence lemma. Specifically, if X is metrizable, then $\text{seq-cl}(A) = \text{cl}(A)$, to prove X not metrizable, find $A \subset X$ and $x \in X$ such that $x \in \text{cl}(A)$ and $x \notin \text{seq-cl}(A)$ (**Point 1**) Consider $A \subset \mathbb{R}^\omega$ be points with only positive coordinate values, i.e $A = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots) \mid x_i > 0 \text{ } i \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$. Now we claim that $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, \dots)$ is in $\text{cl}(A)$ but not $\text{seq-cl}(A)$. $\mathbf{0} \in \text{cl}(A)$: any neighborhood $B = (a_1, b_1) \times (a_2, b_2) \times \dots$ of $\mathbf{0}$ intersects A at point $(1/2b_1, 1/2b_2, \dots)$. Now we show there is no sequence of A converging to $\mathbf{0}$. Assume for contradiction that $(\mathbf{x}_n) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ where $\mathbf{x}_n = (x_{n,k})_{k=1}^\infty$. Let $U = \prod_n (-1, x_{n,n}) \subset \mathcal{T}_{\text{box}}$ be a neighborhood of $\mathbf{0}$. However not almost always $\mathbf{x}_n \in U$: in fact U contains no elements of the sequence (\mathbf{x}_n) since n -th coordinate $x_{n,n} \notin (-1, x_{n,n})$. Contradicts assumption that $(\mathbf{x}_n) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$. Therefore $\mathbf{0} \notin \text{seq-cl}(A)$. (**Point 2**) Let $A = \{(x_\alpha) \mid x_\alpha = 1 \text{ except for finitely many } \alpha \in I\}$. Let $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^J$ be origin. Now we show $\mathbf{0} \in \text{cl}(A)$. Let $U = \prod U_\alpha$ be neighborhood of $\mathbf{0}$ where $U_\alpha \neq \mathbb{R}$ for all $\alpha \in \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ in product topology. Now we show $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$. Consider $\mathbf{y} = (y_\alpha) \in \mathbb{R}^J$ where $y_\alpha = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ and $y_\alpha = 1$ otherwise. Note $\mathbf{y} \in A$ since all but finitely many y_α is 1; $\mathbf{y} \in U$ since $y_\alpha \in U_\alpha$ for $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ and $y_\alpha \in \mathbb{R} = U_\alpha$ otherwise. Hence $\mathbf{y} \in U \cap A$ and therefore $\mathbf{0} \in \text{cl}(A)$. Now we show $\mathbf{0} \notin \text{seq-cl}(A)$. Let \mathbf{a}_n be a sequence of A . Let $J_n \subset J$ such that $\mathbf{a}_n(\alpha) \neq 1$ for all $\alpha \in J_n$. J finite by of A . Let $J' = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} J_n$. Note J' is a countable union of finite set and hence countable. Since J uncountable, exists $\beta \in J$ such that $\beta \notin J'$ and therefore every point in the sequence $\mathbf{a}_n(\beta) = 1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Let $U_\beta = (-1, 1) \in \mathbb{R}$. Consider a neighborhood $U = \pi^{-1}(U_\beta) \subset \mathbb{R}^J$ of $\mathbf{0}$ that contains no points in \mathbf{a}_n . Therefore \mathbf{a}_n does not converge to $\mathbf{0}$. Therefore $\mathbf{0} \notin \text{seq-cl}(A)$. \square

2.0.11 22 The Quotient Topology

Definition. (Quotient Map) Given X, Y and $p : X \rightarrow Y$ be a surjective map. p is a quotient map if a subset $U \subset Y$ is open if and only if $p^{-1}(U)$ is open in X .

- (theorem) p is a surjective continuous map that is either open or closed, then p is a quotient map
- (example) projection maps $\pi_1 : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ is surjective, continuous, open and therefore a quotient map. However π_1 is not a closed map (since $\pi_1(\{x \times y \mid xy = 1\}) = \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ not closed)

Definition. (Quotient Topology and Quotient Space) Let X be a space and A be a set. If $p : X \rightarrow A$ is a surjective map, then there uniquely exists one topology \mathcal{T} on A relative to which p is a quotient map; \mathcal{T} is called the **quotient topology** induced by p .

$$\mathcal{T} = \{U \subset Y \mid p^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{T}_X\}$$

As a special case. Given \sim be an equivalence relation on X and $Y = X/\sim = \{\{y : y \sim x_0\} \mid x_0 \in X\} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ are equivalence classes of X . Then $p : X \rightarrow Y$ exists and is a surjection. The space Y with the quotient topology is called a **quotient space** of X .

Definition. define quotient topology with continuity of functions Given topological space X and $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$ a surjection, there is a unique topology on Y satisfying

1. $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$ continuous
2. If Z is a topological space, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ is a function. If $g \circ \pi$ is continuous, then g is continuous.

3 Connectedness and Compactness

theorems about continuous functions

- (intermediate value theorem) If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous and $f(a) < r < f(b)$, then exists $c \in [a, b]$ s.t. $f(c) = r$
- (maximum value theorem) If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous then exists $c \in [a, b]$ such that $f(x) \leq f(c)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$
- (uniform continuity theorem) If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous, then given $\epsilon > 0$ exists $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < \epsilon$ for every pair $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$ for which $|x_1 - x_2| < \delta$

3.0.1 23 Connected Spaces

Definition. (Separation and Connected) Given topological space X . A **separation** of X is a pair U, V where $U \cap V = \emptyset$ and $X = U \cup V$ and U, V both nonempty. The space X is **connected** if there does not exist a separation of X . Equivalently, X is connected if the only clopen sets are \emptyset and X .

- (fact) connectedness is a topological property
- (theorem) Image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected
- (theorem) Finite product $\prod X_\alpha$ connected if and only if X_α connected for all α

Definition. (Separation and Connected for subspaces) Given $Y \subset X$. A **separation** of Y is a pair of disjoint nonempty sets A and B whose union is Y , neither of which contains a limit point of the other (i.e. $cl_Y(A) \cap B = \overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset$). The space Y is connected if there exists no separation of Y .

Proof. Suppose A, B forms a separation of Y . Then $cl_Y(A) = \overline{A} \cap Y$. Since A closed in Y , $A = cl_Y(A) = \overline{A} \cap Y$. Since A, B disjoint, $\overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset$. Since \overline{A} contains all its limit point, B has no limit points of A . Conversely, given assumption we have $\overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ and $A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset$. Hence $\overline{A} \cap Y = A$ and $\overline{B} \cap Y = B$. Then A, B are closed in Y . Since A, B partitions Y , A, B are open in Y as well. \square

- (examples)
 - $\{a, b\}$ with \mathcal{T}_{triv} is connected
 - $Y = [-1, 0) \cup (0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is connected since $[-1, 0)$ and $(0, 1]$ is a separation. (0 is a limit point to both, but does not matter since 0 is not contained in $[-1, 0)$ or $(0, 1]$)
 - $X = [-1, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$. $[-1, 0]$ and $(0, 1]$ is not a separation (0 is a limit point of $(0, 1]$ but contained in $[-1, 0]$)
 - \mathbb{Q} not connected. Only one point subsets of \mathbb{Q} are connected.
 - $X = \{(x, y) \mid y = 0\} \cup \{(x, y) \mid y = 1/x\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ not connected (neither contain a limit point of each other)
- (lemma) If C, D forms a separation of X and Y is a connected subspace of X , then Y lies entirely in C or D
- (theorem) Union of connected subspaces of X with a common point is connected
($\cap A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ where A_α connected for all α then $\cup A_\alpha$ connected)
- (theorem) If $A \subset X$ be a connected subspace. If $A \subset B \subset \overline{A}$, then B also connected

Definition. (Connectedness for Infinite Products)

1. \mathbb{R}^ω is not connected in box topology
2. \mathbb{R}^ω is connected in product topology

Proof. (Point 1) Enough to find a separation of \mathbb{R}^ω . Interpret \mathbb{R}^ω as the collection of all real numbered sequences and is partitioned by the set of all bounded sequences of real numbers A and the set of all unbounded sequences of real numbers B . Now we show A, B both open. Consider $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$, we can find a neighborhood of \mathbf{a} in the box topology by $U = (a_1 - 1, a_1 + 1) \times (a_2 - 1, a_2 + 1) \times \dots$. If \mathbf{a} is bounded, U consists of only bounded sequences so $\mathbf{a} \in U \subset A$. If \mathbf{a} is unbounded, then U consists of only unbounded sequences and $\mathbf{a} \in U \subset B$. Therefore \mathbb{R}^ω not connected in box topology. **(Point 2)** To show \mathbb{R}^ω in product topology is connected, we find some connected $C \subset \mathbb{R}^\omega$ where $C \subset \mathbb{R}^\omega \subset \overline{C}$ and use the lemma to show that \mathbb{R}^ω is connected. Consider $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^\omega$ defined to be the set of all sequences fixed to 0 beyond n : $\mathbf{x} \in \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ such that $x_i = 0$ for all $i > n$. Since $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ and \mathbb{R}^n is connected, $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is connected. Since each $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is connected and $\cap_n \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n = \{0, 0, \dots\} = \mathbf{0}$, we have $\mathbb{R}^\omega = \cup_n \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ connected. To complete the proof, we show $\overline{\mathbb{R}^\omega} = \mathbb{R}^\omega$. Consider $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$ and $U = \prod U_\alpha$ be neighborhood of \mathbf{a} in box topology. We show $U \cap \mathbb{R}^\omega \neq \emptyset$. Let N be such that $U_i = \mathbb{R}$ for all $i > N$. Consider $\mathbf{x} = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N, 0, 0, \dots\} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$. $\mathbf{x} \in U$ since $x_i \in U_i$ for all $i \leq N$ and $x_i \in \mathbb{R} = U_i$ for all $i > N$. Therefore $\mathbf{x} \in U \cap \mathbb{R}^\omega$ hence $\overline{\mathbb{R}^\omega} = \mathbb{R}^\omega$ \square

3.0.2 24 Connected Subspaces of the Real Line

Definition. (convex) $Y \subset X$ is convex if every $a < b \in Y$, $[a, b] \in Y$

Definition. (Linear Continuum) A simply ordered set L having more than 1 element is called a linear continuum if

1. L has least upper bound property
 2. If $x < y$, there exists z such that $x < z < y$
- (fact) condition for connectedness to hold on \mathbb{R}
 - (theorem) If L is linear continuum in order topology, then L is connected, and so are intervals and rays in L
 - (theorem) If $Y \subset \mathbb{R}$, then Y is connected if and only if Y is convex and nonempty
 - (corollary) \mathbb{R} , intervals and rays in \mathbb{R} are all connected

Theorem. (Unit interval in $I = [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is connected)

Proof. Idea is to show any separation (A, A^c) gives $A = I$. Let $A \subset I$ be clopen. without loss of generality let $0 \in A$. Define $G = \{x \in I \mid [0, x] \in A\} \subset A$ and $g = \sup G$. Goal is to show $1 = g \in G$ such that $A = G$ and therefore $I - A = \emptyset$ which contradicts assumption of separation. **First** we show $g > 0$, note $0 \in A$ where A is open, hence $[0, \epsilon) \in A$ and therefore $\epsilon/2 \in G$. So $g = \sup G \geq \epsilon/2 > 0$. **Second** we show $g \not< 1$. We first show $g \in A$. Since $G \subset A$, we have $\overline{G} \subset \overline{A} = A$. Then $g = \sup G = \overline{G} \in A$. Hence $g \in A$. Since A open, can find $(g - \epsilon, g + \epsilon) \in A$. Easily, $[0, g + \epsilon/2] \in A$ and hence $g + \epsilon/2 \in G$ which contradicts $g = \sup G$. **Third** we show $g \in G$. Same as before we show $g \in A$. Can find open neighborhood $(1 - \epsilon, 1] \in A$. Easily $[0, 1] \in A$ hence $A = I$. To conclude (A, A^c) is not a separation. \square

Theorem. (Intermediate Value Theorem) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous map, where X is connected and Y is in order topology. If $a, b \in X$ and $r \in Y$ such that $f(a) < r < f(b)$, then there exists $c \in X$ such that $f(c) = r$.

Proof. Let $A = f(X) \cap (-\infty, r)$ and $B = f(X) \cap (r, \infty)$. Note $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and neither are empty since $f(a) \in A$ and $f(b) \in B$. Note $A, B \subset f(X)$ are open in the subspace topology by definition. If no $c \in X$ such that $f(c) = r$, then $f(X) = A \cup B$ then (A, B) constitutes a separation of $f(X)$, contradicting the fact that image of a connected space under a continuous map $f(X)$ is connected. \square

Definition. (Path Connectedness) Let $x, y \in X$, a **path** in X from x to y is a continuous map $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ such that $f(a) = x$ and $f(b) = y$. A space X is **path-connected** if every pair of points in X can be joined by a path.

$$\forall x, y \in X \exists \text{ continuous } f : [0, 1] \rightarrow X \text{ } f(0) = x \text{ } f(1) = y$$

- (theorem) continuous image of path-connected space is path-connected
- (theorem) path-connected space is connected. (converse not always true: see topologist's sine curve)
- (proposition) connectedness and path-connected subsets of \mathbb{R} are the same
- (theorem) If X_α path-connected, then $\prod X_\alpha$ is also path-connected (in product topology)
- (example) unit ball $B^n = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is path-connected ($f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \text{ } t \rightarrow (1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y}$ for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$)
- (example) punctured euclidean space $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ is path-connected
- (example) unit sphere $S^{n-1} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \|\mathbf{x}\| = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is path-connected ($g : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow S^{n-1} \text{ } \mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x} / \|\mathbf{x}\|$ is continuous)
- (example) Let $S = \{x \times \sin(1/x) \mid 0 < x \leq 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. The **topologist's sine curve** \overline{S} is connected but not path-connected

$$\overline{S} = (\{0\} \times [-1, 1]) \cup \{x \times \sin(1/x) \mid 0 < x \leq 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$

Theorem. (Topologist's sine curve is connected but not path-connected.)

Proof. Let $S' = (\{0\} \times [-1, 1])$ and let $S = \{x \times \sin(1/x) \mid 0 < x \leq 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and hence $\overline{S} = S' \cup S$. Since S is connected and \overline{S} is image of a connected set $(0, 1]$ under continuous map, \overline{S} is also connected. Now we show \overline{S} is not path-connected. Let $f : [a, c] \rightarrow \overline{S}$, $a < 0$ be a path connecting $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 0)$. Since S' is closed, $f^{-1}(S')$ is closed and has a largest element b . Therefore $f' : [b, c] \rightarrow \overline{S}$ where f' maps b to S' and rest of points to S . Replace $[b, c]$ with $[0, 1]$ for convenience. Let $f(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ which has to be continuous. Then $x(0) = 0$ and $x(t) > 0$ and $y(t) = \sin(1/x(t))$ for $t > 0$. There exists t_n a sequence such that $y(t_n) = (-1)^n$ does not converge, contradicting continuity of f . We construct t_n as follows. For each n , pick u in range $0 < u < x(1/n)$ such that $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$. Use intermediate value theorem to find t_n such that $x(t_n) = u$. \square

3.0.3 26 Compact Spaces

Definition 3.1. (Cover and Compact) A collection $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ **cover** X , or be a **covering** of X , if $\cup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = X$. \mathcal{A} is **open cover**, if it is a cover and all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ are open. A space X is said to be **compact** if every open cover \mathcal{A} contains a finite subcollection that also covers X , i.e. if $\{A_\alpha\}$ is an open cover, exists $I = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ such that $\cup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = X$

- (examples)
 - \mathbb{R} is not compact ($\mathcal{A} = \{(n, n+2) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ does not have a finite subcover)
 - $(0, 1]$ (and similarly $(0, 1)$) is not compact ($\mathcal{A} = \{(1/n, 1] \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ emits no finite cover)
 - $X = \{0\} \cup \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact. (idea: $U \in \mathcal{A}$ covering 0 covers all but finitely many points of $1/n$. Take U and $U_i \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $1/i$ not in U forms a finite cover for X)
 - X with finitely many points is compact (all covers are finite)
 - $[0, 1]$ is compact
- (theorem) Image of a compact space under a continuous map is compact
- (theorem) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be bijective continuous map. If X is compact and Y is T_2 , then f is a homeomorphism (idea: $K \subset X$ closed. Since X compact, K also compact, $f(K)$ is then compact, which is closed in T_2 space Y)
- (theorem) Product of finitely many compact spaces is compact (tube lemma)
- (theorem) Product of infinitely many compact spaces in product topology is compact (Tychonoff theorem)
- (theorem) A continuous function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where X is compact is bounded. (idea: $X = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}((-\epsilon_i, \epsilon_i))$, by compactness $X = \cup_{i=1}^n f^{-1}((-\epsilon_i, \epsilon_i)) = f^{-1}((-M, M))$ where $M = \max_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$)

Definition. (Compactness for subspace) Let $Y \subset X$. Y is compact (i.e. every covering of Y by open sets in Y has a finite subcover) if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X contains a finite subcollection covering Y

- (theorem) Closed subspace of a compact space is compact, i.e. $Y \subset X$ where X is compact and Y is closed, then Y is compact (idea: Given covering \mathcal{A} of Y by open sets in X , $\mathcal{A} \cup \{X - Y\}$ emits finite subcover for X , and therefore for Y by definition of compactness for subspace)
- (example) Given $[a, b] \in \mathbb{R}$ compact, any closed subset of $[a, b]$ is also compact.
- (theorem) Compact subspace of a T_2 space is closed, i.e. $Y \subset X$ where X is T_2 and Y is compact, then Y is closed (idea: fix $x_0 \in X \setminus Y$, find U s.t. $x_0 \in U \subset X \setminus Y$. By T_2 , exists disjoint open pair U_y, V_y separating x_0, y for all $y \in Y$. By compactness of Y , $\{V_y \mid y \in Y\}$ emits finite cover $V = V_{y_1} \cup \dots \cup V_{y_n}$ which are disjoint from $U = U_{y_1} \cap \dots \cap U_{y_n}$. $X \setminus Y$ open hence Y closed)
- (lemma) If X is T_2 and $Y \subset X$ is compact and $x_0 \notin Y$, exists disjoint $U, V \in \mathcal{T}_X$ that covers x_0 and Y , respectively
- (example) $(a, b] \in \mathbb{R}$ not compact since its not closed. (In T_2 , closedness is a necessary condition for compactness)

Definition. (T_3 Space) A space X is T_3 if

1. it is T_1 (singletons are closed)
 2. if $A \subset X$ is closed and $y \in A^c$, then there exists disjoint open $U, V \in \mathcal{T}_X$ such that $A \subset U$ and $y \in V$
- (theorem) X is compact and T_2 , then X is T_3 (straight from previous lemma)

Lemma. The Tube Lemma Consider $X \times Y$, where Y is compact. If $N \subset X \times Y$ is open and contains the slice $\{x_0\} \times Y$, then N contains some **tube** $W \times Y$ about $\{x_0\} \times Y$, where W is a neighborhood of x_0 in X

Proof. Idea is try to cover the slice $\{x_0\} \times Y$ with basis elements $U \times V \in N$, which happens to cover some tube about the slice. Since $\{x_0\} \times Y \cong Y$ and Y compact, then the slice is compact. Hence can cover $\{x_0\} \times Y$ with finitely basis elements $\mathcal{A} = \{U_1 \times V_1, \dots, U_n \times V_n\}$ where $U_i \times V_i \in N$. Note $W = U_1 \cap \dots \cap U_n$ is open and contains x_0 . We claim that \mathcal{A} actually covers not only the slice but also the tube $W \times Y$. Let $x \times y \in W \times Y$. Some $V_i \supset y$ and since $x \in \cap_j U_j$, $x \in U_i$. Hence $x \times y \in U_i \times V_i$. \square

- (example) $N = \{x \times y \mid |x| < 1/(y^2 + 1)\}$ is an open set containing $\{0\} \times \mathbb{R}$ but it contains no tube about the slice. (since \mathbb{R} is not compact, tube lemma does not hold)

Theorem. (Product of finitely many compact spaces is compact)

Proof. Show $X \times Y$ compact given X, Y compact and do induction from here. Let \mathcal{A} be any open cover for $X \times Y$. For any $x_0 \in X$, $\{x_0\} \times Y \subset X \times Y$ is compact and therefore covered by finitely many open sets of $X \times Y$, specifically $\{A_1, \dots, A_m\} \in \mathcal{A}$. Let $N = \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$. Since $N \supset \{x_0\} \times Y$ and N is open, there exists tube $W \times Y$ where W is a neighborhood of x_0 . For each $x \in X$, we can find such neighborhood W_x of x such that the tube $W_x \times Y$ is covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . Since X is compact, there is a finite covering $\{W_1, \dots, W_k\}$ of X . Union of the tubes covers $X \times Y$, i.e. $\bigcup_{j=1}^k W_j \times Y = X \times Y$. Since each tube covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} and there is finitely many tubes, we can cover $X \times Y$ with finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} \square

Definition. (Finite intersection property - FIP) A collection $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ is said to have **finite intersection property** if intersection of every finite subcollection is nonempty

$$\{C_1, \dots, C_n\} \subset \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^n C_i \neq \emptyset$$

Theorem. (define compactness using finite intersection property) X is compact if and only if every collection of closed sets having the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection

$$X \text{ compact} \iff \forall \mathcal{C} \text{ of closed sets in } X \text{ with FIP} \Rightarrow \bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C \neq \emptyset$$

Proof. Given $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$, let $\mathcal{C} = \{X - A \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$. Then the following holds

1. \mathcal{A} is a collection of open sets if and only if \mathcal{C} is a collection of closed sets
2. \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all elements of \mathcal{C} is empty (by DeMorgan's Law)
3. $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \subset \mathcal{A}$ covers X if and only if intersection of corresponding elements $C_i = X - A_i$ of \mathcal{C} is empty

Idea is to take contrapositive of normal definition of compactness: Given any \mathcal{A} of open sets, if no finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X , then \mathcal{A} does not cover X . Let \mathcal{C} be defined as above, apply above 3 points. We get: Given any \mathcal{C} of closed sets (1), if every finite collection of elements of \mathcal{C} is nonempty (3), then the intersection of all the elements of \mathcal{C} is nonempty (2) \square

- (example) nested sequence of closed sets $C_1 \supset C_2 \supset \dots$, where each $C_n \neq \emptyset$, then $\mathcal{C} = \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$ has finite intersection property and the intersection $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} C_n \neq \emptyset$

3.0.4 27 Compact Subspaces of the Real Line

Theorem. (Compactness for Ordered Set with Least Upper Bound Property) Let X be a simply ordered set having least upper bound property. In order topology, each closed interval in X is compact.

Theorem. (Characterize Compact Subspace of \mathbb{R}^n)

1. (\mathbb{R}) every closed interval in \mathbb{R} is compact (follows from previous theorem)
 - $[0, 1] \in \mathbb{R}$ is compact
2. (\mathbb{R}^n) $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded in euclidean d_2 or square d_∞ metric
 - (note) compact sets in metric space is **not** equivalent to the set of closed and bounded sets. boundedness depends on metric d whereas compactness is purely a topological property
 - Unit sphere and closed unit ball $S^{n-1}, B^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ are compact (closed and bounded)
 - $A = \{x \times 1/x \mid 0 < x \leq 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is not compact (closed but not bounded)
 - $S = \{x \times \sin(1/x)\}$ is not compact (bounded but not closed since does not contain limit points $S' = \{0\} \times [-1, 1]$)

Proof. (Part 1) proof similar to how we proved $I = [0, 1]$ is connected: 3 cases, by contradiction. **(Part 2)** Note $d_\infty(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq d_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \sqrt{n} d_\infty(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$. So A is bounded under d_2 if and only if it is bounded under d_∞ . So we need to consider square metric d_∞ only. (\Rightarrow) Assume A compact. Since $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact and \mathbb{R}^n is T_2 , A is closed. To show it is bounded, consider an open cover $\mathcal{A} = \{B_{d_\infty}(\mathbf{0}, m) \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ for \mathbb{R}^n . Since $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact, some finite collections covers A . So $A \subset B_{d_\infty}(\mathbf{0}, M)$ for some $M < \infty$. So any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in A$ has $d_\infty(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq 2M$. Hence A is bounded. (\Leftarrow) Idea is to find a compact superset of A , when combined with the fact that A is closed, gives A is compact. Assume for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in A$, $d_\infty(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq N$. Let $\mathbf{x}_0 \in A$ and let $b = d_\infty(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{0})$. Then for any $\mathbf{x} \in A$, we have $d_\infty(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}) \leq d_\infty(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x}_0) + d_\infty(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}) \leq N + b = P$. Therefore $A \subset \prod_{i=1}^n [-P, P]$ which is compact since $[-P, P] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact and finite product of compact set is compact. Since A is closed and $A \subset [-P, P]^n$, A is also compact. \square

Theorem. (Extreme Value Theorem) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous, Y is in order topology. If X is compact, then f attains its maximum and minimum, i.e. $\exists c, d \in X$ such that $f(c) = \inf_{x \in X} f(x)$ and $f(d) = \sup_{x \in X} f(x)$

Proof. Now show f attains its maximum, proof for minimum is similar. (\Rightarrow) Since f continuous and X compact, then $A = f(X)$ is compact. Enough to show that A contains its largest element M , and since $M \in A$, $M = f(d)$ for some $d \in X$. By contradiction assume A has no largest element, the $\mathcal{A} = \{(-\infty, a) \mid a \in A\}$ forms an open covering of A . Since A compact, $\{(-\infty, a_1), \dots, (-\infty, a_n)\}$ covers A . Let $a = \max\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$. Note $a \notin (-\infty, a_i)$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Since $a \in A$, a is not covered by \mathcal{A} which is a contradiction. (Alternatively, simply use the fact that $f(X)$ is a compact subspace of T_2 space Y so closed, and therefore $\sup_{x \in X} f(x) \in f(X)$) \square

Definition. (point-set distance) Let (X, d) be metric, let $A \subset X$ be nonempty. For each $x \in X$, define **distance from x to A** by $d(x, A) = \inf\{d(x, a) \mid a \in A\}$.

- (lemma) Fixing A , $d : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \ x \mapsto d(x, A)$ is a continuous function

Definition. (diameter) For metric space (X, d) and $A \subset X$, $\text{diam}(A, d) = \sup\{d(a_1, a_2) \mid a_1, a_2 \in A\}$

Lemma. (Lebesgue Number Lemma) Let \mathcal{A} be open covering of metric space (X, d) . If X is compact, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for each subset of X having diameter less than δ , there exists an element of \mathcal{A} containing it. The number δ is a **Lebesgue number** for the covering \mathcal{A} . In other words,

$$X \text{ compact} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left(\exists \delta > 0 \ \forall B \subset \mathcal{P}(X) \ (\text{diam}(B, d) < \delta \Rightarrow \exists A \in \mathcal{A} \ B \subset A) \right)$$

Proof. Let \mathcal{A} be a cover for X . If $X \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\delta > 0$ could be any since X contains any subsets in X . Now assume $X \notin \mathcal{A}$. Choose finite $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \subset \mathcal{A}$ covering X . For each i , let $C_i = X \setminus A_i$. Define $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d(x, C_i)$$

Key idea is $f(x) \geq 0$. Consider any $x \in X$, pick ϵ such that $B_\epsilon(x) \subset A_i$, then $d(x, C_i) \geq \epsilon$, so then $f(x) \geq \epsilon/n$. Note f is continuous and by extreme value theorem attains its minimum δ . Now we show δ is the Lebesgue number for \mathcal{A} . Let $B \subset X$ having diameter less than δ , let $x_0 \in B$ be arbitrary. Note $B \subset B_\delta(x_0)$. By definition of f as the average distance to all C_i s, since $f(x_0) \geq \delta$, we have $d(x_0, C_m) \geq \delta$ for some C_m . Therefore $B \subset X \setminus C_m = A_m \subset \mathcal{A}$. \square

Definition. (Uniform Continuity) Given (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) metric, then $f : X \rightarrow Y$ **uniformly continuous** if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \forall x_0, x_1 \in X \quad (d_X(x_0, x_1) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x_0), f(x_1)) < \epsilon)$$

- (note) Idea is one $\delta > 0$ works for all $x, y \in X$ nearby such that $f(x), f(y) \in Y$ are also nearby
- (theorem) Given continuous $f : X \rightarrow Y$, where X, Y are metric and X is compact, then f is uniformly continuous

Definition. (Uniform Continuity Theorem) continuous function on compact space is uniformly continuous

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$. take open covering of Y by balls $B(y, \epsilon/2)$. Let $\mathcal{A} = \{f^{-1}(B(y, \epsilon/2)) \mid y \in Y\}$ be open covering for X . Let δ be Lebesgue Number for \mathcal{A} on compact X . Let $x_0, x_1 \in X$ such that $d_X(x_0, x_1) \leq \delta$. Then $\text{diam}(\{x_0, x_1\}) \leq \delta$, and by Lebesgue Number Lemma, $\exists A \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\{x_0, x_1\} \in A = f^{-1}(B(y, \epsilon/2))$ for some $y \in Y$. Therefore, $d_Y(f(x_0), f(x_1)) < \epsilon$ \square

3.0.5 28 Limit Point Compactness

Definition. (Limit Point Compact) X is limit point compact if every infinite subset of X has a limit point in X .

- (theorem) Compactness implies limit point compactness, but not conversely (By contrapositive, try to show if A has no limit point it must be finite. Assume $A' = \emptyset$, then $\overline{A} = A$ hence A is closed. Since X compact, A also compact. Since no limit point, can find $U_a \cap A = \{a\}$ for all $a \in A$. Then $\cup_{a \in A} U_a \cup (X - A)$ covers X and emits finite subcover. Since each U_a contains only 1 point of A , A must be finite)
- (example) Given $Y = \{a, b\}$ with trivial topology. Let $X = \mathbb{Z}_+ \times Y$ is limit point compact but not compact. (limit point compact because any $\{n, a\}$ has a limit point $\{n, b\}$; in fact, every nonempty subset has a limit point in X . X not compact since covering by $\{n\} \times Y$ has no subcover)

Definition. (Sequential Compact) If (x_n) is a sequence of points of X and $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_i < \dots$ is an increasing sequence of positive integers, then (y_i) defined by $y_i = x_{n_i}$ is a **subsequence** of (x_n) . X is **sequentially compact** if every sequence of points in X has a convergent subsequence.

Definition. (Totally Bounded) A metric space (M, d) is totally bounded if and only if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, there exists a finite covering of X by ϵ -balls

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists x_1, \dots, x_n \in X \text{ such that } X = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_\epsilon(x_i)$$

- (theorem) Given X metrizable, X is totally bounded iff X is bounded. (\Rightarrow straightforward; \Leftarrow fill grid with balls)

- (fact) If want a bounded yet not totally bounded take $X = \mathbb{R}^\omega$

Definition. (Cauchy Sequence) A sequence (x_n) in a metric space (X, d) is Cauchy if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } (m, n > N \Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon)$$

- (fact) Cauchy is a property of the sequence itself, holds regardless of the surrounding space
- (example) In \mathbb{R}_{std} , Cauchy iff convergent

Definition. (Complete Sequence) X is complete if every Cauchy sequence in X is convergent to a point in X .

- (theorem) $X \subset \mathbb{R}_{std}^n$ is complete if and only if it is closed (\Leftarrow by close sets contains all its limit points. \Rightarrow Let $y \in \overline{X}$ Since \mathbb{R}_{std}^n is metric, then exists $(x_n) \rightarrow y$ that is Cauchy. Since X complete, $y \in X$, so X is closed)

Definition. (Completion) Metric (X, d) has a completion $com(X)$, which is a complete metric space containing X s.t. $\overline{A} = com(X)$

- (example) $com(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathbb{R}$

Theorem. (Compactness in Metric Space) Let X metrizable, then X is

1. compact
2. limit point compact
3. sequentially compact
4. totally bounded and complete (In \mathbb{R}_{std}^n , equiv to bounded and closed)

Proof. $(1 \Rightarrow 2)$ proved previously. $(2 \Rightarrow 3)$ Consider $A = \{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$. If finite, then exists x such that $x_n = x$ for infinitely many values of n , then (x_n) is constant and converges trivially. Otherwise A is infinite, then A has a limit point x . Consider a subsequence of $(x_n) \rightarrow x$. Pick n_1 s.t. $x_{n_1} \in B_1(x)$, and pick n_i such that $x_{n_i} \in B_{1/i}(x)$ and $n_i > n_{i-1}$. This is possible, since any neighborhood of x contains infinitely many points of A . The subsequence x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, \dots converges. $(3 \Rightarrow 1)$ We will show that if X sequentially compact, then X is totally bounded and satisfies lebesgue number lemma.

1. (totally bounded) By contradiction, assume exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that X cannot be covered by finitely many ϵ -balls. Now we construct a sequence (x_n) by pick x_1 be any point of X . If already chosen x_1, \dots, x_n , pick $x_{n+1} \in X$ be such that $x_{n+1} \in X - B(x_1, \epsilon) \cup \dots \cup B(x_n, \epsilon)$. This is possible since these balls are finite and cannot cover all of X . By construction $d(x_{n+1}, x_n) \geq \epsilon$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore (x_n) has no convergent subsequence. Since not always x_{n_k} is inside a ϵ -ball centered at any $x \in X$. In fact, any ϵ -ball contains only 1 point of x_n in the sequence.
2. (lebesgue number lemma) Let \mathcal{A} be a covering of X . By contradiction, assume no $\delta > 0$ such tha each set with diameter less than δ is covered by an element of \mathcal{A} . Then for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, can find set C_n with diameter less than $1/n$ not contained in any element of \mathcal{A} . Construct a sequence by taking $x_n \in C_n$. By sequential compactness, exists $x_{n_k} \rightarrow a$ for some $a \in A \in \mathcal{A}$. Since A open, then exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_\epsilon(a) \subset A$. Consider to take a large enough i such that $1/n_i < \epsilon/2$, this implies that C_{n_i} lies in $\epsilon/2$ -neighborhood of x_{n_i} . Also take a large enough i such that $d(x_{n_i}, a) < \epsilon/2$. Then $C_{n_i} \subset B_\epsilon(a) \subset A$, which contradicts assumption.

Let \mathcal{A} be an open covering of X . Since X is sequential compact, there exists a Lebesgue number δ . Let $\epsilon = \delta/3$. Use total boundedness to find a finite covering of X by ϵ -balls, where each ball has diameter of at most $2\delta/3$, then by Lebesgue Number lemma, lies in some element of \mathcal{A} . Pick one $A \in \mathcal{A}$ for each ϵ -balls, forming a finite subcover of X .

$(3 \Rightarrow 5)$ Given X sequentially compact, need to show its complete. Let (x_n) be arbitrary Cauchy sequence. By sequential compactness, exists a convergent subsequence $y \in X$ such that $x_{n_k} \rightarrow y$. To show X complete, enough to show the original sequence converges $x_n \rightarrow y$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given, let N be such that (1) $d(x_i, x_j) < \epsilon/2$ for some $i, j > N$ by Cauchy (2) $d(x_{n_k}, y) \leq \epsilon/2$ for all indices to the subsequence $n_k > N$ by convergence of (x_{n_k}) . Let $n > N$ and pick any index to the subsequence $n_k > N$, then $d(x_n, y) \leq d(x_n, x_{n_k}) + d(x_{n_k}, y) = \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$. Hence $x_n \rightarrow y$. $(5 \Rightarrow 3)$ Assume X is totally bounded and complete, show its sequentially compact. Let (x_n) be any sequence. Idea is to generate a subsequence that is Cauchy, then by completeness of space, the sequence is convergent. Cover X by finitely many 1 -balls; at least one of the balls, say B_1 contains infinitely many points of (x_n) , now let $J_1 = \{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \mid x_i \in B_1\}$ be indices for which $x_n \in B_1$. We again cover B_1 by finitely many $1/2$ -balls, and find another ball B_n containing infinitely many x_n s. We can pick J_k where $J_1 \supset J_2 \supset \dots$. Let $n_1 \in J_1$ and given n_k pick $n_{k+1} \in J_{k+1}$ such that $n_{k+1} > n_k$. For $i, j \geq k$, x_{n_i} and x_{n_j} are contained in ball B_k of radius $1/k$, it follows (x_{n_i}) is cauchy. \square

4 Countability and Separation Axioms

4.0.1 30 The Countability Axioms

Definition. (First Countability Axiom α_1) A space X have a **countable basis at x** if there is a countable collection \mathcal{B} of neighborhoods of x such that each neighborhood of x contains at least one of the elements of \mathcal{B} . A space that has a countable basis at each of its points is said to satisfy the **first countability axiom**, or to be **first countable**

- (theorem) Every metrizable space is first countable
- (observation) convergent sequences are adequate to detect limit points of sets and to check continuity of functions

Theorem. (Convergent Sequences in First Countable Space) Let X be a space

1. (the sequence lemma) Let $A \subset X$, if there is a sequence of points of A converging to x , then $x \in \overline{A}$ ($\text{seq-cl}(A) \subset \text{cl}(A)$); Converse holds if X is first-countable
2. (sequence continuity) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. If f is continuous, then every convergent sequence $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X , the sequence $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$; Converse holds if X is first-countable

Definition. (Second Countability Axiom α_2) If a space X has a countable basis for its topology, then X is said to satisfy the **second countability axiom**, or to be **second-countable**

- (theorem) second countable implies first countable
- (fact) not all metrizable space is second countable (this axiom is very strong!)
- (examples)
 - \mathbb{R} is second countable ($\mathcal{B} = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ countable)
 - \mathbb{R}^n is second countable ($\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i) \mid a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ countable)
 - \mathbb{R}^ω is second countable in product topology ($\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i \in I} (a_i, b_i) \times \prod_{i \notin I} \mathbb{R} \mid a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ } I \text{ countable}\}$ countable)
 - \mathbb{R}^ω is not second countable in box topology ($\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i=1}^\infty (a_i, b_i) \mid a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is not countable)
 - \mathbb{R}^ω is first countable (being metrizable) but not second countable under uniform topology
- (theorem) Countability Axioms behaves well for subspaces or countable products
- (theorem) Every open cover in a second countable space contains a countable subcover
- (theorem) Second countable space has a countable dense subset, i.e. X second countable, $\exists A \subset X$ s.t. $\overline{A} = X$

Definition. (Dense) A subset $A \subset X$ is **dense** in X if $\overline{A} = X$

- (example) \mathbb{Q} and $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ are dense in \mathbb{R}

4.0.2 31 The Separation Axioms

Definition. (T_0 Space) X is T_0 if for $x, y \in X$ where $x \neq y$, then either

1. exists open U such that $x \in U$ and $y \notin U$
2. exists open U such that $y \in U$ and $x \notin U$

Definition. (Separated) Let $x, y \in X$, x and y can be separated if each lies in a neighborhood which does not contain the other point. (neighborhood not necessarily disjoint)

$$\forall x \neq y \in X \quad \exists \text{ neighborhoods } U, V \text{ for } x, y \text{ respectively s.t. } y \notin U \text{ and } x \notin V$$

Definition. (T_1 Space) X is T_1 if any two distinct points in X are separated

- (theorem) A space is T_1 if and only if singleton/finite sets are closed

Definition. (T_2 Hausdorff Space) A topological space X is called Hausdorff space if X is T_1 and for each pair x_1, x_2 of distinct points of X , there exists neighborhoods U_1 and U_2 of x_1 and x_2 , respectively that are disjoint.

$$\forall x \neq y \in X \quad \exists \text{ neighborhoods } U, V \text{ of } x \text{ and } y \text{ respectively s.t. } U \cap V = \emptyset$$

- (theorem) $T_2 \Rightarrow T_1$
- (theorem) If X is T_2 and compact, then X is T_3
- (theorem) If X is T_2 , then a sequence of points of X converges to at most 1 point of X

- (theorem) T_2 is well behaved under order/product/subspace topology
- (examples)
 - $\mathbb{R}_{std}^n, X_{disc}$ are T_2
 - X_{triv} not T_2 except when $|X_{triv}| = 1$
 - $X_{f.c.}$ not T_2 when X is infinite (since any $x, y \in X_{f.c.}$ are infinite and intersects)

Definition. (T_3 **Regular Space**) X is **regular** if X is T_1 and for each pair consisting of a point x and a closed set B disjoint from x , there exists disjoint open sets containing x and B , respectively.

$$\forall x \in X \ B \subset X \text{ closed s.t. } x \notin B \quad \exists U, V \text{ open s.t. } x \in U \ B \subset V \ U \cap V = \emptyset$$

- (lemma) X regular iff given $x \in X$ and neighborhood U of x , exists neighborhood V of x such that $\overline{V} \subset U$
- (theorem) T_3 is well behaved under subspace/product

Definition. (T_4 **Normal Space**) X is **normal** if X is T_1 and for each pair A, B of disjoint closed sets of X , there exists disjoint open sets containing A and B , respectively.

$$\forall A, B \subset X \text{ closed s.t. } A \cap B = \emptyset \quad \exists U, V \text{ open s.t. } A \subset U \ B \subset V \ U \cap V = \emptyset$$

- (lemma) X normal iff given $A \subset X$ and neighborhood U of A , exists neighborhood V of A such that $\overline{V} \subset U$
- (observation) T_4 is not well behaved under subspace/product
- (theorem) $T_3 + \alpha_2 \Rightarrow T_4$
- (theorem) metrizable $\Rightarrow T_4$
- (theorem) compact $+T_2 \Rightarrow T_4$

Definition. ($T_{3.5}$ **Completely Regular Space**) X is **completely regular** if X is T_1 and for all $x \in X, B \subset X$ closed, $x \notin B$, there exists a continuous function $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f(x) = 1$ and $f|_B = \{0\}$

- (theorem) X is $T_{3.5}$ if and only if $\{f^{-1}((0, \infty)) \mid f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ continuous}\}$ is a basis for \mathcal{T}_X (\Rightarrow check 2 axioms for a basis. (1) Let U open and let $x \in U$, can find $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f|_{U^c} = \{0\}$ and $f(x) = 1$, hence $x \in f^{-1}((0, \infty)) \subset U$. Let U, V open and let $x \in U \cap V$, can find $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f|_{(U \cap V)^c} = \{0\}$ and $f(x) = 1$, hence $x \in f^{-1}((0, \infty)) \subset U \cap V$. \Leftarrow Let $x \in X$ and $B \subset X$ closed s.t. $x \notin B$. Let $U = X - B$ so $x \in U$. Hence can find continuous $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f(x) = 1$ and $f(B^c) = \{0\}$. Hence $T_{3.5}$
- (theorem) $T_{3.5}$ well behaved with subspace/product (subspace easy. product tricky. Let $\mathbf{a} = (a_\alpha)$ disjoint from closed set $A \subset X = \prod X_\alpha$. Consider basis element $\prod U_\alpha$ containing \mathbf{a} disjoint from A . Since each X_α $T_{3.5}$ can find $f_i : X_{\alpha_i} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ for $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ where $X_{\alpha_i} \neq U_{\alpha_i}$ such that $f_i(a_{\alpha_i}) = 1$ and $f_i(X - U_{\alpha_i}) = \{0\}$. Let $\phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = (f_i \circ \pi_{\alpha_i})(\mathbf{x})$; ϕ_i maps X continuously into \mathbb{R} and vanishes outside $\pi_{\alpha_i}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_i})$. Hence $f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi_2(\mathbf{x}) \cdots \phi_n(\mathbf{x})$ is continuous on X and equal 1 at \mathbf{a} and vanishes outside $\prod U_\alpha$)
- (theorem) $T_4 \Rightarrow T_{3.5}$ ($T_4 \iff T_{4.5} \Rightarrow T_{3.5}$)
- (theorem) $T_{3.5} \Rightarrow T_3$ (by $f^{-1}([0, 0.5])$ and $f^{-1}((0.5, 1])$ separates B and $\{x\}$)

Definition. ($T_{4.5}$ **Completely Normal Space**) X is **completely normal** if X is T_1 and for all $A, B \subset X$ closed $A \cap B = \emptyset$, there exists a continuous function $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f|_A = \{0\}$ and $f|_B = \{1\}$. We say A and B can be separated by a continuous function

- (theorem) $T_{4.5} \iff T_4$ (\Rightarrow by Urysohn lemma; \Leftarrow by $f^{-1}([0, 0.5])$ and $f^{-1}((0.5, 1])$ separates A and B)

4.0.3 32 Normal Spaces

Theorem. (Every regular space with a countable basis is normal) $T_3 + \alpha_2 \Rightarrow T_4$

Proof. Let A, B disjoint closed subsets of X . For each $x \in A$, exists open neighborhood U s.t. $U \cap B = \emptyset$. By regularity, exists neighborhood V of x such that $\overline{V} \subset U$. Now since there is a countable basis, pick an element from $U_x \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in U_x \subset V$. Pick such U_x for every $x \in A$, we find a countable covering for A , i.e. $\{U_n\}$, such that each $\overline{U}_n \cap B = \emptyset$. Similarly choose $\{V_n\}$ as a covering for B where each $\overline{V}_n \cap A = \emptyset$. But note that $U = \cup_n U_n$ and $V = \cup_n V_n$ not necessarily disjoint. Use trick

$$U'_n = U_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{V}_i \quad V'_n = V_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^n \overline{U}_i \quad U' = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U'_n \quad V' = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} V'_n$$

to avoid U_n s and V_n s from potential intersections. Each U'_n, V'_n are open since each is difference of an open set with a closed set. Note $\{U'_n\}$ covers A , since any $x \in A$ is in some U_n and in no \overline{V}_i . Similarly $\{V'_n\}$ covers B . Now we show $U' \cap V' = \emptyset$. Suppose $x \in U' \cap V'$. Then $x \in U'_j \cap V'_k$ for some j, k . Suppose $j \leq k$, then by definition of U'_j , $x \in U_j$ and by definition of V'_k , $x \notin U_j$. here is a contradiction. \square

Theorem. (Every metrizable space is normal) metrizable $\Rightarrow T_4$

Proof. Given (X, d) . Let $A, B \subset X$ disjoint and closed. For each $a \in A$, find ϵ_a s.t. $B_{\epsilon_a}(a) \cap B = \emptyset$. Let $U = \cup_{a \in A} B_{\epsilon_a/2}(a)$, similarly for $V = \cup_{b \in B} B_{\epsilon_b/2}(b)$. Note $A \subset U$ and $B \subset V$. Now claim they are disjoint. Suppose $x \in U \cap V$. then $x \in B_{\epsilon_a/2}(a) \cap B_{\epsilon_b/2}(b)$ for some $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Then $d(a, b) \leq d(a, x) + d(x, b) \leq (\epsilon_a + \epsilon_b)/2$, implying either $d(a, b) < \epsilon_a$ or ϵ_b . If former, then $b \in B_{\epsilon_a}(a)$, which is a contradiction. Same for the latter case. \square

Theorem. (Compact Hausdorff space is normal) compact $+ T_2 \Rightarrow T_4$

Proof. Let A, B be disjoint closed subsets of X . For each $a \in A$, find U_a, V_a disjoint containing a and B respectively, by regularity of X . $\{U_a\}$ covers A . Since A compact, $\{U_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a finite cover for A . Let $U = \cup_{i \in I} U_i$ and $V = \cap_{i \in I} V_i$ are disjoint open sets containing A and B respectively. \square

Theorem. (Every order topology is normal) order $\Rightarrow T_4$

4.0.4 33 The Urysohn Lemma

Theorem. (Urysohn Lemma $T_4 \Rightarrow T_{4.5}$) Let X be T_4 ; let A and B be disjoint subsets of X . There exists continuous map $f : X \rightarrow [a, b]$ such that $f(x) = a$ and $f(B) = \{b\}$

Proof. Proof sketch

1. Construct a simply ordered, countable set $\{U_p \mid p \in [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}\}$ such that for all $p < q$, $\overline{U_p} \subset U_q$.
2. Extend U_p for $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ by defining $U_p = \emptyset$ if $p < 0$ and $U_p = X$ if $p > 1$
3. Consider $f(x) = \inf\{p \mid x \in U_p\}$ and show f is the desired function
 - (a) $x \in A$, then $x \in U_p$ for all $p \geq 0$, hence $f(x) = \inf\{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid p \geq 0\} = 0$
 - (b) $x \in B$, then $x \in U_p$ for no $p \leq 1$, hence $f(x) = \inf\{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid p > 1\} = 1$
 - (c) f continuous
 - (fact) $x \in \overline{U_r} \Rightarrow f(x) \leq r$ (since $x \in U_s$ for all $s > r$, $f(x) = \inf\{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid p > r\} \leq r$)
 - (fact) $x \notin U_r \Rightarrow f(x) \geq r$ (since $x \notin U_s$ for any $s < r$, $f(x) = \inf\{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid p \geq r\} \geq r$)

Let $x_0 \in X$ and $(c, d) \in \mathbb{R}$, want to find neighborhood U of x_0 such that $f(U) \subset (c, d)$. Pick $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $c < p < f(x_0) < q < d$. Let $U = U_q - \overline{U_p}$. Let $y \in U$. By $y \in U_q \subset \overline{U_q}$, we have $f(y) \leq q$. By $y \notin \overline{U_p}$ implying $y \notin U_p$, we have $f(y) \geq p$. Therefore $f(y) \in [p, q] \subset (c, d)$

\square

4.0.5 34 The Urysohn Metrization Theorem

Theorem. (Imbedding Theorem) Let X be T_1 . Suppose $\{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is an indexed family of continuous functions $f_\alpha : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying requirement that for each $x_0 \in X$ and each neighborhood U of x_0 , there is an index α such that $f_\alpha(x_0) > 0$ and $f_\alpha(X - U) = \{0\}$. Then the function $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^J$ defined by

$$F(x) = (f_\alpha(x))_{\alpha \in J}$$

is an imbedding of X in \mathbb{R}^J . If f_α maps X to $[0, 1]$ for each α , then F imbeds X in $[0, 1]^J$.

Proof. Let \mathbb{R}^ω be in product topology. Recall $F(x) = (f_{\alpha_1}(x), f_{\alpha_2}(x), \dots)$. Note F is continuous, since each f_α is continuous. F is injective. Indeed, any $x \neq y \in X$, can find neighborhood U of x such that $y \in U^c$, so we can find $\alpha \in J$ such that $f_\alpha(x) > 0$ and $f_\alpha(y) = 0$, implying $F(x) \neq F(y)$. To prove F is an imbedding, enough to show $X \cong F(X) \subset \mathbb{R}^J$. Only left to prove F is an open map. Let $U \in X$, want to show $F(U)$ is open in Z . Let $x_0 \in X$ and $y_0 = F(x_0) \in \mathbb{R}^J$. We want to find open W such that $y_0 \in W \subset F(U)$. We can pick α such that $f_\alpha(x_0) > 0$ and $f_\alpha(U^c) = \{0\}$. Let $W = F(X) \cap \pi_\alpha^{-1}((0, \infty)) \subset \mathbb{R}^J$. Show

1. $(y_0 \in W) y_0 \in F(X)$ by assumption. $\pi_\alpha(y_0) = \pi_\alpha(F(x_0)) = f_\alpha(x_0) > 0$. Therefore $y_0 \in \pi_\alpha^{-1}((0, \infty))$.
2. $(W \subset F(U))$ Let $y \in W$, exists $x \in X$ such that $f(x) = y$ and $\pi_\alpha(y) = (0, \infty)$. Since $\pi_\alpha(y) = \pi_\alpha(F(x)) = f_\alpha(x)$ and $f_\alpha(x) = 0$ if $x \in X - U$, then $x \in U$.

Therefore, F is an imbedding of X in \mathbb{R}^J \square

- (theorem) X is $T_{3.5}$ if and only if X imbeds in $[0, 1]^J$ for some J (X is $T_{3.5}$ satisfies requirement for $\{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$)
- (theorem) X is T_3 and has a countable basis, then T_3 imbeds in $[0, 1]^\omega$ (Urysohn Metrization Theorem)

Theorem. (Urysohn Metrization Theorem $T_3 + \alpha_2 \Rightarrow$ metric) Every regular space with a countable basis is metrizable

Proof. Idea is to imbed X in a metrizable space Y , thereby proving X is metrizable by homeomorphism. To show $X \hookrightarrow [0, 1]^\omega$, we need to find a countable collection of continuous functions $\{f_n : X \rightarrow [0, 1] \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ that separates points from closed sets. The result follows by applying the imbedding theorem. Let $\{B_n\}$ be a countable basis for X . Note X is $T_3 + \alpha_2 \Rightarrow T_2 + \alpha_2 \Rightarrow T_4 \Rightarrow T_{4.5}$ by Urysohn lemma. For each $\bar{B}_n \subset B_m$, pick a continuous function $g_{n,m} : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $g_{n,m}(\bar{B}_n) = \{1\}$ and $g_{n,m}(X - B_m) = \{0\}$. We claim $\{g_{n,m}\}$ separates points and closed sets! Let $x_0 \in X$ and $B \subset X$ closed s.t. $x_0 \notin B$, we can find a basic element B_m of x contained in B . Since X is $T_{3.5}$, we can find B_n s.t. $x \in B_n \bar{B}_n \subset B_m$. By construction, $g_{n,m}(x_0) = 1$ and $g_{n,m}(X - U) = \{0\}$. Hence $\{g_{n,m}\}$ as desired. Note $\{g_{n,m}\}$ indexed by $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+$ and hence countable. Reindex and this gives us a collection $\{f_{n,m}\}$ which satisfies condition for imbedding theorem. \square

4.0.6 35 The Tietze Extension Theorem

Theorem. (Tietze Extension Theorem) Let X be T_4 ; Let $A \subset X$ be closed. Any continuous function of A into closed $[a, b] \in \mathbb{R}$ (\mathbb{R}) maybe extended to a continuous function of all of X into $[a, b]$ (\mathbb{R})

$$X \text{ is } T_4 \quad A \subset X \text{ closed} \quad f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ continuous} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists \tilde{f} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ continuous} \quad \tilde{f}|_A = f$$

Proof. Idea is to find $\{g_n\} \rightarrow \tilde{f}$ a sequence of functions that uniformly converges to \tilde{f} to ensure its continuity. Let $f : [-1, 1]$, be continuous, we can use the fact that X is now $T_{4.5}$ (Urysohn lemma) and find $g_1 : X \rightarrow [-1/3, 1/3]$ where $g(B) = -1/3$ and $g(C) = 1/3$ where $B = f^{-1}([-1, -1/3])$ and $C = f^{-1}([1/3, 1])$. This function satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} |g_1(x)| &\leq 1/3 & x \in X \\ |f(x) - g_1(x)| &\leq 2/3 & x \in A \end{aligned}$$

Consider $f - g_1 : X \rightarrow [-2/3, 2/3]$. We can iteratively define g_n and let $\tilde{f}(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} g_n(x)$. g converges and g is uniformly continuous. \square

- (theorem) If X satisfies Tietze, then T is $T_{4.5}$ (let $B, C \subset X$ closed. Define $f : B \cup C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = 0$ if $x \in B$ and $f(1) = 1$ if $x \in C$. f is continuous and use Tietze to find $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, which is as required for $T_{4.5}$)

5 The Tychonoff Theorem

5.0.1 37 The Tychonoff Theorem

Lemma. (Get Maximal $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ with FIP using Zorn's Lemma) Let X be a set; $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ having finite intersection property. Then there exists a collection $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ such that

1. $\mathcal{D} \supset \mathcal{A}$
2. \mathcal{D} has finite intersection property
3. no collection $\mathcal{D}' \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ where $\mathcal{D}' \supsetneq \mathcal{D}$ has finite intersection property

Call \mathcal{D} as maximal with respect to FIP

Proof. Let \mathbb{C} be a superset whose elements are collections of subsets of X , i.e. $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D} \in \mathbb{C}$. Let

$$\mathbb{A} = \{ \mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{P}(X) \mid \mathcal{B} \supset \mathcal{A} \text{ and } \mathcal{B} \text{ has FIP} \}$$

Use \subsetneq as strict ordering on \mathbb{A} . In order to apply Zorn's lemma on (\mathbb{A}, \subsetneq) , we show if $\mathbb{B} \subset \mathbb{A}$ that is simply ordered by \subsetneq , then \mathbb{B} has an upper bound in \mathbb{A} . Let $\mathcal{C} = \cup_{\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{B}} \mathcal{B}$ and we show that \mathcal{C} is an element of \mathbb{A} , and then it is the required upper bound for \mathbb{B} . To show $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{A}$. We show

1. $(\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{C})$ obvious since any $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{B}$ has $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B}$
2. (\mathcal{C} has FIP) Let $C_1, \dots, C_n \subset \mathcal{C}$ a finite subset, we want to show that their intersection is nonempty. Since $\mathcal{C} = \cup_{\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{B}} \mathcal{B}$, $C_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ for each i . Hence, $\{C_1, \dots, C_n\} \subset \mathbb{B}$. Since \mathbb{B} is assumed to be simply ordered, there exists \mathcal{B}_k such that $\mathcal{B}_i \subset \mathcal{B}_k$ for all $i \neq k$. Therefore $\{C_1, \dots, C_n\} \subset \mathcal{B}_k$. Since \mathcal{B}_k has FIP, $\cap_{i=1}^n C_i \neq \emptyset$ as desired.

Hence the upper bound \mathcal{C} is inside \mathbb{A} □

Lemma. (Intersection on Maximal \mathcal{D} w.r.t FIP) Let X be a set and \mathcal{D} be a collection of subsets of X that is maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Then,

1. Any finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{D} is an element of \mathcal{D}
2. If $A \subset X$ that intersects every element of \mathcal{D} , then A is an element of \mathcal{D}

Proof. (Part 1) Let B be intersection of finitely many elements of \mathcal{D} . Let $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{B\}$. To prove $B \in \mathcal{D}$, we show \mathcal{E} has FIP so by maximality of \mathcal{D} , $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{D}$ and $B \in \mathcal{D}$. Now take finitely many elements of \mathcal{E} , if none of them is B , then their intersection is nonempty since they are a subset of \mathcal{D} which has FIP. Now if one of finitely many elements of \mathcal{E} is B , then the intersection $D_1 \cap \dots \cap D_m \cap B$ is nonempty since B is the intersection of finitely many elements of \mathcal{D} . **(Part 2)** Let $X \subset X$ s.t. $A \cap D \neq \emptyset$ for all $D \in \mathcal{D}$. Similar to idea of part 1, define $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{A\}$. We show that \mathcal{E} has FIP. Now take finitely many elements of \mathcal{E} . If none of them is A , then they are nonempty by FIP of \mathcal{D} . Otherwise, $D_1 \cap \dots \cap D_m \cap A$ is nonempty since $A \cap D_j$ for all $1 \leq j \leq m$ by assumption. □

Theorem. (Tychonoff Theorem) Arbitrary product of compact spaces is compact in product topology

Proof. Let $X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ where each space X_α is compact. Let $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ be arbitrary and have FIP, now we show that $\cap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ is nonempty, thereby proving that X is compact. We apply lemma 1 to find a maximal collection \mathcal{D} such that $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{D}$ and \mathcal{D} has FIP. Now we show that $\cap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}$ is nonempty. Let $\pi_\alpha : X \rightarrow X_\alpha$ be projection map. For each α , consider $\{\pi_\alpha(D) \mid D \in \mathcal{D}\} \subset X_\alpha$ which has FIP since \mathcal{D} does. By compactness, we can choose $x_\alpha \in \cap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{\pi_\alpha(D)}$, which is possible by FIP. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} \in X$. To complete the proof, we show that $\mathbf{x} \in \cap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}$. Consider any coordinate index β and any $D \in \mathcal{D}$, let $U_\beta \subset X_\beta$ be a neighborhood of x_β . Since $x_\beta \in \overline{\pi_\beta(D)}$, U_β intersects $\pi_\beta(D)$. Let $\pi_\beta(\mathbf{y}) \in U_\beta \cap \pi_\beta(D)$ for some $\mathbf{y} \in D$. Hence $\mathbf{y} \in \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) \cap D$. Since D is arbitrary, by lemma 2.2, $\pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) \in \mathcal{D}$. Since β arbitrary, this holds for all $\beta \in J$. Then any basis element containing \mathbf{x} as finite intersection of subbasis $\pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) \in \mathcal{D}$, then by lemma 2.1, is also in \mathcal{D} . Now use \mathcal{D} FIP again, $B \cap D \neq \emptyset$ where $D \in \mathcal{D}$ and $B \in \mathcal{D}$ is any basic element containing \mathbf{x} . $\mathbf{x} \in \cap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}$ □