Topology

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1 Real Numbers

Definition 1. Let \mathbb{R}^{∞} be the subset of \mathbb{R}^{ω} consisting of all sequences (a_n) such that $a_n = 0$ for all but finitely many n.

2 Order Theory

Definition 2 (Convex). Let X be a linearly ordered set and $Y \subseteq X$. Then Y is *convex* if and only if, for all $a, b \in Y$ and $c \in X$, if a < c < b then $c \in Y$.

3 Topological Spaces

Definition 3 (Topology). A topology on a set X is a set $T \subseteq PX$ 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 4 (Topological Space). A topological space X consists of a set X and a topology on X.

Definition 5 (Discrete Space). For any set X, the discrete topology on X is $\mathcal{P}X$.

Definition 6 (Indiscrete Space). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Definition 7 (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 8 (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 (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 10. 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 $x \in V \subseteq U$.

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Proof:  \begin{split} \langle 1 \rangle 1. &\Rightarrow \\ &\text{Proof: Take } V = U \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. &\Leftarrow \\ &\text{Proof: We have } U = \bigcup \{V \in \mathcal{P}X \mid V \subseteq U\}. \end{split}
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Lemma 11. Let X be a set and \mathcal{T} a nonempty set of topologies on X. Then $\bigcap \mathcal{T}$ is a topology on X, and is the finest topology that is coarser than every member of \mathcal{T} .

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

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

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{T}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $T \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $\mathcal{U} \subseteq T$

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $\bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\cap \mathcal{T}$ is closed under binary intersection.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U, V \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}$

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

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ U \cap V \in \bigcap \mathcal{T}$

Lemma 12. 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} .

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PROOF: The required topology is given by \bigcap \{T \in \mathcal{PP}X \mid T \text{ is a topology on } X \text{ that is finer than every member of } \mathcal{T}\} \ , The set is nonempty since it contains the discrete topology. \square
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4 Basis for a Topology

Definition 13 (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.

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

PROOF: Since $U \in \mathcal{T}$ by $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and $\langle 2 \rangle 3$.

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

Proof: By condition 2.

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

Lemma 14. Let X be a set. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for a topology \mathcal{T} on X. Then \mathcal{T} is the set of all unions of subsets of \mathcal{B} .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $U \in \mathcal{T}$, there exists $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ such that $U = \bigcup \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U \in \mathcal{T}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\mathcal{A} = \{ B \in \mathcal{B} \mid B \subseteq U \}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ U \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in U$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$ PROOF: Since \mathcal{B} is a basis for \mathcal{T} .
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x \in B \in \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \bigcup \mathcal{A} \subseteq U$

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

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

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

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

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

Corollary 14.1. 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 15. 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 $x \in C \subset U$. 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 16. 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 14.1.

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

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 $x \in B \subseteq U$

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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
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Definition 17 (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 18 (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 19. 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 20 (Subbasis). A *subbasis* \mathcal{S} for a topology on X is a set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ such that $\bigcup \mathcal{S} = X$.

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.

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\langle 2 \rangle 1. \bigcup \mathcal{B} = X
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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 14.

We have simultaneously proved:

Proposition 21. 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 22. Let X be a set. Let S be a subbasis for a topology T on X. Then T is the coarsest topology that includes S.

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

5 Open Maps

Definition 23 (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 24. 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 14.

6 The Order Topology

Definition 25 (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.

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Proof:
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\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).
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Lemma 26. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Then the open rays form a subbasis for the order topology on X.

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\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ Every open ray is open.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ For all } a \in X, \text{ the ray } (-\infty, a) \text{ is open.} \\ \langle 3 \rangle 1. \text{ Let: } x \in (-\infty, a) \\ \langle 3 \rangle 2. \text{ Case: } x \text{ is least in } X \\ \text{PROOF: } xin[x,a) = (-\infty,a). \\ \langle 3 \rangle 3. \text{ Case: } x \text{ is not least in } X \\ \langle 4 \rangle 1. \text{ PICK } y < x \\ \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ x \in (y,a) \subseteq (-\infty,a) \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ For all } a \in X, \text{ the ray } (a,+\infty) \text{ is open.} \end{array}
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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 27 (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 28. 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 29. 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 14.1.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 $1/n \in (a,b)$.

Definition 30 (Ordered Square). The ordered square I_o^2 is the set $[0,1]^2$ under the order topology generated by the dictionary order.

7 The Product Topology

Definition 31 (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 32. 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 21. \square

Proposition 33. Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. For $i\in I$, let \mathcal{B}_i be a basis for the topology on A_i . Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i\in I} B_i \mid \forall i\in I.B_i\in \mathcal{B}_i, B_i = A_i \text{ for all but finitely many } i\}$ is a basis for the box topology on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Lemma 15.

Proposition 34. 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 24.

Proposition 35. 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 14.1.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 34.

8 The Subspace Topology

Definition 36 (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:

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

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PROOF: Since Y = X \cap Y \langle 1 \rangle 2. For all \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}, we have \bigcup \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T} \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{V} = \{V \text{ open in } X \mid V \cap Y \in \mathcal{U}\} \langle 2 \rangle 3. \bigcup \mathcal{U} = (\bigcup \mathcal{V}) \cap Y \langle 1 \rangle 3. For all U, V \in \mathcal{T}, we have U \cap V \in \mathcal{T} \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: U, V \in \mathcal{T} \langle 2 \rangle 2. PICK U', V' open in X such that U = U' \cap Y and V = V' \cap Y \langle 2 \rangle 3. (U \cap V) = (U' \cap V') \cap Y
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Lemma 37. Let X be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Then $\mathcal{B}' = \{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a basis for the subspace topology on Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every element in \mathcal{B}' is open in Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every open set U in Y and point $y \in U$, there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $y \in B' \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be open in Y and $y \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK V open in X such that $U = V \cap Y$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $y \in B \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $B' = B \cap Y$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ B' \in \mathcal{B}'$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ y \in B' \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 15.

Lemma 38. 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 37, and this is the set of all finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S}' . \square

Lemma 39. 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 40. 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 38. \square

Theorem 41. Let X be an ordered set in the order topology. Let $Y \subseteq X$ be convex. 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

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

PROOF: By convexity.

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

- $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. 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 26 and 38 and Proposition 22.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 26 and Proposition 22

Proposition 42. 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 43. Let X be a topological space, Y a subspace of X, and Z a subspace of Y. Then the subspace topology on Z inherited from X is the same as the subspace topology on Z inherited from Y.

PROOF: The subspace topology inherited from Y is

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

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

which is the subspace topology inherited from X. \square

Definition 44 (Unit Circle). The unit circle S^1 is $\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$

9 Closed Set

Definition 45 (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 46. The empty set is closed.

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

Lemma 47. The topological space X is closed.

PROOF: Since \emptyset is open. \square

Lemma 48. 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 49. 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. \sqcap

Theorem 50. Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$. Then A is closed in Y if and only if there exists a closed set C in X such that $A = C \cap Y$.

PROOF: We have

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

Theorem 51. 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 50). Then A is the intersection of two sets closed in X, hence A is closed in X (Lemma 48).

Proposition 52. 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 53. 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 54. 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 55. 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
10 Interior
Definition 56 (Interior). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. The <i>interior</i> of A , Int A , is the union of all the open subsets of A .
Lemma 57. The interior of a set is open.
PROOF: It is a union of open sets. \Box
Lemma 58. $\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A$
Proof: Immediate from definition. \Box
Lemma 59. A set A is open if and only if $A = \text{Int } A$.
PROOF: If $A = \text{Int } A$ then A is open by Lemma 57. Conversely if A is open then $A \subseteq \text{Int } A$ by the definition of interior and so $A = \text{Int } A$.
11 Neighbourhood
11 Neighbourhood Definition 60 (Neighbourhood). A neighbourhood of a point x is an open set that contains x .
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Definition 60 (Neighbourhood). A neighbourhood of a point x is an open set that contains x . 12 Closure Definition 61 (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 .
Definition 60 (Neighbourhood). A neighbourhood of a point x is an open set that contains x . 12 Closure Definition 61 (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 47).
 Definition 60 (Neighbourhood). A neighbourhood of a point x is an open set that contains x. 12 Closure Definition 61 (Closure). Let X be a topological space and A ⊆ X. The closure of A, 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 47). Lemma 62. The closure of a set is closed.
 Definition 60 (Neighbourhood). A neighbourhood of a point x is an open set that contains x. 12 Closure Definition 61 (Closure). Let X be a topological space and A ⊆ X. The closure of A, 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 47). Lemma 62. The closure of a set is closed. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 57. □ Lemma 63.
Definition 60 (Neighbourhood). A neighbourhood of a point x is an open set that contains x . 12 Closure Definition 61 (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 47). Lemma 62. The closure of a set is closed. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 57. \square Lemma 63. $A \subseteq \overline{A}$

Theorem 65. 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 50)
$$= \bigcap \{D \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D\} \cap Y$$

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

Theorem 66. Let X be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$ and $x \in X$. Then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if every neighbourhood of x intersects A.

PROOF: We have $x \in \overline{A}$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall C.C \text{ closed } \land A \subseteq C \Rightarrow x \in C$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall U.U \text{ open } \land A \cap U = \emptyset \Rightarrow x \notin U$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall U.U \text{ open } \land x \in U \Rightarrow U \text{ intersects } A$

Theorem 67. 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 66 since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 14.1).
- (1)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 66.

Proposition 68. 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 69.

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

Proof:

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

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Proof: By Proposition 68.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}
   PROOF: By Proposition 68.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{A \cup B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in \overline{A \cup B}
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: x \notin \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 66.
    \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 66.
Proposition 70 (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} .
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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 63.

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

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Proposition 53.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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 66 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 71. The closure of \mathbb{R}^{∞} in \mathbb{R}^{ω} is \mathbb{R}^{ω}

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$

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

PROOF: From Theorem 66.

13 Limit Points

Definition 72 (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 73. The point a is an accumulation point for A if and only if $a \in \overline{A \setminus \{a\}}$.

PROOF: From Theorem 66.

Theorem 74. 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 66.

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

Proof: Lemma 63.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 66.

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Corollary 74.1. A set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

Proposition 75. 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

14 T_1 Spaces

Definition 76 (T_1 Space). A topological space is T_1 if and only if every singleton is closed.

Lemma 77. A space is T_1 if and only if every finite set is closed.

PROOF: From Lemma 49.

Theorem 78. 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.

 \bigcap^{2}

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 75.)

Proposition 79. 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 $U \subseteq X \setminus \{a\}$.

15 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 80 (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

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that x \in U and y \in V.
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Theorem 81. Every Hausdorff space is T_1 .

Proof:

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

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Assume: $a \in \{b\}$ 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 66.

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

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

Proposition 82. An infinite set under the finite complement topology is T_1 but not Hausdorff.

Proof:

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

PROOF: By definition.

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

Proposition 83. 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 84. Every linearly ordered set under the order topology is Hausdorff.

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Case: There exists c such that a < c < b

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

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

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

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Theorem 85. A subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a Hausdorff space and Y a subspace of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x, y \in Y$ with $x \neq y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint neighbourhoods U of x and V of y in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $U \cap Y$ and $V \cap Y$ are disjoint neighbourhoods of x and y respectively in Y.

Proposition 86. 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

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

16 Convergence

Definition 87 (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 $a_n\in U$.

Theorem 88. 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 89. 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

17 Boundary

Definition 90 (Boundary). The *boundary* of a set A is the set $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$.

Proposition 91.

$$\operatorname{Int} A \cap \partial A = \emptyset$$

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

Proposition 92.

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

Proof:

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

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

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

$$= \overline{A}$$

Proposition 93. $\partial A = \emptyset$ if and only if A is open and closed.

PROOF: If $\partial A = \emptyset$ then $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A$ by Proposition 92.

Proposition 94. A set U is open if and only if $\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$.

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \overline{U} \setminus \operatorname{Int} U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Int} U = U \end{array} \qquad \text{(Propositions 91, 92)}$$

18 Continuous Functions

Definition 95 (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 96. 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 14).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 14.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Proof:

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

Proposition 97. 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 APROOF: 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 96 and 21.

Proposition 98. 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 21 and 96.

Definition 99 (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 100. 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 66.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 66.

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$= B$$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: 3
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: V be open in Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Y \setminus V is closed in Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. f^{-1}(Y \setminus V) is closed in X
\langle 2 \rangle 5. X \setminus f^{-1}(V) is closed in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. f^{-1}(V) is open in X
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 1 \Rightarrow 4
   PROOF: For any neighbourhood V of f(x), the set U = f^{-1}(V) is a neigh-
   bourhood 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 \rangle5. 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 10.
```

Theorem 101. 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 102. 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 103. 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 104. 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 105. 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be open in Z.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK U open in Y such that $V = U \cap Z$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U)$

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

Theorem 106. 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 107. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose \mathcal{U} is a set of open sets in X such that $X = \bigcup \mathcal{U}$ and, for all $U \in \mathcal{U}$, we have $f \upharpoonright U: U \to Y$ is continuous. Then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be open in Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$ $f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} (f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $U \in \mathcal{U}$, we have $(f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$ is open in U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For all $U \in \mathcal{U}$, we have $(f \upharpoonright U)^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. PROOF: Lemma 39.

П

Theorem 108. 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 97.

Proposition 109. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous at x if and only if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that. for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$, if $|x - y| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous at x then, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that. for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$, if $|x y| < \delta$ then $|f(x) f(y)| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$ $f^{-1}((f(x) \epsilon, f(x) + \epsilon))$ is open.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a, b such that $x \in (a,b) \subseteq f^{-1}((f(x)-\epsilon,f(x)+\epsilon))$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $\delta = \min(x a, b x)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Let: $y \in \mathbb{R}$ with $|x y| < \delta$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in (a,b)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 8. \ f(y) \in (f(x) \epsilon, f(x) + \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 9. |f(x) f(y)| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that. for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$, if $|x-y| < \delta$ then $|f(x)-f(y)| < \epsilon$. Then f is continuous at x.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that. for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$, if $|x-y| < \delta$ then $|f(x)-f(y)| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of f(x)
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick a, b such that $f(x) \in (a, b) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $\epsilon = \min(f(x) a, b f(x))$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$, if $|x y| < \delta$ then $|f(x) f(y)| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Let: $U = (x \delta, x + \delta)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ x \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$

Proposition 110. 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. \Box

Proposition 111. 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 112. Let X be a topological space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set in the order topology. Let $f, g: X \to Y$ be continuous. Then $C = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \leq g(x)\}$ is closed.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X \setminus C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. f(x) > q(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 $U = g^{-1}((-\infty, f(x))) \cup f^{-1}(g(x), +\infty)$.

Lemma 113. Let $f: X \to Y$. Let Z be an open subspace of X and $a \in Z$. If $f \upharpoonright Z$ is continuous at a then f is continuous at a.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of f(x)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a neighbourhood W of x in Z such that $f(W) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. W is a neighbourhood of x in X such that $f(W) \subseteq V$ PROOF: Lemma 39.

Proposition 114. 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 103. The result follows by Theorem 108.

Proposition 115. Let X be a topological space. Let Y a Hausdorff space. Let $A \subseteq X$. Let $f, g : \overline{A} \to Y$ be continuous. If f and g agree on A then f = g.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \overline{A}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: $f(x) \neq g(x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK disjoint neighbourhoods V of f(x) and W of g(x).
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. PICK $y \in f^{-1}(V) \cap g^{-1}(W) \cap A$ PROOF: Since $f^{-1}(V) \cap g^{-1}(W)$ is a neighbourhood of x and hence intersects A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ f(y) = g(y) \in V \cap W$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

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

Proposition 116. 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 $f(n) \in V$

Proposition 117. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let (a_n) be a sequence in $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$ and $l\in \prod_{i\in I} X_i$. Then $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$ if and only if, for all $i\in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n)\to\pi_i(l)$ as $n\to\infty$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ then, for all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$ Proof: Proposition 116.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of l
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK open sets U_i in X_i such that $l \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq V$ and $U_i = X_i$ for all i except $i = i_1, \ldots, i_k$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For $j=1,\ldots,k$, PICK N_j such that, for all $n \geq N_j$, we have $\pi_{i_j}(a_n) \in U_{i_j}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: $N = \max(N_1, \ldots, N_k)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in V$

19 Homeomorphisms

Definition 118 (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 119. 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. For any $U \subseteq X$, we have U is open if and only if f(U) is open.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 120. 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 121 (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 122 (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 123. 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 $i(V) = (X \times V) \cap i(Y)$.

20 Locally Finite Sets

Definition 124 (Locally Finite). Let X be a topological space and $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ a family of subsets of X. Then A is *locally finite* if and only if every point in X has a neighbourhood that intersects A_{α} for only finitely many α .

Theorem 125 (Pasting Lemma). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ be a locally finite family of closed subsets of X that cover X. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A_{\alpha}$ is continuous for all α . Then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let A and B be closed subsets of X such that $X = A \cup B$. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A$ and $f \upharpoonright B$ are continuous. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $C \subseteq Y$ be closed.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $h^{-1}(C) = f^{-1}(C) \cup g^{-1}(C)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $f^{-1}(C)$ and $g^{-1}(C)$ are closed in X.

PROOF: Theorems 100 and 51.

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

Proof: Lemma 49.

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

PROOF: Theorem 100.

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

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ be a locally finite family of closed subsets of X that cover X. Suppose $f \upharpoonright A_{\alpha}$ is continuous for all α . Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$

Prove: f is continuous at x

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick a neighbourhood U of x that intersects A_{α} for only finitely many α .
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $f \upharpoonright U$ is continuous

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PROOF: By \langle 1 \rangle 2. \langle 2 \rangle 4. Q.E.D. PROOF: Lemma 113.
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The following example shows that we cannot remove the assumption of local finiteness.

Example 126. Define $f: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by: f(x) = 1 if x < -1, f(x) = 0 if x > 1. Let $C_n = [-1,-1/n]$ for $n \ge 1$, and D = [0,1]. Then $[-1,1] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \cup D$ and f is continuous on each C_n and each D, but f is not continuous on [-1,1].

Proposition 127. 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 112.

21 Continuous in Each Variable Separately

Definition 128 (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 129. 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 123, hence $F \circ i$ is continuous by Theorem 103.

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

Example 130. 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.

22 The Box Topology

Definition 131 (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 132. The box topology is finer than the product topology.

Proof: From Proposition 32.

Corollary 132.1. 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 53.

Proposition 133 (AC). Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. For $i\in I$, let \mathcal{B}_i be a basis for the topology on A_i . Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i \in I} B_i \mid \forall i \in I. B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i\}$ is a basis for the box topology on $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every set of the form $\prod_{i \in I} B_i$ is open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For every point $a \in \prod_{i \in I} \hat{A}_i$ and every open set U with $a \in U$, there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $a \in B \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: U be open and $a \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK a family $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ such that each U_i is open in A_i and $a \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq I$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For $i \in I$, PICK $B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ such that $a_i \in B_i \subseteq U_i$ PROOF: Using the Axiom of Choice.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ a \in \prod_{i \in I} B_i \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 15.

Theorem 134. 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

$$\begin{split} \{\prod_{i\in I} U_i \mid \forall i\in I, U_i \text{ open in } A_i\} \\ = \{\prod_{i\in I} (V_i\cap A_i) \mid \forall i\in I, V_i \text{ open in } X_i\} \\ = \{\prod_{i\in I} V_i \mid \forall i\in I, V_i \text{ open in } X_i\} \cap \prod_{i\in I} A_i \\ \text{and this is a basis for the subspace topology by Lemma 37. } \end{split}$$

Proposition 135. 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.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 136 (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:

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

Proof: Lemma 63.

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

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Corollary 132.1.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 66 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 108 fails in the box topology.

Example 137. Define $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ by f(t) = (t, t, ...). Then $\pi_n \circ f = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}}$ is continuous for all n. But f is not continuous when \mathbb{R}^{ω} is given the box topology because the inverse image of

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

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

The following example shows that Proposition 117 fails in the box topology.

Example 138. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the box topology. Let $a_n = (1/n, 1/n, ...)$ 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 139. The set \mathbb{R}^{∞} is closed in \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box topology. For let (a_n) be any sequence not in \mathbb{R}^{∞} . Let U_n be an open interval around a_n that does not contain 0 if $a_n \neq 0$, and $U_n = \mathbb{R}$ if $a_n = 0$. Then $\prod_{n \geq 0} U_n$ is a neighbourhood of (a_n) that does not intersect \mathbb{R}^{∞} .

23 The Metric Topology

Definition 140 (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) < d(x, y) + d(y, z)

We call d(x, y) the distance between x and y.

Definition 141 (Open Ball). Let X be a metric space. Let $a \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$. The *open ball* with *centre a* and *radius* ϵ is

$$B(a,\epsilon) = \{ x \in X \mid d(a,x) < \epsilon \} .$$

Definition 142 (Metric Topology). Let X be a metric space. The *metric topology* on X is the topology generated by the basis consisting of all the open balls.

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For every point a, there exists a ball B such that $a \in B$ PROOF: We have $a \in B(a, 1)$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For any balls B_1 , B_2 and point $a \in B_1 \cap B_2$, there exists a ball B_3 such that $a \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $B_1 = B(c_1, \epsilon_1)$ and $B_2 = B(c_2, \epsilon_2)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\delta = \min(\epsilon_1 d(c_1, a), \epsilon_2 d(c_2, a))$ Prove: $B(a, \delta) \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in B(a, \delta)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ x \in B_1$

PROOF:

$$d(x, c_1) = d(x, a) + d(a, c_1)$$

$$< \delta + d(a, c_1)$$

$$\le \epsilon_1$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ x \in B_2$

PROOF: Similar.

Proposition 143. Let X be a metric space and $U \subseteq X$. Then U is open if and only if, for every $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If U is open then, for all $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: *U* is open.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $a \in X$ and $\delta > 0$ such that $x \in B(a, \delta) \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $\epsilon = \delta d(a, x)$ Prove: $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ d(y,a) < \delta$

Proof:

$$d(y,a) \le d(a,x) + d(x,y)$$

$$< \delta + d(x,y)$$

$$= \epsilon$$

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$, then U is open. PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Definition 144 (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 145. 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 146 (Standard Metric on \mathbb{R}). The *standard metric* on \mathbb{R} is defined by d(x,y) = |x-y|.

Proposition 147. 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 148 (Metrizable). A topological space X is *metrizable* if and only if there exists a metric on X that induces the topology.

Definition 149 (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 150 (Diameter). Let X be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. The diameter of A is

$$\operatorname{diam} A = \sup_{x,y \in A} d(x,y) .$$

Definition 151 (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.

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{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 152. 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 14.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 15.

Proposition 153. 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 152 since the open balls with radius <1 are the same under both metrics. \Box

Lemma 154. 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 143 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 143

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. 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 143.

Proposition 155. \mathbb{R}^2 under the dictionary order topology is metrizable.

PROOF: Define $d: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$d((x,y),(x,z)) = \max(|y-z|,1)$$

$$d((x,y),(x',y')) = 1 if x \neq x' \square$$

$$\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{N} \pi_i^{-1}() \subseteq B_D(a,\epsilon)$$

Proposition 156. 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 in each variable separately.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $a \in X$ and $d_a : X \to \mathbb{R}$ be the function d(a, -)
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $b \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all $x \in X$, if $d(b,x) < \epsilon$ then $|d(a,b) d(a,x)| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If \mathcal{T} is any topology under which d is continuous then \mathcal{T} is finer than the metric topology.

PROOF: Since $B(a, \epsilon) = d_a^{-1}((-\infty, \epsilon))$

24 Real Linear Algebra

Definition 157 (Square Metric). The square metric ρ on \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \max(|x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n|)$$

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \geq 0$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} = \vec{y}$

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \rho(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$

Proof: Immediate from definition.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{z}) \le \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) + \rho(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$

PROOF: Since $|x_i - z_i| \le |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|$.

Proposition 158. The square metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For every $a \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_{\rho}(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the standard product topology.

Proof:

$$B_{\rho}(a,\epsilon) = (a_1 - \epsilon, a_1 + \epsilon) \times \cdots \times (a_n - \epsilon, a_n + \epsilon)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For any open sets U_1, \ldots, U_n in \mathbb{R} , we have $U_1 \times \cdots \times U_n$ is open in the square metric topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{a} \in U_1 \times \cdots \times U_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For i = 1, ..., n, PICK $\epsilon_i > 0$ such that $(a_i \epsilon_i, a_i + \epsilon_i) \subseteq U_i$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

П

Definition 159. 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 160. 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 161 (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 162 (Norm). Let $n \geq 1$. The *norm* on \mathbb{R}^n is the function $\| \cdot \|$: $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$||(x_1,\ldots,x_n)|| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$$

Lemma 163.

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Lemma 164.

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

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

Lemma 165.

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

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: $b = 1/\|\vec{y}\|$
- $\begin{array}{l} \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ (a\vec{x} + b\vec{y})^2 \geq 0 \text{ and } (a\vec{x} b\vec{y})^2 \geq 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ (a\vec{x} + b\vec{y})^2 \geq 0 \text{ and } (a\vec{x} b\vec{y})^2 \geq 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 5. \ a^2 ||\vec{x}||^2 + 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + b^2 ||\vec{y}||^2 \geq 0 \text{ and } a^2 ||\vec{x}||^2 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + b^2 ||\vec{y}||^2 \geq 0 \\ \langle 1 \rangle 6. \ 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + 2 \geq 0 \text{ and } -2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + 2 \geq 0 \end{array}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \ge -1/ab$ and $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \le 1/ab$
- $\begin{array}{ll} \vec{x} = \vec{x} / ab \text{ and } \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \leq 1/ab \\ \langle 1 \rangle 8. \ \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \geq \|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| \text{ and } \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \leq \|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| \\ \square \end{array}$

Lemma 166 (Triangle Inequality).

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

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 &= \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &= (\|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$
 (Lemma 165)

Definition 167 (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.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) > 0$

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:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| &= \|(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{z})\| \\ &\leq \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\| \end{split} \tag{Lemma 166}$$

Proposition 168. The Euclidean metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: ρ be the square metric.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq B_o(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$ $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\sqrt{(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2} < \epsilon$ $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2 < \epsilon^2$ $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all i we have $(x_i a_i)^2 < \epsilon^2$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For all i we have $|x_i a_i| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon / \sqrt{n}) \subseteq B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon/\sqrt{n})$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all i we have $|x_i x_a| < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$ $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all i we have $(x_i x_a)^2 < \epsilon^2 / n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

Proof: By Lemma 154.

Proposition 169. The space \mathbb{R}^{ω} is metrizable.

Proof:

- (1)1. Let: D be the metric on \mathbb{R}^{ω} defined by $D(x,y) = \sup_{i} (\overline{d}(x_{i},y_{i})/i)$ where \overline{d} is the standard bounded metric.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. $D(x,y) \geq 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. D(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. D(x,y) = D(y,x)
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $D(x,z) \leq D(x,y) + D(y,z)$

$$\begin{split} D(x,z) &= \sup_{i} \frac{\overline{d}(x_{i},z_{i})}{i} \\ &\leq \sup_{i} \frac{\overline{d}(x_{i},y_{i}) + \overline{d}(y_{i},z_{i})}{i} \\ &\leq \sup_{i} \frac{\overline{d}(x_{i},y_{i})}{i} + \sup_{i} \frac{\overline{d}(y_{i},z_{i})}{i} \\ &= D(x,y) + D(y,z) \end{split}$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 $U_i = (a_i i\epsilon, a_i + i\epsilon)$ if $i \leq N$, and $U_i = \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For any open set U and $a \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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 $(a \epsilon, a + \epsilon) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $B(a, \epsilon/n) \subseteq \pi_n^{-1}(V)$ П

The Uniform Topology 25

Definition 170 (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 171. 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 172. 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:
$$\delta_j = (\epsilon - |a_j - b_j|)/2$$

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 173. 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 174 (DC). The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is strictly coarser than the box topology if and only if J is infinite.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If J is finite then the uniform and box topologies coincide.

PROOF: The uniform, box and product topologies are all the same.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If J is infinite then the uniform and box topologies are different. PROOF: Pick an ω -sequence $(j_1, j_2, ...)$ in J. Let $U = \prod_{j \in J} U_j$ where $U_{j_i} =$ (-1/i, 1/i) and $U_j = (-1, 1)$ for all other j. Then $\vec{0} \in U$ but there is no $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(\vec{0}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.