# MA571 Problem Set 5

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# Problem 5.1 (Munkres §23, Ex. 3)

Let  $\{A_{\alpha}\}$  be a collection of connected subspaces of X; let A be a connected subspace of X. Show that if  $A \cap A_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$  for all  $\alpha$ , then  $A \cup (\bigcup A_{\alpha})$  is connected.

*Proof.* We shall aim to prove this result by using Theorem 23.3 from Munkres. Define the collection  $\{B_{\alpha}\}$  by setting  $B_{\alpha} = A \cup A_{\alpha}$ . Note that by Theorem 23.3,  $B_{\alpha}$  is connected for all  $\alpha$ , since  $A \cap A_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$  and both A and  $A_{\alpha}$  are connected. Next observe that the intersection  $B_{\alpha} \cap B_{\beta} \neq \emptyset$  for all  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , in particular, the subspace A is contained in the intersection since  $A \subset B_{\alpha}$  and  $A \subset B_{\beta}$  for all  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Therefore,  $\{B_{\alpha}\}$  is a collection of connected subspaces of X that have a point in common. Applying Theorem 23.3 one last time, we see that the union

$$\bigcup B_{\alpha} = \bigcup (A \cup A_{\alpha}) = A \cup \left(\bigcup A_{\alpha}\right)$$

is connected.

#### Problem 5.2 (Munkres §23, Ex. 6)

Let  $A \subset X$ . Show that if C is a connected subspace of X that intersects both A and  $X \setminus A$ , then C intersects  $\partial A$ .

*Proof.* We shall proceed by contradiction. Suppose that  $C \cap \partial A = \emptyset$ , then we shall show that the pair  $C \cap A$  and  $C \cap (X \setminus A)$  forms a separation of C. Recall that by definition (see Munkres §17, p. 102) the boundary  $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$ . Then we claim that  $\overline{A} = \partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A$ :

**Lemma 13.** Let X be a topological space and  $A \subset X$ . Then  $\partial A$  and int A are disjoint and  $\overline{A} = \partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A$ .

Proof of lemma. The point  $x \in \partial A$  if and only if  $x \in \overline{A}$  and  $x \in \overline{X} \setminus \overline{A}$ . Thus, for every neighborhood U of x, the intersection  $U \cap X \setminus A \neq \emptyset$ , in particular  $U \not\subset A$  so x is not an interior point of A. Hence, we see that  $\partial A \cap \operatorname{int} A = \emptyset$ . To prove the last statement note that  $\partial A \subset \overline{A}$  and  $\operatorname{int} A \subset A \subset \overline{A}$  (cf. Munkres §17, p. 95), so that  $\partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A \subset \overline{A}$  hence, it suffices to show the reverse inclusion, namely,  $\overline{A} \subset \partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A$ . Let  $x \in \overline{A}$ . If  $x \in \operatorname{int} A$ , then clearly  $x \in \partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A$ . Suppose  $x \notin \operatorname{int} A$ . Then, by Theorem 17.5(a), for every neighborhood U of x, the intersection  $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$  and  $U \not\subset A$ . Thus,  $U \cap (X \setminus A) \neq \emptyset$  so  $x \in \overline{X \setminus A}$ . It follows that  $x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A} = \partial A$ .

**Lemma 14.** Let X be a topological space and  $A \subset X$ . Then  $\partial A = \partial (X \setminus A)$ .

*Proof of lemma.* Replace A by  $X \setminus A$  in the definition of the boundary of A. Then we have:

$$\begin{split} \partial(X \smallsetminus A) &= \overline{X \smallsetminus A} \cap \overline{X \smallsetminus (X \smallsetminus A)} \\ &= \overline{X \smallsetminus A} \cap \overline{A} \\ &= \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \smallsetminus A} \\ &= \partial A. \end{split}$$

Now, by Theorem 17.4, we have that  $\overline{C \cap A} = C \cap \overline{A}$  and  $\overline{C \cap (X \setminus A)} = C \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$ . But by Lemma 13 and Lemma 14, the latter sets are equivalent to  $\overline{C \cap A} = C \cap (\partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A)$  and  $\overline{C \cap (X \setminus A)} = C \cap (\partial A \cup \operatorname{int}(X \setminus A))$ . But since  $C \cap \partial A = \emptyset$  by assumption, we have

$$\overline{C \cap A} \cap (C \cap (X \setminus A)) = (C \cap (\partial A \cup \operatorname{int} A)) \cap (C \cap (X \setminus A))$$

$$= ((C \cap \partial A) \cup (C \cap \operatorname{int} A)) \cap (C \cap (X \setminus A))$$

$$= (C \cap \operatorname{int} A) \cap (C \cap (X \setminus A))$$

$$= \emptyset$$

since  $C \cap \text{int } A \subset A$  and  $C \cap (X \setminus A) \subset X \setminus A$ . Similarly, we have that the intersection  $\overline{C \cap (X \setminus A)} \cap (C \cap A) = \emptyset$ . So by Lemma 23.1,  $C \cap A$  and  $C \cap (X \setminus A)$  form a separation of C. This contradicts the assumption that C is connected. Therefore, we conclude that  $C \cap \partial A \neq \emptyset$ .

# PROBLEM 5.3 (MUNKRES §23, Ex. 7)

Is the space  $\mathbf{R}_{\ell}$  connected? Justify your answer.

*Proof.* No. The space  $\mathbf{R}_{\ell}$  is not connected and we may exhibit an explicit separation. Namely, consider the basis elements  $(-\infty,0)$  and  $[0,\infty)$ . Then  $\mathbf{R}=(-\infty,0)\cup[0,\infty)$ , hence  $(-\infty,0)$  and  $[0,\infty)$  form a separation of  $\mathbf{R}$  with the lower limit topology.

Alternatively, one may note that  $\mathbf{R} \setminus (-\infty, 0) = [0, \infty)$  is open in  $\mathbf{R}_{\ell}$  so  $(-\infty, 0)$  is both open and closed. Hence, by Munkres's alternative formulation of connectedness (cf. Munkres §23, p. 148 the italicized paragraph),  $\mathbf{R}_{\ell}$  is disconnected.

#### Problem 5.4 (Munkres §23, Ex. 9)

Let A be a proper subset of X, and let B be a proper subset of Y. If X and Y are connected, show that

$$(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$$

is connected.

Proof. Consider the family of embeddings  $\{i_{\alpha}\}$  where  $i_{\alpha} \colon X \hookrightarrow X \times Y$  maps  $x \mapsto x \times y_{\alpha}$  for  $y_{\alpha} \notin B$ , for all  $\alpha$ . By Theorem 23.5,  $i_{\alpha}(X) = X \times y_{\alpha}$  is connected subspace of  $X \times Y$ . Moreover  $X \times y_{\alpha} \subset (X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$  so  $X \times y_{0}$ , in particular, we have that is a connected subspace of  $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ . Similarly, consider the family of embeddigs  $\{j_{\alpha}\}$  where  $j_{\alpha} \colon Y \hookrightarrow X \times Y$  maps  $y \mapsto x_{\alpha} \times y$  for  $x_{\alpha} \notin A$ . We similarly have that  $j_{\alpha}(Y) = x_{\alpha} \times Y$  is a connected subspace of  $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ . Then we claim that

$$(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B) = \bigcup (X \times y_{\alpha}) \cup (x_{\beta} \times Y).$$

It is clear that the union on the right is a subset of  $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$  since each  $X \times y_{\alpha}$  and  $x_{\beta} \times Y$  is a subset of  $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ . To see the reverse containment, take  $x \times y$  in the union  $\bigcup (X \times y_{\alpha}) \cup (x_{\beta} \times Y)$ . Then  $x \times y$  is in some  $(X \times y_{\alpha}) \cup (x_{\beta} \times Y)$  so  $x \times y \in X \times y_{\alpha}$  or  $x \times y \in x_{\beta} \times Y$ . If  $x \times y \in \bigcup X \times y_{\alpha}$ , then  $y_{\alpha} \notin B$  so  $x \times y \notin A \times B$ , hence  $x \times y \in (X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ . If  $x \times y \in \bigcup x_{\beta} \times Y$  then  $x \notin A$ , hence  $x \times y \notin A \times B$  so  $x \times y \in (X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ . Thus, we have that  $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B) = \bigcup (X \times y_{\alpha}) \cup (x_{\beta} \times Y)$ . Then, note that by Theorem 23.3, since  $X \cap y_{\alpha} \cap x_{\beta} \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ , in particular,  $x_{\beta} \times y_{\alpha}$  is in the intersection,  $(X \times y_{\alpha}) \cup (x_{\beta} \times Y)$  is connected for all  $\alpha$  and all  $\beta$ . Thus, the subspace  $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$  is connected.

# PROBLEM 5.5 (MUNKRES §24, Ex. 1(AC))

- (a) Show that no two of the spaces (0,1), (0,1] and [0,1] are homeomorphic. [Hint: What happens if you remove a point from each of these spaces?]
- (c) Show  $\mathbf{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{R}$  are not homeomorphic if n > 1.

*Proof.* (a) Suppose  $\varphi:(0,1]\to(0,1)$  is a homeomorphism. We claim that the restriction of  $\varphi$  to  $(0,1)\subset(0,1]$  gives a homeomorphism to  $(0,1)\setminus\{\varphi(1)\}$ , more generally, the following result holds:

**Lemma 15.** Suppose  $\varphi \colon X \to Y$  is a homeomorphism and  $U \subset X$ . Then the restriction  $\varphi|_U \colon U \to \varphi(U)$  is a homeomorphism.

Proof of lemma. The restriction  $\varphi_U = \varphi|_U \colon U \to \varphi(U)$  has a canonical inverse, namely,  $\varphi_U^{-1} = \varphi^{-1}|_{\varphi(U)} \colon \varphi(U) \to U$  since  $\varphi$  is a bijection. By Theorem 18.2(d,e) both  $\varphi_U$  and  $\varphi_U^{-1}$  are continuous hence,  $U \approx \varphi(U)$ .

Now remove 1 from (0,1]. Then, since  $\varphi(1)$  is bijective, there exists  $y \in (0,1)$  such that  $\varphi(1) = y$  with 0 < y < 1. Then  $(0,1) \setminus \{y\} = (0,y) \cup (y,1)$  is disconnected, but  $(0,1] \setminus \{1\} = (0,1)$  is connected. This contradicts Theorem 23.5 that the image of (0,1] under a continuous map is connected. The same argument shows that  $(0,1) \not\approx [0,1]$  (in fact, if we allow ourselves results from §26 and §27 we have that [0,1] is compact by 27.3 (Heine–Borel), but (0,1) is not compact, by 26.5 it follows that they are not homeomorphic).

Similarly, if  $[0,1] \approx (0,1]$  via  $\varphi$  then  $[0,1] \setminus \{0,1\} \approx (0,1] \setminus \{\varphi(0),\varphi(1)\}$ .

(b) From Example 4 of §24, the punctured Euclidean space  $\mathbf{R} \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$  is path-connected, in particular, connected. But  $\mathbf{R}$  minus a point is disconnected. More precisely, if  $\mathbf{R}^n \approx \mathbf{R}$  via  $\varphi$ , by Lemma 15,  $\mathbf{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \approx \mathbf{R} \setminus \{\varphi(0)\}$ , but  $\mathbf{R} \setminus \{\varphi(0)\}$  is disconnected, contradicting Theorem 23.5.

\*\*Remarks\*\*. I realized too late that Lemma 15 here is the same as Lemma A given to us in lecture.

#### Problem 5.6 (Munkres §24, Ex. 2)

Let  $f: S^1 \to \mathbf{R}$  be a continuous map. Show there exists a point x of  $S^1$  such that f(x) = f(-x).

Proof. Consider the map  $g \colon S^1 \to \mathbf{R}$  given by g(x) = f(x) - f(-x). This map is continuous by Lemma 9(i) (proved on Homework 4 which showed that if f, g are continuous real valued maps on a metric space X then (i) f+g and (ii) fg are continuous; moreover  $S^1$  is naturally a metric space as a subspace of  $\mathbf{R}^2$  which is how Munkres defines it in Example 5 on §24). Fix  $x_0 \in S^1$  and suppose, without loss of generality, that  $g(x_0) > 0$  (for if  $g(x_0) = 0$  we are done, i.e,  $f(x_0) = f(-x_0)$  and if  $g(x_0) < 0$  we reverse the direction of < in the following argument). Then

$$g(-x_0) = f(-x_0) - f(-(-x_0)) = -f(x_0) + f(-x_0) = -g(x_0).$$

Then  $g(-x_0) = -g(x_0) < g(x_0)$  and by the Intermediate Value Theorem (Theorem 24.3) there exists  $y \in S$  such that g(y) = 0, i.e, f(y) = f(-y).

## PROBLEM 5.7 (MUNKRES §25, Ex. 2(B))

(b) Consider  $\mathbf{R}^{\omega}$  in the uniform topology. Show that  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  lie in the same component of  $\mathbf{R}^{\omega}$  if and only if the sequence

$$\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} = (x_1 - y_1, x_2 - y_2, ...)$$

is bounded. [Hint: It suffices to consider the case where y = 0.]

 $Proof. \implies$  Suppose that  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  lie in the same connected component. Consider the sets

$$U = \{ \, \mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z} \text{ is bounded} \, \} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \{ \, \mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z} \text{ is bounded} \, \}.$$

These sets are open in the uniform topology since for any  $\mathbf{z} \in U$  for  $\varepsilon \leq 1$ , the open ball  $B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{z}, \varepsilon) \subset U$  since for every  $\mathbf{z}' \in B_{\bar{\rho}}(\mathbf{z}, \varepsilon)$  the difference  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}'$  is bounded, i.e.,

$$\bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}') \leq \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z}')$$
  
 $\leq M + \varepsilon$ 

for some positive real number  $M < \infty$ . A similar argument shows that V is open.

 $\leftarrow$ 

#### Problem 5.8 (Munkres §25, Ex. 4)

Let X be locally path connected. Show that every connected open set in X is path connected.

*Proof.* First we prove the following claim:

Claim. If U is an open subset of X, then it is locally path-connected.

Proof of claim. Let  $x \in U$  and let  $V \subset U$  be a neighborhood of x then, by Lemma 16.2, since V is open in X and X is locally path-connected, there exists path-connected neighborhood W of x contained in V, hence contained in U. Thus, U is locally path-connected.

Now, suppose U is a connected open subset of X. Then U has one component. Moreover, by Theorem 25.5, since U is locally path-connected the components of U and path-components are equivalent. Thus, U has exactly one path component, i.e, U is path-connected.

#### Problem 5.9 (Munkres §25, Ex. 6)

A space X is said to be weakly locally path connected at x if for every neighborhood U of x, there is a connected subspace of X contained in U that contains a neighborhood of x. Show that if X is weakly locally connected at each of its points, then X is locally connected. [Hint: Show that components of open sets are open.]

Proof. By Theorem 25.5, it suffices to show that for every open set U of X, each component of U is open in X. Let  $x \in U$ . Then, by Theorem 25.2, x lies in some component of U, say C. Since X is weakly locally path-connected, there is a connected subspace, say  $C_x$ , contained in U that contains a neighborhood  $V_x$  of x. Then by Theorem 25.2,  $C_x \subset C$ . In particular, for every  $x \in C$  we have a neighborhood  $V_x$  of x contained in x, i.e., x is the union x of x of open subsets. Thus, x is open in x.

CARLOS SALINAS PROBLEM 5.10(A)

## PROBLEM 5.10 (A)

Let X be a topological space. The quotient space  $(X \times [0,1])/(X \times 0)$  is called the *cone* of X and denoted CX.

Prove that if X is homeomorphic to Y then CX is homeomorphic to CY (*Hint:* There are maps in both directions).

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi \colon X \to Y$  be a homeomorphism and let p and q denote the quotient maps the pairs  $(X \times [0,1], CX)$  and  $(Y \times [0,1], CY)$ , respectively. Then we get a canonical homeomorphism  $\Phi \colon X \times [0,1] \to Y \times [0,1]$  given by the map  $(x,z) \mapsto (\varphi(x),z)$ . Note that  $\Phi$  is continuous, by Theorem 18.4, since  $\varphi$  and  $\mathrm{id}_{[0,1]}$  are continuous and its inverse is given by  $\Phi^{-1} = (\varphi^{-1}, \mathrm{id}_{[0,1]})$  (which is continuous by 18.4). Now, we claim that the map  $\Phi^* \colon CX \to CY$  given by  $[(x,z)] \mapsto [\Phi(x,z)] = [(\varphi(x),z)]$  defines a homeomorphism  $CX \approx CY$ .

First we will prove that  $\Phi^*$  is well-defined. Fix an equivalence class [(x,z)] in CX and choose two representatives  $(x_1,z_1)$  and  $(x_2,z_2)$  of [(x,z)] in  $X\times[0,1]$ . Then, by the definition of the quotient space (cf. Homework 4, Problem F),  $(x_1,z_1)\sim(x_2,z_2)$  if and only if  $(x_1,z_1)=(x_2,z_2)$  or  $z_1=z_2=0$ , i.e,  $\{(x_1,z_1),(x_2,z_2)\}\subset X\times 0$ . In the former case  $\Phi(x_1,z_1)=\Phi(x_2,z_2)=(\varphi(x_1),z_1)$  and we see that

$$\Phi^*([(x_1, z_1)] = [\Phi(x_1, z_1)] = [(\varphi(x_1), z_1)] = [\Phi(x_2, z_2)] = \Phi^*([(x_2, z_2)])$$

and in the latter  $\Phi(x_1,0)=(\varphi(x_1),0)$  and  $\Phi(x_2,0)=(\varphi(x_2),0)$  so  $(\varphi(x_1),0)\sim(\varphi(x_2),0)$ , hence

$$\Phi^*([(x_1,0)] = [\Phi(x_1,0)] = [(\varphi(x_1),0)] = [\Phi(x_2,0)] = \Phi^*([(x_2,0)]).$$

Thus  $\Phi$  is well-defined.

Now we will show that  $\Phi^*$  is a continuous bijection and with a continuous inverse. To show bijectivity we construct an explicit inverse, namely, define  $(\Phi^*)^{-1} : CY \to CX$  by  $[(y,z)] \mapsto [\Phi^{-1}(y,z)] = [\varphi^{-1}(x),z]$ . The map  $(\Phi^*)^{-1}$  is clearly well-defined (by a similar argument to showing that  $\Phi$  is well-defined) and we have that

$$\begin{split} \Phi^* \circ (\Phi^*)^{-1}([y,z]) &= \Phi^*([\Phi^{-1}(y,z)] \\ &= [\Phi(\Phi^{-1}(y,z)] \\ &= [(y,z)] \\ &= \mathrm{id}_{GY} \end{split} \qquad \begin{split} (\Phi^*)^{-1} \circ \Phi^*([x,z]) &= (\Phi^*)^{-1}([\Phi(x,z)]) \\ &= [\Phi^{-1}(\Phi(x,z))] \\ &= [(x,z)] \\ &= \mathrm{id}_{GX} \,. \end{split}$$

It is clear that  $\Phi^*$  is continuous since, by Theorem Q.2,  $\Phi^* \circ p = q \circ \Phi$  is continuous. Let  $U_{\sim}$  be open in CX. Then  $U = p^{-1}(U_{\sim})$  is open in  $X \times [0,1]$  then  $\Phi(U)$  is open in  $Y \times [0,1]$  since  $\Phi$  is a homeomorphism. The same argument applies to showing that  $(\Phi^*)^{-1}$  is continuous in the reverse direction, that is, consider the composition  $(\Phi^*)^{-1} \circ q = p \circ \Phi^{-1}$  and apply Theorem Q.2.