

# MAS331 위상수학

## Notes

한승우

May 17, 2023

# CONTENTS

CHAPTER	SET THEORY AND LOGIC	PAGE 2
	1.1 Basic Notation	2
	1.2 Relations	4
	1.3 The Integers and the Real Numbers	6
	1.4 Cartesian Products	6
	1.5 Finite Sets	6
	1.6 Countable and Uncountable Sets	8
	1.7 Infinite Sets and the Axiom of Choice	11
	1.8 Well-Ordered Sets	12
CHAPTER	TOPOLOGICAL SPACES AND CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS	PAGE 15
	2.1 Topological Spaces	15
	2.2 Basis for a Topology	16
	2.3 The Order Topology	18
	2.4 The Product Topology on $X \times Y$	19
	2.5 The Subspace Topology	21
	2.6 Closed Sets and Limit Points	23
	Closed Sets — 23 • Limit Points — 25 • Hausdorff Spaces — 26	
	2.7 Continuous Functions	27
	Continuity of a Function — 27 • Homeomorphisms — 28 • Constructing Continuous Functions — 29	
	2.8 The Product Topology	31
	2.9 The Metric Topology	35
	2.10 The Metric Topology (continued)	40
	2.11 The Quotient Topology	43
CHAPTER	CONNECTEDNESS AND COMPACTNESS	PAGE 50
	3.1 Connected Space	50
	3.2 Connected Subspaces of the Real Line	52
	3.3 Components and Local Connectedness	55

# Chapter 1

## Set Theory and Logic

### 1.1 Basic Notation

#### Note:-

- Sets:  $A, B, C, \dots, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}$
- Elements:  $a, b, c, \dots, 3, 3/4, \pi$
- $a \in A, 3 \in \mathbb{Z}, 3/4 \notin \mathbb{Z}$
- $A \subseteq B, A \subsetneq B, A \not\subseteq B$
- $\emptyset$ : empty set
- $A \times B := \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$  (Cartesian product)

#### Definition 1.1.1: Function, Restriction, and Composition

A function  $f$  from a set  $A$  to a set  $B$  is an assignment of an element of  $B$  to each element of  $A$ .

- $A$ : Domain
- $B$ : Range or Codomain
- $\text{Im } f := \{f(a) \mid a \in A\}$ : Image;  $\text{Im } f \subseteq B$

If  $A_0 \subseteq A$  and  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is a function, then the *restriction* of  $f$  to  $A_0$  is denoted by  $f|_{A_0}$  and is defined as

$$f|_{A_0}(a_0) := f(a_0)$$

for each  $a_0 \in A_0$ . If  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$ , then the *composite*  $g \circ f$  is defined as

$$(g \circ f)(a) := g(f(a))$$

for each  $a \in A$ .

#### Definition 1.1.2: Injectivity, Surjectivity and Bijectivity

A function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is

- injective* (or *one-to-one*, 1-1) if  $\forall a, a' \in A, f(a) = f(a') \implies a = a'$ ,
- surjective* (or *onto*) if  $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A, b = f(a)$ , and
- bijective* if  $f$  is both injective and surjective.

**Definition 1.1.3: Inverse Function**

If  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is bijective, then the inverse of  $f$  is denoted by

$$f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$$

and is defined as

$$f^{-1}(b) = a$$

for each  $b \in B$  where  $f(a) = b$ .

**Example 1.1.1**

- a)  $f$  is bijective  $\iff f^{-1}$  is bijective.
- b) The inverse is unique.

**Solution:** Suppose  $f$  is bijective. Then,

$$f^{-1}(b_1) = f^{-1}(b_2) \implies b_1 = (f \circ f^{-1})(b_1) = (f \circ f^{-1})(b_2) = b_2.$$

Therefore,  $f^{-1}$  is injective.

Take any  $a \in A$ . Then,  $b := f(a) \in B$  satisfies  $f^{-1}(b) = a$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1}$  is surjective.

Now, suppose  $f^{-1}$  is bijective. Then,

$$f(a_1) = f(a_2) \implies a_1 = (f^{-1} \circ f)(a_1) = (f^{-1} \circ f)(a_2) = a_2.$$

Therefore,  $f$  is injective.

Take any  $b \in B$ . Then,  $a := f^{-1}(b) \in A$  satisfies  $f(a) = b$ . Therefore,  $f$  is surjective; a) is now proven.

Let  $g$  and  $h$  are inverses of  $f$ . Take any  $b \in B$ . Since  $f$  is bijective,  $\exists! a \in A$ ,  $f(a) = b$ . Therefore,  $g(b) = a = h(b)$ , which implies  $g = h$ ; b) is now proven.

□

**Definition 1.1.4: Image and Preimage of a Set**

Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $A_0 \subseteq A$ ,  $B_0 \subseteq B$ .

- $f(A_0) := \{b \mid b = f(a_0) \text{ and } a_0 \in A_0\}$
- $f^{-1}(B_0) := \{a \mid f(a) \in B_0\}$

**Example 1.1.2**

- a)  $A_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A_0))$
- b)  $f$  is injective if and only if  $\forall A_0 \subseteq A$ ,  $A_0 = f^{-1}(f(A_0))$ .
- c)  $f(f^{-1}(B_0)) \subseteq B_0$
- d)  $f$  is surjective if and only if  $\forall B_0 \subseteq B$ ,  $B_0 = f(f^{-1}(B_0))$ .

**Solution:**

- a) For every  $a_0 \in A_0$ ,  $f(a_0) \in f(A_0)$ , which implies  $a_0 \in f^{-1}(f(A_0))$ . Therefore,  $A_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A_0))$  holds.

b) Suppose  $f$  is injective. Take any  $A_0 \subseteq A$  and  $a_0 \in f^{-1}(f(A_0))$ . Then,  $f(a_0) \in f(A_0)$ . We may take  $a_1 \in A_0$  such that  $f(a_0) = f(a_1) \in f(A_0)$ . Since  $f$  is injective,  $a_0 = a_1 \in A_0$ .

Suppose ' $\forall A_0 \subseteq A, A_0 = f^{-1}(f(A_0))$ ' holds. Suppose  $f(a_1) = f(a_2) = b_0$ . Let  $A_0 := \{a_1\}$ . Then,  $A_0 = f^{-1}(f(A_0)) = f^{-1}(\{b_0\}) \ni a_2$ . This means  $a_2 \in \{a_1\}$ , which implies  $a_1 = a_2$ .

c) Take any  $b_0 \in f(f^{-1}(B_0))$ . Then, there is some  $a_0 \in f^{-1}(B_0)$  such that  $f(a_0) = b_0$ . Such  $a_0$  satisfies  $f(a_0) \in B_0$ , which implies  $b_0 = f(a_0) \in B_0$ . Therefore,  $f(f^{-1}(B_0)) \subseteq B_0$  holds.

d) Suppose  $f$  is surjective. Take any  $B_0 \subseteq B$  and  $b_0 \in B_0$ . Then, there is some  $a_0 \in A$  such that  $f(a_0) = b_0$ , which implies  $a_0 \in f^{-1}(B_0)$ . Therefore,  $b_0 \in f(f^{-1}(B_0))$ ;  $B_0 \subseteq f(f^{-1}(B_0))$ .

Suppose ' $\forall B_0 \subseteq B, B_0 = f(f^{-1}(B_0))$ ' holds. Take any  $b_0 \in B$  and let  $B_0 := \{b_0\}$ . Since  $b_0 \in f(f^{-1}(B_0))$ , There is some  $a_0 \in f^{-1}(B_0)$  such that  $f(a_0) = b_0$ . Therefore,  $f$  is surjective.

□

## 1.2 Relations

### Definition 1.2.1: Relation

A relation  $\sim$  on a set  $A$  is a subset of  $A \times A$ .

$$x \sim y := (x, y) \in \sim$$

### Definition 1.2.2: Equivalence Relation and Equivalence Class

A relation  $\sim$  on a set  $A$  is an *equivalence relation* if

- (1)  $x \sim x$  for each  $x \in A$  (reflexive)
- (2)  $x \sim y \implies y \sim x$  (symmetric)
- (3)  $x \sim y \wedge y \sim z \implies x \sim z$ . (transitive)

Moreover, the *equivalence class* of  $x$  is defined as

$$\{y \in A \mid y \sim x\}.$$

### Example 1.2.1 (Partition)

If there are equivalence classes  $E$  and  $E'$ , then they are either  $E = E'$  or  $E \cap E' = \emptyset$ . This implies, if we let  $\mathcal{E} := \{E \mid E \text{ is an equivalence class of } x \text{ where } x \in A\}$ ,  $A = \bigcup_{E \in \mathcal{E}} E$ .

**Solution:** Since if  $E \cap E' = \emptyset$  it is done, suppose  $E \cap E' \neq \emptyset$ . There are  $a$  and  $a'$  such that  $E$  and  $E'$  are equivalence classes of  $a$  and  $a'$  respectively. We may take  $a_0 \in E \cap E'$ . By definition and transitivity,  $a \sim a_0 \sim a'$ . Therefore, for all  $x \in E$ ,  $x \in E'$  since  $x \sim a \sim a'$ , which implies  $E \subseteq E'$ . In the same way,  $E' \subseteq E$ .

□

### Definition 1.2.3: Order Relation

A relation  $<$  on a set  $A$  is an *order relation* if

- (1)  $x < y$  or  $y < x$  for each  $x \neq y \in A$
- (2)  $x \not< x$  for each  $x \in A$
- (3)  $x < y \wedge y < z \implies x < z$ .

Also, we define

$$(a, b) := \{x \in X \mid a < x < b\}.$$

### Definition 1.2.4: Order Type

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets with order relations  $<_A$  and  $<_B$ , respectively. Then,  $A$  and  $B$  have the same *order type* if there is a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$  such that  $a_1 <_A a_2 \iff f(a_1) <_B f(a_2)$ .

### Definition 1.2.5: Dictionary Order Relation

Let  $A, B$  be sets with order relations  $<_A, <_B$  respectively. Then, there is an order relation  $<_{A \times B}$  on  $A \times B$  defined as  $(a_1, b_1) <_{A \times B} (a_2, b_2)$  if

$$a_1 <_A a_2 \text{ or } a_1 = a_2 \text{ and } b_1 <_B b_2.$$

This is often called *dictionary order relation* on  $A \times B$ .

### Definition 1.2.6: Boundedness

Let  $A_0 \subseteq A$  with an order relation  $<_A$ .

- The *largest element* of  $A_0$  is  $b \in A_0$  if  $x \in A_0 \implies x \leq b$ .
- The *smallest element* of  $A_0$  is  $b \in A_0$  if  $x \in A_0 \implies x \geq b$ .
- $A_0$  is *bounded above* by  $b \in A$  if  $x \in A_0 \implies x \leq b$ .
  - The smallest such  $b$  is called the *least upper bound* or the *supremum* of  $A_0$ .
- $A_0$  is *bounded below* by  $b \in A$  if  $x \in A_0 \implies x \geq b$ .
  - The largest such  $b$  is called the *greatest lower bound* or the *infimum* of  $A_0$ .
- $A$  has *least upper bound property* if every bounded above nonempty set  $A_0 \subseteq A$  has a least upper bound.
- $A$  has *greatest lower bound property* if every bounded below nonempty set  $A_0 \subseteq A$  has a greatest lower bound.

### Theorem 1.2.1

A set  $A$  with an order relation  $<_A$  has l.u.b. property if and only if  $A$  has g.l.b. property.

**Proof.** Suppose  $A$  has l.u.b. property. Let  $A_0$  be any bounded below nonempty subset of  $A$ . Let  $L := \{a \in A \mid a \text{ is a lower bound of } A_0\}$ . Take a  $a_0 \in A_0$ . Then, since  $\ell \leq_A a_0$  for all  $\ell \in L$ ,  $L$  is bounded above by  $a_0$ . By l.u.b. property of  $A$ , there is  $\ell_0 := \sup L \in A$ .

Take any  $a_0$  in  $A_0$ . Since  $a_0$  is an upper bound of  $L$  and  $\ell_0$  is the least upper bound,  $\ell_0 \leq_A a_0$ . Therefore,  $\ell_0$  is a lower bound of  $A_0$ .

Suppose  $\ell_0 <_A \ell_1$  and  $\ell_1$  is a lower bound of  $A_0$ . This implies  $\ell_1 \in L$ , which contradicts

to  $\ell_1 \leq_A \sup L = \ell_0$ . Therefore,  $\ell_0$  is the greatest lower bound, and  $A$  has g.l.b. property. The inverse can be proven by the similar reasoning.  $\square$

### Theorem 1.2.2 Completeness of $\mathbb{R}$

The set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  has least upper bound property.

## 1.3 The Integers and the Real Numbers

### Theorem 1.3.1 Well-Ordering Property

Every nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  has a smallest element.

**Proof.** We first prove that, for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , every nonempty subset of  $[n] := \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  has a smallest element, using induction. For the base case, it is known the the only nonempty subset of  $[1]$ ,  $\{1\}$ , has 1 as its smallest element.

Suppose the statement holds for  $n = k$ . Now take any nonempty subset  $S$  of  $[k + 1]$ . If  $S = \{k + 1\}$ ,  $k + 1$ , the only element of  $S$ , is a smallest element of  $S$ . Otherwise,  $S \setminus \{k + 1\}$  is nonempty and is a subset of  $[k]$ ; we may let  $\mu := \min S$  by the induction hypothesis. Then,  $\mu$  is also a smallest element of  $S$ , regardless of whether it is  $k + 1 \in S$  or  $k + 1 \notin S$ .

Now, take any  $\emptyset \neq T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_+$  and  $m \in T$ . Then, by our previous result, since  $T \cap [m]$  is a nonempty subset of  $[m]$ , it has a smallest element, which is also a smallest element of  $T$ .  $\square$

## 1.4 Cartesian Products

### Definition 1.4.1: Indexing Function and Indexed Family of Sets

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a nonempty collection of sets. An *indexing function* for  $\mathcal{A}$  is a surjective function  $f : J \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  where  $A_\alpha := f(\alpha)$ . An *indexed family* of sets is defined as  $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ . Now, we define

$$\begin{aligned} \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha &:= \{x \mid \exists \alpha \in J, x \in A_\alpha\} \\ \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha &:= \{x \mid \forall \alpha \in J, x \in A_\alpha\} \\ \prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha &:= \{f : J \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \mid \forall \alpha \in J, f(\alpha) \in A_\alpha\}. \end{aligned}$$

## 1.5 Finite Sets

### Definition 1.5.1: Finite Set and Cardinality

A set  $A$  is *finite* if there is a bijective  $f : A \rightarrow [n]$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  or  $A = \emptyset$ .

- In the former case, we say *cardinality*  $n$  or  $|A| = n$ .
- In the latter case, we say *cardinality* 0 or  $|A| = 0$ .

#### Note:-

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be finite sets. Then,  $|A| = |B| = n$  if and only if  $\exists$  bijective  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

### Lemma 1.5.1

Let  $a_0 \in A$ . Then,

$$|A| = n \iff |A \setminus \{a_0\}| = n - 1.$$

**Proof.** For  $n = 1$ , it is trivial. So suppose  $n \geq 2$ .

( $\Rightarrow$ ) There is a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow [n]$ . If  $f(a_0) = n$ , then  $f|_{A \setminus \{a_0\}}$  is a bijection from  $A \setminus \{a_0\}$  to  $[n - 1]$ , and it's done. Otherwise, let  $a_1 := f^{-1}(n)$ . Define  $g : A \rightarrow A$  by

$$g(a) := \begin{cases} a_0 & \text{if } a = a_1 \\ a_1 & \text{if } a = a_0 \\ a & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$g$  is bijective. Then,  $f \circ g$  is a bijection from  $A$  to  $[n]$  such that  $(f \circ g)(a_0) = n$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Trivial. □

### Theorem 1.5.1

Let  $A$  be a set with  $|A| = n$  and  $B \subsetneq A$ . Then, there is no bijection between  $B$  and  $[n]$ , but (provided  $B \neq \emptyset$ ) there is a bijection between  $B$  and  $[m]$  for some  $m < n$ .

**Proof by Induction.** (Base case) It is trivial for  $n = 1$ .

(Induction) Suppose it is true for  $n \geq 1$ . WTS for the case  $|A| = n + 1$ . Suppose  $B \neq \emptyset$  because we have nothing to talk about then. Let  $a_0 \in B$ . By Lemma 1.5.1, there is a bijection  $g : A \setminus \{a_0\} \rightarrow [n]$ . Since  $B \setminus \{a_0\} \subsetneq A \setminus \{a_0\}$ , by induction hypothesis, we have two things.

- There is no bijection between  $B \setminus \{a_0\}$  and  $[n]$ .
- As long as  $B \neq \{a_0\}$ , there is a bijection from  $B \setminus \{a_0\}$  to  $[m]$  for some  $m < n$ .

We conclude that there is no bijection from  $B$  and  $[n + 1]$  since, if there were, there would be a trivial bijection from  $B \setminus \{a_0\}$  to  $[n]$ . Moreover, we can construct a bijection between  $B$  and  $[m + 1]$ , and  $m + 1 < n + 1$ . □

### Corollary 1.5.1 Uniqueness of Cardinality

The cardinality of a finite set is uniquely determined.

**Proof.** Let  $m < n$  and suppose  $m$  and  $n$  are cardinalities of a finite set  $A$ . Then there are bijections  $f : A \rightarrow [m]$  and  $g : A \rightarrow [n]$ . Then,  $f \circ g^{-1}$  is a bijection from  $[m]$  to  $[n]$  but it is impossible since  $[m] \subsetneq [n]$  and because of Theorem 1.5.1. □

### Corollary 1.5.2

$\mathbb{Z}_+$  is not finite.

**Proof by Contradiction.** Suppose  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is finite and  $|\mathbb{Z}_+| = n$ .  $f : \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+ \setminus \{1\}$  with  $x \mapsto x + 1$  is bijective. Then, by Lemma 1.5.1,  $n - 1 = |\mathbb{Z}_+ \setminus \{1\}| = |\mathbb{Z}_+| = n$ ,  $\#$ . □

### Theorem 1.5.2

Let  $A$  be a set. TFAE

- (i)  $|A| = n$
- (ii)  $\exists$  surjective  $[m] \twoheadrightarrow A$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ .
- (iii)  $\exists$  injective  $A \hookrightarrow [m]$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ .



**Proof.** ((i)  $\rightarrow$  (ii)) There is a bijective function from  $A$  to  $[n]$ , and it is also surjective.

((ii)  $\rightarrow$  (iii)) Let  $f$  be a surjective function from  $[m]$  to  $A$ . Since  $f$  is surjective,  $f^{-1}(\{a\}) \neq \emptyset$  for every  $a \in A$ . Let  $M := \max\{\min f^{-1}(\{a\}) \mid a \in A\}$ .  $M$  is well defined thanks to Theorem 1.3.1 and the fact that  $\emptyset \neq f^{-1}(\{a\}) \subseteq [m]$ . Then the function  $g: A \rightarrow [M]$  defined by  $a \mapsto \min f^{-1}(\{a\})$  is injective.

((iii)  $\rightarrow$  (i)) Let  $f$  be an injective function from  $A$  to  $[m]$ . Then,  $g: A \rightarrow \text{Im } f$  defined by  $a \mapsto f(a)$  is bijective.  $A$  is finite because  $\text{Im } f$  is finite by Theorem 1.5.1.  $\square$

### Exercise 1.5.1

- (i) Finite unions of finite sets are finite.
- (ii) Finite Cartesian products of finite sets are finite.

**Solution:** (i) Suppose there are  $n$  finite sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  to union. WLOG,  $A_i \neq \emptyset$  for each  $i \in [n]$ . Let  $M := \max_{i \in [n]} |A_i|$  and  $g_i: [|A_i|] \rightarrow A_i$  be a bijective function for each  $i \in [n]$ . Extend each  $g_i$  to  $g'_i: [M] \rightarrow A_i$  by

$$g'_i(k) = \begin{cases} g_i(k) & \text{if } k \leq |A_i| \\ g_i(1) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

for  $k \in [M]$ . Now, we define  $f: [nM] \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in [n]} A_i$  by

$$f(n(i-1) + k) := g'_i(k)$$

for each  $i \in [n]$  and  $k \in [M]$ . Then,  $f$  is surjective. Therefore,  $\bigcup_{i \in [n]} A_i$  is finite by Theorem 1.5.2.

(ii) Suppose there are  $n$  finite sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  to construct a Cartesian product with. WLOG,  $A_i \neq \emptyset$  for each  $i \in [n]$ . Let  $M := \max_{i \in [n]} |A_i|$  and  $h_i: A_i \rightarrow [|A_i|]$  be a bijective function for each  $i \in [n]$ . Let  $p_i$  be the  $i^{\text{th}}$  prime. (i.e.,  $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, p_3 = 5$ .) Define a function  $f: \prod_{i \in [n]} A_i \rightarrow \left[ \left( \prod_{i=1}^n p_i \right)^M \right]$  by

$$f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) := \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{h_i(a_i)}.$$

$f$  is injective since prime factorization of a natural number is unique. Therefore,  $\prod_{i \in [n]} A_i$  is finite by Theorem 1.5.2.  $\square$

## 1.6 Countable and Uncountable Sets

### Definition 1.6.1: Infinite and Countably Infinite

A set  $A$  is said to be *infinite* if it is not finite. It is said to be *countably infinite* if there is a bijective correspondence

$$f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+.$$

### Example 1.6.1

$\mathbb{Z}_+, \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+$  are countably infinite.

### Definition 1.6.2: Countability

A set is said to be *countable* if it is either finite or countably infinite. A set that is not countable is said to be *uncountable*.

#### Lemma 1.6.1

Any subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is countable.

**Proof.** Let  $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_+$ . If  $C$  is finite, then it's done; we now assume  $C$  is infinite. Now we want to show that  $C$  is countably infinite.

Define  $h: \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow C$  by the following.

(a)  $h(1) := \min C$

(b)  $h(n+1) := \min(C \setminus h([n]))$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$

$h$  is well defined because  $C \setminus h([n])$  is always nonempty. Moreover,  $h$  is injective since it is  $h(m) < h(n)$  whenever  $m < n$ .

Now, we are going to show  $h$  is surjective. To do this, first take any  $c \in C$ . Since  $C$  is infinite and  $h$  is injective,  $\text{Im } h \not\subseteq [c]$ , which means  $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, h(n) > c$ . From this, we get  $m := \min\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \mid h(n) \geq c\}$  is well-defined. From the definition of  $m$ , we also get, for any  $1 \leq i < m$ , we have  $h(i) < c \leq h(m)$ . Therefore,  $c \notin h([m-1])$ . Together with  $h(m) = \min(C \setminus h([m-1]))$ , we get  $h(m) \leq c \leq h(m)$ , which implies  $c = h(m)$ .  $\square$

#### Theorem 1.6.1

Let  $A \neq \emptyset$ . TFAE

- (i)  $A$  is countable.
- (ii)  $\exists$  surjective  $\mathbb{Z}_+ \twoheadrightarrow A$ .
- (iii)  $\exists$  injective  $A \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$ .

**Proof.** ((i)  $\rightarrow$  (ii)) Trivial.

((ii)  $\rightarrow$  (iii)) Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \twoheadrightarrow A$ . Define  $g: A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$  by  $a \mapsto \min f^{-1}(\{a\})$ .  $g$  is well-defined because  $f^{-1}(\{a\}) \neq \emptyset$  for every  $a \in A$  and Theorem 1.3.1 holds.  $g$  is also injective since  $f^{-1}(\{a_1\}) \cap f^{-1}(\{a_2\}) = \emptyset$  if  $a_1 \neq a_2 \in A$ .

((iii)  $\rightarrow$  (i)) Let  $f$  be an injection from  $A$  to  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ . If we define  $g: A \rightarrow \text{Im } f$  by  $a \mapsto f(a)$ ,  $g$  is a bijection. Since  $\text{Im } f \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $A$  is countable by Lemma 1.6.1.  $\square$

#### Corollary 1.6.1

If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B$  is countable, then  $A$  is countable.

**Proof.**  $A \xrightarrow{\text{trivial injection}} B \xrightarrow{\text{injection}} \mathbb{Z}_+$  and Theorem 1.6.1.  $\square$

#### Corollary 1.6.2

$\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+$  is countably infinite.

**Proof.**  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$  with  $(x, y) \mapsto 2^x 3^y$  is an injection.

Or,  $g: \mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$  with  $(x, y) \mapsto \frac{(x+y-1)(x+y-2)}{2} + y$  is a bijection.  $\square$

### Corollary 1.6.3

$\mathbb{Q}$  is countably infinite.

**Proof.**  $f : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  with  $(x, y) \mapsto x/y$  is surjective.  $\square$

### Exercise 1.6.1

The union of a countable number of countable sets is countable.

**Solution:** Let  $\{A_i\}_{i \in J}$  be an indexed family of sets where  $J$  and  $A_i$ 's are countable. WLOG,  $A_i \neq \emptyset$  for each  $i \in J$ . For each  $i \in J$ , since  $A_i$  is countable, by Theorem 1.6.1, there is a surjection  $g_i : \mathbb{Z}_+ \twoheadrightarrow A_i$ . Similarly, since  $J$  is countable, there is a surjection  $h : \mathbb{Z}_+ \twoheadrightarrow J$ .

Now, construct a function  $f : \mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in J} A_i$  by

$$f(i, j) := g_{h(i)}(j).$$

$f$  is naturally surjective by the construction. Therefore,  $\bigcup_{i \in J} A_i$  is countable.  $\square$

### Exercise 1.6.2

The Cartesian product of a finite number of countable sets is countable.

**Solution:** Suppose there are  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  to make Cartesian product with and each  $A_i$  is countable. WLOG,  $A_i \neq \emptyset$  for each  $i \in [n]$ . For each  $i \in [n]$ , there is an injection  $g_i : A_i \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$  by Theorem 1.6.1.

Now, construct a function  $f : \prod_{i=1}^n A_i \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$  by

$$f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) := \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{g_i(a_i)},$$

where  $p_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  prime. Since prime factorization of a natural number is unique,  $f$  is injective; therefore  $\prod_{i=1}^n A_i$  is countable.  $\square$

### Theorem 1.6.2

Let  $X_i := \{0, 1\}$  for each  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Then,  $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$  is uncountable.

**Proof.** Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$  be any function. Denote  $f(n) = (x_{n,1}, x_{n,2}, \dots) \in \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$  and construct  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots) \in \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$  by

$$y_i := 1 - x_{i,i}$$

for each  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Then,  $y \notin \text{Im } f$ ; therefore, one cannot construct a surjection from  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  to  $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$ .  $\square$

### Corollary 1.6.4

$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}_+)$  is uncountable.

**Proof.**  $f : \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}_+) \rightarrow \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$  defined by

$$S \mapsto (y_1, y_2, \dots) \text{ where } y_i := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \in S \\ 1 & \text{if } i \notin S \end{cases}$$

is a bijection, and  $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$  is uncountable by Theorem 1.6.2.  $\square$

### Theorem 1.6.3

Let  $A$  be a set. Then, there is no injection  $\mathcal{P}(A) \hookrightarrow A$ , and there is no surjection  $A \twoheadrightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$ .

**Proof.** Since a surjective map can be naturally deducted from  $f : B \hookrightarrow C$  (by constructing  $g : C \rightarrow B$  by  $g(c) \in f^{-1}(\{c\})$  for  $c \in \text{Im } f$  and map  $c$  to an arbitrary element in  $B$  for  $c \notin \text{Im } f$ ), it suffices to show  $A \twoheadrightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$  does not exist.

Let  $f : A \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$  be any function, and let  $B := \{a \in A \mid a \notin f(a)\} \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ . Suppose  $B = f(a_0)$  for some  $a_0 \in A$ . Then, by the definition of  $B$ ,

$$a_0 \in B \iff a_0 \notin f(a_0) = B,$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, any such  $f$  cannot be surjective.  $\square$

## 1.7 Infinite Sets and the Axiom of Choice

### Theorem 1.7.1

Let  $A$  be a set. TFAE

- (i)  $A$  is infinite.
- (ii)  $\exists$  injection  $f : \mathbb{Z}_+ \hookrightarrow A$ .
- (iii)  $\exists$  bijection  $g : A \rightarrow B$  where  $B \subsetneq A$ .

**Proof.** ((i)  $\rightarrow$  (ii)) Construct  $f : \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow A$  recursively as following. Let  $c : \mathcal{P}(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \rightarrow A$  be a function such that  $c(A') \in A'$  for every  $\emptyset \neq A' \subseteq A$ . Its existence is guaranteed by Lemma 1.7.1.

- (1)  $f(1) := c(A)$
- (2)  $f(n+1) := c(A \setminus f([n]))$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ .

Suppose  $A \setminus f([n]) = \emptyset$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Then,  $A \subseteq f([n])$ , and  $f([n])$  is finite by Theorem 1.5.2; therefore  $A$  is finite by Theorem 1.5.1. Thus,  $f$  is well-defined and it is injective by definition.

((ii)  $\rightarrow$  (iii)) Let  $f : \mathbb{Z}_+ \hookrightarrow A$  be an injection. Define  $g : A \rightarrow A \setminus \{f(1)\}$  by

$$g(a) := \begin{cases} f(n+1) & \text{if } a = f(n) \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}_+ \\ a & \text{if } a \notin \text{Im } f. \end{cases}$$

$g$  is well-defined because  $f$  is injective, and it is bijective by definition.

((iii)  $\rightarrow$  (i)) This is just a contrapositive of Theorem 1.5.1.  $\square$

### Theorem 1.7.2 Axiom of Choice

Given a collection  $\mathcal{A}$  of disjoint nonempty sets, there exists a set  $C$  such that  $C \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{A}$  and  $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}, |C \cap A| = 1$ .

**Lemma 1.7.1** Existence of a Choice Function

Given a collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of nonempty sets, there exists a function

$$c: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \bigcup \mathcal{B}$$

such that  $c(B) \in B$  for each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{A} := \{ \{(B, x) \mid x \in B\} \mid B \in \mathcal{B} \}$ . Then, by Theorem 1.7.2, there exists  $c \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  such that  $c \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{A}$  and each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  appears only once in the first coordinate in  $c$ . Therefore,  $c$  is a function such that  $c(B) \in C$  for each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ .  $\square$

## 1.8 Well-Ordered Sets

**Definition 1.8.1: Well-Ordered**

A set  $A$  with an order relation is an *well-ordered* set if every nonempty subset of  $A$  has a smallest element.

**Example 1.8.1**

- $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is well-ordered.
- $\{1, 2\} \times \mathbb{Z}_+$  is well ordered with respect to the dictionary ordering.

**Theorem 1.8.1**

Every nonempty finite set has the order type of  $[n]$ , and thus it is well-ordered.

**Proof.** We shall first claim that, if  $A$  is a nonempty finite set, then it has a largest element. It can be prove by induction on  $|A|$ . If  $|A| = 1$ , then it is trivial. Suppose the claim holds for  $|A| = n$ , and suppose  $|A| = n + 1$  and  $a_0 \in A$ . Then,  $A \setminus \{a_0\}$  has a largest element  $a_1$ . This implies  $A$  has a largest element  $\max\{a_0, a_1\}$ .

Now, we prove there is an order-preserving bijection  $f: A \rightarrow [n]$ . This will also be proven with induction. It is true when  $|A| = 1$ , so suppose it is true for  $|A| = n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  and let  $|A| = n + 1$ . By above, we may let  $a_0 := \max A$ . By induction hypothesis, there is an order-preserving bijection  $f': A \setminus \{a_0\} \rightarrow [n]$ . Define  $f: A \rightarrow [n + 1]$  by

$$f(a) := \begin{cases} f'(a) & \text{if } a \neq a_0 \\ n + 1 & \text{if } a = a_0. \end{cases}$$

Then,  $f$  is an order-preserving bijection from  $A$  to  $[n + 1]$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 1.8.2**

The Cartesian product of finitely many well-ordered sets is well-ordered with respect to the dictionary ordering.

**Proof by Induction.** We will prove this by induction on the number of sets. If there is one set, then it is trivial.

Assume the theorem holds for  $n$  sets. Suppose we have  $n + 1$  sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{n+1}$ . Then,  $\prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i$  is well-ordered with respect to a dictionary ordering  $<_1$ .

Let  $<_2$  and  $<_3$  be the dictionary order of  $A_1 \times \prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i$  and  $\prod_{i=1}^{n+1} A_i$ , respectively. Since  $(A_1 \times \prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i, <_2)$  and  $(\prod_{i=1}^{n+1} A_i, <_3)$  has the same order type, we only need to prove that  $(A_1 \times \prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i, <_2)$  is well-ordered.

Let  $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq A_1 \times \prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i$ . If we define  $S' := \{a_1 \mid (a_1, b) \in S\} \subseteq A_1$ ,  $S'$  is a nonempty subset of  $A_1$ , and therefore has  $a'_1 := \min S'$ . Similarly, if we define  $S'' := \{b_1 \mid (a'_1, b_1) \in S\} \subseteq \prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i$ ,  $S''$  is nonempty and has a smallest element  $b'_1$ . Then,  $(a'_1, b'_1)$  is a smallest element of  $A_1 \times \prod_{i=2}^{n+1} A_i$  with respect to  $<_2$ .  $\square$

### Exercise 1.8.1

$\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \mathbb{Z}_+$  is not well-ordered with respect to the dictionary ordering.

**Solution:** Let  $x_{ij} := \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } i = j \\ 1 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$  for each  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  and  $j \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . The set  $A := \{(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots) \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} \subseteq \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \mathbb{Z}_+$  has no smallest element.

### Theorem 1.8.3 Well-Ordering Theorem

If  $A$  is a set, then there exists an order relation on  $A$  that is well-ordering.

The proof of Theorem 1.8.3 involves the Axiom of Choice.

### Corollary 1.8.1

There exists an uncountable well-ordered set.

### Definition 1.8.2: Section

Let  $X$  be a well-ordered set. Given  $\alpha \in X$ , let

$$S_\alpha := \{x \in X \mid x < \alpha\}.$$

$S_\alpha$  is called the *section* of  $X$  by  $\alpha$ .

### Lemma 1.8.1

There exists a well-ordered set  $A$  with the largest element  $\Omega$ , such that

- section  $S_\Omega$  of  $A$  is uncountable, and,
- for every  $\alpha \in A \setminus \{\Omega\}$ , section  $S_\alpha$  of  $A$  is countable.

**Proof.** By Corollary 1.8.1, there exists an uncountable well-ordered set  $B$ . Let  $C := \{1, 2\} \times B$  be a set with a dictionary ordering.  $C$  is well-ordered by Theorem 1.8.2.

Let  $S := \{\alpha \in C \mid \text{section } S_\alpha \text{ of } C \text{ is uncountable}\} \subseteq C$ . We may let  $\Omega := \min S$ . Then, the set  $\overline{S_\Omega} = S_\Omega \cup \{\Omega\}$  satisfies the two conditions.  $\square$

### Theorem 1.8.4

If  $A$  is a countable subset of  $S_\Omega$  (in Lemma 1.8.1), then  $A$  has an upper bound in  $S_\Omega$ .

**Proof.** For each  $a \in A$ , the section  $S_a$  is countable; therefore, the union  $B := \bigcup_{a \in A} S_a$  is also countable by Exercise 1.6.1.

Since  $S_\Omega$  is uncountable, we may take an  $x \in S_\Omega \setminus B$ . If it were  $x < a$  for some  $a \in A$ , then  $x$  would be contained in  $S_a$ , which is a subset of  $B$ ,  $\#$ . Therefore,  $x \in S_\Omega$  is an upper bound of  $A$ .  $\square$

# Chapter 2

## Topological Spaces and Continuous Functions

### 2.1 Topological Spaces

#### Definition 2.1.1: Topology and Topological Space

A *topology* on a set  $X$  is a collection  $\mathcal{T}$  of subsets of  $X$  such that

- (i)  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$
- (ii)  $\{U_i \mid i \in J\} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \implies \bigcup_{i \in J} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$
- (iii)  $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \implies \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \in \mathcal{T}$

We say  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is a *topological space*, and each element  $U \in \mathcal{T}$  is called an *open set*.

#### Example 2.1.1 (Discrete Topology and Trivial Topology)

- If  $X$  is any set, the collection of all subsets of  $X$ ,  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ , is a topology on  $X$ ; it is called the *discrete topology*.
- $\{\emptyset, X\}$  is also an topology on  $X$ ; we shall call it the *trivial topology*.

#### Example 2.1.2 (Finite Complement Topology)

Let  $X$  be any set. Then,  $\mathcal{T} := \{U \subseteq X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is finite}\} \cup \{\emptyset\}$  is a topology.

- (i)  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$  ✓
- (ii) If  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , then  $X \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} (X \setminus U_\alpha)$  is finite. ✓
- (iii) If  $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ ,  $X \setminus \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (X \setminus U_i)$  is finite by Exercise 1.5.1. ✓

The topology is called the *finite complement topology*.

#### Example 2.1.3

If  $X = \{a, b, c\}$ , then  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$  is a topology on  $X$ .



### Definition 2.1.2: Finer and Coarser Topology

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  be topologies of a set  $X$ . If  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ , then we say

- $\mathcal{T}'$  is *finer* than  $\mathcal{T}$  and
- $\mathcal{T}$  is *coarser* than  $\mathcal{T}'$ .

Also,  $\mathcal{T}$  is *comparable* to  $\mathcal{T}'$  if either  $\mathcal{T} \supseteq \mathcal{T}'$  or  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ .

## 2.2 Basis for a Topology

### Definition 2.2.1: Basis and Topology Generated by a Basis

A *basis* for  $X$  is a collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of subsets of  $X$  such that:

- (i)  $\forall x \in X, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}, x \in B$  (i.e.,  $X = \bigcup \mathcal{B}$ ) and
- (ii)  $\forall B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}, (x \in B_1 \cap B_2 \implies \exists B_3 \in \mathcal{B}, x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2)$ .

The topology  $\mathcal{T}$  generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  is the collection defined by

$$\mathcal{T} := \{U \subseteq X \mid \forall x \in U, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}, x \in B \subseteq U\}.$$

#### Note:-

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for  $X$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  is the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ , then  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ .

### Lemma 2.2.1

If  $\mathcal{T}$  is the topology generated by basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for  $X$ , then  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on  $X$ .

**Proof.**

- (i)  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$  by vacuous truth, and  $X \in \mathcal{T}$  follows directly from (i) in Definition 2.2.1. ✓
- (ii) Let  $\mathcal{U} := \{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ . Then,  $x \in \bigcup \mathcal{U}$  implies  $\exists \alpha \in J, x \in U_\alpha$ . Since  $U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$ , there is  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq U_\alpha \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}$ . This means  $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ . ✓
- (iii) It is enough to prove it for two sets  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  in  $\mathcal{T}$ . Let  $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$ . (If  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$ , then it is done.) By the definition of  $\mathcal{T}$ , there are  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  in  $\mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B_1 \subseteq U_1$  and  $x \in B_2 \subseteq U_2$ . Since  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , there is  $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2 \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2$ . Thus, it implies  $U_1 \cap U_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ . ✓

□

### Lemma 2.2.2

If  $\mathcal{T}$  is the topology generated by basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for  $X$ , then  $\mathcal{T}$  is the collection of all unions of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . In other words,  $\mathcal{T} = \{\bigcup \mathcal{U} \mid \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{B}\}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{T}' := \{\bigcup \mathcal{U} \mid \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{B}\}$ . Since  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology by Lemma 2.2.1,  $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  follows. (See (ii) in Definition 2.1.1.) Now, we shall prove  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ .

Take any  $U \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then, for each  $x \in U$ , there is  $B_x \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B_x \subseteq U$ . Then,  $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} B_x \in \mathcal{T}'$ , hence  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ . □

### Lemma 2.2.3

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. If  $\mathcal{C}$  is a subset of  $\mathcal{T}$  such that

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{T}, (x \in U \implies \exists C \in \mathcal{C}, x \in C \subseteq U),$$

then  $\mathcal{C}$  is a basis for  $X$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  is the topology generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Proof.** We shall prove first  $\mathcal{C}$  is a basis for  $X$ .

(i) Since  $X \in \mathcal{T}$ ,  $\forall x \in X$ ,  $\exists C \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $x \in C$ .  $\checkmark$

(ii) Let  $C_1, C_2 \in \mathcal{C}$  and suppose  $x \in C_1 \cap C_2$ . Since  $C_1 \cap C_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ , there is  $C_3 \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \in C_3 \subseteq C_1 \cap C_2$ .  $\checkmark$

Now let  $\mathcal{T}'$  be the topology generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ . We want to show  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}'$ .

For  $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , take any  $U \in \mathcal{T}'$ . Then, by Lemma 2.2.2,  $U = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} C_\alpha$  where each  $C_\alpha$  is in  $\mathcal{C}$ . Now,  $U = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} C_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$  directly follows. The last inclusion is due to (ii) in Definition 2.1.1 and  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ .  $\checkmark$

For  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ , take any  $U \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then, for any  $x \in U$ , there is  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \in C \subseteq U$ , therefore  $U \in \mathcal{T}'$  by Definition 2.2.1.  $\square$

### Lemma 2.2.4

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  are topologies generated by bases  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{B}'$ , respectively. Then,

$$\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}' \iff \forall B \in \mathcal{B}, (x \in B \implies \exists B' \in \mathcal{B}', x \in B' \subseteq B).$$

**Proof.** ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Take any  $U \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $x \in U$ . Since  $\mathcal{B}$  generates  $\mathcal{T}$ , there is  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq U$ . By the supposition, there is  $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subseteq B \subseteq U$ . This implies we can find  $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subseteq U$ , by definition,  $U \in \mathcal{T}'$ .  $\checkmark$

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Take any  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $x \in B$ . Since  $B \in \mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ , by definition of  $\mathcal{T}'$ , there is  $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subseteq B$ .  $\checkmark$   $\square$

### Example 2.2.1

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a set of open region inside a disk, and  $\mathcal{B}'$  be a set of open region inside a rectangle. They are bases for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and topologies generated by them are the same by Lemma 2.2.4.

### Definition 2.2.2: Common Topologies on $\mathbb{R}$

Define

- $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}} := \{(a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid a < b\}$
- $\mathcal{B}_{\ell} := \{[a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid a < b\}$

$\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{B}'$  are bases for  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then,

- $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}}$ , the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ , is called the *standard topology* on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and
- $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$ , the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}_{\ell}$ , is called the *lower limit topology* on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $K := \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_K := \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}} \cup \{(a, b) \setminus K \mid a < b\}$  Then,  $\mathcal{B}''$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}$  and

- $\mathcal{T}_K$ , the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}_K$ , is called the *K-topology* on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

### Lemma 2.2.5 Comparison Among the Common Topologies on $\mathbb{R}$

The following holds.

- (i)  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}} \subsetneq \mathcal{T}_{\ell}$  ( $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$  is strictly finer than  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}}$ .)
- (ii)  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}} \subsetneq \mathcal{T}_K$  ( $\mathcal{T}_K$  is strictly finer than  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}}$ .)
- (iii)  $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$  and  $\mathcal{T}_K$  are not comparable.

**Proof.**

- (i) For any  $(a, b) \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  and  $x \in (a, b)$ ,  $[x, b) \in \mathcal{B}_{\ell}$  and  $x \in [x, b) \subseteq (a, b)$ . Therefore, by Lemma 2.2.4,  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\ell}$ .  $\checkmark$   
Take any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $a$  is in the interval  $[a, b) \in \mathcal{B}_{\ell}$  but there are no open interval  $(c, d) \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  such that  $a \in (c, d) \subseteq [a, b)$ . Therefore, by Lemma 2.2.4,  $\mathcal{T}_{\ell} \not\subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}}$ .  $\checkmark$
- (ii)  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_K$  directly follows from  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_K$ .  $\checkmark$   
Although  $0 \in (-1, 1) \setminus K \in \mathcal{T}_K$ , there is no  $(c, d) \in \mathcal{B}_{\mathbb{R}}$  such that  $0 \in (c, d) \subseteq (-1, 1) \setminus K$ . Therefore, by Lemma 2.2.4,  $\mathcal{T}_K \not\subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}}$ .  $\checkmark$
- (iii) The logics in (i) and (ii) can directly imported to prove (iii).  $\checkmark$

□

### Definition 2.2.3: Subbasis

A *subbasis*  $\mathcal{S}$  for  $X$  is a subset of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  whose union is  $X$ , i.e.,  $\bigcup \mathcal{S} = X$ .

The *topology generated by the subbasis*  $\mathcal{S}$  is defined to be the collection of all unions of finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{S}$ .

### Lemma 2.2.6

Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a subbasis for  $X$ . Then, the topology generated by  $\mathcal{S}$  is a topology on  $X$ .

**Proof.** By Lemma 2.2.2, it is enough to show that  $\mathcal{B} := \{ \bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i \mid S_i \in \mathcal{S} \}$  is a basis.

- (i) Since  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ ,  $X = \bigcup \mathcal{S} \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{B} \subseteq X$ .  $\checkmark$
- (ii) Let  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ . Then,  $B_1 = \bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i$  and  $B_2 = \bigcap_{i=1}^m S'_i$  where  $S_i, S'_i \in \mathcal{S}$ .  
Then,  $B_1 \cap B_2 = (\bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i) \cap (\bigcap_{i=1}^m S'_i) \in \mathcal{B}$ .  $\checkmark$

□

## 2.3 The Order Topology

### Definition 2.3.1: Intervals

Let  $X$  be a set with an order  $<$  and  $a, b \in X$  with  $a < b$  are given.

- $(a, b) := \{ x \in X \mid a < x < b \}$  (open interval)
- $[a, b) := \{ x \in X \mid a \leq x < b \}$  (half-open interval)
- $(a, b] := \{ x \in X \mid a < x \leq b \}$  (half-open interval)
- $[a, b] := \{ x \in X \mid a \leq x \leq b \}$  (closed interval)

### Definition 2.3.2: Order Topology

Let  $X$  has more than one element. Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be collection of

- all open intervals  $(a, b)$  in  $X$ ,
- all half-open intervals  $[a_0, b)$  where  $a_0$  is the smallest element (if  $a_0$  exists), and
- all half-open intervals  $(a, b_0]$  where  $b_0$  is the largest element (if  $b_0$  exists).

Then,  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis and the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  is called the *order topology*.

### Lemma 2.3.1

The set  $\mathcal{B}$  above is a basis.

**Proof.**

- (i) Take any  $x \in X$ .
  - If  $x$  is the smallest, then  $x \in [x, b)$  where  $b$  is some element in  $X \setminus \{x\}$ .
  - If  $x$  is the largest, then  $x \in (a, x]$  where  $a$  is some element in  $X \setminus \{x\}$ .
  - Otherwise, there are some  $a, b \in X \setminus \{x\}$  such that  $a < x < b$  so  $x \in (a, b)$ . ✓
- (ii) A nonempty intersection of two basis with different types of interval is an open interval. An intersection of two basis with the same type of interval still belongs to the type of interval. ✓

□

### Example 2.3.1

The order topology on  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is the discrete topology.  $n \in (n-1, n+1) = \{n\}$  if  $n > 1$  and  $1 \in [1, 2) = \{1\}$ .

### Example 2.3.2

The order topology on  $\mathbb{R}$  is the standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

### Definition 2.3.3: Ray

Let  $X$  be an order set and  $a \in X$ . There are four types of rays.

- $(a, \infty) := \{x \in X \mid x > a\}$  (open ray)
- $(-\infty, a) := \{x \in X \mid x < a\}$  (open ray)
- $[a, \infty) := \{x \in X \mid x \geq a\}$  (closed ray)
- $(-\infty, a] := \{x \in X \mid x \leq a\}$  (closed ray)

#### Note:-

Open rays are open in the order topology.

- If  $X$  has a largest element  $b_0$ , then  $(a, \infty) = (a, b_0]$ .
- Otherwise,  $(a, \infty) = \bigcup_{a < b} (a, b)$ .

Thus,  $(a, \infty)$  is open. Similarly,  $(-\infty, a)$  is open.

#### Note:-

Open rays form a subbasis that generates the order topology.

## 2.4 The Product Topology on $X \times Y$

### Definition 2.4.1: Product Topology

Let  $X, Y$  be topological spaces. The *product topology* on  $X \times Y$  is the topology generated by a basis

$$\mathcal{B} := \{U \times V \mid U \subseteq X \text{ and } V \subseteq Y \text{ are open}\}.$$

### Theorem 2.4.1

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis for  $X$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  be a basis for  $Y$ . Then

$$\mathcal{D} := \{B \times C \mid B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ and } C \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

is a basis for the product topology of  $X \times Y$ .

**Proof.** We will exploit Lemma 2.2.3. Take any open set  $W \subseteq X \times Y$  and  $x \times y \in W$ . Then, there is a basis element  $U \times V$  of the product topology  $X \times Y$  such that  $x \times y \in U \times V \subseteq W$ . Since  $U$  and  $V$  are open in  $X$  and  $Y$ , respectively, and  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$ , there are  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq U$  and  $y \in C \subseteq V$ .

Here, we find that  $x \times y \in B \times C \subseteq U \times V \subseteq W$  while  $B \times C \in \mathcal{D}$ . Therefore, by Lemma 2.2.3,  $\mathcal{D}$  generates the product topology.  $\square$

### Definition 2.4.2: Projection

Let  $\pi_1: X \times Y \rightarrow X$  and  $\pi_2: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$  defined by the equations

$$\pi_1(x, y) = x$$

$$\pi_2(x, y) = y$$

The maps  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are called the *projections* of  $X \times Y$  onto its first and second factors, respectively.

#### Note:-

If  $U \subseteq X$  is open, then  $\pi_1^{-1}(U) = U \times Y$  is open. Similarly, if  $V \subseteq Y$  is open, then  $\pi_2^{-1}(V) = X \times V$  is open.

### Theorem 2.4.2

The collection

$$\mathcal{S} := \{\pi_1^{-1}(U) \mid U \subseteq X \text{ is open}\} \cup \{\pi_2^{-1}(V) \mid V \subseteq Y \text{ is open}\}$$

is a subbasis for the product topology of  $X \times Y$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be the product topology and  $\mathcal{T}'$  be the topology generated by  $\mathcal{S}$ .

- Since  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , every union of finite intersections in  $\mathcal{S}$  is in  $\mathcal{T}$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ .  $\checkmark$
- Every open set of  $\mathcal{T}$  is a union of elements in  $\mathcal{B} := \{U \times V \mid U \subseteq X \text{ and } V \subseteq Y \text{ are open}\}$ . Noting that each  $U \times V$  can be expressed as  $\pi_1^{-1}(U) \cap \pi_2^{-1}(V)$ , which is a finite intersection of elements in  $\mathcal{S}$ , we may conclude  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ .  $\checkmark$

$\square$

## 2.5 The Subspace Topology

### Definition 2.5.1: Subspace Topology

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. If  $Y \subseteq X$ , then

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

is called the *subspace topology* of  $Y$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is called a *subspace* of  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ .

### Lemma 2.5.1

$(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is a topological space.

**Proof.**

- (i)  $\emptyset = Y \cap \emptyset$  and  $Y = Y \cap X$ . ✓
- (ii) If  $U_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ ,  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} (Y \cap U_\alpha) = Y \cap (\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha) \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ . ✓
- (iii) If  $U_i \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ ,  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (Y \cap U_i) = Y \cap (\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i) \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ . ✓

□

### Lemma 2.5.2

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ , then

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

is a basis for the subspace topology on  $Y$ .

**Proof.** We will exploit Lemma 2.2.3.

Take any  $U \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $y \in Y \cap U$ . Since  $y \in U$ ,  $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $y \in B \subseteq U$ , which implies  $y \in Y \cap B \subseteq Y \cap U$ . □

### Note:-

Not all open sets in  $Y$  are open in  $X$ .

For instance, if  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $Y = [0, 1]$ ,  $Y$  is open in  $Y$  but not open in  $X$ .

### Lemma 2.5.3

All the open sets in  $Y$  are open in  $X$  if and only if  $Y$  is open in  $X$ .

**Proof.**  $(\Rightarrow)$   $Y$  is open in  $Y$ . Hence,  $Y$  is open in  $X$ .

$(\Leftarrow)$  Let  $U$  be any open set in  $Y$ . Then,  $U = Y \cap V$  for some open set  $V$  in  $X$ . Since  $Y$  is open in  $X$ ,  $U$  is open in  $X$ . □

### Theorem 2.5.1

If  $A$  is a subspace of  $X$  and  $B$  is a subspace of  $Y$ , then the product topology on  $A \times B$  is the same as the topology  $A \times B$  inherits as a subspace of  $X \times Y$ . In other words, the following two topologies are the same.

- (i)  $X, Y \xrightarrow{\text{subspace}} A \subseteq X, B \subseteq Y \xrightarrow{\text{product}} A \times B$
- (ii)  $X, Y \xrightarrow{\text{product}} X \times Y \xrightarrow{\text{subspace}} A \times B \subseteq X \times Y$

**Proof.** By Theorem 2.4.1,

$$\{U \times V \mid U \in \mathcal{B}_X \text{ and } V \in \mathcal{B}_Y\}$$

is a basis for  $X \times Y$ . Thus,

$$\mathcal{B} := \{(A \times B) \cap (U \times V) \mid U \in \mathcal{B}_X \text{ and } V \in \mathcal{B}_Y\}$$

is a basis for (ii) by Lemma 2.5.2.

Note that  $(A \times B) \cap (U \times V) = (A \cap U) \times (B \cap V)$ . Also,  $\{A \cap U \mid U \in \mathcal{B}_X\}$  and  $\{B \cap V \mid V \in \mathcal{B}_Y\}$  are bases for  $A$  and  $B$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{B}$  is also a basis for (i) by Theorem 2.4.1.  $\square$

## Wrong Concept 2.1: Order Topology and Subspace Topology

Unlike product topology and subspace topology, order topology and subspace topology are not associative. Let  $X$  be an ordered set and  $Y \subseteq X$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad & Y \xrightarrow{\text{order}} Y \\ \text{(ii)} \quad & X \xrightarrow{\text{order}} X \xrightarrow{\text{subspace}} Y \subseteq X \end{aligned}$$

Then, will those be the same?

**Example 1.** Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $Y = [0, 1]$ . Then, the subspace topology of the order topology  $X$  has a basis of

$$\mathcal{B}_{[0,1]} = \{[0, 1] \cap (a, b) \mid a < b\},$$

which is in fact the order topology on  $Y$ . In this case, (i) = (ii).

**Example 2.** Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $Y = [0, 1] \cup \{2\}$ . Then,  $\{2\}$  is an open in (ii) since  $\{2\} = Y \cap (1.5, 2.5)$ . But, there is no basis of the order topology on  $Y$  such that contains 2 and is a subset of  $\{2\}$ . Thus, in this case, (i)  $\neq$  (ii).

**Example 3.** Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $Y = I^2$  where  $I = [0, 1]$ . Then,  $\{1/2\} \times (1/2, 1]$  is an open set in (ii) since it is  $(\{1/2\} \times (1/2, 3/2)) \cap I^2$ . But it is not an open set in (i) since there is no basis that contain  $(1/2, 1)$  and is a subset of  $\{1/2\} \times (1/2, 1]$ .

### Definition 2.5.2: Convex Subset

Given an ordered set  $X$  and  $Y \subseteq X$ ,  $Y$  is called *convex* if

$$\forall a, b \in Y, (a < b \implies (a, b) \subseteq Y).$$

### Theorem 2.5.2

Let  $X$  be an ordered set with the ordered topology. If  $Y \subseteq X$  is convex, then the order topology on  $Y$  is the same as the subspace topology.

**Proof.** We will make use of the fact that open rays form a subbasis that generates the order topology.

First, every open ray of (i) is an open ray of the subspace (ii).

$$\{x \in Y \mid x > a\} = \{x \in X \cap Y \mid x > a\},$$

for example. Therefore, (ii) is finer than (i).

Now, take any open ray in  $X$ ,  $(a, \infty)_X = \{x \in X \mid x > a\}$ , for instance. Then, let

$$\begin{aligned} R &\triangleq (a, \infty)_X \cap Y \\ &= \{y \in Y \mid y > a\} = (a, \infty)_Y. \end{aligned}$$

If  $a \in Y$ , then  $R$  is an open ray in  $Y$ .

Now consider the case  $a \notin Y$ . If  $R$  is nonempty then there is some  $y_0 \in R$ . Take any  $y \in Y$ . If  $y_0 < y$ , then  $y \in R$  since  $a < y_0 < y$ . If  $y < y_0$ , it implies  $a < y < y_0$  because  $y < a < y_0$  with  $y, y_0 \in Y$  implies  $a \in Y$  by the convexity of  $Y$ . Therefore,  $y \in R$ . So, if  $a \notin Y$ , it is either  $R = \emptyset$  or  $R = Y$ .

Combining the cases, we get the fact that the intersection of  $Y$  and an arbitrary open ray in  $X$  is an open ray in  $Y$ , an empty set, or the whole  $Y$ .

This is the final step. Take any open set  $U$  in the ordered topology  $X$ . Then,  $U = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  where  $U_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  is a finite intersection of open rays in  $X$ . Noting that  $U \cap Y$  is a general form of an open set in  $Y$ , we get  $U \cap Y = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} (U_\alpha \cap Y)$ , which implies either  $U \cap Y = Y$  or  $U \cap Y$  is a union of finite intersections of an open ray in  $Y$ .  $\square$

### Corollary 2.5.1

Let  $X$  be an ordered set with the ordered topology. The subspace topology of  $Y \subseteq X$  is finer than the order topology on  $Y$ .

## 2.6 Closed Sets and Limit Points

### 2.6.1 Closed Sets

#### Definition 2.6.1: Closed Set

Let  $X$  be a topological space. A subset  $A \subseteq X$  is *closed* if  $X \setminus A$  is open.

#### Example 2.6.1

- $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is closed since  $(-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$  is open.
- $[a, b] \times [c, d] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  is closed.
- In discrete topology on  $X$ , every subset of  $X$  is closed.
- If  $Y = [0, 1] \cup (2, 3) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ ,  $[0, 1]$  and  $(2, 3)$  are both open and closed in  $Y$ .

#### Theorem 2.6.1

Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then the following conditions hold.

- $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are closed.
- Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.
- Finite unions of closed sets are closed.

**Proof.**

- $X \setminus \emptyset = X$  and  $X \setminus X = \emptyset$  are open.  $\checkmark$
- Let  $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be a collection of closed sets. Then,

$$X \setminus \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} (X \setminus A_\alpha).$$

is open since each  $X \setminus A_\alpha$  is open.  $\checkmark$



(iii) Let  $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^n$  be a collection of closed sets. Then,

$$X \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (X \setminus A_i).$$

is open since it is a finite intersection of open sets. ✓

□

### Theorem 2.6.2

Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $Y \subseteq X$ . Then  $A \subseteq Y$  is closed in  $Y$  if and only if there is a closed set  $B$  in  $X$  such that  $A = Y \cap B$ .

**Proof.** ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $B$  be a closed set of  $X$  such that  $A = Y \cap B$ . Then,  $X \setminus B$  is open in  $X$  and  $Y \cap (X \setminus B) = Y \setminus A$  is open in  $Y$ . Thus,  $A$  is closed in  $Y$ .

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Since  $Y \setminus A$  is open in  $Y$ ,  $Y \setminus A = Y \cap U$  for some open set  $U$  in  $X$ . Then,  $A = Y \cap (X \setminus U)$  where  $X \setminus U$  is closed in  $X$ . □

### Theorem 2.6.3

If  $Y$  is closed in  $X$ , then every closed sets of  $Y$  are closed in  $X$  if and only if  $Y$  is closed in  $X$ .

**Proof.** Proof is analogous to the proof of Lemma 2.5.3. □

### Definition 2.6.2: Interior and Closure of a Set

Given a subset  $A$  of a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ ,

- the *interior* of  $A$  is  $\mathring{A} \triangleq \bigcup \{U \subseteq X \mid U \in \mathcal{T} \text{ and } U \subseteq A\}$ , and
- the *closure* of  $A$  is  $\bar{A} \triangleq \bigcap \{V \subseteq X \mid X \setminus V \in \mathcal{T} \text{ and } A \subseteq V\}$ .

#### Note:-

- $\mathring{A} \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}$
- $\mathring{A}$  is open, and  $\bar{A}$  is closed.
- $\mathring{A}$  is the largest open set contained in  $A$ , and  $\bar{A}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ .

### Theorem 2.6.4

Let  $Y$  be a subspace of  $X$  and  $A \subseteq Y$ . Let  $\bar{A}$  and  $\bar{A}_Y$  denote the closures of  $A$  in  $X$  and  $Y$ , respectively. Then,

$$\bar{A} \cap Y = \bar{A}_Y.$$

**Proof.** ( $\supseteq$ )  $\bar{A} \cap Y$  is closed in  $Y$  by Theorem 2.6.2. Thus,  $\bar{A}_Y \subseteq \bar{A} \cap Y$ .

( $\subseteq$ )  $\bar{A}_Y = B \cap Y$  for some closed set  $B$  in  $X$  by Theorem 2.6.2. Also,  $\bar{A} \subseteq B$  holds. Therefore,  $\bar{A}_Y = B \cap Y \subseteq \bar{A} \cap Y$ . □

### Definition 2.6.3: Intersection and Neighborhood

- Given two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we say  $A$  and  $B$  *intersect* if  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ .
- An open set containing  $x \in X$  is called an *open neighborhood* of  $x$ .

### Theorem 2.6.5

Let  $A \subseteq X$  where  $X$  is a topological space. The following hold.

- (i)  $x \in \bar{A}$  if and only if every neighborhood of  $x$  intersects  $A$ .
- (ii) Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis for  $X$ . Then,  $x \in \bar{A}$  if and only if every  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  containing  $x$  intersects  $A$ .

**Proof.**

- (i) We will prove the contrapositive " $x \notin \bar{A} \iff \exists$  neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ ,  $U \cap A = \emptyset$ ".  
 $(\Rightarrow)$   $U \triangleq X \setminus \bar{A}$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ . We find that  $U \cap A = \emptyset$  since  $A \subseteq \bar{A}$ .  $\checkmark$   
 $(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  satisfies  $U \cap A = \emptyset$ . It implies  $A \subseteq X \setminus U$ . Since  $X \setminus U$  is closed,  $\bar{A} \subseteq X \setminus U$  also holds. Since  $x \in U$ ,  $x \in \bar{A}$  may never hold.  $\checkmark$
- (ii)  $(\Rightarrow)$  A basis element that contains  $x$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ .  $\checkmark$   
 $(\Leftarrow)$  Follows from the definition of basis. (See Definition 2.2.1.)  $\checkmark$

□

### Example 2.6.2

- If  $A = (0, 1/2) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\bar{A} = [0, 1/2]$ .
- If  $A = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\bar{A} = A \cup \{0\}$ .
- If  $A = \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\bar{A} = \mathbb{R}$ .
- If  $A = \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\bar{A} = \mathbb{Z}$ .

## 2.6.2 Limit Points

### Definition 2.6.4: Limit Point

Let  $A \subseteq X$  and  $x \in X$ . The point  $x$  is a *limit point* of  $A$  if every neighborhood of  $x$  intersects  $A$  in some point other than  $x$ . The set of limit points of  $A$  is denoted by  $A'$ .

#### Note:-

Equivalently,  $x$  is a limit point of  $A$  if  $x \in \overline{A \setminus \{x\}}$  thanks to Theorem 2.6.5.

### Theorem 2.6.6

Let  $A \subseteq X$  where  $X$  is a topological space. Then

$$\bar{A} = A \cup A'.$$

**Proof.**  $(\supseteq)$  We only need to show  $A' \subseteq \bar{A}$ . For every  $x \in A'$ ,  $x \in \bar{A}$  due to Theorem 2.6.5.  $\checkmark$

$(\subseteq)$  Let  $x \in \bar{A} \setminus A$ . By definition, every neighborhood of  $x$  intersects  $A$  while  $x$  cannot be in the intersection since  $x \notin A$ . Thus,  $x \in A'$ .  $\checkmark$

□

### Corollary 2.6.1

Let  $A \subseteq X$  where  $X$  is a topological space. Then  $A$  is closed if and only if  $A' \subseteq A$ .

**Proof.**  $(\Rightarrow)$   $A = \bar{A} = A \cup A'$  and it implies  $A' \subseteq A$ .  $\checkmark$

$(\Leftarrow)$   $\bar{A} = A \cup A' = A$  and  $\bar{A}$  is closed.  $\checkmark$

□

### Definition 2.6.5: Convergence of a Sequence

Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then, a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in  $X$  converges to  $x \in X$  if, for every neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $x_n \in U$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

#### Note:-

The point to which a sequence converges may not be unique in general. If  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$ , the sequence  $x_n = b$  may converge to  $a$ ,  $b$ , or  $c$  as any neighborhood of  $a$  or  $c$  contains  $b$ .

## 2.6.3 Hausdorff Spaces

### Definition 2.6.6: Hausdorff Space

A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is called a *Hausdorff space* if for each pair  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  of distinct points of  $X$ , there exist neighborhoods  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , respectively, that are disjoint. In other words,

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, (x_1 \neq x_2 \implies \exists U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{T}, x_1 \in U_1 \wedge x_2 \in U_2 \wedge U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset).$$

### Theorem 2.6.7

Every finite point set in a Hausdorff space  $X$  is closed.

**Proof.** It suffices to prove that every singleton of  $X$  is closed since closedness of finite point set will be naturally driven by Theorem 2.6.1.

If  $|X| \leq 1$ , then it is done. Now, let  $x$  and  $y$  be distinct elements in  $X$ . Then, there are disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$ . Therefore,  $x$  and  $y$  are not limit points of each other. Thus, there are at most one limit point of  $\{x\}$ . (If it exists, it must be  $x$ .) Thus,  $\{x\}' \subseteq \{x\}$ ;  $\{x\}$  is closed by Corollary 2.6.1.  $\square$

### Definition 2.6.7: $T_1$ Axiom

A topological space  $X$  is said to satisfy  $T_1$  axiom if every singleton in  $X$  is closed.

#### Note:-

Theorem 2.6.7 implies that every Hausdorff space satisfies  $T_1$  axiom.

#### Note:-

$T_1$  axiom is strictly weaker than being a Hausdorff space.

- $\mathbb{R}$  in the finite complement topology satisfies  $T_1$  axiom. Every singleton  $\{x\}$  is closed since  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{x\}$  is open.
- However, it is not a Hausdorff space. Suppose  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $x \neq y$  and there are disjoint open set  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$ . Then, since  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ ,  $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R} \setminus (U \cap V) = (X \setminus U) \cup (X \setminus V)$ , which is impossible since  $X \setminus U$  and  $X \setminus V$  are finite.

### Theorem 2.6.8

Let  $X$  be a space satisfying the  $T_1$  axiom; let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $x \in A'$  if and only if every neighborhood of  $x$  contains infinitely many points of  $A$ .

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $x \in A'$  and suppose some neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  intersects  $A$  in finitely many points. Then, it also intersects  $A \setminus \{x\}$  in finitely many points; let us denote them  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$ . Noting that  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$  is closed as  $X$  satisfies  $T_1$  axiom,  $X \setminus \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  but does not intersect  $A \setminus \{x\}$ , contradicting that  $x$  is a limit point of  $A$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $U$  be any neighborhood of  $x$ . Then,  $U$  intersects  $A$  in infinitely many points by assumption, and thus it intersects  $A \setminus \{x\}$  in infinitely many points. Therefore,  $x$  is a limit point of  $A$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 2.6.9

If  $X$  is a Hausdorff space, then there is at most one point of  $X$  to which a sequence of points of  $X$  converges.

**Proof.** Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X$  that converges to  $x$ . If  $y \neq x$ , we may find disjoint neighborhoods  $U$  and  $V$  of  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively. Then,  $U$  has all but finitely many points of  $x_n$ , but  $V$  cannot. Therefore,  $y$  cannot be a point that  $\{x_n\}$  converges to.  $\square$

#### Note:-

The finite complement topology on  $\mathbb{R}$  is not a Hausdorff.

Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence that has no points infinitely repeated in  $\{x_n\}$ . Then,  $\{x_n\}$  converges to every point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## 2.7 Continuous Functions

### 2.7.1 Continuity of a Function

#### Definition 2.7.1: Continuity of a Function

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is said to be *continuous* if for each open subset  $V$  of  $Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ .

#### Note:-

To prove a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, it is enough to prove that every basis of  $Y$  has an open preimage in  $X$ . Then, for every open  $V = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha \subseteq Y$ , it follows that

$$f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} f^{-1}(B_\alpha)$$

is open in  $X$ .

If the topology on  $Y$  is given by a subbasis, it is even sufficient to prove every preimage of subbasis element is open. Then, for every basis  $B = \bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i$ , it follows that

$$f^{-1}(B) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n f^{-1}(S_i)$$

is open in  $X$ .

### Theorem 2.7.1

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. TFAE

- (i)  $f$  is continuous.

- (ii) For every subset  $A$  of  $X$ ,  $f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$ .
- (iii) For every closed set  $B$  of  $Y$ , the set  $f^{-1}(B)$  is closed in  $X$ .
- (iv) For each  $x \in X$  and each neighborhood  $V$  of  $f(x)$ , there is a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq V$ .

**Proof.** ((i)  $\implies$  (ii)) Take any  $x \in \bar{A}$ . Let  $V$  be any neighborhood of  $f(x)$ . Then,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ . Since  $x \in \bar{A}$ , by Theorem 2.6.5,  $f^{-1}(V)$  intersects  $A$ ;  $A \cap f^{-1}(V) \neq \emptyset$ . Therefore, since  $\emptyset \neq f(A \cap f^{-1}(V)) = f(A) \cap f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq f(A) \cap V$ ,  $V$  intersects  $f(A)$ ; by Theorem 2.6.5,  $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$  as  $V$  was arbitrary. Therefore,  $f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$ .

((ii)  $\implies$  (iii)) Let  $B$  be closed in  $Y$  and let  $A \triangleq f^{-1}(B)$ . Then,  $f(A) = f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$ . Therefore, if  $x \in \bar{A}$ ,  $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)} \subseteq \overline{B} = B$ ; which implies  $x \in f^{-1}(B) = A$ . This means  $\bar{A} \subseteq A$ , thus  $A$  is closed.

((iii)  $\implies$  (i)) Let  $V$  be an open set of  $Y$ . Let  $B \triangleq Y \setminus V$ . Then

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

is closed as  $B$  is closed. Thus,  $f^{-1}(V) = X \setminus f^{-1}(B)$  is open.

((i)  $\implies$  (iv)) For every neighborhood  $V$  of  $f(x)$ ,  $U = f^{-1}(V)$  is the neighborhood of  $x$  that satisfies  $f(U) \subseteq V$ .

((iv)  $\implies$  (i)) Let  $V$  be an open set of  $Y$ . Then, for each  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$ , since  $V$  is a neighborhood of  $f(x)$ , there exists a neighborhood  $U_x$  of  $x$  that satisfies  $f(U_x) \subseteq V$ . Then,  $U_x \subseteq f^{-1}(f(U_x)) \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{x \in f^{-1}(V)} U_x$  is open in  $X$ .  $\square$

## 2.7.2 Homeomorphisms

### Definition 2.7.2: Homeomorphism

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a bijection.  $f$  is called a *homeomorphism* if both  $f$  and  $f^{-1}$  are continuous.

#### Note:-

Since the inverse image under  $f^{-1}$  is exactly the image under  $f$ , “ $f^{-1}$  is continuous” implies “ $f(U)$  is open for all open  $U$  in  $X$ .” So,  $f$  is a homeomorphism if and only if it is a bijection such that  $U \subseteq X$  is open in  $X$  if and only if  $f(U)$  is open in  $Y$ .

#### Note:-

If  $f$  is a homeomorphism between  $X$  and  $Y$ , then  $\mathcal{T}_Y = \{f(U) \mid U \in \mathcal{T}_X\}$  and  $\mathcal{T}_X = \{f^{-1}(V) \mid V \in \mathcal{T}_Y\}$ .

Therefore, any property of  $X$  that is entirely expressed in terms of the topology of  $X$  yields, via the correspondence  $f$ , the corresponding property for the space  $Y$ . Such a property of  $X$  is called *topological property* of  $X$ .

*Homeomorphism preserves topological properties.*

### Definition 2.7.3: Open Map and Closed Map

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function.

- $f$  is said to be an *open map* if  $f(U)$  is open for all open  $U \subseteq X$  in  $X$ .
- $f$  is said to be a *closed map* if  $f(U)$  is closed for all closed  $U \subseteq X$  in  $X$ .

#### Definition 2.7.4: Topological Imbedding

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces  $f: X \hookrightarrow Y$  be an injection. Then,  $f': X \rightarrow f(X)$  obtained by restriction is a bijection. If  $f'$  is a homeomorphism in which the topology of  $\text{Im } f$  is given as the subspace topology,  $f$  is said to be a *topological imbedding*, or simply an *imbedding*, of  $X$  in  $Y$ .

### 2.7.3 Constructing Continuous Functions

#### Theorem 2.7.2 Rules for Constructing Continuous Functions

Let  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  be topological spaces.

- (i) (*Constant Function*) If  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  has a singleton  $f(X)$ ,  $f$  is continuous.
- (ii) (*Inclusion*) If  $A$  is a subspace of  $X$ , the inclusion function  $j: A \rightarrow X$  is continuous.
- (iii) (*Composites*) If  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow Z$  are continuous, then the map  $g \circ f$  is continuous.
- (iv) (*Restricting the Domain*) If  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, and if  $A$  is a subspace of  $X$ , then the restricted function  $f|_A: A \rightarrow Y$  is continuous.
- (v) (*Restricting or Expanding the Codomain*) Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be continuous. If  $Z$  is a subspace of  $Y$  and  $f(X) \subseteq Z$ , then the function  $g: X \rightarrow Z$  obtained by restricting the range of  $f$  is continuous. If  $Z$  is a space having  $Y$  as a subspace, then the function  $h: X \rightarrow Z$  obtained by expanding the range of  $f$  is continuous.
- (vi) (*Local Formulation of Continuity*) The map  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if  $X$  is a union of open sets  $U_\alpha$  such that  $f|_{U_\alpha}$  is continuous for each  $\alpha$ .

**Proof.**

- (i) Let  $f(x) = y_0$  for every  $x \in X$  for some fixed  $y_0 \in Y$ . Then, for each (open) set  $V \subseteq Y$ ,

$$f^{-1}(V) = \begin{cases} X & \text{if } y_0 \in V \\ \emptyset & \text{if } y_0 \notin V \end{cases}$$

is always open in  $X$ .

- (ii) If  $U$  is open in  $X$ , then  $f^{-1}(U) = U \cap A$  is open in  $A$  (by definition).
- (iii) If  $U$  is open in  $Z$ , then  $g^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $Y$ , and thus  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(U))$  is open in  $X$ .
- (iv)  $f|_A = f \circ j$  where  $j: A \rightarrow X$  is the inclusion function. Therefore,  $f|_A$  is continuous by (ii) and (iii).
- (v) First, suppose  $f(X) \subseteq Z \subseteq Y$ . Take any open set  $W \subseteq Z$  of  $Z$ . Then,  $W = V \cap Z$  for some open set  $V$  in  $Y$ . Because  $f(X) \subseteq Z$  and  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ ,

$$f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(V \cap Z) = f^{-1}(W) = g^{-1}(W).$$

Thus,  $g^{-1}(W)$  is open in  $X$  as  $f$  is continuous.

We get  $h$  is continuous from noting that  $h = j \circ f$  where  $j: Y \rightarrow Z$  is the inclusion function.

- (vi) Let  $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  in which, for each  $\alpha \in J$ ,  $U_\alpha$  is an open set in  $X$  such that  $f|_{U_\alpha}$  is continuous. Let  $V$  be an open set in  $Y$ . Then

$$f^{-1}(V) \cap U_\alpha = (f|_{U_\alpha})^{-1}(V)$$

for each  $\alpha \in J$ ;  $f^{-1}(V) \cap U_\alpha$  is open in  $X$  since  $f|_{U_\alpha}$  is continuous. Therefore,

$$f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(V) \cap X = f^{-1}(V) \cap \left( \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} (f^{-1}(V) \cap U_\alpha)$$

is open in  $X$ .

□

### Theorem 2.7.3 The Pasting Lemma

Let  $X = A \cup B$  be a topological space, where  $A$  and  $B$  are closed in  $B$ . Let  $f: A \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: B \rightarrow Y$  be continuous. If  $f(x) = g(x)$  for every  $x \in A \cap B$ , then the function  $h: X \rightarrow Y$  defined by

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

is continuous.

**Proof.** Let  $C$  be a closed subset of  $Y$ . Now

$$h^{-1}(C) = f^{-1}(C) \cup g^{-1}(C).$$

Since  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous and  $C$  is closed,  $f^{-1}(C)$  and  $g^{-1}(C)$  are closed by Theorem 2.7.1. Thus,  $h^{-1}(C)$  is closed. Hence,  $h$  is continuous. □

#### Note:-

Theorem 2.7.3 holds if  $A$  and  $B$  are both open. It is, nonetheless, a special case of (vi) of Theorem 2.7.2.

#### Note:-

Theorem 2.7.3 does not hold if  $A$  is open and  $B$  is closed. For instance, the function  $h: A \cup B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $A = (-\infty, 0)$  and  $B = [0, \infty)$ , defined by

$$h(x) \triangleq \begin{cases} x - 2 & \text{if } x \in A \\ x + 2 & \text{if } x \in B \end{cases}$$

is not continuous since  $h^{-1}((1, 3)) = [0, 1)$  is not open.

### Theorem 2.7.4 Maps Into Products

Let  $f: A \rightarrow X \times Y$  be given by

$$f(a) = f_1(a) \times f_2(b).$$

Then  $f$  is continuous if and only if the functions

$$f_1: A \rightarrow X \quad \text{and} \quad f_2: A \rightarrow Y$$

are continuous.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) We first show that the projections  $\pi_1: X \times Y \rightarrow X$  and  $\pi_2: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$  are continuous. For each open sets  $U \subseteq X$  and  $V \subseteq Y$ ,  $\pi_1^{-1}(U) = U \times Y$  and  $\pi_2^{-1}(V) = X \times V$  are open;  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are continuous.

Then, noting that  $f_1 = \pi_1 \circ f$  and  $f_2 = \pi_2 \circ f$ , we conclude  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are continuous.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) For any basis element  $U \times V$  in  $X \times Y$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(U \times V) &= \{a \in A \mid f(a) \in U \times V\} \\ &= \{a \in A \mid f_1(a) \in U \text{ and } f_2(a) \in V\} \\ &= f_1^{-1}(U) \cap f_2^{-1}(V). \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $f^{-1}(U \times V)$  is open since  $f_1^{-1}(U)$  and  $f_2^{-1}(V)$  are open.  $\square$

## 2.8 The Product Topology

### Definition 2.8.1: Box Topology

Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an indexed family of topological spaces. The topology generated by the basis

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

for the product  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  is called the *box topology*.

### Note:-

The collection  $\mathcal{B}$  is indeed a basis for  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ .  $\bigcup \mathcal{B} = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  holds since  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \in \mathcal{B}$ . Also, an intersection of two basis elements is another basis element. This can be shown by

$$\left( \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \right) \cap \left( \prod_{\alpha \in J} V_\alpha \right) = \prod_{\alpha \in J} (U_\alpha \cap V_\alpha).$$

### Definition 2.8.2: Projection

Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an indexed family of sets. Let

$$\pi_\beta: \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$$

be defined by

$$(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} \mapsto x_\beta$$

for each  $\beta \in J$ . Then,  $\pi_\beta$  is called the *projection mapping* associated with the index  $\beta$ .



### Definition 2.8.3: Product Topology

Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an indexed family of topological spaces. Let  $\mathcal{S}_\beta$  denote the collection

$$\mathcal{S}_\beta = \{ \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) \mid U_\beta \text{ is open in } X_\beta \}$$

and let

$$\mathcal{S} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{S}_\alpha.$$

The topology generated by the subbasis  $\mathcal{S}$  for  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  is called the *product topology*. In this topology,  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  is called a *product space*.

#### Note:-

A typical basis of the product topology has a form of

$$B = \pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(U_{\beta_1}) \cap \pi_{\beta_2}^{-1}(U_{\beta_2}) \cap \cdots \cap \pi_{\beta_n}^{-1}(U_{\beta_n})$$

where  $\beta_i \in J$  and  $U_{\beta_i}$  is open in  $X_{\beta_i}$  for each  $i \in [n]$ . Since  $\pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(U_{\beta_1}) \cap \pi_{\beta_2}^{-1}(U_{\beta_2}) = \pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(U_{\beta_1} \cap U_{\beta_2})$ , without loss of generality,  $\beta_i$ 's are mutually different. This means,

$$B = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$$

where  $U_\alpha = \begin{cases} U_{\beta_i} & \text{if } \alpha = \beta_i \text{ for some } i \in [n] \\ X_\alpha & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$  In other words, a basis element is a product of  $U_\alpha$ 's where  $U_\alpha$  is an open set of  $X_\alpha$  for finitely many indices and  $U_\alpha = X_\alpha$  for the remaining indices.

#### Note:-

- For finite products, i.e., for finite  $J$ , the box topology and the product topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  are the same.
- In general, the box topology is finer than the product topology since the basis of the box topology contains the basis of the product topology.

### Theorem 2.8.1

Suppose the topology on each space  $X_\alpha$  is given by a basis  $\mathcal{B}_\alpha$ . Then,

$$\mathcal{B}_1 = \left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha \mid \forall \alpha \in J, B_\alpha \in \mathcal{B}_\alpha \right\}$$

is a basis for the box topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ .

Moreover,

$$\mathcal{B}_2 = \left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha \mid B_\alpha \in \mathcal{B}_\alpha \text{ for finitely many } \alpha \text{'s and } B_\alpha = X_\alpha \text{ for remaining indices} \right\}$$

is a basis for the product topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ .

**Proof.** The basis for the box topology in Definition 2.8.1 has  $B_1$  as a subset. Thus, the box

topology is finer than the topology generated by  $B_1$ .

Also, for any basis element  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  of the box topology and  $x \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$ , since  $x_\alpha \in U_\alpha$ , there exists some  $B_\alpha \in \mathcal{B}_\alpha$  such that  $x_\alpha \in B_\alpha \subseteq U_\alpha$ . Thus,  $x \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha \subseteq \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$ ; the topology generated by  $B_1$  is finer than the box topology by Lemma 2.2.4.

Every element in  $\mathcal{B}_2$  is a basis element of the product topology. Thus,  $\mathcal{B}_2$  generates a product which is coarser than the product topology.

Let  $B = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  be a basis of the product topology and  $x \in B$ . Then,  $U_\alpha = X_\alpha$  for all but finitely many many indices; let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$  denote indices where  $U_\alpha \neq X_\alpha$ . Then, for each  $i \in [n]$ , since  $x_{\alpha_i} \in U_{\alpha_i}$ , there exists basis element  $B_{\alpha_i} \in \mathcal{B}_{\alpha_i}$  such that  $x_{\alpha_i} \in B_{\alpha_i} \subseteq U_{\alpha_i}$ . Thus,  $x \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha \subseteq B$  where  $B_\alpha = X_\alpha$  if  $\alpha \notin \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 2.8.2

Let  $A_\alpha$  be a subspace of  $X_\alpha$  for each  $\alpha \in J$ . Then  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$  is a subspace of  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ , if both products are given in the box topology, or if both products are given in the product topology.

**Proof.** (For box topology) The box topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$  has a basis of

$$\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} (A_\alpha \cap U_\alpha) \mid U_\alpha \text{ is open in } X_\alpha \right\},$$

which is exactly equal to the subspace topology of  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ ,

$$\left\{ \left( \prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \right) \cap \left( \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \right) \mid U_\alpha \text{ is open in } X_\alpha \right\}.$$

(For product topology) It is analogous; the theorem comes inherently from the fact that  $\prod (A_\alpha \cap U_\alpha) = \left( \prod A_\alpha \right) \cap \left( \prod U_\alpha \right)$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 2.8.3

If each space  $X_\alpha$  is a Hausdorff space, then  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  is a Hausdorff space in both the box and the product topologies.

**Proof.** Let  $x, y \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  with  $x \neq y$ . Then, there is some index  $\alpha_0 \in J$  such that  $x_{\alpha_0} \neq y_{\alpha_0}$ . Then, since  $X_{\alpha_0}$  is Hausdorff, there are disjoint neighborhoods  $U$  and  $V$  in  $X_{\alpha_0}$  of  $x_{\alpha_0}$  and  $y_{\alpha_0}$ , respectively. Then,  $x \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  and  $y \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} V_\alpha$  where

$$U_\alpha \triangleq \begin{cases} U & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_0 \\ X_\alpha & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad V_\alpha \triangleq \begin{cases} V & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_0 \\ X_\alpha & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

As  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  and  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} V_\alpha$  are open in both topologies, they are disjoint neighborhoods of  $x$  and  $y$  in both topologies.  $\square$

### Theorem 2.8.4

Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an indexed family of spaces and  $A_\alpha \subseteq X_\alpha$  for each  $\alpha \in J$ . Then

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} \overline{A_\alpha} = \overline{\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha}$$

in both the box and the product topologies.

**Proof.** ( $\subseteq$ ) Let  $x \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} \overline{A_\alpha}$ . Let  $U = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  be a basis element (for either the box or the product topology) that contains  $x$ . For each  $\alpha \in J$ , since  $x_\alpha \in \overline{A_\alpha}$  and  $U_\alpha$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ ,  $U_\alpha \cap A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  by Theorem 2.6.5. This implies

$$\left(\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha\right) \cap U = \left(\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha\right) \cap \left(\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha\right) = \prod_{\alpha \in J} (A_\alpha \cap U_\alpha) \neq \emptyset$$

Since the choice of  $U$  was arbitrary, by Theorem 2.6.5,  $x \in \overline{\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha}$ .

( $\supseteq$ ) Let  $x \in \overline{\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha}$ . Fix any  $\alpha_0 \in J$ , and let  $U_{\alpha_0}$  be a neighborhood of  $x_{\alpha_0}$  in  $X_{\alpha_0}$ . Since  $\pi_{\alpha_0}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_0})$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  (in both topologies),  $\pi_{\alpha_0}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_0}) \cap \prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  by Theorem 2.6.5. In particular, at the  $\alpha_0^{\text{th}}$  index,  $U_{\alpha_0} \cap A_{\alpha_0} \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $x_{\alpha_0} \in \overline{A_{\alpha_0}}$ .

Therefore,  $x \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} \overline{A_\alpha}$ . □

**Note:-**

Theorem 2.8.2, Theorem 2.8.3, and Theorem 2.8.4 illustrate the common property of the box and the product topologies. We are now going to investigate the *differences* that makes the product topology more useful.

**Theorem 2.8.5**

Let  $f : A \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  be given by the equation

$$f(a) = (f_\alpha(a))_{\alpha \in J},$$

where  $f_\alpha : A \rightarrow X_\alpha$  for each  $\alpha$ . Let  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  have the product topology. Then  $f$  is continuous if and only if each  $f_\alpha$  is continuous.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) For each  $\alpha \in J$ , since  $\pi_\alpha$  is continuous,  $f_\alpha = \pi_\alpha \circ f$  is continuous by (iii) of Theorem 2.7.2.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $\pi_\alpha^{-1}(U_\alpha)$  be any subbasis element of the product topology. Since  $\pi_\alpha \circ f = f_\alpha$ ,  $f^{-1}(\pi_\alpha^{-1}(U_\alpha)) = f_\alpha^{-1}(U_\alpha)$  is open. Thus,  $f$  is continuous. □

**Note:-**

It still holds in the box topology that, if  $f$  is continuous, then each  $f_\alpha$  is continuous. The proof is exactly the same.

However, the converse does not hold. If we let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\omega$  (where  $\mathbb{R}$  is in the standard topology) defined by

$$f(t) = (t, t, t, \dots),$$

the coordinate functions  $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f_n(t) = t$  are continuous. However,  $f$  is not continuous. The set

$$U = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

is open in  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$  endowed with the box topology. However, its inverse image  $f^{-1}(U) = \{0\}$  is not open in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## 2.9 The Metric Topology

### Definition 2.9.1: Metric

A *metric* on a set  $X$  is a function

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

having the following properties.

- (i) (*Positive Definiteness*)  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$ ; equality holds if and only if  $x = y$ .
- (ii) (*Symmetry*)  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ .
- (iii) (*Triangle Inequality*)  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in X$ .

### Definition 2.9.2: Epsilon-Ball

Given a metric  $d$  on  $X$  and  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , the set

$$B_d(x, \varepsilon) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < \varepsilon\}$$

is called the  $\varepsilon$ -ball centered at  $x$ . Sometimes, we write  $B(x, \varepsilon)$  if no confusion arises.

### Lemma 2.9.1

Let  $d$  be a metric on a set  $X$ . If  $y \in B(x, \varepsilon)$ , then there is some  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $y \in B(y, \delta) \subseteq B(x, \varepsilon)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\delta = \varepsilon - d(x, y)$ . ( $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , indeed.) Then, if  $z \in B(y, \delta)$ ,  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) < d(x, y) + (\varepsilon - d(x, y)) = \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $B(y, \delta) \subseteq B(x, \varepsilon)$ .  $\square$

### Definition 2.9.3: Metric Topology

If  $d$  is a metric on the set  $X$ , then the topology generated by the basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B_d(x, \varepsilon) \mid x \in X \text{ and } \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+\}$$

is called the *metric topology induced by  $d$* .

### Note:-

$\mathcal{B}$  is actually a basis for  $X$ . The first condition can be easily check by noting that  $x \in B(x, 1)$  for every  $x \in X$ .

To check the second condition, let  $y \in B(x_1, \varepsilon_1) \cap B(x_2, \varepsilon_2)$ . Then, by Lemma 2.9.1, there are  $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $B(y, \delta_1) \subseteq B(x_1, \varepsilon_1)$  and  $B(y, \delta_2) \subseteq B(x_2, \varepsilon_2)$ . If we take  $\delta_0 \triangleq \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ ,  $y \in B(y, \delta_0) \subseteq B(x_1, \varepsilon_1) \cap B(x_2, \varepsilon_2)$ .

### Definition 2.9.4: Metrizability and Metric Space

If  $X$  is a topological space,  $X$  is said to be *metrizable* if there exists a metric  $d$  on  $X$  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  $X$ .

**Definition 2.9.5: Boundedness**

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. A subset of  $A$  of  $X$  is said to be *bounded* if

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall a_1, a_2 \in A, d(a_1, a_2) \leq M.$$

**Note:-**

Boundedness is not a topological property as it depends on the metric. For instance,  $\mathbb{R}$  can be metrizable by two metrics:

$$d_1(x, y) = |x - y| \quad \text{and} \quad d_2(x, y) = \min\{|x - y|, 1\}.$$

(Both are metrics and induce the standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ .) However,  $\mathbb{R}$  is not bounded with respect to  $d_1$ , but is bounded with respect to  $d_2$ .

**Definition 2.9.6: Diameter**

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. if  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq X$ , the *diameter* of  $A$  is defined to be

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

**Theorem 2.9.1**

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Define  $\bar{d}: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

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

Then  $\bar{d}$  is a metric on  $X$  that induces the same topology as  $d$ .

**Proof.** The positive definiteness and the symmetry is direct. Let us check the triangle inequality.

Take any  $x, y, z \in X$ . Since  $\bar{d}(x, z) \leq 1$  always holds, we get the triangle inequality in the case of  $\bar{d}(x, y) \geq 1$  or  $\bar{d}(y, z) \geq 1$ .

In the other case, i.e.,  $\bar{d}(x, y) < 1$  and  $\bar{d}(y, z) < 1$ , it holds that  $\bar{d}(x, y) = d(x, y)$  and  $\bar{d}(y, z) = d(y, z)$ . This implies

$$\bar{d}(x, z) \leq d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) = \bar{d}(x, y) + \bar{d}(y, z),$$

which completes the proof that  $\bar{d}$  is a metric on  $X$ .

Now, note that, in any metric space,

$$\{B_d(x, \varepsilon) \mid x \in X \text{ and } \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+\}$$

and

$$\{B_d(x, \varepsilon) \mid x \in X \text{ and } \varepsilon \in (0, 1)\}$$

generates the same topology. Therefore, it follows that  $d$  and  $\bar{d}$  generates the same topology on  $X$ , because the collections of  $\varepsilon$ -balls with  $\varepsilon < 1$  under these two metrics are the same.  $\square$

**Definition 2.9.7: Standard Bounded Metric**

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Define  $\bar{d}: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

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

Then,  $\bar{d}$  is a metric on  $X$  and is called the *standard bounded metric corresponding to  $d$* .

**Definition 2.9.8: Norm, Euclidean Metric and Square Metric**

Given  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we define the *norm* of  $\mathbf{x}$  by the equation.

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2};$$

and we define the *euclidean metric*  $d$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by the equation

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = [(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2]^{1/2}.$$

We define the *square metric*  $\rho$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by the equation

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \max\{|x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n|\}.$$

**Note:-**

The proof that  $\rho$  is a metric is trivial but for the triangle inequality. Since, for each  $i \in [n]$ ,

$$|x_i - z_i| \leq |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i| \leq \rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \rho(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}),$$

it holds that

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \leq \rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \rho(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}).$$

**Lemma 2.9.2**

Let  $d$  and  $d'$  be two metrics on the set  $X$ ; let  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  be the topologies they induce, respectively. Then,

$$\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}' \iff \forall (x, \varepsilon) \in X \times \mathbb{R}_+, \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}_+, B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_d(x, \varepsilon).$$

**Proof.**  $(\Rightarrow)$  Take any  $x \in X$  and  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ . Since  $B_d(x, \varepsilon)$  is a basis element of  $\mathcal{T}$ , by Lemma 2.2.4, there is a basis element  $B'$  of  $\mathcal{T}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subseteq B_d(x, \varepsilon)$ . By Lemma 2.9.1, there is some  $B_{d'}(x, \delta)$  such that  $x \in B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B'$ .

$(\Leftarrow)$  Let  $x \in X$ ; let  $B$  be any basis element of  $\mathcal{T}$  that contains  $x$ . By Lemma 2.9.1, there is some  $B_d(x, \varepsilon)$  such that  $B_d(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq B$ . By supposition, there exists  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $x \in B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_d(x, \varepsilon)$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.2.4,  $\mathcal{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathcal{T}$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.9.2**

The topologies on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  induced by  $d$  and  $\rho$  are the same as the product topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\mathcal{T}_d$  and  $\mathcal{T}_\rho$  be the topologies induced by  $d$  and  $\rho$ , respectively. Let  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  be the product topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$(\mathcal{T}_d = \mathcal{T}_\rho)$  Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ . Let  $M \in [n]$  such that  $|x_M - y_M| = \rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ .

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})^2 &= |x_M - y_M|^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2 = d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n (x_M - y_M)^2 = n\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})^2;\end{aligned}$$

thus

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \sqrt{n}\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}).$$

Therefore, we get, for every  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ ,

$$B_d(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \subseteq B_\rho(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \quad \text{and} \quad B_\rho(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon/\sqrt{n}) \subseteq B_d(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon).$$

By Lemma 2.9.2, one is finer than the other;  $\mathcal{T}_d = \mathcal{T}_\rho$ .

( $\mathcal{T}_\rho = \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ )  $\mathcal{T}_\rho \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  is direct since every basis element

$$B_\rho(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) = (x_1 - \varepsilon, x_1 + \varepsilon) \times \cdots \times (x_n - \varepsilon, x_n + \varepsilon)$$

of  $\mathcal{T}_\rho$  is a basis element of  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ , by Lemma 2.2.4,  $\mathcal{T}_\rho \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ .

To prove the other containment, take any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $B = \prod_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i)$  be a basis element of  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  that contains  $\mathbf{x}$ . For each  $i \in [n]$ , let  $\varepsilon_i = \min\{x_i - a_i, b_i - x_i\}$ . Then,  $(x_i - \varepsilon_i, x_i + \varepsilon_i) \subseteq (a_i, b_i)$  for all  $i \in [n]$ . Thus, it follows that  $\mathbf{x} \in B_\rho(\mathbf{x}, \min_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i) \subseteq B$ ;  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{R}^n} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_\rho$  by Lemma 2.2.4.  $\square$

### Corollary 2.9.1

The product topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is metrizable.

### Theorem 2.9.3

Given an index set  $J$  and given points  $\mathbf{x} = (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^J$ , let us define  $\bar{\rho}: \mathbb{R}^J \times \mathbb{R}^J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

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

where  $\bar{d}$  is the standard bounded metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then,  $\bar{\rho}$  is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^J$ .

**Proof.** The positive definiteness and the symmetry is direct. Let us check the triangle inequality.

Let  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^J$ . For each  $\alpha \in J$ , it holds that

$$\bar{d}(x_\alpha, z_\alpha) \leq \bar{d}(x_\alpha, y_\alpha) + \bar{d}(y_\alpha, z_\alpha) \leq \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}).$$

Therefore,  $\bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \leq \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ .  $\square$

### Definition 2.9.9: Uniform Metric and Uniform Topology

Given an index set  $J$ ,  $\bar{\rho}$  in the Theorem 2.9.3 is called the *uniform metric* on  $\mathbb{R}^J$ , and the topology it induces is called the *uniform topology*.

### Theorem 2.9.4

The uniform topology on  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is finer than the product topology and coarser than the

box topology. Moreover, they are all strict when  $J$  is infinite. In other words,

$$\mathcal{T}_{\text{product}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{uniform}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{box}}$$

They are strict if  $J$  is infinite.

**Proof.** ( $\mathcal{T}_{\text{product}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{uniform}}$ ) Let  $B = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$  be a basis element of the product topology and  $\mathbf{x} \in B$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$  be the indices such that  $U_{\alpha_i} \neq \mathbb{R}$ . Then, for each  $i \in [n]$ , there exists  $\varepsilon_i \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $B_{\bar{d}}(x_{\alpha_i}, \varepsilon_i) \subseteq U_{\alpha_i}$ . Let  $\varepsilon \triangleq \min_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i$ . Then,  $B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \subseteq B$ . The result follows from Lemma 2.2.4. ✓

( $\mathcal{T}_{\text{uniform}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{box}}$ ) Let  $B$  be any basis element of the uniform topology and  $\mathbf{x} \in B$ . Then, Lemma 2.9.1 implies that there is some  $\varepsilon$ -ball centered at  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \subseteq B$ . Then,  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} (x_\alpha - \varepsilon/2, x_\alpha + \varepsilon/2)$  is an open neighborhood of  $\mathbf{x}$  which is contained in  $B$ . ✓

( $\mathcal{T}_{\text{product}} \not\subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{uniform}}$  if  $J$  is infinite) Let  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^J$ . Then,  $\mathbf{x} \in B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon)$  but there is no basis element of the product topology that is contained in  $B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon)$ . By Lemma 2.2.4, the product topology is not finer than the uniform topology. ✓

( $\mathcal{T}_{\text{uniform}} \not\subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{box}}$  if  $J$  is infinite.) Let  $U \triangleq \prod_{\alpha \in J} (0, 2)$ , which is a basis element of the box topology. There is an injective function  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \hookrightarrow J$  by Theorem 1.7.1. Let  $\mathbf{x} \in U$  where

$$x_\alpha = \begin{cases} 1/n & \text{if } \exists n \in \mathbb{N}_+, f(n) = \alpha \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, no basis element that contains  $\mathbf{x}$  can be contained in  $U$ . If otherwise, there is an  $B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon') \subseteq U$  by Lemma 2.9.1. However, there exists  $\alpha_0 \in J$  such that  $f(n) = \alpha_0$  where  $n\varepsilon' > 2$ , which implies  $x_{\alpha_0} = 1/n < \varepsilon'/2$ . ✓

Let  $\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^J$  defined by

$$x'_\alpha = \begin{cases} x_{\alpha_0} - \varepsilon'/2 & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_0 \\ x_\alpha & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then,  $\mathbf{x}' \in B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon')$  but  $x'_{\alpha_0} - \varepsilon'/2 < 0$ ;  $\mathbf{x}' \notin U$ . This contradicts  $B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon') \subseteq U$ . ✓

□

### Theorem 2.9.5 Countable Product of Metrizable Spaces Is Metrizable

Let  $X_n$  be a metric space with metric  $d_n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Let  $\bar{d}_n$  be the standard bounded metric corresponding to  $d_n$ . If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$ , define

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sup \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \right\}.$$

Then  $D$  is a metric that induces the product topology on  $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$ .

**Proof.** ( $D$  is a metric on  $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_i$ .) The positive definiteness and the symmetry of  $D$  is direct. Note that, for each  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,

$$\frac{\bar{d}_i(x_i, z_i)}{i} \leq \frac{\bar{d}_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \frac{\bar{d}_i(y_i, z_i)}{i} \leq D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + D(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}).$$

Thus,

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \sup \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}_i(x_i, z_i)}{i} \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \right\} \leq D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + D(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}). \quad \checkmark$$



( $\mathcal{T}_{\text{metric}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{product}}$ ) Let  $B$  be any  $\varepsilon'$ -ball in the metric topology and let  $\mathbf{x} \in B$ . Then, by Lemma 2.9.1, there exists  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $B_D(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \subseteq B$ . Take  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\varepsilon N > 1$ . Let  $V$  be the basis element for the product topology defined by

$$V \triangleq B_{\bar{d}_1}(x_1, \varepsilon) \times \cdots \times B_{\bar{d}_N}(x_N, \varepsilon) \times X_{n+1} \times X_{n+2} \times \cdots.$$

Note that, given any  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$  and  $i \geq N$ ,  $\frac{\bar{d}_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} \leq \frac{1}{N}$ . Thus, when  $\mathbf{y} \in V$ ,

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \max \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}_1(x_1, y_1)}{1}, \frac{\bar{d}_2(x_2, y_2)}{2}, \dots, \frac{\bar{d}_N(x_N, y_N)}{N}, \frac{1}{N} \right\} < \varepsilon.$$

Thus,  $\mathbf{x} \in V \subseteq B_D(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \subseteq B$ . Now, Lemma 2.2.4 tells the result.  $\checkmark$

( $\mathcal{T}_{\text{metric}} \supseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{product}}$ ) Let  $B = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_i$  be a basis element of the product topology and  $\mathbf{x} \in B$ . Let  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n$  be the indices such that  $U_{i_k} \neq X_{i_k}$  for each  $k \in [n]$ .

For each  $k \in [n]$ , since  $U_{i_k}$  is open, there exists  $\varepsilon_k \in (0, 1)$  such that  $B_{\bar{d}_{i_k}}(x_{i_k}, \varepsilon_k) \subseteq U_{i_k}$ .

Let  $\varepsilon \triangleq \min_{k=1}^n (\varepsilon_k / i_k)$ .

Now we claim that  $B_D(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$ . Let  $\mathbf{y} \in B_D(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon)$ . Then, for all  $k \in [n]$ ,

$$\bar{d}_{i_k}(x_{i_k}, y_{i_k}) \leq i_k \cdot D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) < i_k \varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_k < 1.$$

It follows that  $y_{i_k} \in B_{\bar{d}_{i_k}}(x_{i_k}, \varepsilon_k)$ ; therefore  $\mathbf{y} \in B$ .  $\checkmark$

### Corollary 2.9.2

$\mathbb{R}^\omega$  with the product topology is metrizable.

## 2.10 The Metric Topology (continued)

### Theorem 2.10.1 The $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$ Definition of Continuity

Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ ; let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metrizable with metrics  $d_X$  and  $d_Y$ , respectively. Then,  $f$  is continuous if and only if

$$\forall x \in X, \forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+, \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}_+, \forall y \in Y, (d_X(x, y) < \delta \implies d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon).$$

**Proof.** ( $\implies$ ) Given  $x \in X$  and  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , the set  $f^{-1}(B(f(x), \varepsilon))$  is open and contains  $x$ . Thus, there is some  $\delta$ -ball  $B(x, \delta)$  centered at  $x$  such that  $x \in B(x, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B(f(x), \varepsilon))$ .  $\checkmark$

( $\impliedby$ ) Let  $V$  be open in  $Y$ ; we claim that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ . Let  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$ . Since  $f(x) \in V$ , there is some  $\varepsilon$ -ball  $B(f(x), \varepsilon)$  such that  $B(f(x), \varepsilon) \subseteq V$ . By the supposition, there is some  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $f(B(x, \delta)) \subseteq B(f(x), \varepsilon)$ . Thus,  $x \in B(x, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B(f(x), \varepsilon)) \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ . This implies  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open by definition.  $\checkmark$

### Definition 2.10.1: Local Basis

A space  $X$  is said to have a *local basis at the point*  $x \in X$  if there is a countable collection  $\mathcal{U}$  of open neighborhoods of  $x$  such that any neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  contains at least one of element of  $\mathcal{U}$ .

**Definition 2.10.2: First Countable Axiom**

A space  $X$  satisfies the *first countable axiom* if it has countable local basis at each point.

**Note:-**

Any metrizable space satisfies the first countable axiom. For each  $x \in X$ ,  $\{B_d(x, 1/n) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$  is a countable local basis at  $x$ .

**Lemma 2.10.1 The Sequence Lemma**

Let  $X$  be a topological space; let  $A \subseteq X$ . If there is a sequence of points in  $A$  converging to  $x$ , then  $x \in \bar{A}$ . Moreover, the converse holds if  $X$  satisfies the first countable axiom.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $x_n \in A$ . This means every neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  intersects  $A$ , so  $x \in \bar{A}$  by Theorem 2.6.5.  $\checkmark$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $\{U_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  be a local basis for  $x$ . Set  $B_n \triangleq \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$  so that  $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$ . Since  $x \in \bar{A}$  and  $x \in B_n$  is open, we may take  $x_n \in A \cap B_n$ .

We want to show that  $x_n \rightarrow x$ . Take any neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ . Then, it contains  $U_{n_0}$  for some  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Then, for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,  $x_n \in U_{n_0} \subseteq U$ .  $\checkmark$   $\square$

**Lemma 2.10.2**

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. If  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, then for every convergent sequence  $x_n \rightarrow x$ , the sequence  $f(x_n)$  converges to  $f(x)$ . The converse also holds if  $X$  satisfies the first countable axiom.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $V$  be a neighborhood of  $f(x)$  in  $Y$ . Then,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  in  $X$  since  $f$  is continuous. Since  $x_n \rightarrow x$ , there is some  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $x_n \in f^{-1}(V)$  whenever  $n \geq n_0$ , i.e.,  $f(x_n) \in V$  whenever  $n \geq n_0$ .  $\checkmark$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) We claim that  $f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$  for any  $A \subseteq X$ , and thus  $f$  is continuous by Theorem 2.7.1. Let  $x \in \bar{A}$ . Then, by Lemma 2.10.1, there is a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \subseteq A$  that converges to  $x$ . Then, by assumption, the sequence  $\{f(x_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  in  $f(A)$  converges to  $f(x)$ . By Lemma 2.10.1,  $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$ .  $\checkmark$   $\square$

**Lemma 2.10.3**

The addition, subtraction, and multiplication operations are continuous functions from  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ ; and the quotient operation is a continuous function from  $\mathbb{R} \times (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 2.10.2**

If  $X$  is a topological space, and if  $f, g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuous, then  $f + g$ ,  $f - g$ , and  $f \cdot g$  are continuous. If  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$ , then  $f/g$  is continuous.

**Proof.** The map  $h: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$h(x) = f(x) \times g(x)$$

is continuous by Theorem 2.8.5. The function  $f + g$  equals the composite of  $h$  and the addition operation

$$+: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R};$$

therefore  $f + g$  is continuous by (iii) of Theorem 2.7.2. It is similar for  $f - g$ ,  $f \cdot g$ , and  $f/g$ .  $\square$

### Definition 2.10.3: Uniform Convergence

Let  $\{f_n\} \subseteq X \rightarrow Y$  be a sequence of functions from the set  $X$  to the metric space  $Y$ . Let  $d$  be the metric for  $Y$ . We say that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to the function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  if

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ (n \geq N \implies \forall x \in X, d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \varepsilon).$$

#### Note:-

Uniformity of convergence depends not only on the topology of  $Y$  but also on its metric.

### Theorem 2.10.3 Uniform Limit Theorem

Let  $\{f_n\} \subseteq X \rightarrow Y$  be a sequence of continuous functions from the topological space  $X$  to the metric space  $Y$ . If  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$ , then  $f$  is continuous.

**Proof.** Let  $V$  be open in  $Y$ . We want to show that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open. Take any  $x_0 \in f^{-1}(V)$ . Let  $y_0 \triangleq f(x_0) \in V$ . Since  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open, there exists  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $B(y_0, \varepsilon) \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ . By uniform convergence,

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+, \forall x \in X, d(f_N(x), f(x)) < \varepsilon/4.$$

where  $d$  is the metric on  $Y$ . Moreover, since  $f_N$  is continuous,  $U = f_N^{-1}(B(f_N(x_0), \varepsilon/2))$  is a neighborhood of  $x_0$ .

Thus, for each  $x \in U$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} d(y_0, f(x)) &\leq d(f(x_0), f_N(x_0)) + d(f_N(x_0), f_N(x)) + d(f_N(x), f(x)) \\ &< \varepsilon/4 + \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/4 = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have  $x_0 \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ ;  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open.  $\square$

### Theorem 2.10.4

$\{f_n\} \subseteq X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  converges uniformly to  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  if and only if  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $f$  in the uniform topology.

**Proof.**  $(\implies)$  Let  $U$  be any neighborhood of  $f$  in the uniform topology. Then, there is an  $\varepsilon$ -ball  $B_{\overline{\rho}}(f, \varepsilon)$  centered at  $f$  which is contained in  $U$ . By the uniform convergence, there is some  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, (n \geq N \implies \forall x \in X, d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \varepsilon/2).$$

Thus, for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) \leq \varepsilon/2 < \varepsilon$ , i.e.,  $f_n \in B_{\overline{\rho}}(f, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$ .  $\checkmark$

$(\impliedby)$  Take any  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ . By the convergence in the uniform topology, there exists some  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, (n \geq N \implies f_n \in B_{\overline{\rho}}(f, \varepsilon)).$$

This implies, whenever  $n \geq N$ ,  $\forall x \in X, d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \varepsilon$ .  $\checkmark$   $\square$

### Corollary 2.10.1

$\mathbb{R}^\omega$  with the box topology is not metrizable.

**Proof.** Let  $A = (\mathbb{R}_+)^{\omega}$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ . Then,  $\mathbf{0}$  is a limit point of  $A$ . To see this, let

$$B = (a_1, b_1) \times (a_2, b_2) \times \cdots$$

be any basis element that contains  $\mathbf{0}$ . Then,

$$(b_1/2, b_2/2, \dots) \in A \cap B.$$

However, there is no sequence of points of  $A$  that converge to  $\mathbf{0}$ . To see this, let  $\{\mathbf{a}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  be a sequence of points in  $A$  where

$$\mathbf{a}_n = (a_{n1}, a_{n2}, \dots, a_{in}, \dots).$$

Let  $B' = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} (-a_{nn}, a_{nn})$  is a neighborhood of  $\mathbf{0}$  but no  $\mathbf{a}_n$  is in  $B'$ ;  $\{\mathbf{a}_n\}$  does not converge to  $\mathbf{0}$ .

Thus, by Lemma 2.10.1,  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  does not satisfy the first countable axiom, and thus is not metrizable.  $\square$

### Corollary 2.10.2

$\mathbb{R}^J$  with uncountable  $J$  in the product topology is not metrizable.

**Proof.** Let  $A = \{(x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J} \mid x_{\alpha} = 1 \text{ for all but finitely many } \alpha\}$ .

Let  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{\alpha}$  be a basis that contains  $\mathbf{0}$  and suppose  $U_{\alpha} \neq \mathbb{R}$  for  $\alpha \in \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ . Define  $(y_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  by

$$y_{\alpha} \triangleq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_i \text{ for some } i \in [n] \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then,  $(y_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J} \in A \cap \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{\alpha}$ . Hence,  $\mathbf{0} \in \bar{A}$  by Theorem 2.6.5.

Now, we shall prove that no sequence in  $A$  converges to  $\mathbf{0}$ . Let  $\{\mathbf{a}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  be a sequence in  $A$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , let

$$J_n \triangleq \{\alpha \in J \mid (\mathbf{a}_n)_{\alpha} \neq 1\}.$$

Since each  $J_n$  is finite, and since  $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} J_n$  is thus countable, we may take  $\beta \in J \setminus (\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} J_n)$ . For such  $\beta$ , it is  $(\mathbf{a}_n)_{\beta} = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . This implies that  $\mathbf{a}_n \notin \pi_{\beta}^{-1}((-1, 1))$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  while  $\pi_{\beta}^{-1}((-1, 1))$  is a neighborhood of  $\mathbf{0}$ ;  $\{\mathbf{a}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  does not converge to  $\mathbf{0}$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is not metrizable by Lemma 2.10.1.  $\square$

## 2.11 The Quotient Topology

### Definition 2.11.1: Quotient Map

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. A map  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  is called a *quotient map* if

- (i)  $p$  is surjective and
- (ii)  $V \subseteq Y$  is open in  $Y \iff p^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ .

#### Note:-

A quotient map is continuous.

**Note:-**

(ii) of Definition 2.11.1 is equivalent to

$$C \subseteq Y \text{ is closed in } Y \iff p^{-1}(C) \text{ is closed in } X.$$

as

$$\begin{aligned} C \text{ is closed in } Y &\iff Y \setminus C \text{ is open in } Y \quad \text{and} \\ f^{-1}(C) \text{ is closed in } X &\iff X \setminus f^{-1}(C) \text{ is closed in } X \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 2.11.2: Saturated Set**

A subset  $C$  of  $X$  is *saturated* (with respect to the map  $p: X \rightarrow Y$ ) if

$$\forall y \in Y, (p^{-1}(\{y\}) \cap C \neq \emptyset \implies f^{-1}(\{y\}) \subseteq C).$$

In other words,  $C$  is saturated if  $C = p^{-1}(V)$  for some  $V \subseteq Y$ .

**Note:-**

Here is the proof of their equivalence.

- Suppose  $C = p^{-1}(V)$  for some  $V \subseteq Y$ . Let  $y \in Y$  and suppose it satisfies  $p^{-1}(\{y\}) \cap C \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,

$$p^{-1}(\{y\}) \cap p^{-1}(V) = p^{-1}(V \cap \{y\}) \neq \emptyset;$$

$y \in V$ . Hence,  $p^{-1}(\{y\}) \subseteq p^{-1}(V) = C$ .

- For the converse, let

$$\begin{aligned} V &\triangleq \{y \in Y \mid p^{-1}(\{y\}) \cap C \neq \emptyset\} \\ &= \{y \in Y \mid p^{-1}(\{y\}) \subseteq C\} \end{aligned}$$

The second equality follows from the hypothesis.

If  $p(x) \in V$  where  $x \in X$ , by definition of  $V$ ,  $x \in p^{-1}(p(\{x\})) = p^{-1}(\{p(x)\}) \subseteq C$ . This proves  $p^{-1}(V) \subseteq C$ .

For the other containment, let  $x \in C$ . Then,  $\{p(x)\} \cap p(C) \neq \emptyset$ , and thus

$$\emptyset \neq p^{-1}(\{p(x)\} \cap p(C)) = p^{-1}(\{p(x)\}) \cap p^{-1}(p(C)) \subseteq p^{-1}(\{p(x)\}) \cap C$$

is nonempty;  $p(x) \in V$  by definition of  $V$ . This proves  $C \subseteq p^{-1}(V)$ . □

**Lemma 2.11.1**

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. A surjective, continuous map  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  is a quotient map if and only if  $p(C)$  is open for every saturated open set  $C \subseteq X$ .

**Proof.** The continuity is equivalent to  $\Rightarrow$  of Definition 2.11.1 (ii), and ‘sending every saturated open set to an open set’ is equivalent to  $\Leftarrow$  of Definition 2.11.1 (ii). □

**Lemma 2.11.2**

If  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  is a map and  $A$  is saturated with respect to  $p$ , then  $p^{-1}(p(A)) = A$ .

**Proof.** It is already  $p^{-1}(p(A)) \supseteq A$  by Example 1.1.2.

There exists  $V \subseteq Y$  such that  $A = p^{-1}(V)$ . Then,  $p(A) = p(p^{-1}(V)) \subseteq V$ ; and it implies  $p^{-1}(p(A)) \subseteq p^{-1}(V) = A$ . □

### Lemma 2.11.3

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces and  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  be surjective and continuous. Then, if  $p$  is an open map or is a closed map,  $p$  is a quotient map.

**Proof.** If  $p$  is open, then the result follows directly from Lemma 2.11.1.

Suppose  $p$  is closed and let  $V \subseteq Y$  such that  $p^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ . Then,  $X \setminus p^{-1}(V)$  is closed, and thus,

$$p(X \setminus p^{-1}(V)) = p(X) \setminus p(p^{-1}(V)) = Y \setminus V$$

is closed in  $X$ . The last equality comes from Example 1.1.2. Thus,  $V$  is open in  $X$ .  $\square$

### Wrong Concept 2.2: The Converses Do Not Hold

Let  $A = ([0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}) \cup (\mathbb{R} \times \{0\})$  be a subspace of  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$  endowed with the standard topology. Let  $\pi: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the projection onto its first factor, i.e.,

$$\pi(x \times y) = x.$$

Since  $\pi$  is surjective and  $\pi^{-1}(V) = (V \times \mathbb{R}) \cap A$  for each  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\pi$  is a quotient map when  $\mathbb{R}$  is endowed with the standard topology.

However, it is not open as  $\pi((\mathbb{R} \times (0, 1)) \cap A) = [0, \infty)$  is not open. It is also not closed as, if we let  $C = \{x \times 1/x \mid x \in \mathbb{R}_+\}$ ,  $p(C) = (0, \infty)$  is not closed although  $C$  is closed in  $A$ .

This shows that the converses of Lemma 2.11.3 are not true.

### Wrong Concept 2.3: Subspaces and Quotient Map

*A restriction on a subspace of a quotient map need not be a quotient map.*

Let  $X$  be the subspace  $[0, 1] \cup [2, 3]$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ , and let  $Y$  be the subspace  $[0, 2]$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  be defined by

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \\ x - 1 & \text{if } x \in [2, 3]. \end{cases}$$

$p$  is continuous since

$$p^{-1}((a, b) \cap Y) = \begin{cases} (a, b) \cap X & \text{if } b \leq 1 \\ (a + 1, b + 1) \cap X & \text{if } a \geq 1 \\ (a, b + 1) \cap X & \text{if } a < 1 < b \end{cases}$$

implies  $p^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  if  $V$  is open in  $Y$ .

Also, since  $\text{id}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $g(x) = x - 1$  are closed (homeomorphisms, actually), if  $C$  is closed in  $X$ ,

$$p(C) = p(C \cap [0, 1]) \cup p(C \cap [2, 3]) = (C \cap [0, 1]) \cup g(C \cap [2, 3])$$

is closed.

$p$  is surjective, indeed; thus  $p$  is a quotient map by Lemma 2.11.3.

Let  $A$  be the subspace  $[0, 1) \cup [2, 3]$ . Then, the map  $q: A \rightarrow Y$  obtained by restricting  $p$  is continuous and surjective, but it is not a quotient map as  $f^{-1}([1, 2]) = [2, 3]$  is open in  $A$  but  $[1, 2]$  is not open in  $Y$ .

### Theorem 2.11.1

If  $X$  is a space and  $A$  is a set and if  $p: X \rightarrow A$  is a surjective map, then there exists a unique topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $A$  relative to which  $p$  is a quotient map. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ V \subseteq A \mid p^{-1}(V) \text{ is open in } X \}.$$

**Proof.** First, we shall prove that  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology.

- (i)  $p^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  and  $p^{-1}(A) = X$  are open in  $X$ ; thus  $\emptyset, A \in \mathcal{T}$ . ✓
  - (ii) For any  $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ ,  $p^{-1}(\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} V_\alpha) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} p^{-1}(V_\alpha)$  is open in  $X$ . Thus,  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} V_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$ . ✓
  - (iii) For any  $\{V_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ ,  $p^{-1}(\bigcup_{i=1}^n V_i) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n p^{-1}(V_i)$  is open in  $X$ . Thus,  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n V_i \in \mathcal{T}$ . ✓
- $p$  is a quotient map relative to  $\mathcal{T}$ . The surjectivity is given by definition, and the continuity is direct from the definition. Moreover, if  $p^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $X$  where  $U \subseteq A$ , by the definition of  $\mathcal{T}$ ,  $U \in \mathcal{T}$ . ✓

To prove the uniqueness, let  $\mathcal{T}'$  be a topology on  $A$  relative to which  $p$  is a quotient map. Then,

$$V \in \mathcal{T} \iff p^{-1}(V) \text{ is open in } X \iff V \in \mathcal{T}';$$

thus  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}'$ . ✓ □

### Definition 2.11.3: Quotient Topology

Let  $X$  be a space and  $A$  be a set. Let  $p: X \rightarrow A$  be a surjective map. Then, according to Theorem 2.11.1,

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ V \subseteq A \mid p^{-1}(V) \text{ is open in } X \}$$

is a unique topology on  $A$  relative to which  $p$  is a quotient map. Here,  $\mathcal{T}$  is called the *quotient topology induced by  $p$* .

### Definition 2.11.4: Quotient Space

Let  $X$  be a topological space, and let  $X^* \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a partition of  $X$ . Let  $p: X \rightarrow X^*$  be a function that maps each  $x \in X$  to the unique  $U \in X^*$  such that  $x \in U$ . Then,  $p$  is surjective.  $X^*$  endowed with the quotient topology induced by  $p$  is called a *quotient space of  $X$* .

### Note:-

Since  $U \subseteq X^*$  is a collection of equivalence classes, it is just  $p^{-1}(U) = \bigcup U$ .

### Lemma 2.11.4

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be any sets, and let  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  be a map. Let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$  that is saturated with respect to  $p$ . Let  $q: A \rightarrow p(A)$  be the map obtained by restricting  $p$ . Then, the following hold.

- (i) If  $V \subseteq p(A)$ , then  $p^{-1}(V) = q^{-1}(V)$ .
- (ii) If  $U \subseteq X$ , then  $p(U \cap A) = p(U) \cap p(A)$ .

**Proof.**

- (i) It is direct that

$$q^{-1}(V) = \{ x \in A \mid q(x) \in V \} = \{ x \in A \mid p(x) \in V \} \subseteq \{ x \in X \mid p(x) \in V \} = p^{-1}(V),$$

and it does not require  $A$  to be saturated.

For the other direction, let  $x \in p^{-1}(V)$ . Since  $A$  is saturated,  $x \in p^{-1}(V) \subseteq p^{-1}(p(A)) = A$  by Lemma 2.11.2. Thus,  $x \in q^{-1}(V)$ .

(ii) It is already  $p(U \cap A) \subseteq p(U) \cap p(A)$  since  $p(U \cap A) \subseteq p(U)$  and  $p(U \cap A) \subseteq p(A)$ .

For the reverse inclusion, let  $y \in p(U) \cap p(A)$ . There exists  $u \in U$  and  $a \in A$  such that  $y = p(u) = p(a)$ . Then,  $u \in p^{-1}(\{p(u)\}) = p^{-1}(\{p(a)\}) \subseteq A$  since  $A$  is saturated. Thus,  $u \in U \cap A$ ;  $y = p(u) \in p(U \cap A)$ .

□

### Theorem 2.11.2

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces, and let  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  be a quotient map. Let  $A$  be a subspace of  $X$  that is saturated with respect to  $p$ . Let  $q: A \rightarrow p(A)$  be the map obtained by restricting  $p$ .

(i) If  $A$  is either open or closed in  $X$ , then  $q$  is a quotient map.

(ii) If  $p$  is either an open map or a closed map, then  $q$  is a quotient map.

**Proof.** Note that,  $q$  is already surjective and continuous by Theorem 2.7.2. Let  $V \subseteq p(A)$  and assume  $q^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $A$ .  $q^{-1}(V) = p^{-1}(V)$  by Lemma 2.11.4.

(i) Suppose  $A$  is open. Then,  $q^{-1}(V) = p^{-1}(V)$ , which is open in  $A$ , is open in  $X$ . Since  $p$  is a quotient map,  $V$  is open in  $X$ . Thus,  $V = V \cap p(A)$  is also open in  $p(A)$ .

(ii) Suppose  $p$  is open. Since  $p^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $A$ ,  $p^{-1}(V) = U \cap A$  for some open set  $U$  in  $X$ . Since  $p$  is surjective,

$$V = p(p^{-1}(V)) = p(U \cap A) = p(U) \cap p(A).$$

The last equation comes from Lemma 2.11.4. Since  $p(U)$  is open in  $Y$ ,  $V$  is also open in  $p(A)$ .

Replace “open” with “closed” to get the proof for closed  $A$  and closed  $p$ .

□

### Theorem 2.11.3

Let  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  be topological spaces, and let  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $q: Y \rightarrow Z$  be quotient maps. Then,  $q \circ p: X \rightarrow Z$  is a quotient map.

**Proof.**  $q \circ p$  is surjective and continuous by Theorem 2.7.2. Also, if  $(q \circ p)^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , since  $(q \circ p)^{-1}(V) = p^{-1}(q^{-1}(V))$ ,  $q^{-1}(V)$  is open, and thus  $V$  is open.

□

## Wrong Concept 2.4: Products and Quotient Map

*The product of two quotient maps need not be a quotient map.*

Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $X^*$  be obtained by

$$X^* = \{ \{x\} \mid x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}_+ \} \cup \{ \mathbb{Z}_+ \},$$

i.e., identifying  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  to one point  $b = \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Let  $p: X \rightarrow X^*$  be the quotient map. Let  $\mathbb{Q}$  be the subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$  endowed with the standard topology; let  $i: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  be the identity map. We show that

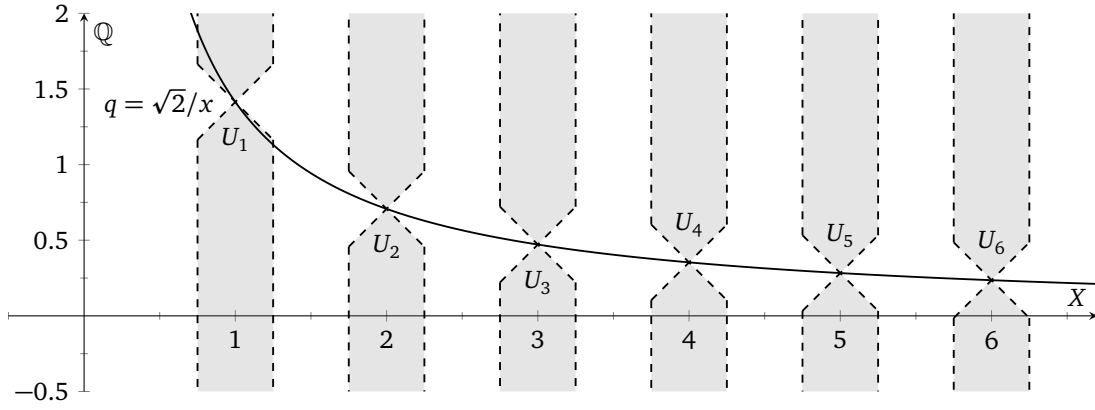
$$p \times i: X \times \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow X^* \times \mathbb{Q}$$

is not a quotient map.

Let  $c_n = \sqrt{2}/n$  where  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , let

$$U_n \triangleq \{ (x, q) \in X \times \mathbb{Q} \mid |x - n| < 1/4 \text{ and } |q - c_n| > |x - n| \}.$$





Then, it is easy to see that each  $U_n$  is open; so

$$U \triangleq \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_n$$

is open. Moreover,  $U$  is saturated with respect to  $p \times i$  as  $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \{q\} \subseteq U$  (a potential source that makes  $U$  not saturated) for all  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Suppose  $U' \triangleq (p \times i)(U)$  is open for the sake of contradiction. Since  $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \{0\} \subseteq U$ ,  $b \times 0 \in U'$  by definition. Hence,  $U'$  contains an open set  $W \times I_\delta$  where  $W$  is a neighborhood of  $b$  in  $X^*$  and  $I_\delta = (-\delta, \delta) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ . Then, we have

$$p^{-1}(W) \times I_\delta = (p \times i)^{-1}(W \times I_\delta) \subseteq (p \times i)^{-1}(U') = U.$$

(The last equation follows from Lemma 2.11.2.)

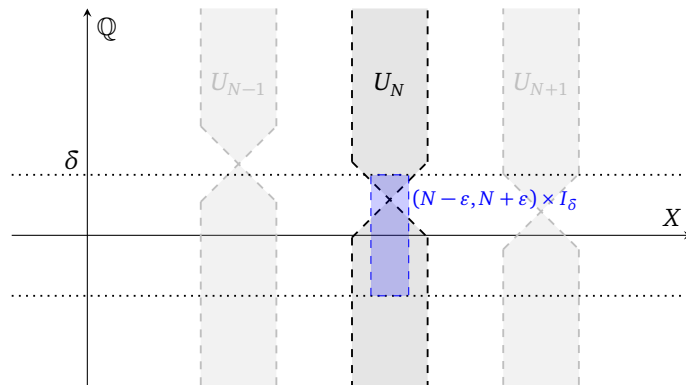
There exists  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $c_N = \sqrt{2}/N < \delta$ . Since  $p$  is continuous,  $p^{-1}(W)$  is open in  $X$  and contains  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ . Thus, there exists  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/4)$  so that  $(N - \varepsilon, N + \varepsilon) \subseteq p^{-1}(W)$ . This implies

$$(N - \varepsilon, N + \varepsilon) \times I_\delta \subseteq U,$$

but this is impossible since, if we let  $c'_N \in (c_N - \varepsilon/2, c_N + \varepsilon/2) \cap I_\delta$ ,

$$(N + \varepsilon/2) \times c'_N \in (N - \varepsilon, N + \varepsilon) \times I_\delta$$

but  $(N + \varepsilon/2) \times c'_N \notin U$ , #. Thus,  $U' = (p \times i)(U)$  is not open while  $U$  is saturated;  $p \times i$  is not a quotient map.



### Theorem 2.11.4

Let  $p: X \rightarrow Y$  be quotient map. Let  $Z$  be a space and let  $g: X \rightarrow Z$  be a map that is constant on each set  $p^{-1}(\{y\})$ ,  $y \in Y$ . Then,  $g$  induces a map  $f: Y \rightarrow Z$  such that  $f \circ p = g$ . Moreover, the following hold.

- (i)  $f$  is continuous if and only if  $g$  is continuous.
- (ii)  $f$  is a quotient map if and only if  $g$  is a quotient map.

**Proof.** For each  $y \in Y$ , the set  $g(p^{-1}(\{y\}))$  is a one-point set in  $Z$  as we assumed  $g$  is constant on  $p^{-1}(\{y\})$ . Define  $f(y)$  to be the only element of it. Then,  $f(p(x))$  is the only element of  $A = g(p^{-1}(p(\{x\})))$  while  $g(x) \in A$ . Thus,  $f(p(x)) = g(x)$  for each  $x \in X$ ;  $f \circ p = g$ .

- (i) If  $f$  is continuous,  $g = f \circ p$  is continuous by Theorem 2.7.2. Suppose  $g$  is continuous. Let  $V$  be open in  $Z$ . Then,  $g^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  as  $g$  is continuous. Noting that  $g^{-1}(V) = p^{-1}(f^{-1}(V))$  and  $p$  is a quotient map, we get  $f^{-1}(V)$  is also open in  $Y$ . ✓
- (ii) If  $f$  is a quotient map,  $g = f \circ p$  is a quotient map by Theorem 2.11.3. Suppose  $g$  is a quotient map.  $f$  is already surjective by basic set theory and continuous by (i). Let  $V$  be open in  $Z$  and suppose  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $Y$ .  $p^{-1}(f^{-1}(V)) = g^{-1}(V)$  is open since  $p$  is continuous. Because  $g$  is a quotient map,  $V$  is open. Thus,  $f$  is a quotient map. □

### Corollary 2.11.1

Let  $g: X \rightarrow Z$  be a surjective continuous map. Let  $X^*$  be defined by

$$X^* \triangleq \{g^{-1}(\{z\}) \subseteq X \mid z \in Z\}.$$

Give  $X^*$  the quotient topology. Then, the following hold.

- (i) The map  $g$  induces a bijective continuous map  $f: X^* \rightarrow Z$ , which is a homeomorphism if and only if  $g$  is a quotient map.
- (ii) If  $Z$  is Hausdorff, so is  $X^*$ .

**Proof.**

- (i) Let  $p: X \rightarrow X^*$  be the quotient map that induces the quotient topology on  $X^*$ . Then, by Theorem 2.11.4, the induced  $f: X^* \rightarrow Z$  is continuous.  $f$  is surjective since  $g$  and  $p$  are surjective.  $f$  is injective since  $f(g^{-1}(\{z\})) = z$  for each  $z \in Z$ . ✓  
Suppose  $f$  is a homeomorphism. Then both  $f$  and  $p$  are quotient maps; thus  $g = f \circ p$  is a quotient map. Suppose  $g$  is a quotient map. Then, by Theorem 2.11.4,  $f$  is a quotient map. Since  $f$  is already bijective,  $f$  is a homeomorphism. ✓
- (ii) Suppose  $Z$  is Hausdorff. Given distinct points  $a, b \in X^*$ ,  $f(a) \neq f(b)$  since  $f$  is injective. Thus, there are disjoint neighborhoods  $U$  and  $V$  in  $Z$  of  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , respectively. Then,  $f^{-1}(U)$  and  $f^{-1}(V)$  are disjoint neighborhoods of  $a$  and  $b$  as  $f$  is continuous. Thus,  $X^*$  is Hausdorff. ✓ □

# Chapter 3

## Connectedness and Compactness

### 3.1 Connected Space

#### Definition 3.1.1: Separation and Connectedness

Let  $X$  be a topological space. A *separation* of  $X$  is a pair  $U$  and  $V$  of subsets of  $X$  which satisfy the following.

- (i)  $U$  and  $V$  are open in  $X$ .
- (ii)  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .
- (iii)  $U \cup V = X$ .

The space  $X$  is said to be *connected* if there does not exist a separation of  $X$ .

#### Note:-

Connectedness is a topological property.

#### Note:-

A space  $X$  is connected if and only if the only subsets of  $X$  that are both open and closed in  $X$  are the empty sets and  $X$  itself.

#### Lemma 3.1.1

If  $Y$  is a subspace of  $X$ ,  $A, B \subseteq Y$  is a separation of  $Y$  if and only if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ,  $A \cup B = Y$ , and neither  $A$  nor  $B$  contains a limit point of the other.

**Proof.** Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  form a separation of  $Y$ . Then,  $A$  is both open and closed in  $Y$ ; thus the closure of  $A$  in  $Y$  is  $\bar{A} \cap Y = A$  by Theorem 2.6.4. In other words,  $\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ . Similarly,  $A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$ .  $\checkmark$

Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint subsets of  $Y$  whose union is  $Y$  and  $A \cap B' = A' \cap B = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $A \cap \bar{B} = \bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ . This implies  $\bar{A} \cap Y = A$  and  $\bar{B} \cap Y = B$ ;  $A$  and  $B$  are closed in  $Y$ , and thus they are open in  $Y$  as well.  $\square$

#### Lemma 3.1.2

If the sets  $C$  and  $D$  form a separation of a space  $X$ , and if  $Y$  is a connected subspace of  $X$ , then  $Y$  lies entirely within  $C$  or  $D$ .

**Proof.**  $C \cap Y$  and  $D \cap Y$  are open in  $Y$ . Also,  $(C \cap Y) \cup (D \cap Y) = (C \cup D) \cap Y = Y$ . If they were both unempty, they would form a separation of  $Y$ . Thus, one of them is empty;  $Y$  is entirely in the other.  $\square$

### Theorem 3.1.1

Let  $X$  be a topological space. Let  $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be a family of connected subspaces of  $X$ . If  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$  is connected.

**Proof.** Take any  $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ . Suppose  $C$  and  $D$  form a separation of  $Y = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ . WLOG,  $p \in C$ . For each  $\alpha \in J$ , since  $p \in C \cap A_\alpha$ , by Lemma 3.1.2,  $A_\alpha \subseteq C$ . Thus,  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \subseteq C$ , contradicting that  $D \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 3.1.2

Let  $A$  be a connected subspace of  $X$ . If  $A \subseteq B \subseteq \bar{A}$ , then  $B$  is also connected.

**Proof.** Suppose  $B = C \cup D$  is a separation of  $B$  for the sake of contradiction. By Lemma 3.1.2, WLOG,  $A \subseteq C$ . Then,  $B \subseteq \bar{A} \subseteq \bar{C}$ . Since  $\bar{C} \cap D = \emptyset$  by Lemma 3.1.1,  $B \cap D = \emptyset$ , which makes  $C$  and  $D$  not form a separation,  $\#$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 3.1.3 Connected Space and Continuous Map

Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous map. If  $X$  is connected, then  $\text{Im } f$  is connected.

**Proof.** Note that the surjective map  $g : X \rightarrow \text{Im } f$  obtained by restricting the codomain of  $f$  is also continuous by Theorem 2.7.2. Suppose  $\text{Im } f = A \cup B$  is a separation of  $\text{Im } f$ . Then,  $g^{-1}(A)$  and  $g^{-1}(B)$  are open and disjoint sets in  $X$  whose union is  $X$ , which is a contradiction to the connectedness of  $X$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 3.1.4 Connected Space and Finite Product

Let  $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  be a finite family of connected spaces. then,

$$X = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i$$

is connected.

**Proof.** It is enough to prove for two connected spaces  $X$  and  $Y$ ; extension to finite products can be done inductively. We may assume  $X$  and  $Y$  are nonempty. Take any  $a \times b \in X \times Y$ . Let  $x \in X$ .  $X \times \{b\}$  and  $\{x\} \times Y$  as subspaces of  $X \times Y$  are connected since they are homeomorphic with  $X$  and  $Y$ , respectively. Thus,

$$T_x = (X \times \{b\}) \cup (\{x\} \times Y)$$

is connected by Theorem 3.1.1, having  $x \times b$  as a common point of two spaces. Thus,

$$X \times Y = \bigcup_{x \in X} T_x$$

is connected as they have a point  $a \times b$  in common.  $\square$

### Theorem 3.1.5 Connected Space and Product Topology

Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be a family of connected spaces. Then,

$$X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$$

is connected in the product topology.

**Proof.** We may assume that  $X_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  for each  $\alpha \in J$ . Let  $\mathbf{a} = (a_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$  be a fixed point of  $X$ .

We first note that, given any finite subset  $K$  of  $J$ ,  $X_K \triangleq \{(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} \mid \forall \alpha \in J \setminus K, x_\alpha = a_\alpha\}$  is a connected subspace of  $X$  as  $X_K$  is homeomorphic with  $\prod_{\alpha \in K} X_\alpha$ , which is connected by Theorem 3.1.4. Note that  $Y \triangleq \bigcup \{X_K \mid K \subseteq J \text{ and } K \text{ is finite}\}$  as a subspace of  $X$  is connected since  $\mathbf{a} \in X_K$  for every finite  $K \subseteq J$ .

Let  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and  $B = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \pi_{\alpha_i}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_i})$  be any basis that contains  $\mathbf{x}$  where  $\alpha_i \in J$  for each  $i \in [n]$ . Define  $\mathbf{x}' \in X$  be

$$(\mathbf{x}')_\alpha \triangleq \begin{cases} x_\alpha & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_i \text{ for some } i \in [n] \\ a_\alpha & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then,  $\mathbf{x}' \in B \cap Y$ . Thus, by Theorem 2.6.5,  $\overline{Y} = X$ . By Theorem 3.1.2,  $X$  is connected.  $\square$

### Example 3.1.1 ( $\mathbb{R}^\omega$ in the Box Topology is Disconnected)

Let

$$A = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega \mid \mathbf{x} \text{ is bounded}\} \text{ and}$$

$$B = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega \mid \mathbf{x} \text{ is unbounded}\}.$$

If  $\mathbf{a}$  is in either  $A$  or  $B$ ,  $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} (a_i - 1, a_i + 1)$  is an open set that is contained in either  $A$  or  $B$ . Thus, each  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$  whose union is  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$ .

## 3.2 Connected Subspaces of the Real Line

### Definition 3.2.1: Linear Continuum

A simply ordered set  $L$  having more than one element is called *linear continuum* if the following hold:

- (i)  $L$  has the least upper bound property.
- (ii)  $\forall x, y \in L, (x < y \implies \exists z \in L, x < z < y)$ .

**Note:-**

$\mathbb{R}$  is a linear continuum.

### Example 3.2.1 (The Ordered Square is a Linear Continuum)

Let  $I = [0, 1]$  and  $I_0^2 = I \times I$  be the ordered square with the dictionary ordering.

- (i) Let  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq I_0^2$  and  $\pi_1: I_0^2 \rightarrow I$  be the projection onto its first factor. Then,  $\pi_1(A)$  is bounded above by 1. Let  $b \triangleq \sup \pi_1(A)$ . ( $[0, 1]$  has l.u.b. property.)

If  $b \in A$ , it implies that  $A \cap (\{b\} \times I) \neq \emptyset$  and is bounded above by 1. Thus, we may let  $c \triangleq \sup (A \cap (\{b\} \times I))$ . One may readily check that  $\sup A_0 = b \times c$ .

If  $b \neq A_0$ , then  $b \times 0$  is the trivial least upper bound of  $A_0$ .  $\checkmark$

- (ii) Suppose  $x_1 \times y_1 < x_2 \times y_2$ . If  $x_1 < x_2$ , then  $x_1 \times y_1 < (x_1 + x_2)/2 \times 0 < x_2 \times y_2$ . If  $x_1 = x_2$ , then,  $x_1 \times y_1 < x_1 \times (y_1 + y_2)/2 < x_2 \times y_2$ .  $\checkmark$

### Theorem 3.2.1

If  $L$  is a linear continuum in the order topology, any convex subspace of  $L$  is connected.

**Proof.** Let  $Y$  be a convex subspace of  $L$ . Suppose  $Y = A \cup B$  is a separation of  $Y$  for the sake of contradiction. Take any  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . WLOG,  $a < b$ .  $[a, b] \subseteq Y$  as  $Y$  is convex, and  $[a, b]$  as a subspace of  $Y$  is exactly  $[a, b]$  in the order topology by Theorem 2.5.2. Hence,

$$A_0 \triangleq A \cap [a, b] \quad \text{and} \quad B_0 \triangleq B \cap [a, b]$$

form a separation of  $[a, b]$ .

Let  $c \triangleq \sup A_0$ . Then,  $c \geq a$  as  $a \in A_0$ , and  $c \leq b$  as, if  $c$  were larger than  $b$ , there would be  $z \in L$  such that  $b < z < c$ , which is an upper bound of  $A_0$  smaller than  $c$ . However, we claim that  $c \notin A_0 \cup B_0 = [a, b]$ , which leads to a contradiction.

( $c \notin A_0$ ) Suppose  $c \in A_0$  for the sake of contradiction. Since  $A_0$  is open in  $[a, b]$ , there must exist  $e \in (c, b]$  such that  $[c, e] \subseteq A_0$ . ( $e$  cannot be larger than  $b$  as  $b \notin A_0$ .) As the existence of  $e' \in (c, e) \cap L$  is guaranteed and such  $e'$  is in  $A_0$ ,  $c$  is no longer an upper bound of  $A_0$ , #.

( $c \notin B_0$ ) Suppose  $c \in B_0$  for the sake of contradiction. Since  $B_0$  is open in  $[a, b]$ , there exists  $e \in [a, c)$  such that  $(e, c] \subseteq B_0$ . ( $e$  cannot be smaller than  $a$  as  $a \notin B_0$ .) Since,  $(c, \infty) \cap A_0 = \emptyset$  as  $c$  is the supremum of  $A_0$ ,  $e$  is an upper bound of  $A_0$  that is smaller than  $c$ , #.  $\square$

### Corollary 3.2.1

$\mathbb{R}$  and intervals and rays in  $\mathbb{R}$  are connected.

### Theorem 3.2.2 Intermediate Value Theorem

Let  $X$  be a connected space and  $Y$  has an order topology. Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous map. Then, if  $a, b \in X$  and  $r \in Y$  satisfy  $f(a) \leq r \leq f(b)$ , there exists  $c \in X$  such that  $f(c) = r$ .

**Proof.** If  $f(a) = r$  or  $f(b) = r$ , then done. So suppose  $f(a) < r < f(b)$ .  $\text{Im } f$  is connected by Theorem 3.1.3. Let

$$A \triangleq \text{Im } f \cap (-\infty, r) \quad \text{and} \quad B \triangleq \text{Im } f \cap (r, \infty).$$

Then,  $A$  and  $B$  are open in  $\text{Im } f$  and  $f(a) \in A$  and  $f(b) \in B$ . Thus, it cannot happen that  $\text{Im } f \setminus \{r\} = A \cup B = \text{Im } f$  since  $\text{Im } f$  is connected. Therefore,  $r \in \text{Im } f$ .  $\square$

### Definition 3.2.2: Path and Path Connectedness

Let  $X$  be a space. Given  $x, y \in X$ , a *path* in  $X$  from  $x$  to  $y$  is a continuous map  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  where  $[a, b]$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(a) = x$ , and  $f(b) = y$ . The space  $X$  is *path connected* if there exists a path in  $X$  from  $x$  to  $y$  for every  $x, y \in X$ .

### Example 3.2.2 (Punctured Euclidean Space)

Define *punctured Euclidean space* to be the space  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ , where  $\mathbf{0}$  is the origin in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $n > 1$ , the space is path connected. We can join  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  by the line segment that has  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  as endpoints if the segment does not go through  $\mathbf{0}$ . Otherwise, we may choose a point  $\mathbf{x}'$  by flipping the sign of a coordinate of  $\mathbf{x}$ . We have a line that connects  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}'$  and other line that connects  $\mathbf{x}'$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

### Theorem 3.2.3

Every path connected space is connected.

**Proof.** Let  $X$  be a path connected space. If  $X = \emptyset$ , it is done; let  $X \neq \emptyset$ . Take  $x \in X$ . For each  $y \in X$ , let  $f_y: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$  be a path from  $x$  to  $y$ . Since  $[0, 1]$  is connected (Corollary 3.2.1),  $\text{Im } f_y$  is connected by Theorem 3.1.3. As  $x \in \bigcap_{y \in X} \text{Im } f_y$ ,  $X = \bigcup_{y \in X} \text{Im } f_y$  is connected by Theorem 3.1.1.  $\square$

### Example 3.2.3 (Connectedness Does Not Imply Path Connectedness)

By Example 3.2.1,  $I_0^2$  is connected. Suppose  $I_0^2$  is path connected for the sake of contradiction. Then, there is a path  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow I_0^2$  from  $0 \times 0$  to  $1 \times 1$ . Theorem 3.2.2 says that  $\text{Im } f = I_0^2$ . For each  $x \in I$ , let  $U_x = f^{-1}(\{x\} \times I)$ . Note that  $U_x \neq \emptyset$ . Since each  $U_x$  is open as  $f$  is continuous, by the denseness of  $\mathbb{Q}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ , there exists  $q_x \in U_x \cap \mathbb{Q}$  for each  $x \in X$ . This implies the existence of an injection  $g: I \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  defined by  $x \mapsto q_x$ , which is a contradiction as  $I$  is uncountable. (Theorem 1.6.1)

### Theorem 3.2.4 Path Connected Space and Continuous Map

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous map. If  $X$  is path connected, then  $\text{Im } f$  is path connected.

**Proof.** Take  $y_1, y_2 \in \text{Im } f$ . There exist  $x_1, x_2 \in X$  such that  $f(x_1) = y_1$  and  $f(x_2) = y_2$ . Since  $X$  is connected, there exists a continuous map  $g: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$  such that  $g(0) = x_1$  and  $g(1) = x_2$ . Then,  $f \circ g: [0, 1] \rightarrow \text{Im } f$  is a continuous map such that  $(f \circ g)(0) = y_1$  and  $(f \circ g)(1) = y_2$  by Theorem 2.7.2.  $\square$

### Example 3.2.4 (Unit Sphere)

Define the *unit sphere*  $S^{n-1}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by the equation

$$S^{n-1} \triangleq \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|\mathbf{x}\| = 1 \}.$$

Then, the map  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$  defined by  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x}/\|\mathbf{x}\|$  is a continuous surjective map. Moreover, if  $n > 1$ , since  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$  is path connected (Example 3.2.2),  $S^{n-1} = \text{Im } g$  is also path connected by Theorem 3.2.4.

### Example 3.2.5 (Topologist's Sine Curve)

Let

$$S \triangleq \left\{ x \times \sin \frac{1}{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in (0, 1] \right\}.$$

Since  $S$  is a image of  $(0, 1]$  under a continuous map  $x \mapsto x \times \sin(1/x)$ ,  $S$  is (path) connected. Thus,  $\bar{S}$  is connected by Theorem 3.1.2. Note that  $S_0 \triangleq \bar{S} \setminus S = \{0\} \times [-1, 1]$ . ( $S_0$  is also closed.)

Suppose  $\bar{S}$  is path connected for the sake of contradiction. Then, there is a path  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \bar{S}$  from  $0 \times 0$  to  $f(1) \in S$ .  $f^{-1}(S_0)$  is closed in  $[0, 1]$  by Theorem 2.7.1. Hence  $b \triangleq \sup f^{-1}(S_0) \in f^{-1}(S_0)$  and  $b \neq 1$ .  $f(b) \in S_0$  and  $f((b, 1]) \subseteq S$ .

Reparametrize  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \bar{S}$  so that  $t \mapsto x(t) \times y(t)$ ;  $f(0) \in S_0$  and  $f((0, 1]) \subseteq S$ . ( $y(t) = \sin(1/x(t))$ ) Since  $x(t) > 0$  for  $t \in (0, 1]$ ,  $x$  is continuous, and  $x(0) = 0$ , we may construct a sequence  $\{t_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = 0, \quad x(t_n) = \frac{1}{(n + 1/2)\pi}, \quad \text{and thus}$$

$$y(t_n) = \sin(1/x(t_n)) = \sin((n + 1/2)\pi) = (-1)^n.$$

However,  $\{y(t_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  diverges although  $y$  is continuous and  $t_n \rightarrow 0$ . Thus,  $\bar{S}$  is not path connected.

### 3.3 Components and Local Connectedness

#### Definition 3.3.1: Component

Given a space  $X$ , let  $\sim$  be an equivalent relation defined by

$x \sim y$  if there is a connected subspace of  $X$  containing  $x$  and  $y$ .

The equivalence classes of  $\sim$  is called (*connected*) *components* of  $X$ .

#### Note:-

Reflexivity follows from the fact that  $\{x\}$  is a connected subspace of  $X$  that contains  $x$ . Symmetry is direct.

Let  $x, y, z \in X$  and suppose  $x \sim y$  and  $y \sim z$ . There are connected subspaces  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $x, y \in U$  and  $y, z \in V$ . Then,  $U \cup V$  is a connected subspace of  $X$  that contains both  $x$  and  $z$  by Theorem 3.1.1.

#### Note:-

Let  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the set of components of  $X$ . Then, it is a partition of  $X$  (indeed).

#### Theorem 3.3.1

Let  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the set of components of  $X$ . If  $A \subseteq X$  is a connected subspace of  $X$ , then  $A \subseteq C_\alpha$  for some  $\alpha \in J$ .

**Proof.** If  $A = \emptyset$ , it is done; suppose  $A \neq \emptyset$ .

Let  $C_\alpha$  and  $C_\beta$  be connected components. If  $A \cap C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  and  $A \cap C_\beta \neq \emptyset$ , we may take  $x \in A \cap C_\alpha$  and  $y \in A \cap C_\beta$ , which makes  $x \sim y$ . This implies  $x_\alpha \sim x_\beta$  for all  $x_\alpha \in C_\alpha$  and  $x_\beta \in C_\beta$ ; thus  $C_\alpha = C_\beta$ .

Now, take any  $\alpha \in A$ . Since  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  is a partition of  $X$ , there exists some  $\alpha \in J$  such that  $\alpha \in C_\alpha$ . By the previous result,  $A \cap C_\beta = \emptyset$  for all  $\beta \in J \setminus \{\alpha\}$ . Hence,  $A \subseteq C_\alpha$   $\square$

#### Theorem 3.3.2

Let  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the set of components of  $X$ . Then, for each  $\alpha \in J$ ,  $C_\alpha$  is connected.

**Proof.** Take any  $x_0 \in C_\alpha$ . Then, for each  $x \in C_\alpha$ , there exists a connected subspace  $A_x$  that contains both  $x_0$  and  $x$ . By Theorem 3.3.1,  $A_x \subseteq C_\alpha$ . Thus,  $C_\alpha = \bigcup_{x \in C_\alpha} A_x$ , which is connected by Theorem 3.1.1.  $\square$

#### Definition 3.3.2: Path Component

Given a space  $X$ , let  $\sim$  be an equivalent relation defined by

$x \sim y$  if there is a path in  $X$  from  $x$  to  $y$ .

The equivalence classes of  $\sim$  is called *path components* of  $X$ .



**Note:-**

The relation is reflexive since  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$  defined by  $f(t) = x$  is a path from  $x$  to  $x$ .  
 The relation is symmetric since, if  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  is a path from  $x$  to  $y$ , then  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  defined by  $g(t) = f(a + b - t)$  is a path from  $y$  to  $x$ .

The relation is transitive since, if  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  and  $g : [c, d] \rightarrow X$  are paths from  $x$  to  $y$  and from  $y$  to  $z$ , respectively, then  $h : [a, b + d - c] \rightarrow X$  defined by

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} f(t) & \text{if } a \leq t \leq b \\ g(t - b + c) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

is a path from  $x$  to  $z$ .  $h$  is continuous by Theorem 2.7.3.

**Theorem 3.3.3**

Let  $\{P_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the set of path components of  $X$ . If  $A \subseteq X$  is a path connected subspace of  $X$ , then  $A \subseteq P_\alpha$  for some  $\alpha \in J$ .

**Proof.** Analogous to the proof of Theorem 3.3.1. □

**Theorem 3.3.4**

Let  $\{P_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the set of path components of  $X$ . Then, for each  $\alpha \in J$ ,  $P_\alpha$  is path connected.

**Proof.** Analogous to the proof of Theorem 3.3.2. □

**Corollary 3.3.1**

Every path component is entirely contained in a connected component.

**Proof.** Every path component is path connected by Theorem 3.3.4, and thus connected by Theorem 3.2.3. By Theorem 3.3.1, it is contained in some connected component. □

**Corollary 3.3.2**

Every component is closed.

**Proof.** Let  $C_\alpha$  be a connected component of  $X$ . Since  $\overline{C_\alpha}$  is connected by Theorem 3.1.2, and since  $\overline{C_\alpha} \cap C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ ,  $\overline{C_\alpha} \subseteq C_\alpha$  by Theorem 3.3.1. □

**Corollary 3.3.3**

If there are a finite number of components, then each component is open.

**Proof.** Let  $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^n C_i$  where each  $C_i$  is a component. Then, for each  $i \in [n]$ ,  $C_i = X \setminus \bigcup_{j \in [n] \setminus \{i\}} C_j$ .  $C_i$  is open as  $\bigcup_{j \in [n] \setminus \{i\}} C_j$  is closed by Corollary 3.3.2. □

**Example 3.3.1 (Path Component Is Not Necessarily Open or Closed)**

Let  $\bar{S}$  be the topologist's sine curve discussed in Example 3.2.5. Then,  $S$  and  $S_0$  are the two path components of  $\bar{S}$ .  $S$  is not closed and  $S_0$  is not open.

### Example 3.3.2

Let  $A \triangleq S \cup (S_0 \setminus \{0\} \times \mathbb{Q})$ . Since  $S \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{S}$ ,  $A$  is connected by Theorem 3.1.2. However,  $\{0 \times r\}$  for every  $r \in [0, 1] \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is a path component. Thus,  $A$  has uncountably many path components.

### Definition 3.3.3: Locally Connected Space

Let  $X$  be a topological space.  $X$  is *locally connected at  $x$*  if, for any neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ , there exists a connected neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ .  $X$  is *locally connected* if  $X$  is locally connected at every point of  $X$ .

### Definition 3.3.4: Locally Path Connected Space

Let  $X$  be a topological space.  $X$  is *locally path connected at  $x$*  if, for any neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ , there exists a path connected neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ .  $X$  is *locally path connected* if  $X$  is locally path connected at every point of  $X$ .

#### Note:-

If a topological space  $X$  is locally path connected, then it is locally connected as well.

### Theorem 3.3.5

A topological space  $X$  is locally connected if and only if, for every open set  $U$  in  $X$ , each connected component of  $U$  is open.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $U$  be open in  $X$  and let  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the set of components of  $U$ . Take any  $C_\alpha$  and let  $x \in C_\alpha$ . Since  $X$  is locally connected at  $x$ , there exists a connected neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ . By Theorem 3.3.1,  $x \in V \subseteq C_\alpha$ . This proves that  $C_\alpha$  is open.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $x \in X$  and  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $x$ . Let  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be the components of  $U$ . There exists some  $\alpha_0 \in J$  such that  $x \in C_{\alpha_0}$ . Since  $C_{\alpha_0}$  is open by assumption,  $C_{\alpha_0}$  is a connected neighborhood of  $x$  and satisfies  $x \in C_{\alpha_0} \subseteq U$ .  $\square$

### Theorem 3.3.6

A topological space  $X$  is locally path connected if and only if, for every open set  $U$  in  $X$ , each path component of  $U$  is open.

**Proof.** Analogous to Theorem 3.3.5.  $\square$

### Theorem 3.3.7

Let  $X$  be a locally path connected space. Then, the connected components and the path components are the same.

**Proof.** Let  $C$  be a connected component of  $X$ .  $C$  is open by Theorem 3.3.5 as  $X$  is locally connected. Let  $x \in C$  and let  $P$  be the path component which  $x$  is contained in. Then,  $P \subseteq C$  by Corollary 3.3.1.

Suppose  $P \subsetneq C$  for the sake of contradiction. Let

$$Q \triangleq \bigcup \{ \hat{P} \subseteq C \mid \hat{P} \text{ is a path component of } X \text{ and } \hat{P} \neq P \}.$$

Since path component of an open set, especially,  $C$ , is open by Theorem 3.3.6,  $P$  and  $Q$  are open. Moreover, since  $C = P \cup Q$ , they form a separation of  $C$ , which is a contradiction, #.  $\square$