## Notes for General Topology

Zhao Wenchuan

April 23, 2021

# Chapter 1

Metric Spaces

## Chapter 2

## **Topological Spaces**

## 2.1 Topological Spaces

**Definition 2.1.1** (topology). Let X be a set, and let a family  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ .  $\mathcal{T}$  is called a topology on X iff

- (i)  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$ ;
- (ii)  $\mathcal{T}$  is closed under arbitrary union;
- (iii)  $\mathcal{T}$  is closed under finite intersection.

**Definition 2.1.2** (topological spaces). Let X be any set, and let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a topology on X, then the pair  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is called a *topological space*. All subsets of X in  $\mathcal{T}$  are called *open sets* in  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ .

**Definition 2.1.3** (closed sets). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. A subset V of X is said to be *closed* iff there is an open set U in X such that

$$V = X \setminus V$$
.

**Proposition 2.1.1.** Let X be a set, and let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the family of all closed sets in X. Then

- (i)  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{C}$ ;
- (ii)  $\mathcal{C}$  is closed under arbitrary intersection;
- (iii) C is closed under finite union.

**Definition 2.1.4** (finer and coarser topology). Let X be any set, and let  $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{T}'$  be topologies on X.  $\mathcal{T}$  is said to be *finer* than  $\mathcal{T}'$  iff  $\mathcal{T} \supseteq \mathcal{T}'$ ; respectively,  $\mathcal{T}$  is said to be *coarser* than  $\mathcal{T}'$  iff  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ .

**Definition 2.1.5** (neighbourhood). Given  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  as a topological space and a point  $x \in X$ , a subset  $N \subseteq X$  is called a *neighbourhood* iff it contains an open set U containing x.

**Proposition 2.1.2.** Given  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  as a topological space and  $U \subseteq X$ , U is open iff for all  $x \in U$ , there is a neighbourhood N of x contained in U.

*Proof.* If U is open, then U itself is a neighbourhood of x contained in U.

Conversely, if for all  $x \in U$ , there is a neighbourhood  $N_x$  of x contained in U, then there is a open neighbourhood  $U_x \ni x$  contained in  $N_x$ . Then we have

$$U \supseteq \bigcup_{x \in U} U_x.$$

Suppose U is not open, then U is a proper superset in the relation above. Then there exists  $y \in U$  which is not in any  $U_x$ . This implies that such a y does not have any neighbourhood  $N_y$  in U, for such an  $N_y$  must contains an open  $U_y \ni y$ . For if it does, then there must be a  $U_x$  contains y. This is a contradiction. Thus,

$$U = \bigcup_{x \in U} U_x$$

is open.

## 2.2 Metrizable Spaces

## 2.3 Continuity

**Definition 2.3.1** (continuous maps). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be topological spaces. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be *continuous* iff for any open set U in Y, its preimage in X under f is open.

**Proposition 2.3.1.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be topological spaces. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous at  $x \in X$  iff for any neighbourhood  $N_y$  of f(x), there is a neighbourhood  $N_x$  of x, such that  $f[N_x] \subseteq N_y$ .

*Proof.* Let  $N_y$  be a neighbourhood of f(x). Clearly, there exists an open set  $U_y$  contains y.

By Definition 2.3.1, f is continuous at x iff  $x \in f^{-1}[U_y] \in \mathcal{T}_X$ . Clearly,  $f^{-1}[U_y]$  is a neighbourhood of x. We have  $f[f^{-1}[U_y]] = U_y \subseteq N_y$ .

By Proposition 2.1.2, there  $U_x$  must contains at least one neighbourhood  $N_x$  of x, thus,  $f[N_x] \subseteq U_y$ .

**Proposition 2.3.2.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be metrizable spaces. A map  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous at  $p \in X$  iff for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$ , such that for all  $x \in B_X(p, \delta)$ ,  $f(x) \in B_Y(f(p), \varepsilon)$ , where  $B_X$  is defined by any metrics  $\rho_X$  induces  $\mathcal{T}_X$ , and  $B_Y$  is defined by any metrics  $\rho_Y$  induces  $\mathcal{T}_Y$ .

*Proof.* Clearly, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $B_Y(f(x,),\varepsilon)$  is an open neighbourhood of f(x).

f is not necessarily be injective, so  $f^{-1}[B_Y(f(x),\varepsilon)] = U \in x$ . By Definition 2.3.1, U is open, so for some  $\delta > 0$ ,  $B_X(x,\delta) \subseteq U$ . Thus, By Proposition 2.3.1, f is continuous iff  $f[B_X(x,\delta)] \subseteq B_Y(f(x),\varepsilon)$ . This satisfies the conditions we have.

**Proposition 2.3.3.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be topological spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be continuous iff for any closed set V in Y, its preimage in X under f is closed.

*Proof.* Let  $U_Y$  be any open set in Y, let  $U_X$  be the preimage of  $U_Y$  under f. By Definition 2.3.1,  $U_X$  is open in X. Let

$$V_X = f^{-1}[Y \setminus U_Y] = X \setminus U_X,$$

Then  $V_X$  is closed.

#### 2.4 Cover

**Definition 2.4.1** (cover). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, and let  $U \subseteq X$ , then a family  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is called a *cover* of U iff the union of all sets in  $\mathcal{C}$  is a superset of U. That is,

$$U\subseteq\bigcup\mathcal{C}.$$

If  $C \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , then we call C an open cover of U.

Let  $S \subseteq C$ , iff the union of S is still a superset of U, then we call S a subcover of C.

**Definition 2.4.2** (basis). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, let  $U \subseteq X$ , and let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a open cover of X. We call  $\mathcal{B}$  a base of X iff the union of  $\mathcal{B}$  is precisely U itself, i.e.,

$$U = \bigcup \mathcal{B}.$$

**Definition 2.4.3** (synthetic basis). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, and let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a base of X.  $\mathcal{B}$  is said to be *synthetic* iff for any  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$ ,

$$A \cap B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i, \quad B_i \in \mathcal{B}.$$

### 2.5 Untitled

**Definition 2.5.1** (subspace topology). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let  $A \subseteq X$ . The *subspace topology*  $\mathcal{T}_A$  on A is defined to be the family of the intersections of open sets in  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  and A. That is,

$$\mathcal{T}_A = \{ U \cap A : U \in \mathcal{T} \}.$$

**Definition 2.5.2** (quotient topology). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let  $\sim$  be an equivalence relation on X. The *quotient topology* is a topology on  $\mathcal{P}(X/\sim)$ ; it is defined as

$$\mathcal{T}_{X/\sim} = \{ U \in \mathcal{P}(X/\sim) : \{ x \in X : [x] \in U \} \in \mathcal{T}_X \}.$$

**Definition 2.5.3** (homeomorphisms). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be topological spaces. A bijection  $f: X \to Y$  is called a *homeomorphism* iff it is continuous and its inverse is also continuous.

**Definition 2.5.4** (homeomorphic). Two topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are said to be *homeomorphic* or *topologically equivalent*, denoted  $X \cong Y$ , iff there is an homeomorphism between them.

**Definition 2.5.5** (compactness). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be *compact* iff every open cover of X has a finite subcover. That is,

$$\forall \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{T}: \bigcup \mathcal{C} = X: \exists \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{C}: \bigcup \mathcal{S} = X: |\mathcal{S}| < \aleph_0.$$

**Definition 2.5.6** (connectedness). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space.  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be *connected* iff X is not empty and it it not the union of any disjoint open sets. That is,

$$\forall U, V \in \mathcal{T} : X = U \cup V : U \cap V \neq \emptyset.$$

**Definition 2.5.7** (path-connectedness). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space.

- (i) A map  $\gamma: [0,1] \to X$  is called a *path* in X iff it is continuous. If  $\gamma(0) = x$  and  $\gamma(1) = y$ , we say that  $\gamma$  is path from x to y in X.
- (ii) X is said to be path-connected iff for all  $x, y \in X$  there is a path from x to y in X.

**Definition 2.5.8** (topologically indistinguishable). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. Two points  $x, y \in X$  are said to be topologically indistinguishable iff they share all their neighbourhoods. That is, let  $\mathcal{N}_x$  be the family of all neighbourhoods of x and let  $\mathcal{N}_y$  be the family of all neibourhoods of y, we have

$$\mathcal{N}_x = \mathcal{N}_y$$
.

Respectively, x, y are said to be topologically distinguishable iff they are not topologically distinguishable; i.e.,

$$\mathcal{N}_x \neq \mathcal{N}_y$$
.

**Definition 2.5.9** (saperated sets). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, and let  $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ .

- (i) A and B are said to be separated iff each is disjoint from other's closure.
- (ii) A and B are said to be separated by neighbourhoods iff there are neighbourhoods  $N_A$  of A and  $N_B$  of B such that  $N_A$  and  $N_B$  are disjoint.
- (iii) A and B are said to be separated by closed neighbourhoods iff there are closed neighbourhoods  $\overline{N}_A$  of A and  $\overline{N}_B$  of B such that  $\overline{N}_A$  and  $\overline{N}_B$  are disjoint.
- (iv) A and B are said to be separated by a continuous function iff there is a continuous function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $f[A] = \{0\}$  and  $f[B] = \{1\}$ .
- (v) A and B are said to be precisely separated by a continuous function iff there is a continuous function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $f^{-1}[\{0\}] = A$  and  $f^{-1}[\{1\}] = B$

See Wikipedia.org

**Definition 2.5.10** ( $T_0$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_0$  or Kolmogorov, iff all distinct points  $x, y \in X$  are topologically distinguishable.

**Definition 2.5.11** ( $R_0$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $R_0$  iff any two topologically distinguishable points in X are separated.

**Definition 2.5.12** ( $T_1$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_1$  or *Fréchet* iff any two distinct points in X are separated.

**Proposition 2.5.1.** All singletons in a  $T_1$  space are closed, That is, if a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_1$ , then

$$\forall x \in (X, \mathcal{T}) : \exists U \in \mathcal{T} : \{x\} = X \setminus U.$$

**Definition 2.5.13** ( $T_2$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_2$  or *Hausdorff* or *separated* iff any two distinct points in  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  are separated by neighbourhoods.

**Definition 2.5.14** ( $T_{2^{1/2}}$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_{2^{1/2}}$  or Urysohn iff two distinct points in X are separated by closed neighbourhoods.

**Definition 2.5.15** ( $T_3$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_3$  or regular iff it is  $T_0$  and given any point  $x \in (X, \mathcal{T})$  and closed set  $V \subseteq X$  with  $x \notin V$  are separated by neighbourhoods.

**Definition 2.5.16**  $(T_{3^{1}/2} \text{ spaces})$ . A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_{3^{1}/2}$ , or *Tychonoff* or, *completely*  $T_3$ , or *completely regular*, iff it is  $T_0$  and given any point x and closed set  $V \subseteq X$  with  $x \notin V$ , they are separated by a continuous function.

**Definition 2.5.17** ( $T_4$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_4$  or *normal* iff it is Hausdorff and any tow disjoint closed subsets of X are separated by neighbourhoods.

**Proposition 2.5.2** (Urysohn's lemma). A topological space is normal iff any two disjoint closed sets are separated by a continuous function.

**Definition 2.5.18** ( $T_5$  spaces). A topological space ( $X, \mathcal{T}$ ) is said to be  $T_5$  or completely  $T_4$  iff it is  $T_1$  any two separated sets are separated by neighbourhoods.

**Proposition 2.5.3.** Every subspace of a  $T_5$  space is normal.

**Definition 2.5.19** ( $T_6$  spaces). A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be  $T_6$ , or perfectly  $T_4$  or perfectly normal iff it is  $T_1$  and any two disjoint closed sets are precisely separated by a continuous function.

**Proposition 2.5.4** (Tietze extension theorem). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be normal topological space, and let  $f: A \to (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{T}')$  be a continuous map where A is a closed subset of X and  $\mathcal{T}'$  is the standard topology (induced by Euclidean metric). Then there exists a continuous map

$$F:(X,\mathcal{T})\to(\mathbb{R},\mathcal{T}'),$$

such that

$$\forall x \in A : f(x) = g(x).$$

### 2.6 Boundaries

**Definition 2.6.1** (interiors). The *interior* of a set A, denoted  $A^{\circ}$ , is defined to be the union of all open subsets of A.

**Definition 2.6.2** (closure). The *closure* of a set A, denoted  $\overline{A}$ , is defined to be the intersection of all closed supersets of A.

**Definition 2.6.3** (dense sets). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, and let  $A \subseteq X$ . A is said to be dense, iff  $\overline{A} = X$ .

**Definition 2.6.4** (nowhere dense sets). A set A is said to be *nowhere dense* iff the interior of its closure is empty.

**Definition 2.6.5** (boundaries). Let A be any set, the *boundary* of A, denoted  $\partial A$ , is defined to be the complement of the interior of A in the closure of A; i.e.,

$$\partial A = \overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ}.$$

**Proposition 2.6.1** (properties of interiors). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be any topological space and  $A, B \subseteq X$ .

- (i) (Intensive)  $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$ .
- (ii) A is open iff  $A = A^{\circ}$ .
- (iii) (Idempotence)  $(A^{\circ})^{\circ} = A^{\circ}$ .
- (iv)  $(A \cap B)^{\circ} = A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ}$ .
- (v)  $A \subseteq B \implies A^{\circ} \subseteq B^{\circ}$ .
- (vi) If B is open, then  $B \subseteq A$  iff  $B \subseteq A^{\circ}$ .

#### Proof.

- (i) By Definition 2.6.1, naturally,  $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$ .
- (ii) By Definition 2.1.2,  $A^{\circ}$  is the union of open sets hence it is open. A is open iff it is the union of all open subsets of A. Thus  $A = A^{\circ}$ .
- (iii)  $A^{\circ}$  is open, thus  $(A^{\circ})^{\circ} = A^{\circ}$ .
- (iv) By Definition 2.6.1, we have

$$\begin{split} (A\cap B)^\circ &= \left\{ \bigcup U : U \in \mathcal{T} \wedge U \subseteq A \cap B \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \bigcup U : (U \in \mathcal{T} \wedge U \subseteq A) \wedge (U \in \mathcal{T} \wedge U \subseteq B) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \bigcup U : U \in \mathcal{T} \wedge U \subseteq A \right\} \cap \left\{ \bigcup U : U \in \mathcal{T} \wedge U \subseteq B \right\} \\ &= A^\circ \cap B^\circ. \end{split}$$

(v) Clearly,  $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$ , thus,

$$A \subseteq B \implies A^{\circ} \subseteq B$$

Suppose  $A^{\circ} \not\subseteq B^{\circ}$ , then  $A^{\circ} \setminus B^{\circ}$  is not empty ( $\emptyset$  is the subset of any set, so  $A^{\circ}$  is not empty).

Then there exists  $x \in A^{\circ}$  with  $x \in \partial B$  ( $x \in B$  but  $x \notin B^{\circ}$ ). Then there exists neighbourhood  $N_x \ni x$ , and  $N_x \cap \partial B \neq \emptyset$ . But this is impossible, for  $A^{\circ} \subseteq B$  implies that  $A^{\circ} \cap \partial B = \emptyset$  (This is a straight consequence of  $A^{\circ} \cap \partial A = \emptyset$ . See Proposition 2.6.3), so such  $N_x$  does not exist. Thus,

$$A^{\circ} \subset B^{\circ}$$
.

(vi) If B is open, then  $B = B^{\circ}$ . Then  $B \subseteq A$  iff  $B^{\circ} \subseteq A^{\circ}$ .

**Proposition 2.6.2** (properties of closures). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, and let  $A, B \subseteq X$ .

- (i)  $\overline{A}$  is closed.
- (ii) A is closed iff  $A = \overline{A}$ .
- (iii)  $A \subseteq B$  implies  $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$ .

(iv) If A is closed, then  $A \supseteq B$  iff  $A \supseteq \overline{B}$ 

Proof.

- (i) By Definition 2.6.2,  $\overline{A}$  is the intersection of closed sets. By Proposition 2.1.1,  $\overline{A}$  is closed.
- (ii) Proposition 2.1.1 implies that any closed set is the intersection of closed sets, this is precisely what Definition 2.6.2 says.

(iii)

$$A \subseteq B \implies X \setminus A \supseteq X \setminus B$$

**Proposition 2.6.3** (properties of boundaries). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space, and let  $A \subseteq X$ .

- (i)  $\partial A$  is closed.
- (ii)  $A^{\circ} \cap \partial A = \emptyset$ .
- (iii)  $\overline{A} = A^{\circ} \cup \partial A$ .
- (iv) A is closed iff  $\partial A \subseteq A$ .
- (v)  $\partial A$  is nowhere dense.
- (vi)  $\partial \overline{A} \subseteq \partial A \subseteq \partial A^{\circ}$ .
- (vii)  $\partial A = \partial (X \setminus A)$ .
- (viii) A is dense iff  $\partial A = X \setminus A^{\circ}$ .

Proof.

(i)  $\overline{A}$  is closed, and  $X \setminus A^{\circ}$  is also closed. Thus

$$\partial A = \overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ} = \overline{A} \cap (X \setminus A)$$

is closed.

(iii) We have

$$\begin{split} \partial A &= \overline{A} \setminus A^\circ \iff \partial A \cup A^\circ = \overline{A} \setminus A^\circ \cup A^\circ = \overline{A} \cap (X \setminus A^\circ \cup A^\circ) \\ &\iff \partial A \cup A^\circ = \overline{A} \cap X|_{\text{for } A^\circ \subset X} = \overline{A}. \end{split}$$

- (iv) As A is closed,  $A = \overline{A}$  (this can be straightly proved by Definition 2.6.2). By Definition 2.6.5, it is clear that  $\partial A \subseteq \overline{A}$ , thus  $\partial A \subseteq A$ .
- (v) By Definition 2.6.4,  $\partial A$  is nowhere dense iff  $\overline{\partial A}^{\circ}$  is empty. We have

$$\overline{\partial A}^{\circ} = \overline{\overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ}}^{\circ}$$

$$= (\overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ}) \cup (\overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ}) \setminus (\overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ})$$

$$= \emptyset.$$

(vi)  $\overline{A} \supseteq A^{\circ}$  implies  $\overline{A}^{\circ} \supseteq (A^{\circ})^{\circ} = A^{\circ}$ , then we have,

$$\partial \overline{A} = \overline{\overline{A}} \setminus \overline{A}^{\circ} \subset \overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ} = \partial A.$$

 $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$  implies  $\overline{A^{\circ}} \subseteq \overline{A}$ , then we have,

$$\partial A^{\circ} = \overline{A^{\circ}} \setminus (A^{\circ})^{\circ} \supseteq \overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ}.$$

(vii) We have

$$\partial(X \setminus A) = \overline{X \setminus A} \setminus (X \setminus A)^{\circ}$$

$$= X \setminus A^{\circ} \setminus (X \setminus \overline{A})$$

$$= X \setminus A^{\circ} \cap \overline{A}$$

$$= \overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ}$$

$$= \partial A.$$

(viii) By Definition 2.6.3, A is dense in X iff  $\overline{A} = X$ . Then we have,

$$\overline{A} = X \iff \overline{A} \setminus A^{\circ} = X \setminus A^{\circ}$$
$$\iff \partial A = X \setminus A^{\circ}.$$

### 2.7 Limit Points

**Definition 2.7.1** (limit points). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  be a topological space, and let  $A \subseteq X$ . A point  $x \in X$  is called a *limit point* of A iff for all neighbourhood  $N_x$  of  $x, N_x \setminus \{x\}$  intersects A.

**Proposition 2.7.1.** Let A be any set, and let x be a limit point of A, then x is an element of the closure of A.

*Proof.* If A is empty, then this is vacuously true. So, suppose A is not empty. By Definition 2.7.1, for all neighbourhood  $N_x$  of x,  $N_x \setminus \{x\} \cap A$  is not empty. Naturally,  $N_x \cap A$  is not empty.

Assume that  $x \notin \overline{A}$ , then  $X \setminus \overline{A}$  is a neighbourhood of x, by Definition 2.1.5, and is disjoint from A. This is contradicted to the conditions.

**Note 2.7.1.** In this proof, the proposition also holds for  $N_x \cap A^{\circ} = \emptyset$ . Because if it is true, then

$$N_x \cap \partial A \supseteq (N_x \cap A) \setminus (N_x \cap A^\circ) = N_x \cap A.$$

This implies that  $A \subseteq \partial A$ . In this case,  $\overline{A} = \partial A$ , for

Assume that  $x \notin \partial A$ , then we have the same conclusion.

Then 
$$A^{\circ} = A \setminus \partial A = \emptyset$$
.

Proposition 2.7.2. A set is closed iff it contains all its limit point.

*Proof.* Let A be a set. By proposition 2.7.1, for every limit point of A, it is also an element of the closure  $\overline{A}$ . And A is closed iff  $A = \overline{A}$ .

**Definition 2.7.2** (convergent sequences). Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  be a topological space. A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in X is said to be *convergence* in X iff there is an open set U contains all but finite terms of  $\{x_n\}$ .