Math 3T03 - Topology

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February 2, 2018

Contents

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:*

- $\varnothing \in \tau$.
- $X \in \tau$.
- *The union of any collections of elements in τ is also in τ.*
- *THe intersection of any finite collection oi 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 $\tau_1 = \{\varnothing, X, \{a\}\}$ a topology?

Proof. Yes, τ_1 is a topology. Clearly, $\varnothing \in \tau_1$ 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 $V_\alpha = \varnothing$ for any $\alpha \in A$, then this does not contribute to the union. Hence, φ can be omittied:

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

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 $\varnothing$, 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

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

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

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

$\square$

Example 1.2. Consider $X = \{a, b, c\}$. Is $\tau_2 = \{\varnothing, X, \{a\}, \{b\}\}$ 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, $\tau_3 = \{\varnothing, X, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$ 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 $\{\varnothing, X\}$.*

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 $U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_10$ are sets, their union can be written as follows:

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

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

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

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*

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$f : A \to B$$

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 $f : A \to B$ and $g : B \to C$ then $g \circ f : A \to C$ 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 $f : A \to B$ 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 $f : A \to B$ 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. *$f : A \to B$ is a bijection if it is one-to-one and onto.*

Definition 2.14. *If $B_0 \subseteq B$ is a subset and $f : A \to B$ 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 $f^{-1}(B_0) = \varnothing$.

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 $E(a) \cap E(b) \neq \varnothing$ then $E(a) = E(b)$.*

Proof. IAssume 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 $E(b) \subseteq E(a)$. □

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 partition[1] $\{Q_\alpha | \alpha \in J\}$ 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 $Q_\alpha \cap Q_\beta = \varnothing$ if $\alpha \neq \beta$. Furthermore, $\cup_{\alpha \in J} = A$.

4 Finite and infinite sets

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

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

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

1. $\mathrm{card}(A) = 0$ *if* $A = \varnothing$.
2. $\mathrm{card}(A) = n$ *if there is a bijection form A to $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$.*

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:

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

where $S(k) = k + 1$. So S is a bijection from $\mathbb{Z}^+$ to $\{2, 3, \ldots\} \subset \mathbb{Z}^+$, a proper subset of $\mathbb{Z}^+$. On the other hand, any proper sbset B of a finite set A with $\mathrm{card}(A) = n$ has $\mathrm{card}(B) < n$. 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* $f : A \to \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ *for some* $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
2. $\exists$ *injection* $f : A \to \{1, 2, \ldots, N\}$ *for some* $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
3. $\exists$ *surjection* $g : \{1, \ldots, N\} \to A$ *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 $\mathrm{card}(X) > 1$, 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 $f : J \to \mathcal{A}$. We use A_α to denote $f(a) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. So*

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

Most of the time, we will be able to use $\mathcal{Z}^+$ 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*

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

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

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

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

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 $f : A \to \mathbb{Z}^+$*
3. *THere is a surjection $g : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to A$*

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 finite. We will define a bijection $h : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to C$ by induction. Let $h(1)$ be the smallest element in C[2]. Suppose

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

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

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

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

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 $\{1, 2, \ldots, c\}$

[2] $C \neq \varnothing$ and every nonempty subset of $\mathbb{Z}^+$ has a smallest elemnt

because $h(\mathbb{Z}^+)$ is an infinite set. Therefore, there must exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ 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, $h(m) = c$. □

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

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

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

is also injective. Therefore, A is countable by the criterion. □

Theorem 4.4. *Any countable union of countable is countable. In other words, if J is countable and A_α is countable for all $\alpha \in J$, then $\cup_{\alpha \in J}$ 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 $g : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to X^\omega$ is a function. We will show g is not surjective by contructing 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). □

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.

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

$\square$

5 Topology

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

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

Remark. If τ is a topology, then $\{\varnothing, X\} \subseteq \tau$ 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, $\{\varnothing, X\}$.

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 wiith the property that $X - U$ is finite or all of X.

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

Proof. To show $\varnothing \in \tau_f$, notice that $X - \varnothing = X$. So $\varnothing \in \tau_f$. To show that $X \in \tau_f$, notice that $X - X = \varnothing$, 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

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

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

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

$$x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{U}_\alpha.$$

Then, $\exists \mathcal{B} \in A$ with $x \in \mathcal{U}_\mathcal{B}$. Since $\mathcal{U}_\mathcal{B} \in Tau$, $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq \mathcal{U}_\mathcal{B}$. TheN, $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq \mathcal{U}_\mathcal{B}$. 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 $W \cap W' = \varnothing$ then we are done ($\varnothing \in \tau$). 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 $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2 \subseteq W \cap W'$. □

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. □

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 toplogies 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 $(\mathbb{R}, \tau_{st})$.*

Remark. The theoremm 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

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

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

6.1 Subbasis

Suppose X, Y are topological spaces and equip $X \times Y$ with the product topology. Define
$$\pi_1 : X \times Y \to X$$
$$\pi_2 : X \times Y \to Y$$
Define
$$\mathcal{S} = \{\pi_1^{-1}(U) | U \subset X\} \cup \{\pi_2^{-1} | V \subset Y\}$$
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*

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

Lemma 7.1. *τ_Y is a topology.*

Proof.

- $\varnothing \cap Y = \varnothing \in \tau_Y$.
- $X \cap Y = Y \in \tau_Y$.
- (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,*

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

is a basis for the subspace topology on Y.

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

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

Then, the basis for this topology is given by

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

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 topologis 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

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

$\square$

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)s 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 $x \neq qy$, either $x < y$ or $y < x$.
2. $\nexists x \in X$ such that $x < x$.
3. $x < y, y < z \implies x < z$.

$\square$

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. $(a, b) = \{x \in X | a < x, x < b\}$.

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

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

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 $<_0$ 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. □

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 $\mathbb{R}_\ell$.

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 $\mathbb{R}_\ell$? 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. $\varnothing \in \mathcal{C}$
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 $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Hoever,

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

is open and not a closed set.

Definition 9.2 (Interior)**.** *Suppose (X, τ) is a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Define* 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 Int$A$ is an open set. Notice also that Int$(A) \subseteq A$. So Int$A$ is the maximal open set contained in A. In other words, any open set V contained in A is a subset of Int$A$.

Remark. If A is open, Int$A = A$.

Definition 9.3. *The clousure 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 hat 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

$$X = \{a, b, c\}$$
$$\tau = \{\varnothing, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$$

Then,

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

Consider $A = \{a\}$. Then, $\text{Int}A = \{a\}$ and $\bar{A} = X$.
Consider $B = \{b\}$. Then, $\text{Int}B = \varnothing$ 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 $U \cap A \neq \varnothing$.

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 $U \cap A = \varnothing$. 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, $U \cap \bar{A} = \varnothing$, since $A \subseteq \bar{A}$, it follows that $U \cap A = \varnothing$. $\square$

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

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in X | U \cap A \neq \varnothing \textit{ for every open set } U \textit{ about } X\}.$$

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

$$A' = \{x | x \textit{ is a limit point of } A\}.$$

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

Proof.

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

which implies $A \subseteq \bar{A}$. 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 satisfies $U \cap A \neq \varnothing$. But $x \notin A$ so $x \notin A$. So

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

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 eixsts 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.

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

□

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:

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

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

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

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

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.

10.1 Hausdorff

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

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

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 inifinite 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*

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

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 annd 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 $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous?

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

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

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

Example 11.3. Consider $f : X \to Y$ any function. If X has discrete topology, f is automatically continuous.

Example 11.4. If $f : X \to Y$ 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 toplogical spaces and $f : X \to Y$ is a function. If $f : X \to Y$ 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 $f(U) \subseteq V$.*