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# 1

# **Topology**

## 1.1 Topological Spaces

## **Definition 1.1.1** ► **Topology**

A **topology** on a set *X* is a collection  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that

- $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$ ;
- for any index set I, if  $\{X_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T})$ , then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i \in \mathcal{T}$ ;
- for any  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \in \mathcal{T}, \bigcap_{i=1}^n X_i \in \mathcal{T}$ .

The pair  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be a **topological space**. A subset  $Y \subseteq X$  is **open** if  $Y \in \mathcal{T}$ .

*Remark.* For any set X, we define  $\{\emptyset, X\}$  as the *trivial topology* on X,  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  as the *discrete topology*, and  $\{X \setminus U : U \subseteq X \text{ is finite}\} \cup \{\emptyset\}$  as the *co-finite topology*.

The set  $\{(-\alpha, \alpha) : \alpha > 0\} \cup \{\mathbb{R}, \emptyset\}$  defines a topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ . This example also demonstrates why it is crucial to only consider closure under finite intersections when defining a topology, because

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( -1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) = [-1, 1] \notin \mathcal{T}.$$

We now seek a systematic method to generate a topology given any set. The idea here is to make use of a *cover*.

## **Definition 1.1.2** ▶ Basis

A basis for a topology on *X* is a collection  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that

- for any  $x \in X$ , there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B$ ;
- for any  $x \in X$  and  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$  with  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$ .

It may be useful to see a basis as a cover of a set with the second additional property as stated in the above definition. Notice that the first property of the basis  $\mathcal{B}$  is basically saying that

$$X \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{B}$$
,

i.e.,  $\mathcal{B}$  is a cover of X.

Given any basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for some topology on X, a set generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  can be defined as

 $\mathcal{T} := \{U \subseteq X : \text{ for any } u \in U, \text{ there exists some } B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } u \in B \subseteq U\}$ 

We will show that  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on X. First, it is clear that  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$ .

Let I be an index set and  $\{X_i: i \in I\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T})$  be any collection of subsets of X. Notice that for any  $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$ , there exists some  $j \in I$  such that  $x \in X_j \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ . According to our construction, this means that there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq X_j \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ . Therefore,  $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  as desired.

To prove that  $\mathcal{T}$  is closed under finite intersection, we consider the following lemma:

### Lemma 1.1.3 ▶ Finite Intersection of Elements in Basis Is Covered

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis for a topology on X and  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n \in \mathcal{B}$ , then for any  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i$ , there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i$ .

*Proof.* The case where n=1 is trivial by taking  $B=B_1$ . Suppose that there is some integer  $k \geq 1$  such that for any  $B_1, B_2, \cdots, B_k \in \mathcal{B}$  and any  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^k B_i$ , there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^k B_i$ . Take any  $B_{k+1} \in \mathcal{B}$ . It is clear that for any  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{k+1} B_i$ , there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that

$$x \in B \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^k B_i$$
.

Notice that  $x \in B_{k+1} \in \mathcal{B}$ , so we know that  $x \in B \cap B_{k+1}$ . By Definition 1.1.2, this means that there exists some  $B' \in \mathcal{B}$  such that

$$x \in B' \subseteq B \cap B_{k+1} \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^{k+1} B_i.$$

Now, suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \in \mathcal{T}$  are finitely many subsets of X. Take any  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n X_i$ . It is clear that  $x \in X_i$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Therefore, for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , there exists some  $B_i \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B_i \subseteq X_i$ . By Lemma 1.1.3, this means that there exists some set  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that

$$x \in B \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} B_i \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$
.

Therefore,  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} X_i \in \mathcal{T}$ . So this set  $\mathcal{T}$  generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  is indeed a topology on X.

The following proposition further shows that the topology generated by a basis  $\mathcal{B}$  is the set

of all possible unions of elements in  $\mathcal{B}$ :

## **Proposition 1.1.4** ▶ Equivalent Construction of Topologies Generated from Bases

Let X be any set. If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on X, then

$$\mathcal{T} = \left\{ \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A : \mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}) \right\}.$$

Proof. Denote

 $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}} := \{ U \subseteq X : \text{ for any } u \in U, \text{ there exists some } B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } u \in B \subseteq U \}.$ 

It suffices to prove that  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ . Take any  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ , then there exists some  $V \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B})$  such that  $T = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A$ . This means that for every  $t \in T$ , there exists some  $B_t \in \mathcal{V}$  such that  $t \in B_t \subseteq T$ . Therefore,  $T \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ . Conversely, for any  $S \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ , there exists some  $B_s \in \mathcal{B}$  for each  $s \in S$  such that  $s \in B_s$ . Denote  $U \coloneqq \{B_s : s \in S\} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B})$ , then it is clear that  $S \subseteq \bigcup_{B \in U} B$ . Since  $B_s \subseteq S$  for each  $s \in S$ , we have  $\bigcup_{B \in U} B \subseteq S$ , which implies that  $S = \bigcup_{B \in U} B$ . This means that  $S \in \mathcal{T}$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$  and  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ , which means that  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ .

Next, we define a special topology in Euclidean spaces using open balls.

## **Definition 1.1.5** ► Standard Topology

For any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and any r > 0. Denote the Euclidean open ball centred at  $\mathbf{x}$  with radius r by

$$B_r(\mathbf{x}) := \left\{ \mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2} < r \right\}$$

The **standard topology** on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the set generated by the basis

$$\mathcal{B} := \{B_r(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, r \in \mathbb{R}^+\}.$$

It may be helpful to actually show that this set  $\mathcal{B}$  is indeed a basis of a topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The fact that  $\mathcal{B}$  is a cover for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is trivial enough. Take any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and balls  $B_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_1)$ ,  $B_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_2) \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{x} \in B_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_1) \cap B_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}_2)$  (the existence of these 2 balls is again trivial enough). Take

$$r = \min \{ \alpha - \| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_1 \|, \beta - \| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_2 \| \}.$$

Clearly, r > 0 and  $x \in B_r(x)$ , so we are done.

Now, we discuss the analogue of the subset relation in topologies.

### **Definition 1.1.6** ► Fineness and Coarseness

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  be topologies on some set X. We say that  $\mathcal{T}$  is **finer** than  $\mathcal{T}'$ , or equivalently, that  $\mathcal{T}'$  is **coarser** than  $\mathcal{T}$ , if  $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ .

Observe that any topology of X must be a subset of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ , which is the discrete topology on X, so the discrete topology is the finest topology on a set.

*Remark.* For any basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for a topology on X, the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$  is the coarsest topology containing  $\mathcal{B}$ .

The above remark is easy to verify. Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be any topology on X with  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$  be the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ . For any  $T \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}}$ , by Proposition 1.1.4, there exists some  $V \subseteq \mathcal{B}$  such that  $T = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A$ . Note that  $A \in \mathcal{T}$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{V}$ , so by Definition 1.1.1,  $T \in \mathcal{T}$  and so  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{B}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  as desired.

This motivates us to consider fineness in terms of bases.

## **Proposition 1.1.7** ► **Fineness in Terms of Bases**

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{B}'$  generate topologies  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  respectively on X.  $\mathcal{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathcal{T}$  if and only if for every  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  and any  $x \in B$ , there exists some  $B_x \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B_x \subseteq B$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\mathcal{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathcal{T}$ , then  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ . Take any  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , then by Proposition 1.1.4,  $B \in \mathcal{T}$ , which means that  $B \in \mathcal{T}'$ . Since  $\mathcal{B}'$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{T}'$ , by Definition 1.1.2 for any  $x \in \mathcal{B}$ , there exists some  $\mathcal{B}_x \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in \mathcal{B}_x \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ .

Suppose conversely that for every  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  and any  $x \in B$ , there is some  $B_x \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subseteq B$ . Take any  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ , for each  $x \in T$ , by Definition 1.1.2 there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq T$ , and so we can find some  $B_x \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B_x \subseteq B \subseteq T$ , so  $T \in \mathcal{T}'$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$  and so  $\mathcal{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathcal{T}$ .

Recall that every basis of a topology on X is an open cover of X consisting only of subsets of X. Therefore, the union of the elements in the basis is essentially X itself. This motivates us to propose another way to generate a topology on a set.

### **Definition 1.1.8** ► **Sub-basis**

A sub-basis of *X* is a collection  $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that  $\bigcup_{A \in S} A = X$ .

Remark. Every basis is a sub-basis.

For an arbitrary set X, let S be a sub-basis and denote the collection of all finite subsets of  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  as  $\mathcal{F}_{S}$ . Define

$$\mathcal{U}_{\mathcal{S}} \coloneqq \left\{ \bigcap_{A \in F} A : F \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{S}} \right\}$$

to be the collection of all finite intersections of sets in S. The topology generated by a subbasis of X is given by

$$\mathcal{T} \coloneqq \left\{ \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A : \mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{\mathcal{S}} \right\}.$$

We shall show that  $\mathcal{T}$  is indeed a topology on X by considering the following proposition:

## Proposition 1.1.9 ▶ Finite Intersections of Sets in a Sub-basis Form a Basis

Let S be a sub-basis for a set X and let  $\mathcal{U}_S$  be the set of all finite intersections of sets in S, then  $\mathcal{U}_S$  is a basis of a topology on X.

*Proof.* Take any  $x \in X$ . By Definition 1.1.8, we have  $x \in \bigcup_{A \in S} A$ . Therefore, there exists some  $A \in S \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that  $x \in A$ . For any  $x \in X$  and  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{U}_S$  such that  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , notice that  $B_1 \cap B_2$  is a finite intersection of sets in S, so  $B_1 \cap B_2 \in \mathcal{U}_S$ . Therefore, by Definition 1.1.2,  $\mathcal{U}_S$  is a basis.

With Propositions 1.1.9 and 1.1.4, it is clear that  $\mathcal{T}$  as constructed above is a topology on X.

## 1.2 Metric Spaces

#### **Definition 1.2.1** ▶ **Metric**

A **metric** on a set *S* is a function  $d: S \times S \to \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- $d(x, y) \ge 0$  for all  $x, y \in S$  (positivity);
- d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y (definiteness);
- d(x, y) = d(x, y) for all  $x, y \in S$  (symmetry);
- $d(x, y) \le d(x, z) + d(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in S$  (triangular inequality).

Remark. A metric is sometimes also called a distance function.

A metric generalises the notion of distance in Euclidean spaces. We can weaken the above axioms to arrive at the following definition:

## **Definition 1.2.2** ▶ Pseudo-metric

A **pseudo-metric** on a set *S* is a function  $d: S \times S \to \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- $d(x, y) \ge 0$  for all  $x, y \in S$  (positivity);
- d(x, x) = 0 for all  $x \in S$ ;
- d(x, y) = d(x, y) for all  $x, y \in S$  (symmetry);
- $d(x, y) \le d(x, z) + d(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in S$  (triangular inequality).

The key difference between a pseudo-metric and a metric is that a pseudo-metric only requires that every element is at 0 distance away from itself, whereas a metric requires that every element is **the only element** that is at 0 distance away from itself.

By dropping the requirement on symmetry, we obtain the following definition:

## Definition 1.2.3 ▶ Quasi-metric

A quasi-metric on a set S is a function  $d: S \times S \to \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- $d(x, y) \ge 0$  for all  $x, y \in S$  (positivity);
- d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y (definiteness);
- $d(x, y) \le d(x, z) + d(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in S$  (triangular inequality).

We equip a set with a metric to generalise the Euclidean spaces.

## **Definition 1.2.4** ► **Metirc Space**

A metric space (S, d) is a set S together with a metric d on S.

The most basic example of a metric is the *discrete metric* defined by

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

over any set X, which essentially is just a characteristic function.

Recall that in an inner product space (V, g) over some field  $\mathbb{F}$ , we can define the length of any  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  as

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\| = \sqrt{g(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{v})}.$$

This length function induces a metric over V given by

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|.$$

In the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , a usual definition for distance is

$$d_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_i)^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Note that  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2)$  is a metric space, where  $d_2$  is known as the *Euclidean distance*. In general, we can prove that for any  $p \in \mathbb{N}^+$ ,

$$d_p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - x_i\|^p\right]^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

is a metric over  $\mathbb{F}^n$  for any inner product space  $(\mathbb{F}^n, g)$  where  $\mathbb{F}$  is a field, known as the  $L^p$ -norm. Furthermore, notice that

$$\max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|^p \le \sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - x_i\|^p \le n \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|^p.$$

Taking the *p*-th root on all three parts, we have

$$\max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\| \le \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - x_i\|^p \right]^{\frac{1}{p}} \le n^{\frac{1}{p}} \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|.$$

By Squeeze Theorem, this allows us to define

$$d_{\infty}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = \lim_{p \to \infty} d_p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|.$$

 $d_{\infty}(x, y)$  can be alternatively written as  $\|x - y\|_{\infty}$ , which is known as the *infinite norm*.

The *p*-adic numbers can be defined from the following lemma:

## Lemma 1.2.5 ▶ p-adic Numbers

Let p be any prime number. For all  $x \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ , there exists a unique  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$x = \frac{p^k r}{s}, \qquad r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$$

with  $p \nmid r$ , s and  $s \neq 0$ .

The *p-adic norm* is defined as

$$|x|_p = \begin{cases} p^{-k} & \text{if } x = \frac{p^k r}{s} \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases},$$

which induces a metric over  $\mathbb Q$  defined by

$$d(x,y) = |x - y|_p.$$

We can show that the *p*-adic metric satisfies

$$d(x,z) \le \max\{d(x,y),d(y,z)\}$$

for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Such a metric is known as an *ultra-metric*.

Given any metric space, the metric will induce a distance between subsets of the space.

### **Definition 1.2.6** ▶ **Distance between Subsets**

Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $A, B \subseteq X$  be non-empty. The **distance** between A and B is defined as

$$d(A, B) := \inf\{d(x, y) : (x, y) \in A \times B\}.$$

Additionally, we may wish to define a measure for the size of a subset in a metric space.

### **Definition 1.2.7** ▶ **Diameter**

Let (X, d) be a metric space. The **diameter** of a set  $A \subseteq X$  is defined as

$$\operatorname{diam}(A) \coloneqq \sup \{ d(x, y) : (x, y) \in A \times A \}.$$

The set A is **bounded** if diam (A) is finite.

The name "diameter" is not a coincidence with the diameter of a graph. Specifically, if we consider a graph G = (V, E), the pair (V, d) forms a metric space with d(u, v) being the usual distance between two vertices in G defined as the size of the shortest u-v path in G. It is clear that d is indeed a metric.

Now, let us consider the subgraph  $H \subseteq G$  induced by any  $U \subseteq V$  and check the eccentricity for H, i.e.,

$$\epsilon(u) = \max\{d_H(u, u') : u' \in U\}$$
 for all  $u \in U$ .

Now, the diameters for *H* can be computed as

$$\operatorname{diam}(H) = \max\{\epsilon(u) : u \in U\}$$
$$= \sup\{d_H(u, u') : (u, u') \in U \times U\},\$$

and this obviously agrees with Definition 1.2.7!

Recall that in Definition 1.1.5, we use Euclidean open balls to construct a basis for a topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We can generalise this idea in any metric space.

## Proposition 1.2.8 ▶ Metric Induces a Basis

Let (X, d) be a metric space. Define

$$B_r(x) := \{ y \in X : d(x, y) < r \},$$

then collection

$$\mathcal{B}_d := \{B_r(x) : x \in X, r \in \mathbb{R}^+\}$$

is a basis for a topology on X.

*Proof.* Notice that for any  $x \in X$ , we have  $x \in B_1(x) \in \mathcal{B}_d$ . Let  $B_p(x_1), B_q(x_2) \in \mathcal{B}_d$  be such that  $x \in B_p(x) \cap B_q(x)$ . Take  $k = \min\{p - d(x, x_1), q - d(x, x_2)\}$ , then clearly k > 0 and we can find  $B_k(x) \subseteq B_p(x) \cap B_q(x)$  such that  $x \in B_k(x) \in \mathcal{B}_d$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{B}_d$  is a basis for a topology on X.

Since we can obtain a basis from a metric, it follows naturally that we can generate a topology using this induced basis.

## **Definition 1.2.9** ► **Metrisable Topology**

Let (X, d) be a metric space. A topology  $\mathcal{T}$  on X is **metrisable**, or **induced** by d, if it is generated by  $\mathcal{B}_d$ 

We can verify that the discrete topology  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  is induced by the discrete metric. Let the discrete metric on X be  $\chi$ , then it is easy to see that

$$B_r(x) = \begin{cases} \{x\} & \text{if } 0 < r \le 1 \\ X & \text{if } r > 1 \end{cases}.$$

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{B}_{\chi} = \{X\} \cup \big\{ \{x\} : x \in X \big\}.$$

Let  $\mathcal{T}_{\chi}$  be the topology on X generated by  $\mathcal{B}_{\chi}$ , then it suffices to prove that  $\mathcal{P}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\chi}$ . Take any  $U \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ , then for any  $u \in U$ , we have  $u \in \{u\} \subseteq U$ . Clearly  $\{u\} \in \mathcal{B}_{\chi}$ , so  $\mathcal{T}_{\chi} = \mathcal{P}(X)$  is the discrete topology indeed.

In particular, for Euclidean spaces, the following result extends Definition 1.1.5:

## Proposition 1.2.10 $\blacktriangleright$ Every $L^p$ -metric Generates the Standard Topology

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be the standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\mathcal{T}$  is induced by any  $L^p$ -metric  $d_p$ .

*Proof.* For any  $p \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , notice that

$$\max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|^p \le \sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - x_i\|^p \le n \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|^p.$$

Taking the *p*-th root yields

$$\max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\| \le \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - x_i\|^p \right]^{\frac{1}{p}} \le n^{\frac{1}{p}} \max_{i \in \mathbb{N}^+, i \le n} \|y_i - x_i\|.$$

This means that

$$d_{\infty}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq d_{p}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq n^{\frac{1}{p}} d_{\infty}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}).$$

Let  $\mathcal{T}_0$  and  $\mathcal{T}_p$  be topologies on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  generated by  $\mathcal{B}_{d_\infty}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_{d_p}$  respectively. Take any  $T \in \mathcal{T}_p$ , then for any  $\boldsymbol{t} \in T$ , there is some  $B_r(\boldsymbol{t}') \in \mathcal{B}_{d_p}$  such that  $\boldsymbol{t} \in B_r(\boldsymbol{t}') \subseteq T$ . Take some  $\ell = \frac{1}{2} |r - d_p(\boldsymbol{t}, \boldsymbol{t}')|$ , then we have found  $B_\ell(\boldsymbol{t}) \in \mathcal{B}_{d_p}$  such that

$$t \in B_{\ell}(t) \subseteq B_r(t') \subseteq T$$
.

Take  $k = \frac{1}{2} \ell n^{-\frac{1}{p}}$  and consider

$$B_k(t) \coloneqq \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^n : d_{\infty}(t, y) < k \} \in \mathcal{B}_{d_{\infty}}.$$

Notice that for each  $y \in B_k(t)$ , we have

$$d_p(\boldsymbol{t}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq n^{\frac{1}{p}} d_{\infty}(\boldsymbol{t}, \boldsymbol{y}) < \ell,$$

so  $t \in B_k(t) \subseteq B_\ell(t) \subseteq T$ . This implies that  $T \in \mathcal{T}_0$  and so  $\mathcal{T}_p \subseteq \mathcal{T}_0$ . By a similar argument, one may check that  $\mathcal{T}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{T}_p$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{T}_0 = \mathcal{T}_p$  for any  $p \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Note that by Definition 1.1.5,  $\mathcal{T}$  is generated by  $\mathcal{B}_{d_2}$ , which means that  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_2 = \mathcal{T}_0 = \mathcal{T}_p$  for any  $p \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{T}$  is induce by any  $L^p$ -metric  $d_p$ .

The fact that

$$d_{\infty}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d_{p}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq n^{\frac{1}{p}} d_{\infty}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

means that all  $L^p$ -metrics are equivalent over the same space.

## 1.3 Subspace Topologies

## **Definition 1.3.1** ► **Subspace Topology**

Let  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be a topological space and  $X \subseteq Y$  be some subset. The collection

$$\mathcal{T}_X := \{U \cap X : U \in \mathcal{T}_Y\}$$

is the subspace topology on X.

We may check that  $\mathcal{T}_X$  defined as such is indeed a topology on X. First, by taking  $U = \emptyset$  and U = Y respectively, we know that  $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}_X$ . For any  $U \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ , we have  $Y \setminus U \in \mathcal{T}_Y$  and so

$$X \setminus (U \cap X) = (Y \setminus U) \cap X \in \mathcal{T}_X.$$

For any  $V \subseteq \mathcal{T}_X$ , we define a subset  $\mathcal{U}_V \subseteq \mathcal{T}_Y$  such that for each  $V \in V$  there is a unique  $U_V \in \mathcal{U}_V$  such that  $V = U_V \cap X$ . Then,

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{U}_{\mathcal{V}}} (B \cap X)$$
$$= \left(\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{U}_{\mathcal{V}}} B\right) \cap X$$
$$\in \mathcal{T}_{X}.$$

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \in \mathcal{T}_X$  and define  $X_i = U_i \cap X$  where  $U_i \in \mathcal{T}_Y$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} (U_{i} \cap X)$$

$$= \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}\right) \cap X$$

$$\in \mathcal{T}_{X}.$$

So  $\mathcal{T}_X$  is really a topology on X. Intuitively, the following holds:

## Proposition 1.3.2 ▶ Basis for a Subspace

Let  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be a topological space and  $\mathcal{T}_X$  be the subspace topology on some  $X \subseteq Y$ . If  $\mathcal{B}_Y$  is a basis of  $\mathcal{T}_Y$ , then

$$\mathcal{B}_X := \{B \cap X : B \in \mathcal{B}_Y\}$$

is a basis of  $\mathcal{T}_X$ .

*Proof.* We first prove that  $\mathcal{B}_X$  is a basis. Take any  $x \in X \subseteq Y$ . Note that there exists some  $B \in \mathcal{B}_Y$  such that  $x \in B$ . Take  $B \cap X \in \mathcal{B}_X$ , then  $x \in B \cap X$ . For any  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_X$  with  $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , we write  $B_1 \coloneqq B_1' \cap X$  and  $B_2 \coloneqq B_2' \cap X$  where  $B_1', B_2' \in \mathcal{B}_Y$ , then we have  $x \in B_1' \cap B_2'$ . This means that there is some  $B \in \mathcal{B}_Y$  such that  $x \in B \subseteq B_1' \cap B_2'$ . Write  $B' \coloneqq B \cap X \in \mathcal{B}_X$ , then for each  $b \in B'$ , we know that  $b \in B_1' \cap B_2'$  and  $b \in X$ , which implies that  $b \in B_1 \cap B_2$ . Therefore,  $x \in B' \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$ . This means that  $\mathcal{B}_X$  is a basis of a topology on X.

We then prove that  $\mathcal{T}_X$  is generated by  $\mathcal{B}_X$ . Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}_X$ . By Proposition 1.1.4, we have

$$\mathcal{T} = \left\{ \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A : \ \mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_X \right\}.$$

Similarly, we can write

$$\mathcal{T}_Y = \left\{ \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A : \mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_Y \right\}.$$

Take any  $T \in \mathcal{T}_X$ , then there exists some  $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_Y$  such that

$$T = \left(\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A\right) \cap X$$
$$= \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{V}} A \cap X$$
$$\in \mathcal{T}.$$

Therefore,  $\mathcal{T}_X \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ . Conversely, take any  $T' \in \mathcal{T}$ , there exists some  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_Y$  such that

$$T' = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{U}} (B \cap X)$$
$$= \left(\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{U}} B\right) \cap X$$
$$\in \mathcal{T}_X.$$

Therefore,  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_X$  and so  $\mathcal{T}_X = \mathcal{T}$ .

The following result shows that open sets in subspaces remain open in the superspace:

## **Proposition 1.3.3** ► Superspace Preserve Open Sets

Let  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be a topological space. If  $X \subseteq Y$  is open in Y and  $U \subseteq X$  is open in X, then U is open in Y.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{T}_X$  be the subspace topology on X. Since U is open in X, we have  $U \in \mathcal{T}_X$ . By Definition 1.3.1, there exists some  $V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$  such that  $U = V \cap X$ . However,  $U \subseteq X$ , so  $U = V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ , which means that U is open in Y.

We can do a similar manipulation with metric spaces and induce a metric on a subspace.

## **Definition 1.3.4** ► **Subspace Metric**

Let (X, d) be a metric space. The **subspace metric** of some  $A \subseteq X$  is the restriction of d to A, denoted as

$$d_A(x, y) = d(x, y)$$
, for all  $x, y \in A$ .

Naturally, the following result is true:

## Proposition 1.3.5 ➤ Subspace Metric Induces Subspace Topology

Let (X, d) be a metric space. The topology induced by the subspace metric  $d_A$  on some subspace  $A \subseteq X$  is the subspace topology on A.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{T}_d$  and  $\mathcal{T}_{d_A}$  be topologies induced by d on X with basis  $\mathcal{B}_d$  and by  $d_A$  on A with basis  $\mathcal{B}_{d_A}$  respectively. Let  $\mathcal{T}_A$  be the subspace topology on A with basis  $\mathcal{B}_A$ . Take any  $B \in \mathcal{B}_{d_A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_d$ , then clearly any  $x \in B$  is such that  $x \in B \cap A \in \mathcal{B}_A$ . Therefore, by Proposition 1.1.7,  $\mathcal{T}_{d_A} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_A$ . Conversely, take any  $B_A \mathcal{B}_A$ . For any  $x \in B_A$ , there exists some  $B_1 \in \mathcal{B}_d$  such that  $x \in B_1$  and  $B_A = B_1 \cap A$ . Notice that this implies that  $x \in A \in \mathcal{T}_{d_A}$ , so we can find some  $B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_{d_A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_d$  such that  $x \in B_2$ . By Definition 1.1.2, there exists some  $B \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_{d_A}$  such that  $x \in B$ . By Proposition 1.1.7, this means that  $\mathcal{T}_A \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{d_A}$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{T}_A = \mathcal{T}_{d_A}$ .