Notes of Infinite dimensional analysis

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2020-12-16

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## Chapter 1

## Odds and ends

## 1.1 Space of sequences

**Definition 1.1.** For  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ,  $\ell_p$  is defined to be the set of all sequences  $x = (x_1, x_2, \cdots)$  for which  $||x||_p < \infty$ . Where

$$\|x\|_p = (\sum_1^\infty |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$$

is the  $\ell_p$  norm of the sequences.

While  $\ell_{\infty}$  is defined as the set of all  $\sup\{|x_n|\} \leq \infty$ , such norm is called  $\ell_{\infty}$  norm, supremum norm or uniform norm.

All of these spaces are vector space. And sequence  $\{\ell_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is increasing.

The space of all convergent sequence is denoted c and all sequences convergent to 0 is denoted  $c_0$ . Finally, the collection of sequences with finite nonzero terms is  $\varphi$ . One can check that

$$\varphi \subset \ell_p \subset c_0 \subset \ell_\infty \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

## 1.2 Spaces of functions

One can think  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as

$$\{f: \{1, 2, \cdots, n\} \to \mathbb{R}\} = \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{\{1, 2, \cdots, n\}}$$

Replace  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  by an arbitrary X, then  $\mathbb{R}^X$  is all functions from X to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

For  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ,  $L_p(\mu)$  is defined to be the set of all  $\mu$  measurable functions f for which  $||f||_p < \infty$ , where the  $L_p$  **norm** is defined as

$$\|f\|_p=(\int_\Omega |f|^p)^{1/p}$$

And the  $L_{\infty}$  norm, or essential supremum is defined as

$$\|f\|_{\infty}=\operatorname{ess\,sup} f=\sup\{t:\mu(\{x:|f(x)|\geq t\})0\}$$

#### 1.3 Ordinals

Suppose R is an order relation on  $\Omega$ , then  $\Omega$  is said to be **inductively ordered** by R if every totally ordered subset has an **supremum**.

Zorn's Lemma states that every inductively ordered set has a maximal element.

**Definition 1.2.** A set X is **well ordered** by linear  $\leq$  if every nonempty subset has a least element.

**Definition 1.3.** An **initial segement** of  $(X, \preceq)$  is any set of the form  $I(x) = \{y \in X : y \leq x\}$ .

**Definition 1.4.** An **ideal** in a well ordered X is a subset A s.t. for all  $a \in A$ ,  $I(a) \subset A$ .

**Theorem 1.1** (Well Ordering Principle). Every nonempty set can be well ordered.

*Proof.* Let X nonempty, and let

$$\mathcal{X} = \{(A, \leq_A) \text{ is well order } : A \subset X\}$$

all well ordered sets, and define  $\preceq$  on  $\mathcal{X}$  as  $(B, \preceq_B) \preceq (A, \preceq_A)$  if B is an ideal in A and  $\preceq_A$  extends  $\preceq_B$ . Suppose every chain  $\mathcal{C}$  in  $\mathcal{X}$ ,  $(\cup \mathcal{C}, \cup \{\prec_A : A \in \mathcal{C}\})$  clearly an upper bound of  $\mathcal{C}$  and well ordered. By Zorn's lemma, there is a maximal element of  $\mathcal{X}$  and it's actually X.

Kind of remarkable and useful well ordered set is exist:

**Theorem 1.2.** There exist poset  $(\Omega, \preceq)$  satisfy

- 1.  $(\Omega, \preceq)$  is well ordered.
- 2.  $\Omega$  has a greast element  $\omega_1$
- 3. I(x) is countable for  $x < \omega_1$
- 4.  $\{y \in \Omega : x \leq y \leq \omega_1\}$  is uncountable.

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- 5. Every nonempty subset of  $\Omega$  has a least upper bound.
- 6. A nonempty subset of  $\Omega \{\omega_1\}$  has greatst element iff it's countable. Every uncountable subset has least upper bound  $\omega_1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $(X, \preceq)$  be uncountable well ordered set, and let A

$$A = \{x \in X : I(x) \text{ is uncountable}\}\$$

w.l.o.g we may assume A is nonempty. Then there is a first element and denoted by  $\omega_1$ . Then we show that  $\Omega = I(\omega_1)$  enjoy all the properies.

1-4 is straightforward and 5 follows from all the upper bound is well ordered and thus least upper bound exist. For 6, suppose there is a countable  $C \subset \Omega - \{\omega_1\}$ , then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I(x_i)$  is countable, so there is some  $x < \omega_1 \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I(x_i)$ , that is an upper bound. By 5, least upper bound is exist and belong to C. Conversely, if some subset C has some least upper bound  $b < \omega_1$ , then  $C \subset I(b)$  and must countable.

The elements of  $\Omega$  are called **ordinals** and  $\omega_1$  is called **first uncountable ordinal**. The elements of  $\Omega_0 = \Omega - \{\omega_1\}$  is **countable ordinals**. We treat  $\mathbb N$  as a subset of  $\Omega$ . Then the first element of  $\Omega - \mathbb N$  is **first infinite ordinal**.

**Theorem 1.3** (Interlacing Lemma). Suppose sequence  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$  in  $\Omega_0$  with  $x_n \leq y_n \leq x_{n+1}$ . Then they share the same least upper bound.

*Proof.* Clearly since  $x_n \leq y_n \leq x_{n+1}$ .

## Chapter 2

# Topology

### 2.1 Topological spaces

Let  $\Omega$  be as space

**Definition 2.1.** A class of subset  $\tau$  of  $\Omega$  is an **topology** if

- 1.  $\emptyset$  and  $\Omega$  belongs to  $\tau$ .
- 2. closed under arbitrary union.
- 3. closed under finite intersection.

 $(\Omega, \tau)$  called a **topological space** where  $\Omega$  is called as **uderlying set**. The sets in  $\tau$  are called **open** while sets with complement in  $\tau$  is **closed**. Both open and closed set is called **clopen**.

**Definition 2.2.** Countable intersection of open sets is  $\mathcal{G}_{\sigma}$  set and countable union of closed sets is  $\mathcal{F}_{\delta}$  set.

Following is some examples of topological space.

**Definition 2.3.**  $(X, \rho)$  is a **semimetric space**, when  $\rho$  defined on  $X \times X$  s.t.  $\forall x, y, z \in X$ :

- 1.  $\rho(x, y) \ge 0$
- 2.  $\rho(x, y) = \rho(y, x)$
- 3.  $\rho(x,y) \le \rho(x,z) + \rho(z,y)$

 $\rho$  is called a **semimetric**.

If  $\rho(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$ ,  $\rho$  become a **metric** and  $(X,\rho)$  become **metric space**.  $B(a,r) = \{x \in E, d(x,a) < r\}$  is r-ball with center a.

U is **open** in  $(\Omega, d)$  iff  $\forall x \in U, \exists r_x 0 \ni B_d(x, r_x) \subseteq U$ . Let  $\tau_d$  be the set of all open subsets of  $\Omega$ , we call  $\tau_d$  the **topology generated by** d. A Topological space is **metrizable** if there exist metric d generates it.

Suppose d is discrete, that is, d(x,y)=0 iff x=y, otherwise, d(x,y)=1. Then every subset is open hence  $\tau_d=\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$  and called **discrete topology**. The zero semimetric, defined by d(x,y)=0 for all  $x,y\in\Omega$  generates  $\tau_d=\{\emptyset,\Omega\}$  and called **trivial topology**.

Let  $\Omega=\mathbb{R}^n,\, l^2=\sqrt{\sum_1^n(x_i-y_i)^2}$  is called **Euclidean metric**.  $l^1=\sum_1^n|x_i-y_i|$  is called **texi-cab metric** and  $l^\infty=\sup\{|x_i-y_i|\}$  is called **sup norm metric**.

Note  $d_{l^2}(x,y) \leq d_{l^1}(x,y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_{l^2}(x,y)$  and  $d_{l^2}(x,y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_{l^\infty}(x,y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_{l^2}(x,y)$ , then  $d_{l^\infty}$  open  $\iff$   $d_{l^2}$  open  $\iff$   $d_{l^1}$  open. Hence  $\tau_{d_{l^2}} = \tau_{d_{l^1}} = \tau_{d_{l^\infty}}$ .

All topologies on  $\Omega$  is poset with greatest element  $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$  and least  $\{\emptyset, \Omega\}$ . If  $\tau' \subset \tau$ , we say  $\tau'$  coarser than  $\tau$  while  $\tau$  finer than  $\tau'$ .

If  $\tau$  can be form by taking union of families in some  $\mathcal{B} \subset \tau$ , we call  $\mathcal{B}$  the base for the topology  $\tau$ .

**Theorem 2.1.**  $\mathcal{B}$  is a base in  $(X, \tau)$  iff  $\forall U \in \tau, \forall x \in U, \exists W \in \mathcal{B} \ni x \in W \subset U$ .

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textit{Proof.} &\Longrightarrow: \text{Any } U \text{ can be written as } U = \cup W_i \text{ and } x \in U \implies x \in W_i \text{ for some } i \text{ and } W_i \in \mathcal{B}. \iff: \text{For any } U \in T, \text{ consider arbitary } x \in U, \text{ then there exist } W_x \text{ such that } x \in W_x \subset U, \text{ thus we have } U = \cup_x W_x. \end{array}$ 

Let  $\mathcal{S} \subset \tau$ , suppose all topologies include  $\mathcal{S}$ . Then the intersection of all of them is again a topology, denoted as  $\tau(S) = \cap T$ , then  $\tau(\mathcal{S})$  is the smallest topology contains  $\mathcal{S}$ . We call it the topology **generated** by  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Theorem 2.2.**  $\tau(S)$  is unions of families of finite intersections together with  $\Omega$ , formally:

$$\{\bigcup(\bigcap_1^N S_i)\}\cup\Omega$$

 $\mathcal{S} \subset \tau$  is a **subbase** for  $\tau$  if all finite intersections of  $\mathcal{S}$  is a base. Note that if  $\Omega \in \mathcal{S}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  is the subbase of  $\tau(\mathcal{S})$ .  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is **second countable** if  $\tau$  has countable base. Clearly, a topology is second countable iff it has countable subbase.

For any subset X in  $(\Omega, \tau)$ , then

$$\tau_X = \{X \cap V : V \in \tau\}$$

form a topology in X and we call  $(X, \tau_X)$  a subspace or relative topology. Sets in  $\tau_X$  are relative open. Relative closed sets of the form

$$X - (X \cap V) = X - V = X \cap V^c$$

### 2.2 Neighborhood

A subset V is called a **neighborhood** of a if there exists a open set  $U \subset V$  contains a. Then we called  $V' = V - \{a\}$  **punctured(deleted)** neighborhood. A **neighborhood base** is a collection of neighborhood BN(a) s.t. for any neighborhood V of a, there exist a  $W \in BN(a)$  and  $W \subset V$ . Clearly, all the neighborhoods is a neighborhood base and denoted as  $\mathcal{N}(x)$ , which is called **neighborhood system**.

**Lemma 2.1.** A subset U is open iff it's a neighborhood for each of its points.

*Proof.*  $\Longrightarrow$  is trival.  $\Leftarrow$  follows from  $\cup_x G_x = U$  and unions of open set is still open. ■

This suggest a equivalent definition of finear topology:

**Lemma 2.2.**  $\tau' \subset \tau \iff \tau'$  neighborhood is a  $\tau$  neighborhood.

Proof.  $\Longrightarrow$  any open set  $G_x$  satisfy  $x \in G_x \subset V$  in T' is still open in T, hence V is T neighborhood.  $\longleftarrow$  Consider any open set  $G \in T'$ , it's a T' neighborhood for each of its points implies it's a T neighborhood for each of its points and hence G is T open.

#### 2.3 Closures

The **interior** of A is the union of all open sets which are included A, i.e., the largest open set included in A, we denote it  $A^{\circ}$ . And the **closure** is the intersection of all closed sets which include A and thus the smallest closed set includes A, we denote it  $\overline{A}$ .

**Lemma 2.3.** Following is some useful truth:

- 1.  $(A \cap B)^{\circ} = A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ}$
- 2.  $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- 3.  $A \subset \overline{B} \implies \overline{A} \subset \overline{B}$
- $4. \ A^{\circ} \subset B \implies A^{\circ} \subset B^{\circ}$
- 5.  $\overline{A^c} = (A^\circ)^c$
- 6.  $(\overline{A})^c = (A^c)^\circ$

*Proof.* We only prove **5**, note  $(A^{\circ})^c$  is closed and

$$A^{\circ} \subset A \implies (A^c) \subset (A^{\circ})^c$$

we have  $\overline{A^c} \subset (A^\circ)^c$ . On the other hand

$$\overline{A^c} \supset (A^\circ)^c \iff (\overline{A^c})^c \subset A^\circ \iff (\overline{A^c})^c \subset A \iff \overline{A^c} \supset A^c$$

The **frontier** of A is  $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{A^c} = \overline{A} \cap (A^\circ)^c = \overline{A} - A^\circ$ .

x is said to be an **interior point** of A if A is neighborhood of x.

x is said to be an **adherent point** if it's every neighborhood meets A, an  $\omega$  **accumulation point** of A if every neighborhood of x contains **infinitely** many points of A and is a **condensation point** of A if every neighborhood of x contains **uncountable** many points of A.

x is a **cluster point** or **accumulation point** if every deleted neighborhood of x meets A and is **isolated point** if x is not cluster point. That is,  $\{x\}$  is relative open in A. We denoted all the cluster points as A' and called **derived set**.

x is **frontier point** or **boundary point** if every neighborhood of x meets both A and  $A^c$ .

It's east to show that the points of  $A^{\circ}$  are precisely all the interior points of A and  $\overline{A}$  are precisely all the adherent points.  $\partial A$  is precisely points of frontier. We claim that

$$\overline{A} = A^{\circ} \cup \partial A = A \cup A'$$

A subset A is called **perfect** if it's closed while point in A is cluster points in A, that is  $A' = A = \overline{A}$ .

#### 2.4 Dense

A is said dense if  $\overline{A} = \Omega$  and nowhere dense if  $(\overline{A})^{\circ} = \emptyset$  ( $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  while  $\mathbb{Z}$  is nowhere dense.) A is said to be **meagre** or **set of the first category** if it's countable union of nowhere dense. Sets which are not meagre is **set of the second** category set.

Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is **first countable** if every point of  $\Omega$  has countable neighborhood base. The space is said **separable** if  $\Omega$  has a countable dense subset.

Lemma 2.4. Second countable space is separable

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathcal{B} = (B_i)_{i \in I}$  is a countable base, by axiom of choice, we may take  $x_i$  in I, let  $X = \{x_i\}_{i \in I} \subset \Omega$ . Then we show that X is dense. For any  $x \in \Omega$ , it's neighborhood must contain some open G which is unions of  $\mathcal{B}$  and thus contains at least one element in X, that is, G meet X. Hence  $\overline{X} = \Omega$ .  $\square$ 

Lemma 2.5. Second countable space is first countable

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*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathcal{B} = (B_i)_{i \in I}$  is a countable base, for each point  $x \in \Omega$ , one may take all the sets in  $\mathcal{B}$  which contains x as a neighborhood base. To verify it's neighborhood base, if there is a neighborhood N of x, then there is a open Gcontains x. By the definition of base, G is the union of sets of  $\mathcal{B}$  and those sets must at least one contains x and these sets is subset to G.

#### 2.5 **Mappings**

Suppose  $(\Omega, \tau)$  and  $(\Omega', \tau')$  are two spaces and f is a mapping from  $\Omega$  to  $\Omega'$  in the following.

**Lemma 2.6.** Follwing is some useful truth for mappings.

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1. ff^{-1}(A) \subset A
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- 2.  $f^{-1}f(A) \supset A$
- 3.  $f^{-1}(U\cap N)=f^{-1}(U)\cap f^{-1}(N)$ 4.  $f^{-1}(U\cup N)=f^{-1}(U)\cup f^{-1}(N)$
- 5.  $f^{-1}(A^c) = (f^{-1}(A))^c$
- 6.  $f^{-1}f(A) = A$  always holds if f is injection while  $ff^{-1}(A) = A$  always holds if g is surjection.
- 7. If f is bijection,  $(f^{-1})^{-1}(A)=f(A)$  always hold. 8.  $(f\circ g)^{-1}(A)=g^{-1}f^{-1}(A)$
- 9.  $f^{-1}(A) \subset f^{-1}(B) \iff A \subset B$
- 10.  $f(A) \subset f(B) \iff A \subset B$

**Definition 2.4.** f is **continuous** at x if for every neighborhood N' of f(x), there is a neighborhood N of x s.t.  $f(N) \subset N'$ . It's continuous if it's continuous at every points  $x \in \Omega$ .

**Theorem 2.3.** *f is continuous iff* 

- 1.  $f^{-1}(G')$  is open for every open subset G' of  $\Omega'$ .
- 2.  $f^{-1}(F')$  is closed for every closed subset F' of  $\Omega'$ .
- 3. If  $A \subset \Omega'$ , then  $f^{-1}(A^{\circ}) \subset (f^{-1}(A))^{\circ}$
- 4. If  $A \subset \Omega$ , then  $f(\overline{A} \subset \overline{f(A)})$

*Proof.* We only prove 1 and 3.

 $1 \implies$ : For any  $x \in f^{-1}(G')$ , it's sufficient to show that  $f^{-1}(G')$  is its neighborhood. By definition, there is a neighborhood N s.t.  $f(N) \subset G'$ , and

$$x \in N \subset f^{-1}f(N) \subset f^{-1}(G')$$

 $\Leftarrow$ : For every neighborhood N', there is some open G' contain f(x), and  $f^{-1}(G')$  is neighborhood of x and  $ff^{-1}(G') \subset G'$ .

 $3 \implies : f^{-1}(A^{\circ})$  is open and th claim follows from  $f^{-1}(A \circ) \subset f^{-1}(A)$ .  $\iff$  : Suppose A is open, then  $A^{\circ} = A$  and hence  $f^{-1}(A) \subset (f^{-1}(A))^{\circ}$ . Which suggets  $f^{-1}(A)$  is open.

**Lemma 2.7.** Suppose  $f: \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$  and  $g: \Omega_2 \to \Omega_3$ ,  $f \circ g$  is continuous if f and g are continuous.

*Proof.* Suppose  $G_3$  is open and the claims follows from  $(f \circ g)^{-1}(G_3) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(G_3))$ .

**Lemma 2.8.** Suppose  $f:(\Omega,\tau),(\Omega',\tau(\mathcal{S})),\ f$  is continous iff  $f^{-1}(S)\in\tau$  for any  $S\in\mathcal{S}$ .

 $(\Omega,\tau)$  and  $(\Omega',\tau')$  are said to be **homeomorphic** if there exist continuous bijection f, s.t  $f^{-1}$  is continuous and such f is called **homeomorphism**. In particular, f is an **embedding** if  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to (f(\Omega),\tau|f(\Omega))$  ia a homeomorphism.

f is **open** if f(G) is open for all open set  $G \in \tau$  and is **closed** if f(F) is closed for all closed set  $F^c \in \tau$ .

**Lemma 2.9.** Suppose f is bijection, then it's homeomorphism iff it's continuous and either open or closed.

*Proof.* By the continuity of  $f^{-1}$ , since  $(f^{-1})^{-1}(G) = f(G)$  for all open set G.

 $f^{-1}$  is continuous  $\iff f(G)$  is open  $\iff f$  is open .

**Lemma 2.10.** Suppose f is bijection, it's a homeomorphism iff  $\tau'$  is the finest topology where f continuous.

*Proof.* Suppose f is homeomorphism,  $T_0$  is another topology where f is continuous. For any  $G \in \tau_0$ ,  $f^{-1}(G) \in \tau$  by the continuity of  $f^{-1}$ ,

$$G=(f^{-1})^{-1}(f^{-1}(G))\in\tau'$$

That is  $\tau'$  is finer than any  $\tau_0$ .

Note that  $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$  let all f continuous and  $\{\emptyset,\Omega\}$  let all  $g:\Omega'\to\Omega$  continuous.

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#### 2.6 Filter

**Definition 2.5.** A filter is a non-empty collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of subset in  $\Omega$  s.t.

- 1.  $A \in \mathcal{F}, A \subset \mathcal{B} \implies \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{F}$
- 2. Closed under finite intersection.
- 3.  $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}$

Note the definition of  $\mathcal{F}$  is independent with topology  $\tau$ . A **free filter** is filter with  $\ker \mathcal{F} = \bigcap_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F = \emptyset$ . Not free filters are called **fixed**.

Filter can be formed by taking upward closure of a filter base.

**Definition 2.6.** A collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of subset in  $\Omega$  is a fiter base of or prefilter if

- 1.  $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{F}$
- 2.  $\forall N \in \mathcal{F}, \exists W \in \mathcal{B} \ni W \subset N$

We say  $\mathcal{B}$  generates  $\mathcal{F}$ , where

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}^{\uparrow} = \{ X \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega) : \exists A \in \mathcal{B} \ni X \supset A \}$$

For example,

• Suppose  $x \in \Omega$  then

$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \{\text{All neighbourhoods of } x\}$$

is a filter on  $\Omega$ , that is, **neighbourhood filter**, while each neighborhood base is a base for this filter. Note

$$\tau(x) = \{X \in \tau : x \in X\}$$

is a base for  $\mathcal{N}(x)$  and thus  $\mathcal{N}(x) = \tau(x)^{\uparrow}$ .

• Suppose  $\Omega$  is infinite, the collection of all **cofinite** subsets( subset s with finite complement) is a filter on  $\Omega$ , such filter is free and called **Frechet** filter.

To assert a collection is a base, we have

**Theorem 2.4.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a collection of nonempty subsets. Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is a filter base, that is,  $\mathcal{B}$  may generates a filter iff

- 1. The intersection of each finite family of sets in  $\mathcal B$  includes a set in  $\mathcal B$
- 2.  $\mathcal{B}$  is non-empty and  $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{B}$ .

*Proof.* We claim that

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ X \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega) : \exists A \in \mathcal{B} \ni X \supset A \}$$

 $\mathcal{F}$  is the filter generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ .

A family of subsets  $\mathcal{F}$  is said to have **finite intersection property** if intersection of every finite subfaimily is nonempty.

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be collection of subsets with finite intersection property, then collection of all finite intersection of  $\mathcal{A}$  is a base, we call the filter generated **filter generated** by  $\mathcal{A}$ . Formally

$$\mathcal{F} = \{\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{I}} A : \mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{A} \text{ and } \mathcal{I} \text{ is finite}\}^{\uparrow}$$

A filter  $\mathcal{F}$  is **finer** than another  $\mathcal{G}$  if  $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{G}$ . Clearly, the set of all filters on  $\Omega$  is inductively ordered by inclusion. By Zorn's lemma, the set of all filters has maximal filters and we call such fliters **ultrafilters**.

**Lemma 2.11.** Every fixed ultrafilter of the form

$$\mathcal{U}(x) = \{x\}^{\uparrow}$$

for any  $x \in \Omega$ . And every free ultrafilter contains no finite subsets.

To assert a filter is ultra, we have:

**Theorem 2.5.** Let A be a collection of subsets and  $\mathcal{F}$  the filter generates by A. If

$$\forall X \subset \Omega, either \ X \in A \ or \ X^c \in A$$

then A is an ultrafilter on  $\Omega$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathcal{F}'$  is an ultrafilter include  $\mathcal{F}$ , we have  $\mathcal{F}' \supset A$  clearly. Consider any  $X \in \mathcal{F}'$ , we claim that  $X \in A$  since if  $X^c \in A$  then  $X^c \in \mathcal{F}'$  as  $\mathcal{F}' \supset \mathcal{F} \supset A$  and  $X \cap X^c = \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}'$  results in a contradiction. It follows that  $A \supset \mathcal{F}'$  and thus  $A = \mathcal{F}'$ .

**Theorem 2.6.** Every filter  $\mathcal{F}$  is the intersection of all the ultrafilter which include  $\mathcal{F}$ .

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*Proof.* We claim that

$$\mathcal{F} = \cap \{\text{ultrafilter generates by } \{x\}: x \in \cap \mathcal{F}\}$$

Suppose mappings on a filter:

**Theorem 2.7.** Let f be a mapping from  $\Omega$  to  $\Omega'$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  a base for a flitter  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $\Omega$ . Then  $f(\mathcal{B}) = \{f(X)\}_{X \in \mathcal{B}}$  is also a base on  $\Omega'$ . Moreover, if  $\mathcal{F}$  is ultra then  $f(\mathcal{B})$  also generates an ultrafilter.

*Proof.* First assertion is straightforward and the second follows from  $\mathcal{B}$  is collection of supset for some  $\{x\}$ , then  $f(\mathcal{B})$  generates the fliter that generates by  $\{f(x)\}$ .

**Theorem 2.8.** In the same situation as previous theorem. If  $\mathcal{B}'$  is a base on  $\Omega'$ , then  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}')$  is a base on  $\Omega$  iff every set in  $\mathcal{B}'$  meets  $f(\Omega)$ 

*Proof.* We have

$$\Omega \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}') \implies f(\Omega) \subset X'$$

for some  $X' \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}')$ , by definition,  $\implies$  is immediately.

For  $\iff$ , suppose any finite family  $X_i \in \mathcal{B}'$ , then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}f^{-1}(X_i)=f^{-1}(\bigcap_iX_i)\in f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}')$$

Then the claim follows from theorem 2.4.

A point  $x \in \Omega$  is said to be a **limit** or a **limit point** of the fliter  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  is said to **converge** to x, or  $\mathcal{F} \to x$ , if the neighborhood filter  $\mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{F}$ . For filter base  $\mathcal{B}$ , we define on the filter generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ , that is, if  $\mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{B}^{\uparrow}$ .

This implies a equivalent definition of finer topology:

$$\tau \supset \tau' \iff \mathcal{N}_{\tau}(x) \supset \mathcal{N}_{\tau'}(x) \iff \mathcal{F} \to a \implies \mathcal{F}' \to a$$

also, an equivalent definition of continuity as follows:

**Theorem 2.9.**  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to(\Omega',\tau')$  is continous at x iff

$$\forall \mathcal{F} \to x, f(\mathcal{F}) \to f(x)$$

*Proof.* By definition,  $f(\mathcal{F}) \to f(x)$  if

$$\mathcal{N}(f(x)) \subset f(\mathcal{F})^{\uparrow}$$

That is, for any neighbourhood  $N' \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ , there exist some  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  s.t.  $f(A) \subset N'$ , as  $\mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{F}$  and f is continous at x, such A is always exists. Conversely, take  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{N}(x)$  then the claim is follows

A point  $x \in \Omega$  is said to be an **adherent point** of  $\mathcal{F}$  if x is an adherent point of every set in  $\mathcal{F}$ . The **adherence** of  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $\mathrm{Adh}_{\tau}(\mathcal{F})$  or  $\overline{\mathcal{F}}$  is the set of all adherent points, thus

$$\overline{\mathcal{F}} = \bigcap_{X \in F} \overline{X}$$

Define similarly on filter base  $\mathcal{B}$  by the filter generated. By definition, we have

$$\overline{\mathcal{B}} = \bigcap_{X \in B} \overline{X}$$

**Lemma 2.12.** Suppose A be a subset of  $\Omega$ , then  $x \in \overline{A}$  iff there is a filter  $\mathcal{F}$  s.t.  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  converges to x.

**Theorem 2.10.** Suppose BN(x) a neighbourhood base of x, then

- 1.  $\mathcal{B}$  converges to x iff every set in BN(x) includes a set in  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- 2.  $x \in \overline{\mathcal{B}}$  iff every set in BN(x) meets every set in  $\mathcal{B}$ .

As consequence, we have

**Corollary 2.1.** x is adherent to a filter  $\mathcal{F}$  iff there is  $\mathcal{F}' \supset \mathcal{F}$  and converges to x

*Proof.*  $\Longrightarrow$  follows from taking  $\mathcal{F} = BN(x)$ . Conversely,  $\forall N \in BN(x)$ , we have  $X' \subset N$  for some  $X' \in \mathcal{F}'$ , thus for any  $X \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $N \cap X \subset X' \cap X \neq \emptyset$  as  $X', X \in \mathcal{F}'$ .

Corollary 2.2. Every limit point of  $\mathcal{F}$  is adherent to  $\mathcal{F}$ 

*Proof.* Clearly holds by applying theorem 2.10.1 and 2.10.2.

Corollary 2.3. Every adherent point of an ultra-filter is a limit point of it.

*Proof.* Clearly as kernel of ultrafilter is a one point set.  $\Box$ 

Suppose  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to(\Omega',\tau')$ , a point  $x'\in\Omega'$  is called

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- 1. a **limit point** of f relative to  $\mathcal{F}$  if  $f(\mathcal{F}) \to x$ .
- 2. an adherent point of f relative  $\mathcal{F}$  if it's adherent point of  $f(\mathcal{F})$ .

**Theorem 2.11.** Suppose  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to(\Omega',\tau')$ 

- 1. x' is a limit point of f relative to  $\mathcal{F}$  iff for any  $\tau'$  neighbourhood  $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x')$ , we have  $f^{-1}(N') \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- 2. x' is an adherent point of f relative to  $\mathcal{F}$  iff for any  $\tau'$  neighbourhood  $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x')$ , it meets f(X) for any  $X \in \mathcal{F}$ .

*Proof.* x' is limit is equivalent to

$$\mathcal{N}(x') \subset f(\mathcal{F})^{\uparrow}$$

That is, there exist some  $A = f(X) \subset N'$  for any N', followed by  $X \subset f^{-1}f(X) \subset f^{-1}(N')$ , then the claim follows from the definition of filter.

By theorem 2.10, x' is adherent to  $f(\mathcal{F})$  iff

$$\forall N' \in BN(x'), \forall X \in \mathcal{F}, f(X) \cap N' \neq \emptyset$$

note for any  $N' \in N'(x')$ , there exist  $N' \in BN(x') \ni N' \subset N'$ , thus  $f(X) \cap N' \neq \emptyset$  also holds. Conversely, making use of  $BN(x') \subset N'(x')$ .

For example, suppose  $f:(\mathbb{N},\tau)\to (\Omega',\tau')$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  the frechet filter on  $\mathbb{N}$ . Then x' is limit of f relative to  $\mathcal{F}$  iff for all  $N'\in N'(x'), f^{-1}(N')\in \mathcal{F} \iff f^{-1}(N')^c\subset [0,k] \iff f^{-1}(N')\supset \{n\in\mathbb{N}:n\geq k\}$  for some k, that is,  $f(n)\in N'$  for any  $n\geq k$ .

**Theorem 2.12.** Suppose  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to (\Omega',\tau')$  and let  $\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{N}(x)$ . By theorm g,x' is limit of f relative to  $\mathcal{N}(x)$  iff for all  $N'\in \mathcal{N}(x')$ ,  $f^{-1}(N')\in \mathcal{N}(x)\Longleftrightarrow N\subset f^{-1}(N')\iff f(N)\subset N'$  for some  $N\in \mathcal{N}(x)$ . That is, iff x'=f(x), f is continous at x. Such limit points also called limit points of f at x.

#### 2.7 Net

 $(D, \preceq)$  is called a **directed set** if every couple  $\{x, y\}$  in which has an upper bound.

If  $\{D_i\}_{i\in I}$  is family of directed set then  $D=\prod_{i\in I}D_i$  is also directed under **product direction** defined by  $(a_i)_{i\in I}\succeq (b_i)_{i\in I}$  for all  $i\in I$ .

**Definition 2.7.** Let  $(D, \preceq)$  be a directed set,  $\nu : D \to \Omega$  is called a **net** in  $\Omega$  with domain D. The directed set is called **index set** of the net and members of D are **indexes**. We often write  $\nu$  as x. or  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$ .

Suppose A a subset of  $\Omega$ , we say x. **eventually in** A if there exist some  $k \in D$  s.t.  $x_n \in A$  for all  $n \succeq k$ . And we say  $\nu$  is **frequently** in A if for all  $n \in D$ , there exist an  $n' \succeq n$  s.t.  $x_{n'} \in A$ .

**Lemma 2.13.** If x, not frequently in A, then x, eventually in  $A^c$ . Thus, for any  $X \in \Omega$ , x, frequently in either X or  $X^c$ .

Suppose  $x \in \Omega$ , then x is said **converge** to x, or  $x \to x$  if x eventually in N for all  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{F}(x)$ . The point x is **adherent** to x if x frequently in N for all  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ .

**Theorem 2.13.** Suppose  $A \in (\Omega, \tau)$ , then  $x \in \overline{A}$  iff it's the limit of some net in the set.

*Proof.*  $\Leftarrow$  is clear.  $\Rightarrow$  follows from we may find a associated net taking value in A(since each neighborhood meets A) and such net converges to x.  $\square$ 

As with sequence, if x is bounded, there is

$$\liminf x = \sup \inf x \le \limsup x = \inf \sup x$$

Subnet generalizes subsequence.

**Definition 2.8.** Suppose D is directed, a subset B of D is called **cofinal** if for any  $a \in D$ , there exist  $b \in B$  s.t.  $a \leq b$ . A map  $f : D \to A$  is **final** if f(D) is cofinal of A.

Let x, and x' are two nets in  $\Omega$  with domains D and D' respectively. We say that x' is a **subnet** of x, if there exists a final mapping  $\varphi: D' \to D$  s.t.  $x'_{\alpha} = x_{\varphi(\alpha)}$ .

**Theorem 2.14.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a collection of subsets that x. is frequently in. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is closed under finite intersection, then there exists a subnet x'. of x. and x.' eventually in every member of  $\mathcal{A}$ 

**Lemma 2.14.** Suppose x.' is subnet of x., we have

- 1.  $x. \to x \implies x.' \to x$
- 2. x adherent to x.'  $\implies x$  adherent to x..

**Theorem 2.15.** A point x is adherent to x. iff there is a subnet converges to x. While  $x \to x$  iff every subnet converges to x.

*Proof.*  $\Longrightarrow$  is clear by lemma 2.14. Conversely, suppose a is not adherent to x, there exist a neighborhood N that x. not frequently in, i.e., exist k s.t.  $x_n \notin N$  for any  $n \geq k$ , thus there is no subnet eventually in N.

For the second part,  $\implies$  is also clear by lemma 2.14 and  $\iff$  comes from taking subnet as itself.

A net x is called **ultranet** or **universal net** if for all  $X \in \Omega$ , we have either x eventually in X or x eventually in  $X^c$ . Clearly, subnet of ultranet is ultra and

Lemma 2.15. Every net has a ultra subnet.

*Proof.* Consider collection of  $\mathcal{Q}$  s.t. x. is frequently in every member and closed under finite intersection. By Zorn's Lemma, there is a maximal  $\mathcal{Q}_0$ . By theorem 11, x. has a subnet x.' which eventually in every member of  $\mathcal{Q}_0$ . We claim that this subnet is ultra since,  $\mathcal{Q}_0$  is maximal and thus either  $X \in \mathcal{Q}_0$  or  $X^c \in \mathcal{Q}_0$ .  $\square$ 

### 2.8 Nets and filters

Let

$$\mathcal{F}(x.) = \{X \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega) : x. \text{ is eventually in } X\}$$

Then  $\mathcal{F}(x)$  is a filter and we call it the filter associated with the net x..

Theorem 2.16. Associated filter is the upward closure of the net's tail, that is

$$\mathcal{F}(x.) = \{ \{ x_b : b \succeq a \} : a \in D \}$$

Motivated by the definition of filter that filter is closed under pairwise intersection, let  $X \leq Y \iff X \supset Y$ , then any mapping  $\nu : \mathcal{F} \to \Omega$  s.t.  $\nu(X) \in X$  is a **net associated with the filter**  $\mathcal{F}$ .

By definition, we claim that  $\mathcal{F}$  is the associated filter of every associated net and x. is an associated net of the associated fiter.

**Theorem 2.17.** Filter  $\mathcal{F} \to x$  iff  $x. \to x$  for any x. associated with  $\mathcal{F}$ .

Proof. Note

$$\forall N \in \mathcal{N}(x), x$$
. eventually in  $N \iff \mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{F}(x)$ .

Then is sufficient to show that  $\mathcal{F}(x.) = \mathcal{F}$ . It's follows from for any  $X \in \mathcal{F}$ , x. eventually in X.

Theorem 2.18.

$$x. \to x \iff \mathcal{F}(x.) \to x$$

*Proof.* Both side is equivalent to  $\mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{F}(x)$ 

**Theorem 2.19.** Suppose  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to (\Omega',\tau')$ , then f is continous at x iff  $\forall x.\to x,\ f(x.)\to f(x)$ .

*Proof.* By theorem 2.18,2.17 and 2.12.

By above theorems, we have

$$Adh(\mathcal{F}(x.)) = Adh(x.), Lim(\mathcal{F}(x.)) = Lim(x.)$$

and similarly results holds for any filter and one of associated nets.

**Lemma 2.16.** If x, is ultra then the associated filter  $\mathcal{F}(x)$  is also ultra and if  $\mathcal{F}$  is ultra, every associated net is ultra.

*Proof.* Directly from theorm 2.5.

### 2.9 Separation

**Definition 2.9.** Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be  $T_0$  or **kolmogorov** if for every pair  $(x, y) \in \Omega^2$ , either there exist  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$  s.t.  $y \notin N$  or  $N \in \mathcal{N}(y)$  s.t.  $x \notin N$ .

**Lemma 2.17.**  $\tau$  isn't  $T_0$  iff there exist pair (x, y), s.t:

- 1.  $\underline{\mathcal{N}(x)} = \underline{\mathcal{N}}(y)$ .
- $2. \ \overline{\{x\}} = \overline{\{y\}}.$

*Proof.* 1 If every  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$  contains y, then  $N \in \mathcal{N}(y) \implies \mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{N}(y)$ , thus  $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$ .

2 If some point  $a \in \overline{\{x\}}$ , then every  $N \in \mathcal{N}(a)$  also is neighborhood of x and thus neighborhood of y, hence  $a \in \overline{\{y\}}$ .

**Definition 2.10.** Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be  $T_1$  or **Frechet** if for every pair  $(x, y) \in \Omega^2$ , there exist  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$  s.t.  $y \notin N$  and  $N \in \mathcal{N}(y)$  s.t.  $x \notin N$ .

**Theorem 2.20.** Following statements are equivalent:

- 1.  $\tau$  is  $T_1$ .
- 2. Singetons are closed.
- 3.  $\ker \mathcal{N}(x) = \{x\} \text{ holds for any } x \in \Omega.$

*Proof.* 1  $\implies$  2 If there exist a singeton  $\{x\}$  not closed, there is  $y \in \overline{\{x\}}$ , hence every neighborhood of y contains x, contradiction.

 $2 \implies 3$  Suppose  $\ker \mathcal{N}(x)$  contains y differ x, that implies any neighborhood of x contains y and contradict z.

 $3 \implies 1$  is straightforward.

**Lemma 2.18.** Suppose  $(\Omega, \tau)$  with a finite base is  $T_1$ , then  $\Omega$  is finite and  $\tau$  is discrete.

**Definition 2.11.** A topology  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is  $T_2$ , or **Hausdorff** or **separated** if every pair  $(x, y) \in \Omega^2$ , there exist  $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$  and  $V \in \mathcal{N}(y)$  s.t.  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 2.21.** Following statements are equivalent:

- 1.  $\tau$  is  $T_2$ .
- 2. Intersection of family of closed neighborhoods of x is x.
- 3. If a filter(net) converges to some point x, then  $Adh(\mathcal{F}) = \{x\}$
- 4. Every net(filter) converges to at most one point.

*Proof.* 1  $\implies$  2 For any pair (x,y), by definition, there is  $y \notin \overline{U}$ , hence intersection of family of closed neighborhoods of x can only contains x.

 $2 \implies 3$  follows from a point adherent to a filter converges to x must be in every closed neighborhood of x.

 $3 \implies 4$  is clearly.

 $4 \implies 1$  If there is a net x. converges to both x and y, then  $\mathcal{N}(x) \subset \mathcal{F}(x)$  and  $\mathcal{N}(y) \subset \mathcal{F}(x)$ , that is, U and V meets for any  $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$  and  $V \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ .

**Definition 2.12.** Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be  $T_{2.5}$  or **Completely Hausdorff** if for every pair  $(x, y) \in \Omega^2$ , there exist  $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$  and  $V \in \mathcal{N}(y)$  s.t.  $\overline{U} \cap \overline{V} = \emptyset$ .

Two nonempty sets are called **separated by open sets** if they are included in disjoint open sets, and they are **separated by continuous functions** if there is continuous f taking values in [0,1] and assign 0 on one set and 1 on the other.

Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  are said to be **regular** if every singeton and any closed A disjoint from it can be separated by open sets.

**Definition 2.13.** Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be  $T_3$  if it's  $T_1$  and regular.

Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  are said to **Completely regular** if every singeton and any closed A disjoint from it can be separated by continous function.

**Definition 2.14.** Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be  $T_{3.5}$  or **Tychonoff space** if it's  $T_1$  and completely regular.

**Theorem 2.22** (Tychonoff's Embedding Theorem). Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is  $T_{3.5}$  iff it's homeomorphic to a subspace of  $([0,1]^n, \tau_{d_{i,1}})$ .

Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be **normal** if two disjoint closed subsets can be separated by open sets.

**Definition 2.15.** Space  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is said to be  $T_4$  if it's normal and  $T_1$ .

Theorem 2.23 (Urysohn's Lemma). Following statements are equivalent:

- 1.  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is normal.
- 2. For any  $U \in \tau$  and any closed  $A \subset U$ , there is a  $U' \in \tau$  s.t.  $A \subset U'$  and  $\overline{U'} \subset U$ .
- 3. Every two disjoint closed subsets can be separated by continous function.

*Proof.* 1  $\implies$  2 Apply normal property to A and  $U^c$ , there is a U' include A and V include  $U^c$ , as  $U' \cap V = \emptyset \implies U' \subset V^c \implies \overline{U'} \subset V^c \subset U$ .

 $2 \implies 3$  Suppose A and B are two disjoint closed subset, apply 2 to A and  $U_1 = B^c$  we have  $A \subset U_0$  and  $\overline{U_0} \subset U_1$ . Apply again for  $\overline{U_0}$  and  $U_1$  to generates  $U_0 \subset U_{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $\overline{U_{\frac{1}{2}}} \subset U_1$ , repeat such process, that is, apply 2 to  $\overline{U_{\frac{j}{2^k}}}$  and  $U_{\frac{j+1}{2^k}}$  to generates  $U_{\frac{2j+1}{2^{k+1}}}$ . Finally, we construct a open strictly increasing squence  $U_r$ . where r is any dyadic rational in [0,1], i.e.,  $r \in DR \cap [0,1]$ .

Then define f as

$$f = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in B \\ \inf\{r : x \in U_r\} & x \in B^c \end{cases}$$

Then it's sufficient to show that f is continuous. Note subspace [0,1] of  $\mathbb R$  can be generated by collection of [0,s) and (t,1] and

$$\begin{split} f^{-1}[0,s) &= \bigcup_{r \in DR \cap [0,s)} U_r \\ f^{-1}(t,1] &= \bigcup_{r \in DR \cap (t,1]} \overline{U_r}^c \end{split}$$

Then the claim follows from lemma 2.8.

 $3 \implies 1$  By taking any disjoint open set A contains 0 and B contains 1 and looking  $f^{-1}(A)$  and  $f^{-1}(B)$ .

**Theorem 2.24** (Tietze's Extension Theorem). Let  $(\Omega, \tau)$  be normal, F any closed subset and I any bounded closed interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then any continous  $f: F \to I$  can be extended to  $f': \Omega \to I$  and remain continous.

*Proof.* Suppose I=[-1,1], then  $A=f^{-1}[-1,-\frac{1}{3}]$  and  $f^{-1}[\frac{1}{3},1]$  are disjoint and closed. By Urysohn's Lemma, there is  $g:\Omega\to[-\frac{1}{3},\frac{1}{3}]$  s.t.  $g(A)=\{-\frac{1}{3}\}$  and  $g(B)=\frac{1}{3}$ . Set  $f_0=f,g_0=g,f_1=f-g|_F$ . Then we can show that  $|f_1|$  is bounded by  $\frac{2}{3}$ .

Repeat such process, we have series of

$$\begin{split} f_n: F &\to [-(\frac{2}{3})^n, (\frac{2}{3})^n] \\ g_n: E &\to [-\frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^n, \frac{1}{3}(\frac{2}{3})^n] \\ f_{n+1} &= (f_n - g_n)|_F \end{split}$$

Then we show that  $g = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} g_i$  is the extension of f. That is g is continuous and f = g in F. Note for any x

$$|\sum_{i=m}^{n} g_i(x)| \le \sum_{i=m}^{n} |g_i(x)| \le \sum_{i=m}^{n} \frac{1}{3} (\frac{2}{3})^i \le (\frac{2}{3})^m \to 0$$

Thus  $\{\sum_{i=0}^n g_i\}_{n=0}^\infty$  converges uniformly by Cauchy's criterion, followed by g is continuous. And f=g on F follows from

$$|f(x) - \sum_{i=0}^n g_i(x)| = |f_0(x) - \sum_{i=0}^n g_i(x)| = |f_1(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n g_i(x)| = |f_{n+1}(x)| \leq (\frac{2}{3})^{n+1} \to 0$$

## 2.10 Compatness

A **cover** of a set K is collection of sets whose union includes K. A **subcover** is subcollection of a cover and also covers K. K is **compact** if every open cover has a finite subcover and called **relatively compact** if it's closure is comapct.

A topology  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is **compact** if  $\Omega$  is compact and **locally compact** if every point has a compact neighborhood. A subset  $A \in \Omega$ .

**Theorem 2.25.** Let  $(\Omega, \tau)$  be a space,  $A \subset \Omega$  is compact iff any collection  $\mathcal{F}_A$  of closed sets in subspace  $\tau_A$  with the finite intersection property have  $\ker \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathcal{F}_A = \{F \cap A : F \in \mathcal{F}\}$ , then

$$\ker \mathcal{F}_A = \bigcap_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F \cap A = \emptyset \iff \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} (F^c \cup A^c) = \Omega \iff \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F^c \supset A$$

As finite intersection property,  $\mathcal{I}$  any finite subfaimily.

$$\bigcap_{F\in\mathcal{I}}F\cap A\supset\emptyset\iff\bigcup_{F\in\mathcal{I}}(F^c\cup A^c)\subset\Omega\iff\bigcup_{F\in\mathcal{I}}F^c\subset A$$

where the inclusion is proper. That is, open cover  $\bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F^c \supset A$  can not have a finite subcover and thus A isn't compact.

**Theorem 2.26.** Let  $(\Omega, \tau)$  be a space, following are equivalent.

- 1.  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is compact.
- 2. Every filter(net) has at least one adherent point.
- 3. Every ultrafilter(ultranet) converges.

*Proof.*  $1 \implies 2$  Suppose filter  $\mathcal{F}$ , then

$$\{\overline{F}:F\in\mathcal{F}\}$$

enjoy finite intersection property by definition, then  $\overline{F}$  has at least one adherent point since  $\ker\{\overline{F}:F\in\mathcal{F}\}=\overline{\mathcal{F}}\neq\emptyset$  by theorem 2.25.

 $2 \implies 3$  Clearly by corollary 2.3.

 $3 \Longrightarrow 1$  Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  a family of closed subsets with finite intersection property. Then the filter generates by  $\mathcal{A}$  has an ultrafilter with a limit point x. Note x is also adherent to  $\mathcal{U}$  and thus adherent to  $\mathcal{F}$ , followed by  $x \in A$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , hence  $\ker \mathcal{A} \supset \{x\}$ . Then the claim follows from theorem 2.25.

**Theorem 2.27.** Let  $(\Omega, \tau)$  be Hausdorff, then every compact subset and disjoint singelton can be separated by open sets. In particular, compact subset is closed.

*Proof.* Suppose  $F \subset \Omega$  is compact, for any  $x \in \Omega$  not in F, by Hausdorff, there is  $x \notin U_y$  and  $y \notin V_y$ . Then  $\bigcup_{y \in F} U_y$  cover F, there is subcover  $U = \bigcup_i^n U_{y_i}$  and  $V = \bigcup_i^n V_{y_i}$  selected from the same family separated F and  $\{x\}$ .

**Theorem 2.28.** Closed subset is compact in compact topological space.

*Proof.* Note any open cover of F plus  $F^c$  become a open cover of  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 2.29.** Let  $(\Omega, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then  $\Omega$  is compact iff for every collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of closed sets having FIP, then  $\ker \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* Taking contrapositive:

$$\neg \ker \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset \equiv \ker \mathcal{F} = \emptyset \equiv \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F^c = \Omega$$

and

$$\neg \forall \bigcap_{i}^{n} F_{i} = \emptyset \equiv \exists \bigcup_{i}^{n} F_{i}^{c} = \Omega$$

note that's pricesly the definition of compactness.

**Theorem 2.30.** Every compact Hausdorff space is normal.

*Proof.* Suppose A and B are closed and thus comapct by theorem 2.28. For any point  $x \in A$ , there exist disjoint  $V_x \supset B$  and  $x \in U_x$  by theorem 2.27. Note  $\bigcup_{x \in A} U_x$  cover A, there exist subcover  $U = \bigcup_i^n U_{x_i} \supset A$  and  $V = \bigcap_i^n V_{x_i} \supset B$  separated A and B.

**Theorem 2.31.** Suppose  $f:(\Omega,\tau)\to(\Omega',\tau')$  is continous, then f(A) is compact if A is compact.

*Proof.* For any open cover of f(A):

$$\bigcup G_i \supset f(A) \implies f^{-1}(\bigcup G_i) = \bigcup f^{-1}(G_i) \supset f^{-1}f(A) \supset A$$

Thus there exist subcover s.t.

$$\cup_1^n f^{-1}(G_i) = f^{-1}(\cup_1^n G_i) \supset A \implies \cup_1^n G_i \supset ff^{-1}(\cup_1^n G_i) \supset f(A)$$

which shows that f(A) is compact.

As consequence:

**Corollary 2.4** (Extreme value theorem). A continous real valued function defined on a compact space achieves its maximum and minimum values.

**Theorem 2.32.** Let  $(\Omega, \tau)$  be compact and  $(\Omega', \tau')$  be housdorff and  $f : (\Omega, \tau) \to (\Omega', \tau')$  is continuous bijection. Then f is homeomorphism.

*Proof.* It's sufficient to show that f(F) is closed as lemma 2.9. Note F is closed and thus compact as theorem 2.28 then f(F) is compact as theorem 2.31 and thus closed by theorem 2.27.

A subset A of a topological space is **sequentially compact** if every sequence in A has a subsequence converging to an element of A. A topological space is sequentially compact if itself is a sequentially compact set.

### 2.11 Semicontinuous

 $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}^*$  is

- lower semicontinuous if for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , the set  $\{x \in \Omega : f(x) \leq c\}$  is closed
- upper semicontinuous if for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , the set  $\{x \in \Omega : f(x) \ge c\}$  is closed.

Clearly f is lower semicontinuous iff -f is upper and vice versa. Also, f is continuous iff it's both upper and lower semicontinuous.

**Lemma 2.19.** Suppose  $\{f_i\}_{i\in I}$  is family of lower(upper) semicontinuous function then  $\sup f_i(\inf f_i)$  is lower(upper) semicontinuous.

Proof. Note

$$\{x\in\Omega:\sup f_i(x)\leq c\}=\bigcap_{i\in I}\{x\in\Omega:f_i(x)\leq c\}$$

is closed.  $\Box$ 

Lemma 2.20.  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^*$  is

• lower semicontinuous iff for any net

$$x. \to x \implies \liminf f(x.) \ge f(x)$$

• upper semicontinuous iff for any net

$$x. \to x \implies \limsup f(x.) \le f(x)$$

*Proof.* Suppos f is lower semicontinuous and  $x. \to x$ . For any c < f(x), then  $G = \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega)c\}$  is open and thus x. eventually in, that is x.c ecventually and thus  $\liminf f(x.) \ge c$ . This implies that  $\liminf f(x.) \ge f(x)$ .

Conversely, for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , consider  $F = \{\omega \in \Omega : f(\omega) \leq c\}$ . Then we show that F is closed. Suppos x. is nets in F and converges to some  $x \in \Omega$ . Then  $c \geq \liminf f(x) \geq f(x)$  thus x in F and thus F is closed.

Then we can gennerlizes Weierstrass' Theorem in corollary 2.4.

**Theorem 2.33.**  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^*$  on a compact set attains a minimum(maximum) value and set of minima(maxima) is compact if it's lower(upper) semicontinuous.

*Proof.* Supoose X is compact and f is lower semicontinous, then for every  $c \in f(X)$ ,  $F_c = \{x \in X : f(x) \le c\}$  is closed and  $\{F_c : c \in f(X)\}$  has FIP clearly. Note X is compact,  $\ker\{F_c : c \in f(X)\}$  is nonempty by 2.29. That is just the set of minimas and it's compact since it's closed.

## 2.12 Comparing topologies

We list some useful properies when comparing topologies, some of them has been mentioned before and proof omitted.

**Lemma 2.21.** Suppose  $\tau'$  and  $\tau$  are two tologies on  $\Omega$ , then the following are equivalent.

1. 
$$\tau' \subset \tau$$

- 2. Identity mapping  $I: x \mapsto x$  from  $(\Omega, \tau)$  to  $(\Omega', \tau')$  is continous.
- 3.  $\tau'$  closed set is closed in  $\tau$ .
- $\begin{array}{ll} \text{4. } x. \stackrel{\tau}{\rightarrow} x \implies x. \stackrel{\tau'}{\rightarrow} x \\ \text{5. } Cl_{\tau}(A) \subset Cl_{\tau'}(A) \end{array}$

Lemma 2.22. Suppose  $\tau' \subset \tau$ , then

- 1. Every  $\tau$  compact set is  $\tau'$  compact.
- 2. Every  $\tau'$  continous function is  $\tau$  continous.
- 3. Every  $\tau$  dense set is  $\tau'$  dense.

#### 2.13Weak topology

Suppose  $\{(Y_i, \tau_i)\}_{i \in I}$  a family of topological space and  $f_i : X \to Y_{i_{i \in I}}$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the set of all the topologies s.t.  $f_i$  is continuous for all i. We call  $\cap \mathcal{F}$ , i.e., the corest topology the induced topology or weak topology or initial topology on X by  $\{f_i\}_{i\in I}$ . The topology induced by  $\{f_i\}_{i\in I}$  is generated by

$$\mathcal{S} = \{f_i^{-1}(G_i) : G_i \in \tau_i\}$$

or

$$\mathcal{S} = \{ f_i^{-1}(G_i) : G_i \in \mathcal{S}_i \}$$

where  $\mathcal{S}_i$  is a subbase for  $\tau_i$ .

**Lemma 2.23.** A net  $x. \to x$  in the weak topology iff  $f_i(x.) \to f_i(x)$  for each i.

*Proof.*  $\implies$  is immediately. Conversely, noting sets of the form  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} f_i^{-1}(V_i)$ consist a neighborhood base.

**Theorem 2.34.** g is  $(\tau', \tau)$  continuous iff  $f_i \circ g$  continuous for each  $f_i$ . Where  $\tau$  is  $\tau(S)$  in above theorem.

*Proof.*  $\implies$  is immediately.  $\iff$ , suppose  $G \in \tau$ , by above theorem, this implies

$$G = \bigcup_I \cap_F X = \bigcup_I \cap_F f_i^{-1}(G_i)$$

thus  $g^{-1}(G)$  is open since  $f\circ g^{-1}$  is continuous and thus  $g^{-1}(G)=\cup_I\cap_F g^{-1}f^{-1}(G)=\cup_I\cap_F (f\circ g)^{-1}(G).$ 

If the family  $\mathcal{F}$  consists of real function on X, the weak topology is denoted  $\sigma(X,\mathcal{F})$ . A subbase for  $\sigma(X,\mathcal{F})$  consist of

$$U(f, x, \epsilon) = f^{-1}(B(f(x), \epsilon)) = \{ y \in X : |f(y) - f(x)| < \epsilon \}$$

where  $f \in \mathcal{F}, x \in X, \epsilon > 0$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is said **total** if  $\forall f \in \mathcal{F}, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ .  $\sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$  is Hausdorff iff  $\mathcal{F}$  is total.

Lemma 2.24. Let A be a subset, then

$$\sigma(A, \mathcal{F}|_A) = (A, \sigma(X, \mathcal{F})|_A)$$

*Proof.* Nets converges in  $(A, \sigma(X, \mathcal{F})|_A)$  also converges in  $(X, \sigma(X, \mathcal{F}))$ , that is  $\forall f, f_i(x) \to x$ , and thus the same as nets converges in  $\sigma(A, \mathcal{F}|_A)$ . That implies identical mapping is a homeoporphism since  $x \to x \iff I(x) \to I(x)$ .

The weak topology generated by C(X) is also generated by  $C_b(X)$  by noting for any  $f \in C(X)$ ,

$$g(y) = \min\{f(x) + \epsilon, \max\{f(x) - \epsilon, f(y)\}\}$$

is boundeb by  $B(f(x), \epsilon)$  and  $U(g, x, \epsilon) = U(f, x, \epsilon)$ .

**Theorem 2.35.** (X, ) is completely regular iff  $\tau = \sigma(X, C(X))$ 

Suppose  $\tau = \sigma(X, \mathcal{F})$  and is compelely regurlar, then we claim that  $\mathcal{F} = C(X)$ .

## 2.14 Product topology

Let  $((\Omega_i, \tau_i))_{i \in I}$  be family of topological spaces, let  $\Omega = \prod_{i \in I} \Omega_i$  and  $\pi_i$  be projection mappings from  $\Omega$  to  $\Omega_i$ . The topology  $\tau$  induced by  $(\pi_i)_{i \in I}$  is called **product topology** on  $\Omega$  and denoted by  $\prod_{i \in I} \tau_i$ .  $(\Omega, \tau)$  is called **topological product**. A subbase of this topology is all the sets of the form  $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$  where  $X_i = \Omega_i$  for all i but one is arbitary open set.

**Lemma 2.25.** Suppose  $G \in \prod \tau_i$ , then  $\pi_i(G) = \Omega_i$  except a finite set in I.

*Proof.* By definition,

$$G = \bigcup_I \bigcap_F (\prod_{i \in I} X_i)$$

where  $X_i = \Omega_i$  for all i but one. Note there is a finitely intersection, that is

$$G = \bigcup_I (\prod_{i \in I} X_i)$$

where  $X_i = \Omega_i$  for all i but finite exception.

Thus, $\{(x_i^{\alpha})\}_{\{i\in I\}}$  in X converges to some  $(x_i)_{i\in I}$  iff its every components converges to the components respectly. A function is called **jointly continuous** if it's continuous w.r.t the product topology.

**Theorem 2.36** (Closed Graph Theorem). Function  $f:(X,\tau)\to (Y,\tau)$  where Y is compact Hausdorff is continuous iff its graph Gr f is closed.

*Proof.*  $\Longrightarrow$  . For any net  $(x,y) \to (x,y)$ , we show that  $(x,y) \in \operatorname{Gr} f$ . Note  $f(x) = y \to y$ , also,  $f(x) \to f(x)$  by continuity. It follows by f(x) = y since Hausdorff and we finished.

 $\Leftarrow$ . Since Y is compact and Hausdorff, f(x) converges to precisely one point and denoted as y. As Gr f is closed, y = f(x) and hence f is continuous.

Suppose  $A_i$  is subset of each i, then

$$\mathop{\mathrm{Cl}}_{\tau}(\prod A_i) = \prod (\mathop{\mathrm{Cl}}_{\tau_i}(A_i))$$

Thus we have a alternative definition of semicontinuous:

$$f: X \to \mathbb{R}^*$$
 is

- lower semicontinuous iff its epigraph  $\{(x,c):c\geq f(x)\}$  is closed.
- upper semicontinuous iff its hypograph  $\{(x,c):c\leq f(x)\}$  is closed.

## 2.15 Coinduced topology

Suppose  $\{(\Omega_i, \mathcal{T}_i)\}_{i \in I}$  a family of topological space and  $\{f_i : (\Omega_i, \mathcal{T}_i) \to (\Omega, \tau)\}_{i \in I}$ . Let A be the set of all the topologies s.t.  $f_i$  is continuous for all i. We call the finest of A topology coinduced on  $\Omega$  by  $\{(f_i)\}_{i \in I}$ .

## 2.16 Quotient topology

Let R an equivalence relation on  $\Omega$ ,  $\eta:\Omega\to\Omega/R$  the canonical surjection. The coinduced topology on  $\Omega/R$  by  $\eta$  is denoted by  $\tau/R$  and  $(\Omega/R,\tau/R)$  is the quotient space w.r.t R.