Notes of Infinite dimensional analysis

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Chapter 1

Odds and ends

1.1 Space of sequences

Definition 1.1. For $1 \leq p < \infty$, ℓ_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 ℓ_p norm of the sequences.

While ℓ_{∞} is defined as the set of all $\sup\{|x_n|\} \leq \infty$, such norm is called ℓ_{∞} 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 φ . 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 μ 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_{∞} 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 Ω , then Ω is said to be **inductivelt 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 (Ω, \preceq) satisfy

- 1. (Ω, \preceq) is weel ordered.
- 2. Ω has a greast element ω_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 Ω 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 ω_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 ω_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 Ω are called **ordinals** and ω_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 Ω . 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 Ω_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 Ω be as space

Definition 2.1. A class of subset τ of Ω is an topology if

- 1. \emptyset and Ω belongs to τ .
- 2. closed under arbitrary union.
- 3. closed under finite intersection.

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

Definition 2.2. Countable intersection of open sets is \mathcal{G}_{σ} set and countable union of closed sets is \mathcal{F}_{δ} set.

Following is some examples of topological space.

Definition 2.3. (X, ρ) is a **semimetric space**, when ρ 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. $\rho(x,y) \le \rho(x,z) + \rho(z,y)$

 ρ is called a **semimetric**.

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

U is **open** in (Ω, d) iff $\forall x \in U, \exists r_x 0 \ni B_d(x, r_x) \subseteq U$. Let τ_d be the set of all open subsets of Ω , we call τ_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^∞} 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 Ω is poset with greatest element $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ and least $\{\emptyset, \Omega\}$. If $\tau' \subset \tau$, we say τ' coarser than τ while τ finer than τ' .

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

Theorem 2.1. \mathcal{B} is a base in (X, τ) 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 Ω , formally:

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

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

For any subset X in (Ω, τ) , then

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

form a topology in X and we call (X, τ_X) a subspace or relative topology. Sets in τ_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 τ 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° . 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 ω **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° are precisely all the interior points of A and \overline{A} are precisely all the adherent points. ∂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 (Ω, τ) is **first countable** if every point of Ω has countable neighborhood base. The space is said **separable** if Ω 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 (Ω, τ) and (Ω', τ') are two spaces and f is a mapping from Ω to Ω' 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 Ω' .
- 2. $f^{-1}(F')$ is closed for every closed subset F' of Ω' .
- 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 $S\in\mathcal{S}.$

 (Ω,τ) and (Ω',τ') 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 $f(F)^c \in \tau$.

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 τ' 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 τ' is finer than any τ_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 Ω 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 τ . A **free filter** is filter with ker $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$. Not free filters are called **fixed**.

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

Definition 2.6. A collection \mathcal{B} of subset in Ω 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 Ω , 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 Ω is infinite, the collection of all **cofinite** subsets(subset s with finite complement) is a filter on Ω , 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 filter \mathcal{F} is **finer** than anoter \mathcal{G} if $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{G}$.

Lemma 2.11. The set of all filters on Ω is inductively ordered by inclusion.

By Zorn's lemma, the set of all filters has maximal filters and we call such fliters ultrafilters.

Lemma 2.12. 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

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

then A is an ultrafilter on Ω .

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} .

Proof. We claim that

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

Suppose mappings on a filter:

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

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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 Ω' , then $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}')$ is a base on Ω 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

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

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 2.13. Suppose A be a subset of Ω , 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. $x \in \mathcal{B}$ 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 kernal of ultrafilter is a one point set. \Box

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

- 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 τ' 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 τ' neighbourhood $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x')$, it meets f(X) for any $X \in \mathcal{F}$.

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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 $N'\in \mathcal{N}(x'), f^{-1}(N')\in \mathcal{N}(x) \iff N\subset f^{-1}(N') \iff f(N)\subset N'$ 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 Ω with domain D. The directed set is called **index set** of the net and members of D are **indexes**. We often write ν as x. or $\{x_{\alpha}\}$.

Suppose A a subset of Ω , 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 ν is **frequently** in A if for all $n \in D$, there exist an $n' \succeq n$ s.t. $x_{n'} \in A$.

Lemma 2.14. 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

 $\lim \inf x = \sup \inf x \le \lim \sup x = \inf \sup x$

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 Ω 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 2.15. 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 o x iff every subnet converges to x.

Proof. \Longrightarrow is clear by lemma 2.15. 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 2.15 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 2.16. 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 continuous at x iff $\forall x.\to x,\ f(x.)\to f(x)$.

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 2.17. 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.

2.9 Separation

Definition 2.9. Space (Ω, τ) 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 2.18. τ 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 (Ω, τ) 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. τ 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 $y \in \{x\}$, hence every neighborhood of y contains x, contradiction.

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

 $3 \implies 1$ is straightforward.

Lemma 2.19. Suppose (Ω, τ) with a finite base is T_1 , then Ω is finite and τ is discrete.

Definition 2.11. A topology (Ω, τ) 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. τ 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 $V \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. \square

Definition 2.12. Space (Ω, τ) 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 (Ω, τ) 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 (Ω, τ) is said to be T_3 if it's T_0 and regular.

Space (Ω, τ) 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 (Ω, τ) 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 (Ω, τ) is $T_{3.5}$ iff it's homeomorphic to a subspace of $([0,1]^n, \tau_{d,1})$.

Space (Ω, τ) is said to be **normal** if two disjoint closed subsets can be separated by open sets.

Definition 2.15. Space (Ω, τ) is said to be T_4 if it's normal and T_1 .

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

- 1. (Ω, τ) 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 $U_1 = B^c$ and we have $A \subset U_0$ and $\overline{U_0} \subset U_1$. Apply again for $\overline{U_0}$ and U_1 and we have $U_0 \subset U_{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $\overline{U_{\frac{1}{2}}} \subset U_1$, that is, apply 2 to $\overline{U_{\frac{j}{2^k}}}$ and $U_{\frac{j+1}{2^k}}$ to generates $U_{\frac{2j+1}{2^{k+1}}}$, repeat such process and we construct a open squence U_r . where r is any dyadic rational $r \in DR$.

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 continous. Note subbase [0,1] can be generated by collection of [0,s) and (t,1] and

$$f^{-1}[0,s) = \bigcup_{r \in DR \cap [0,s)} U_r$$

$$f^{-1}(t,1] = \bigcup_{r \in DR \cap (t,1]} \overline{U_r}^c$$

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 $f^{-1}(B)$.

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. A topology (Ω, τ) is locally compact if every point $x \in \Omega$ has a compact neighborhood.6,A topology (Ω, τ) is compact if Ω is compact. A subset $A \in \Omega$ is called **relatively compact** if it's closure is comapct.