Topology

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Part I Set Theory

Chapter 1

Set Theory

1.1 Membership

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

Axiom 1.1 (Axiom of Extensionality). Two sets with exactly the same elements are equal.

1.2 Subsets

Definition 1.2 (Subset). Let A and B be sets. We say A is a *subset* of B, $A \subseteq B$, if and only if every member of A is a member of B.

1.3 Abstraction Notation

Definition Schema 1.3 (Extensionality). Let P(x) be a property. If there is a set whose members are exactly the sets x such that P(x), then we denote this set by $\{x \mid P(x)\}$.

It is unique by the Axiom of Extensionality.

1.4 The Empty Set

Axiom 1.4 (Empty Set Axiom). There exists a set with no members.

Definition 1.5 (Empty Set (Extensionality, Empty Set Axiom)). The *empty* $set \emptyset$ is the set with no members $\{x \mid \bot\}$.

1.5 Pair Sets

Axiom 1.6 (Pairing Axiom). For any sets u and v, there exists a set having as members just u and v.

Definition 1.7 (Pair Set (Extensionality, Pairing Axiom)). For any sets u and v, the pair set $\{u,v\}$ is the set $\{x\mid x=u\vee x=v\}$.

1.6 Unions

Axiom 1.8 (Union Axiom). For any set A, there exists a set whose elements are exactly the members of the members of A.

Definition 1.9 (Union (Extensionality, Union)). For any set A, the union $\bigcup A$ is the set $\{x \mid \exists b \in A. x \in b\}$.

Definition 1.10 (Union (Extensionality, Pair Set, Union)). For any sets a and b, the union $a \cup b$ is the set $\bigcup \{a, b\}$.

1.7 Power Set

Axiom 1.11 (Power Set Axiom). For any set a, there is a set whose members are exactly the subsets of a.

Definition 1.12 (Power Set (Extensionality, Power Set)). For any set a, the power set $\mathcal{P}a$ is the set $\{x \mid x \subseteq a\}$.

1.8 Singletons

Definition 1.13 (Singleton (Extensionality, Pair Set)). Given any x, define the singleton $\{x\}$ to be $\{x, x\}$.

1.9 Finite Sets

Definition Schema 1.14 (Extensionality, Pair Set, Union). Given any objects a_1, \ldots, a_n , define the set $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ as follows:

$$\{a_1,\ldots,a_n,a_{n+1}\}=\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}\cup\{a_{n+1}\}$$
.

1.10 Subset Axioms

Axiom Schema 1.15 (Subset Axioms, Aussonderung Axioms). For any property P(x) and any set B, there exists a set whose members are exactly the sets $x \in B$ such that P(x).

Definition Schema 1.16 (Extensionality, Subset). For any property P(x) and any set B, we write $\{x \in B \mid P(x)\}$ for $\{x \mid x \in B \land P(x)\}$.

Theorem 1.17 (Subset). There is no set to which every set belongs.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: A be a set.
 - PROVE: There exists a set that does not belong to A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Pick a set B whose members are exactly the sets $x \in A$ such that $x \notin x$. Proof: By a Subset Axiom.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If $B \in A$ then we have $B \in B \Leftrightarrow B \notin B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ B \notin A$

1.11 Intersection

Definition 1.18 (Intersection (Extensionality, Subset)). For any sets a and b, the *intersection* $a \cap b$ is $\{x \in a \mid x \in b\}$.

Theorem 1.19 (Extensionality, Subset). For any nonempty set A, there exists a unique set B such that, for any x, we have $x \in B$ if and only if x belongs to every member of A.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: A be a nonempty set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $B = \{ x \in a \mid \forall y \in A . x \in y \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. B is the unique set such that, for any x, we have $x \in B$ if and only if x belongs to every member of A.

Definition 1.20 (Intersection (Extensionality, Subset)). For any nonempty set A, the *intersection* $\bigcap A$ is the set whose elements are those sets that belong to every member of A.

1.12 Relative Complement

Definition 1.21 (Relative Complement (Extensionality, Subset)). For any sets A and B, the relative complement A-B is $\{x \in A \mid x \notin B\}$.

1.13 Covers

Definition 1.22 (Cover). Let X be a set and $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$. Then A covers X, or is a covering of X, if and only if $\bigcup A = X$.

Chapter 2

Relations

2.1 Ordered Pairs

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: u = y

Proof:

Definition 2.1 (Ordered Pair (Extensionality, Pairing)). For any sets x and y, the ordered pair (x, y) is defined to be $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}.$

Theorem 2.2 (Extensionality, Pairing). For any sets u, v, x, y, we have (u, v) = (x, y) if and only if u = x and v = y

```
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \{u\} \in \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}\
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \{u, v\} \in \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}\
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \{u\} = \{x\} \text{ or } \{u\} = \{x, y\}
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \{u, v\} = \{x\} or \{u, v\} = \{x, y\}
\langle 1 \rangle 6. Case: \{u\} = \{x, y\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ u = x = y
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. u = v = x = y
       PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 5
\langle 1 \rangle 7. Case: \{u, v\} = \{x\}
   PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. CASE: \{u\} = \{x\} and \{u, v\} = \{x, y\}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ u = x
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. u = y or v = y
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: $\{\{u\}, \{u, v\}\} = \{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}$

PROOF: This case is the case considered in $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Case: v = y

PROOF: We have u = x and v = y as required.

2.2The Finite Intersection Property

Definition 2.3 (Finite Intersection Property). Let X be a set and $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$. Then \mathcal{A} satisfies the *finite intersection property* if and only if every nonempty finite subset of A has nonempty intersection.

Lemma 2.4. Let X be a set. Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ have the finite intersection property. Then there exists a maximal set \mathcal{D} such that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ and \mathcal{D} has the finite intersection property.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \mathbb{F} = \{ \mathcal{D} \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X, \mathcal{D} \text{ has the finite intersection property} \}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Every chain in \mathbb{F} has an upper bound.
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \mathbb{C} be a chain in \mathbb{F}.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: without loss of generality \mathbb{C} \neq \emptyset
               Prove: \bigcup \mathbb{C} \in \mathbb{F}
        PROOF: If \mathbb{C} = \emptyset then \mathcal{A} is an upper bound.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \mathcal{A} \subseteq \bigcup \mathbb{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: C_1, \ldots, C_n \in \mathbb{C}
               Prove: C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \neq \emptyset
    \langle 2 \rangle5. PICK C_1, \ldots, C_n \in \mathbb{C} such that C_i \in C_i for all i.
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. Assume: without loss of generality \mathcal{C}_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathcal{C}_n
    \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ C_1, \ldots, C_n \in \mathcal{C}_n
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. C_n satisfies the finite intersection property.
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \neq \emptyset
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
    PROOF: By Zorn's Lemma.
```

Lemma 2.5. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Then any finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{D} is an element of \mathcal{D} .

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: D_1, D_2 \in \mathcal{D}
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \mathcal{D} \cup \{D_1 \cap D_2\} has the finite intersection property.
   PROOF: Any finite intersection of members of \mathcal{D} \cup \{D_1 \cap D_2\} is a finite inter-
   section of members of \mathcal{D}.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{D_1 \cap D_2\}
   PROOF: By maximality of \mathcal{D}.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. D_1 \cap D_2 \in \mathcal{D}.
```

Lemma 2.6. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Let $A \subseteq X$. If A intersects every member of \mathcal{D} then $A \in \mathcal{D}$.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \mathcal{D} \cup \{A\} has the finite intersection property. \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ D_1, \dots, D_n \in \mathcal{D} Prove: D_1 \cap \dots \cap D_n \cap A \neq \emptyset \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ D_1 \cap \dots \cap D_n \in \mathcal{D} Proof: Lemma 2.5. \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D_1 \cap \dots \cap D_n \cap A \neq \emptyset Proof: Since A intersects every member of \mathcal{D}. \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ Q.E.D. Proof: By maximality of \mathcal{D}.
```

Proposition 2.7. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Let $A, D \in \mathcal{P}X$. If $D \in \mathcal{D}$ and $D \subseteq A$ then $A \in \mathcal{D}$.

PROOF

Definition 2.8 (Graph). Let $f: A \to B$. The graph of f is the set $\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in A\} \subseteq A \times B$.

2.3 Countable Intersection Property

Definition 2.9 (Countable Intersection Property). Let X be a set and $A \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$. Then A satisfies the *countable intersection property* if and only if every countable subset of A has nonempty intersection.

Lemma 2.10. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the countable intersection property. Then any countable intersection of elements of \mathcal{D} is an element of \mathcal{D} .

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{D}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ be countable.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\mathcal{D} \cup \{ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \}$ has the countable intersection property.

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

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

Lemma 2.11. Let X be a set. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the countable intersection property. Let $A \subseteq X$. If A intersects every member of \mathcal{D} then $A \in \mathcal{D}$.

```
Proof:
```

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \mathcal{D} \cup \{A\} has the countable intersection property. \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \text{Let:} \ \mathcal{D}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{D} \ \text{be countable.}
 PROVE: \ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \cap A \neq \emptyset
 \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \in \mathcal{D} 
 PROOF: \ \text{Lemma } 2.10.
 \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ \bigcap \mathcal{D}_0 \cap A \neq \emptyset 
 PROOF: \ \text{Since } A \ \text{intersects every member of } \mathcal{D}.
 \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \text{Q.E.D.} 
 PROOF: \ \text{By maximality of } \mathcal{D}.
```

2.4 The Axiom of Choice

Axiom 2.12 (Axiom of Choice). Let A be a set of disjoint nonempty sets. Then there exists a set C consisting of exactly one element from each member of A.

2.5 Choice Functions

Definition 2.13 (Choice Function). Let \mathcal{B} be a set of nonempty sets. A *choice* function for \mathcal{B} is a function $c: \mathcal{B} \to \bigcup \mathcal{B}$ such that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $c(B) \in \mathcal{B}$.

Lemma 2.14 (Existence of a Choice Function (AC)). Every set of nonempty sets has a choice function.

Proof:

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

2.6 Order Theory

Definition 2.15 (Preorder). Let X be a set. A *preorder* on X is a binary relation \leq on X such that:

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

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

Definition 2.16 (Preordered Set). A preordered set consists of a set X and a preorder \leq on X.

Proposition 2.17. Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets. Let $f: X \to Y$ be strictly monotone and surjective. Then f is a poset isomorphism.

Proof:

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

Definition 2.18 (Interval). Let X be a preordered set and $Y \subseteq X$. Then Y is an *interval* if and only if, for all $a, b \in Y$ and $c \in X$, if $a \le c \le b$ then $c \in Y$.

Definition 2.19 (Linear Continuum). A linearly ordered set L is a *linear continuum* if and only if:

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

Proposition 2.20. Every interval in a linear continuum is a linear continuum.

Proof:

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

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

Definition 2.21 (Ordered Square). The ordered square I_o^2 is the set $[0,1]^2$ under the dictionary order.

Proposition 2.22. The ordered square is a linear continuum.

```
Proof:
```

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

Proposition 2.23. If X is a well-ordered set then $X \times [0,1)$ under the dictionary order is a linear continuum.

Proof:

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

```
⟨2⟩1. Let: A \subseteq X \times [0,1) be nonempty and bounded above ⟨2⟩2. Let: x_0 be the supremum of \pi_1(A) ⟨2⟩3. Case: x_0 \in \pi_1(A) ⟨3⟩1. Let: y_0 be the supremum of \{y \in [0,1) \mid (x_0,y) \in A\} ⟨3⟩2. (x_0,y_0) is the supremum of A. ⟨2⟩4. Case: x_0 \notin \pi_1(A) Proof: In this case (x_0,0) is the supremum of A. ⟨1⟩2. X \times [0,1) is dense. ⟨2⟩1. Let: (x_1,y_1), (x_2,y_2) \in X \times [0,1) with (x_1,y_1) < (x_2,y_2) ⟨2⟩2. Case: x_1 < x_2 ⟨3⟩1. Pick y_3 such that y_1 < y_3 < 1 ⟨3⟩2. (x_1,y_1) < (x_1,y_3) < (x_2,y_2) ⟨2⟩3. Case: x_1 = x_2 and y_1 < y_2
```

 $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. PICK y_3 such that $y_1 < y_3 < y_2$ $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. $(x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)$

Lemma 2.24. For all $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b and c < d, we have $[a, b) \cong [c, d)$

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

Proposition 2.25. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let a < b < c in X. Then $[a, c) \cong [0, 1)$ if and only if $[a, b) \cong [b, c) \cong [0, 1)$.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If [a, c) \cong [0, 1) then [a, b) \cong [b, c) \cong [0, 1)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: f:[a,c) \cong [0,1) is an order isomorphism
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. [a,b) \cong [0,1)
      Proof:
                     [a,b) \cong [0,f(b))
                                                          (by the restriction of f)
                                                                       (Lemma 2.24)
                             \cong [0,1)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ [b,c) \cong [0,1)
      PROOF: Similar.
(1)2. If [a,b) \cong [b,c) \cong [0,1) then [a,c) \cong [0,1)
   Proof:
                    [a,c) = [a,b) * [b,c)
                           \cong [0,1) * [0,1)
                           \cong [0,1/2) * [1/2,1)
                                                                     (Lemma 2.24)
                           = 1
```

Proposition 2.26 (CC). Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let $x_0 < x_1 < \cdots$ be a strictly increasing sequence in X with supremum b. Then $[x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)$ if and only if $[x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1)$ for all i.

PROOF:

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

```
PROOF: By Lemma 2.24 \langle 1 \rangle2. If [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1) for all i then [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1) \langle 2 \rangle1. Assume: [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [0, 1) for all i \langle 2 \rangle2. PICK an order isomorphism f_i : [x_i, x_{i+1}) \cong [1/2^i, 2/2^{i+1}) for each i. Proof: By Lemma 2.24 \langle 2 \rangle3. The union of the f_is is an order isomorphism [x_0, b) \cong [0, 1)
```

2.7 Partially Ordered Sets

Definition 2.27 (Partial Order). A partial order on a set X is a preorder \leq that is anti-symmetric, i.e. whenever $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$ then x = y.

Definition 2.28 (Linear Order). A *linear order* on a set X is a partial order such that, for any $x, y \in X$, either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.

Definition 2.29 (Well-ordering). A *well-order* on a set X is a linear order such that every nonempty set has a least element.

Definition 2.30 (Section). Given a well-ordered set X and $\alpha \in X$, the section of X by α is $S_{\alpha} = \{x \in X \mid x < \alpha\}$.

Theorem 2.31 (Transfinite Induction). Let J be a well-ordered set and $J_0 \subseteq J$. Suppose that, for all $\alpha \in J$, if $S_{\alpha} \subseteq J_0$ then $\alpha \in J_0$. Then $J_0 = J$.

Proof:

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

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

THOOF. THIS COINT

Theorem 2.32 (Transfinite Recursion). Let J be a well-ordered set and C a set. Let \mathcal{F} be the set of all functions from a section of J to C. Let $\rho: \mathcal{F} \to C$. Then there exists a unique function $h: J \to C$ such that, for all $\alpha \in J$, we have $h(\alpha) = \rho(h \upharpoonright S_{\alpha})$.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof: From $\langle 2 \rangle 4$

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

PROOF: By transfinite induction.

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 4$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 1$

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

PROOF: By transfinite induction.

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

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

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

PROOF: By transfinite induction.

 ${\bf Theorem~2.33~(Well-Ordering~Theorem~(AC)).~\it Every~set~has~a~well-ordering.}$

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a set.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a choice function for $\mathcal{P}X \setminus \{\emptyset\}$

PROOF: Lemma 2.14.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: a tower in X be a pair (T,<) where $T \subseteq X$, < is a well-ordering of T, and $x = c(X \setminus \{y \in T \mid y < x\})$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For any two towers $(T_1, <_1)$ and $(T_2, <_2)$, either these two posets are equal or one is a section of the other.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. For any tower (T, <) in X with $T \neq X$, there exists a tower in X of which (T, <) is a section.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. Let: $T = \bigcup \{ T' \subseteq X \mid \exists R. (T, R) \text{ is a tower in } X \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 7. Define < on T by: x < y iff there exists a tower (T, R) in X such that $x, y \in T$ and xRy.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. (T, <) is a tower in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ T = X$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 10.$ < is a well-ordering of X.

Theorem 2.34 (Maximum Principle (AC)). Every poset has a maximal chain.

Lemma 2.35 (Zorn's Lemma (AC)). Let A be a poset. If every chain in A has an upper bound in A, then A has a maximal element.

2.8 Real Analysis

Definition 2.36. 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.

2.9 Group Theory

Definition 2.37. Given a group G and sets $A,B\subseteq G$, let $AB=\{ab\mid a\in A,b\in B\}.$

Definition 2.38. Given a group G and a set $A \subseteq G$, let $A^{-1} = \{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\}$.

2.10 Topological Spaces

Definition 2.39 (Topology). A topology on a set X is a set $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ such that:

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

We call the elements of X points and the elements of T open sets.

Definition 2.40 (Topological Space). A topological space X consists of a set X and a topology on X.

Definition 2.41 (Discrete Space). For any set X, the *discrete* topology on X is $\mathcal{P}X$.

Definition 2.42 (Indiscrete Space). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Definition 2.43 (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 2.44 (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 2.45 (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 2.46. Let X be a topological space and $U \subseteq X$. Then U is open if and only if, for all $x \in U$, there exists an open set V such that $x \in V \subseteq U$.

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

Lemma 2.47. 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}
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PROOF: Since X is in every member of \mathcal{T} .

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

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

Lemma 2.48. Let X be a set and \mathcal{T} a set of topologies on X. Then there exists a unique coarsest topology that is finer than every member of \mathcal{T} .

PROOF: The required topology is given by

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

The set is nonempty since it contains the discrete topology.

Definition 2.49 (Neighbourhood). A *neighbourhood* of a point x is an open set that contains x.

2.11 Closed Set

Definition 2.50 (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 2.51. The empty set is closed.

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

Lemma 2.52. The topological space X is closed.

PROOF: Since \emptyset is open. \square

Lemma 2.53. 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 2.54. The union of two closed sets is closed.

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

Proposition 2.55. 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 2.56. 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 2.57. 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

2.12 Interior

Definition 2.58 (Interior). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. The *interior* of A, Int A, is the union of all the open subsets of A.

Lemma 2.59. The interior of a set is open.

PROOF: It is a union of open sets. \square Lemma 2.60. $\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. \Box **Lemma 2.61.** If U is open and $U \subseteq A$ then $U \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 2.62.** A set A is open if and only if A = Int A. PROOF: If A = Int A then A is open by Lemma 2.59. Conversely if A is open then $A \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ by the definition of interior and so $A = \operatorname{Int} A$. 2.13 Closure **Definition 2.63** (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 2.52). Lemma 2.64. The closure of a set is closed. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 2.59. Lemma 2.65. $A \subseteq \overline{A}$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 2.66.** If C is closed and $A \subseteq C$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq C$. PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 2.67.** A set A is closed if and only if $A = \overline{A}$. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 2.62. **Theorem 2.68.** 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 $x \in \overline{A}$

Proposition 2.69. If $A \subseteq B$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$.

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

Proposition 2.70.

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

Proof:

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

Proof: By Proposition 2.69.

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

Proof: By Proposition 2.69.

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ U \cap V \text{ intersects } A \cup B$

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and Theorem 2.68.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $U \cap V$ 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 2.68.

Proposition 2.71. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{D} be a set of subsets of X that is maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Let $x \in X$. Then the following are equivalent:

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Lemma 2.5.

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

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

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.68, $\langle 2 \rangle 2$, $\langle 3 \rangle 3$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.68, $\langle 2 \rangle 3$.

2.14 Boundary

Definition 2.72 (Boundary). The *boundary* of a set A is the set $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$.

Proposition 2.73.

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

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

Proposition 2.74.

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

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.75. $\partial A = \emptyset$ if and only if A is open and closed.

PROOF: If $\partial A = \emptyset$ then $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A$ by Proposition 2.74.

Proposition 2.76. A set U is open if and only if $\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$.

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{l} \partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \overline{U} \setminus \operatorname{Int} U = \overline{U} \setminus U \\ \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Int} U = U \end{array} \qquad \text{(Propositions 2.73, 2.74)}$$

2.15 Limit Points

Definition 2.77 (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 2.78. The point a is an accumulation point for A if and only if $a \in \overline{A \setminus \{a\}}$.

PROOF: From Theorem 2.68. \square

Theorem 2.79. 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 2.68.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.65.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 2.68.

Corollary 2.79.1. A set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

Proposition 2.80. In an indiscrete topology, every point is a limit point of any set that has more than one point.

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

Lemma 2.81. Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$. Then every limit point of A is a limit point of B.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

2.16 Basis for a Topology

Definition 2.82 (Basis). If X is a set, a *basis* for a topology on X is a set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ called *basis elements* such that

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

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

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

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

PROOF: For all $x \in X$ there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq X$ by condition 1.

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

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

⟨2⟩2. Let: x \in \bigcup \mathcal{U}

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

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

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

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

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

⟨2⟩1. Let: U, V \in \mathcal{T}

⟨2⟩2. Let: x \in U \cap V

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

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

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

Proof: By condition 2.

⟨2⟩6. x \in B_3 \subseteq U \cap V
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Lemma 2.83. 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:

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. For all U \in \mathcal{T}, there exists \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B} such that U = \bigcup \mathcal{A}
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: U \in \mathcal{T}
     \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: \mathcal{A} = \{ B \in \mathcal{B} \mid B \subseteq U \}
     \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ U \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{A}
          \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in U
          \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick B \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B \subseteq U
              PROOF: Since \mathcal{B} is a basis for \mathcal{T}.
          \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x \in B \in \mathcal{A}
     \langle 2 \rangle 4. \bigcup \mathcal{A} \subseteq U
         PROOF: From the definition of \mathcal{A} (\langle 2 \rangle 2).
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B} we have \bigcup \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{T}
     \langle 2 \rangle 1. \ \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}
         PROOF: If B \in \mathcal{B} and x \in B, then there exists B' \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B' \subseteq B,
         namely B' = B.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
         Proof: Since \mathcal{T} is closed under union.
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Corollary 2.83.1. 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 2.84. Let X be a topological space. Suppose that C is a set of open sets such that, for every open set U and every point $x \in U$, there exists $C \in C$ such that $x \in C \subseteq U$. Then C is a basis for the topology on X.

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Proof:
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 2.85. 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 2.83.1.

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

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Theorem 2.86. 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 2.68 since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 2.83.1).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A. Then $x \in \overline{A}$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 2. Let: *U* be an open set that contains *x* Prove: *U* intersects *A*.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. B intersects A.

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. *U* intersects *A*.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Theorem 2.68.

Definition 2.87 (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 2.88 (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 2.89. 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 2.90 (Subbasis). A *subbasis* S for a topology on X is a set $S \subseteq PX$ such that $\bigcup S = X$.

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

We prove this is a topology.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The set \mathcal{B} of all finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S} forms a basis for a topology on X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \bigcup \mathcal{B} = X$

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

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

PROOF: By definition.

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

PROOF: By Lemma 2.83.

We have simultaneously proved:

Proposition 2.91. 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 2.92. 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

2.17 Local Basis at a Point

Definition 2.93 (Local Basis). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. A (local) basis at a is a set \mathcal{B} of neighbourhoods of a such that every neighbourhood of a includes some member of \mathcal{B} .

Lemma 2.94. If there exists a countable local basis at a point a, then there exists a countable local basis $\{B_n \mid n \geq 1\}$ such that $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$.

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

2.18 Convergence

Definition 2.95 (Convergence). Let X be a topological space. Let $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in X and $l\in X$. Then the sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to the limit l, $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$, if and only if, for every neighbourhood U of l, there exists N such that, for all $n\geq N$, we have $a_n\in U$.

Lemma 2.96. Let X be a topological space. Let $A \subseteq X$ and $l \in X$. If there is a sequence of points in A that converges to l then $l \in \overline{A}$.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.68.

Proposition 2.97. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Let (a_n) be a sequence in X and $l \in X$. Then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $l \in B$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$, we have $a_n \in B$.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 2.83.1).

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

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Lemma 2.98. If a sequence (a_n) is constant with $a_n = l$ for all n, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$.

Proof: Immediate from definitions. \Box

Theorem 2.99. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Let (s_n) be a monotone increasing sequence in X with a supremum s. Then $s_n \to s$ as $n \to \infty$.

PROOF:

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

PROOF: Otherwise (s_n) is the constant sequence s and the result follows from Lemma 2.98.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of s.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Picka < s such that $(a, s] \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK N such that $a < a_N$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in (a, s]$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in U$.

Theorem 2.100. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i = s$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i = t$ then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (ca_i + b_i) = cs + t$.

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

Theorem 2.101 (Comparison Test). If $|a_i| \leq b_i$ for all i and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i$ converges then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

Corollary 2.101.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Theorem 2.102 (Weierstrass M-test). Let X be a set and $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of functions. Let

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

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

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

Proof:

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

Proof:

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

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

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

$$\leq r_n$$

$$|s(x) - s_n(x)| \leq r_n$$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Given $n \geq 0$ we have $|s(x) - s_n(x)| \leq r_n$ PROOF: By taking the limit $k \to \infty$ in $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

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

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

2.19 Locally Finite Sets

Definition 2.103 (Locally Finite). Let X be a topological space and $\{A_{\alpha}\}$ a family of subsets of X. Then \mathcal{A} is *locally finite* if and only if every point in X has a neighbourhood that intersects A_{α} for only finitely many α .

Theorem 2.104 (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 2.114 and 2.165.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.54.

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

Proof: Theorem 2.114.

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

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$ Prove: f is continuous at x $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick a neighbourhood U of x that intersects A_{α} for only finitely many α . $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $f \upharpoonright U$ is continuous Proof: By $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.
- PROOF: Lemma 2.124.

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

Example 2.105. 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].

2.20 Open Maps

Definition 2.106 (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 2.107. 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 2.83. \square

Proposition 2.108. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose that, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we have f(B) is open to Y. Then f is an open map.

PROOF: For any $A \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, we have $f(\bigcup A) = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} f(B)$ is open in Y. The result follows from Lemma 2.83. \square

2.21 Continuous Functions

Definition 2.109 (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 2.110. 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 2.83).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 2.83.

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

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.111. 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 $S \in \mathcal{S}$, 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.
- (1)2. Suppose that, for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $S_1, \ldots, S_n \in \mathcal{S}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3.$ $f^{-1}(S_1 \cap \cdots \cap S_n)$ is open in A

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

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

PROOF: By Propositions 2.110 and 2.91.

Proposition 2.112. 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 $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. PROOF: Since every element of S is open.
- (1)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 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 2.91 and 2.110.

Definition 2.113 (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 2.114. 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 2.68.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 2.68.

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

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

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

Proof:

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

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

$$\subseteq \overline{B} \qquad (Proposition 2.69)$$

$$= B$$

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

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

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: 4
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be open in Y
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $x \in f^{-1}(V)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. V is a neighbourhood of f(x)
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. Q.E.D.

Proof: By Lemma 2.46.

Theorem 2.115. 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 2.116. 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 2.117. The composite of two continuous functions is continuous.

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

Theorem 2.118. 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 2.119. Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Let Z be a subspace of Y such that $f(X) \subseteq Z$. Then the corestriction $f: X \to Z$ is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: V be open in Z.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK U open in Y such that $V = U \cap Z$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Theorem 2.120. 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 2.121. 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 2.164.

Proposition 2.122. Let X and X' be the same set X under two topologies \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' . Let $i: X \to X'$ be the identity function. Then i is continuous if and only if $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}$.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 2.123. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous on the right at a if and only if f is continuous at a as a function $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

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

Lemma 2.124. 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 2.164.

Proposition 2.125. Let $f: A \to B$ and $g: C \to D$ be continuous. Define $f \times g: A \times C \to B \times D$ by

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

Then $f \times q$ is continuous.

PROOF: $\pi_1 \circ (f \times g) = f \circ \pi_1$ and $\pi_2 \circ (f \times g) = g \circ \pi_2$ are continuous by Theorem 2.117. The result follows by Theorem 2.153.

Proposition 2.126. 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 $f(n) \in V$

2.22 Homeomorphisms

Definition 2.127 (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 2.128. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ a bijection. Then the following are equivalent:

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 2.129. 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 2.130 (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 2.131 (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 2.132. 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 $i(V) = (X \times V) \cap i(Y)$.

2.23 The Order Topology

Definition 2.133 (Order Topology). Let X be a linearly ordered set with at least two points. The *order topology* on X is the topology generated by the basis \mathcal{B} consisting of:

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

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

PROOF

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

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = [\bot, d)$

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

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Proof:
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\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. \text{ } 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.} \\ \text{ Proof: Similar.} \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ Every basic open set is a finite intersection of open rays.} \\ \text{Proof: We have } (a,b) = (a,+\infty) \cap (-\infty,b), \ [\bot,b) = (-\infty,b) \text{ and } (a,\top] = (a,+\infty). \\ \Box \end{array}
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Definition 2.135 (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 2.136. The lower limit topology is strictly finer than the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Proof:

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\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 2.137. 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 2.83.1.

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

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

Lemma 2.138. Let X be a topological space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set in the order topology. Let $f, g: X \to Y$ be continuous. Then $C = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \le g(x)\}$ is closed.

Proof:

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

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Case: There exists y such that g(x) < y < f(x)

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

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

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

Proposition 2.139. 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 2.138.

Proposition 2.140. Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets in the order topology. Let $f: X \to Y$ be strictly monotone and surjective. Then f is a homeomorphism.

Proof:

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

Proof: Proposition 2.17.

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

Proof: Since f is surjective.

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

PROOF: By strict monotoncity.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $y \in Y$ we have $f^{-1}((-\infty, y))$ is open.

PROOF: Similar.

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

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

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

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

2.24 The nth Root Function

Proposition 2.141. For all $n \geq 1$, the function $f : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ defined by $f(x) = x^n$ is a homemorphism.

Proof:

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

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

> 0

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

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

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

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

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

Proof: Proposition 2.140.

Definition 2.142. For $n \geq 1$, the *nth root function* is the function $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ that is the inverse of $\lambda x.x^n$.

2.25 The Product Topology

Definition 2.143 (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 2.144. 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 2.91. \square

Proposition 2.145. 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 2.146. 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 2.84.

Proposition 2.147. 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 2.107. \square

Example 2.148. The projections are not always closed maps. For example, $\pi_1: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ maps the closed set $\{(x, 1/x) \mid x > 0\}$ to $(0, +\infty)$.

Proposition 2.149. 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 2.83.1.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 2.147.

Proposition 2.150 (AC). Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let $A_i \subseteq X_i \text{ for all } i \in I. \text{ Then }$

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

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i} \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all i \in I we have A_i \subseteq \overline{A_i}
        Proof: Lemma 2.65.
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
        PROOF: Since \prod_{i \in I} A_i is closed by Proposition 2.145.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} A_i
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick V_i open in X_i such that x \in \prod_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq U with V_i = X_i except for
              i = i_1, \ldots, i_n
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. For i \in I, pick a_i \in V_i \cap A_i
        PROOF: By Theorem 2.68 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 2.151. 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 2.68.

Proposition 2.152. 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 2.126.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of l
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK open sets U_i in X_i such that $l \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq V$ and $U_i = X_i$ for all i except $i = i_1, \ldots, i_k$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For $j = 1, \ldots, k$, PICK N_j such that, for all $n \geq N_j$, we have $\pi_{i_j}(a_n) \in U_j$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $N = \max(N_1, ..., N_k)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in V$

Theorem 2.153. 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 2.111.

2.25.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately

Definition 2.154 (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 2.155. 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 2.132, hence $F \circ i$ is continuous by Theorem 2.117.

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

Example 2.156. Define $F: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by

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

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

Proposition 2.157. Let $f: A \to C$ and $g: B \to D$ be open maps. Then $f \times g: A \times B \to C \times D$ is an open map.

PROOF: Given U open in A and V open in B. Then $(f \times g)(U \times V) = f(U) \times g(V)$ is open in $C \times D$. The result follows from Proposition 2.108. \square

Definition 2.158 (Sorgenfrey Plane). The Sorgenfrey plane is \mathbb{R}^2_l .

2.26 The Subspace Topology

Definition 2.159 (Subspace Topology). Let X be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. The *subspace topology* on Y is $\mathcal{T} = \{U \cap Y \mid U \text{ is open in } X\}$.

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Since $Y = X \cap Y$

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

Theorem 2.160. Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$. Then A is closed in Y if and only if there exists a closed set C in X such that $A = C \cap Y$.

PROOF: We have

A is closed in Y

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

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

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

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

Theorem 2.161. 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 $\overline{A} \cap Y$.

П

PROOF: The closure of A in Y is

 $=\overline{A}\cap Y$

$$\bigcap \{C \text{ closed in } Y \mid A \subseteq C\}$$

 $=\bigcap \{D\cap Y\mid D \text{ closed in } X,A\subseteq D\cap Y\}$ (Theorem 2.160)

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

Lemma 2.162. 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

Proof:

topology on Y.

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

$$\langle 2 \rangle$$
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 2.84.

Lemma 2.163. 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 2.162, and this is the set of all finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S}' . \square

Lemma 2.164. 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 2.165. 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 2.160). Then A is the intersection of two sets closed in X, hence A is closed in X (Lemma 2.53). \square

Theorem 2.166. 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 2.163. \square

Theorem 2.167. Let X be an ordered set in the order topology. Let $Y \subseteq X$ be an interval. Then the order topology on Y is the same as the subspace topology on Y.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The order topology is finer than the subspace topology.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For every open ray R in X, the set $R \cap Y$ is open in the order topology.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. For all $a \in X$, we have $(-\infty, a) \cap Y$ is open in the order topology.
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Case: For all $y \in Y$ we have y < a

PROOF: In this case $(-\infty, a) \cap Y = Y$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. CASE: For all $y \in Y$ we have a < y PROOF: In this case $(-\infty, a) \cap Y = \emptyset$.

 $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Case: There exists $y \in Y$ such that $y \leq a$ and $y \in Y$ such that

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

PROOF: Because Y is an interval.

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

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

PROOF: By Lemmas 2.134 and 2.163 and Proposition 2.92.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 2.134 and Proposition 2.92

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

Example 2.168. 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 2.169. Let X be a topological space, Y a subspace of X, and Z a subspace of Y. Then the subspace topology on Z inherited from X is the same as the subspace topology on Z inherited from Y.

PROOF: The subspace topology inherited from Y is

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

which is the subspace topology inherited from X. \square

Definition 2.170 (Unit Circle). The unit circle S^1 is $\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Definition 2.171 (Unit 2-sphere). The unit 2-sphere is $S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 1\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Proposition 2.172. Let $f: X \to Y$ be an open map and $A \subseteq X$ be open. Then the restriction $f \upharpoonright A: A \to f(A)$ is an open map.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U be open in A \langle 1 \rangle 2. U is open in X Proof: Lemma 2.164. \langle 1 \rangle 3. f(U) is open in Y
```

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

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

Example 2.173. This example shows that we cannot remove the hypothesis that A is open.

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

Proposition 2.174. Let Y be a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$ and $l \in Y$. Then l is a limit point of A in Y if and only if l is a limit point of A in X.

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

2.27 The Box Topology

Definition 2.175 (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 2.176. The box topology is finer than the product topology.

Proof: From Proposition 2.144. \square

Corollary 2.176.1. 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 2.145.

Proposition 2.177 (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 $a \in \prod_{i \in I} \bar{A}_i$ 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 2.84.

Theorem 2.178. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let A_i be a subspace of X_i for all $i \in I$. Give $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ the box topology. Then the box topology on $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is the same as the topology it inherits as a subspace of $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$.

PROOF: The box topology is generated by the basis

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

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

$$=\{\prod_{i\in I}V_i\mid \forall i\in I, V_i \text{ open in }X_i\}\cap \prod_{i\in I}A_i$$
 and this is a basis for the subspace topology by Lemma 2.162. \square

Proposition 2.179 (AC). Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Give $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ the box topology. Let $A_i \subseteq X_i$ for all $i \in I$. Then

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Lemma 2.65.

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

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Corollary 2.176.1.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 2.68 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 2.153 fails in the box topology.

Example 2.180. 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 2.152 fails in the box topology.

Example 2.181. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the box topology. Let $a_n = (1/n, 1/n, \ldots)$ for $n \geq 1$ and $l = (0, 0, \ldots)$. Then $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$ for all i, but $a_n \not\to l$ as $n \to \infty$ since the open set

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

contains l but does not contain any a_n .

Example 2.182. 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}^{∞} .

2.28 T_1 Spaces

Definition 2.183 (T_1 Space). A topological space is T_1 if and only if every singleton is closed.

Lemma 2.184. A space is T_1 if and only if every finite set is closed.

PROOF: From Lemma 2.54. \square

Theorem 2.185. In a T_1 space, a point a is a limit point of a set A if and only if every neighbourhood of a contains infinitely many points of A.

Proof:

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

PROOF: By the T_1 axiom.

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

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

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

```
PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1. \langle 2 \rangle 7. Q.E.D.
```

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

(To see this does not hold in every space, see Proposition 2.80.)

Proposition 2.186. A space is T_1 if and only if, for any two distinct points x and y, there exist neighbourhoods U of x and y of y such that $x \notin V$ and $y \notin U$.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

Proposition 2.187. A subspace of a T_1 space is T_1 .

PROOF: From Proposition 2.165.

2.29 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 2.188 (Hausdorff Space). A topological space is *Hausdorff* if and only if, for any points x, y with $x \neq y$, there exist disjoint open sets U and V such that $x \in U$ and $y \in V$.

Theorem 2.189. Every Hausdorff space is T_1 .

Proof:

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

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

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.68.

```
\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 2.190. An infinite set under the finite complement topology is T_1
but not Hausdorff.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be an infinite set under the finite complement topology.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Every singleton is closed.
   PROOF: By definition.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Picka, b \in X with a \neq b
\langle 1 \rangle 4. There are no disjoint neighbourhoods U of a and V of b.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a and V a neighbourhood of b.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. X \setminus U and X \setminus V are finite.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick c \in X that is not in X \setminus U or X \setminus V.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. \ c \in U \cap V
```

Proposition 2.191. The product of a family of Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.

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

Theorem 2.192. Every linearly ordered set under the order topology is Hausdorff.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

Theorem 2.193. 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 2.194. A space X is Hausdorff if and only if the diagonal $\Delta =$ $\{(x,x) \mid x \in X\}$ is closed in X^2 .

Proof:

X is Hausdorff

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

Theorem 2.195. 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 mPROOF: 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 2.196. 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 $a_n \in U$. \bot

Proposition 2.197. 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).

(1)4. PICK $y \in f^{-1}(V) \cap g^{-1}(W) \cap A$ PROOF: Since $f^{-1}(V) \cap g^{-1}(W)$ is a neighbourhood of x and hence intersects A.

```
\langle 1 \rangle5. f(y) = g(y) \in V \cap W
\langle 1 \rangle6. Q.E.D.
PROOF: This contradicts the fact that V and W are disjoint (\langle 1 \rangle 3).
```

Proposition 2.198. Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of Hausdorff spaces. Then $\prod_{i\in I} X_i$ under the box topology is Hausdorff.

PROOF:

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

Proposition 2.199. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X with $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ If \mathcal{T} is Haudorff then \mathcal{T}' is Haudorff.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 2.200. Let X be a Hausdorff space. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ be maximal with respect to the finite intersection property. Then $\bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}$ contains at most one point.

Proof:

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

Proof: Proposition 2.71.

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

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

2.30 The First Countability Axiom

Definition 2.201 (First Countability Axiom). A topological space X satisfies the *first countability axiom*, or is *first countable*, if and only if every point has a countable local basis.

Lemma 2.202 (Sequence Lemma (CC)). Let X be a first countable space. Let $A \subseteq X$ and $l \in \overline{A}$. Then there exists a sequence in A that converges to l.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. PICK a countable local basis $\{B_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ at l such that $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$.

```
Proof: Lemma 2.94.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all n \geq 1, PICK a_n \in A \cap B_n.
        Prove: a_n \to l \text{ as } n \to \infty
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U be a neighbourhood of A
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK N such that B_N \subseteq U
\langle 1 \rangle 5. For n \geq N we have a_n \in U
   Proof: a_n \in B_n \subseteq B_N \subseteq U
```

Theorem 2.203 (CC). Let X be a first countable space and Y a topological space. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose that, for every sequence (x_n) in X and $l \in X$, if $x_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$, then $f(x_n) \to f(l)$ as $n \to \infty$. Then f is continuous.

PROOF:

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

PROVE: $f(a) \in f(A)$

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

PROOF: By the Sequence Lemma.

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

PROOF: By Lemma 2.96.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 2.114.

Example 2.204 (CC). The space \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box product is not first count-

PROOF: Let $\{B_n \mid n \geq 0\}$ be a countable set of neighbourhoods of $\vec{0}$. We will construct a neighbourhood of $\vec{0}$ that does not include any of these.

For $n \geq 0$, pick a neighbourhood U_n of 0 such that $U_n \subset \pi_n(B_p)$. Then $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n$ is a neighbourhood of $\vec{0}$ that does not include any B_n . \square

Example 2.205. If J is an uncountable set then \mathbb{R}^J is not first countable.

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

PROOF: Using the Axiom of Countable Choice.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $n \geq 0$,

Let: $J_n = \{ \alpha \in J \mid U_{n\alpha} \neq \mathbb{R} \}$

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

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

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

Example 2.206. The space \mathbb{R}_l is first countable.

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

Example 2.207. The ordered square is first countable.

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

2.31 Strong Continuity

Definition 2.208 (Strongly Continuous). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is *strongly continuous* if and only if, for every subset $U \subseteq Y$, we have U is open in Y if and only if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in X.

Proposition 2.209. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is strongly continuous if and only if, for every subset $C \subseteq Y$, we have C is closed in Y if and only if $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X.

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

Proposition 2.210. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If f and g are strongly continuous then so is $g \circ f$.

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

Proposition 2.211. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If $g \circ f$ is continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is continuous.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

Proof: Since g is strongly continuous.

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Proposition 2.212. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If $g \circ f$ is strongly continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is strongly continuous.

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

2.32 Saturated Sets

Definition 2.213. Let X and Y be sets and $p: X \to Y$ a surjective function. Let $C \subseteq X$. Then C is *saturated* with respect to p if and only if, for all $x, y \in X$, if $x \in C$ and p(x) = p(y) then $y \in C$.

Proposition 2.214. Let X and Y be sets and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a surjective function. Let $C \subseteq X$. Then the following are equivalent:

```
1. C is saturated with respect to p.
```

```
2. There exists D \subseteq Y such that C = p^{-1}(D)
```

3.
$$C = p^{-1}(p(C))$$
.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 3
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: C is saturated with respect to p.

$$\langle 2 \rangle 2$$
. $C \subseteq p^{-1}(p(C))$

PROOF: Trivial.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Trivial.

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

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

2.33 Quotient Maps

Definition 2.215 (Quotient Map). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \to Y$. Then p is a *quotient map* if and only if p is surjective and strongly continuous.

Proposition 2.216. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ be a surjective function. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1. p is a quotient map.
- 2. p is continuous and maps saturated open sets to open sets.
- 3. p is continuous and maps saturated closed sets to closed sets.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: p is a quotient map.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a saturated open set in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $p^{-1}(p(U))$ is open in X.

PROOF: Since $U = p^{-1}(p(U))$ be Proposition 2.214.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. p(U) is open in Y.

```
PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1. \langle 1 \rangle 2. 1 \Rightarrow 3
PROOF: Similar. \langle 1 \rangle 3. 2 \Rightarrow 1
\langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is continuous and maps saturated open sets to open sets. \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U \subseteq Y
\langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: p^{-1}(U) is open in X
\langle 2 \rangle 4. p^{-1}(U) is saturated.
PROOF: Proposition 2.214. \langle 2 \rangle 5. U is open in Y. \langle 1 \rangle 4. 3 \Rightarrow 1
PROOF: Similar.
```

Corollary 2.216.1. Every surjective continuous open map is a quotient map.

Corollary 2.216.2. Every surjective continuous closed map is a quotient map.

Example 2.217. The converses of these corollaries do not hold.

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

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

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

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

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

Proposition 2.218. Let p: X woheadrightarrow Y be a quotient map. Let $A \subseteq X$ be saturated with respect to p. Let q: A woheadrightarrow p(A) be the restriction of p.

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.118.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. If A is open in X then q is a quotient map.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: A is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. q maps saturated open sets to open sets.

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: U \subseteq A be saturated with respect to q and open in A
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. U is saturated with respect to p
           \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in X
           \langle 4 \rangle 2. Assume: x \in U
           \langle 4 \rangle 3. Assume: p(x) = p(y)
           \langle 4 \rangle 4. \ x \in A
              PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 1 and \langle 4 \rangle 2.
           \langle 4 \rangle 5. \ y \in A
              PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 2 and \langle 4 \rangle 3
           \langle 4 \rangle 6. \ q(x) = x(y)
              PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 3, \langle 4 \rangle 3, \langle 4 \rangle 4, \langle 4 \rangle 5.
           \langle 4 \rangle 7. \ y \in U
              PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 1, \langle 4 \rangle 2, \langle 4 \rangle 6
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. U is open in X
          PROOF: Lemma 2.164, \langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 3 \rangle 1.
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. p(U) is open in Y
          Proof: Proposition 2.216, \langle 1 \rangle 1, \langle 3 \rangle 2, \langle 3 \rangle 3
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. q(U) is open in p(A)
          PROOF: Since q(U) = p(U) = p(U) \cap p(A).
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
       Proof: By Proposition 2.216.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. If A is closed in X then q is a quotient map.
   Proof: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. If p is an open map then q is a quotient map.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is an open map
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. q maps saturated open sets to open sets.
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: U be open in A and saturated with respect to q
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick V open in X such that U = A \cap V
       \langle 3 \rangle 3. p(V) is open in Y
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ \ q(U) = p(V) \cap p(A)
           \langle 4 \rangle 1. \ q(U) \subseteq p(V) \cap p(A)
              PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 2.
           \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ p(V) \cap p(A) \subseteq q(U)
              \langle 5 \rangle 1. Let: y \in p(V) \cap p(A)
              \langle 5 \rangle 2. Pick x \in V and x' \in A such that p(x) = p(x') = y
              \langle 5 \rangle 3. \ x \in A
                 Proof: By \langle 1 \rangle 2.
              \langle 5 \rangle 4. \ x \in U
                  Proof: From \langle 3 \rangle 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
       Proof: By Proposition 2.216.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. If p is a closed map then q is a quotient map.
   Proof: Similar.
```

Example 2.219. This example shows we cannot remove the hypotheses on A

and p.

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

For a counterexample where A is saturated, see Example 2.225.

Proposition 2.220. Let $p:A \to C$ and $q:B \to D$ be open quotient maps. Then $p \times q:A \times B \to C \times D$ is an open quotient map.

PROOF: From Corollary 2.216.1, Proposition 2.157 and Theorem 2.153.

Theorem 2.221. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. Let Z be a topological space and $f: Y \to Z$ be a function. Then

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

Proof:

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

Proof: Proposition 2.211.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.117.

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

Proof: Proposition 2.212.

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

PROOF: From Proposition 2.210.

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Proposition 2.222. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $p: X \to Y$ and $f: Y \to X$ be continuous maps such that $p \circ f = \mathrm{id}_Y$. Then p is a quotient map.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $V \subseteq Y$

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

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

PROOF: Because f is continuous.

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

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

2.34 Quotient Topology

Definition 2.223 (Quotient Topology). Let X be a topological space, Y a set and $p: X \to Y$ be a surjective function. Then the *quotient topology* on Y is the unique topology on Y with respect to which p is a quotient map, namely $\mathcal{T} = \{U \in \mathcal{P}Y \mid p^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X\}.$

We prove this is a topology.

```
Proof:
```

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

Definition 2.224 (Quotient Space). Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X. Let $p: X \to X/\sim$ be the canonical surjection. Then X/\sim under the quotient topology is called a *quotient space*, *identification space* or *decomposition space* of X.

Here is a counterexample showing we cannot remove all the hypotheses of Proposition 2.218 except that A is saturated.

Example 2.225. Let $X = (0, 1/2] \cup \{1\} \cup \{1+1/n : n \ge 2\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R} . Define R to be the equivalence relation on X where xRy iff (x = y or |x-y| = 1), so we identify 1/n with 1 + 1/n for all $n \ge 2$. Let Y be the resulting quotient space X/R in the quotient topology and $p: X \to Y$ the canonical surjection.

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

Proposition 2.226. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If f and g are quotient maps then so is $g \circ f$.

Proof: From Proposition 2.210. \Box

Example 2.227. The product of two quotient maps is not necessarily a quotient map.

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

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

PROOF:

```
ROOF: \langle 1 \rangle 1. \text{ For } n \geq 1, LET: c_n = \sqrt{2}/n \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ For } n \geq 1, LET: U_n = \{(x,y) \in X \times \mathbb{Q} \mid n-1/4 < x < n+1/4, (y+n>x+c_n \text{ and } y+n>-x+c_n) \text{ or } (y+n<x+c_n \text{ and } y+n<-x+c_n)\} \langle 1 \rangle 3. \text{ For } n \geq 1, \text{ we have } U_n \text{ is open in } X \times \mathbb{Q} \langle 1 \rangle 4. \text{ For } n \geq 1, \text{ we have } \{n\} \times \mathbb{Q} \subseteq U_n \langle 1 \rangle 5. \text{ LET: } U = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n \langle 1 \rangle 6. U \text{ is open in } X \times \mathbb{Q} \langle 1 \rangle 7. U \text{ is saturated with respect to } p \times \text{id}_{\mathbb{Q}}
```

Proposition 2.228. Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X. Then X/\sim is T_1 if and only if every equivalence class is closed in X.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

2.35 Retractions

Definition 2.229 (Retraction). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. A retraction of X onto A is a continuous map $r: X \to A$ such that, for all $a \in A$, we have r(a) = a.

Proposition 2.230. Every retraction is a quotient map.

PROOF: Proposition 2.222 with f the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$. \square

2.36 Homogeneous Spaces

Definition 2.231 (Homogeneous). A topological space X is homogeneous if and only if, for any points $a, b \in X$, there exists a homeomorphism $\phi : X \cong X$ such that $\phi(a) = b$.

2.37 Regular Spaces

Definition 2.232 (Regular Space). A topological space X is *regular* if and only if, for any closed set A and point $a \notin A$, there exist disjoint open sets U, V such that $A \subseteq U$ and $a \in V$.

2.38 Connected Spaces

Definition 2.233 (Separation). A *separation* of a topological space X is a pair of disjoint open sets U, V such that $U \cup V = \emptyset$.

Definition 2.234 (Connected). A topological space is *connected* if and only if it has no separation; otherwise it is *disconnected*.

Proposition 2.235. A topological space X is connected if and only if the only sets that are both open and closed are X and \emptyset .

Immediate from defintions.

Lemma 2.236. If Y is a subspace of X, a separation of Y is a pair of disjoint nonempty sets A and B whose union is Y, neither of which contains a limit point of the other.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $A, B \subseteq Y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If A and B form a separation of Y then A and B are disjoint and nonempty, $A \cup B = Y$, and neither of A and B contains a limit point of the other.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: A and B form a separation of Y
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. A and B are disjoint and nonempty and $A \cup B = Y$ PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and the definition of separation.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. A does not contain a limit point of B
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $l \in A$ and l is a limit point of B in X.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. l is a limit point of B in Y PROOF: Proposition 2.174.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ l \in B$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. B is closed in Y

PROOF: Since A is open in Y and $B = Y \setminus A$ from $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

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

PROOF: Corollary 2.79.1.

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

PROOF: This contradicts the fact that $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ($\langle 2 \rangle 1$).

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. B does not contain a limit point of A PROOF: Similar.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If A and B are disjoint and nonempty, $A \cup B = Y$, and neither of A and B contains a limit point of the other, then A and B form a separation of Y.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: A and B are disjoint and nonempty, $A \cup B = Y$, and neither of A and B contains a limit point of the other.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. A is open in Y
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. B is closed in Y
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: l be a limit point of B in Y
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. l is a limit point of B in X

Proof: Proposition 2.174.

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

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$

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

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

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

```
PROOF: Corollary 2.79.1. \langle 3 \rangle2. Q.E.D. PROOF: Since A = Y \setminus B. \langle 2 \rangle3. B is open in Y PROOF: Similar.
```

Example 2.237. Every set under the indiscrete topology is connected.

Example 2.238. The discrete topology on a set X is connected if and only if $|X| \leq 1$.

Example 2.239. The finite complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is infinite.

Example 2.240. The countable complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \leq 1$ or X is uncountable.

Example 2.241. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are disconnected. For any irrational a, the sets $(-\infty, a) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ and $(a, +\infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ form a separation of \mathbb{Q} .

Lemma 2.242. Let X be a topological space. If C and D form a separation of X, and Y is a connected subspace of X, then either $Y \subseteq C$ or $Y \subseteq D$.

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

Theorem 2.243. The union of a set of connected subspaces of a space X that have a point in common is connected.

Proof:

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

Proof: Lemma 2.242.

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

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

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

Theorem 2.244. Let X be a topological space and A a connected subspace of X. If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$ then B is connected.

Proof:

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

Proof: Lemma 2.242.

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in B$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ x \in \overline{A}

\langle 2 \rangle 3. Either x \in A or x is a limit point of A.

PROOF: Theorem 2.79.

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

PROOF: Lemma 2.81, \langle 1 \rangle 2.

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

PROOF: Lemma 2.236.

\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ D = \emptyset

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

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

Theorem 2.245. The image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected.

Proof:

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

Theorem 2.246. The product of a family of connected spaces is connected.

PROOF:

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $X \times \{b\}$ is connected.
 - PROOF: It is homeomorphic to X.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all $x \in X$ we have $\{x\} \times Y$ is connected.

PROOF: It is homeomorphic to Y.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For any $x \in X$
 - Let: $T_x = (X \times \{b\}) \cup (\{x\} \times Y)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $x \in X$, T_x is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 2.243 since $(x, b) \in (X \times \{b\}) \cap (\{x\} \times Y)$.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.243 since $X \times Y = \bigcup_{x \in X} T_x$ and (a, b) is a point in every T_x .

(1)2. The product of a finite family of connected spaces is connected.

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

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

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

```
\langle 2 \rangle 4. For every finite subset K of J,
           Let: X_K = \{x \in X \mid \forall \alpha \in J \setminus K.x_\alpha = a_\alpha\}
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. For every finite K \subseteq J, we have X_K is connected.
      PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 2 since X_K \cong \prod_{\alpha \in K} X_K.
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. Let: Y = \bigcup_K X_K
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. Y is connected
      PROOF: Theorem 2.243 since a is a common point.
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ X = \overline{Y}
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in X
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Let: U = \prod_{\alpha \in I} U_{\alpha} be a basic neighbourhood of x where U_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}
                       for all \alpha except \alpha \in K for some finite K \subseteq J
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: y \in X be the point with y_{\alpha} = x_{\alpha} for \alpha \in K and y_{\alpha} = a_{\alpha} for
                       all other \alpha
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in U \cap X_K
       \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ y \in U \cap Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 9. X is connected.
      PROOF: Theorem 2.244.
Example 2.247. The set \mathbb{R}^{\omega} is disconnected under the box topology. The set
of bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.
Proposition 2.248. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X. If
\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}' and (X, \mathcal{T}') is connected then (X, \mathcal{T}) is connected.
PROOF: If U and V form a separation of (X, \mathcal{T}) then they form a separation of
(X,\mathcal{T}'). \sqcup
Proposition 2.249. Let X be a topological space and (A_n) a sequence of con-
nected subspaces of X. If A_n \cap A_{n+1} \neq \emptyset for all n then \bigcup_n A_n is connected.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of \bigcup_n A_n
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: without loss of generality A_0 \subseteq C
   Proof: Lemma 2.242.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For all n we gave A_n \subseteq C
   Proof:
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: A_n \subseteq C
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick x \in A_n \cap A_{n+1}
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ x \in C
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. A_{n+1} \subseteq C
      Proof: Lemma 2.242.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: The result follows by induction.
```

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

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

Proposition 2.250. Let X be a topological space. Let $A, C \subseteq X$. If C is connected and intersects both A and $X \setminus A$ then C intersects ∂A .

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

Example 2.251. The space \mathbb{R}_l is disconnected. For any real x, the sets $(-\infty, x)$ and $[x, +\infty)$ form a separation.

Proposition 2.252. Let X and Y be connected spaces. Let A be a proper subset of X and B a proper subset of Y. Then $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Pick $a \in X \setminus A$ and $b \in Y \setminus B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For $x \in X \setminus A$ we have $(X \times \{b\}) \cup (\{x\} \times Y)$ is connected. PROOF: Theorem 2.243 since (x,b) is a common point.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $y \in Y \setminus B$ we have $(X \times \{y\}) \cup (\{a\} \times Y)$ is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 2.243 since (a, y) is a common point.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.243 since it is the union of the sets in $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ and $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ with (a,b) as a common point.

Proposition 2.253. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. If Y is connected and $p^{-1}(y)$ is connected for all $y \in Y$, then X is connected.

PROOF:

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

PROOF: Otherwise $p^{-1}(a) \cap C$ and $p^{-1}(a) \cap D$ form a separation of $p^{-1}(a)$. $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in C$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. D is saturated.

PROOF: Similar.

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

Proposition 2.254. Let X be a connected space and Y a connected subspace of X. Suppose A and B form a separation of $X \setminus Y$. Then $Y \cup A$ and $Y \cup B$ are both connected.

Proof:

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

$$A = A_1 \setminus Y$$

$$B = B_1 \setminus Y$$

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

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

```
\langle 2 \rangle 4. B_1 \cup C_1 and A_1 \cap D_1 form a separation of X
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Y \cup B is connected.
   PROOF: Similar.
Theorem 2.255. Let L be a linearly ordered set under the order topology. Then
L is connected if and only if L is a linear continuum.
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If L is a linear continuum then L is connected.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: L be a linear continuum under the order topology.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of L.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick a \in C and b \in D.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Assume: without loss of generality a < b.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. Let: S = \{ x \in L \mid a < x \text{ and } [a, x) \subseteq C \}
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. S is nonempty.
      PROOF: Since a \in C and C is open.
   \langle 2 \rangle7. S is bounded above by b.
      PROOF: Since b \notin C.
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. Let: s = \sup S
   \langle 2 \rangle 9. \ s \in S
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: y \in [a, s)
              Prove: y \in C
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick z with y < z \in S
         PROOF: By minimality of s.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in [a,z) \subseteq C
   \langle 2 \rangle 10. Case: s \in C
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. PICK x such that s < x and [s, x) \subseteq C
         PROOF: Since C is open and s is not greatest in L because s < b.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ x \in S
         PROOF: Since [a, x) = [a, s) \cup [s, x) \subseteq C.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: This contradicts the fact that s is an upper bound for S.
   \langle 2 \rangle 11. Case: s \in D
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. PICK x < s such that (x, s] \subseteq D
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick y with x < y < s
         PROOF: Since L is dense.
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ y \in C
         PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 9.
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in D
         PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
```

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Since $b \notin C$.

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

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

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

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

Proof: By minimality of s.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

 $\langle 3 \rangle 16$. Case: $s \in D$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. PICK x < s such that $(x, s] \subseteq D$

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Pick y with x < y < s

PROOF: Since L is dense.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Since $b \in U$.

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

PROOF: Since $X \subseteq V$

- $\langle 3 \rangle 8$. V is open.
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in V$

- $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Pick $y \in X$ with x < y
 - PROOF: x cannot be an upper bound for X, because it would be the supremum of X.
- $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. Either x least in L and $[x,y) \subseteq V$, or there exists z < x such that $(z,y) \subseteq V$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 9. \ L = U \cup V$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in L \setminus U$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Pick $y \in X$ such that x < y
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 3$. For all $u \in U$ we have $x < y \le u$
 - $\langle 4 \rangle 4. \ x \in V$
- $\langle 3 \rangle 10. \ U \cap V = \emptyset$

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

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

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

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

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

Corollary 2.255.1. The real line \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 2.255.2. Every interval in \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 2.255.3. The ordered square is connected.

Theorem 2.256 (Intermediate Value Theorem). Let X be a connected space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set under the order topology. Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Let $a, b \in X$ and $r \in Y$. Suppose f(a) < r < f(b). Then there exists $c \in X$ such that f(c) = r.

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

Proposition 2.257. Every function $f:[0,1] \to [0,1]$ has a fixed point.

Proof:

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

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

Proposition 2.258. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the box topology. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$. Then x and y lie in the same comoponent if and only if x - y is eventually zero, i.e. there exists N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $x_n = y_n$.

Proof:

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

Proof: Proposition 2.264.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. If C is connected and $B \subseteq C$ then B = C.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Assume: C is connected and $B \subseteq C$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction $x \in C \setminus B$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. For $n \geq 1$, LET: $c_n = 1$ if $x_n = 0$, $c_n = n/x_n$ otherwise
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. Let: $h: \mathbb{R}^{\omega} \to \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ be the function $h(x) = (c_n x_n)_{n \geq 1}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. h is a homeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^{ω} with itself.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$. h(x) is unbounded.

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

- $\langle 3 \rangle$ 7. $h^{-1}(\{\text{bounded sequences}\}) \cap C$ and $h^{-1}(\{\text{unbounded sequences}\}) \cap C$ form a separation of C
- $\langle 3 \rangle 8$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: This contradicts $\langle 3 \rangle 1$.

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

PROOF: Since $\lambda x.x - y$ is a homeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^{ω} with itself.

2.39 Totally Disconnected Spaces

Definition 2.259 (Totally Disconnected). A topological space X is *totally disconnected* if and only if the only connected subspaces are the singletons.

Example 2.260. Every discrete space is totally disconnected.

Example 2.261. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are totally disconnected.

2.40 Paths and Path Connectedness

Definition 2.262 (Path). Let X be a topological space and $a, b \in X$. A path from a to b is a continuous function $p : [0,1] \to X$ such that p(0) = a and

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p(1) = b.
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Definition 2.263 (Path Connected). A topological space is *path connected* if and only if there exists a path between any two points.

Proposition 2.264. Every path connected space is connected.

Proof:

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

Proof: This contradicts Corollary 2.255.2.

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An example that shows the converse does not hold:

Example 2.265. The ordered square is not path connected.

PROOF

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

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $x \in [0,1]$, PICK a rational $q_x \in p^{-1}((x,0),(x,1))$
 - PROOF: Since $p^{-1}((x,0),(x,1))$ is open and nonempty by $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $x, y \in [0, 1]$, if $x \neq y$ then $q_x \neq q_y$

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

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

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

Proposition 2.266. The continuous image of a path connected space is path connected.

PROOF:

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

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Proposition 2.267 (AC). The product of a family of path-connected spaces is path-connected.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.153.

r ROOF: Theorem 2.1

Proposition 2.268. The continuous image of a path-connected space is path-connected.

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.269. Let X be a topological space. The union of a set of path-connected subspaces of X that have a point in common is path-connected.

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.270. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be countable. Then $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A$ is path-connected.

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.271. Every open connected subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 is path-connected.

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

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

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

PROOF: Since U is open.

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $PC(x_0)$ is closed in U
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $y \in U$ be a limit point of $PC(x_0)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(y, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Pick $z \in PC(x_0) \cap B(y, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ y \in PC(x_0)$

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

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

Proof: Proposition 2.235.

Example 2.272. If A is a connected subspace of X, then A° is not necessarily connected.

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

Example 2.273. If A is a connected subspace of X then ∂A is not necessarily connected.

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

Example 2.274. If A is a subspace of X and A° and ∂A are connected, then A is not necessarily connected.

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

2.41 The Topologist's Sine Curve

Definition 2.275 (The Topologist's Sine Curve). Let $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$, The topologist's sine curve is the closure \overline{S} of S in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Proposition 2.276. The topologist's sine curve is connected.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. S is connected.

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PROOF: Theorem 2.245. \langle 1 \rangle 3. \overline{S} is connected. PROOF: Theorem 2.244.
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Proposition 2.277. The topologist's sine curve is $\{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\} \cup (\{0\} \times [-1.1])$.

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

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

Proposition 2.278. Every closed subset of \mathbb{R} that is bounded above has a greatest element.

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

Proposition 2.279 (CC). The topologist's sine curve is not path connected.

Proof:

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

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: b be the largest number in [0,1] such that $p(b) \in \{0\} \times [-1,1]$. Proof: Proposition 2.278.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x : [b,1] \to \overline{S}$ be the function $\pi_1 \circ p$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $y : [b,1] \to \overline{S}$ be the function $\pi_2 \circ p$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. PICK a sequence t_n in (b,1] such that $t_n \to b$ and $y(t_n) = (-1)^n$ for all $n \to 2 \setminus 1$. Let: $n \ge 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK u with 0 < u < x(1/n) and $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK t_n with $b < t_n < 1/n$ and $x(t_n) = u$

Proof: By the Intermediate Value Theorem

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

PROOF: This contradicts Proposition 2.126 since y is continuous and $y(t_n)$ does not converge.

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Corollary 2.279.1. The closure of a path-connected subspace of a space is not necessarily path-connected.

2.42 The Long Line

Definition 2.280 (The Long Line). The *long line* is the space $\omega_1 \times [0,1)$ in the dictionary order under the order topology, where ω_1 is the first uncountable ordinal.

```
Lemma 2.281. For any ordinal \alpha with 0 < \alpha < \omega_1 we have [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong
[0,1)
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ [(0,0),(1,0)) \cong [0,1)
   PROOF: The map \pi_2 is a homeomorphism.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. If [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1) then [(0,0),(\alpha+1,0)) \cong [0,1)
   Proof: Proposition 2.25.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. If \lambda is a limit ordinal with \lambda < \omega_1 and [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1) for all \alpha with
        0 < \alpha < \lambda \text{ then } [(0,0),(\lambda,0)) \cong [0,1)
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \lambda be a limit ordinal \langle \omega_1 \rangle
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Assume: [(0,0),(\alpha,0)) \cong [0,1) for all \alpha with 0 < \alpha < \lambda
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Pick a sequence of ordinals \alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \cdots with limit \lambda
      PROOF: Since \lambda is countable.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. [(\alpha_i, 0), (\alpha_{i+1}, 0)) \cong [0, 1) for all i
      Proof: Lemma 2.24.
   \langle 2 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 2.26.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
   Proof: By transfinite induction.
Proposition 2.282 (CC). The long line is path-connected.
Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: (\alpha, i), (\beta, j) \in \omega_1 \times [0, 1)
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Assume: without loss of generality (\alpha, i) < (\beta, j)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ [(0,0),(\beta+1,0)) \cong [0,1)
   Proof: By Lemma 2.281
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ [(\alpha, i), (\beta, j)) \cong [0, 1)
   Proof: Lemma 2.24.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. PICK a homeomorphism q:[0,1) \to [(\alpha,i),(\beta,j))
\langle 1 \rangle 6. q \cup \{(1, (\beta, j))\} is a path from (\alpha, i) to (\beta, j)
```

Proposition 2.283. Every point in the long line has a neighbourhood homeomorphic to an interval in \mathbb{R} .

PROOF: For any (α, i) in the long line, the neighbourhood $[(0,0), (\alpha+1,0))$ satisfies the condition by Lemma 2.281.

Proposition 2.284. The long line L is not second countable.

Proof:

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For $\alpha < \omega_1$, PICK $B_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $(\alpha, 1/2) \in B_{\alpha} \subseteq ((\alpha, 0), (\alpha + 1, 0))$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \mathcal{B} is uncountable.

PROOF: The mapping $\alpha \mapsto B_{\alpha}$ is an injection $\omega_1 \to \mathcal{B}$.

Corollary 2.284.1. The long line cannot be imbedded into \mathbb{R}^n for any n.

2.43 Components

Proposition 2.285. Let X be a topological space. Define the relation \sim on X by $a \sim b$ if and only if there exists a connected subspace $A \subseteq X$ with $a, b \in A$. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. \sim is reflexive.

PROOF: For any $a \in X$ we have $\{a\}$ is a connected subspace that contains a. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \sim is symmetric.

PROOF: Trivial.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.243.

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Definition 2.286 ((Connected) Component). Let X be a topological space. The *(connected) components* of X are the equivalence classes under the above \sim .

Lemma 2.287. Let X be a topological space. If $A \subseteq X$ is connected and nonempty then there exists a unique component C of X such that $A \subseteq C$.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

Theorem 2.288. Let X be a topological space. The components of X are connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that each nonempty connected subspace of X intersects only one of them.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every component of X is connected.

PROOF: For $a \in X$, the \sim -equivalence class of a is $\bigcup \{A \subseteq X \mid A \text{ is connected, } a \in A\}$ which is connected by Theorem 2.243.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The components form a partition of X.

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Every nonempty connected subspace of X intersects a unique component of X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $A \subseteq X$ be connected and nonempty.

```
\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle \text{2. Let: } C \text{ be the component such that } A \subseteq C \\ \text{Proof: Lemma 2.287.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle \text{3. } A \text{ intersects } C \\ \langle 2 \rangle \text{4. If } A \text{ intersects the component } C' \text{ then } C' = C \\ \langle 3 \rangle \text{1. Let: } C' \text{ be a component that intersects } A \\ \langle 3 \rangle \text{2. Pick } b \in A \cap C' \\ \langle 3 \rangle \text{3. } A \subseteq C' \\ \text{Proof: For all } x \in A \text{ we have } x \sim b. \\ \langle 3 \rangle \text{4. } C = C' \\ \text{Proof: By uniqueness in } \langle 2 \rangle \text{2.} \end{array}
```

Proposition 2.289. Every component of a space is closed.

PROOF

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a topological space and C a component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. \overline{C} is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 2.244.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ C = \overline{C}$

Proof: Lemma 2.242.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.67.

Proposition 2.290. If a topological space has finitely many components then every component is open.

Proof: Each component is the complement of a finite union of closed sets.

2.44 Path Components

Proposition 2.291. Let X be a topological space. Define the relation \sim on X by: $a \sim b$ if and only if there exists a path in X from a to b. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. \sim is reflexive.

PROOF: For $a \in X$, the constant function $[0,1] \to X$ with value a is a path from a to a.

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

PROOF: If $p:[0,1]\to X$ is a path from a to b, then $\lambda t.p(1-t)$ is a path from b to a.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \sim is transitive.

Proof: Concatenate paths.

Definition 2.292 (Path Component). Let X be a topological space. The *path components* of X are the equivalence relations under \sim .

Theorem 2.293. The path components of X are path-connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that every nonempty path-connected subspace of X intersects exactly one path component.

PROOF:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Every path component is path-connected.

PROOF: If a and b are in the same path component then $a \sim b$, i.e. there exists a path from a to b.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The path components are disjoint and their union is X.

PROOF: Immediate from the definition.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Every non-empty path-connected subspace of X intersects exactly one path component.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: A be a nonempty path-connected subspace of X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. A intersects the \sim -equivalence class of a.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: C be any path component that intersects A.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Pick $b \in A \cap C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $a \sim b$

PROOF: Since A is path-connected.

 $\langle 2 \rangle$ 7. C is the \sim -equivalence class of a.

Proposition 2.294. Every path component is included in a component.

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a topological space and C a path component of X.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is path-connected.

PROOF: Theorem 2.293.

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

Proof: Proposition 2.264.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.287.

2.45 Local Connectedness

Definition 2.295 (Locally Connected). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. Then X is *locally connected* at a if and only if every neighbourhood of a includes a connected neighbourhood of a.

The space X is *locally connected* if and only if it is locally connected at every point.

Example 2.296. The real line is both connected and locally connected.

Example 2.297. The space $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is disconnected but locally connected.

Example 2.298. The topologist's sine curve is connected but not locally connected.

Example 2.299. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are neither connected nor locally connected.

Theorem 2.300. A topological space X is locally connected if and only if, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If X is locally connected then, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: X is locally connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: C be a component of U.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $a \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: V be a connected neighbourhood of a such that $V \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ V \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 2.287.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.46.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X, then X is locally connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 1. Assume: for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. The component of U that contains a is a connected neighbourhood of a included in U.

Example 2.301. The ordered square is locally connected.

PROOF: Every neighbourhood of a point includes an interval around that point, which is connected by Theorem 2.255.

Example 2.302. Let X be the set of all rational points on the line segment $[0,1] \times \{0\}$, and Y the set of all rational points on the line segment $[0,1] \times \{1\}$. Let A be the space consisting of all line segments joining the point (0,1) to a point of X, and all line segments joining the point (1,0) to a point of Y. Then A is path-connected but is not locally connected at any point,

Proposition 2.303. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ be a quotient map. If X is locally connected then so is Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be an open set in Y.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: C be a component of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(C)$ is a union of components of $p^{-1}(U)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in p^{-1}(C)$

```
\langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: D be the component of p^{-1}(U) that contains x.
```

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. p(D) is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 2.245.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ p(D) \subseteq C.$

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ since $p(x) \in p(D) \cap C$ $(\langle 2 \rangle 1, \langle 2 \rangle 2)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5.$ $D \subseteq p^{-1}(C)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ p^{-1}(C)$ is open in $p^{-1}(U)$

PROOF: Theorem 2.300.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. C is open in U

PROOF: Since the restriction of p to $p: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U$ is a quotient map by Proposition 2.218.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.300.

2.46 Local Path Connectedness

Definition 2.304 (Locally Path-Connected). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. Then X is *locally path-connected* at a if and only if every neighbourhood of a includes a path-connected neighbourhood of a.

The space X is *locally path-connected* if and only if it is locally path-connected at every point.

Theorem 2.305. A topological space X is locally path-connected if and only if, for every open set U in X, every path component of U is open in X.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If X is locally path-connected then, for every open set U in X, every path component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: X is locally path-connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: *U* be open in *X*.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: C be a path component of U.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $a \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: V be a path-connected neighbourhood of a such that $V \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ V \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 2.287.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.46.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$ If, for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X, then X is locally connected.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for every open set U in X, every component of U is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of a
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. The component of U that contains a is a connected neighbourhood of a included in U.

Theorem 2.306. If a space is locally path connected then its components and its path components are the same.

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: X be a locally path connected space.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: C be a component of X.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: x \in C
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Let: P be the path component of x
       Prove: P = C
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ P \subseteq C
  Proof: Proposition 2.294.
\langle 1 \rangle6. Let: Q be the union of the other path components included in C
\langle 1 \rangle 7. C = P \cup Q
   Proof: Proposition 2.294.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. P and Q are open in C
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. C is open.
      PROOF: Theorem 2.300.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
      PROOF: Theorem 2.305.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ Q = \emptyset
   PROOF: Otherwise P and Q would form a separation of C.
```

Example 2.307. The ordered square is not locally path connected, since it is connected but not path connected.

Proposition 2.308. Let X be a locally path-connected space. Then every connected open subspace of X is path-connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be a connected open subspace of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: P be a path component of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: Q be the union of the other path components of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. P and Q are open in U.

PROOF: Theorem 2.305.

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

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

2.47 Weak Local Connectedness

Definition 2.309 (Weakly Locally Connected). Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. Then X is weakly locally connected at a if and only if every neighbourhood of a includes a connected subspace that includes a neighbourhood of a.

Proposition 2.310. Let X be a topological space. If X is weakly locally connected at every point then X is locally connected.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: X is weakly locally connected at every point.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be open in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: C be a component of U.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in C$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK a connected subspace D of U that includes a neighbourhood V of x
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D \subseteq C$

Proof: Lemma 2.287.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.46.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.300.

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Example 2.311. The 'infinite broom' (Munkres p.163) is an example of a space that is weakly locally connected at a point p but not locally connected at p.

2.48 Quasicomponents

Proposition 2.312. Let X be a topological space. Define \sim on X by $x \sim y$ if and only if there exists no separation U and V of X such that $x \in U$ and $y \in V$. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on X.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. \sim is reflexive.

PROOF: Since the two sets that make up a separation are disjoint.

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

PROOF: Immediate from the defintion.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. \sim is transitive.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Assume: for a contradiction there is a separation U and V of X with $x \in U$ and $z \in V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ y \in U \text{ or } y \in V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Either case contradicts $\langle 2 \rangle 1$.

Definition 2.313 (Quasicomponents). For X a topological space, the *quasi-components* of X are the equivalence classes under \sim .

Proposition 2.314. Let X be a topological space. Then every component of X is included in a quasicomponent of X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: C be a component of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x, y \in C$

Prove: $x \sim y$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Assume: for a contradiction there exists a separation U and V of X with $x \in U$ and $y \in V$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $C \cap U$ and $C \cap V$ form a separation of C.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

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

Proposition 2.315. In a locally connected space, the components and the quasicomponents are the same.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a locally connected space and Q a quasicomponent of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK a component C of X such that $C \subseteq Q$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: D be the union of the components of X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. C and D are open in X.

PROOF: Theorem 2.300.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. D cannot contain any points of Q.

PROOF: If it did, then C and D would form a separation of X and there would be points $x, y \in Q$ with $x \in C$ and $y \in D$.

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

2.49 Open Coverings

Definition 2.316 (Open Covering). Let X be a topological space. An *open covering* of X is a covering of X whose elements are all open sets.

2.50 Lindelöf Spaces

Definition 2.317 (Lindelöf Space). A topological space X is $Lindel\"{o}f$ if and only if every open covering has a countable subcovering.

Proposition 2.318. Let X be a topological space. Then X is Lindelöf if and only if every set of closed sets that has the countable intersection property has nonempty intersection.

PROOF: The following are equivalent.

- 1. X is compact.
- 2. Every open covering of X has a countable subcovering.
- 3. For any set \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ covers X then there is a countable subset \mathcal{C}_0 such that $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}_0\}$ covers X

- 4. For any set \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if $\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$ then there is a countable subset \mathcal{C}_0 with empty intersection.
- 5. Any set of closed sets with the countable intersection property has nonempty intersection.

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Proposition 2.319 (CC). Let X be a topological space and \mathcal{B} a basis for the topology on X. Then the following are equivalent.

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

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

2.51 The Second Countability Axiom

Definition 2.320 (Second Countability Axiom). A topological space satisfies the *second countability axiom*, or is *second countable*, if and only if it has a countable basis.

Example 2.321. The space \mathbb{R} is second countable.

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

Proposition 2.322. A subspace of a second countable space is second countable.

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

Proposition 2.323 (CC). Every second countable space is Lindelöf.

PROOF: From Proposition 2.319.

Example 2.324 (CC). The space \mathbb{R}_l is Lindelöf.

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

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \mathbb{R} \setminus C is countable.
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- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For every $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus C$, PICK a rational q_x such that $(x, q_x) \subseteq C$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus C$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK b such that $[x,b) \in \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Pick a rational q such that $q \in (x, b)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. The mapping $x \mapsto q_x$ is an injection $\mathbb{R} \setminus C \to \mathbb{Q}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a countable $\mathcal{A}' \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ that covers $\mathbb{R} \setminus C$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Under the standard topology on \mathbb{R} , C is second countable.

Proof: Proposition 2.322.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. PICK a countable $\mathcal{A}'' \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ such that $\{(a,b) \mid [a,b) \in \mathcal{A}''\}$ covers C. PROOF: Proposition 2.319.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ \mathcal{A}' \cup \mathcal{A}'' \text{ covers } \mathbb{R}_l.$

Example 2.325. The product of two Lindelöf spaces is not necessarily Lindelöf. We prove that the Sorgenfrey plane is not Lindelöf.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $L = \{(x, -x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. L is closed in \mathbb{R}^2_l
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\mathcal{U} = \{ [a, b) \times [a, -d) \mid a, b, d \in \mathbb{R} \}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $\mathcal{U} \cup \{ \mathbb{R} \setminus L \}$ covers \mathbb{R}^2_l
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Every element of \mathcal{U} intersects L at exactly one point.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 6. No countable subset of \mathcal{U} covers \mathbb{R}^2_l .

2.52 Compact Spaces

Definition 2.326 (Compact). A topological space is *compact* if and only if every open covering has a finite subcovering.

Lemma 2.327. Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1.$ If Y is compact then every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: Y is compact.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be a covering of Y by sets open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $\{ U \cap Y \mid U \in \mathcal{U} \}$ is an open covering of Y.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{U_1 \cap Y, \dots, U_n \cap Y\}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$ is a finite subcovering of \mathcal{U} .
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If every covering of Y by sets open in X has a finite subcovering then Y is compact.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: \mathcal{U} be an open covering of Y.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\mathcal{V} = \{ V \text{ open in } X \mid V \cap Y \in \mathcal{U} \}$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. \mathcal{V} is a covering of Y by sets open in X.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\}$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. $\{V_1 \cap Y, \dots, V_n \cap Y\}$ is a finite subcovering of \mathcal{U} .

Proposition 2.328. Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a compact space and $Y \subseteq X$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be a covering of Y by sets open in X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\mathcal{U} \cup \{X \setminus Y\}$ is an open covering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering \mathcal{U}_0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\mathcal{U}_0 \cap \mathcal{U}$ is a finite subset of \mathcal{U} that covers Y.

Theorem 2.329. The continuous image of a compact space is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be continuous and surjective.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: V be an open covering of Y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{p^{-1}(V) \mid V \in \mathcal{V}\}$ is an open covering of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a finite subcovering $\{p^{-1}(V_1), \dots, p^{-1}(V_n)\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \text{ covers } Y.$

Theorem 2.330. Let A and B be compact subspaces of X and Y respectively. Let N be an open set in $X \times Y$ that includes $A \times B$. Then there exist open sets U and V in X and Y respectively such that $A \subseteq U$, $B \subseteq V$ and $U \times V \subseteq N$.

Proof:

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

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

\langle 1 \rangle 8. A \subseteq U

\langle 1 \rangle 9. B \subseteq V

\langle 1 \rangle 10. U \times V \subseteq N
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Corollary 2.330.1 (Tube Lemma). Let X and Y be topological spaces with Y compact. Let $a \in X$ and N be an open set in $X \times Y$ that includes $\{a\} \times Y$. Then there exists a neighbourhood W of a such that N includes the tube $W \times Y$.

Theorem 2.331. Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if every set of closed sets that has the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection.

PROOF: The following are equivalent.

- 1. X is compact.
- 2. Every open covering of X has a finite subcovering.
- 3. For any set \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ covers X then there is a finite subset \mathcal{C}_0 such that $\{X \setminus C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}_0\}$ covers X
- 4. For any set \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if $\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$ then there is a finite subset \mathcal{C}_0 with empty intersection.
- 5. Any set of closed sets with the finite intersection property has nonempty intersection.

Corollary 2.331.1. Let X be a topological space and $C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \cdots$ a nested sequence of nonempty closed sets. Then $\bigcap_n C_n$ is nonempty.

Proposition 2.332. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X with $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$. If \mathcal{T}' is compact then \mathcal{T} is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ cover X
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. A finite subset of \mathcal{U} covers X.

Corollary 2.332.1. If \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are two compact Hausdorff topologies on the same set X, then either $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}'$ or \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are incomparable.

PROOF: From the Proposition and Proposition 2.199.

Example 2.333. Any set under the finite complement topology is compact.

Proposition 2.334. Let X be a topological space. A finite union of compact subspaces of X is compact.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: A and B be compact subspaces of X.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: \mathcal{U} be a set of open sets in X that covers $A \cup B$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a finite subset \mathcal{U}_1 that covers A.

Proof: Lemma 2.327.

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

PROOF: Lemma 2.327.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.327.

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Proposition 2.335. Let A and B be disjoint compact subspaces of the Hausdorff space X. Then there exist disjoint open sets U and V that include A and B respectively.

PROOF: From Theorem 2.330 with $N = X^2 \setminus \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$. \square

Corollary 2.335.1. Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Theorem 2.336. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a bijective continuous function. If X is compact and Y is Hausdorff then f is a homeomorphism.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $C \subseteq X$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is compact.

Proof: Proposition 2.328.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.329.

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

Proof: Corollary 2.335.1.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.128.

Proposition 2.337. Let X be a compact space, Y a Hausdorff space, and $f: X \to Y$ a continuous map. Then f is a closed map.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $C \subseteq X$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. C is compact.

Proof: Proposition 2.328.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.329.

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

Proof: Corollary 2.335.1.

Proposition 2.338. If Y is compact then the projection $\pi_1: X \times Y \to X$ is a closed map.

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Proof:
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $A \subseteq X \times Y$ be closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X \setminus \pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $U \times Y \subseteq (X \times Y) \setminus A$ PROOF: By the Tube Lemma.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ x \in U \subseteq X \setminus \pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Q.E.D.

PROOF: So $X \setminus \pi_1(A)$ is open by Lemma 2.46.

Theorem 2.339. Let X be a topological space and Y a compact Hausdorff space. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is continuous if and only if the graph of f is closed in $X \times Y$.

PROOF

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

Proof: Proposition 2.338.

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

Theorem 2.340. Let X be a compact topological space. Let $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a monotone increasing sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ a continuous function. If (f_n) converges pointwise to f, then (f_n) converges uniformly to f.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

 $=\epsilon$

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

PROOF: From $\langle 1 \rangle 2$

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

PROOF: Since (f_n) is monotone increasing.

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

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

Example 2.341. Let X = (0,1), $f_n(x) = -x^n$ and f(x) = 0 for $x \in X$ and $n \ge 1$. Then $f_n \to f$ pointwise and (f_n) is monotone increasing but the convergence is not uniform since, for all $N \ge 1$, there exists $x \in (0,1)$ such that $-x^N < -1/2$.

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

Example 2.342. Let X = [0,1], $f_n(x) = 1/(n^3(x-1/n)^2+1)$ and f(x) = 0 for $x \in X$ and $n \ge 1$. Then X is compact and $f_n \to f$ pointwise but the convergence is not uniform since, for all $N \ge 1$, there exists $x \in [0,1]$ such that $f_N(x) = 1$, namely x = 1/N.

Theorem 2.343. Let X be a compact Hausdorff space. Let A be a chain of closed connected subsets of X. Then $\bigcap A$ is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction C and D form a separation of $\bigcap A$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 2. PICK disjoint open sets U and V that include C and D respectively. PROOF: Proposition 2.335.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{A \setminus (U \cup V) \mid A \in A\}$ is a set of closed sets with the finite intersection property.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $A \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $A \setminus (U \cup V)$ is closed.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For all $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) \setminus (U \cup V)$ is nonempty. PROOF:
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{A}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality $A_1 \subseteq A_2, \ldots, A_n$ Proof: Since \mathcal{A} is a chain.

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\langle 3 \rangle 3. A_1 \setminus (U \cup V) is nonempty
           PROOF: Otherwise (A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n \cap U) and (A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n \cap V) would
           form a separation of A_n.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \bigcap \mathcal{A} \setminus (U \cup V) is nonempty.
   Proof: Theorem 2.331.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
   PROOF: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 1 since \bigcap AA \setminus (U \cup V) = \bigcap A \setminus (C \cup D).
Theorem 2.344 (Tychonoff Theorem (AC)). The product of a family of com-
pact spaces is compact.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in J} be a family of compact spaces.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: X = \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For any \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X, we have \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \overline{A} \neq \emptyset
    \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X
    \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick \mathcal{D} \supseteq \mathcal{A} that is maximal with respect to the finite intersection
             property.
             Prove: \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D} \neq \emptyset
       Proof: Lemma 2.4.
    \langle 2 \rangle 3. For \alpha \in J, PICK x_{\alpha} \in X_{\alpha} such that x_{\alpha} \in \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{\pi_{\alpha}(D)}
       PROOF: Theorem 2.331 since \{\overline{\pi_{\alpha}(D)} \mid D \in \mathcal{D}\} is a set of closed sets in X_{\alpha}
       with the finite intersection property.
    \langle 2 \rangle 4. Let: x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}
             PROVE: x \in \bigcap_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \overline{D}
    \langle 2 \rangle5. For any \beta \in J and neighbourhood U of x_{\beta} in X_{\beta}, we have \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U)
             intersects every element of \mathcal{D}
        \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: \beta \in J
        \langle 3 \rangle 2. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x_{\beta} in X_{\beta}.
        \langle 3 \rangle 3. Let: D \in \mathcal{D}
        \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x_{\beta} \in \pi_{\beta}(D)
           Proof: From \langle 2 \rangle 3
        \langle 3 \rangle 5. U intersects \pi_{\beta}(D).
        \langle 3 \rangle 6. \ \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U) \text{ intersects } D.
    \langle 2 \rangle 6. For any \beta \in J and neighbourhood U of x_{\beta} in X_{\beta}, we have \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{D}
       Proof: Lemma 2.6.
    \langle 2 \rangle7. Every basic neighbourhood of x is an element of \mathcal{D}
       Proof: Lemma 2.5.
    \langle 2 \rangle 8. Every basic neighbourhood of x intersects every element of \mathcal{D}
       PROOF: Since \mathcal{D} satisfies the finite intersection property.
    \langle 2 \rangle 9. For all D \in \mathcal{D} we have x \in \overline{D}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
   Proof: Theorem 2.331.
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Lemma 2.345. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let A be a set of basis

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

Proof:

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

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

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

Theorem 2.346 (AC). Let X be a compact Hausdorff space. Then the quasi-components and the components of X are the same.

PROOF:

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

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

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.331.

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

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

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

Prove: D is connected.

PROOF: By Zorn's Lemma.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Assume: for a contradiction U and V form a separation of D.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7$. Assume: without loss of generality $x, y \in U$
 - PROOF: We cannot have that one of x, y is in U and the other in V sicnce $D \in \mathcal{A}$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ U \in \mathcal{A}$

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

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

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

Proof:

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

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

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

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PROOF: By Lemma 2.345 since there is a homeomorphism \phi: Z(p) \cong X_{\alpha} \times \prod_{\alpha' > \alpha} X_{\alpha'} and, given p_{\alpha}, this homeomorphism \phi restricts to a homeomorphism Y(p) \cong \{p_{\alpha}\} \times \prod_{\alpha' > \alpha} X_{\alpha'}.
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 10$. Q.E.D.

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

Theorem 2.347. Every complete linearly ordered set in the order topology is compact.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: This contradicts the maximality of c.

Corollary 2.347.1. Let X be a linearly ordered set with the least upper bound property. Then every closed interval in X is compact.

Corollary 2.347.2. Every closed interval in \mathbb{R} is compact.

Theorem 2.348 (Extreme Value Theorem). Any linearly ordered set under the order topology that is compact has a greatest and a least element.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Similar.

2.53Perfect Maps

Definition 2.349 (Perfect Map). Let X and Y be topological spaces and f: $X \to Y$. Then f is a perfect map if and only if f is a closed map, continuous, surjective and $p^{-1}(y)$ is compact for all $y \in Y$.

Proposition 2.350. Let X be a topological space, Y a compact space, and $p: X \to Y$ a closed map such that, for all $y \in Y$, we have $p^{-1}(y)$ is compact. Then X is compact.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Since p is a closed map.

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

Proof: Theorem 2.331 since Y is compact.

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Pick $x \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} (A \cap p^{-1}(y))$ Proof: Theorem 2.331 since $p^{-1}(y)$ is compact.

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

Proof: Theorem 2.331.

2.54 Topological Groups

Definition 2.351 (Topological Group). A topological group G consists of a T_1 space G and continuous maps $\cdot: G^2 \to G$ and $()^{-1}: G \to G$ such that $(G,\cdot,()^{-1})$ is a group.

Example 2.352. 1. The integers \mathbb{Z} under addition are a topological group.

- 2. The real numbers \mathbb{R} under addition are a topological group.
- 3. The positive reals under multiplication are a topological group.
- 4. The set $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}$ under multiplication and given the topology of S^1 is a topological group.
- 5. For any $n \geq 0$, the general linear group $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ is a topological group under matrix multiplication, considered as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^{n^2} .

Lemma 2.353. Let G be a T_1 space and $\cdot : G^2 \to G$, $()^{-1} : G \to G$ be functions such that $(G, \cdot, ()^{-1})$ is a group. Then G is a topological group if and only if the function $f : G^2 \to G$ that maps (x, y) to xy^{-1} is continuous.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If G is a topological group then f is continuous.

PROOF: From Theorem 2.117.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f is continuous then G is a topological group.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. ()⁻¹ is continuous.

PROOF: Since $x^{-1} = f(e, x)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. · is continuous.

PROOF: Since $xy = f(x, y^{-1})$.

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Lemma 2.354. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Then H is a topological group under the subspace topology.

Proof:

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

Proof: From Proposition 2.187.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 2.118.

Lemma 2.355. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Then \overline{H} is a subgroup of G.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in \overline{H}$ Prove: $xy^{-1} \in \overline{H}$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be any neighbourhood of xy^{-1}
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $f: G^2 \to G, f(a,b) = ab^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(U)$ is a neighbourhood of (x,y)
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK neighbourhoods V, W of x and y respectively such that $f(V \times W) \subseteq$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Pick $a \in V \cap H$ and $b \in W \cap H$

PROOF: Theorem 2.68.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ ab^{-1} \in U \cap H$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Theorem 2.68.

Proposition 2.356. Let G be a topological group and $\alpha \in G$. Then the maps $l_{\alpha}, r_{\alpha}: G \to G$ defined by $l_{\alpha}(x) = \alpha x$, $r_{\alpha}(x) = x\alpha$ are homeomorphisms of G with itself.

PROOF: They are continuous with continuous inverses $l_{\alpha^{-1}}$ and $r_{\alpha^{-1}}$. \square

Corollary 2.356.1. Every topological group is homogeneous.

PROOF: Given a topological group G and $a, b \in G$, we have $l_{ba^{-1}}$ is a homeomorphism that maps a to b. \square

Proposition 2.357. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. For all $\alpha \in G$, the map $\overline{f_{\alpha}}$ that sends xH to αxH is a homeomorphism $G/H \cong G/H$.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. $\overline{f_{\alpha}}$ is well-defined.

PROOF: If $xy^{-1} \in H$ then $(\alpha x)(\alpha y)^{-1} = xy^{-1} \in H$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\overline{f_{\alpha}}$ is continuous.

PROOF: Theorem 2.221 since $\overline{f_{\alpha}} \circ p = p \circ f_{\alpha}$ is continuous, where $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ is the canonical surjection. $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{f_{\alpha}}^{-1}$ is continuous.

PROOF: Similar since $\overline{f_{\alpha}}^{-1} = \overline{f_{\alpha^{-1}}}$.

Corollary 2.357.1. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then G/H is homogeneous.

Proposition 2.358. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. If H is closed in G then G/H is T_1 .

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $p: G \rightarrow G/H$ be the canonical surjection
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in G$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(xH) = f_x(H)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $p^{-1}(xH)$ is closed in G

PROOF: Since H is closed and f_x is a homemorphism of G with itself.

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\langle 1 \rangle 5. \{xH\} is closed in G/H
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Proposition 2.359. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then the canonical surjection $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ is an open map.

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: U \subseteq G be open.

\langle 1 \rangle 2. p^{-1}(p(U)) = \bigcup_{h \in H} r_h(U)

\langle 1 \rangle 3. p^{-1}(p(U)) is open.

\langle 1 \rangle 4. p(U) is open.
```

Proposition 2.360. Let G be a topological group and H a closed normal subgroup of G. Then G/H is a topological group under the quotient topology.

Proof:

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

Proof: Proposition 2.358.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. The map $\overline{m}: (xH, yH) \mapsto xy^{-1}H$ is continuous.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1.$ $p^2: G^2 \to (G/H)^2$ is a quotient map.

PROOF: Propositions 2.220, 2.359.

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

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

Lemma 2.361. Let G be a topological group and $A, B \subseteq G$. If either A or B is open then AB is open.

PROOF: If A is open we have $AB = \bigcup_{b \in B} r_b(A)$. Similarly if B is open. \square

Definition 2.362 (Symmetric Neighbourhood). Let G be a topological group. A neighbourhood V of e is symmetric if and only if $V = V^{-1}$.

Lemma 2.363. Let G be a topological group. Let V be a neighbourhood of e. Then V is symmetric if and only if, for all $x \in V$, we have $x^{-1} \in V$.

Proof:

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

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for all $x \in V$ we have $x^{-1} \in V$

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

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

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

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

Lemma 2.364. Let G be a topological group. For every neighbourhood U of e, there exists a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $V^2 \subseteq U$.

Proof:

ous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of e.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Pick a neighbourhood V' of e such that $V'V' \subseteq U$ Proof: Such a neighbourhood exists because multiplication in G is continu-
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. PICK a neighbourhood W of e such that $WW^{-1} \subseteq V'$ PROOF: Such a neighbourhood exists because the function that maps (x,y)

to xy^{-1} is continuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $V = WW^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. V is a neighbourhood of e
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ e \in V$

PROOF: Since $e \in W$ so $e = ee^{-1} \in V$.

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

Proof: Lemma 2.361.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. V is symmetric
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. For all $x \in V$ we have $x^{-1} \in V$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in V$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. PICK $y, z \in W$ such that $x = yz^{-1}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x^{-1} = zy^{-1}$
 - $(3)4. \ x^{-1} \in V$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in V^{-1}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

Proof: Lemma 2.363

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

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

Proposition 2.365. Every topological group is Hausdorff.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: G be a topological group.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x, y \in G$ with $x \neq y$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $U = G \setminus \{x[^{-1}y]\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $VV \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. *U* is open

PROOF: Since G is T_1 .

 $\langle 2 \rangle 2. \ e \in U$

PROOF: Since $x \neq y$

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

Proof: Lemma 2.364.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. Vx and Vy are disjoint neighbourhoods of x and y respectively.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Vx is open

PROOF: Since $Vx = r_x(V)$

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

```
\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ Vx \cap Vy = \emptyset
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction z \in Vx \cap Vy
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick a, b \in V such that z = ax = by
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ xy^{-1} \in VV
         PROOF: Since xy^{-1} = a^{-1}b
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ xy^{-1} \in U
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 3.
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Proposition 2.366. Every topological group is regular.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: G be a topological group.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: A \subseteq G be a closed set and a \notin A.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. Let: U = G \setminus Aa^{-1}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VV \subseteq U
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. U is open
      PROOF: Since Aa^{-1} = r_{a^{-1}}(A) is closed.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. \ e \in U
      Proof: Since a \notin A.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: Lemma 2.364.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. VA and Va are disjoint open sets with A \subseteq VA and a \in Va
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. VA is open
      Proof: Lemma 2.361
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Va is open
      Proof: Lemma 2.361
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. VA \cap Va = \emptyset
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction z \in VA \cap Va
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick b, c \in V and d \in A with z = bd = ca
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ da^{-1} \in U
         PROOF: Since da^{-1} = b^{-1}c \in VV \subseteq U
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
         Proof: This contradicts \langle 1 \rangle 3
Proposition 2.367. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give
```

G/H the quotient topology. If H is closed in G then G/H is regular.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $p: G \to G/H$ be the canonical surjection.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: A be a closed set in G/H and $aH \in (G/H) \setminus A$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $B = p^{-1}(A)$

PROOF: Similar.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. B is a closed saturated set in G.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $B \cap aH = \emptyset$

```
\langle 1 \rangle 6. B = BH
\langle 1 \rangle7. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VB does not intersect
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: U = G \setminus Ba^{-1}
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VV \subseteq U
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. U is open
         PROOF: Since Ba^{-1} = r_{a^{-1}}(B) is closed.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ e \in U
         PROOF: If e \in Ba^{-1} then a \in B
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
         Proof: Lemma 2.364
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. VB \cap Va = \emptyset
      PROOF: If vb = v'a for v, v' \in V and b \in B then we have ba^{-1} = v^{-1}v' \in V
      Ba \cap VV \subseteq Ba \cap U.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. p(VB) and p(Va) are disjoint open sets
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. p(VB) and p(Va) are open.
      Proof: Proposition 2.359.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. p(VB) \cap p(Va) = \emptyset
      PROOF: If vbH = v'aH for v, v' \in V, b \in B then v'a = vbh for some h \in H.
      Hence v'a \in Va \cap VBH = Va \cap VB.
\langle 1 \rangle 9. \ A \subseteq p(VB)
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ aH \in p(Va)
Proposition 2.368. Let G be a topological group. The component of G that
contains e is a normal subgroup of G.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: C be the component of G that contains e.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For all x \in G, xC is the component of G that contains x.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x \in G
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: D be the component of G that contains x.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ xC \subseteq D
      Proof: Since xC is connected by Theorem 2.245.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. D \subseteq xC
      PROOF: Since x^{-1}D \subseteq C similarly.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For all x \in G, Cx is the component of G that contains x.
  Proof: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. For all x \in C we have xC = Cx = C
\langle 1 \rangle 5. For all x \in C we have x^{-1}C = C
\langle 1 \rangle 6. For all x \in C we have x^{-1} \in C
\langle 1 \rangle 7. For all x, y \in C we have xy \in C
  PROOF: Since xyC = xC = x.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. For all x \in G we have xC = Cx.
  PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 2 and \langle 1 \rangle 3.
```

Lemma 2.369. Let G be a topological group. Let A be a closed set in G and B

a compact subspace of G such that $A \cap B = \emptyset$. Then there exists a symmetric neighbourhood U of e such that $AU \cap BU = \emptyset$.

Proof:

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

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

Proposition 2.370 (AC). Let G be a topological group. Let A be a closed set in G, and B a compact subspace of G. Then AB is closed.

Proof:

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

Proof: Lemma 2.361.

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

Corollary 2.370.1. Let G be a topological group and $H \leq G$. Let $p: G \rightarrow G/H$ be the quotient map. If H is compact then p is a closed map.

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

Corollary 2.370.2. Let G be a topological group and $H \leq G$. If H and G/H are compact then G is compact.

PROOF: From Proposition 2.350 since, for all $aH \in G/H$, we have $p^{-1}(aH) = aH$ is compact because it is homemorphic to H. \square

2.55 The Metric Topology

Definition 2.371 (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 $x, y, z \in X$, $d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

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

Definition 2.372 (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 2.373 (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 2.374. 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:

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 2.375 (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 2.376. 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 2.377 (Standard Metric on \mathbb{R}). The *standard metric* on \mathbb{R} is defined by d(x,y) = |x-y|.

Proposition 2.378. 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 2.379 (Metrizable). A topological space X is *metrizable* if and only if there exists a metric on X that induces the topology.

Definition 2.380 (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 2.381 (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 2.382 (Standard Bounded Metric). Let d be a metric on X. The standard bounded metric corresponding to d is the metric \overline{d} defined by

$$\overline{d}(x,y) = \min(d(x,y),1) .$$

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{d}(x,y) \ge 0
   PROOF: Since d(x, y) \ge 0
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
   PROOF: \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 if and only if d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{d}(x,y) = \overline{d}(y,x)
   PROOF: Since d(x, y) = d(y, x)
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \overline{d}(x,z) \leq \overline{d}(x,y) + \overline{d}(y,z)
   Proof:
            \overline{d}(x,y) + \overline{d}(y,z) = \min(d(x,y),1) + \min(d(y,z),1)
                                     = \min(d(x,y) + d(y,z), d(x,y) + 1, d(y,z) + 1, 2)
                                     \geq \min(d(x,z),1)
                                     = \overline{d}(x,z)
```

Lemma 2.383. 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 2.83.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 2.84.

Proposition 2.384. Let d be a metric on the set X. Then the standard bounded metric d induces the same metric as d.

PROOF: This follows from Lemma 2.383 since the open balls with radius < 1 are the same under both metrics. \square

Lemma 2.385. 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 2.374 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 2.374

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. 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 2.374.

Proposition 2.386. \mathbb{R}^2 under the dictionary order topology is metrizable.

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

$$d((x,y),(x,z)) \stackrel{\circ}{=} \max(|y-z|,1)$$

$$d((x,y),(x',y')) = 1 \qquad \text{if } x \neq x' \square$$

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

Proposition 2.387. Let $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be a metric on X. Then the metric topology on X is the coarsest topology such that d is continuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. d is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $|d(a,b) d(x,y)| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ d(a,b) d(x,y) < \epsilon$

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

$$\le d(x,y) + 2\rho((a,b),(x,y))$$

$$< d(x,y) + 2\delta$$

$$= d(x,y) + \epsilon$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ d(a.b) - d(x,y) > -\epsilon$

PROOF: Similar.

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If \mathcal{T} is any topology under which d is continuous then \mathcal{T} is finer than the metric topology.

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

Proposition 2.388. Let X be a metric space with metric d and $A \subseteq X$. The restriction of d to A is a metric on A that induces the subspace topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The restriction of d to A is a metric on A.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2.$ Every open ball under $d \upharpoonright A$ is open under the subspace topology.

PROOF: $B_{d \upharpoonright A}(a, \epsilon) = B_d(a, \epsilon) \cap A$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. If U is open in the subspace topology and $x \in U$, then there exists a $d \upharpoonright A$ -ball B such that $x \in B \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK V open in X such that $U = V \cap A$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Pick $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_d(x, \epsilon) \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Take $B = B_{d \uparrow A}(x, \epsilon)$

Corollary 2.388.1. A subspace of a metrizable space is metrizable.

Proposition 2.389. Every metrizable space is Hausdorff.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a metric space
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a, b \in X$ with $a \neq b$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\epsilon = d(a,b)/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $U = B(a, \epsilon)$ and $V = B(b, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. U and V are disjoint neighbourhoods of a and b respectively.

Proposition 2.390 (CC). The product of a countable family of metrizable spaces is metrizable.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: (X_n, d_n) be a sequence of metric spaces.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: w.l.o.g. each d_n is bounded above by 1.

Proof: By Proposition 2.384.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: D be the metric on \mathbb{R}^{ω} defined by $D(x,y) = \sup_{i} (d_i(x_i,y_i)/i)$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. D(x,y) > 0
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. D(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D(x,y) = D(y,x)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $D(x,z) \leq D(x,y) + D(y,z)$

$$D(x,z) = \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i) + d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$= D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Every open ball $B_D(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the product topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK N such that $1/\epsilon < N$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $B_D(a, \epsilon) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} U_i$ where $U_i = B(a_i, i\epsilon)$ if $i \leq N$, and $U_i = X_i$ if i > N $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. For any open set U and $a \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_D(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$, V be an open set in \mathbb{R} and $a \in \pi_n^{-1}(V)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_{d_n}(a, \epsilon) \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B_D(a, \epsilon/n) \subseteq \pi_n^{-1}(V)$

Theorem 2.391. Let X and Y be metric spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$ PROOF: Theorem 2.114.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that $B(x, \delta) \subseteq U$ Proof: Proposition 2.374.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$, then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for all $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in X$ and V be a neighbourhood of f(x)
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(f(x), \epsilon) \subseteq V$

Proof: Proposition 2.374.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that, for all $y \in X$, if $d(x,y) < \delta$ then $d(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon$ Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$
- $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Let: $U = B(x, \delta)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. U is a neighbourhood of x with $f(U) \subseteq V$

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.114.

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Proposition 2.392. Let X be a metric space. Let (a_n) be a sequence in X and $l \in X$. Then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$, we have $d(a_n, l) < \epsilon$.

Proof: From Proposition 2.97. \square

Proposition 2.393. Every metrizable space is first countable.

PROOF: In any metric space X, the open balls B(a, 1/n) for $n \ge 1$ form a local basis at a.

Example 2.394. \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box topology is not metrizable.

Example 2.395. If J is uncountable then \mathbb{R}^J under the product topology is not metrizable.

Proposition 2.396. A compact subspace of a metric space is bounded.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: X be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$ be compact.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Pick $a \in A$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. $\{B(a,n) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ covers A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Pick a finite subcover $\{B(a, n_1), \dots, B(a, n_k)\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $N = \max(n_1, \ldots, n_k)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. For all $x, y \in A$ we have d(x, y) < 2N

Proof:

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

$$< N + N$$

This example shows the converse does not hold:

Example 2.397. The space \mathbb{R} under the standard bounded metric is bounded but not compact.

2.56 Real Linear Algebra

Definition 2.398 (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 $|x_i - z_i| \le |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|$.

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Proposition 2.399. The square metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF

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

Proof:

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

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

Definition 2.400. 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 2.401. 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 2.402 (Inner Product). Given $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, define the *inner product* $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \cdot (y_1, \ldots, y_n) = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n$$
.

We write \vec{x}^2 for $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}$.

Definition 2.403 (Norm). Let $n \geq 1$. The *norm* on \mathbb{R}^n is the function $\| \| : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

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

Lemma 2.404.

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions. \square

Lemma 2.405.

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

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

Lemma 2.406.

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

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

Lemma 2.407 (Triangle Inequality).

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

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 &= \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &= (\|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|)^2 \end{split}$$
 (Lemma 2.406)

Definition 2.408 (Euclidean Metric). Let $n \geq 1$. The *Euclidean metric* on \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = ||\vec{x} - \vec{y}||.$$

We prove this is a metric.

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

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

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

PROOF: $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} - \vec{y} = \vec{0}$.

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

PROOF: Immediate from definition.

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

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| &= \|(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{z})\| \\ &\leq \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\| \end{split} \tag{Lemma 2.407}$$

Proposition 2.409. The Euclidean metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

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

 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\sqrt{(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2} < \epsilon$ $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2 < \epsilon^2$ $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all i we have $(x_i a_i)^2 < \epsilon^2$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For all i we have $|x_i a_i| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon / \sqrt{n}) \subseteq B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon/\sqrt{n})$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all i we have $|x_i x_a| < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all *i* we have $(x_i x_a)^2 < \dot{\epsilon}^2/n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 2.385.

Proposition 2.410. Let $n \geq 0$. For all $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, the open ball $B(c, \epsilon)$ is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B(c, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B(c,\epsilon)$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B(c, \epsilon)$ for all t because

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

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

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

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

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

Proposition 2.411. Let $n \geq 0$. For all $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, the closed ball $B(c,\epsilon)$ is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B(c, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to \overline{B(c,\epsilon)}$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B(c, \epsilon)$ for all t because

$$\begin{aligned} d(p(t), c) &= \| (1 - t)a + tb - c \| \\ &= \| (1 - t)(a - c) + t(b - c) \| \\ &\leq (1 - t)\|a - c\| + t\|b - c\| \\ &\leq (1 - t)\epsilon + t\epsilon \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

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

Lemma 2.412. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ converge then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i y_i|$ converges.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $N \geq 0$ we have $\sum_{i=0}^{N} |x_i y_i| \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{N} |x_i|^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{N} |y_i|^2}$ PROOF: By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.
- PROOF: Since $\sum_{i=0}^{N} |x_i y_i|$ is an increasing sequence bounded above by $(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2)(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2)$.

Corollary 2.412.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ converge then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (x_i + y_i)^2$ converges.

PROOF: Since $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$, $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ and $2\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i y_i$ all converge.

Definition 2.413 (l^2 -metric). The l^2 -metric on

$$\left\{ (x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^\omega \mid \sum_{n=0}^\infty x_n^2 \text{ converges} \right\}$$

is defined by

$$d(x,y) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x_n - y_n)^2\right)^{1/2}$$

We prove this is a metric.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. d is well-defined.

Proof: By Corollary 2.412.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ d(x,y) \geq 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5.$ $d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$

PROOF: By Lemma 2.407.

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Theorem 2.414. Addition is a continuous function $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $|(a+b) (x+y)| < \epsilon$

$$|(a+b) - (x+y)| = |a-x| + |b-y|$$

$$\leq 2\rho((a,b),(x,y))$$

$$< 2\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.391

Theorem 2.415. Multiplication is a continuous function $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \min(\epsilon/(|a| + |b| + 1), 1)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $|ab xy| < \epsilon$

PROOF:

$$\begin{split} |ab-xy| &= |a(b-y) + (a-x)b - (a-x)(b-y)| \\ &\leq |a||b-y| + |b||a-x| + |a-x||b-y| \\ &< |a|\delta + |b|\delta + \delta^2 \\ &\leq |a|\delta + |b|\delta + \delta \end{split} \tag{$\langle 1 \rangle 5$}$$

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

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.391

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Theorem 2.416. The function $f: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^{-1}$ is continuous.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. For all $a \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $f^{-1}((a, +\infty))$ is open.

PROOF: The set is

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

$$(0, +\infty) \text{ if } a = 0$$

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

 $(-\infty,a^{-1})\cup(0,+\infty) \text{if }a<0$ $\langle 1\rangle 2.$ For all $a\in\mathbb{R}$ we have $f^{-1}((-\infty,a))$ is open.

PROOF: Similar.

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

PROOF: By Proposition 2.111 and Lemma 2.134.

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Definition 2.417. For $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is the space $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| \leq 1\}$.

Proposition 2.418. For all $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is path connected.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B^n$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B^n$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B^n$ for all t because

$$||(1-t)a + tb|| \le (1-t)||a|| + t||b||$$

$$\le (1-t) + t$$

$$= 1$$

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

Definition 2.419 (Punctured Euclidean Space). For $n \geq 0$, defined punctured Euclidean space to be $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$.

Proposition 2.420. For n > 1, punctured Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Case: 0 is on the line from a to b
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK a point c not on the line from a to b
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. The path consisting of a straight line from a to c followed by a straight line from c to b is a path from a to b.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Case: 0 is not on the line from a to b

PROOF: The straight line from a to b is a path from a to b.

Corollary 2.420.1. For n > 1, the spaces \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{R}^n are not homeomorphic.

PROOF: For any point a, the space $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{a\}$ is disconnected.

Definition 2.421 (Unit Sphere). For $n \geq 1$, the unit sphere S^{n-1} is the space

$$S^{n-1} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| = 1 \} .$$

Proposition 2.422. For n > 1, the unit sphere S^{n-1} is path connected.

PROOF: The map $g: \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \to S^{n-1}$ defined by $g(x) = x/\|x\|$ is continuous and surjective. The result follows by Proposition 2.266. \square

Proposition 2.423. Let $f: S^1 \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then there exists $x \in S^1$ such that f(x) = f(-x).

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $g: S^1 \to \mathbb{R}$ be the function g(x) = f(x) f(-x)Prove: There exists $x \in S^1$ such that g(x) = 0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Assume: without loss of generality g((1,0)) > 0
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ g((-1,0)) < 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. There exists x such that g(x) = 0

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

Definition 2.424 (Topologist's Sine Curve). Let $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$. The *topologist's sine curve* is the closure \overline{S} of S.

Proposition 2.425.

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

Proposition 2.426. The topologist's sine curve is connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $S = \{(x, \sin 1/x) \mid 0 < x \le 1\}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. S is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 2.245.

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

PROOF: Theorem 2.244.

Proposition 2.427 (CC). The topologist's sine curve is not path connected.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Assume: for a contradiction $p:[0,1] \to \overline{S}$ is a path from (0,0) to $(1,\sin 1)$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ p^{-1}(\{0\} \times [0,1])$ is closed.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: b be the greatest element of $p^{-1}(\{0\} \times [0,1])$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ b < 1$

PROOF: Since $p(1) = (1, \sin 1)$.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. PICK a sequence $(t_n)_{n>1}$ in (b,1] such that $t_n \to b$ and $\pi_2(p(t_n)) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK u with $0 < u < \pi_1(p(1/n))$ such that $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK t_n such that $0 < t_n < 1/n$ and $\pi_1(p(t_n)) = u$

PROOF: One exists by the Intermediate Value Theorem.

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

Proof: This contradicts 2.126.

П

Theorem 2.428. Let A be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then the following are equivalent:

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: By Corollary 2.335.1 and Proposition 2.396.

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

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

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

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

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

Proof: Proposition 2.328.

Corollary 2.428.1. The unit sphere S^{n-1} and the closed unit ball B^n are compact for any n.

2.57The Uniform Topology

Definition 2.429 (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 2.430. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is finer than the product topology.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 2.431. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is coarser than the box topology.

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.432. 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 2.433 (DC). The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is strictly coarser than the box topology if and only if J is infinite.

PROOF:

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

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

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

Proposition 2.434. The closure of \mathbb{R}^{∞} in \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the uniform topology is \mathbb{R}^{ω} .

PROOF: Given any open ball $B(a,\epsilon)$, pick an integer N such that $1/\epsilon < N$. Then $B(a,\epsilon)$ includes sequences whose nth entry is 0 for all $n \geq N$. \square

Example 2.435. The space \mathbb{R}^{ω} is disconnected under the uniform topology. The set of bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.

Proposition 2.436. Give \mathbb{R}^{ω} the uniform topology. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{\omega}$. Then x and y are in the same component if and only if x - y is bounded.

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. The component containing 0 is the set of bounded sequences.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: B be the set of bounded sequences.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. B is path-connected.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x.y \in B$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. Pick b > 0 such that $|x_j|, |y_j| \leq b$ for all j
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)x+tyProve: p is continuous.
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4$. Let: $t \in [0,1]$ and $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2b$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 6$. Let: $s \in [0,1]$ with $|s-t| < \delta$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 7. \ \overline{\rho}(p(s), p(t)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

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

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

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

$$< 2b\delta$$

$$= \epsilon$$

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

Proof: Proposition 2.264.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. If C is connected and $B \subseteq C$ then B = C.

PROOF: Otherwise $B \cap C$ and $C \setminus B$ form a separation of C. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Since $\lambda x.x - y$ is a Homeomorphism of \mathbb{R}^{ω} with itself.

2.58 Uniform Convergence

Definition 2.437 (Uniform Convergence). Let X be a set and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n: X \to Y)$ be a sequence of functions and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f_n converges uniformly to f as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that, for all $n \ge N$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$.

Example 2.438. Define $f_n: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by $f_n(x) = x^n$ for $n \ge 1$, and $f: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by f(x) = 0 if x < 1, f(1) = 1. Then f_n converges to f pointwise but not uniformly.

Theorem 2.439 (Uniform Limit Theorem). Let X be a topological space and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n : X \to Y)$ be a sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to Y$ be a function. If f_n converges uniformly to f as $n \to \infty$, then f is continuous.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$ and $y \in X$, we have $d(f_n(y), f(y)) < \epsilon/3$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f_N(U) \subseteq B(f_N(x), \epsilon/3)$ PROVE: $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d(f(y), f(x)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

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

Proposition 2.440. Let X be a topological space and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n : X \to Y)$ be a sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to Y$ be a function. Let (a_n) be a sequence of points in X and $a \in X$. If f_n converges uniformly to f and a_n converges to a in X then $f_n(a_n)$ converges to f(a) uniformly in Y.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. PICK N_1 such that, for all $n \geq N_1$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK N_2 such that, for all $n \geq N_2$, we have $a_n \in f^{-1}(B(a, \epsilon/2))$ PROOF: Using the fact that f is continuous from the Uniform Limit Theorem.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Let: $n \geq N$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6. \ d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

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

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

$$= \epsilon$$

Proposition 2.441. Let X be a set. Let $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of functions and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. Then f_n converges unifomly to f as $n \to \infty$ if and only if $f_n \to f$ as $n \to \infty$ in \mathbb{R}^X under the uniform topology.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f_n converges uniformly to f then f_n converges to f under the uniform topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f_n converges uniformly to f
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) \leq \epsilon/2$

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\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 \rangle 5. \text{ For all } n \geq N \text{ we have } \overline{\rho}(f_n,f) < \epsilon \\ \langle 1 \rangle 2. \text{ If } f_n \text{ converges to } f \text{ under the uniform topology then } f_n \text{ converges uniformly to } f. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 1. \text{ Assume: } f_n \text{ converges to } f \text{ under the uniform topology.} \\ \langle 2 \rangle 2. \text{ Let: } \epsilon > 0 \\ \langle 2 \rangle 3. \text{ PICK } N \text{ such that, for all } n \geq N, \text{ we have } \overline{\rho}(f_n,f) < \min(\epsilon,1/2) \\ \langle 2 \rangle 4. \text{ Let: } n \geq N \\ \langle 2 \rangle 5. \text{ Let: } x \in X \\ \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \overline{\rho}(f_n,f) < \min(\epsilon,1/2) \\ \text{ PROOF: From } \langle 2 \rangle 3. \\ \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ d(f_n(x),f(x)) < \min(\epsilon,1/2) \\ \langle 2 \rangle 8. \ d(f_n(x),f(x)) < \epsilon \end{array}
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2.59 Isometric Imbeddings

Definition 2.442. Let X and Y be metric spaces. An isometric imbedding $f: X \to Y$ is a function such that, for all $x, y \in X$, we have d(f(x), f(y)) = d(x, y).

Proposition 2.443. Every isometric imbedding is an imbedding.

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

2.60 Distance to a Set

Definition 2.444. Let X be a metric space, $x \in X$ and $A \subseteq X$ be nonempty. The *distance* from x to A is defined as

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