GENERAL TOPOLOGY COLLECTION

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Abstract

This is the collection of lecture notes for the *General Topology* course in Spring 2020. (Containing some materials of *Introduction to Topology* course, This note is recommended, rather than the note of *Introduction to Topology*).

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Chapter 1

Axiom of Choice

1.1 Order and bound

Definition 1 (Partial Order). Given a set X, a relation \leq on X is a partial order if

- 1. $\forall x \in X \Rightarrow x \leq x$;
- 2. $\forall x, x' \in X, x \leq x', x' \leq x \Rightarrow x = x'$;
- 3. $\forall x, x', x'' \in X, x \leq x', x' \leq x'' \Rightarrow x \leq x''$.

We say that (X, \leq) is a partially ordered set (poset).

Remark 1. A relation on X, is a subset of $X \times X$. If (X, \leq) is a poset and $A \subseteq X$, then A has a natural partial order induced by \leq .

Example 1. For example, \leq is a partial order on \mathbb{R} ; given a set X, \subseteq is a partial on $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

Definition 2 (Total Order, Chain). A poset (X, \leq) is a chain (or totally order set) if $\forall x, x' \in X$, then $x \leq x'$ or $x' \leq x$.

Definition 3 (Bound). If (X, \leq) is a poset, $A \subseteq X, b \in X$, we say

- 1. b is an upper (lower) bound of A (in X w.r.t. \leq) if $\forall a \in A, a \leq b(b \leq a)$, denoted the set of upper (lower) bound of A by $U_A(L_A)$.
- 2. b is a greatest (least) element of A (in X w.r.t. \leq), if b is an upper (lower) bound of A and $b \in A$.
- 3. *b* is the least upper bound (greatest lower bound) of *A*, if *b* is the least (greatest) element of the set of upper bound (lower bound) of *A*, denoted by lub or sup *A* (glb or inf *A*).
- 4. b is a maximal (minimal) element in X if $b \in X$, $\forall x \in X$, $b \le x \Rightarrow b = x(x \le b \Rightarrow x = b)$.

Remark 2 (Maximal vs. Greatest). An element $m \in X$ is **maximal** if there does not exist $x \in X$ such that x > m. An element $g \in X$ is **greatest** if for all $x \in X$, $g \ge x$.

- 1. A set may have no greatest elements and no maximal elements: for example, any open interval of real numbers.
- 2. If a set has a greatest element, that element is also maximal.
- 3. A set with two maximal elements and no greatest element: $X = \{a, b, c\}$, where $a \le b, a \le c$ and b and c are incomparable, then each of b and b are maximal, and none of the elements of this set are greatest.
- 4. A set can have exactly one maximal element but no greatest element: $X = \{a + q | 0 \le q < 1\} \cup \{c\}$, where $a \le c$ and a + q and c are incomparable for any $0 \le q < 1$. Then only c is maximal, and the set overall has no greatest element.

Example 2. Let A = [0,1), the set of upper bound of A is $[1,\infty)$, the set of lower bound of A is $(-\infty,0]$. Thus sup A = 1, inf A = 0.

Exercise 1. Suppose $S \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}$ and $S \neq \emptyset$, show that S has an upper bound $\Rightarrow \sup S \in S$.

Proof. Let $s_0 := \sup S$. If $s_0 \notin S \Rightarrow s_0 \in \mathbb{R} \setminus S \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}$. Thus $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(s_0) \in \mathbb{R} \setminus S$, that is $s_0 - r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus S \Rightarrow s_0 - r \geq s(\forall s \in S)$. But s_0 is the smallest upper bound, then $\forall s' < s_0, \exists s \in S$, s.t. s > s', which leads to a contradiction.

Definition 4 (Well Order). If (X, \leq) is a chain, we say that (X, \leq) is a well-ordered set if $\forall A \subseteq X, A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow A$ has a least element.

For example, \mathbb{Z}^+ is a well-ordered set. If (X, \leq) is a well-ordered set, for any $a \in X$, the **successor** of a is $succ_{(X,\leq)}(a) :=$ the least element of $\{x \in X | a < x\}$. So if $\{x \in X | a < x\} \neq \emptyset$, then $succ_{(X,<)}(a)$ exists.

Remark 3. Given a poset X, a, $b \in X$, we say a < b if $a \le b$ and $a \ne b$.

Definition 5. Given a poset X, $a \in X$, define initial segment as

$$IS_{(X,<)}(a) := \{x \in X | x < a\}$$

and weak initial segment as

$$WIS_{(X,<)}(a) := \{x \in X | x \le a\}.$$

1.2 Axiom of Choice

Theorem 1 (Bourbaki's fixed point theorem). Suppose (X, \leq) is a poset, in which every well-ordered subset has lub. Given a map $X \xrightarrow{f} X$, s.t. $x \leq f(x)$ for $\forall x \in X$, then $\exists a \in X$, s.t. f(a) = a.

Proof. Pick an element $x_0 \in X$. Let S be the collection of subsets $Y \subseteq X$ such that:

• *Y* is well ordered with the least element x_0 and successor function $f|_{Y \setminus lubY}$,

• $x_0 \neq y \in Y \Rightarrow lub_X(IS_Y(y)) \in Y$.

Then we claim:

- 1. If $Y \in S$ and $Y' \in S$, then Y is an initial segment of Y' or vice versa.
 - Let $V = \{x \in Y \cap Y' | WIS_Y(x) = WIS_{Y'}(x)\}$. Suppose first that V has a last element v. If v is not the last element of Y, then $succ_Y(v) = f(v)$; if v is not the last element of Y' then $succ_{Y'}(v) = f(v)$. Hence if neither of Y, Y' is an initial segment of the other, then $succ_Y(v) = succ_{Y'}(v) = f(v) \in V$, thus f(v) = v, and v is the fixed point.

If V has no last element, let $z = lub_X(V)$. If $Y \neq V \neq Y'$, then it follows that $z \in Y \cap Y'$ (because if $y = \inf(Y - V)$ then $V = IS_Y(y)$ and therefore $z = lub_X(IS_Y(y)) \in Y$). Therefore $z \in V$, which is a contradiction.

- 2. The set $Y_0 = \bigcup \{Y | Y \in S\} \in S$.
 - If $y_0 \in Y \in S$, then it follows from 1. that $\{y \in Y_0 | y < y_0\} = IS_Y(y_0)$ and so this subset is well ordered with successor function f. This implies that Y_0 is well ordered and satisfies first conditions of element in S. Also $lub_X(IS(y_0)) \in Y \subseteq Y_0$ which gives the second condition for Y_0 . Thus 2. is proved.

Let $y_0 = lub_X(Y_0)$, if $y_0 \notin Y_0$ then $Y_0 \cup \{y_0\} \in S$ and so $y_0 \in Y_0$ after all. If $f(y_0) > y_0$ then $Y_0 \cup \{f(y_0)\} \in S$ contrary to the definition of Y_0 , thus $f(y_0) = y_0$ as desired. \square

Remark 4. A map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a subset $\Gamma \subseteq X \times Y$, s.t. $\forall x \in X, \exists ! y \in Y, (x, y) \in \Gamma$.

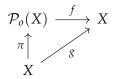
Theorem 2. The following statement are equivalent:

- 1. For \forall set X, \exists map $\mathcal{P}_o(X) \xrightarrow{f} X$, s.t. $\forall S \in \mathcal{P}_o(X), f(S) \in S$. $(\mathcal{P}_o(X) := \{A|A| \subseteq X, A \neq \emptyset\})$
- 2. If (X, \leq) is a poset, in which every well-ordered subset has a lub in X, then X has a maximal element.
- 3. (Maximal Chain Theorem) \forall poset (X, \leq) has a maximal chain w.r.t \subseteq . i.e. a chain such that there is no other chain in (X, \leq) which has it as a proper subset.
- 4. (Zorn's Lemma) If (X, \leq) is a poset in which every chain has an upper bound in X then X has a maximal element.
- 5. (Zermelo's Well-Ordering Theorem) Every set has a well-order.
- 6. \forall surj. $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$, \exists an injection $Y \xrightarrow{g} X$, s.t. $f \circ g = id_Y$.
- 7. (Axiom of Choice) Given non-empty sets $S_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$, there exists a map $A \xrightarrow{f} \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} S_{\alpha}$, s.t. $f(\alpha) \in S_{\alpha}$.

Proof. $7 \Rightarrow 1$: We can number each non-empty subset of X by itself, since any element in a set is unique. That is $\mathcal{P}_o(X) = \{S_\alpha := \alpha | \alpha \in \mathcal{P}_o(X)\}$, here $\mathcal{P}_o(X)$ serves as A. Thus Axiom of Choice means \exists a map $\mathcal{P}_o(X) \xrightarrow{f} X$, s.t. $f(\alpha) \in S_\alpha = \alpha(\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_o(X))$. (we emphasize $\mathcal{P}_o(X)$, rather than $\mathcal{P}(X)$, because there is nothing in \emptyset)

Remark 5. Statement 1 claims that given a set X, any non-empty subset of X can be maps to a point inside this subset.

 $1 \Rightarrow 2$: Assume that X has no maximal element, i.e. $\forall a \in X, X_a := \{x \in X | a < x\} \neq \emptyset$. $\exists \text{ map } \mathcal{P}_o(X) \xrightarrow{f} X$, s.t. $f(S) \in S$ for all $S \in \mathcal{P}_o(X)$. Define a map $X \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathcal{P}_o(X)(a \mapsto X_a)$ and $X \xrightarrow{g=f \circ \pi} X$. Thus for any $a \in X$, $g(a) = f(X_a) \in X_a$, thus a < g(a), which leads to a contradiction with Bourbaki's fixed point theorem.



 $2 \Rightarrow 3$: Given a poset (X, \leq) consider $S = \{C | C \text{ is a chain in } P \text{ w.r.t. } \leq \}$. Thus (S, \subseteq) is a poset. We claim that any totally ordered set in S has a lub in S. If $T \subseteq S$ is a totally ordered set, (that is T is a chain w.r.t \subseteq of the chains w.r.t. \leq), then $\cup_{C \in T} C = lub_S T$. To show this, we need prove 2 things:

- 1. $\bigcup_{C \in T} C \in U_T$; For any $C \in T$, $C \subseteq \bigcup_{C \in T} C$, thus $\bigcup_{C \in T} C \in U_T$.
- 2. $\bigcup_{C \in T} C \in L_{U_T}$. For any $v \in \bigcup_{C \in T} C, O \in U_T$, $\exists C \in T$, s.t. $v \in C \subseteq O$. Thus $\bigcup_{C \in T} C \subseteq O$, thus $\bigcup_{C \in T} C \in L_{U_T}$.

Thus every totally ordered subset (including well order subset) of (S, \subseteq) has a lub, and (S, \subseteq) has a maximal element, which implies (X, \le) has a maximal chain.

Remark 6. (T, \subseteq) is a chain, thus any comparison with the element in T need to use relation \subseteq .

 $3 \Rightarrow 4$: Given a poset (X, \leq) , it has a max. chain C, by assumption, C has an upper bound, say a, in X. Then a is a max. element in X, otherwise $\exists x \in X, a < x$, and hence $C \subsetneq C \cup \{x\}$ and $C \cup \{x\}$ is a chain, which leads to a contradiction to the maximality of C.

 $4 \Rightarrow 5$: Let Y be a set, consider $X := \{A | A = (S_A, \leq_A) \text{ where } S_A \subseteq Y \text{ and } \leq_A \text{ is a well-ordering on } S_A \}$. We define a relation \leq on X: $A \leq A' \Leftrightarrow A = A' \text{ or } A \text{ is an initial segment of } A' \text{ (i.e. } \exists a' \in S_{A'}, S_A = \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A'} a' \}) \text{ and } \forall x_1, x_2 \in S_A, x_1 \leq_A x_2 \Leftrightarrow x_1 \leq_{A'} x_2.$

It is direct to see that (X, \preceq) is a poset:

- 1. For any $A \in X$, $A \leq A$;
- 2. If A is initial segment of A' then $A \neq A'$, since if $\exists a' \in S_{A'}, S_A = \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A'} a'\}$ then $a' \in A'$ but $a' \notin A$. Thus $A \preceq A', A' \preceq A \Rightarrow A = A'$
- 3. Suppose that $A \leq A' \leq A''$, and A, A' and A'' are not equal. Thus $\exists a'' \in S_{A''}$, s.t. $S_{A'} = IS_{A''}(a'')$, and $\exists a' \in S_{A'}$, s.t. $S_A = IS_{A'}(a')$. Since $a' <_{A''} a''$, any $a \in S_{A''}$, $a <_{A''}$

 $a' \Rightarrow a \in S_{A'}$. Thus $IS_{A''}(a) = \{x \in S_{A''} | x <_{A''} a'\} = \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A''} a'\} = \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A''} a'\} = IS_{A'}(a') = A$, thus $A \leq A''$.

Then, we claim:

1. (X, \preceq) has a maximal element:

Apply Zorn's lemma, let (C, \preceq) be a chain on (X, \preceq) . Let $A_0 = (S_{A_0}, \leq_{A_0})$ where $S_{A_0} = \bigcup_{A \in C} S_A$, and \leq_{A_0} : for any $x_1, x_2 \in S_{A_0}$, find $A \in C$, s.t. $x_1, x_2 \in S_A$, we say that $x_1 \leq_{A_0} x_2$ if $x_1 \leq_A x_2$. Then we claim:

• Such *A* exists:

For any $x_1, x_2 \in S_{A_0}$, $\exists A_1, A_2 \in C$, s.t. $x_1 \in S_{A_1}$, $x_2 \in S_{A_2}$ and S_{A_1} and S_{A_2} are comparable on X w.r.t. \preceq , since C is a chain. Assume that S_{A_1} is an initial segment of S_{A_2} , then $x_1, x_2 \in S_{A_2}$.

- $x_1 \leq_{A_0} x_2$ is independent of the choice of A, s.t. $x_1, x_2 \in S_A$: If $\exists A, A' \in C$, s.t. $x_1, x_2 \in S_A, S_{A'}$, then A, A' are comparable. Assume that $A \preceq A'$, that is A is an initial segment of A', then in S_A , we have $x_1 \leq_A x_2 \Leftrightarrow x_1 \leq_{A'} x_2$.
- (S_{A_0}, \leq_{A_0}) is a total order set : Any $x_1, x_2 \in S_{A_0}$ will be covered by a S_A where A is an element of a chain C on X. Thus x_1 and x_2 are comparable by $x_1 \leq_{A_0} x_2 \Leftrightarrow x_1 \leq_A x_2$.
- (S_{A_0}, \leq_{A_0}) is a well order set :

Let $T \subseteq S_{A_0}$ and $T \neq \emptyset$. Then $T = T \cap S_{A_0} = T \cap \bigcup_{A \in C} S_A = \bigcup_{A \in C} (T \cap S_A) \neq \emptyset$. Thus $\exists A \in C$, s.t. $T \cap S_A \neq \emptyset$. Since A is well ordering, $T \cap S_A$ has least element, denoted by t.

Any $A' \in C$, it is either A' = A or $A' \leq A$ or $A \leq A'$. If $A' \leq A$, then $S_{A'}$ is an initial segment of S_A , that is $\exists a \in S_A$, s.t. $S_{A'} = \{x \in S_A | x <_A a\}$. Thus $S'_A \subseteq S_A$, and $T \cap S_{A'} \subseteq T \cap S_A$, thus t is the least element of $T \cap S_A \Rightarrow t$ is the least element of $T \cap S_{A'}$;

If $A \leq A'$, then S_A is an initial segment of $S_{A'}$, thus $\exists a' \in S_{A'}$, s.t. $S_A = \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A'} a'\}$ and $T \cap S_A = T \cap \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A'} a'\} = \{x \in T \cap S_{A'} | x <_{A'} a'\}$. For any $s \in T \cap S_{A'}$, if $a' \leq_{A'} s$, then $t <_{A'} a' \leq_{A'} s$; if $s <_{A'} a'$, then $s \in T \cap S_A$, and $t \leq_A s \Rightarrow t \leq_{A'} s$. Thus t is the least element of $T \cap S_{A'}$.

Thus t is the least element of $T \cap S_{A_0} = T$, thus \leq_{A_0} is a well order on S_{A_0} . Furthermore, $(S_{A_0}, \leq_{A_0}) \in X$.

• S_{A_0} is an upper bound of C on X, w.r.t. \leq :

Given $A \in C$, since C is a chain, any $A' \in C$ admits 3 cases: $A' = A, A' \leq A, A \leq A'$. Define $\Pi := \{A' \in C | A \leq A'\} \setminus \{A\}$ and $\Gamma := \{A' \in C | A' \leq A\} \setminus \{A\}$.

Remark 7. Recall the proof of $2 \Rightarrow 3$.

For any $B \in \Pi$, $\exists b \in S_B$, s.t. $S_A = IS_B(b)$. Define $\Phi := \{A' \in \Pi | A' \leq B\} \setminus \{B\}$. If $\Phi \neq \emptyset$, then $\exists C \in \Phi, \exists c \in S_C$, s.t. $S_A = IS_C(c)$. Collect all these kind

of c and form a set Δ , then Δ is a non-empty subset of S_B . Since S_B is a well ordering set, Δ has a least element μ , and exists the corresponding $D \in \Phi$, s.t. $S_A = IS_D(\mu)$. Thus

$$S_A = IS_D(\mu) = \{x \in S_D | x <_D \mu\}$$

 $\xrightarrow{x,\mu \in S_{A_0}} \{x \in S_D | x <_{A_0} \mu\}$

Since any $A' \in \Pi$, the corresponding $\mu \leq_{A'} a'$, thus

$$\{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A_0} \mu\} = \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A'} \mu\}$$

$$\subseteq \{x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A'} a'\}$$

$$= IS_{A'}(a')$$

$$= S_A = IS_D(\mu)$$

On the other hand, For any $A'' \in \Gamma$, $A'' \preceq A \Rightarrow S_{A''} \subseteq S_A$, thus $\{x \in S_{A''} | x <_{A_0} \mu\} \subseteq S_A$. Thus

$$\begin{split} S_A &= IS_D(\mu) \\ &= \cup_{A' \in \Pi} \{ x \in S_{A'} | x <_{A_0} \mu \} \cup (\cup_{A'' \in \Gamma} \{ x \in S_{A''} | x <_{A_0} \mu \}) \\ &= \{ x \in \cup_{A' \in \Pi \cup \Gamma} S_{A'} | x <_{A_0} \mu \} \\ &= \{ x \in \cup_{A' \in C} S_{A'} | x <_{A_0} \mu \} \\ &= IS_{A_0}(\mu) \end{split}$$

Thus $A \leq A_0$ for any $A \in C$, and A_0 is an upper bound of C. (X, \leq) , as a poset, whose any chain C has an upper bound A_0 , thus X has a maximal element by Zorn's lemma.

2. A maximal element in (X, \preceq) is (Y, \leq_Y) .

If (Y_0, \leq_{Y_0}) is a max. element in X w.r.t. \leq and $Y_0 \neq Y$, then $\exists y \in Y \setminus Y_0$. Define $Y_1 := Y_0 \cup \{y\}$ and a partial order: $v \leq_{Y_1} y, v_1 \leq_{Y_1} v_2 \Leftrightarrow v_1 \leq_{Y_0} v_2$ for $\forall v, v_1, v_2 \in Y_0$. Then (Y_1, \leq_{Y_1}) admits a well-ordering which makes (Y_0, \leq_{Y_0}) an initial segment, because any non-empty subset ϕ of Y_1 is either $\{y\}$ or $(\phi \cap Y_0) \cup (\phi \cap \{y\})$, clearly ϕ has least element.

Thus $(Y_1, \leq_{Y_1}) \in X$ and $(Y_0, \leq_{Y_0}) \preceq (Y_1, \leq_{Y_1})$, which leads to a contradiction to the maximality of (Y_0, \leq_{Y_0}) .

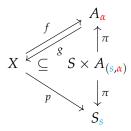
Since *X* is the set of well ordering subset on *Y*, $(Y, \leq_Y) \in X$, thus (Y, \leq_Y) is well ordering.

 $5 \Rightarrow 6$: Choose a well ordering \leq on X, For any $y \in Y$, define g(y) := the least element of $f^{-1}(y)$, then $f \circ g(y) = y$. For any $y_1, y_2 \in Y, y_1 \neq y_2 \Rightarrow f(g(y_1)) \neq f(g(y_2)) \Rightarrow g(y_1) \neq g(y_2) \Rightarrow g$ is injective.

 $6 \Rightarrow 7$: Let $S := \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} S_{\alpha}$, define $X := \{(s, \alpha) \in S \times A | s \in S_{\alpha}\}$. Consider two projection

 $X \xrightarrow{f} A((s,\alpha) \mapsto \alpha)$ and $X \xrightarrow{p} S((s,\alpha) \mapsto s)$, thus f is a surjection, then $\exists A \xrightarrow{g} X$ such that $f \circ g(\alpha) = \alpha$ for any $\alpha \in A$.

Define s_{α} is the least element of S_{α} , then $g(\alpha) = (s_{\alpha}, \alpha)$ and $p \circ g(\alpha) = p(s_{\alpha}, \alpha) = s_{\alpha} \in S_{\alpha}$. Thus $A \xrightarrow{p \circ g} S = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} S_{\alpha}$ is desired.



1.3 Applications of Zorn's Lemma

1.3.1 Cardinality

Definition 6 (Cardinality). Let X and Y be two sets, we say |X| = |Y| if there exists a bijection $X \to Y$; $|X| \le |Y|$ if exist an injection $X \to Y$.

Exercise 2. Let X and Y be two sets, show that \exists an injection $X \to Y \Leftrightarrow \exists$ a surjection $Y \to X$.

Proof. \Leftarrow : If $Y \xrightarrow{f} X$ is a surjection, then \exists an injection $X \xrightarrow{g} Y$ by equivalent statements 6 of AC. \Rightarrow : If $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is an injection, then $X \xrightarrow{f} f(X)$ is a bijection, and there exists an inverse $f(X) \xrightarrow{f^{-1}} X$. Select $x \in X$, define $g(y) \equiv x, y \in Y \setminus f(X)$, Then $Y \xrightarrow{g} X$ where $y \mapsto f^{-1}(y)$ if $y \in f(X)$ and $y \mapsto x$ if $y \in Y \setminus f(X)$ is as desired.

Exercise 3. Let X and Y be two sets, show that there exist an injection from X to Y or from Y to X.

Proof. Consider $\Pi := \{S_f \xrightarrow{f} Y | f \text{ is an injection on a subset } S_f \text{ of } X\}$ and $f \leq f' \Leftrightarrow S_f \subseteq S_{f'}$ and $f'|_{S_f} = f$. Thus (Π, \preceq) is a poset.

If $\Pi = \emptyset$, which implies there is only one element in Y, thus there exists a surjection from X to $Y \Rightarrow$ there exists an injection from Y to X. If $\Pi \neq \emptyset$:

suppose (C, \preceq) is a chain on (Π, \preceq) , define $Z = \bigcup_{S \in C} S$, and for any $z \in Z$, $f_o(z) = f(z)$ if $z \in S_f$. As always: (1) S_f exists by the def. of Z; (2) the def. of f_o is well-defined, that is the value of $f_o(z)$ is independent with the choice of S_f , because any S_f , S_f' that

cover z are in the chain C, thus they are comparable, and one is the extension of the other.

Thus $Z \xrightarrow{f_o} Y$ is an upper bound of (C, \preceq) , because for any $S_f \xrightarrow{f} Y \in C$, $S_f \subseteq Z$ by def. and $f_o|_{S_f} = f$ by the independence. Thus any chain on (Π, \preceq) has an upper bound, and (Π, \preceq) has a maximal element $X_0 \xrightarrow{f_0} Y$. Suppose $X_0 \neq X$:

If f_0 is not surj: Then select $y_0 \in Y \setminus f(X_0)$ and $x \in X \setminus X_0$. Define $X_1 = X_0 \cup \{x\}$, and define $f_1|_{X_0} = f_0$, $f_1(x_0) = y_0$. Then $f_0 \leq f_0$, which against the maximality of $X_0 \xrightarrow{f_0} Y$. If f_0 is surj: Then select any $y_0 \in Y$ and define $f_1(x) \equiv y_0$ for any $x \in X \setminus X_0$, thus $X \xrightarrow{f_1} Y$ is a surj. Then there exists an injection $Y \xrightarrow{g} X$, and we are done.

Remark 8. A very useful routine:

- 1. transform the existence of the target to the existence of the maximal element on some poset
- 2. use Zorn's Lemma (show any chain on the poset has an upper bound, which is usually the union on all elements in the chain)
- 3. check that the maximal element = target (use contradiction).

Proposition 1 (Bernstein-Schroeder). $|X| \le |Y|$ and $|Y| \le |X| \Rightarrow |X| = |Y|$.

Proof. The proof of the proposition has been given in *Introduction to Topology, Lecture 2, Proposition 4.* \Box

1.3.2 **Vector Space**

1.3.3 Hahn-Banach Theorem

Lemma 1. Let X be a vector space over $K(=\mathbb{R})$, and $X \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{R}$ is a func. s.t. $\forall x, x' \in X, t > 0$, $p(x+x') \leq p(x) + p(x')$ and p(tx) = tp(x).

For any linear func. $Z \xrightarrow{\Xi_o} \mathbb{R}$ on a vector subspace Z of X s.t. $\Xi_o(z) \leq p(z)$ for any $z \in Z$. If $x_0 \in X \setminus Z$, then there exists a linear func. $Z + \mathbb{R} x_0 \xrightarrow{\Xi} \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\Xi|_Z = \Xi_o$ and $\Xi(u) \leq p(u)$ for any $u \in Z + \mathbb{R} x_0$.

Proof. All linear func.s $Z + \mathbb{R}x_0 \xrightarrow{\Xi} \mathbb{R}$ such that $\Xi|_Z = \Xi_o$ is of the form $\Xi(z + tx_0) = \Xi_o(z) + t\Xi(x_0)$. It suffices to determine the value of $\Xi(x_0)$ (denoted as a) s.t. $\Xi(u) \le p(u)$ for any $u \in Z + \mathbb{R}x_0$ holds.

Any $u \in Z + \mathbb{R}x_0$ can be uniquely written as $z + tx_0, z \in Z, t \in \mathbb{R}$. We hope to find $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\Xi(u) = \Xi_o(z) + ta \le p(u) = p(z + tx_0)$$

for all $z \in Z$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, or equivalently (if t < 0, denote t = -t', t' > 0)

$$a \le rac{p(z+tx_0) - \Xi_o(z)}{t}, \quad z \in Z, t > 0$$
 $a \ge rac{p(z'-t'x_0) - \Xi_o(z')}{-t'}, \quad z' \in Z, t' > 0$

Since

$$\frac{p(z+tx_0) - \Xi_o(z)}{t} - \frac{p(z'-t'x_0) - \Xi_o(z')}{-t'} \\
= \frac{p(z+tx_0) - \Xi_o(z)}{t} + \frac{p(z'-t'x_0) - \Xi_o(z')}{t'} \\
= \frac{t'p(z+tx_0) - t'\Xi_o(z) + tp(z'-t'x_0) - t\Xi_o(z')}{tt'} \\
= \frac{p(t'z+tt'x_0) - \Xi_o(t'x) + p(tz'-tt'x_0) - \Xi_o(tz')}{tt'} \\
\ge \frac{p(t'z+tt'x_0 + tz' - tt'x_0) - \Xi_o(t'z+tz')}{tt'} \\
= \frac{p(t'z+tz') - \Xi_o(t'z+tz')}{tt'} \ge 0.$$

 \Rightarrow such $a\exists$.

Theorem 3 (Hahn-Banach Theorem). Let X be a vector space over $K(=\mathbb{R})$, and $X \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{R}$ is a func. s.t. $\forall x, x' \in X$, t > 0, $p(x + x') \leq p(x) + p(x')$ and p(tx) = tp(x). For any linear func. $Y \xrightarrow{\Lambda_o} \mathbb{R}$ on a vector subspace Y of X s.t. $\Lambda_o(y) \leq p(y)$ for any $y \in Y$. Then there exists a linear func. $X \xrightarrow{\Lambda} \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\Lambda|_Y = \Lambda_o$ and $\Lambda(x) \leq p(x)$ for any $x \in X$.

Proof. Consider P is the collection of $W_{\Theta} \xrightarrow{\Theta} \mathbb{R}$ such that Θ is a linear func. on a vec. subspace W_{Θ} of X containing Y s.t. $\Theta|_{Y} = \Lambda_{o}$ and $\Theta(w) \leq p(w)$ for all $w \in W_{\Theta}$. And define $\preceq : \Theta \preceq \Theta' \Leftrightarrow W_{\Theta} \subseteq W_{\Theta'}$ and $\Theta'|_{W_{\Theta}} = \Theta$. It is direct to see (P, \preceq) is a poset. If (P, \preceq) has a maximal element $Z \xrightarrow{\Theta} \mathbb{R}$, then Z = X by Lemma 1. otherwise we can extent Z to $Z + \mathbb{R}x_{0}$ where $x_{0} \in X \setminus Z$ which against the maximality of $Z \xrightarrow{\Theta} \mathbb{R}$. *Remark* 9. Recall the proof of Well-Ordering Theorem by Zorn's Lemma.

Thus it suffices to show (P, \preceq) has a max. element. Let (C, \preceq) is a chain in (P, \preceq) . We take $W = \bigcup_{\Theta \in C} W_{\Theta}$ which is a vector subspace of X containing Y. And define $W \stackrel{\Pi}{\to} \mathbb{R}$ where then $w \mapsto \Theta(w)$ if $w \in W_{\theta}$. This is well-defined, $\Pi(w)$ is independence of the choice of Θ s.t. $w \in W_{\Theta}$, since C is a chain, and one of any W_{Θ} , $W_{\Theta'}$ that covers w is the extension of the other. Thus for any $\Theta \in C$, $W_{\Theta} \subseteq W$ and $\Pi|_{W_{\Theta}} = \Theta$, thus $\Theta \preceq \Pi$. Thus Π is the upper bound of C, and W = X and $X \stackrel{\Pi}{\to} \mathbb{R}$ is as desired.

Chapter 2

Metric Space

2.1 Metric space

Definition 7 (Metric Space). Let $X \times X \xrightarrow{d} \mathbb{R}$ be a function, we cay that d is a metric on X or (X, d) is a metric space if for $\forall x, x', x'' \in X$ have

- 1. Positivity: $d(x, x') \ge 0$ and d(x, x'') = 0 iff x = x';
- 2. Symmetry: d(x, x') = d(x', x);
- 3. Triangle inequality: $d(x, x') \le d(x, x'') + d(x'', x')$.

Exercise 4. Show that the triangle inequality is equivalent with for $\forall x, x', x'' \in X$

$$d(x, x') \ge |d(x, x'') - d(x', x'')|.$$

Proof. ≥⇒≤: since $d(x, x') \ge |d(x, x'') - d(x', x'')| \ge d(x, x'') - d(x', x'')$, we have that $d(x, x'') \le d(x, x') + d(x', x'')$.

 $\leq \Rightarrow \geq$: if $\exists x, x', x''$ such that d(x, x') < |d(x, x'') - d(x', x'')|, then

$$d(x,x') < |d(x,x'') - d(x',x'')|$$

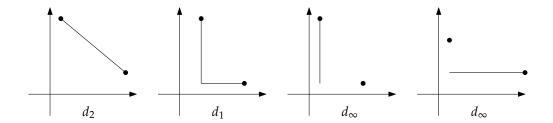
$$\leq |d(x,x') + d(x',x'') - d(x',x'')|$$

$$\leq d(x,x')$$

thus d(x, x') < d(x, x'), which leads to a contradiction.

Example 3. Here are some metric examples:

- 1. define $d_2(x,y) := \left(\sum_i^m |x_i y_m|^2\right)^{1/2}$, $x,y \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then d_2 is a metric on \mathbb{R}^m by cauchy inequality.
- 2. define $d_1(x,y) := \sum_{i=1}^m |x_i y_i|$, $x,y \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then d_1 is a metric on \mathbb{R}^m .
- 3. define $d_{\infty}(x,y) := \max\{|x_i y_i|\}, i \in \{1,2,\cdots,m\}, x,y \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then d_{∞} is a metric on \mathbb{R}^m .



 d_2 can be proved to be a metric by Cauchy inequality:

Exercise 5 (Cauchy inequality). *For any* $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, *show that*

$$(x_1y_1 + \cdots, x_ny_n)^2 \le (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)(y_1^2 + \cdots + y_n^2)$$

and =\$ holds iff $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ which are not all 0.

Proof. Consider the polynomial
$$p(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i t + y)^2 = t^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 \ge 0$$
, thus $\Delta = 4 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \right)^2 - 4 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 \le 0 \Rightarrow \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \right)^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2$.

Example 4 (p-adic). If p is a prime number, $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, define

$$|x|_{p-adic} := \begin{cases} p^{-m}, & x = \frac{a}{b} \cdot p^m, x \neq 0, \\ 0, & x = 0, \end{cases}$$

where $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, (a, p) = (b, p) = 1. For $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$, define $d_{p-adic}(x, y) = |x - y|_{p-adic}$, then d_{p-adic} is a metric on \mathbb{Q} .

Assume $x = (a/b)p^m$, $y = (s/t)p^n \in \mathbb{Q}$ where $a, b, s, t, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, (a, p) = (b, p) = (s, p) = (t, p) = 1, m > n, then $|x|_{p-adic} = p^{-m} < |y|_{p-adic} = p^{-n}$, and

$$|x - y|_{p-adic} = |(a/b)p^m - (s/t)p^n|_{p-adic}$$
$$= \left| \frac{adp^{m-n} - bc}{bd} p^n \right|_{p-adic}.$$

it is easy to check $adp^{m-n} - bc$, $bd \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $(adp^{m-n} - bc$, p) = (bd, p) = 1, thus

$$|x - y|_{p-adic} = p^{-n} = |y|_{p-adic} = \max\{|x|_{p-adic}, |y|_{p-adic}\}.$$

Thus for any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$, we have that

$$\begin{split} d_{p-adic}(x,y) &= \max\{|x|_{p-adic}, |y|_{p-adic}\} \\ &\leq \max\{|x|_{p-adic}, |z|_{p-adic}\} + \max\{|z|_{p-adic}, |y|_{p-adic}\} \\ &= d_{p-adic}(x,z) + d_{p-adic}(y,z), \end{split}$$

which follows the triangle inequality, the other two conditions is trivial.

2.2 Open and compact on metric space

Definition 8 (Open Ball). Let (X, d) be a metric space, for $\forall r > 0$ and $x_0 \in X$, we let

$$B_r(x_0) := \{ x \in X | d(x, x_0) < r \},$$

and call it the open ball with center x_0 and radius r; let

$$\overline{B_r(x_0)} := \{x \in X | d(x, x_0) \le r\},\,$$

and call it the close ball with center x_0 and radius r.

Example 5 (discrete metric). For $\forall x, x' \in \mathbb{R}^2$, define metric d(x, x') = 0 if x = x', and d(x, x') = 1 if $x \neq x'$, then $B_1(x) = \{x\}$, $\overline{B_1(x)} = \mathbb{R}^2$, $B_{1,1}(x) = \mathbb{R}^2$.

Definition 9 (Open Set). $S(\subseteq X)$ is called an Open Set of X with respect to d, if $\forall x_0 \in S$, $\exists r > 0$ such that $B_r(x_0) \subseteq S$; $F(\subseteq X)$ is Close Set of X w.r.t. d if $X \setminus F$ is open set of X w.r.t. d.

Exercise 6. Prove that $B_r(x)$ is open set and $\overline{B_r(x)}$ is close.

Proof. For $\forall x' \in B_r(x)$, we have d(x, x') < r, donate r - d(x, x') by s, then for $\forall x'' \in B_{s/2}(x')$ satisfy

$$d(x,x'') \le d(x,x') + d(x',x'')$$

$$\le d(x,x') + \frac{s}{2}$$

$$< r,$$

thus $x'' \in B_r(x)$ and $B_{s/2}(x') \subseteq B_r(x)$ and $B_r(x)$ is a open set. For $\forall x' \in X \setminus \overline{B_r(x)}$ has d(x,x') > r. Denote d(x,x') - r by t, then for $\forall x'' \in B_{t/2}(x')$ satisfy

$$d(x,x'') \ge |d(x,x') - d(x',x'')|$$

$$\ge d(x,x') - d(x',x'')$$

$$\ge d(x,x;) - \frac{t}{2}$$

$$> r.$$

Thus $B_{t/2}(x') \subseteq X \setminus \overline{B_r}$ and $X \setminus \overline{B_r}$ is an open set, thus $\overline{B_r}$ is a close set.

Exercise 7. Let (X, d) be a metric space. show that

- 1. $X, \emptyset \subseteq_{open} X$;
- 2. $O_1, O_2 \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow O_1 \cap O_2 \subseteq_{open} X$;
- 3. $O_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X$, $(\alpha \in A) \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} O_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X$ (α not necessarily be integral or countable);
- 4. All above corresponding statements for close set are true.

- *Proof.* 1. Obviously X is an Open set thus \emptyset is a close set. If \emptyset is not an open set, then $\exists x \in \emptyset$, $\forall r > 0$ such that $B_r(x) \not\subseteq \emptyset$, which is impossible. Thus \emptyset is an open set (logically) and X is a close set;
- 2. $\forall x \in O_1 \cap O_2$, $\exists r_1, r_2 > 0$, s.t. $B_{r_1}(x) \subseteq O_1$ and $B_{r_2}(x) \subseteq O_2$. Thus $\forall x' \in B_{\min\{r_1, r_2\}}(x) = B_{r_1}(x) \cap B_{r_2}(x) \Rightarrow x' \in O_1 \cap O_2 \Rightarrow B_{\min\{r_1, r_2\}}(x) \subseteq O_1 \cap O_2$, thus $O_1 \cap O_2$ is open. Collectively, the intersection of any finite open sets is an open set;
- 3. For $\forall x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} O_{\alpha}$, \exists at least one $\alpha' \in A$, s.t. $x \in O_{\alpha'}$, then $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(x) \subseteq O_{\alpha'} \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} O_{\alpha}$, thus $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} O_{\alpha}$ is an open set;
- 4. Take complementary set: The union of finite close sets is close; the intersection of any close sets is close.

Remark 10. First 3 statements are the essential intuition for the definition of Topology.

Exercise 8. *Show that an open set is the union of open balls.*

Proof. Given an open set O, for any $o \in O$, $\exists r_o > 0$, s.t. $B_{r_o}(o) \subseteq O$, define $O' = \bigcup_{o \in O} B_{r_o}(o)$. Thus for $\forall x \in O'$, $\exists o'$, s.t. $x \in B_{r'_o}(o') \subseteq O \Rightarrow O' \subseteq O$; On the other hand, for any $y \in O$, $\exists r_y > 0$, s.t. $B_{r_y}(y) \subseteq O \Rightarrow y \in B_{r_y}(y) \subseteq O' \Rightarrow O \subseteq O'$. Thus $O = O' = \bigcup_{o \in O} B_{r_o}(o)$.

Definition 10 (Convergence). Let (X,d) be a metric space, $a_n \in X$, $(n \in \mathbb{N})$, $L \in X$, define $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ w.r.t. d, if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$, $\forall n \geq N$ s.t. $d(a_n, L) < \epsilon$, that is $a_n \in B_{\epsilon}(L)$.

Exercise 9. *Show that*

- 1. $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n\to\infty} d(a_n, L) = 0$;
- 2. $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \Leftrightarrow \forall L \in U \subseteq_{open} X, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq N \text{ s.t. } a_n \in U.$

Proof. (1) Trivial; (2) ⇒: Suppose that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$, for $\forall U$ that $L \in U$, $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(L) \subseteq U$, and $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \geq N$, s.t. $a_n \in B_r(L) \subseteq U$; \Leftarrow : Suppose $L \in U \subseteq_{open} X$, then $\exists r > 0$ such that $B_r(L) \subseteq U$. Since $B_r(L)$ is also an open set, then $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$, for $\forall n \geq N$, s.t. $a_n \in B_r(L) \subseteq U$.

We say $S \subseteq X$ is bounded w.r.t. d, if $\exists r > 0$ and $x_0 \in X$, s.t. $S \subseteq B_r(x_0)$.

Theorem 4 (Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem). *If* $a_n \in \mathbb{R}^m (n \in \mathbb{N})$ *is bounded w.r.t.* d_2 , then \exists a subsequence $a_{n_m} (m \in \mathbb{N})$ which converges.

Proof. We only prove \mathbb{R}^2 case. If we want to prove that the vector $a=(a_1,\cdots,a_m)\in\mathbb{R}^m\to L=(l_1,\cdots,l_m)\in\mathbb{R}^m$, all we need to prove is $\lim_{n\to\infty}a_i=l_i,(i=1,\cdots,m)$. Choose M>0, s.t. $a_n\in Q=[-M,M]\times[-M,M]$ for all $n\in\mathbb{N}$. Divide Q into 4 squares with equal size and choose one, say Q_1 , such that $|\{n|a_n\in Q\}|=\infty$. Select $n_1\in\mathbb{N}$, such that $a_{n_1}\in Q_1$. Repeat this and we have $\bigcap_{k=1}^\infty Q_k=\{a\}$. By theorem of nested interval we have that $\lim_{k\to\infty}a_{n_k}=a$.

Remark 11. The conclusion of Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem can be generalize to metric space (Remark 16).

Exercise 10. Let (X,d) be a metric space, $F \subseteq X$ show that $F \subseteq_{close} X \Leftrightarrow \forall a_n \in F(n \in \mathbb{N})$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \in X$ then $a \in F$.

Proof. ⇒: Assume that *F* is close and $a_n \in F$. If $a_n \to a \in X \setminus F$, then $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(a) \in X \setminus F$. Since $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = a$, for *r*, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$, $\forall n \ge N$, s.t. $d(a_n, a) < r$, i.e. $a_n \in B_r(a) \subseteq X \setminus F$, which leads to a contradiction. ⇐: Suppose that $\forall a_n \in F(n \in \mathbb{N})$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = a \in X$ then $a \in F$, and *F* is not close, which means $X \setminus F$ is not open, and $\exists x \in X \setminus F$, $\forall r > 0$, $B_r(x) \cap F \neq \emptyset$. Select $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_n = B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x) \cap F$. Thus $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = x \notin F$, which leads to a contradiction.

Remark 12. Set family of sets as $\{B_{1/n}(x)\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a very useful skill.

Definition 11 (Open cover, Compact set). Let (X,d) be a metric space, $S \subseteq X$, $O_{\alpha} \in X(\alpha \in A)$, we say that $O_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ form an open cover of S, if $S \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} O_{\alpha}$. S is called a compact set if \forall open cover $O_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ of S, $\exists \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m \in A$, s.t. $S \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^m O_{\alpha_i}$, where $\bigcup_{i=1}^m O_{\alpha_i}$ is called a finite subcover.

If there exists an open cover of F whose any finite subcover can not cover it, then F is not a compact set. for instance, let F = (0,1), $O_n = (1/n,2)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then O_n is an open cover of F, however any finite subcover of O_n can not cover F.

Theorem 5 (Heine-Borel theorem). Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, then S is compact $\Leftrightarrow S$ is bounded and closed.

Proof. ⇒: Suppose that S is compact, select a point $s \in S$ arbitrarily, define $O_i = B_i(s)$, it is easy to check that $S \subseteq \cup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} O_i$, since for any $s' \in S$, we have that $s' \in B_{2d(s,s')}(s) \subseteq O_{\lceil 2d(s,s') \rceil}$. Since S is compact, there exists a finite subcover, thus S is bounded. Suppose S is compact, but S is not closed, which means $X \setminus S$ is not open and $\exists x \in X \setminus S$, s.t. $\forall r > 0$, $B_r(x) \cap S \neq 0$. Since S is bounded, define $\iota = \sup_{s \in S} d(s, x)$, define open cover

$$O_n = B_{\frac{t}{n}}(x) - B_{\frac{t}{n+1}}(x),$$

thus $O_i \cap O_j = \emptyset(i \neq j)$ and $O_i \cap S \neq \emptyset(\forall i)$. Thus O_n has no finite subcover, which leads to a contradiction and S is closed.

 \Leftarrow : Suppose that S is bounded and closed, and \exists an open cover $O_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ of S which admits no finite subcover. Choose a cube Q containing S (S is bounded), divide Q into 4 equal-sized cubes and select one of them denoted by Q_1 , s.t. $Q_1 \cap S$ can not be covered by finitely many Q_{α} , select a point such that $s_1 \in Q_1 \cap S$. Repeat.

Obviously, $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = a$, notice that $s_n \in Q_n \cap S \subseteq S$, thus $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = a \in S$ for S is closed. Thus there exist O_i such that $a \in O_i$. Since O_i is open, $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(a) \subseteq O_i$.

Then $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq N$, s.t. $Q_n \subseteq B_r(a) \subseteq O_i$. Since $Q_n \cap S$ can not be covered by finitely many O_α , but could be covered by O_i , which leads to a contradiction.

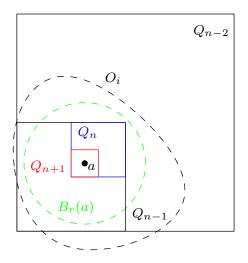


Figure 2.1: Heine-Borel theorem

Theorem 6 (The Lebesgue number of an open cover). Let (X,d) be a metric space and $K(\subseteq X)$ a compact set. For any given open cover $O_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ of K, there exists $\delta > 0$, s.t. for every $x \in K$ we have $B_{\delta}(x) \subseteq O'_{\alpha}$ for some $\alpha' \in A$ (α' depending on x).

Proof. Since K is compact, for any open cover of K, there exists an finite subcover of K, that is $\exists O_{\alpha_i}, i = 1, \dots, N$ such that

$$K\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^N O_{\alpha_i}.$$

For any point $x \in K$ there exist $O_{\alpha_j} \in \{O_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^N$, s.t. $x \in O_{\alpha_j}$ and exists $\delta_x > 0$, s.t. $B_{\delta_x/2}(x) \subseteq B_{\delta_x}(x) \subseteq O_{\alpha_j}$ for O_{α_j} is open. Obviously we have that $B_{\delta_x/2}(x)$ is an open cover of K, i.e.

$$K\subseteq\bigcup_{x\in K}B_{\delta_x/2}(x),$$

and $B_{\delta_x/2}(x)$ has an finite subcover of K, donate as $\{B_{\delta_{x_i}/2}(x_i)\}_{i=1}^M$. Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_{x_i}\}_{i=1}^M$. Then for any $y \in K$, there exists $B_{\delta_{x_j}/2}(x_j) \in \{B_{\delta_{x_i}/2}(x_i)\}_{i=1}^M$ such that $y \in B_{\delta_{x_j}/2}(x_j)$ and $d(y,x_j) < \delta_{x_j}/2$. and for any y' where $d(y',y) < \delta/2 < \delta_{x_j}/2$, we have $d(x_j,y') \leq d(x_j,y) + d(y,y') < \delta_{x_j}$, thus $y,y' \in B_{\delta_{x_j}}(x_j) \subseteq O_{\alpha'}$, or say $y,y' \in B_{\delta/2}(y) \subseteq B_{\delta_{x_j}}(x_j) \subseteq O_{\alpha'}$.

The theorem indicates for any open cover O_{α} of K, $\exists \delta > 0$, s.t. for $\forall x \in K, x' \in X$, is $d(x,x') < \delta$, then $\exists \alpha \in A$ we have $x,x' \in O_{\alpha}$. Such a $\delta > 0$ is called a **Lebesgue**

number of the given open cover $O_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$. Notice that the statement could be false if the compactness assumption is dropped.

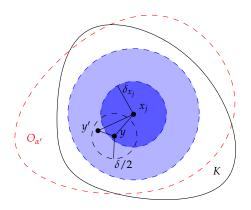
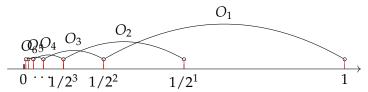
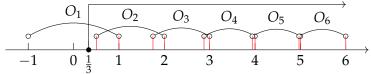


Figure 2.2: The Lebesgue number of an open cover

Exercise 11 (Open set). Let $(X,d)=(\mathbb{R},d_2)$, K=(0,1), $O_{\alpha}=(1/2^{\alpha+1},1/2^{\alpha-1})(\alpha\in\mathbb{N})$. Thus $1/2^{\alpha}\in O_{\alpha}$ and $\notin O_{\alpha'}$ if $\alpha'\neq\alpha(\alpha,\alpha'\in\mathbb{N})$. It is easy to check O_{α} is an open cover of K, but $|1/2^{\alpha}-1/2^{\alpha+1}|=1/2^{\alpha+1}$ can be arbitrarily small if $\alpha\uparrow$. Thus there exists $x\in K$, $x'\in X$ can not be covered one O_{α} , no matter how close they are.



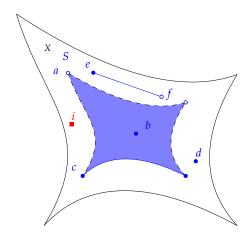
Exercise 12 (Unbounded set). Let $(X,d) = (\mathbb{R},d_2)$, $K = [1/3,\infty)$, $O_{\alpha} = (\alpha-1-1/2^{\alpha-1},\alpha)(\alpha \in \mathbb{N})$. Thus $x = \alpha-1/2^{\alpha} \in O_{\alpha}$ and $x' = \alpha \in O_{\alpha+1}$ and d(x,x') could be arbitrarily small as $\alpha \uparrow$. Thus there exists $x \in K$, $x' \in X$ can not be covered one O_{α} , no matter how close they are.



Definition 12 (Isolated point, limit point and accumulation point). Let (X,d) be a metric space and $S \subseteq X$. A point $x \in X$ is called:

- an **isolated point** of *S*, if $\exists \epsilon > 0$, s.t. $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap S = \{x\} \ (\Rightarrow x \in S)$;
- a limit point of S, if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, s.t. $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap S \setminus \{x\} \neq \emptyset$;
- an accumulation point of S, if \exists seq. $a_n \in S(n \in \mathbb{N})$, s.t. $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$.

Example 6. $S \subseteq X$ is as the figure, point $i \notin S$:



Then

point	iso. pts. of S	limit pts. of <i>S</i>	acc. pts. of S	$\in S$
i	×	×	×	×
а	×	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	×
b	×	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$
С	×	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	
d		×	$\sqrt{}$	
e	×	$\sqrt{}$	$\sqrt{}$	
h	×	\checkmark	\checkmark	×

Notice that x is a isolated point of $S \Rightarrow x \in S$; but x is a limit/accumulate point of $S \not\Rightarrow x \in S$.

Exercise 13. Let (X, d) be a metric space, $S \subseteq X$,

- 1. Show that x is an isolated/limit point of $S \Rightarrow x$ is a accumulate point of S;
- 2. Donate {iso. pts. ofS}, {limit pts. ofS} and {acc. pts. ofS} by I_S , L_S , A_S respectively. Show that $I_S \cup L_S = A_S$;
- 3. Suppose $E \subseteq K \subseteq X$, where E is infinite and K is compact, show that $L_E \neq \emptyset$; (Prove by contradiction)
- *Proof.* 1. If x is an isolated point of S, thus $x \in S$. Let $a_n \equiv x$, then $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = x$, thus x is an accumulate point of S; If x is a limit point of S, then for any $\epsilon > 0$, $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap S \setminus \{x\} \neq \emptyset$. Let $a_n \in B_{1/n}(x) (n \in \mathbb{N})$, then $d(a_n, x) < 1/n$ for $\forall n \in N$, thus $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = x$, and x is an accumulate point of S.
- 2. We have obtained that $I_S, L_S \subseteq A_S$. Suppose $x \in A_S \setminus (I_S \cup L_S) \neq \emptyset$. Which means : (1) there exists seq. $a_n \in S$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = x$; (2) $\forall \epsilon > 0$, s.t. $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap S \neq \{x\}$ $(\neg I_S)$;(3) $\exists \epsilon' > 0$, s.t. $B_{\epsilon'}(x) \cap S \setminus \{x\} = \emptyset$ $(\neg L_S)$. Let $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap S = Q_{\epsilon} \neq \{x\}$, if $x \in Q_{\epsilon}$, then it leads to a contradiction with (3); If $x \notin Q_{\epsilon}$, then $Q_{\epsilon'} = \emptyset$, that is $Q_{\epsilon'}(x) \cap S = \emptyset$ and for $\forall s \in S \Rightarrow d(s,x) \geq \epsilon'$, which leads to a contradiction with (1). Thus $Q_S \setminus (I_S \cup I_S) = \emptyset$. Because $Q_S \setminus I_S \subseteq A_S$, we have $Q_S \setminus I_S \subseteq A_S$.

3. We claim there exists a limit point s of E in K, i.e. $\exists s \in K$ s.t. $\forall r > 0$, $B_r(s) \cap E \setminus \{s\} \neq \emptyset$.

Assume the contrary, that is $\forall s \in K, \exists r_s > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_{r_s}(s) \cap E \setminus \{s\} = \emptyset$, and $B_{r_s}(s)(s \in K)$ form an open cover of K: $K = \bigcup_{s \in K} B_{r_s}(s)$. Since K is compact, there exists $s_1, \dots, s_n \in K$ s.t. $K = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_{r_{s_i}}(s_i)$.

Define $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$, then

$$K \cap E \backslash S = \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_{r_{s_i}}(s_i) \right) \cap E \backslash S$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_{r_{s_i}}(s_i E \backslash S)$$
$$= \emptyset$$

but since *E* is infinite set, *S* is finite set and $E \subseteq K \Rightarrow K \cap E \setminus S = E \setminus S \neq \emptyset$, which is contrary.

Remark 13. Refer to the proof method of

Exercise 14. Let $(X,d) = (\mathbb{R}, d_2)$, $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, show that if $\sup S$ (inf S) exists, then it is an accumulate point.

Proof. If sup $S\exists$, then for $\forall x \in S$, s.t. $x \le \sup S$ and for $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists x' \in S$, s.t. $\sup S - \epsilon < x'$. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $x_n \in S$ s.t. $\sup S - 1/n < x' \le \sup S$, and $d(x_n, \sup S) < 1/n$, thus $x_n \to \sup S$ as $n \to \infty$. □

Exercise 15. Show that, if (X, d) be a metric space, then

$$S \subseteq_{close} X \Leftrightarrow A_S = S \Leftrightarrow L_S \subseteq S$$
.

Proof. For any $x \in S$, let $a_n = x$, then $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = x$, thus $S \subseteq A_S$. Since example (??), we have $S \subseteq_{close} X \Leftrightarrow A_S = S$. \Rightarrow Since $I_S \cup I_S = A_S$, we have $I_S \subseteq A_S = S$; \Leftrightarrow , for $I_S \subseteq A_S \subseteq S$, we have $I_S \subseteq A_S = S$.

2.3 Functions on metric space

Definition 13 (Continuous). Let (X, d_X) , (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. $a \in S \subseteq X$, $f : S \mapsto Y$, we say

- 1. map f is continuous at a if for $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$, for $\forall x \in B_{\delta}(a) \cap S$, s.t. $f(x) \in B_{\epsilon}(f(a))$, that is $f(B_{\delta}(a)) \subseteq B_{\epsilon}(f(a))$.
- 2. map f is a continuous map if f is continuous at every $a \in S$.

Exercise 16. Given a map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$, $a \in X$, Show that

- 1. f is continuous at $a \Leftrightarrow for \ \forall V \subseteq_{open} Y$, where $f(a) \in V$, $\exists U \subseteq_{open} X$, where $a \in U$, such that $f(U) \subseteq V$.
- 2. f is a continuous map \Leftrightarrow for $\forall V \subseteq_{open} Y, f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X$.

Proof. 1. \Rightarrow : for $\forall V \subseteq_{open} Y$, where $f(a) \in V$, $\exists \epsilon > 0$, s.t. $B_{\epsilon}(f(a)) \subseteq V$, thus $\exists U = B_{\delta}(a)$. \Leftarrow : trivial.

2. \Rightarrow : Given an open set $V \subseteq_{open} Y$, for $\forall x \in f^{-1}(V)$, have $f(x) \in V$. Since V is open, $\exists r > 0$ s.t. $B_r(f(x)) \subseteq V$. Since f(x) is continuous map, $\exists \epsilon > 0$, s.t. $f(B_{\epsilon}(x)) \subseteq B_r(f(x)) \subseteq V \Rightarrow B_{\epsilon}(x) \in f^{-1}(V)$, thus $f^{-1}(V)$ is open.

$$\Leftarrow$$
: Given $x \in X$, $f(x) \in Y$, given $r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(f(x)) \subseteq Y$, then $f^{-1}(B_r(f(x))) \subseteq_{open} X$, and $x \in f^{-1}(B_r(f(x)))$. Thus $\exists \epsilon > 0$, s.t. $B_{\epsilon}(x) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_r(f(x)))$ and $f(B_{\epsilon}(x)) \subseteq B_r(f(x))$.

Remark 14. It can also be proved that f is cont. \Leftrightarrow for $\forall V \subseteq_{close} Y$, $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{close} X$. Suppose $V \subseteq_{close} Y$, then $X \setminus f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(X \setminus V) \subseteq_{open} X$, thus $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{close} X$.

Exercise 17. Given maps $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$, $Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$, show that

- 1. If f is continuous at x_0 , g is continuous at $f(x_0)$, then $g \circ f$ is continuous at x_0 .
- 2. If f, g are continuous maps, then $g \circ f$ is a continuous map.

Proof. 1. For any V, s.t. $g(f(x_0)) \in V \subseteq_{open} Z$, $\exists U$, s.t. $f(x_0) \in U \subseteq_{open} Y$, $\exists W$, s.t. $x_0 \in W \subseteq X$, thus $g \circ f$ is continuous at x_0 .

2. For any
$$V \subseteq_{open} Z$$
, $\exists U \subseteq_{open} Y$, $\exists W \subseteq_{open} X$, thus $g \circ f$ is continuous.

Remark 15. Note that we prove this exercise using general sets instead of metrics. We replaced open ball with open set in last Exercise, this is a meaningful operation, which means we could **substitute the metric with set** (here is open set), which drives the concept of topology. Generally, topology is a family of sets which have the basic properties, using these sets, we can define open set no longer rely on metric d.

Theorem 7. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous map between metric space, X is compact, then $\max_{x \in X} f(x), \min_{x \in X} f(x)$ exists.

Proof. 1. f is bdd. and hence $\sup_{x \in X} f(x)$ exists (l.u.b. property):

Assume the contrary. Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists x_n \in X \text{ s.t. } f(x_n) > n \text{ and we can form a seq. } x_n(n \in \mathbb{N}) \text{ which is a infinite subset of a compact set, thus there exists } a \in X \text{ and a convergent subseq. } x_{n_k}(k \in \mathbb{N}) \to a \text{ as } k \to \infty \text{ (see Remark 16). And hence } \lim_{k\to\infty} f(x_{n_k}) = f(a) \text{ since } f \text{ is continuous, which leads to a contradiction with } f(x_{n_k}) \geq n_k. \text{ Thus } f \text{ is bdd. (Continuous map on compact set is bounded)}$

2. Let $M = \sup_{x \in X} f(x)$, then $\exists x \in X$, s.t. f(x) = M:

Assume the contrary, i.e. $\forall x \in X, f(x) < M$. Then the map $X \xrightarrow{\phi} \mathbb{R}$ where $x \mapsto$

1/(M-f(x)) is well-defined continuous map, and hence ϕ is bounded by 1. Then for any $R \in \mathbb{R}_+, 1/R > 0$ and $\exists x \in X$ s.t.

$$M - \frac{1}{R} < f(x) \le M$$

thus $\phi(x) = 1/(M - f(x)) > R$ which leads to a contradiction with ϕ is bdd.

Remark 16. Two facts:

- 1. Any infinite set of a compact set *K* has a limit point in *K* (Exercise 13);
- 2. x is a limit point of $A \subseteq X$, where X is a metric space $\Leftrightarrow \exists seq. \ a_n \in A \setminus \{x\} (n \in \mathbb{N})$, s.t. $a_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$ (Exercise 63).

These two facts generalize the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem (Theorem 4) from \mathbb{R}^n space to general metric space.

2.4 Uniformly continuous function

Recall that the concept of continuous map: let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a map between metric space,

- *f* is continuous
- \Leftrightarrow *f* is continuous at every $x \in X$
- $\Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0, \forall x \in X, \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\forall x' \in X, d(x, x') < \delta \Rightarrow d(f(x), f'(x)) < \epsilon$ (or say $f(B_{\delta}(x)) \subseteq B_{\epsilon}(f(x))$). Note that here the order of x and ϵ does not matter, and δ relies on the choice of x and ϵ .

Definition 14 (Uniformly continuous, 均匀连续). Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a map between metric space, we say f is uniformly continuous if

• $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. for } \forall x, x' \in X, d(x, x') < \delta \Rightarrow d(f(x), f(x')) < \epsilon.$

Remark 17. Now, δ only relies on the choice of ϵ . If f is uniformly continuous $\Rightarrow f$ is continuous.

For a given $\epsilon > 0$ and $x \in X$, consider the set

$$\Delta_x := \{ \delta > 0 | f(B_{\delta}(x) \subseteq B_{\epsilon}(f(x)) \}$$

Then if f is continuous at $x \Leftrightarrow \Delta_x \neq \emptyset$. And if f is continuous at x, define ϵ - **threshold** of f at x as

$$\delta_{f,\epsilon}(x) := \sup \Delta_x$$

Consider a map $(0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ where $x \mapsto 1/x$, if any δ works for the given ϵ and x, then

$$\frac{1}{x-\delta} - \frac{1}{x} = \frac{\delta}{(x-\delta)x} < \epsilon$$

thus $\delta < \epsilon(x - \delta)x < x^2\epsilon \Rightarrow \delta_{f,\epsilon}(x) \le x^2\epsilon \to 0$ as $x \to 0$, thus there does not exist a δ for given ϵ such that works for all $x \in X$.

Theorem 8. If $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a continuous map between metric space and X is compact, then f is uniformly continuous.

Proof 1. Given $\epsilon > 0$, for every $a \in X$, choose a number $\delta_a > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \in X$, $f(B_{\delta_a}(a)) \subseteq B_{\epsilon/2}(f(a))$. Then $B_{\delta_a}(a)(a \in X)$ is an open cover of X, then let $\delta > 0$ be a Lebesgue number of this cover.

Thus for
$$\forall x, x' \in X, d(x, x') < \delta \Rightarrow \exists a \in X, \text{ s.t. } x, x' \in B_{\delta_a}(a) \Rightarrow f(x), f(x') \in B_{\epsilon/2}(f(a)) \Rightarrow d(f(x), f(x')) \leq d(f(x), f(a)) + d(f(a), f(x')) < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon.$$

Proof 2.

Exercise 18. Let a < 1, show that $[0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ where $x \mapsto a^x$ is uniformly continuous.

2.5 Limit superior / inferior for function

Let *X* be metric space, $S \subseteq X$ and $S \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ be a map, for $a \in X$, we define

$$\overline{f}^*(\delta) := \sup_{x \in B_{\delta}(a) \setminus \{a\}} (a) = \sup\{f(x) | 0 < d(x, a) < \delta\}$$

$$\underline{f}^*(\delta) := \inf_{x \in B_{\delta}(a) \setminus \{a\}} \{a\} = \inf\{f(x) | 0 < d(x, a) < \delta\}$$

It is direct to see that $\overline{f}^*_{\searrow}$ as $\delta \to 0$: Assume that if $\exists \delta < \delta'$ and $\overline{f}^*(\delta) > \overline{f}^*(\delta')$, let

$$\epsilon = \overline{f}^*(\delta) - \overline{f}^*(\delta')$$

then $\exists x \in B_{\delta}(a) \setminus \{a\} \subseteq B_{\delta'}(a) \setminus \{a\}$ such that

$$\overline{f}^*(\delta) \ge f(x) > \overline{f}^*(\delta) - \epsilon/2 > \overline{f}^*(\delta') = \sup_{x \in B_{\delta'}(a) \setminus \{a\}} f(x),$$

which is contrary. Thus similarly, $\underline{f}^*_{\nearrow}$ as $\delta \to 0$. For any $\delta, \delta' \in \mathbb{R}$, we have that

$$f^*(\delta) \leq f^*(\min\{\delta, \delta'\}) \leq \overline{f}^*(\min\{\delta, \delta'\}) \leq \overline{f}^*(\delta')$$

thus $\underline{f}^*(\delta)$ has upper bound and $\overline{f}^*(\delta)$ has lower bound when $\delta \to 0$. And hence $\overline{f}^*(\delta)$ converges to its infimum: assume the contrary, if $\lim_{\delta \to 0} \overline{f}^*(\delta) > \inf_{\delta > 0} \overline{f}^*(\delta)$, then $\exists \epsilon > 0$ and $\delta' > 0$ s.t.

$$\inf_{\delta>0}\overline{f}^*(\delta) \leq \overline{f}^*(\delta') < \inf_{\delta>0}\overline{f}^*(\delta) + \epsilon < \lim_{\delta\to0}\overline{f}^*(\delta)$$

and hence $\forall \delta < \delta'$ has

$$\overline{f}^*(\delta) \leq \overline{f}^*(\delta') < \lim_{\delta \to 0} \overline{f}^*(\delta)$$

since $\overline{f}^*(\delta)_{\searrow}$ as $\delta \to 0$. And it is contrary.

Thus $\overline{f}^*(\delta)$ converges to its infimum, $f^*(\delta)$ converges to its supremum, and we can define

$$\limsup_{x \to a} f(x) := \overline{\lim_{x \to a}^{*}} f(x) := \inf_{\delta > 0} \overline{f}^{*}(\delta) = \inf_{\delta > 0} \sup_{x \in B_{\delta}(a) \setminus \{a\}} f(x)$$

$$\liminf_{x \to a} f(x) := \underline{\lim}_{x \to a}^* f(x) := \inf_{\delta > 0} \underline{f}^*(\delta) = \sup_{\delta > 0} \inf_{x \in B_{\delta}(a) \setminus \{a\}} f(x)$$

Corresponding, we can define the 'non - *' conception by containing the {a}:

$$\overline{f}(\delta) := \sup_{x \in B_{\delta}(a)} (a) = \sup\{f(x) | 0 \le d(x, a) < \delta\}$$

$$\underline{f}(\delta) := \inf_{x \in B_{\delta}(a)} (a) = \inf\{f(x) | 0 \le d(x, a) < \delta\}$$

and

$$\limsup_{x \to a} f(x) := \overline{\lim}_{x \to a} f(x) := \inf_{\delta \ge 0} \overline{f}(\delta) = \inf_{\delta \ge 0} \sup_{x \in B_{\delta}(a)} f(x)$$

$$\liminf_{x \to a} f(x) := \varliminf_{x \to a} f(x) := \inf_{\delta \geq 0} \underline{f}(\delta) = \sup_{\delta > 0} \inf_{x \in B_{\delta}(a)} f(x)$$

Then it is direct to see that

$$\underline{\lim}_{x \to a} f(x) \le \underline{\lim}_{x \to a}^* f(x) \le \overline{\lim}_{x \to a}^* f(x) \le \overline{\lim}_{x \to a}^* f(x)$$

Example 7. Consider a map $\mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ where $x \mapsto 1$ if $x \neq 0$ and $0 \mapsto 0$, then

$$\frac{\lim_{x \to 0}^{*} f(x) = 1, \qquad \lim_{x \to 0}^{*} f(x) = 1}{\lim_{x \to 0}^{*} f(x) = 1, \qquad \lim_{x \to 0}^{*} f(x) = 0}$$

$$\overline{\lim_{x \to 0}} f(x) = 1, \quad \underline{\lim_{x \to 0}} f(x) = 0$$

Exercise 19. Let X be metric space, $a \in S \subseteq X$ and $S \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ be a map, show that

- 1. $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$ exists $\Leftrightarrow \overline{\lim}_{x\to a}^* f(x)$ and $\underline{\lim}_{x\to a}^* f(x)$ exists and equal to each other.
- 2. f(x) is continuous at a exists $\Leftrightarrow \overline{\lim}_{x\to a} f(x)$ and $\underline{\lim}_{x\to a} f(x)$ exists and equal to each other.

Chapter 3

Topology Space and Basis

3.1 Topology Space

Definition 15 (Topology Space). A topology space $X = (\underline{X}, \mathcal{T}_X)$ consists of a set \underline{X} , called the underlying space of X and a family \mathcal{T}_X of subset of \underline{X} (i.e. $\mathcal{T}_X \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$) s.t.

- 1. \underline{X} , $\emptyset \in \mathscr{T}_X$;
- 2. $U_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{T}_X(\alpha \in A) \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{T}_X;$
- 3. $U, U' \in \mathscr{T}_X \Rightarrow U \cap U' \in \mathscr{T}_X$.

 \mathscr{T}_X is called a topology on \underline{X} , the element in \mathscr{T}_X is called the open set on \underline{X} w.r.t. \mathscr{T}_X .

Remark 18. Conventionally, we usually use X to indicate the set \underline{X} and omit the subscript X in \mathscr{T}_X by saying 'a topology space (X, \mathscr{T}) '.

Exercise 20. Let X be a topology space, $U \subseteq X$, show that U is open \Leftrightarrow for any $u \in U$, $\exists O_u \subseteq U$, s.t. $u \in O_u \subseteq_{open} X$.

Proof. ⇒: define $O_u := U$ for $\forall u \in U$; \Leftarrow : since $O_u \subseteq U$, $\cup_{u \in U} O_u \subseteq U$; on the other hand, for any $v \in U$, $v \in O_v \subseteq \cup_{u \in U} O_u \Rightarrow U \subseteq \cup_{u \in U} O_u$. Thus $U = \cup_{u \in U} O_u \subseteq_{open} X$.

Definition 16 (Continuous). Let X and Y are top. spaces and $\underline{X} \xrightarrow{f} \underline{Y}$ is a map. We say f is conti. at a point $x_0 \in X$ (from X to Y), if for $\forall f(x_0) \in V \in \mathscr{T}_Y$, $\exists x \in U \in \mathscr{T}_X$, s.t. $f(U) \subseteq V$.

We say f is continuous (from X to Y) if it is continuous at every point of \underline{X} .

Remark 19. We will denote $U \in \mathscr{T}_X$ as $U \subseteq_{open} X$, and denote $X \setminus A \subseteq_{open} X$ as $A \subseteq_{close} X$.

Definition 17 (Compact). X is a top. sp. $K \subseteq \underline{X}$. We say K is compact in X if $\forall U_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X(\alpha \in A), K \subseteq \cup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} \Rightarrow \exists$ finite set $S \subseteq A$, s.t. $K \subseteq \cup_{\alpha \in S} U_{\alpha}$, and denote by $K \subseteq_{cpt} X$. We say X is a compact space if \underline{X} is compact in X.

Definition 18 (Neighborhood). Let X be a top. sp. and $x \in X$. A subset N of X is called a neighborhood of x if $\exists U \subseteq N$, s.t. $x \in U \subseteq_{open} X$. (That is $x \in N^o$.)

Exercise 21. $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a map between top. sp., $x_0 \in X$, show that f is conti. at $x_0 \Leftrightarrow \forall$ nbd. V of $f(x_0), \exists$ nbd. U of x_0 , s.t. $f(U) \subseteq V \Leftrightarrow \forall$ nbd. V of $f(x_0)$, $f^{-1}(V)$ is a nbd. of x_0 .

Proof. 1. \Rightarrow : Suppose $V \subseteq Y$ is a nbd. of $f(x_0)$, then $\exists V_0 \subseteq V$, s.t. $f(x_0) \in V_0 \subseteq_{open} Y \Rightarrow \exists U_0 \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $x \in U_0$ and $f(U_0) \subseteq V_0$, since f is conti. at x_0 . Thus U_0 is the nbd. that we desire.

 \Leftarrow : For any open set $V_0 \subseteq_{open} Y$ and $f(x_0) \in V_0$, V_0 is a nbd. of $f(x_0)$. Thus \exists a nbd. U of x_0 such that $\exists U_0 \subseteq U, x_0 \in U_0 \subseteq_{open} X$. And $f(U_0) \subseteq f(U) \subseteq V_0$. Thus f is conti. 2. \Rightarrow : For any nbd. V of $f(x_0)$, \exists nbd. U of x_0 and $\exists U_0 \subseteq U$, s.t. $x_0 \in U_0 \subseteq_{open} X$ and $f(U) \subseteq V$. Thus $x_0 \in U_0 \subseteq U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$, that is $U \in f^{-1}(V)$ and $x_0 \in U_0 \subseteq_{open} X$, thus $f^{-1}(V)$ is a nbd. of x_0 .

←: Trivial.

Definition 19 (Separation Axioms). Let *X* be a top. space:

- (T_0 or Kolmogorov Space) For any distinct $x, y \in X$, $\exists U \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $x \in U \not\ni y$ or $y \in U \not\ni x$.
- (T_1 or Fréchet Space) For any distinct $x, y \in X$, $\exists U, V \subseteq_{open} X, x \in U \not\ni y$ and $y \in V \not\ni x$.
- (T_2 or Hausdorff Space) For any distinct $x,y \in X, \exists U,V \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $x \in U,y \in V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.
- (T_3 or Regular Space) If X is a T_1 space, and $\forall x \in X, C \subseteq_{close} X, x \notin C \Rightarrow \exists U, V \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $x \in U, C \in V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.
- (T_4 or Normal Space) If X is a T_1 space, and $\forall C_1, C_2 \subseteq_{close} X, C_1 \cap C_2 = \emptyset \Rightarrow \exists U, V \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $C_1 \subseteq U, C_2 \subseteq V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Exercise 22. Show that X is a T_1 space $\Leftrightarrow \forall x \in X, \{x\} \subseteq_{close} X$.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Given $x \in X$, for any $y \in X \setminus \{x\}$, there exists $U_y \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $y \in U_y \not\ni x$. Thus $\bigcup_{y \in X \setminus \{x\}} U_y \subseteq_{open} X$. If $z \in \bigcup_{y \in X \setminus \{x\}} U_y$, $\exists y' \in X$, s.t. $z \in U_{y'} \subseteq_{open} X$ and $x \notin U_{y'} \Rightarrow z \neq x \Rightarrow z \in X \setminus \{x\}$. For any $z \in X \setminus \{x\} \Rightarrow \exists U_z \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $z \in U_z \not\ni x \Rightarrow z \in \bigcup_{y \in X \setminus \{x\}} U_y$. Thus $X \setminus \{x\} = \bigcup_{y \in X \setminus \{x\}} U_y \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow \{x\} \subseteq_{close} X$.

 \Leftarrow : For any distinct $x, y \in X$, $x \in X \setminus \{y\} \subseteq_{open} X$ and $y \in X \setminus \{x\} \subseteq_{open} X$ where $x \notin X \setminus \{x\}$ and $y \notin X \setminus \{y\}$.

There are some examples of topologies:

Example 8. *X* is a set, $\mathcal{P}(X)$ is called discrete topology; (\emptyset, X) is called trivial topology. Note that discrete topology is defined by discrete metric:

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

Thus $\{x\} \subseteq B_{1/2}(x)$ for any $x \in X$, and any $S \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ is the union of these balls, i.e. $S = \bigcup_{x \in S} B_{1/2}(x)$, and holds an open set in discrete topology.

But trivial topology can not be defined by metric. If it can, then $\forall x \in X, \exists r_x > 0$, s.t. $B_{r_x}(x) \subseteq X$, which implies $B_{r_x}(x) \in (\emptyset, X)$ and leads to a contradiction.

Example 9. X is an uncountable set. $\mathscr{T}_c := \{U \subseteq X | U = \emptyset \lor X \backslash U \text{ is countable}\}\$ is called **co-countable** topology. Thus any countable set in X is the close set on topology space (X, \mathscr{T}_c) .

Similarly, $\mathscr{T}_f := \{U \subseteq X | U = \emptyset \lor X \setminus U \text{ is finite}\}$ is called **co-finite** topology. Thus any finite set in X is the close set on topology space (X, \mathscr{T}_f) .

It is direct to see \mathcal{T}_c and \mathcal{T}_f are topology:

- 1. $\emptyset \in \mathscr{T}_c, X \in \mathscr{T}_c$ for $X \setminus X = \emptyset$ is countable;
- 2. Any $U_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{T}_{c}(\alpha \in A) \Rightarrow X \setminus U_{\alpha}$ is countable $\Rightarrow X \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} (X \setminus U_{\alpha})$ is the intersection of countable sets, thus be countable $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} \in \mathscr{T}_{c}$.
- 3. $U, V \in \mathscr{T}_c \Rightarrow X \setminus (U \cap V) = (X \setminus U) \cup (X \setminus V)$ is countable, thus $U \cap V \in \mathscr{T}_c$.

3.2 Interior & Closure

Definition 20. *X* is a top. sp., $p \in X$, $A \subseteq X$:

- 1. p is an interior point of A in X, if \exists nbd. U of p, s.t. $U \subseteq A$;
- 2. p is an exterior point of A in X, if \exists nbd. U of p, s.t. $U \subseteq X \setminus A$, i.e. $U \cap A = \emptyset$;
- 3. p is a boundary point of A in X, if \forall nbd. U of p, s.t. $U \cap A \neq \emptyset \neq U \cap (X \setminus A)$;

Correspondingly, define

- 1. $int_X A = A^o := \{all \text{ interior point of } A \text{ in } X\},$
- 2. $ext_X A = A^e := \{all \text{ exterior point of } A \text{ in } X\},$
- 3. $bd_X A = \partial A := \{ \text{all boundary point of } A \text{ in } X \}$

Example 10. Given a top. space $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{T}_d)$, where $d = |x - y|, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Let A = [0, 1). Then $A^{\circ} = (0, 1), A^{e} = (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty), \partial A = \{0, 1\}$.

Exercise 23. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a top. sp., show that A° , A^{e} are open sets (on X w.r.t \mathcal{T}); ∂A is close set.

Proof. 1. $\forall x \in A^{\circ}, \exists U_x \in \mathscr{T}$, s.t. $x \in U_x$, thus $A^{\circ} = \bigcup_{x \in A^{\circ}} U_x \in \mathscr{T}$, thus A° is open on X w.r.t. \mathscr{T} .

2. A^e is the interior of $X \setminus A$ by definition, thus A^e is open.

3.
$$A^{\circ}, A^{e} \in \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow A^{\circ} \cup A^{e} \in \mathcal{T}$$
, thus $\partial A = X \setminus (A^{\circ} \cup A^{e}) \in \mathcal{T}$.

Exercise 24. Given a topology space (X, \mathcal{T}) , $A \subseteq X$, show that

$$A^{\circ} = \bigcup \{ U | U \subseteq_{open} A \}.$$

Proof. \subseteq : for $\forall x \in A^{\circ}$, $\exists U \in \mathcal{T}$, s.t. $x \in U \subseteq A \Rightarrow x \in \cup \{U | U \subseteq_{open} A\}$; \supseteq : for $\forall x \in \cup \{U | U \subseteq_{open} A\}$, $\exists U_x \subseteq_{open} A$, s.t. $x \in U_x$, thus x is an interior point, and $x \in A^{\circ}$. \Box

Definition 21 (Closure). Given a topology space (X, \mathcal{T}) , $A \subseteq X$, the set

$$\overline{A} = cls_x A := \bigcap \{C | A \subseteq C \subseteq_{close} X\}$$

is called the closure of A in X w.r.t. \mathcal{T} .

Remark 20. A° is the **largest open set** in X contained in A. Thus,

$$A = A^{\circ} \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq_{open} X \Leftrightarrow \partial A \cap A = \emptyset$$

for $\partial A \cap A = \partial A \cap A^{\circ} = \emptyset$. And furthermore $(A^{\circ})^{\circ} = A^{\circ}$. \overline{A} is the **smallest close set** in X containing in A. Thus,

$$A = \overline{A} \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq_{close} X \Leftrightarrow \partial A \subseteq A$$

for $\partial A \subseteq A^{\circ} \cup \partial A = \overline{A} = A$. And furthermore $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$.

Exercise 25. Given a topology space (X, \mathcal{T}) , $A \subseteq X$, show that $\overline{A} = A^{\circ} \cup \partial A$.

Proof.

$$A^{\circ} \cup \partial A = X \backslash A^{e}$$

$$= X \backslash (X \backslash A)^{\circ}$$

$$= X \backslash \cup \{U | U \subseteq_{open} X \backslash A\}$$

$$= \cap \{X \backslash U | U \subseteq_{open} X \backslash A\}$$

$$= \cap \{C | A \subseteq C \subseteq_{close} X\}$$

$$= \overline{A}.$$

Remark 21.

$$U \subseteq X \setminus A$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall x \in U \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus A$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall x \notin X \setminus A \Rightarrow x \notin U$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall x \in A \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus U$$

$$\Rightarrow A \subseteq X \setminus U,$$

U is open $\Rightarrow X \setminus U$ is close, hence $C = X \setminus U \subseteq_{close} A$.

Exercise 26. Show that $X \setminus \overline{A} = (X \setminus A)^{\circ}$ and $X \setminus A^{\circ} = \overline{(X \setminus A)}$.

Proof. 1.

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

$$= X \backslash A^{e}$$

$$= X \backslash (X \backslash A)^{\circ}$$

$$X \backslash \overline{A} = (X \backslash A)^{\circ}.$$

2.

$$X \backslash A^{\circ} = A^{e} \cup \partial A$$
$$= (X \backslash A)^{c} \cup \partial (X \backslash A)$$
$$= \overline{(X \backslash A)}.$$

Remark 22. We denote $X \setminus A$ as A^c if X is clearly given. Thus

$$(\overline{A})^c = (A^c)^\circ$$
$$(A^\circ)^c = \overline{A^c}$$

Exercise 27. If $A \subseteq B$, show that $A^{\circ} \subseteq B^{\circ}$, $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$.

Proof. 1. Given $x \in A^{\circ} = \bigcup \{U | U \subseteq_{open} A\}$, $\exists U_x \subseteq_{open} A$, s.t. $x \in U_x \subseteq_{open} A \subseteq B$, thus $x \in \bigcup \{V | V \subseteq_{open} B\}$, and $x \in B^{\circ}$. 2. the same way with 1.

Exercise 28. Given a set U, (denote \overline{U} as U^- ,) show that $U \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow U^- = U^{-c-c-}$.

Proof.

$$U^{-c-c-} = (U^{-})^{c-c-}$$
$$= (U^{-})^{\circ cc-}$$
$$= U^{-\circ -}$$

$$U \subseteq U^- \Rightarrow U = U^\circ \subseteq U^{-\circ} \Rightarrow U^- \subseteq U^{-\circ-}$$
. Let $C = U^- \subseteq_{close} X$, thus $C^\circ \subseteq C \Rightarrow C^{\circ-} \subseteq C^- = C \Rightarrow U^{-\circ-} \subseteq U^-$, thus $U^- = U^{-\circ-} = U^{-c-c-}$.

Exercise 29 (Kuratowski's 14 sets). *Given a top. sp. X, A* \subseteq *X, Show that among*

$$A, A^{-}, A^{-c}, A^{-c-}, A^{-c-c} \cdots$$

 $A^{c}, A^{c-}, A^{c-c}, A^{c-c-} \cdots$

there are at most 14 different subsets of A.

Proof. On the one hand,

$$A, A^{-}, \underbrace{A^{-c}}_{open}, A^{-c-}, A^{-c-c}, A^{-c-c-}, A^{-c-c-c}, \underbrace{A^{-c-c-c-}}_{=(A^{-c})^{-c-c-}}, \cdots$$

On the other hand,

$$A^{c}, A^{c-}, \underbrace{A^{c-c}}_{open}, A^{c-c-}, A^{c-c-c}, A^{c-c-c-}, \underbrace{A^{c-c-c-c-}}_{=(A^{c-c})^{-c-c-}}, \cdots$$

thus there are at most 14 different subsets of A.

Definition 22. *X* is a top. sp., $p \in X$, $A \subseteq X$:

- 1. p is an isolated point of A in X, if \exists nbd. U of p, s.t. $U \cap A = \{p\}$;
- 2. p is a limit point of A in X, if \forall nbd. U of p, $U \cap (A \setminus \{p\}) \neq \emptyset$.

Correspondingly, define $L_A := \{\text{all limit point of } A \text{ in } X\}.$

Exercise 30. *Show that* $\partial A \setminus A \subseteq L_A$.

Proof.
$$x \in \partial A \setminus A \Rightarrow x \in \partial A$$
 and $x \notin A \Rightarrow$ for any nbd. U of x , $U \cap A = U \cap (A \setminus \{x\}) = U \cap A \setminus \{x\} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in L_A$.

Remark 23. In general, $\partial A \not\subseteq L_A$. For example, if x is an isolate point of A, then it is a boundary point of A, but not be the limit point of A.

Exercise 31. *Show that* $\overline{A} = A \cup L_A$.

Proof 1. 1. $\overline{A} \subseteq A \cup L_A$: If $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in A \cup L_A$; If $x \in \overline{A} \setminus A$: since $x \in \overline{A} = A^o \cup \partial A = X \setminus A^e$, any nbd. U of x has $U \not\subseteq X \setminus A \Rightarrow U \cap A \neq \emptyset$. Since $x \notin A$, $U \cap A = U \cap (A \setminus \{x\}) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in L_A$.

2.
$$A \cup L_A \subseteq \overline{A}$$
: If $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in \overline{A}$; If $x \in L_A \Rightarrow$ any nbd. U of x has $U \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow x \notin A^e \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus A^e = \overline{A}$.

Proof 2. 1. $\overline{A} = A^o \cup \partial A = A^o \cup (\partial A \cap A) \cup (\partial A \setminus A)$. If $x \in A^o \cup (\partial A \cap A) \Rightarrow x \in A$; if $x \in \partial A \setminus A \Rightarrow x \in L_A$. Thus $\overline{A} \subseteq A \cup L_A$.

2. If $x \in X \setminus \overline{A} = (X \setminus A)^o$, then \exists a nbd. U of x, s.t. $U \subseteq X \setminus A \Rightarrow U \cap A = \emptyset \Rightarrow x$ is not a limit point of A in $X \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus L_A \Rightarrow X \setminus \overline{A} \subseteq X \setminus L_A \Rightarrow L_A \subseteq \overline{A} \Rightarrow A \cup L_A \subseteq A \cup \overline{A} = \overline{A}$.

Remark 24. Useful routines:

- 1. $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow X \backslash A \supseteq X \backslash B$
- 2. $x \notin \overline{A} \Leftrightarrow \exists \text{ nbd. } U \text{ of } x, \text{ s.t. } U \cap A = \emptyset.$

Exercise 32. *Show that* $\overline{A} = \{x \in X | \forall \text{ open nbd. } U_x \text{ of } x, U_x \cap A \neq \emptyset\}.$

Proof. \subseteq : if $x \in \overline{A} \Rightarrow X \in A \cup L_A$. If $x \in A, \forall$ open nbd. U_x of x has $x \in U_x \cap A \neq \emptyset$; If $x \in L_A \setminus A, \forall$ open nbd. U_x of x has $U_x \cap A \setminus \{x\} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow U_x \cap A \neq \emptyset$.

$$\supseteq$$
: If $x \notin \overline{A} \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus (A^o \cup \partial A) = A^e = (X \setminus A)^o$, then \exists an open ubd. U_x of x s.t. $U_x \subseteq X \setminus A \Rightarrow U_x \cap A = \emptyset$. Thus \forall open ubd. U_x of x if $U_x \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in \overline{A}$.

Exercise 33. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$, $A \subseteq X$, $B \subseteq Y$, show that:

1.
$$f^{-1}(\overline{B}) \supseteq \overline{f^{-1}(B)}; f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$$

2.
$$f^{-1}(B^o) \subseteq f^{-1}(B)^o$$
; $f(A^o) \supseteq f(A)^o$.

3. $f^{-1}(B^e) \subseteq f^{-1}(B)^e$; if f is a surjection, $f(A^e) \supseteq f(A)^e$.

4.
$$f^{-1}(\partial B) \supseteq \partial f^{-1}(B)$$
; $f(\partial A) \subseteq \partial f(A)$.

Proof. 1.
$$B \subseteq \overline{B} \Rightarrow f^{-1}(B) \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{B}) \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow \overline{f^{-1}(B)} \subseteq \overline{f^{-1}(\overline{B})} = f^{-1}(\overline{B});$$

$$f(A) \subseteq \overline{f(A)} \Rightarrow A \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)}) \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow \overline{A} \subseteq \overline{f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)})} = f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)}) \Rightarrow f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}.$$

2.
$$B^o \subseteq B \Rightarrow X_{open} \supseteq f^{-1}(B^o) \subseteq f^{-1}(B) \Rightarrow f^{-1}(B^o) = f^{-1}(B^o)^o \subseteq f^{-1}(B)^o;$$
 $f(A)^o \subseteq f(A) \Rightarrow f^{-1}(f(A)^o) \subseteq A \Rightarrow f^{-1}(f(A)^o) = f^{-1}(f(A)^o)^o \subseteq A^o \Rightarrow f(A)^o \subseteq f(A^o).$

3. Since $B^e = (Y \backslash B)^e$,

$$f^{-1}(B^e) = f^{-1}((Y \backslash B)^o)$$

$$\subseteq f^{-1}(Y \backslash B)^o$$

$$= [f^{-1}(Y) \backslash f^{-1}(B)]^o$$

$$= [X \backslash f^{-1}(B)]^o$$

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

and

$$f(A^{e}) = f((X \backslash A)^{o})$$

$$\supseteq f(X \backslash A)^{o}$$

$$\supseteq [f(X) \backslash f(A)]^{o}$$

$$\xrightarrow{f \text{ is surj.}} [Y \backslash f(A)]^{o}$$

$$= f(A)^{e}.$$

4. Since $\overline{B} = B^o \cup \partial B$,

$$\overline{f^{-1}(B)} \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{B})
\Rightarrow f^{-1}(B)^o \cup \partial f^{-1}(B) \subseteq f^{-1}(B^o \cup \partial B)
\Rightarrow f^{-1}(B)^o \cup \partial f^{-1}(B) \subseteq f^{-1}(B^o) \cup f^{-1}(\partial B).$$

since $f^{-1}(B)^{o} \supseteq f^{-1}(B^{o})$, $\partial f^{-1}(B) \subseteq f^{-1}(\partial B)$.

and

$$f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(\partial A) \cup f(A^{o}) = f(\partial A \cup A^{o})$$

$$\subseteq \partial f(A) \cup f(A)^{o}$$

since $f(A^o) \supseteq f(A)^o$, $f(\partial A) \subseteq \partial f(A)$.

Remark 25.1: Recall that:

- (a) $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is conti. \Leftrightarrow for any $B \subseteq_{open} Y (\subseteq_{close} Y)$, $f^{-1}(B) \subseteq_{open} X (\subseteq_{close} X)$.
- (b) $A^o \subseteq A \subseteq \overline{A}$.
- (c) $A \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow \overline{A} = A$; $A \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow A^o = A$.

4: $A \subseteq B, A \cup C \supseteq B \cup D \Rightarrow C \supseteq D$.

Proof.
$$A \cup C \supseteq B \cup D \supseteq A \cup D \Rightarrow A^c \cup A \cup C \supseteq A^c \cup A \cup D \Rightarrow X \cup C \supseteq X \cup D \Rightarrow C \supseteq D$$
.

Exercise 34. *X* is a top. sp., $A_i \subseteq X(i \in I)$, show that

$$\cup_{i\in I}\overline{A_i}\subseteq\overline{\cup_{i\in I}A_i}$$

and

$$\overline{\cap_{i\in I}A_i}\subset \cap_{i\in I}\overline{A_i}.$$

Proof. 1. For any
$$i \in I$$
, $A_i \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \Rightarrow \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i}$.
2. For any $i \in I$, $A_i \subseteq \overline{A_i} \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq \bigcap_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow \overline{\bigcap_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}} \subseteq \overline{\bigcap_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}} = \bigcap_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$.

Note that the '=' doer not necessary hold. For example, let $A_r = (1/r, 1-1/r), r > 2$, then $\bigcup_{r>2} A_r = \bigcup_{r>2} \overline{A_r} = (0,1) \subseteq \overline{\bigcup_{r>2} A_r} = [0,1]$.

Let $B_1 = (0, 1/2)$, $B_2 = (1/2, 1)$, then $\overline{B_1 \cap B_2} = B_1 \cap B_2 = \emptyset$, but $\overline{B_1} \cap \overline{B_2} = [0, 1/2] \cap [1/2, 1] = 1/2$.

Remark 26. If I is finite, then $\bigcup_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} = \overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i}$. Since $A_i \subseteq \overline{A_i} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \Rightarrow \overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i} \subseteq \overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}}$, and since I is finite, $\bigcup_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$ is closed, thus $\overline{\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i} \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$.

3.3 Locally Finite

Definition 23 (Locally Finite). A family S of some subsets of a top. space X is locally finite if $\forall p \in X, \exists$ nbd. U of p s.t. $\{S \in S | U \cap S \neq \emptyset\}$ is a finite set.

Exercise 35. If S is locally finite family, show that

$$\overline{\cup_{S\in\mathcal{S}}S}=\cup_{S\in\mathcal{S}}\overline{S}.$$

Proof 1. We claim $\overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S} \subseteq \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}$, i.e. $\bigcap_{S \in \mathcal{S}} (X \setminus \overline{S}) = X \setminus \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S} \subseteq X \setminus \overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S}$. Note that $x \in X \setminus \overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S} \Leftrightarrow \exists$ a nbd. W of x, s.t. $W \cap S = \emptyset$ for $\forall S \in \mathcal{S}$. That is, we want to find a nbd of x such that has no intersection with any S in S, the locally finiteness of S tells us there exists a nbd. U of x that intersects with only finite sets $S_1, \dots, S_k \in \mathcal{S}$. Thus all we need to do is eliminate these intersected part from U.

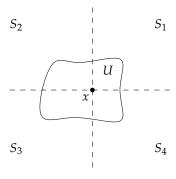
 $x \in \cap_{S \in \mathcal{S}}(X \setminus \overline{S}) \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus \overline{S}$ for any $S \in \mathcal{S}$. Thus for any $S \in \mathcal{S}$, \exists a nbd V of x, s.t. $V \cap S = \emptyset$. And \exists a nbd U of x, s.t. U only intersects with finite set $S_1, \dots, S_k \in \mathcal{S}$. Note that $W := U \cap V_1 \cap \dots \cap V_k$ is still a nbd. of x, since the finite union of open set is open. And $W \cap S = \emptyset$ for any $S \in \mathcal{S}$, thus for \exists a nbd. W of x, s.t. $W \cap \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S = \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in X \setminus \overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S} \Rightarrow \overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S} \subseteq \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}$.

Proof 2. Pick $x \notin \bigcup_{S \in S} \overline{S}$. Due to local finiteness, there is an (open) neighborhood U of x, such that U intersects only finitely many of S: let's say S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_n . Now create a new neighborhood $U' = U \setminus (\overline{S_1} \cup \overline{S_2} \cup \cdots \cup \overline{S_n})$, which is an open set containing x, and U' does not intersect any of $S \in S$. Thus for any $S \in S$, $S \subseteq X \setminus U' \Rightarrow \overline{S} \subseteq \overline{X \setminus U'} \xrightarrow{X \setminus U' \subseteq_{close} X} X \setminus U'$. Thus U' also does not intersect any of \overline{S} .

Thus, for any $x \in X \setminus \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}$, \exists an open nbd. U' of x, such that $U' \cap \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S} = \emptyset$. Thus $X \setminus \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}$ is open, i.e. $\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}$ is closed. Thus $\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S \subseteq \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S} \Rightarrow \overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} S} \subseteq \overline{\bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}} = \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \overline{S}$.

Remark 27. There is no similar feature for the intersection, for example, $S_1 = (0,1)$ and $S_2 = (1,2)$.

If S is locally finite, given a $x \in X$, then \exists a nbd. U of x, s.t. U intersects only finite, such as k, Ss in S. Clearly k has a minimal number, such as a. Note that it does not imply a is covered by a as in as.



3.4 Basis

Definition 24 (Coarser Topology). Let X be a set, and \mathscr{T} and \mathscr{T}' be two topologies on X. We say that \mathscr{T} is coarser/weaker than \mathscr{T}' if $\mathscr{T} \subseteq \mathscr{T}'$ (or say \mathscr{T}' is finer/stronger than \mathscr{T}).

Remark 28. In other words, \mathscr{T} is weaker than \mathscr{T}' iff $X \xrightarrow{id_X} X$, where the former and later X are equipped with \mathscr{T}' and \mathscr{T} respectively, is continuous.

Let *X* be a set and $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ be a family of subsets of *X*. Are there a smallest topology

 \mathscr{T}' on X s.t. all $S \subseteq \mathscr{T}'$? It is direct to check that if $\mathscr{T}_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ is a family of topologies on X, then $\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$ is also a topology on X. For any $\alpha \in A$:

- 1. \emptyset , $X \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha} \Rightarrow \emptyset$, $X \in \cap_{\alpha \in A} \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$;
- 2. $U_{\beta} \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}(\beta \in B) \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\beta \in B} U_{\beta} \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\beta \in B} U_{\beta} \in \cap_{\alpha \in A} \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$.
- 3. $U_1, U_2 \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha} \Rightarrow U_1 \cap U_2 \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha} \Rightarrow U_1 \cap U_2 \in \cap_{\alpha \in A} \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$.

Define \mathcal{T} be the family of all topologies on X containing the elements in \mathcal{S} , that is for $\forall \mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$. We call

$$\mathscr{T}(\mathcal{S}) := \cap_{\mathscr{T} \in \mathcal{T}} \mathscr{T}$$

the topology induced by \mathcal{S} , which is clearly the coarsest topology containing \mathcal{S} . Let Π be the family of any finite intersection of the element in \mathcal{S} , then for $\forall \mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{T}$, $\Pi \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ by def. Furthermore, for $\forall \mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{T}$, the arbitrary union of the elements in Π must in \mathcal{T} , that is $\{\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$. Thus $\{\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$.

Proposition 2. Let X be a set and $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ be a family of subsets of X. Then

$$\mathscr{T}(\mathcal{S}) = \{ \cup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \},$$

where Π is the family of any finite intersection of elements in S, that is

$$\Pi := \{S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_k | S_1, \cdots, S_k \in \mathcal{S}, k \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{X\}.$$

Proof. We have proved that $\{\cup_{V\in\mathcal{F}}V|\mathcal{F}\subseteq\Pi\}\subseteq\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})$. Note that $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})$ is the coarsest topology containing \mathcal{S} , Thus if $\{\cup_{V\in\mathcal{F}}V|\mathcal{F}\subseteq\Pi\}$ is a topology containing \mathcal{S} , we are done.

- 1. $\{X\}, \emptyset \subseteq \Pi$, thus $X = \bigcup_{V \in \{X\}} V \in \{\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi\}, \emptyset = \bigcup_{V \in \{\emptyset\}} V \in \{\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi\}.$
- 2. For any $U_{\alpha} = \{ \bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}_{\alpha}} V | \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \subseteq \Pi \} \in \{ \bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \} (\alpha \in A), \text{ we have } \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \subseteq \Pi (\alpha \in A) \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \subseteq \Pi \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} = \{ \bigcup_{V \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{F}_{\alpha}} V | \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \subseteq \Pi \} \in \{ \bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \}$
- 3. If $\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}_1} V, \bigcup_{W \in \mathcal{F}_2} W \in \{\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi\}$, then $(\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}_1} V) \cap (\bigcup_{W \in \mathcal{F}_2} W) = \bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}_1, W \in \mathcal{F}_2} (V \cap W)$ where $V, W \in \Pi$. Since Π is the family of finite intersection, $V \cap W$ is the finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{S} or X, i.e. $V \cap W \in \Pi$. Let $\mathcal{F}_3 := \{V \cap W | V \in \mathcal{F}_1, W \in \mathcal{F}_2\}$, thus $\mathcal{F}_3 \subseteq \Pi$. Then $\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}_1, W \in \mathcal{F}_2} (V \cap W) = \bigcup_{Z \in \mathcal{F}_3} Z \in \{\bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}_3} V | \mathcal{F}_3 \subseteq \Pi\}$.

Thus $\{ \cup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \}$ is a topology containing \mathcal{S} , and $\mathscr{T}(S) \subseteq \{ \cup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \} \Rightarrow \mathscr{T}(S) = \{ \cup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \}.$

Remark 29. Orally, $\mathcal{T}(S)$ consists of arbitrary unions of finite intersection of elements of S.

Conventionally, when we talking about the subsets of X, we define $\cap \emptyset := X$.

Definition 25 (Sub-basis). Given a set X, $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$, S is called a sub-basis of a topology \mathscr{T} on X if $\mathscr{T} = \mathscr{T}(S)$.

To obtain $\mathcal{T}(S)$ from S, we need two steps: first, perform the finite intersection of elements in S; then perform arbitrary union of the these intersection. But can we construct a topology that contains S only by union?

Definition 26 (Basis). Given a set X, let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ and \mathscr{T} is a topology on X. We say that \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathscr{T} if $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathscr{T}$ and for any $U \in \mathscr{T}$, $\exists \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, s.t. $U = \cup \mathcal{F} (:= \cup_{B \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{B})$.

Remark 30. Thus given a sub-basis S, we can induce the basis Π , and then perform the union on basis to obtain the topology $\mathcal{T}(S)$.

Note that if \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathcal{T} , then $B \in \mathcal{T}$ for any $B \in \mathcal{B}$, thus any union of elements of \mathcal{B} is in \mathcal{T} . Thus we can define the \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathcal{T} directly:

$$\mathscr{T} = \{ \cup \mathcal{F} | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \}.$$

In general, a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) can have many bases. The whole topology \mathcal{T} is always a base for itself (that is, \mathcal{T} is a base for \mathcal{T}).

Definition 27 (Local Basis). For a given $x \in X$, we say that \mathcal{B}_x is a local basis of \mathscr{T} at x, if

- 1. for $\forall V \in \mathcal{B}_x, x \in V \in \mathscr{T}$ and
- 2. for $\forall U \in \mathcal{T}$ where $x \in U$, $\exists V \in \mathcal{B}_x$, s.t. $x \in V \subseteq U$.

Example 11. Let X be a metric space and \mathscr{T} is the topology defined by metric. Then $\mathcal{B} = \{B_r(x)|r > 0\}$ is a local basis of \mathscr{T} at x.

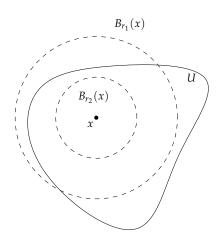


Figure 3.1: Local Basis

Exercise 36. Let (X, \mathscr{T}) be a topology space and $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$. For $x \in X$, define $\mathcal{B}_x := \{U \in \mathcal{B} | x \in U\}$. Show that \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathscr{T} on $X \Leftrightarrow \forall x \in X$, \mathcal{B}_x is a local basis of \mathscr{T} on X at x.

Proof. ⇒: pick a $x \in X$ and $U \in \mathcal{T}$ where $x \in U$, then $\exists \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, s.t. $x \in U = \cup \mathcal{F}$, since \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathcal{T} . Then $\exists B \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq \cup \mathcal{F} = U$, it is clear to see $B \in \mathcal{B}_x$. Since \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathcal{T} , $B \in \mathcal{T}$ for $\forall B \in \mathcal{B}$, Thus \mathcal{B}_x is a local basis of \mathcal{T} at x for any $x \in X$.

 \Leftarrow : On the one hand, given a $x \in X$, $\mathcal{B}_x \subseteq \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in X} \mathcal{B}_x \subseteq \mathcal{B}$. For any $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $B \neq \emptyset$, there exists $x' \in B$, thus $B \in \mathcal{B}_{x'} \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in X} \mathcal{B}_c$. Thus $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{x \in X} \mathcal{B}_x$. \mathcal{B}_x is a local basis of \mathscr{T} at any $x \in X \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}_x \subseteq \mathscr{T}$ for any $x \in X$. Thus $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathscr{T}$.

On the other hand, given a non-empty $U \in \mathcal{T}$, for any $x \in U$, $\exists B_x \in \mathcal{B}_x$, such that $x \in B_x \subseteq U$. Thus $\bigcup_{x \in U} B_x \subseteq U$. For any $x' \in U$, $\exists B_{x'} \in \mathcal{B}_{x'}$, s.t. $x' \in B_{x'} \subseteq U \Rightarrow x' \in \bigcup_{x \in U} B_x \Rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in U} B_x = U$, where $B_x \in \mathcal{B}$. Thus \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathcal{T} .

Remark 31. Very useful routine. We use it to prove the open set, in metric space, is the union of open balls as well.

Exercise 37. Let X be a set and $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$. Show that there exists a topology \mathscr{T} such that \mathcal{B} is a basis of $\mathscr{T} \Leftrightarrow$

- 1. $\cup \mathcal{B} = X$ and
- 2. $\forall U, V \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in U \cap V, \exists W \in \mathcal{B}$, s.t. $x \in W \subseteq U \cap V$. (Hint: if such \mathscr{T} exists, it must be $\{ \cup \mathcal{F} | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \}$.)

Proof. \Rightarrow : 1) $X \in \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow \exists \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, s.t. $X = \cup \mathcal{F} \subseteq \cup \mathcal{B} \subseteq X \Rightarrow X = \cup \mathcal{B}$; 2) \mathcal{B} is a basis of $\mathcal{T} \Rightarrow \forall U, V \in \mathcal{B}, U, V \in \mathcal{T}$, thus $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$. Pick $x \in U \cap V$, \mathcal{B}_x is a local basis of \mathcal{T} at x. Thus $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}_x \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, s.t. $x \in B \subseteq U \cap V$.

 \Leftarrow : Define $\mathscr{T} = \{ \cup \mathcal{F} | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \}$, all we need to de is show \mathscr{T} is a topology:

- 1. $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \emptyset = \bigcup \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$; $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow X = \bigcup \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{T}$.
- 2. for any $\mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\alpha \in A)$,

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (\cup \mathcal{F}_{\alpha}) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (\cup_{B \in \mathcal{F}_{\alpha}} B)
= \bigcup_{B \in \cup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{F}_{\alpha}} B
= \bigcup (\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{F}_{\alpha})
\in \mathscr{T},$$

since $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$. 3. for any $U = \bigcup \mathcal{F}_1, V = \bigcup \mathcal{F}_2 \in \mathscr{T}$,

$$U \cap V = (\cup \mathcal{F}_1) \cap (\cup \mathcal{F}_2)$$
$$= \cup_{B \in \mathcal{F}_1, C \in \mathcal{F}_2} (B \cap C)$$

where $B, C \in \mathcal{B}$, thus for any $x \in B \cap C$, $\exists D_x \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in D_x \subseteq B \cap C$. Thus it

is direct to see that $B \cap C = \bigcup_{x \in B \cap C} D_x$. Thus

$$D_{x} \in \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow D_{x} \in \mathcal{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in B \cap C} D_{x} \in \mathcal{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow U \cap V = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}_{1}, C \in \mathcal{F}_{2}} (B \cap C)$$

$$= \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}_{1}, C \in \mathcal{F}_{2}} (\bigcup_{x \in B \cap C} D_{x}) \in \mathcal{T}.$$

Thus \mathcal{T} is such topology as desired.

Recall that when we check whether a map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is conti., we need show that for $\forall V \subseteq_{open} Y$, $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X$. But if Y is equipped with a topology induced by some sub-basis, we can only check some subset of Y, instead of any subset of Y.

Exercise 38. Let Z be a topology space and $Z \xrightarrow{f} X$ is a map. Show that f is continuous when X is topologized by $\mathscr{T}(S) \Leftrightarrow \forall S \in \mathcal{S}, f^{-1}(S) \subseteq_{open} Z$.

Proof. ⇒: $\forall S \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow S \in \mathcal{T}(\mathcal{S})$, that is $S \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow f^{-1}(S) \subseteq_{open} Z$. \Leftarrow : for any $U \in \mathcal{T}(\mathcal{S})$, it can be represented by the union of some finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S} , that is $U = \cup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F$, where $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi$, and $F = \cap_{i=1}^{k_F} S_i, S_i \in \mathcal{S}$. Thus

$$f^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(\bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F)$$

$$= \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} f^{-1}(\bigcap_{i=1}^{k_F} S_i)$$

$$= \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{k_F} f^{-1}(S_i)\right)$$

$$\subseteq_{open} Z.$$

Thus $Z \xrightarrow{f} X$ is continuous.

3.5 Countable, Separable and Lindelof Compact

Definition 28. A topology space (X, \mathcal{T}) is

- 1. 1st-countable if $\forall x \in X, \exists$ countable local basis of \mathscr{T} at x;
- 2. 2nd-countable if \exists countable basis of \mathscr{T} . (That is \exists countable open set in X such that any element in \mathscr{T} is the union of these open set.)

Remark 32. \mathcal{B} is a basis of $\mathscr{T} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}_x$ is a local basis of \mathscr{T} at x. Thus (X, \mathscr{T}) is 2nd-countable $\Rightarrow (X, \mathscr{T})$ is 1st-countable.

Example 12. 1. Let X be a metric space and \mathscr{T} is the topology defined by metric. Then $\mathcal{B} = \{B_r(x)|r > 0, r \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a countable local basis of \mathscr{T} at x, Thus metric space is 1st-countable.

2. Note that the open set in \mathbb{R} is the union of disjoined open intervals in \mathbb{R} . Any open interval can be represented by the union of countable open intervals that start and end at rational number. Thus any open set in \mathbb{R} is the union of countable open intervals. Thus \mathbb{R} is 2nd-countable.

Definition 29 (Dense). Given a topology space X, we say a subset $A \subseteq X$ is dense if $\overline{A} = X$.

Exercise 39. X is a topology space, $A \subseteq X$, show that A is dense $\Leftrightarrow \forall U \subseteq_{open} X, U \neq \emptyset$, then $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. \Rightarrow : $\overline{A} = A^o \cup \partial A = X$, thus $X \setminus A^o = \partial A$ as A^o and ∂A are disjoined. For any $U \subseteq_{open} X$, if $U \neq \emptyset$, pick $x \in U$, then either $x \in A^o$ or $x \in X \setminus A^o = \partial A$. If $x \in A^o \Rightarrow x \in U \cap A \neq \emptyset$; If $x \in \partial A$, U is a nbd. of $x \Rightarrow U \cap A \neq \emptyset$. \Leftarrow : If $\overline{A} \neq X \Rightarrow W := X \setminus \overline{A} \neq \emptyset$, and $W \subseteq_{open} X, W \cap \overline{A} = (X \setminus \overline{A}) \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$, which leads to a contradiction.

Definition 30 (Separable). A topology space (X, \mathcal{T}) is separable if X has a countable dense subset.

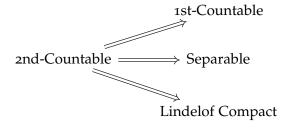
Exercise 40. If \mathcal{B} is a basis of a topology space X and pick a point x_B in B for any non-empty set $B \in \mathcal{B}$. Show that $\{x_B \in B | B \in \mathcal{B}, B \neq \emptyset\} \subseteq_{dense} X$.

Proof. If
$$U \subseteq_{open} X$$
 and $U \neq \emptyset$, then $\exists \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$, s.t. $U = \cup \mathcal{F}$. Then $x_F \in F \in \mathcal{F} \subseteq \cup \mathcal{F} = U \Rightarrow x_F \in U \cap \{x_B \in B | B \in \mathcal{B}\} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \{x_B \in B | B \in \mathcal{B}\} \subseteq_{dense} X$.

Remark 33. Thus if \mathcal{B} is a countable basis of \mathscr{T} on X, then $\{x_B \in B | B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a countable dense subset of X, and (X, \mathscr{T}) is a separable topology space.

Definition 31 (Lindelof Compact). A topology space (X, \mathcal{T}) is Lindelof compact if $\forall U_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X(\alpha \in A), \cup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} = X \Rightarrow \exists$ countable set $A_0 \subseteq A$, s.t. $\cup_{\alpha \in A_0} U_{\alpha} = X$.

It is direct to see that 2nd-countable \Rightarrow Lindelof Compact, since if \mathcal{B} is a basis of \mathscr{T} on X, then $X = \cup \mathcal{B}$. Collectively, we have



Exercise 41. If X is topologized by a metric (a.k.a. X is a metrizable topology space) then 2nd-Countable \Leftrightarrow Separable \Leftrightarrow Lindelof Compact.

Proof. 1. Separable \Rightarrow 2nd-Countable: To prove this statement, we need to track back to the \Leftarrow case: If D is the countable dense subset of X, we claim that $\mathcal{B} := \{B_{\frac{1}{n}}(s) | s \in D, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is the basis of metric topology on X.

Given a $U \subseteq_{open} X$ and $U \neq \emptyset$, we have $U \cap D \neq \emptyset$. For any $u \in U \cap D$, exists $n_u \in \mathbb{N}$, s.t. $B_{\frac{1}{n_u}}(u) \subseteq U$. Obviously,

$$W := \bigcup_{u \in U \cap D} B_{\frac{1}{n_u}}(u) \subseteq U.$$

For any $v \in U$, if $v \in U \cap D \Rightarrow v \in W$; if $v \notin D \Rightarrow v \in L_D$, since $X = D \cup L_D$. Thus $\exists n_v \in \mathbb{N}$, s.t. $\exists u \in B_{\frac{1}{n_v}}(v) \cap D \setminus \{v\}$, where $B_{\frac{1}{n_v}}(v) \subseteq U$ and $u \in U \cap D$ whose $1/n_u > 1/n_v$. Thus $v \in B_{\frac{1}{n_u}}(u) \subseteq W \Rightarrow U = W = \bigcup_{u \in U \cap D} B_{\frac{1}{n_u}}(u)$, where $\{B_{\frac{1}{n_u}}(u) | u \in U \cap D, B_{\frac{1}{n_u}}(u) \subseteq U\} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$. Thus \mathcal{B} is a basis of metric topology on X.

2. Lindelof Compact \Rightarrow Separable: For any $x \in X$, $\exists r_x > 0$, s.t. $B_{r_x}(x) \subseteq X$, it is direct to see that $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} B_{r_x}(x)$. X is Lindelof Compact, thus exist countable subset D of X such that $X = \bigcup_{x \in D} B_{r_x}(x)$. For any non-empty $U \subseteq_{open} X$, any $u \in U \subseteq X = \bigcup_{x \in D} B_{r_x}(x)$, thus $U \cap D \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow D$ is dense $\Rightarrow X$ is separable.

Chapter 4

Initial / Final Topology

4.1 Initial Topology

Given maps $X \xrightarrow{f_{\alpha}} Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ from a set X to topology spaces $Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$. It is direct to see that if X is topoloized by discrete topology, the f_{α} are all continuous. Now the question is how coarse the topology $\mathscr T$ on X could be to ensure $f_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ to be continuous.

Let $S := \{f_{\alpha}^{-1}(V) | V \subseteq_{open} Y_{\alpha}, \alpha \in A\}$, then $\mathscr{T}(S)$ is the expected coarsest topology, called the **initial topology** induced by the family of maps $\{f_{\alpha} | \alpha \in A\}$.

4.1.1 Subspace Topology

Let (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y) be a topology space, for a subset $X \subseteq Y$. We want to define an natural topology \mathcal{T}_X on X from Y, such that keep **inclusion map** $X \xrightarrow{id_X} Y(x \mapsto x)$ be continuous.

As we said, \mathcal{T}_X is the arbitrary union of finite intersection of the pre-image of the open set in Y. We call this initial topology induced by the inclusion map the **subspace topology** on X inherited from Y.

Note that the arbitrary union of finite intersection of the pre-image of the open set in Y is just the pre-image of arbitrary union of finite intersection of the open set in Y, which is just the pre-image of the open set in Y. Thus $\mathscr{T}_X = \{id_X^{-1}(V)|V\subseteq_{open}Y\} = \{V\cap X|V\subseteq_{open}Y\}.$

Exercise 42 (The universal property of subspace topologies). Suppose Y is a topology space, X is a subspace (i.e. a subset equipped with the subspace topology from Y). Given a topology space Z, for \forall map $Z \xrightarrow{g} Y$, if $g(Z) \subseteq X$, show that $Z \xrightarrow{g} Y$ is conti. $\Leftrightarrow Z \xrightarrow{g|^X} X$ is conti.

Proof. ⇒: any open set in X can be represented by $U \cap X$ where $U \subseteq_{open} Y$, thus $g^{-1}(U \cap X) = g^{-1}(U) \cap g^{-1}(X) = g^{-1}(U) \cap Z \subseteq_{open} Z \Rightarrow Z \xrightarrow{g|^X} X$ is conti. \Leftarrow : Trivial.

Exercise 43. Let X be a topology space, $Z \subseteq Y \subseteq Z$, where Z, Y are equipped with subspace topology, show that

- 1. $Z \subseteq_{open} Y \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow Z \subseteq_{open} X$;
- 2. $Z \subseteq_{close} Y \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow Z \subseteq_{close} X$.

Proof. 1. $Z \subseteq_{open} Y \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow \exists U \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $Z = U \cap Y$, since $Y \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow Z = U \cap Y \subseteq_{open} X$.

2. $Y \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow \exists U \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $Y = X \setminus U$; $Z \subseteq_{close} Y \Rightarrow \exists V \subseteq_{open} Y$, s.t. $Z = Y \setminus V$ and $W \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $V = Y \cap W$, thus

$$Z = Y \setminus V$$

$$= (X \setminus U) \setminus (Y \cap W)$$

$$= (X \setminus U) \setminus ((X \setminus U) \cap W)$$

$$= (X \cap U^c) \cap (X \cap U^c \cap W)^c$$

$$= U^c \cap (U \cup W^c)$$

$$= U^c \cap W^c$$

$$= X \setminus (U \cup W)$$

$$\subseteq_{close} X$$

Exercise 44. Let X be a topology space, $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$, show that

- 1. $A \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow A \subseteq_{open} B$;
- 2. $A \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow A \subseteq_{close} B$.

Proof. 1. Trivial; 2. $A \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow X \setminus A \subseteq_{open} X$, since

$$B \backslash A = B \cap A^{c}$$

$$= B \cap (X \cap A^{c})$$

$$= B \cap (X \backslash A)$$

$$\subseteq_{open} B$$

and hence $A \subseteq_{close} B$.

4.1.2 **Product Space**

Let (Y_1, \mathcal{T}_1) and (Y_2, \mathcal{T}_2) be topology spaces, we want to create a natural topology $\mathcal{T}_{Y_1 \times Y_2}$ on $Y_1 \times Y_2$ which makes the projections $Y_1 \times Y_2 \xrightarrow{p_i} Y_i (i = 1, 2)$ be continuous. Suppose $U_i(i = 1, \dots, k_U) \subseteq_{open} Y_1$ and $V_i(j = 1, \dots, k_V) \subseteq_{open} Y_2$, then

$$\left(\cap_{i=1}^{k_U} f^{-1}(U_i) \right) \cap \left(\cap_{i=1}^{k_V} f^{-1}(V_i) \right) = f^{-1} \left(\cap_{i=1}^{k_U} U_i \right) \cap f^{-1} \left(\cap_{i=1}^{k_V} V_i \right)$$

where $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k_U} U_i \subseteq_{open} Y_1$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k_V} V_i \subseteq_{open} Y_2$. Thus the desired initial topology can be represented as the arbitrary union of the intersection of the pre-image of an open set in Y_1 and the pre-image of an open set in Y_2 . (instead of the finite intersection of pre-image of open sets in Y_1 and Y_2 , it is subtle) Thus the basis of the expected initial topology is

$$\Pi = \{ p_1^{-1}(W_1) \cap p_2^{-1}(W_2) | W_1 \subseteq_{open} Y_1, W_2 \subseteq_{open} Y_2 \}$$

$$= \{ (W_1 \times Y_2) \cap (Y_1 \times W_2) | W_1 \subseteq_{open} Y_1, W_2 \subseteq_{open} Y_2 \}$$

$$= \{ W_1 \times W_2 | W_1 \subseteq_{open} Y_1, W_2 \subseteq_{open} Y_2 \}$$

Thus the topology desired is all unions of rectangle:

$$\mathscr{T}_{Y_1 \times Y_2} = \{ \cup \mathcal{F} | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \Pi \}.$$

We call such initial topology **product topology** of Y_1 and Y_2 , denote as $\mathcal{T}_1 \times \mathcal{T}_2$. In particular, the open set O in $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ can be written by $O = \cup U \times V$ where $U, V \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}$.

Remark 34. We call such a $W_1 \times W_2$ a rectangle.

4.1.3 Cartesian Product

Let's recall the definition of Cartesian product. Given two sets Y_1, Y_2 , there exists a **bijection** between $Y_1 \times Y_2$ and the family of maps $\{\{1,2\} \xrightarrow{s} Y_1 \cup Y_2 | s(1) \in Y_1, s(2) \in Y_2\} =: \mathcal{M}_{Y_1 \times Y_2}$. First, there is an injection from left to right: for any $(s_1, s_2) \in Y_1 \times Y_2$, define s as $s(1) = s_1, s(2) = s_2$. Thus different points in $Y_1 \times Y_2$ reflect to different maps in $\mathcal{M}_{Y_1 \times Y_2}$.

On the other hand, there exists an injection from right to left as well: for any $s', s \in \mathcal{M}_{Y_1 \times Y_2}$, correspond to $(s(1), s(2)), (s'(1), s'(2)) \in Y_1 \times Y_2$, and $(s(1), s(2)) \neq (s'(1), s'(2))$ if $s \neq s'$.

Furthermore, when we project a point $(y_1, y_2) \in Y_1 \times Y_2$ to $y_1 \in Y_1$ (using projection

 $Y_1 \times Y_1 \xrightarrow{p_1} Y_1$), it is equivalent with mapping the corresponding map s to s(1).

$$Y_{1} \times Y_{2} \quad \ni \quad (y_{1}, y_{2}) \longmapsto y_{1} \quad \in \quad Y_{1}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{Y_{1} \times Y_{2}} \quad \ni \quad s \longmapsto s(1) \quad \in \quad Y_{1}$$

Similarly, we can define infinite dimension Cartesian product as

$$\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}:=\{A\xrightarrow{s}\cup_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}|\forall\alpha\in A,s(\alpha)\in Y_{\alpha}\}=:\mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}},$$

according to the axiom of choice, if $Y_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$ for any $\alpha \in A$, then such map s exists, then $\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$. For $\alpha \in A$, we often denote the value of s at α by s_{α} rather than $s(\alpha)$; we call it the α -th **coordinate** of s. And we often denote the function s itself by the symbol

$$(s_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in A}$$

which is as close as we can come to a tuple notation for an arbitrary index set A. Corresponding, we can define the projection on infinite dimension cartesian product: for any $\beta \in A$,

$$\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha} \xrightarrow{p_{\beta}} Y_{\beta}$$

as a map

$$\mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}}\longrightarrow Y_{\beta}$$

with $s \mapsto s_{\beta}$.

4.1.4 Infinite Dimension Product Topology

Now we can define the product topology on infinite dimension. As we discussed, the topology is arbitrary union of finite intersection of pre-image of the open set in $Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$. Since the intersection is finite, we can still exchange the order of pre-image and intersection, and then represent the open sets from the same $Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ as one open set. Note that the pre-image of $U_{\beta} \subseteq_{open} Y_{\beta}$ can be represented by

$${s \in \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}} | s_{\beta} \in U_{\beta}}.$$

Thus finite intersection of the pre-image of open sets, i.e. the basis of the infinite dimension product topology is

$$\Pi_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}}=\{s\in\mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}}|s_{\beta_{1}}\in U_{\beta_{1}},\cdots,s_{\beta_{k}}\in U_{\beta_{k}},k\in\mathbb{N}\}.$$

That the basis of infinite product topology is set of maps that only map **finite** points in domain to the open sets of codomain. Alternatively, we can represent it as

$$\Pi_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}}=\left\{\prod_{\alpha\in A}V_{\alpha}|\forall\alpha\in A,V_{\alpha}\subseteq_{open}Y_{\alpha}\wedge\{\alpha\in A|V_{\alpha}\neq Y_{\alpha}\}\text{ is finite}\right\}.$$

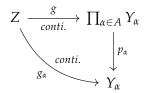
And the topology is

$$\mathscr{T}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_\alpha} = \{ \cup \mathcal{F} | \mathcal{F} \subseteq \prod_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_\alpha} \}$$

Exercise 45 (The universal property of product topology). *Let* Z, $Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ *are topology spaces,* $\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}$ *is equipped with product topology, show that for any group of maps*

$$Z \xrightarrow{g_{\alpha}} Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$$

 $\exists ! Z \xrightarrow[conti.]{g} \prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}$, s.t. $p_{\alpha} \circ g = g_{\alpha}$ for $\forall \alpha \in A$. That is, such commutative diagram holds



Proof. Existence: Select a group of $g_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ such that for a given $z \in Z$ has

$$g_{\alpha}(z) = y_{\alpha} \in Y_{\alpha}$$
.

Define a map $Z \xrightarrow{g} \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}}$ with $z \mapsto s$ where $s_{\alpha} = y_{\alpha} (\alpha \in A)$. Thus for any $\beta \in A$, we have

$$p_{\beta} \circ g(z) = p_{\beta}(s) = s_{\beta} = y_{\beta} = g_{\beta}(z)$$

Thus $p_{\alpha} \circ g = g_{\alpha}$ for any $\alpha \in A$. We now show g is continuous.

Any open set U in $\mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}}$ can be written as $U=\cup\mathcal{F}=\cup_{V\in\mathcal{F}}V$, where $\mathcal{F}\subseteq\prod_{\prod_{\alpha\in A}Y_{\alpha}}$. Thus

$$g^{-1}(U) = g^{-1}(\cup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} V) = \cup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} g^{-1}(V).$$

Here V is the element in the basis, and can be represented as

$$V = \{s \in \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}} | s_{\alpha_1} \in U_{\alpha_1}, \cdots, s_{\alpha_k} \in U_{\alpha_k} \},$$

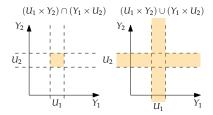
where $U_{\alpha_i} \subseteq_{open} Y_{\alpha_i} (i = 1, \cdot, k)$, thus

$$g^{-1}(V) = \{z \in Z | g_{\alpha_1}(z) \in U_{\alpha_1}, \cdots, g_{\alpha_k}(z) \in U_{\alpha_k} \}$$
$$= \bigcap_{i=1}^k g_{\alpha_i}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_i})$$
$$\subseteq_{open} Z$$

Thus $g^{-1}(U) = \bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{F}} g^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} Z \Rightarrow g$ is continuous.

Remark 35. There is a trap:

- $(U_1 \times Y_2) \cap (Y_1 \times U_2) = U_1 \times U_2$;
- $(U_1 \times Y_2) \cup (Y_1 \times U_2) \neq Y_1 \times Y_2$;



Uniqueness: for any h such that $p_{\alpha} \circ h = g_{\alpha}$, given a $z \in Z$, we have $p_{\alpha}(h(z)) = g_{\alpha}(z)$ for $\forall \alpha \in A$. Thus

$$h(z) \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} p_{\alpha}^{-1}(g_{\alpha}(z))$$

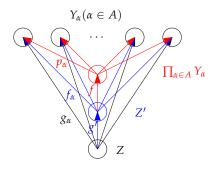
$$= \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} \{ s \in \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}} | s_{\alpha} = g_{\alpha}(z) \}$$

$$= \{ s \in \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}} | s_{\alpha} = g_{\alpha}(z), \alpha \in A \}$$

Thus h(z) = s where $s_{\alpha} = g_{\alpha}(z)$, $\alpha \in A \Rightarrow h = g$.

The conclusion of the universal property of product topology is : for any group of maps $Z \xrightarrow{g_{\alpha}} Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$, if they can be substitute by another group of map $f_{\alpha} \circ g'$ where $Z \xrightarrow{g'} Z'$ and $Z' \xrightarrow{f_{\alpha}} Y_{\alpha}$, we say Z' is **closer** to $Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ than Z.

Then $\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}$ is the **closest** set to $Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$.



Exercise 46. Let $Z, Y_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ are top. spaces. Show that $Z \xrightarrow{g} \prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}$ is continuous $\Leftrightarrow p_{\alpha} \circ g(\alpha \in A)$ are continuous.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Since $p_{\alpha} \circ g = g_{\alpha}$, we need to prove g is continuous $\Rightarrow g_{\alpha}$ is continuous. For any open set $U_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} Y_{\alpha}$. $p_{\alpha}^{-1}(U_{\alpha}) = \{s \in \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}} | s_{\alpha} \in U_{\alpha}\} \subseteq_{open} \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}} = \prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}$. And $g^{-1}(\{s \in \mathcal{M}_{\prod_{\alpha \in A} Y_{\alpha}}) = \{z \in Z | g_{\alpha} \in U_{\alpha}\} = g_{\alpha}^{-1}(U_{\alpha}) \subseteq_{open} Z$, since g is continuous, thus g_{α} is continuous. \Leftarrow : has been given in Ex2.

4.2 Final Topology

Given topology spaces $X_{\alpha}(\alpha \in A)$ and maps $X_{\alpha} \xrightarrow{f_{\alpha}} Y(\alpha \in A)$, does there exist a finest topology on Y, such that f_{α} is continuous for every $\alpha \in A$? Define

$$\mathscr{T}_{Y} := \{ V \subseteq Y | f_{\alpha}^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X_{\alpha}, \forall \alpha \in A \}.$$

It is direct to see \mathscr{T}_Y is a topology: Given an $\alpha \in A$, define $\mathscr{T}_\alpha := \{V \subseteq Y | f_\alpha^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X_\alpha\}$, we have

- 1. $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset \subseteq_{open} X_{\alpha}$; $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(Y) = X_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X_{\alpha}$, thus $\emptyset, Y \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$.
- 2. $\forall V_{\beta} \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}(\beta \in B)$, $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(\cup_{\beta \in B}V_{\beta}) = \cup_{\beta \in B}f^{-1}(V_{\beta}) \subseteq_{open} X_{\alpha}$, thus $\cup_{\beta \in B}V_{\beta} \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$;
- 3. $\forall V_1, V_2 \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}, f_{\alpha}^{-1}(V_1 \cap V_2) = f_{\alpha}^{-1}(V_1) \cap f_{\alpha}^{-1}(V_2) \subseteq_{open} X_{\alpha}$, thus $V_1 \cap V_2 \in \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$.

Thus \mathscr{T}_{α} is a topology. On the other hand, $\mathscr{T}_{Y} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} \mathscr{T}_{\alpha}$, thus \mathscr{T}_{Y} is a topology.

Suppose \mathscr{T}' is a topology makes maps $X_{\alpha} \xrightarrow{f_{\alpha}} Y(\alpha \in A)$ be continuous. Then $\forall U \in \mathscr{T}'$, $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(U) \subseteq_{open} X_{\alpha}$ for all $\alpha \in A$, thus $U \in \mathscr{T}_{Y} \Rightarrow \mathscr{T}' \subseteq \mathscr{T}_{Y}$.

Thus \mathscr{T}_Y is the expected finest topology such that f_α is continuous for any $\alpha \in A$.

4.2.1 Equivalence Relation

Definition 32 (Equivalence Relation). Let *X* be a set. A relation *R* on *X* (i.e. $R \subseteq X \times X$) is equivalence relation, if

- 1. $\forall x \in X \Rightarrow xRx$;
- 2. $\forall x, x' \in X, xRx' \Rightarrow x'Rx$;
- 3. $\forall x, x', x'' \in X, xRx', x'Rx'' \Rightarrow xRx''$.

For an equivalence relation R on X, and every $x \in X$, we call

$$R(x) := \{ x' \in X | x'Rx \}$$

the **equivalence class** of x w.r.t. R on X. Obviously $R(x) \neq \emptyset$ for $\forall x \in X$, since $x \in R(x)$ for any $x \in X$.

Exercise 47. *For* $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X$, *either* $R(x_1) = R(x_2)$ *or* $R(x_1) \cap R(x_2) = \emptyset$.

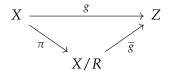
Proof. If $\exists x \in R(x_1) \cap R(x_2) \neq \emptyset$, then for any $x_3 \in R(x_2)$, we have x_3Rx_2 , x_2Rx and $xRx_1 \Rightarrow x_3Rx_1 \Rightarrow x_3 \in R(x_1) \Rightarrow R(x_2) \subseteq R(x_1)$. And $R(x_1) \subseteq R(x_2)$ in the same way, thus $R(x_1) = R(x_2)$.

In summary, R provides a decomposition of X into disjoint union of nonempty subsets. On the contrary, if we have a decomposition of X into disjoint union of nonempty subsets, we can define an equivalence relation where the element in the same subsets are equivalent. Thus an equivalence relation and a decomposition are the same thing.

4.2.2 Quotient Space

We call $\{R(x)|x \in X\}$ the **quotient set** of X by the relation R, denoted as X/R. And we can define a **natural projection** on X: $X \xrightarrow{\pi} X/R$ where $x \mapsto R(x)$. It is direct to see that π is a surjection.

Exercise 48 (The universal property of $X \xrightarrow{\pi} X/R$). Given a map $X \xrightarrow{g} Z$ such that $\forall x, x' \in X, xRx' \Rightarrow g(x) = g(x')$, show that $\exists ! map X/R \xrightarrow{\overline{g}} Z s.t. \overline{g} \circ \pi = g$.



Proof. Given a $R(x) \in X/R$, define $\overline{g}(R(x)) = g(x)$. Since for any $x' \in R(x)$, g(x') = g(x), the map \overline{g} : $X/R \ni R(x) = S \mapsto g(x) \in Z$ is well defined, i.e. independent of the choice of x s.t. S = R(x).

For $\forall x \in X$, $\overline{g} \circ \pi(x) = \overline{g}(R(x)) = g(x)$, thus $\overline{g} \circ \pi = g$. If $\exists h$, s.t. $h \circ \pi = g = \overline{g} \circ \pi$, then $h = \overline{g}$ since π is a surjection.

Remark 36. Recall that

- 1. g is an injection, $g \circ f = g \circ f' \Rightarrow f = f'$;
- 2. f is a surjection, $g \circ f = g' \circ f \Rightarrow g = g'$.

Now we consider a topology space X on which an equivalence relation R is specified. We aim at defining a topology space obtained by gluing mutually R - equivalent points in X to a point.

Definition 33 (Quotient Topology). Let $X \xrightarrow{\pi} X/R$ where $x \mapsto R(x)$ be the natural projection. The finial topology on X/R induced by $\{\pi\}$ (i.e. the finest topology on X/R s.t. π is continuous) is called the quotient topology on X/R induced by R, denoted by $\mathcal{T}_{(X,R)}$.

More explicitly,

$$\mathscr{T}_{(X,R)} = \{ S \subseteq X/R | \pi^{-1}(S) \subseteq_{open} X \},$$

that is, $S \subseteq_{open} X/R$ w.r.t $\mathscr{T}_{(X,R)} \Leftrightarrow \pi^{-1}(S) \subseteq_{open} X$.

Definition 34 (Saturated). Let *X* is a set, *R* is an equivalence relation on *X*. $A(\subseteq X)$ is a *R* - saturated if $\forall x \in X, a \in A, xRa \Rightarrow x \in A$.

Exercise 49. A is R - saturated \Leftrightarrow A is a union of some R - equivalence class $\Leftrightarrow \exists S \subseteq X/R$, s.t. $A = \pi^{-1}(S)$.

Proof. 1. \Rightarrow : If A is R- saturated, then for $\forall a \in A$, $R(a) \subseteq A$ by definition. Thus $\bigcup_{a \in A} R(a) \subseteq_{open} A$. On the other hand, for any $a' \in A$, $a' \in R(a') \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in A} R(a)$, thus $A = \bigcup_{a \in A} R(a)$.

 \Leftarrow : If $R_{\beta}(\beta \in B)$ are some R - equivalence class in X/R, then for any $r \in \cup_{\beta \in B} R_{\beta}$, $\exists \gamma \in B$, s.t. $r \in R_{\gamma}$, thus $R(r) = R_{\gamma}$, thus $R(r) \subseteq \cup_{\beta \in B} R_{\beta}$.

For any $x \in X$, if xRr, then $x \in R(r) \subseteq \bigcup_{\beta \in B} R_{\beta} \Rightarrow x \in \bigcup_{\beta \in B} R_{\beta} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\beta \in B} R_{\beta}$ is R -saturated.

2. ⇒: Note that for $R(a) \in X/R$, $\pi^{-1}(R(a)) = R(a) \subseteq X$. Thus

$$A = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} R(a)$$

= $\bigcup_{a \in A} \pi^{-1}(R(a))$
= $\pi^{-1}(\bigcup_{a \in A} R(a))$

where $\bigcup_{a \in A} R(a) \subseteq X/R$ is the expected *S*.

 \Leftarrow : we will show that for $\forall S \subseteq X/R, \pi^{-1}(S)$ is R-saturated on X. For any $s \in \pi^{-1}(S)$, $\pi(s) = R(s) \subseteq S$. For any $x \in X$, if xRs, then $R(x) = R(s) \subseteq S$, thus $x \in \pi^{-1}(S)$, thus $\pi^{-1}(S)$ is R-saturated.

Definition 35 (Quotient Map). Let $X \xrightarrow{p} Y$ be a map between topology spaces. We say p is a quotient map if:

- 1. *p* is a surjection;
- **2.** for any $V \subseteq Y$, we have $V \subseteq_{open} Y \Leftrightarrow p^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X$.

Remark 37. The second statement is equivalent with

$$V \subseteq_{close} Y \Leftrightarrow p^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{close} X$$

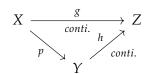
since $p^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{close} X \Leftrightarrow (p^{-1}(V))^c = p^{-1}(V^c) \subseteq_{open} X \Leftrightarrow V^c \subseteq_{open} X \Leftrightarrow V \subseteq_{close} X$.

Thus the topology on Y is the final topology induced by $\{p\}$, since the second statement.

For a topology space X with an equivalence relation R, a topology $\mathcal{T}_{X/R}$ on X/R makes the natural projection $X \xrightarrow{\pi} X/R$ a quotient map iff $\mathcal{T}_{X/R} = \mathcal{T}_{(X,R)}$. And we call $(X/R, \mathcal{T}_{X,R})$ the **quotient space** on X w.r.t. R.

Exercise 50 (The universal property of quotient topology/map). Let $X \xrightarrow{p} Y$ be a quotient map. Show that for $\forall X \xrightarrow{g} Z$ s.t. $\forall x, x' \in X, p(x) = p(x') \Rightarrow g(x) = g(x'),$

$$\exists ! Y \xrightarrow{h} Z \text{ s.t. } h \circ p = g.$$



Proof. Existence: for any $y \in Y$, $p^{-1}(y) \exists$ for p is a surjection. Define $h(y) = g(p^{-1}(y))$. Since $g(p^{-1}(y))$ is a constant, h is well defined. And $h \circ p(x) = h(p(x)) = g(p^{-1}(p(x)))$. Since $x \in p^{-1}(p(x))$ and $g(p^{-1}(p(x)))$ is a constant, thus $h \circ p(x) = g(x)$.

Uniqueness: since p is surjection, h is unique.

Continuousness: for any $U \subseteq_{open} Z$, $h^{-1}(U) \subseteq_{open} Y \Leftrightarrow p^{-1}(h^{-1}(U)) \subseteq_{open} X$. Since $p^{-1}(h^{-1}(U)) = g^{-1}(U) \subseteq_{open} X$ since g is conti. and $g = h \circ p$. Thus h is continuous.

Remark 38. $p(x) = p(x') \Rightarrow g(x) = g(x')$ means that given a $y \in Y$, g is a constant on $p^{-1}(y)$.

Any maps between sets $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ induces an equivalence relation R_f on X: for $x, x' \in X$, $xR_fx' \Leftrightarrow f(x) = f(x')$. And the equivalence classes is the $f^{-1}(\{y\})$, for $y \in f(X)$.

Exercise 51. Given a continuous surjection $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$, show that f is a quotient map \Leftrightarrow the image of every f - saturated open/close subset of X is open/close in Y.

Proof. \Rightarrow : If A is a f - saturated , then $A = f^{-1}(f(A))$: if $\exists b \in f^{-1}(f(A)) \setminus A$, then $f(b) \in f(A) \Rightarrow \exists a \in A$, s.t. $f(b) = f(a) \Rightarrow aR_fb \Rightarrow b \in A$, which leads to a contradiction. Thus $A = f^{-1}(f(A))$.

Thus if A is an open f - saturated set on X then $f^{-1}(f(A)) \subseteq_{open} X \Leftrightarrow f(A) \subseteq_{open} Y$ since f is a quotient map.

 \Leftarrow : all we need to show is for any $V \subseteq Y$, $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow V \subseteq_{open} Y$. For any $V \subseteq Y$, $f^{-1}(V)$ is f - saturate: for any $r \in f^{-1}(V) \Rightarrow f(r) \in V$. If $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $xR_f r \Rightarrow f(x) = f(r) \in V \Rightarrow x \in f^{-1}(V)$.

If $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X$, then $f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq_{open} X$. Since f is a surjection, $V = f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow f$ is quotient map.

Remark 39. If A is a f - saturated , then $A = f^{-1}(f(A))$.

Chapter 5

Compact Space and HLC Space

5.1 Compactness

Definition 36 (Compact Subset). Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topology space and $K \subseteq X$, we call K is compact subset of X if $\forall \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}, K \subseteq \cup \mathcal{U} \Rightarrow \exists$ finite $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, s.t. $K \subseteq \cup \mathcal{S}$.

We say (X, \mathcal{T}) is a compact space if X is a compact subset of itself.

Exercise 52. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topology space and $K \subseteq X$, show that K is a compact subset of $X \Leftrightarrow (K, \mathcal{T}_K)$ is a compact space, where \mathcal{T}_K is subspace topology.

Proof. \Rightarrow : For any $V_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} K$, $\exists U_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $V_{\alpha} = U_{\alpha} \cap K$. For any

$$K = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$$

$$= \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (U_{\alpha} \cap K)$$

$$= K \cap \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$$

$$= K \cap (U_{\alpha_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup U_{\alpha_{k}})$$

$$= V_{\alpha_{1}} \cup \cdots \vee V_{\alpha_{k}}$$

Thus *K* is compact. \Leftarrow : for any $K \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$, we have $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (U_{\alpha} \cap K) \subseteq K$ and

$$K = K \cap K$$

$$\subseteq K \cap \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$$

$$= \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (K \cap U_{\alpha})$$

Thus $K = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (K \cap U_{\alpha}) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$, where $V_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} K$. And $\exists V_{\alpha_1}, \cdots, V_{\alpha_k} \subseteq_{open} K$, s.t.

$$K = V_{\alpha_1} \cup \cdots V_{\alpha_k}$$

= $K \cap (U_{\alpha_1} \cup \cdots \cup U_{\alpha_k})$
 $\subseteq U_{\alpha_1} \cup \cdots \cup U_{\alpha_k}$

Thus *K* is a compact subset in *X*.

Suppose we admit that the Dedekind gapless property of real number: if $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ has upper bound (lower bound), then $\sup S(\inf S) \exists$.

Theorem 9. [0,1] (as a subspace of \mathbb{R}) is compact.

Proof. Suppose that $V_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}(\alpha \in A)$ cover [0,1]. Consider

$$S := \{s \in [0,1] | [0,s] \text{ can be covered by finitely many } V_{\alpha} \}$$

Thus $0 \in S$, $S \neq \emptyset$. $S \subseteq [0,1]$, thus S has an upper bound $\Rightarrow \sup S \exists$. Let $s_0 := \sup S$. Since 1 is an upper bound of S, $s_0 \leq 1$. For $\forall t \leq s_0$, t is not an upper bound of S, $\exists s' \in S$, s.t. t < s', thus [0,t] could be covered by finitely many V_{α} .

Since $s_0 \le 1$, $\exists \alpha_0$, s.t. $s_0 \subseteq V_{\alpha_0}$, $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(s_0) \subseteq V_{\alpha_0}$. Thus $[0, s_0 - r]$ can be covered by finitely many of V_{α} , and $(s_0 - r, s_0 + r)$ can be covered by V_{α_0} . Thus $[0, s_0 + r)$ can be covered by finitely many V_{α} . Thus $s_0 = 1$ and $s_0 \in S \Rightarrow S = [0, 1]$.

Thus $[0,1] \times [0,1]$, as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 , which coincides with the product space of [0,1] and [0,1], is compact.

More generally, we can reprove the **Heine–Borel theorem**: for $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, then $K \subseteq_{cpt.} \mathbb{R}^n \Leftrightarrow K \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}^n$ and K is bdd.

Proof. ⇒: \mathbb{R}^n is metric space ⇒ \mathbb{R}^n is Hausdorff ⇒ $K \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}^n$. Since $K \subseteq \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B_n(0)$ ⇒ $\exists r_1, \dots, r_k$, s.t. $K \subseteq \cup_{i=1}^k B_{n_{r_i}}(0)$ ⇒ K is bdd.

$$\Leftarrow$$
: K is bdd. \Rightarrow , $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $K \subseteq B_r(0)$, $\Rightarrow \exists [a_1, b_1], \cdots, [a_n, b_n] \in \mathbb{R}$, s.t. $K \subseteq B_r(0) \subseteq \times_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$. Since $K \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow K \subseteq_{close} \times_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i] \subseteq_{cpt} \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow K \subseteq_{cpt} \times_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i] \Rightarrow K$ is cpt.

Remark 40. Actually, In any metric space X, $K \subseteq_{cpt.} X \Rightarrow K \subseteq_{close} X$ and be bdd.

Definition 37 (Finite Intersection Property, FIP). Let S be a set and $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(S)$ is a family of subsets of S. We say that \mathcal{F} has the finite intersection property (FIP) if $\forall \mathcal{F}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}_0$ is finite $\Rightarrow \cap \mathcal{F}_0 \neq \emptyset$.

Exercise 53. For a set X and a family of subsets $U \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$, let $\mathcal{F} := \{X \setminus U | U \in \mathcal{U}\}$, then $X = \cup \mathcal{U} \Leftrightarrow \cap \mathcal{F} = \emptyset$.

Proof. ⇒: if $\cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$, then $\exists x \in \cap \mathcal{F}$, that is for $\forall U \in \mathcal{U}, x \in X \setminus U \Rightarrow x \notin U$ but $x \in X$. Thus $\cup \mathcal{U} \neq X$ which leads to a contradiction.

$$\Leftarrow$$
: $\cap \mathcal{F} = \emptyset$, thus for any $x \in X$, $\exists F \in \mathcal{F}$, s.t. $x \notin F$, that is $\exists U \in \mathcal{U}$, s.t. $x \notin X \setminus U \Rightarrow x \in U$. Thus $X \subseteq \cup \mathcal{U} \subseteq X \Rightarrow X = \cup \mathcal{U}$.

Exercise 54. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topology space, show that X is compact space $\Leftrightarrow \forall$ family $\mathcal{F}(\subseteq \mathcal{P}(X))$ of closed subsets of X, \mathcal{F} has $FIP \Rightarrow \cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. ⇒: For any family \mathcal{F} of closed subset of X, define $\mathcal{U} := \{X \setminus F | F \in \mathcal{F}\}$, thus \mathcal{U} is a family of open subsets of X. If $\cup \mathcal{U} = X$, since X is compact, \exists a finite $\mathcal{U}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, s.t. $X = \cup \mathcal{U}_0$.

Define $\mathcal{F}_0 := \{X \setminus U | U \in \mathcal{U}_0\}$, thus \mathcal{F}_0 is finite and $\cap \mathcal{F}_0 = \emptyset$, which leads to the FIP of X. Thus $\cup \mathcal{U} \neq X \Leftrightarrow \cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$.

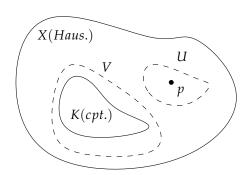
 \Leftarrow : If X is not a compact set, we will show the statement in the right side is wrong. If X is not a compact set then \exists s family \mathcal{U} of open subsets of X such that any finite $\mathcal{U}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ has $X \neq \cup \mathcal{U}_0$.

Define $\mathcal{F} := \{X \setminus U | U \in \mathcal{U}\}; \mathcal{F}_0 := \{X \setminus U | U \in \mathcal{U}_0\}$ for any finite $\mathcal{U}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Thus \mathcal{F} has FIP, but $\cap \mathcal{F} = \emptyset$.

Proposition 3. Suppose X is Hausdorff, $K(\subseteq X)$ is compact, $p \in X \setminus K \Rightarrow \exists U, V \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $K \subseteq V$, $p \in U$, and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Proof. X is Hausdorff $\Rightarrow \forall q \in K$, $\exists U_q, V_q \subseteq_{open} X$ s.t. $q \in V_q, p \in U_q, U_q \cap V_q = \emptyset$. Thus $K \subseteq \bigcup_{q \in K} V_q = \bigcup_{i=1}^k V_{q_i}$, Let $V = \bigcup_{i=1}^k V_{q_i}$, $U = \bigcup_{i=1}^k U_{q_i}$, then

$$U \cap V = \left(\bigcap_{j=1}^{k} U_{q_{j}}\right) \cap \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} V_{q_{i}}\right)$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \left[\bigcap_{j=1}^{k} \left(U_{q_{j}} \cap V_{q_{i}}\right)\right]$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \emptyset = \emptyset.$$



Proposition 4. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topology space, $K \subseteq X$, then

- 1. X is Hausdorff space, K is compact $\Rightarrow K \subseteq_{close} X$;
- 2. *X* is compact space, $K \subseteq_{close} X \Rightarrow K$ is compact.

Proof. 1 For $\forall p \in X \backslash K$, $\exists W_p \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $x \in W_p$ and $W_p \cap K = \emptyset$, by Proposition 4, that is $W_p \subseteq X \backslash K$. And because

$$X \backslash K = \cup_{p \in X \backslash K} \{p\} \subseteq \cup_{p \in X \backslash K} W_p \subseteq X \backslash K$$

we have that $X \setminus K = \bigcup_{p \in X \setminus K} W_p \subseteq_{open} X$, and then $K \subseteq_{close} X$.

2 Suppose $\exists U_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} X(\alpha \in A)$, s.t. $K \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$, thus $X = K \cup X \setminus K = (X \setminus K) \cup \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$. Since X is compact thus \exists finite $A_0 \subseteq A$, s.t. $K \subseteq X = (X \setminus K) \cup \bigcup_{\alpha \in A_0} U_{\alpha} \Rightarrow K$ is compact.

Proposition 5 (Continuous Maps Preserve Compactness). *Suppose X, Y are top. sp.* $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ *is continuous.* $K \subseteq_{cpt.} X \Rightarrow f(K) \subseteq_{cpt.} Y$.

Proof. Suppose $\exists U_{\alpha} \subseteq_{open} Y(\alpha \in A)$, s.t. $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} \Rightarrow K \subseteq f^{-1}(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(U_{\alpha})$. Since K is compact, \exists finite $A_0 \subseteq A$, s.t. $K \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A_0} U_{\alpha} \Rightarrow f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A_0} U_{\alpha} \Rightarrow f(K)$ is compact. \Box

Proposition 6. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a continuous map with X is compact and Y is Hausdorff, then

- 1. f is a close map (i.e. $\forall C \subseteq_{close} X, f(C) \subseteq_{close} Y$);
- 2. f is a surjection $\Rightarrow f$ is a quotient map;
- 3. f is a bijection \Rightarrow f is a homeomorphism (同胚) (i.e. a bijection which and whose inverse are both continuous).

Proof. 1. Any close set C in X is compact, thus f(C) is compact, since Y is Hausdorff, f(C) is close;

- 2. For any $V \subseteq Y$, if $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed $\Rightarrow f(f^{-1}(V))$ is closed, and $V = f(f^{-1}(V))$ is closed since f is surjection. On the other hand, if V is closed, since f is continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed. Thus f is quotient map.
- 3. All we need to prove is the inverse of f, denoted by $Y \xrightarrow{\overline{f}} X$ is continuous. Note that for any $y \in f(U)$, $\exists x \in U$, s.t. y = f(x) and $x = \overline{f}(y)$, thus $y \in \overline{f}^{-1}(x) \subseteq \overline{f}^{-1}(U)$, thus $f(U) \subseteq \overline{f}^{-1}(U)$. On the other hand, for any $y \in \overline{f}^{-1}(U)$, $\overline{f}(y) \in U \Rightarrow \exists x \in U$, s.t. $x = \overline{f}(y)$ and $y = f(x) \in f(U)$. Thus $\overline{f}^{-1}(U) \subseteq f(U)$. Thus we have for any $U \in X$,

$$f(U) = \overline{f}^{-1}(U),$$

For any $V \subseteq_{close} X$, $\overline{f}^{-1}(V) = f(V) \subseteq_{close} Y$, since f is a close map, thus \overline{f} is continuous and f is a homeomorphism.

Remark 41. Given a map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$, for any $A \subseteq X$, $B \subseteq Y$:

- 1. f is injection $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(f(A)) = A$;
- 2. f is surjection $\Rightarrow f(f^{-1}(B)) = B$;

Exercise 55. Given a conti. map $K \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$, K is $cpt. \Rightarrow f$ has a max. and min.

Proof. K is cpt., f is conti. $\Rightarrow f(K) \subseteq_{cpt.} \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow f(K) \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}$ and be bdd. Thus f(K) has an upper bound and lower bound, thus $\max f(K) = \sup f(K) \in f(K)$ and $\min f(K) = \inf f(K) \in f(K)$.

Remark 42. Two facts:

- 1. $K \subseteq_{cpt.} \mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow K \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}$ and be bounded (Heine-Borel theorem, Theorem 5);
- 2. $K \subseteq_{close} \mathbb{R}$ and be bounded $\Rightarrow \sup K \in K$ and $\inf K \in K$ (Exercise 1);

Exercise 56. Let R be an equiv. rel. on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ whose equiv. classes are exactly

$$\{(x,y)\}, \quad \text{if } (x,y) \in (0,1) \times [0,1]$$

 $\{(0,y), (1,1-y)\}, \quad \text{if } y \in [0,1]$

Define

$$Y := \{ (2 + t \cos(\theta/2)) \cos(\theta),$$

$$(2 + t \cos(\theta/2)) \sin(\theta),$$

$$t \sin(\theta/2)$$

$$|(\theta, t) \in [0, 2\pi] \times [-0.5, 0.5] \}$$

as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 . Show that there exists a homeomorphism from $X := [0,1] \times [0,1]/R$ to Y.

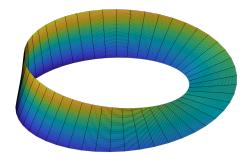


Figure 5.1: Y: a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3

Proof. 1. Y, equipped with subspace topology, is a Hausdorff space:

For any $y_1, y_2 \in Y$, $\exists U_1, U_2 \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}^3$, s.t. $y_1 \in U_1, y_2 \in U_2$ and $U_1 \cap U_2$. Thus $y_1 \in Y \cap U_1 \subseteq_{open} Y$ and $y_2 \in Y \cap U_2 \subseteq_{open} Y$ and $(Y \cap U_1) \cap (Y \cap U_2) = Y \cap (U_1 \cap U_2) = \emptyset \Rightarrow Y$ is Hausdorff space.

2. X, equipped with quotient topology, is a compact space: Since X is equipped with the quotient topology, thus the natural projection $[0,1] \times [0,1] \xrightarrow{\pi} [0,1] \times [0,1]/R$ is continuous. Since $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ is a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}^2 \Leftrightarrow [0,1] \times [0,1]$ is a compact set, thus $X = \pi([0,1] \times [0,1])$ is a compact set.

3. \exists a bijection $X \xrightarrow{m} Y$:

For any $(x,y) \in (0,1) \times [0,1]$, define a map $h : \{(x,y)\} \mapsto (\theta,t)$ where $\theta = 2\pi x, t = y - 0.5$;

For any x = 0 (or 1), define $h : \{(0,y), (1,1-y)\} \mapsto (2\pi,t)$ (or (0,-t)) where t = y - 0.5; It is direct to see $X \xrightarrow{h} \{(\theta,t) | \theta \in [0,2\pi], t \in [-0.5,0.5]\}$ is a bijection.

Finally, define $\{(\theta,t)|\theta\in[0,2\pi],t\in[-0.5,0.5]\}\xrightarrow{g} Y$ which is a bijection as well, Thus $m=g\circ h$ is a bijection.

Collectively, $X \xrightarrow{m} Y$ is a bijection from compact space to Hausdorff space, thus m is a homeomorphism.

Definition 38 (Proper Map). A map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ between topology spaces is called a proper map if $f^{-1}(K) \subseteq_{cpt.} X$ for $\forall K \subseteq_{cpt.} Y$.

Proposition 7. X, Y are compact spaces $\Rightarrow X \times Y$ equipped with the product topology is compact.

Thus if *Y* is compact, *X* is topology space, then the projection $X \times Y \xrightarrow{\pi_X} X$ is a proper map.

Exercise 57. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a map between topology spaces, \mathcal{B} is a basis of the topology of X, show that f is an open map $\Leftrightarrow \forall B \in \mathcal{B}, f(B) \subseteq_{open} Y$.

Proof.
$$\Rightarrow$$
: $\forall B \in \mathcal{B}, B \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow f(B) \subseteq_{open} Y$. \Leftarrow : $\forall U \subseteq_{open} X$ can be represented as $U = \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F$ where $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$. Thus $f(U) = f(\bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F) = \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} f(F) \subseteq_{open} Y$.

Thus if X, Y are topology, then map $X \times Y \xrightarrow{\pi} X$ is an open map.

5.2 HLC Space

Definition 39 (Locally Compact). X is a locally compact space if $\forall x \in X$ has a compact nbd. (i.e. $\forall x \in X, \exists K \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, s.t. $x \in K^o$, or equivalently, $\forall x \in X, \exists U \subseteq_{open} X, x \in U \subseteq \overline{U} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$)

Exercise 58. *X* is locally compact Hausdorff (LCH) space, $C \subseteq_{close} X$, show that $\forall c \in C, \exists T_c \subseteq_{cpt.} C$, s.t. $c \in T_c$.

Proof. For $\forall c \in C, \exists S_c \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, s.t. $c \in S_c$ and $c \in S_c \cap C$. Since $S_c \subseteq_{cpt.} X \Rightarrow S_c \subseteq_{close}$

 $X \Rightarrow S_c \cap C \subseteq_{close} X$

$$X \setminus (S_c \cap C) \subseteq_{open} X$$

$$\Rightarrow S_c \cap (X \setminus (S_c \cap C)) \subseteq_{open} S_c$$

$$\Rightarrow S_c \setminus [S_c \cap (X \setminus (S_c \cap C))] \subseteq_{close} S_c$$

$$\Rightarrow (S_c \setminus S_c) \cup [S_c \setminus X \setminus (S_c \cap C)] \subseteq_{close} S_c$$

$$\Rightarrow S_c \setminus X \setminus (S_c \cap C)$$

$$= S_c \cap C \subseteq_{close} S_c.$$

Since $S_c \cap C \subseteq_{close} S_c$, S_c is cpt. $\Rightarrow S_c \cap C \subseteq_{cpt.} S_c \Rightarrow S_c \cap C$ is cpt. $\Rightarrow S_c \cap C \subseteq_{cpt.} C$. \square

Remark 43. $A \subseteq_{close} X$, $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$, then $A \subseteq_{close} B$ (Exercise 44).

Exercise 59. If X is a locally compact Hausdorff (LCH) space and $x \in X$ has an open nbd. U, show that, there is a compact nbd. of x which is a subset of U. (That is $x \in U \subseteq_{open} X$, then $\exists W \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $x \in W \subseteq \overline{W} \subseteq U$ where $\overline{W} \subseteq_{cpt} X$).

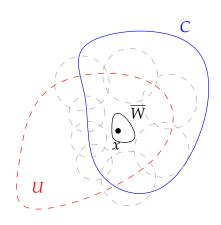
Proof. Given a $x \in X$ and an open nbd. U of x. Since X is locally compact, $\exists C \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, s.t. $x \in C$. Since X is Hausdorff $\Rightarrow C$ is closed $\Rightarrow x \in U \cap C^o \subseteq_{open} X$.

Denote $\partial[U \cap C^o]$ as ∂ , since $\partial = X \setminus ((U \cap C^o)^o \cup (U \cap C^o)^e)$, ∂ is closed. Since $\partial \subseteq \partial[U \cap C^o] \cup (U \cap C^o)^o = \overline{U \cap C^o} \subseteq \overline{C} = C$, ∂ is a closed subset of compact set C, thus ∂ is compact.

Since $x \in U \cap C^o$, thus $x \notin \partial$. Since X is Hausdorff, for any $s \in \partial$, $\exists V_s, W_s \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $s \in V_s$ and $x \in W_s$ and $V_s \cap W_s = \emptyset$. Thus $\partial \subseteq \bigcup_{s \in \partial} V_s \Rightarrow \exists$ finite $\partial_0 \subseteq \partial$, s.t. $\partial \subseteq \bigcup_{s \in \partial_0} V_s \subseteq_{open} X$ and $x \in \bigcap_{s \in \partial_0} W_s \subseteq_{open} X$.

Denote $\bigcap_{s \in \partial_0} W_s =: W$ and $\bigcup_{s \in \partial_0} V_s =: V$, thus $W \cap V = \emptyset \Rightarrow W \subseteq X \setminus V \Rightarrow \overline{W} \subseteq \overline{X \setminus V} = X \setminus V \Rightarrow \overline{W} \cap V = \emptyset \Rightarrow \overline{W} \cap \partial = \emptyset$. Since $\overline{W} \subseteq \overline{U \cap C^o} = (U \cap C^o) \cup \partial \Rightarrow \overline{W} \subseteq U \cap C^o \subseteq U$ and $\overline{W} \subseteq C$.

Finally, since C is compact, \overline{W} is closed $\Rightarrow \overline{W}$ is compact. Thus $x \in W \subseteq \overline{W} \subseteq U$ and $\overline{W} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$.



Exercise 60. More generally, we can replace the point x with a compact set, i.e. X is HLC space, $\forall K \subseteq_{cpt.} X$ if $\exists U \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $K \subseteq U$ show that $\exists W \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $K \subseteq W \subseteq \overline{W} \subseteq U$ where $\overline{W} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$.

Proof. For any $k \in K$, $k \in U$, thus $\exists W^{(k)} \subseteq_{open} X$, s.t. $k \in W^{(k)} \subseteq \overline{W^{(k)}} \subseteq U$ where $\overline{W^{(k)}} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$. Thus $K \subseteq \bigcup_{k \in K} W^{(k)}$ and since K is compact, there exists a finite $K_0 \subseteq K$, s.t.

$$K \subseteq \bigcup_{k \in K_0} W^{(k)} \subseteq \bigcup_{k \in K_0} \overline{W^{(k)}} \subseteq U.$$

Since $\overline{W^{(k)}}$ is compact for $\forall k \in K \Rightarrow \bigcup_{k \in K_0} \overline{W^{(k)}}$ is compact. And since K_0 is finite, $\bigcup_{k \in K_0} \overline{W^{(k)}} = \overline{\bigcup_{k \in K_0} W^{(k)}}$. Thus $W := \bigcup_{k \in K_0} W^{(k)}$ and

$$K \subseteq W \subseteq \overline{W} \subseteq U$$

where $W \subseteq_{open} X$ and $\overline{W} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$.

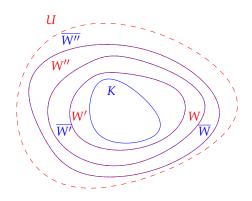
Note that there is an iteration process, that is if $K \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, and $K \subseteq U \subseteq_{open} X$, and then $\exists W \subseteq_{open} X$ and $\overline{W} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, s.t. $K \subseteq W \subseteq \overline{W} \subseteq U$. Then $\exists W', W'' \subseteq_{open} X$ and $\overline{W'}, \overline{W''} \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, s.t.

$$K \subseteq W' \subseteq \overline{W'} \subseteq W$$
,

and

$$\overline{W} \subset W'' \subset \overline{W''} \subset U$$

and so on.



5.3 Continuous \mathbb{R} - value maps

Let X be a topology space, consider a \mathbb{R} - value map $X \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ on it. Now we want to explore the relationship between the continuity of f and the topology structure of X.

Exercise 61. Given a trivial topology space X, show that $X \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ is constant $\Leftrightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.

Proof. ⇒: Suppose for $\forall x \in X, f(x) \equiv r \in \mathbb{R}$. For any $U \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}$ containing r, $f^{-1}(U) = X \subseteq_{open} X$; and for any $V \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}$ that do not contain r, $f^{-1}(V) = \emptyset \subseteq_{open} X$, thus f is continuous.

 \Leftarrow : If f is not a constant map, then $\exists x_1, x_2 \in X$, s.t. $f(x_1) = r_1, f(x_2) = r_2$ and $r_1 \neq r_2$. Since $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, and \mathbb{R} is Hausdorff space, then $\exists U, V \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}$, s.t. $r_1 \in U, r_2 \in V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Thus $f^{-1}(U) \cap f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U \cap V) = \emptyset$. And $x_1 \in f^{-1}(U) \neq \emptyset$ and $x_2 \in f^{-1}(V) \neq \emptyset$.

If f is continuous, then $f^{-1}(U) \subseteq_{open} X \Rightarrow f^{-1}(U) = X$ which leads to a contradiction with $f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U \cap V) = \emptyset$, thus f is not continuous.

As we can see that if X is a trivial topology space, then the $\mathbb R$ - value map f on it is continuous iff f is constant map. Now if we add some sets into the trivial topology, can we obtain more continuous $\mathbb R$ - value maps that are not constant?

Exercise 62. Let X be an infinite set, define $\mathscr{T} := \{U \subseteq X | U = \emptyset \lor X \backslash U \text{ is finite}\}$ which is called **Cofinite topology**. Show that The only \mathbb{R} - valued continuous maps on (X, \mathscr{T}) are constant maps.

Proof. We have proved that any \mathbb{R} - valued constants map on X is continuous, we will show that any \mathbb{R} - valued un-constants maps on X is not continuous.

Just as we shown before, If f is not a constant map, then $\exists x_1, x_2 \in X$, s.t. $f(x_1) = r_1, f(x_2) = r_2$ and $r_1 \neq r_2$. Since $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, and \mathbb{R} is Hausdorff space, then $\exists U, V \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}$, s.t. $r_1 \in U, r_2 \in V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Thus $f^{-1}(U) \cap f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U \cap V) = \emptyset$. And $x_1 \in f^{-1}(U) \neq \emptyset$ and $x_2 \in f^{-1}(V) \neq \emptyset$.

Then if f is continuous, then $f^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{T}$, since $f^{-1}(U) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow X \setminus f^{-1}(U)$ is finite. Since $f^{-1}(U) \cap f^{-1}(V) = \emptyset \Rightarrow f^{-1}(V) \subseteq X \setminus f^{-1}(U)$ and thus $f^{-1}(V)$ is finite. Since X is infinite, $X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$ is infinite $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(V) \notin \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow f$ is not continuous. \square

As we can see that, even though we add some sets into the topology of X, we can not construct some 'nontrivial' \mathbb{R} - valued maps. Actually, if X is uncountable, even if we add sets into \mathscr{T} again, such as define $\mathscr{T}' \coloneqq \{U \subseteq X | U = \varnothing \lor X \backslash U \text{ is countable}\}$ which is called **Cocountable topology**, the only \mathbb{R} - valued continuous maps on (X, \mathscr{T}') are still constant maps.

These examples tell us, there is a 'threshold' of the topology, if the topology is too coarse to achieve the threshold, then the only \mathbb{R} - valued continuous maps on X are constant maps.

Let *X* be a topology space and $A, B \subseteq X$ be disjoint. We say a **Chain** C from *A* to *B* consists of a sequence of subsets C_k of $X(k = 0, 1, \dots, r)$, s.t.

$$A = C_0 \subset \overline{C_0} \subset C_1^0 \subset \overline{C_1} \subset \cdots \subset \overline{C_{r-1}} \subset C_r^0 \subset \overline{C_r} \subset X \backslash B.$$

For a chain $C: C_k(k=0,\cdots,r)$, we let $C_0 := \emptyset$ and $C_{r+1} := X$ and define

$$f_{\mathcal{C}}(x) := \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{k}{r}, & \text{if } x \in C_k \backslash C_{k-1}, k = 0, \dots, r \\ 0, & \text{if } x \notin C_r, \end{cases}$$

It is direct to see that $|f_{\mathcal{C}}(x) - f_{\mathcal{C}}(x')| \leq \frac{1}{r}$ if $x, x' \in C_{k+1}^o \setminus \overline{C_{k-1}} =: \Omega_k$ for any $k = 0, \dots, r$. And $\Omega_k \subseteq_{open} X$ and $\bigcup_{i=0}^r \Omega_k = X$.

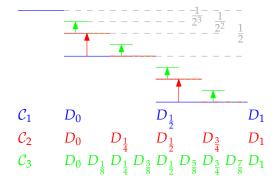
Lemma 2. Suppose X is a topology space, $A, B \subseteq X$ are disjoint. $D_q \subseteq X$ where

$$q \in \left\{ \frac{l}{2^m} \middle| l, m \in \mathbb{N}_0, l \leq 2^m \right\} =: Q,$$

s.t. $q \leq q' \Rightarrow \overline{D_q} \subseteq D_{q'}^o$ and $A = D_0, D_1 \subseteq X \setminus B$. Then \exists a continuous map $X \xrightarrow{f} [0,1]$ s.t. $f(A) = \{1\}$ and $f(B) = \{0\}$.

Proof. Let C_m be the chain $D_0, D_{\frac{1}{2^m}}, \cdots, D_{\frac{2^m-1}{2^m}}, D_1$ from A to B. Thus

$$C_0 = D_0(=A), D_1$$
 $C_1 = D_0, D_{\frac{1}{2}}, D_1$
 $C_2 = D_0, D_{\frac{1}{4}}, D_{\frac{1}{2}}, D_{\frac{3}{4}}, D_1$



Define $f_m := f_{\mathcal{C}_m} : X \to \mathbb{R}(m \in \mathbb{N}_0)$. Since for any $x \in X, m, m' \in \mathbb{N}_0$, $f_m(x) \leq 1$, and if $m \leq m' \Rightarrow f_m(x) \leq f_{m'}(x)$. Thus $f_m \to f$ as $m \to \infty$. And

$$f(x) - f_m(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{n=m}^{k} (f_{n+1}(x) - f_n(x))$$

where $f_{n+1}(x) - f_n(x) \le \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$ for $\forall x \in X$. Thus

$$f(x) - f_m(x) \le \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2^m}$$

for any $x \in X$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$. Thus for a given $x_0 \in X$ and any $x \in X$, we have

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \le |f(x) - f_m(x)| + |f_m(x) - f_m(x_0)| + |f_m(x_0) - f(x_0)|$$

$$\le \frac{1}{2^m} + \frac{1}{2^m} + |f_m(x) - f_m(x_0)|$$

For any $\epsilon > 0$, we can choose and fix a large enough m such that $\frac{1}{2^m} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. Assume that $x_0 \in \Omega_s$ of C_m (that is $x_0 \in C_{\frac{s+1}{2^m}}^o \setminus \overline{C_{\frac{s-1}{2^m}}}$), then for any $x \in \Omega_s \subseteq_{open} X$, we have that $|f_m(x) - f_m(x_0)| \le \frac{1}{2^m}$ and

$$|f(x)-f(x_0)| \leq \frac{1}{2^m} + \frac{1}{2^m} + \frac{1}{2^m} \leq \epsilon,$$

thus f is continuous, and $f(A) = \{1\}, f(B) = \{0\}.$

Thus if X is a HLC space, $A, B \subseteq_{cpt.} X$ are disjoint, then there exists a continuous \mathbb{R} -valued map $X \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(A) = \{1\}$ and $f(B) = \{0\}$.

Chapter 6

Sequence & Net

6.1 Seq. description of metric space

Definition 40 (Convergence). Let (X, \mathscr{T}) be a topology space, $x \in X$ and $x_n \in X(n \in \mathbb{N})$, we say $x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$ if for any open nbd. U_x of x, $\exists N$, s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge N \Rightarrow x_n \in U$.

We define

$$\overline{A}' := \{ x \in X | \exists \text{ seq. } a_n \in A(n \in \mathbb{N}), \text{ s.t. } a_n \to x \text{ as } n \to \infty \}$$

and

$$L_A' := \{x \in X | \exists \text{ seq. } a_n \in A \setminus \{x\} (n \in \mathbb{N}), \text{ s.t. } a_n \to x \text{ as } n \to \infty\}.$$

Exercise 63. Let (X, d) be a metric space, $A \subseteq X$, show that

1.
$$\overline{A} = \overline{A}'$$
;

2.
$$L_A = L'_A$$

Proof. 1. \subseteq : if $x \in \overline{A}$, then $B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then we can form a seq. $x_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x) \cap A$ for $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus for any open nbd. U_x of x, since X is metric space, $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(x) \subseteq U_x$. Let $N = \lceil \frac{1}{r} \rceil$, then for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \ge N \Rightarrow x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x) \subseteq B_r(x) \subseteq U_x \Rightarrow x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty \Rightarrow x \in \overline{A}'$.

 \supseteq : If $x \in \overline{A}' \Rightarrow \exists$ a seq. $x_n (n \in \mathbb{R})$, s.t. $x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$. Thus \forall open nbd. U_x of x, $\exists N$, s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge N \Rightarrow x_n \in U_x \Rightarrow \text{such } x_n \in U_x \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in \overline{A}$.

2. The same as above.
$$\Box$$

Exercise 64. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a map between metric spaces and $x_0 \in X$, show that f is continuous at $x_0 \Leftrightarrow \forall$ seq. $x_n \in X(n \in \mathbb{N})$, $x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty \Rightarrow f(x_n) \to f(x)$ as $n \to \infty$.

Proof. \Rightarrow : For any open nbd. V of $f(x_0)$, $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq_{open} X$ is an open nbd. of x_0 , since

 $x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$, $\exists N$ s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge N \Rightarrow x_n \in f^{-1}(V) \Rightarrow f(x_n) \in V \Rightarrow f(x_n) \to f(x_0)$ as $n \to \infty$.

 \Leftarrow : Form a seq. $x_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x_0)$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $x_n \to x_0$ and $f(x_n) \to f(x_0)$ as $n \to \infty$. Thus for any open nbd. V of $f(x_0)$, $\exists N$, s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge N \Rightarrow f(x_n) \in V$, which means for any $x \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x_0)$, $f(x) \in V \Rightarrow B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x_0) \subseteq V \Rightarrow f$ is continuous at x_0 .

As we shown, given metric spaces, then we can re-define the concept of *closure*, *limit* points and *continuity* of the map with sequential description. But if given topology spaces, instead of metric spaces, we only have

- 1. $\overline{A}' \subseteq \overline{A}$;
- 2. $L'_A \subseteq L_A$;
- 3. f is continuous at $x_0 \Rightarrow \forall$ seq. $x_n \in X(n \in \mathbb{N})$, $x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$ then $f(x_n) \to f(x)$ as $n \to \infty$

since the proofs of these properties are independent with the features of metric space. And in general, the converses do not hold.

Exercise 65. If X are 1-st countable topology space, $A \subseteq X$, show that $\overline{A}' = \overline{A}$ and $L'_A = L_A$. *Proof.* All we need to prove is $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{A}'$ and $L_A \subseteq L'_A$:

1. For any $x \in X$, \exists a countable local basis \mathcal{B}_x of x such as $\mathcal{B}_x = \{V_1, V_2, \cdots\}$, thus we can form a seq. $x_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $x_n \in A \cap (\bigcap_{i=1}^n V_i)$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Note that $x \in \overline{A} \Rightarrow A \cap (\bigcap_{i=1}^n V_i) \neq \emptyset$, thus x_n exists and $x_n \in A$.

Thus for any open nbd. U of x, $\exists V_m \in \mathcal{B}_x$ such that $x \in V_m \subseteq U$, and for any $n \geq m, x_n \subseteq V_m \subseteq U \Rightarrow x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$. Thus $x \in \overline{A}'$.

2. The same as 1. \Box

6.2 Sequentially Compact, Totally Bounded

Definition 41. Let (X, d) be a metric space, we say

- 1. (X,d) is a sequentially compact if every sequence in X has a convergent subsequence.
- 2. (X,d) is a totally bounded if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ finite set $S \subseteq X$, s.t. $X = \bigcup_{s \in S} B_{\epsilon}(s)$.

Exercise 66. Let (X,d) be a totally bounded metric space, that is for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist a finite set $S_n \subseteq X$, s.t. $X = \bigcup_{s \in S} B_{\frac{1}{n}}(s)$, show that $S := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S_n$ is a countable dense subset in X w.r.t. d.

Proof. S is countable is trivial, we will show that *S* is dense. If *U* is an un-empty open set in *X*, then $\exists x \in U$ and $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(x) \subseteq U$, define $N = \lceil \frac{1}{r} \rceil$ then for any given $n \ge N$, $x \in U \subseteq \bigcup_{s \in S_n} B_{\frac{1}{n}}(s)$. And $\exists s' \in S_n$, s.t.

$$x \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(s') \Rightarrow s' \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x) \subseteq B_r(x) \subseteq U$$

since $s' \in S_n \subseteq S$, $s' \in U \cap S \Rightarrow U \cap S \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow S$ is dense.

Thus Total boundedness \Rightarrow separability (and hence 2-nd countability and Lindelof since *X* is a metric space).

Proposition 8. Let (X, d) be metric space, the following are equivalent:

- 1. X is compact (w.r.t \mathcal{T}_d);
- 2. *X* is sequentially compact (w.r.t. d);
- 3. *X* is complete and totally bounded (w.r.t. d).

Proof. $1 \Rightarrow 2$: Assume that \exists seq. $x_n \in X(n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that any subseq. of it is not convergent, that is $\forall x \in X, x$ is not the limit of any subseq. of $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$. Thus for any $x \in X$, \exists open nbd. U_x , s.t. $\{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in U_x\}$ is finite.

Remark 44. We highlight that the index number $\{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in U_x\}$ is finite instead of the point. Since the same point can be encoded by multi index number, and we want to expile that case.

Since X is compact, $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} U_x \Rightarrow \exists$ finite $X_0 \subseteq X$, s.t. $X = \bigcup_{x \in X_0} U_x$. Thus $\mathbb{N} = \{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in X\} = \bigcup_{x \in X_0} \{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in U_x\}$ which leads to a contradiction since $\bigcup_{x \in X_0} \{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in U_x\}$ is finite.

 $2 \Rightarrow 3$: Let $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$ be a Cauchy seq. in X, it is suffices to show that $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$ has a convergent subseq. and this is implied by 2.

Suppose (X, d) is not totally bounded, then $\exists \epsilon > 0$, such that pick any $x_1 \in X$ we have that

$$B_{\epsilon}(x_1) \subsetneq X \Rightarrow X \backslash B_{\epsilon}(x_1) \neq \emptyset$$
,

and pick $x_2 \in X \backslash B_{\epsilon}(x_1)$ have

$$B_{\epsilon}(x_1) \cup B_{\epsilon}(x_2) \subsetneq X \Rightarrow X \setminus (B_{\epsilon}(x_1) \cup B_{\epsilon}(x_2)) \neq \emptyset$$
,

and pick $x_3 \in X \setminus (B_{\epsilon}(x_1) \cup B_{\epsilon}(x_2))$, and so on.

Thus we can find a seq. x_1, x_2, \cdots such that $d(x_i, x_j) \ge \epsilon$ for $i \ne j$ (since $x_i \in X \setminus B_{\epsilon}(x_j)$). Thus any subseq. of $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$ is not Cauchy seq. and hence is not convergent, which leads to a contradiction with 2.

 $3 \Rightarrow 2$: Let $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$ be a seq. in X, since (X, d) is totally bounded \Rightarrow For any given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, X can be covered by finitely many $\frac{1}{n}$ balls.

Thus X can be covered by finite many 1-balls, $x_n \in X(n \in \mathbb{N}) \Rightarrow \exists$ a 1-ball B_1 , s.t.

$$\{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in B_1\}$$
 is infinite;

X can be covered by finite many 1/2-balls, and so do B_1 , thus \exists a 1/2-ball B_2 , s.t.

$${n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in B_1 \cap B_2}$$
 is infinite.

And if \exists 1/m-ball B_m , s.t. $\{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in \cap_{i=1}^m B_i\}$ is infinite, then since $\cap_{i=1}^m B_i$, which covers infinite points of the seq., can be covered by finitely many 1/(m+1) balls, there \exists a 1/(m+1) ball B_{m+1} s.t.

$$\{n \in \mathbb{N} | x_n \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{m+1} B_i\}$$
 is infinite.

Thus \exists subseq. $x_{n_k}(k \in \mathbb{N})$, s.t. $x_{n_k} \in B_1 \cap \cdots \cap B_k$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$. And for every $l, l' \geq k, x_{n_l}, x_{n'_l} \in B_k$ and hence $d(x_{n_l}, x_{n'_l}) \leq \frac{1}{k}$. Thus $x_{n_k}(k \in \mathbb{N})$ is a Cauchy seq., and since X is complete, $x_{n_k}(k \in \mathbb{N})$ is convergent.

Remark 45. Refer to the proof of Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem in Introduction to Topology, Lecture 8,9.

 $2 \Rightarrow 1$: Let \mathcal{F} be a family of closed subsets of X which satisfies the FIP, we need to show that $\cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$. Suppose that $\cap \mathcal{F} = \emptyset$. Then $\{X \setminus C | C \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is an open cover of X, since X is sequentially compact, then X is totally bounded, and hence X is Lindelof countable.

Thus \exists a countable $\mathcal{F}_0 = \{C_1, C_2, \dots\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $\{X \setminus C | C \in \mathcal{F}_0\}$ still cover X, and hence $\cap_{C \in \mathcal{F}_0} C = \emptyset$. Note that \mathcal{F} satisfies FIP, thus \mathcal{F}_0 satisfies FIP as well. Thus any finite intersection of the elements in \mathcal{F}_0 is not empty, thus exists

$$x_1 \in C_1,$$

 $x_2 \in C_1 \cap C_2,$
 \dots
 $x_n \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n C_i,$

which forms a seq. $x_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ in X, and since X is seq. cpt., there exists a convergent subseq. $x_{n_k}(k \in \mathbb{N})$. And $x_{n_k} \to x \in X$ as $k \to \infty$.

Note that since $C_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ are closed, then for any given $N \in \mathbb{N}$, $\bigcap_{i=1}^N C_i$ is still closed. Since $x_{n_k} \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n_k} C_i$ and for any $k \geq$ given $K \in \mathbb{N}$ have that $x_{n_k} \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n_K} C_i$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n_K} C_i$ is closed $\Rightarrow x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n_K} C_i$ for any $K \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $n_k \to \infty$ as $k \to \infty$, thus $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^N C_i$ for any $N \in \mathbb{N}$ $\Rightarrow x \in \lim_{n \to \infty} \bigcap_{i=1}^n C_i = \bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{F}_0} C \Rightarrow \bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{F}_0} C \neq \emptyset$ which leads to the contradiction with the assumption.

Exercise 67. Let (X, d) be a complete metric space, $K \subseteq X$, show that

- 1. (K,d) is complete $\Leftrightarrow K \subseteq_{close} X$;
- 2. (K,d) is compact $\Leftrightarrow K \subseteq_{close} X$ and (K,d) is totally bounded;
- 3. (K,d) is totally bounded $\Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ finite set $S \subseteq X$, s.t. $K \subseteq \bigcup_{s \in S} B_{\epsilon}(s)$.

Proof. 1. This will be proved by demonstrating the contrapositive: *K* is not complete if and only if *K* is not closed.

 \Rightarrow : Suppose that K is not complete. Then there exists a Cauchy sequence x_n in K such that the limit $x = \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$, which exists in the complete metric space X, is not a member of K.

For all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq N$ has $d(x, x_n) < \epsilon$, and hence $X \setminus K$ is not open (if $X \setminus K$ is open then $\exists r > 0$, s.t. $B_r(x) \subseteq X \setminus K \Rightarrow d(x, x_n) > r$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$). Therefore, K is not closed.

 \Leftarrow : Suppose that K is not closed. Then $X \setminus K$ is not open. Therefore, there exists a $x \in X \setminus K$ such that for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $y \in K$ such that $d(x,y) < \epsilon$. Thus we can form a seq. $y_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ in K such that $y_n \in K \cap B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and hence $d(x,y_n) < \frac{1}{n}$.

Now, we show that y_n is a Cauchy sequence. Given an $\epsilon > 0$, let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that for all $n \geq N$ has $d(x, y_n) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Let $m, n \geq N$, then by the triangle inequality:

$$d(y_n, y_m) \le d(x, y_m) + d(x, y_n) \le \epsilon$$
,

Hence y_n is a Cauchy sequence. Because (X,d) is a complete metric space by assumption, the limit $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n$ exists and is in X. Denote this limit by y. By the definition of y_n we have that $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x,y_n)=0$. From Distance Function of Metric Space is Continuous and Composite of Continuous Mappings is Continuous we have $d(x,y)=0 \Rightarrow x=y$, since $x\notin K \Rightarrow y\notin K \Rightarrow K$ is not complete.

2. trivial

3. \Rightarrow is trivial; \Leftarrow : Since given any $\epsilon > 0$, \exists finite $S \subseteq X$ s.t. $K \subseteq \bigcup_{s \in S} B_{\epsilon}(s)$. Define $S_0 = \{s_1, \dots, s_n\} \subseteq S$ where $B_{\epsilon}(s) \cap K \neq \emptyset$ for any $s \in S_0$. Then pick $k_i \in K \cap B_{\epsilon}(s_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, 2$, then we have that

$$k_i \in B_{\epsilon}(s_i) \Rightarrow d(s_i, k_i) < \epsilon$$

thus for any $k \in K$, $\exists s_i \in S_0$, s.t. $k \in B_{\epsilon}(s_i) \Rightarrow d(k, s_i) < \epsilon$, thus

$$d(k, k_i) \le d(k, s_i) + d(s_i + k_i) \le 2\epsilon$$

thus $k \in B_{2\epsilon}(k_i) \Rightarrow K \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_{2\epsilon}(k_i) \Rightarrow K$ is totally bounded.

Remark 46. Let (X,d) be a metric space, define $d'(x_1,x_2) := \min\{1,d(x_1,x_2)\}$, then d' is still a metric. And

- {the Cauchy seq.s in (X, d)} = {the Cauchy seq.s in (X, d')}
- $\mathscr{T}_d = \mathscr{T}_{d'}$
- (X, d') is always a **bounded** metric space.

6.3 **Net**

Let *X* be set, then a sequence $x_n (n \in \mathbb{N})$ in *X* is such a map $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{x_n} X$ (denote x(n) by x_n). Now we gonna generalize this concept.

Definition 42 (Directed Set). A directed set (D, \ge) consists of a non-empty set D and a relation > on D s.t.

- 1. $\forall d \in D, d \geq d$;
- 2. $\forall d, d', d'' \in D, d \geq d', d' \geq d'' \Rightarrow d \geq d'',$

i.e. (D, \geq) is pre-order. And $\forall d, d' \in D, \exists d'' \in D$, s.t. $d'' \geq d, d'' \geq d'$.

Remark 47. Note that the pre-order is not total order, which means there could exist $d_1, d_2 \in D$ which are not comparable. On the other hand, the pre-order is not partial order yet, which means it does not require $d \geq d' \wedge d' \geq d \Rightarrow d = d'$. Thus the following statement in a directed set may hold: $\exists d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4 \in D$ such that

$$d_1 \ge d_2 \ge d_3 \ge d_4 \ge d_1$$
,

but $d_1 \neq d_2 \neq d_3 \neq d_4$.

Example 13. Let X be a topology space, $x \in X$, $D = \{\text{all open nbd.s of } x\}$ and for any $U, V \in D$ define $U \geq V \Leftrightarrow U \subseteq V$, then (D, \geq) is a directed set. (Since for any $U, V \in D$, $\exists W := U \cap V \in D$, s.t. $W \geq U, W \geq V$)

Definition 43 (Net). Let X be a set, a net $(D, \geq) \xrightarrow{x} X$, $(x_{\alpha}(\alpha \in D)$ for short,) in X consists of a directed set (D, \geq) and a map $D \xrightarrow{x} X$.

Suppose that a net x. ($x_{\alpha}(\alpha \in D)$) is a net in a set X, and $S \subseteq X$, we say that x. lies in S

- eventually if $\exists \delta \in D, \forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta \Rightarrow x_{\alpha} \in S$;
- frequently if $\forall \delta \in D, \exists \alpha \in D, \text{ s.t. } \alpha \geq \delta \text{ and } x_{\alpha} \in S.$

Remark 48. $\neg(x. \text{ lies in } S \text{ eventually}) \Leftrightarrow x. \text{ lies in } X \setminus S \text{ frequently.}$

Definition 44 (Convergence). Let X be a topology space, $x_{\alpha}(\alpha \in D)$ is a net in X, $x \in X$. We say that x. converges x (or say x is a limit of x.) if \forall open nbd. U of x in X, x. lies in U eventually.

Exercise 68. Show that X is a Hausdorff space \Leftrightarrow every net has at most one limit.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose a net $D \xrightarrow{x_{\cdot}} X$ converges to x and y in X and $x \neq y$, then \exists open nbd.s U of x and V of y, s.t. $x \in U, y \in V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Since $x_{\cdot} \to x$ then $\exists \delta_x \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta_x \Rightarrow x_{\alpha} \in U$. And since $x_{\cdot} \to y, \exists \delta_y \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta_y \Rightarrow x_{\alpha} \in V$. Then $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\delta \geq \delta_x \land \delta \geq \delta_y$, thus for $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta$ has $x_{\alpha} \in U \subseteq X \setminus V$ and $x_{\alpha} \in V$ which leads to a contradiction.

 \Leftarrow : Suppose X is not a Hausdorff space, then $\exists x,y \in X$, s.t. \forall open nbd.s U of x, V of y has $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$. Thus we can form a net in X.

Define $D = \{U \cap V | x \in U \subseteq_{open} X, y \in V \subseteq_{open} X\}$ and $\forall d_1, d_2 \in D, d_1 \geq d_2 \Leftrightarrow d1 \subseteq d_2$, it is direct to see (D, \geq) is a directed set. And then $D \xrightarrow{x} X$ where $d \mapsto x_d \in d$ is a net (since $\forall d \in D, d \neq \emptyset$, and hence $x_d \exists$).

Thus given any open nbd. W of x, $W \cap V \in D$ where D is a open nbd. of y, then $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq W \cap V$ we have

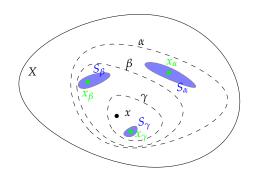
$$x_{\alpha} \in \alpha \subseteq W \cap V \subseteq W$$

thus x. lies in any open nbd. W of x eventually, and hence x. converges to x. Thus x. converges to y as well in the same way, which leads to a contradiction.

Remark 49 (A naturally convergent net). If X is a set, $x \in X$, if we define the directed set as $D = \{U | x \in U \subseteq_{open} X\}$ and $\geq \Leftrightarrow \subseteq$, then (D, \geq) is a directed set. And define the net $D \xrightarrow{x} X$, where $\alpha \mapsto x_{\alpha} \in S_{\alpha} \subseteq \alpha$. Then for any open nbd. U of x, $U \in D$ and $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq U$ has

$$x_{\alpha} \in S_{\alpha} \subseteq \alpha \subseteq U$$
.

Thus such *x*. converges to *x* naturally.



Exercise 69. *Let* X *be a topology space,* $A \subseteq X$ *, define*

$$\overline{A}'' := \{x \in X | \exists \text{ net a. in A converging to } x\}$$

and

$$L_A'' := \{x \in X | \exists \text{ net a. in } A \setminus \{x\} \text{ converging to } x\}$$

show that $\overline{A} = \overline{A}''$ and $L_A = L_A''$.

Proof. 1. \subseteq : if $x \in \overline{A}$, then any open nbd. U of x has $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$, thus we can form a net. Define $D = \{U | x \in U \subseteq_{open} X\}$ and $2 \Leftrightarrow \subseteq$ then (D, \ge) is a directed set and $D \xrightarrow{x} A$ where $d \mapsto x_d \in d \cap A$ is a net. And x. converges to $x \Rightarrow x \in \overline{A}''$ by *Remark* 2. \supseteq : if $x \in \overline{A}''$, then \exists a net $D \xrightarrow{x} A$ s.t. for \forall open nbd. U of x, $\exists \delta \in D$ s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \ge \delta \Rightarrow \alpha \in U$, then $U \cap A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in \overline{A}$.

2. the same as above.
$$\Box$$

Exercise 70. Let $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ be a map between topology spaces, $x_0 \in X$, show that f is continuous at $x_0 \Leftrightarrow f$ or \forall net $D \xrightarrow{x_0} X$ in X that converges to x_0 , $f(x_0)$ is a net in Y converges to $f(x_0)$.

Proof. \Rightarrow : if V is an open nbd. of $f(x_0)$, since f is continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is an open nbd. of x_0 , then $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta \Rightarrow x_\alpha \in f^{-1}(V) \Rightarrow f(x_\alpha) \in V \Rightarrow f(x)$ converges to $f(x_0)$.

 \Leftarrow : suppose f is not continuous at x_0 , then \exists an open nbd. V of $f(x_0)$, $f^{-1}(V)$ is not an open nbd. of x_0 , that is $x_0 \notin (f^{-1}(V))^o$, since $x_0 \in f^{-1}(V)$, $x_0 \in f^{-1}(V) \setminus (f^{-1}(V))^o = \partial f^{-1}(V)$. Thus any open nbd. U of x has $U \cap f^{-1}(V) \neq \emptyset$ and $U \cap X \setminus f^{-1}(V) \neq \emptyset$, and hence we can form a net.

Define $D = \{U | x \in U \subseteq_{open} X\}$ and $\geq \Leftrightarrow \subseteq$ then (D, \geq) is a directed set, and define a net $D \xrightarrow{x} X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$ where $\alpha \mapsto x_{\alpha} \in \alpha \cap X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$, then x. converges to x by *Remark* 2, and hence f(x) converges to $f(x_0)$ by assumptions, which means $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta \Rightarrow f(x_{\alpha}) \in V$ which leads to a contradiction with $f(x_{\alpha}) \in X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$.

Remark 50. f(x) is a net in Y:

$$D \xrightarrow{x.} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

6.4 Subnet

Recall that given a sequence $x_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ in a set X, a subsequence $x_{n_k}(k \in \mathbb{N})$ is composite map

$$\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{n.} \mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{x.} X$$

(denote x(n(k)) as x_{n_k}), where $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{N}$ is a monotone injection. We now want to generalize this conception.

Definition 45 (Final Map). Let (D, \geq) and (D', \geq') be directed sets, a map $D' \xrightarrow{h} D$ is a final map (w.r.t. \geq and \geq') if $\forall \delta \in D$, $\exists \delta' \in D'$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D'$, $\alpha \geq \delta' \Rightarrow h(\alpha) \geq \delta$.

Remark 51. Final map analogizes the monotones of $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{N}$. Final map require the tail of the map is monotones.

Definition 46. Let $D' \xrightarrow{h} D$ is a final map between directed sets, net $x_{h(\cdot)}$:

$$D' \xrightarrow{h} D \xrightarrow{x_{h(\cdot)}} X$$

is called a subnet of x.

Exercise 71. If a net x. converges to x_0 show that the subnet $x_{h(\cdot)}$ converges to x_0 as well.

Proof. For any open nbd. U of x_0 , $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta \Rightarrow x_\alpha \in U \Rightarrow \exists \delta' \in D', \forall \alpha' \geq \delta', h(\alpha') \geq \delta \Rightarrow x_{h(\alpha')} \in U \Rightarrow x_{h(\cdot)}$ converges to x_0 .

Exercise 72. Let X be a set, x. is a net in X, $S \subseteq X$. Show that x. lies in S frequently $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ subnet of x. lies in S eventually.

Proof. \Rightarrow : $D \xrightarrow{x_{\cdot}} X$ lies in S frequently, then $\forall \delta \in D$, $\exists \alpha_{\delta} \in D$, s.t. $\alpha_{\delta} \geq \delta$ and $x_{\alpha_{\delta}} \in S$. Then we can for a final map $D \xrightarrow{h} D$ where $\delta \mapsto \alpha_{\delta}$. Thus for any $\alpha_{\delta} \in D$, $\exists \alpha_{\delta} \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D$, $\alpha \geq \alpha_{\delta} \Rightarrow \alpha \geq \alpha_{\delta}$, thus h is a final map, and $x_{h(\cdot)}$ is a subnet of x. and for any $\alpha \in D$, $x_{h(\alpha)} = x_{\alpha_{\delta}} \in S \Rightarrow x_{h(\cdot)}$ lies in S eventually.

 $\Leftarrow:$ if $D \xrightarrow{x} X$ has an subnet $D' \xrightarrow{x_{h(\cdot)}} X$ which lies in S eventually. Then $\exists \beta \in D'$, s.t. $\forall \alpha' \in D'$, $\alpha' \geq \beta \Rightarrow x_{h(\alpha')} \in S$. On the other hand, $\forall \delta \in D$, $\exists \delta' \in D'$, s.t. $\forall \alpha' \in D'$, $\alpha' \geq \delta' \Rightarrow h(\alpha') \geq \delta$. Since D' is directed set, $\exists \gamma \in D'$, s.t. $\gamma \geq \beta$ and $\gamma \geq \delta'$, then $h(\gamma) \geq \delta$ and $x_{h(\gamma)} \in S$.

Collectively, $\forall \delta \in D$, $\exists h(\gamma) \in D$, s.t. $h(\gamma) \geq \delta$ and $x_{h(\gamma)} \in S \Rightarrow x$. lies in S frequently.

Definition 47 (Universal Net). A net x. in a set X is universal if $\forall A \subseteq X$ either x. lies in A eventually or x. lies in $X \setminus A$ eventually.

Exercise 73. $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a map, show that x is a universal net in $X \Rightarrow f(x)$ is universal net in Y.

Proof. For any $B \subseteq Y$, $f^{-1}(B) \subseteq X$, since $D \xrightarrow{x} X$ is a universal net, x. lies in $f^{-1}(B)$ eventually or $X \setminus f^{-1}(B)$.

If x. lies in $f^{-1}(B)$ eventually, $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta, \Rightarrow x_{\alpha} \in f^{-1}(B) \Rightarrow f(x_{\alpha}) \in B$; If x. lies in $X \setminus f^{-1}(B)$ eventually, $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D, \alpha \geq \delta, \Rightarrow x_{\alpha} \in X \setminus f^{-1}(B) = f^{-1}(Y \setminus B) \Rightarrow f(x_{\alpha}) \in Y \setminus B$. Thus f(x) is a universal net in Y. \Box

Exercise 74. Show that every subnet of a universal net is universal.

Proof. Suppose $D \xrightarrow{x} X$ is a universal net in X which has a subnet $D' \xrightarrow{x_{h(\cdot)}} X$. And for any $A \subseteq X$, x. lies in A or $X \setminus A$ eventually. Suppose x. lies in A, then $\exists \delta \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D$, $\alpha \geq \delta \Rightarrow x_{\alpha} \in A$. On the other hand, $\exists \delta' \in D'$, s.t. $\forall \alpha' \in D'$, $\alpha' \geq \delta' \Rightarrow h(\alpha') \geq \delta \Rightarrow x_{h(\alpha')} \in A \Rightarrow x_{h(\cdot)}$ lies in A eventually as well $\Rightarrow x_{h(\cdot)}$ is universal.

Theorem 10. Every net has a universal subnet.

Proof. Let $(D, \geq_D) \xrightarrow{x} X$ be a net in a set X, where (D, \geq_D) is a directed set.

- 1. Define Y as the family of some families $\mathcal{A}(\subseteq \mathcal{P}(X))$ of subsets of X such that
 - (a) $\forall A \in \mathcal{A}$, x. lies in A frequently;
 - (b) $\forall A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{A}, A_1 \cap A_2 \in \mathcal{A}.$

That is the element of Y is the family of subsets of X that satisfies the above conditions. Thus $Y \neq \emptyset$ (since $\{X\} \in Y$) and (Y, \subseteq) is a poset. We now apply Zorn's lemma to get a maximal element of Y.

Let *C* be a chain in *Y* w.r.t. \subseteq . Then we claim that $\bigcup_{A \in C} A \in Y$ and is an upper bound of *C*.

- (a) For any $A \in \bigcup_{A \in C} A$ there $\exists A' \in C$, s.t. $A \in A'$, thus x. lies in A eventually;
- (b) For any $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{A}$ there $\exists \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2 \in \mathcal{C}$, s.t. $A_1 \in \mathcal{A}_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2$ and \mathcal{A}_1 is comparable with \mathcal{A}_2 w.r.t. \subseteq , for example $\mathcal{A}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_2$, then $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2 \Rightarrow A_1 \cap A_2 \in \mathcal{A}_2 \subseteq \cup_{\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}} \mathcal{A}$.

Thus \exists maximal element A_0 of Y.

- 2. Let $D_0 := \{(A, \alpha) \in A_0 \times D | x_\alpha \in A\}$ with the pre-order \geq_0 on D_0 : $(A', \alpha') \geq_0 (A, \alpha) \Leftrightarrow A' \subseteq A$ and $\alpha' \geq_D \alpha$. Since
 - (a) For any $A \in \mathcal{A}_{\prime}$, $\alpha \in D$, $A \subseteq A$ and $\alpha \geq_D \alpha \Rightarrow (A, \alpha) \geq_0 (A, \alpha)$;
 - (b) For any (A_1, α_1) , (A_2, α_2) , $(A_3, \alpha_3) \in D_0$, $(A_1, \alpha_1) \ge_0 (A_2, \alpha_2)$ and $(A_2, \alpha_2) \ge_0 (A_3, \alpha_3)$ means

$$\alpha_1 \geq_D \alpha_2 \geq_D \alpha_3$$

and

$$A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3$$

thus $(A_1, \alpha_1) \ge_0 (A_3, \alpha_3)$

(c) For any (A_1, α_1) , $(A_2, \alpha_2) \in D_0$, $A_0 \ni A_1 \cap A_2 \subseteq A_1$ and A_2 ; and $\exists \alpha' \ge_D \alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2 \Rightarrow D_0 \ni (A_1 \cap A_2, \alpha') \ge_0 (A_1, \alpha_1)$ and (A_2, α_2) .

Thus (D_0, \geq_0) is a directed set.

3. And then we can define a final map $D_0 \xrightarrow{h} D$ where $(A, \alpha) \mapsto \alpha$. Given $\delta \in D$, for any $A \in \mathcal{A}_0$, since x. lies in A frequently, $\exists \alpha \in D$, s.t. $\alpha \geq \delta$ and $x_\alpha \in A$, and hence $(A, \alpha) \in D_0$. For any $(A', \alpha') \geq_0 (A, \alpha)$, we have that $h((A', \alpha')) = \alpha' \geq \alpha \geq \delta$, thus h is a final map.

In particular, we donate the subnet of x., i.e. the composite of $D_0 \xrightarrow{h} D \xrightarrow{x} X$ as $D_0 \xrightarrow{y := x . \circ h} X$ where $(A, \alpha) \mapsto x_{\alpha} = y_{(A, \alpha)}$.

4. Let $S \subseteq X$, we will show that the subnet y. is universal: if \neg (y. lies in $X \setminus S$ eventually) \Leftrightarrow (y. lies in S frequently) then we will show that it implies y. lies in S eventually.

For any $A \in \mathcal{A}_0$, x. lies in A frequently \Rightarrow for any $\delta \in D$, there exists $\alpha \in D$, s.t. $\alpha \geq_D \delta$ and $x_\alpha \in A$ and hence $(A,\alpha) \in D_0$. And since y. lies in S frequently, $\exists (A_1,\alpha_1) \in D_0$, s.t. $(A_1,\alpha_1) \geq_0 (A,\alpha)$, (i.e. $A_1 \subseteq A$ and $\alpha_1 \geq_D \alpha_0$) and $y_{(A_1,\alpha_1)} \in S$. And $y_{(A_1,\alpha_1)} = x_{\alpha_1} \in A_1$ since $(A_1,\alpha_1) \in D_0$. Thus

$$x_{\alpha_1} = y_{(A_1,\alpha_1)} \in S \cap A_1 \subseteq S \cap A$$

thus x. lies in $S \cap A$ frequently for any $A \in \mathcal{A}_0$ and thus x. lies in S frequently, thus we have that

$$\mathcal{A}_0 \cup \{S \cap A | A \in \mathcal{A}_0\} \cup \{S\} \in Y$$

by the definition of Y, and since A_0 is the maximal element of $Y \Rightarrow S \in A_0$.

If \neg (y. lies in S eventually) holds, then y. lies in $X \setminus S$ frequently holds $\Rightarrow X \setminus S \in \mathcal{A}_0$, thus $S, X \setminus S \in \mathcal{A}_0 \Rightarrow \emptyset = S \cap (X \setminus S) \in \mathcal{A}_0$, which leads to a contradiction with x. lies in it frequently.

Remark 52. Thus we have a corollary: if x. is a universal net in X, $S \subseteq X$, then \neg (x. lies in S eventually) $\Rightarrow x$. lies in $X \setminus S$ eventually.

6.5 Net and Compactness

Proposition 9. *Let X be a topology space, the following are equivalent:*

- 1. X is a compact space;
- 2. \forall family \mathcal{F} of closed subsets of X, \mathcal{F} has $FIP \Leftrightarrow \cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$;
- 3. \forall universal net in X converges;
- 4. \forall net in X has a convergent subnet.

Proof. We will prove this in order $1 \Rightarrow 3 \Rightarrow 4 \Rightarrow 2 \Rightarrow 1$.

 $1 \Rightarrow 3$: Suppose that $x_{\alpha}(\alpha \in D)$ is a universal net in X which does not converge to any $x \in X$, thus \exists open nbd. U_x of x in X s.t. \neg (x. lies in U_x eventually) $\Rightarrow x$. lies in $X \setminus U_x$ frequently. Since $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} U_x$ and X is compact, there \exists finite $X_0 \subseteq X$, s.t. $X = \bigcup_{x \in X_0} U_x \Rightarrow \emptyset = \bigcup_{x \in X_0} (X \setminus U_x)$ which leads to a contradiction with x. lines in $X \setminus U_x$ frequently.

 $3 \Rightarrow 4$: \forall net in *X* has a universal subnet and it is convergent by 3.

 $4 \Rightarrow 2$: Let \mathcal{F} be a family of closed subsets of X which has FIP, we can **expand** it as $\mathcal{F}' := \{ \bigcap_{i=1}^m F_i | m \in \mathbb{N}, F_i \in \mathcal{F}, i = 1, \cdots, m \}$. Note that there are 3 facts for \mathcal{F}' :

- 1. \mathcal{F}' also has FIP;
 - since finite intersection of \mathcal{F}' is a finite intersection of \mathcal{F} ;
- 2. $\cap \mathcal{F}' = \cap \mathcal{F};$

since for any $c \in \cap \mathcal{F}' \Rightarrow c \in \text{every finite intersection of } \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow c \in \cap_{F \in \{F\}} F = F$ for $\forall F \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow c \in \cap \mathcal{F}$. On the contrary, for any $c \in \cap \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow c \in F$ for any $F \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow c \in \mathcal{F}'$.

3. \mathcal{F}' is closed under \cap .

It is direct to see that (\mathcal{F}', \geq') with $\geq' := \subseteq$ is a directed set. For any $C \in \mathcal{F}'$, (it is finite intersection of \mathcal{F} and hence $C \neq \emptyset$,) choose $x_C \in C$ and form a net $\mathcal{F}' \xrightarrow{x_C} X$ where $C \mapsto x_C$.

By 4, net x. has a convergent subnet, that is \exists a final map $D \xrightarrow{h} \mathcal{F}'$ for some directed set (D, \geq_D) , s.t. subnet $D \xrightarrow{y} X$ (where $\alpha \mapsto x_{h(\alpha)} = y_{\alpha}$) converges to some point $x \in X$.

Since h is finial, $\forall C \in \mathcal{F}'$, $\exists \alpha \in D, \forall \beta \in D, \beta \geq_D \alpha \Rightarrow h(\beta) \geq C \Leftrightarrow h(\beta) \subseteq C$ and thus

$$y_{\beta} = x_{h(\beta)} \in h(\beta) \subseteq C$$

thus y. lies in C eventually. For any $C \in \mathcal{F}'$, y. converges to $x \Rightarrow x \in C$ since C is closed, thus $x \in \cap_{C \in \mathcal{F}'} C = \cap \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$.

 $2 \Rightarrow 1$: has been given in *Point Set Topology Lecture 6*.

Remark 53. 1 \Rightarrow 3: A common routine to utilize the compactness of X: find an open nbd. U_x for any $x \in X$, and then $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} U_x$.

 $4 \Rightarrow 2$: The key to form a net is to find some sets $\neq \emptyset$.

Lemma 3. Let $X_j (j \in J)$ be a family of topology spaces and $D \xrightarrow{x_i} \prod_{j \in J} X_j$ where $\alpha \mapsto x_\alpha = (x_{\alpha_j})_{j \in J}$ be a net. There are groups of corresponding projective nets $D \xrightarrow{x_{\gamma_j}} X_j$ where $\alpha \mapsto x_{\alpha_j}$ for $j \in J$.

Then x. converges to x in $\prod_{j \in J} X_j$ (equipped with the product topology) $\Leftrightarrow \forall j \in J, x_{.j}$ converges x_j in X_j where $x_j = \pi_j(x)$.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Since $\prod_{j \in J} X_j \xrightarrow{\pi_k} X_k$ where $(x_j)_{j \in J} \mapsto x_k$ is continuous and $x_{\cdot_k} = \pi_k(x_{\cdot})$, then $x_{\cdot_k} \to x_{\cdot_k} = \pi_k(x_{\cdot_k}) \to \pi_k(x_{\cdot_k}) \to \pi_k(x_{\cdot_k}) \to \pi_k(x_{\cdot_k})$

 \Leftarrow : Recall that $\mathcal{B} := \{\prod_{j \in J} Y_j | Y_j \subseteq_{open} X_j (j \in J) \land \{j \in J | Y_j \neq X_j\}$ is finite} is a basis of the product space $\prod_{j \in J} X_j$. For any open nbd. U of x, there exists $\prod_{j \in J} Y_j \in \mathcal{B}$ s.t.

$$x \in \prod_{j \in J} Y_j \subseteq U$$

Let $J_0 = \{j \in J | Y_j \subsetneq X_j\}$, which is a finite set. $x_{,j}$ converges to $x_j \in X_j \Rightarrow x_{,j}$ lies in Y_j eventually i.e. $\exists \alpha_j \in D$, s.t. $\forall \alpha \in D$, $\alpha \geq \alpha_j \Rightarrow x_{\alpha_j} \in Y_j$ for all $j \in J_0$.

Choose $\tilde{\alpha} \in D$, s.t. $\tilde{\alpha} \ge \alpha_j$ for all $j \in J_0$, then for $D \ni \alpha \ge \tilde{\alpha}$, $x_{\alpha_j} \in Y_j$ for all $j \in J_0$ and hence for all $j \in J$.

Theorem 11 (Tychonoff Theorem). For compact space $X_j (j \in J)$ the product space $\prod_{j \in J} X_j =: X$ is also compact.

Proof. Let x. be a universal net in X, then $x_{.j} = \pi_j(x)$. is a universal net in X_j , for every $j \in J \Rightarrow x_{.j}$ converges in X_j since X_j is compact $\Rightarrow x$. converges by Lemma $\Rightarrow X$ is compact.

Chapter 7

Revisit Compactness

7.1 Generalization of Ascoli's Theorem

Recall that for metric spaces X and Y, a family \mathcal{F} of maps from X to Y (i.e. Y - valued functions on X) is **equicontinuous** at a point $x_0 \in X$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in X$, $d(x_0, x) < \delta \Rightarrow d(f(x_0), f(x)) < \epsilon$. We now generalize this concept.

Definition 48 (Equicontinuous). Let X be a topology space and Y be a metric space, a family \mathcal{F} of maps from X to Y is equicontinuous at a point $x_0 \in X$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, \exists open nbd. U of x_0 s.t. $\forall f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in X$, $x \in U \Rightarrow d(f(x_0), f(x)) < \epsilon$.

Definition 49 (Point-wise convergence). Let X, Y be metric spaces, and $X \xrightarrow{f_n} Y (n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a sequence of functions, then f_n converges point-wise to $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ if for $\forall x \in X$ one has $f_n(x) \to f(x)$ as $n \to \infty$.

Definition 50 (Uniform convergence). Let X,Y be metric spaces, a sequence of functions $X \xrightarrow{f_n} Y(n \in \mathbb{N})$ converges uniformly to $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ if for $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for $\forall n \geq N$ and $\forall x \in X$ one has $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$.

Definition 51 (Compact convergence). Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space and (Y, d_Y) be a metric space. A sequence of functions $X \xrightarrow{f_n} Y(n \in \mathbb{N})$ is said to converge compactly to some function $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ if, for every compact set $K \subseteq X$, $f_n|_K \to f|_K$ uniformly.

Theorem 12 (A generalization of Ascoli's theorem). Let X be a topology space and \mathcal{F} be a family of \mathbb{R} - valued functions on X, if

- 1. X is separable;
- 2. \mathcal{F} is equicontinuous for $\forall x \in X$;
- 3. for $\forall x \in X$, $\{f(x)|f \in \mathcal{F}\}$ is a bounded subset of \mathbb{R} ,

then every seq. in \mathcal{F} has a subseq. which converges compactly, i.e. uniformly on every compact subset of X.

Proof. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ be a countable dense subset, suppose $f_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ is a seq. in \mathcal{F} .

Claim 1: \exists subseq. $f_{n_m}(m \in \mathbb{N})$ which converges point-wise on A:

For $a_1 \in A$, we have that $\{f_n(a_1)|n \in \mathbb{N}\}\subseteq \{f(a_1)|f \in \mathcal{F}\}\subseteq_{bdd}$. \mathbb{R} . Then by Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, there exists a $n_m^{(1)}(m \in \mathbb{N})$, which is strictly monotone, such that $f_{n_m^{(1)}}(a_1)$ converges. Inductively, we can construct $n_m^{(j)}(m \in \mathbb{N})(j \in \mathbb{N}_0)$, and let $n_m^{(0)}=m$, such that

- 1. $n^{(j)}$ monotone strictly;
- 2. $\{n_m^{(j)}|m\in\mathbb{N}\}\subseteq\{n_m^{(j-1)}|m\in\mathbb{N}\};$
- 3. $f_{n_m^{(j)}}(a_j)$ converges as $m \to \infty$.

Let $n_m := n_m^{(m)}(m \in \mathbb{N})$, then $f_{n_m}(m = k, k+1, \cdots)$ is a subseq. of $f_{n_m^{(k)}}(m \in \mathbb{N})$ and hence $f_{n_m}(a_k)$ converges as $m \to \infty$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Remark 54. For instance, $f_{n_m^{(2)}}$ is a subseq. of $f_{n_m^{(1)}}$ and $f_{n_m^{(1)}}(a_1)$ converges hence $f_{n_m^{(2)}}(a_1)$ converges as well. Thus $f_{n_m^{(2)}}(a_1)$ and $f_{n_m^{(2)}}(a_2)$ both converge.

Since given $j \in \mathbb{N}$, the tail of seq. $f_{n_m} = f_{n_m^{(m)}}$ is subseq. of $f_{n_m^{(j)}}$, for example, $f_{n_m}(m=3,4,\cdots)$ is subseq. of $f_{n_m^{(3)}}(m\in\mathbb{N})$, thus $f_{n_m}(a_j)$ converges for all $j\in\mathbb{N}$.

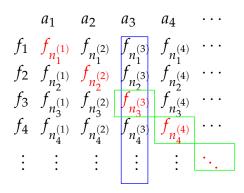


Figure 7.1: $f_m(m \in \mathbb{N})$, $a_i(j \in \mathbb{N})$

Claim 2: $\forall \epsilon > 0$ and $x \in X$, \exists (open) nbd. U_x of x in X and a number $N_x > 0$ s.t. if $x' \in U_x$ and $k, l \ge N_x \Rightarrow |f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_l}(x')| < \epsilon$.

Since \mathcal{F} is equicontinuous at x, thus for $\forall \epsilon > 0$, \exists (open) nbd. U_x of x, s.t. $|f(z) - f(x)| < \epsilon/6$ for $f \in \mathcal{F}, z \in U_x$. Since $A \subseteq_{dense} X$, $\exists a \in U_x \cap A$. For any $x' \in U_x$ we

have that

$$|f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_l}(x')| \le |f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_k}(x)| + |f_{n_k}(x) - f_{n_k}(a)| + |f_{n_k}(a) - f_{n_l}(a)| + |f_{n_l}(a) - f_{n_l}(x)| + |f_{n_l}(x) - f_{n_l}(x')| < |f_{n_k}(a) - f_{n_l}(a)| + \frac{2}{3}\epsilon.$$

since $f_{n.}(a)$ converges $\Rightarrow \exists N_x > 0$, s.t. $\forall k, l \geq N \Rightarrow |f_{n_k}(a) - f_{n_l}(a)| < \epsilon/3 \Rightarrow |f_{n_k}(x') - f_{n_l}(x')| < \epsilon$.

Claim 3: $\forall K \subseteq_{cpt.} X$, $f_{n_m}|_K (m \in \mathbb{N})$ converges uniformly.

For any given $\epsilon > 0$, we have found U_x and N_x as in Claim 2, $K = \bigcup_{x \in K} \{x\} \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in K} U_x$, $K \subseteq_{cpt.} X \Rightarrow \exists x_1, \cdots, x_p$, s.t. $K \subseteq U_{x_1} \cup \cdots \cup U_{x_p}$. Let $N = \max\{N_{x_1}, \cdots, N_{x_p}\}$, then for any $q \in K$ and $k, l \geq N$ we have $|f_{n_k}(q) - f_{n_l}(q)| < \epsilon$. Thus $f_{n_m}(q)(m \in \mathbb{N})$ is a Cauchy seq. in compact set $K \Rightarrow f_{n_m}(q) \to f(q)$ as $m \to \infty$, thus f_{n_n} converges uniformly in K.

Remark 55. The condition (3) is equivalent to that \mathcal{F} is uniformly bounded when X is assumed to be compact and \mathcal{F} is equicontinuous everywhere.

7.2 Relatively Compact

Definition 52. Let X be a topology space and $A \subseteq X$, A is relatively compact if \overline{A} is compact.

Example 14. Every subset of a compact subset of a Hausdorff space is relatively compact: Suppose X is Hausdorff, $Y \subseteq_{cpt.} X \Rightarrow Y \subseteq_{close} X$. For $\forall Z \subseteq Y, \overline{Z} \subseteq \overline{Y} = Y$. And since $\overline{Z} \subseteq_{close} Y$, Z is compact $\Rightarrow \overline{Z}$ is compact.

Exercise 75. Let (X,d) is a metric space, $A \subseteq X$, show that A is rel. cpt. \Leftrightarrow any seq. in A has a subseq. which converges in X.

Proof. \Rightarrow : A is rel. cpt. $\Rightarrow \overline{A}$ is cpt. $\Leftrightarrow \overline{A}$ is sequential compact \Rightarrow every seq. in \overline{A} converges \Rightarrow every seq. in A converges in \overline{A} (or in X).

 \Leftarrow : Suppose that \overline{A} is not compact then there is a seq. $\{a_n\}$ in \overline{A} which is not convergent. So then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ define $A_n := A \cap B_{\frac{1}{n}}(a_n) \neq \emptyset$. Then pick a b_n from each A_n so that $\{b_n\}$ is a sequence in A, where for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is a $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any n > N,

$$d(a_n, b_n) < 1/n < \epsilon$$
.

Then $\{b_n\}$ has a convergent subseq. $\{b_{n_k}\}$ with limit b by assumption. Thus for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all k > K,

$$d(a_{n_k}, b) \leq d(a_{n_k}, b_{n_k}) + d(b_{n_k, b}) < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2,$$

where $\{a_{n_k}\}$ is the corresponding subseq. of $\{a_n\}$, thus $a_{n_k} \to b$ as $k \to \infty$, implying \overline{A} is seq. cpt. and hence cpt. and contradicting the supposition.

Remark 56. At first glance, the definition of A being **rel. cpt.** appears to be the same as **seq. cpt.** (which is equivalent to cpt. in metric space), but there is a difference: the subseq. are required to converge in X (or \overline{A} since it is closed), not necessarily in A, while actual seq. cpt. does require it to be in A. (more)

Example 15. Let X be a compact topology space, $C(X,\mathbb{R}) := \{X \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R} | f \text{ if continuous} \}$ and $d_{\sup} := \sup_{x \in X} |f(x) - g(x)|$ (= $\max_{x \in X} |f(x) - g(x)|$ since X is compact) Then $(C(X,\mathbb{R}),d_{\sup})$ is a complete metric space, and $f_n(n \in \mathbb{N})$ converges w.r.t. $d_{\sup} \Leftrightarrow f_n$ converges uniformly on $X \Leftrightarrow f_n$ is uniformly Cauchy seq. By the generalization of Ascoli's theorem, when X is compact and separable, $\mathcal{F} \subseteq C(X,\mathbb{R})$ is equiconti. and uniformly bdd. (or satisfies condition 3.) $\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ is rel. cpt. by Ex1.