

General Topology Math Notes

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1 Intro to Topology

1.1 Why Topology?

Topology can appear where we least expect it...

- Algebraic Number Theory - Next to Euclidean topology, can define other topologies on \mathbb{Q} (related to how often primes divide a number). Extends to Adeles, Langlands programme, etc
- Arithmetic Progressions in the Integers - An arithmetic progression of length k is a set $\{a, a + d, \dots, a + (k - 1)d\}$ Finding subsets of \mathbb{N} that contain arbitrarily long APs:

– $2\mathbb{N}$ or \mathbb{N}

- Primes (Green-Tao Theorem, 2007). Green-Tao theorem relies on **Szemerédi's Theorem**: Any dense enough subset of \mathbb{N} contains arbitrarily long APs

Furstenberg's idea: Get from $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ to $(a_i \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}})$ with $a_i \begin{cases} 1 & i \in A \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

Use topological dynamics to study this: A topological dynamical system is a triple of X cpt, $T : X \rightarrow X$ continuous, and a probability measure μ preserved by T (what)

1.2 Topological Spaces and Examples

Definition 1.1: Topological Space

A **topological space** is a pair (X, \mathcal{T}) , where X is a nonempty set, and \mathcal{T} is a collection of subsets of X which satisfies:

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ and $X \in \mathcal{T}$
2. if $U_\lambda \in \mathcal{T}$ for each $\lambda \in A$ (where A is some indexing set), then $\bigcup_{\lambda \in A} U_\lambda \in \mathcal{T}$
3. If $U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{T}$, then $U_1 \cap U_2 \in \mathcal{T}$

1.2.1 Examples of Topological Spaces

1. \mathbb{R}^n with the Euclidean Topology - induced by the Euclidean Metric
2. For any set X , $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ (discrete topology)
3. For any set X , $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ (indiscrete topology)
4. $X = \{0, 1, 2\}$ with $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{0\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}\}$
5. $X = \mathbb{R}$ and U open (aka, in \mathcal{T}) if $\mathbb{R} \setminus U$ is finite or $U = \emptyset$

Proof for 5:

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$, \emptyset is finite $\implies X \in \mathcal{T}$
2. Intersections of finite sets are finite
3. Unions of finite sets are finite

Definition 1.5: Neighbourhood of a point

A **neighbourhood** of a point $x \in X$ is a subset $N \subseteq X$ s.t. $x \in U \subseteq N$ for some open subset $U \subseteq X$

Definition 1.8: Metric Space

A **metric space** (X, d) is a nonempty set X together with a function

$$d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

with the following properties:

1. $d(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $x, y \in X$ and $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$
2. $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$
3. $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$

The function d is called the metric. Point 3 is called the *triangle inequality*

For any $x \in X$ and any positive real number r the **open ball** in X with centre x and radius r is defined by

$$B(x, r) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < r\}$$

We declare a subset U of X to be *open in the metric topology given by d* iff for each $a \in U$ there is an $r > 0$ such that $B(a, r) \subseteq U$

If (X, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space, and if X admits a metric whose metric topology is precisely \mathcal{T} we say that (X, \mathcal{T}) is **metrisable**. Thus the euclidean spaces with their usual topologies are metrisable

Definition 1.16: Subspace Topology

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space, and let $A \subseteq X$ be any subset. Then the **subspace topology** on A consists of all sets of the form $U \cap A$ where $U \in \mathcal{T}$

Theorem B: Topology Lemmas

1.3 If (X, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space and U_1, \dots, U_n are open sets, then the intersection $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$ is also open

1.6 In order to show that a set $U \subseteq X$ is open, it is enough to show that for every $x \in U$ there is an open set V with $x \in V \subseteq U$

1.6 A subset U of \mathbb{R}^n is *open for the usual topology* iff for each $a \in U$ there exists an $r > 0$ s.t.

$$|x - a| < r \implies x \in U$$

The collection of open sets thus defined is called the **usual topology on \mathbb{R}^n** . Note that open balls are open sets under this definition

Definition C: Topology Small Definitions

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1.3 Closed sets, Closure, Interior, and Boundary

Definition 1.17: Closed Subsets

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is **closed** iff its complement $X \setminus A := \{x \in X \mid x \notin A\}$ is open in X

Note: A set being “closed” has no connection with “not being open”

Theorem 1.19

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space. Then

1. \emptyset and X are closed.
2. The union of finitely many closed sets is a closed set
3. The intersection of any collection of closed sets is a closed set

Definition 1.20: Closure, Interior, Boundary

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space.

1. The **closure** of a subset $A \subseteq X$ is

$$\overline{A} := \bigcap_{C \subseteq X \text{ closed}; A \subseteq C} C$$

2. The **interior** of a subset $A \subseteq X$ is

$$\text{int } A = A^\circ := \bigcup_{U \subseteq X \text{ open}; U \subseteq A} U$$

3. The **boundary** or **frontier** of a subset $A \subseteq X$ is

$$\partial A := \overline{A} \setminus A^\circ$$

4. A subset A of X is **dense** in X iff $\overline{A} = X$

Theorem 1.22: Closure and Interior of Complement

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Then

1. The closure of the complement is the complement of the interior:

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

2. the interior of the complement is the complement of the closure:

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

1.4 Open and closed sets in \mathbb{R} with the usual topology

1.5 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 1.32: Hausdorff Space

A topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) is **Hausdorff** if for each $x, y \in X$ with $x \neq y$ there exist *disjoint* open sets U and V s.t. $x \in U$ and $y \in V$

If (X, d) is a metric space then it is automatically Hausdorff, so any metrisable space is Hausdorff. The trivial topology on a set with more than one element is not Hausdorff. Not every Hausdorff space is metrisable

Non-Hausdorff spaces are a lot more annoying to work with - for example you can have multiple limits in non-Hausdorff spaces

Definition 1.33: Convergence of Hausdorff Spaces

A sequence (x_n) of members of a topological space X converges to $x \in X$ if for every open set U containing x , there exists an N such that $n \geq N \implies x_n \in U$

Theorem 1.34: Hausdorff Convergence Uniqueness

Suppose (X, \mathcal{T}) is Hausdorff. Then a sequence (x_n) can converge to at most one limit.

Being Hausdorff is what's called a *topological property*, which means whether or not it is true in a particular case depends only on the open sets of the space in question.

In contrast, the property of *completeness* of a metric space is not a topological property as there exist sets upon which one can put two distinct metrics, one complete and one not, yet for which the metric topologies coincide

Definition 1.36: Cauchy Sequences

Let (X, d) be a metric space

1. A **Cauchy Sequence** is a sequence (x_n) with each $x_n \in X$ with the property that for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an N s.t. $m, n \geq N \implies d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$
2. (X, d) is **complete** if every Cauchy Sequence converges