

Math 3T03 - Topology

Sang Woo Park

January 19, 2018

Contents

1	Introduction to topology	2
1.1	What is topology?	2
1.2	Set theory	3
2	Functions	4
3	Relation	6
4	Finite and infinite sets	7
5	Topology	10
6	Basis	11

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. 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 $E(b) \subseteq E(a)$. \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 $B \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$, $\exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$. Then, $x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$ and $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha \subseteq X$. 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,*

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

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 theoremm tells us that this has a basis

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