# Lecture 0: Summary (Part 1)

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## 1 Topology Basis

#### 1.1 Topology, Basis and Subbasis

- **Definition** Let X be a set.  $\underline{A \ topology}$  on X is a collection  $\mathscr{T}$  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**.

- **Definition** A map  $F: X \to Y$  is said to be <u>continuous</u> if for every open subset  $U \subseteq Y$ , the **preimage**  $F^{-1}(U)$  is **open** in X.
- **Definition** A continuous bijective map  $F: X \to Y$  with continuous inverse is called a <u>homeomorphism</u>. If there exists a homeomorphism from X to Y, we say that X and Y are <u>homeomorphic</u>.
- **Definition** Suppose X is a topological space. A collection  $\mathscr{B}$  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  $\mathscr{B}$ .

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

- 1.  $X = \bigcup_{B \in \mathscr{B}} B$ .
- 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 on X, called the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ , and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for this topology.

- Lemma 1.1 (Obtaining Basis from Given Topology). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a topological space. Suppose that  $\mathscr C$  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  $\mathscr C$  such that  $x \in C \subset U$ . Then C is a basis for the topology of X.
- Lemma 1.2 (Topology Comparison via Bases). [Munkres, 2000]
  Let  $\mathscr{B}$  and  $\mathscr{B}'$  be bases for the topologies  $\mathscr{T}$  and  $\mathscr{T}'$ , respectively, on X. Then the following are equivalent:
  - 1.  $\mathscr{T}'$  is **finer** than  $\mathscr{T}$ .
  - 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  $x \in B' \subset B$ .
- Definition (Subbasis)

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

• Remark (Basis from Subbasis)
For a subbasis  $\mathscr{S}$ , the collection  $\mathscr{B}$  of all finite intersections of elements of  $\mathscr{S}$  is a basis,

#### 1.2 Limit Point and Closure

- **Definition** A subset A of a topological space X is said to be **closed** if the set  $X \setminus A$  is open.
- **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 Int A or by  $\mathring{A}$  and the closure of A is denoted by CI A or by  $\overline{A}$ . Obviously  $\mathring{A}$  is an open set and  $\overline{A}$  is a closed set; furthermore,

$$\mathring{A} \subset A \subset \bar{A}$$
.

If A is **open**,  $A = \mathring{A}$ ; while if A is **closed**,  $A = \overline{A}$ .

- Proposition 1.3 (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  $x \in \overline{A}$  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".
- 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  $\underbrace{limit\ point}$  (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 1.4 (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 1.5 A subset of a topological space is **closed** if and only if it contains all its **limit** points.

#### 1.3 Subspace, Product and Quotient Topologies

#### 1.3.1 Subspace Topology

• **Definition** If X is a topological space and  $S \subseteq X$  is an arbitrary subset, we define **the subspace topology** on S (sometimes called **the relative topology**) by declaring 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.

ullet Lemma 1.6 (Basis of Subspace Topology)

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

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

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

- Proposition 1.7 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.
- Proposition 1.8 (Closure in Subspace Topology)

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  $\bar{A} \cap Y$ .

#### 1.3.2 Product Topology

• Definition (*J-tuples*)

Let J be an index set. Given a set X, we define a  $\underline{J\text{-tuple}}$  of elements of X to be a function  $x: J \to X$ . 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 Cartestian 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

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

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

• Definition (Projection Mapping or Coordinate Projection)
Let

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

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  $\mathscr{S}_{\beta}$  denote the collection

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

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

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

The topology generated by the **subbasis** 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 coarest (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:

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

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  $\alpha \in \{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n\}$ .

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.

• **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a continuous injective map  $F: X \to Y$  is called a *topological embedding* if it is a *homeomorphism* onto its image  $F(X) \subseteq Y$  in the subspace topology.

### 1.3.3 Quotient Topology

• Definition  $(Quotient\ Map)$ 

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

• Remark (Quotient Map = Strong Continuity)

The condition of quotient map is stronger than continuity (it is called  $\underline{strong\ continuity}$  in some literature).

continuity: U is open in  $Y \Rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$  is open in X

open map:  $\pi(V)$  is open in  $Y \Leftarrow V$  is open in X

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quotient map : U is open in  $Y \Leftrightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$  is open in X

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  $\pi: X \to Y$  is a *surjective* map, a subset  $U \subseteq X$  is said to be <u>saturated</u> 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  $\pi: X \to Y$  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  $f: X \to Y$  (continuous or not) is said to be an <u>open map</u> if for every open subset  $U \subseteq X$ , the image set f(U) is open in Y, and a <u>closed map</u> if for every closed subset  $K \subseteq X$ , the image f(K) is closed in Y.

#### • Definition (Quotient Topology)

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

#### • 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  $\pi: X \to X/\sim$  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  $\pi$ .

#### 1.4 Continuous Function

#### 1.4.1 Definitions

- **Definition** A map  $F: X \to Y$  is said to be <u>continuous</u> 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  $\mathscr{S}$ , 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  $S_1 \cap ... \cap S_n$  of subbasis elements; it follows from the equation

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

that the inverse image of every basis element is open.

 $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{Example} \ \ (\mathscr{F}\text{-}Weak \ \ Topology \ using \ Continuity \ Only)$ 

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

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

- Proposition 1.9 (Equivalent Definition of Continuity) [Munkres, 2000] Let X and Y be topological spaces; let  $f: X \to Y$ . 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.

#### 1.4.2 Homemorphism

ullet Definition (Homemorphism)

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

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

is called a <u>homeomorphism</u>. If there exists a homeomorphism from X to Y, we say that X and Y are <u>homeomorphic</u>.

• Definition (Topological Embedding)

If X and Y are topological spaces, a continuous injective map  $f: X \to Y$  is called

- a <u>topological embedding</u> if it is a <u>homeomorphism</u> onto its image  $f(X) \subseteq Y$  in the subspace topology (i.e.  $f^{-1}|_{f(X)} : f(X) \to X$  is continuous in Y).
- Remark (Smooth Embedding) If X and Y are smooth manifoolds, a smooth embedding  $f: X \to Y$  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).

#### 1.4.3 Constructing Continuous Functions

- Proposition 1.10 (Rules for Constructing Continuous Functions). [Munkres, 2000] Let X, Y, and Z be topological spaces.
  - 1. (Constant Function) If  $f: X \to Y$  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  $\iota: A \stackrel{X}{\hookrightarrow} is$  continuous.
  - 3. (Composites) If  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$  are continuous, then the map  $g \circ f: X \to Z$  is continuous
  - 4. (Restricting the Domain) If  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous, and if A is a subspace of X, then the restricted function  $f|_A: A \to Y$  is continuous.
  - 5. (Restricting or Expanding the Range) Let  $f: X \to Y$  be continuous. If Z is a subspace of Y containing the image set f(X), then the function  $g: X \to Z$  obtained by restricting the range of f is continuous. If Z is a space having Y as a subspace, then the function  $h: X \to Z$  obtained by expanding the range of f is continuous.
  - 6. (Local Formulation of Continuity) The map  $f: X \to Y$  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 1.11 (The Pasting Lemma / Gluing Lemma). [Munkres, 2000] Let  $X = A \cup B$ , where A and B are closed in X. Let  $f : A \to Y$  and  $g : B \to Y$ be continuous. If f(x) = g(x) for every  $x \in A \cap B$ , then f and g combine to give a continuous function  $h: X \to Y$ , 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 1.12 (Maps into Products). [Munkres, 2000] Let  $f: A \to X \times Y$  be given by the equation

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

Then f is continuous if and only if the functions

$$f_1: A \to X$$
 and  $f_2: A \to Y$ 

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

#### 1.5 Metric Topology

#### • Definition (Metric Space)

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

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

The function d is called a <u>metric</u> 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 <u>the  $\epsilon$ -ball centered at x</u>. 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.

#### • Definition (Metrizability)

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

• Theorem 1.13 ( $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  Definition of Continuous Function in Metric Space). [Munkres, 2000]

Let  $f: X \to Y$ ; 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 To use  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition, both domain and codomain need to be metrizable.
- Lemma 1.14 (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  $x \in \overline{A}$ ; the converse holds if X is metrizable.

- Proposition 1.15 Let  $f: X \to Y$ . If the function f is **continuous**, then for every **convergent** sequence  $x_n \to x$  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  $x_n \to x \Rightarrow f(x_n) \to f(x)$  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 1.16 (Arithmetic Operations of Continuous Functions).
   If X is a topological space, and if f, g: X → Y are continuous functions, then f + g, f g, and f · g are continuous. If g(x) ≠ 0 for all x, then f/g is continuous.
- ullet Definition (Uniform Convergence)

Let  $f_n: X \to Y$  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  $f: X \to Y$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer N such that

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

for all n > N and **all** x **in** X.

• Theorem 1.17 (Uniform Limit Theorem). [Munkres, 2000] Let f<sub>n</sub>: X → Y be a sequence of continuous functions from the topological space X to the metric space Y. If (f<sub>n</sub>) converges uniformly to f, then f is continuous.

#### 1.6 Connectedness and Local Connectedness

- Remark *Connectedness* and *compactness* are basic *topological properties*. Both of them are defined based on a collection of open subsets.
  - 1. Connectedness is a global topological property: a topological space is connected if it cannot be partitioned by two disjoint nonempty open subsets. Connectedness reveals the information of entire space not just within a neighborhood. Connectedness is compatible with the continuity of functions as it implies the intermediate value theorem, which in turn, can be used to construct inverse function. Moreover, connectedness defines an equivalence relationship which allows a partition of the space into components.
  - 2. Connectedness is a local-to-global topological property: a topological space is compact if every open cover have a finite sub-cover. Using finite sub-cover, local properties defined within each neighborhood can be generalized globally to entire space. Concept of functions that are closely related to compactness is the uniformly continuity and the maximum value theorem. The compactness allows us to drop dependency on each individual point x.

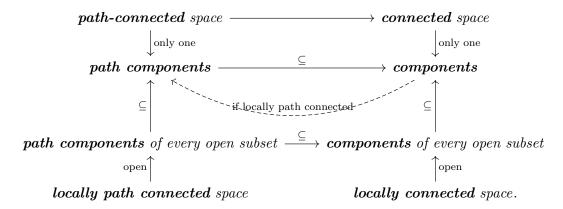
Compared to *connectedness*, *compactness* is usually a *strong condition* on the topological space.

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.

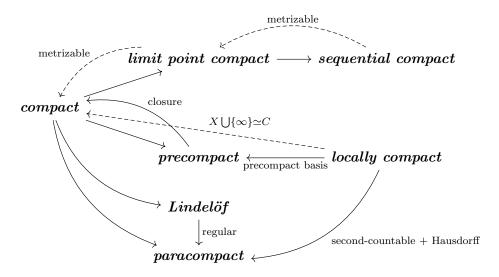
- **Definition** Equivalently, X is **connected** if and only if the only subsets of X that are **both open** and **closed** are  $\emptyset$  and X itself.
- **Definition** Recall that a topological space X is
  - <u>connected</u> if there do not exist two *disjoint*, nonempty, open subsets of X whose union is X;
  - path-connected if every pair of points in X can be joined by a path in X, and
  - locally path-connected if X has a basis of path-connected open subsets.
- Theorem 1.18 (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.
- Concepts Related to Connectedness



#### 1.7 Compactness and Local Compactness

• Concepts Related to Compactness



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

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.

• To prove *compactness*, the following property is useful:

#### Definition (Finite Intersection Property)

A collection  $\mathscr C$  of subsets of X is said to have  $\underline{\textit{the finite intersection property}}$  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 1.19 (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.
- **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a map  $F: X \to Y$  (continuous or not) is said to be **proper** if for every **compact** set  $K \subseteq Y$ , the **preimage**  $F^{-1}(K)$  is **compact**.
- Corollary 1.20 (Closed Interval in Real Line is Compact)[Munkres, 2000] Every closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  is compact.
- Proposition 1.21 (Closed and Bounded in Euclidean Metric = Compact)[Munkres, 2000]

A subspace A of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is **compact** if and only if it is **closed** and is **bounded** in the **euclidean** metric d or the square metric  $\rho$ 

- Theorem 1.22 (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  $x \in X$ .
- ullet 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  $x_0, \overline{x_1}$  of X,

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

- Theorem 1.23 (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.
- 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 1.24 (Compactness  $\Rightarrow$  Limit Point Compactness) [Munkres, 2000] Compactness implies limit point compactness, but not conversely.

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 1.25 (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.
- **Definition** A topological space X is said to be <u>locally compact</u> if every point has a **neighborhood** contained in a **compact subset** of X.

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 1.26** (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.

• Definition (*One-Point 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.

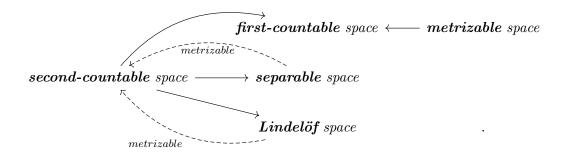
• Proposition 1.27 (Locally Compact Hausdorff = Precompact Basis) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a Hausdorff space. Then X is locally compact if and only if given x in X, and given a neighborhood U of x, there is a neighborhood V of x such that  $\bar{V}$  is **compact** and  $\bar{V} \subseteq U$ .

- Corollary 1.28 (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 1.29 [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.
- 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.
- Theorem 1.30 (Tychonoff Theorem). [Munkres, 2000]
  An arbitrary product of compact spaces is compact in the product topology.

#### 1.8 Countability and Separability

#### 1.8.1 Countability Axioms

• Concepts Related to Countablity Axioms



- Definition (Countability)
  - A topological space X is said to be
    - 1. first-countable if there is a countable neighborhood basis at each point,
    - 2. <u>second-countable</u> if there is a countable basis for its topology.
- Proposition 1.31 (Limit Point Detected by Convergent Sequence) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a topological space.
  - 1. Let A be a subset of X. If there is a sequence of points of A converging to x, then  $x \in \bar{A}$ ; the **converse** holds if X is **first-countable**.
  - 2. Let  $f: X \to Y$ . If f is continuous, then for every convergent sequence  $x_n \to x$  in X, the sequence  $f(x_n)$  converges to f(x). The **converse** holds if X is **first-countable**.

- $\bullet$  Definition (*Dense Subset*)
  - A subset A of a space X is said to be <u>dense</u> in X if  $\bar{A} = X$ . (That is, every point in X is a limit point of A.)
- Definition (Separability)

A topological space X is called **separable** if and only if it has a **countable dense set**.

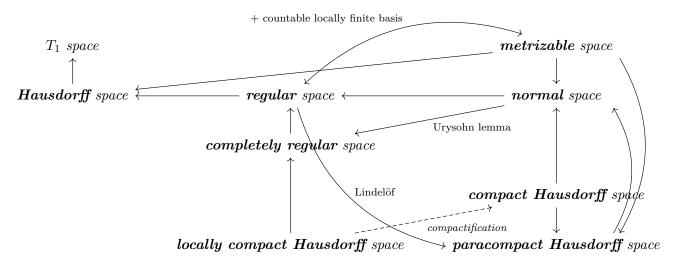
• Definition (*Lindelöf Space*)

A space for which every open covering contains a countable subcovering is called a Lindelöf space.

- Proposition 1.32 (Properties of Second-Countability) [Munkres, 2000] Suppose that X has a countable basis. Then:
  - 1. Every open covering of X contains a countable subcollection covering X. (X is Lindelöf space)
  - 2. There exists a countable subset of X that is dense in X. (X is separable)
- Proposition 1.33 (Metric Space Countability and Separablility)
  - 1. Every metric space is first countable.
  - 2. A metric space is **second countable** if and only if it is **separable**.
  - 3. Any second countable topological space is separable.

#### 1.8.2 Separability Axioms

• Concepts Related to Separation Axioms



- Definition (Separation Axioms)
  - 1. A topological space is called a  $\underline{T_1}$  **space** if and only if for all x and y,  $x \neq y$ , there is an **open set** U with  $y \in U$ ,  $x \notin \overline{U}$ .
    - Equivalently, a space is  $T_1$  if and only if  $\{x\}$  is **closed** for each x.
  - 2. A topological space is called **Hausdorff** (or  $T_2$ ) if and only if for all all x and y,  $x \neq y$ , there are **open sets** U, V such that  $x \in U$ ,  $y \in V$ , and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .

- 3. A topological space is called <u>regular</u> (or T<sub>3</sub>) if and only if it is T<sub>1</sub> and for all x and C, closed, with x ∉ C, there are open sets U, V such that x ∈ U, C ⊂ V, and U ∩ V = ∅. Equivalently, a space is T<sub>3</sub> if the closed neighborhoods of any point are a neighborhood base.
- 4. A topological space is called <u>normal</u> (or  $T_4$ ) if and only if it is  $T_1$  and for all  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , **closed**, with  $C_1 \cap C_2 = \emptyset$ , there are **open** sets U, V with  $C_1 \subset U$ ,  $C_2 \subset V$ , and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .
- Proposition 1.34

$$T_4 \Rightarrow T_3 \Rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow T_1$$

- Proposition 1.35 (*Limit Point in T*<sub>1</sub> *Axiom*). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space satisfying the T<sub>1</sub> 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 1.36 (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.
- Lemma 1.37 Let X be a topological space. Let one-point sets in X be closed.
  - 1. X is regular if and only if given a point x of X and a neighborhood U of x, there is a neighborhood V of x such that  $\bar{V} \subseteq U$ .
  - 2. X is normal if and only if given a **closed** set A and an open set U containing A, there is an **open set** V containing A such that  $\overline{V} \subseteq U$ .
- Proposition 1.38 [Munkres, 2000] Every locally compact Hausdorff space is regular.

#### 1.9 Important Results and Theorems on Normal Space

- Theorem 1.39 (Regular + Second-Countable  $\Rightarrow$  Normal)[Munkres, 2000] Every regular space with a countable basis is normal.
- Theorem 1.40 [Munkres, 2000] Every <u>metrizable</u> space is normal.
- Theorem 1.41 [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980] Every compact Hausdorff space X is normal.
- Theorem 1.42 (Urysohn Lemma). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a normal space; let A and B be disjoint closed subsets of X. Let [a, b] be a closed interval in the real line. Then there exists a continuous map

$$f:X\to [a,b]$$

such that f(x) = a for every x in A, and f(x) = b for every x in B.

• Theorem 1.43 (Urysohn Lemma, Locally Compact Version). [Folland, 2013] Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space and  $K \subseteq U \subseteq X$  where K is compact and

U is open. Then there exists a continuous map

$$f: X \to [0, 1]$$

such that f(x) = 1 for every  $x \in K$ , and f(x) = 0 for x outside a compact subset of U.

- Theorem 1.44 (Tietze Extension Theorem) [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980] Let X be a normal space; let A be a closed subspace of X.
  - 1. Any continuous map of A into the closed interval [a,b] of  $\mathbb{R}$  may be extended to a continuous map of all of X into [a,b].
  - 2. Any continuous map of A into  $\mathbb{R}$  may be extended to a continuous map of all of X into  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- Theorem 1.45 (Tietze Extension Theorem, Locally Compact Version) [Folland, 2013]

Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space; let K be a compact subspace of X. If  $f \in C(K)$  is a continuous map of K into  $\mathbb{R}$ , there exists a continuous extension  $F \in C(X)$  of all of X into  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $F|_K = f$ . Moreover, F may be taken to vanish outside a compact set.

• Theorem 1.46 (The Urysohn Metrization Theorem). [Munkres, 1975, Folland, 2013] Every second countable normal space is metrizable.

#### 1.10 Nets

• 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 (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**  $\alpha$  in a directed set I we say  $P(\alpha)$  **is eventually true** if there is a  $\beta$  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  $\beta$  there exists an  $\alpha \succ \beta$  with  $\underline{P(\alpha)}$  true.

 $\bullet$  Definition (Convergence)

A **net**  $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$  in a topological space X is said to **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  $\alpha\succ \beta$ . The point x that being converged to is called **the limit point** of  $x_{\alpha}$ .

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

- Proposition 1.47 [Reed and Simon, 1980]
   Let A be a set in a topological space X. Then, a point x is in the closure of A if and only if there is a net {x<sub>α</sub>}<sub>α∈I</sub> with x<sub>α</sub> ∈ A, So that x<sub>α</sub> → x.
- Proposition 1.48 [Reed and Simon, 1980]
  - 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  $\beta \in J$ ).
- Proposition 1.49 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 1.50 (The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
  A space X is compact if and only if every net in X has a convergent subnet.

# 2 Topology in Function Space

#### 2.1 Complete Metric Space

- Definition (Cauchy Net in Topological Vector Space) A net  $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$  in toplogocial vector space X is called <u>Cauchy</u> if the net  $\{x_{\alpha}-x_{\beta}\}_{(\alpha,\beta)\in I\times I}$ converges to zero. (Here  $I\times I$  is directed in the usual way:  $(\alpha,\beta)\prec(\alpha',\beta')$  if and only if  $\alpha\prec\alpha'$  and  $\beta\prec\beta'$ .)
- Definition (Completeness)
   A toplogocial vector space X is complete if every Cauchy net converges.
- Proposition 2.1 (Complete First Countable Topological Vector Space)

  If X is a first-countable topological vector space and every Cauchy sequence in X converges, then every Cauchy net in X converges.
- Proposition 2.2 (Completeness of Euclidean Space) [Munkres, 2000] Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is complete in either of its usual metrics, the euclidean metric d or the square metric  $\rho$ .
- Lemma 2.3 (Convergence in Product Space is Weak Convergence) [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be the product space  $X = \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ ; let  $x_n$  be a sequence of points of X. Then  $x_n \to x$  if and only if  $\pi_{\alpha}(x_n) \to \pi_{\alpha}(x)$  for each  $\alpha$ .

- Proposition 2.4 (Completeness of Countable Product Space) [Munkres, 2000] There is a metric for the product space  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  relative to which  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  is complete.
- Definition (Uniform Metric in Function Space) Let (Y,d) be a metric space; let  $\bar{d}(a,b) = \min\{d(a,b),1\}$  be the standard bounded metric on Y derived from d. If  $x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  and  $y = (y_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$  are points of the cartesian product  $Y^J$ , let

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

It is easy to check that  $\bar{\rho}$  is a metric; it is called <u>the uniform metric</u> on  $Y^J$  corresponding to the metric d on Y.

Note that **the space of all functions**  $f: J \to Y$ , **denoted** as  $Y^J$ , is a subset of the product space  $J \times Y$ . We can define uniform metric in the function space: if  $f, g: J \to Y$ , then

$$\bar{\rho}(f,g) = \sup \left\{ \bar{d}(f(\alpha),g(\alpha)) : \alpha \in J \right\}.$$

- Proposition 2.5 (Completeness of Function Space Under Uniform Metric) [Munkres, 2000]
  - If the space Y is complete in the metric d, then the space Y<sup>J</sup> is complete in the uniform metric  $\bar{\rho}$  corresponding to d.
- Definition (Space of Continuous Functions and Bounded Functions) Let  $Y^X$  be the space of all functions  $f: X \to Y$ , where X is a topological space and Y is a metric space with metric d. Denote the **subspace** of  $Y^X$  consisting of all **continuous** functions f as C(X,Y).

Also denote the set of all **bounded functions**  $f: X \to Y$  as  $\mathcal{B}(X,Y)$ . (A function f is said to be **bounded** if its image f(X) is a **bounded subset** of the metric space (Y,d).)

- Proposition 2.6 (Completeness of C(X,Y) and B(X,Y) Under Uniform Metric) [Munkres, 2000]
  - Let X be a topological space and let (Y, d) be a metric space. The set C(X, Y) of **continuous** functions is **closed** in  $Y^X$  under the **uniform metric**. So is the set  $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$  of **bounded** functions. Therefore, if Y is **complete**, these spaces are **complete** in the **uniform metric**.
- Definition (Sup Metric on Bounded Functions)

  If (Y,d) is a metric space, one can define another metric on the set  $\mathcal{B}(X,Y)$  of bounded functions from X to Y by the equation

$$\rho(x, y) = \sup \{ d(f(x), g(x)) : x \in X \}.$$

It is easy to see that  $\rho$  is well-defined, for the set  $f(X) \cup g(X)$  is **bounded** if both f(X) and g(X) are. The metric  $\rho$  is called **the sup metric**.

• Theorem 2.7 (Existence of Completion) [Munkres, 2000] Let (X,d) be a metric space. There is an isometric embedding of X into a complete metric space.

#### • Definition (Completion)

Let X be a metric space. If  $h: X \to Y$  is an **isometric embedding** of X into a **complete** metric space Y, then the **subspace** h(X) of Y is a complete metric space. It is called **the completion of** X.

#### • Definition (Topological Complete)

A space X is said to be <u>topologically complete</u> if there exists a metric for the topology of X relative to which X is <u>complete</u>.

- Proposition 2.8 (Properties of Topological Complete) [Munkres, 2000] The followings are properties of topological completeness:
  - 1. A closed subspace of a topologically complete space is topologically complete.
  - 2. A countable product of topologically complete spaces is topologically complete (in the product topology).
  - 3. An open subspace of a topologically complete space is topologically complete.
  - 4. A  $G_{\delta}$  set in a topologically complete space is topologically complete.

#### 2.2 Compactness in Metric Spaces

• Remark (Compactness and Completeness)

How is compactness of a metric space X related to completeness of X?

The followings is from the sequential compactness and definition of completeness:

Proposition 2.9 Every compact metric space is complete.

The converse does not hold – a complete metric space need not be compact. It is reasonable to ask what extra condition one needs to impose on a complete space to be assured of its compactness. Such a condition is the one called total boundedness.

• Definition (Total Boundedness)

A metric space (X, d) is said to be <u>totally bounded</u> if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a **finite** covering of X by  $\epsilon$ -balls.

- Theorem 2.10 [Munkres, 2000]
  A metric space (X, d) is compact if and only if it is complete and totally bounded.
- Remark We now apply this result to find the compact subspaces of the space  $C(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$ , in the uniform topology. We know that a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

One might hope that an analogous result holds for  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$ . **But** it does not, even if X is *compact*. One needs to assume that the subspace of  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$  satisfies an **additional** condition, called equicontinuity.

• **Definition** (*Equicontinuity*) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Munkres, 2000] Let (Y, d) be a *metric space*. Let  $\mathscr{F}$  be a *subset* of the function space  $\mathscr{C}(X, Y)$  (i.e.  $f \in \mathscr{F}$  is continuous). If  $x_0 \in X$ , the set  $\mathscr{F}$  of functions is said to be *equicontinuous* at  $x_0$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a neighborhood U of  $x_0$  such that for all  $x \in U$  and all  $f \in \mathscr{F}$ ,

$$d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon.$$

If the set  $\mathscr{F}$  is equicontinuous at  $x_0$  for each  $x_0 \in X$ , it is said simply to be <u>equicontinuous</u> or  $\mathscr{F}$  is an <u>equicontinuous family</u>.

We say  $\mathscr{F}$  is a *uniformly equicontinuous family* if and only if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\overline{d(f(x), f(x'))} < \epsilon$  whenever  $p(x, x') < \delta$  for all  $x, x' \in X$  and *every*  $f \in \mathscr{F}$ .

- Remark An equicontinuous family of functions is a family of continuous functions.
- Remark Continuity of the function f at  $x_0$  means that given f and given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a neighborhood U of  $x_0$  such that  $d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$  for  $x \in U$ . Equicontinuity of  $\mathscr{F}$  means that a single neighborhood U can be chosen that will work for all the functions f in the collection  $\mathscr{F}$ .
- Lemma 2.11 (Total Boundedness  $\Rightarrow$  Equicontinuous) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space; let (Y, d) be a metric space. If the subset  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$  is totally bounded under the uniform metric corresponding to d, then  $\mathscr{F}$  is equicontinuous under d.
- Lemma 2.12 (Equicontinuous + Compactness ⇒ Total Boundedness) [Munkres, 2000]
  Let X be a space; let (Y, d) be a metric space; assume X and Y are compact. If the subset F of C(X,Y) is equicontinuous under d, then F is totally bounded under the uniform and sup metrics corresponding to d.
- **Definition** (*Pointwise Bounded*) If (Y, d) is a *metric space*, a *subset*  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$  is said to be *pointwise bounded* under d if for each  $x \in X$ , the subset

$$F_a = \{ f(a) : f \in \mathscr{F} \}$$

of Y is **bounded** under d.

- Theorem 2.13 (Ascolis Theorem, Classical Version). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a compact space; let  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d)$  denote euclidean space in either the square metric or the euclidean metric; give  $C(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$  the corresponding uniform topology. A subspace  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $C(X, \mathbb{R}^n)$  has <u>compact closure</u> if and only if  $\mathscr{F}$  is <u>equicontinuous</u> and pointwise bounded under  $\overline{d}$ .
- Corollary 2.14 Let X be compact; let d denote either the square metric or the euclidean metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ; give  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$  the corresponding uniform topology. A subspace  $\mathscr{F}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(X,\mathbb{R}^n)$  is <u>compact</u> if and only if it is <u>closed</u>, bounded under the <u>sup metric</u>  $\rho$ , and equicontinuous under d.
- Remark (Ascoli's Theorem, Sequence Version) [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a family of uniformly bounded equicontinuous functions on [0,1]. Then some subsequence  $\{f_{n,m}\}$  converges uniformly on [0,1].
- Definition (Continuous Functions that Vanish At Infinity  $C_0(X, \mathbb{R})$ )
  Let X be a space. A subset  $\mathcal{F}$  of  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  is said to vanish uniformly at infinity if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a compact subspace C of X such that  $|f(x)| < \epsilon$  for  $x \in X \setminus C$  and  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ .

If  $\mathcal{F}$  consists of a single function f, we say simply that  $\underline{f}$  vanishes at infinity. Let  $\mathcal{C}_0(X,\mathbb{R})$  denote the set of continuous functions  $f:X\to\mathbb{R}$  that vanish at infinity.

• Corollary 2.15 [Munkres, 2000] Let X be locally compact Hausdorff; give  $C_0(X,\mathbb{R})$  the uniform topology. A subset  $\mathcal{F}$  of  $C_0(X,\mathbb{R})$  has compact closure if and only if it is pointwise bounded, equicontinuous, and vanishes uniformly at infinity.

### 2.3 Pointwise and Compact Convergence

- Remark (Useful Topologies on  $Y^X$ )
  - 1. *Uniform Topology*: generated by the *basis*

$$B_U(f,\epsilon) = \left\{ g \in Y^X : \sup_{x \in X} \bar{d}(f(x), g(x)) < \epsilon \right\}$$

It corresponds to **the uniform convergence** of  $f_n$  to f in  $Y^X$ . C(X,Y) is **closed** in  $Y^X$  under the uniform topology, following the Uniform Limit Theorem.

2. Topology of Pointwise Convergence: generated by the basis

$$B_{U_1, \dots, U_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n, \epsilon) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n S(x_i, U_i)$$
  
=  $\{ f \in Y^X : f(x_1) \in U_1, \dots, f(x_n) \in U_n \}, \quad 1 \le n < \infty.$ 

It corresponds to **the pointwise convergence** of  $f_n$  to f in  $Y^X$ . C(X,Y) is **not closed** in  $Y^X$  under the topology of pointwise convergence. Note that the topology of pointwise convergence is the **product topology** of  $Y^X$ .

3. Topology of Compact Convergence: generated by the basis

$$B_C(f,\epsilon) = \left\{ g \in Y^X : \sup_{x \in C} d(f(x), g(x)) < \epsilon \right\}, C \text{ is compact set.}$$

It corresponds to **the uniform convergence** of  $f_n$  to f in  $Y^X$  for  $x \in C$ . C(X,Y) is **closed** in  $Y^X$  under the topology of compact convergence **if** X **is compactly generated**.

On  $\mathcal{C}(X)$ , the topology of compact convergence is equal to the compact-open topology:

Definition (Compact-Open Topology on Continuous Function Space) Let X and Y be topological spaces. If C is a compact subspace of X and U is an open subset of Y, define

$$S(C,U) = \{ f \in \mathcal{C}(X,Y) : f(C) \subseteq U \}.$$

The sets S(C, U) form a **subbasis** for a topology on C(X, Y) that is called **the compact-open** topology.

We see that the *uniform topology* is the *finest* among them all and the *topology of pointwise* convergence is the coarest.

 $(uniform) \supseteq (compact\ convergence) \supseteq (pointwise\ convergence).$ 

• Proposition 2.16 (Topology of Uniform Convergence in Compact Sets) [Munkres, 2000]

A sequence  $f_n: X \to Y$  of functions converges to the function f in the **topology of compact** convergence if and only if for each compact subspace C of X, the sequence  $f_n|_C$  converges uniformly to  $f|_C$ .

- Definition (Compactly Generated Space)
  - A space X is said to be <u>compactly generated</u> if it satisfies the following condition: A set A is **open** (or closed) in  $\overline{X}$  if  $A \cap C$  is **open** (or closed) in C for each compact subspace C of X.
- Lemma 2.17 [Munkres, 2000]

  If X is locally compact, or if X satisfies the first countability axiom, then X is compactly generated.
- Proposition 2.18 Let X and Y be spaces; give C(X,Y) the compact-open topology. If  $f: X \times Z \to Y$  is continuous, then so is the induced function  $F: Z \to C(X,Y)$ . The converse holds if X is locally compact Hausdorff.
- Theorem 2.19 (Ascoli's Theorem, General Version). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space and let (Y, d) be a <u>metric</u> space. Give C(X, Y) the <u>topology of compact</u> convergence; let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a subset of C(X, Y).
  - 1. If  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous under d and the set

$$F_a = \{ f(a) : f \in \mathcal{F} \}$$

has <u>compact closure</u> for each  $a \in X$ , then  $\mathcal{F}$  is <u>contained</u> in a <u>compact subspace</u> of  $\mathcal{C}(X,Y)$ .

- 2. The converse holds if X is locally compact Hausdorff.
- Proposition 2.20 (Equicontinuity + Pointwise Convergence  $\Rightarrow$  Compact Convergence) [Munkres, 2000]

Let (Y,d) be a metric space; let  $f_n: X \to Y$  be a sequence of **continuous** functions; let  $f: X \to Y$  be a function (not necessarily continuous). Suppose  $f_n$  converges to f in the **topology of pointwise convergence**. If  $\{f_n\}$  is **equicontinuous**, then f is **continuous** and  $f_n$  converges to f in the **topology of compact convergence**.

#### 2.4 Subspaces of Continuous Functions

• Definition (Subspace of Continuous Functions)

Let  $C(X) := C(X, \mathbb{R})$  be the space of **continuous** real-valued functions on topological space X and  $\mathcal{B}(X) := \mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{R})$  be the space of **bounded** real-valued functions on X.

1. The intersection of  $\mathcal{B}(X)$  and  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  is the space of all <u>bounded continuous</u> functions

$$\mathcal{BC}(X) := \mathcal{BC}(X, \mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{B}(X, \mathbb{R}) \cap \mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R})$$

Note that  $\mathcal{BC}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(X)$  is a *closed subspace*.

2. Define the *support* of a function f, supp(f) as the *smallest closed set* outside of which f vanishes. The subset  $C_c(X) \subseteq C(X)$  is the space of all continuous functions

#### with compact support

$$C_c(X) = \{ f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}) : \text{supp } (f) \text{ is compact} \}.$$

Note that by  $Tietze\ Extension\ Theorem$ , the locally compact Hausdorff space X has a rich supply of continuous functions that vanishes outside a compact set.

3. Recall also that  $C_0(X)$  is the space of *continuous functions* on X that  $\underline{vanishes}$  at  $\underline{infinity}$ , i.e. for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $|f(x)| < \epsilon$  if  $x \in X \setminus C$  for some  $\underline{compact}$   $\underline{subset}$   $\overline{C \subseteq X}$ .

$$C_0(X) = \{ f \in C(X, \mathbb{R}) : f \text{ vanishes at infinity} \}.$$

Note that

$$C_c(X) \subset C_0(X) \subset \mathcal{BC}(X) \subset C(X)$$

• The crucial fact about compactly generated spaces is the following:

Lemma 2.21 (Continuous Extension on Compact Generated Space) [Munkres, 2000] If X is compactly generated, then a function  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous if for each compact subspace C of X, the restricted function  $f|_C$  is continuous.

- Theorem 2.22 (C(X,Y)) on Compact Generated Space) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a compactly generated space: let (Y,d) be a metric space. Then C(X,Y) is closed in  $Y^{\overline{X}}$  in the topology of compact convergence.
- Recall that

**Proposition 2.23** If X is a locally compact Hausdorf space, C(X) is a closed subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^X$  in the topology of compact convergence.

- Proposition 2.24 [Folland, 2013] If X is a topological space,  $\mathcal{BC}(X)$  is a closed subspace of  $\mathcal{B}(X)$  in the uniform metric; in particular,  $\mathcal{BC}(X)$  is complete.
- Proposition 2.25 [Folland, 2013]

  If X is a locally compact Hausdorf space,  $C_0(X)$  is a closure of  $C_c(X)$  in the uniform metric.
- Remark Note that  $C_0(X) = \overline{C_c(X)}$  is the *completion* of  $C_c(X)$  under uniform metro.

#### 2.5 Baire Category

• Remark (*Empty Interior* = *Complement is Dense*)
Recall that if A is a subset of a space X, the *interior* of A is defined as the union of all open sets of X that are contained in A.

To say that A has <u>empty interior</u> is to say then that A <u>contains no open set</u> of X other than the empty set. <u>Equivalently</u>, A has <u>empty interior</u> if every point of A is a <u>limit point</u> of the <u>complement</u> of A, that is, if the <u>complement</u> of A is <u>dense</u> in X.

$$\mathring{A} = \emptyset \iff A^c \text{ is dense in } X$$

In [Reed and Simon, 1980], if a subset  $\overline{A}$  of X has empty interior, A is said to be <u>nowhere dense</u> in X.

#### • Example Some examples:

- 1. The set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rationals has **empty interior** as a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$
- 2. The interval [0,1] has nonempty interior.
- 3. The interval  $[0,1] \times 0$  has **empty interior** as a subset of the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and so does the subset  $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R}$ .

#### • Definition (Baire Space)

A space X is said to be a <u>Baire space</u> if the following condition holds: Given <u>any countable</u> collection  $\{A_n\}$  of <u>closed</u> sets of X each of which has <u>empty interior</u> in X, their <u>union</u>  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  also has <u>empty interior</u> in X.

#### • Example Some examples:

- 1. The space  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rationals is **not** a **Baire space**. For each one-point set in  $\mathbb{Q}$  is closed and has empty interior in  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; and  $\mathbb{Q}$  is the countable union of its one-point subsets.
- 2. The space  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ , on the other hand, does form a **Baire space**. Every subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  is open, so that there exist no subsets of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  having empty interior, except for the empty set. Therefore,  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  satisfies the Baire condition vacuously.
- 3. The interval  $[0,1] \times 0$  has **empty interior** as a subset of the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and so does the subset  $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{R}$ .

#### • Definition (Baire Category)

A subset A of a space X was said to be of <u>the first category in X</u> if it was contained in the union of a countable collection of closed sets of X having empty interiors in X; otherwise, it was said to be of the second category in X.

- Remark A space X is a Baire space if and only if every nonempty open set in X is of the second category.
- Lemma 2.26 (Open Set Definition of Baire Space) [Munkres, 2000] X is a Baire space if and only if given any countable collection  $\{U_n\}$  of open sets in X, each of which is dense in X, their intersection  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$  is also dense in X.
- Theorem 2.27 (Baire Category Theorem). [Munkres, 2000]

  If X is a compact Hausdorff space or a complete metric space, then X is a Baire space.
- Remark In other word, neither compact Hausdorff space or a complete metric space is a countable union of closed subsets with empty interior (that are nowhere dense).
- Lemma 2.28 [Munkres, 2000] Let  $C_1 \supset C_2 \supset ...$  be a **nested** sequence of **nonempty closed sets** in the **complete metric** space X. If diam  $C_n \to 0$ , then  $\bigcap_n C_n = \emptyset$ .
- Lemma 2.29 [Munkres, 2000] Any open subspace Y of a Baire space X is itself a Baire space.

## 3 Locally Convex Topological Space

#### 3.1 Topological Vector Space

• Definition (Topological Vector Space)

A vector space X endowed with a topology  $\mathscr{T}$  is called a <u>topological vector space</u>, denoted as  $(X,\mathscr{T})$ , if the addition  $+: X \times X \to X$  and scale multiplication  $\cdot: \mathbb{R} \times X \to X$  are continuous.

• Theorem 3.1 [Treves, 2016] Every locally compact Hausdorff topological vector space is finite-dimensional.

#### 3.2 Locally Convex Topological Vector Space

• Definition (Locally Convex Space)

A topological vector space X is a <u>locally convex topological vector space</u> (or just locally convex space), if V is open and  $x \in V$ , then one can find a convex open set  $U \subset X$  such that  $x \in U \subset V$ . That is, there exists a base of convex sets  $\mathscr{B}$  that generates the topology  $\mathscr{T}$ .

- **Remark** The most common way of defining locally convex topologies on vector spaces is in terms of *semi-norms*.
- Definition (Semi-Norm)

A **semi-norm** on a vector space X is a mapping  $q: X \to \mathbb{R}_+$  satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. homogeneity:  $q(\gamma \mathbf{x}) = |\gamma| q(\mathbf{x})$ ;
- 2. the triangle inequality:  $q(x + y) \le q(x) + q(y)$ .

If furthermore  $q(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$ , then q is a **norm**.

- Remark A metric  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+$  that induced from a norm is given by  $d_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = q_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{x}), \ \forall \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in X.$
- Proposition 3.2 A normed space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  induced by  $\{q_{\theta}, \theta \in \Theta\}$  is Hausdorff if and only if for any  $x \neq 0, x \in X$ ,  $\exists \theta \in \Theta$ , such that  $q_{\theta}(x) > 0$ .
- Definition (Locally Convex Space generated by Semi-Norms)
  The smallest topology  $\mathscr{T}$  induced by the set of semi-norms  $\{q_{\theta}, \theta \in \Theta\}$  is generated by the convex basis  $U_{x,r,\theta} = \{y \in X \mid q_{\theta}(y-x) \leq r\} \in \mathscr{B}, x \in X, r > 0$ . The topological vector space  $(X,\mathscr{T})$  is thus locally convex space.

If  $\{q_{\theta}, \theta \in \Theta\}$  is a set of **norms**, then  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is a **normed space**.

• Remark The most commonly seen topological vector space are the normed linear space. It is a vector space X equipped with norm  $\|\cdot\|$  and the topology generated by the norm induced metric d. It is denoted as  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ .

The *locally convex space* is seen as a generalization of *normed vector space*.

• Proposition 3.3 (Continuous Linear Operator) [Folland, 2013]

Suppose X and Y are vector spaces with topologies defined, respectively, by the families  $\{p_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha\in A}$  and  $\{q_{\beta}\}_{\beta\in B}$  of **semi-norms**, and  $T:X\to Y$  is a linear map. Then T is **continuous if and only if** for each  $\beta\in B$ , there exists  $\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_k\in A$  and C>0 such that  $q_{\beta}(Tx)\leq C\sum_{i=1}^k p_{\alpha_i}(x)$ .

- **Remark** If the semi-norms are *norms*, then the condition above is *the bounded condition* for continuous linear operator.
- Proposition 3.4 [Folland, 2013] Let X be a vector space equipped with the topology defined by a family  $\{p_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$  of seminorms.
  - 1. X is **Hausdorff** if and only if for each  $x \neq 0$  there exists  $\alpha \in A$  such that  $p_{\alpha}(x) \neq 0$ .
  - 2. If X is **Hausdorff** and A is **countable**, then X is **metrizable** with a **translation** invariant metric (i.e., d(x, y) = d(x + z, y + z) for all  $x, y, z \in X$ ).
- Definition (Fréchet Space) A <u>complete Hausdorff</u> topological vector space X whose topology is defined by a <u>countable</u> family of <u>seminorms</u>  $\{q_{\theta}, \theta \in \Theta\}$  is called a **Fréchet space**.
- Example 1. A Fréchet space is a complete locally convex space.
  - 2. A Banach space is a Fréchet space.
- Example (Locally Integrable Functions  $L^1_{loc}(X,\mu)$ )

  The space of all locally integrable functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R})$ , is a Fréchet space with the topology defined by the semi-norms

$$p_k(f) = \int_{|x| \le k} |f(x)| \, dx.$$

Completeness follows easily from the completeness of  $L^1$ . An obvious generalization of this construction yields a **locally convex topological vector space**  $L^1_{loc}(X,\mu)$  where X is any locally convex Hausdorff (LCH) space and  $\mu$  is a Borel measure on X that is finite on compact sets.

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