

# MATH 4431: Introduction to Topology

Frank Qiang  
Instructor: Asaf Katz

Georgia Institute of Technology  
Fall 2024

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Aug. 20 — Review of Metric Spaces</b>	<b>4</b>
1.1	Metric Spaces . . . . .	4
1.2	Open Sets . . . . .	4
<b>2</b>	<b>Aug. 22 — Topology, Basis, Continuity</b>	<b>6</b>
2.1	Topological Spaces . . . . .	6
2.2	Basis for a Topology . . . . .	6
2.3	Continuous Functions . . . . .	7
<b>3</b>	<b>Aug. 27 — Closed Sets, Continuity, the Subspace Topology</b>	<b>9</b>
3.1	Closed Sets . . . . .	9
3.2	Properties of Continuity . . . . .	10
3.3	Subspace Topology . . . . .	11
<b>4</b>	<b>Aug. 29 — Connectedness</b>	<b>13</b>
4.1	Connected Spaces . . . . .	13
4.2	Connected Sets . . . . .	14
<b>5</b>	<b>Sept. 3 — Path-Connectedness</b>	<b>16</b>
5.1	More on Connectedness . . . . .	16
5.2	Path-Connectedness . . . . .	17
<b>6</b>	<b>Sept. 5 — Compactness</b>	<b>19</b>
6.1	Note on the Subspace Topology . . . . .	19
6.2	Compactness . . . . .	19
<b>7</b>	<b>Sept. 10 — More Compactness</b>	<b>22</b>
7.1	The Cantor Set . . . . .	22
7.2	The Heine-Borel Theorem . . . . .	22
7.3	The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem . . . . .	23
<b>8</b>	<b>Sept. 12 — Separation Axioms</b>	<b>25</b>
8.1	Separation Axioms . . . . .	25
8.2	Properties of Hausdorff Spaces . . . . .	25
<b>9</b>	<b>Sept. 17 — Compactification</b>	<b>27</b>
9.1	Motivation for Compactification . . . . .	27
9.2	One-Point Compactification . . . . .	27
<b>10</b>	<b>Sept. 19 — Miscellaneous Topics</b>	<b>29</b>
10.1	Local Compactness and One-Point Compactification . . . . .	29

10.2 Distance to a Closed Set . . . . .	29
10.3 Nested Intersections in Compact Hausdorff Spaces . . . . .	30
<b>11 Sept. 24 — Product Spaces</b>	<b>32</b>
11.1 Product Spaces . . . . .	32
11.2 Properties of Product Spaces . . . . .	33
<b>12 Sept. 26 — Products and Topological Properties</b>	<b>35</b>
12.1 Connectedness and Path-Connectedness . . . . .	35
<b>13 Oct. 1 — Tychonoff's Theorem</b>	<b>36</b>
13.1 Revisiting the Cantor Set . . . . .	36
13.2 Tychonoff's Theorem . . . . .	37
13.3 Set Theory and the Axiom of Choice . . . . .	37
<b>14 Oct. 3 — Tychonoff's Theorem, Part 2</b>	<b>38</b>
14.1 Zorn's Lemma . . . . .	38
14.2 Proof of Tychonoff's Theorem . . . . .	38
<b>15 Oct. 8 — Tychonoff's Theorem, Part 3</b>	<b>41</b>
15.1 Proof of Tychonoff's Theorem, Continued . . . . .	41
15.2 Quotient Spaces . . . . .	42
<b>16 Oct. 10 — Quotient Spaces</b>	<b>43</b>
16.1 Examples of Quotient Spaces . . . . .	43
16.2 Properties of Quotient Spaces . . . . .	43
<b>17 Oct. 22 — Urysohn Metrization</b>	<b>45</b>
17.1 More Properties of Quotient Spaces . . . . .	45
17.2 More on Separation Axioms . . . . .	45
17.3 Urysohn's Metrization Theorem . . . . .	46
<b>18 Oct. 24 — Urysohn Metrization, Part 2</b>	<b>48</b>
18.1 Urysohn's Metrization Theorem, Continued . . . . .	48
<b>19 Oct. 29 — Urysohn Metrization, Part 3</b>	<b>50</b>
19.1 Proof of Urysohn's Metrization Theorem . . . . .	50
19.2 Omissions in Point-Set Topology . . . . .	51
<b>20 Oct. 31 — Algebraic Topology</b>	<b>52</b>
20.1 Introduction to Algebraic Topology . . . . .	52
20.2 Homotopy . . . . .	52
<b>21 Nov. 5 — The Fundamental Group</b>	<b>54</b>
21.1 Homotopy . . . . .	54
21.2 The Fundamental Group . . . . .	55
<b>22 Nov. 7 — The Fundamental Group, Part 2</b>	<b>56</b>
22.1 The Fundamental Group is a Group . . . . .	56

<i>CONTENTS</i>	3
22.2 Contractible Spaces and the Fundamental Group . . . . .	57
<b>23 Nov. 12 — Exam 2 Review</b>	<b>58</b>
23.1 Review Problems . . . . .	58

# Lecture 1

## Aug. 20 — Review of Metric Spaces

### 1.1 Metric Spaces

Recall the definition of a *metric space*:

**Definition 1.1.** Given a set  $X$ , a function  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a *metric* if

- (i) (strong positivity)  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$ , and  $d(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$ ,
- (ii) (symmetry)  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ ,
- (iii) and (triangle inequality)  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in X$ .

**Example 1.1.1.** For any set  $X$ , we can define the *discrete metric* by

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq y, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Verify as an exercise that this satisfies the triangle inequality.

**Example 1.1.2.** The Euclidean metric in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$d(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

where  $\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\bar{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ .

### 1.2 Open Sets

**Definition 1.2.** The *open ball* of radius  $R > 0$  around  $x_0 \in X$  is

$$B_R(x_0) = \{y \in X \mid d(x_0, y) < R\}.$$

Given a set  $S \subseteq X$ , a point  $x_0$  is called an interior point of  $S$  if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(x_0) \subseteq S$ . The set  $S$  is called *open* if all of its points are interior points.

**Proposition 1.1.** *The open ball  $B_R(x)$  is open.*

*Proof.* Fix an arbitrary  $y \in B_R(x)$ , and observe that it suffices to show that  $y$  is an interior point. Take  $r = R - d(x, y)$ , and first note that  $r > 0$  since  $d(x, y) < R$ . Now note that for all  $z \in B_r(y)$ , we have

$$d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) < d(x, y) + (R - d(x, y)) = R,$$

so that  $z \in B_R(x)$ . Thus  $B_r(y) \subseteq B_R(x)$ , and so  $y$  is an interior point.  $\square$

**Corollary 1.0.1.**  $B_R(x) = \bigcup_{y \in B_R(x)} B_{r_y}(y)$ , where  $r_y = R - d(x, y)$ .

*Proof.* We have  $B_{r_y}(y) \subseteq B_R(x)$  for each  $y \in B_R(x)$ ,<sup>1</sup> and so  $\bigcup_{y \in B_R(x)} B_{r_y}(y) \subseteq B_R(x)$ . For the reverse inclusion simply observe that  $y \in B_{r_y}(y) \subseteq \bigcup_{y \in B_R(x)} B_{r_y}(y)$  for each  $y \in B_R(x)$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 1.2.** *In a metric space  $(X, d)$ , the following are true:*

- (i)  $\emptyset, X$  are open,
- (ii) if  $\{S_i\}_{i \in I}$  are open, then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$  is open,
- (iii) and if  $\{S_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are open, then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i$  is open.

*Proof.* (i) The empty set is open vacuously. To see that  $X$  is open, simply take  $R = 1$  for any  $x \in X$ .

(ii) Fix  $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$  arbitrary, so there exists  $i_0 \in I$  with  $x \in S_{i_0}$ . Since  $S_{i_0}$  is open,  $x$  is an interior point and thus there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(x) \subseteq S_{i_0}$ . But then  $B_r(x) \subseteq S_{i_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$ , so  $x$  is an interior point of  $\bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$  also and thus  $\bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$  is open.

(iii) Now assume  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i$ . Then for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , there exists  $r_i > 0$  such that  $B_{r_i}(x) \subseteq S_i$ . Then we can choose

$$r = \min\{r_1, \dots, r_n\} > 0,$$

so that  $B_r(x) \subseteq B_{r_i}(x) \subseteq S_i$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Thus  $B_r(x) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i$  and  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n S_i$  is open.  $\square$

**Remark.** The above argument for the finite intersection property requires that there are only finitely many  $r_i$ . Otherwise it may very well be that  $r = \inf\{r_i\} = 0$  and the argument fails.

---

<sup>1</sup>Using the argument from the previous proposition.

# Lecture 2

## Aug. 22 — Topology, Basis, Continuity

### 2.1 Topological Spaces

**Definition 2.1.** A *topology*  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a collection of sets such that

- (i)  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$ ,
- (ii) for any index set  $I$ , if  $\{s_i\}_{i \in I} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} s_i \in \mathcal{T}$  (closure under arbitrary union),
- (iii) and if  $\{s_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n s_i \in \mathcal{T}$  (closure under finite intersection).

A set with a topology, i.e. a pair  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ , is called a *topological space*. Elements of  $\mathcal{T}$  are called *open sets*.

**Example 2.1.1.** The following are examples of topologies on a set  $X$ :

- The trivial topology:  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ .
- The discrete topology:  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ .<sup>1</sup>
- If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space, then  $\mathcal{T} = \{\text{collection of metrically open sets}\}$  is a topology on  $X$ .

**Remark.** Not every topology is induced by a metric. For instance consider the trivial topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

### 2.2 Basis for a Topology

**Definition 2.2.** A collection  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is called a *basis* if

- (i)  $\bigcup_{b \in \mathcal{B}} b = X$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{B}$  is a covering of  $X$ ,
- (ii) and if  $x \in b_1 \cap b_2$  for any  $b_1, b_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ , then there exists  $b_3 \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in b_3$  and  $b_3 \subseteq b_1 \cap b_2$ .

**Theorem 2.1.** Given a set  $X$  and a basis  $\mathcal{B}$ , define

$$\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}} = \left\{ \bigcup_{i \in I} s_i \mid I \text{ is any index set and } \{s_i\}_{i \in I} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \right\}.$$

Then  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$  is a topology on  $X$ .

*Proof.* First observe that  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ : Picking  $I = \emptyset$  gives  $\bigcup_{i \in I} s_i = \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$  and picking  $I = \mathcal{B}$  gives  $\bigcup_{b \in \mathcal{B}} b = X \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$  by the covering property of a basis.

---

<sup>1</sup>Note that the discrete topology is induced by the discrete metric.

Now assume  $\{s_i\}_{i \in I} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ . For each  $i \in I$ , we have  $s_i \in \mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$  and so there exists an index set  $J_i$  such that  $s_i = \bigcup_{j \in J_i} b_j$ , where the  $b_j \in \mathcal{B}$ . Then

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} s_i = \bigcup_{i \in I} \bigcup_{j \in J_i} b_j,$$

which is a union of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  and hence is in  $\mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ .

Finally assume  $\{s_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ . Now as each  $s_i \in \mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$ , there exists  $J_i$  such that  $s_i = \bigcup_{j \in J_i} b_j$ . Then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n s_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j \in J_i} b_j.$$

Now assume  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n s_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j \in J_i} b_j$ . For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , there exists  $j_i \in J_i$  such that  $x \in b_{j_i}$ . Hence  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n b_{j_i}$ . Now by induction on the intersection property of a basis, we can find  $b_x \in \mathcal{B}$  with

$$x \in b_x \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n b_{j_i}$$

Also observe that

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n b_{j_i} \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j \in J_i} b_j = \bigcap_{i=1}^n s_i$$

by construction, so we may write

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n s_i = \bigcup_{x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n s_i} b_x \in \mathcal{T}_\mathcal{B}$$

as a union of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . □

**Definition 2.3.** A *subbasis*  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a collection of sets such that  $\bigcup_{b \in \mathcal{B}} b = X$ .

**Remark.** One may define a basis  $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$  from a subbasis  $\mathcal{B}$  by adding all finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . We get the covering property for free and adding the finite intersections gives us the intersection property of a basis.

**Example 2.3.1.** For  $\mathbb{R}$  with the Euclidean metric, the following are bases for the standard topology:

- $\{B_R(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}, R > 0\}$ .
- $\{B_R(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}, R > 0, R \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ . For this use the fact that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

In particular this shows that a basis for a topology is not unique in general.

## 2.3 Continuous Functions

**Definition 2.4.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be two topological spaces. A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called *continuous* if for any  $O \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ , we have  $f^{-1}(O) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ , i.e. the preimage of an open set is open.<sup>2</sup>

**Example 2.4.1.** Let  $X$  be equipped with the trivial topology  $\{\emptyset, X\}$  and let  $\mathbb{R}$  be equipped with the standard topology. Then the only continuous functions  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are the constant functions  $f : x \mapsto c$  for fixed  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . To see this, observe that

---

<sup>2</sup>Recall that  $f^{-1}(O) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in O\}$ .



- $x \mapsto c$  is continuous since any open set in  $\mathbb{R}$  either contains  $c$  or does not, and so the preimage is either  $X$  or  $\emptyset$ .
- Suppose  $f(x_1) = y_1$  and  $f(x_2) = y_2$ . Let  $\epsilon = |y_1 - y_2|$  and observe that  $x_1 \in f^{-1}(B_\epsilon(y_1))$  while  $x_2 \notin f^{-1}(B_\epsilon(y_1))$ , so  $f^{-1}(B_\epsilon(y_1))$  is not open in  $X$  despite  $B_\epsilon(y_1)$  being open in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 2.4.2.** Let  $X$  have the discrete topology  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$  and let  $\mathbb{R}$  have the standard topology. Then all functions  $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuous since any preimage is a subset of  $X$  and thus in  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ .

**Remark.** In a way, the trivial topology has too few open sets while the discrete topology has too many.

**Definition 2.5.** Two topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are *topologically equivalent* or *homeomorphic* if there exists a bijection  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $f$  and  $f^{-1}$  are continuous.

**Remark.** A bijective function  $f$  being continuous does not necessarily imply that its inverse  $f^{-1}$  is.

**Example 2.5.1.** Consider  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$  equipped with the Euclidean metric. This is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}$  equipped with the Euclidean metric.<sup>3</sup> One homeomorphism is given by  $\tan : (-\pi/2, \pi/2) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

---

<sup>3</sup>Note that  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$  is bounded while  $\mathbb{R}$  is not.

# Lecture 3

## Aug. 27 — Closed Sets, Continuity, the Subspace Topology

### 3.1 Closed Sets

**Definition 3.1.** A set  $S \subseteq X$  is called a *closed set* if  $S^c = X \setminus S$  is open.

**Example 3.1.1.** In  $\mathbb{R}$ , observe that  $[a, b]^c = (-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$ , which is a union of open sets and thus open. Thus the closed intervals  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  are closed.

**Remark.** This is not a dichotomy. Sets can be both open and closed (*clopen*), or even neither. Trivially, if  $X$  is any topological space, then  $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are both open and closed.

**Example 3.1.2.** Let  $X = \{0, 1\}$  and  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ . Then  $\{0\}$  is both open and closed.

**Example 3.1.3.** Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}\}$ . Then  $\{2\}$  is neither open nor closed.

Recall the following De Morgan's laws from set theory:

**Proposition 3.1** (De Morgan's laws). *Let  $I$  be an index set and  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  be sets. Then*

$$\left( \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c = \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i^c \quad \text{and} \quad \left( \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i^c.$$

**Corollary 3.0.1.** *In a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ , we have:*

- (i)  $\emptyset, X$  are closed.
- (ii) if  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  are closed, then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$  is closed,
- (iii) and if  $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are closed, then so is  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ .

*This gives a dual characterization of a topology.*

*Proof.* (i) We have  $\emptyset^c = X \in \mathcal{T}$  and  $X^c = \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ .

(ii) Note that

$$\left( \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i^c.$$

As each  $A_i$  is closed, we have  $A_i^c \in \mathcal{T}$  is open, and hence  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i^c \in \mathcal{T}$  is open. So  $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$  is closed.

(iii) Observe that

$$\left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c.$$

Each  $A_i$  is closed, so  $A_i^c$  is open. Thus  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c$  is open, and so  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  is closed.  $\square$

## 3.2 Properties of Continuity

Recall that a function  $f : (X, \mathcal{T}_X) \rightarrow (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is continuous if for every  $O \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ , we have  $f^{-1}(O) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ .

**Theorem 3.1.** *A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if and only if for every  $C$  closed in  $Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(C)$  is closed in  $X$ .*

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $C \subseteq Y$  be closed. Note that

$$f^{-1}(C) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in C\},$$

so we have

$$(f^{-1}(C))^c = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \notin C\} = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in C^c\} = f^{-1}(C^c).$$

Since  $C$  is closed,  $C^c$  is open and so  $f^{-1}(C^c) = (f^{-1}(C))^c$  is open. Thus  $f^{-1}(C)$  is closed.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume  $S \subseteq Y$  is open. Note that

$$(f^{-1}(S))^c = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in S\}^c = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \notin S\} = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in S^c\} = f^{-1}(S^c).$$

Since  $S$  is open,  $S^c$  is closed and so  $f^{-1}(S^c) = (f^{-1}(S))^c$  is closed by assumption. Thus  $f^{-1}(S)$  is open, and so we see that  $f$  is continuous.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.2** (Composition theorem). *Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$ ,  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ , and  $(Z, \mathcal{T}_Z)$  be topological spaces. Let*

$$f : X \rightarrow Y \quad \text{and} \quad g : Y \rightarrow Z$$

*be continuous functions. Then  $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$  is continuous.*

*Proof.* Let  $S \subseteq Z$  be open. It suffices to show that  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(S) \subseteq X$  is open. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} (g \circ f)^{-1}(S) &= \{x \in X \mid (g \circ f)(x) \in S\} = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in g^{-1}(S)\} \\ &= \{x \in X \mid x \in f^{-1}(g^{-1}(S))\} = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(S)). \end{aligned}$$

Now as  $g$  is continuous,  $g^{-1}(S)$  is open in  $Y$ . Finally as  $f$  is continuous,  $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(S))$  is open in  $X$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.3.** *Assume  $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$  for open sets  $U_\alpha$  and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ . Assume that  $f|_{U_\alpha} : U_\alpha \rightarrow Y$  is continuous for each  $\alpha \in I$ . Then  $f$  is continuous.*

*Proof.* Let  $S \subseteq Y$  be open, and it suffices to show that  $f^{-1}(S)$  is open. Observe that

$$f^{-1}(S) = f^{-1}(S) \cap X = f^{-1}(S) \cap \left( \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (f^{-1}(S) \cap U_\alpha) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} f|_{U_\alpha}^{-1}(S).$$

The  $f|_{U_\alpha}$  are continuous, so each  $f|_{U_\alpha}^{-1}(S)$  is open. Thus  $f^{-1}(S)$  is open as a union of open sets.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.4** (Pasting lemma). *Assume  $X, Y$  are topological spaces and  $A, B \subseteq X$  are open. Suppose  $f_1 : A \rightarrow Y$  and  $f_2 : B \rightarrow Y$  are continuous, and that  $f_1 \equiv f_2$  on  $A \cap B$ . Then  $f : A \cup B \rightarrow Y$  defined by*

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x) & \text{if } x \in A, \\ f_2(x) & \text{if } x \in B \end{cases}$$

*is continuous.*

*Proof.* Let  $S \subseteq Y$  be open, it suffices to show that  $f^{-1}(S)$  is open. Observe that

$$f^{-1}(S) = f_1^{-1}(S) \cup f_2^{-1}(S).$$

Both  $f_1^{-1}(S)$  and  $f_2^{-1}(S)$  are open since  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are continuous, so  $f^{-1}(S)$  is open as their union.  $\square$

### 3.3 Subspace Topology

**Definition 3.2.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  be a topological space and  $S \subseteq X$  a set. The *subspace topology* on  $S$  is defined as follows:  $O \subseteq S$  is open if there exists  $U \subseteq X$  open in  $X$  such that  $U = O \cap S$ .

**Example 3.2.1.** Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be given the metric topology and  $S = [0, 1]$ .

- The set  $[0, 1]$  is not open in  $\mathbb{R}$ , but it is open in the subspace topology on  $S$  since  $[0, 1] = S \cap (-1, 2)$ .
- The set  $[0, 1/2)$  is neither open nor closed in  $\mathbb{R}$ , but  $[0, 1/2) = S \cap (-1/2, 1/2)$ , so it is open in  $S$ .

**Theorem 3.5.** *The subspace topology is indeed a topology.*

*Proof.* Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  be a topological space and  $S \subseteq X$  be given the subspace topology.

(i) We have  $S = S \cap X$  and  $\emptyset = \emptyset \cap X$ , so  $S, \emptyset$  are open in  $S$ .

(ii) Let  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  be open in the subspace topology. Then for every  $\alpha \in I$ , there exists  $O_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$  such that  $U_\alpha = S \cap O_\alpha$ . Then

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (S \cap O_\alpha) = S \cap \left( \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_\alpha \right).$$

The  $\{O_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  are open in  $X$ , so their union is open in  $X$ . Thus  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$  is open in the subspace topology.

(iii) Let  $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^n$  be open in the subspace topology. Then there are  $O_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  with  $U_i = S \cap O_i$ . Then we have

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (S \cap O_i) = S \cap \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n O_i \right).$$

As the  $O_i \in \mathcal{T}$  are open,  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n O_i$  is open in  $X$ . Thus  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$  is open in the subspace topology.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.6.** *Assume  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a continuous function and  $S \subseteq X$  a subspace. Then  $f|_S : S \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, where  $S$  is equipped with the subspace topology.*

*Proof.* Let  $O \subseteq Y$  be an open set, it suffices to show that  $f|_S^{-1}(O)$  is open in the subspace topology. But observing that  $f|_S^{-1}(O) = f^{-1}(O) \cap S$  immediately shows that  $f|_S^{-1}(O)$  is open in  $S$  since  $f^{-1}(O)$  is open in  $X$  due to the continuity of  $f$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** The subspace topology is the smallest topology on  $S$  such that the inclusion map  $i : S \rightarrow X$  given by  $i(s) = s$  is a continuous function.

**Remark.** Let  $X$  be a topological space with subspaces  $Y \subseteq X$  and  $Z \subseteq Y$ . Then the subspace topology on  $Z$  induced by the subspace  $Y$  is the same as the subspace topology on  $Z$  induced directly by  $X$ .

**Remark.** A topological space can have a subspace homeomorphic to itself. For instance, consider  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$  with a homeomorphism given by the tangent function.

# Lecture 4

## Aug. 29 — Connectedness

### 4.1 Connected Spaces

**Definition 4.1.** A *separation* of a topological space  $X$  is two open, nonempty sets  $U, V \subseteq X$  such that  $X = U \cup V$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ . A space is called *connected* if there is no separation of the space.

**Proposition 4.1.** If  $X$  is separated, i.e.  $X = U \cup V$  with  $U, V$  open and disjoint, then  $U$  and  $V$  are both open and closed.

*Proof.* Observe that  $U$  is open by assumption, and we have

$$U^c = X \setminus U = V,$$

which is also open by assumption. Hence  $U$  is closed. The case for  $V$  is identical.  $\square$

**Example 4.1.1.** Consider the following:

- The singleton space  $\{x\}$  is connected. There are no two nonempty, disjoint open sets.
- Consider the space  $X = \{0, 1\}$ . This case depends on the choice of topology:
  1. With the trivial topology  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ , the space is connected.
  2. With the discrete topology  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{1\}, \{0\}\}$ ,  $X$  is disconnected since  $X = \{0\} \cup \{1\}$ .
  3. With the topology  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{1\}\}$ , the space is connected. The only nonempty sets  $\{1\}, X$  are not disjoint and thus there can be no separation.

**Theorem 4.1.** A space  $X$  is disconnected if and only if there exists a surjective map  $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  with the discrete topology.

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) If  $X$  is disconnected, then we may write  $X = U \cup V$  with  $U, V$  open, disjoint, and nonempty. Then define

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in U, \\ 1 & x \in V, \end{cases}$$

which is surjective as  $U, V$  are nonempty. To see that  $f$  is continuous, observe that

$$f^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset, \quad f^{-1}(\{0, 1\}) = X, \quad f^{-1}(\{0\}) = U, \quad f^{-1}(\{1\}) = V,$$

each of which are open. These are all of the open sets in the discrete topology, so  $f$  is continuous.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume there exists a surjective and continuous map  $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . Define

$$U = f^{-1}(\{0\}) \quad \text{and} \quad V = f^{-1}(\{1\}),$$

which are open since  $f$  is continuous. Observe that  $U, V \neq \emptyset$  since  $f$  is surjective. Also  $U \cap V = \emptyset$  since if there is any  $x \in U \cap V$ , then  $f(x) = 0$  as  $x \in U$  and  $f(x) = 1$  as  $x \in V$ , a contradiction. Finally,  $X = U \cup V$  since  $f(x) = 0$  or  $f(x) = 1$  for every  $x \in X$ , i.e.  $x \in U$  or  $x \in V$ . So  $X$  is disconnected.  $\square$

## 4.2 Connected Sets

**Definition 4.2.** Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $S \subseteq X$ . Then  $S$  is called *connected* if it is connected in the subspace topology.

**Theorem 4.2.** If  $A, B$  are connected sets and  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ , then  $A \cup B$  is connected.

*Proof.* Assume not. Then there exists a continuous, surjective map  $f : A \cup B \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  with the discrete topology. Consider  $f|_A : A \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , which is continuous in the subspace topology. Notice that  $f(A)$  cannot be  $\{0, 1\}$  since otherwise  $A$  is disconnected. Without loss of generality, assume  $f(A) = \{0\}$  since  $A$  is nonempty. Now consider  $f|_B : B \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , which is also continuous. Similarly, notice that  $f(B)$  cannot be  $\{0, 1\}$ . But there exists  $p \in A \cap B$ , and  $f(p) = 0$  as  $p \in A$ . Then since  $p \in B$ , we must have  $f(B) = \{0\}$ . But then we get that  $f(A \cup B) = \{0\} \neq \{0, 1\}$ , a contradiction to surjectivity.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.2.1.** A union of connected sets with “common points” is connected.

*Proof.* Run induction (transfinite if the union is infinite) using the previous theorem.  $\square$

**Theorem 4.3.** Closed intervals in  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  with the metric topology are connected.

*Proof.* Assume otherwise that  $[a, b] = U \cup V$  with  $U, V$  disjoint, open, and nonempty. Assume without loss of generality that  $a \in U$ . Since  $V$  is nonempty, there exists  $c > a$  such that  $c \in V$ . Now consider  $[a, c] \subseteq [a, b]$  with  $U_1 = U \cap [a, c]$  and  $V_1 = V \cap [a, c]$ . By the least upper bound property of  $\mathbb{R}$ , since  $U_1$  is nonempty and bounded from above, there exists  $s = \sup U_1$  with  $s \leq c$ . Now either  $s \in U_1$  or  $s \notin U_1$ .

If  $s \in U_1$  (note this implies  $s \neq c$ ), then  $s$  is an interior point of  $U_1$  since  $U_1$  is open. So one may find a point  $t$  such that  $t > s$  and  $t \in U_1$ . But then  $s$  is no longer an upper bound of  $U_1$ , a contradiction.

Otherwise  $s \notin U_1$ . Since  $U_1, V_1$  cover  $[a, c]$ , we must then have  $s \in V_1$  (note this implies  $s \neq a$ ). Since  $V_1$  is open,  $s$  is an interior point of  $V_1$ , and thus there exists  $t < s$  such that  $t \in V_1$  and  $t$  is an upper bound for  $U_1$ . This contradicts  $s$  being the least upper bound of  $U_1$ .

Since both cases lead to contradictions, we conclude that  $[a, b]$  must be connected.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.3.1.** Open intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$  are connected, and  $\mathbb{R}$  itself is connected.

*Proof.* For some  $N_0 \geq 1$  (for instance choose  $N_0 \geq 2/(b-a)$ ) we can write

$$(a, b) = \bigcup_{n=N_0}^{\infty} \left[ a + \frac{1}{n}, b - \frac{1}{n} \right],$$

Each of these closed intervals is connected by the previous theorem, and thus the union is connected by Corollary 4.2.1 since they overlap. Similarly writing  $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [-n, n]$  shows that  $\mathbb{R}$  is connected.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.3.2** (Intermediate value theorem). *Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then for any  $f(a) < t < f(b)$ , there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = t$ .*

*Proof.* Assume not. We can consider the open sets  $(-\infty, t)$  and  $(t, \infty)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $f^{-1}((-\infty, t))$  and  $f^{-1}((t, \infty))$  are open sets since  $f$  is continuous. They are clearly disjoint (since  $f$  must be well-defined), and also nonempty since  $a \in f^{-1}((-\infty, t))$  and  $b \in f^{-1}((t, \infty))$ . Also since  $f^{-1}(\{t\}) = \emptyset$  by assumption,

$$[a, b] = f^{-1}((-\infty, t)) \cup f^{-1}((t, \infty)).$$

But this is a separation of  $[a, b]$ , a contradiction since  $[a, b]$  is connected.  $\square$

**Proposition 4.2.** *The open interval  $(0, 1)$  is not homeomorphic to the closed interval  $[0, 1]$ .*

*Proof.* Removing any point from  $(0, 1)$  disconnects it, but  $[0, 1] = [0, 1] \setminus \{1\}$  remains connected.<sup>1</sup>  $\square$

**Proposition 4.3.** *The real line  $\mathbb{R}$  is not homeomorphic to the plane  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for any  $n \geq 2$ .*

*Proof.* Removing a point from  $\mathbb{R}$  disconnects it but the same is not true for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  when  $n \geq 2$ .  $\square$

---

<sup>1</sup>To see that  $[0, 1]$  is connected, we can write  $[0, 1] = \bigcup_{n=2}^{\infty} [0, 1 - 1/n]$ .



# Lecture 5

## Sept. 3 — Path-Connectedness

### 5.1 More on Connectedness

**Remark.** The intervals  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  are homeomorphic to  $[0, 1]$  for any  $a < b$ . We can take  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}(x-a)$$

for instance as a homeomorphism.

**Lemma 5.1.** *If  $X$  is connected and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, then  $f(X)$  is connected.*

*Proof.* This is part of Homework 2. □

**Corollary 5.0.1.** *The plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is connected.*

*Proof.* Express  $\mathbb{R}^2$  as the union of horizontal and vertical lines. Each line is the image of  $\mathbb{R}$  and is thus connected by Lemma 5.1. Also any pair of horizontal and vertical lines must intersect, so we can use Corollary 4.2.1 to conclude that the union  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is connected. □

**Remark.** We can extend this to  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by embedding planes (copies of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ), and similarly for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Proposition 5.1.** *The unit circle  $\mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  is connected.*

*Proof.* Define  $\gamma : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $\gamma(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$ . The image of  $\gamma$  is precisely  $\mathbb{S}^1$ . □

**Proposition 5.2.** *Define a relation  $\sim$  on  $X$  by  $x \sim y$  if there exists a connected subset  $S \subseteq X$  such that  $x, y \in S$ . Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.*

*Proof.* For reflexivity, fix  $x \in X$  and let  $S$  be the largest connected set containing  $x$  (this exists since we know at least  $\{x\}$  must be connected). Then  $x \in S$ , so  $x \sim x$ .

For symmetry, fix  $x, y \in X$ . If  $x \sim y$ , then there exists a connected set  $S$  such that  $x, y \in S$ . But then  $y, x \in S$ , so we see that  $y \sim x$ .

For transitivity, assume that  $x \sim y$  and  $y \sim z$ . Then there exists  $S_1$  connected such that  $x, y \in S_1$  and  $S_2$  connected such that  $y, z \in S_2$ . Notice that  $S_1 \cap S_2 \neq \emptyset$  since  $y \in S_1 \cap S_2$ . Then  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is connected by Theorem 4.2 and  $x, y, z \in S_1 \cup S_2$ . In particular,  $x, z \in S_1 \cup S_2$  and thus  $x \sim z$ .

So we see that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation. □

**Definition 5.1.** Let the equivalence relation  $\sim$  be defined on  $X$  as in Proposition 5.2. Then we can write  $X$  as the disjoint union of the equivalence classes of  $\sim$ . These equivalence classes are called the *connected components* of  $X$ .

**Remark.** The connected components of a space are defined solely via topologies, so they must be invariant under homeomorphism.

**Example 5.1.1.** The letter  $S$ , sitting in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , is not homeomorphic to the letter  $T$ . There is a point we can remove from  $T$  to give three connected components, but removing any point from  $S$  gives at most two such connected components.

## 5.2 Path-Connectedness

**Remark.** Connectedness is usually a very difficult property to verify. This motivates *path-connectedness*.

**Definition 5.2.** A set  $S$  is *path-connected* if for all  $x, y \in S$ , there exists a continuous map  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow S$  such that  $\gamma(0) = x$  and  $\gamma(1) = y$ . Here  $[0, 1]$  is given the usual metric topology.

**Lemma 5.2.** *If  $S$  is path-connected, then  $S$  is connected.*

*Proof.* This is part of Homework 2. □

**Remark.** Unlike connectedness, it is immediately obvious that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is path-connected. Simply take the line segment between any two points. Then we can conclude connectedness by the previous lemma.

**Example 5.2.1.** There are spaces which are connected but not path-connected.

- Consider the *topologist's sine curve*, given by the union of the vertical segment  $\{(0, y) \mid -1 \leq y \leq 1\}$  and the image of  $(0, \infty)$  under  $x \mapsto (x, \sin(1/x))$ , is an example of such a space. See Homework 2 for more details.
- Consider the *cone*  $C$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  defined by ( $(0, 1)$  denotes an open interval unless otherwise specified)

$$C = ([0, 1] \times \{0\}) \cup (K \times [0, 1]) \cup (\{0\} \times [0, 1]),$$

where  $K = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Note that  $C$  is clearly path-connected and hence also connected. Then define the space

$$D = C \setminus (\{0\} \times (0, 1)),$$

which is now not path-connected (consider the point  $(0, 1) \in D$ ) but still connected.

**Remark.** Observe the following:

- One can define *path-connected components* in a similar manner as connected components.
- A continuous image of a path-connected space is path-connected. Simply compose the curve with the continuous map, which is now a path in the image.
- The union of path-connected spaces sharing a point is path-connected. Take two curves to the common point and concatenate them using the pasting lemma.
- In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , connectedness is equivalent to path-connectedness. In general, this holds if you can get a basis of only connected sets.

**Remark.** Recall from homework that if  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is continuous, then  $f$  has a fixed point, i.e. there exists  $c \in [0, 1]$  with  $f(c) = c$ . This follows from a clever use of the intermediate value theorem. Now consider a more topological perspective. Consider the diagonal  $\{(x, x) \mid x \in [0, 1]\}$  and look at the graph of  $f$ , which is contained in the closed unit square. This graph is path-connected as the image of a path-connected set and so there is a path between the points  $(0, f(0))$  and  $(1, f(1))$ . But then this path must intersect the diagonal at some point, which gives a fixed point.

**Theorem 5.1.** (*Brouwer fixed point theorem*) *Let  $K$  be a closed, bounded, and convex set in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then any continuous map  $f : K \rightarrow K$  has a fixed point, i.e. there exists  $c \in K$  such that  $f(c) = c$ .*

**Remark.** One can see the existence of the Nash equilibrium as a consequence of this theorem.

**Remark.** In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , this theorem follows from the following claim. Let  $X = \text{maps}(\mathbb{S}^1, \mathbb{S}^1)$  be the set of all continuous maps from  $\mathbb{S}^1$  to itself. Then Brouwer's fixed point theorem in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  follows from the following:

**Theorem 5.2.** *The space  $\text{maps}(\mathbb{S}^1, \mathbb{S}^1)$  is not path connected.*

# Lecture 6

## Sept. 5 — Compactness

### 6.1 Note on the Subspace Topology

**Remark.** Let  $X$  be a topological space with topology  $\mathcal{T}_X$ , and let  $Y \subseteq X$  be a subset endowed with a topology  $\tau$ . Suppose that for any continuous  $f : X \rightarrow Z$ , there exists a continuous  $\tilde{f} : Y \rightarrow Z$  such that the following diagram commutes,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Z \\ i \uparrow & \nearrow \tilde{f} & \\ Y & & \end{array}$$

where  $i : Y \rightarrow X$  is the inclusion map.<sup>1</sup> Then in Homework 2 we showed that  $\mathcal{T}_Y \subseteq \tau$ . We can see this as a *universal property* for the subspace topology.

### 6.2 Compactness

**Definition 6.1.** A set  $C \subseteq X$  is called *compact* if for any *open cover*

$$C \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_{\alpha}, \quad \text{each } U_{\alpha} \text{ is open,}$$

there exists a finite subcover  $C \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i}$ .

**Example 6.1.1.** Consider the following:

- In a finite topology, any set is compact. This is because any open cover is already finite.
- In a discrete space, i.e.  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ , compact sets are precisely the finite sets. It is clear that finite sets are compact, for each  $x$  choose a single open set in the cover containing  $x$ . Conversely, if a set is compact, we can pick our open cover to contain only singletons, and the existence of a finite subcover means that the set has only finitely many elements.

**Theorem 6.1** (Heine-Borel). *Let  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a subset, where  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is given the metric topology. Then  $C$  is compact if and only if  $C$  is closed and bounded.*

*Proof.* We postpone this proof until later. □

**Lemma 6.1.** *Let  $X$  be compact. If  $Y \subseteq X$  is closed, then  $Y$  is compact.*

---

<sup>1</sup>Note that at least set-theoretically, this immediately defines  $\tilde{f} = f|_Y$ . But a priori we do not know that  $\tilde{f}$  is continuous.

*Proof.* Let  $Y \subseteq X$  closed be given, and assume that  $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$  an open cover. Since  $Y$  is closed, its complement  $Y^c$  is open. Then

$$Y^c \cup \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$$

is an open cover of  $X$  since  $X = Y \cup Y^c$ . Since  $X$  is compact, there exists a finite subcover

$$X \subseteq Y^c \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i}.$$

Now observe that  $Y \subseteq X$  and  $Y \cap Y^c = \emptyset$ , so actually  $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i}$ , which is a finite subcover.  $\square$

**Theorem 6.2.** *Let  $X$  be compact and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  continuous. Then  $f(X)$  is compact.*

*Proof.* Consider  $f(X) \subseteq Y$  and let  $f(X) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha$ , an open cover in  $Y$ . Notice that

$$X = f^{-1}(f(X)) \subseteq f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} f^{-1}(V_\alpha).$$

Note that each  $f^{-1}(V_\alpha)$  is open in  $X$  since  $f$  is continuous and  $V_\alpha$  is open in  $Y$ , so this is in fact an open cover of  $X$ . Thus since  $X$  is compact, we may extract a finite subcover

$$X \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_i}).$$

Then we see that

$$f(X) \subseteq f\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_i})\right) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{\alpha_i},$$

which is a finite subcover of  $f(X)$ . Therefore  $f(X)$  is compact.  $\square$

**Theorem 6.3.** *Assume  $\{C_j\}_{j=1}^m$  are compact subsets of  $X$ . Then  $\bigcup_{j=1}^m C_j$  is compact.*

*Proof.* Assume  $\bigcup_{j=1}^m C_j \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ , an open cover. Observe this is also an open cover of  $C_j$  for each  $1 \leq j \leq m$ , so we can extract a finite subcover, i.e. we can find  $\alpha_{j,1}, \dots, \alpha_{j,n_j}$  with

$$C_j \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_j} U_{\alpha_{j,i}}.$$

Then we see that

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^m C_j \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^m \bigcup_{i=1}^{n_j} U_{\alpha_{j,i}},$$

which is still a finite union. This is then a finite subcover of  $\bigcup_{j=1}^m C_j$ , so  $\bigcup_{j=1}^m C_j$  is compact.  $\square$

**Theorem 6.4 (Weierstrass).** *Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous. Then  $f([a, b])$  is bounded, and moreover there exist  $x_{\max}, x_{\min} \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(x_{\max}) \geq f(x) \geq f(x_{\min})$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $f$  is continuous and  $[a, b]$  is compact (by Heine-Borel),  $f([a, b]) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact. Thus by Heine-Borel,  $f([a, b])$  is bounded. In particular, we can find  $M, m$  such that

$$m \leq f(x) \leq M \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b].$$

For the second part, observe that  $f([a, b])$  is bounded and nonempty, so  $s = \sup f([a, b])$ . Since this is the supremum, there must exist  $y_i \in f([a, b])$  such that  $y_i \rightarrow s$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ . Now observe that  $f([a, b])$  is closed by Heine-Borel, and in particular it contains its limit points. Thus we obtain  $s \in f([a, b])$ . Then pick  $x_{\max} \in f^{-1}(\{s\}) \subseteq [a, b]$ , which will satisfy  $f(x_{\max}) = s \geq f(x)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . by construction.

The argument for finding  $x_{\min} \in [a, b]$  is similar. □

**Theorem 6.5.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space,  $K \subseteq X$  compact, and  $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  a continuous function. Then  $f$  is bounded over  $K$  and attains its minimum and maximum on  $K$ .*

*Proof.* The same argument goes through, replacing  $[a, b]$  by the compact set  $K$ . □

# Lecture 7

## Sept. 10 — More Compactness

### 7.1 The Cantor Set

Define  $I_0 = [0, 1]$  and remove the open middle-thirds interval to get

$$I_1 = [0, 1] \setminus (1/3, 2/3) = [0, 1/3] \cup [2/3, 1].$$

Continue by removing the middle thirds of each interval to get  $I_2, I_3, \dots$ . Then the *Cantor set* is defined to be  $K = \bigcap_{n \geq 0} I_n$ . The Cantor set is compact and uncountable. See more on Homework 3.

### 7.2 The Heine-Borel Theorem

**Theorem 7.1** (Heine-Borel). *If  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $C$  is compact if and only if  $C$  is closed and bounded.*

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) This direction is easy, see Homework 3 for details.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) First we show that  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact. Let  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  be an open cover for  $[a, b]$ , i.e.  $[a, b] \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ . Now define

$$R = \{x \in [a, b] \mid [a, x] \text{ has a finite subcover}\}$$

Clearly  $a \in R$  since  $a \in [a, b] \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ , so picking any single  $U_\alpha$  with  $a \in U_\alpha$  gives a finite subcover for  $[a, a] = \{a\}$ . The goal is now to show that  $b \in R$ . Observe that  $a \in R$  implies  $R \neq \emptyset$ , and  $R \subseteq [a, b]$ , so

$$s = \sup R$$

exists by the completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$ . We proceed to show that  $s \in R$  and then  $s = b$ , which will show that  $b \in R$ . As  $s \in [a, b] \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ , we can find  $\alpha_s$  such that  $s \in U_{\alpha_s}$ . Since  $U_{\alpha_s}$  is open, we can find  $\delta > 0$  such that  $(s - \delta, s + \delta) \subseteq U_{\alpha_s}$ . Then since  $s$  is a least upper bound of  $R$ , we can find  $r \in R$  such that  $s - \delta < r \leq s$ . Now since  $r \in R$ ,  $[a, r]$  admits a finite subcover  $\{U_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^n$ . Then

$$[a, s] = [a, r] \cup (s - \delta, s] \subseteq \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i} \right) \cup U_{\alpha_s}$$

is a finite subcover for  $[a, s]$ , so  $s \in R$ . Now observe that we actually covered

$$\left[ a, s + \frac{\delta}{2} \right] = [a, r] \cup (s - \delta, s + \delta) \subseteq \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i} \right) \cup U_{\alpha_s}$$

in the previous construction. Then  $s + \delta/2 \in R$ , which contradicts the minimality of  $s$  unless  $s = b$ . Thus  $b \in R$ , so  $[a, b]$  admits a finite subcover and thus  $[a, b]$  is compact.

Now let  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an arbitrary closed and bounded set. Since  $C$  is bounded, there exists  $I = (a, b)$  such that  $C \subseteq I$ . But then  $C \subseteq I \subseteq \bar{I} = [a, b]$ , so  $C$  is a closed subset of a compact set, hence compact.  $\square$

**Remark.** The Heine-Borel theorem also holds more generally in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . A later theorem will say that the product of compact sets is compact in the product topology, and thus we can run the same argument as above but with boxes in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  instead of intervals.

### 7.3 The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

**Definition 7.1.** A point  $x$  is an *accumulation point* for a set  $S$  if for all open sets  $U$  containing  $x$ , we have  $(U \setminus \{x\}) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ .

**Remark.** We disallow constant sequences when talking about accumulation points.

**Proposition 7.1.** Let  $\text{Acc}(A)$  be the set of accumulation points of a set  $A$ . Then  $\bar{A} = A \cup \text{Acc}(A)$ .

*Proof.* We show that  $A \cup \text{Acc}(A)$  is closed, which will imply  $\bar{A} \subseteq A \cup \text{Acc}(A)$  by the minimality of the closure. Write

$$(A \cup \text{Acc}(A))^c = A^c \cap \text{Acc}(A)^c.$$

Now assume  $x \in A^c \cap \text{Acc}(A)^c$ . Since  $x \notin \text{Acc}(A)$ , there exists  $U_x$  open such that  $x \in U_x$  and

$$(A \setminus \{x\}) \cap U_x = \emptyset.$$

But also  $x \notin A$ , so  $A \setminus \{x\} = A$  and  $A \cap U_x = \emptyset$ . Then we can write

$$(A \cup \text{Acc}(A))^c = A^c \cap \text{Acc}(A)^c = \bigcup_{x \in A^c \cap \text{Acc}(A)^c} U_x.$$

This is a union of open sets, hence open, and so  $A \cup \text{Acc}(A)$  is closed.

For the other direction, assume  $x \in A \cup \text{Acc}(A)$ . If  $x \in A$ , we are done, so assume  $x \in \text{Acc}(A) \setminus A$ . Now assume otherwise that  $x \notin \bar{A}$ . Then  $x \in (\bar{A})^c$ , which is open. Set  $U = (\bar{A})^c$ , so that

$$U \cap (A \setminus \{x\}) = U \cap A = \emptyset.$$

But then this says that  $x$  is not an accumulation point, in contradiction.  $\square$

**Definition 7.2.** We say that a topological space  $X$  is *sequentially compact* if every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

**Theorem 7.2** (Bolzano-Weierstrass). Any bounded infinite set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  has an accumulation point.

*Proof.* Since  $S$  is bounded, find a compact set containing  $S$ . Then apply the later Theorem 7.4.  $\square$

**Remark.** In general, compactness is *not* equivalent to sequential compactness, but both imply the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem. However, in many spaces (including metric spaces, in particular), the two notions coincide (and are also equivalent to the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem).



**Theorem 7.3.** *A sequentially compact space has the Bolzano-Weierstrass property, namely that any bounded infinite set has an accumulation point.*

*Proof.* This is easy, pick a countable subset (i.e. a sequence) and apply sequential compactness.  $\square$

**Theorem 7.4.** *A compact space has the Bolzano-Weierstrass property, namely that any infinite set has an accumulation point.*

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be an infinite set in  $X$ , where  $X$  is compact. Assume otherwise that  $A$  has no accumulation points in  $X$ . Then there is no accumulation point for  $A$  outside of  $A$ , so  $\text{Acc}(A) \subseteq A$ . This gives

$$\overline{A} = A \cup \text{Acc}(A) = A,$$

so  $A$  is closed. Thus  $A$  is a closed subset of a compact space, hence compact. Now for any  $a \in A$ , pick an open set  $U_a$  such that  $a \in U_a$  and  $U_a \cap (A \setminus \{a\}) = \emptyset$ . Write  $A \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in A} U_a$ , and by compactness we can find a finite subcover  $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{a_i}$ . Then observe that

$$A = A \cap \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{a_i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (A \cap U_{a_i}) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{a_i\} = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\},$$

This is in contradiction with  $A$  being infinite.  $\square$

**Remark.** Usually, this proof goes by showing that compactness implies sequential compactness, which then implies the Bolzano-Weierstrass property. But this proof avoids going through convergent sequences.

# Lecture 8

## Sept. 12 — Separation Axioms

### 8.1 Separation Axioms

**Definition 8.1.** A topological space is said to satisfy the  $T_0$  axiom if the following holds: For every  $a, b \in X$  with  $a \neq b$ , there exists  $U$  open such that either  $a \in U, b \notin U$  or  $b \in U, a \notin U$ .

**Remark.** With the  $T_0$  axiom, we cannot choose which point is in  $U$  and which is not. For instance take  $X = \{a, b\}$  with topology  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ . This space is  $T_0$ , but we can only choose  $U$  to contain  $a$ .

**Definition 8.2.** A space is said to satisfy the  $T_1$  axiom if for every  $a, b \in X$  with  $a \neq b$ , there exist  $U_a, U_b$  open such that  $a \in U_a, b \notin U_a$  and  $b \in U_b, a \notin U_b$ .

**Remark.** With the  $T_1$  axiom,  $U_a$  and  $U_b$  need not be disjoint.

**Definition 8.3.** A space is said to be  $T_2$  or Hausdorff if the following holds: For every  $a, b \in X$  with  $a \neq b$ , there exist  $U_a, U_b$  open such that  $a \in U_a, b \in U_b$  and  $U_a \cap U_b = \emptyset$ .

**Example 8.3.1.** Metric spaces are Hausdorff. For any  $a \neq b$ , pick balls with radius  $d(a, b)/2$  around  $a, b$ .

**Theorem 8.1.** We have the proper inclusion  $T_2 \subsetneq T_1 \subsetneq T_0$ .

*Proof.* The inclusions and  $T_0 \neq T_1$  is clear (e.g. above). For  $T_1 \neq T_2$  take the line with two origins<sup>1</sup>.  $\square$

**Theorem 8.2.** In a  $T_1$  space, every singleton  $\{x\}$  is closed.

*Proof.* Fix  $x \in X$ . For every  $y \neq x$ , by the  $T_1$  axiom we can find  $U_y$  open such that  $y \in U_y$  and  $x \notin U_y$ . In particular, this means that  $U_y \subseteq \{x\}^c$ . Then we can write

$$\{x\}^c \subseteq \bigcup_{y \in \{x\}^c} U_y \subseteq \{x\}^c.$$

So  $\{x\}^c = \bigcup_{y \in \{x\}^c} U_y$ , which is open as a union of open sets. Thus  $\{x\}$  is closed.  $\square$

### 8.2 Properties of Hausdorff Spaces

**Theorem 8.3.** In a Hausdorff space, a point  $x$  is an accumulation point of a set  $A$  if and only if every neighborhood of  $x$  contains infinitely many elements of  $A$ .

---

<sup>1</sup>The line with two origins is  $X = \mathbb{R} \cup \{p\}$  with topology generated by the open sets in  $\mathbb{R}$  (with the metric topology), and adding  $\tilde{U} = (U \setminus \{0\}) \cup \{p\}$  for each open set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  containing 0. One can separate 0 and  $p$  but not with disjoint sets.

*Proof.* ( $\Leftarrow$ ) This is clear.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Pick  $x$  an accumulation point of  $A$ , and assume otherwise that there exists a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  with only finitely many elements of  $A$ , i.e.  $|(U \setminus \{x\}) \cap A| < \infty$ . Then we can write

$$(U \setminus \{x\}) \cap A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\} = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{a_i\}.$$

Since our space is Hausdorff and thus also  $T_1$ , these singletons  $\{a_i\}$  are closed. Then  $(U \setminus \{x\}) \cap A$  is closed as a finite union of closed sets. Now since our space is Hausdorff, for every  $1 \leq i \leq n$  we can separate  $a_i$  from  $x$ , i.e. there exists  $U_{x_i}, U_{a_i}$  open such that  $x \in U_{x_i}$ ,  $a_i \in U_{a_i}$  and  $U_{x_i} \cap U_{a_i} = \emptyset$ . Then

$$U' = U \cap \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{x_i}$$

is open as a finite intersection of open sets. Also  $x \in U'$  since  $x \in U$  and  $x \in U_{x_i}$  for each  $i$ . But

$$(U \setminus \{x\}) \cap A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{a_i}$$

and  $U_{a_j} \cap \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{x_i} = \emptyset$  for all  $j$ , so  $(U' \setminus \{x\}) \cap A = \emptyset$ . Contradiction.  $\square$

**Remark.** Maybe just the  $T_1$  axiom is enough for this theorem. Think more about this.

**Definition 8.4.** A sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq (X, \mathcal{T})$  converges to a point  $x \in X$ , written  $x_n \rightarrow x$ , if for any open set  $U$  containing  $x$ , there exists  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x_n \in U$  for every  $n \geq N_0$ .

**Theorem 8.4.** In a Hausdorff space, a convergent sequence has a unique limit.

*Proof.* Assume otherwise that  $x_n \rightarrow L_1$  and  $x_n \rightarrow L_2$  with  $L_1 \neq L_2$ . Then since our space is Hausdorff, we can find  $U_{L_1}, U_{L_2}$  open such that  $L_1 \in U_{L_1}$ ,  $L_2 \in U_{L_2}$  and  $U_{L_1} \cap U_{L_2} = \emptyset$ . Since  $x_n \rightarrow L_1$ , there exists  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x_n \in U_{L_1}$  for all  $n \geq N_0$ . Similarly we can find  $N'_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $x_n \in U_{L_2}$  for all  $n \geq N'_0$  since  $x_n \rightarrow L_2$ . But then for  $N = \max\{N_0, N'_0\}$ , we have  $x_N \in U_{L_1} \cap U_{L_2}$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

**Theorem 8.5.** In a Hausdorff space, every compact set is closed.

*Proof.* Let  $C \subseteq X$  be compact, and we show that  $C^c$  is open. So fix  $y \in C^c$ . For any  $x \in C$ , since our space is Hausdorff, we can find  $U_x, U_y$  open such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $y \in U_y$  and  $U_x \cap U_y = \emptyset$ . Now consider  $\bigcup_{x \in C} U_x$ . This is an open cover of  $C$ , so we can find a finite subcover  $C \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{x_i}$  since  $C$  is compact. Then the finite intersection  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{y_i}$  is an open set contain  $y$ , and it is disjoint from  $C$  by construction since  $U_{x_i} \cap U_{y_i} = \emptyset$  for each  $i$ . Now set  $\tilde{U}_y = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{y_i}$ , so that

$$C^c \subseteq \bigcup_{y \in C^c} \tilde{U}_y \subseteq C^c.$$

Thus  $C^c = \bigcup_{y \in C^c} \tilde{U}_y$ , which is open as the union of open sets, so we conclude that  $C$  is closed.  $\square$

# Lecture 9

## Sept. 17 — Compactification

### 9.1 Motivation for Compactification

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space which is not compact. Usually we assume  $X$  is Hausdorff, and the goal is to find a compact space which looks like  $X$ , i.e. compactify  $X$ .

**Remark.** The naive idea is to take the trivial topology on  $X$  in place of  $\mathcal{T}$ , getting  $X_{\text{trivial}}$ . This is compact, the identity map  $\text{id} : X \rightarrow X_{\text{trivial}}$  is continuous and bijective, but it is not a homeomorphism. This is bad because we forget all the topological structure on  $X$ , for instance every sequence converges to every point in  $X_{\text{trivial}}$ . We would like to compactify  $X$  while keeping as much structure as possible.

**Example 9.0.1.** Let  $X = (0, 1)$  with the metric topology. Take  $Y = [0, 1]$  with the metric topology, so  $X$  embeds into  $Y$  by the inclusion map.<sup>1</sup> Note that  $Y$  is compact by Heine-Borel.

**Example 9.0.2.** Let  $X = (0, 1)$  with the metric topology. Take  $Y = \mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  to be the unit circle, where  $\mathbb{R}^2$  has the metric topology. Then  $X$  embeds into  $Y$  by the stereographic projection (technically  $\mathbb{R}$  is embedded but  $\mathbb{R}$  is homeomorphic to  $(0, 1)$  by the arctangent) by adding one point at the north pole.

**Example 9.0.3.** For the open unit disk in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , we can add its boundary to get the closed unit disk as a compactification (the closed unit disk is compact by Heine-Borel). This adds uncountably many points. An alternative is to add only a single point at infinity, and identify the boundary with this point.

### 9.2 One-Point Compactification

**Definition 9.1.** For a topological space  $X$ , the *one-point compactification* (or *Alexandroff compactification*) of  $X$  is the set  $X^+ = X \cup \{\infty\}$  with topology generated by the basis

$$\{U \subseteq X \text{ open}\} \cup \{K^c \mid K \subseteq X \text{ is compact}\}.$$

**Remark.** One way to think about the one-point compactification is that we are forcing all unbounded sequences in  $X$  to converge to the new point  $\infty$ .

**Theorem 9.1.** For a Hausdorff topological space  $X$ , its one-point compactification  $X^+$  is compact.

*Proof.* Let  $\{O_\alpha\}$  be an open cover of  $X^+$ , i.e.  $X^+ = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_\alpha$ . Some open set must contain the point  $\infty$ , and each open set contains a basis element, so there exists  $\alpha' \in I$  such that  $O_{\alpha'}$  contains  $K^c$ , for some  $K \subseteq X$  compact. Now since  $K \subseteq X \subseteq X^+$ , we see that  $K \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (O_\alpha \cap X)$  is an open cover of  $K$

---

<sup>1</sup>By  $X$  embeds into  $Y$ , we mean that there is a continuous injection from  $X$  to  $Y$ .

(note that the Hausdorff condition implies that every compact  $K$  is closed in  $X$ , and thus the  $K^c$  basis elements are open in  $X$ ). So by compactness, there exists a finite subcover  $K \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I_{\text{finite}}} (O_\alpha \cap X)$ . Then

$$X^+ = O_{\alpha'} \cup K \subseteq O_{\alpha'} \cup \bigcup_{\alpha \in I_{\text{finite}}} (O_\alpha \cap X) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I_{\text{finite}}} O_\alpha$$

since  $K^c \subseteq O_{\alpha'}$ . This is a finite subcover, so  $X$  is compact.  $\square$

**Remark.** In analysis, we sometimes speak of a sequence diverging to  $\infty$ , i.e. the sequence eventually escapes any compact set. This is precisely convergence to  $\infty$  in the one-point compactification.

**Theorem 9.2.** *Assume  $X$  is a Hausdorff, locally compact but not compact topological space.<sup>2</sup> Then the inclusion map  $\text{id} : X \rightarrow X^+$  is a dense, continuous embedding.<sup>3</sup>*

*Proof.* First clearly  $\text{id} : X \rightarrow \text{id}(X) \subseteq X^+$  is injective. Now we show that  $\text{id}$  is continuous. It is enough to show that the preimage of basis elements of  $X^+$  is open in  $X$ . If  $U \subseteq X$  is open, then  $\text{id}^{-1}(U) = U \subseteq X$  is clearly open. Otherwise consider  $K^c \cup \{\infty\}$  for  $K \subseteq X$  compact. Then we have

$$\text{id}^{-1}(K^c \cup \{\infty\}) = K^c \subseteq X.$$

Since  $X$  is Hausdorff, the compact set  $K$  is closed, and so  $K^c$  is open. Thus  $\text{id}$  is continuous.

Finally we show density, i.e.  $\overline{X} = X^+$ , where the closure is taken in  $X^+$ . To do this, suppose otherwise that  $\overline{X} \neq X^+$ . Clearly  $X \subseteq \overline{X}$ , so if  $\overline{X} \neq X^+$ , we must have  $\overline{X} = X$  (since  $X^+ = X \cup \{\infty\}$ ). But then  $X$  is closed in  $X^+$ , which is compact, so  $X$  is also compact in  $X^+$  since  $X$  and thus  $X^+$  is Hausdorff (since  $X$  is locally compact). This implies (exercise) that  $X$  itself is compact. Contradiction.  $\square$

**Remark.** If  $X$  is already compact, then  $X^c = \{\infty\}$  is open in  $X^+$ . Obviously  $X^+$  is compact since  $X$  is and every sequence converging to  $\infty$  must eventually be constant. In particular,  $X^+$  must be disconnected, and the extra point  $\infty$  just sits there to the side.

**Remark.** Due to the above, we must assume that  $X$  is not compact in order to get a dense embedding.

**Example 9.1.1.** Consider the space  $X = [0, 1)$ . Then the one-point compactification of  $X$  is  $[0, 1]$ .

<sup>2</sup>A space  $X$  is *locally compact* if for every  $x \in X$ , there exists  $U$  open with  $x \in U$  such that  $\overline{U}$  is compact.

<sup>3</sup>The embedding is *dense* if  $\overline{X} = X^+$ .

# Lecture 10

## Sept. 19 — Miscellaneous Topics

### 10.1 Local Compactness and One-Point Compactification

**Definition 10.1.** A map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called *open* if for every  $U \subseteq X$  open,  $f(U)$  is open. A *topological embedding* is an injective, continuous, and open map.

**Remark.** This ensures that  $f$  with codomain restricted to  $f(U)$  is a homeomorphism.

**Example 10.1.1.** Demanding only that  $f$  is injective and continuous is not enough. Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be any topological space and let  $X_{\text{trivial}}$  be  $X$  with the trivial topology. Then the identity map  $\text{id} : X \rightarrow X_{\text{trivial}}$  is injective, continuous, but not open in general if  $\mathcal{T}$  is not trivial. So this is *not* a topological embedding.

**Theorem 10.1.** If  $X$  is Hausdorff and locally compact, then  $X^+ = X \cup \{\infty\}$  is Hausdorff.

*Proof.* Pick  $y, y' \in X^+$  with  $y \neq y'$ . If  $y, y' \in X$ , then since  $X$  is Hausdorff, there are disjoint open sets  $U, U' \subseteq X$  with  $y \in U$  and  $y' \in U'$ . But then  $U, U' \subseteq X^+$  are still open and disjoint in  $X^+$  since the identity map embeds  $X$  into  $X^+$ . Thus  $U, U'$  are disjoint open sets separating  $y, y'$ .

Now assume without loss of generality that  $y' = \infty$ . By local compactness, there is a open set  $U \subseteq X$  containing  $y$  with compact closure. Then observe that  $(\overline{U})^c \cup \{\infty\}$  is open in  $X^+$  since  $\overline{U}$  is compact. Since  $U$  is also open in  $X^+$  and clearly disjoint from  $(\overline{U})^c \cup \{\infty\}$ , we have separated  $y, \infty$ .  $\square$

### 10.2 Distance to a Closed Set

**Definition 10.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. For  $x \in X$  and  $A \subseteq X$ , the *distance from  $x$  to  $A$*  is

$$d(x, A) = \inf\{d(x, a) : a \in A\}.$$

**Remark.** This infimum is achieved in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , but not necessarily in a more general metric space.

**Proposition 10.1.** For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and closed set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists  $a \in A$  with  $d(x, A) = d(x, a)$ .

*Proof.* Pick  $a_0 \in A$  and note that  $d(x, a_0) < \infty$ . Then set  $R = 2d(x, a_0) > 0$ . Consider  $\overline{B_R(x)} \cap A$ , which is a closed and bounded set containing  $a_0$ , hence compact by Heine-Borel. Now apply the compact case to  $\overline{B_R(x)} \cap A$  to get  $a_{\min}$  with  $d(x, a_{\min}) = d(x, \overline{B_R(x)} \cap A)$ . Now any  $a \in A$  with  $a \notin \overline{B_R(x)}$  satisfies

$$d(x, a) \geq R > d(x, a_0) \geq d(x, a_{\min}),$$

and hence it cannot be the minimum. Thus we must have  $d(x, a_{\min}) = d(x, A)$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** Define

$$\ell^2(\mathbb{N}) = \left\{ \{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq \mathbb{R} : \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n^2 < \infty \right\}.$$

This is an inner product space over  $\mathbb{R}$ , and in particular we can induce a metric

$$d(\{a_n\}, \{b_n\}) = \sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^\infty |a_n - b_n|^2}$$

to turn  $(X, d)$  into a complete metric space. Also notice that  $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ , where  $e_i$  is the sequence with 1 in the  $i$ th position and 0 everywhere else, is an orthonormal basis for  $\ell^2(\mathbb{N})$ .

**Lemma 10.1.** *Define the set*

$$A = \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{1}{i}\right) e_i \right\}_{i=1}^\infty.$$

*Then  $d(\{0\}, A) = 1$ . In particular, this is an example of a metric space where the infimum of the distance from a point to a closed set is not achieved.*

*Proof.* Observe that

$$d(\{0\}, (1 + 1/i)e_i) = 1 + \frac{1}{i},$$

and so

$$d(\{0\}, A) = \inf\{d(\{0\}, (1 + 1/i)e_i) : i \in \mathbb{N}\} = \inf\left\{1 + \frac{1}{i} : i \in \mathbb{N}\right\} = 1.$$

In particular, this infimum is clearly not achieved since  $d(\{0\}, (1 + 1/i)e_i) = 1 + 1/i > 1$  for each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Now we show that  $A$  is closed by showing that it contains its limit points. For this, first observe that  $d(a, a') \geq 1$  for any  $a, a' \in A$  with  $a \neq a'$ . To see this, we can compute that

$$d((1 + 1/i)e_i, (1 + 1/j)e_j) = \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{1}{i}\right)^2 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{j}\right)^2} \geq \sqrt{2} \geq 1$$

whenever  $i \neq j$ . Now assume we have  $\{a_n\} \subseteq A$  with  $a_n \rightarrow x$ . In particular,  $\{a_n\}$  must be a Cauchy sequence, and so for  $\epsilon = 1/2$ , there exists  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n, m \geq N_0$ , we have  $d(a_n, a_m) < 1/2$ . But  $d(a, a') \geq 1$ , so the sequence must stabilize after  $N_0$ , and hence  $x = a_n$  for  $n \geq N_0$ . In particular,  $x \in A$ , so we conclude that  $A$  is closed. This finishes the example.  $\square$

### 10.3 Nested Intersections in Compact Hausdorff Spaces

**Proposition 10.2.** *Let  $X$  be a compact Hausdorff space, and  $Y_i \subseteq X$  be closed and connected for  $i \in I$ . Assume the  $\{Y_i\}$  are totally ordered, i.e.  $Y_i \subseteq Y_j$  or  $Y_j \subseteq Y_i$  for all  $i, j \in I$ . Then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} Y_i$  is connected.*

*Proof.* Let  $U, V$  be a separation of  $Y = \bigcap_{i \in I} Y_i$ . Then  $Y = U \cup V$  and  $U, V$  are open in  $Y$ , disjoint, and nonempty. In particular, we can find  $U', V'$  open in  $X$  such that  $U = U' \cap Y$  and  $V = V' \cap Y$ . However,  $U', V'$  may no longer separate  $Y$ . This is why we need the Hausdorff condition. Use the next lemma to fix the proof from here, see more details in Homework 4.  $\square$

**Lemma 10.2.** *In a compact Hausdorff space, if  $C_1, C_2$  are two compact disjoint sets, then there exist  $U_1, U_2$  open and disjoint such that  $C_1 \subseteq U_1, C_2 \subseteq U_2$  and  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$ .*

*Proof.* First we show this in the case where  $C_1 = \{x\}$  is a singleton and  $C_2 = C$ . For all  $y \in C$ , consider the pair  $x$  and  $y$ . Then there exists  $U_{x,y}, V_{x,y}$  open such that  $x \in U_{x,y}, y \in V_{x,y}$ , and  $U_{x,y} \cap V_{x,y} = \emptyset$ . Observe that  $\bigcup_{y \in C} V_{x,y}$  is an open cover of  $C$ , so by compactness there exists a finite subcover  $C \subseteq V = \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{x,y_i}$ . Then  $x \in U = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{x,y_i}$ , which is open as a finite intersection of open sets. Also each  $U_{x,y_i}$  is disjoint from  $V_{x,y_i}$ , so  $U$  is disjoint from  $V$ . Then  $U_1 = U$  and  $U_2 = V$  are the desired open sets.

Now let  $C_1, C_2$  be any two disjoint compact sets. For all  $x \in C_1$ , there are open sets  $U_{x,C_2}, V_{x,C_2}$  such that  $x \in U_{x,C_2}, C_2 \subseteq V_{x,C_2}$ , and  $U_{x,C_2} \cap V_{x,C_2} = \emptyset$ . Then we make the same argument. We have

$$C_1 \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in C_1} U_{x,C_2},$$

an open cover of  $C_1$ , so by compactness there is a finite subcover  $C_1 \subseteq U_1 = \bigcup_{i=1}^m U_{x_i,C_2}$ . Then

$$C_2 \subseteq U_2 = \bigcap_{i=1}^m V_{x_i,C_2},$$

which is open as a finite intersection of open sets. As before,  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$  since each  $U_{x_i,C_2}$  is disjoint from  $V_{x_i,C_2}$ . Thus we get a separation by disjoint compact sets.  $\square$



# Lecture 11

## Sept. 24 — Product Spaces

### 11.1 Product Spaces

**Definition 11.1.** For two sets  $X, Y$ , define their *Cartesian product* as

$$X \times Y = \{(x, y) \mid x \in X, y \in Y\}.$$

Similarly we can define<sup>1</sup>

$$\prod_{i \in I} X_i = \{(x) \mid (x)_i \in X_i\}.$$

If each  $X_i$  is a topological space with topology  $\mathcal{T}_i$ , then we define the following topologies on  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ :

- The *box topology*: Take as a basis sets of the form  $\prod_{i \in I} U_i$  where  $U_i \subseteq X_i$  are open sets.

Suppose  $B_1, B_2$  are basis sets and  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ . Then by definition  $B_1 = \prod_{i \in I} U_i$  and  $B_2 = \prod_{i \in I} V_i$ , where  $U_i, V_i \subseteq X_i$  are open. Then set  $B_3 = \prod_{i \in I} (U_i \cap V_i)$ . Clearly  $x \in B_3$  and  $B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$  is a basis element (each  $U_i \cap V_i$  is a finite intersection of open sets and thus open), so this is a basis.

- The *product topology*: Take as a subbasis the sets  $\pi_i^{-1}(U_i) \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  for each  $i \in I$  and  $U_i \subseteq X_i$  open. Here  $\pi_i : \prod_{j \in I} X_j \rightarrow X_i$  is the projection onto the  $i$ th factor.

The subbasis sets here are of the form  $U_i \times \prod_{j \neq i} X_j$ . The general basis sets will be finite intersections of these sets, i.e.

$$U_{i_1} \times \cdots \times U_{i_n} \times \prod_{j \neq i_1, \dots, i_n} X_j.$$

These are called the *cylindrical sets*. Think of this as having only finitely many restrictions on the factors, whereas we get to choose arbitrarily many restrictions with the box topology.

**Remark.** For finite products, the box and product topologies coincide. They differ for infinite products: The box topology is finer than the product topology (so the box topology has more open sets).

**Example 11.1.1.** Consider the following product spaces:

- The power set  $\mathcal{P}(X) = 2^X = \{0, 1\}^X$ . Think of the elements as functions  $X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , which pick whether or not to include each element of  $X$  in the corresponding subset. Thus the power set comes with a natural topology (box or product) if  $\{0, 1\}$  is given the discrete topology.
- The space  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  is the Cantor set, if  $\{0, 1\}$  is given the discrete topology. The Cantor set with the metric topology inherited from  $\mathbb{R}$  is homeomorphic to  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  with the product topology. Think of the sequence  $\{x_n\} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  as choosing whether to pick the left or right third at each step.

---

<sup>1</sup>One can also think of an element of the product as a function  $I \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$ , where  $f(i) \in X_i$ .

- The space  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  is called *Hilbert's cube*. Note that  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}} \cong [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ . For a homeomorphism, simply shift the sequence one to the right, putting a 0 in the first slot. Then forget about the 0.

**Remark.** Always assume  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is given the product topology, unless otherwise specified.

## 11.2 Properties of Product Spaces

**Theorem 11.1.** Assume  $(X_i, \mathcal{T}_i)_{i \in I}$  are each  $T_0$ , each  $T_1$ , or each Hausdorff. Then the product  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is also  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$ , or Hausdorff, respectively.

*Proof.* We prove only the Hausdorff case. Let  $(x), (y) \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  be distinct. As  $(x) \neq (y)$ , there is  $i \in I$  with  $x_i \neq y_i$ , where  $x_i, y_i \in X_i$ . Since  $X_i$  is Hausdorff, there exist  $A, B \subseteq X_i$  open, disjoint with  $x_i \in A$  and  $y_i \in B$ . Then set

$$U = A \times \prod_{j \neq i} X_j \quad \text{and} \quad V = B \times \prod_{j \neq i} X_j.$$

These sets are open since they are cylindrical, and clearly  $(x) \in U$ ,  $(y) \in V$  since  $x_i \in A$ ,  $y_i \in B$ . Also  $U, V$  are disjoint since their  $i$ th components  $A, B$  are disjoint. So this is a separation of  $(x)$  and  $(y)$  by disjoint, open sets, and we conclude that  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is Hausdorff.  $\square$

**Corollary 11.1.1.** Assume  $(X_i, \mathcal{T}_i)_{i \in I}$  are each  $T_0$ , each  $T_1$ , or each Hausdorff. Then  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  with the box topology is also  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$ , or Hausdorff, respectively.

*Proof.* The box topology is finer than the product topology.  $\square$

**Remark.** In the product topology, the projections  $\pi_i : \prod_{j \in I} X_j \rightarrow X_i$  are continuous, onto, and open. The continuity and surjectivity of  $\pi_i$  is essentially by construction of the product topology. To see that  $\pi_i$  is open, consider a basis element of  $\prod_{j \in I} X_j$ , which is of the form

$$U = U_{i_1} \times \cdots \times U_{i_n} \times \prod_{j \neq i_1, \dots, i_n} X_j.$$

Then  $\pi_i(U)$  is either one of the  $U_i$  or one of the  $X_i$ , which are both open.

**Theorem 11.2** (Universal property of the product topology). *The following diagram commutes:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f_i} & X_i \\ & \searrow f & \uparrow \pi_i \\ & & \prod_{i \in I} X_i \end{array}$$

In particular, there exists a unique continuous map  $f : Z \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  such that  $f_i = \pi_i \circ f$  for each  $i \in I$ .

*Proof.* Define  $f : Z \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  on the set theory level by  $(f(z))_i = f_i(z)$ . Now we show the continuity of  $f$ . Fix a basis element

$$B = U_{i_1} \times \cdots \times U_{i_n} \times \prod_{j \neq i_1, \dots, i_n} X_j.$$

Then we can write

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{z \mid f(z) \in B\}.$$

Now observe that  $f(z) \in B = U_{i_1} \times \cdots \times U_{i_n} \times \prod_{j \neq i_1, \dots, i_n} X_j$  is equivalent to

$$z \in \bigcap_{k=1}^n f_{i_k}^{-1}(U_{i_k}).$$

Since  $U_{i_k}$  is open in  $X_{i_k}$  and each  $f_i$  is continuous, each  $f_{i_k}^{-1}(U_{i_k})$  is open in  $Z$ . Then this is a finite intersection of open sets in  $Z$ , hence open. Thus  $f$  is continuous.  $\square$

**Remark.** If we had the box topology, this argument would not work. In particular, the intersection that we get could be infinite, which would not necessarily be open in  $Z$ .

**Remark.** This universal property formalizes the notion that we define functions from products by defining a function on each factor. Additionally, this generalizes the result from multivariable calculus that a vector-valued function is continuous precisely when each component function is continuous.

# Lecture 12

## Sept. 26 — Products and Topological Properties

### 12.1 Connectedness and Path-Connectedness

**Theorem 12.1.** *Assume that each  $X_i$  is path-connected, then  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is path-connected.*

*Proof.* Fix  $x, y \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i$ , and define  $x_i = \pi_i(x)$  and  $y_i = \pi_i(y)$ . Since  $x_i, y_i \in X_i$  and  $X_i$  is path-connected, there exists  $\gamma_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow X_i$  continuous such that  $\gamma_i(0) = x_i$  and  $\gamma_i(1) = y_i$ . By the universal property of products, there exists  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  continuous such that  $\pi_i \circ \gamma = \gamma_i$ . This implies

$$(\gamma(0))_i = \gamma_i(0) = x_i,$$

so  $\gamma(0) = x$ . Similarly  $\gamma(1) = y$ , so  $\gamma$  is a path from  $x$  to  $y$ . This says that  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is path-connected.  $\square$

**Theorem 12.2.** *If  $\{X_i\}$  are connected, then  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is connected.*

*Proof.* Suppose otherwise that  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is not connected, i.e. there exists a separation of  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ . So let  $U, V$  be two disjoint, nonempty, open subsets of  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  such that  $U \cup V = \prod_{i \in I} X_i$ .

First we claim that there exist  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$  such  $x_i \neq y_i$  only at a single index  $i$ . To see this, note that  $U$  and  $V$  contain basis elements  $U' \subseteq U$  and  $V' \subseteq V$ . Then these basis elements look like

$$U' = U_{i_1} \times \cdots \times U_{i_n} \times \prod_{j \neq i_1, \dots, i_n} X_j \quad \text{and} \quad V' = V_{j_1} \times \cdots \times V_{j_m} \times \prod_{k \neq j_1, \dots, j_m} X_k.$$

Then clearly we may choose  $x \in U'$  and  $y \in V'$  such that they differ in only finitely many coordinates. Then we have

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots) \quad \text{and} \quad y = (y_1, \dots, y_n, \dots),$$

where  $x_i = y_i$  for  $i > n$ . Now consider  $x_i, y_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . If  $x_i = y_i$ , then do nothing. Otherwise if  $x_i \neq y_i$ , define

$$y' = (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, y_i, x_{i+1}, \dots).$$

Then  $y' \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i = U \cup V$ , so either  $y' \in U$  or  $y' \in V$  since  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ . If  $y' \in V$ , continue with  $y = y'$ , and if  $y' \in U$ , change  $x = y'$ . Do this for the finitely many  $1 \leq i < n$ , and we obtain  $x_i = y_i$  except for a single index  $i$ . Assume without loss of generality that  $x_1 \neq y_1$ .

Now define a map  $f : X_1 \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  by  $f(\tilde{x}) = (\tilde{x}, x_2, x_3, \dots)$ . Note that  $f$  is continuous by the universal property of products (the component maps  $X_1 \rightarrow X_i$  are either the identity if  $X_i = X_1$  or constant otherwise). Then  $f(X_1)$  is connected since  $X_1$  is connected and  $f$  is continuous. But now  $x \in f(X_1) \cap U$  and  $y \in f(X_1) \cap V$ , so  $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ . Contradiction.  $\square$

# Lecture 13

## Oct. 1 — Tychonoff's Theorem

### 13.1 Revisiting the Cantor Set

**Proposition 13.1.** *We have the following properties of the Cantor set  $C$ :*

- (a)  $C \neq \emptyset$ ,
- (b)  $|C| = \aleph$ ,
- (c)  $C$  is closed,
- (d)  $C$  is compact,
- (e) and  $C$  is nowhere dense.

*Proof.* This was done in Homework 3. □

**Proposition 13.2.** *We have  $C \cong \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , where  $\{0, 1\}$  has the discrete topology.*

*Proof.* Observe that to obtain  $x \in C = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$ , at each step  $I_n$  we must choose the left or right part of the current subinterval. So define the map  $f : C \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  by

$$(f(x))_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \text{ belongs to the left third,} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \text{ belongs to the right third.} \end{cases}$$

For injectivity, observe that if  $a, b \in C$  with  $a \neq b$ , then there exists some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $3^{-N} < |a - b|$ . In particular, this means that  $a$  and  $b$  cannot be in the same subinterval in  $I_N$ , so they must have taken different paths at some step. This implies that  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ . For surjectivity, given a string  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , take the intersection of subintervals encoded by it. This intersection consists of a unique point and is a subset of  $C$ , so map the string to this point. So  $f$  is bijective.

Now we show that  $f$  is continuous. Let  $U$  be an open set in  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Note that we may assume  $U$  is a basis element, i.e.

$$U = U_{\alpha_1} \times \cdots \times U_{\alpha_n} \times \prod_{i \neq \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n} \{0, 1\},$$

where the  $U_{\alpha_i} \subseteq \{0, 1\}$  are open. Since there are only finitely many  $U_{\alpha_i}$ , we may assume that

$$U = U_1 \times \cdots \times U_m \times \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}},$$

where  $U_i = \{0\}$  or  $U_i = \{1\}$ . The general basis elements may be written as finite unions and intersections of sets of this form. Thus observe that  $f^{-1}(U)$  is the subinterval obtained fixing the path given by

the  $U_i$ , terminating at the  $m$ th step and taking all remaining choices. This gives some subinterval  $C \cap I \subseteq C \cap I_{m+1}$ . Note that the subintervals of  $I_{m+1}$  are separated by gaps of width  $3^{-(n+1)}$ , so we can find an open set  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  containing  $I$ , disjoint from the other subintervals of  $I_{m+1}$ . Then  $C \cap I = C \cap V$  is open in  $C$ , so  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $C$  and thus  $f$  is continuous.

Now  $C$  is compact,  $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  is Hausdorff, and  $f$  is a continuous bijection, so  $f$  is a homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Proposition 13.3.** *For the Cantor set  $C$ , we have  $C^{\mathbb{N}} \cong C$ .*

*Proof.* This is a homework exercise. For the bijection, first show that  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N}$  (traverse  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  in diagonals). For continuity, note that an open set in  $C^{\mathbb{N}}$  has finitely many constraints, and an open set in each component of  $C^{\mathbb{N}}$  has finitely many constraints. This is still finite many constraints in total.  $\square$

## 13.2 Tychonoff's Theorem

**Theorem 13.1** (Tychonoff). *Let  $(X_i, \mathcal{T}_i)$  be a compact space for each  $i \in I$ . Then the product space  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ , with the product topology, is compact.*

**Corollary 13.1.1** (Heine-Borel). *A set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if and only if  $C$  is closed and bounded.*

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) This direction is easy. Immediately  $C$  is closed since  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is Hausdorff. For boundedness, cover  $C$  by open balls of radius  $R$  centered at the origin, then use compactness.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) We previously showed that  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact. Since  $C$  is bounded, there is some box in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with

$$C \subseteq \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i],$$

which is compact by Tychonoff's theorem. Thus  $C$  is a closed subset of a compact set, so  $C$  is compact.  $\square$

## 13.3 Set Theory and the Axiom of Choice

**Example 13.0.1** (Russell's paradox). Define the set

$$S = \{\text{all sets } R \mid R \text{ does not contain itself}\}.$$

Then consider whether  $S$  contains itself. If  $S \in S$ , then  $S$  cannot contain itself by the definition of  $S$ . But if  $S \notin S$ , then  $S$  must contain itself by the definition of  $S$  again. Both cases lead to contradictions.

**Remark.** The above paradox led to the creation of the *Zermelo-Fraenkel* (ZF) axioms of set theory. More commonly in mathematics, we use **ZFC** set theory, adding the *axiom of choice* (AC) to ZF.

**Axiom 13.1** (Axiom of choice). *Let  $X_i$  be a collection of nonempty sets. Then there exists a choice function  $f : I \rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$  such that  $f(i) \in X_i$  for all  $i \in I$ .*

**Theorem 13.2** (P. Cohen). *The systems  $\text{ZF} \cup \text{AC}$  and  $\text{ZF} \cup \neg \text{AC}$  are both sound, i.e. they do not lead to contradictions. In other words, the axiom of choice is independent of ZF.*

**Theorem 13.3.** *Tychonoff's theorem is equivalent to the axiom of choice, i.e. they imply each other.*

# Lecture 14

## Oct. 3 — Tychonoff's Theorem, Part 2

### 14.1 Zorn's Lemma

**Definition 14.1.** A *partially ordered set* is a set  $X$  with a relation  $\leq$  such that

- (i) (reflexivity)  $x \leq x$  for all  $x \in X$ ,
- (ii) (anti-symmetry) for all  $x, y \in X$ , if  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq x$ , then  $x = y$ ,
- (iii) and (transitivity) for all  $x, y, z \in X$ , if  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq z$ , then  $x \leq z$ .

**Definition 14.2.** A *chain* in a partial ordering is a completely ordered subset.

**Definition 14.3.** An *upper bound* of a chain  $C \subseteq X$  is an element  $u \in X$  such that  $a \leq u$  for every  $a \in C$ . A *maximum* of  $X$  is an element  $z \in X$  such that there is no  $x \in X$ ,  $x \neq z$ , with  $x \leq z$ .

**Lemma 14.1** (Zorn's lemma). *Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a partially ordered set. If every chain in  $X$  has an upper bound, then  $X$  attains a maximum.*

**Remark.** Zorn's lemma is equivalent to the axiom of choice. Assuming Zorn's lemma, consider the set of partial choice functions on the index set  $I$ , ordered by inclusion of their domains of definition. Show an upper bound and obtain a full choice function as a maximal element by Zorn's lemma.

**Remark.** When applying Zorn's lemma, the partial ordering  $\leq$  is often taken to be inclusion or containment of sets.<sup>1</sup> In this case, taking the union over chains typically yields an upper bound.<sup>2</sup>

**Example 14.3.1.** Every vector space has a basis. Here a basis is a maximal linearly independent set. Let  $X$  be the set of linearly independent sets, ordered by inclusion. Argue that the union over a chain in  $X$  is again a linearly independent set and thus an upper bound. Finish using Zorn's lemma.

**Example 14.3.2.** Every ring has maximal ideals. This can also be shown via Zorn's lemma.

### 14.2 Proof of Tychonoff's Theorem

**Remark.** Recall from Homework 4 the following problem: A space  $X$  is compact if and only if it has the *finite intersection property*, i.e. for every collection  $\{C_i\}_{i \in I}$  of closed sets such that  $\bigcap_{i \in I_{\text{fin}}} C_i \neq \emptyset$  for every finite set  $I_{\text{fin}} \subseteq I$ , we have  $\bigcap_{i \in I} C_i \neq \emptyset$ . This is some description of compactness via closed sets instead of open sets. We will use this characterization of compactness for the proof of Tychonoff's theorem.

---

<sup>1</sup>One can easily verify that this satisfies the properties of a partial order.

<sup>2</sup>In many cases, one shows that this is indeed an upper bound by projecting to some element of the chain.

**Theorem 14.1** (Tychonoff). *Let  $(X_i, \mathcal{T}_i)$  be compact for each  $i \in I$ . Then  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is compact.*

*Proof.* Let  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be a collection of closed subsets of  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  such that for every finite subset  $J_{\text{fin}} \subseteq J$ , we have  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J_{\text{fin}}} C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ . We then wish to show that  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ .

We say that a collection of sets of  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  has the FI property if for every finite subcollection, the intersection is nonempty. Let  $S$  be the collection of all FI-subcollections of the product space. Define a partial order over  $S$  by containment. We want maximal elements in  $S$ , which we will find by applying Zorn's lemma. Let  $R$  be a chain in  $S$ , and define  $T = \bigcup_{r \in R} r$ . Clearly  $r \leq T$  for every  $r \in R$ , so it suffices to show that  $T$  satisfies FI. To do this, pick  $J_{\text{fin}}$ , some finite set of indices for elements of  $T$ . For each  $\alpha \in J_{\text{fin}}$ , there exists  $r_\alpha \in R$  such that  $T_\alpha \in r_\alpha$ . Pick the largest  $r_\alpha$  out of the  $\alpha \in J_{\text{fin}}$  (we can do this since  $R$  is a chain and  $J_{\text{fin}}$  is finite, so we can run a sorting algorithm, for instance). Let  $r_\beta$  be this largest element. Then  $T_\alpha \in r_\beta$  for all  $\alpha \in J_{\text{fin}}$ , and  $r_\beta$  satisfies FI. Thus we obtain

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in J_{\text{fin}}} T_\alpha \neq \emptyset$$

by the FI property of  $r_\beta$ . So  $T$  also satisfies FI, and thus  $T$  is an upper bound for  $R$ . Then by Zorn's lemma, there is a maximum  $M$  in the set  $S$  of FI-subcollections. We may assume  $M$  contains  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ .

At this point, we make a few observations:

- (i) If  $\{S_j\}_{j=1}^m \in M$ , then  $\bigcap_{j=1}^m S_j \in M$ .

To see this, assume not. Then consider  $M \cup \{\bigcap_{j=1}^m S_j\}$ . Any finite subset looks like

$$m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k \cap S_{j_1} \cap \cdots \cap S_{j_\ell},$$

which are all in  $M$ , so this intersection is nonempty. Thus  $M \cup \{\bigcap_{j=1}^m S_j\}$  is a larger FI collection containing  $M$ , which contradicts the maximality of  $M$ .

- (ii) If  $S \subseteq X$  such that  $S \cap m \neq \emptyset$  for every  $m \in M$ , then  $S \in M$ .

Similarly assume not. Then consider  $M \cup \{S\}$ . Any finite subset looks like

$$m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k \cap S = S \cap \bigcap_{j=1}^k m_j.$$

By the previous observation,  $\bigcap_{j=1}^k m_j \in M$ , so  $S \cap \bigcap_{j=1}^k m_j \neq \emptyset$ . Thus  $M \cup \{S\}$  is a larger FI collection containing  $M$ , which again contradicts the maximality of  $M$ .

Now consider the  $M$  that contained  $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ . For each  $i \in I$ , consider  $\{\pi_i(m)\}_{m \in M}$ . Note that  $\pi_i(m)$  need not be closed. So look at the closures  $\overline{\pi_i(m)} \subseteq X_i$  instead. Then for any  $J_{\text{fin}}$  finite,

$$\bigcap_{j \in J_{\text{fin}}} \overline{\pi_i(m_j)} \neq \emptyset$$

because we have that

$$\emptyset \neq \pi_i \left( \bigcap_{j \in J_{\text{fin}}} m_j \right) \subseteq \bigcap_{j \in J_{\text{fin}}} \overline{\pi_i(m_j)}.$$



Here we know  $\bigcap_{j \in J_{\text{fin}}} m_j \neq \emptyset$  by the FI property of  $M$ . Then by the compactness of the  $X_i$ , we have

$$\bigcap_{j \in J} \overline{\pi_i(m_j)} \neq \emptyset.$$

So choose  $x_i \in \bigcap_{j \in J} \overline{\pi_i(m_j)}$ , and set  $x = (y_i)_{i \in I}$ . Now we claim that (note that the  $C_\alpha$  are already closed)

$$x \in \bigcap_{m \in M} \overline{m} \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} C_\alpha \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} X_i,$$

which immediately implies Tychonoff's theorem. We finish the proof of this claim next class.  $\square$

# Lecture 15

## Oct. 8 — Tychonoff's Theorem, Part 3

### 15.1 Proof of Tychonoff's Theorem, Continued

**Theorem 15.1** (Tychonoff). *Let  $(X_i, \mathcal{T}_i)$  be compact for each  $i \in I$ . Then  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is compact.*

*Proof.* We left off with the claim that

$$x \in \bigcap_{m \in M} \overline{m} \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} C_\alpha \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} X_i.$$

To show this, we will show that  $x \in \overline{m}$  for every  $m \in M$ . We need to show:

- For every  $m \in M$  and open  $U \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} X_i$  containing  $x$ , we have  $U \cap m \neq \emptyset$ .

Pick  $U$  a basis element (containing  $x$ ), i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} U &= U_{j_1} \times \cdots \times U_{j_n} \times \prod_{k \neq j_1, \dots, j_n} X_k = \left( U_{j_1} \times \prod_{r \neq j_1} X_r \right) \cap \cdots \cap \left( U_{j_n} \times \prod_{r' \neq j_n} X_{r'} \right) \\ &= \pi_{j_1}^{-1}(U_{j_1}) \cap \cdots \cap \pi_{j_n}^{-1}(U_{j_n}). \end{aligned}$$

By property (i) of  $M$ , it is enough to show that  $\prod_{j_\ell}^{-1} U_{j_\ell} \in M$  for each  $\ell$ , since this implies that  $U \in M$ , so that  $U \cap m \neq \emptyset$  for every  $m \in M$  by the FI property of  $M$ . Now consider  $\pi_{j_\ell}^{-1}(U_{j_\ell})$ . By property (ii) of  $M$ , it suffices to show that  $\pi_{j_\ell}^{-1}(U_{j_\ell}) \cap m \neq \emptyset$  for every  $m \in M$ . This happens if and only if  $U_{j_\ell} \cap \pi_{j_\ell}(m) \neq \emptyset$ , so it is enough to show this. As  $x \in U$ , we have  $x_{j_\ell} \in U_{j_\ell}$ . But also

$$x_{j_\ell} \in \bigcap_{m \in M} \overline{\pi_{j_\ell}(m)},$$

so  $x_{j_\ell} \in \overline{\pi_{j_\ell}(m)}$ . Since  $U_{j_\ell}$  is open and contains  $x_{j_\ell}$ , this means that  $U_{j_\ell} \cap \pi_{j_\ell}(m) \neq \emptyset$ .

Thus  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ , so  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  has the finite intersection property, i.e.  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  is compact.  $\square$

**Remark.** If we have Tychonoff's theorem, why does Heine-Borel not work for a product of infinitely many factors  $\mathbb{R}$ ? We run into issues with boundedness: It is nontrivial to even define a metric on an infinite product of metric spaces. An analogue of Heine-Borel for infinite dimensions is the Arzela-Ascoli theorem, which requires an additional property on top of closedness and boundedness (equicontinuity).

## 15.2 Quotient Spaces

**Definition 15.1.** A continuous and surjective function  $p : X \rightarrow Y$  is called a *quotient map* if  $U \subseteq Y$  is open if and only if  $p^{-1}(U) \subseteq X$  is open.

**Example 15.1.1.** If a continuous surjection  $p$  is also an open map, then  $p$  is a quotient map.

**Definition 15.2.** An *equivalence relation* on a set  $X$  is a relation  $\sim$  which is

- (i) (reflexivity)  $x \sim x$  for all  $x \in X$ ,
- (ii) (symmetry)  $x \sim y$  if and only if  $y \sim x$ ,
- (iii) and (transitivity) if  $x \sim y$  and  $y \sim z$ , then  $x \sim z$ .

Define the *equivalence class* of  $x \in X$  as  $[x] = \{y \in X \mid y \sim x\}$ , and  $X/\sim$  to be the set of equivalence classes. There is a standard map  $p : X \rightarrow X/\sim$  given by  $x \mapsto [x]$ .<sup>1</sup>

**Definition 15.3.** We define the *quotient topology* on  $X/\sim$  by giving it the smallest topology such that  $p : X \rightarrow X/\sim$  is a quotient map, i.e. we define  $U \subseteq X/\sim$  to be open if  $p^{-1}(U) \subseteq X$  is open.

**Example 15.3.1.** Consider the interval  $X = [0, 1]$ . Define  $\sim$  via the equivalence classes  $[0] = \{0, 1\} = [1]$  and  $[x] = \{x\}$  for  $x \neq 0, 1$ . Then the resulting quotient space  $X/\sim$  is homeomorphic to the circle.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Note that  $p$  is surjective by construction. For any equivalence class, pick any member of it as a preimage.

<sup>2</sup>This an example of *gluing*.

# Lecture 16

## Oct. 10 — Quotient Spaces

### 16.1 Examples of Quotient Spaces

**Example 16.0.1** (Line with two origins). Take two copies of  $\mathbb{R}$ , i.e.  $X = \mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\}$ , and define the equivalence relation  $(x, 0) \sim (x, 1)$  for all  $x \neq 0$ . Then  $X/\sim$  is not Hausdorff (consider the points  $x = (0, 0)$  and  $y = (0, 1)$ , any neighborhoods around  $x, y$  must intersect), even though  $X$  is.

**Remark.** The above example shows that the quotient of a Hausdorff space need not be Hausdorff.

**Example 16.0.2** (Cylinder). Take a square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and identify the left and right sides (in the same direction). Then the quotient space is homeomorphic to a cylinder.

**Example 16.0.3** (Möbius strip). Now take a square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and identify the left and right sides in opposite directions. The resulting quotient space is still a 2D surface, but it is not homeomorphic to a cylinder. In particular, the Möbius strip is not orientable.

**Example 16.0.4** (Torus). Take a square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and identify the left and right sides, as well as the top and bottom sides (both in the same direction). The resulting quotient space is homeomorphic to a torus. In particular, the torus has no boundary.

**Example 16.0.5** (Klein bottle). Take the square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , identify the left and right (in the same direction), but identify the top and bottom in opposite directions. This quotient space is the Klein bottle, which cannot be embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (but can embed in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ ). The Klein bottle is also not orientable.

**Example 16.0.6** (Cone). Take the square in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , identify the left and right sides (in the same direction), and collapse the bottom side to a single point. The quotient is a cone, which is homeomorphic to a disk.

**Remark.** We can define the *connected sum*  $S_1 \# S_2$  of two surfaces  $S_1, S_2$  by removing a disk from each surface, and then gluing the boundaries of these removed disks together.

### 16.2 Properties of Quotient Spaces

**Theorem 16.1.** *Given a surjective map  $p : X \rightarrow Y$ , the set of  $U \subseteq Y$  such that  $p^{-1}(U)$  is open defines a topology on  $Y$ .*

*Proof.* First, for  $\emptyset \in Y$ , we have  $p^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset \in X$  is open, so  $\emptyset \in Y$  is open. Similarly,  $p^{-1}(Y) = X$  is open, so  $Y$  is open. Thus  $\emptyset, Y$  are both open.

Now fix an arbitrary union  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \subseteq Y$  of open sets. Then we have

$$p^{-1} \left( \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} p^{-1}(U_\alpha).$$

These sets are open in  $X$  by assumption, so their union is open as well. Thus  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$  is also open.

Finally, consider a finite intersection  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \subseteq Y$  of open sets. Similarly we see that

$$p^{-1} \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \right) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n p^{-1}(U_i).$$

Again these are open in  $X$  by assumption, so their finite intersection is open. So  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$  is also open.  $\square$

**Corollary 16.1.1.** *If  $X$  is compact, then  $X/\sim$  with the quotient topology is compact.*

*Proof.* We have  $X/\sim = p(X)$ , so  $X/\sim$  is the continuous image of a compact set.  $\square$

**Theorem 16.2** (Universal property of quotient spaces). *Let  $X, Y$  be topological spaces and  $\sim$  an equivalence relation on  $X$ . Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous map and further suppose that  $f(x) = f(y)$  whenever  $x \sim y$ . Then the following diagram commutes:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ p \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{f} & \\ X/\sim & & \end{array}$$

*i.e. there exists a unique function  $\tilde{f} : X/\sim \rightarrow Y$  such that  $f = \tilde{f} \circ p$ .*

*Proof.* For  $[x] \in X/\sim$ , define  $\tilde{f}([x]) = f(x)$ . This is well-defined by assumption since  $f$  respects  $\sim$ . To show that  $\tilde{f}$  is continuous, consider an open set  $U \subseteq Y$ . Then

$$\tilde{f}^{-1}(U) = p(f^{-1}(U)),$$

which is open since  $f$  is continuous and  $p$  is a quotient map (notice  $f^{-1}$  gives all of  $[x]$  if it gives  $x$ ).  $\square$

# Lecture 17

## Oct. 22 — Urysohn Metrization

### 17.1 More Properties of Quotient Spaces

Recall the universal property of the quotient space. The following is a corollary:

**Corollary 17.0.1.** *Assume  $g : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, and define  $x \sim y$  if  $g(x) = g(y)$ . Then the following diagram commutes:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{g} & Y \\ \pi \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{g} & \\ X/\sim & & \end{array}$$

*i.e. there exists a unique continuous map  $\tilde{g} : X/\sim \rightarrow Y$  such that  $g = \tilde{g} \circ \pi$ .*

**Remark.** Note that in the above corollary,  $\tilde{g}$  is injective by construction.

### 17.2 More on Separation Axioms

**Remark.** For now we will assume all spaces are  $T_1$ , i.e. every singleton is closed.

**Definition 17.1.** A space is *regular* if for every  $x \in X$  and  $A \subseteq X$  closed with  $x \notin A$ , there exists  $U_x, V_A$  open such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $A \subseteq V_A$ , and  $U_x \cap V_A = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 17.2.** A space is *normal* if for every  $A, B \subseteq X$  closed with  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , there exist  $U_A, V_B$  open such that  $A \subseteq U_A$ ,  $B \subseteq V_B$ , and  $U_A \cap V_B = \emptyset$ .

**Remark.** Since we assume  $T_1$ , singletons are closed and thus we can think of  $x$  as the closed set  $\{x\}$ . This says that normal is stronger than regular. Similarly, we can set  $A = \{y\}$ , which is closed by the  $T_1$  condition. This says that regular is stronger than Hausdorff. All of these relationships are strict.

**Proposition 17.1.** *Every metric space is normal.*

*Proof.* Take  $A, B \subseteq (X, d)$  closed with  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ . Define  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x) = \frac{d(x, A)}{d(x, A) + d(x, B)}.$$

Recall from Homework 4 that

- if  $d(x, A) = 0$  and  $A$  is closed, then  $x \in A$ ,

- and if  $x \in A$ ,  $B$  is closed, and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $d(x, B) > 0$ .

So for all  $x \in A$ , we have

$$f(x) = \frac{d(x, A)}{d(x, A) + d(x, B)} = \frac{0}{d(x, B)} = 0$$

since  $d(x, A) = 0$  and  $d(x, B) > 0$ . On the other hand, if  $x \in B$ , then

$$f(x) = \frac{d(x, A)}{d(x, A) + d(x, B)} = \frac{d(x, A)}{d(x, A)} = 1$$

since  $d(x, B) = 0$  and  $d(x, A) > 0$ . Now note that we actually have  $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , where  $f|_A \equiv 0$  and  $f|_B \equiv 1$ . Also note that  $f$  is continuous since  $d(x, A)$  and  $d(x, B)$  are continuous and  $d(x, A)$  and  $d(x, B)$  are never simultaneously zero. So define  $U = f^{-1}([0, 1/4])$  and  $V = f^{-1}((3/4, 1])$ , which are open since  $f$  is continuous. Then  $A \subseteq U$  and  $B \subseteq V$ , and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$  since they are preimages of disjoint sets.  $\square$

## 17.3 Urysohn's Metrization Theorem

**Definition 17.3.** A space  $X$  has *locally countable basis* if for every  $x \in X$ , there exists a countable sequence of open neighborhoods  $\{U_n\}$ , each with  $x \in U_n$ , such that for any basis element  $B$  containing  $x$ , there exists  $U_n$  such that  $x \in U_n \subseteq B$ . A space  $X$  has *countable basis* if  $X$  has a countable basis.

**Remark.** Metric spaces have locally countable bases, e.g. take  $U_n = B(x, 1/n)$ .

**Remark.** A space with locally countable basis is sometimes called *first countable*, and a space with countable basis (not local) is sometimes called *second countable*. Note that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is second countable (for instance take open balls with rational centers and rational radii).

**Theorem 17.1** (Urysohn metrization theorem). *If  $X$  is a normal topological space with countable basis, then  $X$  is metrizable, i.e. there exists a metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that the induced metric topology coincides with the given topology on  $X$ .*

**Lemma 17.1** (Urysohn's lemma). *Let  $X$  be a normal topological space. Let  $A, B \subseteq X$  be closed with  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ . Then there exists  $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$  continuous such that  $f|_A \equiv 0$  and  $f|_B \equiv 1$ .<sup>1</sup>*

*Proof.* Define  $P = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1] = \{p_0, p_1, \dots\}$  such that  $p_0 = 1$  and  $p_0 = 0$  (note that  $P$  is countable, so we may enumerate it). We want to find open sets  $U_p \subseteq X$  for  $p \in P$  such that  $A \subseteq U_p$  and

1.  $U_1 = U_{p_0} = B^c$ ,
2. and for all  $p < q$  in  $P$ , we have  $\overline{U_p} \subseteq U_q$ .

We define these sets via induction. First set  $U_1 = U_{p_0} = B^c$  as a base case, which is open since  $B$  is closed and contains  $A$  since  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ . Now for the induction step, assume we have  $U_{p_0}, \dots, U_{p_n}$  open such that  $\overline{U_{p_i}} \subseteq U_{p_j}$  for  $i < j$ . Consider  $p_{n+1}$ . We have the following cases:

- Suppose  $p_{n+1} > p = \max\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$ . In this case, note that  $\overline{U_p}$  and  $B$  are closed and disjoint ( $B$  is separated from  $U_p$  by an open set, so  $B$  cannot intersect the closure of  $U_p$ ). Then normality guarantees open sets  $U \supseteq \overline{U_p}$  and  $V \supseteq B$  such that  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ . Set  $U_{p_{n+1}} = U$ .
- Now suppose  $p_{n+1} < p = \min\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$ . Here note that  $U_p^c$  is closed, so  $A, U_p^c$  are closed and disjoint. Use the same normality argument as above to find  $U_{p_{n+1}}$ .

<sup>1</sup>A function  $f$  satisfying these properties is called an *Urysohn function*.

- Otherwise  $p_i < p_{n+1} < p_j$  for some  $0 \leq i, j \leq n$  (we have finitely many  $p_k$  at each step, so we can order them and find the right location for  $p_{n+1}$ ). Then use the normality argument on  $\overline{U_{p_i}}$  and  $U_{p_j}^c$ .

After the induction, we obtain the countable collection of open sets  $U_p$  for  $p \in P$ . Also for  $p \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus P$ , define  $U_p = \emptyset$  if  $p < 0$  and  $U_p = X$  if  $p > 1$ . This defines  $U_p$  for all  $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Now define  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x) = \inf\{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid x \in U_p\}.$$

First note that if  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in A \subseteq U_p$  for every  $p \in P$ , so  $f(x) = \inf\{p \in P\} = 0$ . On the other hand, if  $x \in B$ , then  $x \in B = U_1^c \subseteq U_p^c$  for every  $p \leq 1$ , i.e.  $x \notin U_p$  for  $p \leq 1$ . But  $x \in U_p = X$  for  $p > 1$ , so  $f(x) = \inf\{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid q > 1\} = 1$ . So  $f$  satisfies the desired properties of an Urysohn function.

It only remains to show that  $f$  is continuous, which we will do next class. □



# Lecture 18

## Oct. 24 — Urysohn Metrization, Part 2

### 18.1 Urysohn's Metrization Theorem, Continued

**Lemma 18.1** (Urysohn's lemma). *Let  $X$  be a normal space, and  $A, B \subseteq X$  closed and disjoint. Then there exists a continuous map  $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that  $f|_A \equiv 0$  and  $f|_B \equiv 1$ .*

*Proof.* We continue from last time. We had open sets  $U_p$  for  $p \in P = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$  and  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$f(x) = \inf\{p \in P : x \in U_p\},$$

and we must now show that  $f$  is continuous. To do this, fix  $x \in X$  and let  $\epsilon > 0$ . We must find an open set  $U \ni x$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq (f(x) - \epsilon, f(x) + \epsilon)$ . Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , we can find  $r, s \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that

$$f(x) - \epsilon < r < f(x) < s < f(x) + \epsilon.$$

Set  $V = U_s \setminus \overline{U_r}$ , which is open since  $U_s$  is open and  $\overline{U_r}$  is closed. Note that  $x \in U_s$  since  $f(x) < s$ . Now also  $x \notin \overline{U_r}$  since otherwise we have  $x \in \overline{U_r} \subseteq U_t$  for some  $r < t < f(x)$ , which is impossible since this implies  $f(x) \leq t < f(x)$ . So we see that  $x \in V$ . Now pick any  $y \in V$ , and we show that

$$f(x) - \epsilon < r \leq f(y) \leq s < f(x) + \epsilon.$$

Since  $y \in V = U_s \setminus \overline{U_r}$ , we have  $r \leq f(y)$  since  $y \notin \overline{U_r}$  and  $f(y) \leq s$  since  $y \in U_s$ . This implies the desired inequality, so  $V$  is the desired open neighborhood containing  $x$ . Thus  $f$  is continuous.  $\square$

**Theorem 18.1** (Urysohn metrization theorem). *Let  $X$  be a normal space which is second-countable, i.e.  $X$  has countable basis. Then  $X$  is metrizable.*

**Remark.** The converse does not hold: Not all metric spaces are second-countable (although most are).

**Theorem 18.2** (Tietze extension theorem). *Let  $X$  be a normal space,  $A \subseteq X$  closed, and  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then one may extend  $f$  to all of  $X$  in a continuous fashion (preserving the same bound as  $f$  if  $f$  is bounded on  $A$ ).*

*Proof.* Prove this as an exercise. Use Urysohn's lemma.  $\square$

**Remark.** The Tietze extension theorem is a generalization of Urysohn's lemma: For disjoint closed sets  $A, B \subseteq X$ , define  $f : A \cup B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f|_A \equiv 0$  and  $f|_B \equiv 1$ . Then Tietze extension defines  $f$  on all of  $X$ .

**Example 18.0.1.** Consider Hilbert's cube  $X = [0, 1]^\mathbb{N}$ , which is compact by Tychonoff's theorem. We can define a metric on  $X$  by  $d_X(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} d(x_n, y_n)$ , where  $d$  is any metric on  $[0, 1]$ . Note that  $d$  is bounded since  $d$  is continuous and  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  is compact. To see that  $d_X$  is indeed a metric, note that:

- (i) We clearly have  $d_X(x, y) \geq 0$ . If  $d_X(x, y) = 0$ , then  $d(x_n, y_n) = 0$  for every  $n$ , so  $x = y$ .
- (ii) Symmetry is clear from the definition of  $d_X$ .
- (iii) For the triangle inequality, fix  $x, y, z \in X$  and we have

$$d_X(x, z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} d(x_n, z_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} (d(x_n, y_n) + d(y_n, z_n)).$$

Since  $d_X(x, y)$  and  $d_X(y, z)$  are finite ( $d(x, y) \geq 0$  is bounded and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n}$  converges), the above series converges absolutely and thus we can split the above series into the sum of two series:

$$d_X(x, z) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} d(x_n, y_n) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} d(y_n, z_n) = d_X(x, y) + d_X(y, z).$$

This gives the triangle inequality.

The proof of the Urysohn metrization theorem will utilize this observation.

# Lecture 19

## Oct. 29 — Urysohn Metrization, Part 3

### 19.1 Proof of Urysohn's Metrization Theorem

**Theorem 19.1** (Urysohn metrization theorem). *If a topological space  $X$  is normal and second countable, i.e. it has a countable basis, then  $X$  is metrizable.*

*Proof.* The idea is to embed  $X$  into the Hilbert cube  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  with the product topology. Note that  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  is metrizable, e.g. take the metric

$$d(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} d_i(x_i, y_i),$$

where  $d_i$  is a metric on  $[0, 1]$ . We saw last time that  $d$  is a metric, and it also induces the product topology (check this as an exercise, we can throw away the tail since the series converges).

Now we give the embedding. Since  $X$  is second countable, let  $\{B_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a basis for the topology on  $X$ . For each pair of indices  $n < m$  with  $\overline{B_n} \subseteq B_m$ , note that  $\overline{B_n} \cap B_m^c = \emptyset$ . Now  $\overline{B_n}$  and  $B_m^c$  are also closed, so by Urysohn's lemma there exists a continuous function  $g_{n,m} : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that  $g_{n,m}(\overline{B_n}) = \{1\}$  and  $g_{n,m}(B_m^c) = \{0\}$ . Now define  $f : X \rightarrow f(X) \subseteq [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  (with the subspace topology) by

$$f(x) = (g_{n,m}(x))_{n,m \in \mathbb{N}, \overline{B_n} \subseteq B_m}.$$

Note that these pairs  $n, m$  exist since there is some basis element  $B_m$  which contains  $x$ . Also note that  $f(X)$  is metrizable (simply obtain a metric from  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  by restricting  $d$ ). Then  $\{x\}$  is closed (we assume  $T_1$ ) and  $B_m^c$  is closed, so by normality there exists an open set  $U_n$  containing  $x$  such that  $\overline{U_n} \subseteq B_m^c$ . Then there exists a basis element  $B_n \subseteq U_n$  containing  $x$  with the same property.

Now we show that  $f : X \rightarrow f(X)$  is a topological embedding. We show that:

- (i)  $f$  is injective: Assume  $x \neq y$ , and we want to find a pair  $n, m$  such that  $g_{n,m}(x) \neq g_{n,m}(y)$ . Since we assume  $X$  is  $T_1$ , normal implies Hausdorff and thus we can find disjoint open sets  $U_x, U_y$  with  $x \in U_x$  and  $y \in U_y$ . From this we can find  $V_x, V_y$  open such that

$$x \in V_x \subseteq \overline{V_x} \subseteq U_x \quad \text{and} \quad y \in V_y \subseteq \overline{V_y} \subseteq U_y.$$

We can get such sets by considering  $\{x\}$  and  $U_x^c$  and using normality. Now there exists a basis element  $B_n$  such that  $x \in B_n \subseteq V_x$ . Then by considering  $\{x\}$  and  $B_n^c$ , using normality we can find a basis element  $B_m$  such that

$$x \in B_m \subseteq \overline{B_m} \subseteq B_n.$$

Then  $g_{n,m}(x) = 1$  (we have  $x \in \overline{B_m}$ ) but  $g_{n,m}(y) = 0$  (we have  $y \notin B_n$ ), so we get  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

- (ii)  $f$  is continuous: The function  $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  is continuous by the universal property of products since each  $g_{n,m}$  is continuous. Now  $f(X)$  has the subspace topology, so  $f : X \rightarrow f(X)$  is continuous.
- (iii)  $f$  is open (on  $f(X)$  with the subspace topology): Fix an open set  $B \subseteq X$ , and we would like to show that  $f(B) \subseteq f(X) \subseteq [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Fix  $y = f(x) \in f(B)$ . Since  $f(X)$  is metrizable, it suffices to find  $\epsilon > 0$  such that whenever  $z \in f(X)$  and  $d(z, y) < \epsilon$ , then we have  $z \in f(B)$ .

Assume otherwise that this does not hold, i.e. for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $z_\epsilon$  such that  $d(z_\epsilon, y) < \epsilon$  and  $z_\epsilon \notin f(B)$ . Now set  $\epsilon_n = 1/n$ , which gives a sequence  $z_n \in f(X) \subseteq [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Since  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  is compact metric space, it is sequentially compact, so there exists a convergent subsequence  $z_{n_k} \rightarrow z \in [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Since  $d(z_{n_k}, y) < 1/n_k \leq 1/k$  for every  $k$ , so  $d(z, y) = 0$ , i.e.  $z = y \in f(X)$ .

Now let  $z_n = f(w_n)$  for some point  $w_n \in X$ , which is unique for each  $z_n$  since  $f$  is injective. Note that by continuity and injectivity, we have  $w_n \rightarrow x$ . Since  $z_n \notin f(B)$ , we must have  $w_n \notin B$ . Then  $w_n \in B^c$  and  $x$  is a limit point of  $B^c$ , so we must have  $x \in B^c$  since  $B^c$  is closed. Contradiction.

Then  $f$  is a topological embedding, and so the metric on  $f(X)$  gives a metric on  $X$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** The idea in the previous proof is to generate bump functions similar to

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \exp(-1/(1-x^2)^2) & \text{if } |x| < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

in analysis. Then the peaks roughly indicate where the points in  $X$  are.

**Remark.** Normality can sometimes be difficult to show, but any compact Hausdorff space is normal.

## 19.2 Omissions in Point-Set Topology

Here are some topics we omitted but may be of interest:

- More on metrization: The Nagata-Smirnov and Bing metrization theorems.
- Dimension theory: The *topological dimension* of a space, for instance we would expect that the dimension of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is  $n$ . This is distinct from the notion of *Hausdorff dimension*.
- Topological manifolds: We can cover a space with an *atlas* consisting of *charts* each homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The charts should be compatible on their intersection, i.e.  $(f \circ g^{-1})|_{A \cap B} = \text{id}$ .
- The Baire category theorem.

# Lecture 20

## Oct. 31 — Algebraic Topology

### 20.1 Introduction to Algebraic Topology

**Remark.** We previously showed, using connectedness, that  $\mathbb{R}$  cannot be homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for any  $n \geq 2$ . How can we show that  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbb{R}^3$  are not homeomorphic?

One attempt might be to use a similar idea and try removing a line from  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , thus disconnecting it. But the image of a line need not still be a line (unlike a point, whose image is always a point). For instance, space-filling curves exist, so it is not obvious that the image cannot also disconnect  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Another example is the cylinder and the Möbius strip. How can we show that these surfaces are not homeomorphic? They are both of dimension 2, connected, compact, etc. One way in this case is to consider normal maps, and show that the cylinder is orientable whereas the Möbius strip is not.

Algebraic topology provides new algebraic invariants (e.g. the fundamental group) that allow us to distinguish spaces in these cases. Distinguishing these algebraic invariants is often a much easier task.

### 20.2 Homotopy

**Definition 20.1.** Two maps  $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$  are *homotopic* if there exists a *homotopy*  $H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$  which satisfies  $H(x, 0) = f(x)$  and  $H(x, 1) = g(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Remark.** It is helpful to think of the parameter  $t \in [0, 1]$  as time, and we move from  $f$  to  $g$ .

**Example 20.1.1.** Here are some examples:

1. In  $\mathbb{R}$ , the maps  $f(x) = x$  and  $g(x) = 0$  are homotopic. Define  $H : \mathbb{R} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$H(x, t) = (1 - t)f(x) + tg(x) = (1 - t)x.$$

In fact, this method (linear interpolation) works for any continuous  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , since  $\mathbb{R}$  is *convex*.

2. If  $Y$  is path-connected, then any two constant maps  $f_1, f_2 : X \rightarrow Y$  are homotopic. By path-connectedness, there is a curve  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$  with  $\gamma(0) = f_1(x)$  and  $\gamma(1) = f_2(x)$ , then

$$H(x, t) = \gamma(t)$$

is a homotopy between  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ .

3. Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be the identity map, which we will use to describe the shape of  $X$ . Now we would like a *skeleton* (like a wireframe)  $g : X \rightarrow Y \subseteq X$  such that  $g|_Y \equiv \text{id}_Y$  and  $g$  is homotopic to  $f$ . Note that skeletons need not be unique or homeomorphic (consider a two-holed donut in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ).

4. A circle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with a line segment protruding from it is homotopic to a normal circle. In some sense, the important feature of the circle from the perspective of homotopy is that it has a hole.

**Remark.** Homotopy allows us to capture the idea of holes in a space.

**Definition 20.2.** Two spaces  $X, Y$  are said to be *homotopy equivalent* if there are continuous maps  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $f \circ g$  is homotopic to  $\text{id}_Y$  and  $g \circ f$  is homotopic to  $\text{id}_X$ .

**Remark.** Homotopy equivalence is a strictly weaker (more general) notion than homeomorphism.

# Lecture 21

## Nov. 5 — The Fundamental Group

### 21.1 Homotopy

**Remark.** We will always write  $I = [0, 1]$ , so that a homotopy is a map  $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ . We will also write  $f \sim g$  to indicate that  $f$  and  $g$  are homotopic.

**Remark.** Homotopy is an equivalence relation on the set of continuous maps from  $X$  to  $Y$ , and homotopy equivalence is an equivalence relation on the set of topological spaces.

**Proposition 21.1.** *Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a convex set with non-empty interior. Then  $S$  is homotopic to the closed  $n$ -dimensional ball  $\overline{B^n}$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $S$  has non-empty interior, there exists an open ball  $B_r^n$  inside it. We may assume  $\overline{B_r^n}$  is contained inside  $S$  (e.g. by halving the radius). Denote the center of  $\overline{B_r^n}$  by  $x_0$ . For any  $y \in S$ , by convexity the entire line segment from  $x_0$  to  $y$  is contained in  $S$ . Using this idea, we define  $H : S \times I \rightarrow S$  by

$$H(y, t) = x_0 + (y - x_0)g(y, t),$$

where

$$f(y) = \min \left\{ \frac{r}{\|y - x_0\|}, 1 \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad g(y, t) = \begin{cases} 1 + t(f(y) - 1)/f(y) & 0 \leq t \leq f(y), \\ f(y) & t \geq f(y). \end{cases}$$

Note that these functions are continuous as a composition of continuous maps. We can also verify

$$H(y, 0) = x_0 + (y - x_0)g(y, 0) = x_0 + (y - x_0) = y = \text{id}_S(y)$$

and

$$H(y, 1) = x_0 + (y - x_0)g(y, 1) = x_0 + (y - x_0) \min \left\{ 1, \frac{r}{\|y - x_0\|} \right\}.$$

If the minimum is 1, then  $r \geq \|y - x_0\|$  and so  $y \in \overline{B_r^n}$ . Thus we get

$$H(y, 1) = x_0 + (y - x_0) = y = \text{id}_{\overline{B_r^n}}(y).$$

Otherwise the minimum is  $r/\|y - x_0\|$ , so we get

$$H(y, 1) = x_0 + (y - x_0) \frac{r}{\|y - x_0\|} \in \overline{B_r^n}.$$

So  $H$  is a homotopy between  $S$  and  $\overline{B_r^n}$ , as desired. □

**Remark.** A simpler way to show this is to argue using that homotopy is an equivalence relation. Shrink both  $S$  and  $\overline{B_r^n}$  to a point (both are convex, so simply shrink along the line segment  $x_0 + (y - x_0)(1 - t)$ ), so they must be homotopic to each other by transitivity.

**Definition 21.1.** A space  $X$  is called *contractible* if  $\text{id}_X \sim \text{constant}$ .

**Example 21.1.1.** The space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is contractible. Define  $H(x, t) = (1 - t)x$  as a homotopy to the origin.

**Theorem 21.1.** The unit circle  $S^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  is not contractible.

**Remark.** This theorem is actually quite hard to show, we will do this eventually.

**Remark.** This theorem also leads to a proof of the *Jordan curve theorem*, which states that any simple closed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  divides the plane into two regions, one bounded and one unbounded. The idea is to first show that the image of any such curve is homotopic to the circle (this itself is difficult, and is what Jordan originally proved), and then show the result only for the circle.

## 21.2 The Fundamental Group

**Remark.** We will be interested in homotopy of curves  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ .

**Definition 21.2.** Given two curves  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$  with  $\gamma_1(1) = \gamma_2(0)$ , their *concatenation* is<sup>1</sup>

$$\gamma_1 * \gamma_2(t) = \begin{cases} \gamma_1(2t) & 0 \leq t \leq 1/2, \\ \gamma_2(2t - 1) & 1/2 \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 21.3.** For a space  $X$ , its *fundamental group* (with base point  $x_0 \in X$ ) is

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \{\text{continuous curves } \gamma : I \rightarrow X \text{ such that } \gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = x_0\} / \sim,$$

where  $\sim$  is the homotopy of curves fixing endpoints.<sup>2</sup> The group operation on  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is defined by

$$[\gamma_1] * [\gamma_2] = [\gamma_1 * \gamma_2],$$

where  $[\gamma]$  denotes the equivalence class of  $\gamma$  under  $\sim$ .

**Proposition 21.2.** The group operation  $*$  on  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is well-defined.

*Proof.* Replace  $\gamma_1$  with  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  with  $\tilde{\gamma}_2$ , where  $\gamma_1 \sim \tilde{\gamma}_1$  with homotopy  $H_1$  and  $\gamma_2 \sim \tilde{\gamma}_2$  with homotopy  $H_2$ . We want  $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2 \sim \tilde{\gamma}_1 * \tilde{\gamma}_2$ . Define the homotopy  $H : I \times I \rightarrow X$  by

$$H(t, s) = \begin{cases} H_1(t, 2s) * \gamma_2 & 0 \leq s \leq 1/2, \\ \tilde{\gamma}_1 * H_2(t, 2s - 1) & 1/2 \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

The idea is that we take the homotopy  $H_1$  first followed by the homotopy  $H_2$ . Note that for  $s \neq 1/2$ , the map  $H$  is a composition of continuous maps, hence continuous. At  $s = 1/2$ , we have

$$H_1(t, 1) * \gamma_2 = \tilde{\gamma}_1 * \gamma_2 = \tilde{\gamma}_1 * H_2(t, 0)$$

since  $H_1$  is a homotopy from  $\gamma_1$  to  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  and  $H_2$  is a homotopy from  $\gamma_2$  to  $\tilde{\gamma}_2$ . Now we check that

$$H(t, 0) = H_1(t, 0) * \gamma_2 = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2 \quad \text{and} \quad H(t, 1) = \tilde{\gamma}_1 * H_2(t, 1) = \tilde{\gamma}_1 * \tilde{\gamma}_2.$$

So  $H$  is a homotopy from  $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2$  to  $\tilde{\gamma}_1 * \tilde{\gamma}_2$ , and the group operation on  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is well-defined.  $\square$

<sup>1</sup>The concatenation is continuous by the pasting lemma since  $\gamma_1(1) = \gamma_2(0)$ .

<sup>2</sup>Another way to ensure the fixed endpoint condition is to consider maps  $\gamma : \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow X$  which hit  $x_0$ .



# Lecture 22

## Nov. 7 — The Fundamental Group, Part 2

### 22.1 The Fundamental Group is a Group

**Theorem 22.1.** *The fundamental group  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  with the operation  $*$  is a group.*

*Proof.* We have already shown that  $*$  is well-defined, so it suffices to check the group axioms. First clearly the concatenation of loops is still a loop, so we have closure under the group operation.

The identity element is the constant curve  $e(t) = x_0$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ . We must check that

$$[\gamma] * [e] = [\gamma] = [e] * [\gamma].$$

for any  $\gamma \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ . It suffices to show  $\gamma * e \sim \gamma$  and  $e * \gamma \sim \gamma$ . For the former, take the homotopy

$$H(t, s) = \gamma(\min\{t(1 + s), 1\}).$$

Observe that we have

$$H(t, 0) = \gamma(\min\{t, 1\}) = \gamma(t), \quad H(t, 1) = \gamma(\min\{2t, 1\}) = (\gamma * e)(t),$$

and

$$H(0, s) = \gamma(\min\{0, 1\}) = \gamma(0) = x_0, \quad H(1, s) = \gamma(\min\{1(1 + s), 1\}) = \gamma(1) = x_0.$$

Thus  $H$  is a homotopy from  $\gamma$  to  $\gamma * e$ , so  $\gamma \sim \gamma * e$ . The proof that  $e * \gamma \sim \gamma$  is similar.

Now we check associativity. Let  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3 \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ , so

$$((\gamma_1 * \gamma_2) * \gamma_3)(t) = \begin{cases} (\gamma_1 * \gamma_2)(2t) & t \leq 1/2 \\ \gamma_3(2t - 1) & t \geq 1/2 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \gamma_1(4t) & t \leq 1/4, \\ \gamma_2(4t - 1) & 1/4 \leq t \leq 1/2, \\ \gamma_3(2t - 1) & t \geq 1/2. \end{cases}$$

One can find a reparametrization into  $\gamma_1 * (\gamma_2 * \gamma_3)$ , which gives  $(\gamma_1 * \gamma_2) * \gamma_3 \sim \gamma_1 * (\gamma_2 * \gamma_3)$ .

Now we check for inverses. Given  $\gamma \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ , define  $\delta : I \rightarrow X$  such that

$$\delta(t) = \gamma(1 - t).$$

We will show that  $\gamma * \delta \sim e$  and  $\delta * \gamma \sim e$ . For the former, consider the homotopy

$$H(t, s) = \begin{cases} \gamma(t) & t \leq s/2, \\ \delta(1 - t) & s/2 \leq t \leq s, \\ x_0 & t \geq s \end{cases}$$

from  $e$  to  $\gamma * \delta$ , which is continuous since  $\gamma(t) = \delta(1 - t)$ . Thus  $e \sim \gamma * \delta$ . Note that we also get  $\delta * \gamma \sim e$  for free since  $\gamma(t) = \delta(1 - t)$ , which lets us repeat the same argument. Thus  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is a group.  $\square$

## 22.2 Contractible Spaces and the Fundamental Group

**Lemma 22.1.** *If  $X$  is contractible, i.e.  $\text{id}_X$  is homotopic to constant map, then  $\pi_1(X, x_0) = \{e\}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma$  be a closed curve in  $X$ . Then  $\text{id}_X \circ \gamma$  is a curve in  $X$ . As  $\text{id}_X$  is homotopic to a constant map, say by  $H(x, s)$ , considering  $H(\gamma(t), s)$  gives a homotopy of curves from  $\gamma$  to a constant map. So  $\gamma \sim e$ , which means that  $\pi_1(X, x_0) = \{e\}$  since this holds for every  $\gamma \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** If  $X$  is contractible, then  $X$  is path-connected. For  $x, y \in X$ , contract both to a single common point, then join those two paths to get a path from  $x$  to  $y$ .

**Remark.** Since  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and even  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  are contractible, they have trivial fundamental groups.

**Remark.** The 2-sphere is not contractible but its fundamental group is trivial.

# Lecture 23

## Nov. 12 — Exam 2 Review

### 23.1 Review Problems

**Exercise 23.1.** Let  $X_i$  be topological spaces and  $Y_i \subseteq X_i$ . Define the spaces

- (i)  $Y_{\text{sub}} = \prod_i Y_i \subseteq \prod_i X_i$  with the subspace topology,
- (ii) and  $Y_{\text{prod}} = \prod_i Y_i$ , where  $Y_i \subseteq X_i$ , with the product topology.

Show that  $Y_{\text{sub}}$  and  $Y_{\text{prod}}$  are homeomorphic.

*Proof.* We construct a map  $i : Y_{\text{sub}} \rightarrow Y_{\text{prod}}$ . First consider the identity map  $\text{id} : \prod_i X_i \rightarrow \prod_i X_i$ , and its restriction  $\text{id}|_{Y_{\text{sub}}} : Y_{\text{sub}} \rightarrow \prod_i Y_i$ . Set  $i = \text{id}|_{Y_{\text{sub}}} : Y_{\text{sub}} \rightarrow Y_{\text{prod}}$ . Note that  $i$  is still a bijection, since  $Y_{\text{sub}}$  and  $Y_{\text{prod}}$  are the same on a set-theoretic level and  $i$  is the identity map.

Now we show that  $i$  is continuous. Let  $O \subseteq Y_{\text{prod}}$  be open, which we may assume is a basis element:

$$O = \prod_{i=1}^n O_i \times \prod_{j \neq i} Y_j.$$

Then we must show that

$$i^{-1}(O) = \prod_{i=1}^n O_i \times \prod_{j \neq i} Y_j \subseteq Y_{\text{sub}}$$

is open in the subspace topology. It is enough to show that there are open sets  $V_i \subseteq X_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that

$$\prod_{i=1}^n O_i \times \prod_{j \neq i} Y_j = \left( \prod_{i=1}^n V_i \times \prod_{j \neq i} X_j \right) \cap \prod_i Y_i.$$

Now since each  $Y_i$  in  $Y_{\text{prod}}$  has the subspace topology, and since  $O_i \subseteq Y_i$  is open in the subspace topology, we have that  $O_i = V_i \cap Y_i$  for some open set  $V_i \subseteq X_i$ . Thus  $i$  is continuous.

Finally we show that  $i^{-1}$  is continuous. Let  $O \subseteq Y_{\text{sub}}$ , so that

$$O = V \cap \prod_i Y_i,$$

where  $V \subseteq \prod_i X_i$  is open. We may assume  $V$  is a basis element, i.e.

$$V = \prod_{i=1}^m V_i \times \prod_{j \neq i} X_j.$$

Then we see that

$$(i^{-1})^{-1}(O) = O = V \cap \prod_i Y_i = \prod_{i=1}^m (V_i \cap Y_i) \times \prod_{j \neq i} (X_j \cap Y_j) = \prod_{i=1}^m (V_i \cap Y_i) \times \prod_{j \neq i} Y_j.$$

Now  $V_i \cap Y_i$  is open in the subspace topology on  $Y_i$ , so  $O$  is a cylindrical set and thus open. So  $i^{-1}$  is continuous and we conclude that  $i$  is a homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Exercise 23.2.** Let  $X = [0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  with the product topology and

$$E = \{\text{all sequences } \{a_n\} \text{ in } X \text{ such that } a_n \rightarrow 0\}$$

Answer the following questions, with justification:

- (i) Is  $E$  closed?
- (ii) Is  $E$  open?
- (iii) Is  $E$  compact?

*Proof.* (i) No,  $E$  is not closed. View  $X$  as functions  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . Then consider  $\{f_k\}$  given by

$$f_k(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \leq k \\ 0 & \text{if } n > k. \end{cases}$$

Each  $f_k$  is eventually 0, so  $f_k(n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and thus  $f_k \in E$ . But convergence in  $X$  amounts to the pointwise convergence, and  $f_k(n) \rightarrow 1$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  for all  $n$ , so  $f_k \rightarrow f \equiv 1$ . But  $f$  does not converge to 0, so  $f \notin E$ . Thus  $E$  does not contain its limit points, so it is not closed.

(ii) No,  $E$  is not open. Look at the complement, and define  $\{f_k\}$  by

$$f_k(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \leq k \\ 1 & \text{if } n > k. \end{cases}$$

Each  $f_k \in E^c$ , but we have  $f_k \rightarrow f \equiv 0$ , so  $f \in E$ , or  $f \notin E^c$ . So  $E^c$  is not closed, hence  $E$  is not open.

(iii) No,  $E$  is not compact. The interval  $[0, 1]$  is Hausdorff, so  $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$  is Hausdorff as a product of Hausdorff spaces. Compact subsets of Hausdorff spaces are closed, but  $E$  is not closed by (i).  $\square$

**Exercise 23.3.** Show that if  $X$  is compact Hausdorff, then  $X$  is normal.

*Proof.* Fix closed sets  $A, B \subseteq X$ . For every  $x \in A$  and  $y \in B$ , there exist disjoint open sets  $U_{x,y}, V_{x,y}$  such that  $x \in U_{x,y}$  and  $y \in V_{x,y}$ . By fixing  $x$  and varying  $y$ , we get a collection  $\{V_{x,y}\}_{y \in B}$  of open sets that covers  $B$ . Since  $B$  is closed and  $X$  is compact,  $B$  is compact, hence there exists a finite subcover. So for every  $x \in A$ , there exists  $y_1, \dots, y_{m(x)} \in B$  such that  $B \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{m(x)} V_{x,y_i}$ . Now consider

$$U'_x = \bigcap_{i=1}^{m(x)} U_{x,y_i},$$

which is open as a finite intersection of open sets. Now  $x \in U'_x$ , so  $U'_x \cap B = \emptyset$  since  $U'_x \cap V_{x,y_i} = \emptyset$ . Now consider an open cover of  $A$  by  $\bigcup_{x \in A} U'_x$ . As  $A$  is closed and  $X$  is compact,  $A$  is compact. Thus we can find  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  such that

$$A \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^n U'_{x_j}.$$

Now for each  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , the set  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{m(x_j)} V_{x_j, y_i}$  is open and contains  $B$ , so their intersection over  $j$  is open and disjoint from any  $U'_{x_j}$ , and hence from  $\bigcup_{j=1}^n U'_{x_j}$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 23.4.** If  $X$  is locally compact and Hausdorff, then  $X$  is regular.

*Proof.* Embed  $X$  into its one-point compactification  $X^+$  by  $i : X \rightarrow X^+$ , which will be compact Hausdorff and thus normal. Let  $A \subseteq X$  be closed and  $p \notin A$ . Then  $i(A^c)$  is open since  $i$  is an embedding, and so

$$(i(A^c))^c = A \cup \{\infty\}$$

is closed in  $X^+$ . Now  $i(p) = p \in X \subseteq X^+$ , and  $p \notin A \cup \{\infty\}$ . Since  $X^+$  is normal, we can separate  $p$  from  $A \cup \{\infty\}$  with disjoint open sets. Pull these sets back to  $X$  to get disjoint open sets in  $X$  (open since  $i$  is continuous, and disjoint since they are preimages of disjoint sets).  $\square$

**Exercise 23.5** (Stone-Cech compactification). Let  $X$  be a topological space and define

$$\mathcal{F} = \{\text{continuous functions } f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]\}.$$

For each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , define  $X_f = [0, 1]$ . Define  $Y = \prod_{f \in \mathcal{F}} X_f$  and the *evaluation map*  $e : X \rightarrow Y$  by

$$e(x) = (f(x))_{f \in \mathcal{F}}.$$

Note that  $Y$  is compact by Tychonoff's theorem. If  $X$  is locally compact Hausdorff, then define its *Stone-Cech compactification* by

$$\beta X = e(X).$$

Then  $e : X \rightarrow \beta X$  is a topological embedding and  $\beta X$  is compact in the subspace topology of  $Y$ .

**Remark.** In a way, the one-point compactification is smallest compactification of a space, while the Stone-Cech compactification is the largest compactification.