

## Chapter 1

# 22/09/2020

#### 1.1 Introduction

Our aim is to abstract and generalize concepts such as space, distance and continuity.

As en example of the character of this theory, we intend not to distinguish subspaces A (circle) and B (square) of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , but to distinguish these from C (ring), as in figure 1.1.



Figure 1.1: Examples of topological subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

### 1.2 Topological Spaces

**Definition 1.** Given a set X, we denote the set of all subsets of X as  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ , called the **power set** of X.

In topology, the union of potentially infinite (and uncountable) subsets. We write the union of a family of subsets  $\{A_i : i \in I\}$  as  $\cup_{i \in I} A_i$ .

**Definition 2.** Given a non-empty set X, we say  $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a **topology** on X if:

- 1.  $X, \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$
- 2. if  $A, B \in \mathcal{T}$  then  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{T}$
- 3. if  $A_i \in \mathcal{T}$  for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \in \mathcal{T}$ .

Then  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is a **topological space**, and the elements of X sometimes denotes by points.

**Remark.** For a finite family of subsets N, the reunion  $\bigcap_{i \in N} A_i \in \mathcal{T}$ .

*Proof.* The case for n=2 is taken care by the second axiom in 2. Assume  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i = B \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n+1} A_i = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) \cap A_{n+1} = B \cap A \in \mathcal{T}$$

so the statement holds by induction.

**Example 1.** Let  $X_1 = \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}$  and  $\mathcal{T}_1 = \{X_1, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{c, b\}, \{a, c, d\}, \{b, c, d, e, f\}\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{T}_1$  is a topology on  $X_1$ .

**Remark.** For a finite set X, one does enough to test the union of each two subsets of  $\mathcal{T}$ , and the finite union follows by induction.

**Example 2.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$  and  $\mathcal{T}_2 = \{X_2, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{c, d\}, \{a, c\}, \{a, c, d\}\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{T}_2$  is not a topology on  $X_2$ , for  $\{a\} \cap \{a, c\} = \{c\} \notin \mathcal{T}$ .

**Example 3.** Let  $\mathcal{T}_3 \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  be such that

$$\mathcal{T}_3 = \{\mathbb{N}\} \cup \{A \subseteq \mathbb{N} : A \text{ is finite}\}.$$

 $\mathcal{T}_3$  is not a topology on  $\mathbb{N}$ . Let  $B_n = \{2n+1\}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $B_n \in \mathcal{T}_3$  but

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \notin \mathcal{T}_3.$$

**Definition 3.** Let X be a non-empty set. Then  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a topology on X, called the **discrete topology**.

**Remark.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. Then  $\mathcal{T}$  is the discrete topology if and only if  $\{x\} \in \mathcal{T}$  for all  $x \in X$ . These are called the **singular sets** of X.

*Proof.* Take  $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  and let  $x_i$  for  $i \in I$  be elements of X. If A is empty then it is simply the **empty union** of singleton sets. Otherwise, it implies that there does not exist a union such that

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} \{x_i\} = A.$$

Then there exists an element  $x_k \in A$  that is not contained in the union. As every element of X is contained in the union of singletons sets of X, A contains an element that is not contained in X. Hence  $A \notin \mathcal{P}(X)$ , which is contradiction.

**Definition 4.** Let X be a non empty set. Then  $\mathcal{T} = \{X, \emptyset\}$  is a topology of X, called the **indiscrete** topology.

### 1.3 Open and Closed subsets

**Definition 5.** Given a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ , the elements of  $\mathcal{T}$  are called **open** subsets of X.

**Definition 6.** Given a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ , a subset  $A \in X$  is called closed if  $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{T}$ .

#### 1.3.1 Properties of closed subsets

In a topological space  $X, \mathcal{T}$ :

- X and  $\emptyset$  are closed
- the intersection of finitely many closed subsets is closed
- the union of an arbitrary family of closed subsets is closed.

Remark. The aforementioned properties of closed subsets are a direct consequence of the axioms in 2.

1.4. FUNCTIONS 5

**Example 4.** Let X be a non-empty set. The family of subsets

$$\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{A \subseteq X : X \setminus A \text{ is finite}\}\$$

are a topology on X, called the **cofinite topology**. The closed sets of  $\mathcal{T}$  are X and its finite subsets. *Proof.* We have that  $\emptyset$  and  $X \in \mathcal{T}$ .

Let  $A, B \in X$ . If A or B are empty the intersection is trivial. Otherwise

$$X \setminus (A \cap B) = (X \setminus A) \cup (X \setminus B)$$

is finite because  $X \setminus A$  and  $X \setminus B$  are finite, therefore  $A \cap B \in \mathcal{T}$ .

Let  $A_i \in \mathcal{T}$  for  $i \in I$ . Then

$$X \setminus \left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i\right) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (X \setminus A_i)$$

is contained in  $\mathcal{T}$ , as the intersection of finite sets is finite.

#### 1.4 Functions

**Definition 7.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a function. Given  $A \subseteq Y$ , we define **reciprocal imagine** of A

$$f^{-1}(A) = \{ x \in X : f(x) \in A \}.$$

**Remark.** The reciprocal image allows for the introduction of a topology on X from a given topology on Y. Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a function with  $X \neq \emptyset$ . If  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on Y, then

$$\mathcal{T}' = \{ f^{-1}(A) : A \in \mathcal{T} \}$$

is a topology on X.

*Proof.* Because  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology on Y, we know that  $\emptyset, Y \in \mathcal{T}$ . Then  $f^{-1}(\emptyset) \in \mathcal{T}'$  and  $f^{-1}(Y) \in \mathcal{T}'$ . Let  $A, B \in \mathcal{T}$ . Hence  $f^{-1}(A) \cap f^{-1}(B) = f^{-1}(A \cap B) \in \mathcal{T}'$ .

Let  $A_i \in \mathcal{T}$  for  $i \in I$  be an arbitrary family of subsets of Y. We shall now prove that

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}(A_i) = f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i\right) \in \mathcal{T}'$$

to conclude the proof.

Let  $y \in \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ , then  $y \in A_k$  for some  $k \in I$  and

$$f^{-1}(y) \in f^{-1}(A_k) \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}(A_i).$$

Now take  $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}(A_i)$  so, in particular,  $x \in f^{-1}(A_k)$  for some  $k \in I$ . It follows that there exists  $y = f(x) \in A_k$  and

$$y \in A_k \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \Rightarrow x \in f^{-1} \left( \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \right)$$

as we wanted to show.

**Remark.** Inheriting a topology in the reverse manner, that is,  $\mathcal{T}' = \{f(A) : A \in \mathcal{T}\}$  does not work, even if f is surjective.

**Example 5.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, Y = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $f : X \to Y$  defined by

$$a\mapsto 1$$
  $b\mapsto 2$   $c\mapsto 3$   $d\mapsto 1$ 

and  $\mathcal{T} = \{X, \emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{c, d\}\}\)$  on X. We notice that  $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\} \in \mathcal{T}$  and

$$\{1,2\} \cap \{1,3\} = \{1\} \notin \mathcal{T}'.$$

#### 1.5 Axioms of Separation

**Definition 8.** A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_0$  if, given two distinct points  $a, b \in X$ , there exists an open subset that contains only one of them.

Notice that:

- Every discrete space is T<sub>0</sub>.
- A indescrete space is  $T_0$  if and only if  $|X| \leq 1$ .

**Definition 9.** A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_1$  if, given two distinct points  $a, b \in X$ , there exists an open subset that contains a but not b.

**Remark.** Every  $T_1$  topological space is  $T_0$ , but not the reverse.

**Example 6.** Let  $X = \{a, b\}$  and  $\mathcal{T} = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}\}$ . Then  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_0$  but not  $T_1$ , because there does not exist an open subset of X that contains b but not a.

**Theorem 1.** A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_1$  if and only if every singular subset of X is closed.

*Proof.* Assume that every singular subset of X is closed. Take  $a, b \in X$ . We have that  $\{b\}$  is closed, therefore  $X \setminus \{b\}$  is open and contains a, hence the  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_1$ .

Assume now that  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is  $T_1$ . Then for every point y in  $X \setminus \{x\}$  there exists an open subset  $A_y$  that does not contain x. Thus the reunion

$$\bigcup_{y \in X \setminus \{x\}} A_y = X \setminus \{x\}$$

is open and  $\{x\}$  is a closed subset of X.

### 1.6 Cardinality

**Definition 10.** Two set X, Y are said to have the same cardinality (|X| = |Y|) if there exists a bijection between them.

**Definition 11.** A set is said to be **countable** if  $|X| \leq |\mathbb{N}|$ .

An equivalent definition is that if X is countable, its elements may be written as a succession  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$ 

**Definition 12.** A set X is said to have cardinality of the continuum if  $|X| = |\mathbb{R}|$ .

#### 1.6.1 Properties of Cardinality

- If I is countable and  $X_i$  is countable for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} X_i$  is countable
- $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable
- If  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are countable, then  $X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$  is countable.

## Chapter 2

# 24/09/2020

### 2.1 Euclidean Topology in $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition 13.** A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is open in the Euclidean topology if  $\forall a \in A, \exists b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a \in (b, c) \subseteq A$ .

To see that this is a topology on  $\mathbb{R}$  notice that:

- 1.  $\mathbb{R}, \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$
- 2. Let A, B be open sets and a an element of  $A \cap B$ . Then there exist  $b_1, c_1 \in A$  and  $b_2, c_2 \in B$  such that  $a \in (b_1, c_1) \subseteq A$  and  $a \in (b_2, c_2) \subseteq B$ . Thus  $a \in (\max(b_1, b_2), \min(c_1, c_2)) \subseteq A \cap B$ .
- 3. Let  $A_i \in \mathcal{T}$  for  $i \in I$ . Then  $a \in \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \Rightarrow a \in A_j$  for some  $j \in I$ . As such, there exist  $b, c \in A_j$  such that  $a \in (b, c) \subseteq A_j \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ .

In this topology we have that, for  $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

- (a, b) is an open
- $(-\infty, a)$  and  $(a, \infty)$  are open
- [a, b] is closed, because

$$\mathbb{R} \setminus [a, b] = (-\infty, a) \cap (b, \infty) \in \mathcal{T}$$

- $(-\infty, a]$  and  $[a, \infty)$  are closed
- Any singular subset  $\{a\}$  is closed
- [a,b] is not open.

*Proof.* Supposed [a,b] is open and let  $c \in [a,b]$ . Then there exist  $d,e \in [a,b]$  such that  $c \in (d,e)$ . Taking c=a, we analyse the lower bound

$$a \le d < c = a \Longrightarrow a < a$$

which constitutes a contradiction. The same could be done for the upper bound. In this way, any finitely bounded closed interval is not open.  $\Box$ 

- $\mathbb{Z}$  is closed but not open.
- $\mathbb{Q}$  is closed but not open.

**Theorem 2.** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Then A is open in the Euclidean topology if and only if it is an union of open sets.

*Proof.* Assume A is open. Then  $\forall a \in A$  there exists  $(b_a, c_a) \subseteq A$  such that  $a \in (b_a, c_a)$ . As such

$$A = \bigcup_{a \in A} (b_a, c_a).$$

Now assume A is the union of open sets. Then A is open too.

**Definition 14.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. Then  $B \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  is a base of  $\mathcal{T}$  if any open set is an union of members of B.

**Example 7.** The open sets constitute a base of the Euclidean topology.

**Example 8.** The singular sets constitute a base of the discrete topology.

**Definition 15.** A family of subsets  $B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  constitutes a base of a topology in X if and only if X is an union of members of B, and the intersection of members of B is in B.

**Example 9.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $B = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$ . Then B is not the base of any topology on X because  $X \in \mathcal{T}$  for any topology, but X is not generated by B.

# Chapter 3

# 29/09/2020

## 3.1 Basis of Topology

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