

Math 3T03 - Topology

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1 Introduction to topology

1.1 What is topology?

Definition 1.1 (Topology). *Let X be a set. A topology on X is a collection τ of subsets of X satisfying:*

- $\emptyset \in \tau$.
- $X \in \tau$.
- The union of any collections of elements in τ is also in τ .
- The intersection of any finite collection of elements in τ is also in τ .

Definition 1.2. (X, τ) is a topological space.

Definition 1.3. The elements of τ are called the open sets.

Example 1.1. Consider $X = \{a, b, c\}$. Is $\tau_1 = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}\}$ a topology?

Proof. Yes, τ_1 is a topology. Clearly, $\emptyset \in \tau_1$ and $X \in \tau_1$ so it suffices to verify the arbitrary unions and finite intersection axioms.

Let $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be a subcollection of τ_1 . Then, we want to show

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha \in \tau_1.$$

If $V_\alpha = \emptyset$ for any $\alpha \in A$, then this does not contribute to the union. Hence, φ can be omitted:

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha = \bigcup_{\substack{\alpha \in A \\ V_\alpha \neq \emptyset}} V_\alpha.$$

If $V_\alpha = X$ for some $\alpha \in A$, then

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha = X \in \tau_1$$

and we are done. So we may assume $V_\alpha \neq X$ for all $\alpha \in A$. Similarly, if $V_\alpha = V_\beta$ for $\alpha \neq \beta$, then we can omit V_β from the union. Since τ_1 only contains \emptyset , X and $\{a\}$, we must have

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha = \{a\} \in \tau_1.$$

Similarly, if any element of $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is empty, then

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha = \emptyset \in \tau_1.$$

We can therefore assume $V_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ for all $\alpha \in A$. Again, repetition can be ignored and any V_α that equals X can be ignored. Then,

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha = \begin{cases} \{a\} \in \tau_1 \\ X \in \tau_1 \end{cases}$$

□

Example 1.2. Consider $X = \{a, b, c\}$. Is $\tau_2 = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{b\}\}$ a topology?

Proof. No. Note that $\{a\} \in \tau_2$ and $\{b\} \in \tau_2$ but $\{a\} \cup \{b\} = \{a, b\} \notin \tau_2$. \square

Example 1.3. Consider $X = \{a, b, c\}$. Then, $\tau_3 = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$ is a topology.

1.2 Set theory

Definition 1.4. If X is a set and a is an element, we write $a \in X$.

Definition 1.5. If Y is a subset of X , we write $Y \subset X$ or $Y \subseteq X$.

Example 1.4. Suppose X is a set. Then, *power set* of X is the set $P(X)$ whose elements are all subsets of X . In other words,

$$Y \in P(X) \iff Y \subseteq X$$

Note that $P(X)$ is closed under arbitrary unions and intersections. Hence, $P(X)$ is a topology on X .

Definition 1.6. $P(X)$ is the *discrete topology* on X .

Definition 1.7. The *indiscrete (trivial) topology* on X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Definition 1.8. Suppose U, V are sets. Then, their *union* is

$$U \cup V = \{x | x \in U \text{ or } x \in V\}.$$

Note that if U_1, U_2, \dots, U_{10} are sets, their union can be written as follows:

- $U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_{10}$
- $\bigcup_{k=1}^{10} U_k$
- $\bigcup_{k=\{1,2,\dots,10\}} U_k$

Definition 1.9. Let A be any set. Suppose $\forall \alpha \in A$, I have a set U_α . The *union of the U_α over $\alpha \in A$* is

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha = \{x | \exists \alpha \in A, x \in U_\alpha\}.$$

Similarly, the *intersection* is

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha = \{x | \forall \alpha \in A, x \in U_\alpha\}.$$

2 Functions

Definition 2.1. A function is a rule that assigns to element of a given set A , an element in another set B .

Often, we use a formula to describe a function.

Example 2.1. $f(x) = \sin(5x)$

Example 2.2. $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$

Definition 2.2. A rule of assignment is a subset R of the Cartesian product $C \times D$ of two sets with the property that each element of C appears as the first coordinate of at most one ordered pair belonging to R . In other words, a subset R of $C \times D$ is a rule of assignment if it satisfies

$$\text{If } (c, d) \in R \text{ and } (c, d') \in R, d = d'.$$

Definition 2.3. Given a rule of assignment R , we define the domain of R to be the subset of C consisting of all first coordinates of elements of R :

$$\text{domain}(R) \equiv \{c \mid \exists d \in D \text{ s.t. } (c, d) \in R\}$$

Definition 2.4. The image set of R is defined to be the subset of D consisting of all second coordinates.

$$\text{image}(R) \equiv \{d \mid \exists c \in C \text{ s.t. } (c, d) \in R\}$$

Definition 2.5. A function is a rule of assignment R , together with a set that contains the image set of R . The domain of the rule of assignment is also called the domain of f , and the image of f is defined to be the image set of the rule of assignment.

Definition 2.6. The set B is often called the range of f . This is also referred to as the codomain.

If $A = \text{domain}(f)$, then we write

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

to indicate that f is a function with domain A and codomain B .

Definition 2.7. Given $a \in A$, we write $f(a) \in B$ for the unique element in B associated to a by the rule of assignment.

Definition 2.8. If $S \subseteq A$ is a subset of A , let

$$f(S) = \{f(a) \mid a \in S\} \subseteq B.$$

Definition 2.9. Given $A_0 \subseteq A$, we can restrict the domain of f to A_0 . The restriction is denoted

$$f|_{A_0} \equiv \{(a, f(a)) \mid a \in A_0\} \subseteq A \times B.$$

Definition 2.10. If $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ then $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is defined to be

$$\{(a, c) \mid \exists b \in B \text{ s.t. } f(a) = b \text{ and } g(b) = c\} \subseteq A \times C.$$

Definition 2.11. A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is called *injective* (or *one-to-one*) if $f(a) = f(a')$ implies $a = a'$ for all $a, a' \in A$.

Definition 2.12. A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is called *surjective* (or *onto*) if the image of f equals B , i.e. $f(A) = B$, i.e. if, for every $b \in B$, there exists $a \in A$ with $f(a) = b$.

Definition 2.13. $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a *bijection* if it is one-to-one and onto.

Definition 2.14. If $B_0 \subseteq B$ is a subset and $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a function, then the *preimage* of B_0 under f is the subset of A given by

$$f^{-1}(B_0) = \{a \in A \mid f(a) \in B_0\}$$

Example 2.3. If B_0 is disjoint from $f(A)$ then $f^{-1}(B_0) = \emptyset$.

3 Relation

Definition 3.1. A relation on a set A is a subset R of $A \times A$.

Given a relation R on A , we will write xRy "x is related to y" to mean $(x, y) \in R$.

Definition 3.2. An equivalence relation on a set is a relation with the following properties:

- Reflexivity. xRx holds $\forall x \in A$.
- Symmetric. if xRy then yRx holds $\forall x, y \in A$.
- Transitive. if xRy and yRz then xRz holds $\forall x, y, z \in A$.

Definition 3.3. Given $a \in A$, let $E(a) = \{x \mid x \sim a\}$ denote the equivalence class of a .

Remark. $E(a) \subseteq A$ and it is nonempty because $a \in E(a)$.

Proposition 3.1. If $E(a) \cap E(b) \neq \emptyset$ then $E(a) = E(b)$.

Proof. Assume the hypothesis, i.e., suppose $x \in E(a) \cap E(b)$. So $x \sim a$ and $x \sim b$. By symmetry, $a \sim x$ and by transitivity $a \sim b$.

Now suppose that $y \in E(a)$. Then $y \sim a$ but we just saw that $a \sim b$ so $y \sim b$ and $y \in E(b)$. Hence, $E(a) \subseteq E(b)$. Likewise, we can show that $E(b) \subseteq E(a)$. \square

Definition 3.4. A partition of a set is a collection of pairwise disjoint subsets of A whose union is all of A .

Example 3.1. Consider $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$. Then, $\{1, 2\}$ and $\{3, 4, 5\}$ is a partition of A .

Proposition 3.2. An equivalence relation in a set determines a partition of A , namely the one with equivalence classes as subsets. Conversely, a partition¹ $\{Q_\alpha \mid \alpha \in J\}$ of a set A determines an equivalence relation on A by: $x \sim y$ if and only if $\exists \alpha \in J$ s.t. $x, y \in Q_\alpha$. The equivalence classes of this equivalence relation are precisely the subsets Q_α .

¹ Note that J is an index set: $Q_\alpha \subseteq A$ for each $\alpha \in J$ and $Q_\alpha \cap Q_\beta = \emptyset$ if $\alpha \neq \beta$. Furthermore, $\cup_{\alpha \in J} Q_\alpha = A$.

4 Finite and infinite sets

Definition 4.1. A nonempty set A is finite if there is a bijection from A to $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Remark. Consider $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with $n \neq m$. Then, there is no bijection from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ to $\{1, 2, \dots, m\}$.

Definition 4.2. Cardinality of a finite set A is defined as follows:

1. $\text{card}(A) = 0$ if $A = \emptyset$.
2. $\text{card}(A) = n$ if there is a bijection from A to $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Note that \mathbb{Z}^+ is not finite. How would you prove this? A sneaky approach is that there is a bijection from \mathbb{Z}^+ to a proper subset of \mathbb{Z}^+ .

Consider the shift map:

$$S : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$$

where $S(k) = k + 1$. So S is a bijection from \mathbb{Z}^+ to $\{2, 3, \dots\} \subset \mathbb{Z}^+$, a proper subset of \mathbb{Z}^+ . On the other hand, any proper subset B of a finite set A with $\text{card}(A) = n$ has $\text{card}(B) < n$. In particular, there is no bijection from A to B . Therefore, \mathbb{Z}^+ is not finite.

Theorem 4.1. A non-empty set is finite if and only if one of the following holds:

1. \exists bijection $f : A \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
2. \exists injection $f : A \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ for some $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
3. \exists surjection $g : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow A$ for some $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Remark. Finite unions of finite sets are finite. Finite products of finite sets are also finite.

Recall that if X is a set, then

$$X^w = \pi_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} X = \{(x_n) \mid x_n \in X \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$$

the set of infinite sequences in X .

If $X = \{a\}$ is a singleton, then X^w is also a singleton. Otherwise, if $\text{card}(X) > 1$, then X^w is an infinite set.

Example 4.1. Consider $X = \{0, 1\}$. Then, X^w is a set of binary sequences.

Definition 4.3. If there exists a bijection from a set X to \mathbb{Z}^+ , then X is said to be countably infinite.

Definition 4.4. Let \mathcal{A} be a nonempty collection of sets. An indexing family is a set J together with a surjection $f : J \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$. We use A_α to denote $f(\alpha) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. So

$$\mathcal{A} = \{A_\alpha \mid \alpha \in J\}$$

Most of the time, we will be able to use \mathbb{Z}^+ for the index set J .

Definition 4.5 (Cartesian product). Let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$. Finite cartesian product is defined as

$$A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in A_i\}$$

It is a vector space of n tuples of real numbers.

Definition 4.6 (Infinite Cartesian product). Infinite Cartesian product \mathbb{R}^ω is an ω -tuple $x : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, i.e., a sequence

$$\begin{aligned} x &= (x_i)_{i=1}^\infty = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots) \\ &= (x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+} \end{aligned}$$

More generally, if $\mathcal{A} = \{A_i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$. Then,

$$\prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+} A_i = \{(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+} \mid a_i \in A_i\}.$$

Definition 4.7. A set A is countable if A is finite or it is countably infinite.

Theorem 4.2 (Criterion for countability). Suppose A is a non-empty set. Then, the following are equivalent.

1. A is countable
2. There is an injection $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$
3. There is a surjection $g : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow A$

Theorem 4.3. If $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^+$ is a subset, then C is countable.

Proof. Either C is finite or infinite. If C is finite, it follows C is countable.

Assume that C is infinite. We will define a bijection $h : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow C$ by induction. Let $h(1)$ be the smallest element in C .² Suppose

$$h(1), \dots, h(n-1) \in C$$

and are defined. Let $h(n)$ be the smallest element in $C \setminus \{h(1), \dots, h(n-1)\}$. (Note that this set is nonempty.)

We want to show that h is injective. Let $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $n \neq m$. Suppose $n < m$. So $h(n) \in \{h(1), \dots, h(n)\}$ and

$$h(n) \in C \setminus \{h(1), h(2), \dots, h(m-1)\}.$$

So $h(n) \neq h(m)$.

We want to show that h is surjective. Suppose $c \in C$. We will show that $c = h(n)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. First, notice that $h(\mathbb{Z}^+)$ is not contained in $\{1, 2, \dots, c\}$

² $C \neq \emptyset$ and every nonempty subset of \mathbb{Z}^+ has a smallest element

because $h(\mathbb{Z}^+)$ is an infinite set. Therefore, there must exist $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $h(n) > c$. So let m be the smallest element with $h(m) \geq c$. Then for all $i < m$, $h(i) < c$. Then,

$$c \notin \{h(1), \dots, h(m-1)\}.$$

By definition, $h(m)$ is the smallest element in

$$C \setminus \{h(1), \dots, h(m-1)\}.$$

Then, $h(m) \leq c$. Therefore, $h(m) = c$. \square

Corollary 4.1. *Any subset of a countable set is countable.*

Proof. Suppose $A \subset B$ with B countable. Then, there exists an injection $f : B \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$. The restriction

$$f|_A : A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$$

is also injective. Therefore, A is countable by the criterion. \square

Theorem 4.4. *Any countable union of countable sets is countable. In other words, if J is countable and A_α is countable for all $\alpha \in J$, then $\cup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ is countable.*

Theorem 4.5. *A finite product of countable sets is countable.*

Example 4.2. $\mathbb{Z}^+ \times \mathbb{Z}^+$ is countable.

Note that a countable product of countable sets is not countable.

Example 4.3. Consider $X = \{0, 1\}$. Then, X^ω binary sequence is not countable.

Proof. Suppose $g : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow X^\omega$ is a function. We will show g is not surjective by constructing an element $y \neq g(n)$ for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Write $g(n) = (x_{n1}, x_{n2}, \dots) \in X^\omega$ for each $x_{ni} \in \{0, 1\}$. Define

$$y = (y_1, y_2, \dots)$$

where $y_i = 1 - x_{ii}$. Clearly, $y \in X^\omega$ but $y \neq g(n)$ for any n since $y_n = 1 - x_{nn} \neq x_{nn}$, the n -th entry in $g(n)$. \square

Example 4.4. Let X be a set and $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ a collection of subsets of X . Show

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (X - V_\alpha) = X - \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} X - V_\alpha &\iff \exists \alpha \in I, x \in X - V_\alpha \\ &\iff \exists \alpha \in I, x \in X, x \notin V_\alpha \\ &\iff x \in X, \exists \alpha \in I, x \notin V_\alpha \\ &\iff x \in X, x \notin \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha \\ &\iff x \in X - \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha \end{aligned}$$

□

5 Topological spaces

Definition 5.1 (Topology). *Let X be a set. A topology on X is a collection τ of subsets of X satisfying:*

- $\emptyset \in \tau$.
- $X \in \tau$.
- If $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I} \subseteq \tau$, then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha \in \tau$.
- If $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \subseteq \tau$, then $\bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k \in \tau$.

Remark. If τ is a topology, then $\{\emptyset, X\} \subseteq \tau$ and $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$, where \mathcal{P} is a power set.

Definition 5.2. *Suppose τ, τ' are topologies on X . We say τ is coarser than τ' if $\tau \subseteq \tau'$. τ' is finer than τ if $\tau \subseteq \tau'$.*

Example 5.1. If X is a set and τ is a topology. Then, τ is coarser than the discrete topology, $\mathcal{P}(X)$, and finer than the trivial topology, $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Note that if $\tau \subseteq \tau'$ and $\tau' \subseteq \tau$, then $\tau = \tau'$.

Example 5.2. Define τ_f to consist of the subsets U of X with the property that $X - U$ is finite or all of X .

Lemma 5.1. *τ_f is a topology on X . This is defined as the finite complement topology.*

Proof. To show $\emptyset \in \tau_f$, notice that $X - \emptyset = X$. So $\emptyset \in \tau_f$. To show that $X \in \tau_f$, notice that $X - X = \emptyset$, which is finite. So $X \in \tau_f$.

To show that it is closed under arbitrary unions, suppose

$$\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I} \subseteq \tau_f.$$

It suffices to show that $X - \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha$ is finite. For this, note

$$X - \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} V_\alpha = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} (X - V_\alpha).$$

$X - V_\alpha$ is finite so

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} (X - V_\alpha) \subseteq X - V_{\alpha'}$$

for any $\alpha' \in I$ which implies $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} X - V_\alpha$ is finite.

For closure under finite intersections, let

$$\{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \subseteq \tau_f.$$

Then,

$$X - \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (X - V_k)$$

is a finite union of finite sets and so it is finite. \square

Example 5.3. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}$. Then, $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ is open in the finite complement topology. $\mathbb{R} - \{0, 3, 100\}$ is open in τ_f . Note that $(4, \infty)$ is not open in τ_f because its complement is not finite.

Remark. Assume τ is a topology on X .

- (X, τ) is a topological space.
- X is a topological space.
- $U \in \tau$ iff U is open in τ iff U is an open set.

6 Basis for a Topology

Definition 6.1. Let X be a set. A basis for topology on X is a collection \mathcal{B} of subsets of X satisfying:

- $\forall x \in X, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}, x \in B$
- $\forall B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ then $\exists B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3$ and $B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$.

Example 6.1. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}^2$. Let \mathcal{B}_1 be a collection of interiors of circles in \mathbb{R}^2 . Then, \mathcal{B}_1 is a basis.

Example 6.2. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}^2$. Let \mathcal{B}_2 be collection of interiors of axis-parallel rectangles. Then, \mathcal{B}_2 is a basis. Note that nontrivial intersection is always a rectangle.

Definition 6.2. The topology generated by a basis \mathcal{B} is the collection τ satisfying:

$$U \in \tau \iff \forall x \in U, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}, x \in B \subseteq U.$$

Example 6.3. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}$ with standard topology, τ_{st} . Consider $U = \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$. Then, $U \in \tau_{st}$. Let $x \in U$:

1. (Case 1) $x > 0$. Let $B = (0, x + 1)$. Then, $x \in B \subseteq \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$.
2. (Case 2) $x < 0$. Let $B = (x - 1, 0)$. Then, $x \in B \subseteq \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$.

Example 6.4. Let τ_f be finite complement topology on \mathbb{R} . If $U \in \tau_f$, then $U \in \tau_{st}$. So $\tau_f \subseteq \tau_{st}$.

Remark. $(3, \infty)$ is open in τ_{st} but not in τ_f .

Lemma 6.1. If \mathcal{B} is a basis and τ is the topology generated by \mathcal{B} , then τ is a topology.

Proof. $\emptyset \in \tau$ is vacuously true. If $x \in \emptyset$ then $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq \emptyset$.

Now, we want to prove that $X \in \tau$. Let $x \in X$. By the axioms for basis, $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq X$. Hence, $X \in \tau$.

Let $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be a collection of τ . Let

$$x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha.$$

Then, $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B$. Since $B \subseteq U_\alpha$, $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq U_\alpha$. Then, $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq U_\alpha$. So τ is closed under arbitrary unions.

Let $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \subseteq \tau$. We want to use proof by induction to show that τ is closed under finite intersections. When $n = 1$,

$$\bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k = V_1 \in \tau.$$

Assume the claim is true for n . Then,

$$\bigcap_{k=1}^{n+1} V_k = \underbrace{V_{n+1}}_W \cap \underbrace{\bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k}_{W'}$$

Note $W \in \tau$ and $W' \in \tau$ by the induction hypothesis. If $W \cap W' = \emptyset$ then we are done ($\emptyset \in \tau$). Let $x \in W \cap W'$. Then, $x \in W$ and $x \in W'$, implying that $\exists B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_1 \subseteq W$ and $x \in B_2 \subseteq W'$. Hence, $\exists B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2 \subseteq W \cap W'$. \square

Example 6.5. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}$. Define

$$(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a < x < b\}$$

for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Show

$$\mathcal{B}_{st} = \{(a, b) | a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is a basis.

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$x \in (x-1, x+1) \in \mathcal{B}_{st}.$$

For the second axiom, let $(a, b), (c, d) \in \mathcal{B}_{st}$ and assume $x \in (a, b) \cap (c, d)$. Then, $x \in (c, b) \subseteq (a, b) \cap (c, d)$.

Definition 6.3. The standard topology on \mathbb{R} is the topology τ_{st} generated by \mathcal{B}_{st} .

Lemma 6.2. Suppose \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' are bases on X and τ and τ' are the topologies they generate. Then, the following are equivalent:

1. τ' is finer than τ ($\tau \subseteq \tau'$)
2. $\forall x \in X$ and $\forall B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B$, $\exists B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ with $x \in B' \subseteq B$.

Proof. First, we want to show that 1 implies 2. Assume $\tau \subseteq \tau'$. Let $x \in X$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$. Since \mathcal{B} generates τ , $B \in \tau$. Then, $B \in \tau'$. Since τ' is generated by \mathcal{B}' ,

$$\exists B' \in \mathcal{B}' \text{ with } x \in B' \subseteq B$$

Other direction is left to readers as an exercise. \square

Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$. Consider \mathcal{B}_1 , a collection of interior of circles, and \mathcal{B}_2 , a collection of interior of axis-parallel rectangles. Let τ_j be topologies generated by \mathcal{B}_j where $j = 1, 2$.

Lemma 6.3. $\tau_1 = \tau_2$

Proof. ($\tau_1 \subseteq \tau_2$). We use the theorem from earlier. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $x \in B_1 \subseteq \mathcal{B}_1$. We have to show that $\exists B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_2$ with $x \in B_2 \subseteq B_1$. Since $x \in B_1$, x sits inside a circle. But we can always construct a rectangle B_2 smaller than B_1 but contains x .

($\tau_2 \subseteq \tau_1$). Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_2$ with $x \in B_2$. We can always take $B_1 \in \mathcal{B}_1$ to be a circle inside rectangle B_2 and contains x . So $x \in B_1 \subseteq B_2$. \square

Lemma 6.4. Suppose (X, τ_x) and (Y, τ_y) are topological spaces. Consider

$$X \times Y = \{(a, b) | a \in X, b \in Y\}$$

Then,

$$\mathcal{B} = \{U \times V | U \in \tau_x, V \in \tau_y\}$$

is a basis on $X \times Y$.

Proof. Let $(a, b) \in X \times Y$. Then, $X \times Y \in \mathcal{B}$ and $(a, b) \in X \times Y$. Let $U_1 \times V_1, U_2 \times V_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ and assume

$$(a, b) \in U_1 \times V_1 \cap U_2 \times V_2.$$

Note

$$(U_1 \times V_1) \cap (U_2 \times V_2) = (U_1 \cap U_2) \times (V_1 \cap V_2) \in \mathcal{B}.$$

So

$$(a, b) \in (U_1 \cap U_2) \times (V_1 \cap V_2) \subseteq (U_1 \times V_1) \cap (U_2 \times V_2)$$

\square

Definition 6.4. The product topology is the topology generated by this basis.

Theorem 6.1. Suppose \mathcal{B}_x and \mathcal{B}_y are bases for τ_x and τ_y , respectively. Then,

$$\{B_1 \times B_2 | B_1 \in \mathcal{B}_x, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_y\}$$

is a basis for product topology on $X \times Y$.

Example 6.6. $(X, \tau_x) = (\mathbb{R}, \tau_{st}) = (Y, \tau_y)$.

Definition 6.5. The standard topology on \mathbb{R}^2 is the product topology of the (\mathbb{R}, τ_{st}) .

Remark. The theorem tells us that \mathbb{R}^2 has a basis

$$\{(a, b) \times (c, d) | a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Suppose \mathcal{B} is a basis for a topology τ on X .

- First, if $B \in \mathcal{B}$, then $B \in \tau$. Recall that

$$U \in \tau \iff \forall x = U, \exists B' = \mathcal{B}, x \in B' \subseteq U.$$

So let $x \in B$. Then, $B' = B$ satisfies the above condition ($x \in B \subseteq B$). Hence, $B \in \tau$.

- Let $U \in \tau$. Then, U is a union of elements in \mathcal{B} . To prove this, let $U \in \tau$. By definition,

$$\forall x \in U, \exists B_x \in \mathcal{U}$$

such that $x \in B_x \subseteq U$. Then,

$$\{B_x\}_{x \in U} \subseteq \tau.$$

Then,

$$\bigcup_{x \in X_U} B = U.$$

Suppose X, Y are topological spaces and equip $X \times Y$ with the product topology. Define

$$\pi_1 : X \times Y \rightarrow X$$

$$\pi_2 : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$$

Define

$$\mathcal{S} = \{\pi_1^{-1}(U) | U \subset X\} \cup \{\pi_2^{-1}(V) | V \subset Y\}$$

The collection \mathcal{S} is called a subbasis. The product topology is obtained by considering all unions of finite intersection of elements in \mathcal{S} .

Definition 6.6. *If X is a set, a subbasis is a collection \mathcal{S} of subsets whose union is X . This generates a topology by considering all unions of finite intersections of things in \mathcal{S} .*

7 The Subspace Topology

Definition 7.1. Let (X, τ) be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$ be any subset. The subspace topology on Y is

$$\tau_Y = \{U \cap Y \mid U \in \tau\}$$

Lemma 7.1. τ_Y is a topology.

Proof.

- $\emptyset \cap Y = \emptyset \in \tau_Y$.
- $X \cap Y = Y \in \tau_Y$.
- (Unions) Let $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A} \subseteq \tau_Y$, then $V_\alpha = U_\alpha \cap Y$ for some $U_\alpha \in \tau$. Then,

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} (U_\alpha \cap Y) = \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha \right) \cap Y \in \tau_Y$$

□

Theorem 7.1. Suppose \mathcal{B} is a basis for X and $Y \subseteq X$. Then,

$$\{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$$

is a basis for the subspace topology on Y .

Example 7.1. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Consider

$$Y = [1, \infty).$$

Then, the basis for this topology is given by

$$\mathcal{B}_Y = \{[1, a) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}, a > 1\} \cup \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, 1 \leq a < b\}$$

Example 7.2. $(3, 7] \notin \tau_Y$ because there does not exist open $U \in \tau$ ($U \in \mathcal{B}$) such that

$$(3, 7] = U \cap [1, \infty).$$

Proof. To yield contradiction, suppose there exists such U . Then,

$$7 \in (a, b) \cap [1, \infty).$$

So $7 \in (a, b)$ and $7 \in [1, \infty)$. In other words, $a < 7 < b$.

Let $\epsilon = (b - 7)/2$. Then, $a < 7 + \epsilon < b$ so $7 + \epsilon \in (a, b)$ and $7 + \epsilon \in [1, \infty)$. Then,

$$7 + \epsilon \in (a, b) \cap [1, \infty) = (3, 7] \implies 3 < 7 + \epsilon \leq 7,$$

yielding contradiction. □

Example 7.3. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $Y = [0, 1]$. A basis for the subspace on Y is

$$\{(a, b) | 0 \leq a < b \leq 1\} \cup \{[a, b) | 0 \leq b \leq 1\} \cup \{(a, 1] | 0 \leq a \leq 1\}$$

Example 7.4. Consider a rectangle

$$R = [0, 1] \times [2, 6].$$

There are two ways of thinking of topology on this rectangle. Since $R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, we can think of it as a subspace topology. We can also think of it as a product topology. So are they same topologies in this case?

Theorem 7.2. *Suppose X and Y are topological spaces and $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$ are subspaces. Then, the product topology on $A \times B$ equals the topology $A \times B$ inherits as a subset of $X \times Y$.*

Proof. In the subspace topology, basis element is given by

$$(A \times B) \cap (U \times V)$$

where $U \subseteq X$ and $V \subseteq Y$. Likewise, basis element of product topology is given by

$$(A \cap U) \times (B \cap V).$$

But then

$$(A \cap U) \times (B \cap V) = (A \times B) \cap (U \times V).$$

□

8 The Order Topology

Let X be a set.

Definition 8.1. An order relation (or simple order or linear order) is relation R on X so

1. (comparability) If $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$. Then either xRy or yRx .
2. (Nonreflexivity) $\nexists x \in X$ such that xRx .
3. (Transitivity) If xRy and yRz then xRz .

Example 8.1. Define $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $R = <$. Then, R is an order relation

Proof.

1. If $x \neq y$, either $x < y$ or $y < x$.
2. $\nexists x \in X$ such that $x < x$.
3. $x < y, y < z \implies x < z$.

□

If X has an order relation, we often denote it $<$. Suppose $(X, <)$ is a set with an order relation for $a, b \in X$.

Definition 8.2. $(a, b) = \{x \in X \mid a < x, x < b\}$.

Definition 8.3. $(a, b] = \{x \in X \mid a < x, x < b, \text{ or } x = b\}$.

Definition 8.4. $[a, b) = \{x \in X \mid a < x, x < b, \text{ or } x = a\}$.

Definition 8.5. $a_0 \in X$ is a minimal element if $\forall x \in X, a_0 \leq x$.

Definition 8.6. $b_0 \in X$ is a maximal element if $\forall x \in X, x \leq b_0$.

Definition 8.7. Suppose $(X, <_x)$ and $(Y, <_y)$ are simply ordered sets. The dictionary order on $X \times Y$ is the order $<_{x \times y}$ defined as follows:

$$(a_1, b_1) <_{X \times Y} (a_2, b_2)$$

if $a_1 <_x a_2$ or $a_1 = a_2$ and $b_1 <_y b_2$.

Example 8.2. Define $X = Y = \mathbb{R}$ and $<_x = <_y = <$, usual inequality. Then,

- $(0, 0) <_{X \times Y} (1, -3)$ is true
- $(0, 0) <_{X \times Y} (0, -3)$ is false.

Definition 8.8. Suppose $(X, <)$ is a simply ordered set. Then, the order topology on X is the one with basis elements: (a, b) for $a, b \in X$, $[a_0, b)$ for $b \in X$ provided a_0 is the minimal element of X , and $(a, b_0]$ for $a \in X$ provided $b_0 \in X$ is the maximal element.

Example 8.3. Consider $X = [0, 1]$ with $<$, the standard inequality. The order topology is the topology inherited as a subset.

Example 8.4. Consider $(\mathbb{R}^2, <_o)$ where $<_o$ is the dictionary order. The order topology is called the dictionary order topology.

Think about what this set looks like:

$$((0, 0), (1, 1))$$

Example 8.5. Let X be a set with the discrete topology (all subsets are open). Show that

$$\mathcal{B}_1 = \{\{x\} | x \in X\}$$

is a basis.

Proof. Let $x \in X$ then $x \in \{x\} \subseteq B$. Let $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}_1$ and $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$. Then,

$$B_1 = \{x\} = B_2$$

so $x \in \{x\} \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$

Let τ_1 be the topology generated by \mathcal{B}_1 . We clearly have $\tau_1 \subseteq \tau_d$, where τ_d is the discrete topology. To show that $\tau_d \subseteq \tau_1$, let $U \in \tau_d$ and let $x \in U$. Then, $x \in \{x\} \subseteq U$ and $\{x\} \in \mathcal{B}_1$. So the results follows by a theorem in section 13. \square

Example 8.6. Show that

$$\mathcal{B}_2 = \{\{x\} \times (a, b) | x, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

forms a basis for $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ with the dictionary order topology.

Proof. Assume that it's a basis. We will show that the associated topology τ_2 is the dictionary order topology τ_{DO} .

Note that if $B \in \mathcal{B}_2$, then $\exists x, a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$B = \{x\} \times (a, b) = ((x, a), (x, b)) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} | (x, a) <_{DO} y <_{DO} (x, b)\}.$$

So this is open in τ_{DO} . So $\tau_2 \subseteq \tau_{DO}$.

Let $((a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2))$ be a basis element in the dictionary order topology. Let $y \in ((a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2))$. Write $y = (x_1, y_1)$. There are three cases:

1. $a_1 < x_1 < a_2$
2. $a_1 = x_1$
3. $a_2 = x_1$

Here, we will prove case 1. Assume $a_1 < x < a_2$. Then,

$$y \in \{x\} \times (y_1 - 1, y_1 + 1)$$

Then, $\{x\} \times (y_1 - 1, y_1 + 1) \in \mathcal{B}_2$ and also

$$\{x\} \times (y_1 - 1, y_1 + 1) \subseteq ((a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2))$$

Assuming these the topology on $\mathbb{R}_d \times \mathbb{R}$ has basis

$$\{\{x\} \times (a, b) | x, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

This is exactly the basis that generates the dictionary order topology. So two topologies are same. \square

Example 8.7. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. The set

$$\mathcal{B}_\ell = \{[a, b) | a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is a basis. The topology it generates is called the lower limit topology on \mathbb{R} . \mathbb{R} with the lower limit topology is denoted \mathbb{R}_ℓ .

Remark. Lower limit topology is strictly finer than standard topology, i.e., every open set in standard topology is open in lower limit topology but not vice-versa

Example 8.8. Is $[0, 1)$ open in the standard topology? No $[0, 1)$ is not open in standard topology. If it were, then there would be some $(a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$0 \in (a, b) \subseteq [0, 1).$$

But then

$$0 \in (a, b) \implies a < 0, b > 0$$

So $a/2 \in (a, b)$. But $a/2 < 0$ so $a \notin [0, 1)$.

Example 8.9. Is $(0, 1)$ open in \mathbb{R}_ℓ ? Yes because

$$(0, 1) = \bigcup_{x \in \{y | y > 0\}} [x, 1).$$

9 Interior and Closure

Recall De Morgan's Laws:

- $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (X \setminus U_\alpha) = X \setminus \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$
- $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} (X \setminus U_\alpha) = X \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$

Definition 9.1. If (X, τ) is a topological space then a subset $A \subseteq X$ is called closed if $X \setminus A$ is open, i.e., if $X \setminus A \in \tau$

If \mathcal{C} is a collection of all closed sets in X ,

1. $X \in \mathcal{C}$
2. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{C}$
3. \mathcal{C} is closed under arbitrary intersection.
4. \mathcal{C} is closed under finite union.

Example 9.1. In \mathbb{R} , consider $U_n = [1/n, 1 - 1/n]$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. U_n is a closed interval for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. However,

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} U_n = (0, 1)$$

is open and not a closed set.

Definition 9.2 (Interior). Suppose (X, τ) is a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Define $\text{Int}(A)$ to be the union of all open sets contained in A .

$$\text{Int}A = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$$

where $\{U_\alpha, \alpha \in J\}$ consists of all $U_\alpha \in J$ such that $U_\alpha \subseteq A$.

Observe that $\text{Int}A$ is an open set. Notice also that $\text{Int}(A) \subseteq A$. So $\text{Int}A$ is the maximal open set contained in A . In other words, any open set V contained in A is a subset of $\text{Int}A$.

Remark. If A is open, $\text{Int}A = A$.

Definition 9.3. The closure of A , denoted \bar{A} , is defined as the intersection of all closed sets that contain A :

$$\bar{A} = \bigcap_{\beta \in K} C_\beta,$$

where $\{C_\beta : \beta \in K\}$ consists of all closed sets that contain A .

Observe that \bar{A} is a closed set because it is an intersection of closed sets. Notice that $A \subseteq \bar{A}$. Then, \bar{A} is the smallest closed set that contains A , i.e. any closed set that contains A must contain \bar{A} .

Remark. If A is closed, then $A = \bar{A}$.

Example 9.2. If $U_\alpha, \alpha \in J$ is a collection of sets with $B \subseteq U_\alpha$ for all α , then $B \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$. Further, if $B = U_{\alpha'}$ for some $\alpha' \in J$, then

$$B = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \subset U_{\alpha'}$$

for all α' .

Proposition 9.1.

- $\text{Int}(X - A) = X - \bar{A}$
- $\overline{(X - A)} = X - \text{Int}(A)$.

Example 9.3. Define

$$\begin{aligned} X &= \{a, b, c\} \\ \tau &= \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\} \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\mathcal{C} = \{X, \{b, c\}, \{c\}, \emptyset\}$$

Consider $A = \{a\}$. Then, $\text{Int}A = \{a\}$ and $\bar{A} = X$.

Consider $B = \{b\}$. Then, $\text{Int}B = \emptyset$ and $\bar{B} = \{b, c\}$.

Consider $C = \{c\}$. Then, $\text{Int}C = X$ and $\bar{C} = \{c\}$.

Let

$$X = \mathbb{C} = \{x + iy | x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Example 9.4. Consider

$$A = \{re^{i\theta} | 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi, 0 \leq r \leq 1 \text{ or } r=1, \theta \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

Then,

$$\text{Int}A = \{re^{i\theta} | 0 < r < 1\}$$

$$\bar{A} = \{re^{i\theta} | 0 \leq r \leq 1\}$$

Notice that if $z \in \bar{A}$ and U is an arbitrary open set in \mathbb{C} containing z then $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem 9.1. If $A \subseteq X$ is any subset then $X \in \bar{A}$ if and only if every open set U containing X intersects A nontrivially.

Proof. Recall \bar{A} is a closed set, so $X - \bar{A}$ is open. We will show conversely that $x \notin \bar{A}$ if and only if there exists an open set U containing x such that $U \cap A = \emptyset$. But since $X - \bar{A}$ is open, if $x \notin \bar{A}$, then $x \in X - \bar{A}$. Openness of $X - \bar{A}$ now implies that there exists small open set U about x with $U \subseteq X - \bar{A}$. As such, $U \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$, since $A \subseteq \bar{A}$, it follows that $U \cap A = \emptyset$. \square

Definition 9.4. If $A \subseteq X$ is a subset,

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in X \mid U \cap A \neq \emptyset \text{ for every open set } U \text{ about } x\}.$$

Definition 9.5 (Limit point). A point x is a limit point of the set A if every open set U about x satisfies $(U - \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$, i.e., we require U intersects A in some point other than x . We write

$$A' = \{x \mid x \text{ is a limit point of } A\}.$$

Theorem 9.2. $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$.

Proof.

$$(U - \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset \implies U \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

which implies $x \in \bar{A}$. But we already know that $A \subseteq \bar{A}$. Then,

$$A \cup A' \subseteq \bar{A}.$$

Suppose $x \in \bar{A}$. Either $x \in A$, in which case $x \in A \cup A'$ or $x \notin A$. In this case, since $x \in \bar{A}$, every open set U about x satisfies $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$. But $x \notin A$ so $x \in A'$. So

$$(U - \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset.$$

So $x \in A'$. □

Let X be a topological space with $Y \subseteq X$ a subset. Regard Y as a topological space using the subspace topology, i.e., $V \subseteq Y$ is open in the subspace topology if and only if there exists an open set $U \subseteq X$ with $V = U \cap Y$.

Theorem 9.3. In the subspace topology on Y , a subset $B \subseteq Y$ is closed if and only if $B = A \cap Y$ for some closed set $A \subseteq X$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} B \subseteq Y \text{ is closed} &\iff V = Y - B \text{ is open} \\ &\iff \exists U \text{ open in } X \text{ such that } V = U \cap Y \\ &\iff A = X - U \text{ is closed} \end{aligned}$$

□

10 Sequences

Definition 10.1 (Convergnece). *If $\{X_n\}$ is a sequence of points in a topological space X , we say $\{X_n\}$ converges to $x \in X$ if for every neighborhood U about x , there exists integer N such that $n \geq N \implies X_n \in U$.*

Remark. In a general topological space, a sequence may converge to more than one point.

Example 10.1. Consider the trivial topology:

$$\tau_{\text{triv}} = \{\emptyset, X\}.$$

Every sequence converges and it converges to every point in X .

Example 10.2. Given $X = \{a, b, c\}$, consider the following topology:

$$\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}.$$

Then, the sequence $X_n = b$ for all n converges to b as well as c but not to a .

Example 10.3. If X has the discrete topology, then show that a sequence $\{X_n\}$ is convergent if and only if $\{X_n\}$ is eventually constant, i.e., $\exists x \in X$ and $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that

$$n \geq N \implies X_n = x.$$

Definition 10.2. *A topological space A is called Hausdorff if for any two distinct points $x, y \in X$ there exists disjoint open sets U, V with $x \in U$ and $y \in V$.*

Example 10.4. If $\{X_n\}$ is a sequence of points in Hausdorff space, then if it converges, the point it converges to is unique.

Theorem 10.1. *If (X, τ) is Hausdorff, then every finite subset of X is a closed set.*

Remark. If X is Hausdorff, then every singleton $\{x\}$ is closed.

Example 10.5. Consider

$$\mathcal{C} = \left\{ \left[\frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right] \mid n \geq 3 \right\}$$

Then,

$$\bigcup_{n=3}^{\infty} C_n = (0, 1)$$

is not closed in \mathbb{R} .

Example 10.6. An infinite collection of open sets whose intersection is not necessarily open. Consider

$$U_n = \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n} \right).$$

Then,

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n = \{0\}$$

is closed in standard topology.

Definition 10.3. A topological space X in which all finite sets are closed is called a T_1 space.

Theorem 10.2. If (X, τ) is Hausdorff, then X is a T_1 space. Note that converse is not necessarily true.

Example 10.7. If X is infinite and τ is finite complement topology is a T_1 space but not Hausdorff.

Example 10.8. Notice if X is finite, then every subset $U \subseteq X$ has a finite complement. So in this case, the finite complement topology is the same as the discrete topology. So it is a T_1 space and Hausdorff.

Theorem 10.3. If X is Hausdorff and $\{x_n\}$ is a convergent sequence converging to $x \in X$, then the point x is unique. In this case, we say x is the limit of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ and write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x.$$

Theorem 10.4. If $(X, <)$ is a simply ordered set, then it is Hausdorff in the order topology.

Theorem 10.5. If X, Y are two topological spaces and both are Hausdorff then so is the product $X \times Y$.

Theorem 10.6. If X is Hausdorff and $Y \subseteq X$ is a subset, then Y is Hausdorff in subspace topology.

11 Continuous Functions

What does it mean to say that a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous?

- $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = f(x_0)$.
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x_0 \implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x_0)$.
- $\forall x_0 (\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta \text{ such that } |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon)$.

Definition 11.1. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a function between two topological spaces X, Y , then f is continuous if $f^{-1}(V)$ is open for every open set $V \subseteq Y$.

Example 11.1. Consider $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_\ell$, where \mathbb{R}_ℓ is the lower limit topology and $f(x) = x$. This map is not continuous. Take $V = [a, b)$. This is open in \mathbb{R}_ℓ but $f^{-1}(V) = V$ is not open in the standard topology.

Example 11.2. $g : \mathbb{R}_\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $g(x) = x$ is continuous.

Example 11.3. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is the constant map $f(x) = y_0 \forall x \in X$, then f is continuous for any topology on X, Y .

Theorem 11.1. Let X, Y be two topological spaces and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a function. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ then the following are equivalent:

1. f is continuous
2. for all subsets $A \subseteq X$, $f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$
3. for all closed sets $B \subseteq Y$, $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X
4. for each $x \in X$ if V is open about $f(x)$, then \exists open set U about x such that $f(U) \subseteq V$.

Example 11.4. Consider $f : X \rightarrow Y$ any function. If X has discrete topology, f is automatically continuous.

Proof. Let $U \subseteq Y$ be open. Then, $f^{-1}(U)$ is a subset of X . By the definition of the discrete topology, $f^{-1}(U)$ is therefore open in X . Thus, it is true for all open $U \subseteq Y$, so f is continuous. \square

Example 11.5. Consider $Y = [0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ with standard topology on \mathbb{R} . Find the closure \bar{Y} .

We can define closure in three different ways:

1. Intersection of all closed sets containing Y
2. $\bar{Y} = Y \cup \{\text{limit points}\}$
3. \bar{Y} is the smallest closed set containing Y .

Note that $[0, 1) \subseteq [0, 1]$ and $[0, 1]$ is closed in standard topology ($[0, 1] = \mathbb{R} - ((-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty))$). This implies that $\bar{Y} \subseteq [0, 1]$.

We also have $[0, 1) \subseteq \bar{Y}$. If $\bar{Y} \neq [0, 1]$, then $1 \notin \bar{Y}$ and $\bar{Y} = [0, 1)$. However, $[0, 1)$ is not closed in standard topology and this is a contradiction. Therefore, $\bar{Y} = [0, 1]$.

Example 11.6. Define $X = [0, \infty)$. Consider $X \times X$ with dictionary order topology. Show that $X \times X$ is Hausdorff.

Proof. Let $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in X \times X$ with $(x_1, y_1) \neq (x_2, y_2)$. We may assume $(x_1, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)$. There are 7 cases that we have to consider:

1. $0 < x_1 < x_2$ and $y_1, y_2 > 0$
2. $0 = x_1 < x_2$ and $y_1, y_2 > 0$
3. $0 = x_1 = x_2$ and $0 < y_1 < y_2$
4. $0 = x_1 = x_2$ and $0 = y_1 < y_2$
5. $0 < x_1 < x_2$ and $y_1 = 0$ or $y_2 = 0$
6. $x_1 = x_2 > 0$ and $y_2 > y_1 > 0$
7. $x_1 = x_2 > 0$ and $y_1 = 0$ or $y_2 \neq 0$

For case 1, consider

$$U_1 = \left(\left(x_1, y_1 - \frac{y_1}{2} \right), \left(x_1, y_1 + \frac{y_1}{2} \right) \right)$$

$$U_2 = \left(\left(x_2, y_2 - \frac{y_2}{2} \right), \left(x_2, y_2 + \frac{y_2}{2} \right) \right)$$

Then, there intersection is empty and $(x_1, y_1) \in U_1$ and $(x_2, y_2) \in U_2$. □

Definition 11.2. Let X and Y be topological spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homeomorphism if

1. f is continuous
2. f is bijective (so f^{-1} exists)
3. $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous

Example 11.7. Suppose X is a topological space. Then, identity function

$$\text{Id} : X \rightarrow X$$

with $\text{Id}(x) = x$ is a homeomorphism.

Example 11.8. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is homeomorphism, then $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is a homeomorphism.

Example 11.9. Consider $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x) = x^3$. Then, this is a homeomorphism. Furthermore,

$$f^{-1}(y) = y^{1/3}.$$

12 The Product Topology

Definition 12.1. Let $\{X_\alpha\}$ be a collection of sets indexed by $\alpha \in J$. Then,

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = \left\{ f : J \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha, f(\beta) \in X_\beta \forall \beta \in J \right\}.$$

Example 12.1. Consider $J = \{1, 2\}$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha &= \{f : \{1, 2\} \rightarrow X_1 \cup X_2 \mid f(1) \in X_1, f(2) \in X_2\} \\ &= \{(f_1, f_2) \mid f_1 \in X_1, f_2 \in X_2\} \\ &= X_1 \times X_2 \end{aligned}$$

More generally, if $J = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, then

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots \times X_n$$

If $J = \mathbb{Z}_+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, then we can write

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3 \times \dots$$

If $J = \mathbb{Z}_+$ and $X_\alpha = X \forall \alpha \in J$, then

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = X \times X \times \dots = X^\omega.$$

Example 12.2. Consider $J = \mathbb{R}$ and let $X_\alpha = \mathbb{R} \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha &= \prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R} \\ &= \left\{ f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) \in \mathbb{R} \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \\ &= \{f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is a function}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Definition 12.2 (Box topology). Let $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be a collection of topological spaces. The box topology on $\prod X_\alpha$ is the one with basis

$$\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \mid U_\alpha \subseteq X_\alpha \text{ open} \right\}$$

Lemma 12.1. If \mathcal{B}_α is a basis for X_α , then

$$\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha \mid B_\alpha \in \mathcal{B}_\alpha \right\}$$

is a basis for the box topology.

Definition 12.3. For $\beta \in J$, define

$$\pi_\beta : \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$$

Example 12.3. Consider $J = \{1, 2\}$. Then,

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = X_1 \times X_2.$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1 : X_1 \times X_2 &\rightarrow X_1 \\ \pi_2 : X_1 \times X_2 &\rightarrow X_2\end{aligned}$$

Definition 12.4 (Product topology). *The product topology on $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ is the one with subbasis given by*

$$\left\{ \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) \mid U_\beta \subseteq X_\beta \text{ open}, \beta \in J \right\}$$

If $\prod X_\alpha$ is equipped with the product topology, we call $\prod X_\alpha$ the product space.

Lemma 12.2. *If \mathcal{B}_α is a basis for X_α , then*

$$\left\{ \pi_\beta^{-1}(B_\beta) \mid B_\beta \in \mathcal{B}_\beta, \beta \in J \right\}$$

is a subbasis for the product topology.

Remark. If J is finite, then the box topology on $\prod X_\alpha$ equals the product topology.

Example 12.4. Consider $J = \mathbb{Z}_+$ with $X_\alpha = \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = \mathbb{R}^\omega.$$

For example, a box topology can be

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha = B_1 \times B_2 \times B_3 \times \cdots.$$

Then,

$$(-1, 1) \times (-2, 2) \times \cdots \times (-n, n) \times \cdots$$

is a basis element in box topology.

On the other hand,

$$(-1, 1) \times (-2, 2) \times \cdots \times (-n, n) \times \cdots$$

is not open in product topology.

$$(-1, 1) \times (-2, 2) \times \cdots \times (-n, n) \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R} \cdots$$

is open in product topology.

Lemma 12.3. *The collection*

$$\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{\alpha} \mid U_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\alpha} \text{ is open, } U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha} \text{ for all but a finite number of } \alpha \in J \right\}$$

forms a subbasis for the product topology on $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$.

Example 12.5.

$$(-1, 1) \times (-1, 1) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots$$

is open in the product topology on \mathbb{R}^{ω} but

$$(-1, 1) \times (-1, 1) \times \cdots \times (-1, 1) \times \cdots$$

is not open in product topology.

If we define $\pi_1 : \mathbb{R}^{\omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $\pi_1(x_1, x_2, \dots) \rightarrow x_1$. Then,

$$\pi_1^{-1}((-1, 1)) = (-1, 1) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots$$

is open in product topology. Likewise, we have

$$\pi_2^{-1}((-1, 1)) = \mathbb{R} \times (-1, 1) \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots$$

open in product topology. Then,

$$\pi_1^{-1}((-1, 1)) \times \pi_2^{-1}((-1, 1)) = (-1, 1) \times (-1, 1) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots.$$

is open in product topology. Note that we can only take finite intersections.

Example 12.6. Consider $\mathbb{R}^{\omega} = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots$ with the product topology. Show

$$(-1, 1) \times \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \times \cdots \times \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \times \cdots$$

is not open.

Solution. Recall that U is open if and only if $\forall x \in U$ there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ a basis element such that

$$x \in B \subseteq U.$$

Observe that

$$(0, 0, \dots, 0) \in U = (-1, 1) \times \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \times \cdots \times \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \times \cdots.$$

Assume B is a basis element containing x . Then, we can write

$$B = V_1 \times V_2 \times \cdots \times V_m \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots$$

where $V_l \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ open and $1 \leq l \leq m$. If $B \subseteq U$, then the following condition must be satisfied:

$$\mathbb{R} \subseteq \left(-\frac{1}{m+1}, \frac{1}{m+1}\right).$$

This is false. So $B \not\subseteq U$. Therefore, U is not open. \square

Example 12.7. Is the following function continuous? $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ where

$$f(t) = (\cos(t), t^2 + e^t)$$

Theorem 12.1. Let $\{X_\alpha\}$ be topological space and give $\prod X_\alpha$ the product topology. Let

$$f : A \rightarrow \prod X_\alpha$$

be any function. Then, f is continuous if and only if $\pi_\alpha \circ f : A \rightarrow X_\alpha$ is continuous $\forall \alpha \in J$.

Example 12.8. Let $J = \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then,

$$\prod X_\alpha = X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots$$

Consider $f : A \rightarrow X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots$ with

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) &= (f_1(a), f_2(a), \dots) \\ f_1 &= \pi_1 \circ f \\ f_2 &= \pi_2 \circ f \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Note that $f_\alpha = \pi_\alpha \circ f$ is the α -th component of f .

Example 12.9. Recall that the product topology has subbasis

$$\mathcal{S} = \left\{ \prod_{\alpha}^{-1} (U) \mid U \subseteq X_\alpha \text{ open}, \alpha \in J \right\}$$

So $\pi_\beta : \prod X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ is continuous $\forall \beta \in J$.

Now, we will prove the theorem.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) If f is continuous, then $\pi_\alpha \circ f$ is continuous because composition of continuous functions is continuous.

(\Leftarrow) Assume $\pi_\alpha \circ f$ is continuous $\forall \alpha \in J$. Let $\pi_\alpha^{-1}(U) \subseteq \prod X_\alpha$ be a subbasis element. Then,

$$f^{-1}(\pi_\alpha^{-1}(U)) = (\pi_\alpha \circ f)^{-1}(U).$$

Then, this is open because the composition map $(\pi_\alpha \circ f)$ is assumed to be continuous and $U \subseteq X_\alpha$ is open. \square

Recall that a basis for product topology is

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$$

where $U_\alpha \subseteq X$ where $U_\alpha = X_\alpha$ for all but a finite number of $\alpha \in J$. Note

$$\pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$$

where $U_\alpha = U_\beta$ if $\alpha = \beta$ and $U_\alpha = X_\alpha$ if $\alpha \neq \beta$.

Example 12.10. Consider $\prod X_\alpha = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$\pi_1^{-1}((-1, 1)) = (-1, 1) \times \mathbb{R}.$$

On the other hand, the basis from \mathcal{S} is

$$\pi_{\alpha_1}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_1}) \cap \cdots \cap \pi_{\alpha_n}^{-1}(U_{\alpha_n}) = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$$

where $U_\alpha = U_{\alpha_j}$ if $\alpha = \alpha_j$ and $U_\alpha = X_\alpha$ otherwise. Hence,

$$x \in \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta)$$

if and only if

$$\pi_\beta(x) \in U_\beta$$

if and only if the β -composition of x is in U_β (no restriction on the other components).

Example 12.11. Consider $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\omega$ where

$$f(t) = (t, t, t, \dots).$$

By the previous theorem, this is continuous in the product topology on \mathbb{R}^ω . However, this is not continuous with the box topology on \mathbb{R}^ω .

Proof. Consider

$$U = (-1, 1) \times \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \times \cdots \times \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \times \cdots$$

We will show that $f^{-1}(U)$ is not open in \mathbb{R} .

We claim that $f^{-1}(U) = \{0\}$. If $t \in f^{-1}(U)$, then $f(t) \in U$. Note that

$$(t, t, t, \dots) \in U$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} t &\in (-1, 1) \\ t &\in \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \\ &\vdots \\ t &\in \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

So $|t| < 1/n \forall n$. This implies that $t = 0$. Conversely, $f(0) \in U$. □

13 Metric Topology

Definition 13.1. Let X be a set. A metric on X is a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

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

Definition 13.2. (X, d) is a metric space.

We can think $d(x, y)$ as the "distance" between x and y .

Definition 13.3. Let $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$. We can define

$$B_d(x, \epsilon) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < \epsilon\},$$

the ball of radius epsilon centered at x , relative to the metric d .

Example 13.1. Define $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows:

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

We want to verify three axioms.

1. $1 \geq 0$ and $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$
2. $x = y \iff y = x$ and $x \neq y \iff y \neq x$
3. Note that $d(x, z), d(x, y), d(y, z)$ are all either equal to 0 or 1. The triangle inequality can only fail if

$$d(x, z) = 1 \text{ and } d(x, y) + d(y, z) = 0$$

Note that

$$d(x, y) + d(y, z) = 0 \implies d(x, y) = 0, d(y, z) = 0 \implies x = y, y = z$$

This implies that $x = z$ by transitivity and $d(x, z) = 0$. This yields contradiction because we assumed $d(x, z) = 1$. So the triangle inequality does not fail.

Example 13.2. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and define d as above. Sketch the ball with radius 1 centered at 0. Sketch $B_d(0, 2)$.

Note that

$$B_d(0, 1) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid d(0, y) < 1\} = \{0\}$$

and

$$B_d(0, 2) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} \mid d(0, y) < 2\} = \mathbb{R}.$$

Example 13.3. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and define $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where

$$d(x, y) = |x - y|.$$

We want to check that d is a metric.

1. $d(x, y) = |x - y| \geq 0$. Furthermore,

$$d(x, y) = 0 \iff x - y = 0 \iff x = y.$$

- 2.

$$d(x, y) = |x - y| = |-y + x| = |-(y - x)| = |y - x| = d(y, x)$$

- 3.

$$d(x, z) = |x - z| = |x - y + y - z| \leq |x - y| + |y - z| = d(x, y) + d(y, z)$$

Example 13.4. Define d as in previous example. Then,

$$B_l(3, \epsilon) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} | d(3, y) < \epsilon\} = \{y \in \mathbb{R} | |3 - y| < \epsilon\}$$

Note that $|3 - y| < \epsilon$ is equivalent to $3 - y < \epsilon$ and $-(3 - y) < \epsilon$. Rearranging, we have

$$B_l(3, \epsilon) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} | -\epsilon + 3 < y < \epsilon + 3\} = (3 - \epsilon, 3 + \epsilon)$$

Lemma 13.1. Let (X, d) be a metric space. The collection

$$B = \{B_l(X, \epsilon) | x \in X, \epsilon \in (0, \infty)\}$$

forms a basis. The induced topology is called the metric topology if (X, τ) is a topological space and τ is induced from a metric as above (\exists a metric d so τ is in the metric associated to d then we call (X, τ) metrizable)

Example 13.5. Consider X with

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

The metric topology is the discrete topology. $B_d(x, 1) = \{x\}$ are contained in the basis.

Example 13.6. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}$ with $d(x, y) = |x - y|$. Then, the metric topology is the standard topology and the basis is $B_d(x, \epsilon) = (x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon)$.

Example 13.7. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ where $n \geq 1$. Then, for $x, y \in X$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} x &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ y &= (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

Lemma 13.2. *This is a metric called the Euclidean metric. For $n = 2$, $B_d(x, \epsilon)$ is a circle centered at x with radius ϵ .*

Example 13.8. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ and define

$$\rho(x, y) = (|x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n|)$$

When $n = 2$ $B_\rho(X, \epsilon)$ forms a square whose sidelength is 2ϵ . For example,

$$B_\rho(0, \epsilon) = \{y \mid \max(|y_1|, |y_2|) < \epsilon\}$$

Example 13.9. Show every metric space is Hausdorff.

Proof. Let $x_1, x_2 \in X$ with $x_1 \neq x_2$. Set $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}d(x_1, x_2)$. Since $x_1 \neq x_2$, so $\epsilon > 0$. Hence,

$$x_1 \in B_d(x_1, \epsilon) \text{ and } x_2 \in B_d(x_2, \epsilon)$$

Also,

$$B_d(x_1, \epsilon) \cap B_d(x_2, \epsilon) = \emptyset$$

because if $z \in B_d(x_1, \epsilon) \cap B_d(x_2, \epsilon)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_1, x_2) &\leq d(x_1, z) + d(z, x_2) \\ &< \epsilon + \epsilon \\ &= d(x_1, x_2) \end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction. □

14 Comparing metrics

Consider $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x, y \in X$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} x &= (x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ y &= (y_1, \dots, y_n) \end{aligned}$$

Recall that Euclidean metric is defined as

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

and the square metric is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(x, y) &= \max\{|x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n|\} \\ &= \max_i \{|x_i - y_i|\} \end{aligned}$$

Consider $B_d(0, \epsilon)$. By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} B_d(0, \epsilon) &= \{y \mid d(0, y) < \epsilon\} \\ &= \{(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mid \sqrt{y_1^2 + \dots + y_n^2} < \epsilon\} \\ &= \{(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mid y_1^2 + \dots + y_n^2 < \epsilon^2\} \end{aligned}$$

is the interior of a radius- ϵ sphere. On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} B_\rho(0, \epsilon) &= \{(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mid \max_i \{|x_i - y_i|\}\} \\ &= (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \times (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \times \dots \times (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, when $n = 2$, $B_d(0, \epsilon)$ is a circle of radius ϵ and $B_\rho(0, \epsilon)$ is a square whose side lengths are 2ϵ . We know how to compare two topologies generated by these metrics but how can we compare the metrics?

Lemma 14.1. *Suppose d and d' are metrics on X and τ and τ' are their respective topologies. The following are equivalent:*

1. $\tau \subseteq \tau'$
2. $\forall x \in X, \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ such that $B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon)$.

Proof. Assume $\tau \subseteq \tau'$. Let $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$. By Lemma 13.3, there exists a basis element B' for τ' so

$$x \in B' \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon).$$

We have $B' = B_{d'}(y, r)$ for some $y \in X$ and $r > 0$. Let $\delta = r - d'(x, y)$. Since $x \in B_{d'}(y, r)$, we have $\delta > 0$.

We claim that $B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_{d'}(y, r)$. Let $z \in B_{d'}(x, \delta)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} d'(z, y) &\leq d'(x, y) + d'(x, z) \\ &< \delta + d'(x, y) \\ &= r \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $z \in B_{d'}(y, r)$. Hence,

$$B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B' \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon)$$

So this proves the second statement.

Now, assume that the second statement is true. Let $B_d(x, \epsilon)$ be a τ -basis element. Let $y \in B_d(x, \epsilon)$ then the assumed statement implies that we can find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$y \in B_{d'}(y, \delta) \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon)$$

Then, $\tau \subseteq \tau'$ follows by Lemma 13.3. \square

Theorem 14.1. *The topologies on \mathbb{R}^n coming from the Euclidean metric and the square metric are equivalent. These both equal the product topology.*

Proof. Let τ_ρ be the topology coming from the square metric ρ and τ_d that coming from the euclidean metric d . Note

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(x, y) &= \max_i \{|x_i - y_i|\} \\ &= |x_{i_*} - y_{y_*}| \text{ for some } i_* \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \\ &= \sqrt{(x_{i_*} - y_{i_*})^2} \\ &\leq \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2} \\ &= d(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} B_d(x, \epsilon) &= \{y | d(x, y) < \epsilon\} \\ &\subseteq \{y | \rho(x, y) < \epsilon\} \\ &= B_\rho(x, \epsilon). \end{aligned}$$

By the previous lemma, $\tau_\rho \subseteq \tau_d$.

For the reverse inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \cdots + (x_n - y_n)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(x_{i_*} - y_{i_*})^2 + \cdots + (x_{i_*} - y_{i_*})^2} \\ &= \sqrt{n(x_{i_*} - y_{i_*})^2} \\ &= \sqrt{n} \rho(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $B_\rho(x, \epsilon/\sqrt{n}) \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon)$. Therefore, $\tau_d \subseteq \tau_\rho$.

Finally, we want to prove that ρ -topology equals the product topology. Let $(a_1, b_1) \times \cdots \times (a_n, b_n)$ be a product topology basis element and

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in (a_1, b_1) \times \cdots \times (a_n, b_n).$$

Set

$$\epsilon = \min_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}} \{|x_i - a_i|, |x_i - b_i|\}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1, \dots, x_n) &\in (x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \cdots \times (x_n - \epsilon, x_n + \epsilon) \\ &\subseteq (a_1, b_1) \times \cdots \times (a_n, b_n), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$(x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \cdots \times (x_n - \epsilon, x_n + \epsilon) = B_\rho((x_1, \dots, x_n), \epsilon)$$

Conversely, let

$$B_\rho((x_1, \dots, x_n), \epsilon) = (x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \cdots \times (x_n - \epsilon, x_n + \epsilon)$$

and $y \in B_\rho(x, \epsilon)$. Then,

$$y \in B_\rho(x, \epsilon) \subseteq B_\rho(x, \epsilon)$$

□

Example 14.1. For $1 \leq p < \infty$, then

$$d_p((x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)) = ((x_1 - y_1)^p + \cdots + (x_n - y_n)^p)^{1/p}$$

on \mathbb{R}^n . This is a metric on \mathbb{R}^n .

We want to draw $B_{d_p}(0, 1)$ for different values of p . When $p = 1$, we have a rhombus. When $p = 2$, we have a circle. When $p > 2$, we get a "fat" circle. Note that

$$B_{d_p}(0, 1) = \{(x, y) | x^p + y^p = 1\} \implies y = \pm(1 - x^p)^{1/p}$$

As $p \rightarrow \infty$, we get a square. Hence,

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} d_p(x, y) = \rho(x, y)$$

Example 14.2. Consider

$$X = C^0([0, 1]) = \{f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}.$$

For $1 \leq p < \infty$, define

$$d_p(f, g) = \left(\int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|^p dx \right)^{1/p}.$$

This is a metric on X . When $p = 2$, d_2 is very important in physics.

Theorem 14.2. Suppose (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) are metric spaces (with the metric topology). Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. Then, f is continuous if and only if

$$\forall x \in X \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } d_X(x, y) < \delta \implies d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$$

Proof. Assume f is continuous. Let $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Since f is continuous and $B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon)$ is open, it follows that $f^{-1}(B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon))$ is open in X . Note that

$$x \in f^{-1}(B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon)) \implies \exists \delta > 0$$

such that

$$x \in B_{d_X}(x, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon)).$$

Assume $y \in X$ satisfies $d_X(x, y) < \delta$. Then, $y \in B_{d_X}(x, \delta)$, so

$$y \in f^{-1}(B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon)).$$

Hence, $f(y) \in B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon)$. So

$$d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon.$$

Conversely, assume the $\delta - \epsilon$ condition. Let $U \subseteq Y$ be open. If $U = \emptyset$ then $f^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ is open. More generally, if $f^{-1}(U) = \emptyset$, then we're done. We may assume $\exists x \in f^{-1}(U)$. Note $f(x) \in U$ since U is open. Then, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$f(x) \in B_{d_Y}(f(x), \epsilon) \subseteq U.$$

The $\delta - \epsilon$ condition implies that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$d_X(x, y) < \delta \implies d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon.$$

So $B_{d_X}(x, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$. That is, for every $x \in f^{-1}(U)$, there exists $\delta > 0$ so that

$$x \in B_{d_X}(x, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(U).$$

So $f^{-1}(U)$ is open. □

Example 14.3. Show the function $m : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined as

$$m(a, b) = a + b$$

is continuous.

Proof. Let $d_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}$ be a square metric. Consider $(a, b), (a_2, b_2) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$d_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}((a, b), (a_2, b_2)) < \delta \implies |a - a_2| + |b - b_2| < \delta.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} d_{\mathbb{R}}(m(a, b), m(a_2, b_2)) &= |m(a, b) - m(a_2, b_2)| \\ &= |a + b - a_2 - b_2| \\ &= |a - a_2 + b - b_2| \\ &\leq |a - a_2| + |b - b_2| < \delta < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

□

Similarly, we can show that subtraction, multiplication, and divisions (as long as we don't divide by 0) are continuous functions $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Corollary 14.1. Suppose $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous where X is a topological space. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f + g : X \times X &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y) &\mapsto f(x) + g(y) \\ f - g : X \times X &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y) &\mapsto f(x) - g(y) \\ f \cdot g : X \times X &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y) &\mapsto f(x)g(y) \end{aligned}$$

are continuous with the product topology on $X \times X$.

Proof. Note that $f + g$ is the composition of

$$\begin{aligned} X \times X &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y) &\mapsto (f(x), g(y)) \\ \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (s, t) &\mapsto s + t \end{aligned}$$

These are continuous so the composition is continuous. □

Definition 14.1. Let X be a set and (Y, d) a metric space. Suppose

$$f_n : X \rightarrow Y$$

is a sequence of functions. Then, $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$ converge uniformly to $f : X \rightarrow Y$ if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \forall n \geq N \forall x \in X d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$$

Theorem 14.3. *Suppose X is a topological space and (Y, d) is a metric space. Suppose (f_n) is a sequence of functions converging uniformly to $f : X \rightarrow Y$. If each f_n is continuous then f is continuous.*

Proof. Let $V \subseteq Y$ be open. We want to show that $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq X$ is open. It is sufficient to show that

$$\forall x_0 \in f^{-1}(V) \exists U \text{ open in } X \text{ such that } x_0 \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$$

Consider $V = B_d(f(x_0), \epsilon) \subseteq Y$. Then, take

$$U = f_n^{-1}(B_d(f_n(x_0), \epsilon/3)) \subseteq X$$

is open. We want to show that

1. $x_0 \in f_n^{-1}(B_d(f_n(x_0), \epsilon/3))$
2. $f_n^{-1}(B_d(f_n(x_0), \epsilon/3)) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_d(f(x_0), \epsilon))$

The first part is true if and only if $f_n(x_0) \in B_d(f_n(x_0), \epsilon/3)$. This is clearly true because $d(f_n(x_0), f_n(x_0)) = 0 < \epsilon/3$.

Now, we want to prove the second statement. Let $x \in f_n^{-1}(B_d(f_n(x_0), \epsilon/3))$.

$$\begin{aligned} x \in f^{-1}(B_d(f(x_0), \epsilon)) &\iff f(x) \in B_d(f(x_0), \epsilon) \\ &\iff d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, it suffices to show that this is true.

Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(x), f(x_0)) &\leq d(f(x), f_n(x)) + d(f_n(x), f(x_0)) \\ &\leq d(f(x), f_n(x)) + d(f_n(x_0), f(x_0)) + d(f_n(x), f_n(x_0)) \end{aligned}$$

Since $f_n(x) \in B_d(f_n(x_0), \epsilon/3)$, it follows that $d(f_n(x), f_n(x_0)) < \epsilon/3$. Since f_n converges to f uniformly, there exists N such that

$$d(f_n(y), f(y)) < \epsilon/3$$

for all $y \in X$ and for all $n \geq N$. For such n , we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(f_n(x_0), f(x_0)) &< \epsilon/3 \\ d(f_n(x), f(x)) &< \epsilon/3 \end{aligned}$$

Then, it follows that

$$d(f(x), f(x_0)) < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon.$$

□

15 Connectedness

Definition 15.1. Suppose X is a topological space. A separation of X is a pair $U, V \subseteq X$ such that

- $U \neq \emptyset$ is open
- $V \neq \emptyset$ is open
- $U \cap V = \emptyset$
- $U \cup V = X$

Definition 15.2. X is connected if it does not have a separation.

Lemma 15.1. X is connected if and only if the following holds: If $U \subseteq X$ is open and closed, then $U = \emptyset$ or $U = X$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Assume X is connected and $U \subseteq X$ is open and closed. Then, $V = U^c = X - U$ is also open and closed. So U, V are both open and $X = U \cup V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$. But X is connected so either $U = \emptyset$ or $V = \emptyset$.

(\Leftarrow) Assume that X satisfies the condition of the lemma. Suppose U and V are open, non-empty sets such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$ and $U \cup V = X$. Then, $V = U^c$ so U is open and closed. So $U = \emptyset$ (contradiction) or $U = X$ implying that $V = \emptyset$ (again, contradiction). \square

Example 15.1. Consider $X = \{1, 2\}$ with discrete topology. This is not connected:

$$U = \{1\}, V = \{2\}$$

satisfies the conditions.

Example 15.2. Consider $X = \{1, 2\}$ with trivial topology. Then, X is connected. Assume $U \subseteq X$ is both open and closed. Since we are in a trivial topology, $U = \emptyset$ or $U = X$.

Example 15.3. \mathbb{R} under standard topology and $(a, b), [a, b], (a, b], [a, b)$ under subspace topology are connected.

Example 15.4. \mathbb{Q} with subspace topology is not connected. In particular, $U = (-\infty, \pi) \cap \mathbb{Q}$, $V = (\pi, \infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ is a separation.

Theorem 15.1. Suppose X is countable and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous. Then, $\text{Im}(f) = \{f(x) | x \in X\}$ is connected in the subspace topology coming from Y .

Proof. Set $z = \text{Im}(f) \subseteq Y$ with the subspace topology. Define

$$\begin{aligned} g : X &\rightarrow Z \\ x &\mapsto f(x) \end{aligned}$$

we claim that g is continuous. Let $U \subseteq Z$ be open. Then, $U = Z \cap U'$ where $U' \subseteq Y$ is open. Then, $g^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(U')$ is open in X . We therefore assume f is surjective.

Now, we want to prove the theorem. Let $U \subseteq Y$ be closed, open and nonempty. It suffices to show that $U = Y$. If f is continuous, $f^{-1}(U)$ is open and closed. If f is surjective and $U \neq \emptyset$. Then, $f^{-1}(U) \neq \emptyset$. By the lemma and connectivity of X , $f^{-1}(U) = X$. This implies that $U = f(X) = Y$. \square

Theorem 15.2. *Suppose $A \subseteq X$ is a subspace and A is connected. If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \bar{A}$, then B is connected.*

Proof. Assume B is not connected so there is a separation U, V of B . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} U &= B \cap U' \\ V &= B \cap V' \end{aligned}$$

for $U', V' \subseteq X$ open. Note that $U' \cap A, V' \cap A$ are open in A , disjoint, and cover A . It follows $U' \cap A = \emptyset$ or $V' \cap A = \emptyset$. Assume $V' \cap A = \emptyset$. Then, $\bar{A} \subseteq \bar{U}'$. In fact, since $A \subseteq B$, we actually have $A \subseteq U = U' \cap B$ so $\bar{A} \subseteq \bar{U}$. Hence, $B \subseteq \bar{U}$. Then, $V \neq \emptyset$ so there exists $b \in V \subseteq B$. So $\exists Q \subseteq B$ open where $b \in Q \subseteq V$. But $B \subseteq \bar{U}$ so $b \in \bar{U}$. So every neighborhood of b intersects U . But $U \cap V = \emptyset$. So this is a contradiction. \square

Remark. All intervals in \mathbb{R} are connected.

Example 15.5. Consider

$$A = \{(x, \sin(1/x)) \mid x \in (0, 1/\pi)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Then, A is the image of

$$\begin{aligned} f : (0, 1/\pi) &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \\ x &\mapsto (x, \sin(1/x)). \end{aligned}$$

This is continuous. So A is connected and hence $\bar{A} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is connected. (A is the topologist's sine curve).

Theorem 15.3. *Suppose X is a topological space and $\{A_\alpha\}$ is a collection of connected subspaces ($A_\alpha \subseteq X$ and A_α is connected). If $\bigcap_\alpha A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ then $\bigcup_\alpha A_\alpha$ is connected.*

Proof. Assume U, V is a separation of $\bigcup_\alpha A_\alpha$. Let $p \in \bigcap_\alpha A_\alpha$. WLOG, we may assume $p \in U$. Fix α . Then, one of $U \cap A_\alpha$ or $V \cap A_\alpha$ is empty because A_α is connected. Since $p \in U \cap A_\alpha$, we must have $V \cap A_\alpha = \emptyset$. So $U \cap A_\alpha = A_\alpha$ so $A_\alpha \subseteq U$. Then,

$$\bigcup_\alpha A_\alpha \subseteq U.$$

Since U, V is a separation, $\bigcup_\alpha A_\alpha = U \cup V$ so $V = \emptyset$. This is a contradiction. \square

Theorem 15.4. *Suppose X, Y are connected. Then, $X \times Y$ is connected.*

Proof. Fix $(a, b) \in X \times Y$. For $x \in X$, consider

$$T_x = \{x\} \times Y \cup X \times \{b\}.$$

Then, $X \times \{b\}$ is homeomorphic to X so it is connected. Likewise, $\{x\} \times Y$ is homeomorphic to Y so it is connected. Since $(x, b) \in X \times \{x\} \cap \{x\} \times Y$, so T_x is connected by the previous theorem. Note that

$$\bigcup_{x \in X} T_x = X \times Y, \bigcap_{x \in X} T_x \neq \emptyset.$$

By the previous theorem, it follows $X \times Y$ is connected. \square

Corollary 15.1. \mathbb{R}^n is connected $\forall n \geq 1$.

In summary, here are some useful facts related to connectedness:

- \mathbb{R} (and its subintervals) is connected
- If $A \subseteq X$ is connected, then \bar{A} is connected.
- If $A_\alpha \subseteq X$ are connected and $\bigcap_\alpha A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ then $\bigcup_\alpha A_\alpha$ is connected
- If X, Y are connected, then $X \times Y$ is connected

Corollary 15.2. If X_1, \dots, X_n are connected, then $X_1 \times \dots \times X_n$ is connected.

Proof. Use the previous bullet and induction. \square

Consider

$$\mathbb{R}^\omega = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots = \prod_{\mathbb{Z}_+} \mathbb{R}.$$

Theorem 15.5. \mathbb{R}^ω is not connected in the box topology.

Proof. Let

$$U = \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \mid \mathbf{x} \text{ is bounded}\}.$$

and

$$V = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \text{ is unbounded}\}.$$

Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{R}^\omega &= U \cup V \\ U \cap V &= \emptyset \\ U &\neq \emptyset \\ V &\neq \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$. Then,

$$\mathbf{x} \in W = (x_1 - 1, x_1 + 1) \times (x_2 - 1, x_2 + 1) \times \dots \times (x_n - 1, x_n + 1) \times \dots$$

If \mathbf{x} is bounded, then everything in W is bounded. Then,

$$\mathbf{x} \in U \implies \mathbf{x} \in W \subseteq U$$

So U is open.

If \mathbf{x} is unbounded, then everything in W is unbounded so

$$\mathbf{x} \in V \implies \mathbf{x} \in W \subseteq V$$

and hence V is open. So U, V is a separation. \square

Theorem 15.6. \mathbb{R}^ω is connected in the product topology.

Proof. Define

$$\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\omega$$

Then, $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n so \mathbb{R}^n is connected.

$$(0, 0, 0, \dots) \in \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n \forall n$$

so $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n \neq \emptyset$. Then, $\mathbb{R}^\omega = \bigcup_n \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is connected. Hence, $\overline{\mathbb{R}^\omega} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\omega$ is connected.

Now, we claim that $\overline{\mathbb{R}^\omega} = \mathbb{R}^\omega$. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$ and U a basis element for \mathbb{R}^ω with $\mathbf{x} \in U$. We want to show that $U \cap \mathbb{R}^\omega \neq \emptyset$. we have

$$U = U_1 \times U_2 \times \dots \times U_n \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots$$

Notice $\mathbf{y} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots)$ is in $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ and hence $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^\omega$. Then, $x_1 \in U_1, \dots, x_n \in U_n, 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ so $\mathbf{y} \in U$. Therefore, $U \cap \mathbb{R}^\omega \neq \emptyset$. \square

Definition 15.3. Let X be a topological space and $x_0, x_1 \in X$. A path in X from x_0 to x_1 is a continuous function

$$\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow X$$

such that $\gamma(a) = x_0$ and $\gamma(b) = x_1$.

Example 15.6. $\gamma(t) = tx_1 + (1-t)x_0$ where $t \in [0, 1]$.

Definition 15.4. X is path-connected if $\forall x_0, x_1 \in X$, there exists path in X from x_0 to x_1 .

Theorem 15.7. If X is path-connected then X is connected.

The converse of the theorem is false.

Example 15.7. Consider

$$A = \{(x, \sin(1/x)) \mid x \in (0, 1/\pi)\}.$$

Last time, we showed that \bar{A} is connected. However, \bar{A} is not path connected.

Consider $x_0 = (0, 0) \in \bar{A}$ and $x_1 = (1/\pi, 0) \in \bar{A}$. Suppose $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \bar{A}$ is a path from x_0 to x_1 . Then, we can write $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$. So

$$\begin{aligned}x &: [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1/\pi] \\y &: [0, 1] \rightarrow [-1, 1]\end{aligned}$$

are continuous. The set $\{t \in [0, 1] \mid x(t) = 0\}$ is closed. Let $b = \sup\{t \in [0, 1] \mid x(t) = 0\}$. Then, $x(b) = 0$ and $x(t) > 0$ for $t \in (b, 1]$ with $y(t) = \sin(1/x(t))$. By reparameterizing, we may assume that $b = 0$. For each n , find $0 < u < x(1/n)$ so $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$. By the intermediate value theorem, there exists $0 < t_n < 1/n$ so $x(t_n) = u$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}y(t_n) &= \sin\left(\frac{1}{x(t_n)}\right) \\&= \sin\left(\frac{1}{u}\right) \\&= (-1)^n\end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y(t_n) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} y(t) = y(0).$$

But $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n$ does not exist.

16 Homeomorphism

Definition 16.1. A homeomorphism is a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ that satisfies the following conditions:

- continuous
- invertible (bijective)
- f^{-1} is also continuous

Example 16.1. Consider

$$\begin{aligned}f &: [0, 2\pi) \rightarrow S^1 \\ \theta &\mapsto (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)\end{aligned}$$

Here, inverse breaks circle so f is continuous but f^{-1} is not continuous.

Definition 16.2. X, Y are homeomorphic if there exists homeomorphism from X to Y . If this is true, we write $X \cong Y$ and say that X is homeomorphic to Y .

Theorem 16.1. Assume $X \cong Y$. Then X is connected iff Y is connected.

Theorem 16.2 (Intermediate value theorem). Suppose $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Assume X is connected. Let $x, y \in X$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that r is between $f(x)$ and $f(y)$. Then, there exists $z \in X$ such that $f(z) = r$.

Proof. Consider $(-\infty, r)$ and (r, ∞) . Those are open in \mathbb{R} , nonempty, and disjoint. Let $U = f^{-1}((-\infty, r))$ and $V = f^{-1}((r, \infty))$. These are also open, nonempty, and disjoint. But X is connected so U, V can't be a separation. So $U \cup V \neq X$ and hence $\exists z \in X - (U \cup V)$. Then, $f(z) \notin (-\infty, r)$ and $f(z) \notin (r, \infty)$. Therefore, $f(z) = r$. \square

Theorem 16.3. \mathbb{R} is connected.

Proof. Suppose $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is nonempty and bounded above. Then, there exists a least upper bound M for A and any other upper bound M' satisfies $M \leq M'$. We write A for this LUB.

Suppose U, V is a separation of \mathbb{R} . So there exists $a \in U$ and $b \in U$. Then, WLOG, we may assume $a < b$. Sets

$$\begin{aligned} U_0 &= U \cap [a, b] \\ V_0 &= V \cap [a, b] \end{aligned}$$

form a separation of $[a, b]$. Notice $U_0 \neq \emptyset$ and $x \in U_0$ satisfies $x \leq b$. So $C = \sup(U_0)$ exists. Then, $c \in U$ or $C \in V$. In fact, $c \geq a$ and $c \leq b$ so $c \in U_0$ or $c \in V_0$. Assume $c \in V_0$. Since V_0 is open in $[a, b]$ so there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $(c, c + \epsilon] \subseteq V_0$. Note if $x < c$ then $x \notin U_0$ because c is an upper bound of U_0 . This implies that $[c, b] \subseteq V_0$. Then,

$$(d, c] \cup [c, b] \subseteq V_0 \implies (d, b] \subseteq V_0.$$

But then d is an upper bound for U_0 so $c \leq d$. This is a contradiction.

Now, suppose $c \in U_0$. Then, U_0 is open in $[a, b]$. Then, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $[c, c + \epsilon] \subseteq U_0$. Let $f = (c + c + \epsilon)/2$. Then, $c < f < c + \epsilon$ and $f \in [c, c + \epsilon]$. Then, $f \in U_0$. Then, $c \geq f$ because it is an upper bound. This is a contradiction. \square

Example 16.2. $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$ is connected.

Proof. $\tan^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (-\pi/2, \pi/2)$ is a homeomorphism. \square

Example 16.3. $(0, 1) \cong (a, b)$ if $a < b$.

Proof. $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow (a, b)$ given by $f(t) = (1 - t)a + b$ is a homeomorphism. \square

Corollary 16.1. $(0, 1)$ is connected.

Corollary 16.2. (a, b) is connected for any $a < b$.

Recall that if A is connected then $\forall A \subseteq B \subseteq \bar{A}$, B is connected. We apply this with $A = (a, b)$. Then, $[a, b)$ or $(a, b]$ or $[a, b]$ are connected.

Corollary 16.3. Suppose $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is a subspace. Then, I is connected if and only if $I = \mathbb{R}$ or I is an interval or I is any of the following:

$$(a, \infty), (-\infty, b), [a, \infty), (-\infty, b].$$

Example 16.4. $\mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$ is path-connected for $n \geq 2$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$.

- (Case 1) The line l passing through x and y does not contain 0. Then, $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$ given by $\gamma(t) = (1-t)x + ty$ has image in l and hence in $\mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$. So this is a path from x to y .
- (Case 2) $0 \in l$. Since $n \geq 2$, $\mathbb{R}^n \neq \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{R}^n \neq l$. So there exists $z \in (\mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}) - l$. Define $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$ by concatenating a path from x to z with one from z to y .

□

Example 16.5. Write down a formula for the path that goes from x to z and from z to y .

Definition 16.3. For $n \geq 1$, define the n -sphere:

$$S^n = \{(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid x_0^2 + x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 1\}$$

Lemma 16.1. S^n is path connected.

Proof. Consider

$$f : \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\} \rightarrow S^n$$

$$x \mapsto \frac{x}{|x|}$$

where

$$|x| = \sqrt{x_0^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

f is continuous and $\text{Im}(f) = S^n$. Since $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} - \{0\}$ is path-connected, so S^n is path-connected. □

Midterm

Roughly, the test covers up to chapter 24 (skip 22) with an emphasis on product topology, metric spaces, and connectedness.