Topology

Robin Adams

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Contents

1	Set Theory	4
2	Order Theory	5
3	Real Analysis	9
4	Group Theory	10
5	Topological Spaces	11
6	Closed Set	12
7	Interior	13
8	Closure	14
9	Boundary	15
10	Limit Points	16
11	Basis for a Topology	16
12	Local Basis at a Point	21
13	Convergence	21
14	Locally Finite Sets	23
15	Open Maps	24
16	Continuous Functions	24
17	Homeomorphisms	29
18	The Order Topology	30

19 The nth Root Function	33
20 The Product Topology 20.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately	33 36
21 The Subspace Topology	36
22 The Box Topology	40
23 T_1 Spaces	42
24 Hausdorff Spaces	43
25 The First Countability Axiom	46
26 Strong Continuity	47
27 Saturated Sets	48
28 Quotient Maps	49
29 Quotient Topology	52
30 Retractions	54
31 Homogeneous Spaces	54
32 Regular Spaces	54
33 Connected Spaces	54
34 Totally Disconnected Spaces	63
35 Paths and Path Connectedness	63
36 The Topologist's Sine Curve	66
37 The Long Line	67
38 Components	68
39 Path Components	70
40 Local Connectedness	71
41 Local Path Connectedness	73
42 Weak Local Connectedness	74

43 Quasicomponents	75
44 Open Coverings	76
45 Compact Spaces	76
46 Topological Groups	80
47 The Metric Topology	87
48 Real Linear Algebra	93
49 The Uniform Topology	100
50 Uniform Convergence	103
51 Isometric Imbeddings	104

1 Set Theory

Definition 1 (Cover). Let X be a set and $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$. Then A covers X, or is a covering of X, if and only if $\bigcup A = X$.

Definition 2 (Finite Intersection Property). Let X be a set and $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$. Then A satisfies the *finite intersection property* if and only if every nonempty finite subset of A has nonempty intersection.

2 Order Theory

Definition 3 (Preorder). Let X be a set. A *preorder* on X is a binary relation \leq on X such that:

Reflexivity For all $x \in X$, we have $x \leq x$

Transitivity For all $x, y, z \in X$, if $x \le y$ and $y \le z$ then $x \le z$.

Definition 4 (Preordered Set). A preordered set consists of a set X and a preorder \leq on X.

Proposition 5. Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets. Let $f: X \to Y$ be strictly monotone and surjective. Then f is a poset isomorphism.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. f is injective.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: f(x) = f(y)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \not< y
      PROOF: By strong motonicity.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \not < x
      PROOF: By strong motonicity.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x = y
      PROOF: By trichotomy.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. f^{-1} is monotone.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: x \leq y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(x) \not> f^{-1}(y)
      PROOF: By strong motonicity.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f^{-1}(x) < f^{-1}(y)
      PROOF: By trichotomy.
```

Definition 6 (Interval). Let X be a preordered set and $Y \subseteq X$. Then Y is an interval if and only if, for all $a, b \in Y$ and $c \in X$, if $a \le c \le b$ then $c \in Y$.

Definition 7 (Linear Continuum). A linearly ordered set L is a *linear continuum* if and only if:

- 1. every nonempty subset of L that is bounded above has a supremum
- 2. L is dense

Proposition 8. Every interval in a linear continuum is a linear continuum.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: L be a linear continuum and I an interval in L.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Every nonempty subset of I that is bounded above has a supremum in I.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $X \subseteq I$ be nonempty and bounded above by $b \in I$.

```
\langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: s be the supremum of X in L. Proof: Since L is a linear continuum. \langle 2 \rangle 3. s \in I \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick a \in X Proof: Since X is nonempty (\langle 2 \rangle 1). \langle 3 \rangle 2. a \leq s \leq b \langle 3 \rangle 3. s \in I Proof: Since I is an interval (\langle 1 \rangle 1). \langle 2 \rangle 4. s is the supremum of X in I \langle 1 \rangle 3. I is dense. \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in I with x < y \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick z \in L with x < z < y Proof: Since L is dense. \langle 2 \rangle 3. z \in I Proof: Since L is an interval. \Box
```

Definition 9 (Ordered Square). The ordered square I_o^2 is the set $[0,1]^2$ under the dictionary order.

Proposition 10. The ordered square is a linear continuum.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every nonempty subset of I_o^2 bounded above has a supremum.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: X \subseteq I_o^2 be nonempty and bounded above by (b,c)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: s = \sup \pi_1(X)
      PROOF: The set \pi_1(X) is nonempty and bounded above by b.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: s \in \pi_1(X)
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: t = \sup\{y \in [0,1] \mid (s,y) \in X\}
          Proof: This set is nonempty and bounded above by c.
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. (s,t) is the supremum of X.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Case: s \notin \pi_1(X)
      PROOF: In this case (s,0) is the supremum of X.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. I_o^2 is dense.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in I_o^2 with (x_1, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Case: x_1 < x_2
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. PICK x_3 with x_1 < x_3 < x_2
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_3, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: x_1 = x_2 and y_1 < y_2
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick y_3 with y_1 < y_3 < y_2
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)
```

Proposition 11. If X is a well-ordered set then $X \times [0,1)$ under the dictionary order is a linear continuum.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every nonempty set $A \subseteq X \times [0,1)$ bounded above has a supremum.

```
\langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: A \subseteq X \times [0,1) be nonempty and bounded above
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: x_0 be the supremum of $\pi_1(A)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $x_0 \in \pi_1(A)$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: y_0 be the supremum of $\{ y \in [0,1) \mid (x_0,y) \in A \}$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. (x_0, y_0) is the supremum of A.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Case: $x_0 \notin \pi_1(A)$

PROOF: In this case $(x_0, 0)$ is the supremum of A.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $X \times [0,1)$ is dense.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 1$$
. Let: $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in X \times [0, 1)$ with $(x_1, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Case: $x_1 < x_2$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. PICK y_3 such that $y_1 < y_3 < 1$

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 < y_2$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. PICK y_3 such that $y_1 < y_3 < y_2$

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)$$

Lemma 12. For all $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b and c < d, we have $[a, b) \cong [c, d)$

PROOF: The map $\lambda t.c + (t-a)(d-c)/(b-a)$ is an order isomorphism.

Proposition 13. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let a < b < c in X. Then $[a, c) \cong [0, 1)$ if and only if $[a, b) \cong [b, c) \cong [0, 1)$.

PROOF

$$(1)1$$
. If $[a,c) \cong [0,1)$ then $[a,b) \cong [b,c) \cong [0,1)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: $f: [a,c) \cong [0,1)$ is an order isomorphism

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. $[a,b) \cong [0,1)$

Proof:

$$[a,b) \cong [0,f(b))$$
 (by the restriction of f)
 $\cong [0,1)$ (Lemma 12)

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ [b,c) \cong [0,1)$

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If $[a,b) \cong [b,c) \cong [0,1)$ then $[a,c) \cong [0,1)$

PROOF:

$$[a,c) = [a,b) * [b,c)$$

 $\cong [0,1) * [0,1)$
 $\cong [0,1/2) * [1/2,1)$ (Lemma 12)
 $= 1$

Proposition 14 (CC). Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let $x_0 < x_1 < \cdots$ be a strictly increasing sequence in X with supremum b. Then $[x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)$ if and only if $[x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1)$ for all i.

PROOF:

(1)1. If $[x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)$ then $[x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1)$ for all i.

```
PROOF: By Lemma 12 \langle 1 \rangle 2. If [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1) for all i then [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1) \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1) for all i \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK an order isomorphism f_i : [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [1/2^i, 2/2^{i+1}) for each i. PROOF: By Lemma 12 \langle 2 \rangle 3. The union of the f_is is an order isomorphism [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)
```

3 Real Analysis

Definition 15. Let \mathbb{R}^{∞} be the subset of \mathbb{R}^{ω} consisting of all sequences (a_n) such that $a_n = 0$ for all but finitely many n.

4 Group Theory

Definition 16. Given a group G and sets $A, B \subseteq G$, let $AB = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$.

Definition 17. Given a group G and a set $A \subseteq G$, let $A^{-1} = \{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\}$.

5 Topological Spaces

Definition 18 (Topology). A topology on a set X is a set $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ such that:

- $X \in \mathcal{T}$.
- For all $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ we have $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$.
- For all $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$.

We call the elements of X points and the elements of \mathcal{T} open sets.

Definition 19 (Topological Space). A topological space X consists of a set X and a topology on X.

Definition 20 (Discrete Space). For any set X, the *discrete* topology on X is $\mathcal{P}X$.

Definition 21 (Indiscrete Space). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Definition 22 (Finite Complement Topology). For any set X, the *finite complement topology* on X is $\{U \in \mathcal{P}X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is finite}\} \cup \{\emptyset\}$.

Definition 23 (Countable Complement Topology). For any set X, the *countable complement topology* on X is $\{U \in \mathcal{P}X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is countable}\} \cup \{\emptyset\}$.

Definition 24 (Finer, Coarser). Suppose that \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are two topologies on a given set X. If $\mathcal{T}' \supseteq \mathcal{T}$, we say that \mathcal{T}' is *finer* than \mathcal{T} ; if \mathcal{T}' properly contains \mathcal{T} , we say that \mathcal{T}' is *strictly* finer than \mathcal{T} . We also say that \mathcal{T} is *coarser* than \mathcal{T}' , or *strictly* coarser, in these two respective situations. We say \mathcal{T} is *comparable* with \mathcal{T}' if either $\mathcal{T}' \supseteq \mathcal{T}$ or $\mathcal{T} \supseteq \mathcal{T}'$.

Lemma 25. Let X be a topological space and $U \subseteq X$. Then U is open if and only if, for all $x \in U$, there exists an open set V such that $x \in V \subseteq U$.

```
Proof:  \begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \Rightarrow \\ \text{Proof: Take } V = U \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \Leftarrow \\ \text{Proof: We have } U = \bigcup \{V \text{ open in } X \mid V \subseteq U\}. \end{array}
```

Lemma 26. Let X be a set and \mathcal{T} a nonempty set of topologies on X. Then $\bigcap \mathcal{T}$ is a topology on X, and is the finest topology that is coarser than every member of \mathcal{T} .

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ X \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}
```

PROOF: Since X is in every member of \mathcal{T} .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\bigcap \mathcal{T}$ is closed under union.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{T}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $T \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $\mathcal{U} \subseteq T$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. For all $T \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in T$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\bigcap \mathcal{T}$ is closed under binary intersection.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U, V \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $T \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $U, V \in T$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all $T \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $U \cap V \in T$
- $\sqrt{2}$ 4. $U \cap V \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}$

Lemma 27. Let X be a set and \mathcal{T} a set of topologies on X. Then there exists a unique coarsest topology that is finer than every member of \mathcal{T} .

PROOF: The required topology is given by

 $\bigcap \{T \in \mathcal{PP}X \mid T \text{ is a topology on } X \text{ that is finer than every member of } \mathcal{T}\} ,$

The set is nonempty since it contains the discrete topology. \Box

Definition 28 (Neighbourhood). A *neighbourhood* of a point x is an open set that contains x.

6 Closed Set

Definition 29 (Closed Set). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Then A is *closed* if and only if $X \setminus A$ is open.

Lemma 30. The empty set is closed.

PROOF: Since the whole space X is always open. \square

Lemma 31. The topological space X is closed.

PROOF: Since \emptyset is open. \square

Lemma 32. The intersection of a nonempty set of closed sets is closed.

PROOF: Let \mathcal{C} be a nonempty set of closed sets. Then $X \setminus \bigcap \mathcal{C} = \bigcup \{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ is open. \square

Lemma 33. The union of two closed sets is closed.

PROOF: Let C and D be closed. Then $X\setminus (C\cup D)=(X\setminus C)\cap (X\setminus D)$ is open.

Proposition 34. Let X be a set and $C \subseteq PX$ a set such that:

- 1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{C}$
- 2. $X \in \mathcal{C}$
- 3. For all $A \subseteq C$ nonempty we have $\bigcap A \in C$

4. For all $C, D \in \mathcal{C}$ we have $C \cup D \in \mathcal{C}$.

Then there exists a unique topology \mathcal{T} such that \mathcal{C} is the set of closed sets, namely

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C} \}$$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{T} = \{ X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C} \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \mathcal{T} is a topology
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ X \in \mathcal{T}$

Proof: Since $\emptyset \in \mathcal{C}$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ we have $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Case: $\mathcal{U} = \emptyset$

PROOF: In this case $\bigcup \mathcal{U} = \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ since $X \in \mathcal{C}$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Case: $\mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset$

PROOF: In this case $X \setminus \bigcup \mathcal{U} = \bigcap \{X \setminus U \mid U \in \mathcal{U}\} \in \mathcal{C}$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$

PROOF: Since $X \setminus (U \cap V) = (X \setminus U) \cup (X \setminus V) \in \mathcal{C}$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. C is the set of all closed sets in T

PROOF:

$$C$$
 is closed in \mathcal{T}

$$\Leftrightarrow X \setminus C \in \mathcal{T}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow C \in \mathcal{C}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. If \mathcal{T}' is a topology and \mathcal{C} is the set of closed sets in \mathcal{T}' then $\mathcal{T}' = \mathcal{T}$

PROOF: We have

$$U \in \mathcal{T}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow X \setminus U \in \mathcal{C}$$

 $\Leftrightarrow X \setminus U$ is closed in \mathcal{T}'

$$\Leftrightarrow U \in \mathcal{T}'$$

Proposition 35. If U is open and A is closed then $U \setminus A$ is open.

PROOF: $U \setminus A = U \cap (X \setminus A)$ is the intersection of two open sets. \square

Proposition 36. If U is open and A is closed then $A \setminus U$ is closed.

PROOF: $A \setminus U = A \cap (X \setminus U)$ is the intersection of two closed sets. \square

7 Interior

Definition 37 (Interior). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. The *interior* of A, Int A, is the union of all the open subsets of A.

Lemma 38. The interior of a set is open.

PROOF: It is a union of open sets. \square Lemma 39. $\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. \Box **Lemma 40.** If U is open and $U \subseteq A$ then $U \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 41.** A set A is open if and only if A = Int A. PROOF: If A = Int A then A is open by Lemma 38. Conversely if A is open then $A \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ by the definition of interior and so $A = \operatorname{Int} A$. 8 Closure **Definition 42** (Closure). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. The *closure* of A, \overline{A} , is the intersection of all the closed sets that include A. This intersection exists since X is a closed set that includes A (Lemma 31). Lemma 43. The closure of a set is closed. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 38. Lemma 44. $A\subseteq \overline{A}$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 45.** If C is closed and $A \subseteq C$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq C$. PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 46.** A set A is closed if and only if $A = \overline{A}$. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 41. **Theorem 47.** Let X be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$ and $x \in X$. Then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if every neighbourhood of x intersects A. PROOF: We have $x \in \overline{A}$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall C. C \text{ closed } \land A \subseteq C \Rightarrow x \in C$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall U.U \text{ open } \land A \cap U = \emptyset \Rightarrow x \not\in U$

Proposition 48. If $A \subseteq B$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$.

П

 $\Leftrightarrow \forall U.U \text{ open } \land x \in U \Rightarrow U \text{ intersects } A$

PROOF: This holds because \overline{B} is a closed set that includes A. \square

Proposition 49.

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{A} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$

PROOF: By Proposition 48.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$

PROOF: By Proposition 48.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{A \cup B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \overline{A \cup B}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: $x \notin \overline{A}$ PROVE: $x \in \overline{B}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick a neighbourhood U of x that does not intersect A
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: V be any neighbourhood of x
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. $U \cap V$ is a neighbourhood of x
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $U \cap V$ intersects $A \cup B$

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and Theorem 47.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $U \cap V$ intersects B

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 3$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$. V intersects B
- $\langle 2 \rangle 9$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: We have $x \in \overline{B}$ from Theorem 47.

9 Boundary

Definition 50 (Boundary). The *boundary* of a set A is the set $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$.

Proposition 51.

Int
$$A \cap \partial A = \emptyset$$

PROOF: Since $\overline{X \setminus A} = X \setminus \text{Int } A$. \square

Proposition 52.

$$\overline{A} = \operatorname{Int} A \cup \partial A$$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{Int} A \cup \partial A &= \operatorname{Int} A \cup (\overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}) \\ &= (\operatorname{Int} A \cup \overline{A}) \cap (\operatorname{Int} A \cup \overline{X \setminus A}) \\ &= \overline{A} \cap X \\ &= \overline{A} \end{split}$$

Proposition 53. $\partial A = \emptyset$ if and only if A is open and closed.

PROOF: If $\partial A = \emptyset$ then $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A$ by Proposition 52.

Proposition 54. A set U is open if and only if $\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$.

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \overline{U} \setminus \operatorname{Int} U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Int} U = U \end{array} \qquad (\text{Propositions 51, 52})$$

10 Limit Points

Definition 55 (Limit Point). Let X be a topological space, $a \in X$ and $A \subseteq X$. Then a is a *limit point*, *cluster point* or *point of accumulation* for A if and only if every neighbourhood of a intersects A at a point other than a.

Lemma 56. The point a is an accumulation point for A if and only if $a \in \overline{A \setminus \{a\}}$.

PROOF: From Theorem 47. \square

Theorem 57. Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Let A' be the set of all limit points of A. Then $\overline{A} = A \cup A'$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in \overline{A}$, if $x \notin A$ then $x \in A'$ PROOF: From Theorem 47. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $A \subseteq \overline{A}$ PROOF: Lemma 44. $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $A' \subseteq \overline{A}$

PROOF: From Theorem 47.

Corollary 57.1. A set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

Proposition 58. In an indiscrete topology, every point is a limit point of any set that has more than one point.

PROOF: Let X be an indiscrete space. Let A be a set with more than one point and x be a point. The only neighbourhood of x is X, which must intersect A at a point other than x. \square

Lemma 59. Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$. Then every limit point of A is a limit point of B.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

11 Basis for a Topology

Definition 60 (Basis). If X is a set, a *basis* for a topology on X is a set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ called *basis elements* such that

- 1. For all $x \in X$, there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$.
- 2. For all $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, there exists $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$.

If \mathcal{B} satisfies these two conditions, then we define the topology *generated* by \mathcal{B} to be $\mathcal{T} = \{U \in \mathcal{P}X \mid \forall x \in U. \exists B \in \mathcal{B}. x \in B \subseteq U\}.$

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ X \in \mathcal{T}$

PROOF: For all $x \in X$ there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq X$ by condition

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ we have $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in \bigcup \mathcal{U}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $U \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $x \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$ PROOF: Since $U \in \mathcal{T}$ by $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and $\langle 2 \rangle 3$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in B \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in U \cap V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $B_1 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_1 \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK $B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_2 \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. PICK $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$ PROOF: By condition 2.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in B_3 \subseteq U \cap V$

Lemma 61. Let X be a set. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for a topology \mathcal{T} on X. Then \mathcal{T} is the set of all unions of subsets of \mathcal{B} .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $U \in \mathcal{T}$, there exists $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ such that $U = \bigcup \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\mathcal{A} = \{ B \in \mathcal{B} \mid B \subseteq U \}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ U \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in U$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$

PROOF: Since \mathcal{B} is a basis for \mathcal{T} .

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x \in B \in \mathcal{A}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \bigcup \mathcal{A} \subseteq U$

PROOF: From the definition of \mathcal{A} ($\langle 2 \rangle 2$).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ we have $\bigcup \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$

PROOF: If $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B$, then there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq B$, namely B' = B.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since \mathcal{T} is closed under union.

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Corollary 61.1. Let X be a set. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for a topology \mathcal{T} on X. Then \mathcal{T} is the coarsest topology that includes \mathcal{B} .

PROOF: Since every topology that includes $\mathcal B$ includes all unions of subsets of $\mathcal B$. \square

Lemma 62. Let X be a topological space. Suppose that C is a set of open sets such that, for every open set U and every point $x \in U$, there exists $C \in C$ such that $x \in C \subseteq U$. Then C is a basis for the topology on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in X$, there exists $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C$

PROOF: Immediate from hypothesis.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $C_1, C_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ and $x \in C_1 \cap C_2$, there exists $C_3 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C_3 \subseteq C_1 \cap C_2$

PROOF: Since $C_1 \cap C_2$ is open.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Every open set is open in the topology generated by C

PROOF: Immediate from hypothesis.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Every union of a subset of \mathcal{C} is open.

Proof: Since every member of \mathcal{C} is open.

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Lemma 63. Let \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' be bases for the topologies \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' respectively on the set X. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$
- 2. For all $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B$, there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq B$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B \in \mathcal{T}$

Proof: Corollary 61.1.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ B \in \mathcal{T}'$

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. There exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq B$

PROOF: Since \mathcal{B}' is a basis for \mathcal{T}' .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $2 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: 2
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $U \in \mathcal{T}$

Prove: $U \in \mathcal{T}'$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in U$

PROVE: There exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq U$

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\langle 2 \rangle4. PICK B \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B \subseteq U
PROOF: Since \mathcal{B} is a basis for \mathcal{T}.
\langle 2 \rangle5. PICK B' \in \mathcal{B}' such that x \in B' \subseteq B
PROOF: By \langle 2 \rangle1.
\langle 2 \rangle6. x \in B' \subseteq U
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Theorem 64. Let X be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$ and $x \in X$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for X. Then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A.

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $x \in A$ then, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A. PROOF: This follows from Theorem 47 since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 61.1).

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A. Then $x \in \overline{A}$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be an open set that contains x Prove: U intersects A.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. B intersects A.

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. U intersects A.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

Proof: By Theorem 47.

Definition 65 (Lower Limit Topology on the Real Line). The *lower limit topology on the real line* is the topology on \mathbb{R} generated by the basis consisting of all half-open intervals of the form [a,b).

We write \mathbb{R}_l for the topological space \mathbb{R} under the lower limit topology.

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists an interval [a,b) such that $x \in [a,b)$. PROOF: Take [a,b)=[x,x+1).

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For any open intervals [a,b), [c,d) if $x \in [a,b) \cap [c,d)$, then there exists an interval [e,f) such that $x \in [e,f) \subseteq [a,b) \cap [c,d)$

PROOF: Take $[e, f) = [\max(a, c), \min(b, d)).$

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Definition 66 (K-topology on the Real Line). Let $K = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$.

The K-topology on the real line is the topology on \mathbb{R} generated by the basis consisting of all open intervals (a,b) and all sets of the form $(a,b) \setminus K$.

We write \mathbb{R}_K for the topological space \mathbb{R} under the K-topology.

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists an open interval (a,b) such that $x \in (a,b)$. PROOF: Take (a,b) = (x-1,x+1).
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. For any basic open sets B_1 , B_2 if $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, then there exists a basic open set B_3 such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Case: $B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = (c, d)$

PROOF: Take $B_3 = (\max(a, c), \min(b, d))$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. CASE: $B_1 = (a, b)$ or $(a, b) \setminus K$, $B_2 = (c, d)$ or $(c, d) \setminus K$, and they are not both open intervals.

PROOF: Take $B_3 = (\max(a, c), \min(b, d)) \setminus K$.

Lemma 67. The lower limit topology and the K-topology are incomparable.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The interval [10, 11) is not open in the K-topology.

PROOF: There is no open interval (a,b) such that $10 \in (a,b) \subseteq [10,11)$ or $10 \in (a,b) \setminus K \subseteq [10,11)$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The set $(-1,1) \setminus K$ is not open in the lower limit topology.

PROOF: There is no half-open interval [a,b) such that $0 \in [a,b) \subseteq (-1,1) \setminus K$, since there must be a positive integer n with $1/n \in [a,b)$.

Definition 68 (Subbasis). A *subbasis* S for a topology on X is a set $S \subseteq PX$ such that $\bigcup S = X$.

The topology generated by the subbasis S is the set of all unions of finite intersections of elements of S.

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The set $\mathcal B$ of all finite intersections of elements of $\mathcal S$ forms a basis for a topology on X.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. $| \mathcal{B} = X$

PROOF: Since $S \subseteq \mathcal{B}$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. \mathcal{B} is closed under binary intersection.

PROOF: By definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 61.

We have simultaneously proved:

Proposition 69. Let S be a subbasis for the topology on X. Then the set of all finite intersections of elements of S is a basis for the topology on X.

Proposition 70. Let X be a set. Let S be a subbasis for a topology T on X. Then T is the coarsest topology that includes S.

PROOF: Since every topology that includes \mathcal{S} includes every union of finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S} . \square

12 Local Basis at a Point

Definition 71 (Local Basis). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. A (local) basis at a is a set \mathcal{B} of neighbourhoods of a such that every neighbourhood of a includes some member of \mathcal{B} .

Lemma 72. If there exists a countable local basis at a point a, then there exists a countable local basis $\{B_n \mid n \geq 1\}$ such that $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$.

PROOF: Given a countable local basis $\{C_n \mid n \geq 1\}$, take $B_n = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n$. \square

13 Convergence

Definition 73 (Convergence). Let X be a topological space. Let $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in X and $l\in X$. Then the sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to the limit l, $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$, if and only if, for every neighbourhood U of l, there exists N such that, for all $n\geq N$, we have $a_n\in U$.

Lemma 74. Let X be a topological space. Let $A \subseteq X$ and $l \in X$. If there is a sequence of points in A that converges to l then $l \in \overline{A}$.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: (a_n) be a sequence of points in A that converges to l.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: *U* be a neighbourhood of *l*.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in U$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ a_N \in U \cap A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Theorem 47.

Proposition 75. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Let (a_n) be a sequence in X and $l \in X$. Then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $l \in B$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$, we have $a_n \in B$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ then, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $l \in B$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$, we have $a_n \in B$.

PROOF: Since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 61.1).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $l \in B$, there exists N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in B$, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $l \in B$, there exists N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in B$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of l.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $l \in B \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in B$ PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in U$

Lemma 76. If a sequence (a_n) is constant with $a_n = l$ for all n, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$.

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

Theorem 77. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let (s_n) be a monotone increasing sequence in X with a supremum s. Then $s_n \to s$ as $n \to \infty$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: s is not least in X.

PROOF: Otherwise (s_n) is the constant sequence s and the result follows from Lemma 76.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of s.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICKa < s such that $(a, s] \subseteq U$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick N such that $a < a_N$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in (a, s]$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in U$.

Theorem 78. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i = s$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i = t$ then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (ca_i + b_i) = cs + t$.

PROOF:
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} (ca_i + b_i) = c \sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i + \sum_{i=0}^{N} b_i \to cs + t \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Theorem 79 (Comparison Test). If $|a_i| \leq b_i$ for all i and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i$ converges then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges

PROOF: The partial sums $\sum_{i=0}^{N} |a_i|$ form an increasing sequence bounded above by $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $c_i = |a_i| + a_i$ for all $i \langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_i$ converges

PROOF: Each c_i is either $2|a_i|$ or 0. So the partial sums $\sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i$ form an increasing sequence bounded above by $2\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since $a_i = c_i - |a_i|$.

Corollary 79.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Theorem 80 (Weierstrass M-test). Let X be a set and $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of functions. Let

$$s_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n f_i(x)$$

for all n, x. Suppose $|f_i(x)| \leq M_i$ for all $i \geq 0$ and $x \in X$. If the series $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} M_i$ converges, then the sequence (s_n) converges uniformly to

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i(x) .$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $r_n = \sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} M_i$ for all n $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Given $0 \le n < k$, we have $|s_k(x) - s_n(x)| \le r_n$

$$|s_k(x) - s_n(x)| = |\sum_{i=n+1}^k f_i(x)|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=n+1}^k |f_i(x)|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=n+1}^k M_i$$

$$\leq r_n$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Given $n \geq 0$ we have $|s(x) - s_n(x)| \leq r_n$

PROOF: By taking the limit $k \to \infty$ in $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since $r_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

14 Locally Finite Sets

Definition 81 (Locally Finite). Let X be a topological space and $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ a family of subsets of X. Then A is locally finite if and only if every point in X has a neighbourhood that intersects A_{α} for only finitely many α .

Theorem 82 (Pasting Lemma). Let X and Y be topological spaces and f: $X \to Y$. Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ be a locally finite family of closed subsets of X that cover X. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A_{\alpha}$ is continuous for all α . Then f is continuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let A and B be closed subsets of X such that $X = A \cup B$. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A$ and $f \upharpoonright B$ are continuous. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $C \subseteq Y$ be closed.

 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ h^{-1}(C) = f^{-1}(C) \cup g^{-1}(C)$ $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(C) \text{ and } g^{-1}(C) \text{ are closed in } X.$

PROOF: Theorems 92 and 142.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $h^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X.

Proof: Lemma 33.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Theorem 92.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ be a finite family of closed subsets of X that cover X. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A_{\alpha}$ is continuous for all α . Then f is continuous.

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ by induction.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ be a locally finite family of closed subsets of X that cover X. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A_{\alpha}$ is continuous for all α . Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: $x \in X$ Prove: f is continuous at x
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x that intersects A_{α} for only finitely many α .
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. $f \upharpoonright U$ is continuous PROOF: By $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. $\langle 2 \rangle$ 4. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Lemma 102. \Box

The following example shows that we cannot remove the assumption of local finiteness.

Example 83. Define $f: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by: f(x) = 1 if x < -1, f(x) = 0 if x > 1. Let $C_n = [-1,-1/n]$ for $n \ge 1$, and D = [0,1]. Then $[-1,1] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \cup D$ and f is continuous on each C_n and each D, but f is not continuous on [-1,1].

15 Open Maps

Definition 84 (Open Map). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Then f is an *open map* if and only if, for every open set U in X, the set f(U) is open in Y.

Lemma 85. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. If f(B) is open in Y for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, then f is an open map.

PROOF: From Lemma 61.

Proposition 86. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have f(B) is open to Y. Then f is an open map.

PROOF: For any $A \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, we have $f(\bigcup A) = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} f(B)$ is open in Y. The result follows from Lemma 61. \square

16 Continuous Functions

Definition 87 (Continuous). Let X and Y be topological spaces. A function $f: X \to Y$ is *continuous* if and only if, for every open set V in Y, the set $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Proposition 88. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for Y. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $f^{-1}(B)$ is open in X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $f^{-1}(B)$ is open in X. PROOF: Since every element of B is open (Lemma 61).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $f^{-1}(B)$ is open in X. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $f^{-1}(B)$ is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be open in Y.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ such that $V = \bigcup \mathcal{A}$

PROOF: By Lemma 61.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Proof:

$$f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}\left(\bigcup \mathcal{A}\right)$$
$$= \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{A}} f^{-1}(B)$$

Proposition 89. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let S be a subbasis for Y. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $S \in S$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X. PROOF: Since every element of S is open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose that, for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $S_1, \ldots, S_n \in \mathcal{S}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$ $f^{-1}(S_1 \cap \cdots \cap S_n)$ is open in A

PROOF: Since $f^{-1}(S_1 \cap \cdots \cap S_n) = f^{-1}(S_1) \cap \cdots \cap f^{-1}(S_n)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Propositions 88 and 69.

Proposition 90. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let S be a basis for Y. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $V \in S$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. PROOF: Since every element of \mathcal{S} is open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose that, for all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For every set B that is the finite intersection of elemets of \mathcal{S} , we have $f^{-1}(B)$ is open in X.

PROOF: Because $f^{-1}(V_1 \cap \cdots \cap V_n) = f^{-1}(V_1) \cap \cdots \cap f^{-1}(V_n)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: From Propositions 69 and 88.

Definition 91 (Continuous at a Point). Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $x \in X$. Then f is *continuous at* x if and only if, for every neighbourhood V of f(x), there exists a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq V$.

Theorem 92. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is continuous.
- 2. For all $A \subseteq X$, we have $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$
- 3. For all $B \subseteq Y$ closed, we have $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X.
- 4. f is continuous at every point of X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $A \subseteq X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in \overline{A}$

PROVE: $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of f(x)
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $f^{-1}(V)$ is a neighbourhood of x
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Pick $y \in A \cap f^{-1}(V)$

PROOF: By Theorem 47.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ f(y) \in V \cap f(A)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Theorem 47.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: 2
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: B be closed in Y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in \overline{f^{-1}(B)}$

PROVE:
$$x \in f^{-1}(B)$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f(x) \in B$

Proof:

$$f(x) \in f(\overline{f^{-1}(B)})$$

$$\subseteq \overline{f(f^{-1}(B))} \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 1)$$

$$\subseteq \overline{B} \qquad (Proposition 48)$$

$$= B$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: 3
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be open in Y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $Y \setminus V$ is closed in Y

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\langle 2 \rangle 4. f^{-1}(Y \setminus V) is closed in X
\langle 2 \rangle 5. X \setminus f^{-1}(V) is closed in X
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 $\langle 2 \rangle 6.$ $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 1 \Rightarrow 4$

PROOF: For any neighbourhood V of f(x), the set $U = f^{-1}(V)$ is a neighbourhood of x such that $f(U) \subseteq V$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ 4 \Rightarrow 1$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: 4

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be open in Y

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in f^{-1}(V)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. V is a neighbourhood of f(x)

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq V$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 25.

Theorem 93. A constant function is continuous.

PROOF: Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $b \in Y$, and let $f: X \to Y$ be the constant function with value b. For any open $V \subseteq Y$, the set $f^{-1}(V)$ is either X (if $b \in V$) or \emptyset (if $b \notin V$). \square

Theorem 94. If A is a subspace of X then the inclusion $j: A \to X$ is continuous.

PROOF: For any V open in X, we have $j^{-1}(V) = V \cap A$ is open in A. \square

Theorem 95. The composite of two continuous functions is continuous.

PROOF: Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$ be continuous. For any V open in Z, we have $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is open in X. \Box

Theorem 96. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a continuous function and A be a subspace of X. Then the restriction $f \upharpoonright A : A \to Y$ is continuous.

PROOF: Let V be open in Y. Then $(f \upharpoonright A)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(V) \cap A$ is open in A. \square

Theorem 97. Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Let Z be a subspace of Y such that $f(X) \subseteq Z$. Then the corestriction $f: X \to Z$ is continuous.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be open in Z.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK U open in Y such that $V = U \cap Z$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Theorem 98. Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Let Z be a space such that Y is a subspace of Z. Then the expansion $f: X \to Z$ is continuous.

PROOF: Let V be open in Z. Then $f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(V \cap Y)$ is open in X. \square

Theorem 99. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose \mathcal{U} is a set of open sets in X such that $X = \bigcup \mathcal{U}$ and, for all $U \in \mathcal{U}$, we have $f \upharpoonright U : U \to Y$ is continuous. Then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be open in Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} (f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $U \in \mathcal{U}$, we have $(f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$ is open in U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For all $U \in \mathcal{U}$, we have $(f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. PROOF: Lemma 141.

Proposition 100. Let X and X' be the same set X under two topologies \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' . Let $i: X \to X'$ be the identity function. Then i is continuous if and only if $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 101. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous on the right at a if and only if f is continuous at a as a function $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous on the right at a then f is continuous at a as a function $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous on the right at a.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of f(a)
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK b, c such that $f(a) \in (b,c) \subseteq V$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $\epsilon = \min(c f(a), f(a) b)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that, for all x, if $a < x < a + \delta$ then $|f(x) f(a)| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Let: $U = [a, a + \delta)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ f(U) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f is continuous at a as a function $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$ then f is continuous on the right at a.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous at a as a function $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of a such that $f(U) \subseteq (f(a) \epsilon, f(a) + \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick b, c such that $a \in [b,c) \subset U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $\delta = c a$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all x, if $a < x < a + \delta$ then $|f(x) f(a)| < \epsilon$

Lemma 102. Let $f: X \to Y$. Let Z be an open subspace of X and $a \in Z$. If $f \upharpoonright Z$ is continuous at a then f is continuous at a.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of f(x)

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a neighbourhood W of x in Z such that $f(W) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. W is a neighbourhood of x in X such that $f(W) \subseteq V$ PROOF: Lemma 141.

Proposition 103. Let $f: A \to B$ and $g: C \to D$ be continuous. Define $f \times g: A \times C \to B \times D$ by

$$(f \times g)(a,c) = (f(a),g(c)) .$$

Then $f \times g$ is continuous.

PROOF: $\pi_1 \circ (f \times g) = f \circ \pi_1$ and $\pi_2 \circ (f \times g) = g \circ \pi_2$ are continuous by Theorem 95. The result follows by Theorem 131.

Proposition 104. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. If $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ in X then $f(a_n) \to f(l)$ as $n \to \infty$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of f(l)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Pick a neighbourhood U of l such that $f(U) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $f(n) \in V$

17 Homeomorphisms

Definition 105 (Homeomorphism). Let X and Y be topological spaces. A Homeomorphism f between X and Y, $f: X \cong Y$, is a bijection $f: X \to Y$ such that both f and f^{-1} are continuous.

Lemma 106. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ a bijection. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is a homeomorphism.
- 2. f is continuous and an open map.
- 3. f is continuous and a closed map.
- 4. For any $U \subseteq X$, we have U is open if and only if f(U) is open.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions. \square

Proposition 107. Let X and X' be the same set X under two topologies \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' . Let $i: X \to X'$ be the identity function. Then i is a homeomorphism if and only if $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}'$.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Definition 108 (Topological Property). Let P be a property of topological spaces. Then P is a *topological* property if and only if, for any spaces X and Y, if P holds of X and $X \cong Y$ then P holds of Y.

Definition 109 (Topological Imbedding). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Then f is a topological imbedding if and only if the corestriction $f: X \to f(X)$ is a homeomorphism.

Proposition 110. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $a \in X$. The function $i: Y \to X \times Y$ that maps y to (a, y) is an imbedding.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. *i* is injective
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. *i* is continuous.

PROOF: For U open in X and V open in Y, we have $i^{-1}(U \times V)$ is V if $a \in U$, and \emptyset if $a \notin U$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $i: Y \to i(Y)$ is an open map.

PROOF: For V open in Y we have $i(V) = (X \times V) \cap i(Y)$.

18 The Order Topology

Definition 111 (Order Topology). Let X be a linearly ordered set with at least two points. The *order topology* on X is the topology generated by the basis \mathcal{B} consisting of:

- all open intervals (a, b);
- all intervals of the form $[\bot, b)$ where \bot is least in X;
- all intervals of the form $(a, \top]$ where \top is greatest in X.

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in X$ there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Case: x is greatest in X.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Pick $y \in X$ with $y \neq x$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in (y, x] \in \mathcal{B}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: x is least in X.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Pick $y \in X$ with $y \neq x$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in [x,y) \in \mathcal{B}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Case: x is neither greatest nor least in X.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Pick $a, b \in X$ with a < x and x < b
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in (a,b) \in \mathcal{B}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, there exists $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B} and x \in B_1 \cap B_2
\langle 2 \rangle 2. Case: B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = (c, d)
  PROOF: Take B_3 = (\max(a, c), \min(b, d)).
\langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = [\bot, d)
  PROOF: Take B_3 = (a, \min(b, d)).
\langle 2 \rangle 4. Case: B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = (c, \top]
  PROOF: Take B_3 = (\max(a, c), b).
\langle 2 \rangle 5. Case: B_1 = [\bot, b), B_2 = [\bot, d)
  PROOF: Take B_3 = [\bot, \min(b, d)).
\langle 2 \rangle 6. Case: B_1 = [\bot, b), B_2 = (c, \top]
  PROOF: Take B_3 = (c, b).
```

Lemma 112. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Then the open rays form a subbasis for the order topology on X.

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every open ray is open.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all a \in X, the ray (-\infty, a) is open.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in (-\infty, a)
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Case: x is least in X
         PROOF: xin[x, a) = (-\infty, a).
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Case: x is not least in X
          \langle 4 \rangle 1. Pick y < x
          \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ x \in (y, a) \subseteq (-\infty, a)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all a \in X, the ray (a, +\infty) is open.
      Proof: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Every basic open set is a finite intersection of open rays.
  PROOF: We have (a,b)=(a,+\infty)\cap(-\infty,b), [\bot,b)=(-\infty,b) and (a,\top]=
   (a,+\infty).
```

Definition 113 (Standard Topology on the Real Line). The standard topology on the real line is the order topology on \mathbb{R} generated by the standard order.

Lemma 114. The lower limit topology is strictly finer than the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every open interval is open in the lower limit topology.
  PROOF: If x \in (a, b) then x \in [x, b) \subseteq (a, b).
\langle 1 \rangle 2. The half-open interval [0,1) is not open in the standard topology.
  PROOF: There is no open interval (a, b) such that 0 \in (a, b) \subseteq [0, 1).
```

Lemma 115. The K-topology is strictly finer than the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle1. Every open interval is open in the K-topology. PROOF: Corollary 61.1.
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The set $(-1,1) \setminus K$ is not open in the standard topology.

PROOF: There is no open interval (a,b) such that $0 \in (a,b) \subseteq (-1,1) \setminus K$, since there must be a positive integer n with $1/n \in (a,b)$.

Lemma 116. Let X be a topological space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set in the order topology. Let $f, g: X \to Y$ be continuous. Then $C = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \leq g(x)\}$ is closed.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X \setminus C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. f(x) > g(x)

PROVE: There exists a neighbourhood U of x such that $U \subseteq X \setminus C$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Case: There exists y such that g(x) < y < f(x)Proof: Take $U = g^{-1}((-\infty, y)) \cup f^{-1}(y, +\infty)$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Case: There is no y such that g(x) < y < f(x)

PROOF: Take $U = g^{-1}((-\infty, f(x))) \cup f^{-1}(g(x), +\infty)$.

Proposition 117. Let X be a topological space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set in the order topology. Let $f, g: X \to Y$ be continuous. Define $h: X \to Y$ by $h(x) = \min(f(x), g(x))$. Then h is continuous.

PROOF: By the Pasting Lemma applied to $\{x \in X \mid f(x) \leq g(x)\}$ and $\{x \in X \mid g(x) \leq f(x)\}$, which are closed by Lemma 116.

Proposition 118. Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets in the order topology. Let $f: X \to Y$ be strictly monotone and surjective. Then f is a homeomorphism.

Proof:

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 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. f is bijective.

Proof: Proposition 5.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $y \in Y$ we have $f^{-1}((y, +\infty))$ is open.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $y \in Y$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK $x \in X$ such that f(x) = y

Proof: Since f is surjective.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}((y, +\infty)) = (x, +\infty)$

PROOF: By strict monotoncity.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. For all $y \in Y$ we have $f^{-1}((-\infty, y))$ is open. PROOF: Similar.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f^{-1} is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in X$ we have $f((x, +\infty))$ is open.

PROOF: $f((x, +\infty)) = (f(x), +\infty)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $x \in X$ we have $f((-\infty, x))$ is open.

PROOF: $f((-\infty, x)) = (-\infty, f(x))$.

19 The *n*th Root Function

Proposition 119. For all $n \geq 1$, the function $f : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ defined by $f(x) = x^n$ is a homemorphism.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. f is strictly monotone.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with $0 \le x < y$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $x^n < y^n$

$$y^{n} - x^{n} = (y - x)(y^{n-1} + y^{n-2}x + y^{n-3}x^{2} + \dots + x^{n-1})$$

> 0

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. f is surjective.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $y \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $y \leq x^n$

PROOF: If $y \le 1$ take x = 1, otherwise take x = y.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. There exists $x' \in [0, x]$ such that $(x')^n = y$

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Proposition 118.

Definition 120. For $n \geq 1$, the *nth root function* is the function $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ that is the inverse of $\lambda x.x^n$.

20 The Product Topology

Definition 121 (Product Topology). Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. The *product topology* on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$ is the topology generated by the subbasis consisting of the sets of the form $\pi_i^{-1}(U)$ where $i\in I$ and U is open in A_i .

Proposition 122. The product topology on $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is generated by the basis consisting of all sets of the form $\prod_{i \in I} U_i$ where $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a family such that each U_i is an open set in A_i and $U_i = A_i$ for all but finitely many i.

Proof: From Proposition 69.

Proposition 123. If A_i is closed in X_i for all $i \in I$ then $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed in $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$.

Proof:

$$\left(\prod_{i\in I} X_i\right) \setminus \left(\prod_{i\in I} A_i\right) = \bigcup_{j\in I} \left(\prod_{i\in I} X_i \setminus \pi_j^{-1}(A_j)\right) \square$$

Proposition 124. Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. For $i\in I$, let \mathcal{B}_i be a basis for the topology on A_i . Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i\in I} B_i \mid \forall i\in I.B_i\in \mathcal{B}_i, B_i = A_i \text{ for all but finitely many } i\}$ is a basis for the box topology on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every set in \mathcal{B} is open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every point $a \in \prod_{i \in I} A_i$ and every open set U with $a \in U$, there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $a \in B \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be open and $a \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK a family $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ such that each U_i is open in A_i , such that $U_i = A_i$ except for $i = i_1, \ldots, i_n$, and such that $a \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For $j = 1, \ldots, n$, PICK $B_{i_j} \in \mathcal{B}_{i_j}$ such that $a_{i_j} \in B_{i_j} \subseteq U_{i_j}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $B = \prod_{i \in I} B_i$ where $B_i = A_i$ for $i \neq i_1, \ldots, i_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ B \in \mathcal{B}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ a \in B \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 62.

Proposition 125. Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Then the projections $\pi_i: \prod_{i\in I} A_i \to A_i$ are open maps.

PROOF: From Lemma 85.

Example 126. The projections are not always closed maps. For example, $\pi_1: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ maps the closed set $\{(x, 1/x) \mid x > 0\}$ to $(0, +\infty)$.

Proposition 127. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of sets. For $i\in I$, let \mathcal{T}_i and \mathcal{U}_i be topologies on X_i . Let \mathcal{P} be the product topology on $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$ generated by the topologies \mathcal{T}_i , and \mathcal{Q} the product topology on the same set generated by the topologies \mathcal{U}_i . Then $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$ if and only if $\mathcal{T}_i \subseteq \mathcal{U}_i$ for all i.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $\mathcal{T}_i \subseteq \mathcal{U}_i$ for all i then $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$

Proof: By Corollary 61.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$ then $\mathcal{T}_i \subseteq \mathcal{U}_i$ for all i
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $i \in I$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $U \in \mathcal{T}_i$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $U_i = U$ and $U_j = X_j$ for $j \neq i$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \prod_{i \in I} U_i \in \mathcal{P}$ $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \prod_{i \in I} U_i \in \mathcal{Q}$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ U \in \mathcal{U}_i$

PROOF: From Proposition 125.

Proposition 128 (AC). Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let $A_i \subseteq X_i \text{ for all } i \in I. \text{ Then }$

$$\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} = \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i} .$$

Proof:

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i} \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all i \in I we have A_i \subseteq \overline{A_i}
        Proof: Lemma 44.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.Ē.D.
        PROOF: Since \prod_{i \in I} A_i is closed by Proposition 123.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} A_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick V_i open in X_i such that x \in \prod_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq U with V_i = X_i except for
               i = i_1, \dots, i_n
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. For i \in I, pick a_i \in V_i \cap A_i
        PROOF: By Theorem 47 and \langle 2 \rangle 1 using the Axiom of Choice.
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. U intersects \prod_{i \in I} A_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
        PROOF: a \in U \cap \prod_{i \in I} A_i
```

Example 129. The closure of \mathbb{R}^{∞} in \mathbb{R}^{ω} is \mathbb{R}^{ω}

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: *U* be any neighbourhoods of *a*.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK U_n open in $\mathbb R$ for all n such that $a \in \prod_{n \geq 0} U_n \subseteq U$ and $U_n = \mathbb R$ for all n except n_1, \ldots, n_k
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $b_n = a_n$ for $n = n_1, \ldots, n_k$ and $b_n = 0$ for all other n
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ b \in \mathbb{R}^{\infty} \cap U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: From Theorem 47.

Proposition 130. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let (a_n) be a sequence in $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$ and $l\in \prod_{i\in I} X_i$. Then $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$ if and only if, for all $i\in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n)\to\pi_i(l)$ as $n\to\infty$.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ then, for all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$ PROOF: Proposition 104.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of l
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK open sets U_i in X_i such that $l \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq V$ and $U_i = X_i$ for all i except $i = i_1, \ldots, i_k$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For $j = 1, \ldots, k$, PICK N_j such that, for all $n \geq N_j$, we have $\pi_{i_j}(a_n) \in U_j$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $N = \max(N_1, ..., N_k)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in V$

Theorem 131. Let A be a topological space and $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let $f: A \to \prod_{i\in I} X_i$ be a function. If $\pi_i \circ f$ is continuous for all $i\in I$ then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $i \in I$ and U be open in X_i
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $f^{-1}(\pi_i^{-1}(U))$ is open in A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Proposition 89.

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20.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately

Definition 132 (Continuous in Each Variable Separately). Let $F: X \times Y \to Z$. Then F is continuous in each variable separately if and only if:

- for every $a \in X$ the function $\lambda y \in Y.F(a,y)$ is continuous;
- for every $b \in Y$ the function $\lambda x \in X.F(x,b)$ is continuous.

Proposition 133. Let $F: X \times Y \to Z$. If F is continuous then F is continuous in each variable separately.

PROOF: For $a \in X$, the function $\lambda y \in Y.F(a,y)$ is $F \circ i$ where $i: Y \to X \times Y$ maps y to (a,y). We have i is continuous by Proposition 110, hence $F \circ i$ is continuous by Theorem 95.

Similarly for $\lambda x \in X.F(x,b)$ for $b \in Y$. \square

Example 134. Define $F: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$F(x,y) = \begin{cases} xy/(x^2 + y^2) & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

Then F is continuous in each variable separately but not continuous.

Proposition 135. Let $f: A \to C$ and $g: B \to D$ be open maps. Then $f \times g: A \times B \to C \times D$ is an open map.

PROOF: Given U open in A and V open in B. Then $(f \times g)(U \times V) = f(U) \times g(V)$ is open in $C \times D$. The result follows from Proposition 86. \square

21 The Subspace Topology

Definition 136 (Subspace Topology). Let X be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. The *subspace topology* on Y is $\mathcal{T} = \{U \cap Y \mid U \text{ is open in } X\}$.

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

```
\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ Y \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\text{PROOF: Since } Y = X \cap Y \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \text{For all } \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}, \text{ we have } \bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let: } \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{Let: } \mathcal{V} = \{V \text{ open in } X \mid V \cap Y \in \mathcal{U} \} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \bigcup \mathcal{U} = (\bigcup \mathcal{V}) \cap Y \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \text{For all } U, V \in \mathcal{T}, \text{ we have } U \cap V \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let: } U, V \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{PICK } U', V' \text{ open in } X \text{ such that } U = U' \cap Y \text{ and } V = V' \cap Y \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (U \cap V) = (U' \cap V') \cap Y \end{split}
```

Theorem 137. Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$. Then A is closed in Y if and only if there exists a closed set C in X such that $A = C \cap Y$.

PROOF: We have

$$\begin{array}{l} A \text{ is closed in } Y \\ \Leftrightarrow Y \setminus A \text{ is open in } Y \\ \Leftrightarrow \exists U \text{ open in } X.Y \setminus A = Y \cap U \\ \Leftrightarrow \exists C \text{ closed in } X.Y \setminus A = Y \cap (X \setminus U) \\ \Leftrightarrow \exists C \text{ closed in } X.A = Y \cap U \end{array}$$

Theorem 138. Let Y be a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$. Let \overline{A} be the closure of A in X. Then the closure of A in Y is $\overline{A} \cap Y$.

PROOF: The closure of
$$A$$
 in Y is
$$\bigcap \{C \text{ closed in } Y \mid A \subseteq C\}$$
$$= \bigcap \{D \cap Y \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D \cap Y\}$$
 (Theorem 137)
$$= \bigcap \{D \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D\} \cap Y$$
$$= \overline{A} \cap Y$$

Lemma 139. Let X be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Then $\mathcal{B}' = \{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a basis for the subspace topology on Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every element in \mathcal{B}' is open in Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every open set U in Y and point $y \in U$, there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $y \in B' \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be open in Y and $y \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK V open in X such that $U = V \cap Y$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $y \in B \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $B' = B \cap Y$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ B' \in \mathcal{B}'$

$$\langle 2 \rangle$$
6. $y \in B' \subseteq U$
 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Q.E.D.
PROOF: By Lemma 62.

Lemma 140. Let X be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. Let S be a basis for the topology on X. Then $S' = \{S \cap Y \mid S \in S\}$ is a subbasis for the subspace topology on Y.

PROOF: The set $\{B \cap Y \mid B \text{ is a finite intersection of elements of } \mathcal{S}\}$ is a basis for the subspace topology by Lemma 139, and this is the set of all finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S}' . \square

Lemma 141. Let Y be a subspace of X. If U is open in Y and Y is open in X then U is open in X.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. PICK V open in X such that $U = V \cap Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. U is open in X

PROOF: Since it is the intersection of two open sets V and Y.

Theorem 142. Let Y be a subspace of X and $A \subseteq Y$. If A is closed in Y and Y is closed in X then A is closed in X.

PROOF: Pick a closed set C in X such that $A = C \cap Y$ (Theorem 137). Then A is the intersection of two sets closed in X, hence A is closed in X (Lemma 32).

Theorem 143. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let A_i be a subspace of X_i for all $i\in I$. Then the product topology on $\prod_{i\in I}A_i$ is the same as the topology it inherits as a subspace of $\prod_{i\in I}X_i$.

PROOF: The product topology is generated by the subbasis

$$\{\pi_{i}^{-1}(U) \mid i \in I, U \text{ open in } A_{i}\}\$$

$$= \{\pi_{i}^{-1}(V) \cap A_{i} \mid i \in I, V \text{ open in } X_{i}\}\$$

$$= \{\pi_{i}^{-1}(V) \mid i \in I, V \text{ open in } X_{i}\} \cap \prod_{i \in I} A_{i}\$$

and this is a subbasis for the subspace topology by Lemma 140. \square

Theorem 144. Let X be an ordered set in the order topology. Let $Y \subseteq X$ be an interval. Then the order topology on Y is the same as the subspace topology on Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The order topology is finer than the subspace topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For every open ray R in X, the set $R \cap Y$ is open in the order topology.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. For all $a \in X$, we have $(-\infty, a) \cap Y$ is open in the order topology.

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\langle 4 \rangle 1. Case: For all y \in Y we have y < a
  PROOF: In this case (-\infty, a) \cap Y = Y.
```

- $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Case: For all $y \in Y$ we have a < yPROOF: In this case $(-\infty, a) \cap Y = \emptyset$.
- $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Case: There exists $y \in Y$ such that $y \leq a$ and $y \in Y$ such that

 $\langle 5 \rangle 1. \ a \in Y$

PROOF: Because Y is an interval.

- $(5)2. \ (-\infty, a) \cap Y = \{y \in Y \mid y < a\}$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. For all $a \in X$, we have $(a, +\infty) \cap Y$ is open in the order topology. PROOF: Similar.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemmas 112 and 140 and Proposition 70.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The subspace topology is finer than the order topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Every open ray in Y is open in the subspace topology.

PROOF: For any $a \in Y$ we have $(-\infty, a)_Y = (-\infty, a)_X \cap Y$ and $(a, +\infty)_Y =$ $(a,+\infty)_X \cap Y$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 112 and Proposition 70

This example shows that we cannot remove the hypothesis that Y is an interval:

Example 145. The order topology on I_o^2 is different from the subspace topology as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 under the dictionary order topology.

PROOF: The set $\{1/2\} \times (1/2,1)$ is open in the subspace topology but not in the order topology. \square

Proposition 146. Let X be a topological space, Y a subspace of X, and Z a subspace of Y. Then the subspace topology on Z inherited from X is the same as the subspace topology on Z inherited from Y.

PROOF: The subspace topology inherited from Y is

$$\{V \cap Z \mid V \text{ open in } Y\}$$

$$=\{U \cap Y \cap Z \mid U \text{ open in } X\}$$

$$=\{U \cap Z \mid U \text{ open in } X\}$$

which is the subspace topology inherited from X. \square

Definition 147 (Unit Circle). The unit circle S^1 is $\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Definition 148 (Unit 2-sphere). The unit 2-sphere is $S^2 = \{(x,y,z) \mid x^2 + z^2 \}$ $y^2 + z^2 \le 1$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Proposition 149. Let $f: X \to Y$ be an open map and $A \subseteq X$ be open. Then the restriction $f \upharpoonright A : A \to f(A)$ is an open map.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be open in A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. *U* is open in *X*

Proof: Lemma 141.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f(U) is open in Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. f(U) is open in f(A)

PROOF: Since $f(U) = f(U) \cap f(A)$.

Example 150. This example shows that we cannot remove the hypothesis that A is open.

Let $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid (x > 0 \text{ and } y = 1/x) \text{ or } x = y = 0\}$. Then $\pi_1 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is an open map, but $\pi_1 \upharpoonright A : A \to [0, +\infty)$ is not, because it maps the set $\{0, 0\}$ which is open in A to $\{0\}$ which is not open in $[0, +\infty)$.

Proposition 151. Let Y be a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$ and $l \in Y$. Then l is a limit point of A in Y if and only if l is a limit point of A in X.

PROOF: Both are equivalent to the condition that any neighbourhood of l in X intersects A in a point other than l. \square

22 The Box Topology

Definition 152 (Box Topology). Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. The box topology on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$ is the topology generated by the set of all sets of the form $\prod_{i\in I} U_i$ where $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a family such that each U_i is open in A_i .

This is a basis since it covers $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ and is closed under intersection.

Proposition 153. The box topology is finer than the product topology.

Proof: From Proposition 122.

Corollary 153.1. If A_i is closed in X_i for all $i \in I$ then $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed in $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ under the box topology.

PROOF: From Proposition 123.

Proposition 154 (AC). Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. For $i \in I$, let \mathcal{B}_i be a basis for the topology on A_i . Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i\in I} B_i \mid \forall i \in I.B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i\}$ is a basis for the box topology on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$.

Proof.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every set of the form $\prod_{i \in I} B_i$ is open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every point $a \in \prod_{i \in I} A_i$ and every open set U with $a \in U$, there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $a \in B \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: *U* be open and $a \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK a family $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ such that each U_i is open in A_i and $a \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq U$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For $i \in I$, PICK $B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ such that $a_i \in B_i \subseteq U_i$

PROOF: Using the Axiom of Choice.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ a \in \prod_{i \in I} B_i \subseteq U$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 62.

Theorem 155. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let A_i be a subspace of X_i for all $i \in I$. Give $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ the box topology. Then the box topology on $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is the same as the topology it inherits as a subspace of $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$.

PROOF: The box topology is generated by the basis

$$\begin{aligned} &\{\prod_{i\in I} U_i \mid \forall i\in I, U_i \text{ open in } A_i\} \\ &= \{\prod_{i\in I} (V_i\cap A_i) \mid \forall i\in I, V_i \text{ open in } X_i\} \\ &= \{\prod_{i\in I} V_i \mid \forall i\in I, V_i \text{ open in } X_i\} \cap \prod_{i\in I} A_i \end{aligned}$$

and this is a basis for the subspace topology by Lemma 139. \square

Proposition 156 (AC). Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Give $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ the box topology. Let $A_i \subseteq X_i$ for all $i \in I$. Then

$$\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} = \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i} .$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\prod_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $i \in I$ we have $A_i \subseteq \overline{A_i}$

Proof: Lemma 44.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. $\prod_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$
 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Corollary 153.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick V_i open in X_i such that $x \in \prod_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For $i \in I$, pick $a_i \in V_i \cap A_i$

PROOF: By Theorem 47 and $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ using the Axiom of Choice.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. U intersects $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: $a \in U \cap \prod_{i \in I} A_i$.

The following example shows that Theorem 131 fails in the box topology.

Example 157. Define $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ by f(t) = (t, t, ...). Then $\pi_n \circ f = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}}$ is continuous for all n. But f is not continuous when \mathbb{R}^{ω} is given the box topology because the inverse image of

$$(-1,1) \times (-1/2,1/2) \times (-1/3,1/3) \times \cdots$$

is $\{0\}$ which is not open.

The following example shows that Proposition 130 fails in the box topology.

Example 158. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the box topology. Let $a_n = (1/n, 1/n, \ldots)$ for $n \geq 1$ and $l = (0, 0, \ldots)$. Then $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$ for all i, but $a_n \not\to l$ as $n \to \infty$ since the open set

$$(-1,1) \times (-1/2,1/2) \times (-1/3,1/3) \times \cdots$$

contains l but does not contain any a_n .

Example 159. The set \mathbb{R}^{∞} is closed in \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box topology. For let (a_n) be any sequence not in \mathbb{R}^{∞} . Let U_n be an open interval around a_n that does not contain 0 if $a_n \neq 0$, and $U_n = \mathbb{R}$ if $a_n = 0$. Then $\prod_{n \geq 0} U_n$ is a neighbourhood of (a_n) that does not intersect \mathbb{R}^{∞} .

23 T_1 Spaces

Definition 160 (T_1 Space). A topological space is T_1 if and only if every singleton is closed.

Lemma 161. A space is T_1 if and only if every finite set is closed.

PROOF: From Lemma 33.

Theorem 162. In a T_1 space, a point a is a limit point of a set A if and only if every neighbourhood of a contains infinitely many points of A.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If a is a limit point of A then every neighbourhood of a contains infinitely many points of A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: a is a limit point of A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Assume: for a contradiction U contains only finitely many points of A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $(U \cap A) \setminus \{a\}$ is closed.

PROOF: By the T_1 axiom.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $(U \setminus A) \cup \{a\}$ is open.

PROOF: It is $U \setminus ((U \cap A) \setminus \{a\})$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $(U \setminus A) \cup \{a\}$ intersects A in a point other than a.

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If every neighbourhood of a contains infinitely many points of A then a is a limit point of A.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

(To see this does not hold in every space, see Proposition 58.)

Proposition 163. A space is T_1 if and only if, for any two distinct points x and y, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and y of y such that $x \notin V$ and $y \notin U$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a topological space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If X is T_1 then, for any two distinct points x and y, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and V of y such that $x \notin V$ and $y \notin U$.

PROOF: This holds because $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ are closed.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Suppose, for any two distinct points x and y, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and V of y such that $x \notin V$ and $y \notin U$. Then X is T_1 .
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For any two distinct points x and y, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and V of y such that $x \notin V$ and $y \notin U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $\{a\}$ is closed.

PROOF: For all $b \neq a$ there exists a neighbourhood U of b such that $U \subseteq X \setminus \{a\}$.

Proposition 164. A subspace of a T_1 space is T_1 .

PROOF: From Proposition 142.

24 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 165 (Hausdorff Space). A topological space is *Hausdorff* if and only if, for any points x, y with $x \neq y$, there exist disjoint open sets U and V such that $x \in U$ and $y \in V$.

Theorem 166. Every Hausdorff space is T_1 .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a Hausdorff space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $b \in X$

PROVE: $\overline{\{b\}} = \{b\}$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Assume: $a \in \overline{\{b\}}$ and $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK disjoint neighbourhoods U of a and V of b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. *U* intersects $\{b\}$

PROOF: Theorem 47.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ b \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that U and V are disjoint $(\langle 1 \rangle 4)$.

Proposition 167. An infinite set under the finite complement topology is T_1 but not Hausdorff.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be an infinite set under the finite complement topology.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Every singleton is closed.

PROOF: By definition.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick $a, b \in X$ with $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. There are no disjoint neighbourhoods U of a and V of b.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a and V a neighbourhood of b.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $X \setminus U$ and $X \setminus V$ are finite.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK $c \in X$ that is not in $X \setminus U$ or $X \setminus V$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ c \in U \cap V$

Proposition 168. The product of a family of Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of Hausdorff spaces.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i$ with $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK $i \in I$ such that $a_i \neq b_i$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick U, V disjoint open sets in X_i with $a_i \in U$ and $b_i \in V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. $\pi_i^{-1}(U)$ and $\pi_i^{-1}(V)$ are disjoint open sets in $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ with $a \in \pi_i^{-1}(U)$ and $b \in \pi_i^{-1}(V)$

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Theorem 169. Every linearly ordered set under the order topology is Hausdorff.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a linearly ordered set under the order topology.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in X$ with $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Assume: w.l.o.g. a < b
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Case: There exists c such that a < c < b

PROOF: The sets $(-\infty, c)$ and $(c, +\infty)$ are disjoint neighbourhoods of a and b respectively.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Case: There is no c such that a < c < b

PROOF: The sets $(-\infty, b)$ and $(a, +\infty)$ are disjoint neighbourhoods of a and b respectively.

Theorem 170. A subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a Hausdorff space and Y a subspace of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x, y \in Y$ with $x \neq y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint neighbourhoods U of x and V of y in X.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $U \cap Y$ and $V \cap Y$ are disjoint neighbourhoods of x and y respectively in Y.

Proposition 171. A space X is Hausdorff if and only if the diagonal $\Delta = \{(x,x) \mid x \in X\}$ is closed in X^2 .

Proof:

X is Hausdorff

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x, y \in X. \\ x \neq y \Rightarrow \exists V, W \text{ open.} \\ x \in V \land y \in W \land V \cap W = \emptyset$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \forall (x, y) \in X^2 \setminus \Delta. \\ \exists V, W \text{ open.} \\ (x, y) \subseteq V \times W \subseteq X^2 \setminus \Delta$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \Delta \text{ is closed}$$

Theorem 172. In a Hausdorff space, a sequence has at most one limit.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a Hausdorff space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$, $a_n \to m$ as $n \to \infty$, and $l \neq m$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$ PICK disjoint neighbourhoods U of l and V of m

PROOF: By the Hausdorff axiom.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK M and N such that $a_n \in U$ for $n \geq M$ and $a_n \in V$ for $n \geq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ a_{\max(M,N)} \in U \cap V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that U and V are disjoint ($\langle 1 \rangle 3$).

To see this is not always true in spaces that are T_1 but not Hausdorff:

Proposition 173. Let X be an infinite set under the finite complement topology. Let $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence with all points distinct. Then for every $l\in X$ we have $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$.

PROOF: Let U be any neighbourhood of l. Since $X \setminus U$ is finite, there must exist N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in U$. \square

Proposition 174. Let X be a topological space. Let Y a Hausdorff space. Let $A \subseteq X$. Let $f, g : \overline{A} \to Y$ be continuous. If f and g agree on A then f = g.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \overline{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: $f(x) \neq g(x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint neighbourhoods V of f(x) and W of g(x).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick $y \in f^{-1}(V) \cap g^{-1}(W) \cap A$

PROOF: Since $f^{-1}(V) \cap g^{-1}(W)$ is a neighbourhood of x and hence intersects A.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f(y) = g(y) \in V \cap W$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that V and W are disjoint $(\langle 1 \rangle 3)$.

Proposition 175. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of Hausdorff spaces. Then $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$ under the box topology is Hausdorff.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of Hausdorff spaces.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i$ with $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK $i \in I$ such that $a_i \neq b_i$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick U, V disjoint open sets in X_i with $a_i \in U$ and $b_i \in V$
- (1)5. $\pi_i^{-1}(U)$ and $\pi_i^{-1}(V)$ are disjoint open sets in $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ with $a \in \pi_i^{-1}(U)$ and $b \in \pi_i^{-1}(V)$

Proposition 176. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X with $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ If \mathcal{T} is Haudorff then \mathcal{T}' is Haudorff.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

25 The First Countability Axiom

Definition 177 (First Countability Axiom). A topological space X satisfies the *first countability axiom*, or is *first countable*, if and only if every point has a countable local basis.

Lemma 178 (Sequence Lemma (CC)). Let X be a first countable space. Let $A \subseteq X$ and $l \in \overline{A}$. Then there exists a sequence in A that converges to l.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. PICK a countable local basis $\{B_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ at l such that $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$. PROOF: Lemma 72.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $n \geq 1$, PICK $a_n \in A \cap B_n$. PROVE: $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK N such that $B_N \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. For $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in U$

PROOF: $a_n \in B_n \subseteq B_N \subseteq U$

Theorem 179 (CC). Let X be a first countable space and Y a topological space. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose that, for every sequence (x_n) in X and $l \in X$, if $x_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$, then $f(x_n) \to f(l)$ as $n \to \infty$. Then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $A \subseteq X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in A$

Prove: $f(a) \in \overline{f(A)}$

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\langle 1 \rangle3. PICK a sequence (x_n) in A that converges to a. PROOF: By the Sequence Lemma. \langle 1 \rangle4. f(x_n) \rightarrow f(a) \langle 1 \rangle5. f(a) \in \overline{f(A)} PROOF: By Lemma 74. \langle 1 \rangle6. Q.E.D.
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PROOF: By Theorem 92.

Example 180 (CC). The space \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box product is not first countable.

PROOF: Let $\{B_n \mid n \geq 0\}$ be a countable set of neighbourhoods of $\vec{0}$. We will construct a neighbourhood of $\vec{0}$ that does not include any of these. For $n \geq 0$, pick a neighbourhood U_n of 0 such that $U_n \subset \pi_n(B_p)$. Then $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n$ is a neighbourhood of $\vec{0}$ that does not include any B_n . \square

Example 181. If J is an uncountable set then \mathbb{R}^J is not first countable.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\{B_n \mid n \geq 0\}$ be any countable set of neighbourhoods of $\vec{0}$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For $n \geq 0$, PICK a basis element $\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{n\alpha}$ that contains $\vec{0}$ and is included in B_n .

PROOF: Using the Axiom of Countable Choice.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $n \geq 0$, LET: $J_n = \{ \alpha \in J \mid U_{n\alpha} \neq \mathbb{R} \}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK $\beta \in J$ such that $\beta \notin J_n$ for any n.

PROOF: Since each J_n is finite so $\bigcup_n J_n$ is countable.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\pi_{\beta}((-1,1))$ is a neighbourhood of $\vec{0}$ that does not include any B_n .

Example 182. The space \mathbb{R}_l is first countable.

PROOF: For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, the set $\{[a, a+1/n) \mid n \geq 1\}$ is a countable local basis.

Example 183. The ordered square is first countable.

PROOF: For any $(a,b) \in I_o^2$ with $b \neq 0,1$, the set $\{(\{a\} \times (b-1/n,b+1/n)) \cap I_o^2 \mid n \geq 1\}$ is a countable local basis.

26 Strong Continuity

Definition 184 (Strongly Continuous). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is *strongly continuous* if and only if, for every subset $U \subseteq Y$, we have U is open in Y if and only if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in X.

Proposition 185. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is strongly continuous if and only if, for every subset $C \subseteq Y$, we have C is closed in Y if and only if $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X.

PROOF: Since $X \setminus f^{-1}(C) = f^{-1}(Y \setminus C)$. \square

Proposition 186. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If f and g are strongly continuous then so is $g \circ f$.

PROOF: Since $(g \circ f)^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(U))$. \Box

Proposition 187. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If $g \circ f$ is continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $V \subseteq Z$ be open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is open in X.

PROOF: Since $g \circ f$ is continuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$ $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in Y.

Proof: Since g is strongly continuous.

П

Proposition 188. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If $g \circ f$ is strongly continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is strongly continuous.

PROOF: For $V \subseteq Z$, we have V is open iff $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is open iff $g^{-1}(V)$ is open.

27 Saturated Sets

Definition 189. Let X and Y be sets and p: X woheadrightarrow Y a surjective function. Let $C \subseteq X$. Then C is *saturated* with respect to p if and only if, for all $x, y \in X$, if $x \in C$ and p(x) = p(y) then $y \in C$.

Proposition 190. Let X and Y be sets and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a surjective function. Let $C \subseteq X$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. C is saturated with respect to p.
- 2. There exists $D \subseteq Y$ such that $C = p^{-1}(D)$
- 3. $C = p^{-1}(p(C))$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 3$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: C is saturated with respect to p.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $C \subseteq p^{-1}(p(C))$

Proof: Trivial.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(p(C)) \subseteq C$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in p^{-1}(p(C))$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ p(x) \in p(C)$

28 Quotient Maps

Definition 191 (Quotient Map). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \to Y$. Then p is a *quotient map* if and only if p is surjective and strongly continuous.

```
1. p is a quotient map.
```

- 2. p is continuous and maps saturated open sets to open sets.
- 3. p is continuous and maps saturated closed sets to closed sets.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is a quotient map.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U be a saturated open set in X.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(p(U)) is open in X.
       PROOF: Since U = p^{-1}(p(U)) be Proposition 190.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. p(U) is open in Y.
       PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 1 \Rightarrow 3
   PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is continuous and maps saturated open sets to open sets.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U \subseteq Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: p^{-1}(U) is open in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. p^{-1}(U) is saturated.
       Proof: Proposition 190.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. U is open in Y.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1
   PROOF: Similar.
```

Corollary 192.1. Every surjective continuous open map is a quotient map.

Corollary 192.2. Every surjective continuous closed map is a quotient map.

Example 193. The converses of these corollaries do not hold.

Let $A = \{(x,y) \mid x \geq 0\} \cup \{(x,y) \mid y = 0\}$. Then $\pi_1 : A \to \mathbb{R}$ is a quotient map, but not an open map or a closed map.

We prove that π_1 maps saturated open sets to open sets:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\pi_1^{-1}(U)$ be a saturated open set in A Prove: U is open in $\mathbb R$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ (x,0) \in \pi_1(U)^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK W, V open in \mathbb{R} such that $(x,0) \subseteq W \times V \subseteq \pi_1(U)^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ x \in W \subseteq U$

It is not an open map because it maps $((-1,1) \times (1,2)) \cap A$ to [0,1).

It is not a closed map because it maps $\{(x, 1/x) \mid x > 0\}$ to $(0, +\infty)$.

Proposition 194. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. Let $A \subseteq X$ be saturated with respect to p. Let $q: A \to p(A)$ be the restriction of p.

- 1. If A is either open or closed in X then q is a quotient map.
- 2. If p is either an open map or a closed map then q is a quotient map.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $A \subseteq X$ be saturated with respect to p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $q: A \rightarrow p(A)$ be the restriction of p.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. q is continuous.

PROOF: Theorem 96.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. If A is open in X then q is a quotient map.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: A is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. q maps saturated open sets to open sets.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $U \subseteq A$ be saturated with respect to q and open in A
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. U is saturated with respect to p
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in X$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Assume: $x \in U$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Assume: p(x) = p(y)
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ x \in A$

PROOF: From $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ and $\langle 4 \rangle 2$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 5. \ y \in A$

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ and $\langle 4 \rangle 3$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 6. \ q(x) = x(y)$

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 3$, $\langle 4 \rangle 3$, $\langle 4 \rangle 4$, $\langle 4 \rangle 5$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 7. \ y \in U$

PROOF: From $\langle 3 \rangle 1$, $\langle 4 \rangle 2$, $\langle 4 \rangle 6$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. U is open in X

Proof: Lemma 141, $\langle 2 \rangle 1$, $\langle 3 \rangle 1$.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. p(U) is open in Y

Proof: Proposition 192, $\langle 1 \rangle 1$, $\langle 3 \rangle 2$, $\langle 3 \rangle 3$

```
\langle 3 \rangle 5. q(U) is open in p(A)
         PROOF: Since q(U) = p(U) = p(U) \cap p(A).
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 192.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. If A is closed in X then q is a quotient map.
   PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. If p is an open map then q is a quotient map.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is an open map
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. q maps saturated open sets to open sets.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: U be open in A and saturated with respect to q
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK V open in X such that U = A \cap V
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. p(V) is open in Y
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ \ q(U) = p(V) \cap p(A)
         \langle 4 \rangle 1. \ q(U) \subseteq p(V) \cap p(A)
            PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 2.
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ p(V) \cap p(A) \subseteq q(U)
             \langle 5 \rangle 1. Let: y \in p(V) \cap p(A)
             \langle 5 \rangle 2. Pick x \in V and x' \in A such that p(x) = p(x') = y
             \langle 5 \rangle 3. \ x \in A
                Proof: By \langle 1 \rangle 2.
             \langle 5 \rangle 4. \ x \in U
                PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 192.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. If p is a closed map then q is a quotient map.
   PROOF: Similar.
```

Example 195. This example shows we cannot remove the hypotheses on A and p.

Define $f:[0,1] \to [2,3] \to [0,2]$ by f(x)=x if $x \le 1$, f(x)=x-1 if $x \ge 2$. Then f is a quotient map but its restriction f' to $[0,1) \cup [2,3]$ is not, because ${f'}^{-1}([1,2])$ is open but [1,2] is not.

For a counterexample where A is saturated, see Example 201.

Proposition 196. Let $p: A \twoheadrightarrow C$ and $q: B \twoheadrightarrow D$ be open quotient maps. Then $p \times q: A \times B \to C \times D$ is an open quotient map.

PROOF: From Corollary 192.1, Proposition 135 and Theorem 131.

Theorem 197. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. Let Z be a topological space and $f: Y \to Z$ be a function. Then

- 1. $f \circ p$ is continuous if and only if f is continuous.
- 2. $f \circ p$ is a quotient map if and only if f is a quotient map.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If f \circ p is continuous then f is continuous. PROOF: Proposition 187. \langle 1 \rangle 2. If f is continuous then f \circ p is continuous. PROOF: Theorem 95. \langle 1 \rangle 3. If f \circ p is a quotient map then f is a quotient map. PROOF: Proposition 188. \langle 1 \rangle 4. If f is a quotient map then f \circ p is a quotient map. PROOF: From Proposition 186.
```

Proposition 198. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $p: X \to Y$ and $f: Y \to X$ be continuous maps such that $p \circ f = \mathrm{id}_Y$. Then p is a quotient map.

```
PROOF:  \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } V \subseteq Y \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Assume: } p^{-1}(V) \text{ is open in } X. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(p^{-1}(V)) \text{ is open in } Y. \\ \text{PROOF: Because } f \text{ is continuous.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ V \text{ is open in } Y. \\ \text{PROOF: Because } f^{-1}(p^{-1}(V)) = V. \\ \sqcap
```

29 Quotient Topology

Definition 199 (Quotient Topology). Let X be a topological space, Y a set and $p: X \to Y$ be a surjective function. Then the *quotient topology* on Y is the unique topology on Y with respect to which p is a quotient map, namely $\mathcal{T} = \{U \in \mathcal{P}Y \mid p^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X\}.$

We prove this is a topology.

Definition 200 (Quotient Space). Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X. Let $p:X \twoheadrightarrow X/\sim$ be the canonical surjection. Then X/\sim under the quotient topology is called a *quotient space*, *identification space* or *decomposition space* of X.

Here is a counterexample showing we cannot remove all the hypotheses of Proposition 194 except that A is saturated.

Example 201. Let $X = (0, 1/2] \cup \{1\} \cup \{1 + 1/n : n \ge 2\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R} . Define R to be the equivalence relation on X where xRy iff (x = y or |x-y| = 1), so we identify 1/n with 1+1/n for all $n \geq 2$. Let Y be the resulting quotient space X/R in the quotient topology and $p:X \to Y$ the canonical surjection.

Let $A = \{1\} \cup (0, 1/2] \setminus \{1/n : n \ge 2\} \subseteq X$. Then A is saturated under p but the restriction q of p to A is not a quotient map because it maps the saturated open set $\{1\}$ to $\{1\}$ which is not open in p(A).

Proposition 202. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If f and g are quotient maps then so is $g \circ f$.

Proof: From Proposition 186.

Example 203. The product of two quotient maps is not necessarily a quotient

Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and X^* the quotient space formed by identifying all positive integers. Let $p: X \to X^*$ be the canonical surjection.

We prove $p \times \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{Q}} : X \times \mathbb{Q} \to X^* \times \mathbb{Q}$ is not a quotient map.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. For n \geq 1,
          Let: c_n = \sqrt{2}/n
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For n \geq 1,
          Let: U_n = \{(x,y) \in X \times \mathbb{Q} \mid n-1/4 < x < n+1/4, (y+n > x + y) \}
                    c_n \text{ and } y + n > -x + c_n \text{ or } (y + n < x + c_n \text{ and } y + n < -x + c_n)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For n \geq 1, we have U_n is open in X \times \mathbb{Q}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. For n \geq 1, we have \{n\} \times \mathbb{Q} \subseteq U_n
\langle 1 \rangle5. Let: U = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n
\langle 1 \rangle6. U is open in X \times \mathbb{Q}
\langle 1 \rangle 7. U is saturated with respect to p \times id_{\mathbb{O}}
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Let: U' = (p \times id_{\mathbb{Q}})(U)
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Assume: for a contradiction U' is open in X^* \times \mathbb{Q}
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ (1,0) \in U'
\langle 1 \rangle 11. PICK a neighbourhood W of 1 in X^* and \delta > 0 such that W \times (-\delta, \delta) \subseteq U'
\langle 1 \rangle 12. \ p^{-1}(W) \times (-\delta, \delta) \subseteq U
\langle 1 \rangle 13. PICK n such that c_n < \delta
\langle 1 \rangle 14. \ n \in p^{-1}(W)
(1)15. PICK \epsilon > 0 such that \epsilon < \delta - c_n and \epsilon < 1/4 and (n - \epsilon, n + \epsilon) \subseteq p^{-1}(W)
```

Proposition 204. Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X. Then $X/\sim is\ T_1$ if and only if every equivalence class is closed in X.

Proof: Immediate from definitions. \square

 $\langle 1 \rangle 16. \ (n - \epsilon, n + \epsilon) \times (-\delta, \delta) \subseteq U$

Proof: This contradicts $\langle 1 \rangle 16$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 18. \ (n + \epsilon/2, y) \notin U$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 19$. Q.E.D.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 17$. PICK a rational y such that $c_n - \epsilon/2 < y < c_n + \epsilon/2$

30 Retractions

Definition 205 (Retraction). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. A retraction of X onto A is a continuous map $r: X \to A$ such that, for all $a \in A$, we have r(a) = a.

Proposition 206. Every retraction is a quotient map.

PROOF: Proposition 198 with f the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$. \square

31 Homogeneous Spaces

Definition 207 (Homogeneous). A topological space X is homogeneous if and only if, for any points $a, b \in X$, there exists a homeomorphism $\phi : X \cong X$ such that $\phi(a) = b$.

32 Regular Spaces

Definition 208 (Regular Space). A topological space X is *regular* if and only if, for any closed set A and point $a \notin A$, there exist disjoint open sets U, V such that $A \subseteq U$ and $a \in V$.

33 Connected Spaces

Definition 209 (Separation). A *separation* of a topological space X is a pair of disjoint open sets U, V such that $U \cup V = \emptyset$.

Definition 210 (Connected). A topological space is *connected* if and only if it has no separation; otherwise it is *disconnected*.

Proposition 211. A topological space X is connected if and only if the only sets that are both open and closed are X and \emptyset .

Immediate from defintions.

Lemma 212. If Y is a subspace of X, a separation of Y is a pair of disjoint nonempty sets A and B whose union is Y, neither of which contains a limit point of the other.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $A, B \subseteq Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If A and B form a separation of Y then A and B are disjoint and nonempty, $A \cup B = Y$, and neither of A and B contains a limit point of the other.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: A and B form a separation of Y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. A and B are disjoint and nonempty and $A \cup B = Y$ PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and the definition of separation.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. A does not contain a limit point of B

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction l \in A and l is a limit point of B in X.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. l is a limit point of B in Y
        Proof: Proposition 151.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ l \in B
        \langle 4 \rangle 1. B is closed in Y
           PROOF: Since A is open in Y and B = Y \setminus A from \langle 2 \rangle 1.
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
           PROOF: Corollary 57.1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: This contradicts the fact that A \cap B = \emptyset (\langle 2 \rangle 1).
  \langle 2 \rangle 4. B does not contain a limit point of A
     Proof: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle3. If A and B are disjoint and nonempty, A \cup B = Y, and neither of A and
       B contains a limit point of the other, then A and B form a separation of
       Y.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: A and B are disjoint and nonempty, A \cup B = Y, and neither
                        of A and B contains a limit point of the other.
  \langle 2 \rangle 2. A is open in Y
     \langle 3 \rangle 1. B is closed in Y
         \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: l be a limit point of B in Y
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. l is a limit point of B in X
           Proof: Proposition 151.
         \langle 4 \rangle 3. \ l \notin A
            Proof: By \langle 2 \rangle 1
         \langle 4 \rangle 4. \ l \in B
           PROOF: By \langle 2 \rangle 1 since A \cup B = Y
         \langle 4 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
           PROOF: Corollary 57.1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
        PROOF: Since A = Y \setminus B.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. B is open in Y
     PROOF: Similar.
```

Example 213. Every set under the indiscrete topology is connected.

Example 214. The discrete topology on a set X is connected if and only if $|X| \leq 1$.

Example 215. The finite complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is infinite.

Example 216. The countable complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is uncountable.

Example 217. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are disconnected. For any irrational a, the sets $(-\infty, a) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ and $(a, +\infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ form a separation of \mathbb{Q} .

Lemma 218. Let X be a topological space. If C and D form a separation of X, and Y is a connected subspace of X, then either $Y \subseteq C$ or $Y \subseteq D$.

PROOF: Otherwise $Y \cap C$ and $Y \cap D$ would form a separation of Y. \square

Theorem 219. The union of a set of connected subspaces of a space X that have a point in common is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{A} be a set of connected subspaces of the space X that have the point a in common.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Assume: without loss of generality $a \in C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $A \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 218.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ D = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

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Theorem 220. Let X be a topological space and A a connected subspace of X. If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$ then B is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of B.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality $A \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 218.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ B \subset C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in B$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ x \in \overline{A}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Either $x \in A$ or x is a limit point of A.

PROOF: Theorem 57.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Either $x \in A$ or x is a limit point of C.

Proof: Lemma 59, $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in C$

Proof: Lemma 212.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $D = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts $\langle 1 \rangle 1$.

Theorem 221. The image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be a surjective continuous map where X is connected.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of Y.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $f^{-1}(C)$ and $f^{-1}(D)$ form a separation of X.

Theorem 222. The product of a family of connected spaces is connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The product of two connected spaces is connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: X and Y be connected spaces.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in X$ and $b \in Y$

PROOF: We may assume X and Y are nonempty since otherwise $X \times Y = \emptyset$ which is connected.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $X \times \{b\}$ is connected.

Proof: It is homeomorphic to X.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all $x \in X$ we have $\{x\} \times Y$ is connected.

PROOF: It is homeomorphic to Y.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For any $x \in X$

Let: $T_x = (X \times \{b\}) \cup (\{x\} \times Y)$ $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $x \in X$, T_x is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 219 since $(x, b) \in (X \times \{b\}) \cap (\{x\} \times Y)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $X \times Y$ is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 219 since $X \times Y = \bigcup_{x \in X} T_x$ and (a, b) is a point in every

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The product of a finite family of connected spaces is connected.

Proof: From $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ by induction.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. The product of any family of connected spaces is connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in J}$ be a family of connected spaces.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $a \in X$

PROOF: We may assume $X \neq \emptyset$ as the empty space is connected.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For every finite subset K of J,

Let:
$$X_K = \{x \in X \mid \forall \alpha \in J \setminus K.x_\alpha = a_\alpha\}$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For every finite $K \subseteq J$, we have X_K is connected.

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ since $X_K \cong \prod_{\alpha \in K} X_K$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Let: $Y = \bigcup_K X_K$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. Y is connected

PROOF: Theorem 219 since a is a common point.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ X = \overline{Y}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Let: $U = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{\alpha}$ be a basic neighbourhood of x where $U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}$ for all α except $\alpha \in K$ for some finite $K \subseteq J$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: $y \in X$ be the point with $y_{\alpha} = x_{\alpha}$ for $\alpha \in K$ and $y_{\alpha} = a_{\alpha}$ for all other α
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in U \cap X_K$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ y \in U \cap Y$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 9$. X is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 220.

Example 223. The set \mathbb{R}^{ω} is disconnected under the box topology. The set of bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.

Proposition 224. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X. If $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ and (X, \mathcal{T}') is connected then (X, \mathcal{T}) is connected.

PROOF: If U and V form a separation of (X, \mathcal{T}) then they form a separation of (X, \mathcal{T}') . \square

Proposition 225. Let X be a topological space and (A_n) a sequence of connected subspaces of X. If $A_n \cap A_{n+1} \neq \emptyset$ for all n then $\bigcup_n A_n$ is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of $\bigcup_n A_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality $A_0 \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 218.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all n we gave $A_n \subseteq C$

Proof:

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: $A_n \subseteq C$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $x \in A_n \cap A_{n+1}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \in C$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $A_{n+1} \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 218.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: The result follows by induction.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $D = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts $\langle 1 \rangle 1$.

П

Proposition 226. Let X be a topological space. Let $A, C \subseteq X$. If C is connected and intersects both A and $X \setminus A$ then C intersects ∂A .

PROOF: Otherwise $C \cap A^{\circ}$ and $C \setminus \overline{A}$ would form a separation of C. \square

Example 227. The space \mathbb{R}_l is disconnected. For any real x, the sets $(-\infty, x)$ and $[x, +\infty)$ form a separation.

Proposition 228. Let X and Y be connected spaces. Let A be a proper subset of X and B a proper subset of Y. Then $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Pick $a \in X \setminus A$ and $b \in Y \setminus B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For $x \in X \setminus A$ we have $(X \times \{b\}) \cup (\{x\} \times Y)$ is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 219 since (x, b) is a common point.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $y \in Y \setminus B$ we have $(X \times \{y\}) \cup (\{a\} \times Y)$ is connected. PROOF: Theorem 219 since (a, y) is a common point.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 219 since it is the union of the sets in $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ and $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ with (a,b) as a common point.

Proposition 229. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. If Y is connected and $p^{-1}(y)$ is connected for all $y \in Y$, then X is connected.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is saturated.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in C$, $y \in X$ with p(x) = p(y) = a, say
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ y \notin D$

PROOF: Otherwise $p^{-1}(a) \cap C$ and $p^{-1}(a) \cap D$ form a separation of $p^{-1}(a)$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. D is saturated.

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. p(C) and p(D) form a separation of Y.

Proposition 230. Let X be a connected space and Y a connected subspace of X. Suppose A and B form a separation of $X \setminus Y$. Then $Y \cup A$ and $Y \cup B$ are both connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $Y \cup A$ is connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of $Y \cup A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality $Y \subseteq C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK open sets A_1, B_1, C_1, D_1 in X with

$$A = A_1 \setminus Y$$

$$B = B_1 \setminus Y$$

$$C = C_1 \cap (Y \cup A)$$

$$D = D_1 \cap (Y \cup A)$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $B_1 \cup C_1$ and $A_1 \cap D_1$ form a separation of X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $Y \cup B$ is connected.

PROOF: Similar.

П

Theorem 231. Let L be a linearly ordered set under the order topology. Then L is connected if and only if L is a linear continuum.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If L is a linear continuum then L is connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: L be a linear continuum under the order topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of L.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $a \in C$ and $b \in D$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Assume: without loss of generality a < b.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: $S = \{ x \in L \mid a < x \text{ and } [a, x) \subseteq C \}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. S is nonempty.

PROOF: Since $a \in C$ and C is open.

```
\langle 2 \rangle7. S is bounded above by b.
   PROOF: Since b \notin C.
\langle 2 \rangle 8. Let: s = \sup S
\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ s \in S
   \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: y \in [a, s)
           Prove: y \in C
   \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick z with y < z \in S
      PROOF: By minimality of s.
   \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in [a,z) \subseteq C
\langle 2 \rangle 10. Case: s \in C
   \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick x such that s < x and [s, x) \subseteq C
      PROOF: Since C is open and s is not greatest in L because s < b.
   \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in S
      PROOF: Since [a, x) = [a, s) \cup [s, x) \subseteq C.
   \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: This contradicts the fact that s is an upper bound for S.
\langle 2 \rangle 11. Case: s \in D
   \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick x < s such that (x, s] \subseteq D
   \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick y with x < y < s
      Proof: Since L is dense.
   \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in C
      Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 9.
   \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in D
      PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 1.
   \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
   \langle 3 \rangle 6. Let: L be a linear continuum under the order topology.
   \langle 3 \rangle7. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of L.
   \langle 3 \rangle 8. Pick a \in C and b \in D.
   \langle 3 \rangle 9. Assume: without loss of generality a < b.
   \langle 3 \rangle 10. Let: S = \{ x \in L \mid a < x \text{ and } [a, x) \subseteq C \}
   \langle 3 \rangle 11. S is nonempty.
      PROOF: Since a \in C and C is open.
   \langle 3 \rangle 12. S is bounded above by b.
      PROOF: Since b \notin C.
   \langle 3 \rangle 13. Let: s = \sup S
   \langle 3 \rangle 14. \ s \in S
      \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: y \in [a, s)
               Prove: y \in C
      \langle 4 \rangle 2. Pick z with y < z \in S
         PROOF: By minimality of s.
      \langle 4 \rangle 3. \ y \in [a, z) \subseteq C
   \langle 3 \rangle 15. Case: s \in C
      \langle 4 \rangle 1. Pick x such that s < x and [s, x) \subseteq C
         PROOF: Since C is open and s is not greatest in L because s < b.
```

PROOF: Since $[a, x) = [a, s) \cup [s, x) \subseteq C$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2. \ x \in S$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that s is an upper bound for S.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 16$. Case: $s \in D$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. PICK x < s such that $(x, s] \subseteq D$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Pick y with x < y < s

Proof: Since L is dense.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ y \in C$

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 9$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ y \in D$

PROOF: From $\langle 3 \rangle 1$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

Proof: This contradicts $\langle 2 \rangle 2$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If L is connected then L is a linear continuum.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: L is connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Every nonempty subset of L that is bounded above has a supremum.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a nonempty subset of L bounded above by b.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction X has no supremum.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: *U* be the set of upper bounds of *X*,
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. *U* is nonempty.

PROOF: Since $b \in U$.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. *U* is open.
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in U$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. PICK an upper bound y for X such that y < x
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Either x is greatest in L and $(y, x] \subseteq U$, or there exists z > x such that $(y, z) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$. Let: V be the set of lower bounds of U.
- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 7. V is nonempty.

PROOF: Since $X \subseteq V$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 8$. V is open.
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in V$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Pick $y \in X$ with x < y

PROOF: x cannot be an upper bound for X, because it would be the supremum of X.

- $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Either x least in L and $[x,y) \subseteq V$, or there exists z < x such that $(z,y) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 9. \ L = U \cup V$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in L \setminus U$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. PICK $y \in X$ such that x < y
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. For all $u \in U$ we have $x < y \le u$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ x \in V$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 10. \ U \cap V = \emptyset$

PROOF: Any element of $U \cap V$ would be a supremum of X.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 11$. *U* and *V* form a separation of *L*.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 12$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. L is dense.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in L$ with x < y
- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. There exists $z \in L$ such that x < z < y

PROOF: Otherwise $(-\infty, y)$ and $(x, +\infty)$ would form a separation of L.

Corollary 231.1. The real line \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 231.2. Every interval in \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 231.3. The ordered square is connected.

Theorem 232 (Intermediate Value Theorem). Let X be a connected space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set under the order topology. Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Let $a, b \in X$ and $r \in Y$. Suppose f(a) < r < f(b). Then there exists $c \in X$ such that f(c) = r.

PROOF: Otherwise $f^{-1}((-\infty,r))$ and $f^{-1}((r,+\infty))$ would form a separation of X. \square

Proposition 233. Every function $f:[0,1] \to [0,1]$ has a fixed point.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $g:[0,1] \to [-1,1]$ be the function g(x) = f(x) xProve: there exists $x \in [0,1]$ such that g(x) = 0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality $g(0) \neq 0$ and $g(1) \neq 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \ g(0) > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ g(1) < 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. There exists $x \in (0,1)$ such that g(x) = 0

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

Proposition 234. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the box topology. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$. Then x and y lie in the same comoponent if and only if x - y is eventually zero, i.e. there exists N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $x_n = y_n$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The component containing 0 is the set of sequences that are eventually zero.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: B be the set of sequences that are eventually zero.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. B is path-connected.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in B$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $x_n = y_n = 0$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}^{\omega}, \ p(t)=(1-t)x+ty$ Prove: p is continuous.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. Let: $t \in [0,1]$ and $\prod_j U_j$ be a basic open neighbourhood of p(t), where each U_i is open in \mathbb{R}
 - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 5. PICK δ such that, for all n < N and all $s \in [0,1]$, if $|s-t| < \delta$ then $p(s)_n \in U_n$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$. For all $s \in [0,1]$, if $|s-t| < \delta$ then $p(s) \in \prod_j U_j$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. B is connected.

```
Proof: Proposition 240.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. If C is connected and B \subseteq C then B = C.
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: C is connected and B \subseteq C
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction x \in C \setminus B
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. For n \geq 1,
              Let: c_n = 1 if x_n = 0, c_n = n/x_n otherwise
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. Let: h: \mathbb{R}^{\omega} \to \mathbb{R}^{\omega} be the function h(x) = (c_n x_n)_{n \geq 1}
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. h is a homeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^{\omega} with itself.
      \langle 3 \rangle 6. h(x) is unbounded.
         PROOF: For any b > 0, pick N > b such that x_N \neq 0. Then h(x)_N > b.
       \langle 3 \rangle7. h^{-1}(\{\text{bounded sequences}\}) \cap C and h^{-1}(\{\text{unbounded sequences}\}) \cap C
               form a separation of C
       \langle 3 \rangle 8. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: This contradicts \langle 3 \rangle 1.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: Since \lambda x.x - y is a homeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^{\omega} with itself.
```

34 Totally Disconnected Spaces

Definition 235 (Totally Disconnected). A topological space X is *totally disconnected* if and only if the only connected subspaces are the singletons.

Example 236. Every discrete space is totally disconnected.

Example 237. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are totally disconnected.

35 Paths and Path Connectedness

Definition 238 (Path). Let X be a topological space and $a, b \in X$. A path from a to b is a continuous function $p:[0,1] \to X$ such that p(0)=a and p(1)=b.

Definition 239 (Path Connected). A topological space is *path connected* if and only if there exists a path between any two points.

Proposition 240. Every path connected space is connected.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a path connected space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick $a \in C$ and $b \in D$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick a path $p : [0,1] \to X$ from a to b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $p^{-1}(C)$ and $p^{-1}(D)$ form a separation of [0,1].
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

Proof: This contradicts Corollary 231.2.

An example that shows the converse does not hold:

Example 241. The ordered square is not path connected.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $p:[0,1] \to I_0^2$ is a path from (0,0) to (1,1).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. p is surjective.

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $x \in [0,1]$, PICK a rational $q_x \in p^{-1}((x,0),(x,1))$

PROOF: Since $p^{-1}((x,0),(x,1))$ is open and nonempty by $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $x, y \in [0, 1]$, if $x \neq y$ then $q_x \neq q_y$

PROOF: We have $p(q_x) \neq p(q_y)$ because ((x,0),(x,1)) and ((y,0),(y,1)) are disjoint.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\{q_x \mid x \in [0,1]\}$ is an uncountable set of rationals.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that the rationals are countable.

Proposition 242. The continuous image of a path connected space is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a path connected space, Y a topological space, and $f: X \twoheadrightarrow Y$ be continuous and surjective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick $c, d \in X$ with f(c) = a and f(d) = b
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a path $p : [0,1] \to X$ from c to d.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. $f \circ p$ is a path from a to b in Y.

 $\prod_{i=1}^{n}$

Proposition 243 (AC). The product of a family of path-connected spaces is path-connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in J}$ be a family of path-connected spaces.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $\alpha \in J$, PICK a path $p_{\alpha} : [0,1] \to X_{\alpha}$ from a_{α} to b_{α} PROOF: Using the Axiom of Choice.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Define $p:[0.1] \to \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$ by $p(t)_{\alpha} = p_{\alpha}(t)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. p is a path from a to b.

PROOF: Theorem 131.

Proposition 244. The continuous image of a path-connected space is path-connected.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be continuous and surjective where X is path-connected.

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\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: a, b \in Y
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick $a', b' \in X$ with f(a') = a and f(b') = b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a path $p : [0,1] \to X$ from a' to b'.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $f \circ p$ is a path from a to b.

Proposition 245. Let X be a topological space. The union of a set of path-connected subspaces of X that have a point in common is path-connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{A} be a set of path-connected subspaces of X with the point a in common.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $b, c \in \bigcup A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK $B, C \in \mathcal{A}$ with $b \in B$ and $c \in C$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a path p in B from b to a.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK a path q in C from a to c.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. The concatenation of p and q is a path from b to c in $\bigcup A$.

Proposition 246. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be countable. Then $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$ is path-connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a line l in \mathbb{R}^2 with a on one side and b on the other.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. For every point x on l, Let: p_x be the path in \mathbb{R}^2 consisting of a line from a to x then a line from x to b
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $x \neq y$ we have p_x and p_y have no points in common except a and b
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. There are only countably many x such that a point of A lies on p_x .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. There exists x such that p_x is a path from a to b in $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$.

Proposition 247. Every open connected subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 is path-connected.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be an open connected subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $x_0 \in U$,

Let: $PC(x_0) = \{ y \in U \mid \text{there exists a path from } x \text{ to } y \}$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $x_0 \in U$, the set $PC(x_0)$ is open and closed in U.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x_0 \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $PC(x_0)$ is open in U
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $y \in PC(x_0)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(y, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

PROOF: Since U is open.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ B(y, \epsilon) \subseteq PC(x_0)$

PROOF: For all $z \in B(y, \epsilon)$, pick a path from x_0 to y then concatenate the straight line from y to z.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $PC(x_0)$ is closed in U

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: y \in U be a limit point of PC(x_0)

\langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick \epsilon > 0 such that B(y,\epsilon) \subseteq U

\langle 3 \rangle 3. Pick z \in PC(x_0) \cap B(y,\epsilon)

\langle 3 \rangle 4. y \in PC(x_0)

Proof: Pick a path from x_0 to z then concatenate the straight line from z to y.

\langle 1 \rangle 4. PC(x_0) = U

Proof: Proposition 211.
```

Example 248. If A is a connected subspace of X, then A° is not necessarily connected.

Take two closed circles in \mathbb{R}^2 that touch at one point. The interior of this space is two open circles, and these two circles form a separation.

Example 249. If A is a connected subspace of X then ∂A is not necessarily connected.

We have [0,1] is connected but $\partial[0,1] = \{0,1\}$ is not.

Example 250. If A is a subspace of X and A° and ∂A are connected, then A is not necessarily connected.

We have $\mathbb{Q}^{\circ} = \emptyset$ and $\partial \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{R}$ are connected but \mathbb{Q} is not connected.

36 The Topologist's Sine Curve

Definition 251 (The Topologist's Sine Curve). Let $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$, The *topologist's sine curve* is the closure \overline{S} of S in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Proposition 252. The topologist's sine curve is connected.

Proposition 253. The topologist's sine curve is $\{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\} \cup (\{0\} \times [-1.1]).$

PROOF: Sketch proof: Given a point (0.y) with $-1 \le y \le 1$, pick a such that $\sin a = y$. Then $((1/a, y), (1/(a + 2\pi), y), (1/(a + 4\pi), y), \ldots)$ is a sequence in S that converges to (0, y).

Conversely, let (x,y) be any point not in $S \cup (\{0\} \times [-1,1])$. If x < 0 or y > 1 or y < -1 then we can easily find a neighbourhood that does not intersect $S \cup (\{0\} \times [-1,1])$. If x > 0 and $-1 \le y \le 1$, then we have $y \ne \sin 1/x$. Hence pick a neighbourhood that does not intersect S.

Proposition 254. Every closed subset of \mathbb{R} that is bounded above has a greatest element.

PROOF: It has a supremum, which is a limit point of the set and hence an element. \square

Proposition 255 (CC). The topologist's sine curve is not path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: For a contradction $p:[0,1] \to \overline{S}$ is a path from (0,0) to $(1,\sin 1)$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\{ t \in [0,1] \mid p(t) \in \{0\} \times [-1,1] \}$ is closed.

PROOF: Since p is continuous and $\{0\} \times [-1, 1]$ is closed.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Let: b be the largest number in [0,1] such that $p(b) \in \{0\} \times [-1,1]$. Proof: Proposition 254.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x : [b,1] \to \overline{S}$ be the function $\pi_1 \circ p$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Let: $y:[b,1] \to \overline{S}$ be the function $\pi_2 \circ p$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. PICK a sequence t_n in (b,1] such that $t_n \to b$ and $y(t_n) = (-1)^n$ for all $n \in \langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: $n \geq 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK *u* with 0 < u < x(1/n) and $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK t_n with $b < t_n < 1/n$ and $x(t_n) = u$

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts Proposition 104 since y is continuous and $y(t_n)$ does not converge.

Corollary 255.1. The closure of a path-connected subspace of a space is not necessarily path-connected.

37 The Long Line

Definition 256 (The Long Line). The *long line* is the space $\omega_1 \times [0,1)$ in the dictionary order under the order topology, where ω_1 is the first uncountable ordinal.

Lemma 257. For any ordinal α with $0 < \alpha < \omega_1$ we have $[(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1)$

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ [(0,0),(1,0)) \cong [0,1)
```

PROOF: The map π_2 is a homeomorphism.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If $[(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1)$ then $[(0,0),(\alpha+1,0)) \cong [0,1)$

Proof: Proposition 13.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If λ is a limit ordinal with $\lambda < \omega_1$ and $[(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1)$ for all α with $0 < \alpha < \lambda$ then $[(0,0),(\lambda,0)) \cong [0,1)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: λ be a limit ordinal $\langle \omega_1 \rangle$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: $[(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1)$ for all α with $0 < \alpha < \lambda$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Pick a sequence of ordinals $\alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \cdots$ with limit λ Proof: Since λ is countable.

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\langle 2 \rangle4. [(\alpha_i, 0), (\alpha_{i+1}, 0)) \cong [0, 1) for all i PROOF: Lemma 12. \langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D. PROOF: By Proposition 14. \langle 1 \rangle4. Q.E.D. PROOF: By transfinite induction.
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Proposition 258 (CC). The long line is path-connected.

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Proof:
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Proposition 259. Every point in the long line has a neighbourhood homeomorphic to an interval in \mathbb{R} .

PROOF: For any (α, i) in the long line, the neighbourhood $[(0, 0), (\alpha + 1, 0))$ satisfies the condition by Lemma 257.

Proposition 260. The long line L is not second countable.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{B} be a basis for L.
- (1)2. For $\alpha < \omega_1$, PICK $B_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $(\alpha, 1/2) \in B_{\alpha} \subseteq ((\alpha, 0), (\alpha + 1, 0))$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \mathcal{B} is uncountable.

PROOF: The mapping $\alpha \mapsto B_{\alpha}$ is an injection $\omega_1 \to \mathcal{B}$.

Corollary 260.1. The long line cannot be imbedded into \mathbb{R}^n for any n.

38 Components

Proposition 261. Let X be a topological space. Define the relation \sim on X by $a \sim b$ if and only if there exists a connected subspace $A \subseteq X$ with $a, b \in A$. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. \sim is reflexive.

PROOF: For any $a \in X$ we have $\{a\}$ is a connected subspace that contains a. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \sim is symmetric.

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \sim is transitive.

Definition 262 ((Connected) Component). Let X be a topological space. The (connected) components of X are the equivalence classes under the above \sim .

Lemma 263. Let X be a topological space. If $A \subseteq X$ is connected and nonempty then there exists a unique component C of X such that $A \subseteq C$.

Proof:

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Pick } a \in A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } C \text{ be the $\sim$-equivalence class of } a. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. A \subseteq C \\ \text{ Proof: For all } x \in A \text{ we have } x \sim a. \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ If } C' \text{ is a component and } A \subseteq C' \text{ then } C = C' \\ \text{ Proof: Since we have } a \in C'. \\ \end{array}
```

Theorem 264. Let X be a topological space. The components of X are connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that each nonempty connected subspace of X intersects only one of them.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every component of X is connected.

PROOF: For $a \in X$, the \sim -equivalence class of a is $\bigcup \{A \subseteq X \mid A \text{ is connected}, a \in A \}$

A} which is connected by Theorem 219.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The components form a partition of X.

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$ Every nonempty connected subspace of X intersects a unique component of X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $A \subseteq X$ be connected and nonempty.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: C be the component such that $A \subseteq C$ Proof: Lemma 263.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. A intersects C
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. If A intersects the component C' then C' = C
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: C' be a component that intersects A
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick $b \in A \cap C'$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ A \subseteq C'$

PROOF: For all $x \in A$ we have $x \sim b$.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. C = C'

PROOF: By uniqueness in $\langle 2 \rangle 2$.

Proposition 265. Every component of a space is closed.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a topological space and C a component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \overline{C} is connected.

Proof: Theorem 220.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ C = \overline{C}$

Proof: Lemma 218.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C is closed.

Proof: Lemma 46.

Proposition 266. If a topological space has finitely many components then every component is open.

Proof: Each component is the complement of a finite union of closed sets. \square

39 Path Components

Proposition 267. Let X be a topological space. Define the relation \sim on X by: $a \sim b$ if and only if there exists a path in X from a to b. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. \sim is reflexive.

PROOF: For $a \in X$, the constant function $[0,1] \to X$ with value a is a path from a to a.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \sim is symmetric.

PROOF: If $p:[0,1] \to X$ is a path from a to b, then $\lambda t.p(1-t)$ is a path from b to a.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \sim is transitive.

PROOF: Concatenate paths.

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Definition 268 (Path Component). Let X be a topological space. The *path components* of X are the equivalence relations under \sim .

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Theorem 269. The path components of X are path-connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that every nonempty path-connected subspace of X intersects exactly one path component.

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every path component is path-connected.

PROOF: If a and b are in the same path component then $a \sim b$, i.e. there exists a path from a to b.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The path components are disjoint and their union is X.

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$ Every non-empty path-cönnected subspace of X intersects exactly one path component.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: A be a nonempty path-connected subspace of X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. A intersects the \sim -equivalence class of a.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: C be any path component that intersects A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick $b \in A \cap C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $a \sim b$

PROOF: Since A is path-connected.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. C is the \sim -equivalence class of a.

Proposition 270. Every path component is included in a component.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a topological space and C a path component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is path-connected.

PROOF: Theorem 269.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. C is connected.

Proof: Proposition 240.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C is included in a component.

Proof: Lemma 263.

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40 Local Connectedness

Definition 271 (Locally Connected). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. Then X is *locally connected* at a if and only if every neighbourhood of a includes a connected neighbourhood of a.

The space X is *locally connected* if and only if it is locally connected at every point.

Example 272. The real line is both connected and locally connected.

Example 273. The space $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is disconnected but locally connected.

Example 274. The topologist's sine curve is connected but not locally connected.

Example 275. The rationals $\mathbb Q$ are neither connected nor locally connected.

Theorem 276. A topological space X is locally connected if and only if, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ If X is locally connected then, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: X is locally connected.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be open in X.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: C be a component of U.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $a \in C$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: V be a connected neighbourhood of a such that $V \subseteq U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ V \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 263.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 25.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X, then X is locally connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. The component of U that contains a is a connected neighbourhood of a included in U.

Example 277. The ordered square is locally connected.

PROOF: Every neighbourhood of a point includes an interval around that point, which is connected by Theorem 231.

Example 278. Let X be the set of all rational points on the line segment $[0,1] \times \{0\}$, and Y the set of all rational points on the line segment $[0,1] \times \{1\}$. Let A be the space consisting of all line segments joining the point (0,1) to a point of X, and all line segments joining the point (1,0) to a point of Y. Then A is path-connected but is not locally connected at any point,

Proposition 279. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \rightarrow\!\!\!\!\rightarrow Y$ be a quotient map. If X is locally connected then so is Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: *U* be an open set in *Y*.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: C be a component of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(C)$ is a union of components of $p^{-1}(U)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in p^{-1}(C)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: D be the component of $p^{-1}(U)$ that contains x.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. p(D) is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 221.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ p(D) \subseteq C.$

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ since $p(x) \in p(D) \cap C$ $(\langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 2)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $D \subseteq p^{-1}(C)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ p^{-1}(C)$ is open in $p^{-1}(U)$

PROOF: Theorem 276.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. C is open in U

PROOF: Since the restriction of p to $p:p^{-1}(U) woheadrightarrow U$ is a quotient map by Proposition 194.

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\langle 1 \rangle6. Q.E.D. PROOF: Theorem 276.
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41 Local Path Connectedness

Definition 280 (Locally Path-Connected). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. Then X is *locally path-connected* at a if and only if every neighbourhood of a includes a path-connected neighbourhood of a.

The space X is *locally path-connected* if and only if it is locally path-connected at every point.

Theorem 281. A topological space X is locally path-connected if and only if, for every open set U in X, every path component of U is open in X.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If X is locally path-connected then, for every open set U in X, every path component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: X is locally path-connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: *U* be open in *X*.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: C be a path component of U.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $a \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: V be a path-connected neighbourhood of a such that $V \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ V \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 263.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 25.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X, then X is locally connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. The component of U that contains a is a connected neighbourhood of a included in U.

Theorem 282. If a space is locally path connected then its components and its path components are the same.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ Let: X be a locally path connected space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: C be a component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in C$
- (1)4. Let: P be the path component of xProve: P = C
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ P \subseteq C$

```
PROOF: Proposition 270.  \langle 1 \rangle 6. \text{ Let: } Q \text{ be the union of the other path components included in } C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 7. C = P \cup Q \\ \text{PROOF: Proposition 270.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 8. P \text{ and } Q \text{ are open in } C \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. C \text{ is open.} \\ \text{PROOF: Theorem 276.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ Q.E.D.} \\ \text{PROOF: Theorem 281.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 9. Q = \emptyset \\ \text{PROOF: Otherwise } P \text{ and } Q \text{ would form a separation of } C.
```

Example 283. The ordered square is not locally path connected, since it is connected but not path connected.

Proposition 284. Let X be a locally path-connected space. Then every connected open subspace of X is path-connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be a connected open subspace of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: P be a path component of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: Q be the union of the other path components of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. P and Q are open in U.

Proof: Theorem 281.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ Q = \emptyset$

PROOF: Otherwise P and Q form a separation of U.

42 Weak Local Connectedness

Definition 285 (Weakly Locally Connected). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. Then X is weakly locally connected at a if and only if every neighbourhood of a includes a connected subspace that includes a neighbourhood of a

Proposition 286. Let X be a topological space. If X is weakly locally connected at every point then X is locally connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: X is weakly locally connected at every point.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be open in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: C be a component of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. PICK a connected subspace D of U that includes a neighbourhood V of x.

```
\langle 2 \rangle3. D \subseteq C
PROOF: Lemma 263.
\langle 2 \rangle4. x \in V \subseteq C
\langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
PROOF: Lemma 25.
\langle 1 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
PROOF: Theorem 276.
```

Example 287. The 'infinite broom' (Munkres p.163) is an example of a space that is weakly locally connected at a point p but not locally connected at p.

43 Quasicomponents

Proposition 288. Let X be a topological space. Define \sim on X by $x \sim y$ if and only if there exists no separation U and V of X such that $x \in U$ and $y \in V$. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. ~ is reflexive.

PROOF: Since the two sets that make up a separation are disjoint.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \sim is symmetric.

PROOF: Immediate from the defintion.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \sim is transitive.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction there is a separation U and V of X with $x \in U$ and $z \in V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in U \text{ or } y \in V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Either case contradicts $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

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Definition 289 (Quasicomponents). For X a topological space, the *quasicomponents* of X are the equivalence classes under \sim .

Proposition 290. Let X be a topological space. Then every component of X is included in a quasicomponent of X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: C be a component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x, y \in C$

Prove: $x \sim y$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$ Assume: for a contradiction there exists a separation U and V of X with $x \in U$ and $y \in V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $C \cap U$ and $C \cap V$ form a separation of C.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts $\langle 1 \rangle 1$.

Proposition 291. In a locally connected space, the components and the quasicomponents are the same.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a locally connected space and Q a quasicomponent of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a component C of X such that $C \subseteq Q$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: D be the union of the components of X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C and D are open in X.

PROOF: Theorem 276.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. D cannot contain any points of Q.

PROOF: If it did, then C and D would form a separation of X and there would be points $x, y \in Q$ with $x \in C$ and $y \in D$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ C = Q$

44 Open Coverings

Definition 292 (Open Covering). Let X be a topological space. An *open* covering of X is a covering of X whose elements are all open sets.

45 Compact Spaces

Definition 293 (Compact). A topological space is *compact* if and only if every open covering has a finite subcovering.

Lemma 294. Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ If Y is compact then every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: Y is compact.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be a covering of Y by sets open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $\{ U \cap Y \mid U \in \mathcal{U} \}$ is an open covering of Y.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{U_1 \cap Y, \dots, U_n \cap Y\}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$ is a finite subcovering of \mathcal{U} .
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. If every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering then Y is compact.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{U} be an open covering of Y.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\mathcal{V} = \{ V \text{ open in } X \mid V \cap Y \in \mathcal{U} \}.$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. \mathcal{V} is a covering of Y by sets open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{V_1, \ldots, V_n\}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $\{V_1 \cap Y, \dots, V_n \cap Y\}$ is a finite subcovering of \mathcal{U} .

Proposition 295. Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a compact space and $Y \subseteq X$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be a covering of Y by sets open in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\mathcal{U} \cup \{X \setminus Y\}$ is an open covering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering \mathcal{U}_0
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. $\mathcal{U}_0 \cap \mathcal{U}$ is a finite subset of \mathcal{U} that covers Y.

Lemma 296. If Y is a compact subspace of a Hausdorff space X and $x_0 \in X \setminus Y$ then there exist disjoint open sets U and V with $x_0 \in U$ and $Y \subseteq V$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $y \in Y$ there exist disjoint open sets U', V' with $x_0 \in U'$ and $y \in V'$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\{ V' \text{ open in } X \mid \text{there exists } U' \text{ open in } X \text{ with } x_0 \in U' \text{ and } U' \cap V' = \emptyset \}$ covers Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick a finite subcover $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\}$

Proof: Lemma 294.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK U_i open in X with $x_0 \in U_i$ and $U_1 \cap V_i = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Take $U = U_1 \cap \cdots \cap U_n$ and $V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_n$

Corollary 296.1. Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Theorem 297. The continuous image of a compact space is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be continuous and surjective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: V be an open covering of Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{p^{-1}(V) \mid V \in \mathcal{V}\}$ is an open covering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{p^{-1}(V_1), \dots, p^{-1}(V_n)\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \text{ covers } Y.$

Theorem 298. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a bijective continuous function. If X is compact and Y is Hausdorff then f is a homeomorphism.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $C \subseteq X$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is compact.

Proof: Proposition 295.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f(C) is compact.

Proof: Theorem 297.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. f(C) is closed.

Proof: Corollary 296.1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 106.

Lemma 299 (Tube Lemma). Let X and Y be topological spaces with Y compact. Let $a \in X$ and N be an open set in $X \times Y$ that includes $\{a\} \times Y$. Then there exists a neighbourhood W of a such that N includes the tube $W \times Y$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For every $y \in Y$, there exist open sets U in X and V in Y such that $a \in U$, $y \in V$ and $U \times V \subseteq N$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. {V open in Y | there exists U open In X such that $a \in U$ and $U \times V \subseteq N$ } covers Y.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{V_1, \ldots, V_n\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK a neighbourhood U_i of a such that $U_1 \times V_i \subseteq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $W = U_1 \cap \cdots \cap U_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ W \times Y \subseteq N$

Theorem 300. Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if every set of closed sets that has the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection.

PROOF: The following are equivalent.

- 1. X is compact.
- 2. Every open covering of X has a finite subcovering.
- 3. For any set \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ covers X then there is a finite subset \mathcal{C}_0 such that $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}_0\}$ covers X
- 4. For any set \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if $\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$ then there is a finite subset \mathcal{C}_0 with empty intersection.
- 5. Any set of closed sets with the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection.

Corollary 300.1. Let X be a topological space and $C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \cdots$ a nested sequence of nonempty closed sets. Then $\bigcap_n C_n$ is nonempty.

Proposition 301. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X with $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$. If \mathcal{T}' is compact then \mathcal{T} is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ cover X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. A finite subset of \mathcal{U} covers X.

Corollary 301.1. If \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are two compact Hausdorff topologies on the same set X, then either $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}'$ or \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are incomparable.

PROOF: From the Proposition and Proposition 176. \square

Example 302. Any set under the finite complement topology is compact.

Proposition 303. Let X be a topological space. A finite union of compact subspaces of X is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: A and B be compact subspaces of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be a set of open sets in X that covers $A \cup B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a finite subset \mathcal{U}_1 that covers A.

Proof: Lemma 294.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subset \mathcal{U}_2 that covers B.

PROOF: Lemma 294.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2$ is a finite subset that covers $A \cup B$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 294.

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Proposition 304. Let A and B be disjoint compact subspaces of the Hausdorff space X. Then there exist disjoint open sets U and V that include A and B respectively.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ For all $x \in A,$ there exist disjoint open sets U' and V' with $x \in U'$ and $B \subset V'$

Proof: Lemma 296

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\{ U' \text{ open in } X \mid \exists V' \text{ open in } Y.U' \cap V' = \emptyset \text{ and } B \subseteq V' \} \text{ covers } A$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick a finite subcover $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK V_i open in Y such that $U_i \cap V_i = \emptyset$ and $B \subseteq V_i$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $U = U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Let: $V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7.~U$ and V are disjoint open sets that include A and B respectively. \square

Proposition 305. Let X be a compact space, Y a Hausdorff space, and f: $X \to Y$ a continuous map. Then f is a closed map.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $C \subseteq X$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is compact.

Proof: Proposition 295.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f(C) is compact.

PROOF: Theorem 297.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. f(C) is closed.

Proof: Corollary 296.1.

Proposition 306. If Y is compact then the projection $\pi_1: X \times Y \to X$ is a closed map.

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PROOF:
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $A \subseteq X \times Y$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X \setminus \pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $y \in Y$, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and V of y such that $U \times V$ is disjoint from A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. {V open in Y | $\exists neighbourhoodU$ of $x.U \times V \cap A = \emptyset$ } covers Y.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Pick a finite subcover $\{V_1, \ldots, V_n\}$
- (1)6. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK a neighbourhood U_i of x such that $U_i \times V_i$ is disjoint from A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Let: $U = U_1 \cap \cdots \cap U_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ x \in U \subseteq X \setminus \pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: So $X \setminus \pi_1(A)$ is open by Lemma 25.

46 Topological Groups

Definition 307 (Topological Group). A topological group G consists of a T_1 space G and continuous maps $\cdot: G^2 \to G$ and $()^{-1}: G \to G$ such that $(G,\cdot,()^{-1})$ is a group.

Example 308. 1. The integers \mathbb{Z} under addition are a topological group.

- 2. The real numbers \mathbb{R} under addition are a topological group.
- 3. The positive reals under multiplication are a topological group.
- 4. The set $\{z\in\mathbb{C}\mid |z|=1\}$ under multiplication and given the topology of S^1 is a topological group.
- 5. For any $n \geq 0$, the general linear group $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ is a topological group under matrix multiplication, considered as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^{n^2} .

Lemma 309. Let G be a T_1 space and $\cdot: G^2 \to G$, $(\)^{-1}: G \to G$ be functions such that $(G, \cdot, (\)^{-1})$ is a group. Then G is a topological group if and only if the function $f: G^2 \to G$ that maps (x, y) to xy^{-1} is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If G is a topological group then f is continuous.
 - PROOF: From Theorem 95.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f is continuous then G is a topological group.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. ()⁻¹ is continuous.

PROOF: Since $x^{-1} = f(e, x)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. · is continuous.

PROOF: Since $xy = f(x, y^{-1})$.

П

Lemma 310. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Then H is a topological group under the subspace topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. H is T_1 .

Proof: From Proposition 164.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. multiplication and inverse on H are continuous.

PROOF: From Theorem 96.

П

Lemma 311. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Then \overline{H} is a subgroup of G.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in \overline{H}$ PROVE: $xy^{-1} \in \overline{H}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be any neighbourhood of xy^{-1}

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $f: G^2 \to G$, $f(a,b) = ab^{-1}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(U)$ is a neighbourhood of (x,y)

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK neighbourhoods V, W of x and y respectively such that $f(V \times W) \subseteq U$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Pick $a \in V \cap H$ and $b \in W \cap H$

PROOF: Theorem 47.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ ab^{-1} \in U \cap H$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Theorem 47.

П

Proposition 312. Let G be a topological group and $\alpha \in G$. Then the maps $l_{\alpha}, r_{\alpha} : G \to G$ defined by $l_{\alpha}(x) = \alpha x$, $r_{\alpha}(x) = x \alpha$ are homeomorphisms of G with itself.

Proof: They are continuous with continuous inverses $l_{\alpha^{-1}}$ and $r_{\alpha^{-1}}$. \square

Corollary 312.1. Every topological group is homogeneous.

PROOF: Given a topological group G and $a,b\in G$, we have $l_{ba^{-1}}$ is a homeomorphism that maps a to b. \square

Proposition 313. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. For all $\alpha \in G$, the map $\overline{f_{\alpha}}$ that sends xH to αxH is a homeomorphism $G/H \cong G/H$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\overline{f_{\alpha}}$ is well-defined.

PROOF: If $xy^{-1} \in H$ then $(\alpha x)(\alpha y)^{-1} = xy^{-1} \in H$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\overline{f_{\alpha}}$ is continuous.

PROOF: Theorem 197 since $\overline{f_{\alpha}} \circ p = p \circ f_{\alpha}$ is continuous, where $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ is the canonical surjection.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{f_{\alpha}}^{-1} is continuous.
     PROOF: Similar since \overline{f_{\alpha}}^{-1} = \overline{f_{\alpha^{-1}}}.
```

Corollary 313.1. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then G/H is homogeneous.

Proposition 314. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. If H is closed in G then G/H is T_1 .

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: p: G \rightarrow G/H be the canonical surjection
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in G$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(xH) = f_x(H)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $p^{-1}(xH)$ is closed in G

PROOF: Since H is closed and f_x is a homemorphism of G with itself.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\{xH\}$ is closed in G/H

Proposition 315. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then the canonical surjection $p:G \to G/H$ is an open map.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U \subseteq G be open.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. p^{-1}(p(U)) = \bigcup_{h \in H} r_h(U)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. p^{-1}(p(U)) is open.
```

$$(1/2, p)$$
 $(p(0))$ $O_{h \in H}$ $(1/3, p^{-1}(p(U)))$ is open

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. p(U) is open.

Proposition 316. Let G be a topological group and H a closed normal subgroup of G. Then G/H is a topological group under the quotient topology.

Proof:

П

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. G/H is T_1

Proof: Proposition 314.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The map $\overline{m}: (xH, yH) \mapsto xy^{-1}H$ is continuous.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$ $p^2: G^2 \to (G/H)^2$ is a quotient map.

Proof: Propositions 196, 315.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\overline{m} \circ p^2$ is continuous.

PROOF: As it is $p^2 \circ m$ where $m: G^2 \to G$ with $m(x,y) = xy^{-1}$

Lemma 317. Let G be a topological group and $A, B \subseteq G$. If either A or B is open then AB is open.

PROOF: If A is open we have $AB = \bigcup_{b \in B} r_b(A)$. Similarly if B is open. \square

Definition 318 (Symmetric Neighbourhood). Let G be a topological group. A neighbourhood V of e is symmetric if and only if $V = V^{-1}$.

Lemma 319. Let G be a topological group. Let V be a neighbourhood of e. Then V is symmetric if and only if, for all $x \in V$, we have $x^{-1} \in V$.

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ If } V \text{ is symmetric then, for all } x \in V, \text{ we have } x^{-1} \in V \\ &\text{Proof: Immediate from defintions.} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ If, for all } x \in V, \text{ we have } x^{-1} \in V, \text{ then } V \text{ is symmetric.} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: for all } x \in V \text{ we have } x^{-1} \in V \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ V \subseteq V^{-1} \\ &\text{Proof: If } x \in V \text{ then there exists } y \in V \text{ such that } x = y^{-1}, \text{ namely } y = x^{-1} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ V^{-1} \subseteq V \\ &\text{Proof: Immediate from } \langle 2 \rangle 1. \\ &\square \end{split}
```

Lemma 320. Let G be a topological group. For every neighbourhood U of e, there exists a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $V^2 \subseteq U$.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U be a neighbourhood of e.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a neighbourhood V' of e such that $V'V' \subseteq U$ PROOF: Such a neighbourhood exists because multiplication in G is continuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. PICK a neighbourhood W of e such that $WW^{-1} \subseteq V'$ PROOF: Such a neighbourhood exists because the function that maps (x,y) to xy^{-1} is continuous.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: V = WW^{-1}
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. V is a neighbourhood of e

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ e \in V$

PROOF: Since $e \in W$ so $e = ee^{-1} \in V$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. V is open

Proof: Lemma 317.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. V is symmetric

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in V$ we have $x^{-1} \in V$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in V$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK $y, z \in W$ such that $x = yz^{-1}$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x^{-1} = zy^{-1}$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x^{-1} \in V$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in V^{-1}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 319

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ V^2 \subseteq U$

PROOF: We have $V^2 \subseteq (V')^2 \subseteq U$

Proposition 321. Every topological group is Hausdorff.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: G be a topological group.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: x, y \in G with x \neq y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U = G \setminus \{x[^{-1}y]\}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VV \subseteq U
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. U is open
      PROOF: Since G is T_1.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ e \in U
      PROOF: Since x \neq y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: Lemma 320.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Vx and Vy are disjoint neighbourhoods of x and y respectively.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Vx is open
      PROOF: Since Vx = r_x(V)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Vy is open
      PROOF: Similar.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ Vx \cap Vy = \emptyset
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction z \in Vx \cap Vy
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick a, b \in V such that z = ax = by
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ xy^{-1} \in VV
         Proof: Since xy^{-1} = a^{-1}b
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ xy^{-1} \in U
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 3.
Proposition 322. Every topological group is regular.
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: G be a topological group.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $A \subseteq G$ be a closed set and $a \notin A$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $U = G \setminus Aa^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $VV \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. U is open

PROOF: Since $Aa^{-1} = r_{a^{-1}}(A)$ is closed.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ e \in U$

PROOF: Since $a \notin A$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 320.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. VA and Va are disjoint open sets with $A \subseteq VA$ and $a \in Va$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. VA is open

Proof: Lemma 317

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Va is open

Proof: Lemma 317

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. VA \cap Va = \emptyset$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $z \in VA \cap Va$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick $b, c \in V$ and $d \in A$ with z = bd = ca
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ da^{-1} \in U$

```
\langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
         Proof: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 3
Proposition 323. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give
G/H the quotient topology. If H is closed in G then G/H is regular.
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: p: G \rightarrow G/H be the canonical surjection.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: A be a closed set in G/H and aH \in (G/H) \setminus A.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: B = p^{-1}(A)
\langle 1 \rangle 4. B is a closed saturated set in G.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ B \cap aH = \emptyset
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ B = BH
\langle 1 \rangle 7. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VB does not intersect
        Va
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: U = G \setminus Ba^{-1}
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VV \subseteq U
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. U is open
         PROOF: Since Ba^{-1} = r_{a^{-1}}(B) is closed.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ e \in U
         PROOF: If e \in Ba^{-1} then a \in B
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
         Proof: Lemma 320
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. VB \cap Va = \emptyset
      PROOF: If vb = v'a for v, v' \in V and b \in B then we have ba^{-1} = v^{-1}v' \in V
      Ba \cap VV \subseteq Ba \cap U.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. p(VB) and p(Va) are disjoint open sets
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. p(VB) and p(Va) are open.
      Proof: Proposition 315.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. p(VB) \cap p(Va) = \emptyset
      PROOF: If vbH = v'aH for v, v' \in V, b \in B then v'a = vbh for some h \in H.
      Hence v'a \in Va \cap VBH = Va \cap VB.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ A \subseteq p(VB)
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ aH \in p(Va)
```

Proposition 324. Let G be a topological group. The component of G that contains e is a normal subgroup of G.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: C be the component of G that contains e.

PROOF: Since $da^{-1} = b^{-1}c \in VV \subseteq U$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $x \in G$, xC is the component of G that contains x.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in G$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: D be the component of G that contains x.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ xC \subseteq D$

```
PROOF: Since xC is connected by Theorem 221. \langle 2 \rangle 4. D \subseteq xC
PROOF: Since x^{-1}D \subseteq C similarly. \langle 1 \rangle 3. For all x \in G, Cx is the component of G that contains x. PROOF: Similar. \langle 1 \rangle 4. For all x \in C we have xC = Cx = C \langle 1 \rangle 5. For all x \in C we have x^{-1}C = C \langle 1 \rangle 6. For all x \in C we have x^{-1} \in C \langle 1 \rangle 7. For all x, y \in C we have xy \in C PROOF: Since xyC = xC = x. \langle 1 \rangle 8. For all x \in G we have xC = Cx. PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 2 and \langle 1 \rangle 3.
```

47 The Metric Topology

Definition 325 (Metric). Let X be a set. A *metric* on X is a function $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ such that:

- 1. For all $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) \ge 0$
- 2. For all $x, y \in X$, d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- 3. For all $x, y \in X$, d(x, y) = d(y, x)
- 4. (Triangle Inequality) For all $x, y, z \in X$, $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

We call d(x, y) the distance between x and y.

Definition 326 (Open Ball). Let X be a metric space. Let $a \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$. The *open ball* with *centre a* and *radius* ϵ is

$$B(a,\epsilon) = \{ x \in X \mid d(a,x) < \epsilon \} .$$

Definition 327 (Metric Topology). Let X be a metric space. The *metric topology* on X is the topology generated by the basis consisting of all the open balls.

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

Proof

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For every point a, there exists a ball B such that $a \in B$ PROOF: We have $a \in B(a,1)$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For any balls B_1 , B_2 and point $a \in B_1 \cap B_2$, there exists a ball B_3 such that $a \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $B_1 = B(c_1, \epsilon_1)$ and $B_2 = B(c_2, \epsilon_2)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\delta = \min(\epsilon_1 d(c_1, a), \epsilon_2 d(c_2, a))$ Prove: $B(a, \delta) \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in B(a, \delta)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in B_1$

Proof:

$$d(x, c_1) = d(x, a) + d(a, c_1)$$

$$< \delta + d(a, c_1)$$

$$\le \epsilon_1$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in B_2$

PROOF: Similar.

Proposition 328. Let X be a metric space and $U \subseteq X$. Then U is open if and only if, for every $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If U is open then, for all $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$. $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: U is open.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $a \in X$ and $\delta > 0$ such that $x \in B(a, \delta) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $\epsilon = \delta d(a, x)$ Prove: $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ d(y,a) < \delta$

Proof:

$$d(y,a) \le d(a,x) + d(x,y)$$
$$< \delta + d(x,y)$$
$$= \epsilon$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$, then U is open. PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Definition 329 (Discrete Metric). Let X be a set. The *discrete metric* on X is defined by

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

Proposition 330. The discrete metric induces the discrete topology.

PROOF: For any (open) set U and point $a \in U$, we have $a \in B(a,1) \subseteq U$. \square

Definition 331 (Standard Metric on \mathbb{R}). The *standard metric* on \mathbb{R} is defined by d(x,y) = |x-y|.

Proposition 332. The standard metric on \mathbb{R} induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every open ball is open in the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

PROOF: $B(a, \epsilon) = (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon)$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every open set U and point $a \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(a,\epsilon) \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be an open set and $a \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK an open interval b, c such that $a \in (b,c) \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\epsilon = \min(a b, c a)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ B(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

Definition 333 (Metrizable). A topological space X is metrizable if and only if there exists a metric on X that induces the topology.

Definition 334 (Bounded). Let X be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. Then A is *bounded* if and only if there exists M such that, for all $x, y \in A$, we have $d(x, y) \leq M$.

Definition 335 (Diameter). Let X be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. The *diameter* of A is

$$\operatorname{diam} A = \sup_{x,y \in A} d(x,y) .$$

Definition 336 (Standard Bounded Metric). Let d be a metric on X. The standard bounded metric corresponding to d is the metric \overline{d} defined by

$$\overline{d}(x,y) = \min(d(x,y),1) .$$

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

```
TROOF.  \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{d}(x,y) \geq 0  PROOF: Since d(x,y) \geq 0  \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = y  PROOF: \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 if and only if d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y  \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{d}(x,y) = \overline{d}(y,x)  PROOF: Since d(x,y) = d(y,x)  \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \overline{d}(x,z) \leq \overline{d}(x,y) + \overline{d}(y,z)  PROOF:  \overline{d}(x,y) + \overline{d}(y,z) = \min(d(x,y),1) + \min(d(y,z),1)   = \min(d(x,y) + d(y,z), d(x,y) + 1, d(y,z) + 1, 2)   \geq \min(d(x,z),1)   = \overline{d}(x,z)
```

Lemma 337. In any metric space X, the set $\mathcal{B} = \{B(a, \epsilon) \mid a \in X, \epsilon < 1\}$ is a basis for the metric topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every element of \mathcal{B} is open.

PROOF: From Lemma 61.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every open set U and point $a \in U$, there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $a \in B \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be an open set and $a \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $B(a, \min(\epsilon, 1/2)) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Lemma 62.

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Proposition 338. Let d be a metric on the set X. Then the standard bounded metric \overline{d} induces the same metric as d.

PROOF: This follows from Lemma 337 since the open balls with radius < 1 are the same under both metrics. \square

Lemma 339. Let d and d' be two metrics on the same set X. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be the topologies they induce. Then $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ if and only if, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

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

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ then, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $B_{d'}(x,\delta) \subseteq B_d(x,\epsilon)$

PROOF: From Proposition 328 since $x \in B_d(x, \epsilon) \in \mathcal{T}'$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon)$, then $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $B_{d'}(x,\delta) \subseteq B_d(x,\epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $U \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all $x \in U$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in U$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_d(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

Proof: Proposition 328

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that $B_{d'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_d(x, \epsilon)$

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ B_{d'}(x,\delta) \subseteq U$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ U \in \mathcal{T}'$

Proof: Proposition 328.

Proposition 340. \mathbb{R}^2 under the dictionary order topology is metrizable.

PROOF: Define $d: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$d((x,y),(x,z)) = \max(|y-z|,1)$$

$$d((x,y),(x',y')) = 1 if x \neq x' \square$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{N} \pi_i^{-1}() \subseteq B_D(a,\epsilon)$$

Proposition 341. Let $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be a metric on X. Then the metric topology on X is the coarsest topology such that d is continuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. d is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $|d(a,b) d(x,y)| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ d(a,b) d(x,y) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$d(a,b) \le d(a,x) + d(x,y) + d(y,b)$$

$$\le d(x,y) + 2\rho((a,b),(x,y))$$

$$< d(x,y) + 2\delta$$

$$= d(x,y) + \epsilon$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ d(a.b) - d(x,y) > -\epsilon$

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If \mathcal{T} is any topology under which d is continuous then \mathcal{T} is finer than the metric topology.

Proof: Since $B(a, \epsilon) = d_a^{-1}((-\infty, \epsilon))$

Proposition 342. Let X be a metric space with metric d and $A \subseteq X$. The restriction of d to A is a metric on A that induces the subspace topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The restriction of d to A is a metric on A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$ Every open ball under $d \upharpoonright A$ is open under the subspace topology.

PROOF: $B_{d \uparrow A}(a, \epsilon) = B_d(a, \epsilon) \cap A$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If U is open in the subspace topology and $x \in U$, then there exists a $d \upharpoonright A$ -ball B such that $x \in B \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK V open in X such that $U = V \cap A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_d(x, \epsilon) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Take $B = B_{d \uparrow A}(x, \epsilon)$

Corollary 342.1. A subspace of a metrizable space is metrizable.

Proposition 343. Every metrizable space is Hausdorff.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a metric space
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in X$ with $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\epsilon = d(a,b)/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $U = B(a, \epsilon)$ and $V = B(b, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. U and V are disjoint neighbourhoods of a and b respectively.

Proposition 344 (CC). The product of a countable family of metrizable spaces is metrizable.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: (X_n, d_n) be a sequence of metric spaces.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: w.l.o.g. each d_n is bounded above by 1.

Proof: By Proposition 338.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: D be the metric on \mathbb{R}^{ω} defined by $D(x,y) = \sup_{i} (d_i(x_i,y_i)/i)$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. $D(x,y) \geq 0$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. D(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D(x,y) = D(y,x)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $D(x,z) \leq D(x,y) + D(y,z)$

Proof:

$$D(x,z) = \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i) + d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$= D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Every open ball $B_D(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the product topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK N such that $1/\epsilon < N$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $B_D(a, \epsilon) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} U_i$ where $U_i = B(a_i, i\epsilon)$ if $i \leq N$, and $U_i = X_i$ if i > N
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. For any open set U and $a \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_D(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$, V be an open set in \mathbb{R} and $a \in \pi_n^{-1}(V)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_{d_n}(a, \epsilon) \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B_D(a, \epsilon/n) \subseteq \pi_n^{-1}(V)$

Theorem 345. Let X and Y be metric spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x, y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$ PROOF: Theorem 92.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that $B(x, \delta) \subseteq U$ Proof: Proposition 328.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$, then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X$ and V be a neighbourhood of f(x)
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(f(x), \epsilon) \subseteq V$ PROOF: Proposition 328.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 4. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$ Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: $U = B(x, \delta)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. U is a neighbourhood of x with $f(U) \subseteq V$

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Theorem 92.

Г

Proposition 346. Let X be a metric space. Let (a_n) be a sequence in X and $l \in X$. Then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$, we have $d(a_n, l) < \epsilon$.

PROOF: From Proposition 75.

Proposition 347. Every metrizable space is first countable.

PROOF: In any metric space X, the open balls B(a, 1/n) for $n \ge 1$ form a local basis at a.

Example 348. \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box topology is not metrizable.

Example 349. If J is uncountable then \mathbb{R}^J under the product topology is not metrizable.

Proposition 350. A compact subspace of a metric space is bounded.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$ be compact.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{B(a,n) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ covers A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick a finite subcover $\{B(a, n_1), \dots, B(a, n_k)\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $N = \max(n_1, \ldots, n_k)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. For all $x, y \in A$ we have d(x, y) < 2N

Proof:

$$d(x,y) \le d(x,a) + d(a,y)$$

$$< N + N$$

This example shows the converse does not hold:

Example 351. The space \mathbb{R} under the standard bounded metric is bounded but not compact.

48 Real Linear Algebra

Definition 352 (Square Metric). The square metric ρ on \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

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

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \geq 0$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} = \vec{y}$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \rho(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{z}) \le \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) + \rho(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$

PROOF: Since $|x_i - z_i| \le |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|$.

Proposition 353. The square metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For every $a \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_{\rho}(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the standard product topology.

Proof:

$$B_{\rho}(a,\epsilon) = (a_1 - \epsilon, a_1 + \epsilon) \times \cdots \times (a_n - \epsilon, a_n + \epsilon)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For any open sets U_1, \ldots, U_n in \mathbb{R} , we have $U_1 \times \cdots \times U_n$ is open in the square metric topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{a} \in U_1 \times \cdots \times U_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK $\epsilon_i > 0$ such that $(a_i \epsilon_i, a_i + \epsilon_i) \subseteq U_i$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

Definition 354. Given $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, define the sum $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$ by

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_n)+(y_1,\ldots,y_n)=(x_1+y_1,\ldots,x_n+y_n)$$
.

Definition 355. Given $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, define the scalar product $\lambda \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$\lambda(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=(\lambda x_1,\ldots,\lambda x_n)$$

Definition 356 (Inner Product). Given $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, define the *inner product* $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \cdot (y_1, \ldots, y_n) = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n$$
.

We write \vec{x}^2 for $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}$.

Definition 357 (Norm). Let $n \geq 1$. The *norm* on \mathbb{R}^n is the function $\| \| : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$||(x_1,\ldots,x_n)|| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$$

Lemma 358.

$$\|\vec{x}\|^2 = \vec{x}^2$$

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Lemma 359.

$$\vec{x} \cdot (\vec{y} + \vec{z}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{z}$$

PROOF: Each is equal to $(x_1y_1 + x_1z_1, \dots, x_ny_n + x_nz_n)$. \square

Lemma 360.

$$|\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}| \le ||\vec{x}|| ||\vec{y}||$$

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0} \neq \vec{y}$

PROOF: Otherwise both sides are 0.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a = 1/\|\vec{x}\|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $b = 1/\|\vec{y}\|$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $(a\vec{x} + b\vec{y})^2 \ge 0$ and $(a\vec{x} b\vec{y})^2 \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $a^2 \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + b^2 \|\vec{y}\|^2 \ge 0$ and $a^2 \|\vec{x}\|^2 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + b^2 \|\vec{y}\|^2 \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + 2 \ge 0$ and $-2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + 2 \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \ge -1/ab$ and $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \le 1/ab$

Lemma 361 (Triangle Inequality).

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| \le \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 &= \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &= (\|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$
 (Lemma 360)

Definition 362 (Euclidean Metric). Let $n \geq 1$. The *Euclidean metric* on \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = ||\vec{x} - \vec{y}||$$
.

We prove this is a metric.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \geq 0$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} = \vec{y}$

PROOF: $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} - \vec{y} = \vec{0}$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = d(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{z}) \leq d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) + d(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$

PROOF:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| &= \|(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{z})\| \\ &\leq \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\| \end{split} \tag{Lemma 361}$$

Proposition 363. The Euclidean metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: ρ be the square metric.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq B_\rho(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\sqrt{(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2} < \epsilon$ $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2 < \epsilon^2$ $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all i we have $(x_i a_i)^2 < \epsilon^2$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For all i we have $|x_i a_i| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon / \sqrt{n}) \subseteq B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon/\sqrt{n})$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all i we have $|x_i x_a| < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all i we have $(x_i x_a)^2 < \epsilon^2/n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 339.

Proposition 364. Let $n \geq 0$. For all $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, the open ball $B(c, \epsilon)$ is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B(c, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B(c,\epsilon)$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B(c, \epsilon)$ for all t because

$$\begin{aligned} d(p(t),c) &= \|(1-t)a + tb - c\| \\ &= \|(1-t)(a-c) + t(b-c)\| \\ &\leq (1-t)\|a - c\| + t\|b - c\| \\ &< (1-t)\epsilon + t\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. p is a path from a to b.

Proposition 365. Let $n \geq 0$. For all $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, the closed ball $\overline{B(c, \epsilon)}$ is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B(c, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B(c,\epsilon)$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B(c, \epsilon)$ for all t because

$$d(p(t), c) = \|(1 - t)a + tb - c\|$$

$$= \|(1 - t)(a - c) + t(b - c)\|$$

$$\leq (1 - t)\|a - c\| + t\|b - c\|$$

$$\leq (1 - t)\epsilon + t\epsilon$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. p is a path from a to b.

Lemma 366. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ converge then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i y_i|$ converges.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $N \geq 0$ we have $\sum_{i=0}^N |x_i y_i| \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^N |x_i|^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^N |y_i|^2}$ PROOF: By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since $\sum_{i=0}^{N} |x_i y_i|$ is an increasing sequence bounded above by $(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2)(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2)$.

Corollary 366.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ converge then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (x_i + y_i)^2$ con-

PROOF: Since $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$, $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ and $2\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i y_i$ all converge.

Definition 367 (l^2 -metric). The l^2 -metric on

$$\left\{ (x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega} \mid \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x_n^2 \text{ converges} \right\}$$

is defined by

$$d(x,y) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x_n - y_n)^2\right)^{1/2}$$

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. d is well-defined.

Proof: By Corollary 366.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ d(x,y) \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5.$ $d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$

PROOF: By Lemma 361.

Theorem 368. Addition is a continuous function $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $|(a+b)-(x+y)| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$|(a+b) - (x+y)| = |a-x| + |b-y|$$

$$\leq 2\rho((a,b),(x,y))$$

$$< 2\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Theorem 345

Theorem 369. Multiplication is a continuous function $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \min(\epsilon/(|a| + |b| + 1), 1)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $|ab xy| < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} |ab-xy| &= |a(b-y) + (a-x)b - (a-x)(b-y)| \\ &\leq |a||b-y| + |b||a-x| + |a-x||b-y| \\ &< |a|\delta + |b|\delta + \delta^2 \\ &\leq |a|\delta + |b|\delta + \delta \end{split} \tag{$\langle 1 \rangle 5$}$$

 $\leq \epsilon$ $(\langle 1 \rangle 3)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Theorem 345

Theorem 370. The function $f: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^{-1}$ is continuous.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $a \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $f^{-1}((a, +\infty))$ is open.

PROOF: The set is

$$(a^{-1}, +\infty) \text{ if } a > 0$$
$$(0, +\infty) \text{ if } a = 0$$
$$-\infty, a^{-1}) \cup (0, +\infty) \text{ if } a < 0$$

 $(-\infty,a^{-1})\cup(0,+\infty) \text{if }a<0$ $\langle 1\rangle 2.$ For all $a\in\mathbb{R}$ we have $f^{-1}((-\infty,a))$ is open.

PROOF: Similar.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Proposition 89 and Lemma 112.

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Definition 371. For $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is the space $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| \leq 1\}$.

Proposition 372. For all $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B^n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B^n$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B^n$ for all t because

$$||(1-t)a + tb|| \le (1-t)||a|| + t||b||$$

$$\le (1-t) + t$$

$$= 1$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. p is a path from a to b.

Definition 373 (Punctured Euclidean Space). For $n \geq 0$, defined punctured Euclidean space to be $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$.

Proposition 374. For n > 1, punctured Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Case: 0 is on the line from a to b
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK a point c not on the line from a to b
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. The path consisting of a straight line from a to c followed by a straight line from c to b is a path from a to b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Case: 0 is not on the line from a to b

PROOF: The straight line from a to b is a path from a to b.

Corollary 374.1. For n > 1, the spaces \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{R}^n are not homeomorphic.

PROOF: For any point a, the space $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{a\}$ is disconnected.

Definition 375 (Unit Sphere). For $n \ge 1$, the unit sphere S^{n-1} is the space

$$S^{n-1} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| = 1 \} .$$

Proposition 376. For n > 1, the unit sphere S^{n-1} is path connected.

PROOF: The map $g: \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \to S^{n-1}$ defined by $g(x) = x/\|x\|$ is continuous and surjective. The result follows by Proposition 242. \square

Proposition 377. Let $f: S^1 \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then there exists $x \in S^1$ such that f(x) = f(-x).

99

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $g: S^1 \to \mathbb{R}$ be the function g(x) = f(x) f(-x)Prove: There exists $x \in S^1$ such that g(x) = 0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality g((1,0)) > 0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ g((-1,0)) < 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. There exists x such that g(x) = 0

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

Definition 378 (Topologist's Sine Curve). Let $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$. The *topologist's sine curve* is the closure \overline{S} of S.

Proposition 379.

$$\overline{S} = S \cup (\{0\} \times [-1, 1])$$

Proposition 380. The topologist's sine curve is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. S is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 221.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \overline{S} is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 220.

Proposition 381 (CC). The topologist's sine curve is not path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $p:[0,1] \to \overline{S}$ is a path from (0,0) to $(1,\sin 1)$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $p^{-1}(\{0\} \times [0,1])$ is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: b be the greatest element of $p^{-1}(\{0\} \times [0,1])$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$ b < 1

PROOF: Since $p(1) = (1, \sin 1)$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. PICK a sequence $(t_n)_{n \geq 1}$ in (b,1] such that $t_n \to b$ and $\pi_2(p(t_n)) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK u with $0 < u < \pi_1(p(1/n))$ such that $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK t_n such that $0 < t_n < 1/n$ and $\pi_1(p(t_n)) = u$

PROOF: One exists by the Intermediate Value Theorem.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts 104.

П

49 The Uniform Topology

Definition 382 (Uniform Metric). Let J be a set. The *uniform metric* $\overline{\rho}$ on \mathbb{R}^J is defined by

$$\overline{\rho}(a,b) = \sup_{j \in J} \overline{d}(a_j, b_j)$$

where \overline{d} is the standard bounded metric on \mathbb{R} .

The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is the topology induced by the uniform metric.

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\overline{\rho}(a,b) > 0$

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\overline{\rho}(a,b) = 0$ if and only if a = b

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{\rho}(a,b) = \overline{\rho}(b,a)$

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \overline{\rho}(a,c) \leq \overline{\rho}(a,b) + \overline{\rho}(b,c)$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \overline{\rho}(a,c) &= \sup_{j \in J} \overline{d}(a_j,c_j) \\ &\leq \sup_{j \in J} (\overline{d}(a_j,b_j) + \overline{d}(b_j,c_j)) \\ &\leq \sup_{j \in J} \overline{d}(a_j,b_j) + \sup_{j \in J} \overline{d}(b_j,c_j) \\ &= \overline{\rho}(a,b) + \overline{\rho}(b,c) \end{split}$$

Proposition 383. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is finer than the product topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $j \in J$ and U be open in \mathbb{R} PROVE: $\pi_j^{-1}(U)$ is open in the uniform topology. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in \pi_j^{-1}(U)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $(a_j - \epsilon, a_j + \epsilon) \subseteq U$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ B_{\overline{\rho}}(a, \epsilon) \subseteq \pi_j^{-1}(U)$

Proposition 384. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is coarser than the box topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a \in \mathbb{R}^J$ and $\epsilon > 0$

PROVE: $B(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the box topology.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $b \in B(a, \epsilon)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $j \in J$ we have $|a_j - b_j| < \epsilon$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $j \in J$,

Let: $\delta_j = (\epsilon - |a_j - b_j|)/2$ $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \quad \prod_{j \in J} (b_j - \delta_j, b_j + \delta_j) \subseteq B(a, \epsilon)$

Proposition 385. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is strictly finer than the product topology if and only if J is infinite.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If J is finite then the uniform and product topologies coincide.

PROOF: The uniform, box and product topologies are all the same.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If J is infinite then the uniform and product topologies are different.

PROOF: The set $B(\vec{0},1)$ is open in the uniform topology but not the product topology.

Proposition 386 (DC). The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is strictly coarser than the box topology if and only if J is infinite.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If J is finite then the uniform and box topologies coincide.

PROOF: The uniform, box and product topologies are all the same.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If J is infinite then the uniform and box topologies are different.

PROOF: Pick an ω -sequence $(j_1, j_2, ...)$ in J. Let $U = \prod_{j \in J} U_j$ where $U_{j_i} = (-1/i, 1/i)$ and $U_j = (-1, 1)$ for all other j. Then $\vec{0} \in U$ but there is no $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(\vec{0}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.

Proposition 387. The closure of \mathbb{R}^{∞} in \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the uniform topology is \mathbb{R}^{ω} .

PROOF: Given any open ball $B(a,\epsilon)$, pick an integer N such that $1/\epsilon < N$. Then $B(a,\epsilon)$ includes sequences whose nth entry is 0 for all $n \geq N$. \square

Example 388. The space \mathbb{R}^{ω} is disconnected under the uniform topology. The set of bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.

Proposition 389. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the uniform topology. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$. Then x and y are in the same component if and only if x - y is bounded.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The component containing 0 is the set of bounded sequences.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: B be the set of bounded sequences.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. B is path-connected.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x.y \in B$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK b > 0 such that $|x_j|, |y_j| \leq b$ for all j
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)x+ty Prove: p is continuous.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. Let: $t \in [0,1]$ and $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2b$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$. Let: $s \in [0,1]$ with $|s-t| < \delta$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ \overline{\rho}(p(s), p(t)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$\overline{\rho}(p(s), p(t)) = \sup_{j} \overline{d}((1-s)x_j + sy_j, (1-t)x_j + ty_j)$$

$$\leq |(s-t)x_j + (t-s)y_j|$$

$$\leq |s-t||x_j - y_j|$$

$$< 2b\delta$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. B is connected.

Proof: Proposition 240.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. If C is connected and $B \subseteq C$ then B = C.

PROOF: Otherwise $B \cap C$ and $C \setminus B$ form a separation of C.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since $\lambda x.x - y$ is a Homeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^{ω} with itself.

50 Uniform Convergence

Definition 390 (Uniform Convergence). Let X be a set and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n: X \to Y)$ be a sequence of functions and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f_n converges uniformly to f as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$.

Example 391. Define $f_n : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by $f_n(x) = x^n$ for $n \ge 1$, and $f : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by f(x) = 0 if x < 1, f(1) = 1. Then f_n converges to f pointwise but not uniformly.

Theorem 392 (Uniform Limit Theorem). Let X be a topological space and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n : X \to Y)$ be a sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to Y$ be a function. If f_n converges uniformly to f as $n \to \infty$, then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$ and $y \in X$, we have $d(f_n(y), f(y)) < \epsilon/3$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f_N(U) \subseteq B(f_N(x), \epsilon/3)$ PROVE: $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d(f(y), f(x)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$d(f(y), f(x)) \leq d(f(y), f_N(y)) + d(f_N(y), f_N(x)) + d(f_N(x), f(x)) \quad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$

$$< \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

$$= \epsilon$$

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Proposition 393. Let X be a topological space and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n : X \to Y)$ be a sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to Y$ be a function. Let (a_n) be a sequence of points in X and $a \in X$. If f_n converges uniformly to f and a_n converges to a in X then $f_n(a_n)$ converges to f(a) uniformly in Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK N_1 such that, for all $n \geq N_1$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK N_2 such that, for all $n \geq N_2$, we have $a_n \in f^{-1}(B(a, \epsilon/2))$

PROOF: Using the fact that f is continuous from the Uniform Limit Theorem.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $n \geq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) < \epsilon$

$$d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) \le d(f_n(a_n), f(a_n)) + d(f(a_n), f(a)) \quad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$
$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$
$$= \epsilon \quad (\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

Proposition 394. Let X be a set. Let $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of functions and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. Then f_n converges unifomly to f as $n \to \infty$ if and only if $f_n \to f$ as $n \to \infty$ in \mathbb{R}^X under the uniform topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f_n converges uniformly to f then f_n converges to f under the uniform topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f_n converges uniformly to f
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) \leq \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f_n converges to f under the uniform topology then f_n converges uniformly to f.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f_n converges to f under the uniform topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $n \geq N$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $x \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 3$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$

51 Isometric Imbeddings

Definition 395. Let X and Y be metric spaces. An isometric imbedding $f: X \to Y$ is a function such that, for all $x, y \in X$, we have d(f(x), f(y)) = d(x, y).

Proposition 396. Every isometric imbedding is an imbedding.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be an isometric imbedding.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. f is injective.

PROOF: If f(x) = f(y) then d(f(x), f(y)) = 0 hence d(x, y) = 0 hence x = y. $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f is continuous.

PROOF: For all $\epsilon > 0$, if $d(x, y) < \epsilon$ then $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f: X \to f(X)$ is an open map.

PROOF: $f(B(a, \epsilon)) = B(f(a), \epsilon) \cap f(X)$.