Lecture 2: Connectedness and Compactness

Tianpei Xie

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1 Connected Spaces

1.1 Definitions

• Definition (Separation and Connectedness)

Let X be a topological space. A **separation** of X is a pair U, V of **disjoint** nonempty **open** subsets of X whose union is X.

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

• Definition (Connected: Equivalent Definition)

Equivalently, X is **connected** if and only if the only subsets of X that are **both open and closed** are \emptyset and X itself.

• Remark (Proof of Connectedness)

As the definition suggests, the proof of connectedness is done **by contradition**. One first assume that the set X has a **seperation**; it can be separated into two **disjoint nonempty open** sets such that $X = A \cup B$. Then we proof by contradiction using **existing connectedness conditions** and the **property of open subsets (basis, continuity etc.)**.

• Remark Connectedness is obviously a topological property, since it is formulated entirely in terms of $the \ collection \ of \ open \ sets$ of X.

Said differently, if X is **connected**, so is any space **homeomorphic** to X.

- Lemma 1.1 (Separation and Connected Subspace) [Munkres, 2000]

 If Y is a subspace of X, a separation of Y is a pair of disjoint nonempty sets A and B whose union is Y, neither of which contains a limit point of the other. The space Y is connected if there exists no separation of Y.
- Example (Indiscrete Topology is Connected)

 Let X denote a two-point space in the indiscrete topology. Obviously there is no separation of X, so X is connected.
- Example (\mathbb{Q} is Not Connected)

The rationals \mathbb{Q} are **not connected**. Indeed, the only connected subspaces of \mathbb{Q} are the one-point sets: If Y is a subspace of \mathbb{Q} containing two points p and q, one can choose an irrational number a lying between p and q, and write Y as the union of the open sets

$$Y \cap (-\infty, a)$$
 and $Y \cap (a, +\infty)$.

- Lemma 1.2 If the sets C and D form a separation of X, and if Y is a connected subspace of X, then Y lies entirely within either C or D.
- Proposition 1.3 (Connectedness by Union) [Munkres, 2000]

 The union of a collection of connected subspaces of X that have a point in common is connected.
- Proposition 1.4 (Connectedness by Closure)[Munkres, 2000] Let A be a connected subspace of X. If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$, then B is also connected.
- Remark If B is formed by adjoining to the connected subspace A some or all of its limit points, then B is connected.

- Proposition 1.5 (Connectedness by Continuity) [Munkres, 2000]

 The image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected.
- Proposition 1.6 (Connectedness by Finite Product) [Munkres, 2000]
 A finite cartesian product of connected spaces is connected.
- **Remark** Countable infinite product of connected spaces *may not be connected*. It depends on the *topology* of the product space.
- Example (\mathbb{R}^{ω} is Not Connected under Box Topology)

 Consider the cartesian product \mathbb{R}^{ω} in the box topology. We can write \mathbb{R}^{ω} as the union of the set A consisting of all bounded sequences of real numbers, and the set B of all unbounded sequences. These sets are disjoint, and each is open in the box topology.

For if $a = (a_1, a_2, ...)$ is a point of \mathbb{R}^{ω} , the open set

$$U = (a_1 - 1, a_1 + 1) \times (a_2 - 1, a_2 + 1) \times \dots$$

consists *entirely* of *bounded* sequences if a is *bounded*, and of *unbounded* sequences if a is *unbounded*. Thus, even though \mathbb{R} is *connected* (as we shall prove in the next section), \mathbb{R}^{ω} is not connected in the box topology.

• Example (\mathbb{R}^{ω} is Connected under Product Topology) Consider the cartesian product \mathbb{R}^{ω} in the product topology. Let $\widetilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ denote the subspace of \mathbb{R}^{ω} consisting of all sequences $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots)$ such that $x_i = 0$ for i > n. The space $\widetilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is clearly homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n , so that it is connected. It follows that the space \mathbb{R}^{∞} that is the union of the spaces $\widetilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is connected, for these spaces have the point $0 = (0, 0, \ldots)$ in common. We show that the closure of \mathbb{R}^{∞} equals all of \mathbb{R}^{ω} , from which it follows that \mathbb{R}^{ω} is connected as well.

Let $a=(a_1,a_2,\ldots)$ be a point of \mathbb{R}^{ω} . Let $U=\prod_i U_i$ be a **basis** element for the product topology that contains a. We show that U **intersects** \mathbb{R}^{∞} . There is an integer N such that $U_i=\mathbb{R}$ for i>N. Then the point

$$x = (a_1, \ldots, a_n, 0, 0, \ldots)$$

of \mathbb{R}^{ω} belongs to U, since $a_i \in U_i$ for all i, and $0 \in U_i$ for i > N.

1.2 Connected Subspaces of the Real Line

• Definition (*Linear Continuum*)

A *simply ordered set* L having *more than one element* is called a <u>linear continuum</u> if the following hold:

- 1. L has the least upper bound property.
- 2. If x < y, there exists z such that x < z < y.
- Proposition 1.7 (Linear Continuum is Connected) [Munkres, 2000]

 If L is a linear continuum in the order topology, then L is connected, and so are intervals and rays in L.

Proof: Recall that a subspace Y of L is said to be **convex** if for every pair of points a, b of Y with a < b, the entire interval [a, b] of points of L lies in Y. We prove that if Y is a **convex subspace** of L, then Y is **connected** (L itself is **convex**).

So suppose that Y is the union of the disjoint nonempty sets A and B, each of which is **open** in Y. Choose $a \in A$ and $b \in B$; suppose for convenience that a < b. The interval [a, b] of points of L is contained in Y. Hence [a, b] is the union of the disjoint sets

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

each of which is open in [a, b] in the subspace topology, which is the same as the order topology. The sets A_0 and B_0 are nonempty because $a \in A_0$ and $b \in B_0$. Thus, A_0 and B_0 constitute a **separation** of [a, b].

Let $c = \sup A_0$ is **the least upper bound** of A_0 . We show that c belongs **neither** to A_0 nor to B_0 , which contradicts the fact that [a,b] is the union of A_0 and B_0 .

1. Suppose that $c \in B_0$. Then $c \neq a$, so either c = b or a < c < b. In either case, it follows from the fact that B_0 is **open** in [a,b] that there is **some** interval of the form (d,c] contained in B_0 . If c = b, we have a contradiction at once, for d is a **smaller upper bound** on A_0 than c. (To prove d > x for any $x \in A_0$, we assume that there exists some $x_0 \in A_0$ such that $d < x_0$. However, the interval $(d,x_0) \subset (d,b]$ belongs to B_0 , contradiction.)

If c < b, we note that (c, b] does not intersect A_0 (because c is an upper bound on A_0). Then

$$(d,b] = (d,c] \cup (c,b]$$

does not intersect A_0 . Again, d is a **smaller upper bound** on A_0 than c, contrary to construction.

- 2. Suppose that $c \in A_0$. Then $c \neq b$, so either c = a or a < c < b. Because A_0 is open in [a, b], there must be some interval of the form [c, e) contained in A_0 . Because of order property (2) of **the linear continuum** L, we can choose a point z of L such that c < z < e. Then $z \in A_0$, contrary to the fact that c is an upper bound for A_0 .
- Corollary 1.8 (\mathbb{R} is Connected)

 The real line \mathbb{R} is connected and so are intervals and rays in \mathbb{R} .
- Theorem 1.9 (Intermediate Value Theorem). [Munkres, 2000] Let f: X → Y be a continuous map, where X is a connected space and Y is an ordered set in the order topology. If a and b are two points of X and if r is a point of Y lying between f(a) and f(b), then there exists a point c of X such that f(c) = r.

Proof: Assume the hypotheses of the theorem. The sets

$$A = f(X) \cap (-\infty, r)$$
 and $B = f(X) \cap (r, +\infty)$

are disjoint, and they are nonempty because one contains f(a) and the other contains f(b). Each is open in f(X), being the intersection of an open ray in Y with f(X).

If there were no point c of X such that f(c) = r, then f(X) would be the *union* of the sets A and B. Then A and B would constitute a separation of f(X), contradicting the fact that the image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected.

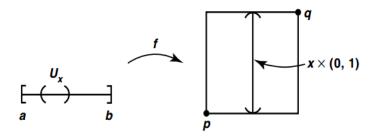


Figure 1: The proof that ordered square is not path connected. [Munkres, 2000]

• Definition (Path Connectedness)

Given points x and y of the space X, a <u>path</u> in X from x to y is a continuous map $f:[a,b] \to X$ of some **closed interval** in the real line into X, such that f(a) = x and f(b) = y.

A space X is said to be <u>path connected</u> if **every pair** of points of X can be **joined by a path** in X.

- Remark It is easy to see that a path-connected space X is connected since X = f([a, b]) is the image of connected space under continuous function f. The converse is not true, i.e. connected $\not\Rightarrow$ path-connected.
- Example (Punctured Euclidean Space $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is Path Connected)

 Define punctured euclidean space to be the space $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, where 0 is the origin in \mathbb{R}^n . If n > 1, this space is path connected: Given x and y different from 0, we can join x and y by the straight-line path between them if that path does not go through the origin. Otherwise, we can choose a point z not on the line joining x and y, and take the broken-line path from x to z, and then from z to y.
- Example (Common Path-Connected Spaces)
 The following spaces are path-connected:
 - 1. The unit ball $\mathbb{B}^n = \{x : ||x|| \le 1\}$ is path-connected;
 - 2. The unit sphere \mathbb{S}^{n-1} in \mathbb{R}^n by the equation $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} = \{x : ||x|| = 1\}$ is path connected. For the map $g : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ defined by g(x) = x/||x|| is continuous and surjective; and the continuous image of path connected space is path connected.
- Example The ordered square I_o^2 is connected but not path connected.

Proof: Being a linear continuum, the ordered square is **connected**. Let p = (0,0) and q = (1,1). We suppose there is a path $f: [a,b] \to I_o^2$ joining p and q and derive a contradiction.

The image set f([a, b]) must contain every point (x, y) of I_o^2 , by the intermediate value theorem. Therefore, for each $x \in I$, the set

$$U_x = f^{-1}(x \times (0,1))$$

is a nonempty subset of [a,b]; by continuity, it is **open** in [a,b]. See Figure 1. Choose, for each $x \in I$, a **rational number** q_x belonging to U_x . Since the sets U_x are disjoint, the map $x \mapsto q_x$ is an **injective** mapping of I into \mathbb{Q} . This contradicts the fact that the interval I is **uncountable** (which we shall prove later)

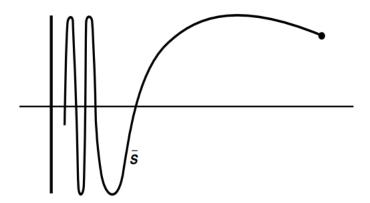


Figure 2: The topologist's sine curve is connected but not path connected. [Munkres, 2000]

• Example The topologist's sine curve is defined as the closure \bar{S} of the set

$$S = \{(x, \sin(1/x)) : 0 < x \le 1\}.$$

S is connected but not path-connected.

Note that f(t) = (x(t), y(t)) where x(t) = t and $y(t) = \sin(1/x(t))$ are both continuous, so f(t) is continuous. S is the image of the connected set (0,1] under a continuous map f, so S is **connected**. Therefore, **its closure** \bar{S} in \mathbb{R}^2 is also connected. From Figure 2, we see that \bar{S} equals the union of S and the vertical interval $0 \times [-1,1]$. We show that \bar{S} is not path connected.

Suppose there is a path $f:[a,c]\to \bar{S}$ beginning at the origin and ending at a point of S. The set of those t for which $f(t)\in 0\times [-1,1]$ is **closed**, so it has a **largest element** b. Then $f:[b,c]\to \bar{S}$ is a path that maps b into the vertical interval $0\times [-1,1]$ and maps the other points of [b,c] to points of S.

Replace [b,c] by [0,1] for convenience; let f(t)=(x(t),y(t)). Then x(0)=0, while x(t)>0 and $y(t)=\sin(1/x(t))$ for t>0. We show there is a sequence of points $t_n\to 0$ such that $y(t_n)=(-1)^n$. Then the sequence $y(t_n)$ does not converge, contradicting continuity of f.

To find t_n , we proceed as follows: Given n, choose u with 0 < u < x(1/n) such that $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$. Then use the intermediate value theorem to find t_n with $0 < t_n < 1/n$ such that $x(t_n) = u$.

1.3 Components and Local Connectedness

• Given an arbitrary space X, there is a natural way to **break** it up into pieces that are connected (or path connected).

Definition (Connected Component as Equivalence Class)

Given X, define an equivalence relation on X by setting $x \sim y$ if there is a **connected** subspace of X containing both x and y. The equivalence classes are called the **components** (or the **connected components**) of X.

- Proposition 1.10 (Characterization of Connected Components)

 The components of X are connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X, such that each nonempty connected subspace of X intersects only one of them.
- **Definition** ($Path\ Component$)
 We define another equivalence relation on the space X by defining $x \sim y$ if there is a path in X from x to y. The equivalence classes are called **the** $path\ components$ of X.
- Proposition 1.11 (Characterization of Path Components)

 The path components of X are path-connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X, such that each nonempty path-connected subspace of X intersects only one of them.
- Example Each connected component of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} consists of a single point. None of the components of \mathbb{Q} are open in \mathbb{Q} .
- Example The "topologists sine curve \bar{S} of the preceding section is a space that has a single component (since it is connected) and two path components. One path component is the curve S and the other is the vertical interval $V = 0 \times [-1, 1]$. Note that S is open in \bar{S} but not closed, while V is closed but not open.

If one forms a space from \bar{S} by **deleting** all points of V having **rational second coordinate**, one obtains a space that has **only one component** but **uncountably many path components**.

- Remark From the example of topologist's sine curve, we see that the connectedness does not imply the path-connectedness since neither of two path components are both open and closed. Note that the vertical line is the set of limit points of the curve $\sin(1/x)$ but not every sequence approaches to the vertical curve is convergent.
- Definition (Locally Connected and Locally Path-Connected)
 A space X is said to be <u>locally connected at x</u> if for every neighborhood U of x, there is a connected neighborhood V of x contained in U. If X is locally connected at each of its points, it is said simply to be locally connected.

Similarly, a space X is said to be <u>locally path connected at x</u> if for every neighborhood U of x, there is a <u>path-connected neighborhood V of x contained in U. If X is <u>locally path connected at each of its points</u>, then it is said to be <u>locally path connected</u>.</u>

- Example See some of examples below:
 - 1. The intervals and rays in \mathbb{R} are both connected and locally connected.
 - 2. The subspace $[1,0) \cup (0,1]$ of \mathbb{R} is **not connected**, but it is **locally connected**.
 - 3. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are neither connected nor locally connected.
 - 4. The topologists sine curve is **connected** but **not locally connected**.
- Proposition 1.12 (Characterization of Locally Connectedness) [Munkres, 2000]
 A space X is locally connected if and only if for every open set U of X, each component of U is open in X.
- Proposition 1.13 (Characterization of Locally Path-Connectedness) [Munkres, 2000] A space X is locally path connected if and only if for every open set U of X, each path component of U is open in X.

• Proposition 1.14 (Relationship between Components and Path Components)
If X is a topological space, each path component of X lies in a component of X. If X is locally path connected, then the components and the path components of X are the same.

2 Compact Spaces

Remark (Metric Space and Compact Hausdorff Space)

Two of the most well-behaved classes of spaces to deal with in mathematics are the metrizable spaces and the compact Hausdorff spaces.

1. Metrizable space (X, d):

- subspace of metrizable space is meterizable;
- compact subspace of metric space is bounded in that metric and is closed;
- every metrizable space is **normal** (T_4) ;
- \bullet compactness = sequential compactness = limit point compactness;
- sequence lemma: for $A \subset X$, $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if there exists a squence of points in A that converges to x. (\Rightarrow need X being metric space);
- f is **continuous** at x if and only if $x_n \to x$ leads to $f(x_n) \to f(x)$ (\Leftarrow part holds for metric space)
- unform limit theorem: If the range of f_n is a metric space and f_n are continuous, then $f_n \to f$ uniformly means that f is a continuous function.
- $unform\ continuity\ theorem$: if f is a countinous map between two $metric\ spaces$, and the domain is compact, then f is $uniformly\ continuous$.

2. Compact Hausdorff Space:

- subspace of compact Hausdorff space is compact Hausdorff if and only if it is closed.
- *closed subspace* of *compact* space is *compact*;
- compact subspace of Hausdorff space is closed;
- compact Hausdorff space X is **normal** (T_4) , thus it is **completely regular**;
- arbitrary product of compact (Hausdorff) space is compact (Hausdorff);
- $compactness \Rightarrow sequential\ compactness$;
- compactness = net compactness, i.e. every net has a convergence subnet;
- *image* of *compact* space under continuous map f is *compact*;
- continuous bijection between two compact Hausdorff spaces is a homemorphism (and is a closed map);
- closed graph theorem: f is continuous if and only if its graph is closed;

• uncountability: for compact Hausdorff space, if the space has no isolated points, then it is uncountable;

2.1 Definitions

• Definition (Covering of Set and Open Covering of Topological Set)

A collection of a subsets of a space X is said to cover X or to be a covering of X if

A collection \mathscr{A} of subsets of a space X is said to <u>cover X</u>, or to be a <u>covering</u> of X, if the union of the elements of \mathscr{A} is equal to X.

It is called an *open covering of* X if its elements are *open subsets* of X.

• Definition (Compactness)

A topological space X is said to be <u>compact</u> if every open covering $\mathscr A$ of X contains a **finite** subcollection that also covers X.

• Example (Compactness is a strong condition)
Consider the following examples that are connected by not compact:

- 1. The *real line* \mathbb{R} is *not compact* since the open covering $\mathscr{A} = \{(n, n+2) : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ has no finite sub-covering.
- 2. The *half interval* (0,1] is *not compact* since the open covering $\mathscr{A} = \{(1/n,1] : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ has no finite sub-covering.
- $\bullet \ \mathbf{Example} \ (\textit{Finite Set is Compact}) \\$

Any space X containing only **finitely** many points is necessarily **compact**, because in this case every open covering of X is finite.

• Example The following *subspace* of \mathbb{R} is *compact*:

$$X = \{0\} \cup \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}.$$

(It is not connected.)

Given an open covering \mathscr{A} of X, there is **an element** U of \mathscr{A} containing 0. The set U contains **all but finitely many** of the points 1/n; choose, for each point of X **not in** U, an element of \mathscr{A} containing it. The collection consisting of these elements of \mathscr{A} , along with the element U, is a finite subcollection of \mathscr{A} that covers X.

- **Definition** If Y is a subspace of X, a collection \mathscr{A} of subsets of X is said to **cover** Y if the union of its elements contains Y.
- Lemma 2.1 Let Y be a subspace of X. Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X contains a finite subcollection covering Y.
- Remark A *compact subset* of a topological space is one that is a compact space in the *subspace topology*.
- Proposition 2.2 (Compactness by Closed Subspace) [Munkres, 2000] Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

Proof: Let Y be a **closed** subspace of the compact space X. Given a **covering** \mathscr{A} of Y by sets **open** in X, let us form an open covering \mathscr{B} of X by adjoining to \mathscr{A} the single open set

 $X \setminus Y$, that is,

$$\mathscr{B} = \mathscr{A} \cup (X \setminus Y).$$

Some *finite* subcollection of \mathscr{B} covers X. If this subcollection contains the set $X \setminus Y$, discard $X \setminus Y$; otherwise, leave the subcollection alone. The resulting collection is a finite subcollection of \mathscr{A} that covers Y.

• Proposition 2.3 (Compact Subspace + Hausdorff ⇒ Closedness) [Munkres, 2000] Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Proof: Let Y be a *compact* subspace of the *Hausdorff* space X. We shall prove that $X \setminus Y$ is *open*, so that Y is *closed*.

Let x_0 be a point of $X \setminus Y$. We show there is a **neighborhood** of x_0 that is **disjoint** from Y. For each point y of Y, let us choose disjoint neighborhoods U_y and V_y of the points x_0 and y, respectively (using the Hausdorff condition). The collection $\{V_y : y \in Y\}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X; therefore, finitely many of them V_{y_1}, \ldots, V_{y_n} cover Y. The open set

$$V = V_{y_1} \cup \ldots \cup V_{y_n}$$

contains Y, and it is **disjoint** from the open set

$$U = U_{y_1} \cap \ldots \cap U_{y_n}$$

formed by taking the intersection of the corresponding neighborhoods of x_0 . For if z is a point of V, then $z \in V_{y_i}$ for some i, hence $z \notin U_{y_i}$ and so $z \notin U$. Then U is a neighborhood of x_0 disjoint from Y, as desired.

- Proposition 2.4 If Y is a compact subspace of the Hausdorff space X and x_0 is not in Y, then there exist disjoint open sets U and V of X containing x_0 and Y, respectively.
- Remark To prove the compact subspace is closed, one need the Hausdorff condition.
- Exercise 2.5 (Compact Subspace in Metric Space)
 Show that every compact subspace of a metric space is bounded in that metric and is closed. Find a metric space in which not every closed bounded subspace is compact.
- Proposition 2.6 (Compactness by Continuity) [Munkres, 2000]

 The image of a compact space under a continuous map is compact.
- Exercise 2.7 Show that if $f: X \to Y$ is continuous, where X is compact and Y is Hausdorff, then f is a closed map (that is, f carries closed sets to closed sets)
- Exercise 2.8 Show that if Y is compact, then the projection $\pi_1: X \times Y \to X$ is a closed map.
- Theorem 2.9 (Closed Graph Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Munkres, 2000] Let f: X → Y; let Y be <u>compact Hausdorff</u>. Then f is <u>continuous if and only if</u> the graph of f,

$$G(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in X\},\$$

is **closed** in $X \times Y$.

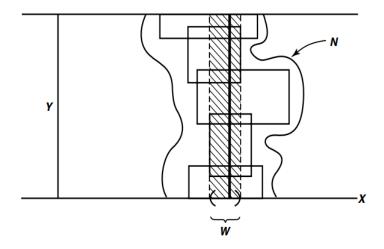


Figure 3: The tube of a slice $x_0 \times Y$ in neighborhood N of product space. [Munkres, 2000]

• Theorem 2.10 (Homemorphism by Compactness and Hausdorff) [Munkres, 2000] Let f: X → Y be a bijective continuous function. If X is compact and Y is Hausdorff, then f is a homeomorphism.

Proof: We shall prove that *images* of *closed sets* of X under f are *closed* in Y (i.e. f is a *closed map*); this will prove *continuity* of the inverse map f^{-1} . If A is a *closed subspace* in X, then A is *compact*. Therefore, by the proposition above, f(A) is *compact*. Since Y is *Hausdorff*, the compact subspace f(A) is *closed* in Y.

• Proposition 2.11 (Compactness by Finite Product) [Munkres, 2000] The product of finitely many compact spaces is compact.

Lemma 2.12 (The Tube Lemma). [Munkres, 2000]

Consider the product space $X \times Y$, where Y is **compact**. If N is an open set of $X \times Y$ containing the **slice** $x_0 \times Y$ of $X \times Y$, then N contains some **tube** $W \times Y$ about $x_0 \times Y$, where W is a **neighborhood** of x_0 in X.

- Remark (Compactness by Infinite Product)
 - Unlike the connectedness property, which may not hold for infinite product space, the infinite product of compact space is indeed compact. This is called **the Tychonoff theorem**,
- To prove *compactness*, the following property is useful:

Definition (Finite Intersection Property)

A collection $\mathscr C$ of subsets of X is said to have the finite intersection property if for every finite subcollection

$$\{C_1,\ldots,C_n\}$$

of \mathscr{C} , the *intersection* $C_1 \cap \ldots \cap C_n$ is *nonempty*.

• Proposition 2.13 (Equivalent Definition of Compactness) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if for every collection \mathscr{C} of closed sets in X having the finite intersection property, the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathscr{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathscr{C} is nonempty. **Proof:** Given a collection \mathscr{A} of subsets of X, let

$$\mathscr{C} = \{X \setminus A : A \in \mathscr{A}\}\$$

be the collection of their *complements*. Then the following statements hold:

- 1. \mathscr{A} is a collection of open sets if and only if \mathscr{C} is a collection of closed sets.
- 2. The collection \mathscr{A} covers X if and only if the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathscr{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathscr{C} is empty.
- 3. The *finite subcollection* $\{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ of \mathscr{A} covers X if and only if the *intersection* of the corresponding elements $C_i = X \setminus A_i$ of \mathscr{C} is *empty*.

The proof of the theorem now proceeds in two easy steps: taking the *contrapositive* (of the theorem), and then the *complement* (of the sets)!

There are two equivalent statements regarding the compactness of set:

- 1. "Given any collection $\mathscr A$ of open subsets of X, if $\mathscr A$ covers X, then some finite subcollection of $\mathscr A$ covers X."
- 2. "Given any collection $\mathscr A$ of open sets, if **no finite subcollection** of $\mathscr A$ covers X, then A does not cover X."
- 3. \Rightarrow "Given any collection $\mathscr C$ of closed sets, if every finite intersection of elements of $\mathscr C$ is nonempty, then the intersection of all the elements of $\mathscr C$ is nonempty"
- Remark (Nested Sequence of Closed Sets in Compact Space) A special case of this proposition occurs when we have a nested sequence $C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \ldots \supseteq C_n \supseteq \ldots$ of closed sets in a compact space X.

If each of the sets C_n is nonempty, then the collection $\mathscr{C} = \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$ automatically has **the** finite intersection property. Then the intersection

$$\bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{Z}_+} C_n$$

is nonempty.

2.2 Compact Subspaces of the Real Line

- Theorem 2.14 [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a simply ordered set having the least upper bound property. In the order topology, each closed interval in X is compact.
- Corollary 2.15 (Closed Interval in Real Line is Compact) [Munkres, 2000] Every closed interval in \mathbb{R} is compact.
- Proposition 2.16 (Closed and Bounded in Euclidean Metric = Compact)[Munkres, 2000]

A subspace A of \mathbb{R}^n is compact if and only if it is <u>closed</u> and is <u>bounded</u> in the <u>euclidean</u> metric d or the square metric ρ

- Theorem 2.17 (Extreme Value Theorem). [Munkres, 2000] Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous, where Y is an ordered set in the order topology. If X is compact, then there exist points c and d in X such that $f(c) \le f(x) \le f(d)$ for every $x \in X$.
- **Definition** (*Distance to Subset*) Let (X, d) be a *metric space*; let A be a nonempty subset of X. For each $x \in X$, we define *the distance from* x *to* A by the equation

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

- **Remark** The distance to subset d(x : A) is a **continuous** function with respect to the first argument.
- Remark Recall that the *diameter* of a bounded subset A of a metric space (X, d) is the number

$$\sup \{d(a_1, a_2) : a_1, a_2 \in A\}.$$

• Lemma 2.18 (The Lebesgue Number Lemma). [Munkres, 2000] Let $\mathscr A$ be an open covering of the metric space (X,d). If X is compact, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for each subset of X having diameter less than δ , there exists an element of $\mathscr A$ containing it.

The number δ is called a **Lebesgue number** for the covering \mathscr{A} .

• Remark *The Lebesgue number* is a *threshold on diameter of subset* so that all of subsets with diameter less than this threshold is fully contained in one of the open sets in the covering of X. The *existance* of this number relies on the *compactness* of domain X.

This number is used in ϵ - δ condition to prove the uniform continuity.

• Definition (*Uniform Continuity*)

A function $f:(X,d_X)\to (Y,d_Y)$ is said to be <u>uniformly continuous</u> if given $\epsilon>0$, there is a $\delta>0$ such that for every pair of points x_0 , x_1 of X,

$$d_X(x_0, x_1) < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad d_Y(f(x_0), f(x_1)) < \epsilon.$$

• Theorem 2.19 (Uniform Continuity Theorem). [Munkres, 2000] Let $f: X \to Y$ be a continuous map of the compact metric space (X, d_X) to the metric space (Y, d_Y) . Then f is uniformly continuous.

Proof: Given $\epsilon > 0$, take *the open covering* of Y by balls $B(y, \epsilon/2)$ of radius $\epsilon/2$. Let \mathscr{A} be *the open covering* of X by *the inverse images of these balls under* f. Choose δ to be a *Lebesgue number* for the covering \mathscr{A} . Then if x_1 and x_2 are two points of X such that $d_X(x_1, x_2) < \delta$, the two-point set $\{x_1, x_2\}$ has diameter less than δ , so that its image $\{f(x_1), f(x_2)\}$ lies in some ball $B(y, \epsilon/2)$. Then $d_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2)) < \epsilon$, as desired.

• Remark

f continuous + compact domain $\Rightarrow f$ uniformly continuous

• **Definition** If X is a space, a point x of X is said to be **an isolated point** of X if the one-point set $\{x\}$ is **open** in X.

- Theorem 2.20 (Uncountability in Compact Hausdorff Space) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a nonempty compact Hausdorff space. If X has no isolated points, then X is uncountable.
- Corollary 2.21 [Munkres, 2000] Every closed interval in \mathbb{R} is uncountable.
- Exercise 2.22 (Cantor Set) [Munkres, 2000] Let A_0 be the closed interval [0,1] in \mathbb{R} . Let A_1 be the set obtained from A_0 by deleting its "middle third (1/3,2/3). Let A_2 be the set obtained from A_1 by deleting its "middle thirds (1/9,2/9) and (7/9,8/9). In general, define A_n by the equation

$$A_n = A_{n-1} \setminus \left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1+3k}{3^k}, \frac{2+3k}{3^k} \right) \right).$$

The intersection

$$C = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} A_n$$

is called <u>the Cantor set</u>; it is a subspace of [0,1].

- 1. Show that C is totally disconnected.
- 2. Show that C is compact.
- 3. Show that each set A_n is a union of finitely many disjoint closed intervals of length $1/3^n$; and show that the end points of these intervals lie in C.
- 4. Show that C has **no isolated points**.
- 5. Conclude that C is uncountable.

2.3 Limit Point Compactness

- Definition (*Limit Point Compactness*)
 A space X is said to be *limit point compact* if every infinite subset of X has a *limit point*.
- Proposition 2.23 (Compactness ⇒ Limit Point Compactness) [Munkres, 2000] Compactness implies limit point compactness, but not conversely.
- Example (Limit Point Compactness \neq Compactness) Let Y consist of two points; give Y the topology consisting of Y and the empty set. Then the space $X = \mathbb{Z}_+ \times Y$ is limit point compact, for every nonempty subset of X has a limit point. It is not compact, for the covering of X by the open sets $U_n = \{n\} \times Y$ has no finite subcollection covering X.
- Definition (Sequential Compactness) Let X be a topological space. If (x_n) is a sequence of points of X, and if

$$n_1 < n_2 < \ldots < n_i < \ldots$$

is an increasing sequence of positive integers, then the sequence (y_i) defined by setting $y_i = x_{n_i}$ is called a **subsequence** of the sequence (x_n) .

The space X is said to be <u>sequentially compact</u> if every sequence of points of X has a convergent subsequence.

• Theorem 2.24 (Equivalent Definitions of Compactness in Metric Space) [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a metrizable space. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. X is compact.
- 2. X is limit point compact.
- 3. X is sequentially compact.

2.4 Local Compactness

• Definition (*Local Compactness*)

A space X is said to be <u>locally compact at x</u> if there is some **compact subspace** C of X that contains a neighborhood of x.

If X is locally compact at each of its points, X is said simply to be locally compact.

- Example For the one-dimensional space:
 - 1. The real line \mathbb{R} is *locally compact*. The point x lies in some interval (a, b), which in turn is *contained* in the compact subspace [a, b].
 - 2. The subspace \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is **not locally compact**.
- **Example** For product space of \mathbb{R} :
 - 1. The **finite dimensional space** \mathbb{R}^n is **locally compact**; the point x lies in some basis element $(a_1, b_1) \times \ldots \times (a_n, b_n)$, which in turn lies in the compact subspace $[a_1, b_1] \times \ldots \times [a_n, b_n]$.
 - 2. The countable infinite dimensional space \mathbb{R}^{ω} is not locally compact; none of its basis elements are contained in compact subspaces. For if

$$B = (a_1, b_1) \times \ldots \times (a_n, b_n) \times \mathbb{R} \times \ldots \times \mathbb{R} \times \ldots$$

were contained in a compact subspace, then its closure

$$\bar{B} = [a_1, b_1] \times \ldots \times [a_n, b_n] \times \mathbb{R} \times \ldots \times \mathbb{R} \times \ldots$$

would be *compact*, which it is not.

- Example (Simply Ordered Set with Least Upper Bound Property)
 Every simply ordered set X having the least upper bound property is locally compact:
 Given a basis element for X, it is contained in a closed interval in X, which is compact.
- Example (Manifold) [Lee, 2018] Every <u>topological manifold</u> is locally compact Hausdorff.

Thus every smooth manifold is locally compact Hausdorff.

• Definition (*Precompactness*)
A subset of X is said to be *precompact* in X if its *closure* in X is *compact*.

• If X is not a compact Hausdorff space, then under what conditions is X homeomorphic with a **subspace** of a compact Hausdorff space?

Theorem 2.25 (Unique One-Point Compactification) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space. Then X is <u>locally compact Hausdorff</u> if and only if there exists a space Y satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. X is a subspace of Y.
- 2. The set $Y \setminus X$ consists of a single point (which is the limit point of X).
- 3. Y is a compact Hausdorff space.

If Y and Y' are two spaces satisfying these conditions, then there is a **homeomorphism** of Y with Y' that equals **the identity map** on X.

 $\bullet \ \ {\bf Definition} \ \ ({\it One-Point} \ \ {\it Compactification})$

If Y is a *compact Hausdorff* space and X is a proper *subspace* of Y whose *closure* equals Y, then Y is said to be a *compactification* of X.

If $Y \setminus X$ equals a single point, then Y is called **the one-point compactification** of X.

• Remark (Locally Compact Hausdorff = Existence of Unique One-Point Compactification)

X has a *one-point compactification* Y if and only if X is a *locally compact Hausdorff* space that is *not itself compact*.

We speak of Y as "the" one-point compactification because Y is uniquely determined up to a homeomorphism.

• Example *The one-point compactification* of the real line \mathbb{R} is *homeomorphic* with the *circle* \mathbb{S}^1 .

Similarly, the one-point compactification of \mathbb{R}^2 is homeomorphic to the sphere \mathbb{S}^2 .

- Proposition 2.26 (Locally Compact Hausdorff = Precompact Basis) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a Hausdorff space. Then X is locally compact if and only if given x in X, and given a neighborhood U of x, there is a neighborhood V of x such that \bar{V} is compact and $\bar{V} \subseteq U$.
- Corollary 2.27 (Closed or Open Subspace) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be locally compact Hausdorff; let A be a subspace of X. If A is closed in X or open in X, then A is locally compact.
- Corollary 2.28 [Munkres, 2000]
 A space X is homeomorphic to an open subspace of a compact Hausdorff space if and only if X is locally compact Hausdorff.
- $\bullet \ \mathbf{Remark} \ \mathit{Locally} \ \mathit{Compact} \ \mathit{Hausdorff} = \ \mathit{Open} \ \mathit{Subspace} \ \mathit{of} \ \mathit{Compact} \ \mathit{Hausorff}$
- Theorem 2.29 [Treves, 2016] Every locally compact Hausdorff topological vector space is finite-dimensional.
- Remark (Equivalent Definition of Locally Compact Hausdorff Space)
 For a Hausdorff space X, the following are equivalent:

- 1. X is locally compact.
- 2. Each point of X has a precompact neighborhood.
- 3. X has a basis of **precompact** open subsets.

3 Nets and Convergence in Topological Space

• Definition (Directed System of Index Set)

A directed system is an index set I together with an ordering \prec which satisfies:

- 1. If $\alpha, \beta \in l$ then there exists $\gamma \in I$ so that $\gamma \succ \alpha$ and $\gamma \succ \beta$.
- 2. \prec is a partial ordering.
- **Definition** A subset K of I is said to be <u>cofinal</u> in I if for each $\alpha \in I$, there exists $\beta \in K$ such that $\alpha \leq \beta$.
- Proposition 3.1 If I is a directed system, and K is cofinal in I, then K is a directed system.
- Definition (Net)

A <u>net</u> in a topological space X is a mapping from a *directed system* I to X; we denote it by $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$

- Remark (Net vs. Sequence)
 - **Net** is a generalization and abstraction of **sequence**. The directed system I is **not necessarily countable**. So $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ may not be a countable sequence. A sequence is a net with countable index set $I\subseteq \mathbb{N}$. The directed system can be any set e.g. a graph.
- **Definition** If $P(\alpha)$ is a **proposition** depending on an **index** α in a directed set I we say $P(\alpha)$ **is eventually true** if there is a β in I with $P(\alpha)$ true if for all $\alpha > \beta$.

We say $\underline{P(\alpha)}$ is frequently true if it is **not** eventually false, that is, if for any β there exists an $\alpha \succ \beta$ with $\underline{P(\alpha)}$ true.

• Definition (Convergence)

A $net \{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ in a topological space X is said to $\underline{converge}$ to a point $x\in X$ (written $x_{\alpha}\to x$) if for any neighborhood N of x, there exists a $\beta\in l$ so that $x_{\alpha}\in N$ if $\alpha\succeq \beta$. The point x that being converged to is called the limit point of x_{α} .

Note that if $x_{\alpha} \to x$, then x_{α} is <u>eventually</u> in all neighborhoods of x. If x_{α} is <u>frequently</u> in any neighborhood of x, we say that x is a cluster point of x_{α} .

- Remark This definition generalizes the ϵ - δ language for convergence in metric space. Notice that the notions of *limit* and *cluster point* generalize the same notions for sequences in a metric space..
- Proposition 3.2 (Net Lemma) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 Let A be a set in a topological space X. Then, a point x ∈ Ā, the closure of A if and only if there is a net {x_α}_{α∈I} with x_α ∈ A, So that x_α → x.
- Proposition 3.3 [Munkres, 2000]
 - 1. (Continuous Function): A function f from a topological space X to a topological

- space Y is continuous if and only if for every convergent net $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ in X, with $x_{\alpha}\to x$, the net $\{f(x_{\alpha})\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ converges in Y to f(x).
- 2. (Uniqueness of Limit Point for Hausdorff Space): Let X be a Hausdorff space. Then a net $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ in X can have at most one limit; that is, if $x_{\alpha}\to x$ and $x_{\alpha}\to y$, then x=y.
- **Definition** A net $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ is a <u>subnet</u> of a net $\{y_{\beta}\}_{{\beta}\in J}$ if and only if there is a function $F:I\to J$ such that
 - 1. $x_{\alpha} = y_{F(\alpha)}$ for each $\alpha \in I$.
 - 2. For all $\beta' \in J$, there is an $\alpha' \in I$ such that $\alpha \succ \alpha'$ implies $F(\alpha) \succ \beta'$ (that is, $F(\alpha)$ is eventually larger than any fixed $\beta \in J \Rightarrow F(I)$ is cofinal in J).
- Proposition 3.4 A point x in a topological space X is a cluster point of a net $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ if and only if some subnet of $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ converges to x.
- Theorem 3.5 (The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Munkres, 2000]

A space X is compact if and only if every net in X has a convergent subnet.

Proof: To prove the implication \Rightarrow , let $B_{\alpha} = \{x_{\beta} : \alpha \leq \beta\}$ and show that $\{B_{\alpha}\}$ has **the** finite intersection property.

To prove \Leftarrow , let \mathscr{A} be a collection of **closed sets** having the finite intersection property, and let \mathscr{B} be the collection of all finite intersections of elements of \mathscr{A} , **partially ordered** by reverse inclusion.

• Remark (Compactness via Generalized Sequential Compactness)

By generalization of squences \Rightarrow nets, we obtain a generalization of the result of sequential compactnesss in metric space to compactness in general topological space.

With *first countable property*, we can use subsequence and sequence in place of subnet and net.

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