

Point Set Topology

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1 Topological Spaces and Continuous Mappings

1.1 Metric Space

Definition 1.1. function

$$d: X^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad (1-1)$$

$\forall x_1, x_2, x_3 \in X$ satisfied:

- a) $d(x_1, x_2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x_1 = x_2$;
- b) $d(x_1, x_2) = d(x_2, x_1)$ (symmetry);
- c) $d(x_1, x_3) \leq d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3)$ (Triangle inequality),

is called a **metric** or **distance** in X . Such X is said to be equipped with metric d , (X, d) is called a **metric space**.

Some examples:

- $(\mathbb{R}^n; d_p)$, where $d_p(x_1, x_2) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_1^i - x_2^i|^p \right)^{1/p}$, while $d_\infty(x_1, x_2) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_1^i - x_2^i|$.
- Similarly we can define metric spaces as $(C[a, b]; d_p)$ or $C_p[a, b]$. $d_p(f, g) = \left(\int_a^b |f - g|^p dx \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$. C_∞ is called a **Chebyshev metric**.
- On class $\tilde{\mathfrak{R}}[a, b]$ over $\mathfrak{R}[a, b]$ similar metric can be defined. Functions are considered of one same class if they are equivalent except on a set not larger than null set.

Hilbert space denoted by $(\mathbb{H}; d)$ is defined as:

$$\mathbb{H} = \left\{ x = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \mid \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \left(\forall x_i \in \mathbb{R} \wedge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i^2 < \infty \right) \right\} \quad (1-2)$$

equipped with a metric d :

$$d: \mathbb{H}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}; x, y \mapsto \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (x_i - y_i)^2}. \quad (1-3)$$

To justify this definition, we need to introduce a lemma:

Lemma 1.

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n \forall v \in \mathbb{R}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2} \right) \quad (1-4)$$

This is called **Schwarz inequality**.

Proof. If $\forall i = 1, \dots, n (v_i = 0)$ the equivalence has already been satisfied, therefore the following consider the situation that $\exists i \in \{1, \dots, n\} (v_i \neq 0)$. $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (u_i + \lambda v_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 + 2\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i + \lambda^2 \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 \geq 0$$

has at most one root. Hence $\Delta \leq 0$ will lead to the inequality 1-4. \square

Apply this inequality to $\sum_{i=1}^n (u_i + v_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i$ we can get

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (u_i + v_i)^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 + 2 \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2} = \left(\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2} + \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2} \right)^2,$$

in which substitute u_i, v_i by $x_i - y_i, x_i + y_i$ will result in triangle inequality. The inequality holds as the n limits to $+\infty$.

A metric space (X, d) is called **discrete** if

$$\forall x \in X \left(\exists \delta_x \in \mathbb{R}_+ (\forall y \in X (y \neq x \rightarrow d(x, y) > \delta_x)) \right).$$

Lemma 2. If (X, d) is a metric space, then $\forall a, b, u, v, |d(a, b) - d(u, v)| \leq d(a, u) + d(b, v)$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, we assume that $d(a, b) > d(u, v)$. According to the triangle inequality (see def. 1.1), $d(a, b) \leq d(a, u) + d(u, v) + d(v, b)$, which is to prove. \square

Definition 1.2. $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+, a \in X$. Set

$$B(a; \delta) = \{x \in X \mid d(a, x) < \delta\}$$

is then called a **ball** with centre $a \in X$, and a radius of δ , or a **δ -ball** of point a .

Definition 1.3. An **open set** $G \subset X$ in metric space (X, d) satisfies: $\forall x \in G, \exists B(x; \delta)$, s.t. $B(x; \delta) \subset G$.

Definition 1.4. A set $F \subset X$ in metric space (X, d) is said to be a **closed set** if its complement $\mathbb{C}_X(F)$ is open.

It can be proved that \emptyset and X itself is both open and closed.

Proposition 1. a) An infinite union of open sets is an open set.

b) A finite intersection of open sets is an open set.

c) A finite union of closed sets is a closed set.

d) An infinite intersection of closed sets is a closed set.

- Proof.** a) If open sets $G_\alpha \subset X, \forall \alpha \in A, \forall a \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha, \exists \alpha_0 \in A, a \in G_{\alpha_0},$
 $\exists B(a; \delta) \subset G_{\alpha_0} \subset \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha.$
- b) Open sets $G_1 \cup G_2 \subset X, a \in G_1 \cap G_2,$ therefore $\exists \delta_1, \delta_2 \in \mathbb{R}_+, B(a; \delta_1) \subset G_1, B(a; \delta_2) \subset G_2,$ without loss of generality, let $\delta_1 \geq \delta_2, a \in B(a; \delta_1) \cap B(a; \delta_2) = B(a; \delta_2) \subset G_1 \cap G_2.$
- c) Just consider $\mathbb{C}_X(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} F_\alpha) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathbb{C}_X(F_\alpha)$ and a).
- d) Similarly, $\mathbb{C}_X(F_1 \cup F_2) = \mathbb{C}_X(F_1) \cap \mathbb{C}_X(F_2).$

□

1.2 Topological Space

Definition 1.5. We say X is equipped with a **topological space** or equipped with **topology** if we assigned a $\mathcal{T} \subset 2^X$, which has got the following propoties:

- a) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}; X \in \mathcal{T}.$
- b) $\forall \alpha \in A (G_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}) \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}.$
- c) $G_1 \in \mathcal{T} \wedge G_2 \in \mathcal{T} \rightarrow G_1 \cap G_2 \in \mathcal{T}.$

Then we call (X, \mathcal{T}) a **topological space**. Every $G \in \mathcal{T}$ is called an **open set**.

Definition 1.6. A topology \mathcal{T}_d insisting of the open sets in a metric space (X, d) is called a **topology induced by metric d** .

A trivial example of topological space is **trivial topology**, which consists only of empty set and the space itself, i.e. $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$. Another trivial example of topological space is **discrete topology**, which consists of all the subsets of the space i.e. $\mathcal{T} = 2^X$.

A **cofinite space** is a base set X equipped with a topology \mathcal{T} defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{T} = \{U \in 2^X \mid U = \emptyset \vee \mathbb{C}_X U \text{ is finite}\} \quad (1-5)$$

Proposition 2. The set \mathcal{T} under definition 1-5 is a topology.

Proof. a) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}, X \in \mathcal{T}.$

- b) $\forall i \in I (|\mathbb{C}_X A_i| \in \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow \forall i_0 \in I (|\bigcap_{i \in I} \mathbb{C}_X A_i| \leq |\mathbb{C}_X A_{i_0}|),$ therefore $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \in \mathcal{T}.$
- c) $\forall A \in \mathcal{T} \forall B \in \mathcal{T} (A \cap B = \emptyset \in \mathcal{T} \vee \mathbb{C}_X(A \cap B) = \mathbb{C}_X A \cup \mathbb{C}_X B \text{ is finite}),$ therefore $\forall A \in \mathcal{T} \forall B \in \mathcal{T} (A \cap B \in \mathcal{T}).$

□

Similarly, **countable complement space** can be defined.

Let X be equipped with two topology $\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2$. $\mathcal{T}_1 \cup \mathcal{T}_2$ is possibly not a topology of X . For example, $\mathcal{T}_1 = \{(x, +\infty) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\} \cup \{\emptyset, \mathbb{R}\}$ and $\mathcal{T}_2 = \{(-\infty, y) \mid y \in \mathbb{R}\} \cup \{\emptyset, \mathbb{R}\}$ are both topologies of \mathbb{R} , but there union $\mathcal{T}_1 \cup \mathcal{T}_2$ is not.

Theorem 1.1. *Let X be equipped with two topology $\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2$. Their intersection $\mathcal{T}_1 \cap \mathcal{T}_2$ is also a topology on X .*

Proof. a) $\{\emptyset, X\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_1 \wedge \{\emptyset, X\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_2 \rightarrow \{\emptyset, X\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_1 \cap \mathcal{T}_2$.

b) $\forall \alpha \in A (G_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_1 \cap \mathcal{T}_2) \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_1 \wedge \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_2$.

c) $\forall G_1 \in \mathcal{T}_1 \cap \mathcal{T}_2 \forall G_2 \in \mathcal{T}_1 \cap \mathcal{T}_2 (G_1 \cap G_2 \in \mathcal{T}_1 \wedge G_1 \cap G_2 \in \mathcal{T}_2)$

□

Definition 1.7. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space. If there exists a metric $d: X^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. (X, \mathcal{T}) is induced by d then call (X, \mathcal{T}) a **metrizable space**, (X, d) is its **metrization**.

1.3 Neighbourhood

Definition 1.8. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space. A set $U(x)$ is said to be a **neighbourhood** of a point $x \in X$ if $\exists G \in \mathcal{T} (G \subseteq U(x) \wedge x \in G)$. If $U(x) \in \mathcal{T}$, it is called a **open neighbourhood**. Subset class $\{U(x) \subseteq X \mid U(x) \text{ is a neighbourhood of } x\}$ is called the **neighbourhood system** of point x , denoted by \mathcal{U}_x

Theorem 1.2. *Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space, U is a subset of X . U is an open set iff $\forall x \in U, U$ is a neighbourhood of x .*

Proof. The necessity is trivial. $\forall x \in U \exists V(x)$ s.t. $V(x)$, being a subset of U , is a open neighbourhood of x . By definition of topology, $\bigcup_{x \in U} V(x) \in \mathcal{T}$.
 $\forall x \in U (x \in \bigcup_{x \in U} V(x)) \rightarrow U \subseteq V$, while $\forall x \in U (V(x) \subseteq U) \rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in U} V(x) \subseteq U$,
therefore $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} V(x) \in \mathcal{T}$. □

Theorem 1.3. *Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space, \mathcal{U}_x is a neighbourhood system of point $x \in X$.*

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_x \forall V \in \mathcal{U}_x (U \cap V \in \mathcal{U}_x)$$

Proof. $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_x \forall V \in \mathcal{U}_x \exists U_0 \in \mathcal{T} \exists V_0 \in \mathcal{T} (U_0 \subseteq U \wedge V_0 \subseteq V \wedge x \in U_0 \cap V_0)$,
By definition of topology, $\mathcal{T} \ni U_0 \cap V_0 \subseteq U \cap V$. □

1.4 Continuous Mappings

Definition 1.9. A mapping $f: X \rightarrow Y$, where X, Y is respectively equipped with topology $\mathcal{T}_X, \mathcal{T}_Y$, is said to be **continuous** at $x_0 \in X$ (let $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$), if $\forall U(y_0), \exists U(x_0)$ s.t. $f(U(x_0)) \subset U(y_0)$. It is **continuous** in X if it is continuous at each point $x \in X$.

The set of continuous mappings from X into Y can be denoted by $C(X, Y)$ or $C(X)$ when Y is clear.

It can be easily proved that an identify function $e_X: X \rightarrow X$ where X is equipped with a topology \mathcal{T} is a continuous function.

Theorem 1.4. (criterion of continuity)

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) , (Y, \mathcal{S}) be two topological space. A mapping $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous iff

$$\forall V \in \mathcal{S} (\exists U \in \mathcal{T} (U = f^{-1}(V))).$$

Proof. \rightarrow : It is obvious if $f^{-1}(G_Y) = \emptyset$. If $f^{-1}(G_Y) \neq \emptyset$ and $x_0 \in X$, since $f \in C(X, Y)$, for G_Y , $\exists U(x_0)$ s.t. $f(U(x_0)) \subset G_Y$. Also notice that $f(U(x_0)) \subset G_Y \Rightarrow U(x_0) \subset f^{-1}(G_Y)$, therefore $f^{-1}(G_Y)$ is open.

\leftarrow : $\forall x_0 \in X$, let $y_0 = f(x_0)$, $f^{-1}(U(y_0)) \in \mathcal{T}_X$. Notice that $x_0 \in f^{-1}(U(y_0))$, therefore $f \in C(X, Y)$. \square

Theorem 1.5. Let (X, \mathcal{T}_X) , (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y) , (Z, \mathcal{T}_Z) be topological spaces. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ are both continuous, $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$ is also continuous.

Proof.

$$\forall W \in \mathcal{T}_Z (g^{-1}(W) \in \mathcal{T}_Y) \rightarrow \forall W \in \mathcal{T}_Z (f^{-1}(g^{-1}(W)))$$

Since $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(W)) = (g \circ f)^{-1}(W)$, the theorem has been proved. \square

Definition 1.10. (X, \mathcal{T}_X) and (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y) are both topological spaces. A bijective mapping $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a **homeomorphism** if $f \in C(X, Y) \wedge f^{-1} \in C(Y, X)$.

Definition 1.11. Two topological spaces (X, \mathcal{T}_X) and (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y) are said to be **homeomorphic** if there exists a homeomorphism $f: X \rightarrow Y$.

Homeomorphic topological spaces are identical with respect to their topological properties since the theorem 1.4 has shown that their open sets correspond to each other. In fact homeomorphic relations are equivalent relations.

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