Topology

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## Introduction

### Topological Spaces

#### 2-1

"\Rightarrow": Let  $f: X_1 \longrightarrow X_2$  be a homeomorphism and fix a subset (not necessarily open)  $U \in \mathcal{T}_1$ .

- 1. Assume U is open in  $X_1$ . Because f is continuous, the image of open subsets are again open, thus f(U) lies in  $\mathcal{T}_2$ .
- 2. On the other hand, if f(U) is open in  $X_2$ , then since f is bijective we have

$$f^{-1}\left( f\left( U\right) \right) =U.$$

Because f is continuous, the preimage of open subsets under f is open. We may therefore conclude U is open in  $X_1$ .

We have shown that if f is a homeomorphism, then  $f(\mathcal{T}_1) = \mathcal{T}_2$ .

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Let  $f: X_1 \longrightarrow X_2$  be a bijective map such that  $f(\mathcal{T}_1) = \mathcal{T}_2$ . Consider the inverse map  $f^{-1}$ . We want to show  $f^{-1}$  is continuous. Fix an open subset  $U \in \mathcal{T}_1$ . It is

$$(f^{-1})^{-1}(U) = f(U)$$

because f is bijective. Since  $f(\mathcal{T}_1) = \mathcal{T}_2$  and U is open, f(U) is open as well. Hence the preimage of U under  $f^{-1}$  is open and  $f^{-1}$  is continuous.

Now we show that f is also continuous. Again, fix an open subset  $V \in \mathcal{T}_2$ . The preimage of V under f is just the image of the inverse function. We have already shown that the inverse is continuous. Thus,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open and f is continuous. Since f and  $f^{-1}$  exist and are continuous, f is a homeomorphism as desired.

#### 2-2

 $\mathbf{a})$ 

We show that  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology by verifying the axioms of a topology.

- 1. Since  $\mathcal{T}$  is the collection of all unions of finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ , it contains the union of all elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  which is just X. The union of empty collection generates the emptyset so  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$  as well.
- 2. Let  $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{T}$  be any subset. The elements of  $\mathcal{U}$  are unions of finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Thus,  $\bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U$  is again a union of finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . In other words,  $\mathcal{T}$  is closed under union.
- 3.  $\mathcal{T}$  is stable under finite intersections due to distributive property of sets.

b)

#### 2-3

#### 1.

The collection of subset  $\mathcal{T}_1 = \{ U \subset X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is finite or is all of } X \}$  forms a topology. We show this by verifying the axioms of a topology.

- 1. It is  $X \setminus \emptyset = X$  and  $X \setminus X = \emptyset$  which is finite. Thus,  $X \in \mathcal{T}_1$  and  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}_1$ .
- 2. Let  $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{T}$  be a subset. By De Morgan's laws we have

$$X \setminus \left(\bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U\right) = \bigcap_{U \in \mathcal{U}} (X \setminus U).$$

Since each  $U \in \mathcal{U}$  lies in  $\mathcal{T}$ , the complement  $X \setminus U$  is finite or is all of X. Therefore, the intersection of all  $X \setminus U$  is again finite or all of X, and we may conclude that  $\mathcal{T}$  is stable under arbitary unions.

3. Use De Morgan's law again.

#### 2.

The collection of subsets  $\mathcal{T}_2 = \{U \subset X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is infinite or is empty}\}$  is not a topology. Take  $X = \mathbb{Z}$  for example and consider  $A = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$  and  $B = \{-1, -2, -3, ...\}$ . A and B are open because their complements are the non-positive and the non-negative integers respectively. If  $\mathcal{T}_2$  is a topology, it should contain their union  $A \cup B = \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . However,

$$\mathbb{Z} \setminus (A \cup B) = \mathbb{Z}(\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) = \{0\}$$

which is not infinite and thus doesn't lie in  $\mathcal{T}_2$ .

#### 3

The collection of subsets  $\mathcal{T}_3 = \{ U \subset X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is countable or all of } X \}$  is a topology PROBABLY.

#### 2-4

Already did somewhere else.

#### 2-5

- 1.  $id_1: X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is continuous probably.
- 2.  $id_2: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow X$  is not continuous probably.

#### 2-6

f is continuous because any preimage of a subset  $U \subset Z$  under f is open, since any subset in X is open.

For g, the only preimages to check are the empty set  $\varnothing$  and Y. Simply,  $g^{-1}(\varnothing) = \varnothing$  and  $g^{-1}(Y) = Z$ . Both subsets are open in Z, therefore g is continuous.

If h is constant, say  $h(Y) = \{p\}$ , then  $h^{-1}(U) = Y$  if  $p \in U$  and  $h^{-1}(U) = \emptyset$  if  $p \in U$ . In both cases the preimages are open, thus h is continuous. Assume h is continuous but not constant, i.e. there are points  $x_1, x_2 \in Y$  such that  $h(x_1) \neq h(x_2)$ . Z is Hausdorff, so there are disjoint neighbourhoods U of  $h(x_1)$  and V of  $h(x_2)$ . h was assumed to be continuous, so  $h^{-1}(U) = Y$  and  $h^{-1}(V) = Y$  which is impossible (REALLY?).

- 2-7
- a)
- f)

#### 2-8

Firstly, any element in  $f(\mathcal{B})$  is open because f is an open map. Fix an open subset V in Y and consider its preimage  $f^{-1}(V)$  under f. Because f is continuous, the preimage is open, thus there are base elements  $B_i$  with  $i \in I$  in  $\mathcal{B}$  such that

$$f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i.$$

The surjectivity of f grants us  $f(f^{-1}(V)) = V$ , therefore, we have

$$f(f^{-1}(V)) = V = f\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i\right) = \bigcup_{i \in I} f(B_i).$$

Thus,  $f(\mathcal{B})$  is a basis of Y.

#### 2-9

#### 2-10

Fix a point y in Y. Since f is surjective, there is an x in X such that f(x) = y. X is locally Euclidean, thus there is a neighbourhood U of x that is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Moreover, f is locally homeomorphic, so there is a neighbourhood V of x such that the restriction of f under V is a homeomorphism. Then, the intersection  $U \cap V = N$  has both of these properties, i.e. N is a neighbourhood of x that is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and the restriction of f under V is a homeomorphism. f(N) is a neighbourhood of y that is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , therefore Y is locally Euclidean.

#### 2-11

" $\Rightarrow$ ": Let  $M^0$  be a 0-manifold and consider a point  $p \in M^0$ . First, we show that  $M^0$  is discrete. Since  $M^0$  is locally Euclidean, there is a neighbourhood U of p such that U is homeomorphic to an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^0$ . But  $\mathbb{R}^0$  contains only one element, thus the only nonempty open subset is  $\mathbb{R}^0$ . Now, a homeomorphism implies bijectivity, we have that  $U = \{p\}$ . Every singleton set in  $M^0$  is open, so  $M^0$  is a discrete space.

 $M^0$  is also countable because being a manifold implies that it has a countable base and any base must contain all the singleton sets.

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Let  $M^0$  be a countable discrete space.  $M^0$  is second-countable because the set of singletons form a countable base. It is also  $T_2$  since each point has itself as its neighbourhood which clearly does not contain any other points. Now let  $p \in M^0$  be a point.  $\{p\}$  is a neighbourhood of p and it is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^0$  by the mapping  $p \mapsto 0$ , thus  $M^0$  is locally Euclidean.

#### 2-12

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It is  $L(b) \cap R(a) = \{c \in X \mid c < b \text{ and } c > a\} = (a, b)$ , thus (a, b) is open.

Moreover, we have  $L(a) \cup R(b) = \{c \in X \mid c < a \text{ or } c > b\} = X \setminus [a, b]$  which is open, so [a, b] is closed.

#### b

Let  $a, b \in X$  be two distinct points and assume without loss of generality a < b. Then, L(b) is open and contains the point a, while R(a) is also open and contains the point b, but L(b) and R(a) are disjoint. Thus, X is Hausdorff.

 $\mathbf{c}$ 

Fix two points  $a, b \in X$ . By definition, it is

$$\overline{(a,b)} = \bigcap \left\{ C \subset X \mid (a,b) \subset C \text{ and } C \text{ is closed in } X \right\}.$$

We have shown that [a, b] is closed in a) and clearly contains (a, b), thus

$$[a,b] \in \{ C \subset X \mid (a,b) \subset C \text{ and } C \text{ is closed in } X \}$$

or in other words

$$\bigcap \{ C \subset X \mid (a,b) \subset C \text{ and } C \text{ is closed in } X \} \subset [a,b]$$

as desired.

When does  $\overline{(a,b)} = [a,b]$  hold? Maybe it is pertinent to ask when does it not hold? The equality does not hold if and only if (a,b) is already closed. That means  $X \setminus (a,b) = (-\infty,a] \cup [b,\infty)$  is open. I'm not sure, maybe X needs to be countable, finite?

#### 2-13

Let X be a second countable topological space and fix a collection of disjoint open subsets  $\mathcal{S}$ , i.e.

$$S = \{ U \subset X \mid U \text{ is open and for all } U, V \in S \text{ it is } U \cap V = \emptyset \}.$$

We want to show S is countable. If B is a base for X, then for any two members of the collection  $U, V \in S$ , we have

$$U = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} B_i \qquad V = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} B_j.$$

Since U and V are disjoint,  $B_i$  and  $B_j$  are also disjoint for all  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus, any  $U \in \mathcal{S}$  is a union of base elements that is different from any other  $V \in \mathcal{S}$ .  $\mathcal{B}$  is countable, therefore  $\mathcal{S}$  must also be.

#### 2-14

Let X be a locally Euclidean space. We show that X is first-countable. Let  $p \in X$  be a point, then since X is locally Euclidean, there is a neighbourhood N of p such that N is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Thus, we have a sequence of neighbourhoods as  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is first-countable, yada yada yada. Let M be a metric space. I've shown that this is first-countable already.

#### 2-15

a)

Let X be a second-countable space. We want to show that X contains a dense subset that is countable.

# New Spaces from Old

3-1

### Simplicial Complexes

#### Exercise 5.1

**Definition 1** (Simplex). Given points  $v_0, \ldots, v_k$  in general position in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , simplex spanned by them is the set of all points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of the form:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} t_i v_i$$
 where  $0 \le t_1 \le 1$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{k} t_i = 1$ .

**Definition 2** (Convex Hull). Let X be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the convex hull of X is the intersection of all convex sets containing X.

**Definition 3** (Convex Set). A subset X of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if for all  $x, y \in X$  and for all  $t \in [0, 1]$  it is

$$(1-t)x + ty \in X$$
.

*Proof.* Let  $\sigma$  be a simplex, denote its vertices by  $v_0, \ldots, v_k$ , and let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the convex hull of the vertices. Now, fix a point  $p \in \sigma$ , then by definition,

$$p = \sum_{i=0}^{k} t_i v_i$$

for some  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{k} t_i = 1$ .

So basically, this is done with induction, drawing geometrically makes this side easy.

I think this can be shown in one step.

#### Exercise 5.2

**a**)

Fix two simplices  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$ , and denote the set of their vertices by  $\operatorname{vert}(\sigma)$  and  $\operatorname{vert}(\tau)$  respectively. Let  $f_0 : \operatorname{vert}(\sigma) \longrightarrow \operatorname{vert}(\tau)$  be any map and consider a point  $p \in \sigma$ . p may be represented by a linear combination of the vertices, thus

$$p = \sum_{i=1}^{k} v_i$$

which allows us to define

$$f(p) := \sum_{i=1}^{k} f_0(v_i).$$

Since a simplex is the convex hull of its vertices, f(p) lies in  $\tau$ .

Unsure, but should be the right direction.

b)

sounds reasonable

**c**)

more suprising

#### Exercise 5.3

#### Example 5.2 a)

Let K be the collection of a n-simplex  $\sigma$  and its faces. Trivially, the faces of  $\sigma$  lies in K, and the faces of its faces are just faces of  $\sigma$ , and thus are also members of K. The any intersection of  $\sigma$  and its faces are again faces or empty. (IF I UNDERSTOOD THIS CORRECTLY) since K is already finite the third condition also applies.

#### Exercise 5.4

#### Exercise 5.5