

COMPACT TOPOLOGICAL SPACES

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CERTIFICATE-I

This is to certify that the thesis entitles "TOPOLOGICAL SPACES" submitted by Aryabrata dev to the Orissa University of Agriculture and Technology, Bhubaneswar in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of degree is faithful record of bonafide and original research work carried out by ARYABRATA DEV under my guidance and supervision. No part of this thesis has been submitted for any other degree or diploma.

It is further certified that the assistance and help received by him from various sources during the course of investigation has been duly acknowledged.

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CERTIFICATE-II

This is to certify that the thesis entitles "TOPOLOGICAL SPACES" submitted by Aryabrata dev to the Orissa University of Agriculture and Technology, Bhubaneswar in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of degree of has been approved/disapproved by chairman, advisory committee and the external examiner.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the major thesis entitled "TOPOLOGICAL SPACES" submitted to Department of Mathematics, CBSH, OUAT, Bhubaneswar for the partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of bachelor science (B.Sc) is an authentic record of the work carried out by me under the guidance of Mrs.MAMATA KULIA, prof in mathematics, college of basic science and humanities, OUAT, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, and that result or any part of the result have not be submitted anywhere for any other degree or diploma or any other qualification.

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Compact topological spaces

1.1 Introduction

The theory of topological spaces or, as it is called, point set or general topology, has become one of the elementary building blocks underlying divers branches of mathematics. Its concepts and methods have enriched numerous other elds of mathematics and given considerable impulse to their further development. For these reasons, topology counts among those few basic structures, which alone give access to modern mathe-matical research. In this work, we have tried to accumulate several types of concepts of separation axioms on topological space, obtained from di erent texts. Numerous proofs, examples and solved problems are included in this work. Up to now, no work ever complete. We only try to discuss the clear concepts of compactness on topological spaces, its properties and applications, so that one can see these materials concerning compactness on topological spaces at one place.

OBJECTIVE:

The advantage in compact spaces is that one may study the whole space by studying a nite number of open subsets. We shall see this when we prove that a continuous function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ from a compact metric space X to a metric space Y is uniformly continuous. In conclu-sion we shall examine some compact surfaces that may be formed by identifying edges of a rectangle.

Procedure:

In the proposed study, rst, we shall give some necessary de nitions

and states some necessary theorems in order to present the paper in a self contained manner. Afterward, we shall prove the most important and popular theorem namely Heine-Borel Theorem. Then we shall study locally compact spaces of a metric space and in general of a topological space. Next, we shall discuss compact and locally compact spaces and some of their important properties. Finally, we shall study completely compact spaces, anti-compact spaces and completely dense subsets in a space and some of their important properties.

Conclusion:

In this study we show that compactness, limit point compactness and sequentially compactness are equivalent in metrizable spaces. We introduce it here as an interesting application of the Tychonoff theorem. We show that every compact space is locally compact but not conversely. We also show that the product of nitely many compact spaces is a lo-cally compact space. We show that Stone-Cech compactification in a space is unique. We also show that every regular locally compact space is normal. This research work would give some remarkable results which can be used to study the whole topological space by studying a nite number of open sets.

1.2 Compact Spaces and Their Properties

De nition 1.2.1. A collection A of subsets of a space X is said to cover X , or to be a covering of X , if the union of the elements of A is equal to X . It is called an open covering of X if its elements are open subsets of X .

De nition 1.2.2. A space X is said to be compact if every open covering A of X contains a nite subcollection that also covers X .

Example 1.2.1. The real line R is not compact, for the covering of R by open intervals

$$A = \{ (n, n + 2) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

contains no finite subcollection that covers R .

Example 1.2.2. The following subspace of R is compact:

$$X = \{0\} \cup \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\}$$

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

Example 1.2.3. Any space X containing only finitely many points is necessarily compact, because in this case every open covering of X is finite.

Example 1.2.4. The interval $(0; 1]$ is not compact; the open covering

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1 \right] \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\}$$

contains no finite subcollection covering $(0; 1]$. Nor is the interval $(0; 1)$ compact; the same argument applies. On the other hand, the interval $[0; 1]$ is compact.

In general, it takes some effort to decide whether a given space is compact or not. First we shall prove some general theorems that show us how to construct new compact spaces out of existing ones. Then in the next section we shall show certain specific spaces are compact. These spaces include all closed intervals in the real line, and all closed and bounded subsets of \mathbb{R}^n .

Let us first prove some facts about subspaces. If Y is a subspace of X , a collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of X is said to cover Y if the union of its elements contains Y .

Theorem 1.2.1. Let Y be a subspace of X . Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X contains a finite subcollection covering Y .

Proof. Suppose that Y is compact and $A = \{A_j\}_{j \in J}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X . Then the collection

$$\{A_j \cap Y\}_{j \in J}$$

is a covering of Y by sets open in Y ; hence a finite subcollection

$$\{A_{j_1} \cap Y; A_{j_2} \cap Y; \dots; A_{j_n} \cap Y\}$$

covers Y . Then $\{A_{j_1}; A_{j_2}; \dots; A_{j_n}\}$ is a subcollection of A that covers Y .

Conversely, suppose that given condition holds; we wish to prove Y compact. Let $A^0 = \{A^0_j\}$ be a covering of Y by sets open in Y . For each A^0_j , choose a set A_j open in X such that

$$A^0_j = A_j \cap Y$$

The collection $A = \{A_j\}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X . By hypothesis, some finite subcollection $\{A_{j_1}; A_{j_2}; \dots; A_{j_n}\}$ covers Y . Then $\{A^0_{j_1}; A^0_{j_2}; \dots; A^0_{j_n}\}$ is a subcollection of A^0 that covers Y . \square

Theorem 1.2.2. Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

Proof. Let Y be a closed subspace of the compact space X . Given a covering A of Y by sets open in X , let us form an open covering B of X by adjoining to A the single open set $X-Y$, that is,

$$B = A \cup \{X-Y\}$$

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

Definition 1.2.3. A topological space X is called a Hausdorff space if for each pair $x_1; x_2$ of disjoint points of X , there exist neighborhoods U_1 and U_2 of x_1 and x_2 , respectively, that are disjoint.

Theorem 1.2.3. Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Proof. Let Y be a compact subspace of the Hausdorff space X . We shall prove that $X-Y$ is open, so that Y is closed. Let x_0 be a point of $X-Y$.

We show that there is a neighborhood of x_0 that is disjoint from Y . For each point y of Y , let us choose disjoint neighborhoods U_y and V_y of the points x_0 and y , respectively (using the Hausdorff condition). The collection $\{V_y \mid y \in Y\}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X ; therefore, finitely many of them $V_{y_1}, V_{y_2}, \dots, V_{y_n}$ cover Y . The open set

$$V = \bigcap_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$$

contains Y , and it is disjoint from the open set

$$U = U_{y_1} \cap U_{y_2} \cap \dots \cap U_{y_n}$$

formed by taking the intersection of the corresponding neighborhood of x_0 . For if z is a point of V , then $z \in V_{y_i}$ for some i , hence $z \notin U_{y_i}$ and so $z \notin U$. See figure

Then U is a neighborhood of x_0 disjoint from Y . □

Theorem 1.2.4. If Y is a compact subspace of the Hausdorff space X and $x_0 \notin Y$, then there exist disjoint open sets U and V of X containing x_0 and Y , respectively.

Proof. Let Y be compact subspace of the Hausdorff space X . Let $x_0 \notin Y$. For each $y \in Y$ we get a disjoint open neighborhood U_y and V_y containing x_0 and y respectively. The collection $\{V_y \mid y \in Y\}$ is a cover of Y . So finitely many of them $V_{y_1}, V_{y_2}, \dots, V_{y_n}$ cover Y . Let

$$V = \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$$

Then

Now $U \cap V_i = \emptyset$ for all i then $U \cap V = \emptyset$; Again $Y \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$
 $V_{y_i} \subset V$

Thus, for x_0 and Y we get a disjoint open neighborhood U and V . □

Theorem 1.2.5. The image of a compact space under a continuous map is compact.

Proof. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous; Let X be compact. Let \mathcal{A} be a covering of the set $f(X)$ by sets open in Y . The collection

$$\{f^{-1}(A) : A \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

is a collection of sets covering X ; these sets are open in X because f is continuous. Hence nitely many of them, say

$$f^{-1}(A_1), f^{-1}(A_2), \dots, f^{-1}(A_n)$$

cover X . Then the set A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n cover $f(X)$. □

Theorem 1.2.6. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijective continuous function. If X is compact and Y is Hausdorff then f is a homeomorphism.

Proof. We know image of closed set of X under continuous function f are closed in Y ; this will prove continuity of the map f^{-1} . If A is closed in X , then A is compact, by theorem 1.2.2. Therefore, by the theorem 1.2.5. $f(A)$ is compact. Since Y is Hausdorff, $f(A)$ is closed in Y , by theorem 1.2.3. □

Theorem 1.2.7. Let $a < b$. Then $[a; b]$ is a compact space, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{A} = \{U_i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is an open cover of $[a; b]$. We prove that there exist a finite subcover. Let $C = \{c \in [a; b] : [a; c] \text{ can be covered by a finite subcollection of } \mathcal{A}\}$. We aim to show that $b \in C$. Notice that C is bounded from above by b , as $C \subseteq [a; b]$. Furthermore, as we can pick a single open set U_j containing a , we have $[a; a + \epsilon] \subseteq U_j$ for some $\epsilon > 0$. Hence $a + \epsilon \in C$ for some ϵ . Thus C is a non-empty bounded subset of real numbers. Let x denote the least upper bound of C . Then $x \in [a; b]$ as $[a; b]$ is bounded by x and x is not greater than upper bound of C . Note that $x \neq a$ as $a + \epsilon \in C$ for the previously constructed. We claim that $x = b$. Otherwise take an open set U_j which contains x .

It must also contain an interval $(x - \epsilon; x + \epsilon) \cap [a; b]$. But the property of the supremum we can take an element $c \in C$ s.t. $x - \epsilon < c < x$. We can take a finite open sub-cover of $[a; c]$, say with elements $U_{i_1}, U_{i_2}, \dots, U_{i_n}$. But then adding the set U_j we obtain a finite open sub-cover of $[a; x + \epsilon]$.

This implies that $x + 2^{-n} \notin C$, contradicting $x = \sup C$. Thus we must have $x = b$. The same trick we used to show that $x = b$ is used to show that $b \in C$. Take an open set U_j containing b . It must contain some half-open interval $(b - \epsilon; b] \subset U_j$. Then the property of the supremum we can take $c \in C$ s.t. $b - \epsilon < c < b$. But we can take a finite open subcover $U_{i_1}; U_{i_2}; \dots; U_{i_n}$ of $[a; c]$. Then $U_j; U_{i_1}; U_{i_2}; \dots; U_{i_n}$ is a finite open subcover of $[a; b]$. Thus $b \in C$. So $[a; b]$ can be covered with a finite open sub-cover, and $[a; b]$ is compact. \square

Remark 1.2.1. On the above theorem we prove that interval $[a; b]$ of \mathbb{R} is compact. Then by theorem 1.2.2 any closed subset of $[a; b]$ is compact. On the other hand, it follows from theorem 1.2.3 that the interval $(a; b]$ and $(a; b)$ in \mathbb{R} can't be compact because they are not closed in Hausdorff space \mathbb{R} .

1.3 product spaces and Cantor's intersection Theorem

Product Spaces

Just as the product of connected spaces is connected, the product of compact spaces is compact.

Theorem

If X and Y are compact spaces, then $X \times Y$ is compact. In order to prove this, it helps to distinguish a valuable lemma.

Lemma 6. (The Tube Lemma)

Let X and Y be spaces, with Y compact. If $N \subset X \times Y$ is open, and a slice $\{x_0\} \times Y \subset N$ for some $x_0 \in X$, then there is a nbhd W of x_0 such that $W \times Y \subset N$.

Proof. For each y , consider a basis element $U_y \times V_y$ of $X \times Y$ such that $x_0 \times y \subset U_y \times V_y \subset N$. (We can do this as N contains all the points

of the slice $x_0 \times Y$ and is an open set). Note that $y \in V_y$ and $x_0 \in U_y$ for all y . Then the open sets $U_y \times V_y$ for $y \in Y$ form an open cover of the factor space $X \times Y$, because if $(z, y) \in X \times Y$, then $z \in U_y$ and $y \in V_y$. As Y is compact, we can select a finite subcover V_{y_1}, \dots, V_{y_n} such that $Y = \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{y_i}$. Let $W = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{y_i}$, a nbhd of x_0 . Then W is the desired nbhd of x_0 . Suppose that $(z, y) \in W \times Y$. Then there is an j such that $y \in V_{y_j}$, as the collection $\{V_{y_i}\}_{i=1}^n$ covers Y . As $z \in W = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_{y_i}$, we have $(z, y) \in U_{y_j} \times V_{y_j} \subset N$.

Proof. (Theorem). Let $\{P_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a collection of open subsets of $X \times Y$ covering $X \times Y$. For each $x \in X$, we can cover the space $\{x\} \times Y$ with finitely many open sets, say $P_{k_i}^x$ for $k_i = 1, \dots, n_x$ (the x indicates that these open sets are intended to cover the slice $\{x\} \times Y$). By the tube lemma we can take an open set W^x such that $x \in W^x$ and $W^x \times Y \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^{n_x} P_{k_i}^x$. Then the open sets $\{W^x\}_{x \in X}$ cover the compact space X . Thus we can take a finite subcover W^{x_1}, \dots, W^{x_m} . Claim: The collection of all $P_{k_j}^{x_j}$ for $k_j = 1, \dots, n_{x_j}$ and $j = 1, \dots, m$, form a subcover of

$X \times Y$. For if $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, we can pick W^{x_j} such that $x \in W^{x_j}$. Then $W^{x_j} \times Y \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^{n_{x_j}} P_{k_j}^{x_j}$, so that there exists k between 1 and n_{x_j} such that $(x, y) \in P_k$. Thus we have constructed the finite subcover of $X \times Y$, so that the latter set is compact.

Corollary. Any finite product of compact spaces is compact. Proof. If X_1, \dots, X_n is a collection of spaces, then $(X_1 \times \dots \times X_{n-1}) \times X_n$ is homeomorphic to $X_1 \times \dots \times X_n$ via the map $((x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}), x_n) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

Corollary. Any product of closed intervals in \mathbb{R} , say $\prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$, is compact in the product topology.

1.4 Metric Spaces and Finite intersection property

Metric Spaces

As already mentioned, a metric space is just a set X equipped with a

function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which measures the distance $d(x, y)$ between points $x, y \in X$. For the theory to work, we need the function d to have properties similar to the distance functions we are familiar with. So what properties do we expect from a measure of distance?

First of all, the distance $d(x, y)$ should be a non-negative number, and it should only be equal to zero if $x = y$. Second, the distance $d(x, y)$ from x to y should equal the distance $d(y, x)$ from y to x . Note that this is not always a reasonable assumption if we, e.g., measure the distance from x to y by the time it takes to walk from x to y , $d(x, y)$ and $d(y, x)$ may be different but we shall restrict ourselves to situations where the condition is satisfied. The third condition we shall need, says the distance obtained by going directly from x to y , should always be less than or equal to the distance we get when we stop at a third point z along the way, i.e.

$$d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y):$$

It turns out that these conditions are the only ones we need, and we sum them up in a formal definition.

Definition 1.4.1. A metric space (X, d) consists of a non-empty set X and a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that:

[Positivity]: For all $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) \geq 0$ with equality if and only if $x = y$.

[Symmetry]: For all $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.

[Triangle inequality]: For all $x, y, z \in X$

$$d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y):$$

A function d satisfying above three conditions, is called a metric on X .

comment: When it is clear or irrelevant which metric d we have in mind, we shall often refer to "the metric space X " rather than "the metric space (X, d) ". Let us take some examples of the metric space.

Example 1.4.1. If we let $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$, (\mathbb{R}^n, d) is a metric space. The first two conditions are obviously satisfied, and the third follows from the

ordinary triangle inequality for real numbers:

$$d(x,y)=|x-y|=|(x-z)+(z-y)| \leq |x-z|+|z-y|=d(x,z)+d(z,y):$$

Example 1.4.2. If we let $d(x; y)=|x-y|$, (\mathbb{R}^n, d) is a metric space. The first two conditions are obviously satisfied, and the third follows from the triangle inequality for vectors the same way as above :

$$d(x; y)=|x-y|=|(x-z)+(z-y)| \leq |x-z|+|z-y|=d(x; z)+d(z; y):$$

Example 1.4.3. Assume that we want to move from one point $x = (x_1; x_2)$ in the plane to another $y = (y_1; y_2)$, but that we are only allowed to move horizontally and vertically. If we first move horizontally from $(x_1; x_2)$ to $(y_1; x_2)$ and then from $(y_1; x_2)$ to $(y_1; y_2)$, the total distance is

$$d(x; y) = |y_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - x_2| :$$

This gives us a metric on \mathbb{R}^2 which is different from the usual metric in Example 2. It is often referred to as the Manhattan metric or the taxi cab metric

Also in this case the first two conditions of a metric space are obviously satisfied. To prove the triangle inequality, observe that for any third point $z=(z_1; z_2)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x; y) &= |y_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - x_2| \\ &= |(y_1 - z_1) + (z_1 - x_1)| + |(y_2 - z_2) + (z_2 - x_2)| \\ &\leq |y_1 - z_1| + |z_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - z_2| + |z_2 - x_2| \\ &= |z_1 - x_1| + |z_2 - x_2| + |y_1 - z_1| + |y_2 - z_2| = \\ &= d(x; z) + d(z; y); \end{aligned}$$

where we used the ordinary triangle inequality for real numbers to get from the second to the third line.

Example 1.4.4. We shall now take a look at an example of a different kind. Assume that we want to send messages in a language of N symbols (letters, numbers, punctuation marks, space, etc.) We assume that all messages have the same length K (if they are too short or too long, we either

ll them out or break them into pieces). We let X be the set of all messages, i.e. all sequences of symbols from the language of length K . If $x = (x_1; x_2; \dots; x_k)$ and $y = (y_1; y_2; \dots; y_k)$ are two message, we define, $d(x; y)$ = the number of indices n such that x_n not equal to y_n . It is not hard to check that d is a metric. It is usually referred to as the Hamming-metric, and is much used in coding theory where it serves as a measure of how much a message gets distorted during transmission.

Example 1.4.5. The matrices in this example may seem rather strange. Although they are not very useful in applications, they are handy to know about as they are totally different from the metrics we are used to form R^n and may help sharpen our intuition of how a metric can be. Let X be any non-empty set, and define:

$$d(x; y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{If } x = y \\ 1 & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

It is not hard to check that d is a metric on X , usually referred to as the discrete metric.

Example 1.4.6. There are many ways to make new metric spaces from old. The simplest is the subspace metric: If (X, d) is a metric space and A is a non-empty subset of X , we can make a metric d_A on A by putting $d_A(x; y) = d(x; y)$ for all $x; y \in A$ we simply restrict the metric on A . It is trivial to check that d_A is a metric on A .

A collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of a set X is said to have the finite intersection properties(FIP) if the intersection over any finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} is non-empty. It has the strong finite intersection property(SFIP) if the intersection over any finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} is infinite. A centered system of sets is the collection of sets with the finite intersection property.

Definition 1.4.2. A collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of X is said to have the finite intersection property if for every finite subcollection

$$\{C_1; C_2; \dots; C_n\}$$

of \mathcal{C} , the intersection $C_1 \cap C_2 \cap \dots \cap C_n$ is nonempty.

Theorem 1.4.1. Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if for every collection C of closed sets in X having the finite intersection property, the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in C} C$ of all the elements of C is nonempty.

Proof. Given a collection A of subsets of X , Let

$$C = \{X - A \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

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

1. \mathcal{A} is a collection of open sets if and only if C is a collection of closed sets.
2. The collection \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in C} C$ of all the elements of C is empty. T
3. The first sub-collection $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ of \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if the intersection of the corresponding elements $C_i = X - A_i$ of C is empty.

The first statement is trivial, while the second and third follow from De-Morgan's law:

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = X \iff \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} (X - A) = \emptyset$$

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

The statement that X is compact is equivalent to saying: "Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open sets of X , if \mathcal{A} covers X , then some finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X ". This statement is equivalent to its contrapositive, which is following: "Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open sets, if no finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X , then \mathcal{A} does not cover X ". Letting C be, as earlier, the collection $\{X - A \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ and applying (1),(2)&(3), we see that this statement is in turn equivalent to the following: "Given any collection C of closed sets, if every finite intersection of elements of C is non-empty, then the intersection of all the elements of C is non-empty". This is just the condition of our theorem. \square

A special case of the theorem occurs when we have a nested sequence $C_1 \supset C_2 \supset \dots \supset C_n \supset C_{n+1} \supset \dots$ of closed sets in a compact space X . If each of the C_n is non-empty, then the collection $\mathcal{C} = \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ automatically has the finite intersection property. Then the intersection

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} C_n$$

is non-empty.

1.5 Generalized Tube lemma and Examples

Theorem 1.5.1. Consider the product space $X \times Y$, Where Y is compact. If N is an open set of $X \times Y$ containing the slice $\{x_0\} \times Y$ of $X \times Y$, then N contains some tube $W \times Y$ about $\{x_0\} \times Y$, where W is neighborhood of x_0 in X .

1.5.1 Examples and properties

1. This theorem is not any more hold if non- of the set X and Y are compact. For example, Let Y be the Y -axis in \mathbb{R}^2 , and let

$$N = \{ (x, y) \mid |x| < \frac{1}{y^2 + 1} \}$$

Then N is an open set containing the set $\{0\} \times \mathbb{R}$, But it contain no tube about $\{0\} \times \mathbb{R}$. It is illustrated in this figure,

2. The tube lemma can be used to prove that if X and Y are compact topological spaces, the $X \times Y$ is compact as follows:

Let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be an open cover of $X \times Y$, for each x belonging to X , cover the slice $\{x\} \times Y$ by nitely many elements of $\{G_\alpha\}$ (this is possible since $\{x\} \times Y$ is compact being homomorphic to Y). Call the union of these nitely many elements N_x . By the tube lemma, there is an open set of the form $W_x \times Y$ containing $\{x\} \times Y$ and containing N_x . The collection of all W_x for ' x ' belonging to X is an open cover of X and hence has a finite sub-cover $W_{x_1}, W_{x_2}, \dots, W_{x_n}$.

Then for each x_j , $W_{x_j} \cap Y$ is contained in N_{x_j} . Using the fact that each N_{x_j} is the finite union of elements of \mathcal{G}_A and that the finite collection $(W_{x_1} \cap Y) \cup (W_{x_2} \cap Y) \cup \dots \cup (W_{x_n} \cap Y)$ covers $X \cap Y$, the collection $N_{x_1} \cup N_{x_2} \cup \dots \cup N_{x_n}$ is a finite sub-cover of $X \cap Y$.

1.5.2 Generalized tube lemma

Let X and Y be topological spaces and consider the product space $X \times Y$. Let A be a compact subspace of X and B be a compact subset of Y . If N is an open set containing $A \times B$, then there exist U open in X and V open in Y s.t. $A \times B \subset U \times V \subset N$.

The Tube Lemma is a useful tool in working with Cartesian products of finitely many compact spaces. A general discussion is followed by three applications of the lemma.

Tubes are one type of open subsets of the Cartesian product $X \times Y$. The Tube Lemma is applicable when one of the factors is compact. Let Y be the factor that is compact. A good way of thinking about the lemma is that when you consider the slices $\{x\} \times Y$ as points, the tubes $G \times Y$, where $x \in G$, behave like a base. The following is a statement of the lemma.

The Tube Lemma can be used in proving that the product of two compact spaces is compact. By induction, it follows that the product of finitely many compact spaces is compact. However, the lemma cannot be used in proving the compactness of product space with infinitely many compact factors (the Tychonoff Theorem).

