Topology

Robin Adams

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# Part I Set Theory

# Chapter 1

# Classes

## 1.1 Classes

We speak informally of *classes*. A class is specified by a unary predicate. We write  $\{x \mid P(x)\}$  for the class determined by the predicate P(x).

**Definition 1.1** (Membership). Let a be an object and  $\mathbf{A}$  a class. We define the proposition  $a \in \mathbf{A}$  (a is a *member* or *element* of A) as follows:

The proposition  $a \in \{x \mid P(x)\}$  is the proposition P(a).

**Definition 1.2** (Equality of Classes). Let A and B be classes. We say A and B are *equal*, A = B, if and only if they have exactly the same elements.

## 1.2 Subclasses

**Definition 1.3** (Subclass). Let **A** and **B** be classes. We say **A** is a *subclass* of **B**,  $\mathbf{A} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$ , if and only if every member of **A** is a member of **B**.

We say **A** is a *proper* subclass of **B**, **A**  $\subset$  **B**, if and only if **A**  $\subseteq$  **B** and **A**  $\neq$  **B**.

## 1.3 The Empty Class

**Definition 1.4** (Empty Class). The *empty* class  $\emptyset$  is  $\{x \mid \bot\}$ .

## 1.4 Finite Classes

**Definition 1.5.** For any objects  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , we write  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$  for the class  $\{x \mid x = a_1 \vee \cdots \vee x = a_n\}$ .

## 1.5 Universal Class

**Definition 1.6** (Universal Class). The universal class V is the class  $\{x \mid \top\}$ .

## 1.6 Union

**Definition 1.7** (Union). For any classes **A** and **B**, the *union*  $\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}$  is the class  $\{x \mid x \in \mathbf{A} \lor x \in \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

## 1.7 Intersection

**Definition 1.8** (Intersection). For any classes **A** and **B**, the *intersection*  $\mathbf{A} \cap \mathbf{B}$  is the class  $\{x \mid x \in \mathbf{A} \land x \in \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

## 1.8 Relative Complement

**Definition 1.9** (Relative Complement). For any classes **A** and **B**, the *relative* complement  $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$  is  $\{x \in \mathbf{A} \mid x \notin \mathbf{B}\}.$ 

# Chapter 2

# Sets

## 2.1 Membership

We take as undefined the notion of set.

We take as undefined the binary relation of membership,  $\in$ . If  $a \in A$  we say a is a member or element of A. If this does not hold, we write  $a \notin A$ .

**Axiom 2.1** (Axiom of Extensionality). Two sets with exactly the same elements are equal.

We may therefore identify the set A with the class  $\{x \mid x \in A\}$ .

We say a class **A** is a set iff there exists a set A such that  $A = \mathbf{A}$ . That is,  $\{x \mid P(x)\}$  is a set if and only if there exists a set A such that, for all x, we have  $x \in A$  if and only if P(x).

## 2.2 The Empty Set

**Axiom 2.2** (Empty Set Axiom). The empty class  $\emptyset$  is a set.

#### 2.3 Pair Sets

**Axiom 2.3** (Pairing Axiom). For any objects u and v, the class  $\{u, v\}$  is a set.

**Theorem 2.4** (Pairing). For any object a, the class  $\{a\}$  is a set.

PROOF: It is  $\{a, a\}$ .  $\square$ 

## 2.4 Unions

**Definition 2.5** (Union). For any class of sets **A**, the *union*  $\bigcup$  **A** is the class  $\{x \mid \exists A \in \mathbf{A}. x \in A\}.$ 

**Axiom 2.6** (Union Axiom). For any set A, the union  $\bigcup A$  is a set.

**Theorem 2.7** (Union, Pairing). For any sets A and B, the class  $A \cup B$  is a set.

PROOF: It is  $\bigcup \{A, B\}$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem Schema 2.8** (Union, Pairing). For any objects  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , the class  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$  is a set.

PROOF: We prove each theorem using the last since  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n, a_{n+1}\} = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\} \cup \{a_{n+1}\}$ .  $\square$ 

#### 2.5 Power Set

**Definition 2.9** (Power Class). For any class A, the *power* class  $\mathcal{P}A$  is the class of all subsets of A.

**Axiom 2.10** (Power Set Axiom). For any set A, the power class PA is a set.

#### 2.6 Covers

**Definition 2.11** (Cover). Let **X** be a class and  $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}\mathbf{X}$ . Then A covers **X**, or is a covering of **X**, if and only if  $\bigcup A = \mathbf{X}$ .

#### 2.7 Subset Axioms

**Axiom Schema 2.12** (Subset Axioms, Aussonderung Axioms). For any classes **A** and **B**, if  $\mathbf{A} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$  and **B** is a set then **A** is a set.

Theorem 2.13 (Subset). The universal class V is not a set.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: **V** is a set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $R = \{ x \in \mathbf{V} \mid x \notin x \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $R \in R$  if and only if  $R \notin R$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

П

**Theorem 2.14** (Subset). If A is a set and B is a class then A - B is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of A.  $\square$ 

## 2.8 Intersection

**Definition 2.15** (Intersection). For any class **A** of sets, the *intersection*  $\bigcap$  **A** is the class  $\{x \mid \forall A \in \mathbf{A}. x \in A\}$ .

**Theorem 2.16** (Subset). For any nonempty class A of sets, we have  $\bigcap A$  is a set.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Pick $A \in \mathbf{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \cap \mathbf{A} \subseteq A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: By a Subset Axiom.

П

**Theorem 2.17** (Subset). For any sets A and B, the class  $A \cap B$  is a set.

PROOF: From a Subset Axiom since  $A \cap B \subseteq A$ .  $\square$ 

# Chapter 3

# Relations

## 3.1 Ordered Pairs

**Definition 3.1** (Ordered Pair (Pairing)). For any sets x and y, the *ordered pair* (x, y) is defined to be  $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.2** (Pairing). For any sets u, v, x, y, we have (u, v) = (x, y) if and only if u = x and v = y

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: \{\{u\}, \{u, v\}\} = \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \{u\} \in \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}\
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \{u, v\} \in \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}\
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \{u\} = \{x\} \text{ or } \{u\} = \{x, y\}
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \{u, v\} = \{x\} \text{ or } \{u, v\} = \{x, y\}
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Case: \{u\} = \{x, y\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ u = x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. u = v = x = y
       PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 5
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Case: \{u, v\} = \{x\}
   Proof: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Case: \{u\} = \{x\} \text{ and } \{u, v\} = \{x, y\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ u = x
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. u = y or v = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: u = y
       PROOF: This case is the case considered in \langle 1 \rangle 6.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Case: v = y
       PROOF: We have u = x and v = y as required.
```

**Lemma 3.3** (Pairing, Power Set). Let x, y and C be sets. If  $x \in C$  and  $y \in C$  then  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{PPC}$ .

Proof:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{Let: } x, y \text{ and } C \text{ be sets.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & \text{Assume: } x \in C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & \text{Assume: } y \in C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & \{x\} \subseteq C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & \{x,y\} \subseteq C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. & \{x\} \in \mathcal{P}C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 7. & \{x,y\} \in \mathcal{P}C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 8. & \{\{x\},\{x,y\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}C \\ \langle 1 \rangle 9. & \{\{x\},\{x,y\}\} \in \mathcal{PP}C \\ \\ \Box \end{array}
```

**Lemma 3.4** (Pairing, Union). Let x, y and A be sets. If  $(x,y) \in A$  then x and y belong to  $\bigcup \bigcup A$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{Let: } x, y \text{ and } A \text{ be sets.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & \text{Assume: } (x,y) \in A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & \{x,y\} \in \bigcup A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & x \in \bigcup \bigcup A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. & y \in \bigcup \bigcup A \\ \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{array}
```

## 3.2 Cartesian Product

**Definition 3.5** (Cartesian Product (Pairing)). Let **A** and **B** be classes. The Cartesian product  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is the class  $\{(x,y) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}, y \in \mathbf{B}\}$ .

**Theorem 3.6** (Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset). For any sets A and B, the Cartesian product  $A \times B$  is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\mathcal{PP}(A \cup B)$  by Lemma 3.3.  $\square$ 

## 3.3 Relations

**Definition 3.7** (Relation (Pairing)). A relation is a class of ordered pairs. Given a relation  $\mathbf{R}$ , we write  $x\mathbf{R}y$  for  $(x,y) \in \mathbf{R}$ . A relation is small iff it is a set.

#### 3.4 Domain

**Definition 3.8** (Domain (Pairing)). Let **R** be a class. The *domain* of **R** is dom  $\mathbf{R} = \{x \mid \exists y.x \mathbf{R}y\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.9** (Pairing, Union, Subset). For any set R, the domain dom R is a set

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\bigcup \bigcup R$  by Lemma 3.4.  $\square$ 

## 3.5 Range

**Definition 3.10** (Domain (Pairing)). Let **R** be a class. The *range* of **R** is ran  $\mathbf{R} = \{y \mid \exists x.x \mathbf{R}y\}$ .

**Theorem 3.11** (Pairing, Union, Subset). For any set R, the range ran R is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\bigcup \bigcup R$  by Lemma 3.4.  $\square$ 

#### 3.6 Field

**Definition 3.12** (Field). Let **R** be a class. The *field* of **R** is fld  $\mathbf{R} = \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{R} \cup \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{R}$ .

**Theorem 3.13** (Pairing, Union, Subset). For any set R, the field fld R is a set. PROOF: Theorems 2.7, 3.9 and 3.11.  $\square$ 

## 3.7 Functions

**Definition 3.14** (Class Term (Pairing)). A *class term* is a relation **F** such that, for all x, y, y', if x**F**y and x**F**y' then y = y'.

If **F** is a class term and  $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ , then we write  $\mathbf{F}(x)$  for the unique y such that  $x\mathbf{F}y$ .

We write  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}$  iff  $\mathbf{F}$  is a class term, dom  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{A}$  and ran  $\mathbf{F} \subseteq \mathbf{B}$ . A function is a class term that is a set.

**Axiom 3.15** (Axiom of Choice, First Form (Pairing)). For any relation R, there exists a function  $H \subseteq R$  such that dom H = dom R.

**Theorem 3.16.** The following are equivalent.

- 1. The Axiom of Choice
- 2. (Multiplicative Axiom) For any function H with domain I such that H(i) is nonempty for all  $i \in I$ , there exists a function f with domain I such that, for all  $i \in I$ , we have  $f(i) \in H(i)$ .
- 3. Every set has a choice function.
- 4. Let A be a set of pairwise disjoint nonempty sets. Then there exists a set C containing exactly one element from each member of A.

## 3.8 Single-Rooted

**Definition 3.17** (Single-Rooted (Pairing)). A class **R** is *single-rooted* if and only if, for all x, x', y, if x**R**y and x'**R**y then x = x'.

We call a class term one-to-one, injective or an injection if and only if it is single-rooted.

#### Surjective 3.9

**Definition 3.18** (Surjective (Pairing)). Let  $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}$  is surjective if and only if  $ran \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{B}$ .

#### 3.10Inverse

**Definition 3.19** (Inverse (Pairing)). Let **R** be a class. The *inverse* of **R** is  $\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \{(y,x) \mid x\mathbf{R}y\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.20** (Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset). For any set R, the inverse  $R^{-1}$  is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of ran  $R \times \text{dom } R$ .

**Theorem 3.21** (Pairing). For any class  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have dom  $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ .

PROOF: For any x, we have

$$x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists y.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists y.(y,x) \in \mathbf{F}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \text{ran } \mathbf{F}$ 

**Theorem 3.22** (Pairing). For any set  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have ran  $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}$ .

PROOF: For any x, we have

$$x \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists y.(y,x) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists y.(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \operatorname{dom} \mathbf{F}$ 

**Theorem 3.23** (Pairing). For any relation  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have  $(\mathbf{F}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{F}$ .

PROOF: For any 
$$z$$
 we have 
$$z \in (\mathbf{F}^{-1})^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \exists x, y.z = (x, y) \land (y, x) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \exists x, y.z = (x, y) \land (x, y) \in \mathbf{F}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow z \in \mathbf{F} \qquad (\mathbf{F} \text{ is a relation}) \square$$

**Theorem 3.24** (Pairing). For any class  $\mathbf{F}$ , we have  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is a class term if and only if **F** is single-rooted.

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

Theorem 3.25 (Pairing). Let F be a relation. Then F is a class term if and only if  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}$  is single-rooted.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

**Theorem 3.26** (Pairing). Let **F** be a one-to-one class term and  $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{F}(x)) = x$ .

PROOF: We have  $(x, \mathbf{F}(x)) \in \mathbf{F}$  and so  $(\mathbf{F}(x), x) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1}$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 3.27** (Pairing). Let **F** be a one-to-one function and  $y \in \operatorname{ran} \mathbf{F}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{F}^{-1}(y)) = y$ .

PROOF: From Theorems 3.21, 3.23 and 3.26.  $\square$ 

## 3.11 Composition

**Definition 3.28** (Composition (Pairing)). Let **R** and **S** be relations. The *composition* of **R** and **S** is  $\mathbf{S} \circ \mathbf{R} = \{(x,z) \mid \exists y.x\mathbf{R}y \wedge y\mathbf{S}z\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.29** (Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset). If R and S are small relations then  $S \circ R$  is small.

PROOF: It is a subset of dom  $R \times \operatorname{ran} S$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 3.30** (Pairing). Let  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$  be class terms. Then  $\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F}$  is a function, its domain is  $\{x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F} \mid \mathbf{F}(x) \in \text{dom } \mathbf{G}\}$ , and for x in this domain, we have  $(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(x))$ .

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F}$  is a class term.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x(\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F})z$  and  $x(\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F})z'$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK y, y' such that  $x \mathbf{F} y, x \mathbf{F} y', y \mathbf{G} z$  and  $y' \mathbf{G} z'$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y = y'$ 

PROOF: Since  $\mathbf{F}$  is a class term.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . z = z'

PROOF: Since G is a class term.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . dom( $\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F}$ ) = { $x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F} \mid \mathbf{F}(x) \in \text{dom } \mathbf{G}$ }

Proof:

$$x \in \text{dom}(\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F}) \Leftrightarrow \exists z.x (\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F})z$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists y, z.x \mathbf{F}y \land y \mathbf{G}z$   
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \text{dom } \mathbf{F} \land \mathbf{F}(x) \in \text{dom } \mathbf{G}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For x in this domain, we have  $(\mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G})(x) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(x))$ .

PROOF: Since  $(x, \mathbf{F}(x)) \in \mathbf{F}$  and  $(\mathbf{F}(x), \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}(x))) \in \mathbf{G}$ .

**Theorem 3.31** (Pairing). For any classes  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$ , we have  $(\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F})^{-1} = \mathbf{F}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{G}^{-1}$ .

Proof:

$$(x, z) \in (\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F})^{-1} \Leftrightarrow (z, x) \in \mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{F}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists y. z \mathbf{F} y \wedge y \mathbf{G} x$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists y. (y, z) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1} \wedge (x, y) \in \mathbf{G}^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x, z) \in \mathbf{F}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{G}^{-1}$$

## 3.12 Identity Function

**Definition 3.32** (Identity Class Term (Pairing)). Let **A** be a set. The *identity class term*  $id_{\mathbf{A}}$  on **A** is  $\{(x,x) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.33** (Pairing, Power Set, Subset). For any set A, we have  $id_A$  is a function.

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\mathcal{PP}A$ .

**Theorem 3.34** (Extensionality, Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset). Let  $F: A \to B$  and A be nonempty. Then there exists a function  $G: B \to A$  such that  $G \circ F = \mathrm{id}_A$  if and only if F is one-to-one.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $F: A \to B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: A is nonempty
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . If there exists  $G: B \to A$  such that  $G \circ F = \mathrm{id}_A$  then F is one-to-one.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $G: B \to A$  and  $G \circ F = \mathrm{id}_A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Assume: F(x) = F(y)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . x = y

PROOF: x = G(F(x)) = G(F(y)) = y.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . If F is one-to-one then there exists  $G: B \to A$  such that  $G \circ F = \mathrm{id}_A$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F is one-to-one.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $a \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$  Define  $G: B \to A$  by: G(y) is the x such that F(x) = y if  $y \in \operatorname{ran} F,$  otherwise G(y) = a
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $G \circ F = \mathrm{id}_A$

PROOF: For  $x \in A$  we have  $(G \circ F)(x) = G(F(x)) = x$  by Theorem 3.30.

**Theorem 3.35** (Extensionality, Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset). Let  $F: A \to B$  and A be nonempty. If there exists a function  $H: B \to A$  such that  $F \circ H = \mathrm{id}_B$  then F is surjective.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $F: A \to B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Assume: A is nonempty.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $H: B \to A$  satisfy  $F \circ H = \mathrm{id}_B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $y \in B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ F(H(y)) = y.$

**Theorem 3.36** (Extensionality, Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset, Choice). Let  $F: A \to B$  and A be nonempty. If F is surjective then there exists a function  $H: B \to A$  such that  $F \circ H = \mathrm{id}_B$ .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: F is surjective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick a function  $H \subseteq F^{-1}$  with dom H = B

PROOF: By the Axiom of Choice.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ H: B \to A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $F \circ H = \mathrm{id}_B$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in B$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ (y, H(y)) \in F^{-1}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (H(y), y) \in F$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . F(H(y)) = y

## 3.13 Restriction

**Definition 3.37** (Restriction (Pairing)). Let **R** be a relation and **A** a class. The *restriction* of **R** to **A** is  $\mathbf{R} \upharpoonright \mathbf{A} = \{(x,y) \mid x \in \mathbf{A} \land x\mathbf{R}y\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.38** (Pairing, Subset). If R is a small relation then  $R \upharpoonright A$  is small.

PROOF: Since it is a subset of R.  $\square$ 

## **3.14** Image

**Definition 3.39** (Image (Pairing)). Let **F** and **A** be classes. The *image* of **A** under **F** is  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) = {\mathbf{F}(x) \mid x \in \mathbf{A}}$ .

**Theorem 3.40** (Pairing, Union, Subset). If F is a set then  $F(\mathbf{A})$  is a set.

PROOF: Since it is a subset of ran F.  $\square$ 

Theorem 3.41 (Pairing). For any classes F and A we have

$$\mathbf{F}\left(\bigcup \mathcal{A}\right) = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{F}(A)$$

PROOF: Each is the class of all y such that  $\exists x. \exists A. x \in A \in \mathcal{A} \land y = \mathbf{F}(x)$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 3.42** (Pairing). For any classes F,  $A_1$ , ...,  $A_n$ , we have

$$F(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = F(A_1) \cup \cdots \cup F(A_n) .$$

Proof: Similar.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 3.43** (Pairing). For any classes  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have

$$\mathbf{F}\left(\bigcap \mathcal{A}\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{F}(A)$$
.

Equality holds if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted and  $\mathcal{A}$  is nonempty.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\mathbf{F} (\bigcap \mathcal{A}) \subseteq \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{F}(A)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in \mathbf{F}(\bigcap \mathcal{A})$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $x \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}$  such that  $y = \mathbf{F}(x)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $A \in \mathcal{A}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If **F** is single-rooted then  $\mathbf{F}(\bigcap A) = \bigcap_{A \in A} \mathbf{F}(A)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: **F** is single-rooted and  $\mathcal{A}$  is nonempty.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $y \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{F}(A)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $A \in \mathcal{A}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $x \in A$  such that  $y = \mathbf{F}(x)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $A' \in \mathcal{A}$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . PICK  $x' \in A'$  such that  $y = \mathbf{F}(x')$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x = x'$

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

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x \in A'$ 

Corollary 3.43.1 (Pairing). For any class F and nonempty class A, we have

$$\mathbf{F}^{-1}\left(\bigcap \mathcal{A}\right) = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbf{F}^{-1}(A) .$$

Theorem 3.44 (Pairing). For any classes  $F,\,A_1,\,\ldots,\,A_n,$  we have

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathbf{A}_n) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}_1) \cap \cdots \cap \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}_n)$$
.

Equality holds if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

PROOF: Similar.

Corollary 3.44.1 (Pairing). For any classes  $F, A_1, \ldots, A_n$ , we have

$$\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{A_1}\cap\cdots\cap\mathbf{A_n})=\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{A_1})\cap\cdots\cap\mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{A_n})\ .$$

Theorem 3.45 (Pairing). For any classes F, A and B, we have

$$F(A) - F(B) \subseteq F(A - B)$$
.

Equality holds if  $\mathbf{F}$  is single-rooted.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: **F**, **A** and **B** be sets.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}) \subseteq \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B})$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $x \in \mathbf{A}$  such that  $x \mathbf{F} y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \in \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If F is single-rooted then \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B}).
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: F is single-rooted.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B})
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick x \in \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} such that y = \mathbf{F}(x)
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \in \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{A})
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ y \notin \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{B})
         \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction x' \in \mathbf{B} and x' \mathbf{F} y
         \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x' = x
              Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 1
          \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x \in \mathbf{B}
         \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
```

PROOF: This contradicts  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

Corollary 3.45.1 (Pairing). For any classes F and sets A and B, we have

$${f F}^{-1}({f A}) - {f F}^{-1}({f B}) = {f F}^{-1}({f A} - {f B})$$
 .

#### 3.15 Infinite Cartesian Product

**Definition 3.46** (Infinite Cartesian Product (Pairing)). Let H be a function with domain I. The Cartesian product  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is the class of all functions f with domain I such that, for all  $i \in I$ , we have  $f(i) \in H(i)$ .

**Theorem 3.47** (Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset). If H is a function with domain I then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is a set.

PROOF: It is a subset of  $\mathcal{P}(I \times \bigcup \operatorname{ran} H)$ .

Theorem 3.48 (Axiom of Choice, Second Version (Pairing, Union, Power Set, Subset)). The Axiom of Choice is equivalent to the statement: for any function H with domain I, if H(i) is nonempty for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is nonempty.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If the Axiom of Choice is true then, for any function H with domain I, if H(i) is nonempty for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is nonempty.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: The Axiom of Choice
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: H be a function with domain I such that H(i) is nonempty for all  $i \in I$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick a function  $f \subseteq \{(i, x) \mid x \in H(i)\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f \in \prod_{i \in I} H(i)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If, for any function H with domain I, if H(i) is nonempty for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is nonempty, then the Axiom of Choice is true.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for any function H with domain I, if H(i) is nonempty for all  $i \in I$ , then  $\prod_{i \in I} H(i)$  is nonempty
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: R be a relation.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: I = dom R

```
\langle 2 \rangle4. Let: H be the function with domain I such that H(i) = \{y \mid iRy\} for all i. \langle 2 \rangle5. Pick f \in \prod_{i \in I} H(i) \langle 2 \rangle6. f \subseteq R
```

## 3.16 Reflexive Relations

**Definition 3.49** (Reflexive (Pairing)). Let **R** be a relation on **A**. Then **R** is *reflexive* on A if and only if, for all  $x \in \mathbf{A}$ , we have  $x\mathbf{R}x$ .

## 3.17 Symmetric

**Definition 3.50** (Symmetric (Pairing)). Let **R** be a relation. Then **R** is *symmetric* if and only if, whenever  $x\mathbf{R}y$ , then  $y\mathbf{R}x$ .

## 3.18 Transitivity

**Definition 3.51** (Transitivity (Pairing)). Let **R** be a relation. Then **R** is *transitive* if and only if, whenever  $x\mathbf{R}y$  and  $y\mathbf{R}z$ , then  $x\mathbf{R}z$ .

## 3.19 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 3.52** (Equivalence Relation (Pairing)). Let  $\mathbf{R}$  be a relation on  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then  $\mathbf{R}$  is an *equivalence relation* on  $\mathbf{A}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{R}$  is reflexive on  $\mathbf{A}$ , symmetric and transitive.

**Theorem 3.53** (Pairing). If  $\mathbf{R}$  is a symmetric and transitive relation then  $\mathbf{R}$  is an equivalence relation on fld  $\mathbf{R}$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: **R** be a symmetric and transitive relation.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in \operatorname{fld} \mathbf{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK y such that  $x \mathbf{R} y$  or  $y \mathbf{R} x$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $x \mathbf{R} y$  and  $y \mathbf{R} x$

PROOF: By symmetry.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5. x \mathbf{R} x$ 

PROOF: By transitivity.

## 3.20 Equivalence Class

**Definition 3.54** (Equivalence Class (Pairing)). Let **R** be an equivalence relation on **A** and  $a \in \mathbf{A}$ . Then the *equivalence class* of a modulo **R** is

$$[a]_{\mathbf{R}} = \{x \in \mathbf{A} \mid a\mathbf{R}x\}$$
.

**Lemma 3.55** (Extensionality, Pairing, Subset). Let **R** be an equivalence relation on **A** and  $x, y \in \mathbf{A}$ . Then  $[x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}}$  if and only if  $x\mathbf{R}y$ .

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ If } [x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \text{ then } x\mathbf{R}y. \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: } [x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ y \in [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \\ &\quad \text{Proof: Since } y\mathbf{R}y \text{ by reflexivity.} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in [x]_{\mathbf{R}} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x\mathbf{R}y \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ If } x\mathbf{R}y \text{ then } [x]_{\mathbf{R}} = [y]_{\mathbf{R}}. \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: } x\mathbf{R}y \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [x]_{\mathbf{R}} \\ &\quad \text{Proof: If } y\mathbf{R}z \text{ then } x\mathbf{R}z \text{ by transitivity.} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ [x]_{\mathbf{R}} \subseteq [y]_{\mathbf{R}} \\ &\quad \text{Proof: Similar since } y\mathbf{R}x \text{ by symmetry.} \\ &\Box \end{split}
```

## 3.21 Disjoint

**Definition 3.56** (Disjoint). Two classes **A** and **B** are *disjoint* if and only if there is no x such that  $x \in \mathbf{A}$  and  $x \in \mathbf{B}$ .

**Axiom 3.57** (Regularity). For any nonempty set A, there exists  $m \in A$  such that m and A are disjoint.

**Theorem 3.58** (Regularity). No set is a member of itself.

**Theorem 3.59** (Regularity). There are no sets A and B such that  $A \in B$  and  $B \in A$ .

#### 3.22 Partitions

**Definition 3.60** (Partition). A partition P of a set A is a set of nonempty subsets of A such that:

- 1. For all  $x \in A$  there exists  $S \in P$  such that  $x \in S$ .
- 2. Any two distinct elements of P are disjoint.

## 3.23 Quotient Sets

**Definition 3.61** (Quotient Set (Pairing, Power Set, Subset)). Let R be an equivalence relation on A. The quotient set A/R is the set of all equivalence classes modulo R.

This is a set because it is a subset of  $\mathcal{P}A$ .

**Theorem 3.62** (Extensionality, Pairing, Power Set, Subset). Let R be an equivalence relation on A. Then the quotient set A/R is a partition of A.

#### PROOF:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. For all x \in A there exists y \in A such that x \in [y]_R PROOF: Take y = x. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Any two distinct equivalence classes are disjoint.
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $z \in [x]_R$  and  $z \in [y]_R$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . xRz and yRz

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ [x]_R = [z]_R = [y]_R$ 

Proof: Lemma 3.55.

**Definition 3.63** (Canonical Map (Pairing, Power Set, Subset)). Let R be an equivalence relation on A. The canonical map  $\phi: A \to A/R$  is the function defined by  $\phi(a) = [a]_R$ .

**Theorem 3.64.** Let R be an equivalence relation on A and  $F: A \rightarrow B$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. For all  $x, y \in A$ , if xRy then F(x) = F(y).
- 2. There exists  $G: A/R \to B$  such that  $F = G \circ \phi$ , where  $\phi: A \to A/R$  is the canonical map.

In this case, G is unique.

```
Proof:
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2 \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Assume:} \ 1 \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \text{Let} \ G = \{([a]_R,b) \mid F(a) = b\} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ G \ \text{is a function.} \\ \langle 3 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ (c,b), (c,b') \in G \\ \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ \text{Pick} \ a,a' \in A \ \text{such that} \ c = [a]_R = [a']_R \ \text{with} \ F(a) = b \ \text{and} \ F(a') = b' \\ \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ aRa' \\ \text{Proof: Lemma 3.55.} \\ \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ F(a) = F(a') \\ \text{Proof: From} \ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \\ \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ b = b' \\ \text{Proof: From} \ \langle 3 \rangle 2. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ F = G \circ \phi \end{array}
```

```
PROOF: For a \in A we have G(\phi(a)) = G([a]) = F(a). \langle 1 \rangle 2. 2 \Rightarrow 1 \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: G: A/R \to B be such that F = G \circ \phi \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: x,y \in A \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: xRy \langle 2 \rangle 4. G([x]) = G([y]) Proof: Lemma 3.55 \langle 2 \rangle 5. F(x) = F(y) Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 1. \langle 1 \rangle 3. If G,G':A/R \to B and G \circ \phi = G' \circ \phi then G = G' Proof: For any a \in A we have G([a]) = G'([a]).
```

## 3.24 The Finite Intersection Property

**Definition 3.65** (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 3.66.** 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, \ldots, C_n \in \mathbb{C}
               Prove: C_1 \cap \cdots \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 3.67.** 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 inter-
   section 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}.
Lemma 3.68. 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 3.67.
   \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 3.69.** 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 3.70** (Graph). Let  $f: A \to B$ . The graph of f is the set  $\{(x, f(x)) \mid$  $x \in A$   $\subseteq A \times B$ .

#### 3.25 Countable Intersection Property

**Definition 3.71** (Countable Intersection Property). Let X be a set and  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq$  $\mathcal{P}X$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  satisfies the countable intersection property if and only if every countable subset of  $\mathcal{A}$  has nonempty intersection.

**Lemma 3.72.** 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  $\mathcal{D}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \cap \mathcal{D}_0 \in \mathcal{D}.$ 

**Lemma 3.73.** 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:  $\bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \cap A \neq \emptyset$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \cap \mathcal{D}_0 \in \mathcal{D}$ 

Proof: Lemma 3.72.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \cap \mathcal{D}_0 \cap A \neq \emptyset$ 

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

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

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

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#### 3.26 The Axiom of Choice

**Axiom 3.74** (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.

#### 3.27 Choice Functions

**Definition 3.75** (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 3.76** (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  $\mathcal{B}$ .

#### 3.28 Transitive

**Definition 3.77** (Transitive Set). A set A is *transitive* if and only if, whenever  $x \in y \in A$  then  $x \in A$ .

**Theorem 3.78** (Union, Power Set). Let A be a set. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. A is transitive.
- 2.  $\bigcup A \subseteq A$
- 3. For all  $a \in A$  we have  $a \subseteq A$
- 4.  $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}A$

PROOF: From definitions.  $\square$ 

## 3.29 Minimal Elements

**Definition 3.79** (Minimal). Let R be a binary relation and A a set. An element  $a \in A$  is minimal w.r.t. R iff there is no  $x \in A$  such that xRa.

#### 3.30 Well-Founded Relations

**Definition 3.80** (Well-Founded). Let R be a relation on A. Then R is well-founded iff every nonempty subset of A has an R-minimal element.

**Theorem 3.81** (Transfinite Induction). Let R be a well-founded relation on A and  $B \subseteq A$ . Assume that, for every  $t \in A$ , if  $\{x \in A \mid xRt\} \subseteq B$  then  $t \in B$ . Then we have B = A.

**Theorem 3.82** (Transfinite Recursion). Let R be a well-founded relation on a set C.

Let **A** be a class. Let **B** be the class of all functions from a subset of C to **A**. Let  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{B} \times C \to \mathbf{A}$  be a class term.

Then there exists a unique function  $f: C \to \mathbf{A}$  such that, for all  $t \in C$ , we have  $f(t) = \mathbf{F}(f \upharpoonright \{x \in C \mid xRt\}, t)$ .

## 3.31 Transitive Closure

**Theorem 3.83.** Let R be a relation. Then there exists a unique relation  $R^t$  such that  $R^t$  is transitive,  $R \subseteq R^t$ , and for every transitive relation S with  $R \subseteq S$  we have  $R^t \subseteq S$ .

**Definition 3.84** (Transitive Closure). The *transitive closure* of a relation R is this relation  $R^t$ .

**Theorem 3.85.** If R is well-founded then  $R^t$  is well-founded.

# Chapter 4

# Cardinal Numbers

**Definition 4.1** (Equinumerous). Two sets A and B are equinumerous if and only if there exists a bijection between them.

**Theorem 4.2.** Equinumerosity is an equivalence relation on the class of all sets.

**Theorem 4.3** (Cantor). No set is equinumerous with its power set.

**Definition 4.4.** We say a set A is *dominated* by B,  $A \leq B$ , iff A is equinumerous with a subset of B.

Theorem 4.5.  $A \preceq A$ 

**Theorem 4.6.** If  $A \leq B \leq C$  then  $A \leq C$ .

**Theorem 4.7** (Schröder-Bernstein Theorem). If  $A \preceq B$  and  $B \preceq A$  then  $A \equiv B$ .

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to A$  be injections.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Define a sequence of sets  $C_n \subseteq A$  by

$$C_0 = A - \operatorname{ran} g$$

$$C_{n+1} = g(f(C_n))$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Define  $h:A \to B$  by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in \bigcup_n C_n \\ g^{-1}(x) & \text{if not} \end{cases}$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . h is a bijection.

**Theorem 4.8** (AC). For any infinite set A we have  $\mathbb{N} \leq A$ .

PROOF: Given a choice funtion f for A, choose a sequence  $(a_n)$  in A by  $a_n = f(A - \{a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}\})$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 4.8.1 (AC). A set is infinite if and only if it is equinumerous with a proper subset.

# 4.1 Countability

**Definition 4.9** (Countable). A set A is *countable* iff  $A \leq \mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 4.10** (AC). A countable union of countable sets is countable.

## 4.2 Order Theory

**Definition 4.11** (Preorder). Let X be a set. A *preorder* on X is a binary relation  $\leq$  on X such that:

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

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

**Definition 4.12** (Preordered Set). A preordered set consists of a set X and a preorder  $\leq$  on X.

**Proposition 4.13.** Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets. Let  $f: X \to Y$  be strictly monotone and surjective. Then f is a poset isomorphism.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . f is injective.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: f(x) = f(y)
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \not< y$

PROOF: By strong motonicity.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ y \not < x$ 

PROOF: By strong motonicity.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x = y$ 

PROOF: By trichotomy.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $f^{-1}$  is monotone.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume:  $x \leq y$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(x) \geqslant f^{-1}(y)$

PROOF: By strong motonicity.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f^{-1}(x) < f^{-1}(y)$ 

PROOF: By trichotomy.

**Definition 4.14** (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 4.15** (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 4.16.** 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 I is an interval.
```

**Definition 4.17** (Ordered Square). The ordered square  $I_o^2$  is the set  $[0,1]^2$ under the dictionary order.

**Proposition 4.18.** The ordered square is a linear continuum.

```
\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 4.19.** 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 4.20.** 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 4.21.** 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 4.20)
   \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 4.20)
                            =1
```

**Proposition 4.22** (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 4.20 \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 4.20 \langle 2 \rangle3. The union of the f_is is an order isomorphism [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)
```

## 4.3 Partially Ordered Sets

**Definition 4.23** (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.

#### 4.4 Strict Partial Order

**Definition 4.24** (Strict Partial Order). A *strict partial order* on a set X is a relation on X that is transitive and irreflexive.

**Proposition 4.25.** If < is a strict partial order on X and  $x, y \in X$ , then at most one of x < y, y < x, x = y holds.

**Proposition 4.26.** If < is a strict partial order then the relation  $\le$  defined by:  $x \le y$  iff x < y or x = y, is a partial order.

**Theorem 4.27.** If R is a well-founded relation then its transitive closure is a partial order.

**Definition 4.28** (Linear Order). A *linear order* on a set X is a partial order such that, for any  $x, y \in X$ , either  $x \le y$  or  $y \le x$ .

#### 4.5 Strict Linear Orders

**Definition 4.29** (Strict Linear Order (Extensionality, Pairing)). Let A be a set. A *strict linear order* on A is a binary relation R on A that is transitive and satisfies *trichotomy*: for any  $x, y \in A$ , exactly one of xRy, x = y, yRx holds.

**Theorem 4.30.** Let R be a strict linear order on A. Then there is no  $x \in A$  such that xRx.

PROOF: Immediate from trichotomy.

## 4.6 Well Orderings

**Definition 4.31** (Well-ordering). A well-order on a set X is a linear order such that every nonempty set has a least element.

**Proposition 4.32.** Let  $\leq$  be a linear order on X. Then  $\leq$  is a well-order iff there is no function  $f: \mathbb{N} \to X$  such that f(n+1) < f(n) for all n.

**Definition 4.33** (Initial Segment). Given a well-ordered set X and  $\alpha \in X$ , the initial segment of X up to  $\alpha$  is seg  $\alpha = \{x \in X \mid x < \alpha\}$ .

**Theorem 4.34** (Transfinite Induction). Let  $\leq$  be a linear order on J. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1.  $\leq$  is a well-order on J.
- 2. For every subset  $J_0 \subseteq J$ , if the following condition holds:
  - For every  $\alpha \in J$ , if  $\operatorname{seg} \alpha \subseteq J_0$  then  $\alpha \in J$ .

then  $J_0 = J$ .

**Axiom Schema 4.35** (Replacement). Let **H** be a class term. If dom **H** is a set then **H** is a set.

**Theorem 4.36** (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 G be a function with domain  $\mathcal{F}$ . Then there exists a unique function h with domain J such that, for all  $\alpha \in J$ , we have  $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright \operatorname{seg} \alpha)$ .

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If v is a function and  $t \in J$ , we say v is  $\rho$ -constructed up to t iff dom  $v = \{x \in J \mid x \leq t\}$  and, for all  $x \in \text{dom } v$ , we have  $v(x) = \rho(v \upharpoonright \text{seg } x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $t_1 \leq t_2$ ,  $v_1$  is  $\rho$ -constructed up to  $t_1$ , and  $v_2$  is  $\rho$ -constructed up to  $t_2$ , then  $v_1 = v_2 \upharpoonright \{x \in J \mid x \leq t_1\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal{K}$  be the set of all functions that are  $\rho$ -constructed up to some  $t \in J$  Proof:  $\mathcal{K}$  is a set by a Replacement Axiom.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $F = \bigcup \mathcal{K}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . F is a function
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For all  $x \in \text{dom } F$  we have  $F(x) = \rho(F \upharpoonright \text{seg } x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . dom F = J
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . F is unique

**Theorem 4.37.** The following are equivalent.

- 1. The Axiom of Choice
- 2. (Well-Ordering Theorem) Every set has a well-ordering.
- 3. (Zorn's Lemma) Let X be a poset. If every chain in X has an upper bound in X, then X has a maximal element.

#### Proof:

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

Proof:

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: The Axiom of Choice
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: X be a set.
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK a choice function for  $\mathcal{P}X \setminus \{\emptyset\}$  PROOF: Lemma 3.76.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let: a tower in X be a pair (T,<) where  $T \subseteq X$ , < is a well-ordering of T, and  $x = c(X \setminus \{y \in T \mid y < x\})$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. 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.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 6. For any tower (T, <) in X with  $T \neq X$ , there exists a tower in X of which (T, <) is a section.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . Let:  $T = \bigcup \{ T' \subseteq X \mid \exists R. (T, R) \text{ is a tower in } X \}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 8. Define < on T by: x < y iff there exists a tower (T, R) in X such that  $x, y \in T$  and xRy.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 9$ . (T, <) is a tower in X.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 10. \ T = X$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 11$ . < is a well-ordering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 2 \Rightarrow 3$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: The Well-Ordering Theorem
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: X be a poset in which every chain has an upper bound.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick a well-ordering R of X
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Define  $F: X \to \{0,1\}$  by transfinite R-recursion by:

$$F(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b < a \text{ for all } b \text{ such that } bRa \text{ and } f(b) = 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $C = \{ a \in X \mid f(a) = 1 \}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . C is a chain in X
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x, y \in C$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: without loss of generality xRy
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ f(y) = 1$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . for all z such that zRy and f(z) = 1 we have z < y
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . x < y
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. Pick an upper bound u for C
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . u is maximal in X
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in X$  with  $u \leq x$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . for all b such that bRx and f(b) = 1 we have b < xPROOF: Since  $b \in C$  so  $b \le u \le x$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ f(u) = 1$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ u \leq x$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ u = x$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 9. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$ 
  - $\langle 3 \rangle$ 1. Assume: Zorn's Lemma
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Let: R be a relation
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\mathcal{A}$  be the poset of functions that are subsets of R under  $\subseteq$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Every chain in  $\mathcal{A}$  has an upper bound
    - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  be a chain.

```
Prove: \bigcup \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{A}
           \langle 4 \rangle 2. Assume: (x,y),(x,z) \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}
           \langle 4 \rangle 3. Pick f, g \in \mathcal{C} such that f(x) = y and g(x) = z
           \langle 4 \rangle 4. Assume: without loss of generality f \subseteq g
           \langle 4 \rangle 5. \ g(x) = y
           \langle 4 \rangle 6. \ y = z
       \langle 3 \rangle5. Pick F maximal in \mathcal{A}
       \langle 3 \rangle 6. dom F = \text{dom } R
           \langle 4 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction x \in \text{dom } R - \text{dom } F
           \langle 4 \rangle 2. PICK y such that xRy
           \langle 4 \rangle 3. Let: G = F \cup \{(x, y)\}
           \langle 4 \rangle 4. G \in \mathcal{A}
           \langle 4 \rangle 5. \ F \subset G
          \langle 4 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
              PROOF: This contradicts the maximality of F.
Theorem 4.38 (Cardinal Comparability). The Axiom of Choice is equivalent
to the Cardinal Comparability Theorem: for any two sets A and B, either
A \preccurlyeq B \text{ or } B \preccurlyeq A.
Proof:
(1)1. Zorn's Lemma implies Cardinal Comparability
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: Zorn's Lemma
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: A and B be sets.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: A be the poset of all injective functions f such that dom f \subseteq C
                      and ran f \subseteq D under \subseteq
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Every chain in \mathcal{A} has an upper bound.
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{A} be a chain.
                Prove: \bigcup \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{A}
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. | JC is a function.
           \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: (x,y),(x,z) \in \bigcup \mathcal{C}
           \langle 4 \rangle 2. PICK f, g \in \mathcal{C} such that f(x) = y and g(x) = z
           \langle 4 \rangle 3. Assume: without loss of generality f \subseteq g
           \langle 4 \rangle 4. q(x) = y
           \langle 4 \rangle 5. \ y = z
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. \bigcup C is injective.
          PROOF: Similar.
    \langle 2 \rangle5. Pick \hat{f} maximal in \mathcal{A}
       PROOF: By Zorn's Lemma.
    \langle 2 \rangle6. Either dom \hat{f} = C or ran \hat{f} = D
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction dom \hat{f} \subset C and ran \hat{f} \subset D
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick x \in C - \text{dom } \hat{f} and y \in D - \text{ran } \hat{f}
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: g = \hat{f} \cup \{(x,y)\}
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ g \in \mathcal{A}
```

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ \hat{f} \subset g$ 

```
\langle 3 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
```

PROOF: This contradicts the maximality of  $\hat{f}$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ . If dom  $\hat{f} = C$  then  $C \preceq D$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8$ . If ran  $\hat{f} = D$  then  $D \leq C$
- (1)2. Cardinal Comparability implies the Well-Ordering Theorem
  - (2)1. Assume: Cardinal Comparability
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: A be a set
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick an ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha \not\preccurlyeq A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $A \leq \alpha$

PROOF: By Cardinal Comparability.

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick an injection  $f: A \to \alpha$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . Define < on A by x < y iff  $f(x) \in f(y)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. < is a well-ordering on A.

**Theorem 4.39.** Given two well-ordered sets A and B, either  $A \cong B$  or one of A, B is isomorphic to an initial segment of the other.

### 4.7 Ordinal Numbers

**Definition 4.40.** Let  $(A, \leq)$  be a well-ordered set. The *ordinal number* of  $(A, \leq)$  is the range of E, where E is the unique function with domain A such that  $E(t) = \operatorname{ran}(E \upharpoonright \operatorname{seg} t)$  for all  $t \in A$ .

**Theorem 4.41.** Let  $(A, \leq)$  be a well-ordered set and  $E: A \to \alpha$  be the canonical function onto the ordinal of A. Then:

- 1. For all  $t \in A$  we have  $E(t) \notin E(t)$ .
- 2. E is a bijection.
- 3. For any  $s, t \in A$ , we have s < t if and only if  $E(s) \in E(t)$ .
- 4.  $\alpha$  is a transitive set.
- 5.  $\alpha$  is well-ordered by  $\in$
- 6. E is an order isomorphism between  $(A, \leq)$  and  $(\alpha, \in)$ .

**Theorem 4.42.** Two well-ordered sets are isomorphic if and only if they have the same ordinal number.

**Theorem 4.43.** A set is an ordinal number if and only if it is a transitive set well-ordered by  $\in$ .

**Theorem 4.44.** Every member of an ordinal number is an ordinal number.

**Theorem 4.45.** Any transitive set of ordinal numbers is an ordinal number.

Theorem 4.46. The empty set is an ordinal number.

**Theorem 4.47.** The successor of an ordinal number is an ordinal number.

**Theorem 4.48.** *If A is a set of ordinal numbers then*  $\bigcup A$  *is an ordinal number.* 

**Theorem 4.49.** Any nonempty set of ordinal numbers has a least element.

**Theorem 4.50** (Burali-Forti Paradox). The class of ordinal numbers is a proper class.

**Theorem 4.51** (Hartogs' Theorem). For any set A, there exists an ordinal that is not dominated by A.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\alpha$  be the class of all ordinals  $\beta$  such that  $\beta \leq A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\alpha$  is a set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: W be the set of all pairs  $(B, \leq)$  such that  $B \subseteq A$  and  $\leq$  is a well-ordering on B.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Every member of  $\alpha$  is the ordinal number of a member of W
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D.

PROOF: By a Replacement Axiom.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\alpha$  is an ordinal.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\alpha$  is not dominated by A.

**Definition 4.52.** A class term  $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{On}$  is *continuous* iff, for every limit ordinal  $\lambda$ , we have  $\mathbf{F}(\lambda) = \sup_{\alpha < \lambda} F(\alpha)$ .

**Theorem 4.53.** Let  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{On}$ . If  $\mathbf{F}$  is continuous and  $\mathbf{F}(\alpha) < \mathbf{F}(\alpha+1)$  for every ordinal  $\alpha$ , then  $\mathbf{F}$  is strictly monotone.

**Definition 4.54.** A class term  $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{On}$  is *normal* iff it is strictly monotone and continuous.

**Theorem 4.55.** Let  $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{On}$  be normal. For every ordinal  $\beta \geq \mathbf{F}(0)$ , there exists a greatest ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $\mathbf{F}(\alpha) \leq \beta$ .

**Theorem 4.56.** Let  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{On}$  be normal. Let S be a set of ordinals. Then  $\mathbf{F}(\sup S) = \sup_{\alpha \in S} \mathbf{F}(\alpha)$ .

**Theorem 4.57** (Veblen Fixed-Point Theorem). Let  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{On}$  be normal. For every ordinal  $\alpha$ , there exists  $\beta \geq \alpha$  such that  $\mathbf{F}(\beta) = \beta$ .

PROOF: Let  $\beta$  be the supremum of  $\alpha$ ,  $\mathbf{F}(\alpha)$ ,  $\mathbf{F}^2(\alpha)$ , ....

**Lemma 4.58.** Let  $\alpha$  be an ordinal. Let  $(f(\gamma))_{\gamma < \alpha}$  be an  $\alpha$ -sequence of ordinals. Then there exists  $\beta \leq \alpha$  and an increasing sequence of ordinals  $(g(\gamma))_{\gamma < \beta}$  such that  $\sup_{\gamma < \alpha} f(\gamma) = \sup_{\gamma < \beta} g(\gamma)$ .

### 4.8 Cardinal Numbers

**Definition 4.59** (Cardinal Number (AC)). For any set A, the *cardinal number* of A, card A, is the least ordinal equinumerous with A.

There exists some ordinal equinumerous with A by the Well-Ordering Theorem.

**Theorem 4.60.** For any sets A and B, we have  $A \equiv B$  if and only if card A = card B.

**Theorem 4.61.** A set A is finite if and only if card A is a natural number.

**Theorem 4.62.** The supremum of a set of cardinal numbers is a cardinal number.

### 4.9 Cardinal Arithmetic

**Definition 4.63.** For cardinal numbers  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$ , the sum  $\kappa + \lambda$  is the cardinal number of  $A \cup B$ , where A and B are disjoint sets of cardinality  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  respectively.

Theorem 4.64.  $\kappa + \lambda = \lambda + \kappa$ 

Theorem 4.65.  $\kappa + (\lambda + \mu) = (\kappa + \lambda) + \mu$ 

**Theorem 4.66.** The definition of addition agrees with the definition on natural numbers.

**Definition 4.67.** For cardinal numbers  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$ , the *product*  $\kappa\lambda$  is the cardinality of  $\kappa \times \lambda$ .

Theorem 4.68.  $\kappa\lambda = \lambda\kappa$ 

Theorem 4.69.  $\kappa(\lambda\mu) = (\kappa\lambda)\mu$ 

Theorem 4.70.  $\kappa(\lambda + \mu) = \kappa\lambda + \kappa\mu$ 

**Theorem 4.71.** The definition of multiplication agrees with the definition on natural numbers.

**Theorem 4.72** (AC). For any infinite cardinal  $\kappa$  we have  $\kappa \kappa = \kappa$ .

#### PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: B be a set with cardinality  $\kappa$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. Let:  $\mathcal{H} = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{f \mid \exists A \subseteq B.A \text{ is infinite and } f \text{ is a bijection between } A \times A \text{ and } A\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For every chain  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$  we have  $\bigcup \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{H}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Pick a maximal  $f_0$  in  $\mathcal{H}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f_0 \neq \emptyset$

PROOF: B has a subset of cardinality  $\aleph_0$  and  $\aleph_0 \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $A_0$  be the set such that  $f_0$  is a bijection between  $A_0 \times A_0$  and  $A_0$ 

$$\langle 1 \rangle 7$$
. Let:  $\lambda = \operatorname{card} A_0$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ .  $\operatorname{card}(B - A_0) < \lambda$   
 $\langle 1 \rangle 9$ .  $\kappa = \lambda$   
Proof:  

$$\kappa = \operatorname{card} A_0 + \operatorname{card}(B - A_0)$$

$$\leq \lambda + \lambda$$

$$= 2\lambda$$

$$\leq \lambda \lambda$$

$$= \lambda$$

$$< \kappa$$

$$(\langle 1 \rangle 6)$$

**Theorem 4.73** (Absorption Law). Let  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  be cardinal numbers such that  $0 < \kappa \le \lambda$  and  $\lambda$  is infinite. Then

$$\kappa + \lambda = \lambda$$
.

**Theorem 4.74** (Absorption Law). Let  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  be cardinal numbers such that  $0 < \kappa \le \lambda$  and  $\lambda$  is infinite. Then

$$\kappa\lambda = \lambda$$
.

**Definition 4.75.** For cardinal numbers  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$ , we write  $\kappa^{\lambda}$  for the cardinality of the set of functions from  $\lambda$  to  $\kappa$ .

Theorem 4.76.  $\kappa^{\lambda+\mu} = \kappa^{\lambda} + \kappa^{\mu}$ 

Theorem 4.77.  $(\kappa\lambda)^{\mu} = \kappa^{\mu}\lambda^{\mu}$ 

Theorem 4.78.  $(\kappa^{\lambda})^{\mu} = \kappa^{\lambda\mu}$ 

**Theorem 4.79.** The definition of exponentiation agrees with the definition on natural numbers.

**Theorem 4.80.** Given sets A and B, we have card  $A \leq \operatorname{card} B$  if and only if  $A \leq B$ .

**Definition 4.81.** Let  $\aleph_0 = \operatorname{card} \mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 4.82** (AC). For any infinite cardinal  $\kappa$  we have  $\aleph_0 \leq \kappa$ .

Theorem 4.83 (Maximum Principle (AC)). Every poset has a maximal chain.

### 4.10 Rank of a Set

**Definition 4.84** (Cumulative Hierarchy of Sets). For every ordinal  $\alpha$ , define the  $rank \ V_{\alpha}$  by transfinite recursion thus:

$$V_0 = \emptyset$$

$$V_{\alpha+1} = \mathcal{P}V_{\alpha}$$

$$V_{\lambda} = \bigcup_{\alpha < \lambda} V_{\alpha}$$

for  $\lambda$  a limit ordinal.

The von Neumann universe is the class  $\mathbf{V} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathbf{On}} V_{\alpha}$ .

**Theorem 4.85.** If  $\lambda$  is a limit ordinal and  $\lambda > \omega$  then  $V_{\lambda}$  is a model of Zermelo set theory.

**Lemma 4.86** (AC). There exists a well-ordered set in  $V_{\omega 2}$  whose ordinal is not in  $V_{\omega 2}$ .

PROOF: Pick a well-ordering < of  $\mathcal{P}\mathbb{N}$ . Then  $(\mathcal{P}\mathbb{N},<) \in V_{\omega_2}$  but its ordinal is not because its ordinal is uncountable.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 4.87.** The set  $V_{\omega 2}$  is not a model of Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory.

Thus, the Replacement Axioms cannot be proven from the other axioms.

**Definition 4.88** (Well-Founded Set). A set A is well-founded iff  $A \in V_{\alpha}$  for some  $\alpha \in \mathbf{On}$ .

**Definition 4.89** (Rank). The rank of a well-founded set A, rank A, is the least ordinal  $\alpha$  such that  $A \in V_{\alpha}$ .

**Theorem 4.90.** If  $A \in B$  and B is well-founded then A is well-founded and rank  $A < \operatorname{rank} B$ .

**Theorem 4.91.** If A is a set and every member of A is well-founded then A is well-founded and rank  $A = \sup_{B \in A} (\operatorname{rank} B + 1)$ .

**Theorem 4.92.** The Axiom of Regularity is equivalent to the statement that every set is well-founded.

### 4.11 Transfinite Recursion Again

**Theorem 4.93.** Let **A** be a class. Let **B** be the class of all functions  $f : \alpha \to \mathbf{A}$  for some ordinal  $\alpha$ . Let  $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{B} \to \mathbf{A}$  be a class term. Then there exists a unique class term  $\mathbf{G} : \mathbf{On} \to \mathbf{A}$  such that, for all  $\alpha \in \mathbf{On}$ , we have  $\mathbf{G}(\alpha) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G} \upharpoonright \alpha)$ .

### 4.12 Alephs

**Definition 4.94.** Define the cardinal number  $\aleph_{\alpha}$  for every ordinal  $\alpha$  by transfinite recursion on  $\alpha$  thus:  $\aleph_{\alpha}$  is the least infinite cardinal different from  $\aleph_{\beta}$  for all  $\beta < \alpha$ .

**Theorem 4.95.** If  $\alpha < \beta$  then  $\aleph_{\alpha} < \aleph_{\beta}$ .

**Theorem 4.96.** Every infinite cardinal has the form  $\aleph_{\alpha}$  for some ordinal  $\alpha$ .

### 4.13 Ordinal Arithmetic

**Definition 4.97** (Sum). Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be ordinals. The *sum*  $\alpha + \beta$  is the ordinal of the concatenation of A followed by B, where A is a well-ordered set of ordinal  $\alpha$  and B a well-ordered set of ordinal  $\beta$ .

Theorem 4.98. Addition is associative.

Theorem 4.99.  $\alpha + 0 = \alpha$ 

Theorem 4.100.  $0 + \alpha = \alpha$ 

**Theorem 4.101.** For  $\lambda$  a limit ordinal we have  $\alpha + \lambda = \sup_{\beta < \lambda} (\alpha + \beta)$ 

**Theorem 4.102.** For any  $\alpha$ , the class term that maps  $\beta$  to  $\alpha + \beta$  is normal.

**Theorem 4.103.**  $\beta < \gamma$  iff  $\alpha + \beta < \alpha + \gamma$ .

**Theorem 4.104.** *If*  $\beta \leq \gamma$  *then*  $\beta + \alpha \leq \gamma + \alpha$ .

**Theorem 4.105** (Subtraction Theorem). If  $\alpha < \beta$  then there exists a unique  $\delta$  such that  $\alpha + \delta < \beta$ .

**Definition 4.106** (Product). Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be ordinals. The *sum*  $\alpha + \beta$  is the ordinal of  $A \times B$  ordered under the Hebrew lexicographic order, where A is a well-ordered set of ordinal  $\alpha$  and B a well-ordered set of ordinal  $\beta$ .

Theorem 4.107. Multiplication is associative.

**Theorem 4.108.** Multiplication distributes over addition on the left.

Theorem 4.109.  $\alpha 1 = \alpha$ 

Theorem 4.110.  $1\alpha = \alpha$ 

**Theorem 4.111.**  $\alpha 0 = 0$ 

**Theorem 4.112.**  $0\alpha = 0$ 

**Theorem 4.113.** For  $\lambda$  a limit ordinal, we have  $\alpha\lambda = \sup_{\beta < \lambda} (\alpha\beta)$ .

**Theorem 4.114.** For  $\alpha > 0$ , the class term that maps  $\beta$  to  $\alpha\beta$  is normal.

**Theorem 4.115.** If  $\alpha > 0$ , then  $\beta < \gamma$  iff  $\alpha \beta < \alpha \gamma$ .

**Theorem 4.116.** *If*  $\beta \leq \gamma$  *then*  $\beta \alpha \leq \gamma \alpha$ .

**Theorem 4.117** (Division Theorem). For any ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\delta$  with  $\delta \neq 0$ , there exist unique ordinals  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  with  $\gamma < \delta$  and  $\alpha = \delta\beta + \gamma$ .

**Definition 4.118** (Exponentiation). For ordinals  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , define the ordinal  $\alpha^{\beta}$  by transfinite recursion on  $\beta$  by:

$$\alpha^{0} = 1$$

$$\alpha^{\beta+1} = \alpha^{\beta} + \alpha$$

$$\alpha^{\lambda} = \sup_{\beta < \lambda} \alpha^{\beta}$$

for  $\lambda$  a limit ordinal.

**Theorem 4.119.** For  $\alpha > 1$ , the class term that maps  $\beta$  to  $\alpha^{\beta}$  is normal.

**Theorem 4.120.** If  $\alpha > 1$ , then  $\beta < \gamma$  iff  $\alpha^{\beta} < \alpha^{\gamma}$ .

**Theorem 4.121.** If  $\beta \leq \gamma$  then  $\beta^{\alpha} \leq \gamma^{\alpha}$ .

**Theorem 4.122** (Logarithm Theorem). Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be ordinals with  $\alpha \neq 0$  and  $\beta > 1$ . Then there exist unique ordinals  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$  and  $\rho$  such that  $\delta \neq 0$ ,  $\delta < \beta$ ,  $\rho < \beta^{\gamma}$ , and  $\alpha = \beta^{\gamma}\delta + \rho$ .

Theorem 4.123.

$$\alpha^{\beta+\gamma} = \alpha^{\beta}\alpha^{\gamma}$$

Theorem 4.124.

$$(\alpha^{\beta})^{\gamma} = \alpha^{\beta\gamma}$$

### 4.14 Beth Cardinals

**Definition 4.125.** Define the cardinal  $\beth_{\alpha}$  for every ordinal  $\alpha$  by:

$$\exists_0 = \aleph_0 
\exists_{\alpha+1} = 2^{\exists_{\alpha}} 
\exists_{\lambda} = \sup_{\alpha < \lambda} \exists_{\alpha}$$

for  $\lambda$  a limit ordinal.

**Lemma 4.126.** For any ordinal  $\alpha$  we have card  $V_{\omega+\alpha} = \beth_{\alpha}$ .

### 4.15 Cofinality

**Definition 4.127** (Cofinality). For  $\lambda$  a limit ordinal, the *cofinality* of  $\lambda$ , cf  $\lambda$ , is the least cardinal  $\kappa$  such that  $\lambda$  is the supremum of a set of  $\kappa$  smaller ordinals. We extend cf to all the ordinals by setting cf 0 = 0 and cf  $(\alpha + 1) = 1$ .

**Theorem 4.128.** For any limit ordinal  $\lambda$  we have cf  $\aleph_{\lambda} = \operatorname{cf} \lambda$ .

**Lemma 4.129.** Let  $\lambda$  be a limit ordinal. Then cf  $\lambda$  is the least ordinal  $\alpha$  such that there exists an increasing  $\alpha$ -sequence of ordinals with limit  $\lambda$ .

**Theorem 4.130.** Let  $\lambda$  be an infinite cardinal. Then cf  $\lambda$  is the least cardinal number  $\kappa$  such that  $\lambda$  can be partitioned into  $\kappa$  sets each of cardinality  $< \lambda$ .

**Theorem 4.131** (König's Theorem). Let  $\kappa$  be an infinite cardinal. Then  $\kappa < 2^{\operatorname{cf} \kappa}$ .

Corollary 4.131.1.  $2^{\aleph_0} \neq \aleph_{\omega}$ .

**Definition 4.132** (Regular). A cardinal  $\kappa$  is regular iff cf  $\kappa = \kappa$ .

**Theorem 4.133.** For any ordinal  $\lambda$ , we have cf  $\lambda$  is a regular cardinal.

**Definition 4.134** (Singular). A cardinal  $\kappa$  is singular iff cf  $\kappa < \kappa$ .

**Theorem 4.135.** For any ordinal  $\alpha$  we have  $\aleph_{\alpha+1}$  is a regular cardinal.

### 4.16 Inaccessible Cardinals

**Definition 4.136** (Inaccessible). A cardinal number  $\kappa$  is *inaccessible* iff:

- $\kappa > \aleph_0$
- For every cardinal  $\lambda < \kappa$  we have  $2^{\lambda} < \kappa$
- $\kappa$  is regular.

**Lemma 4.137.** If  $\kappa$  is inaccessible and  $\alpha < \kappa$  then  $\beth_{\alpha} < \kappa$ .

**Lemma 4.138.** If  $\kappa$  is inaccessible and  $A \in V_{\kappa}$  then card  $A < \kappa$ .

**Theorem 4.139.** If  $\kappa$  is inaccessible then  $V_{\kappa}$  is a model of ZF.

## Chapter 5

## Natural Numbers

### 5.1 Successors

**Definition 5.1** (Successor (Pairing, Union)). For any set a, its Successor  $a^+$  is the set  $a \cup \{a\}$ 

**Theorem 5.2** (Pairing, Union). If a is a transitive set then  $\bigcup (a^+) = a$ .

Proof:

$$\bigcup (a^{+}) = \bigcup (a \cup \{a\})$$

$$= \bigcup a \cup \bigcup \{a\}$$

$$= \bigcup a \cup a$$

$$= a \qquad (\bigcup a \subseteq a) \square$$

**Theorem 5.3.** If A is a transitive set then  $A^+$  is transitive.

Proof: If A is transitive then  $\bigcup (A^+) = A \subseteq A^+$ .  $\square$ 

### 5.2 Inductive Sets

**Definition 5.4** (Inductive (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union)). A set A is *inductive* iff  $\emptyset \in A$  and, for every  $a \in A$ , we have  $a^+ \in A$ .

**Axiom 5.5** (Axiom of Infinity (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union)). There exists an inductive set.

### 5.3 Natural Numbers

**Definition 5.6** (Natural Number (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union)). A *natural number* is a set that belongs to every inductive set.

We write  $\mathbb{N}$  for the class of all natural numbers.

Theorem 5.7 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset). The class of natural numbers is a set. Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . PICK an inductive set I. PROOF: By the Axiom of Infinity.  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq I$  $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D. PROOF: By a Subset Axiom. Theorem 5.8 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset). The set  $\mathbb{N}$  is inductive. Proof:  $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \emptyset \in \mathbb{N}$ PROOF: Since  $\emptyset$  is a member of every inductive set.  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $n^+ \in \mathbb{N}$ PROOF: If n is a member of every inductive set then so is  $n^+$ . Theorem 5.9 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset). The set  $\mathbb{N}$  is a subset of every inductive set. PROOF: Immediate from definition. Corollary 5.9.1 (Proof by Induction (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset)). If  $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  and A is inductive then  $A = \mathbb{N}$ . **Definition 5.10** (Zero (Empty Set)). The natural number zero, 0, is defined to be  $\emptyset$ . Theorem 5.11 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset). Every natural number except 0 is a successor of a natural number. PROOF: The set  $\{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid x = 0 \lor \exists y \in \mathbb{N}. x = y^+\}$  is inductive.  $\square$ Theorem 5.12 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset). Every natural number is transitive. Proof: By induction using Theorem 5.3.  $\Box$ Theorem 5.13 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset). The set  $\mathbb{N}$  is transitive.  $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For every natural number n and every  $m \in n$  then m is a natural number.  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Every member of  $\emptyset$  is a natural number. Proof: Vacuous.

of natural numbers.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . If n is a natural number and a set of natural numbers then  $n^+$  is a set

```
PROOF: From the definition of n^+.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: By induction.
Theorem 5.14 (Extensionality, Empty Set, Pairing, Union, Infinity, Subset).
Let A be a set, a \in A, and F : A \to A. Then there exists a unique function
h: \mathbb{N} \to A \text{ such that } h(0) = a \text{ and, for all } n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ we have } h(n^+) = F(h(n)).
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Call a function v acceptable iff dom v \subseteq \mathbb{N}, ran v \subseteq A, and:
           1. If 0 \in \text{dom } v \text{ then } v(0) = a.
           2. For all n \in \mathbb{N}, if n^+ \in \operatorname{dom} v then n \in \operatorname{dom} v and v(n^+) = F(v(n)).
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{K} be the set of all acceptable functions.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: h = \bigcup \mathcal{K}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. h is a function.
   (2)1. If (0,y) \in h and (0,y') \in h then y = y'
      PROOF: We have y = y' = a.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. For any natural number n, if there is at most one y such that (n, y) \in h,
           then there is at most one y such that (n^+, y) \in h
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: n be a natural number.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Assume: there is at most one y such that (n,y) \in h
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Assume: (n^+, y) and (n^+, y') are in h)
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Pick acceptable functions u and v such that u(n^+) = y and v(n^+) = y
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. n \in \text{dom } u, n \in \text{dom } v \text{ and } y = F(u(n)), y' = F(v(n))
      \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ u(n) = v(n)
         PROOF: By the induction hypothesis \langle 3 \rangle 2
      \langle 3 \rangle 7. \ y = y'
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: By induction.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. h is acceptable.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. If 0 \in \text{dom } h \text{ then } h(0) = a
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. If n^+ \in \text{dom } h then n \in \text{dom } h and h(n^+) = F(h(n))
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: n^+ \in \text{dom } h
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK an acceptable v such that n^+ \in \text{dom } v
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ v(n^+) = F(v(n))
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ h(n^+) = F(h(n))
\langle 1 \rangle 6. dom h = \mathbb{N}
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. 0 \in \text{dom } h
      PROOF: Since \{(0,a)\} is an acceptable function.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all n \in \text{dom } h we have n^+ \in \text{dom } h
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: n \in \text{dom } h
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Let: v be an acceptable function with n \in \text{dom } v
```

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Assume: without loss of generality  $n^+ \notin \text{dom } v$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ v \cup \{(n^+, F(v(n)))\}$  is acceptable

 $\langle 3 \rangle 5.$   $n^+ \in \text{dom } v$   $\langle 1 \rangle 7.$  If  $h': \mathbb{N} \to A$ , h'(0) = a and, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $h'(n^+) = F(h'(n))$ , then h' = hPROOF: Prove h(n) = h'(n) by induction on n.

### 5.4 Peano Systems

**Definition 5.15** (Peano System). A *Peano system* consists of a set N, an element  $z \in N$ , and a function  $S: N \to N$  such that:

- $\bullet$  S is one-to-one
- $z \notin \operatorname{ran} S$
- For any set  $A \subseteq N$ , if  $z \in A$  and  $S(A) \subseteq A$  then A = N.

**Theorem 5.16.**  $\mathbb{N}$  is a Peano system with zero 0 and successor  $n \mapsto n^+$ .

**Theorem 5.17.** For any Peano system (N, z, S), there exists a unique bijection  $h : \mathbb{N} \cong N$  such that h(0) = z and  $S(h(n)) = h(n^+)$  for all n.

### 5.5 Arithmetic

**Definition 5.18** (Addition). Define addition  $+: \mathbb{N}^2 \to \mathbb{N}$  recursively by

$$m + 0 = m$$
$$m + n^+ = (m+n)^+$$

for any  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Theorem 5.19. Addition is associative.

Theorem 5.20. Addition is commutative

**Definition 5.21** (Multiplication). Define  $multiplication : \mathbb{N}^2 \to \mathbb{N}$  recursively by

$$m0 = 0$$
$$mn^+ = mn + m$$

for any  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ 

Theorem 5.22. Multiplication is associative.

**Theorem 5.23.** Multiplication is commutative.

**Theorem 5.24.** Multiplication distributes over addition.

**Definition 5.25.** For natural numbers m and n, we write m < n iff  $m \in n$ . We write  $m \le n$  iff m < n or m = n.

**Theorem 5.26.** We have m < n iff  $m^+ < n^+$ .

**Theorem 5.27.** We never have n < n.

**Theorem 5.28.** The ordering on  $\mathbb{N}$  satisfies trichotomy; that is, for any m, n, exactly one of m < n, m = n, n < m holds.

**Theorem 5.29.** For any natural numbers m and n, we have  $m \le n$  iff  $m \subseteq n$ .

**Theorem 5.30.** We have m < n iff m + p < n + p.

**Corollary 5.30.1.** *If* m + p = n + p *then* m = n.

**Theorem 5.31.** If  $p \neq 0$  then m < n iff mp < np.

Corollary 5.31.1. If mp = np and  $p \neq 0$  then m = n.

**Theorem 5.32** (Well-Ordering of  $\mathbb{N}$ ). Any nonempty set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  has a least element.

**Corollary 5.32.1.** There is no function  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f(n^+) < f(n)$  for all n.

**Theorem 5.33** (Strong Induction). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose that, for every natural number n, if  $\forall m < n.m \in A$  then  $n \in A$ . Then  $A = \mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 5.34** (Pigeonhole Principle). No natural number is equinumerous with a proper subset of itself.

PROOF: Prove by induction on n that if  $f:n\to n$  is injective then it is surjective.  $\sqcap$ 

## Chapter 6

# Integers

**Lemma 6.1.** Define  $\sim$  on  $\mathbb{N}^2$  by:  $(m,n) \sim (p,q)$  iff m+q=n+p. Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{N}^2$ .

**Definition 6.2** (Integers). The set  $\mathbb{Z}$  of *integers* is  $\mathbb{N}^2/\sim$ .

**Definition 6.3.** Define  $addition + : \mathbb{Z}^2 \to \mathbb{Z}$  by: (m, n) + (p, q) = (m + p, n + q). Prove this is well-defined.

**Theorem 6.4.** Addition is associative and commutative.

**Definition 6.5** (Zero). The integer zero is 0 = (0, 0).

**Theorem 6.6.** For any integer a, we have a + 0 = a.

**Theorem 6.7.** For any integer a, there exists a unique integer b such that a + b = 0.

**Definition 6.8** (Multiplication). Define multiplication on  $\mathbb{Z}$  by (m,n)(p,q) = (mp + nq, mq + np).

**Theorem 6.9.** Multiplication is associative, commutative and distributive over addition.

**Definition 6.10.** The integer *one* is 1 = (1, 0).

**Theorem 6.11.** For any integer a we have a1 = a.

**Theorem 6.12.**  $1 \neq 0$ 

**Theorem 6.13.** Whenever ab = 0 then either a = 0 or b = 0.

**Definition 6.14.** Define < on  $\mathbb{Z}$  by: (m, n) < (p, q) iff m + q < n + p.

**Theorem 6.15.** The relation < is a strict linear ordering on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Theorem 6.16.** We have a < b iff < +c < b + c.

**Corollary 6.16.1.** *If* a + c = b + c *then* a = b.

**Theorem 6.17.** If 0 < c then a < b iff ac < bc.

Corollary 6.17.1. If ac = bc and  $c \neq 0$  then a = b.

**Definition 6.18.** We identify any natural number n with the integer (n,0).

**Theorem 6.19.** This embedding preserves 0, 1, addition, multiplication and the ordering.

## Chapter 7

## Rational Numbers

**Definition 7.1** (Rational Numbers). The set of rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $\mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) / \sim$ , where  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  iff ad = bc.

**Definition 7.2** (Addition). Define addition on  $\mathbb{Q}$  by: (a,b) + (c,d) = (ad + bc, bd).

**Theorem 7.3.** Addition is commutative and associative

**Definition 7.4.** The rational number 0 is (0,1).

**Theorem 7.5.** For any rational q we have q + 0 = q.

**Theorem 7.6.** For any rational q, there exists a unique rational r such that q + r = 0.

**Definition 7.7.** Define multiplication on  $\mathbb{Q}$  by: (a,b)(c,d) = (ac,bd).

**Theorem 7.8.** Multiplication is commutative, associative and distributive over addition.

**Definition 7.9.** The rational number 1 is (1,1).

**Theorem 7.10.** For every nonzero rational r, there exists a nonzero rational q such that rq = 1.

Corollary 7.10.1. If qr = 0 then either q = 0 or r = 0.

**Definition 7.11.** Define < on  $\mathbb{Q}$  by: for b and d positive, (a,b)<(c,d) iff ad < bc.

**Theorem 7.12.** The relation < is a strict linear ordering on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Theorem 7.13.** We have q < r iff q + s < r + s

Corollary 7.13.1. If q + s = r + s then q = r.

**Theorem 7.14.** If s > 0 then we have q < r iff qs < rs.

Corollary 7.14.1. If qs = rs and  $s \neq 0$  then q = r.

**Definition 7.15.** We identify an integer n with the rational (n,1).

**Theorem 7.16.** This embedding preserves zero, one, addition, multiplication and the ordering.

## Chapter 8

## Real Numbers

**Definition 8.1** (Dedekind Cut). A *Dedekind cut* is a subset  $X \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$  such that:

- $\bullet$  X is nonempty
- $X \neq \mathbb{Q}$
- $\bullet$  X is closed downward
- X has no largest element.

**Definition 8.2** (Real Numbers). The set of *real numbers*  $\mathbb{R}$  is the set of all Dedekind cuts.

**Definition 8.3.** Define < on  $\mathbb{R}$  by: x < y iff x is a proper subset of y.

**Theorem 8.4.** The relation < is a strict linear ordering on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 8.5.** Any bounded nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  has a least upper bound.

**Definition 8.6.** Define addition on  $\mathbb{R}$  by:  $x + y = \{q + r \mid q \in x, r \in y\}$ .

**Theorem 8.7.** Addition is associative and commutative.

**Definition 8.8.** The zero real 0 is  $\{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid q < 0\}$ .

**Theorem 8.9.** For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we have x + 0 = x.

**Definition 8.10.** Given a real x, define  $-x = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid \exists r > q. -r \notin x\}$ .

**Theorem 8.11.** For any real x we have x + (-x) = 0.

**Corollary 8.11.1.** *If* x + z = y + z *then* x = y.

**Theorem 8.12.** We have x < y iff x + z < y + z.

**Definition 8.13.** Define the absolute value of a real x by  $|x| = x \cup -x$ .

**Theorem 8.14.** For any real x we have  $0 \le |x|$ .

**Definition 8.15.** Define multiplication on  $\mathbb{R}$  by:

• If x and y are nonnegative then

$$xy = 0 \cup \{qr \mid 0 \le q, 0 \le r, q \in x, r \in y\}$$

- If x and y are both negative then xy = |x||y|
- If one of x and y is negative and the other not then xy = -|x||y|.

**Theorem 8.16.** Multiplication is associative, commutative and distributive over addition.

**Definition 8.17.** The real number 1 is  $\{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid q < 1\}$ .

**Theorem 8.18.**  $0 \neq 1$ 

**Theorem 8.19.** For any real x we have x1 = x

**Theorem 8.20.** For any nonzero x, there exists a real y with xy = 1.

**Theorem 8.21.** If 0 < x then y < z iff xy < xz.

**Definition 8.22.** Identify a rational q with  $\{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r < q\}$ .

**Theorem 8.23.** This embedding preserves zero, one, addition, multiplication and the ordering.

## Chapter 9

# Finite Sets

**Definition 9.1** (Finite). A set is *finite* iff it is equinumerous with a natural number; otherwise it is *infinite*.

**Theorem 9.2.** No finite set is equinumerous with a proper subset of itself.

PROOF: From the Pigeonhole Principle.

Corollary 9.2.1. The set  $\mathbb{N}$  is infinite.

Corollary 9.2.2. A finite set is equinumerous with a unique natural number.

**Lemma 9.3.** If A is a proper subset of a natural number n then there exists m < n such that  $C \equiv m$ .

Corollary 9.3.1. A subset of a finite set is finite.

**Theorem 9.4** (Regularity). There is no function f with domain  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $f(n+1) \in f(n)$  for all n.

### Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction f is a function with domain \mathbb N such that f(n+1) \in f(n) for all n.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $m \in \operatorname{ran} f$  such that  $m \cap \operatorname{ran} f = \emptyset$ 

PROOF: By the Axiom of Regularity.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that f(n) = m
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $f(n+1) \in m \cap \operatorname{ran} f$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This is a contradiction.

**Theorem 9.5.** A relation R is well-founded if and only if there is no function f with domain  $\mathbb{N}$  such that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have f(n+1)Rf(n).

## 9.1 Real Analysis

**Definition 9.6.** Let  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$  be the subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  consisting of all sequences  $(a_n)$  such that  $a_n = 0$  for all but finitely many n.

## 9.2 Group Theory

**Definition 9.7.** Given a group G and sets  $A, B \subseteq G$ , let  $AB = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$ .

**Definition 9.8.** Given a group G and a set  $A \subseteq G$ , let  $A^{-1} = \{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\}$ .

### 9.3 Topological Spaces

**Definition 9.9** (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 9.10** (Topological Space). A topological space X consists of a set X and a topology on X.

**Definition 9.11** (Discrete Space). For any set X, the *discrete* topology on X is  $\mathcal{P}X$ .

**Definition 9.12** (Indiscrete Space). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is  $\{\emptyset, X\}$ .

**Definition 9.13** (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 9.14** (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 9.15** (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 9.16.** Let X be a topological space and  $U \subseteq X$ . Then U is open if and only if, for all  $x \in U$ , there exists an open set V such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ .

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

**Lemma 9.17.** 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  $\mathcal{T}$ .

```
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.
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle 1. \  \, \text{Let:} \  \, \mathcal{U} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{T} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \  \, \text{For all} \  \, T \in \mathcal{T} \  \, \text{we have} \  \, \mathcal{U} \subseteq T \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \  \, \text{For all} \  \, T \in \mathcal{T} \  \, \text{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} \  \, \text{is closed under binary intersection.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \  \, \text{Let:} \  \, U, V \in \bigcap \mathcal{T} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \  \, \text{For all} \  \, T \in \mathcal{T} \  \, \text{we have} \  \, U, V \in T \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \  \, \text{For all} \  \, T \in \mathcal{T} \  \, \text{we have} \  \, U \cap V \in T \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \  \, U \cap V \in \bigcap \mathcal{T} \\ \end{array}
```

**Lemma 9.18.** 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.  $\square$ 

**Definition 9.19** (Neighbourhood). A *neighbourhood* of a point x is an open set that contains x.

### 9.4 Closed Set

**Definition 9.20** (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 9.21. The empty set is closed.

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

**Lemma 9.22.** The topological space X is closed.

Proof: Since  $\emptyset$  is open.  $\square$ 

Lemma 9.23. 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 9.24. 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 9.25.** 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 9.26.** 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 9.27.** 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.  $\square$ 

### 9.5 Interior

**Definition 9.28** (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 9.29. The interior of a set is open.

PROOF: It is a union of open sets.  $\Box$ 

Lemma 9.30.

$$\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A$$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

**Lemma 9.31.** If U is open and  $U \subseteq A$  then  $U \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

**Lemma 9.32.** A set A is open if and only if A = Int A.

PROOF: If A = Int A then A is open by Lemma 9.29. Conversely if A is open then  $A \subseteq \text{Int } A$  by the definition of interior and so A = Int A.

### 9.6 Closure

**Definition 9.33** (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 9.22).

Lemma 9.34. The closure of a set is closed.

PROOF: Dual to Lemma 9.29.  $\square$ 

Lemma 9.35.

$$A \subseteq \overline{A}$$

Proof: Immediate from definition.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 9.36.** If C is closed and  $A \subseteq C$  then  $\overline{A} \subseteq C$ .

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

**Lemma 9.37.** A set A is closed if and only if  $A = \overline{A}$ .

PROOF: Dual to Lemma 9.32.

**Theorem 9.38.** Let X be a topological space,  $A \subseteq X$  and  $x \in X$ . Then  $x \in \overline{A}$  if and only if every neighbourhood of x intersects A.

PROOF: We have

$$x \in \overline{A}$$

 $\Leftrightarrow \forall C. C \text{ closed } \land A \subseteq C \Rightarrow x \in C$ 

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

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

**Proposition 9.39.** *If*  $A \subseteq B$  *then*  $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$ .

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

### Proposition 9.40.

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: By Proposition 9.39.

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

PROOF: By Proposition 9.39.

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

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

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 1$  and Theorem 9.38.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $U \cap V$  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 9.38.

**Proposition 9.41.** 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 3.67.

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

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 9.38,  $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ ,  $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ .

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

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

```
\langle 2 \rangle5. U \in \mathcal{D}

\langle 1 \rangle2. 2 \Rightarrow 1

\langle 2 \rangle1. Assume: Every neighbourhood of x is in \mathcal{D}.

\langle 2 \rangle2. Let: D \in \mathcal{D}

\langle 2 \rangle3. Every neighbourhood of x intersects D.

PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle1, \langle 2 \rangle2 and the fact that \mathcal{D} satisfies the finite intersection property.

\langle 2 \rangle4. x \in \overline{D}

PROOF: Theorem 9.38, \langle 2 \rangle3.
```

### 9.7 Boundary

**Definition 9.42** (Boundary). The *boundary* of a set A is the set  $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$ .

Proposition 9.43.

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

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

Proposition 9.44.

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

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 9.45.**  $\partial A = \emptyset$  if and only if A is open and closed.

PROOF: If  $\partial A = \emptyset$  then  $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A$  by Proposition 9.44.

**Proposition 9.46.** A set U is open if and only if  $\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$ .

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \overline{U} \setminus \operatorname{Int} U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Int} U = U \end{array} \qquad (\text{Propositions 9.43, 9.44})$$

### 9.8 Limit Points

**Definition 9.47** (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 9.48.** The point a is an accumulation point for A if and only if  $a \in \overline{A \setminus \{a\}}$ .

PROOF: From Theorem 9.38.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 9.49.** 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 9.38.

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

PROOF: Lemma 9.35.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 9.38.

П

Corollary 9.49.1. A set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

**Proposition 9.50.** 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 9.51.** 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.

### 9.9 Basis for a Topology

**Definition 9.52** (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 V

Proof: By condition 2.

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

**Lemma 9.53.** 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 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} \subset \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 9.53.1.** 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 9.54.** 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.

**Lemma 9.55.** 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 9.53.1.

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

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 9.56.** 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 9.38 since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 9.53.1).
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.38.

**Definition 9.57** (Lower Limit Topology on the Real Line). The *lower limit topology on the real line* is the topology on  $\mathbb{R}$  generated by the basis consisting of all half-open intervals of the form [a, b).

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

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists an interval [a,b) such that  $x \in [a,b)$ .
  - PROOF: Take [a, b) = [x, x + 1).
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. For any open intervals [a,b), [c,d) if  $x \in [a,b) \cap [c,d)$ , then there exists an interval [e,f) such that  $x \in [e,f) \subseteq [a,b) \cap [c,d)$

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

**Definition 9.58** (K-topology on the Real Line). Let  $K = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ .

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

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

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

#### Proof:

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

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

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

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

**Lemma 9.59.** The lower limit topology and the K-topology are incomparable.

#### Proof:

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

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

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

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

**Definition 9.60** (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 9.53.

We have simultaneously proved:

**Proposition 9.61.** 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 9.62.** 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.  $\square$ 

### 9.10 Local Basis at a Point

**Definition 9.63** (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 9.64.** 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  $B_n = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n$ .

### 9.11 Convergence

**Definition 9.65** (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 9.66.** 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 9.38.

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**Proposition 9.67.** 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  $n \geq N$ , 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 9.53.1).

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

**Lemma 9.68.** 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 9.69.** 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 9.68.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.70.** 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: 
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} (ca_i + b_i) = c \sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i + \sum_{i=0}^{N} b_i \to cs + t \text{ as } n \to \infty. \square$$

**Theorem 9.71** (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 9.71.1. If  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$  converges then  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$  converges.

**Theorem 9.72** (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  $0 \leq n < k$ , we have  $|s_k(x) s_n(x)| \leq r_n$

Proof:

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

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

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

$$\leq r_-$$

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

# 9.12 Locally Finite Sets

**Definition 9.73** (Locally Finite). Let X be a topological space and  $\{A_{\alpha}\}$  a family of subsets of X. Then A is *locally finite* if and only if every point in X has a neighbourhood that intersects  $A_{\alpha}$  for only finitely many  $\alpha$ .

**Theorem 9.74** (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  $\alpha$ . 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 9.84 and 9.135.

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

Proof: Lemma 9.24.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.84.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 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  $\alpha$ . 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  $\alpha$ . Then f is continuous.

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

**Example 9.75.** 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  $n\geq 1$ , 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].

# 9.13 Open Maps

**Definition 9.76** (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 9.77.** 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 9.53.

**Proposition 9.78.** 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 9.53.  $\square$ 

## 9.14 Continuous Functions

**Definition 9.79** (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 9.80.** 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 9.53).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.53.

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

Proof:

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

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**Proposition 9.81.** 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 9.80 and 9.61.

**Proposition 9.82.** 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 9.61 and 9.80.

**Definition 9.83** (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 9.84.** 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 9.38.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 9.38.

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

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

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

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

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

$$\subseteq \overline{B} \qquad (Proposition 9.39)$$

$$= B$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.16.

**Theorem 9.85.** 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 9.86.** 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 9.87.** 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.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 9.88.** 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 9.89.** 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.

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**Theorem 9.90.** 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 9.91.** 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.
- (1)4. For all  $U \in \mathcal{U}$ , we have  $(f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$  is open in X.

PROOF: Lemma 9.134.

**Proposition 9.92.** 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 9.93.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then f is continuous on the right at a if and only if f is continuous at a as a function  $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$ .

### PROOF:

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

**Lemma 9.94.** 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.134.

**Proposition 9.95.** Let  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: C \to D$  be continuous. Define  $f \times g: A \times C \to B \times D$  by

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

Then  $f \times g$  is continuous.

PROOF:  $\pi_1 \circ (f \times g) = f \circ \pi_1$  and  $\pi_2 \circ (f \times g) = g \circ \pi_2$  are continuous by Theorem 9.87. The result follows by Theorem 9.123.

**Proposition 9.96.** 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  $f(n) \in V$

9.15 Homeomorphisms

**Definition 9.97** (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 9.98.** 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 9.99.** 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 9.100** (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 9.101** (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 9.102.** 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  $i(V) = (X \times V) \cap i(Y)$ .

# 9.16 The Order Topology

**Definition 9.103** (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 9.104.** Let X be a linearly ordered set. Then the open rays form a subbasis for the order topology on X.

#### PROOF:

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every open ray is open.
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 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.105** (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 9.106.** 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 9.107.** 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 9.53.1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.108.** 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  $C = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \le g(x)\}$  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 9.109.** 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 9.108.

**Proposition 9.110.** 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 4.13.

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

## 9.17 The nth Root Function

**Proposition 9.111.** 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:  $y \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.110.

**Definition 9.112.** 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  $\lambda x.x^n$ .

# 9.18 The Product Topology

**Definition 9.113** (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 9.114.** 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 9.61.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.115.** 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 9.116.** 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  $i \neq i_1, \dots, i_n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ B \in \mathcal{B}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ a \in B \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 9.54.

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**Proposition 9.117.** 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 9.77.  $\Box$ 

**Example 9.118.** 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 9.119.** 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 9.53.1.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.117.

**Proposition 9.120** (AC). Let  $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of topological spaces. Let  $A_i \subseteq X_i$  for all  $i \in I$ . Then

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

```
\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 9.35.

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

PROOF: Since  $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$  is closed by Proposition 9.115.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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  $x \in \prod_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq U$  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 9.38 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 9.121.** The closure of  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  is  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ 

### 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 9.38.

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**Proposition 9.122.** 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  $n\to\infty$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.96.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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, ..., k, PICK  $N_j$  such that, for all  $n \geq N_j$ , we have  $\pi_{i_j}(a_n) \in U_{i_j}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $N = \max(N_1, \ldots, N_k)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . For all  $n \geq N$  we have  $a_n \in V$

**Theorem 9.123.** 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 9.81.

## 9.18.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately

**Definition 9.124** (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 9.125.** 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 9.102, hence  $F \circ i$  is continuous by Theorem 9.87.

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

**Example 9.126.** 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 9.127.** 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 9.78.  $\square$ 

**Definition 9.128** (Sorgenfrey Plane). The Sorgenfrey plane is  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

# 9.19 The Subspace Topology

**Definition 9.129** (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  $V = V' \cap Y$

**Theorem 9.130.** 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 $\Leftrightarrow \exists U$  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 9.131.** 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 9.130)  $= \bigcap \{D \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D\} \cap Y$   $= \overline{A} \cap Y$ 

**Lemma 9.132.** 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 \rangle4. Let: B' = B \cap Y

\langle 2 \rangle5. B' \in \mathcal{B}'

\langle 2 \rangle6. y \in B' \subseteq U

\langle 1 \rangle3. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 9.54.
```

**Lemma 9.133.** 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 9.132, and this is the set of all finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{S}'$ .  $\square$ 

**Lemma 9.134.** 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 9.135.** 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 9.130). Then A is the intersection of two sets closed in X, hence A is closed in X (Lemma 9.23).  $\square$ 

**Theorem 9.136.** 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 9.133.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 9.137.** 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 9.104 and 9.133 and Proposition 9.62.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.104 and Proposition 9.62

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

**Example 9.138.** 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 9.139.** 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 9.140** (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 9.141** (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 9.142.** 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 9.134.

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

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

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**Example 9.143.** This example shows that we cannot remove the hypothesis that A is open.

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

**Proposition 9.144.** Let Y be a subspace of X. Let  $A \subseteq Y$  and  $l \in Y$ . Then l is a limit point of A in Y if and only if l is a limit point of A in X.

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

# 9.20 The Box Topology

**Definition 9.145** (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 9.146.** The box topology is finer than the product topology.

PROOF: From Proposition 9.114.

**Corollary 9.146.1.** 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 9.115.

**Proposition 9.147** (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  $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$ .

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: U be open and  $a \in U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. PICK a family  $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$  such that each  $U_i$  is open in  $A_i$  and  $a \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq U$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. For  $i \in I$ , PICK  $B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$  such that  $a_i \in B_i \subseteq U_i$

PROOF: Using the Axiom of Choice.  $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $a \in \prod_{i \in I} B_i \subseteq U$ 

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

PROOF: Lemma 9.54.

**Theorem 9.148.** Let  $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of topological spaces. Let  $A_i$  be a subspace of  $X_i$  for all  $i\in I$ . Give  $\prod_{i\in I}X_i$  the box topology. Then the box topology on  $\prod_{i\in I}A_i$  is the same as the topology it inherits as a subspace of  $\prod_{i\in I}X_i$ .

PROOF: The box topology is generated by the basis

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

and this is a basis for the subspace topology by Lemma 9.132.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 9.149** (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 9.35.

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

PROOF: Since  $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$  is closed by Corollary 9.146.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.38 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 9.123 fails in the box topology.

**Example 9.150.** 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  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  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 9.122 fails in the box topology.

**Example 9.151.** Give  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  the box topology. Let  $a_n = (1/n, 1/n, \ldots)$  for  $n \geq 1$  and  $l = (0, 0, \ldots)$ . Then  $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$  as  $n \to \infty$  for all i, but  $a_n \not\to l$  as  $n \to \infty$  since the open set

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

contains l but does not contain any  $a_n$ .

**Example 9.152.** The set  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  under the box topology. For let  $(a_n)$  be any sequence not in  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$ . 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  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$ .

# 9.21 $T_1$ Spaces

**Definition 9.153** ( $T_1$  Space). A topological space is  $T_1$  if and only if every singleton is closed.

**Lemma 9.154.** A space is  $T_1$  if and only if every finite set is closed.

PROOF: From Lemma 9.24.

**Theorem 9.155.** 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.

\square

\rangle 2. If every neighbourhood of a contains infinitely many points.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.50.)

**Proposition 9.156.** A space is  $T_1$  if and only if, for any two distinct points x and y, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and y of y such that  $x \notin V$  and  $y \notin U$ .

### PROOF:

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

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

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

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

**Proposition 9.157.** A subspace of a  $T_1$  space is  $T_1$ .

Proof: From Proposition 9.135.

# 9.22 Hausdorff Spaces

**Definition 9.158** (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 9.159.** Every Hausdorff space is  $T_1$ .

#### Proof:

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

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . 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 9.38.

```
\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 9.160. 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
П
Proposition 9.161. The product of a family of Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \{X_i\}_{i \in I} be a family of Hausdorff spaces.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: a, b \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i with a \neq b
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PICK i \in I such that a_i \neq b_i
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK U, V disjoint open sets in X_i with a_i \in U and b_i \in V
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \pi_i^{-1}(U) and \pi_i^{-1}(V) are disjoint open sets in \prod_{i \in I} X_i with a \in \pi_i^{-1}(U)
       and b \in \pi_i^{-1}(V)
Theorem 9.162. Every linearly ordered set under the order topology is Haus-
dorff.
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 \rangle5. Case: There is no c such that a < c < b
   PROOF: The sets (-\infty, b) and (a, +\infty) are disjoint neighbourhoods of a and
```

**Theorem 9.163.** A subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

Proof:

b respectively.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.164.** 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

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

Theorem 9.165. 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 9.166.** 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 9.167.** 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.

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \ f(y) = g(y) \in V \cap W \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \ \text{Q.E.D.} \\ \text{PROOF: This contradicts the fact that } V \text{ and } W \text{ are disjoint } (\langle 1 \rangle 3). \end{array}
```

**Proposition 9.168.** 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 9.169.** 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 9.170.** 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 9.41.

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

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

# 9.23 The First Countability Axiom

**Definition 9.171** (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 9.172** (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 9.64. \langle 1 \rangle 2. For all n \geq 1, PICK a_n \in A \cap B_n. PROVE: a_n \to l as n \to \infty \langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U be a neighbourhood of A \langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK N such that B_N \subseteq U \langle 1 \rangle 5. For n \geq N we have a_n \in U PROOF: a_n \in B_n \subseteq B_N \subseteq U
```

**Theorem 9.173** (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 9.66.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 9.84.

**Example 9.174** (CC). The space  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  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 9.175.** 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.

$$\begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ For } n \geq 0, \\ & \text{ Let: } J_n = \{ \alpha \in J \mid U_{n\alpha} \neq \mathbb{R} \} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ PICK } \beta \in J \text{ such that } \beta \notin J_n \text{ for any } n. \\ & \text{ PROOF: Since each } J_n \text{ is finite so } \bigcup_n J_n \text{ is countable.} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ \pi_\beta((-1,1)) \text{ is a neighbourhood of $\vec{0}$ that does not include any } B_n. \\ & \sqcap \end{split}$$

**Example 9.176.** 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 9.177. 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.

# 9.24 Strong Continuity

**Definition 9.178** (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 9.179.** 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 9.180.** 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 9.181.** Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$ . If  $g \circ f$  is continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is continuous.

### Proof:

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Since g is strongly continuous.

**Proposition 9.182.** 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.

## 9.25 Saturated Sets

**Definition 9.183.** 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 9.184.** 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.
П
```

# 9.26 Quotient Maps

**Definition 9.185** (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 9.186.** 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 9.184.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . 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 9.184. \langle 2 \rangle 5. U is open in Y. \langle 1 \rangle 4. 3 \Rightarrow 1 PROOF: Similar.
```

Corollary 9.186.1. Every surjective continuous open map is a quotient map.

Corollary 9.186.2. Every surjective continuous closed map is a quotient map.

Example 9.187. The converses of these corollaries do not hold.

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

We prove that  $\pi_1$  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 9.188.** 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 9.88.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . 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 9.134, \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 3 \rangle 1.
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. p(U) is open in Y
          Proof: Proposition 9.186, \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 9.186.
\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 9.186.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. If p is a closed map then q is a quotient map.
   PROOF: Similar.
```

**Example 9.189.** 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 9.195.

**Proposition 9.190.** Let  $p:A \to C$  and  $q:B \to D$  be open quotient maps. Then  $p \times q:A \times B \to C \times D$  is an open quotient map.

PROOF: From Corollary 9.186.1, Proposition 9.127 and Theorem 9.123.

**Theorem 9.191.** 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 9.181.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.87.

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

Proof: Proposition 9.182.

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

PROOF: From Proposition 9.180.

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**Proposition 9.192.** 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  $f^{-1}(p^{-1}(V)) = V$ .

П

# 9.27 Quotient Topology

**Definition 9.193** (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:  \begin{split} &\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ Y \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\quad \text{PROOF: Since } p^{-1}(Y) = X \text{ by surjectivity.} \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ For all } \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \text{ we have } \bigcup \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\quad \text{PROOF: Since } p^{-1}(\bigcup \mathcal{A}) = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{A}} p^{-1}(U) \\ &\langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ For all } U, V \in \mathcal{T} \text{ we have } U \cap V \in \mathcal{T} \\ &\quad \text{PROOF: Since } p^{-1}(U \cap V) = p^{-1}(U) \cap p^{-1}(V). \end{split}
```

**Definition 9.194** (Quotient Space). Let X be a topological space and  $\sim$  an equivalence relation on X. Let  $p: X \to X/\sim$  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 9.188 except that A is saturated.

**Example 9.195.** 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 9.196.** 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 9.180.

**Example 9.197.** 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  $p:X \twoheadrightarrow X^*$  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:

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{Theor:} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ For } n \geq 1, \\ \text{ Let: } c_n = \sqrt{2}/n \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ For } n \geq 1, \\ \text{ 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}} \end{array}
```

**Proposition 9.198.** 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.

## 9.28 Retractions

**Definition 9.199** (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 9.200.** Every retraction is a quotient map.

PROOF: Proposition 9.192 with f the inclusion  $A \hookrightarrow X$ .

# 9.29 Homogeneous Spaces

**Definition 9.201** (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  $\phi(a) = b$ .

# 9.30 Regular Spaces

**Definition 9.202** (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  $a \in V$ .

# 9.31 Connected Spaces

**Definition 9.203** (Separation). A *separation* of a topological space X is a pair of disjoint open sets U, V such that  $U \cup V = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 9.204** (Connected). A topological space is *connected* if and only if it has no separation; otherwise it is *disconnected*.

**Proposition 9.205.** 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 9.206.** 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 9.144.

- $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ l \in B$ 
  - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.49.1.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . 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 9.144.

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

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

Example 9.207. Every set under the indiscrete topology is connected.

**Example 9.208.** The discrete topology on a set X is connected if and only if  $|X| \leq 1$ .

**Example 9.209.** The finite complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either  $|X| \leq 1$  or X is infinite.

**Example 9.210.** The countable complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either  $|X| \leq 1$  or X is uncountable.

**Example 9.211.** 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 9.212.** 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 9.213.** The union of a set of connected subspaces of a space X that have a point in common is connected.

#### Proof:

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

Proof: Lemma 9.212.

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

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

П

**Theorem 9.214.** Let X be a topological space and A a connected subspace of X. If  $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$  then B is connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.212.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ B \subseteq C$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.49.

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

PROOF: Lemma 9.51,  $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .

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

Proof: Lemma 9.206.

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

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

**Theorem 9.215.** 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 9.216.** 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 9.213 since  $(x, b) \in (X \times \{b\}) \cap (\{x\} \times Y)$ .

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.213 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 9.213 since a is a common point.
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ X = \overline{Y}
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in X
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Let: U = \prod_{\alpha \in J} U_{\alpha} be a basic neighbourhood of x where U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}
                       for all \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 9.214.
Example 9.217. 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 9.218. 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}').
Proposition 9.219. 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.
\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 9.212.
\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 9.212.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: The result follows by induction.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. D = \emptyset
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
   Proof: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 1.
```

**Proposition 9.220.** 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  $\partial A$ .

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

**Example 9.221.** The space  $\mathbb{R}_l$  is disconnected. For any real x, the sets  $(-\infty, x)$  and  $[x, +\infty)$  form a separation.

**Proposition 9.222.** 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 9.213 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 9.213 since (a, y) is a common point.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.213 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 9.223.** 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 9.224.** 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $Y \cup A$  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 9.225. 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 \rangle5. 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 \rangle 7. S is bounded above by b.
      PROOF: Since b \notin C.
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. Let: s = \sup S
   \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ s \in S
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: y \in [a, s)
              Prove: y \in C
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick z with y < z \in S
         PROOF: By minimality of s.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in [a,z) \subseteq C
   \langle 2 \rangle 10. Case: s \in C
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick x such that s < x and [s, x) \subseteq C
         PROOF: Since C is open and s is not greatest in L because s < b.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in S
         PROOF: Since [a, x) = [a, s) \cup [s, x) \subseteq C.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: This contradicts the fact that s is an upper bound for S.
   \langle 2 \rangle 11. Case: s \in D
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. PICK x < s such that (x, s] \subseteq D
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick y with x < y < s
         Proof: Since L is dense.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in C
         PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 9.
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in D
         PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
      \langle 3 \rangle 6. Let: L be a linear continuum under the order topology.
      \langle 3 \rangle7. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of L.
```

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

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

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

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

 $\langle 3 \rangle 12$ . S is bounded above by b.

PROOF: Since  $b \notin C$ .

 $\langle 3 \rangle 13$ . Let:  $s = \sup S$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 14. \ s \in S$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle$ 1. Let:  $y \in [a, s)$ Prove:  $y \in C$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$ . Pick z with  $y < z \in S$ 

PROOF: By minimality of s.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3. \ y \in [a,z) \subseteq C$ 

 $\langle 3 \rangle 15$ . Case:  $s \in C$ 

 $\langle 4 \rangle 1$ . PICK x such that s < x and  $[s, x) \subseteq C$ 

PROOF: Since C is open and s is not greatest in L because s < b.

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

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 < yPROOF: 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 9.225.1. The real line  $\mathbb{R}$  is connected.

Corollary 9.225.2. Every interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  is connected.

Corollary 9.225.3. The ordered square is connected.

**Theorem 9.226** (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 9.227.** 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 9.228.** Give  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  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.
    - (3)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  $\delta$  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 9.234.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . If C is connected and  $B \subseteq C$  then B = C.
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Assume: C is connected and  $B \subseteq C$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $x \in C \setminus B$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . For  $n \geq 1$ ,

Let:  $c_n = 1$  if  $x_n = 0$ ,  $c_n = n/x_n$  otherwise

- $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $h: \mathbb{R}^{\omega} \to \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  be the function  $h(x) = (c_n x_n)_{n \geq 1}$
- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 5. h is a homeomorphism of  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  with itself.
- $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . h(x) is unbounded.

PROOF: For any b > 0, pick N > b such that  $x_N \neq 0$ . Then  $h(x)_N > b$ .

- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 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  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  with itself.

## 9.32 Totally Disconnected Spaces

**Definition 9.229** (Totally Disconnected). A topological space X is *totally disconnected* if and only if the only connected subspaces are the singletons.

Example 9.230. Every discrete space is totally disconnected.

**Example 9.231.** The rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$  are totally disconnected.

### 9.33 Paths and Path Connectedness

**Definition 9.232** (Path). Let X be a topological space and  $a, b \in X$ . A path from a to b is a continuous function  $p : [0,1] \to X$  such that p(0) = a and

```
p(1) = b.
```

**Definition 9.233** (Path Connected). A topological space is path connected if and only if there exists a path between any two points.

Proposition 9.234. 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 9.225.2.

An example that shows the converse does not hold:

**Example 9.235.** The ordered square is not path connected.

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

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Proposition 9.236.** The continuous image of a path connected space is path connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a path connected space, Y a topological space, and  $f: X \to Y$ 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.

**Proposition 9.237** (AC). The product of a family of path-connected spaces is path-connected.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.123.

**Proposition 9.238.** The continuous image of a path-connected space is path-connected.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y$  be continuous and surjective where X is path-connected.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.239.** Let X be a topological space. The union of a set of path-connected subspaces of X that have a point in common is path-connected.

### PROOF:

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

**Proposition 9.240.** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  be countable. Then  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$  is path-connected.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a line l in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with a on one side and b on the other.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For every point x on l, LET:  $p_x$  be the path in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  consisting of a line from a to x then a line from x to y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . 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 9.241.** Every open connected subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is path-connected.

```
Proof:
```

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For all  $x_0 \in U$ ,

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

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

Proof: Since U is open.

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $PC(x_0)$  is closed in U
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $y \in U$  be a limit point of  $PC(x_0)$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(y, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $z \in PC(x_0) \cap B(y, \epsilon)$
  - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in PC(x_0)$

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

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

Proof: Proposition 9.205.

**Example 9.242.** If A is a connected subspace of X, then  $A^{\circ}$  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 9.243.** If A is a connected subspace of X then  $\partial A$  is not necessarily connected.

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

**Example 9.244.** If A is a subspace of X and  $A^{\circ}$  and  $\partial A$  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.

### 9.34 The Topologist's Sine Curve

**Definition 9.245** (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 9.246. The topologist's sine curve is connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . S is connected.

```
PROOF: Theorem 9.215.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \overline{S} is connected.
  Proof: Theorem 9.214.
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), ...) 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 9.248. Every closed subset of \mathbb{R} that is bounded above has a great-
est element.
PROOF: It has a supremum, which is a limit point of the set and hence an
element. \square
Proposition 9.249 (CC). The topologist's sine curve is not path connected.
(1)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 9.248.
\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
(1)6. PICK a sequence t_n in (b,1] such that t_n \to b and y(t_n) = (-1)^n for all n
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: n > 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
```

Corollary 9.249.1. The closure of a path-connected subspace of a space is not necessarily path-connected.

PROOF: This contradicts Proposition 9.96 since y is continuous and  $y(t_n)$  does

### 9.35 The Long Line

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

not converge.

**Definition 9.250** (The Long Line). The *long line* is the space  $\omega_1 \times [0,1)$  in the dictionary order under the order topology, where  $\omega_1$  is the first uncountable ordinal.

```
Lemma 9.251. 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 4.21.
\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 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 4.20.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 4.22.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
   Proof: By transfinite induction.
Proposition 9.252 (CC). The long line is path-connected.
```

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: (\alpha, i), (\beta, j) \in \omega_1 \times [0, 1)
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: without loss of generality (\alpha, i) < (\beta, j)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ [(0,0),(\beta+1,0)) \cong [0,1)
   Proof: By Lemma 9.251
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ [(\alpha, i), (\beta, j)) \cong [0, 1)
   Proof: Lemma 4.20.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. PICK a homeomorphism q:[0,1) \to [(\alpha,i),(\beta,j))
\langle 1 \rangle 6. q \cup \{(1, (\beta, j))\} is a path from (\alpha, i) to (\beta, j)
```

Proposition 9.253. Every point in the long line has a neighbourhood homeomorphic to an interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

PROOF: For any  $(\alpha, i)$  in the long line, the neighbourhood  $[(0, 0), (\alpha + 1, 0))$ satisfies the condition by Lemma 9.251.

**Proposition 9.254.** 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 9.254.1. The long line cannot be imbedded into  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for any n.

### 9.36 Components

**Proposition 9.255.** Let X be a topological space. Define the relation  $\sim$  on X by  $a \sim b$  if and only if there exists a connected subspace  $A \subseteq X$  with  $a, b \in A$ . Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on X.

### PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ .  $\sim$  is reflexive.

PROOF: For any  $a \in X$  we have  $\{a\}$  is a connected subspace that contains a.

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

PROOF: Trivial.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\sim$  is transitive.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.213.

**Definition 9.256** ((Connected) Component). Let X be a topological space. The *(connected) components* of X are the equivalence classes under the above  $\sim$ .

**Lemma 9.257.** 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 9.258.** Let X be a topological space. The components of X are connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that each nonempty connected subspace of X intersects only one of them.

### Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Every component of X is connected.

PROOF: For  $a \in X$ , the  $\sim$ -equivalence class of a is  $\bigcup \{A \subseteq X \mid A \text{ is connected}, a \in A\}$  which is connected by Theorem 9.213.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . The components form a partition of X.

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Every nonempty connected subspace of X intersects a unique component of X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $A \subseteq X$  be connected and nonempty.

```
\begin{split} &\langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } C \text{ be the component such that } A \subseteq C \\ &\text{Proof: Lemma 9.257.} \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 3. \text{ } A \text{ intersects } C \\ &\langle 2 \rangle 4. \text{ If } A \text{ intersects the component } C' \text{ then } C' = C \\ &\langle 3 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } C' \text{ be a component that intersects } A \\ &\langle 3 \rangle 2. \text{ Pick } b \in A \cap C' \\ &\langle 3 \rangle 3. \text{ } A \subseteq C' \\ &\text{Proof: For all } x \in A \text{ we have } x \sim b. \\ &\langle 3 \rangle 4. \text{ } C = C' \\ &\text{Proof: By uniqueness in } \langle 2 \rangle 2. \end{split}
```

Proposition 9.259. Every component of a space is closed.

#### D- - --

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a topological space and C a component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $\overline{C}$  is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 9.214.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ C = \overline{C}$ 

PROOF: Lemma 9.212.

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

Proof: Lemma 9.37.

П

**Proposition 9.260.** 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.

## 9.37 Path Components

**Proposition 9.261.** 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.

П

**Definition 9.262** (Path Component). Let X be a topological space. The *path components* of X are the equivalence relations under  $\sim$ .

**Theorem 9.263.** 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 9.264. 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 9.263.

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

Proof: Proposition 9.234.

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

Proof: Lemma 9.257.

9.38 Local Connectedness

**Definition 9.265** (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 9.266.** The real line is both connected and locally connected.

**Example 9.267.** The space  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  is disconnected but locally connected.

**Example 9.268.** The topologist's sine curve is connected but not locally connected.

**Example 9.269.** The rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$  are neither connected nor locally connected.

**Theorem 9.270.** 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 9.257.

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

PROOF: Lemma 9.16.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.271.** The ordered square is locally connected.

PROOF: Every neighbourhood of a point includes an interval around that point, which is connected by Theorem 9.225.

**Example 9.272.** 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 9.273.** Let X and Y be topological spaces and  $p: X \to Y$  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 9.215. \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 9.270. \langle 1 \rangle 5. C is open in U Proof: Since the restriction of p to p:p^{-1}(U) \twoheadrightarrow U is a quotient map by Proposition 9.188. \langle 1 \rangle 6. Q.E.D. Proof: Theorem 9.270.
```

### 9.39 Local Path Connectedness

**Definition 9.274** (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 9.275.** A topological space X is locally path-connected if and only if, for every open set U in X, every path component of U is open in X.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If X is locally path-connected then, for every open set U in X, every path component of U is open in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: X is locally path-connected.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let: *U* be open in *X*.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Let: C be a path component of U.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $a \in C$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: V be a path-connected neighbourhood of a such that  $V \subseteq U$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ V \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 9.257.

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

Proof: Lemma 9.16.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.276.** 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 9.264.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: Q be the union of the other path components included in C
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ C = P \cup Q
  Proof: Proposition 9.264.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. P and Q are open in C
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. C is open.
      PROOF: Theorem 9.270.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: Theorem 9.275.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ Q = \emptyset
  PROOF: Otherwise P and Q would form a separation of C.
```

**Example 9.277.** The ordered square is not locally path connected, since it is connected but not path connected.

**Proposition 9.278.** Let X be a locally path-connected space. Then every connected open subspace of X is path-connected.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle1. Let: U be a connected open subspace of X. \langle 1 \rangle2. Let: P be a path component of U. \langle 1 \rangle3. Let: Q be the union of the other path components of U. \langle 1 \rangle4. P and Q are open in U. Proof: Theorem 9.275. \langle 1 \rangle5. Q = \emptyset
Proof: Otherwise P and Q form a separation of U.
```

### 9.40 Weak Local Connectedness

**Definition 9.279** (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 9.280.** 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. As
```

```
\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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D \subseteq C$ 

PROOF: Lemma 9.257.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in V \subseteq C$ 

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

PROOF: Lemma 9.16.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.270.

**Example 9.281.** 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.

### 9.41 Quasicomponents

**Proposition 9.282.** 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 9.283** (Quasicomponents). For X a topological space, the *quasi-components* of X are the equivalence classes under  $\sim$ .

**Proposition 9.284.** 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 9.285.** In a locally connected space, the components and the quasicomponents are the same.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a locally connected space and Q a quasicomponent of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . PICK a component C of X such that  $C \subseteq Q$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: D be the union of the components of X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . C and D are open in X.

PROOF: Theorem 9.270.

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

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

### 9.42 Open Coverings

**Definition 9.286** (Open Covering). Let X be a topological space. An *open* covering of X is a covering of X whose elements are all open sets.

## 9.43 Lindelöf Spaces

**Definition 9.287** (Lindelöf Space). A topological space X is  $Lindel\"{o}f$  if and only if every open covering has a countable subcovering.

**Proposition 9.288.** 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 C of closed sets, if  $\bigcap C = \emptyset$  then there is a countable subset  $C_0$  with empty intersection.
- 5. Any set of closed sets with the countable intersection property has nonempty intersection.

**Proposition 9.289** (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  $B \subseteq U_B$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \{ U_B \mid B \in \mathcal{B}_0 \} \text{ covers } X.$

## 9.44 The Second Countability Axiom

**Definition 9.290** (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 9.291.** The space  $\mathbb{R}$  is second countable.

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

**Proposition 9.292.** 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 9.293** (CC). Every second countable space is Lindelöf.

PROOF: From Proposition 9.289.

**Example 9.294** (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 9.292. \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 9.289. \langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \mathcal{A}' \cup \mathcal{A}'' covers \mathbb{R}_l.
```

**Example 9.295.** The product of two Lindelöf spaces is not necessarily Lindelöf. We prove that the Sorgenfrey plane is not Lindelöf.

```
PROOF:
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } L = \{(x,-x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ $L$ is closed in } \mathbb{R}^2_l \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ Let: } \mathcal{U} = \{[a,b) \times [a,-d) \mid a,b,d \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \mathcal{U} \cup \{\mathbb{R} \setminus L\} \text{ covers } \mathbb{R}^2_l \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ Every element of $\mathcal{U}$ intersects $L$ at exactly one point.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \text{ No countable subset of $\mathcal{U}$ covers $\mathbb{R}^2_l$.} \\ & \square
```

### 9.45 Compact Spaces

**Definition 9.296** (Compact). A topological space is *compact* if and only if every open covering has a finite subcovering.

**Lemma 9.297.** Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If Y is compact then every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume: Y is compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be a covering of Y by sets open in X.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\{ U \cap Y \mid U \in \mathcal{U} \}$  is an open covering of Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK a finite subcovering  $\{U_1 \cap Y, \dots, U_n \cap Y\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ .  $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$  is a finite subcovering of  $\mathcal{U}$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering then Y is compact.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open covering of Y.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{V} = \{ V \text{ open in } X \mid V \cap Y \in \mathcal{U} \}.$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 3. \mathcal{V} is a covering of Y by sets open in X.
```

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK a finite subcovering  $\{V_1, \ldots, V_n\}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5.  $\{V_1 \cap Y, \dots, V_n \cap Y\}$  is a finite subcovering of  $\mathcal{U}$ .

Proposition 9.298. 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 9.299.** 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 9.300.** 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  $U \times V \subseteq N$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$  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:  $V = V_1 \cap \cdots \cap V_n$

```
\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 9.300.1** (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 9.301.** Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if every set of closed sets that has the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection.

PROOF: The following are equivalent.

- 1. X is compact.
- 2. Every open covering of X has a finite subcovering.
- 3. For any set  $\mathcal{C}$  of closed sets, if  $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}\}$  covers X then there is a finite subset  $\mathcal{C}_0$  such that  $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}_0\}$  covers X
- 4. For any set  $\mathcal{C}$  of closed sets, if  $\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$  then there is a finite subset  $\mathcal{C}_0$  with empty intersection.
- 5. Any set of closed sets with the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection.

**Corollary 9.301.1.** 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 9.302.** 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 9.302.1.** 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 9.169.

**Example 9.303.** Any set under the finite complement topology is compact.

**Proposition 9.304.** Let X be a topological space. A finite union of compact subspaces of X is compact.

```
PROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: A and B be compact subspaces of X. \langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{U} be a set of open sets in X that covers A \cup B \langle 1 \rangle 3. Pick a finite subset \mathcal{U}_1 that covers A. PROOF: Lemma 9.297. \langle 1 \rangle 4. Pick a finite subset \mathcal{U}_2 that covers B. PROOF: Lemma 9.297. \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 9.297.
```

roposition 9 305 Let A and R be disjoint compact subspa

**Proposition 9.305.** 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 9.300 with  $N = X^2 \setminus \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 9.305.1. Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

**Theorem 9.306.** 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 9.298.

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

Proof: Theorem 9.299.

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

Proof: Corollary 9.305.1.

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

Proof: Lemma 9.98.

**Proposition 9.307.** 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 9.298.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.299.

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

Proof: Corollary 9.305.1.

П

**Proposition 9.308.** If Y is compact then the projection  $\pi_1: X \times Y \to X$  is a closed map.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 9.16.

П

**Proposition 9.309.** Let X be a topological space and Y a Hausdorff space. Let  $f: X \to Y$  be continuous. Then the graph of f is closed in  $X \times Y$ .

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

**Theorem 9.310.** Let X be a topological space and Y a compact space. Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a function. If the graph of f is closed in  $X \times Y$  then f is continuous.

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $G_f$  is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in X$  and V be a neighbourhood of f(x).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3.$   $G_f \cap (X \times (Y \setminus V))$  is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ .  $\pi_1(G_f \cap (X \times (Y \setminus V)))$  is closed.

Proof: Proposition 9.308.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $U = X \setminus \pi_1(G_f \cap (X \times (Y \setminus V)))$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . U is a neighbourhood of x
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ f(U) \subseteq V$

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

**Theorem 9.311.** 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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:  $N = \max(n_1, \dots, n_k)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . 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  $n \geq N$  we have  $|f_n(x) f(x)| < \epsilon$

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

**Example 9.312.** 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 9.313.** 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 9.314.** 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 9.305.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ .  $\{A \setminus (U \cup V) \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$  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 A is a chain.
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. A_1 \setminus (U \cup V) is nonempty
           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 9.301.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 1 since \bigcap AA \setminus (U \cup V) = \bigcap A \setminus (C \cup D).
Theorem 9.315 (Tychonoff Theorem (AC)). The product of a family of com-
pact 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} \supseteq \mathcal{A} that is maximal with respect to the finite intersection
             property.
             Prove: \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D} \neq \emptyset
       Proof: Lemma 3.66.
   \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 9.301 since \{\overline{\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) intersects D.
    \langle 2 \rangle6. 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 3.68.
    \langle 2 \rangle7. Every basic neighbourhood of x is an element of \mathcal{D}
       Proof: Lemma 3.67.
    \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 \overline{D}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: Theorem 9.301.
```

**Lemma 9.316.** 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  $X \times Y$ . 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  $U_1, \ldots, U_m$
- (1)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 9.317** (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.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \cap \{B_1 \setminus (U' \cup V'), \dots, B_n \setminus (U' \cup V')\} = B_1 \setminus (U' \cup V')$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ .  $B_1 \setminus (U' \cup V')$  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 9.301.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ . 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  $\langle$  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  $\alpha'$ -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  $\beta$  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 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
- (1)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 9.316 since there is a homeomorphism \phi: Z(p) \cong
      X_{\alpha} \times \prod_{\alpha' > \alpha} X_{\alpha'} and, given p_{\alpha}, this homemorphism \phi restricts to a home-
      omorphism Y(p) \cong \{p_{\alpha}\} \times \prod_{\alpha' > \alpha} X_{\alpha'}.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: If \omega is the greatest element of J then Y(p \upharpoonright \omega) is a singleton.
Theorem 9.318. 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 great-
                est 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 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 \}
```

 $\mathcal{A}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $c = \sup C$ 

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

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ c \in C$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ c > a$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . 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  ${\mathcal A}$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. PICK x > a such that [a, x] can be covered by at most two elements of

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

Corollary 9.318.2. Every closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  is compact.

**Theorem 9.319** (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  $\{(-\infty, a_1), \dots, (-\infty, a_n)\}$ , 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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**Proposition 9.320.** Every linearly ordered set in which every closed interval is compact satisfies the least upper bound property.

#### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a linearly ordered set in which every closed interval is compact.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty with upper bound u
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $a \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . The closed interval [a, u] is compact.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Assume: for a contradiction A has no supremum.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $\{(-\infty, x) \mid x \in A\} \cup \{(x, +\infty) \mid x \text{ is an upper bound of } A\} \text{ covers } [a, u]$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in [a, u]$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Assume: for all  $y \in A$  we have  $x \notin (-\infty, y)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . x is an upper bound for A
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK an upper bound y for A with y < x
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in (y, +\infty)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Pick a finite subcover  $\{(-\infty, x_1), \dots, (-\infty, x_m), (y_1, +\infty), \dots, (y_n, +\infty)\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Assume:  $x_m = \max(x_1, \dots, x_m)$  and  $y_1 = \min(y_1, \dots, y_n)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ x_m \notin (-\infty, x_i) \text{ for any } i$

PROOF: Since  $x_i \leq x_m$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ .  $x_m \notin (y_i, +\infty)$  for any i

PROOF: Since  $x_m \in A$  so  $x_m \leq y_i$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 11. \ x_m \in [a, u]$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ .  $a \notin (y_i, +\infty)$  for any i

PROOF: Since  $y_i$  is an upper bound for A and  $a \in A$ .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $a \in (-\infty, x_i)$  for some i

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $a < x_m$ 

PROOF: Since  $x_i \leq x_m$ 

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x_m \leq u$ 

```
PROOF: Since u is an upper bound for A and x_m \in A. \langle 1 \rangle 12. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 7.
```

### 9.46 Perfect Maps

**Definition 9.321** (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 9.322.** 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 9.301 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 9.301 since  $p^{-1}(y)$  is compact.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ x \in \bigcap \mathcal{A}$ 

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.301.

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### 9.47 Isolated Points

**Definition 9.323** (Isolated Point). Let X be a topological space and  $x \in X$ . Then x is an *isolated point* if and only if  $\{x\}$  is open.

**Theorem 9.324** (AC). A nonempty compact Hausdorff space with no isolated points is uncountable.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a nonempty compact Hausdorff space with no isolated points.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . For every nonempty open set U and every point  $x \in X$ , there exists a nonempty open set  $V \subseteq U$  such that  $x \notin \overline{V}$ .
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let: U be a nonempty open set.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x \in X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $y \in U \{x\}$

```
PROOF: This is possible because U cannot be \{x\}.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. PICK disjoint open neighbourhoods W_1 of x and W_2 of y
    \langle 2 \rangle 5. Let: V = W_2 \cap U
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. V is nonempty
       PROOF: Since y \in V
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. V is open
       PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 4, \langle 2 \rangle 5.
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ V \subseteq U
       Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 5
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ x \notin V
       PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 4 and \langle 2 \rangle 5
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: (a_n) be any sequence of points in X.
         PROVE: The set X - \{a_1, a_2, \ldots\} is nonempty.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Pick a sequence of nonempty open sets V_1, V_2, \ldots, such that V_1 \supseteq V_2 \supseteq
         \cdots and a_n \notin \overline{V_n} for all n.
PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 2.

\langle 1 \rangle 5. PICK a \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{V_n}

PROOF: Corollary 9.301.1.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ \ a \in X - \{a_1, a_2, \ldots\}
   PROOF: We cannot have a = a_n because a \in \overline{V_n}.
```

**Corollary 9.324.1.** For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with a < b, the closed interval [a, b] is uncountable.

# Chapter 10

# Topological Groups

**Definition 10.1** (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 10.2.** 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 10.3.** 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:

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\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ If } G \text{ is a topological group then } f \text{ is continuous.} \\ \text{Proof: From Theorem 9.87.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ If } f \text{ is continuous then } G \text{ is a topological group.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: } f \text{ is continuous.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ ( )}^{-1} \text{ is continuous.} \\ \text{Proof: Since } x^{-1} = f(e,x). \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \text{ · is continuous.} \\ \text{Proof: Since } xy = f(x,y^{-1}). \\ \square \end{array}
```

**Lemma 10.4.** 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 9.157.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 9.88.

**Lemma 10.5.** 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 9.38.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ ab^{-1} \in U \cap H$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Q.E.D.

Proof: By Theorem 9.38.

П

**Proposition 10.6.** Let G be a topological group and  $\alpha \in G$ . Then the maps  $l_{\alpha}, r_{\alpha} : G \to G$  defined by  $l_{\alpha}(x) = \alpha x$ ,  $r_{\alpha}(x) = x \alpha$  are homeomorphisms of G with itself.

PROOF: They are continuous with continuous inverses  $l_{\alpha^{-1}}$  and  $r_{\alpha^{-1}}$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 10.6.1. Every topological group is homogeneous.

PROOF: Given a topological group G and  $a,b \in G$ , we have  $l_{ba^{-1}}$  is a homeomorphism that maps a to b.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 10.7.** 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  $\alpha xH$  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 9.191 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 10.7.1.** Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then G/H is homogeneous.

**Proposition 10.8.** 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 10.9.** Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then the canonical surjection  $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$  is an open map.

Proof:

**Proposition 10.10.** 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 10.8. \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 9.190, 10.9. \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 10.11.** 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.  $\sqcup$ 

**Definition 10.12** (Symmetric Neighbourhood). Let G be a topological group. A neighbourhood V of e is symmetric if and only if  $V = V^{-1}$ .

**Lemma 10.13.** 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 \subseteq 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 10.14. Let G be a topological group. For every neighbourhood U of e,
there exists a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that V^2 \subseteq U.
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U be a neighbourhood of e.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. PICK a neighbourhood V' of e such that V'V' \subseteq U
   Proof: Such a neighbourhood exists because multiplication in G is continu-
\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 10.11.
\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. PICKy, z \in W such that x = yz^{-1}
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x^{-1} = zy^{-1}
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x^{-1} \in V
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in V^{-1}
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
      Proof: Lemma 10.13
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ V^2 \subseteq U
   Proof: We have V^2 \subseteq (V')^2 \subseteq U
```

**Proposition 10.15.** Every topological group is Hausdorff.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: G be a topological group.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $x, y \in G$  with  $x \neq y$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U = G \setminus \{x[^{-1}y]\}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VV \subseteq U
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. U is open
      PROOF: Since G is T_1.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ e \in U
      PROOF: Since x \neq y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: Lemma 10.14.
\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 10.16. Every topological group is regular.
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: G be a topological group.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: A \subseteq G be a closed set and a \notin A.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U = G \setminus Aa^{-1}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VV \subseteq U
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. U is open
      PROOF: Since Aa^{-1} = r_{a^{-1}}(A) is closed.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ e \in U
      PROOF: Since a \notin A.
   \langle 2 \rangle3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: Lemma 10.14.
\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 10.11
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Va is open
      Proof: Lemma 10.11
   \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
П
Proposition 10.17. 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
   \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 10.14
   \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 10.9.
   \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)
```

**Proposition 10.18.** 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.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ xC \subseteq D$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ aH \in p(Va)$ 

PROOF: Since xC is connected by Theorem 9.215.

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

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 10.19.** 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  $V^2 \subseteq W$
- ⟨1⟩2. { $bV^2 \mid b \in B, V$  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 10.20** (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:

**Corollary 10.20.1.** 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 10.20.2. Let G be a topological group and  $H \leq G$ . If H and G/H

PROOF: From Proposition 9.322 since, for all  $aH \in G/H$ , we have  $p^{-1}(aH) = aH$  is compact because it is homemorphic to H.  $\square$ 

are compact then G is compact.

## 10.1 The Metric Topology

**Definition 10.21** (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 10.22** (Open Ball). Let X be a metric space. Let  $a \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . The *open ball* with *centre a* and *radius*  $\epsilon$  is

$$B(a,\epsilon) = \{ x \in X \mid d(a,x) < \epsilon \} .$$

**Definition 10.23** (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  $a \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$ 
  - (2)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 10.24.** 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:  $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ d(y,a) < \delta$

$$d(y, a) \le d(a, x) + d(x, y)$$
$$< \delta + d(x, y)$$
$$= \epsilon$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in U$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 10.25** (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 10.26. The discrete metric induces the discrete topology.

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

**Definition 10.27** (Standard Metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ ). The *standard metric* on  $\mathbb{R}$  is defined by d(x,y) = |x-y|.

**Proposition 10.28.** 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 10.29** (Metrizable). A topological space X is *metrizable* if and only if there exists a metric on X that induces the topology.

**Definition 10.30** (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 10.31** (Diameter). Let X be a metric space and  $A \subseteq X$ . The  $diameter ext{ of } A ext{ is}$ 

$$\operatorname{diam} A = \sup_{x,y \in A} d(x,y) .$$

**Definition 10.32** (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. \ d(x,y) \geq 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 10.33.** 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 9.53.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . 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 9.54.

**Proposition 10.34.** Let d be a metric on the set X. Then the standard bounded metric  $\overline{d}$  induces the same metric as d.

PROOF: This follows from Lemma 10.33 since the open balls with radius < 1 are the same under both metrics.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 10.35.** 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 10.24 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 10.24

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . 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 10.24.

**Proposition 10.36.**  $\mathbb{R}^2$  under the dictionary order topology is metrizable.

PROOF: Define  $d: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$d((x,y),(x,z)) = \max(|y-z|,1)$$

$$d((x,y),(x',y')) = 1 \qquad \text{if } x \neq x' \square$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{N} \pi_i^{-1}() \subseteq B_D(a,\epsilon)$$

**Proposition 10.37.** 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:  $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$ .  $|d(a,b) d(x,y)| < \epsilon$ 
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ d(a,b) d(x,y) < \epsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} d(a,b) &\leq d(a,x) + d(x,y) + d(y,b) \\ &\leq d(x,y) + 2\rho((a,b),(x,y)) \\ &< d(x,y) + 2\delta \\ &= d(x,y) + \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ .  $d(a.b) - d(x,y) > -\epsilon$ 

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 10.38.** 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 10.38.1. A subspace of a metrizable space is metrizable.

**Proposition 10.39.** 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 10.40** (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 10.34.

(1)3. Let: D be the metric on  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  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
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D(x,y) = D(y,x)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ .  $D(x,z) \leq D(x,y) + D(y,z)$

$$D(x,z) = \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i) + d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$= D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . 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 10.41.** 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 9.84.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Pick  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B(x, \delta) \subseteq U$

Proof: Proposition 10.24.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . 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 10.24.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . 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 9.84.

**Proposition 10.42.** 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 9.67.  $\square$ 

Proposition 10.43. 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 10.44.**  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  under the box topology is not metrizable.

**Example 10.45.** If J is uncountable then  $\mathbb{R}^J$  under the product topology is not metrizable.

**Proposition 10.46.** 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 10.47.** The space  $\mathbb{R}$  under the standard bounded metric is bounded but not compact.

# 10.2 Real Linear Algebra

**Definition 10.48** (Square Metric). The square metric  $\rho$  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.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{z}) \leq \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) + \rho(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$ 

PROOF: Since  $|x_i - z_i| \le |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|$ .

**Proposition 10.49.** 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:  $\epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

**Definition 10.50.** 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 10.51.** 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 10.52** (Inner Product). Given  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , define the *inner product*  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}$  by

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\cdot(y_1,\ldots,y_n) = x_1y_1 + \cdots + x_ny_n$$
.

We write  $\vec{x}^2$  for  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}$ .

**Definition 10.53** (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 10.54.

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

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

Lemma 10.55.

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

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

Lemma 10.56.

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

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 10.57 (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 10.56)

**Definition 10.58** (Euclidean Metric). Let  $n \geq 1$ . The *Euclidean metric* on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = ||\vec{x} - \vec{y}||$$
.

We prove this is a metric.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \geq 0$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$  if and only if  $\vec{x} = \vec{y}$ 

PROOF:  $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$  if and only if  $\vec{x} - \vec{y} = \vec{0}$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = d(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$ 

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{z}) \leq d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) + d(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$ 

PROOF:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| &= \|(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{z})\| \\ &\leq \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\| \end{split} \tag{Lemma 10.57}$$

**Proposition 10.59.** The Euclidean metric induces the standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \rho 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  $(x_i - a_i)^2 < \epsilon^2$ 

$$\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ (x_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - a_n)^2 < \epsilon^2$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . 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 10.35.

**Proposition 10.60.** 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

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

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

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

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

$$= \epsilon$$

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

**Proposition 10.61.** 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:  $p:[0,1] \to \overline{B(c,\epsilon)}$  be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have  $p(t) \in \overline{B(c, \epsilon)}$  for all t because

$$\begin{split} d(p(t),c) &= \| (1-t)a + tb - c \| \\ &= \| (1-t)(a-c) + t(b-c) \| \\ &\leq (1-t) \| a - c \| + t \| b - c \| \\ &\leq (1-t)\epsilon + t\epsilon \\ &= \epsilon \end{split}$$

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

**Lemma 10.62.** 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 10.62.1. If  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$  converge then  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (x_i + y_i)^2$ 

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 10.63** ( $l^2$ -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 10.62.1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ d(x,y) \geq 0$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . 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 10.57.

**Theorem 10.64.** Addition 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:  $\delta = \epsilon/2$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Assume:  $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ .  $|(a+b) - (x+y)| < \epsilon$ 

$$|(a+b) - (x+y)| = |a-x| + |b-y|$$

$$\leq 2\rho((a,b),(x,y))$$

$$< 2\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

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

PROOF: Theorem 10.41

**Theorem 10.65.** 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 10.41

**Theorem 10.66.** The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = x^{-1}$  is continuous.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . For all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  we have  $f^{-1}((a, +\infty))$  is open.

PROOF: The set is

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

$$(-\infty, a^{-1}) \cup (0, +\infty)$$
 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 9.81 and Lemma 9.104.

**Definition 10.67.** For  $n \geq 0$ , the unit ball  $B^n$  is the space  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| \leq 1\}$ .

**Proposition 10.68.** For all  $n \geq 0$ , the unit ball  $B^n$  is path connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . 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 10.69** (Punctured Euclidean Space). For  $n \geq 0$ , defined punctured Euclidean space to be  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Proposition 10.70.** 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 10.70.1.** 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 10.71** (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 10.72.** 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 9.236.  $\square$ 

**Proposition 10.73.** 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.

П

**Definition 10.74** (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 10.75.

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

Proposition 10.76. 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 9.215.

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

PROOF: Theorem 9.214.

Proposition 10.77 (CC). The topologist's sine curve is not path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Assume: for a contradiction  $p : [0,1] \to \overline{S}$  is a path from (0,0) to  $(1,\sin 1)$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ .  $p^{-1}(\{0\} \times [0,1])$  is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let: b be the greatest element of  $p^{-1}(\{0\} \times [0,1])$ .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4.$  b < 1

PROOF: Since  $p(1) = (1, \sin 1)$ .

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . PICK a sequence  $(t_n)_{n \geq 1}$  in (b,1] such that  $t_n \to b$  and  $\pi_2(p(t_n)) = (-1)^n$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $n \geq 1$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK u with  $0 < u < \pi_1(p(1/n))$  such that  $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . Pick  $t_n$  such that  $0 < t_n < 1/n$  and  $\pi_1(p(t_n)) = u$

PROOF: One exists by the Intermediate Value Theorem.

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

Proof: This contradicts 9.96.

**Theorem 10.78.** 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 9.305.1 and Proposition 10.46.

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . 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 9.298.

Corollary 10.78.1. The unit sphere  $S^{n-1}$  and the closed unit ball  $B^n$  are compact for any n.

#### 10.3 The Uniform Topology

**Definition 10.79** (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 10.80.** 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 10.81.** The uniform topology on  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is coarser than the box topology.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in \mathbb{R}^J$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ PROVE:  $B(a, \epsilon)$  is open in the box topology.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $b \in B(a, \epsilon)$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . For  $j \in J$  we have  $|a_j - b_j| < \epsilon$ 

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For  $j \in J$ ,

Let:  $\delta_j = (\epsilon - |a_j - b_j|)/2$  $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \prod_{j \in J} (b_j - \delta_j, b_j + \delta_j) \subseteq B(a, \epsilon)$ 

**Proposition 10.82.** The uniform topology on  $\mathbb{R}^J$  is strictly finer than the product topology if and only if J is infinite.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If J is finite then the uniform and product topologies coincide.

PROOF: The uniform, box and product topologies are all the same.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If J is infinite then the uniform and product topologies are different. PROOF: The set  $B(\vec{0},1)$  is open in the uniform topology but not the product

topology.

**Proposition 10.83** (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  $\omega$ -sequence  $(j_1, j_2, ...)$  in J. Let  $U = \prod_{i \in J} U_i$  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 10.84.** The closure of  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  under the uniform topology is

PROOF: Given any open ball  $B(a,\epsilon)$ , pick an integer N such that  $1/\epsilon < N$ . Then  $B(a, \epsilon)$  includes sequences whose nth entry is 0 for all  $n \geq N$ .  $\square$ 

**Example 10.85.** The space  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  is disconnected under the uniform topology. The set of bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.

**Proposition 10.86.** Give  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  the uniform topology. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ . Then x and y are in the same component if and only if x - y is bounded.

#### PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . The component containing 0 is the set of bounded sequences.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Let: B be the set of bounded sequences.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . B is path-connected.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x.y \in B$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$ . Pick b > 0 such that  $|x_j|, |y_j| \leq b$  for all j
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $p:[0,1] \to B$  be the function p(t)=(1-t)x+ty Prove: p is continuous.
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $t \in [0,1]$  and  $\epsilon > 0$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $\delta = \epsilon/2b$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$ . Let:  $s \in [0,1]$  with  $|s-t| < \delta$
    - $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ \overline{\rho}(p(s), p(t)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

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

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

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

$$< 2b\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

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

Proof: Proposition 9.234.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . 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  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  with itself.

# 10.4 Uniform Convergence

**Definition 10.87** (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 10.88.** Define  $f_n: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $f_n(x) = x^n$  for  $n \ge 1$ , and  $f: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$  by f(x) = 0 if x < 1, f(1) = 1. Then  $f_n$  converges to f pointwise but not uniformly.

**Theorem 10.89** (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  $d(f_n(y), f(y)) < \epsilon/3$
- (1)3. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that  $f_N(U) \subseteq B(f_N(x), \epsilon/3)$ PROVE:  $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d(f(y), f(x)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$d(f(y), f(x)) \leq d(f(y), f_N(y)) + d(f_N(y), f_N(x)) + d(f_N(x), f(x))$$
 (Triangle Inequality) 
$$< \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3$$
 (\langle 1/2, \langle 1/3) 
$$= \epsilon$$

**Proposition 10.90.** Let X be a topological space and Y a metric space. Let  $(f_n : X \to Y)$  be a sequence of continuous functions and  $f : X \to Y$  be a function. Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence of points in X and  $a \in X$ . If  $f_n$  converges uniformly to f and  $a_n$  converges to a in X then  $f_n(a_n)$  converges to f(a) uniformly in Y.

## Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. PICK  $N_1$  such that, for all  $n \geq N_1$  and  $x \in X$ , we have  $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $N_2$  such that, for all  $n \geq N_2$ , we have  $a_n \in f^{-1}(B(a, \epsilon/2))$

PROOF: Using the fact that f is continuous from the Uniform Limit Theorem.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $n \geq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) \le d(f_n(a_n), f(a_n)) + d(f(a_n), f(a)) \quad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$
$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

 $=\epsilon$ 

**Proposition 10.91.** Let X be a set. Let  $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$  be a sequence of functions and  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. Then  $f_n$  converges unifomly to f as  $n \to \infty$  if and only if  $f_n \to f$  as  $n \to \infty$  in  $\mathbb{R}^X$  under the uniform topology.

### PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . If  $f_n$  converges uniformly to f then  $f_n$  converges to f under the uniform topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $f_n$  converges uniformly to f
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK N such that, for all  $n \geq N$  and  $x \in X$ , we have  $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . For all  $n \geq N$  we have  $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) \leq \epsilon/2$

```
\langle 2 \rangle5. For all n \geq N we have \overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \epsilon
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . If  $f_n$  converges to f under the uniform topology then  $f_n$  converges uniformly to f.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Assume:  $f_n$  converges to f under the uniform topology.
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK N such that, for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $n \geq N$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $x \in X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$

PROOF: From  $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$

## 10.5 Isometric Imbeddings

**Definition 10.92.** 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 10.93. Every isometric imbedding is an imbedding.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $f: X \to Y$  be an isometric imbedding.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . f is injective.

PROOF: If f(x) = f(y) then d(f(x), f(y)) = 0 hence d(x, y) = 0 hence x = y.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . f is continuous.

PROOF: For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , if  $d(x, y) < \epsilon$  then  $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$ .

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f: X \to f(X)$  is an open map.

PROOF:  $f(B(a, \epsilon)) = B(f(a), \epsilon) \cap f(X)$ .

П

## 10.6 Distance to a Set

**Definition 10.94.** Let X be a metric space,  $x \in X$  and  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty. The *distance* from x to A is defined as

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

**Proposition 10.95.** Let X be a metric space and  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty. Then the function  $d(-,A): X \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a metric space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . Let:  $\delta = \epsilon$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Let: y \in B(x, \delta)
\langle 1 \rangle 6. |d(x,A) - d(y,A)| < \epsilon
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ d(x,A) - d(y,A) < \epsilon
       Proof:
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. For all a \in A we have d(x,A) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,a)
          Proof:
                      d(x, A) \le d(x, a)
                                                                          (definition of d(x, A))
                                  \leq d(x,y) + d(y,a)
                                                                           (Triangle Inequality)
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ d(x,A) - d(x,y) \le d(y,A)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. d(y,A) - d(x,A) < \epsilon
       PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: Theorem 10.41.
Theorem 10.96. Let X be a metric space, A \subseteq X be nonempty, and x \in X.
Then d(x, A) = 0 if and only if x \in A.
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a metric space.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: A \subseteq X be nonempty.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: x \in X
\langle 1 \rangle 4. If d(x,A) = 0 then x \in \overline{A}
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: d(x, A) = 0
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U be any neighbourhood of x.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick \epsilon > 0 such that B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U
       Proof: Proposition 10.24, \langle 1 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 2.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Pick a \in A such that d(x, a) < \epsilon
       Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 3.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. \ a \in A \cap U
       Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 3, \langle 2 \rangle 4.
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. Q.E.D.
       Proof: Theorem 9.38.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. If x \in \overline{A} then d(x, A) = 0
```

**Theorem 10.97.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty and compact. Let  $x \in X$ . Then there exists  $a \in A$  such that d(x, A) = d(x, a).

PROOF: By the Extreme Value Theorem, the function  $d(x,-):A\to\mathbb{R}$  attains its minimum.  $\square$ 

# 10.7 Lebesgue Numbers

**Definition 10.98** (Lebesgue Number). Let X be a metric space. Let  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open covering of X. A Lebesgue number for  $\mathcal{U}$  is a real number  $\delta > 0$  such that,

for every subset  $A \subseteq X$  with diameter diameter  $< \delta$ , there exists  $U \in \mathcal{U}$  such that  $A \subseteq U$ .

**Theorem 10.99** (Lebesgue Number Lemma). Every open covering of a compact metric space has a Lebesgue number.

```
Proof:
```

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a compact metric space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $\mathcal{U}$  be an open covering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . PICK a finite subset  $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$  of  $\mathcal{U}$  that covers X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$ . For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , LET:  $C_i = X - U_i$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$ . Let:  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(x) = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(x, C_i)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ . For all  $x \in X$  we have f(x) > 0
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in X$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . PICK i such that  $x \in U_i$

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ . PICK  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U_i$ 

Proof: Proposition 10.24.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ d(x, C_i) \geq \epsilon$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ f(x) \ge \epsilon/n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$ . f is continuous.

Proof: Proposition 10.95.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 8$ . Let:  $\delta$  be the minimum value of f(X)

PROOF: By the Extreme Value Theorem

 $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ \delta > 0$ 

PROOF: From  $\langle 1 \rangle 6$ 

- $\langle 1 \rangle 10$ . For every subset  $A \subseteq X$  with diameter  $< \delta$ , there exists  $U \in \mathcal{U}$  such that  $A \subseteq U$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $A \subseteq X$  with diam  $A < \delta$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ . Pick  $x_0 \in A$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ A \subseteq B(x_0, \delta)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ f(x_0) \geq \delta$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. PICK m such that  $d(x_0, C_m)$  is the largest out of  $d(x_0, C_1), \ldots, d(x_0, C_n)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ d(x_0, C_m) \ge f(x_0)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 7$ .  $B(x_0, \delta) \subseteq U_m$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ A \subseteq U_m$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 11$ .  $\delta$  is a Lebesgue number for  $\mathcal{U}$

# 10.8 Uniform Continuity

**Definition 10.100** (Uniformly Continuous). Let X and Y be metric spaces. Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then f is uniformly continuous if and only if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that, for all  $x, y \in X$ , if  $d(x, y) < \delta$  then  $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$ .

**Theorem 10.101** (Uniform Continuity Theorem). Every continuous function from a compact metric space to a metric space is uniformly continuous.

```
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a compact metric space.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: Y be a metric space.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: f: X \to Y be a continuous function.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: \epsilon > 0
\langle 1 \rangle5. Let: \mathcal{U} = \{ f^{-1}(B(y, \epsilon/2)) \mid y \in Y \}
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Pick a Lebesgue number \delta > 0 for \mathcal{U}.
   PROOF: By the Lebesgue Number Lemma.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Let: x, x' \in X
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Assume: d(x, x') < \delta
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Pick y \in Y such that \{x, x'\} \subseteq f^{-1}(B(y, \epsilon/2))
   PROOF: Since diam\{x, x'\} < \delta.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ d(f(x), f(x')) < \epsilon
   Proof:
           d(f(x), f(x')) \le d(f(x), y) + d(y, f(x'))
                                                                               (Triangle Inequality)
                                <\epsilon/2+\epsilon/2
                                                                                                     (\langle 1 \rangle 9)
                                =\epsilon
```

# 10.9 Epsilon-neighbourhoods

**Definition 10.102** ( $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood). Let X be a metric space. Let  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then the  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of A,  $U(A, \epsilon)$ , is the set

$$U(A,\epsilon) = \{ x \in X \mid d(x,A) < \epsilon \} .$$

**Proposition 10.103.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then  $U(A, \epsilon) = \bigcup_{a \in A} B(a, \epsilon)$ .

### Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$ . Let: X be a metric space.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ . Let:  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ . Let:  $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ U(A, \epsilon) \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in A} B(a, \epsilon)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $x \in U(A, \epsilon)$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$ .  $d(x,A) < \epsilon$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$ .  $\epsilon$  is not a lower bound for  $\{d(x,a) \mid a \in A\}$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$ . PICK  $a \in A$  such that  $d(x, a) < \epsilon$
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in B(a, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \bigcup_{a \in A} B(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U(A, \epsilon)$ 
  - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ . Let:  $a \in A$  and  $x \in B(a, \epsilon)$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ d(x,A) \le d(x,a)
\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ d(x,A) < \epsilon
\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in U(A,\epsilon)
```

**Proposition 10.104.** Let X be a metric space. Let  $A \subseteq X$  be nonempty and compact. Let U be an open set such that  $A \subseteq U$ . Then there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $U(A, \epsilon) \subseteq U$ .

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a metric space.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: A \subseteq X be nonempty and compact.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U be an open set such that A \subseteq U
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \{ B(a, \epsilon) \mid a \in A, \epsilon > 0, B(a, 2\epsilon) \subseteq U \} covers A.
   Proof: By Proposition 10.24.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. PICK a finite subcover \{B(a_1, \epsilon_1), \ldots, B(a_n, \epsilon_n)\}
   PROOF: Since A is compact (\langle 1 \rangle 2).
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Let: \epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)
         Prove: U(A, \epsilon) \subseteq U
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Let: x \in U(A, \epsilon)
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Pick a \in A such that d(x, a) < \epsilon
   Proof: Proposition 10.103.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Pick i such that a \in B(a_i, \epsilon_i)
   PROOF: By \langle 1 \rangle 5.
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ d(x, a_i) < 2\epsilon
   PROOF: By the Triangle Inequality.
\langle 1 \rangle 11. \ x \in U
   PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 4.
```

This example shows that we cannot weaken the hypothesis that A is compact to A being closed:

**Example 10.105.** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let  $A = \{(x, 1/x) \mid x > 0\}$ . Let  $U = \{(x, y) \mid x > 0, y > 0\}$ . Then A is nonempty and closed (Proposition 9.309). The set U is open and  $A \subseteq U$ . But there is no  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $U(A, \epsilon) \subseteq U$ .

### Proof:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \langle 1 \rangle 1. & \text{Let: } \epsilon > 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. & (2/\epsilon, \epsilon/2) \in A \\ \langle 1 \rangle 3. & (2/\epsilon, 0) \in U(A, \epsilon) \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. & (2/\epsilon, 0) \notin U \\ \Box \end{array}
```