

Math 3T03 - Topology

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February 8, 2018

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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 Topology

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

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

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

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,

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

6.1 Subbasis

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

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1 : X \times Y &\rightarrow X \\ \pi_2 : X \times Y &\rightarrow Y\end{aligned}$$

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 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 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.

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

which implies $x \notin \bar{A}$. 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

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

10.1 Hausdorff space

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

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

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 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 the 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 Continuity

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 $(x_2, y_2) \in U_2$. □

12 Homeomorphism

Definition 12.1. 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 12.1. Suppose X is a topological space. Then, identity function

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

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

Example 12.2. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is homeomorphism, then $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is a homeomorphism.

Example 12.3. Consider $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x) = x^3$. Then, this is a homeomorphism. Furthermore,

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

Midterm review 1

Example 12.4. In order to prove $\tau \subset \tau'$, we can approach this in three different ways:

- Let $U \in \tau$. Show $U \in \tau'$.
- Let \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' be bases for τ and τ' , respectively. If $B \in \mathcal{B}$, show that $B \in \mathcal{B}'$.
- If $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B$, show that there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq B$.
- If $U \in \tau$ and $x \in U$, show that there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq U$.

Example 12.5. Consider $(0, 3) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Although $(0, 3)$ is open in standard topology,

$$\{1\} \subseteq (0, 3)$$

does not imply that $\{1\}$ is open in standard topology.

Example 12.6. Consider two topological spaces X, Y . Consider

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

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

where $\pi_1(x, y) = x$ and $\pi_2(x, y) = y$.

If π_1 is to be continuous, I need $\pi_1^{-1}(U)$ to be open for $U \subseteq X$ open. Similarly, for π_2 to be continuous, I need $\pi_2^{-1}(V)$ to be open for $V \subseteq Y$ open.

Consider

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

This is a subbasis.