# Topology Note

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July 26, 2022

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# Chapter 1

# Topology Spaces and Continuous Function

#### 1.1 Basic Definition of Topology

**Definition 1.1.1** (topology). A **topology** on a set X is a collection T of subsets of X having the following properties:

- $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{X}$  are in  $\mathbb{T}$
- The union of the elements of any sub collection of  $\mathbb T$  is in  $\mathbb T$
- The intersection of the elements of any **finite** sub collection of  $\mathbb{T}$  is in  $\mathbb{T}$

**Definition 1.1.2** (topology space). A topological space is a set X for which a topology T has been specified.

**Definition 1.1.3** (open set). A **open set**  $\mathbb{U}$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{X}$  that belongs to a topology  $\mathbb{T}$  of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

**Definition 1.1.4** (open sets). A topology can also be called a **open sets** 

**Definition 1.1.5** (discrete topology). The set of all subsets of a set X formed a topology called **discrete topology** 

**Definition 1.1.6** (trivial topology). The set consisting the set X and  $\emptyset$  only formed a topology of X called **trivial topology** 

**Definition 1.1.7** (finite complement topology). Let X be a set. Let  $\mathbb{T}_f$  be the collection of all subsets  $\mathbb{U}$  of X such that  $X - \mathbb{U}$  either if a **finite** X of is all of X. Then X is a topology on X, called the **finite complement topology**.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The set  $\mathbb{U}$  can form a topology because of the definition of topology is intersection of finite sub collection. If this can be intersection of infinite sub collection,  $\mathbb{U}$  will not be a topology.

**Definition 1.1.8** (finer, larger, strictly finer, strictly larger, coarser, smaller, strictly coarser, strictly smaller, comparable). Let  $\mathbb{T}$  and  $\mathbb{T}'$  be two topology on a given set  $\mathbb{X}$ . If  $\mathbb{T}$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{T}'$ , we say that  $\mathbb{T}'$  is **finer** or **larger** than  $\mathbb{T}$ . If  $\mathbb{T}$  is a proper subset of  $\mathbb{T}'$ , we say that  $\mathbb{T}'$  is **strictly finer** or **strictly larger** than  $\mathbb{T}$ . We also say that  $\mathbb{T}$  is **coarser** or **smaller** or **strictly coarser** or **strictly smaller** than  $\mathbb{T}'$ . We say that  $\mathbb{T}$  and  $\mathbb{T}'$  is **comparable** if either  $\mathbb{T}$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{T}'$  or  $\mathbb{T}'$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{T}$ .

#### 1.2 Basis for a Topology

**Definition 1.2.1** (basis). If X is a set, a **basis** for a topology on X is a collection B of subsets of X (called **basis elements**) such that:

- For each  $x \in \mathbb{X}$ , there is at least one basis element B containing x
- If x belongs to the intersection of two basis elements  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , then there is another element  $x \in B_3 \in \mathbb{B}$  such that  $B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$

**Definition 1.2.2** (topology generated by basis). Let  $\mathbb{B}$  be a basis on  $\mathbb{X}$ . Let  $\mathbb{U}$  be a set containing all subsets U of  $\mathbb{X}$  such that for each element  $x \in U$ , there is  $B \in \mathbb{B}$  that  $x \in B \subseteq U$ . Such  $\mathbb{U}$  formed a topology on  $\mathbb{X}$ , called **topology**  $\mathbb{T}$  generated by  $\mathbb{B}$ 

**Lemma 1.2.1.** Let X be a set. Let B be a basis for a topology T on X. Then T equals to the set of all possible unions of elements of B.

*Proof.* Let set  $\mathbb{U}$  be the set of all possible unions of elements of  $\mathbb{B}$ . For any  $U \in \mathbb{U}$ .  $U = \cup B^2$  for some  $B \in \mathbb{B}$ . Thus, for every  $x \in U$ , there exist a  $B' \in \mathbb{B}$  that  $x \in B' \subseteq U$ . Thus,  $U \in \mathbb{T}$ .

Conversely, for any  $U \in \mathbb{T}$ . For any  $x \in U$ , let  $x \in B_x \in U$ . Then,  $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} B_x$ . Thus,  $U \in \mathbb{U}$ .

Therefore,  $\mathbb{U}$  equals to  $\mathbb{T}$ .

**Lemma 1.2.2.** <sup>3</sup> Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be a topological space. Suppose that  $\mathbb{C}$  is a collection of open sets of  $\mathbb{X}$  such that for each open set U of  $\mathbb{X}$  and each  $x \in U$ , there is an element  $C \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $x \in C \subseteq C$ . Then  $\mathbb{C}$  is a basis for the topology of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

**Lemma 1.2.3.** <sup>4</sup> Let  $\mathbb{B}$  and  $\mathbb{B}'$  be basis for the topologies  $\mathbb{T}$  and  $\mathbb{T}'$ , respectively, on  $\mathbb{X}$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- $\mathbb{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathbb{T}$
- For each  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  and each basis element  $B \in \mathbb{B}$  containing X, there is a basis element  $B' \in \mathbb{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subseteq B$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note that this expression may not be unique.

 $<sup>^3</sup>$ We omit the proof of this lemma as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>We omit the proof of this lemma as it is obvious.

**Definition 1.2.3** (standard topology on the real line). Let be  $\mathbb{B} = \{B | B = \{x | a < x < b\}, a < b, a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .  $\mathbb{B}$  formed a basis on real line. The topology generated by  $\mathbb{B}$  is called the **standard topology on the real line** <sup>5</sup>.

**Definition 1.2.4** (lower limit topology on the real line). Let be  $\mathbb{B} = \{B | B = \{x | a \leq x < b\}, a < b, a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .  $\mathbb{B}$  formed a basis on real line. The topology generated by  $\mathbb{B}$  is called the **lower limit topology on the real line**. When  $\mathbb{R}$  is given this topology, we denote it by  $\mathbb{R}_l$ .

**Definition 1.2.5** (K-topology on the real line). Let be  $\mathbb{B} = \{B|B = \{x|a < x < b\}, a < b, a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . Let  $K = \{x|x = \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ .  $\mathbb{B} \cup \{B - K|B \in \mathbb{B}\}$  formed a basis on real line. The topology generated by  $\mathbb{B}$  is called the **K-topology on** the real line. When  $\mathbb{R}$  is given this topology, we denote it by  $\mathbb{R}_{\mathbb{K}}$ .

**Lemma 1.2.4.** <sup>6</sup> The topologies  $\mathbb{R}_l$  and  $\mathbb{R}_{\mathbb{K}}$  is strictly finer than the standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Lemma 1.2.5.** The topologies of  $\mathbb{R}_l$  and  $\mathbb{R}_{\mathbb{K}}$  is not comparable.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbb{T}_l$  and  $\mathbb{T}_{\mathbb{K}}$  be topologies of  $\mathbb{R}_l$  and  $\mathbb{R}_{\mathbb{K}}$  respectively. Let  $K = \{x | x = \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ .

We first proof that  $\mathbb{T}_l$  is not finer than  $\mathbb{T}_{\mathbb{K}}$ . Let  $U = \{x | -1 < x < 1\} - K, x = 0$ . If there exist  $B = \{x | a \le x < b\} \in \mathbb{T}_l$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq U$ , then 0 < b < 1. Thus, there exist  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  that  $0 < \frac{1}{n} < b$ . Thus B is not a subset of U. Then we proof that  $\mathbb{T}_{\mathbb{K}}$  is not finer than  $\mathbb{T}_l$ . Let  $U' = \{x | a' \le x < b'\}$ . If there

Then we proof that  $\mathbb{T}_{\mathbb{K}}$  is not finer than  $\mathbb{T}_{l}$ . Let  $U' = \{x | a' \leq x < b'\}$ . If there exist  $B' = \{x | a'' < x < b''\} or \{x | a'' < x < b''\} - K$  such that  $a' \in B \subseteq U$ . Thus a'' < a < b''. Thus there exist c that  $a'' < x < a, x \in B, x \notin U'$ . Thus  $B' \nsubseteq U'$ .

Thus the topologies of  $\mathbb{R}_l$  and  $\mathbb{R}_{\mathbb{K}}$  is not comparable.

**Definition 1.2.6** (subbasis). A **subbasis**  $\mathbb{S}$  for a topology on  $\mathbb{X}$  is a collection of subsets of  $\mathbb{X}$  whose union equals  $\mathbb{X}$ . The **topology generated by the subbasis**  $\mathbb{S}$  is defined to be the collection  $\mathbb{T}$  of all unions of finite intersections of elements of  $\mathbb{S}$ .

#### 1.2.1 Exercise

1. Show that if  $\mathbb{A}$  is a basis for a topology on  $\mathbb{X}$ , then the topology generated by  $\mathbb{A}$  equals the intersection of all topologies on  $\mathbb{X}$  that contain  $\mathbb{A}$ . Prove the same if  $\mathbb{A}$  is a subbasis.

*Proof.* As a subbasis is also a basis, we will directly prove the case of subbasis here.

 $<sup>^{5}</sup>$ Whenever we consider  $\mathbb R$  , we shall suppose it is given this topology unless we specifically state otherwise.

 $<sup>^6\</sup>mathrm{We}$  omit the proof of this  $\,$  lemma as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>It is obvious that  $\mathbb{T}$  is a topology, we just omit the proof here.

Let  $\mathbb{S} = \{\mathbb{T}_{\alpha}\}$  be set contain all the topologies that contain  $\mathbb{A}$ . Let  $\mathbb{T}$  be the topology that  $\mathbb{A}$  generated. Let  $\mathbb{T}' = \cap \mathbb{T}_{\alpha}$ .

First,  $\mathbb{A} \subseteq \mathbb{T}_{\alpha}$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{T} \subseteq \mathbb{T}_{\alpha}$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{T} \subseteq \mathbb{T}'$ .

Also,  $\mathbb{A} \subseteq \mathbb{T}$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{T} \in \mathbb{S}$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{T}' \subseteq \mathbb{T}$ .

Thus, 
$$\mathbb{T} = \mathbb{T}'$$

#### 1.3 The Order Topology

**Definition 1.3.1** (interval). Let X is a set having a simple order relation <. Given elements a and b of X such that a < b, there are four subsets of X that are called **intervals** determined by a and b:

- $(a,b) = \{x | a < x < b\}$
- $(a,b] = \{x | a < x \le b\}$
- $[a,b) = \{x | a \le x < b\}$
- $[a, b] = \{x | a < x < b\}$

(a,b) is called an **open interval** on  $\mathbb{X}$ . [a,b] is called an **closed interval** on  $\mathbb{X}$ . (a,b] and [a,b) is called **half-open intervals**.

**Definition 1.3.2** (order topology). <sup>9</sup> Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be a set with a simple order relation; assume  $\mathbb{X}$  has more than one element. Let  $\mathbb{B}$  be the collection of all sets of the following types:

- All open intervals (a,b) in X.
- All intervals of the form  $[a_0, b)$ , where  $a_0$  is the smallest element(if exist) of  $\mathbb{X}$ .
- All intervals of the form  $(a, b_0]$ , where  $b_0$  is the largest element(if exist) of X

The collection  $\mathbb{B}$  formed a basis for a topology on  $\mathbb{X}$ , which is called the order topology.

**Definition 1.3.3** (ray). <sup>1011</sup> If X is an ordered set, and a is an element of X, there are four subsets of X that are called **rays** determined by a:

- $(a, +\infty) = \{x | x > a\}$
- $(-\infty, a) = \{x | x < a\}$

 $<sup>^8\</sup>mathrm{It}$  is obvious that  $\,\mathbb{T}'\,$  is also a topology, we just omit the proof here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>The standard topology on  $\mathbb R$  is an order topology derived from the usual order on  $\mathbb R$ .

 $<sup>^{10}{\</sup>rm open}$  rays are always open sets in the order topology

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>the open rays also formed a subbasis of the order topology

- $[a, +\infty) = \{x | x \ge a\}$
- $(-\infty, a] = \{x | x \le a\}$

 $(a, +\infty)$  and  $(-\infty, a)$  are called **open rays**.  $[a, +\infty)$  and  $(-\infty, a]$  are called **closed rays**.

#### 1.4 The Product Topology

**Definition 1.4.1** (product topology). Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  be topological spaces. The **product topology** on  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$  having a basis  $\mathbb{B}$  containing all sets of the form  $U \times V$ , where U and V is open sets of  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  respectively.

**Theorem 1.4.1.** <sup>12</sup> If  $\mathbb{B}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  is basis for the topology of  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  respectively, then the collection

$$\mathbb{D} = \{B \times C | B \in \mathbb{B} and C \in \mathbb{C}\}\$$

is a basis for the topology of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ 

**Definition 1.4.2** (projection). Let  $\pi_1 : \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{X}$  be defined by the equation:

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

Let  $\pi_2: \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{Y}$  be defined by the equation:

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

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

Theorem 1.4.2. <sup>13</sup> The collection

$$\mathbb{S} = \{\pi_1^{-1}(U)|Uopenin\mathbb{X}\} \cup \{\pi_2^{-1}(V)|Vopenin\mathbb{Y}\}\$$

is a subbasis for the product topology on  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ .

**Definition 1.4.3** (box topology). *Let*,

$$\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{X}_1 \times \mathbb{X}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{X}_n \text{ or } \mathbb{X}_1 \times \mathbb{X}_2 \times \cdots$$

In the first case, all the sets of the form  $U_1 \times \cdots \times U_n$  where  $U_i$  is a open set of  $X_i$  form a basis.

In the second case, all the sets of the form  $U_1 \times U_2 \times ...$  where  $U_i$  is a open set of  $X_i$  also form a basis.

Topology defined in this way was called a **box topology**.

 $<sup>^{12}</sup>$ We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

**Definition 1.4.4** (product topology). <sup>14</sup> Let,

$$\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{X}_1 \times \mathbb{X}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{X}_n or \mathbb{X}_1 \times \mathbb{X}_2 \times \cdots$$

Let  $\pi_i$  be the projection function<sup>15</sup> that

$$\pi_i: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{X}_i$$

And if  $x \in X$ 

$$\pi_i(x) = x_i$$

All the set of the form  $\pi_i^{-1}(U_i)$  where i is arbitrary and  $U_i$  is an open set of  $X_i$ , form a subbasis of X. The topology generated by this subbasis is called **product topology**. And X is called a **product space**.

**Definition 1.4.5** (J-tuple). Let J be an index set<sup>16</sup>. Give a set  $\mathbb{X}$ , a **J-tuple** is defined as a function  $x: J \to \mathbb{X}$ . If  $\alpha$  is an element of J,  $x(\alpha)$  is often denoted by  $x_{\alpha}$  and is called the  $\alpha$ th **coordinate** of x. And the function x itself is often denoted by the symbol

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

The set of all J-tuples of elements of X is often denoted by  $X^J$ .

**Definition 1.4.6** (cartesian product). Let  $\{A_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in J}$  be an indexed family of sets; let  $\mathbb{X} = \bigcup_{{\alpha}\in J} A_{\alpha}$ . The **cartesian product** of this indexed family is denoted by

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

And is defined to be the set of all J-tuples  $(x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  of elements of  $\mathbb{X}$  such that  $x_{\alpha} \in A_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha \in J$ . That is, it is the set of all functions

$$x: J \to \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}$$

such that  $x(\alpha) \in A_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha \in J$ .

**Theorem 1.4.3** (Comparison of the box and product topologies). <sup>17</sup> The box topology on  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  has a basis all sets of the form  $\prod U_{\alpha}$  where  $U_{\alpha}$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha$ . The product topology on  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  has a basis all sets of the form  $\prod U_{\alpha}$  where  $U_{\alpha}$  is open in  $X_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha$  and  $U_{\alpha}$  equals  $\mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  except for finitely many values of  $\alpha$ .

 $<sup>^{14}</sup>$ In the finite case, the product topology and box topology are the same, however they differ when X is a infinite cartesian product.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>This is also called a *projection mapping* in a cartesian product.

 $<sup>^{16}\</sup>mathrm{A}$  index set was the set  $\{1,\dots,n\}$  or the set  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>It is assumed that it is given product topology when considering  $\prod X_{\alpha}$  unless it state specifically.

**Theorem 1.4.4.** <sup>18</sup> Suppose the topology on each space  $X_{\alpha}$  is given by a basis  $X_{\alpha}$ . The collection of all sets of the form

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} B_{\alpha}$$

where  $B_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{B}_{\alpha}$  form a basis for the box topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ .

The collection of all sets of the same form, where  $B_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{B}_{\alpha}$  for finitely many indices  $\alpha$  and  $B_{\alpha} = \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  for all the remaining indices, will form a basis for the product topology  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ .

**Theorem 1.4.5.** <sup>19</sup>Let  $A_{\alpha}$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ , for each  $\alpha \in J$ . Then  $\prod A_{\alpha}$  is a subspace of  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  if both products are given the box topology, or if both products are given the product topology.

**Theorem 1.4.6.** <sup>20</sup> If each space  $\mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  is a Hausdorff space, then  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  is a Hausdorff space in both the box and product topologies.

**Theorem 1.4.7.** Let  $\{X_{\alpha}\}$  be an indexed family of spaces; let  $A_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha$ . If  $\prod X_{\alpha}$  is given either the product or the box topology, then

$$\prod \overline{A_{\alpha}} = \overline{\prod A_{\alpha}}$$

*Proof.* Let  $\pi_{\alpha}$  represent the projection mapping.

Let x be an element of  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ . Let V be an open set in  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  that containing x.

If  $x \in \prod \overline{A_{\alpha}}$ , then  $\pi_{\alpha}(V)$  is a open set in  $\mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  that containing  $x_{\alpha}$ . Thus  $\pi_{\alpha}(V)$  intersect with  $A_{\alpha}$ . Thus V intersect with  $\prod A_{\alpha}$ . Thus  $x \in \prod \overline{A_{\alpha}}$ .

If  $x \in \overline{\prod A_{\alpha}}$ . Let  $U_{\alpha}$  be an open set of  $A_{\alpha}$  that contain  $x_{\alpha}$ . Let  $V = \prod U_{\beta}$  such that  $U_{\beta} = \begin{cases} \mathbb{X}_{\beta}, & \beta \neq \alpha \\ U_{\alpha}, & \beta = \alpha \end{cases}$ . It is obvious that V is an open set that contain

x. Thus V intersect with  $\prod A_{\alpha}$ . Thus  $U_{\alpha}$  intersect with  $A_{\alpha}$ . Thus  $x \in \prod \overline{A_{\alpha}}$ 

**Theorem 1.4.8.** Let  $f: A \to \prod_{\alpha \in J} \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  be given by the equation

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

where  $f_{\alpha}: A \to \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha$ . Let  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$  have the product topology. Then the function f is continuous if and only if each function  $f_{\alpha}$  is continuous.

 $<sup>^{18}</sup>$ We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

 $<sup>^{19}\</sup>mathrm{We}$  omit the proof of this  $\,$  theorem as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

*Proof.* Let  $\pi_{\alpha}$  be the projection mapping

It is obvious that

$$f^{-1}(U) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} f_{\alpha}^{-1}(\pi_{\alpha}(U))$$

If  $f_{\alpha}$  is continuous. Let V be a closed set of  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ . Then  $\pi_{\alpha}(V)$  is closed. Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is intersect of closed set. Thus  $\pi_{\alpha}(V)$  is closed. So f is continuous.

If f is continuous. Let  $U_{\alpha}$  be an open set of  $\mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ . Let  $U_{\beta} = \mathbb{X}_{\beta}$  if  $\beta \neq \alpha$ . Let  $V = \prod_{\beta \in I} U_{\beta}$ . It is obvious that V is an open set of  $\prod \mathbb{X}_{\alpha}$ . And

$$f^{-1}V = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} f_{\alpha}^{-1}(\pi_{\alpha}(U))$$
$$= f_{\alpha}^{-1}(U_{\alpha})$$

which is an open set in A. Thus  $f_{\alpha}$  is continuous.

#### 1.5 The Subspace Topology

**Definition 1.5.1** (subspace topology). Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be a topological space with topology  $\mathbb{T}$ . If Y is a subset of  $\mathbb{X}$ , the collection  $\mathbb{T}_Y = \{Y \cap U | U \in \mathbb{T}\}$  is a topology on Y, called the **subspace topology**.

Y is also called a **subspace** of X

**Lemma 1.5.1.** <sup>21</sup> If  $\mathbb{B}$  is basis for the topology of  $\mathbb{X}$ , Y is a subset of  $\mathbb{X}$  then the collection

$$\mathbb{B}_Y = \{ B \cap Y | B \in \mathbb{B} \}$$

is a basis for the subspace topology on Y

**Lemma 1.5.2.** <sup>22</sup>Let Y be a subspace of X. If U is open in Y and Y is open in X, then U is open in X.

**Theorem 1.5.1.** <sup>23</sup> If A is a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$  and B is a subspace of  $\mathbb{Y}$ , then the product topology on  $A \times B$  is the same as the topology  $A \times B$  inherits as a subspace of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ 

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{X}}$  and  $\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{Y}}$  and  $\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{X}\mathbb{Y}}$  be basis of topology of  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  and  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$  respectively. Let  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}}$  and  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}}$  and  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}\mathbb{Y}}$  be basis of topology of A and A and  $A \times B$  respectively. We will show that  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}} \times \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}} = \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}\mathbb{Y}}$ . Thus, the product topology on  $A \times B$  is the same as the topology  $A \times B$  inherits as a subspace of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup>We omit the proof of this lemma as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup>We omit the proof of this lemma as it is obvious.

 $<sup>^{23}</sup>$ If  $\mathbb X$  is an ordered set in the order topology, and  $\mathbb Y$  is a subset of  $\mathbb X$ . The order relation, when restricted to  $\mathbb Y$ , makes  $\mathbb Y$  into and ordered set. However, the resulting order topology on  $\mathbb Y$  need not be the same as the topology that  $\mathbb Y$  inherits as a subspace of  $\mathbb X$ .

First, every element in  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}} \times \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}}$  can be represented by  $B_A \cap A \times B_B \cap B = B_A \times B_B \cap A \times B \in \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}\mathbb{Y}}$  where  $B_A \in \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}}, B_B \in \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}}$ . Thus  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}} \times \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}} \subseteq \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}\mathbb{Y}}$ .

Next, we show that  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}} \times \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}}$  generate the topology  $A \times B$  inherits as a subspace of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ . For any open set U in  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ , and  $\forall x \in U \cap A \times B$ ,  $\exists B_{\mathbb{X}} \times B_{\mathbb{Y}} \in \mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{X}\mathbb{Y}}, x \in B_{\mathbb{X}} \times B_{\mathbb{Y}} \subseteq \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ . Thus  $x \in B_{\mathbb{X}} \times B_{\mathbb{Y}} \cap A \times B \subseteq A \times B, B_{\mathbb{X}} \times B_{\mathbb{Y}} \cap A \times B \in \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}} \times \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}}$ . Thus  $\mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{X}} \times \mathbb{B}'_{\mathbb{Y}}$  generate the topology  $A \times B$  inherits as a subspace of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ . gi

**Definition 1.5.2** (ordered square). Let I = [0, 1]. The set  $I \times I$  in the dictionary order <sup>24</sup> topology will be called **ordered square**, and denoted by  $I_o^2$ 

**Definition 1.5.3** (convex). Given an ordered set X, let us say that a subset Y of X is **convex** in X if for each pair of points a < b of Y, the entire interval (a,b) of points of X lies in Y

**Theorem 1.5.2.** <sup>25</sup> Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be an ordered set in the order topology. Let  $\mathbb{Y}$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{X}$  that is convex in  $\mathbb{X}$ . Then the order topology on  $\mathbb{Y}$  is the same as the topology  $\mathbb{Y}$  inherits as a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

*Proof.* Consider the ray  $(a, +\infty)$  in  $\mathbb{X}$ . If  $a \in \mathbb{Y}$ , then

$$(a, +\infty) \cap \mathbb{Y} = \{x | x \in \mathbb{Y} and x > a\}$$

This is an open ray of the ordered set of  $\mathbb{Y}$ . if  $a \notin Y$ , then a is either a lower bound on  $\mathbb{Y}$  or an upper bound on  $\mathbb{Y}$ , since  $\mathbb{Y}$  is convex. In the former case, the set  $(a, +\infty) \cap \mathbb{Y}$  equals all of  $\mathbb{Y}$ , in the latter case, it is empty.

A similar remark shows that the intersection of the rat  $(-\infty, a)$  with  $\mathbb Y$  is either an open ray of  $\mathbb Y$ , or  $\mathbb Y$  itself, or empty. Since the sets  $(a, +\infty)\mathbb Y$  and  $(-\infty, a) \cap \mathbb Y$  form a subbasis for the subspace topology on  $\mathbb Y$ , and since each is open in the order topology, the order topology contains the subspace topology.

To prove the reverse, note that any open ray of  $\mathbb{Y}$  equals the intersection of an open ray of  $\mathbb{X}$  with  $\mathbb{Y}$ , so it is open in the subspace topology on  $\mathbb{Y}$ . Since the open rays of  $\mathbb{Y}$  are a subbasis for the order topology on  $\mathbb{Y}$ , this topology is contained in the subspace topology.

$$X_1 = (x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots)$$
  
 $X_2 = (x'_1, x'_2, x'_3 \dots)$ 

 $X_1 > X_2$  only when

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}_+, \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_+, 0 < i < k$$
$$x_i = x_i'$$
$$x_k > x_k'$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup>the dictionary means for  $X_1, X_2 \in \mathbb{Y} = \mathbb{X}_1 \times \mathbb{X}_2 \times \mathbb{X}_3 \dots$  which:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup>Given  $\mathbb X$  is an ordered set in the order topology and  $\mathbb Y$  is a subset of  $\mathbb X$ , we shall assume that  $\mathbb Y$  is given the subspace topology unless we specifically state otherwise.

#### Exercise

1. A map  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is said to be a **open map** if for every open set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{X}$ , the set f(U) is open in  $\mathbb{Y}$ . Show that  $\pi: \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{X}$  is open map.

*Proof.* An open set in  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$  can be represented by

$$\cup (U_i \times U_i')$$

where  $U_i, U_i'$  are open sets in  $\mathbb{X}$ ,  $\mathbb{Y}$ , respectively.

Also,

$$\cup (U_i \times U_i') = \cup (U_i) \times \cup (U_i')$$

Thus,

$$\pi(\cup(U_i\times U_i'))=\cup(U_i)$$

Thus,  $\pi(U)$  is open in  $\mathbb{X}$ .

- 2. Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{X}'$  denote a single set in the topologies  $\mathbb{T}$  and  $\mathbb{T}'$ , respectively; let  $\mathbb{Y}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}'$  denote a single set in the topologies  $\mathbb{U}$  and  $\mathbb{U}'$ , respectively.

  26 Assume these sets are nonempty.
  - (a) Show that if  $\mathbb{T}' \supseteq \mathbb{T}$  and  $\mathbb{U}' \supseteq \mathbb{U}$ , then the product topologies  $\mathbb{X}' \times \mathbb{Y}'$  is finer than the product topology on  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ .
  - (b) Does the converse of the previous statement hold?
- 3. Show that the countable collection<sup>27</sup>

$$\{(a,b)\times(c,d)|a< b,c< d,a\in\mathbb{Q},b\in\mathbb{Q},c\in\mathbb{Q},d\in\mathbb{Q}\}$$

is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 

*Proof.* This is obvious if you prove that  $(a,b) \times (c,d)$  is a rectangle in the  $\mathbb{R}^2$  plane.

4. Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be an ordered set. If  $\mathbb{Y}$  is a proper subset of  $\mathbb{X}$  that is convex in  $\mathbb{X}$  prove that  $\mathbb{Y}$  may not be an interval or a ray in  $\mathbb{X}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{R}^2$  with dictionary order. Then  $Y = \{(x,y)| -1 \le x \le 1\}$  is convex in  $\mathbb{X}$ , however it is not an interval or a ray.

There is a false prove given by myself.

 $<sup>^{26} \</sup>text{what does} \ \mathbb{X}$ ,  $\mathbb{X}'$ ,  $\mathbb{Y}$ ,  $\mathbb{Y}'$  really mean here?? I do not know, so I just put the exercise here without a proof.  $^{27} \text{The prove of this set}$  is countable is typically similar to Cantor's enumeration of a countable collection of countable sets.

*Proof.* Let S be a set that contain all intervals and rays of Y. We define a partial order on S by inclusion. So if there is a chain in S:

$$S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq S_3 \dots$$

Let

$$S = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3 \cup \dots$$

Thus, S is an upper bound of the chain.

Thus, by Zorn's Lemma, there is a maximal element of  $\mathbb{S}$ , say U, then we prove that  $U=\mathbb{Y}$ .

If  $U \neq \mathbb{Y}$ , then  $\exists x, x \in \mathbb{Y} - U$ .

If U is a ray say  $(a, +\infty)$ . Then x < a, thus  $U \subseteq (x, +\infty) \subseteq \mathbb{B}$ , then there is contradiction with the maximal element.

If U is an interval, the circumstance is similar with the proof of U is a ray.

Thus  $\mathbb{Y}$  is a ray or an interval.

However, there is issue with this proof, the set S does exists. However, it may not be an interval or ray, so it may not be contained in S

#### 1.6 Closed Sets and Limit Points

**Definition 1.6.1** (closed). <sup>28</sup> A subset A of a topological space is said to be closed if the set X - A is open.

**Theorem 1.6.1.** <sup>29</sup>Let X be a topological space. Then the following conditions hold

- 1.  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{X}$  are closed.
- 2. Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed
- 3. Finite unions of closed sets are closed

**Definition 1.6.2** (closed in). Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be a topological space; let  $\mathbb{Y}$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ . We say that a set A is **closed in**  $\mathbb{Y}$  if A is a subset of  $\mathbb{Y}$  and A is closed in the subspace topology of  $\mathbb{Y}$ 

**Theorem 1.6.2.** Let  $\mathbb{Y}$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ . Then a set A is closed in  $\mathbb{Y}$  if and only if it equals the intersection of a closed set of  $\mathbb{X}$  with  $\mathbb{Y}$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup>A set can be open, or closed, or both, or neither

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

*Proof.* First we proof that if A is closed in  $\mathbb{Y}$ , then  $\exists B \subseteq \mathbb{X}, B \cap \mathbb{Y} = A$ . As the origin topology form a surjective map to its subspace topology, there exists a B closed in  $\mathbb{X}$  that  $\mathbb{Y} - A = (\mathbb{X} - B) \cap \mathbb{Y}$ . Then  $B \cap \mathbb{Y} = A$ 

Conversely, if  $\exists B \subseteq \mathbb{X}, B \cap \mathbb{Y} = A$ . Then,  $\mathbb{Y} - A = (\mathbb{X} - B) \cap \mathbb{Y}$ . Then  $\mathbb{X} - B$  is open in  $\mathbb{Y}$ ,  $\mathbb{Y} - A$  is open in  $\mathbb{Y}$ . Then A is closed in  $\mathbb{Y}$ 

**Theorem 1.6.3.** 30 Let  $\mathbb{Y}$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ . If A is closed in  $\mathbb{Y}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{X}$ , then A is closed in  $\mathbb{X}$ .

**Definition 1.6.3** (interior). Given a subset A of a topological space  $\mathbb{X}$ , the **interior** of A is defined as the union of all open sets contained in A. Denoted by Int(A).

**Definition 1.6.4** (closure). Given a subset A of a topological space  $\mathbb{X}$ , the **closure** of A is defined as the intersection of all closed sets containing A. Denoted by Cl(A) or  $\overline{A}$ 

**Theorem 1.6.4.**  $^{3132}$  Let  $\mathbb Y$  be a subspace of a topological space  $\mathbb X$ ; let A be a subset of  $\mathbb X$ . Let  $\overline{A}$  denote the closure of A in  $\mathbb X$ . Then the closure of A in  $\mathbb Y$  equals  $\overline{A} \cap \mathbb Y$ 

**Definition 1.6.5** (intersect). We say that a set A intersects B if  $A \cap B$  is not empty.

**Theorem 1.6.5.** Let A be a subset of the topological space X

- 1. The  $x \in \overline{A}$  if and only if every open set U containing x intersect A.
- 2. Supposing the topology of X is given by a basis, then  $x \in \overline{A}$  if and only if every basis element B containing x intersects A

*Proof.* There are only two types of closed set U in  $\mathbb{X}$ :

- 1.  $U \supset \overline{A}$
- 2.  $U \cap A \neq A$

Thus, there are only two types of open set U in  $\mathbb{X}$  respectively.

- 1. U does not intersects A.
- 2.  $U \cap \overline{A} \neq \emptyset$
- 1. If  $x \in \overline{A}$ , then every open set containing x is the open set of second type, thus every open set containing x intersects A

If every open set containing x intersect  $\mathbb{A}$ , suppose  $x \notin \overline{A}$ . Then  $\mathbb{X} - \overline{A}$  is a open set containing x, however, it does not intersects A. Thus,  $x \in \overline{A}$ .

 $<sup>^{30}</sup>$ As the proof is similar to the case in the open set, so we omit the proof here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

 $<sup>^{32}</sup>$ As the closure of A in  $\mathbb X$  and the closure A in  $\mathbb Y$  will sometimes be different. We always use  $\overline{A}$  to denote the closure of A in  $\mathbb X$ 

2. If  $x \in \overline{A}$ , as every basis element of  $\mathbb X$  is a open set, thus every basis element containing x intersects  $\mathbb A$ 

If every open set containing x intersect  $\mathbb{A}$ , suppose  $x \notin \overline{A}$ .

As every open sets can be represented by union of basis. Let

$$\mathbb{X} - \overline{A} = B_1 \cup B_2 \cup B_3 \cup \cdots \cup B'_1 \cup B'_2 \cup B'_3 \cup \cdots$$

where  $\,B\,$  are bases containing  $\,x\,$ , and  $\,B'\,$  are bases that does not contain  $\,x\,$ .

Thus,

$$x \in B_1 \cup B_2 \cup B_3 \cup \dots \subseteq \mathbb{X} - \overline{A}$$

Then  $B_1 \cup B_2 \cup B_3 \cup \ldots$  that is a open set can be generated by all the bases containing x, however, that does not intersects A. So,  $x \in \overline{A}$ .

**Definition 1.6.6** (neighbourhood). <sup>33</sup> If we say U is a neighbourhood of x in  $\mathbb{X}$ , then U is an open set in  $\mathbb{X}$  containing x

**Definition 1.6.7** (limit point, point of accumulation, cluster point). <sup>34</sup> If A is a subset of topological space X. We say that x is a limit point of A if and only if every open sets containing x intersects A with some points other than x.

This condition is also equivalent to the condition that if x is a limit point of A if and only if  $x \in \overline{A - \{x\}}$ 

**Theorem 1.6.6.** <sup>35</sup>Let A be a subset of topological space  $\mathbb{X}$ ; let A' be the set of all limit points of A. Then

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

Corollary 1.6.1. <sup>36</sup>A subset of a topological space is closed if and only if it contains all its limit point.

**Definition 1.6.8** (converge). <sup>37</sup> We say that a sequence of  $x_1, x_2, x_3 \ldots$  converge to x. When for every neighbourhood U of x, there exists a positive integer N, such that for all n > N,  $x_n \in U$ .

**Definition 1.6.9** (Hausdorff space). A topological space is called a **Hausdorff** space, if for every distinct  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  in  $\mathbb{X}$ , there exists disjoint neighbourhood of  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  of  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  in  $\mathbb{X}$ .

<sup>33</sup>Some other mathematicians use neighbourhood to say that U merely contains an open set containing x. The book does not give a formal definition for the word merely, and I am not sure either.

 $<sup>^{34}</sup>$ Note that, x may belong to A or not, this does not matter.

 $<sup>^{35}\</sup>mathrm{We}$  omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup>We omit the proof of this corollary as it is obvious.

 $<sup>^{37}</sup>$ In real line, a sequence can not converge to multiple points, but for an arbitrary topological space, this is possible.

**Theorem 1.6.7.**  $^{3839}$  Every finite point set in a Hausdorff space  $\mathbb{X}$  is closed.

*Proof.* Let A be a finite point set in a Hausdorff space  $\mathbb{X}$ .

Suppose A only have one element. Then for every  $x \in \mathbb{X} - A$ , there exists a neighbourhood of x that does not intersect with A. So A is closed.

Suppose A is a closed finite point set. We take  $x_0 \in \mathbb{X} - A$ . As finite union of closed set is closed,  $A \cup \{x_0\}$  is closed.

Then, from induction, all finite point set in a Hausdorff space is closed.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 1.6.8.** If X is a Hausdorff space, then a sequence of points in X converges to at most one point.

*Proof.* Suppose that the following sequence

$$x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots$$

Converge to more than one points say

$$y_1, y_2, y_3 \dots$$

Then there exists

$$n_1, n_2, n_3 \ldots, U_1, U_2, U_3 \ldots$$

Such that for  $n > n_i$ 

$$x_n \in U_i, y_i \in U_i$$

If we take disjoint  $U_1, U_2$  which is possible as this is a Hausdorff space.

Then the previews condition does not stand. So, every sequence of points in a Hausdorff space can only converge to at most one point.  $\Box$ 

**Definition 1.6.10** (limit). If a sequence  $x_n$  of points in Hausdorff space converge to the point x, we denote this by  $x_n \to x$  and we say the **limit** of  $x_n$  is x.

**Definition 1.6.11** ( $T_1$  axiom). The condition that all finite point set of a topological space is closed is called  $T_1$  axiom.

**Theorem 1.6.9.** Let X be a space satisfying the  $T_1$  axiom; let A be a subset of X. Then the point x is a limit point of A if and only if every neighbourhood of x contains infinitely many points of A.

*Proof.* If every neighbourhood of x contains infinitely many point of A. Than every neighbourhood of x intersect with A with infinite element other than x, then x is a limit point of A.

 $<sup>^{38}</sup>$ This implies that a sequence in a Hausdorff space cannot converge to multiple points. The following theorem prove this.

 $<sup>^{39}</sup>$ The condition every finite point set is closed is weaker than the Hausdorff space condition. For instance, the finite complement topology of  $\mathbb{R}$  met the condition of finite point set. However it is not a Hausdorff space.

If x is a limit point of A. Suppose that there exists a open set U containing x and intersect with A for finite many points. Let

$$U' = U \cap (A - x)$$

Then,  $x \notin U'$ . Let

$$U'' = U - U'$$

Then U'' is open as U' is a finite point set and

$$U'' = U - U' = U \cap (X - U')$$

Also,  $x \in U''$ . Thus, U'' is a open set containing x that only intersect A with x or do not intersect A. This is a contradiction of x is a limit point. Thus there does not exists a open set U containing x and intersect with A for finite many points.

**Theorem 1.6.10.** <sup>40</sup>Every simply ordered set is a Hausdorff space in order topology.

**Theorem 1.6.11.** <sup>41</sup> The product of two Hausdorff space is a Hausdorff space.

**Theorem 1.6.12.** <sup>42</sup>A subspace of a Hausdorff space is a Hausdorff space.

#### 1.6.1 Exercise

1. Give an counter example why  $\overline{\cup A_{\alpha}} = \cup \overline{A_{\alpha}}$  dose not hold.

*Proof.* Consider the X be the K-topology on the real line.

Let

$$A_n = (\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n}), n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$$

$$A = \cup A_n$$

Then

$$\overline{A_n} = \left[\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n}\right]$$

$$\cup \overline{A_n} = (0, 1]$$

However, as every neighbourhood of 0 intersect  $\cup A_{\alpha}$ .  $0 \in \overline{\cup A_{\alpha}}$ .

Thus, 
$$\overline{\cup A_{\alpha}} \neq \cup \overline{A_{\alpha}}$$

 $<sup>^{40}</sup>$ We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

 $<sup>^{41}\</sup>mathrm{We}$  omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

2. Prove that

$$\overline{A-B} \supset \overline{A} - \overline{B}$$

*Proof.* If  $x \in \overline{A} - \overline{B}$ . Then

$$x \in \overline{A}, x \notin \overline{B}$$

.

Thus for open set U containing x

$$\exists \quad U_1 \cap B = \emptyset$$
$$\forall \quad U \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

Suppose that  $x \notin \overline{A-B}$ . Then

$$\exists U_0 \cap (A - B) = \emptyset$$

Thus,

$$U_0 \cap A \subseteq B$$

Thus,

$$U_1 \cap B = \emptyset$$

$$U_1 \cap U_0 \cap A = \emptyset$$

As  $U_1 \cap U_0$  is an open set containing x, so there is contradiction with  $x \in \overline{A}$ . Thus  $x \in \overline{A-B}$ .

3. A **diagonal** is a subset  $\Delta = \{x \times x | x \in \mathbb{X}\}$  of the product topology  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X}$  where  $\mathbb{X}$  is a topological space. Show that the diagonal is closed in  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X}$  if and only if  $\mathbb{X}$  is a Hausdorff space.

*Proof.* If  $\mathbb{X}$  is a Hausdorff space. For every element  $x \times y$  of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X}$  that not in  $\Delta$ . We take disjoint set  $U_x, U_y$  where  $x \in U_x, y \in U_y$ . Then  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X} - \Delta = \bigcup_{x \neq y} U_x \times U_y$ . Where  $\bigcup_{x \neq y} U_x \times U_y$  is an open set. Thus  $\Delta$  is a closed set.

Conversely, if  $\Delta$  is a closed set, suppose that  $\mathbb{X}$  is not a Hausdorff space. Then there exists distinct x,y such that every neighbourhood of x and y intersect. Let  $\mathbb{B}$  be a basis of topology of  $\mathbb{X}$ . Then  $x \times y \in \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X} - \Delta$ . However we cannot find  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathbb{B}, x \times y \in B_1 \times B_2 \subset \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X} - \Delta$ . Then  $\Delta$  is not a closed set. So there is a contradiction, then  $\mathbb{X}$  must be a Hausdorff space.

4. Prove that  $T_1$  axiom is equivalent to the condition such that for every distinct pair x, y of  $\mathbb{X}$ , there exists neighbourhood of x does not contain y.

*Proof.* First if  $T_1$  axiom hold, then for every pair x, y, the neighbourhood  $\mathbb{X} - \{y\}$  of x does not contain y, so the second condition hold.

Conversely, if the second condition hold. Suppose that we can find a finite points set say  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots\}$ , then there must exists  $x \in \{x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots\}$  such that the set  $\{x\}$  is not closed. Then  $\overline{\{x\}} - \{x\} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $y \in \overline{\{x\}} - \{x\}$ , then every neighbourhood of y must contain x, this is a contradiction to the second condition, so the  $T_1$  axiom must hold.

5. If  $A \subseteq \mathbb{X}$ , we define the **boundary** of A by the equation

$$BdA = \overline{A} \cap \overline{\mathbb{X} - A}$$

(a) Show that  $\operatorname{Int} A$  and  $\operatorname{Bd} A$  are disjoint and  $\overline{A} = \operatorname{Int} A \cup \operatorname{Bd} A$ .

*Proof.* For every  $x \in \operatorname{Bd} A$ , every open set contain x must intersect A and  $\mathbb{X} - A$  so, there is no open set U contain x,  $U \subseteq A$ .

For every  $x' \in \text{Int}A$ , there exists  $U' \subseteq A$ , so BdA and IntA are disjoint sets.

For every  $x \in \overline{A}$ ,  $x \in BdA$  or  $x \notin BdA$ . We discuss the condition that  $x \notin BdA$ .

Then  $x \notin \overline{\mathbb{X} - A}$ , then there exists a open set U containing x, that does not intersect with  $\mathbb{X} - A$ . Thus  $U \subseteq A$ , thus  $x \in \mathrm{Int}A$ . So  $\overline{A} \subseteq \mathrm{Int}A \cup \mathrm{Bd}A$ .

Then,  $\operatorname{Bd} A \subseteq \overline{A}$ ,  $\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A \subseteq \overline{A}$ . Thus,  $\overline{A} \supseteq \operatorname{Int} A \cup \operatorname{Bd} A$ So,  $\overline{A} = \operatorname{Int} A \cup \operatorname{Bd} A$ 

(b) Show that  $BdA = \emptyset$  if and only if A is both open and closed.

*Proof.* So, Int $A=\overline{A}$ , then Bd $A=\emptyset$  follows directly from  $\overline{A}=\operatorname{Int} A\cup\operatorname{Bd} A$ .

(c) Show that U is open if and only if  $BdU = \overline{U} - U$ .

*Proof.* Suppose U is open. Then  $\overline{\mathbb{X}-\overline{U}}=\mathbb{X}-\overline{U}$ . Then for every  $x\in U$ ,  $x\notin \mathbb{X}-U, x\notin \overline{\mathbb{X}-\overline{U}}$ . Thus  $\overline{U}\cap \overline{\mathbb{X}-\overline{U}}=\overline{U}-U$ .

Conversely, suppose  $\operatorname{Bd} U=\overline{U}-U$ . Then for every  $x\in U$ ,  $x\notin\operatorname{Bd} U$ . Then as  $\overline{U}=\operatorname{Int} U\cup\operatorname{Bd} U$ ,  $x\in\operatorname{Int} U$ . So  $\operatorname{Int} U\supseteq U$ . Thus  $U=\operatorname{Int} U$ . Thus, U is open.

#### 1.7 Continuous Function

**Definition 1.7.1** (continuous). <sup>43</sup> Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  be topological spaces. A function  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is said to be **continuous** if for each open subset V of  $\mathbb{Y}$ , the set  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an open subset of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

**Theorem 1.7.1.** Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  be topological spaces; let  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$ . Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. f is continuous.
- 2. For every subset A of X, one has  $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$ .
- 3. For every closed set B of  $\mathbb Y$ , the set  $f^{-1}(B)$  is closed in  $\mathbb X$ .
- 4. For each  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  and each neighbourhood of V of f(x), there is a neighbourhood U of x such that  $f(U) \subseteq V$ .

Proof.

 $1 \Rightarrow 3$ :

Let A be a open set in  $\mathbb{Y}$ .  $f^{-1}(\mathbb{Y} - A) = \mathbb{X} - f^{-1}(A)$ .

 $3 \Rightarrow 1$ :

Let A be a closed set in  $\mathbb{Y}$  .  $f^{-1}(\mathbb{Y} - A) = \mathbb{X} - f^{-1}(A)$  .

 $1 \Rightarrow 2$ :

For  $x \in \overline{A}$ , we take a open set  $f(x) \in U \subseteq \mathbb{Y}$ . Thus  $x \in f^{-1}(U) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . Thus  $U \cap f(A) \neq \emptyset$ . So  $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$ . Thus  $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$ .

 $2 \Rightarrow 3$ :

Suppose f is not continuous. Then there must exists V, such that  $f^{-1}(V) = U$  is not closed. Thus  $\overline{U} \supset B = f^{-1}(A)$ . Thus  $f\overline{B} \supset A$ . However  $f(\overline{B}) \subseteq \overline{f(B)} = A$ . There is a contradiction. So f must be continuous.

 $1 \Rightarrow 4$ :

For every neighbourhood V of f(x),  $f^{-1}(V)$  is a neighbourhood of x that  $f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq V$ .

 $4 \Rightarrow 1$ :

We take a open set V of  $\mathbb Y$ . Let S be the collection of all open set U in  $\mathbb X$  such that  $f(U)\subseteq V$ . The set cannot be empty unless  $f^{-1}(V)=\emptyset$ . Let  $U_0$  denote the union of all the element in S. We prove that  $U_0=f^{-1}(V)$ .

For all element  $x \in U_0$ ,  $f(x) \in V$ . Thus  $U_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ .

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{\ \ }^{43}$ As the continuity of a function is different as the topological spaces are different. So if we want to emphasis this fact, we say that f is continuous *relative* to specific topologies on  $\mathbb X$  and  $\mathbb Y$ .

For all element  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$ . There is a U' such that  $x \in U'$ ,  $f(U') \subseteq V$ . This follows from the condition 4. Thus  $U' \in S$ . Thus  $x \in U_0$ . Thus  $U_0 \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ . As  $U_0$  is union of open set,  $U_0$  is also open. Thus,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is also open. Thus f is continuous.

**Definition 1.7.2** (homeomorphism). <sup>44</sup> Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  be topological space; let  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  be a bijection. If both the function f and the inverse function

$$f^{-1}: \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{X}$$

are continuous, then f is called a homeomorphism

**Definition 1.7.3** (topological imbedding). Suppose that  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is an injective continuous map, where  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  are topological spaces. Let  $\mathbb{Z}$  be the image set  $f(\mathbb{X})$ , considered as a subspace of  $\mathbb{Y}$ ; then the function  $f': \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Z}$  obtained by restricting the range of f is bijective. If f' happens to be a homeomorphism of  $\mathbb{X}$  with  $\mathbb{Z}$ , we say that the map  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is a **topological imbedding**, or simply an **imbedding**, of  $\mathbb{X}$  in  $\mathbb{Y}$ .

**Theorem 1.7.2** (Rules for constructing continuous functions). Let X, Y, and  $\mathbb{Z}$  be topological spaces.

- 1. (Constant function) If  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  maps all of  $\mathbb{X}$  into the single point  $y_0$  of  $\mathbb{Y}$ , then f is continuous.
- 2. (Inclusion) If A is a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ , the inclusion function  $j:A\to\mathbb{X}$  is continuous.
- 3. (Composites) If  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  and  $g: \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{Z}$  are continuous, then the map  $g \circ f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Z}$  is continuous.
- 4. (Restricting the domain) If  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is continuous, and if A is a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ , then the restriction function  $f|A:A\to\mathbb{Y}$  is continuous.
- 5. (Restricting or expanding the range) Let  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is continuous. Let  $\mathbb{Z}$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{Y}$  containing the image  $f(\mathbb{X})$ , the function  $h: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Z}$  obtained by restricting the range of f is continuous. If  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a space having  $\mathbb{Y}$  as a subspace, then the function  $h: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  obtained by expanding the range of f is continuous.
- 6. (Local formulation of continuity) The map  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is continuous if  $\mathbb{X}$  can be written as the union of open sets  $U_{\alpha}$  such set  $f|U_{\alpha}$  is continuous for each  $\alpha$

#### Proof.

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{\ ^{44}\text{A equivalent way to define homeomorphism}}$ , is that for any open subset U of  $\mathbb{X}$ , f(U) is open if and only if U is open.

- 1.  $f^{-1}(U)$  of any open set U is X, thus f is continuous.
- 2. For every open subset U of  $\mathbb{X}$ ,  $j^{-1}(U) = U \cap A$  is continuous in A. Thus *j* is a continuous function.
- 3. For every open subset U of  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $\mathbb{Y}$ , and  $g^{-1}(f^{-1}(U))$ is open in  $\mathbb{X}$ . Thus,  $g \circ f$  is continuous
- 4. For every open subset U of  $\mathbb{Y}$ ,  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $\mathbb{X}$ , thus  $f^{-1}(U) \cap A$ is open in A . Thus the function f|A is continuous.
- 5. If  $\mathbb Z$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb Y$  , then every open subset of  $\mathbb Z$  can be represented as  $U \cap \mathbb{Z}$ , where U is a open subset of Y. Thus  $h^{-1}(U \cap \mathbb{Z}) = g^{-1}(\mathbb{Z}) \cap g^{-1}(U) = g^{-1}(\mathbb{Z}) \cap g^{-1}(U)$  $\mathbb{X} \cap g^{-1}(U)$  which is a open subset of X, thus h is continuous.
  - If Y is a subspace of Z. Then we take a open subset U of Z.  $h^{-1}(U) =$  $g^{(-1)}(U \cap \mathbb{Y})$  which is open in  $\mathbb{X}$ , thus h is continuous.
- 6. if  $f|U_{\alpha}$  is continuous for each  $\alpha$ . For every open subset U of  $\mathbb{Y}$ .

$$U = \cup_{\alpha} (U_{\alpha} \cap U)$$

where  $U_{\alpha} \cap U$  is open both in  $U_{\alpha}$  and in  $\mathbb{Y}$ . Thus,

$$f^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(\cup_{\alpha}(U_{\alpha} \cap U))$$
$$= \cup_{\alpha}((f|U_{\alpha})^{-1}(U_{\alpha} \cap U))$$

and each  $(f|U_{\alpha})^{-1}(U_{\alpha}\cap U)$  is open, thus  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open.

**Theorem 1.7.3** (The pasting lemma). <sup>45</sup> Let  $X = A \cup B$ , where A, B are closed in X. Let  $f: A \to Y$  and  $g: B \to Y$  be continuous. If f(x) = g(x) for every  $x \in A \cap B$ , then f, g combine to give a continuous function  $h: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$ , defined by setting  $h(x) = f(x), x \in A$  and  $h(x) = g(x), x \in B$ .

**Theorem 1.7.4** (Maps into products). <sup>46</sup> Let  $f: A \to \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$  be given by the equation

$$f(a) = (f_1(a), f_2(a))$$

Then, the function f is continuous if and only if the functions

$$f_1:A\to\mathbb{X},f_2:A\to\mathbb{Y}$$

are continuous.

 $<sup>^{45}</sup>$ The proof of this theorem is similar to the "Local formulation of continuity" condition of "Rules for constructing continuous functions", so we omit the proof here.

46The map  $f_1, f_2$  are called the *coordinate functions* of f

*Proof.* Let  $\pi_1, \pi_2$  be the projection function

$$\pi_1 : \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{X}$$
 $\pi_2 : \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{Y}$ 

We first proof that if U is an open subset of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ ,

$$f^{-1}(U) = f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(U)) \cap f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(U))$$

Let  $x \times y \in U$ ,  $f^{-1}(x \times y)$  contains all a such that  $f(a) = x \times y$ . Then for any  $a \in f^{-1}(x \times y)$ ,  $a \in f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(x \times y)), a \in f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(x \times y))$ . Thus,  $f^{-1}(x \times y) \subseteq f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(x \times y)) \cap f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(x \times y))$ . Thus  $f^{-1}(U) \subseteq f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(U)) \cap f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(U))$ .

Also, if  $a \in f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(x \times y)), a \in f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(x \times y))$ ,  $f_1(a) = x, f_2(a) = y$ . Thus  $f(a) = x \times y$ . Thus  $a \in f^{-1}(x \times y)$ . Thus  $f^{-1}(U) = f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(U)) \cap f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(U))$ 

Let U be any open subset of  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$ 

$$f^{-1}(U) = f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(U)) \cap f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(U))$$

Where  $f_1^{-1}(\pi_1(U))$  and  $f_2^{-1}(\pi_2(U))$  are both open set. Thus  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open.

#### 1.7.1 Exercise

1. Let  $\mathbb Y$  be an ordered set in the order topology. Let  $f,g:\mathbb X\to\mathbb Y$  be continuous, show that the set A  $\{x|f(x)\leq g(x)\}$  is closed in  $\mathbb X$ .

*Proof.* We only need to proof  $\mathbb{X}-A$  is open in  $\mathbb{X}$  . We take  $x\in\mathbb{X}-A$  . Thus f(x)>g(x) .

Let  $U_1, U_2$  be the open set in  $\mathbb{Y}$  that met the following demand

$$\forall y_1 \in U_1, y_2 \in U_2, y_1 > y_2$$
  
 $f(x) \in U_1, g_x \in U_2$ 

As  $\mathbb{Y}$  is an ordered set,  $U_1, U_2$  must exist.

Let  $U = f^{-1}(U_1) \cap g^{-1}(U_2)$ . It is obvious that U is a open set, and  $x \in U$ .

Also, for any  $\ y \in U$  .  $\ f(y) > g(y)$  . Thus  $\ U \subseteq A$  . Thus  $\ A$  is an open set.  $\Box$ 

2. Let  $\{A_{\alpha}\}$  be a collection of subsets of  $\mathbb{X}$ ; let  $\mathbb{X} = \bigcup_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$ . Lef  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$ ; suppose that  $f|A_{\alpha}$  is continuous for each  $\alpha$ . An indexed family of sets  $\{A_{\alpha}\}$  is said to be **locally finite** if each point x of  $\mathbb{X}$  has a neighbourhood that intersect  $A_{\alpha}$  for only finitely main values of  $\alpha$ . Show that if the family  $\{A_{\alpha}\}$  is locally finite and each  $A_{\alpha}$  is closed, then f is continuous.

*Proof.* For any closed subset U of  $\mathbb{Y}$ . Let

$$V = \bigcup f | A_{\alpha}(U)$$

We prove that V is closed, so, f is continuous.

To prove that V is closed, we prove that  $\overline{V}=V$ . That is for any  $x\in \overline{V}$ , we prove  $x\in V$ . For any neighbourhood B if x, let  $C_B$  denote the set that contain all  $\alpha$ , such that  $f|A_{\alpha(U)}$  intersect with B. As B intersect with V,  $C_B$  can not be empty.

Let

$$\mathbb{C} = \{C_B | B \text{ be a neighbourhood of } x\}$$

As  $\{A_{\alpha}\}$  is locally definite,  $\mathbb{C}$  contain at least one element with finite elements.

Also

$$C_{B_1 \cap B_2} \subseteq C_{B_1} \cap C_{B_2}$$

Let  $\leq$  be a partial order on the  $\mathbb C$  . If  $C_{B_1}\subseteq C_{B_2}$  , we say that  $C_{B_1}\geq C_{B_2}$ 

If there is chain in  $\mathbb{C}$ 

$$C_{B_1} \leq C_{B_2} \dots$$

Let  $C_{B_0}$  be a element of  $\mathbb{C}$  with finite element. If  $C_{B_0} \subseteq C_{B_1}, C_{B_0} \subseteq C_{B_2} \dots$ . Then  $C_{B_0}$  is a upper bound of the chain.

If C is not a subset of all element of the chain. Then we construct a new set say

$$D = \{C_{B_0 \cap B_1}, C_{B_0 \cap B_2} \dots\}$$

Let

$$\mathbb{D} = \{ C_{D_1 \cap D_2 \cap \dots} | C_{D_1}, C_{D_2} \dots \in D \}$$

As  $C_{B_0}$  is a finite set, D is a finite set,  $\mathbb{D}$  is also a finite set. Thus there must be a maximal element  $E \in \mathbb{D}$  that is the subset of all element of  $\mathbb{D}$ . Then E is a subset of all element of the chain. Thus E is a upper bound of the chain.

Thus, there must be a maximal element  $C_F$  of  $\mathbb C$ , that is a subset of all element of  $\mathbb C$ .

Let G be the set be the union of all element of  $C_F$ .

As  $C_F$  is finite, G is closed. And all neighbourhood of x intersect with G . Thus  $x \in G$ 

As G is a subset of V ,  $x \in V$  . So V is closed. And f is a continuous function on  $\mathbb X$  .

3. Let A be a subset of topological space  $\mathbb{X}$ , let  $\mathbb{Y}$  be a Hausdorff space. Let  $f:A\to\mathbb{Y}$  be a continuous function. Let  $g:\overline{A}\to\mathbb{Y}$  also be a continuous function where  $g(x)=f(x), x\in A$ . Prove that g us uniquely determined by f.<sup>47</sup>

*Proof.* Say g and h are two distinct function that met the demand.

So there exist  $x_0$  such that  $g(x_0) \neq h(x_0)$ .

As  $\mathbb{Y}$  is a Hausdorff space, so there exist adjoint open subset  $g(x_0) \in U$  and  $h(x_0) \in V$ .

Then  $g^{-1}(U)$  and  $h^{-1}(V)$  are both open subset of X that contain  $x_0$ .

If  $g^{-1}(U) \cap h^{-1}(V) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . Then there exist  $x_1 \in g^{-1}(U) \cap h^{-1}(V) \cap A$  such that  $g(x_1) \in U$  and  $h(x_1) \in V$  and  $g(x_1) = h(x_1)$ . However U and V are disjoint. So there is a contradiction.

As  $^{-1}(U) \cap h^{-1}(V)$  is a open subset contain  $x_0$ . So  $^{-1}(U) \cap h^{-1}(V)$  must intersect with A. So it is impossible that  $g^{-1}(U) \cap h^{-1}(V) \cap A = \emptyset$ .

So 
$$g = h$$
.

### 1.8 Metric Topology

**Definition 1.8.1** (metric). A **metric** on a set X is a function

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

having the following properties:

1. d(x,y) > 0 for all  $x,y \in \mathbb{X}$ ; equality hold if and only if x = y

2. 
$$d(x,y) = d(y,x), \forall x,y \in \mathbb{X}$$

Let  $\,\mathbb{X}\,$  be the real line with order topology. Let  $\,\mathbb{Y}\,$  be  $\,\{0,1\}$  .

Let  $A = \mathbb{X} - \{0\}$ .

Let,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

So, it is obvious that f is a continuous function on  $\mathbb X$  . However g does not exist in this case.

 $<sup>^{47}</sup>$ It is possible that g does not exist.

3. (Triangle Inequality)  $d(x,y) + d(y,z) \ge d(x,z), \forall x,y,z \in \mathbb{X}$ 

Given a metric d on  $\mathbb{X}$ , the number d(x,y) is often called the **distance** between x and y in the metric d.

**Definition 1.8.2** (  $\epsilon$  -ball centered at x ). <sup>48</sup> Given metric d on a set  $\mathbb X$  and  $\epsilon>0$  . The set

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

is called  $\epsilon$  -ball centered at x.

**Definition 1.8.3** (metric topology). If d is a metric on the set  $\mathbb{X}$ , then the collection of all  $\epsilon$ -balls  $B_d(x,\epsilon)$ , such that  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , is a basis for a topology on  $\mathbb{X}$ , called the **metric topology** induced by d.

**Definition 1.8.4** (metrizable). If  $\mathbb{X}$  is topological space,  $\mathbb{X}$  is said to be **metrizable** if there exists a metric d on the set  $\mathbb{X}$  that induces the topology of  $\mathbb{X}$ . A **metric space** is a metrizable space  $\mathbb{X}$  together with a specific metric d that gives the topology of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

**Definition 1.8.5** (bounded). Let X be a metric space with metric d. A subset A of X is said to be **bounded** if there is some number M such that

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

for every pair  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  if points of A.

**Definition 1.8.6** (diameter). Let X be a metric space with metric d. Let A be a bounded subset of X. Then **diameter** is defined to be

$$\operatorname{diam} A = \sup \{ d(a_1, a_2) | a_1, a_2 \in A \}$$

**Theorem 1.8.1.** Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be a metric space with metric d. Define  $\overline{d}: \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R}$  by the equation

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

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

The metric  $\overline{d}$  is called the **standard bounded metric** corresponding to d

*Proof.* It is obvious that  $\overline{d}$  is a metric.

To prove that d and  $\overline{d}$  induces the same topology, it is suffice to prove that for all  $a \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\{a_{\alpha}\}$  and  $\{\epsilon_{\alpha}\}$  where  $\epsilon_{\alpha} \leq 1$  such that

$$B_d(a,\epsilon) = \bigcup B_{\overline{d}}(a_\alpha,\epsilon_\alpha)$$

For every  $x \in B_d(a, \epsilon)$  take  $a_x = x$  and  $\epsilon_x < min(\epsilon - d(a, x), 1)$ . Then

$$B_d(a,\epsilon) \supseteq B_{\overline{d}}(a_x,\epsilon_x)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup>When no confusion will arise, the metric d may be omit in  $B_d(x,\epsilon)$ 

as for all  $y \in B_{\overline{d}}(a_x, \epsilon_x)$ 

$$d(a,y) \leq d(a,a_x) + d(a_x,y)$$

$$< min(\epsilon - d(a,x), 1) + d(a,a_x)$$

$$< \epsilon$$

Thus

$$B_d(a,\epsilon) = \bigcup_{x \in B_d(a,\epsilon)} B_{\overline{d}}(a_x, \epsilon_x)$$

**Definition 1.8.7** (norm). Given  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The **norm** of x is defined by the equation

$$||x|| = (x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

**Definition 1.8.8** (euclidean metric). The euclidean metric d on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

$$d(x,y) = ||x - y||$$

**Definition 1.8.9** (square metric). The square metric  $\rho$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

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

**Lemma 1.8.1.** Let d and d' be two metrics on the set  $\mathbb{X}$ ; let  $\mathbb{T}$  and  $\mathbb{T}'$  be the topology induced by d and d' respectively. Then  $\mathbb{T}'$  is finer than T if and only if for all  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$B_{d'}(x,\delta) \subseteq B_d(x,\epsilon)$$

*Proof.* If  $\mathbb{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathbb{T}$ . Then for all  $B_d(x,\epsilon)$  there exists a open set U that containing x such that  $U \subseteq B_d(x,\epsilon)$ . As  $\{B_{d'}(x,\delta)\}$  is a basis of T', then there exists  $B_{d'}(x,\delta) \subseteq U$  that containing x.

If for all  $B_d(x,\epsilon)$ , there exists  $B_{d'}(x,\delta) \subseteq B_d(x,\epsilon)$ . Then as  $\{B_{d'}(x,\epsilon)\}$  and  $\{B_d(x,\epsilon)\}$  are both basis, then  $\mathbb{T}'$  is finer than T.

**Theorem 1.8.2.** <sup>49</sup> The topologies on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  induced by the euclidean metric d and the square metric  $\rho$  are the same as the product topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 1.8.10** (uniform metric, uniform topology). Given an index set J, and given points  $x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  and  $y = (y_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{J}$ , let us define a metric  $\overline{\rho}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^{J}$  by the equation

$$\overline{\rho}(x,y) = \sup{\overline{d}(x_{\alpha},y_{\alpha})|\alpha \in J}$$

where  $\overline{d}$  is the standard bounded metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\overline{\rho}$  is called the **uniform** metric on  $\mathbb{R}^J$ , and the topology it induces is called the **uniform topology** 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>49</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

**Theorem 1.8.3.** <sup>50</sup> The uniform topology on  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is finer than the product topology and is coarser than the box topology.

**Theorem 1.8.4.** Let  $\overline{d}(a,b) = \min\{|a-b|,1\}$  be the standard bounded metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ . If x nad y are two points of  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ , define

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

Then D is a metric that induces the product topology on  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ 

*Proof.* The properties of a metric are satisfied trivially except for the triangle inequality, which is proved by noting that for all i,

$$\frac{\overline{d}(x_i, z_i)}{i} \leq \frac{\overline{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \frac{\overline{d}(y_i, z_i)}{i} \\
\leq D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

so that

$$\sup \left\{ \frac{\overline{d}(x_i, z_i)}{i} \right\} \le D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

The fact that D gives the product topology requires a little more work. First, let U be open in the metric topology and let  $x \in U$ ; we find an open set V in the product topology such that  $x \in V \supseteq U$ . Choose an  $\epsilon - ball$   $B_D(x, \epsilon)$  lying in U. Then choose N large enough that  $\frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$ . Finally, let V be the basis element for the product topology

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

We assert that  $V \in B_D(x,\epsilon)$ : Given any y in  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ 

$$\frac{d(x_i, y_i)}{i} \le \frac{1}{N}, \forall i \ge N$$

Therefore,

$$D(x,y) \le \max \left\{ \frac{\overline{d}(x_1,y_1)}{1}, \dots, \frac{\overline{d}(x_N,y_N)}{N}, \frac{1}{N} \right\}$$

If y is in V, this expression is less than  $\epsilon$ , so that  $V \subseteq B_D(x, \epsilon)$ , as desired. Conversely, consider a basis element

$$U = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_i$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>50</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

for the product topology, where  $U_i$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}$  for  $i=\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n$  and  $U_i=\mathbb{R}$  for all other indices i. Given  $x\in U$ , we find an open set V of the metric topology such that  $x\in V\supseteq U$ . Choose an interval  $(x_i-\epsilon_i,x_i+\epsilon_i)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  centered about  $x_i$  and lying in  $U_i$  for  $i=\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n$ ; choose each  $\epsilon_i\leq 1$ . Then define

$$\epsilon = \min\left\{\frac{\epsilon_i}{i}|i=\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n\right\}$$

We assert that

$$x \in B_D(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$$

Let y be a point of  $B_D(x,\epsilon)$ . Then for all i

$$\frac{\overline{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} \le D(x, y) < \epsilon$$

Now if  $i = \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ , then  $\epsilon \leq \frac{\epsilon_i}{i}$ , so that  $\overline{d}(x_i, y_i) < \epsilon_i \leq 1$ ; it follows that  $|x_i - y_i| < \epsilon_i$ . Therefore  $y \in \prod U_i$ , as desired.

**Definition 1.8.11** (Hilbert Cube). The set

$$H = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} [0, \frac{1}{n}]$$

is called Hilbert cube

**Definition 1.8.12** ( $l^2$ -topology). Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be the subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  consisting of all sequences x such that  $\sum x_i^2$  converges.

Then the formula

$$d(x,y) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (x_i - y_i)^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

defines a metric on X. The topology induced by d is called the  $l^2$ -topology.

**Definition 1.8.13** (countable basis at point x). A space is said to be have **countable basis at point** x if there is a countable collection  $\{U_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}_+}$  of neighbourhoods of x such that any neighbourhood U of x contains at least on of the sets  $U_n$ . A space  $\mathbb{X}$  that has a countable basis at each of its point is said to satisfy the **first countability axiom** 

**Theorem 1.8.5.** Let  $f: \mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{Y}$  be metrizable with metric  $d_{\mathbf{X}}$  and  $d_{\mathbf{Y}}$ , respectively. Then continuity of f is equivalent to the requirement that given  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  and given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d_{\mathbf{X}}(x,y) < \delta \implies d_{\mathbb{Y}}(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$$

*Proof.* Suppose f is continuous. Given x and  $\epsilon$ , consider the set

$$f^{-1}(B(f(x),\epsilon))$$

which is open in  $\mathbb{X}$  and contains the point x. It contains some  $\delta$ -ball  $B(x, \delta)$  centered at x. If y is in this  $\delta$ -ball, then f(y) is in this  $\delta$ -ball as desired.

Conversely, suppose that the  $\epsilon - \delta$  condition is satisfied. Let V be open in  $\mathbb Y$ ; we show that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $\mathbb X$ . Let x be a point of the set  $f^{-1}(V)$ . Since  $f(x) \in V$  there is an  $\epsilon$ -ball  $B(f(x), \epsilon)$  centered at f(x) and contained in V. By the  $\epsilon - \delta$  condition, there exists a  $\delta$ -ball centered at x such that  $f(B(x, \delta)) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$ . Then  $B(x, \delta)$  is a neighbourhood of x contained in  $f^{-1}(V)$ , so that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open, as desired.

**Lemma 1.8.2** (The sequence lemma). <sup>51</sup>Let  $\mathbb{X}$  be a topological space; let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{X}$  If there is a sequence of points of A converging to x, then  $x \in \overline{A}$ , the converse holds if  $\mathbb{X}$  is metrizable.

**Theorem 1.8.6.** <sup>52</sup>Let  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$ . If the function f is continuous, then for every convergent sequence  $x_n \to x$ , the sequence  $f(x_n)$  converges to f(x). The converse holds if  $\mathbb{X}$  is metrizable.

**Lemma 1.8.3.** <sup>53</sup> The addition, subtraction, and multiplication operations are continuous functions from  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ ; and the quotient operation is continuous function from  $\mathbb{R} \times (\mathbb{R} - \{0\})$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 1.8.7.** <sup>54</sup> If  $\mathbb{X}$  is a topological space, and if  $f,g:\mathbb{X}\to\mathbb{R}$  are continuous functions, then f+g, f-g and  $f\cdot g$  are continuous. If  $g(x)\neq 0$  for all x, then  $\frac{f}{g}$  is continuous.

**Definition 1.8.14** (converge uniformly). Let  $f_n : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  be a sequence of functions from the set  $\mathbb{X}$  to the metric space  $\mathbb{Y}$ . Let d be the metric for  $\mathbb{Y}$ . We say that the sequence  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to the function  $f : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer N such that

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

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

**Theorem 1.8.8** (Uniform limit theorem). Let  $f_n : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  be a sequence of continuous functions from the topological space  $\mathbb{X}$  to the metric space  $\mathbb{Y}$ . If  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to f, then f is continuous.

 $<sup>^{51}\</sup>mathrm{We}$  omit the proof of this  $\,$  lemma as it is obvious.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>54</sup>We omit the proof of this theorem as it is obvious.

**Definition 1.8.15** (isometric imbedding). Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  be metric spaces with metric  $d_{\mathbb{X}}$  and  $d_{\mathbb{Y}}$ , respectively. Let  $f: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$  have the property that for every pair of points  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  of  $\mathbb{X}$ , and

$$d_{\mathbb{Y}}(f(x_1), f(x_2)) = d_{\mathbb{X}}(x_1, x_2)$$

f is an topological imbedding and is called an  $\emph{isometric imbedding}$  of  $\mathbb X$  in  $\mathbb Y$