

# Lecture 2: Topological Space and Continuous Functions

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# 1 Topological Spaces

## 1.1 Definitions

- **Definition** [Munkres, 2000]

Let  $X$  be a set. A **topology** on  $X$  is a collection  $\mathcal{T}$  of subsets of  $X$ , called **open subsets**, satisfying

1.  $X$  and  $\emptyset$  are *open*.
2. The **union** of *any family* of open subsets is open.
3. The **intersection** of *any finite family* of open subsets is open.

A pair  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  consisting of a set  $X$  together with a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $X$  is called a **topological space**.

- **Example** (*Discrete and Trivial Topology*)

If  $X$  is any set, the collection of **all subsets** of  $X$  is a topology on  $X$ ; it is called the discrete topology.

The collection consisting of  $X$  and  $\emptyset$  only is also a topology on  $X$ ; we shall call it *the indiscrete topology*, or the trivial topology.

- **Example** (*The Finite Complement Topology*)

Let  $X$  be a set; let  $\mathcal{T}_f$  be the collection of all subsets  $U$  of  $X$  such that  $X \setminus U$  either is **finite** or is **all of**  $X$ . Then  $\mathcal{T}_f$  is a topology on  $X$ , called the finite complement topology.

Both  $X$  and  $\emptyset$  are in  $\mathcal{T}_f$ , since  $X \setminus X = \emptyset$  is finite and  $X \setminus \emptyset$  is all of  $X$ . If  $\{U_\alpha\}$  is an *indexed family of nonempty elements* of  $\mathcal{T}_f$ , to show that  $\cup_\alpha U_\alpha$  is in  $\mathcal{T}_f$ , we compute

$$X \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha} = \bigcap_{\alpha} (X \setminus U_{\alpha})$$

The latter set is *finite* because each set  $X \setminus U_{\alpha}$  is *finite*. If  $U_1, \dots, U_n$  are nonempty elements of  $\mathcal{T}_f$ , to show that  $\cap_i U_i$  is in  $\mathcal{T}_f$ , we compute

$$X - \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (X - U_i)$$

The latter set is a *finite union of finite sets* and, therefore, *finite*. ■

- **Definition** (*Comparable Topologies on the Same Set*)

Suppose that  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  are two topologies on a given set  $X$ . If  $\mathcal{T}' \supseteq \mathcal{T}$ , we say that  $\mathcal{T}'$  is **finer** (or **stronger**) than  $\mathcal{T}$ ; if  $\mathcal{T}'$  **properly contains**  $\mathcal{T}$ , we say that  $\mathcal{T}'$  is **strictly finer** than  $\mathcal{T}$ .

We also say that  $\mathcal{T}$  is **coarser** (or **weaker**) than  $\mathcal{T}'$ , or **strictly coarser**, in these two respective situations. We say  $\mathcal{T}$  is **comparable** with  $\mathcal{T}'$  if either  $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  or  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ .

- **Remark** *Topology* of a set  $X$  defines **all local information** we know regarding a set. For each point  $x \in X$ , it specifies what do we mean by a “**neighborhood**”  $U$  of  $x$ . Thus properties that relies on the **local characteristic** of the space likely depend on the topology of the space. Examples include *the continuity* of function, *the convergence properties* of sequence and *differential properties* of function.

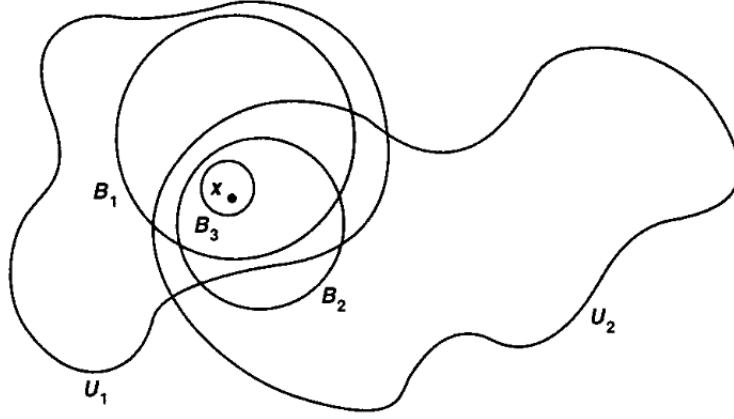


Figure 1: The basis of a topology [Munkres, 2000]

## 1.2 Basis for a Topology

- **Definition** Suppose  $X$  is a topological space. A collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of open subsets of  $X$  is said to be a **basis** for the topology of  $X$  (plural: **bases**) if every open subset of  $X$  is the *union of some collection of elements* of  $\mathcal{B}$ .

More generally, suppose  $X$  is merely a set, and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a collection of *subsets* of  $X$  satisfying the following conditions:

1.  $X = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$ .
2. If  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$  and  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , then there exists  $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$ .

Then the collection of **all unions** of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  is a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $X$ , called **the topology  $\mathcal{T}$  generated by  $\mathcal{B}$** , and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a **basis** for this topology.

- **Remark (*Basis Element in Each Neighborhood*)**  
By definition, a subset  $U$  of  $X$  is said to be **open** in  $X$  (that is, to be an element of  $\mathcal{T}$ ) if for each  $x \in U$ , there exists a **basis element**  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subset U$ . Note that each basis element is itself an element of  $\mathcal{T}$ .
- **Lemma 1.1** Let  $X$  be a set; let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis for a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $X$ . Then  $\mathcal{T}$  equals the collection of **all unions** of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- **Remark** This lemma states that every open set  $U$  in  $X$  can be expressed as a *union of basis elements*. This expression for  $U$  is **not**, however, **unique**.
- **Lemma 1.2 (*Obtaining Basis from Given Topology*)**. [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $X$  be a topological space. Suppose that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of open sets of  $X$  such that for each open set  $U$  of  $X$  and each  $x$  in  $U$ , there is an element  $C$  of  $\mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \in C \subset U$ . Then  $\mathcal{C}$  is a basis for the topology of  $X$ .
- **Lemma 1.3 (*Topology Comparison via Bases*)**. [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{B}'$  be bases for the topologies  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$ , respectively, on  $X$ . Then the following are equivalent:
  1.  $\mathcal{T}'$  is **finer** than  $\mathcal{T}$ .

2. For each  $x \in X$  and each basis element  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  containing  $x$ , there is a basis element  $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subset B$ .

- **Remark** The **basis element** of **finer topology** are always **smaller** than the **basis element** of **coarser topology** so the finer basis element should be included in coarser basis element.

- **Example** (**Topology in  $\mathbb{R}$** )

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is the collection of all **open intervals** in the real line,

$$(a, b) = \{x : a < x < b\},$$

the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  is called **the standard topology** on the real line. Whenever we consider  $\mathbb{R}$ , we shall suppose it is given this topology unless we specifically state otherwise.

If  $\mathcal{B}'$  is the collection of all **half-open intervals** of the form

$$[a, b) = \{x : a \leq x < b\},$$

where  $a < b$ , the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}'$  is called **the lower limit topology on  $\mathbb{R}$** . When  $\mathbb{R}$  is given **the lower limit topology**, we denote it by  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$ .

Finally let  $K$  denote **the set of all numbers of the form  $1/n$** , for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , and let  $\mathcal{B}''$  be the collection of **all open intervals  $(a, b)$** , along with **all sets of the form  $(a, b) \setminus K$** . The topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}''$  will be called **the  $K$ -topology on  $\mathbb{R}$** . When  $\mathbb{R}$  is given this topology, we denote  $\mathbb{R}_K$ .

**Lemma 1.4** *The topologies of  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$  and  $\mathbb{R}_K$  are **strictly finer** than **the standard topology** on  $\mathbb{R}$ , but are not comparable with one another.*

- **Definition** (**Subbasis**)

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

- **Remark** (**Basis from Subbasis**)

For a **subbasis  $\mathcal{S}$** , the collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of **all finite intersections** of elements of  $\mathcal{S}$  is a **basis**,

### 1.3 The Order Topology

- **Example** (**Order Topology**)

If  $X$  is a **simply ordered set**, there is a **standard topology** for  $X$ , defined using the order relation. It is called **the order topology**. The order topology is generated by **intervals**.

- **Definition** (**Intervals based on Simple Order Relation**)

Suppose that  $X$  is a set having a **simple order relation  $<$** . Given elements  $a$  and  $b$  of  $X$  such that  $a < b$ , there are **four subsets** of  $X$  that are called **the intervals** determined by  $a$  and  $b$ . They are the following :

$$(a, b) = \{x : a < x < b\},$$

$$(a, b] = \{x : a < x \leq b\},$$

$$[a, b) = \{x : a \leq x < b\},$$

$$[a, b] = \{x : a \leq x \leq b\}.$$

A set of the *first* type is called **an open interval** in  $X$ , a set of the *last* type is called **a closed interval** in  $X$ , and sets of the *second and third* types are called **half-open intervals**.

- **Definition** Let  $X$  be a set with a **simple order relation**; assume  $X$  has more than one element. Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be the collection of all sets of the following types:

1. **All open intervals**  $(a, b)$  in  $X$ .
2. **All intervals of the form**  $[a_0, b)$ , where  $a_0$  is the **smallest element** (if any) of  $X$ .
3. **All intervals of the form**  $(a, b_0]$ , where  $b_0$  is the **largest element** (if any) of  $X$ .

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

- **Definition** (**Rays**)

If  $X$  is an ordered set, and  $a$  is an element of  $X$ , there are four subsets of  $X$  that are called **the rays** determined by  $a$ . They are the following:

$$\begin{aligned}(a, +\infty) &= \{x : x > a\}, \\ (-\infty, a) &= \{x : x < a\}, \\ [a, +\infty) &= \{x : x \geq a\}, \\ (-\infty, a] &= \{x : x \leq a\}.\end{aligned}$$

Sets of the first two types are called **open rays**, and sets of the last two types are called **closed rays**.

- **Remark** The **open rays** in  $X$  are *open sets* in **the order topology**. In fact, **the open rays** form a **subbasis** for **the order topology** on  $X$ .

## 1.4 The Product Topology

- **Definition** (**Product Topology**)

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. **The product topology** on  $X \times Y$  is the topology having as basis the collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of all sets of the form  $U \times V$ , where  $U$  is an open subset of  $X$  and  $V$  is an open subset of  $Y$ .

- **Proposition 1.5** (**Basis of Product Topology**)

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a **basis** for the topology of  $X$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  is a **basis** for the topology of  $Y$ , then the collection

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

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

- It is sometimes useful to express the product topology in terms of a *subbasis*. To do this, we first define certain functions called *projections*.

**Definition** Let  $\pi_1 : X \times Y \rightarrow X$  be defined by the equation

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

$\pi_2 : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$  be defined by the equation

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

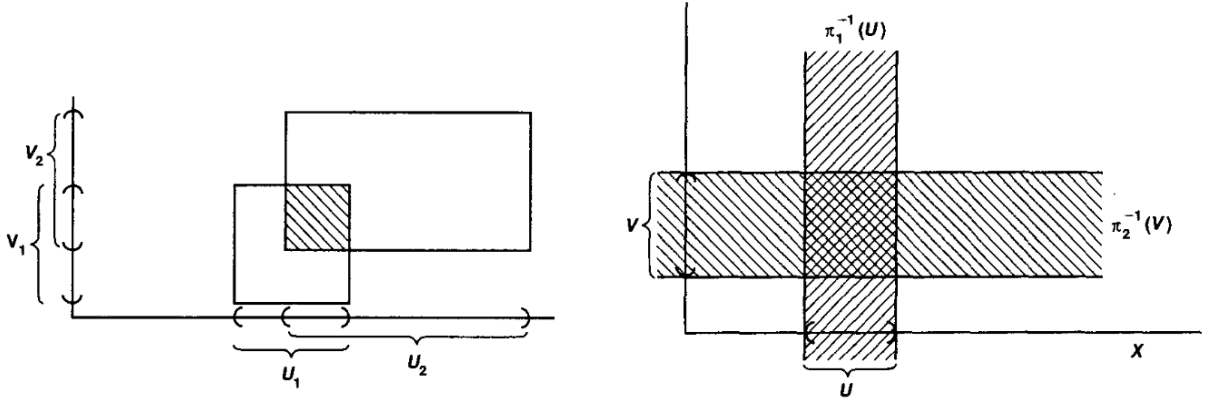


Figure 2: (Left) The basis of a product topology (Right) The subbasis of a product topology [Munkres, 2000]

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

- **Remark** Both  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are *surjective*. If  $U$  is an *open* subset of  $X$ , then the set  $\pi_1^{-1}(U)$  is precisely the set  $U \times Y$ , which is *open* in  $X \times Y$ .

Similarly, if  $V$  is *open* in  $Y$ , then  $\pi_2^{-1}(V) = X \times V$  which is also *open* in  $X \times Y$ .

- **Proposition 1.6 (Subbasis of Product Topology)**

The collection

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

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

## 1.5 The Subspace Topology

- **Definition** If  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is a topological space and  $S \subseteq X$  is an arbitrary subset, we define *the subspace topology* on  $S$  (sometimes called *the relative topology*) as

$$\mathcal{T}_S = \{S \cap U : U \in \mathcal{T}\}$$

That is, a subset  $U \subseteq S$  to be *open* in  $S$  if and only if there exists an *open* subset  $V \subseteq X$  such that  $U = V \cap S$ . Any subset of  $X$  endowed with *the subspace topology* is said to be *a subspace of  $X$* .

- **Lemma 1.7 (Basis of Subspace Topology)**

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for the topology of  $X$  then the collection

$$\mathcal{B}_S = \{B \cap S : B \in \mathcal{B}\}$$

is a *basis for the subspace topology on  $S \subset X$* .

- **Remark (Open Relative to Which Set ?)**

When dealing with a space  $X$  and a *subspace*  $Y$ , one needs to be careful when one uses the term “open set”. Does one mean *an element of the topology of  $Y$*  or *an element of the*

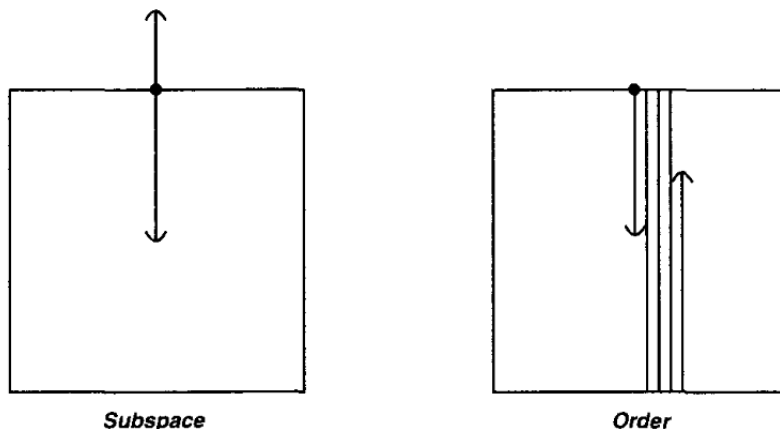


Figure 3: (Left) The subspace topology inherited from ambient space (Right) The order topology on subspace [Munkres, 2000]

**topology of  $X$  ?** We make the following definition : If  $Y$  is a subspace of  $X$ , we say that **a set  $U$  is open in  $Y$**  (or **open relative to  $Y$** ) if it belongs to the topology of  $Y$ ; this implies in particular that it is a subset of  $Y$ . We say that  **$U$  is open in  $X$**  if it belongs to the topology of  $X$ .

- **Lemma 1.8 (Open Subspace)**

Let  $Y$  be a subspace of  $X$ . If  $U$  is open in  $Y$  and  $Y$  is open in  $X$ , then  $U$  is open in  $X$ .

- **Proposition 1.9 (Product of Subspace Equal to Subspace of Product)** [Munkres, 2000]

If  $A$  is a subspace of  $X$  and  $B$  is a subspace of  $Y$ , then **the product topology on  $A \times B$  is the same as the topology  $A \times B$  inherits as a subspace of  $X \times Y$** .

- **Remark (Subspace Topology  $\neq$  Order Topology on Subspace)**

Now let  $X$  be an ordered set in the order topology, and let  $Y$  be a subset of  $X$ . The order relation on  $X$ , when restricted to  $Y$ , makes  $Y$  into an ordered set. However, **the resulting order topology on  $Y$  need not be the same as the topology that  $Y$  inherits as a subspace of  $X$** .

Let  $I = [0, 1]$ . The dictionary order on  $I \times I$  is just the restriction to  $I \times I$  of the dictionary order on the plane  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ . However, **the dictionary order topology on  $I \times I$  is not the same as the subspace topology on  $I \times I$  obtained from the dictionary order topology on  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$** .

For example, the set  $\{1/2\} \times (1/2, 1]$  is open in  $I \times I$  in the subspace topology, but not in the order topology, as you can check. See Figure 3. The set  $I \times I$  in the dictionary order topology will be called **the ordered square**, and denoted by  $I_o^2$ .

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

- **Proposition 1.10 (Convex Subspace Preserve Order Topology)**[Munkres, 2000]

Let  $X$  be an ordered set in the order topology; let  $Y$  be a subset of  $X$  that is **convex** in  $X$ .

Then *the order topology on  $Y$  is the same as the topology  $Y$  inherits as a subspace of  $X$ .*

## 2 Closed Sets and Limit Points

### 2.1 Closed Sets

- **Definition** A subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$  is said to be **closed** if the set  $X \setminus A$  is *open*.
- **Proposition 2.1** *Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then the following conditions hold:*
  1.  $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are **closed**.
  2. *Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.*
  3. *Finite unions of closed sets are closed.*

- **Remark** When dealing with **subspaces**, one needs to be careful in using the term “**closed set**.” If  $Y$  is a subspace of  $X$ , we say that a set  $A$  is **closed in  $Y$**  if  $A$  is a subset of  $Y$  and if  $A$  is **closed** in *the subspace topology* of  $Y$  (that is, if  $Y \setminus A$  is *open* in  $Y$ ).

#### **Proposition 2.2 (Closed Set in Subspace Topology)**

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

- **Remark** A set  $A$  that is **closed in** the subspace  $Y$  may or may **not be closed in** the larger space  $X$ .

**Proposition 2.3** *Let  $Y$  be a subspace of  $X$ . If  $A$  is closed in  $Y$  and  $Y$  is closed in  $X$ , then  $A$  is closed in  $X$ .*

### 2.2 Closure and Interior of a Set

- **Definition** Given a subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$ , *the interior of  $A$*  is defined as *the union of all open sets contained in  $A$* , and *the closure of  $A$*  is defined as *the intersection of all closed sets containing  $A$* .

*The interior of  $A$*  is denoted by  $\text{Int } A$  or by  $\overset{\circ}{A}$  and *the closure of  $A$*  is denoted by  $\text{Cl } A$  or by  $\bar{A}$ . Obviously  $\overset{\circ}{A}$  is an *open set* and  $\bar{A}$  is a *closed set*; furthermore,

$$\overset{\circ}{A} \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}.$$

If  $A$  is **open**,  $A = \overset{\circ}{A}$ ; while if  $A$  is **closed**,  $A = \bar{A}$ .

- **Proposition 2.4 (Closure in Subspace Topology)** [Munkres, 2000]  
*Let  $Y$  be a subspace of  $X$ ; let  $A$  be a subset of  $Y$ ; let  $\bar{A}$  denote the closure of  $A$  in  $X$ . Then the closure of  $A$  in  $Y$  equals  $\bar{A} \cap Y$ .*
- **Remark** The definition of the closure of a set does not give us a convenient way for actually finding the closures of specific sets, since the collection of all closed sets in  $X$ , like the collection of all open sets, is usually much too big to work with. In the following theorem, we describe it using only the basis: Note that a set  $A$  **intersects** a set  $B$  if the intersection  $A \cap B$  is *not empty*.



**Proposition 2.5** (*Characterization of Closure in terms of Basis*) [Munkres, 2000]  
 Let  $A$  be a subset of the topological space  $X$ .

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

- **Remark** We can say “ $U$  is a **neighborhood** of  $x$ ” if “ $U$  is an open set containing  $x$ ”.

## 2.3 Limit Points

- **Definition** (*Limit Point*)

If  $A$  is a subset of the topological space  $X$  and if  $x$  is a point of  $X$ , we say that  $x$  is a **limit point** (or “**cluster point**,” or “**point of accumulation**”) of  $A$  if **every neighborhood of  $x$  intersects  $A$  in some point other than  $x$  itself**.

Said differently,  $x$  is a **limit point** of  $A$  if it belongs to **the closure of  $A \setminus \{x\}$** . The point  $x$  may lie in  $A$  or not; for this definition it does not matter.

- **Theorem 2.6** (*Decomposition of Closure*)

Let  $A$  be a subset of the topological space  $X$ ; let  $A'$  be the set of all limit points of  $A$ . Then

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

- **Corollary 2.7** A subset of a topological space is **closed** if and only if it contains all its **limit points**.
- **Definition** A topological space is called **Hausdorff** (or  $T_2$ ) if and only if for all  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $x \neq y$ , there are **open sets**  $U$ ,  $V$  such that  $x \in U$ ,  $y \in V$ , and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .
- **Proposition 2.8** Every **finite point set** in a **Hausdorff space**  $X$  is **closed**.
- **Proposition 2.9** (*Limit Point in  $T_1$  Axiom*). [Munkres, 2000]  
 Let  $X$  be a space satisfying the  $T_1$  axiom; let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . Then the point  $x$  is a **limit point** of  $A$  if and only if every **neighborhood** of  $x$  contains **infinitely many points** of  $A$ .
- **Proposition 2.10** (*Limit Point is Unique in Hausdorff Space*). [Munkres, 2000]  
 If  $X$  is a **Hausdorff space**, then a sequence of points of  $X$  **converges to at most one point** of  $X$ .

## 3 Continuous Functions

### 3.1 Continuity of a Function

- **Definition** A map  $F : X \rightarrow Y$  is said to be **continuous** if for every open subset  $U \subseteq Y$ , the **preimage**  $F^{-1}(U)$  is **open** in  $X$ .
- **Remark** **Continuity of a function** depends not only upon **the function  $f$  itself**, but also **on the topologies specified for its domain and range**. If we wish to emphasize this fact, we can say that  $f$  is **continuous relative to specific topologies on  $X$  and  $Y$** .

- **Remark (*Prove Continuity via Basis*)**

If the topology of *the range space*  $Y$  is given by a **basis**  $\mathcal{B}$ , then to prove **continuity of  $f$**  it suffices to show that *the inverse image of every basis element is open*: The arbitrary open set  $V$  of  $Y$  can be written as *a union of basis elements*

$$V = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha$$

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

- **Remark (*Prove Continuity via Subbasis*)**

If the topology on  $Y$  is given by *a subbasis*  $\mathcal{S}$ , to prove continuity of  $f$  it will even suffice to show that *the inverse image of each subbasis element is open*: The arbitrary basis element  $B$  for  $Y$  can be written as *a finite intersection*  $S_1 \cap \dots \cap S_n$  of subbasis elements; it follows from the equation

$$f^{-1}(B) = f^{-1}(S_1) \cap \dots \cap f^{-1}(S_n)$$

that the inverse image of every basis element is *open*.

- **Example ( *$\mathcal{F}$ -Weak Topology using Continuity Only*)**

One can *define a topology just* based on *the notion of continuity* from a family of functions. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of functions from a set  $S$  to a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ . The  **$\mathcal{F}$ -weak** (or simply **weak**) **topology** on  $S$  is the **coarest topology** for which *all the functions  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  are continuous*.

The  **$\mathcal{F}$ -weak** topology  $\mathcal{T}$  is generated by **subbasis**  $\mathcal{S}$  of the preimage sets  $S = f^{-1}(U)$  where  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $U \in \mathcal{T}$ . And the basis of  $\mathcal{T}$  is *the collection of all finite intersections* of preimages  $f^{-1}(U)$  for  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $U \in \mathcal{T}$ .

- **Proposition 3.1 (*Equivalent Definition of Continuity*)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces; let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ . Then the following are equivalent:

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

If the condition in (4) holds for the point  $x$  of  $X$ , we say that  $f$  is continuous at the point  $x$ .

## 3.2 Homeomorphisms

- **Definition (*Homeomorphism*)**

A **continuous bijective** map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  with **continuous inverse**

$$f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$$

is called a **homeomorphism**. If there exists a *homeomorphism* from  $X$  to  $Y$ , we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are **homeomorphic**.

- **Remark (*Homomorphism is Topological Equivalence*)**

A **homeomorphism**  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  gives us a *bijective correspondence* not only between  $X$  and  $Y$  but between the collections of open sets of  $X$  and of  $Y$ . As a result, any **property** of  $X$  that is **entirely expressed in terms of the topology** of  $X$  (that is, in terms of the open sets of  $X$ ) **yields**, via the correspondence  $f$ , the **corresponding property** for the space  $Y$ .

Such a property of  $X$  is called a **topological property** of  $X$ . A homomorphism is an **isomorphism** between topological space, i.e. it preserves the topological structure during the transformation.

- **Remark (*Isomorphism*)**

For vector space, an **(linear) isomorphism** is a bijective linear mapping from one vector spaces to another vector space that **preserve** the **structure** of that vector space. However, depending on definition of specific structure, we can have various different definition of isomorphisms:

1. For metric space, an *isomorphism* is a *bijective linear operator* that **preserves the metric**. It is often called an isometry.
2. For inner product space, an *isomorphism* is a *surjective linear operator* that **preserves the inner product**. It is often called an surjective isometry.
3. For linear algebra, an *isomorphism* is a **bijective linear mapping** that **preserves all algebraic operations** (i.e. the vector addition and scalar multiplication).

In general, **isomorphism** is a structure-preserving mapping between two structures of the same type that can be reversed by an inverse mapping. It means that “**two spaces are essentially of the same form**”. For instance, the followings are also called **isomorphism** depending on the context:

1. **homomorphism** between *topological spaces*,
2. **diffeomorphism** between *smooth manifolds*,
3. **bijective homomorphism** between *algebraic groups / rings / fields*,
4. **graph isomorphism** between *graphs* that preserves the edge structure,

Also an isomorphism is called a **transformation** in **geometry**, e.g. *rigid transformation*, *affine transformation* etc.

- **Definition (*Topological Embedding*)**

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are topological spaces, a **continuous injective** map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called a **topological embedding** if it is a **homeomorphism** onto its image  $f(X) \subseteq Y$  in the subspace topology (i.e.  $f^{-1}|_{f(X)} : f(X) \rightarrow X$  is continuous in  $Y$ ).

- **Remark (*Smooth Embedding*)**

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are smooth manifolds, a **smooth embedding**  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  when it is a **topological embedding**, and it is *smooth map* with *injective differential*  $df_x$  for all  $x \in X$  (called a **smooth immersion**).

### 3.3 Constructing Continuous Functions

- **Proposition 3.2 (Rules for Constructing Continuous Functions).** [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  be topological spaces.

1. (**Constant Function**) If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  maps **all** of  $X$  into the **single point**  $y_0$  of  $Y$ , then  $f$  is **continuous**.
2. (**Inclusion**) If  $A$  is a subspace of  $X$ , the **inclusion function**  $\iota : A \hookrightarrow X$  is **continuous**.
3. (**Composites**) If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$  are continuous, then the map  $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$  is continuous.
4. (**Restricting the Domain**) If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, and if  $A$  is a subspace of  $X$ , then the **restricted function**  $f|_A : A \rightarrow Y$  is continuous.
5. (**Restricting or Expanding the Range**) Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be continuous. If  $Z$  is a **subspace** of  $Y$  containing the **image** set  $f(X)$ , then the function  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  obtained by **restricting the range** of  $f$  is continuous. If  $Z$  is a space having  $Y$  as a **subspace**, then the function  $h : X \rightarrow Z$  obtained by **expanding the range** of  $f$  is continuous.
6. (**Local Formulation of Continuity**) The map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is **continuous** if  $X$  can be written as the **union of open sets**  $U_\alpha$  such that  $f|_{U_\alpha}$  is **continuous** for each  $\alpha$ .

- **Theorem 3.3 (The Pasting Lemma / Gluing Lemma).** [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $X = A \cup B$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are **closed** in  $X$ . Let  $f : A \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : B \rightarrow Y$  be **continuous**. If  $f(x) = g(x)$  for **every**  $x \in A \cap B$ , then  $f$  and  $g$  combine to give a **continuous function**  $h : X \rightarrow Y$ , defined by setting  $h|_A = f$ , and  $h|_B = g$ .

- **Remark** The set  $A$  and  $B$  can be open sets, and the gluing lemma comes “**Local Formulation of Continuity**”.

- **Remark** Notice the condition for the *gluing lemma*:

1. The domain  $X$  is a union of two **closed sets (or open sets)**  $A$  and  $B$
2. The two functions  $f$  and  $g$  are **continuous** each of closed domain sets, respectively
3.  $f$  and  $g$  **agree on the intersection** of two sets  $A \cap B$ .

- **Theorem 3.4 (Maps into Products).** [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $f : A \rightarrow X \times Y$  be given by the equation

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

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

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

are **continuous**. The maps  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are called the coordinate functions of  $f$ .

- **Remark** There is no useful criterion for the *continuity* of a map  $f : A \times B \rightarrow X$  whose **domain is a product space**. One might conjecture that  $f$  is continuous if it is continuous “in each variable separately,” but **this conjecture is not true**.

## 4 Topological Spaces (Continued.)

### 4.1 The Product Topology

- **Definition (*J-tuples*)**

Let  $J$  be an index set. Given a set  $X$ , we define a *J-tuple* of elements of  $X$  to be a function  $x : J \rightarrow X$ . If  $\alpha$  is an element of  $J$ , we often denote **the value of  $X$  at  $\alpha$**  by  $X_\alpha$  rather than  $x(\alpha)$ ; we call it **the  $\alpha$ -th coordinate** of  $x$ . And we often *denote the function  $x$  itself* by the symbol

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

which is as close as we can come to a “*tuple notation*” for an arbitrary index set  $J$ . We denote **the set of all  $J$ -tuples** of elements of  $X$  by  $X^J$ .

- **Definition (*Arbitrary Cartesian Products*)**

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

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

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

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

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

- **Remark** The existence of just construction is due to *the Axioms of Choice* since  $J$  is an arbitrary set.
- **Remark** If  $A_\alpha = X$  for all  $\alpha \in J$ , then we use the notation  $X^J$  to represent the cartesian product  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X$

- **Definition (*Box Topology*)**

Let  $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an indexed family of **topological spaces**. Let us take as a **basis** for a topology on the product space

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

the collection of all sets of the form

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

where  $U_\alpha$  is **open** in  $X_\alpha$ , for each  $\alpha \in J$ . The topology generated by this **basis** is called **the box topology**.

- **Definition (*Projection Mapping*)**

Let

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

be the function assigning to each element of the product space its  $\beta$ -th coordinate,

$$\pi_\beta((x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}) = x_\beta;$$

it is called **the projection mapping** associated with the index  $\beta$ .

- **Definition (*Product Topology*)**

Let  $\mathcal{S}_\beta$  denote the collection

$$\mathcal{S}_\beta = \left\{ \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) : U_\beta \text{ open in } X_\beta \right\},$$

and let  $\mathcal{S}$  denote the union of these collections,

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

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

- **Remark (*Product Topology = Weak Topology by Coordinate Projections*)**

The product topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  is **the weak topology** generated by a family of projection mappings  $(\pi_\beta)_{\beta \in J}$ . It is **the coarsest (weakest) topology** such that  $(\pi_\beta)_{\beta \in J}$  are **continuous**.

**A typical element of the basis** from the product topology is **the finite intersection** of subbasis where the index is different:

$$\pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(V_{\beta_1}) \cap \dots \cap \pi_{\beta_n}^{-1}(V_{\beta_n})$$

Thus a **neighborhood** of  $x$  in **the product topology** is

$$N(x) = \{(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} : x_{\beta_1} \in V_{\beta_1}, \dots, x_{\beta_n} \in V_{\beta_n}\}$$

where there is **no restriction** for  $\alpha \in \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n\}$ .

Note that for **the box topology**, a neighborhood of  $x$  is

$$N_b(x) = \{(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} : x_\alpha \in U_\alpha, \forall \alpha \in J\} \subset N(x)$$

Thus **the box topology** is **finer** than **the product topology**. Moreover, for **finite product**  $\prod_{\alpha=1}^n X_\alpha$ , the box topology and the product topology is the **same**.

- **Proposition 4.1 (*Comparison of the Box and Product Topologies*)**. [Munkres, 2000]

The box topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  has as basis all sets of the form  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$ , where  $U_\alpha$  is **open** in  $X_\alpha$  **for each**  $\alpha$ . The product topology on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$  has as basis all sets of the form  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$ , where  $U_\alpha$  is **open** in  $X_\alpha$  for each  $\alpha$  and  $U_\alpha$  **equals**  $X_\alpha$  **except for finitely many values** of  $\alpha$ .

- **Remark** Whenever we consider the product  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ , we shall **assume** it is given **the product topology** unless we specifically state otherwise.

- **Proposition 4.2 (*Basis for Box and Product Topology*)**

Suppose the topology on each space  $X_\alpha$  is given by a basis  $\mathcal{B}_\alpha$ . The collection of all sets of the form

$$\prod_{\alpha} B_{\alpha}$$

where  $B_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{B}_{\alpha}$  for **each**  $\alpha$ , will serve as a **basis for the box topology** on  $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$ .

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

- **Proposition 4.3** Let  $A_{\alpha}$  be a **subspace** of  $X_{\alpha}$ , for each  $\alpha \in J$ . Then  $\prod_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$  is a **subspace** of  $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$  if both products are given the box topology, or if both products are given the product topology.
- **Proposition 4.4** If each space  $X_{\alpha}$  is a **Hausdorff space**, then  $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$  is a **Hausdorff space** in both the box and product topologies.
- **Proposition 4.5** Let  $(X_{\alpha})$  be an indexed family of spaces; let  $A_{\alpha} \subset X_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha$ . If  $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$  is given either the product or the box topology, then

$$\prod_{\alpha} \bar{A}_{\alpha} = \overline{\prod_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}}$$

- **Proposition 4.6 (*Maps into Arbitrary Products*).** [Munkres, 2000]

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

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

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

- **Example (*Maps into Arbitrary Products Not Hold in Box Topology*)**

Consider  $\mathbb{R}^{\text{omega}}$ , the countably infinite product of  $\mathbb{R}$  with itself. Recall that

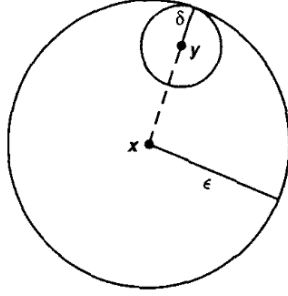
$$\mathbb{R}^{\omega} = \prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} X_n$$

where  $X_n = \mathbb{R}$  for each  $n$ . Let us define a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  by the equation

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

the  $n$ -th coordinate function of  $f$  is the function  $f_n(t) = t$ . Each of the coordinate functions  $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is *continuous*; therefore, the function  $f$  is *continuous* if  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  is given **the product topology**. But  $f$  is not continuous if  $\mathbb{R}^{\text{omega}}$  is given **the box topology**. Consider, for example, the basis element

$$B = (-1, 1) \times \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \times \left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right) \times \dots$$



**Figure 4:**  $B(y, \delta) \subset B(x, \epsilon)$  for  $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$  due to triangle inequality. [Munkres, 2000]

11 11 for the box topology. We assert that  $f^{-1}(B)$  is **not open** in  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $f^{-1}(B)$  were open in  $\mathbb{R}$ , it would contain some interval  $(-\delta, \delta)$  about the point 0. This would mean that  $f((-\delta, \delta)) \subset B$ , so that, applying  $\pi_n$  to both sides of the inclusion,

$$f_n((-\delta, \delta)) = (-\delta, \delta) \subset \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

for *all*  $n$ . a contradiction. ■

## 4.2 The Metric Topology

### 4.2.1 Metric Topology and Metrizable

- **Definition (Metric Space)**

A **metric space** is a set  $M$  and a real-valued function  $d(\cdot, \cdot) : M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which satisfies:

1. (**Non-Negativity**)  $d(x, y) \geq 0$
2. (**Definiteness**)  $d(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$
3. (**Symmetric**)  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
4. (**Triangle Inequality**)  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

The function  $d$  is called a **metric** on  $M$ . The metric space  $M$  equipped with metric  $d$  is denoted as  $(M, d)$ .

- **Definition ( $\epsilon$ -Ball)**

Given a metric  $d$  on  $X$ , the number  $d(x, y)$  is often called *the distance between  $x$  and  $y$  in the metric  $d$* . Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , consider the set

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

of all points  $y$  whose distance from  $x$  is less than  $\epsilon$ . It is called **the  $\epsilon$ -ball centered at  $x$** . Sometimes we omit the metric  $d$  from the notation and write this ball simply as  $B(x, \epsilon)$ , when no confusion will arise.

- **Definition (Metric Topology)**

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



- **Remark (The Triangle Inequality is Necessary for Basis)**

The triangle inequality condition is a necessary condition for the  $\epsilon$ -balls to form a *basis*. It guarantees that for any  $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$ , there exists a neighborhood of  $y$ ,  $B(y, \delta)$  such that  $B(y, \delta) \subset B(x, \epsilon)$ .

**Definition (Open Set in Metric Topology)**

A set  $U$  is **open** in the metric topology induced by  $d$  if and only if for each  $y \in U$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_d(y, \delta) \subset U$ .

- **Remark (Other “Metric-Like” Functions)**

Among all algebraic properties that define a metric, **the triangle inequality is the strongest**. There are many “metric-like” functions that do not satisfy the triangle inequality.

1. **divergence function**:  $D = \mathbb{D}(\cdot \parallel \cdot) : M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  satisfying for any  $p, q \in M$

$$\mathbb{D}(p \parallel q) > 0, \text{ and } \mathbb{D}(p \parallel q) = 0, \text{ iff } p = q.$$

Divergence function **does not satisfy** neither the **symmetric** property nor the **triangle inequality** property. But it satisfies the **positive definiteness** property. A divergence can act like **a measure of closeness** between two points.

2. **inner product**: for a vector space  $M$ ,  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  is a **bilinear form** that **satisfies** both the **symmetric** property and the **positive definiteness** property. This makes it *almost a metric*. In fact, every inner product can induce a norm  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$  and thus it can induce a metric via norm  $\|x - y\|$
3. **semi-norm**: for a vector space  $M$ , a semi-norm  $q : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  is a mapping that **satisfies** both the **homogeneity** property and the **triangle inequality** property. But it does not satisfy the **positive definiteness condition**.  $q(x - y)$  is thus not a metric. It can also be used to *measure the closeness* between two points but *lack of power to tell if these two points are the same*.

- **Remark (Metric Topology is Quantitative)**

A **metric** provides a measurement on the **closeness** between two points. **The metric topology** generated by open balls thus provides a **quantitative description of the neighborhood** and it answers the question “*how close the neighborhood of  $x$  is ?*” On the other hand, **the general topology** answer this question using **qualitative description** via **comparison** with other neighborhoods via the **inclusion** operation  $\subset$ . Note that inclusion  $\subset$  is **partially ordered**, while the metric maps onto the real line where  $<$  is **simply ordered**.

The study of **topology** is to acknowledge that *in many areas of research, there might not exist a properly defined metric in the set of interest*. On the other hand, the study of **analysis** mainly focus on the space equipped with metric topology.

- **Definition (Metrizability)**

If  $X$  is a topological space,  $X$  is said to be **metrizable** if there exists a metric  $d$  on the set  $X$  that **induces the topology** of  $X$ . **A metric space** is a metrizable space  $X$  together with a specific metric  $d$  that **gives the topology** of  $X$ .

- **Remark (Metrizability as Inverse Problem)**

Given a metric  $d$  on  $X$ , we can generate a metric topology using  $\epsilon$ -balls as basis. **Conversely, given a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $X$ , is  $\mathcal{T}$  a metric topology for some unknown metric  $d$  ?**

This is the question that *the metrization theory* is trying to answer.

- **Remark** (*Metrizability is Valuable*)

Many of the spaces important for mathematics are metrizable, but some are not. *Metrizability* is always a highly desirable attribute for a space to possess, for the existence of a *metric* gives one a *valuable tool* for *proving theorems* about the space.

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

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

for every pair  $a_1, a_2$  of points of  $A$ . If  $A$  is bounded and nonempty, the **diameter** of  $A$  is defined to be the number

$$\text{diam } A = \sup \{d(a_1, a_2) : \forall a_1, a_2 \in A\}.$$

- **Remark** The boundedness property depends on specific metric topology, thus it is not a topological property.

For instance, the following metric guarantee that every open set is bounded.

**Definition** (*Standard Bounded Metric*)

Let  $X$  be a metric space with metric  $d$ . Define  $\bar{d} : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by the equation

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

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

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

- **Definition** (*Euclidean Metric and Square Metric*)

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

$$\|x\|_2 = (x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2};$$

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

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|_2 = ((x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2)^{1/2}.$$

We define *the square metric*  $\rho$  by the equation

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

- **Lemma 4.7** Let  $d$  and  $d'$  be two metrics on the set  $X$ ; let  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  be the topologies they induce, respectively. Then  $\mathcal{T}'$  is **finer** than  $\mathcal{T}$  if and only if for each  $x$  in  $X$  and each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

- **Proposition 4.8** The topologies on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  induced by *the euclidean metric*  $d$  and *the square metric*  $\rho$  are the **same** as the **product topology** on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

- **Remark** (*Finite Dimensional Vector Space has Only One Meaningful Topology*)  
In *finite dimensional* vector space, *all norms are equivalent*, and *all norm-induced metric topologies* are the same. For infinite dimensional space, these topologies are different.
- **Definition** (*Uniform Topology on Infinite Dimensional Space*)  
Given an index set  $J$ , and given points  $x = (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$  and  $y = (y_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^J$ , let us define a metric  $\bar{\rho}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^J$  by the equation

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

where  $\bar{d}$  is *the standard bounded metric* on  $\mathbb{R}$ . It is easy to check that  $\bar{\rho}$  is indeed a metric; it is called *the uniform metric* on  $\mathbb{R}^J$ , and the topology it induces is called *the uniform topology*.

- **Proposition 4.9** *The uniform topology on  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is finer than the product topology and coarser than the box topology; these three topologies are all different if  $J$  is infinite.*

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

- **Theorem 4.10** (*Countable Product Space with Product Topology is Metrizable*). [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $\bar{d}(a, b) = \min \{ |a - b|, 1 \}$  be the *standard bounded metric* on  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are two points of  $W$ , define

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

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

#### 4.2.2 Constructing Continuous Functions on Metric Space

- The followings are some important facts about the metric topology:
  1. **Proposition 4.11** *Every metric space  $(X, d)$  is Hausdorff.*
  2. **Proposition 4.12** *Every subspace of metric space  $(X, d)$  is a metric space. That is, if  $A$  is a subspace of the topological space  $X$  and  $d$  is a metric for  $X$ , then the restriction of  $d$  on  $A \times A$  is a metric for the topology of  $A$ .*
- **Theorem 4.13** ( *$\epsilon$ - $\delta$  Definition of Continuous Function in Metric Space*). [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ ; let  $X$  and  $Y$  be *metrizable* with metrics  $d_x$  and  $d_y$ , respectively. Then *continuity* of  $f$  is *equivalent* to the requirement that given  $x \in X$  and given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d_x(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d_y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon.$$

- **Remark** The  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of continuous function is equivalent to

$$f(B(x, \delta)) \subset B(f(x), \epsilon) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad B(x, \delta) \subset f^{-1}(B(f(x), \epsilon))$$

- **Remark** To use  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition, both **domain** and **codomain** need to be **metrizable**.
- **Lemma 4.14 (The Sequence Lemma).** [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $X$  be a topological space; let  $A \subseteq X$ . If there is a sequence of points of  $A$  **converging** to  $x$ , then  $x \in \bar{A}$ ; the **converse** holds if  $X$  is **metrizable**.
- **Proposition 4.15** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ . If the function  $f$  is **continuous**, then for every **convergent** sequence  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $X$ , the sequence  $f(x_n)$  **converges** to  $f(x)$ . The **converse** holds if  $X$  is **metrizable**.
- **Remark** To show the converse part, i.e. “if  $x_n \rightarrow x \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$  then  $f$  is continuous”, we just need the space  $X$  to be **first countable**. That is, at each point  $x$ , there is **a countable collection**  $(U_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  of **neighborhoods** of  $x$  such that any neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  contains at least one of the sets  $U_n$ .
- **Proposition 4.16 (Arithmetic Operations of Continuous Functions).**  
If  $X$  is a topological space, and if  $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$  are continuous functions, then  $f + g$ ,  $f - g$ , and  $f \cdot g$  are continuous. If  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$ , then  $f/g$  is continuous.
- **Definition (Uniform Convergence)**  
Let  $f_n : X \rightarrow Y$  be a sequence of functions from the **set**  $X$  to **the metric space**  $Y$ . Let  $d$  be the metric for  $Y$ . We say that the sequence  $(f_n)$  **converges uniformly** to the function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that
$$d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$$
for all  $n > N$  and **all**  $x$  in  $X$ .
- **Theorem 4.17 (Uniform Limit Theorem).** [Munkres, 2000]  
Let  $f_n : X \rightarrow Y$  be a sequence of **continuous** functions from the **topological space**  $X$  to the **metric space**  $Y$ . If  $(f_n)$  converges **uniformly** to  $f$ , then  $f$  is **continuous**.
- **Remark (Uniform Convergence = Convergence of Functions in Uniform Metric)**  
A sequence of functions  $f_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  **converges uniformly** to  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  **if and only if** the sequence  $(f_n)$  converges to  $f$  when they are considered as elements of the metric space  $(\mathbb{R}^X, \bar{\rho})$ , where  $\mathbb{R}^X$  is the space of all real-valued functions on  $X$  and  $\bar{\rho}$  is **the uniform metric** defined before.
- **Example** The **countable product space**  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$  in the **box topology** is **not metrizable**. (on the other hand, it is metrizable in **product topology**).
- **Example** An **uncountable product** of  $\mathbb{R}$  with itself is **not metrizable**.

## 4.3 The Quotient Topology

### 4.3.1 Definitions and Properties

- **Remark (Quotient Topology as “Cut-and-Paste”)**  
One motivation of **quotient topology** comes from geometry, where one often has occasion to use “**cut-and-paste**” techniques to construct such geometric objects as surfaces.:
  1. The **torus** (surface of a doughnut), for example, can be constructed by taking a **rectangle** and “**pasting**” its edges together appropriately

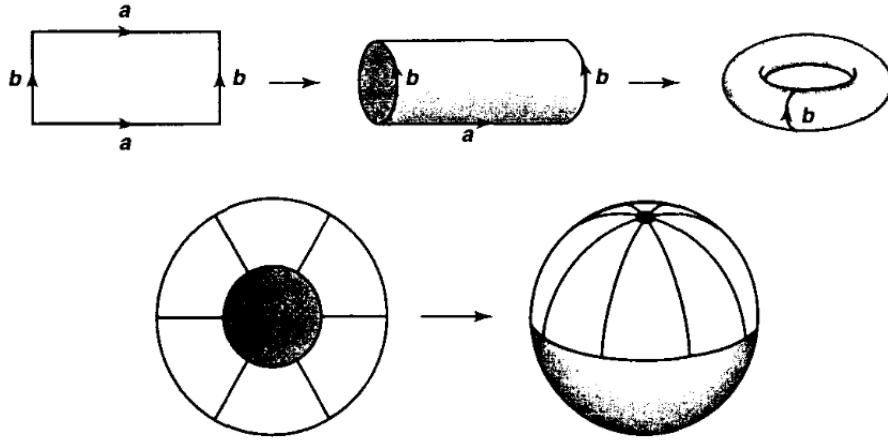


Figure 5: (Upper) The torus can be constructed via cut-and-paste along the rectangle edges. (Lower) The sphere can be constructed via by taking a disc and collapsing its entire boundary to a single point. [Munkres, 2000]

2. The **sphere** (surface of a ball) can be constructed by taking a **disc** and *collapsing* its entire boundary to a single point;

See Figure 5.

- **Definition (Quotient Map)**

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces; let  $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$  be a **surjective map**. The map  $\pi$  is said to be **a quotient map** provided a subset  $U$  of  $Y$  is **open** in  $Y$  if and only if  $\pi^{-1}(U)$  is **open** in  $X$ .

- **Remark (Quotient Map = Strong Continuity)**

The condition of quotient map is **stronger** than continuity (it is called strong continuity in some literature).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{continuity : } U \text{ is open in } Y &\Rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X \\ \text{quotient map : } U \text{ is open in } Y &\Leftrightarrow \pi^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X \end{aligned}$$

An *equivalent condition* is to require that a subset  $A$  of  $K$  be **closed** in  $Y$  *if and only if*  $\pi^{-1}(A)$  is **closed** in  $X$ . Equivalence of the two conditions follows from equation

$$\pi^{-1}(Y \setminus B) = X \setminus \pi^{-1}(B).$$

- **Definition (Saturated Set and Fiber)**

If  $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$  is a **surjective map**, a subset  $U \subseteq X$  is said to be **saturated** with respect to  $\pi$  if  $U$  contains every set  $\pi^{-1}(\{y\})$  that it **intersects**. Thus  $U$  is **saturated** if it equals to the **entire preimage** of its **image**:  $U = \pi^{-1}(\pi(U))$ .

Given  $y \in Y$ , the **fiber** of  $\pi$  over  $y$  is the set  $\pi^{-1}(\{y\})$ .

- **Definition (Quotient Map via Saturated Set)**

A surjective map  $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$  is a **quotient map** if  $\pi$  is **continuous** and  $\pi$  maps **saturated open sets** of  $X$  to **open sets** of  $Y$  (or *saturated closed sets* of  $X$  to *closed sets* of  $Y$ ).

- **Definition (Open Map and Closed Map)**

A map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  (continuous or not) is said to be an open map if for every *open* subset  $U \subseteq X$ , the image set  $f(U)$  is *open* in  $Y$ , and a closed map if for every *closed* subset  $K \subseteq X$ , the image  $f(K)$  is *closed* in  $Y$ .

- **Proposition 4.18** *If  $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$  is a **surjective continuous map** that is **either open or closed**, then  $\pi$  is a **quotient map**.*

**Remark** There are *quotient maps* that are **neither open nor closed**. See Exercise in [Munkres, 2000].

- **Example (Coordinate Projection as Quotient Map)**

Let  $\pi_1 : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be **projection onto the first coordinate**; then  $\pi_1$  is *continuous* and *surjective*. Furthermore,  $\pi_1$  is an open map. For if  $U \times V$  is a nonempty *basis element* for  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\pi_1(U \times V) = U$  is *open* in  $\mathbb{R}$ ; it follows that  $\pi_1$  carries open sets of  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  to open sets of  $\mathbb{R}$ . That is,  $\pi_1$  is a **quotient map**.

However,  $\pi_1$  is **not a closed map**. The subset

$$C = \{(x, y) : x \cdot y = 1\}$$

of  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  is *closed*, but  $\pi_1(C) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ , which is *not closed* in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- **Definition (Quotient Topology)**

If  $X$  is a space and  $A$  is a set and if  $\pi : X \rightarrow A$  is a **surjective** map, then there exists **exactly one topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $A$**  relative to which  $\pi$  is a **quotient map**; it is called the quotient topology induced by  $\pi$ . The *quotient topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $A$*  is defined as

$$\mathcal{T} = \{U \subset A : \pi^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X\}$$

- **Definition (Quotient Space)**

Suppose  $X$  is a topological space and  $\sim$  is an *equivalence relation* on  $X$ . Let  $X/\sim$  denote **the set of equivalence classes** in  $X$ , and let  $\pi : X \rightarrow X/\sim$  be the **natural projection** sending each *point* to its *equivalence class*. Endowed with **the quotient topology** determined by  $\pi$ , the space  $X/\sim$  is called the quotient space (or *identification space*) of  $X$  determined by  $\pi$ .

**Definition** [Munkres, 2000]

Let  $X$  be a topological space, and let  $X^*$  be a **partition** of  $X$  into *disjoint subsets whose union is  $X$* . Let  $\pi : X \rightarrow X^*$  be the **surjective** map that carries each point of  $X$  to the element of  $X^*$  *containing it*. In **the quotient topology** induced by  $\pi$ , the space  $X^*$  is called a **quotient space** of  $X$ .

- **Remark (Understanding Topology of Quotient Space)**

We can describe the topology of  $X/\sim$  in another way. A *subset  $U$  of  $X/\sim$*  is **a collection of equivalence classes**, and the set  $\pi^{-1}(U)$  is just **the union of the equivalence classes belonging to  $U$** .

Thus the typical open set of  $X/\sim$  is **a collection of equivalence classes** whose union is an open set of  $X$ .

$$V \text{ open in } X/\sim \iff U := \pi^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{[y] \in V} [y] \text{ open in } X$$

- **Remark (Geometrical Understanding of Quotient Space)**

A set of points in  $X$  in the **same equivalence class**  $[y]$  is considered as **one point** in quotient space  $X/\sim$ . Geometrically, it is seen as **collapsing a set of points into one** if this set of points are in a connected neighborhood, or, it is seen as **cut-and paste** a set of points in boundary with another set of points in boundary.

- **Example ( $\mathbb{D}^2/\sim = \mathbb{S}^2$ )**

Let  $X$  be the **closed unit ball**

$$X = \mathbb{D}^2 := \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$$

in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $X/\sim$  be the partition of  $X$  consisting of all the one-point sets  $\{(x, y)\}$  for which  $x^2 + y^2 < 1$ , along with the set  $\mathbb{S}^1 = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ . One can show that  $X/\sim$  is **homeomorphic** with the subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  called **the unit 2-sphere**, defined by

$$\{(x, y, z) : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$$

- **Proposition 4.19 (Restricting Quotient Map to Subspace).** [Munkres, 2000]

Let  $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$  be a **quotient map**; let  $A$  be a subspace of  $X$  that is **saturated** with respect to  $\pi$ ; let  $q : A \rightarrow \pi(A)$  be the map obtained by restricting  $\pi$ .

1. If  $A$  is either **open** or **closed** in  $X$ , then  $q$  is a **quotient map**.
2. If  $\pi$  is either an **open map** or a **closed map**, then  $q$  is a **quotient map**.

- **Remark (Composite of Quotient Maps is Quotient Map).**

Composites of maps behave nicely; it is easy to check that the **composite of two quotient maps is a quotient map**; this fact follows from the equation

$$p^{-1}(q^{-1}(U)) = (q \circ p)^{-1}(U).$$

- **Remark (Product of Quotient Maps Need Not to be Quotient Map).**

On the other hand, products of maps do not behave well; **the cartesian product of two quotient maps need not be a quotient map**.

One needs further conditions on either the maps or the spaces in order for this statement to be true.

1. One such, a condition on the spaces, is called **local compactness**; we shall study it later.
2. Another, a condition on the **maps**, is the condition that **both the maps  $p$  and  $q$  be open maps**. In that case, it is easy to see that  $p \times q$  is also **an open map**, so it is a quotient map.

- **Remark (Quotient Space of Hausdorff Space Need Not to be Hausdorff)**

The Hausdorff condition does not behave well; **even if  $X$  is Hausdorff, there is no reason that the quotient space  $X/\sim$  needs to be Hausdorff**. There is a simple condition for  $X/\sim$  to satisfy the  $T_1$  axiom; one simply requires that **each element of the partition  $X/\sim$  be a closed subset of  $X$** . Conditions that will ensure  $X/\sim$  is Hausdorff are harder to find.

### 4.3.2 Constructing Continuous Function on Quotient Space

- We want to know if  $f : (X/\sim) \rightarrow Z$  is *continuous function*.
- **Theorem 4.20 (Passing Continuity to the Quotient).** [Munkres, 2000]  
 Let  $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$  be a **quotient map**. Let  $Z$  be a space and let  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  be a map that is **constant on each fiber**  $\pi^{-1}(\{y\})$ , for  $y \in Y$ . Then  $g$  **induces** a map  $f : Y \rightarrow Z$  such that  $f \circ \pi = g$ . The induced map  $f$  is **continuous** if and only if  $g$  is **continuous**:  $f$  is a **quotient map** if and only if  $g$  is a **quotient map**.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & & \\ \pi \downarrow & \searrow g & \\ Y & \dashrightarrow f & Z. \end{array}$$

- **Corollary 4.21** Let  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  be a **surjective continuous** map. Let  $X/\sim$  be the following collection of subsets of  $X$ :

$$X/\sim := \{g^{-1}(\{z\}) : z \in Z\},$$

Given  $X/\sim$  the **quotient topology**,

1. The map  $g$  induces a **bijective continuous map**  $f : (X/\sim) \rightarrow Z$ , which is a **homeomorphism** if and only if  $g$  is a **quotient map**.
2. If  $Z$  is **Hausdorff**, so is  $X/\sim$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & & \\ \pi \downarrow & \searrow g & \\ (X/\sim) & \dashrightarrow f & Z. \end{array}$$

- **Example (The Product of two Quotient Maps Need Not be a Quotient Map).**  
 Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and let  $X/\sim$  be the *quotient space* obtained from  $X$  by **identifying** the subset  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  to a point  $b$ ; let  $\pi : X \rightarrow X/\sim$  be the quotient map. Let  $\mathbb{Q}$  be the subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$  consisting of the *rational numbers*; let  $i : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  be the *identity map*. We show that

$$\pi \times i : X \times \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow (X/\sim) \times \mathbb{Q}$$

is **not a quotient map**.

For each  $n$ , let  $c_n = \sqrt{2}/n$ , and consider the straight lines in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with slopes 1 and  $-1$ , respectively, through the point  $(n, c_n)$ . Let  $U_n$  consist of all points of  $X \times \mathbb{Q}$  that lie **above both of these lines or beneath both of them**, and also between the vertical lines  $x = n - 1/4$  and  $x = n + 1/4$ . Then  $U_n$  is **open** in  $X \times \mathbb{Q}$ ; it contains the set  $\{n\} \times \mathbb{Q}$  because  $c_n$  is **not rational**.

Let  $U$  be the **union** of the sets  $U_n$ ; then  $U$  is **open** in  $X \times \mathbb{Q}$ . It is **saturated** with respect to  $\pi \times i$  because it contains the entire set  $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \{q\}$  for each  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ . We assume that  $U' := (\pi \times i)(U)$  is **open** in  $(X/\sim) \times \mathbb{Q}$  and derive a *contradiction*.



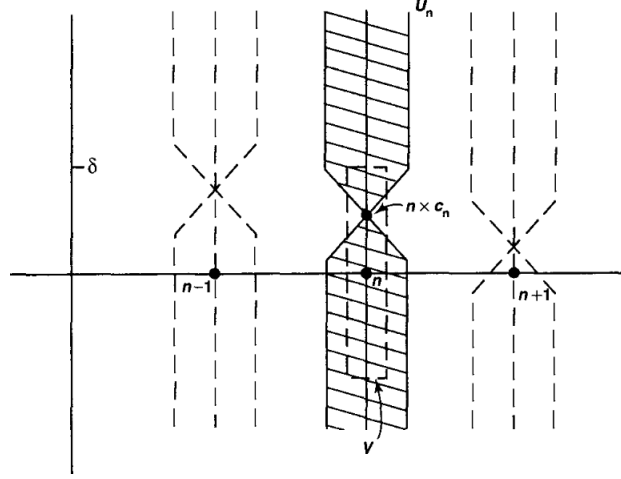


Figure 6: The product of two quotient maps need not be a quotient map. [Munkres, 2000]

Because  $U$  contains, in particular, the set  $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \{0\}$ , the set  $U'$  contains the point  $(b, 0)$ . Hence  $U'$  contains an *open set* of the form  $W \times I_\delta$ , where  $W$  is a neighborhood of  $b$  in  $X/\sim$  and  $I_\delta$  consists of all *rational numbers*  $y$  with  $|y| < \delta$ . Then

$$\pi^{-1}(W) \times I_\delta \subset U.$$

Choose  $n$  large enough that  $c_n < \delta$ . Then since  $\pi^{-1}(W)$  is *open* in  $X$  and contains  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ , we can choose  $\epsilon < 1/4$  so that the interval  $(n - \epsilon, n + \epsilon)$  is contained in  $\pi^{-1}(W)$ . Then  $U$  contains the subset  $V = (n - \epsilon, n + \epsilon) \times I_\delta$  of  $X \times \mathbb{Q}$ . But the figure makes clear that there are many points  $(x, y)$  of  $V$  that do not lie in  $U'$ . (One such is the point  $(x, y)$ , where  $x = n + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon$  and  $y$  is a **rational number** with  $|y - c_n| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon$ .)

## 5 Topological Groups

- **Definition (Topological Group)**

A **topological group**  $G$  is a **group** that is also a **topological space** satisfying *the*  $T_1$  **axiom**, such that *the multiplication map*  $m : G \times G \rightarrow G$  and *inversion map*  $i : G \rightarrow G$ , given by

$$m(x, y) = xy, \quad i(x) = x^{-1}.$$

are both **continuous maps**. Here,  $G \times G$  is viewed as a *topological space* by using *the product topology*.

- **Example (Common Topological Groups)**

The following are topological groups:

1.  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$
2.  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$
3.  $(\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot)$

4.  $(\mathbb{S}^1, \cdot)$ , where we take  $\mathbb{S}^1$  to be the space of *all complex numbers*  $z$  for which  $|z| = 1$

• **Example (Lie Groups)**

**Definition (Lie Group)** [Lee, 2003.]

A Lie group is a *smooth manifold*  $\mathcal{G}$  (without boundary) that is also a *group* in the *algebraic sense*, with the property that the *multiplication map*  $m : G \times G \rightarrow G$  and *inversion map*  $i : G \rightarrow G$ , given by

$$m(g, h) = gh, \quad i(g) = g^{-1}.$$

are both *smooth*.

A Lie group is a topological group. The followings are all *Lie groups*:

1. The general linear group  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  is the set of *invertible*  $n \times n$  matrices with real entries.

$$GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \equiv \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \det(A) \neq 0\}.$$

It is a *group* under *matrix multiplication*, and it is an *open submanifold* of the vector space  $M(n, \mathbb{R}) \simeq \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . *Multiplication is smooth* because the *matrix entries* of a product matrix  $AB$  are *polynomials* in the entries of  $A$  and  $B$ . *Inversion is smooth* by *Cramer's rule*.

2. Let  $GL_+(n, \mathbb{R})$  denote the subset of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  consisting of matrices with *positive determinant*. Because  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$  and  $\det(A^{-1}) = (\det(A))^{-1}$ , it is a subgroup of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ ; and because it is the *preimage* of  $(0, +\infty)$  under the *continuous determinant function*, it is an open subset of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  and therefore an  $n^2$ -dimensional manifold. The *group operations* are the restrictions of those of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ , so they are smooth. Thus  $GL_+(n, \mathbb{R})$  is a *Lie group*.
3. The special linear group  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$  is the subgroup of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  consisting of matrices with a *determinant of 1*.

$$SL(n, \mathbb{R}) \equiv \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \det(A) = 1\}.$$

It is a *Lie group* with dimension  $\dim SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = n^2 - 1$ .

4. The orthogonal group of dimension  $n$ , denoted  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ , is the group of *distance-preserving transformations* of a Euclidean space of dimension  $n$  that preserve a fixed point, where the group operation is given by composing transformations. Also,  $(\mathcal{O}(n), \cdot)$  is the group of  $n \times n$  *orthogonal matrices*, where the group operation  $(\cdot)$  is given by matrix multiplication, and an orthogonal matrix is a real matrix whose inverse equals its transpose. *The orthogonal group is a Lie group with dimension  $n(n-1)/2$ .*

$$\mathcal{O}(n) \equiv \{Q \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I_n\}.$$

5. The special orthogonal group  $\mathcal{SO}(n)$  is the group of the *orthogonal matrices of determinant 1*. This group is also called the rotation group

$$\mathcal{SO}(n) \equiv \{Q \in \mathcal{O}(n) : \det(Q) = 1\}.$$

It is an open subgroup of  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ , which is a *Lie group* of dimension  $\dim \mathcal{SO}(n) = \dim \mathcal{O}(n) = n(n-1)/2$ .

6. **The complex general linear group**  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  is the group of *invertible complex  $n \times n$  matrices* under matrix multiplication. It is an open submanifold of  $M(n, \mathbb{C})$  and thus a  $2n^2$ -dimensional smooth manifold, and it is a *Lie group* because *matrix products and inverses are smooth functions* of the real and imaginary parts of the matrix entries.
  7. If  $V$  is any *real or complex vector space*,  $GL(V)$  denotes the set of **invertible linear maps** from  $V$  to itself. It is a *group under composition*. If  $V$  has **finite dimension**  $n$ , any basis for  $V$  determines an *isomorphism* of  $GL(V)$  with  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  or  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ , so  $GL(V)$  is a *Lie group*.
  8.  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$
  9.  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$
  10. The set  $\mathbb{R}^*$  of *nonzero real numbers* is a **1-dimensional Lie group** under multiplication. (In fact, it is exactly  $GL(1, \mathbb{R})$  if we identify a  $1 \times 1$  matrix with the corresponding real number.) The subset  $\mathbb{R}_+$  of **positive real numbers** is an *open subgroup*, and is thus itself a *1-dimensional Lie group*.
  11. The set  $\mathbb{C}^*$  of **nonzero complex numbers** is a *2-dimensional Lie group* under complex multiplication, which can be identified with  $GL(1, \mathbb{C})$ .
  12. The **circle**  $\mathbb{S}^1 \subset \mathbb{C}^*$  is a smooth manifold and a group under complex multiplication. With appropriate **angle functions** as *local coordinates* on open subsets of  $\mathbb{S}^1$ , *multiplication and inversion* have the *smooth coordinate expressions*  $(\theta_1, \theta_2) \mapsto \theta_1 + \theta_2$  and  $\theta \mapsto -\theta$ , and therefore  $\mathbb{S}^1$  is a Lie group, called the circle group.
  13. The  **$n$ -torus**  $\mathbb{T}^n = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \dots \times \mathbb{S}^1$  is an  *$n$ -dimensional abelian Lie group*.
- **Example (Discrete Group)**  
Any *group* with the discrete topology is a *topological group*, called a discrete group. If in addition the group is *finite* or *countably infinite*, then it is a **zero-dimensional Lie group**, called a discrete Lie group.
  - **Definition (Homogeneous Space)**  
A topological space  $G$  is a homogeneous space if for every pair  $x, y \in G$ , there exists a *homeomorphism*  $f : G \rightarrow G$  such that  $f(x) = y$ .
  - **Proposition 5.1 (Topological Groups Are Homogeneous)**  
Every *topological group* is a homogeneous space; in particular, define map  $h_\alpha : G \rightarrow G$  as  $h_\alpha(x) = \alpha \cdot x$  and  $g_\alpha : G \rightarrow G$  as  $g_\alpha(x) = x \cdot \alpha$ , for  $\alpha \in G$ . Then  $h_\alpha, g_\alpha$  are **homeomorphisms**.
  - **Proposition 5.2 (Subgroup of Topological Group)**  
Let  $H$  be a *subspace* of topological group  $G$ . If  $H$  is also a *subgroup* of  $G$ , then both  $H$  and its closure  $\bar{H}$  are *topological groups*.
  - **Definition (Left Coset and Right Coset)**  
For  $H \subset G$  as the *subgroup* of  $G$ , define the left coset as  $xH = \{x \cdot h : h \in H\}$ . Similarly, define the right coset as  $Hx = \{h \cdot x : h \in H\}$ .
  - **Definition (Quotient Group)**  
The collection of *left cosets* defines a quotient group  $G/H = \{xH \mid x \in G\}$  with the *group operation*  $xH \cdot yH = (x \cdot y)H$ .

• **Proposition 5.3** Let  $G$  be a topological group.

1. If  $\alpha \in G$ , the map  $f_\alpha : x \mapsto \alpha \cdot x$  induces a homeomorphism of  $G/H$  carrying  $xH$  to  $(\alpha \cdot x)H$ . Thus  $G/H$  is a **homogeneous space**.
2. If  $H$  is a **closed** set in the topology of  $G$ , then **one-point sets** are **closed** in  $G/H$ .
3. The **quotient map**  $\pi : G \rightarrow G/H$  is **open**.
4. If  $H$  is **closed** in the topology of  $G$  and is a **normal subgroup** of  $G$ , then the (left) quotient group  $G/H$  under quotient topology is a **topological group**.
5. If  $H$  is **compact subgroup** of  $G$  and  $\pi : G \rightarrow G/H$  is closed, then  $G/H$  is **compact**.

• **Example**  $(GL(n, \mathbb{R})/SL(n, \mathbb{R})) \simeq \mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .

Given the *generalized linear group*  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ , the *special linear group*  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$  is a subgroup of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ . The *quotient group*  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})/SL(n, \mathbb{R}) \simeq \mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Proof:** Let  $G = GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  and  $H = SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \det(\mathbf{A}) = 1\}$ . Define  $\det : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$ . The map  $\det$  is constant on each left coset

$$xH = (\det)^{-1}(r);$$

where  $x \in G$  with  $\det(x) = r \neq 0$ . Note that for all  $\mathbf{A} \in xH$ ,  $\mathbf{A} = x\mathbf{S}$  where  $\mathbf{S}$  is the matrix in  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$ . so  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(x)\det(\mathbf{S}) = \det(x) = r$  since  $\det \mathbf{S} = 1$ . Moreover  $\det$  is a *surjective continuous* map. Now we show that  $\det$  is an open map, therefore  $\det : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$  is a quotient map.

To prove that  $\det(\text{any open subset of } GL(n, \mathbb{R}))$  is an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^*$ , consider the matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ , note that by expansion by minor, the determinant of  $\mathbf{A}$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\mathbf{A}) &= \sum_{i=1}^m (-1)^{i-1} a_{1,i} \det(\mathbf{A}_{-i}) \\ \det(\mathbf{A} + \delta \mathbf{E}_k) &= \sum_{i=1}^m (-1)^{i-1} (a_{1,i} + \delta \mathbb{1}_{i,k}) \det(\mathbf{A}_{-i}) \\ &= \det(\mathbf{A}) + (-1)^{k-1} \delta \det(\mathbf{A}_{-k}) \\ |\det(\mathbf{A} + \delta \mathbf{E}_k) - \det(\mathbf{A})| &\leq \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

From the corollary above, there exists a bijective continuous map  $f : G/H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$  so that the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & & \\ \pi \downarrow & \searrow \det & \\ (G/H) & \xrightarrow{\quad f \quad} & \mathbb{R}^*. \end{array}$$

Since  $\det : GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^*$  is a quotient map,  $f$  is a *homeomorphism*. ■

• **Example**  $(GL(n, \mathbb{R})/SL(n, \mathbb{R})) \simeq \mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .

Given the *generalized linear group*  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ , the *special linear group*  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$  is a subgroup of  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ . The *quotient group*  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})/SL(n, \mathbb{R}) \simeq \mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .

- **Example**  $(\mathcal{O}(n)/\mathcal{SO}(n) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{-1, 1\} = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$ .

The quotient group of orthogonal group  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  over the special orthorogal group  $\mathcal{SO}(n) = \{Q \in \mathcal{O}(n) : \det(Q) = 1\}$  is homemorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{-1, 1\}$ .

- **Example**  $(\mathcal{O}(n)/\mathcal{O}(n-1) \simeq \mathbb{S}^{n-1})$ .

The quotient group of  $n$ -dimensional orthogonal group  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  over  $(n-1)$ -dimensional orthogonal group  $\mathcal{O}(n-1)$  is homemorphic to  $(n-1)$ -dimensional sphere  $\mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ .

- **Definition** (*Topological Group Action*)

An **action** of a **topological group**  $G$  on a **topological space**  $X$  is a **continuous map**  $\phi : G \times X \rightarrow X$  such that for  $g(x) := \phi(g, x)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} (g_1 \cdot g_2)(x) &= g_1(g_2(x)), & \forall g_1, g_2 \in G, x \in X \\ 1_G(x) &= \text{Id}_X(x) = x, & \forall x \in X \end{aligned}$$

where  $1_G$  is the unit element of group  $G$ . Together with the group action,  $X$  is called a **G-space**.

- **Remark** The map  $x \mapsto g(x)$  is a **continuous map** on  $X$  for each  $g \in G$ . This map has **inverse map**  $x \mapsto g^{-1}(x)$  which is continuous as well. Thus the map  $x \mapsto g(x)$  is a **homemorphism**.

- **Example** The topological group  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  acts on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the rotation transformation of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Similarly,  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  acts on  $\mathbb{S}^1$  is the rotation of circle  $\mathbb{S}^1$ .

- **Definition** (*Orbit under Topological Group Actions*)

If the topological group  $G$  acts on topological space  $X$ , and  $x \in X$ , then **the orbit of  $x$**  is defined as

$$G(x) = \{g(x) : g \in G\}$$

- **Definition** The **stablizer** of  $x$  under group actions  $G$  is defined as

$$G_x = \{g \in G : g(x) = x\}$$

- **Definition** (*Orbit Space  $X/G$* )

Let  $G$  be a topological group and  $X$  be a  $G$ -space so that  $G$  acts on  $X$ . **The orbit space** is the set of *all orbits of action with quotient topology*. The quotient map  $\pi : x \mapsto G(x)$  maps  $x$  to its orbit. The orbit space is often called **the quotient of  $X$  by group actions  $G$** , i.e.

$$X/G = \{G(x) : x \in X\}.$$

- **Proposition 5.4** (*Orbit Space by Compact Group*)

Let  $G$  be a **compact** topological group and  $X$  be a topological space so that  $G$  acts on  $X$ . Let  $X/G$  be the **orbit space**, i.e. the quotient space of  $X$  by group actions  $G$ . Then

1.  $X/G$  is **Hausdorff** if  $X$  is **Hausdorff**;
2.  $X/G$  is **regular** if  $X$  is **regular**;
3.  $X/G$  is **normal** if  $X$  is **normal**;

4.  $X/G$  is *locally compact* if  $X$  is *locally compact*;
5.  $X/G$  is *second countable* if  $X$  is *second countable*;

• **Example** (*Global Flow on Smooth Manifold*) [Lee, 2003.]

**Definition** A *global flow on  $M$*  (also called a *one-parameter group action*) is defined as a *continuous left  $\mathbb{R}$ -action on  $M$* ; that is, a *continuous map*  $\theta : \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$  satisfying the following properties for all  $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $p \in M$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_{t+s}(p) &= \theta_t \circ \theta_s(p), \\ \theta_0(p) &= p\end{aligned}$$

where  $\theta_t = \theta(t, \cdot) : M \rightarrow M$  is a *continuous map* and  $\theta_0 = \text{Id}_M$ .

As we can see that, *the global flow is topological group action of  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$  on the smooth manifold  $M$  (a topological space)*.

**Definition** For each  $p \in M$ , define a curve  $\theta^{(p)} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$  by

$$\theta^{(p)}(t) = \theta(t, p).$$

The image of this curve is *the orbit of  $p$  under the group action*.

## References

John Marshall Lee. *Introduction to smooth manifolds*. Graduate texts in mathematics. Springer, New York, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2003. ISBN 0-387-95448-1.

James R Munkres. *Topology, 2nd*. Prentice Hall, 2000.