Topology

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Contents

Ι	Set	Theory	3
1	Set	Theory	4
	1.1	Covers	4
	1.2	The Finite Intersection Property	4
	1.3	Countable Intersection Property	6
	1.4	The Axiom of Choice	6
	1.5	Choice Functions	6
	1.6	Order Theory	8
	1.7	Partially Ordered Sets	11
	1.8	Real Analysis	14
	1.9	Group Theory	15
	1.10	Topological Spaces	16
	1.11	Closed Set	17
	1.12	Interior	18
	1.13	Closure	19
	1.14	Boundary	21
	1.15	Limit Points	21
	1.16	Basis for a Topology	22
	1.17	Local Basis at a Point	26
	1.18	Convergence	27
	1.19	Locally Finite Sets	29
	1.20	Open Maps	30
	1.21	Continuous Functions	30
	1.22	Homeomorphisms	35
	1.23	The Order Topology	36
	1.24	The n th Root Function	39
	1.25	The Product Topology	39
		1.25.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately	42
	1.26	The Subspace Topology	42
	1.27	The Box Topology	46
	1.28	T_1 Spaces	48
	1.29	Hausdorff Spaces	49
		The First Countability Axiom	52
		Strong Continuity	54

1.32	Saturated Sets	4
1.33	Quotient Maps	5
1.34	Quotient Topology	8
1.35	Retractions	0
1.36	Homogeneous Spaces 6	0
1.37	Regular Spaces	0
1.38	Connected Spaces	0
1.39	Totally Disconnected Spaces 6	9
1.40	Paths and Path Connectedness 6	9
1.41	The Topologist's Sine Curve	2
	The Long Line	3
1.43	Components	5
	Path Components	6
	Local Connectedness	7
1.46	Local Path Connectedness	9
1.47	Weak Local Connectedness	0
1.48	Quasicomponents	1
1.49	Open Coverings	2
1.50	Lindelöf Spaces	
	The Second Countability Axiom	3
1.52	Compact Spaces	4
1.53	Perfect Maps	4
	Topological Groups	_
	The Metric Topology	2
1.56	Real Linear Algebra	8
	The Uniform Topology	6
1.58	Uniform Convergence	8
1.59	Isometric Imbeddings	0
1.60	Distance to a Set	O

Part I Set Theory

Chapter 1

Set Theory

1.1 Covers

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 $\bigcup A = X$.

1.2 The Finite Intersection Property

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.

Lemma 3. Let X be a set. Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ have the finite intersection property. Then there exists a maximal set \mathcal{D} such that $A \subseteq \mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ and \mathcal{D} has the finite intersection property.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathbb{F} = \{ \mathcal{D} \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X, \mathcal{D} \text{ has the finite intersection property} \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Every chain in \mathbb{F} has an upper bound.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathbb{C} be a chain in \mathbb{F} .
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. Assume: without loss of generality $\mathbb{C} \neq \emptyset$ Prove: $\bigcup \mathbb{C} \in \mathbb{F}$

PROOF: If $\mathbb{C} = \emptyset$ then \mathcal{A} is an upper bound.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \mathcal{A} \subseteq \bigcup \mathbb{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $C_1, \dots, C_n \in \mathbb{C}$ Prove: $C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_n \neq \emptyset$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick $C_1, \ldots, C_n \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $C_i \in C_i$ for all i.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Assume: without loss of generality $C_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq C_n$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ C_1, \ldots, C_n \in \mathcal{C}_n$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$. C_n satisfies the finite intersection property.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \neq \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Zorn's Lemma.

Lemma 4. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Then any finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{D} is an element of \mathcal{D} .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $D_1, D_2 \in \mathcal{D}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{D_1 \cap D_2\}$ has the finite intersection property.

PROOF: Any finite intersection of members of $\mathcal{D} \cup \{D_1 \cap D_2\}$ is a finite intersection of members of \mathcal{D} .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{ D_1 \cap D_2 \}$

PROOF: By maximality of \mathcal{D} .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ D_1 \cap D_2 \in \mathcal{D}.$

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

Lemma 5. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Let $A \subseteq X$. If A intersects every member of \mathcal{D} then $A \in \mathcal{D}$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{A\}$ has the finite intersection property.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $D_1, \ldots, D_n \in \mathcal{D}$

PROVE: $D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \cap A \neq \emptyset$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \in \mathcal{D}$

Proof: Lemma 4.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \cap A \neq \emptyset$

PROOF: Since A intersects every member of \mathcal{D} .

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

PROOF: By maximality of \mathcal{D} .

Proposition 6. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Let $A, D \in \mathcal{P}X$. If $D \in \mathcal{D}$ and $D \subseteq A$ then $A \in \mathcal{D}$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{A\}$ satisfies the finite intersection property.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $D_1, \ldots, D_n \in \mathcal{D}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \cap D \neq \emptyset$

PROOF: Since \mathcal{D} satisfies the finite intersection property.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \cap A \neq \emptyset$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{A\}$

PROOF: By the maximality of \mathcal{D} .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ A \in \mathcal{D}$

Definition 7 (Graph). Let $f: A \to B$. The graph of f is the set $\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in A\} \subseteq A \times B$.

1.3 Countable Intersection Property

Definition 8 (Countable Intersection Property). Let X be a set and $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$. Then A satisfies the *countable intersection property* if and only if every countable subset of A has nonempty intersection.

Lemma 9. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the countable intersection property. Then any countable intersection of elements of \mathcal{D} is an element of \mathcal{D} .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{D}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be countable.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \}$ has the countable intersection property.

PROOF: Any countable intersection of members of $\mathcal{D} \cup \{ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \}$ is a finite intersection of members of \mathcal{D} .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \}$ PROOF: By maximality of \mathcal{D} . $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \in \mathcal{D}$.

Lemma 10. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the countable intersection property. Let $A \subseteq X$. If A intersects every member of \mathcal{D} then $A \in \mathcal{D}$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{A\}$ has the countable intersection property. $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{D}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be countable. Prove: $\bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \cap A \neq \emptyset$ $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \in \mathcal{D}$ Proof: Lemma 9. $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $\bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \cap A \neq \emptyset$ Proof: Since A intersects every member of \mathcal{D} . $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D. Proof: By maximality of \mathcal{D} .

1.4 The Axiom of Choice

Axiom 11 (Axiom of Choice). Let A be a set of disjoint nonempty sets. Then there exists a set C consisting of exactly one element from each member of A.

1.5 Choice Functions

Definition 12 (Choice Function). Let \mathcal{B} be a set of nonempty sets. A *choice* function for \mathcal{B} is a function $c: \mathcal{B} \to \bigcup \mathcal{B}$ such that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $c(B) \in \mathcal{B}$.

Lemma 13 (Existence of a Choice Function (AC)). Every set of nonempty sets has a choice function.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{B} be a set of nonempty sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For $B \in \mathcal{B}$, LET: $B' = \{B\} \times B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{ B' \mid B \in \mathcal{B} \}$ is a set of disjoint nonempty sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a set c consisting of exactly one element from each B' for $B \in \mathcal{B}$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. c is a choice function for \mathcal{B} .

1.6 Order Theory

Definition 14 (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 15 (Preordered Set). A preordered set consists of a set X and a preorder \leq on X.

Proposition 16. Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ 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 17 (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 18 (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 19. 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
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Definition 20 (Ordered Square). The ordered square I_o^2 is the set $[0,1]^2$ under the dictionary order.

Proposition 21. The ordered square is a linear continuum.

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Proof:
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```
\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 22. 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 23. 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 24. 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

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1$$
. 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 23)

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

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 23)
 $= 1$

Proposition 25 (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:

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

```
PROOF: By Lemma 23 \langle 1 \rangle2. If [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1) for all i then [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1) \langle 2 \rangle1. Assume: [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1) for all i \langle 2 \rangle2. 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 23 \langle 2 \rangle3. The union of the f_is is an order isomorphism [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)
```

1.7 Partially Ordered Sets

Definition 26 (Partial Order). A partial order on a set X is a preorder \leq that is anti-symmetric, i.e. whenever $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$ then x = y.

Definition 27 (Linear Order). A *linear order* on a set X is a partial order such that, for any $x, y \in X$, either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.

Definition 28 (Well-ordering). A *well-order* on a set X is a linear order such that every nonempty set has a least element.

Definition 29 (Section). Given a well-ordered set X and $\alpha \in X$, the section of X by α is $S_{\alpha} = \{x \in X \mid x < \alpha\}$.

Theorem 30 (Transfinite Induction). Let J be a well-ordered set and $J_0 \subseteq J$. Suppose that, for all $\alpha \in J$, if $S_{\alpha} \subseteq J_0$ then $\alpha \in J_0$. Then $J_0 = J$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $J_0 \neq J$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: α be the least element of $J \setminus J_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ S_{\alpha} \subseteq J_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \alpha \in J_0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

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

Theorem 31 (Transfinite Recursion). Let J be a well-ordered set and C a set. Let \mathcal{F} be the set of all functions from a section of J to C. Let $\rho: \mathcal{F} \to C$. Then there exists a unique function $h: J \to C$ such that, for all $\alpha \in J$, we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For every $\beta \in J$, there exists a unique $h_{\beta} : S_{\beta} \to J$ such that, for all $\alpha < \beta$, we have $h_{\beta}(\alpha) = \rho(h_{\beta} \upharpoonright \alpha)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\beta \in J$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: for all $\gamma < \beta$ there exists a unique $h: S_{\gamma} \to J$ such that, for all $\alpha < \gamma$, we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For $\gamma < \beta$, Let: $h_{\gamma}: S_{\gamma} \to J$ be the function such that, for all $\alpha < \gamma$, we have $h_{\gamma}(\alpha) = \rho(h_{\gamma} \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $h: S_{\beta} \to J$ be the function $h(\gamma) = \rho(h_{\gamma})$ for $\gamma < \beta$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For $\gamma < \beta$ we have $h \upharpoonright S_{\gamma} = h_{\gamma}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $\gamma < \beta$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: For all $\alpha < \gamma$ we have $h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha} = h_{\alpha}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. For all $\alpha < \gamma$ we have $(h \upharpoonright S_{\gamma})(\alpha) = \rho((h \upharpoonright S_{\gamma}) \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$ PROOF:

$$(h \upharpoonright S_{\gamma})(\alpha) = h(\alpha)$$

$$= \rho(h_{\alpha}) \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 4)$$

$$= \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha}) \qquad (\langle 3 \rangle 2)$$

$$= \rho((h \upharpoonright S_{\gamma}) \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. $h \upharpoonright S_{\gamma} = h_{\gamma}$

Proof: From $\langle 2 \rangle 4$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By transfinite induction.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For $\alpha < \beta$ we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. If $h': S_{\beta} \to J$ and $h'(\alpha) = \rho(h' \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$ for all $\alpha < \beta$, then h' = h
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $h': S_{\beta} \to J$ and $h'(\alpha) = \rho(h' \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$ for all $\alpha < \beta$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. For all $\gamma < \beta$ we have $h' \upharpoonright S_{\gamma} = h_{\gamma}$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle$ 1. For all $\alpha < \gamma$ we have $(h' \upharpoonright S_{\gamma})(\alpha) = \rho((h' \upharpoonright S_{\gamma}) \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$ Proof:

$$(h' \upharpoonright S_{\gamma})(\alpha) = h'(\alpha)$$

$$= \rho(h' \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$$

$$= \rho((h' \upharpoonright S_{\gamma}) \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$$

$$(\langle 3 \rangle 1)$$

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

Proof: From $\langle 2 \rangle 4$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. For all $\alpha < \beta$ we have $h'(\alpha) = \rho(h_{\alpha})$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. There exists $h: J \to C$ such that, for all $\alpha \in J$, we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For $\alpha \in J$,

Let: $h(\alpha) = \rho(h_{\alpha})$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For $\alpha \in J$ we have $h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha} = h_{\alpha}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $\alpha \in J$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: For all $\beta < \alpha$ we have $h \upharpoonright S_{\beta} = h_{\beta}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. For all $\beta < \alpha$ we have $(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})(\beta) = \rho((h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha}) \upharpoonright S_{\beta})$ PROOF:

$$(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})(\beta) = h(\beta)$$

$$= \rho(h_{\beta}) \qquad (\langle 2 \rangle 1)$$

$$= \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\beta}) \qquad (\langle 3 \rangle 2)$$

$$= \rho((h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha}) \upharpoonright S_{\beta})$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. $h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha} = h_{\alpha}$

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 1$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By transfinite induction.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For $\alpha \in J$ we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If $h, h' : J \to C$ and, for all $\alpha \in J$, we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$ and

```
h'(\alpha) = \rho(h' \upharpoonright S_{\alpha}), then h = h'
\langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: h, h' : J \to C and, for all \alpha \in J, we have h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})
                             and h'(\alpha) = \rho(h' \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})
\langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: \alpha \in J
\langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: for all \beta < \alpha we have h(\beta) = h'(\beta)
\langle 2 \rangle 4. h(\alpha) = h'(\alpha)
```

Proof:

$$h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$$

$$= \rho(h' \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$$

$$= h'(\alpha)$$

$$(\langle 2 \rangle 3)$$

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

PROOF: By transfinite induction.

Theorem 32 (Well-Ordering Theorem (AC)). Every set has a well-ordering.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a set.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a choice function for $\mathcal{P}X \setminus \{\emptyset\}$

Proof: Lemma 13.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: a tower in X be a pair (T, <) where $T \subseteq X$, < is a well-ordering of T, and $x = c(X \setminus \{y \in T \mid y < x\})$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For any two towers $(T_1, <_1)$ and $(T_2, <_2)$, either these two posets are equal or one is a section of the other. $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. For any tower (T, <) in X with $T \neq X$, there exists a tower in X of which (T,<) is a section.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Let: $T = \bigcup \{ T' \subseteq X \mid \exists R. (T, R) \text{ is a tower in } X \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Define < on T by: x < y iff there exists a tower (T,R) in X such that $x, y \in T$ and xRy.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. (T, <) is a tower in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ T = X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10.$ < is a well-ordering of X.

Theorem 33 (Maximum Principle (AC)). Every poset has a maximal chain.

Lemma 34 (Zorn's Lemma (AC)). Let A be a poset. If every chain in A has an upper bound in A, then A has a maximal element.

1.8 Real Analysis

Definition 35. 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.

1.9 Group Theory

Definition 36. Given a group G and sets $A, B \subseteq G$, let $AB = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$.

Definition 37. Given a group G and a set $A \subseteq G$, let $A^{-1} = \{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\}$.

1.10 Topological Spaces

Definition 38 (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 39 (Topological Space). A topological space X consists of a set X and a topology on X.

Definition 40 (Discrete Space). For any set X, the *discrete* topology on X is $\mathcal{P}X$.

Definition 41 (Indiscrete Space). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Definition 42 (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 43 (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 44 (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 45. 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{split} \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{split}
```

Lemma 46. 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:
```

```
\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 47. 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

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

The set is nonempty since it contains the discrete topology.

Definition 48 (Neighbourhood). A *neighbourhood* of a point x is an open set that contains x.

1.11 Closed Set

Definition 49 (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 50. The empty set is closed.

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

Lemma 51. The topological space X is closed.

Proof: Since \emptyset is open. \square

Lemma 52. 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 53. 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 54. 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 55. 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 56. 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

1.12 Interior

Definition 57 (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 58. The interior of a set is open.

PROOF: It is a union of open sets. \square Lemma 59. $\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 60.** If U is open and $U \subseteq A$ then $U \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 61.** A set A is open if and only if A = Int A. PROOF: If A = Int A then A is open by Lemma 58. Conversely if A is open then $A \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ by the definition of interior and so $A = \operatorname{Int} A$. 1.13 Closure **Definition 62** (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 51). Lemma 63. The closure of a set is closed. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 58. Lemma 64. $A\subseteq \overline{A}$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 65.** If C is closed and $A \subseteq C$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq C$. PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 66.** A set A is closed if and only if $A = \overline{A}$. Proof: Dual to Lemma 61. **Theorem 67.** 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 $x \in \overline{A}$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall C. C \text{ closed } \land A \subseteq C \Rightarrow x \in C$

Proposition 68. If $A \subseteq B$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$.

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

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

Proposition 69.

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: By Proposition 68.

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

Proof: By Proposition 68.

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \overline{A \cup B}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: $x \notin A$ 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 67.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $U \cap V$ 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 67.

Proposition 70. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{D} be a set of subsets of X that is maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Let $x \in X$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. For all $D \in \mathcal{D}$ we have $x \in \overline{D}$
- 2. Every neighbourhood of x is in \mathcal{D} .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $D \in \mathcal{D}$ we have $x \in \overline{D}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{U\}$ satisfies the finite intersection property.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $D_1, \ldots, D_n \in \mathcal{D}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \in \mathcal{D}$

Proof: Lemma 4.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x \in \overline{D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n}$

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

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ D_1 \cap \cdots \cap D_n \cap U \neq \emptyset$

PROOF: Theorem 67, $\langle 2 \rangle 2$, $\langle 3 \rangle 3$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{U\}$

PROOF: By the maximality of \mathcal{D} .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ U \in \mathcal{D}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: Every neighbourhood of x is in \mathcal{D} .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $D \in \mathcal{D}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Every neighbourhood of x intersects D.

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$, $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ and the fact that \mathcal{D} satisfies the finite intersection property.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in \overline{D}$

PROOF: Theorem 67, $\langle 2 \rangle 3$.

1.14 Boundary

Definition 71 (Boundary). The *boundary* of a set A is the set $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$.

Proposition 72.

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

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

Proposition 73.

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

Proof:

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

$$= (\operatorname{Int} A \cup \overline{A}) \cap (\operatorname{Int} A \cup \overline{X} \setminus \overline{A})$$

$$= \overline{A} \cap X$$

$$= \overline{A}$$

Proposition 74. $\partial A = \emptyset$ if and only if A is open and closed.

PROOF: If $\partial A = \emptyset$ then $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A$ by Proposition 73.

Proposition 75. A set U is open if and only if $\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$.

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \overline{U} \setminus \operatorname{Int} U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Int} U = U \end{array} \qquad \text{(Propositions 72, 73)}$$

1.15 Limit Points

Definition 76 (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 77. The point a is an accumulation point for A if and only if $a \in \overline{A \setminus \{a\}}$.

PROOF: From Theorem 67. \square

Theorem 78. 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 67.

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

Proof: Lemma 64.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 67.

Corollary 78.1. A set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

Proposition 79. 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 80. 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.

1.16 Basis for a Topology

Definition 81 (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 1.

```
⟨1⟩2. For all \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T} we have \bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}

⟨2⟩1. Let: \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}

⟨2⟩2. Let: x \in \bigcup \mathcal{U}

⟨2⟩3. Pick U \in \mathcal{U} such that x \in U

⟨2⟩4. Pick B \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B \subseteq U

Proof: Since U \in \mathcal{T} by ⟨2⟩1 and ⟨2⟩3.

⟨2⟩5. x \in B \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}

⟨1⟩3. For all U, V \in \mathcal{T} we have U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}

⟨2⟩1. Let: U, V \in \mathcal{T}

⟨2⟩2. Let: x \in U \cap V

⟨2⟩3. Pick B_1 \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B_1 \subseteq U

⟨2⟩4. Pick B_2 \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B_2 \subseteq V

⟨2⟩5. Pick B_3 \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2

Proof: By condition 2.

⟨2⟩6. x \in B_3 \subseteq U \cap V
```

Lemma 82. 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.
```

Corollary 82.1. 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 83. 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 C is open.

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

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Lemma 84. 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 82.1.

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

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 $x \in B' \subseteq U$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$

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

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

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in B' \subseteq U$

Theorem 85. 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 $x \in \overline{A}$ then, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A.

PROOF: This follows from Theorem 67 since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 82.1).

```
\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 67.
Definition 86 (Lower Limit Topology on the Real Line). The lower limit topol-
ogy 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)).
Definition 87 (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)).
```

Lemma 88. The lower limit topology and the K-topology are incomparable.

not both open intervals. PROOF: Take $B_3 = (\max(a, c), \min(b, d)) \setminus K$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Case: $B_1 = (a,b)$ or $(a,b) \setminus K$, $B_2 = (c,d)$ or $(c,d) \setminus K$, and they are

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 89 (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.

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

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 82.

We have simultaneously proved:

Proposition 90. 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 91. 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 S includes every union of finite intersections of elements of S. \square

1.17 Local Basis at a Point

Definition 92 (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 93. 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 $B_n = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n$.

1.18 Convergence

Definition 94 (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 95. 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 67.

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Proposition 96. 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 82.1).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 $a_n \in U$

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Lemma 97. 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 98. 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 97.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 99. 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 100 (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 100.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Theorem 101 (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

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

Proof:

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

Proof:

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

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

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

$$\leq r_n$$
ave $|s(x) - s_n(x)| \leq r_n$
e limit $k \to \infty$ in $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 $n \to \infty$.

1.19 Locally Finite Sets

Definition 102 (Locally Finite). Let X be a topological space and $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ a family of subsets of X. Then \mathcal{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 103 (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.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Theorems 113 and 164.

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

PROOF: Lemma 53.

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

PROOF: Theorem 113.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 123.

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

Example 104. 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].

1.20 Open Maps

Definition 105 (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 106. 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 82. \square

Proposition 107. 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 82. \square

1.21 Continuous Functions

Definition 108 (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 109. 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 82).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 82.

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

Proof:

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

Proposition 110. 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 109 and 90.

Proposition 111. 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 90 and 109.

Definition 112 (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 113. 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 67.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 67.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $2 \Rightarrow 3$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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:

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

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

$$\subseteq \overline{B} \qquad (Proposition 68)$$

$$= B$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: 3
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be open in Y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $Y \setminus V$ is closed in Y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(Y \setminus V)$ is closed in X
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$ is closed in X
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $f^{-1}(V)$ 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 45.

Theorem 114. 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 115. 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 116. 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 117. 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 118. 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 119. 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 120. 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 163.

Proposition 121. 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 122. 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: $\delta = c a$

Lemma 123. 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 163.

Proposition 124. 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 $f \times q$ 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 116. The result follows by Theorem 152.

Proposition 125. 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 $f(n) \in V$

1.22 Homeomorphisms

Definition 126 (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 127. 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.

Proposition 128. 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 129 (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 130 (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 131. 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 $i(V) = (X \times V) \cap i(Y)$.

1.23 The Order Topology

Definition 132 (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 133. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Then the open rays form a subbasis for the order topology on X.

Proof:

```
\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 134 (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 135. 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 136. The K-topology is strictly finer than the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every open interval is open in the K-topology.

Proof: Corollary 82.1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 137. 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 138. 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 137.

Proposition 139. 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:

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

Proof: Proposition 16.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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: $f((-\infty, x)) = (-\infty, f(x))$.

1.24 The nth Root Function

Proposition 140. 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 139.

Definition 141. 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 $\lambda x.x^n$.

1.25 The Product Topology

Definition 142 (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 143. 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 90.

Proposition 144. 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 145. 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 83.

Proposition 146. 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 106. \square

Example 147. 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 148. 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 82.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 146.

Proposition 149 (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:

```
\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 64.
    \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 Proposition 144.
\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, \ldots, i_n
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. For i \in I, pick a_i \in V_i \cap A_i
        PROOF: By Theorem 67 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 150. 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 67.

Proposition 151. 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 125.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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: $N = \max(N_1, \ldots, N_k)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in V$

Theorem 152. 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 110.

1.25.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately

Definition 153 (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 154. 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 131, hence $F \circ i$ is continuous by Theorem 116.

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

Example 155. 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 156. 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 107. \square

Definition 157 (Sorgenfrey Plane). The Sorgenfrey plane is \mathbb{R}^2 .

1.26 The Subspace Topology

Definition 158 (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:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ Y \in \mathcal{T}
```

PROOF: Since $Y = X \cap Y$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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: $\mathcal{V} = \{ V \text{ open in } X \mid V \cap Y \in \mathcal{U} \}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \bigcup \mathcal{U} = (\bigcup \mathcal{V}) \cap Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$, we have $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK U', V' open in X such that $U = U' \cap Y$ and $V = V' \cap Y$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (U \cap V) = (U' \cap V') \cap Y$

Theorem 159. 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

$$A$$
 is closed in Y

$$\Leftrightarrow Y \setminus A$$
 is open in Y

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists U \text{ open in } X.Y \setminus A = Y \cap U$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists C \text{ closed in } X.Y \setminus A = Y \cap (X \setminus U)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists C \text{ closed in } X.A = Y \cap U$$

Theorem 160. 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 159)

$$= \bigcap \{D \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D\} \cap Y$$

$$=\overline{A}\cap Y$$

Lemma 161. 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 83.

Lemma 162. 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 161, and this is the set of all finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S}' . \square

Lemma 163. 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 164. 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 159). Then A is the intersection of two sets closed in X, hence A is closed in X (Lemma 52).

Theorem 165. 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 162. \square

Theorem 166. 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.
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. 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 < y Proof: 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 $a \leq y$

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

PROOF: Because Y is an interval.

 $\langle 5 \rangle 2. \ (-\infty, a) \cap Y = \{ y \in Y \mid y < a \}$

- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 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 133 and 162 and Proposition 91.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 133 and Proposition 91

r ROOF. By Lemma 135 and r

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

Example 167. 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 168. 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

$$\begin{aligned} &\{V \cap Z \mid V \text{ open in } Y\} \\ = &\{U \cap Y \cap Z \mid U \text{ open in } X\} \\ = &\{U \cap Z \mid U \text{ open in } X\} \end{aligned}$$

which is the subspace topology inherited from X. \square

Definition 169 (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 170 (Unit 2-sphere). The unit 2-sphere is $S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 1\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Proposition 171. 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 163.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 172. 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 $\pi_1 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ \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 173. 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 Xintersects A in a point other than l. \square

1.27The Box Topology

Definition 174 (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 175. The box topology is finer than the product topology.

Proof: From Proposition 143.

Corollary 175.1. 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 144.

Proposition 176 (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 $a \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq I$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. 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 83.

Theorem 177. 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

PROOF: The box topology is generated by the basis
$$\{\prod_{i\in I}U_i\mid \forall i\in I, U_i \text{ open in }A_i\}$$

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

$$=\{\prod_{i\in I}V_i\mid \forall i\in I, V_i \text{ open in }X_i\}\cap \prod_{i\in I}A_i$$
 and this is a basis for the subspace topology by Lemma 161. \square

Proposition 178 (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:

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

Proof: Lemma 64.

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

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Corollary 175.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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 67 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 152 fails in the box topology.

Example 179. 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 151 fails in the box topology.

Example 180. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the box topology. Let $a_n = (1/n, 1/n, ...)$ for $n \geq 1$ and l = (0, 0, ...). 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 181. 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}^{∞} .

1.28 T_1 Spaces

Definition 182 (T_1 Space). A topological space is T_1 if and only if every singleton is closed.

Lemma 183. A space is T_1 if and only if every finite set is closed.

PROOF: From Lemma 53. \square

Theorem 184. 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 79.)

Proposition 185. 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 $U \subseteq X \setminus \{a\}$.

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Proposition 186. A subspace of a T_1 space is T_1 .

PROOF: From Proposition 164.

1.29 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 187 (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 188. 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 67.

```
\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 189. 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. Picka, 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 190. The product of a family of Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.
\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)
Theorem 191. 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 192. 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 193. 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 194. 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 195. 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 196. 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 \rangle5. f(y) = g(y) \in V \cap W
\langle 1 \rangle6. Q.E.D.
PROOF: This contradicts the fact that V and W are disjoint (\langle 1 \rangle 3).
```

Proposition 197. 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 $b_i \in V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 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 $b \in \pi_i^{-1}(V)$

Proposition 198. 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.

Proposition 199. Let X be a Hausdorff space. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Then $\bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}$ contains at most one point.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction $x \neq y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint open subsets U and V of x and y respectively.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ U, V \in \mathcal{D}$

Proof: Proposition 70.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that \mathcal{D} satisfies the finite intersection property.

1.30 The First Countability Axiom

Definition 200 (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 201 (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 93.  \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ For all } n \geq 1, \text{ PICK } a_n \in A \cap B_n. \\ \text{PROVE: } a_n \rightarrow l \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ LET: } U \text{ be a neighbourhood of } A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ PICK } N \text{ such that } B_N \subseteq U \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ For } n \geq N \text{ we have } a_n \in U \\ \text{PROOF: } a_n \in B_n \subseteq B_N \subseteq U \\ \sqcap
```

Theorem 202 (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: $f(a) \in \overline{f(A)}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a sequence (x_n) in A that converges to a.

PROOF: By the Sequence Lemma.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f(x_n) \to f(a)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f(a) \in \overline{f(A)}$

PROOF: By Lemma 95.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Theorem 113.

Example 203 (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 204. 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 205. 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 206. 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.

1.31 Strong Continuity

Definition 207 (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 208. 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 209. 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 210. 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 $q \circ f$ is continuous.

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

Proof: Since g is strongly continuous.

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Proposition 211. 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.

1.32 Saturated Sets

Definition 212. 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 213. 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: $x \in p^{-1}(p(C))$

$$\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ p(x) \in p(C)$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. There exists $y \in C$ such that p(x) = p(y)

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

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 3 \Rightarrow 2$

PROOF: Trivial.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1$

PROOF: This follows because if $p(x) \in D$ and p(x) = p(y) then $p(y) \in D$.

1.33 Quotient Maps

Definition 214 (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.

Proposition 215. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \rightarrow\!\!\!\!\rightarrow Y$ be a surjective function. Then the following are equivalent.

- 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 213.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. 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 213. \langle 2 \rangle 5. U is open in Y. \langle 1 \rangle 4. 3 \Rightarrow 1

PROOF: Similar.
```

Corollary 215.1. Every surjective continuous open map is a quotient map.

Corollary 215.2. Every surjective continuous closed map is a quotient map.

Example 216. The converses of these corollaries do not hold.

Let $A = \{(x,y) \mid x \ge 0\} \cup \{(x,y) \mid y = 0\}$. 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 217. 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 117.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. 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 163, \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 3 \rangle 1.
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. p(U) is open in Y
          Proof: Proposition 215, \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 215.
\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 215.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. If p is a closed map then q is a quotient map.
   Proof: Similar.
```

Example 218. 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 224.

PROOF: From Corollary 215.1, Proposition 156 and Theorem 152.

Theorem 220. 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 210.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f is continuous then $f \circ p$ is continuous.

PROOF: Theorem 116.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If $f \circ p$ is a quotient map then f is a quotient map.

Proof: Proposition 211.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. If f is a quotient map then $f \circ p$ is a quotient map.

Proof: From Proposition 209.

Proposition 221. 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:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $V \subseteq Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: $p^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $f^{-1}(p^{-1}(V))$ is open in Y.

PROOF: Because f is continuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. V is open in Y.

PROOF: Because $f^{-1}(p^{-1}(V)) = V$.

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1.34 Quotient Topology

Definition 222 (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.

```
PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ Y \in \mathcal{T}
PROOF: Since p^{-1}(Y) = X by surjectivity. \langle 1 \rangle 2. For all \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{T} we have \bigcup \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{T}
PROOF: Since p^{-1}(\bigcup \mathcal{A}) = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{A}} p^{-1}(U)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For all U, V \in \mathcal{T} we have U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}
PROOF: Since p^{-1}(U \cap V) = p^{-1}(U) \cap p^{-1}(V).
```

Definition 223 (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 217 except that A is saturated.

Example 224. 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 $n \ge 2$. 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 225. 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 209.

Example 226. The product of two quotient maps is not necessarily a quotient map.

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:

```
TROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ For } n \geq 1, LET: c_n = \sqrt{2}/n \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ 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+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. \text{ For } n \geq 1, \text{ we have } U_n \text{ is open in } X \times \mathbb{Q} \langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ For } n \geq 1, \text{ we have } \{n\} \times \mathbb{Q} \subseteq U_n \langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ LET: } U = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n \langle 1 \rangle 6. U \text{ is open in } X \times \mathbb{Q} \langle 1 \rangle 7. U \text{ is saturated with respect to } p \times \text{id}_{\mathbb{Q}}
```

Proposition 227. 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.

1.35 Retractions

Definition 228 (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 229. Every retraction is a quotient map.

PROOF: Proposition 221 with f the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$. \square

1.36 Homogeneous Spaces

Definition 230 (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 $\phi(a) = b$.

1.37 Regular Spaces

Definition 231 (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 $a \in V$.

1.38 Connected Spaces

Definition 232 (Separation). A *separation* of a topological space X is a pair of disjoint open sets U, V such that $U \cup V = \emptyset$.

Definition 233 (Connected). A topological space is *connected* if and only if it has no separation; otherwise it is *disconnected*.

Proposition 234. 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 235. 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 173.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ l \in B$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. 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 78.1.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 173.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ l \notin A$

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ l \in B$

PROOF: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ since $A \cup B = Y$

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

```
PROOF: Corollary 78.1. \langle 3 \rangle2. Q.E.D. PROOF: Since A = Y \setminus B. \langle 2 \rangle3. B is open in Y PROOF: Similar.
```

Example 236. Every set under the indiscrete topology is connected.

Example 237. The discrete topology on a set X is connected if and only if $|X| \leq 1$.

Example 238. The finite complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is infinite.

Example 239. The countable complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is uncountable.

Example 240. 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 241. 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 242. 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 $\bigcup A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 241.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ D = \emptyset$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

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

Theorem 243. 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 241.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ B \subseteq C$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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 78.

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

PROOF: Lemma 80, \langle 1 \rangle 2.

\langle 2 \rangle 5. x \in C

PROOF: Lemma 235.

\langle 1 \rangle 4. D = \emptyset

\langle 1 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.

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

Theorem 244. 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 245. The product of a family of connected spaces is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 242 since $(x, b) \in (X \times \{b\}) \cap (\{x\} \times Y)$.

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

PROOF: Theorem 242 since $X \times Y = \bigcup_{x \in X} T_x$ and (a, b) is a point in every T_x .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$ 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 242 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 I} U_{\alpha} be a basic neighbourhood of x where U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}
                       for all \alpha 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 \alpha
      \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 243.
Example 246. The set \mathbb{R}^{\omega} is disconnected under the box topology. The set of
bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.
Proposition 247. 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}'). \sqcup
Proposition 248. Let X be a topological space and (A_n) a sequence of con-
nected 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 241.
\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 241.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. 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 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$.

Proposition 249. 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 250. The space \mathbb{R}_l is disconnected. For any real x, the sets $(-\infty, x)$ and $[x, +\infty)$ form a separation.

Proposition 251. 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 242 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 242 since (a, y) is a common point.

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

PROOF: Theorem 242 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 252. 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 253. 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.
Theorem 254. 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.
```

 $\langle 3 \rangle$ 6. Let: L be a linear continuum under the order topology. $\langle 3 \rangle$ 7. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of L.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 9$. Assume: without loss of generality a < b. $\langle 3 \rangle 10$. Let: $S = \{x \in L \mid a < x \text{ and } [a, x) \subseteq C\}$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 8$. Pick $a \in C$ and $b \in D$.

```
\langle 3 \rangle 11. S is nonempty.
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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.

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

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

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. 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 254.1. The real line \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 254.2. Every interval in \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 254.3. The ordered square is connected.

Theorem 255 (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 256. 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 257. 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_j 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 $p(s) \in \prod_i U_i$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. B is connected.

Proof: Proposition 263.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. 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}^{ω} 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 $h(x)_N > b$.

- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 7. $h^{-1}(\{\text{bounded sequences}\}) \cap C$ 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}^{ω} with itself.

1.39 Totally Disconnected Spaces

Definition 258 (Totally Disconnected). A topological space X is *totally disconnected* if and only if the only connected subspaces are the singletons.

Example 259. Every discrete space is totally disconnected.

Example 260. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are totally disconnected.

1.40 Paths and Path Connectedness

Definition 261 (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

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p(1) = b.
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Definition 262 (Path Connected). A topological space is *path connected* if and only if there exists a path between any two points.

Proposition 263. 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 254.2.

An example that shows the converse does not hold:

Example 264. The ordered square is not path connected.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $p:[0,1] \to I_o^2$ 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. \Box

Proposition 265. 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.

À

Proposition 266 (AC). The product of a family of path-connected spaces is path-connected.

$\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 152.

Proposition 267. The continuous image of a path-connected space is pathconnected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be continuous and surjective where X is path-connected.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 268. Let X be a topological space. The union of a set of pathconnected subspaces of X that have a point in common is path-connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: 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 269. 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
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. 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 270. Every open connected subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 is path-connected.

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U be an open connected subspace of \mathbb{R}^2.
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 234.

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Example 271. 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 272. 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 273. 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.

1.41 The Topologist's Sine Curve

Definition 274 (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 275. 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 244. \langle 1 \rangle 3. \overline{S} is connected. PROOF: Theorem 243.
```

Proposition 276. 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 277. 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. \Box

Proposition 278 (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 277.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. 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 $n \to 2 \setminus 1$. Let: $n \ge 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. 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 125 since y is continuous and $y(t_n)$ does not converge.

Corollary 278.1. The closure of a path-connected subspace of a space is not necessarily path-connected.

1.42 The Long Line

Definition 279 (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 280. For any ordinal \alpha with 0 < \alpha < \omega_1 we have [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1)
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ [(0,0),(1,0)) \cong [0,1)
   PROOF: The map \pi_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 24.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If \lambda is a limit ordinal with \lambda < \omega_1 and [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1) for all \alpha with
        0 < \alpha < \lambda \text{ then } [(0,0),(\lambda,0)) \cong [0,1)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \lambda be a limit ordinal < \omega_1
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1) for all \alpha with 0 < \alpha < \lambda
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick a sequence of ordinals \alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \cdots with limit \lambda
      PROOF: Since \lambda is countable.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. [(\alpha_i, 0), (\alpha_{i+1}, 0)) \cong [0, 1) for all i
      Proof: Lemma 23.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 25.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
   Proof: By transfinite induction.
```

Proposition 281 (CC). The long line is path-connected.

```
PROOF:  \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } (\alpha,i), (\beta,j) \in \omega_1 \times [0,1) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Assume: without loss of generality } (\alpha,i) < (\beta,j) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ [(0,0), (\beta+1,0)) \cong [0,1) \\ \text{PROOF: By Lemma 280} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ [(\alpha,i), (\beta,j)) \cong [0,1) \\ \text{PROOF: Lemma 23.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ PICK a homeomorphism } q:[0,1) \rightarrow [(\alpha,i), (\beta,j)) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \ q \cup \{(1,(\beta,j))\} \text{ is a path from } (\alpha,i) \text{ to } (\beta,j) \\ \square
```

Proposition 282. 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 280.

Proposition 283. The long line L is not second countable.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{B} be a basis for L.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 283.1. The long line cannot be imbedded into \mathbb{R}^n for any n.

1.43 Components

Proposition 284. 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.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. ~ is symmetric.

PROOF: Trivial.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \sim is transitive.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b, c \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK connected subspaces A and B with $a, b \in A$ and $b, c \in B$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $A \cup B$ is a connected subspace that contains a and c

Proof: Theorem 242.

Definition 285 ((Connected) Component). Let X be a topological space. The (connected) components of X are the equivalence classes under the above \sim .

Lemma 286. 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:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Pick $a \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: C be the \sim -equivalence class of a.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ A \subseteq C$

PROOF: For all $x \in A$ we have $x \sim a$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. If C' is a component and $A \subseteq C'$ then C = C'

PROOF: Since we have $a \in C'$.

Theorem 287. Let X be a topological space. The components of X are connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that each nonempty con $nected\ subspace\ of\ X\ intersects\ only\ one\ of\ them.$

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 242.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $A \subseteq X$ be connected and nonempty.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: C be the component such that $A \subseteq C$

```
Proof: Lemma 286.
   \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.
П
Proposition 288. 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 243.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ C = \overline{C}
```

Proof: Lemma 241.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C is closed.

Proof: Lemma 66.

Proposition 289. 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.

1.44 Path Components

Proposition 290. 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.

Definition 291 (Path Component). Let X be a topological space. The *path components* of X are the equivalence relations under \sim .

Theorem 292. 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-connected 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 293. 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 292.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. C is connected.

Proof: Proposition 263.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C is included in a component.

Proof: Lemma 286.

1.45 Local Connectedness

Definition 294 (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 295. The real line is both connected and locally connected.

Example 296. The space $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is disconnected but locally connected.

Example 297. The topologist's sine curve is connected but not locally connected.

Example 298. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are neither connected nor locally connected.

Theorem 299. 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 286.

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

Proof: Lemma 45.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 300. The ordered square is locally connected.

PROOF: Every neighbourhood of a point includes an interval around that point, which is connected by Theorem 254.

Example 301. 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 302. 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 244. \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 299. \langle 1 \rangle 5. C is open in U Proof: Since the restriction of p to p:p^{-1}(U) \Rightarrow U is a quotient map by Proposition 217. \langle 1 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
```

1.46 Local Path Connectedness

Definition 303 (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 304. 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: $a \in C$

Proof: Theorem 299.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: V be a path-connected neighbourhood of a such that $V \subseteq U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ V \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 286.

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

Proof: Lemma 45.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 305. If a space is locally path connected then its components and its path components are the same.

```
Proof:
\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
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: P be the path component of x
        Prove: P = C
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ P \subseteq C
   Proof: Proposition 293.
\langle 1 \rangle6. Let: Q be the union of the other path components included in C
\langle 1 \rangle 7. C = P \cup Q
   Proof: Proposition 293.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. P and Q are open in C
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. C is open.
      PROOF: Theorem 299.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: Theorem 304.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ Q = \emptyset
```

Example 306. The ordered square is not locally path connected, since it is connected but not path connected.

Proposition 307. 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.

PROOF: Otherwise P and Q would form a separation of C.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. P and Q are open in U.

PROOF: Theorem 304.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ Q = \emptyset$

PROOF: Otherwise P and Q form a separation of U.

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1.47 Weak Local Connectedness

Definition 308 (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 309. Let X be a topological space. If X is weakly locally connected at every point then X is locally connected.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 $\overset{r}{}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 286.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in V \subseteq C$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 45.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Theorem 299.

П

Example 310. 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.

1.48 Quasicomponents

Proposition 311. 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:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. \sim 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 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

Definition 312 (Quasicomponents). For X a topological space, the *quasicomponents* of X are the equivalence classes under \sim .

Proposition 313. 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 314. In a locally connected space, the components and the quasi-components 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 299.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. 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 $y \in D$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ C = Q$

1.49 Open Coverings

Definition 315 (Open Covering). Let X be a topological space. An *open* covering of X is a covering of X whose elements are all open sets.

1.50 Lindelöf Spaces

Definition 316 (Lindelöf Space). A topological space X is $Lindel\"{o}f$ if and only if every open covering has a countable subcovering.

Proposition 317. Let X be a topological space. Then X is Lindelöf if and only if every set of closed sets that has the countable intersection property has nonempty intersection.

PROOF: The following are equivalent.

- 1. X is compact.
- 2. Every open covering of X has a countable 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 countable 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 countable subset \mathcal{C}_0 with empty intersection.
- 5. Any set of closed sets with the countable intersection property has nonempty intersection.

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Proposition 318 (CC). Let X be a topological space and \mathcal{B} a basis for the topology on X. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. X is Lindelöf.
- 2. Every open covering of X by elements of \mathcal{B} has a countable subcovering.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: Every open covering of X by elements of $\mathcal B$ has a countable subcovering.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be an open covering of X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $\{ B \in \mathcal{B} \mid \exists U \in \mathcal{U}.B \subseteq U \}$ covers X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering \mathcal{B}_0 .
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For $B \in BB$, PICK $U_B \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $B \subseteq U_B$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $\{ U_B \mid B \in \mathcal{B}_0 \}$ covers X.

1.51 The Second Countability Axiom

Definition 319 (Second Countability Axiom). A topological space satisfies the *second countability axiom*, or is *second countable*, if and only if it has a countable basis.

Example 320. The space \mathbb{R} is second countable.

PROOF: The set $\{(a,b) \mid a,b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a basis. \square

Proposition 321. A subspace of a second countable space is second countable.

PROOF: If \mathcal{B} is a countable basis for X and $Y \subseteq X$ then $\{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a countable basis for Y. \square

Proposition 322 (CC). Every second countable space is Lindelöf.

Proof: From Proposition 318.

Example 323 (CC). The space \mathbb{R}_l is Lindelöf.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{A} be a covering of \mathbb{R}_l by basic open sets of the form [a,b)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $C = \bigcup \{(a,b) \mid [a,b) \in \mathcal{A}\}$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \mathbb{R} \setminus C is countable.

\langle 2 \rangle 1. For every x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus C, PICK a rational q_x such that (x, q_x) \subseteq C

\langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus C

\langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK b such that [x, b) \in \mathcal{A}

\langle 3 \rangle 3. PICK a rational q such that q \in (x, b)

\langle 2 \rangle 2. The mapping x \mapsto q_x is an injection \mathbb{R} \setminus C \to \mathbb{Q}

\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK a countable \mathcal{A}' \subseteq \mathcal{A} that covers \mathbb{R} \setminus C

\langle 1 \rangle 5. Under the standard topology on \mathbb{R}, C is second countable.

PROOF: Proposition 321.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. PICK a countable $\mathcal{A}'' \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ such that $\{(a,b) \mid [a,b) \in \mathcal{A}''\}$ covers C. PROOF: Proposition 318. $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. $\mathcal{A}' \cup \mathcal{A}''$ covers \mathbb{R}_l .

Example 324. The product of two Lindelöf spaces is not necessarily Lindelöf. We prove that the Sorgenfrey plane is not Lindelöf.

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Proof:
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```
(1)1. Let: L = \{(x, -x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}

(1)2. L is closed in \mathbb{R}^2_l

(1)3. Let: \mathcal{U} = \{[a, b) \times [a, -d) \mid a, b, d \in \mathbb{R}\}

(1)4. \mathcal{U} \cup \{\mathbb{R} \setminus L\} covers \mathbb{R}^2_l

(1)5. Every element of \mathcal{U} intersects L at exactly one point.

(1)6. No countable subset of \mathcal{U} covers \mathbb{R}^2_l.
```

1.52 Compact Spaces

Definition 325 (Compact). A topological space is *compact* if and only if every open covering has a finite subcovering.

Lemma 326. 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.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ 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 327. 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.

Theorem 328. 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 329. Let A and B be compact subspaces of X and Y respectively. Let N be an open set in $X \times Y$ that includes $A \times B$. Then there exist open sets U and V in X and Y respectively such that $A \subseteq U$, $B \subseteq V$ and $U \times V \subseteq N$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ For all $x \in A,$ there exist neighbourhoods U of x and V of B such that $U \times V \subseteq N.$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2.$ For all $y \in B,$ there exist neighbourhoods U of x and V of y such that $U \times V \subseteq N$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. {V open in Y | \exists neighbourhood U of $x, U \times V \subseteq N$ } covers B.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcover $\{V_1, \ldots, V_n\}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For $i = 1, \ldots, n$, PICK a neighbourhood U_i of x such that $U_i \times V_i \subseteq N$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Let: $U = U_1 \cap \cdots \cap U_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. Let: $V = V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 8$. *U* is a neighbourhood of *x*.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 9$. V is a neighbourhood of B.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 10. \ U \times V \subseteq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. {U open in $X \mid \exists$ neighbourhood V of $B.U \times V \subseteq N$ } covers A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick a finite subcover $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK a neighbourhood V_i of B such that $U_i \times V_i \subseteq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $U = U_1 \cup \cdots \cup U_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Let: $V = V_1 \cap \cdots \cap V_n$

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\langle 1 \rangle 7. U and V are open.

\langle 1 \rangle 8. A \subseteq U

\langle 1 \rangle 9. B \subseteq V

\langle 1 \rangle 10. U \times V \subseteq N
```

Corollary 329.1 (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 $W \times Y$.

Theorem 330. 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 C of closed sets, if $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in C\}$ covers X then there is a finite subset C_0 such that $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in C_0\}$ 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 330.1. 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 331. 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 331.1. 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 198.

Example 332. Any set under the finite complement topology is compact.

Proposition 333. Let X be a topological space. A finite union of compact subspaces of X is compact.

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Proof:
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 326.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subset \mathcal{U}_2 that covers B.

Proof: Lemma 326.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2$ is a finite subset that covers $A \cup B$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 326.

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Proposition 334. 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: From Theorem 329 with $N = X^2 \setminus \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$. \square

Corollary 334.1. Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Theorem 335. 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 327.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f(C) is compact.

PROOF: Theorem 328.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. f(C) is closed.

Proof: Corollary 334.1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 127.

Proposition 336. 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 327.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f(C) is compact.

Proof: Theorem 328.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. f(C) is closed.

Proof: Corollary 334.1.

Proposition 337. 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: $x \in X \setminus \pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $U \times Y \subseteq (X \times Y) \setminus A$ PROOF: By the Tube Lemma.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ x \in U \subseteq X \setminus \pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: So $X \setminus \pi_1(A)$ is open by Lemma 45.

Theorem 338. Let X be a topological space and Y a compact Hausdorff space. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is continuous if and only if the graph of f is closed in $X \times Y$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: G_f be the graph of f.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f is continuous then G_f is closed.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $(x,y) \in (X \times Y) \setminus G_f$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint neighbourhoods U and V of y and f(x) respectively.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(V) \times U$ is a neighbourhood of (x, y) disjoint from G_f .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If G_f is closed then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: G_f is closed.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X$ and V be a neighbourhood of f(x).
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$ $G_f \cap (X \times (Y \setminus V))$ is closed.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $\pi_1(G_f \cap (X \times (Y \setminus V)))$ is closed.

Proof: Proposition 337.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: $U = X \setminus \pi_1(G_f \cap (X \times (Y \setminus V)))$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. U is a neighbourhood of x
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ f(U) \subseteq V$

Theorem 339. Let X be a compact topological space. Let $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a monotone increasing sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ a continuous function. If (f_n) converges pointwise to f, then (f_n) converges uniformly to f.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $x \in X$, there exists N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $|f_n(x) f(x)| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $n \geq 1$,

Let:
$$U_n = \{x \in X \mid |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon\}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $n \geq 1$, we have U_n is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon |f_n(x) f(x)|$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \delta/2)$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a neighbourhood V of x such that $f_n(V) \subseteq B(f_n(x), \delta/2)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5.$ $f(U \cap V) \subseteq U_n$

PROOF: For $y \in U \cap V$ we have

$$|f_n(y) - f(y)| \le |f_n(y) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f(x) - y(y)|$$

$$< \delta/2 + |f_n(x) - f(x)| + \delta/2$$

 $=\epsilon$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\{U_n \mid n \geq 1\}$ covers X

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 2$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Pick N such that $X = U_N$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK n_1, \ldots, n_k such that U_{n_1}, \ldots, U_{n_k} cover X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $N = \max(n_1, \ldots, n_k)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all i we have $U_{n_i} \subseteq U_N$

PROOF: Since (f_n) is monotone increasing.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ X = U_N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. For all $x \in X$ and $n \ge N$ we have $|f_n(x) f(x)| < \epsilon$

An example to show that we cannot remove the hypothesis that X is compact:

Example 340. Let X = (0,1), $f_n(x) = -x^n$ and f(x) = 0 for $x \in X$ and $n \ge 1$. Then $f_n \to f$ pointwise and (f_n) is monotone increasing but the convergence is not uniform since, for all $N \ge 1$, there exists $x \in (0,1)$ such that $-x^N < -1/2$.

An example to show that we cannot remove the hypothesis that (f_n) is monotone increasing:

Example 341. Let X = [0,1], $f_n(x) = 1/(n^3(x-1/n)^2+1)$ and f(x) = 0 for $x \in X$ and $n \ge 1$. Then X is compact and $f_n \to f$ pointwise but the convergence is not uniform since, for all $N \ge 1$, there exists $x \in [0,1]$ such that $f_N(x) = 1$, namely x = 1/N.

Theorem 342. Let X be a compact Hausdorff space. Let A be a chain of closed connected subsets of X. Then $\bigcap A$ is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of $\bigcap A$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK disjoint open sets U and V that include C and D respectively. PROOF: Proposition 334.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{A \setminus (U \cup V) \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ is a set of closed sets with the finite intersection property.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $A \setminus (U \cup V)$ is closed.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. For all $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) \setminus (U \cup V)$ is nonempty. PROOF:
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 2. Assume: without loss of generality $A_1 \subseteq A_2, \ldots, A_n$ Proof: Since \mathcal{A} is a chain.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. $A_1 \setminus (U \cup V)$ is nonempty

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PROOF: Otherwise (A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n \cap U) and (A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n \cap V) would
           form a separation of A_n.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \bigcap \mathcal{A} \setminus (U \cup V) is nonempty.
   PROOF: Theorem 330.
\langle 1 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 1 since \bigcap AA \setminus (U \cup V) = \bigcap A \setminus (C \cup D).
Theorem 343 (Tychonoff Theorem (AC)). The product of a family of compact
spaces is compact.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in J} be a family of compact spaces.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For any \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X, we have \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \overline{A} \neq \emptyset
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick \mathcal{D} \supset \mathcal{A} that is maximal with respect to the finite intersection
             property.
       PROVE: \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D} \neq \emptyset
PROOF: Lemma 3.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. For \alpha \in J, PICK x_{\alpha} \in X_{\alpha} such that x_{\alpha} \in \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \pi_{\alpha}(D)
       PROOF: Theorem 330 since \{\pi_{\alpha}(D) \mid D \in \mathcal{D}\} is a set of closed sets in X_{\alpha}
       with the finite intersection property.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}
             Prove: x \in \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}
    \langle 2 \rangle5. For any \beta \in J and neighbourhood U of x_{\beta} in X_{\beta}, we have \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U)
             intersects every element of \mathcal{D}
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: \beta \in J
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x_{\beta} in X_{\beta}.
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: D \in \mathcal{D}
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x_{\beta} \in \pi_{\beta}(D)
           Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 3
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. U intersects \pi_{\beta}(D).
        \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U) \text{ intersects } D.
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. For any \beta \in J and neighbourhood U of x_{\beta} in X_{\beta}, we have \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{D}
       Proof: Lemma 5.
    \langle 2 \rangle7. Every basic neighbourhood of x is an element of \mathcal{D}
        Proof: Lemma 4.
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. Every basic neighbourhood of x intersects every element of \mathcal{D}
        PROOF: Since \mathcal{D} satisfies the finite intersection property.
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. For all D \in \mathcal{D} we have x \in D
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
```

Lemma 344. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let A be a set of basis elements for the product topology on $X \times Y$ such that no finite subset of A covers $X \times Y$.

PROOF: Theorem 330.

If X is compact, then there exists $x \in X$ such that no finite subset of A covers the slice $\{x\} \times Y$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for every $x \in X$, there exists a finite subset of \mathcal{A} that covers $\{x\} \times Y$

PROVE: A finite subset of A covers $X \times Y$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \{ U \mid \exists U_1 \times V_1, \dots, U_n \times V_n \in \mathcal{A}. U = U_1 \cap \dots \cap U_n, V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_n = Y \}$ covers X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a finite subcover U_1, \ldots, U_m
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK $U_{ij} \times V_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$ such that, for every i, we have $U_i = \bigcap_j U_{ij}$ and $Y = \bigcup_i V_{ij}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. The collection of all $U_{ij} \times V_{ij}$ covers $X \times Y$

Theorem 345 (AC). Let X be a compact Hausdorff space. Then the quasi-components and the components of X are the same.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: x and y are in the same quasicomponent.

PROVE: x and y are in the same component.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: \mathcal{A} be the set of all closed subsets A of X such that x and y are in the same quasicomponent of A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For every chain $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ we have $\bigcap \mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $BB \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ be a chain.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction U and V form a separation of $\bigcap \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in U$ and $y \in V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint open sets U', V' in X such that $U \subseteq U'$ and $V \subseteq V'$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $\{ B \setminus (U' \cup V') \mid B \in \mathcal{B} \}$ satisfies the finite intersection property.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $B_1, \ldots, B_n \in \mathcal{B}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality $B_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq B_n$ Proof: Since \mathcal{B} is a chain.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \bigcap \{B_1 \setminus (U' \cup V'), \dots, B_n \setminus (U' \cup V')\} = B_1 \setminus (U' \cup V')$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. $B_1 \setminus (U' \cup V')$ is nonempty

PROOF: Otherwise $B_1 \cap U'$ and $B_1 \cap V'$ would form a separation of B_1 , contradicting the fact that x and y are in the same quasicomponent of B_1 .

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. $\bigcap \mathcal{B} \setminus (U \cup V)$ is nonempty

PROOF: Theorem 330.

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

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Pick a minimal element D in \mathcal{A} .

Prove: D is connected.

PROOF: By Zorn's Lemma.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Assume: for a contradiction U and V form a separation of D.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Assume: without loss of generality $x, y \in U$

PROOF: We cannot have that one of x, y is in U and the other in V sicnce $D \in \mathcal{A}$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ U \in \mathcal{A}$

PROOF: If X and Y form a separation of U with $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, then X and $Y \cup V$ form a separation of D with $x \in X$ and $y \in Y \cup V$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: There is a connected set D that contains both x and y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in J}$ be a family of compact spaces.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a well-ordering < on J such that J has a greatest element.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $\alpha \in J$ and $p = \{p_i \in X_i\}_{i \leq \alpha}$ a family of points, Let: $Y(p) = \{x \in X \mid \forall i \leq \alpha. x_i = p_i\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. If $\alpha < \alpha'$ and p is an α' -indexed family of points then $Y(p) \subseteq Y(p \upharpoonright \alpha)$ PROOF: From definition.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. Given $\beta \in J$ and $p = \{p_i \in X_i\}_{i < \beta}$ a family of points, Let: $Z(p) = \bigcap_{\alpha < \beta} Y(p \upharpoonright \alpha)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Given $\beta \in J$ and $p = \{p_i \in X_i\}_{i < \beta}$ a family of points, if \mathcal{A} is a finite set of basic open spaces for X that covers Z(p), then there exists $\alpha < \beta$ such that \mathcal{A} covers $Y(p \upharpoonright \alpha)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: without loss of generality β has no immediate predecessor.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For $A \in \mathcal{A}$,

Let: $J_A = \{i < \beta \mid \pi_i(A) \neq X_i\}$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\alpha = \max \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} J_A$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $x \in Y(p \upharpoonright \alpha)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: $y \in Z(p)$ be the point with $y_i = p_i$ for $i < \beta$ and $y_i = x_i$ for $i \ge \beta$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. PICK $A \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $y \in A$

PROOF: Since \mathcal{A} covers Z(p).

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. For $i \in J_A$ we have $x_i \in \pi_i(A)$

PROOF: Since $i \leq \alpha$ so $x_i = p_i$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 8$. For $i \in J \setminus J_A$ we have $x_i \in \pi_i(A)$

PROOF: Since $\pi_i(A) = X_i$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ x \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. Assume: for a contraction \mathcal{A} is a set of basic open sets for X that covers X but such that no finite subset of \mathcal{A} covers X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9$. PICK a set of points $\{p_i\}_{i \in J}$ such that, for all $\alpha \in J$, we have $Y(p \upharpoonright \alpha)$ is not finitely covered by \mathcal{A}
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: as transfinite induction hypothesis $\alpha \in J$ and $\{p_i\}_{i < \alpha}$ is a family of points such that, for all $\alpha' < \alpha$, we have $Y(p \upharpoonright \alpha')$ is not finitely covered by \mathcal{A}
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Z(p) is not finitely covered by \mathcal{A}
 - Proof: By $\langle 1 \rangle 7$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. Pick $p_{\alpha} \in X_{\alpha}$ such that Y(p) is not finitely covered by \mathcal{A} Proof: By Lemma 344 since there is a homeomorphism $\phi: Z(p) \cong$

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X_{\alpha} \times \prod_{\alpha' > \alpha} X_{\alpha'} and, given p_{\alpha}, this homemorphism \phi restricts to a homeomorphism Y(p) \cong \{p_{\alpha}\} \times \prod_{\alpha' > \alpha} X_{\alpha'}.
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 10$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: If ω is the greatest element of J then $Y(p \upharpoonright \omega)$ is a singleton.

Theorem 346. Every complete linearly ordered set in the order topology is compact.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ Let: X be a complete linearly ordered set with least element a and greatest element b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{A} be an open covering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all x < b, there exists y > x such that [x, y] can be covered by at most two elements of \mathcal{A} .
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $A \in \mathcal{A}$ with $x \in A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick y > x such that $[x, y) \subseteq A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{A}$ with $y \in B$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. [x, y] is covered by A and B
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $C = \{ y \in X \mid [a, y] \text{ can be covered by finitely many elements of } A \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $c = \sup C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ c > a$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK x > a such that [a, x] can be covered by at most two elements of \mathcal{A} .

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ x \in C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ c \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Pick $A \in \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK x < c such that $(x, c] \subseteq A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick y > x such that $y \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK $\mathcal{A}_0 \subseteq^{\text{fin}} \mathcal{A}$ that covers [a, y]
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $\mathcal{A}_0 \cup \{A\}$ covers [a, c]
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ c = b$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction c < b
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2.$ Pick x>c such that [c,x] can be covered by at most two elements of ${\mathcal A}$

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. [a, x] can be finitely covered by \mathcal{A}

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 7$.

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

Proof: This contradicts the maximality of c.

Corollary 346.1. Let X be a linearly ordered set with the least upper bound property. Then every closed interval in X is compact.

Corollary 346.2. Every closed interval in \mathbb{R} is compact.

Theorem 347 (Extreme Value Theorem). Any linearly ordered set under the order topology that is compact has a greatest and a least element.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a linearly ordered set under the order topology that is compact.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. X has a greatest element.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction X has no greatest element.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\{(-\infty, a) \mid a \in X\}$ covers X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK a finite subcover $\{(-\infty, a_1), \ldots, (-\infty, a_n)\}$, say.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Assume: without loss of generality $a_1 \leq \cdots \leq a_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ X \subseteq (-\infty, a_n)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $a_n < a_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. X has a least element.

PROOF: Similar.

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1.53 Perfect Maps

Definition 348 (Perfect Map). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Then f is a perfect map if and only if f is a closed map, continuous, surjective and $p^{-1}(y)$ is compact for all $y \in Y$.

Proposition 349. Let X be a topological space, Y a compact space, and $p: X \to Y$ a closed map such that, for all $y \in Y$, we have $p^{-1}(y)$ is compact. Then X is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{A} be a set of closed sets in X with the finite intersection property.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\mathcal{B} = \{ p(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) \mid A_1, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{A} \}$ is a set of closed sets in Y with the finite intersection property.

PROOF: Since p is a closed map.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Pick $y \in \bigcap \mathcal{B}$

Proof: Theorem 330 since Y is compact.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $\{A \cap p^{-1}(y) \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ is a set of closed sets in $p^{-1}(y)$ with the finite intersection property.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Pick $x \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} (A \cap p^{-1}(y))$

PROOF: Theorem 330 since $p^{-1}(y)$ is compact.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ x \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Theorem 330.

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1.54 Topological Groups

Definition 350 (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 351. 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 352. 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 116.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 $xy = f(x, y^{-1})$.

Lemma 353. 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 186.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. multiplication and inverse on H are continuous.

PROOF: From Theorem 117.

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Lemma 354. 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 67. $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ ab^{-1} \in U \cap H$ $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. Q.E.D. Proof: By Theorem 67.

Proposition 355. 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 $r_{\alpha^{-1}}$. \sqcup

Corollary 355.1. 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.

Proposition 356. 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 220 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 356.1. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then G/H is homogeneous.

Proposition 357. 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 .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 358. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then the canonical surjection p:G woheadrightarrow G/H is an open map.

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Proof:
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. p(U) is open.

Proposition 359. 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:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. G/H is T_1

Proof: Proposition 357.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 219, 358.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\overline{m} \circ p^2$ is continuous.

PROOF: As it is $p^2 \circ m$ where $m: G^2 \to G$ with $m(x,y) = xy^{-1}$

Lemma 360. 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 361 (Symmetric Neighbourhood). Let G be a topological group. A neighbourhood V of e is symmetric if and only if $V = V^{-1}$.

Lemma 362. 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:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If V is symmetric then, for all $x \in V$, we have $x^{-1} \in V$

Proof: Immediate from defintions.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $x \in V$, we have $x^{-1} \in V$, then V is symmetric.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for all $x \in V$ we have $x^{-1} \in V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $V \subset V^{-1}$

PROOF: If $x \in V$ then there exists $y \in V$ such that $x = y^{-1}$, namely $y = x^{-1}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ V^{-1} \subseteq V$

PROOF: Immediate from $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

Lemma 363. Let G be a topological group. For every neighbourhood U of e, there exists a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $V^2 \subseteq U$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of e.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a neighbourhood V' of e such that $V'V' \subseteq U$

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Proof: Such a neighbourhood exists because multiplication in G is continuous.
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 360.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. 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 $x = yz^{-1}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x^{-1} = zy^{-1}$
 - $(3)4. \ x^{-1} \in V$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in V^{-1}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 362

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ V^2 \subseteq U$

PROOF: We have $V^2 \subseteq (V')^2 \subseteq U$

Proposition 364. Every topological group is Hausdorff.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 363.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. 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 365. Every topological group is regular.

```
Proof:
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 363.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. VA and Va are disjoint open sets with $A \subseteq VA$ and $a \in Va$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. VA is open

Proof: Lemma 360

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Va is open

Proof: Lemma 360

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. VA \cap Va = \emptyset$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. 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
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ da^{-1} \in U$

PROOF: Since $da^{-1} = b^{-1}c \in VV \subseteq U$

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

Proof: This contradicts $\langle 1 \rangle 3$

Proposition 366. 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.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 363
   \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 358.
   \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 367. 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.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 244.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $D \subseteq xC$

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 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$.

Lemma 368. Let G be a topological group. Let A be a closed set in G and B a compact subspace of G such that $A \cap B = \emptyset$. Then there exists a symmetric neighbourhood U of e such that $AU \cap BU = \emptyset$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ For all $b \in B$ there exists a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $bV^2 \cap A = \emptyset$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $b \in B$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $W = b^{-1}(G \setminus A)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. W is a neighbourhood of e and $bW \cap A = \emptyset$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $V^2 \subseteq W$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$ $\{bV^2 \mid b \in B, V \text{ is a symmetric neighbourhood of } e, bV^2 \cap A = \emptyset\}$ is an open cover of B
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a finite subcover $b_1 V_1^2, \ldots, b_n V_n^2$, say.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $U = V_1 \cap \cdots \cap V_n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $BU^2 \cap A = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $AU \cap BU = \emptyset$

PROOF: If $av \in BU$ where $a \in A$ and $v \in V$ then $a = avv^{-1} \in BU^2 \cap A$.

Proposition 369 (AC). Let G be a topological group. Let A be a closed set in G, and B a compact subspace of G. Then AB is closed.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in G \setminus AB$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $A^{-1}x \cap B = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $A^{-1}x$ is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood U of e such that $A^{-1}xU \cap BU = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. xU^2 is open

Proof: Lemma 360.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ x \in xU^2 \subseteq G \setminus AB$

Corollary 369.1. Let G be a topological group and $H \leq G$. Let $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ be the quotient map. If H is compact then p is a closed map.

PROOF: For A closed in G, we have $p^{-1}(p(A)) = AH$ is closed, and so p(A) is closed. \square

Corollary 369.2. Let G be a topological group and $H \leq G$. If H and G/H are compact then G is compact.

PROOF: From Proposition 349 since, for all $aH \in G/H$, we have $p^{-1}(aH) = aH$ is compact because it is homemorphic to H. \square

1.55 The Metric Topology

Definition 370 (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 371 (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 372 (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 373. 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 374 (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 375. The discrete metric induces the discrete topology.

PROOF: For any (open) set U and point $a \in U$, we have $a \in B(a,1) \subset U$. \square

Definition 376 (Standard Metric on \mathbb{R}). The *standard metric* on \mathbb{R} is defined by d(x,y) = |x-y|.

Proposition 377. 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 378 (Metrizable). A topological space X is metrizable if and only if there exists a metric on X that induces the topology.

Definition 379 (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 380 (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 381 (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:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{d}(x,y) \ge 0
   PROOF: Since d(x, y) \ge 0
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 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 382. 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 82.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 83.

Proposition 383. Let d be a metric on the set X. Then the standard bounded metric d induces the same metric as d.

PROOF: This follows from Lemma 382 since the open balls with radius < 1 are the same under both metrics. \square

Lemma 384. 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 373 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 373

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. 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 373.

Proposition 385. \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 386. 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.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 387. 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: $B_{d \upharpoonright A}(a, \epsilon) = B_d(a, \epsilon) \cap A$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 387.1. A subspace of a metrizable space is metrizable.

Proposition 388. 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 389 (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 383.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 390. 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 $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 113.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that $B(x, \delta) \subseteq U$ Proof: Proposition 373.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. 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 373.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 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 113.

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Proposition 391. 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 96.

Proposition 392. 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 393. \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box topology is not metrizable.

Example 394. If J is uncountable then \mathbb{R}^J under the product topology is not metrizable.

Proposition 395. 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 396. The space \mathbb{R} under the standard bounded metric is bounded but not compact.

1.56 Real Linear Algebra

Definition 397 (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 398. 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: $\epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

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Definition 399. 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 400. 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 401 (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 402 (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 403.

$$\|\vec{x}\|^2 = \vec{x}^2$$

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Lemma 404.

$$\vec{x} \cdot (\vec{y} + \vec{z}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{z}$$

PROOF: Each is equal to $(x_1y_1 + x_1z_1, \dots, x_ny_n + x_nz_n)$.

Lemma 405.

$$|\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}| \le ||\vec{x}|| ||\vec{y}||$$

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 $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \le 1/ab$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \ge ||\vec{x}|| ||\vec{y}|| \text{ and } \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \le ||\vec{x}|| ||\vec{y}||$

Lemma 406 (Triangle Inequality).

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| \le \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 &= \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &= (\|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|)^2 \end{split}$$
 (Lemma 405)

Definition 407 (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:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| &= \|(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{z})\| \\ &\leq \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\| \end{aligned}$$
 (Lemma 406)

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Proposition 408. 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 384.

Proposition 409. 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 410. 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

$$d(p(t), c) = \|(1 - t)a + tb - c\|$$

$$= \|(1 - t)(a - c) + t(b - c)\|$$

$$\leq (1 - t)\|a - c\| + t\|b - c\|$$

$$\leq (1 - t)\epsilon + t\epsilon$$

$$= \epsilon$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. p is a path from a to b.

Lemma 411. 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 411.1. 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 412 (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 411.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ d(x,y) \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 406.

Theorem 413. 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 390

Theorem 414. 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 390

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Theorem 415. 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

$$(a^{-1}, +\infty) \text{ if } a > 0$$
$$(0, +\infty) \text{ if } a = 0$$
$$(0, +\infty) \text{ if } a < 0$$

 $(-\infty,a^{-1})\cup(0,+\infty) \text{if }a<0$ $\langle 1\rangle 2.$ 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 110 and Lemma 133.

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Definition 416. For $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is the space $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| \leq 1\}$.

Proposition 417. 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 418 (Punctured Euclidean Space). For $n \geq 0$, defined punctured Euclidean space to be $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$.

Proposition 419. 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 419.1. 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 420 (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 421. 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 265. \square

Proposition 422. Let $f: S^1 \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then there exists $x \in S^1$ such that f(x) = f(-x).

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 423 (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 424.

$$\overline{S} = S \cup (\{0\} \times [-1, 1])$$

Proposition 425. 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 244.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \overline{S} is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 243.

Proposition 426 (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 $(t_n)_{n>1}$ in (b,1] such that $t_n \to b$ and $\pi_2(p(t_n)) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$
 - (2)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 125.

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Theorem 427. Let A be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. A is compact.
- 2. A is closed and bounded under the Euclidean metric.
- 3. A is closed and bounded under the square metric.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $1 \Rightarrow 2$

PROOF: By Corollary 334.1 and Proposition 395.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$

PROOF: If $d(x,y) \leq M$ for all $x,y \in A$ then $\rho(x,y) \leq M/\sqrt{2}$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: A is closed and $\rho(x,y) \leq M$ for all $x,y \in A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in A$

Proof: We may assume w.l.o.g. A is nonempty since the empty space is compact.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. A is a closed subspace of $[a_1 M, a_1 + M] \times \cdots \times [a_n M, a_n + M]$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. A is compact

Proof: Proposition 327.

Corollary 427.1. The unit sphere S^{n-1} and the closed unit ball B^n are compact for any n.

1.57The Uniform Topology

Definition 428 (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:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\overline{\rho}(a,b) \geq 0$

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 429. 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 430. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is coarser than the box topology.

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{ Let: } a \in \mathbb{R}^{J} \text{ and } \epsilon > 0 \\ & \text{ Prove: } B(a,\epsilon) \text{ is open in the box topology.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & \text{ Let: } b \in B(a,\epsilon) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & \text{ For } j \in J \text{ we have } |a_{j} - b_{j}| < \epsilon \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & \text{ For } j \in J, \\ & \text{ Let: } \delta_{j} = (\epsilon - |a_{j} - b_{j}|)/2 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & \prod_{j \in J} (b_{j} - \delta_{j}, b_{j} + \delta_{j}) \subseteq B(a,\epsilon) \end{split}$$

topology if and only if J is infinite.

 \square Proposition 431. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is strictly finer than the product

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 432 (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, \ldots) in J. Let $U = \prod_{j \in J} U_j$ where $U_{j_i} = \bigcup_{j \in J} U_j$

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 433. 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 $n \ge N$. \square

Example 434. 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 435. 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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:

$$\overline{\rho}(p(s), p(t)) = \sup_{j} \overline{d}((1-s)x_j + sy_j, (1-t)x_j + ty_j)$$

$$\leq |(s-t)x_j + (t-s)y_j|$$

$$\leq |s-t||x_j - y_j|$$

$$< 2b\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. B is connected.

Proof: Proposition 263.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. 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.

1.58 Uniform Convergence

Definition 436 (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 437. Define $f_n:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$ by $f_n(x)=x^n$ for $n\geq 1$, 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 438 (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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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: $d(f(y), f(x)) \le d(f(y), f_N(y)) + d(f_N(y), f_N(x)) + d(f_N(x), f(x))$ (Triangle Inequality)
 $< \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3$ ($\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 3$)
 $= \epsilon$

Proposition 439. 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 > N
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) \le d(f_n(a_n), f(a_n)) + d(f(a_n), f(a)) \quad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \qquad \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

$$= \epsilon$$

Proposition 440. 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 uniformly 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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: $\epsilon > 0$

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\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle 3. \  \, \text{Pick} \, N \, \text{such that, for all} \, \, n \geq N, \, \text{we have} \, \, \overline{\rho}(f_n,f) < \min(\epsilon,1/2) \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \  \, \text{Let:} \, \, n \geq N \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. \  \, \text{Let:} \, \, x \in X \\ \langle 2 \rangle 6. \, \, \overline{\rho}(f_n,f) < \min(\epsilon,1/2) \\ \quad \, \text{Proof:} \, \, \text{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 \end{array}
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1.59 Isometric Imbeddings

Definition 441. 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 442. Every isometric imbedding is an imbedding.

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PROOF:  \begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } f: X \to Y \text{ be an isometric imbedding.} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ } f \text{ is injective.} \\ &\text{PROOF: } \text{If } f(x) = f(y) \text{ then } d(f(x), f(y)) = 0 \text{ hence } d(x,y) = 0 \text{ hence } x = y. \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ } f \text{ is continuous.} \\ &\text{PROOF: For all } \epsilon > 0, \text{ if } d(x,y) < \epsilon \text{ then } d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon. \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ } f: X \to f(X) \text{ is an open map.} \\ &\text{PROOF: } f(B(a,\epsilon)) = B(f(a),\epsilon) \cap f(X). \end{split}
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1.60 Distance to a Set

Definition 443. Let X be a metric space, $x \in X$ and $A \subseteq X$ be nonempty. The *distance* from x to A is defined as

$$d(x,A) = \inf_{a \in A} d(x,a) .$$