Topology

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1 Order Theory

Definition 1 (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 (Preordered Set). A preordered set consists of a set X and a preorder \leq on X.

Proposition 3. Let X and Y be linearly ordered sets. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be strictly monotone and surjective. Then f is a poset isomorphism.

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Proof:
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\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.
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Definition 4 (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 5 (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 6. 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 $b \in I$.

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\langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: s be the supremum of X in L. Proof: Since L is a linear continuum. \langle 2 \rangle 3. s \in I \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick a \in X Proof: Since X is nonempty (\langle 2 \rangle 1). \langle 3 \rangle 2. a \leq s \leq b \langle 3 \rangle 3. s \in I Proof: Since I is an interval (\langle 1 \rangle 1). \langle 2 \rangle 4. s is the supremum of X in I \langle 1 \rangle 3. I is dense. \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in I with x < y \langle 2 \rangle 2. Pick z \in L with x < z < y Proof: Since L is dense. \langle 2 \rangle 3. z \in I Proof: Since L is an interval. \Box
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Definition 7 (Ordered Square). The ordered square I_o^2 is the set $[0,1]^2$ under the dictionary order.

Proposition 8. The ordered square is a linear continuum.

Proof:

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every nonempty subset of I_o^2 bounded above has a supremum.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: X \subseteq I_o^2 be nonempty and bounded above by (b,c)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: s = \sup \pi_1(X)
      PROOF: The set \pi_1(X) is nonempty and bounded above by b.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: s \in \pi_1(X)
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: t = \sup\{y \in [0,1] \mid (s,y) \in X\}
          Proof: This set is nonempty and bounded above by c.
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. (s,t) is the supremum of X.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. Case: s \notin \pi_1(X)
      PROOF: In this case (s,0) is the supremum of X.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. I_o^2 is dense.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in I_o^2 with (x_1, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Case: x_1 < x_2
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. PICK x_3 with x_1 < x_3 < x_2
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_3, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Case: x_1 = x_2 and y_1 < y_2
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Pick y_3 with y_1 < y_3 < y_2
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)
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Proposition 9. 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.

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\langle 2 \rangle 1. Let: A \subseteq X \times [0,1) be nonempty and bounded above
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- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: x_0 be the supremum of $\pi_1(A)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $x_0 \in \pi_1(A)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: y_0 be the supremum of $\{ y \in [0,1) \mid (x_0,y) \in A \}$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. (x_0, y_0) is the supremum of A.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Case: $x_0 \notin \pi_1(A)$

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

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $X \times [0,1)$ is dense.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in X \times [0, 1)$ with $(x_1, y_1) < (x_2, y_2)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Case: $x_1 < x_2$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Pick y_3 such that $y_1 < y_3 < 1$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 < y_2$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. PICK y_3 such that $y_1 < y_3 < y_2$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ (x_1, y_1) < (x_1, y_3) < (x_2, y_2)$

2 Real Analysis

Definition 10. 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.

3 Group Theory

Definition 11. Given a group G and sets $A, B \subseteq G$, let $AB = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$.

Definition 12. Given a group G and a set $A \subseteq G$, let $A^{-1} = \{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\}$.

4 Topological Spaces

Definition 13 (Topology). A topology on a set X is a set $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ such that:

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

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

Definition 14 (Topological Space). A topological space X consists of a set X and a topology on X.

Definition 15 (Discrete Space). For any set X, the discrete topology on X is $\mathcal{P}X$.

Definition 16 (Indiscrete Space). For any set X, the *indiscrete* or *trivial* topology on X is $\{\emptyset, X\}$.

Definition 17 (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 18 (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 19 (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 20. Let X be a topological space and $U \subseteq X$. Then U is open if and only if, for all $x \in U$, there exists an open set V such that $x \in V \subseteq U$.

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Proof:  \begin{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}
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Lemma 21. 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 22. 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. \square

Definition 23 (Neighbourhood). A *neighbourhood* of a point x is an open set that contains x.

5 Closed Set

Definition 24 (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 25. The empty set is closed.

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

Lemma 26. The topological space X is closed.

Proof: Since \emptyset is open. \square

Lemma 27. 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 28. The union of two closed sets is closed.

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

Proposition 29. 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 30. 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 31. 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

6 Interior

Definition 32 (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 33. The interior of a set is open.

PROOF: It is a union of open sets. \square Lemma 34. $\operatorname{Int} A \subseteq A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. \Box **Lemma 35.** If U is open and $U \subseteq A$ then $U \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 36.** A set A is open if and only if A = Int A. PROOF: If A = Int A then A is open by Lemma 33. Conversely if A is open then $A \subseteq \operatorname{Int} A$ by the definition of interior and so $A = \operatorname{Int} A$. 7 Closure **Definition 37** (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 26). Lemma 38. The closure of a set is closed. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 33. Lemma 39. $A\subseteq \overline{A}$ PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 40.** If C is closed and $A \subseteq C$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq C$. PROOF: Immediate from definition. **Lemma 41.** A set A is closed if and only if $A = \overline{A}$. PROOF: Dual to Lemma 36. **Theorem 42.** Let X be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$ and $x \in X$. Then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if every neighbourhood of x intersects A. PROOF: We have $x \in \overline{A}$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall C. C \text{ closed } \land A \subseteq C \Rightarrow x \in C$ $\Leftrightarrow \forall U.U \text{ open } \wedge A \cap U = \emptyset \Rightarrow x \not\in U$

Proposition 43. If $A \subseteq B$ then $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$.

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

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

Proposition 44.

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

Proof:

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

Proof: By Proposition 43.

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

PROOF: By Proposition 43.

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

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

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 1$ and Theorem 42.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $U \cap V$ 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 42.

8 Boundary

Definition 45 (Boundary). The *boundary* of a set A is the set $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$.

Proposition 46.

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

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

Proposition 47.

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

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

PROOF: If $\partial A = \emptyset$ then $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A$ by Proposition 47.

Proposition 49. A set U is open if and only if $\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$.

Proof:

$$\partial U = \overline{U} \setminus U$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \overline{U} \setminus \text{Int } U = \overline{U} \setminus U \qquad (Propositions 46, 47)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{Int } U = U$$

9 Limit Points

Definition 50 (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 51. The point a is an accumulation point for A if and only if $a \in \overline{A \setminus \{a\}}$.

PROOF: From Theorem 42. \square

Theorem 52. 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 42. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $A \subseteq \overline{A}$

PROOF: I a

Proof: Lemma 39.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 42.

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Corollary 52.1. A set is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

Proposition 53. 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 54. 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.

10 Basis for a Topology

Definition 55 (Basis). If X is a set, a *basis* for a topology on X is a set $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}X$ called *basis elements* such that

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

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

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

Lemma 56. Let X be a set. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for a topology \mathcal{T} on X. Then \mathcal{T} is the set of all unions of subsets of \mathcal{B} .

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Corollary 56.1. 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 57. Let X be a topological space. Suppose that C is a set of open sets such that, for every open set U and every point $x \in U$, there exists $C \in C$ such that $x \in C \subseteq U$. Then C is a basis for the topology on X.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Immediate from hypothesis.

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

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

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

PROOF: Immediate from hypothesis.

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

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

Lemma 58. 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 56.1.

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

Proof: By $\langle 2 \rangle 1$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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\langle 2 \rangle4. PICK B \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B \subseteq U
PROOF: Since \mathcal{B} is a basis for \mathcal{T}.
\langle 2 \rangle5. PICK B' \in \mathcal{B}' such that x \in B' \subseteq B
PROOF: By \langle 2 \rangle1.
\langle 2 \rangle6. x \in B' \subseteq U
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Theorem 59. Let X be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$ and $x \in X$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for X. Then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A.

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If $x \in A$ then, for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$, if $x \in B$ then B intersects A. PROOF: This follows from Theorem 42 since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 56.1).

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 42.

Definition 60 (Lower Limit Topology on the Real Line). The *lower limit topology on the real line* is the topology on \mathbb{R} generated by the basis consisting of all half-open intervals of the form [a, b).

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

We prove this is a basis for a topology.

Proof:

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

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

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

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Definition 61 (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 62. 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 63 (Subbasis). A *subbasis* S for a topology on X is a set $S \subseteq PX$ such that $\bigcup S = X$.

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

We prove this is a topology.

Proof:

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

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

PROOF: Since $S \subseteq B$.

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

PROOF: By definition.

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

PROOF: By Lemma 56.

We have simultaneously proved:

Proposition 64. 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 65. Let X be a set. Let S be a subbasis for a topology T on X. Then T is the coarsest topology that includes S.

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

11 Local Basis at a Point

Definition 66 (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 67. If there exists a countable local basis at a point a, then there exists a countable local basis $\{B_n \mid n \geq 1\}$ such that $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$.

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

12 Convergence

Definition 68 (Convergence). Let X be a topological space. Let $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in X and $l\in X$. Then the sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to the limit l, $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$, if and only if, for every neighbourhood U of l, there exists N such that, for all $n\geq N$, we have $a_n\in U$.

Theorem 69. In a Hausdorff space, a sequence has at most one limit.

Proof:

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

Proof: By the Hausdorff axiom.

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

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

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

Proposition 70. Let X be an infinite set under the finite complement topology. Let $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence with all points distinct. Then for every $l\in X$ we have $a_n\to l$ as $n\to\infty$.

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

Lemma 71. 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 42.

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Proposition 72. Let X be a topological space. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Let (a_n) be a sequence in X and $l \in X$. Then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if, for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $l \in B$, there exists N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $a_n \in B$.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Since every element of \mathcal{B} is open (Corollary 56.1).

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 73. If a sequence (a_n) is constant with $a_n = l$ for all n, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$.

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Theorem 74. 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 73.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 75. 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 76 (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 76.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |a_i|$ converges then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i$ converges.

Theorem 77 (Weierstrass M-test). Let X be a set and $(f_n: X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of functions. Let

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

13 Locally Finite Sets

Definition 78 (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 79 (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 89 and 140.

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

Proof: Lemma 28.

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

PROOF: Theorem 89.

 $\langle 1 \rangle$ 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 99.

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

Example 80. 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].

14 Open Maps

Definition 81 (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 82. 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 56.

Proposition 83. 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 $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, we have $f(\bigcup \mathcal{A}) = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} f(B)$ is open in Y. The result follows from Lemma 56. \square

15 Continuous Functions

Definition 84 (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 85. 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 56).
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 56.

1 ROOF. By Lemma 50.

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

Proof:

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

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Proposition 86. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let S be a subbasis for Y. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $S \in S$, we have $f^{-1}(S)$ is open in X.

Proof:

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

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

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

PROOF: By Propositions 85 and 64.

Proposition 87. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$. Let S be a basis for Y. Then f is continuous if and only if, for all $V \in S$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f is continuous then, for all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. PROOF: Since every element of \mathcal{S} is open.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Suppose that, for all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X. Then f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $V \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. For every set B that is the finite intersection of elemets of 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 64 and 85.

Definition 88 (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 89. 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.

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\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 42.
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. \ f(y) \in V \cap f(A)
   \langle 2 \rangle 8. Q.E.D.
       PROOF: By Theorem 42.
\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))}
                                                                                                  (\langle 2 \rangle 1)
                                     \subseteq \overline{B}
                                                                                 (Proposition 43)
                                     = B
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: 3
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: V be open in Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Y \setminus V is closed in Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. f^{-1}(Y \setminus V) is closed in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. X \setminus f^{-1}(V) is closed in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. f^{-1}(V) is open in X
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 1 \Rightarrow 4
   PROOF: For any neighbourhood V of f(x), the set U = f^{-1}(V) is a neigh-
   bourhood of x such that f(U) \subseteq V.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ 4 \Rightarrow 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: 4
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: V be open in Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Let: x \in f^{-1}(V)
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. V is a neighbourhood of f(x)
   \langle 2 \rangle5. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that f(U) \subseteq V
   \langle 2 \rangle 6. \ x \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)
   \langle 2 \rangle 7. Q.E.D.
       PROOF: By Lemma 20.
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Theorem 90. 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 91. 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 92. The composite of two continuous functions is continuous.

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

Theorem 93. 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 94. 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 95. 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 96. 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
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} (f \restriction U)^{-1}(V)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 139.

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Proposition 97. 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 $\mathcal{T}' \subset \mathcal{T}$.

Proof: Immediate from definitions. \square

Proposition 98. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous on the right at a if and only if f is continuous at a as a function $\mathbb{R}_l \to \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

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

Lemma 99. 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 139.

Proposition 100. Let $f: A \to B$ and $g: C \to D$ be continuous. Define $f \times g: A \times C \to B \times D$ by

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

Then $f \times g$ is continuous.

PROOF: $\pi_1 \circ (f \times g) = f \circ \pi_1$ and $\pi_2 \circ (f \times g) = g \circ \pi_2$ are continuous by Theorem 92. The result follows by Theorem 129.

Proposition 101. Let X be a topological space. Let Y a Hausdorff space. Let $A \subseteq X$. Let $f, g : \overline{A} \to Y$ be continuous. If f and g agree on A then f = g.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

Proposition 102. 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 $f(n) \in V$

16 Homeomorphisms

Definition 103 (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 104. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ a bijection. Then the following are equivalent:

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions.

Proposition 105. 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 106 (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 107 (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 108. 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.

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Proof:
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\langle 1 \rangle 1. i is injective
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. *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 $i(V) = (X \times V) \cap i(Y)$.

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17 The Order Topology

Definition 109 (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:

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\langle 1 \rangle 1. For all x \in X there exists B \in \mathcal{B} such that x \in B.
```

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

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

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Case: $B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = [\bot, d)$
 - PROOF: Take $B_3 = (a, \min(b, d))$.
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Case: $B_1 = (a, b), B_2 = (c, \top]$

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Case: $B_1 = [\bot, b), B_2 = [\bot, d)$

PROOF: Take $B_3 = [\bot, \min(b, d))$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. Case: $B_1 = [\bot, b), B_2 = (c, \top]$

```
PROOF: Take B_3 = (c, b).
Lemma 110. Let X be a linearly ordered set. Then the open rays form a
subbasis for the order topology on X.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every open ray is open.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all a \in X, the ray (-\infty, a) is open.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in (-\infty, a)
     \langle 3 \rangle 2. Case: x is least in X
        PROOF: xin[x, a) = (-\infty, a).
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. Case: x is not least in X
        \langle 4 \rangle 1. Pick y < x
        \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ x \in (y,a) \subseteq (-\infty,a)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. For all a \in X, the ray (a, +\infty) is open.
     PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Every basic open set is a finite intersection of open rays.
  PROOF: We have (a,b) = (a,+\infty) \cap (-\infty,b), [\bot,b] = (-\infty,b) and (a,\top] =
  (a, +\infty).
Definition 111 (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 112. The lower limit topology is strictly finer than the standard topol-
ogy on \mathbb{R}.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Every open interval is open in the lower limit topology.
  PROOF: If x \in (a, b) then x \in [x, b) \subseteq (a, b).
\langle 1 \rangle 2. The half-open interval [0,1) is not open in the standard topology.
   PROOF: There is no open interval (a, b) such that 0 \in (a, b) \subseteq [0, 1).
Lemma 113. 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 56.1.
\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,
```

Lemma 114. Let X be a topological space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set in the order topology. Let $f, g: X \to Y$ be continuous. Then $C = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \leq g(x)\}$ is closed.

since there must be a positive integer n with $1/n \in (a, b)$.

Proof:

Proposition 115. 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 114.

Proposition 116. 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.

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

PROOF: Proposition 3.

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

18 The *n*th Root Function

Proposition 117. 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:

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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 116.

Definition 118. 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 $\lambda x.x^n$.

19 The Product Topology

Definition 119 (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 120. 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 64.

Proposition 121. 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 122. Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. For $i\in I$, let \mathcal{B}_i be a basis for the topology on A_i . Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i\in I} B_i \mid \forall i\in I.B_i\in \mathcal{B}_i, B_i = A_i \text{ for all but finitely many } i\}$ is a basis for the box topology on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$.

Proof:

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

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

Proof: Lemma 57.

Proposition 123. 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 82. \square

Example 124. 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 125. 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 56.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 123.

Proposition 126 (AC). Let $\{X_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. Let $A_i \subseteq X_i$ for all $i \in I$. Then

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

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 39.

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

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

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Proposition 121.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in \prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of x
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK V_i open in X_i such that $x \in \prod_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq U$ with $V_i = X_i$ except for $i = i_1, \ldots, i_n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For $i \in I$, pick $a_i \in V_i \cap A_i$

PROOF: By Theorem 42 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 127. 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 42.

Proposition 128. 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 102.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If, for all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$, then $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: For all $i \in I$, we have $\pi_i(a_n) \to \pi_i(l)$ as $n \to \infty$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: V be a neighbourhood of l
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK open sets U_i in X_i such that $l \in \prod_{i \in I} U_i \subseteq V$ and $U_i = X_i$ for all i except $i = i_1, \ldots, i_k$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For j = 1, ..., k, PICK N_j such that, for all $n \geq N_j$, we have $\pi_{i_j}(a_n) \in U_{i_j}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $N = \max(N_1, \ldots, N_k)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in V$

Theorem 129. 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 86.

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19.1 Continuous in Each Variable Separately

Definition 130 (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 131. 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 108, hence $F \circ i$ is continuous by Theorem 92.

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

Example 132. 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 133. 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 83. \square

20 The Subspace Topology

Definition 134 (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: $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$

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

Theorem 135. Let X be a topological space and Y a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$. Then A is closed in Y if and only if there exists a closed set C in X such that $A = C \cap Y$.

PROOF: We have

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

Theorem 136. Let Y be a subspace of X. Let $A \subseteq Y$. Let \overline{A} be the closure of A in X. Then the closure of A in Y is $\overline{A} \cap Y$.

PROOF: The closure of
$$A$$
 in Y is
$$\bigcap \{C \text{ closed in } Y \mid A \subseteq C\}$$

$$= \bigcap \{D \cap Y \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D \cap Y\}$$
 (Theorem 135)
$$= \bigcap \{D \mid D \text{ closed in } X, A \subseteq D\} \cap Y$$

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

Lemma 137. Let X be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology on X. Then $\mathcal{B}' = \{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a basis for the subspace topology on Y.

Proof:

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

PROOF: By Lemma 57.

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Lemma 138. 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 137, and this is the set of all finite intersections of elements of \mathcal{S}' . \square

Lemma 139. 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.

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Theorem 140. 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 135). Then A is the intersection of two sets closed in X, hence A is closed in X (Lemma 27). \square

Theorem 141. 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 138. \square

Theorem 142. Let X be an ordered set in the order topology. Let $Y \subseteq X$ be an interval. Then the order topology on Y is the same as the subspace topology on Y.

Proof:

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

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

 $\langle 4 \rangle 2$. Case: For all $y \in Y$ we have a < y

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

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

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

PROOF: Because Y is an interval.

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

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

PROOF: By Lemmas 110 and 138 and Proposition 65.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 110 and Proposition 65

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

Example 143. 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 144. Let X be a topological space, Y a subspace of X, and Z a subspace of Y. Then the subspace topology on Z inherited from X is the same as the subspace topology on Z inherited from Y.

PROOF: The subspace topology inherited from Y is

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

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

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

which is the subspace topology inherited from X. \square

Definition 145 (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 146 (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 147. 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 139.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 148. 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 149. 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

21 The Box Topology

Definition 150 (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 151. The box topology is finer than the product topology.

PROOF: From Proposition 120. \square

Corollary 151.1. 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 121.

Proposition 152 (AC). Let $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of topological spaces. For $i \in I$, let \mathcal{B}_i be a basis for the topology on A_i . Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_{i\in I} B_i \mid \forall i \in I.B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i\}$ is a basis for the box topology on $\prod_{i\in I} A_i$.

Proof:

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

Proof: Lemma 57.

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Theorem 153. 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

opology 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 137. \Box

Proposition 154. 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 $b \in \pi_i^{-1}(V)$

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Proposition 155 (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 39.

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

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

PROOF: Since $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ is closed by Corollary 151.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. $\prod_{i \in I} \overline{A_i} \subseteq \overline{\prod_{i \in I} A_i}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. 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 42 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 129 fails in the box topology.

Example 156. 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 128 fails in the box topology.

Example 157. 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 158. 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}^{∞} .

22 T_1 Spaces

Definition 159 (T_1 Space). A topological space is T_1 if and only if every singleton is closed.

Lemma 160. A space is T_1 if and only if every finite set is closed.

PROOF: From Lemma 28.

Theorem 161. 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 53.)

Proposition 162. 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:

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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 163. A subspace of a T_1 space is T_1 .

PROOF: From Proposition 140.

23 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 164 (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 165. 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.

```
PROOF: Theorem 42.
\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 166. 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
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Proposition 167. The product of a family of Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. Let: \{X_i\}_{i \in I} be a family of Hausdorff spaces.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. Let: a, b \in \prod_{i \in I} X_i with a \neq b
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PICK i \in I such that a_i \neq b_i
\langle 1 \rangle 4. PICK U, V disjoint open sets in X_i with a_i \in U and b_i \in V
\langle 1 \rangle 5. \pi_i^{-1}(U) and \pi_i^{-1}(V) are disjoint open sets in \prod_{i \in I} X_i with a \in \pi_i^{-1}(U)
       and b \in \pi_i^{-1}(V)
Theorem 168. 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 \rangle5. Case: There is no c such that a < c < b
   PROOF: The sets (-\infty, b) and (a, +\infty) are disjoint neighbourhoods of a and
  b respectively.
```

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. U intersects $\{b\}$

Theorem 169. 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 170. A space X is Hausdorff if and only if the diagonal $\Delta = \{(x,x) \mid x \in X\}$ is closed in X^2 .

Proof:

X is Hausdorff

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

24 The First Countability Axiom

Definition 171 (First Countability Axiom). A topological space X satisfies the *first countability axiom*, or is *first countable*, if and only if every point has a countable local basis.

Lemma 172 (Sequence Lemma (CC)). Let X be a first countable space. Let $A \subseteq X$ and $l \in \overline{A}$. Then there exists a sequence in A that converges to l.

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Pick a countable local basis $\{B_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ at l such that $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq \cdots$. Proof: Lemma 67.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $n \geq 1$, PICK $a_n \in A \cap B_n$. PROVE: $a_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: U be a neighbourhood of A
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. PICK N such that $B_N \subseteq U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. For $n \geq N$ we have $a_n \in U$ PROOF: $a_n \in B_n \subseteq B_N \subseteq U$

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Theorem 173 (CC). Let X be a first countable space and Y a topological space. Let $f: X \to Y$. Suppose that, for every sequence (x_n) in X and $l \in X$, if $x_n \to l$ as $n \to \infty$, then $f(x_n) \to f(l)$ as $n \to \infty$. Then f is continuous.

Proof:

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

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

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

PROOF: By the Sequence Lemma.

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

Proof: By Lemma 71.

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

PROOF: By Theorem 89.

Example 174 (CC). The space \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box product is not first countable.

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

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

Example 175. If J is an uncountable set then \mathbb{R}^J is not first countable.

PROOF:

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

PROOF: Using the Axiom of Countable Choice.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. 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 176. The space \mathbb{R}_l is first countable.

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

Example 177. The ordered square is first countable.

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

25 Strong Continuity

Definition 178 (Strongly Continuous). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is *strongly continuous* if and only if, for every subset $U \subseteq Y$, we have U is open in Y if and only if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in X.

Proposition 179. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $f: X \to Y$ be a function. Then f is strongly continuous if and only if, for every subset $C \subseteq Y$, we have C is closed in Y if and only if $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X.

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

Proposition 180. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If f and g are strongly continuous then so is $g \circ f$.

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

Proposition 181. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If $g \circ f$ is continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is continuous.

Proof:

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

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

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

PROOF: Since g is strongly continuous.

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Proposition 182. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If $g \circ f$ is strongly continuous and f is strongly continuous then g is strongly continuous.

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

26 Saturated Sets

Definition 183. Let X and Y be sets and p: X woheadrightarrow Y a surjective function. Let $C \subseteq X$. Then C is *saturated* with respect to p if and only if, for all $x, y \in X$, if $x \in C$ and p(x) = p(y) then $y \in C$.

Proposition 184. Let X and Y be sets and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a surjective function. Let $C \subseteq X$. Then the following are equivalent:

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Trivial.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(p(C)) \subseteq C$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in p^{-1}(p(C))$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ p(x) \in p(C)$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. There exists $y \in C$ such that p(x) = p(y)
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x \in C$

```
PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1. \langle 1 \rangle 2. 3 \Rightarrow 2
PROOF: Trivial. \langle 1 \rangle 3. 2 \Rightarrow 1
PROOF: This follows because if p(x) \in D and p(x) = p(y) then p(y) \in D.
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27 Quotient Maps

Definition 185 (Quotient Map). Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \to Y$. Then p is a *quotient map* if and only if p is surjective and strongly continuous.

Proposition 186. Let X and Y be topological spaces and $p: X \rightarrow\!\!\!\!\rightarrow Y$ be a surjective function. Then the following are equivalent.

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

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

```
Proof:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. \ 1 \Rightarrow 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is a quotient map.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U be a saturated open set in X.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. p^{-1}(p(U)) is open in X.
       PROOF: Since U = p^{-1}(p(U)) be Proposition 184.
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. p(U) is open in Y.
       PROOF: From \langle 2 \rangle 1.
\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ 1 \Rightarrow 3
   PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ 2 \Rightarrow 1
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is continuous and maps saturated open sets to open sets.
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Let: U \subseteq Y
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Assume: p^{-1}(U) is open in X
   \langle 2 \rangle 4. p^{-1}(U) is saturated.
       Proof: Proposition 184.
   \langle 2 \rangle 5. U is open in Y.
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ 3 \Rightarrow 1
   PROOF: Similar.
```

Corollary 186.1. Every surjective continuous open map is a quotient map.

Corollary 186.2. Every surjective continuous closed map is a quotient map.

Example 187. The converses of these corollaries do not hold.

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

We prove that 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 188. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. Let $A \subseteq X$ be saturated with respect to p. Let $q: A \to p(A)$ be the restriction of p.

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Theorem 93.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. 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)
 - $(4)4. x \in A$

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 139, $\langle 2 \rangle 1$, $\langle 3 \rangle 1$.

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

Proof: Proposition 186, $\langle 1 \rangle 1$, $\langle 3 \rangle 2$, $\langle 3 \rangle 3$

```
\langle 3 \rangle 5. q(U) is open in p(A)
         PROOF: Since q(U) = p(U) = p(U) \cap p(A).
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 186.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. If A is closed in X then q is a quotient map.
   PROOF: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle 7. If p is an open map then q is a quotient map.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: p is an open map
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. q maps saturated open sets to open sets.
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: U be open in A and saturated with respect to q
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICK V open in X such that U = A \cap V
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. p(V) is open in Y
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ \ q(U) = p(V) \cap p(A)
         \langle 4 \rangle 1. \ q(U) \subseteq p(V) \cap p(A)
            PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 2.
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. \ p(V) \cap p(A) \subseteq q(U)
             \langle 5 \rangle 1. Let: y \in p(V) \cap p(A)
             \langle 5 \rangle 2. Pick x \in V and x' \in A such that p(x) = p(x') = y
             \langle 5 \rangle 3. \ x \in A
                Proof: By \langle 1 \rangle 2.
             \langle 5 \rangle 4. \ x \in U
                PROOF: From \langle 3 \rangle 2
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.
      Proof: By Proposition 186.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. If p is a closed map then q is a quotient map.
   PROOF: Similar.
```

Example 189. This example shows we cannot remove the hypotheses on A and p.

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

For a counterexample where A is saturated, see Example 195.

Proposition 190. Let $p: A \twoheadrightarrow C$ and $q: B \twoheadrightarrow D$ be open quotient maps. Then $p \times q: A \times B \rightarrow C \times D$ is an open quotient map.

PROOF: From Corollary 186.1, Proposition 133 and Theorem 129.

Theorem 191. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. Let Z be a topological space and $f: Y \to Z$ be a function. Then

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

Proof:

```
\langle 1 \rangle 1. If f \circ p is continuous then f is continuous. PROOF: Proposition 181. \langle 1 \rangle 2. If f is continuous then f \circ p is continuous. PROOF: Theorem 92. \langle 1 \rangle 3. If f \circ p is a quotient map then f is a quotient map. PROOF: Proposition 182. \langle 1 \rangle 4. If f is a quotient map then f \circ p is a quotient map. PROOF: From Proposition 180.
```

Proposition 192. Let X and Y be topological spaces. Let $p: X \to Y$ and $f: Y \to X$ be continuous maps such that $p \circ f = \mathrm{id}_Y$. Then p is a quotient map.

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

28 Quotient Topology

Definition 193 (Quotient Topology). Let X be a topological space, Y a set and $p: X \to Y$ be a surjective function. Then the *quotient topology* on Y is the unique topology on Y with respect to which p is a quotient map, namely $\mathcal{T} = \{U \in \mathcal{P}Y \mid p^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } X\}.$

We prove this is a topology.

Definition 194 (Quotient Space). Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X. Let $p:X \twoheadrightarrow X/\sim$ be the canonical surjection. Then X/\sim under the quotient topology is called a *quotient space*, *identification space* or *decomposition space* of X.

Here is a counterexample showing we cannot remove all the hypotheses of Proposition 188 except that A is saturated.

Example 195. Let $X = (0, 1/2] \cup \{1\} \cup \{1 + 1/n : n \ge 2\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R} . Define R to be the equivalence relation on X where xRy iff (x = y or |x-y| = 1), so we identify 1/n with 1+1/n for all $n \geq 2$. Let Y be the resulting quotient space X/R in the quotient topology and $p:X \to Y$ the canonical surjection.

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

Proposition 196. Let X, Y and Z be topological spaces. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. If f and g are quotient maps then so is $g \circ f$.

Proof: From Proposition 180.

Example 197. The product of two quotient maps is not necessarily a quotient

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

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

```
PROOF:
\langle 1 \rangle 1. For n \geq 1,
          Let: c_n = \sqrt{2}/n
\langle 1 \rangle 2. For n \geq 1,
          Let: U_n = \{(x,y) \in X \times \mathbb{Q} \mid n-1/4 < x < n+1/4, (y+n > x + y) \}
                    c_n \text{ and } y + n > -x + c_n \text{ or } (y + n < x + c_n \text{ and } y + n < -x + c_n)
\langle 1 \rangle 3. For n \geq 1, we have U_n is open in X \times \mathbb{Q}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. For n \geq 1, we have \{n\} \times \mathbb{Q} \subseteq U_n
\langle 1 \rangle5. Let: U = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n
\langle 1 \rangle6. U is open in X \times \mathbb{Q}
\langle 1 \rangle7. U is saturated with respect to p \times id_{\mathbb{O}}
\langle 1 \rangle 8. Let: U' = (p \times id_{\mathbb{Q}})(U)
\langle 1 \rangle 9. Assume: for a contradiction U' is open in X^* \times \mathbb{Q}
\langle 1 \rangle 10. \ (1,0) \in U'
\langle 1 \rangle 11. PICK a neighbourhood W of 1 in X^* and \delta > 0 such that W \times (-\delta, \delta) \subseteq U'
\langle 1 \rangle 12. \ p^{-1}(W) \times (-\delta, \delta) \subseteq U
\langle 1 \rangle 13. PICK n such that c_n < \delta
\langle 1 \rangle 14. \ n \in p^{-1}(W)
(1)15. PICK \epsilon > 0 such that \epsilon < \delta - c_n and \epsilon < 1/4 and (n - \epsilon, n + \epsilon) \subseteq p^{-1}(W)
```

Proposition 198. Let X be a topological space and \sim an equivalence relation on X. Then $X/\sim is\ T_1$ if and only if every equivalence class is closed in X.

Proof: Immediate from definitions.

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

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

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

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

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

29 Retractions

Definition 199 (Retraction). Let X be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. A retraction of X onto A is a continuous map $r: X \to A$ such that, for all $a \in A$, we have r(a) = a.

Proposition 200. Every retraction is a quotient map.

PROOF: Proposition 192 with f the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$. \square

30 Homogeneous Spaces

Definition 201 (Homogeneous). A topological space X is homogeneous if and only if, for any points $a, b \in X$, there exists a homeomorphism $\phi : X \cong X$ such that $\phi(a) = b$.

31 Regular Spaces

Definition 202 (Regular Space). A topological space X is *regular* if and only if, for any closed set A and point $a \notin A$, there exist disjoint open sets U, V such that $A \subseteq U$ and $a \in V$.

32 Connected Spaces

Definition 203 (Separation). A *separation* of a topological space X is a pair of disjoint open sets U, V such that $U \cup V = \emptyset$.

Definition 204 (Connected). A topological space is *connected* if and only if it has no separation; otherwise it is *disconnected*.

Proposition 205. A topological space X is connected if and only if the only sets that are both open and closed are X and \emptyset .

Immediate from defintions.

Lemma 206. If Y is a subspace of X, a separation of Y is a pair of disjoint nonempty sets A and B whose union is Y, neither of which contains a limit point of the other.

Proof:

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

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction l \in A and l is a limit point of B in X.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. l is a limit point of B in Y
        Proof: Proposition 149.
      \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 52.1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. Q.E.D.
         PROOF: This contradicts the fact that A \cap B = \emptyset (\langle 2 \rangle 1).
  \langle 2 \rangle 4. B does not contain a limit point of A
     Proof: Similar.
\langle 1 \rangle3. If A and B are disjoint and nonempty, A \cup B = Y, and neither of A and
       B contains a limit point of the other, then A and B form a separation of
       Y.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Assume: A and B are disjoint and nonempty, A \cup B = Y, and neither
                        of A and B contains a limit point of the other.
  \langle 2 \rangle 2. A is open in Y
     \langle 3 \rangle 1. B is closed in Y
         \langle 4 \rangle 1. Let: l be a limit point of B in Y
         \langle 4 \rangle 2. l is a limit point of B in X
           Proof: Proposition 149.
         \langle 4 \rangle 3. \ l \notin A
            Proof: By \langle 2 \rangle 1
         \langle 4 \rangle 4. \ l \in B
           PROOF: By \langle 2 \rangle 1 since A \cup B = Y
         \langle 4 \rangle5. Q.E.D.
           PROOF: Corollary 52.1.
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
        PROOF: Since A = Y \setminus B.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. B is open in Y
     PROOF: Similar.
```

Example 207. Every set under the indiscrete topology is connected.

Example 208. The discrete topology on a set X is connected if and only if $|X| \leq 1$.

Example 209. The finite complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is infinite.

Example 210. The countable complement topology on a set X is connected if and only if either $|X| \le 1$ or X is uncountable.

Example 211. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are disconnected. For any irrational a, the sets $(-\infty, a) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ and $(a, +\infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ form a separation of \mathbb{Q} .

Lemma 212. Let X be a topological space. If C and D form a separation of X, and Y is a connected subspace of X, then either $Y \subseteq C$ or $Y \subseteq D$.

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

Theorem 213. The union of a set of connected subspaces of a space X that have a point in common is connected.

Proof:

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

Proof: Lemma 212.

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

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

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Theorem 214. Let X be a topological space and A a connected subspace of X. If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$ then B is connected.

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 212.

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

PROOF: Theorem 52.

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

Proof: Lemma 54, $\langle 1 \rangle 2$.

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

Proof: Lemma 206.

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

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

Theorem 215. The image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected.

Proof:

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

_ T

Theorem 216. The product of a family of connected spaces is connected.

PROOF:

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

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

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

PROOF: It is homeomorphic to X.

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

PROOF: It is homeomorphic to Y.

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

Let: $T_x = (X \times \{b\}) \cup (\{x\} \times Y)$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. For all $x \in X$, T_x is connected.

PROOF: Theorem 213 since $(x, b) \in (X \times \{b\}) \cap (\{x\} \times Y)$.

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

PROOF: Theorem 213 since $X \times Y = \bigcup_{x \in X} T_x$ and (a, b) is a point in every T_x .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Theorem 213 since a is a common point.

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

PROOF: Theorem 214.

Example 217. The set \mathbb{R}^{ω} is disconnected under the uniform and box topolo-

gies. Under either topology, the set of bounded sequences and the set of unbounded sequences form a separation.

Proposition 218. Let \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' be two topologies on the same set X. If $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ and (X, \mathcal{T}') is connected then (X, \mathcal{T}) is connected.

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

Proposition 219. Let X be a topological space and (A_n) a sequence of connected subspaces of X. If $A_n \cap A_{n+1} \neq \emptyset$ for all n then $\bigcup_n A_n$ is connected.

PROOF:

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

Proof: Lemma 212.

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

Proof:

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

PROOF: Lemma 212.

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

PROOF: The result follows by induction.

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

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

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Proposition 220. Let X be a topological space. Let $A, C \subseteq X$. If C is connected and intersects both A and $X \setminus A$ then C intersects ∂A .

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

Example 221. The space \mathbb{R}_l is disconnected. For any real x, the sets $(-\infty, x)$ and $[x, +\infty)$ form a separation.

Proposition 222. Let X and Y be connected spaces. Let A be a proper subset of X and B a proper subset of Y. Then $(X \times Y) \setminus (A \times B)$ is connected.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Theorem 213 since (x, b) is a common point.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $y \in Y \setminus B$ we have $(X \times \{y\}) \cup (\{a\} \times Y)$ is connected. PROOF: Theorem 213 since (a, y) is a common point.

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

PROOF: Theorem 213 since it is the union of the sets in $\langle 1 \rangle 2$ and $\langle 1 \rangle 3$ with (a,b) as a common point.

Proposition 223. Let $p: X \to Y$ be a quotient map. If Y is connected and $p^{-1}(y)$ is connected for all $y \in Y$, then X is connected.

Proof:

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

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

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

PROOF: Similar.

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

Proposition 224. Let X be a connected space and Y a connected subspace of X. Suppose A and B form a separation of $X \setminus Y$. Then $Y \cup A$ and $Y \cup B$ are both connected.

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.

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Theorem 225. Let L be a linearly ordered set under the order topology. Then L is connected if and only if L is a linear continuum.

Proof:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof: Since L is dense.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PROOF: Since $b \in U$.

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

PROOF: Since $X \subseteq V$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

```
\langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x, y \in L with x < y
```

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. There exists $z \in L$ such that x < z < y

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

Corollary 225.1. The real line \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 225.2. Every interval in \mathbb{R} is connected.

Corollary 225.3. The ordered square is connected.

Theorem 226 (Intermediate Value Theorem). Let X be a connected space. Let Y be a linearly ordered set under the order topology. Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Let $a, b \in X$ and $r \in Y$. Suppose f(a) < r < f(b). Then there exists $c \in X$ such that f(c) = r.

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

Proposition 227. Every function $f:[0,1] \to [0,1]$ has a fixed point.

Proof

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

33 Totally Disconnected Spaces

Definition 228 (Totally Disconnected). A topological space X is *totally disconnected* if and only if the only connected subspaces are the singletons.

Example 229. Every discrete space is totally disconnected.

Example 230. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are totally disconnected.

34 Paths and Path Connectedness

Definition 231 (Path). Let X be a topological space and $a, b \in X$. A path from a to b is a continuous function $p:[0,1] \to X$ such that p(0)=a and p(1)=b.

Definition 232 (Path Connected). A topological space is *path connected* if and only if there exists a path between any two points.

Proposition 233. 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 225.2.

П

An example that shows the converse does not hold:

Example 234. The ordered square is not path connected.

PROOF:

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

PROOF: By the Intermediate Value Theorem.

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

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

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

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

Proposition 235. The continuous image of a path connected space is path connected.

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

35 Topological Groups

Definition 236 (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 237. 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 238. 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 92.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f is continuous then G is a topological group.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. ()⁻¹ is continuous.

PROOF: Since $x^{-1} = f(e, x)$.

 $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. · is continuous.

PROOF: Since $xy = f(x, y^{-1})$.

П

Lemma 239. 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 163.

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

PROOF: From Theorem 93.

Lemma 240. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Then \overline{H} is a subgroup of G.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x, y \in \overline{H}$

PROVE: $xy^{-1} \in \overline{H}$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: U be any neighbourhood of xy^{-1}
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $f: G^2 \to G$, $f(a,b) = ab^{-1}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $f^{-1}(U)$ is a neighbourhood of (x,y)
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 5. PICK neighbourhoods V, W of x and y respectively such that $f(V \times W) \subseteq U$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. Pick $a \in V \cap H$ and $b \in W \cap H$

PROOF: Theorem 42.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ ab^{-1} \in U \cap H$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 8$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Theorem 42.

Proposition 241. 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 241.1. 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 242. 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 191 since $\overline{f_{\alpha}} \circ p = p \circ f_{\alpha}$ is continuous, where $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ is the canonical surjection.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{f_{\alpha}}^{-1}$ is continuous.

PROOF: Similar since $\overline{f_{\alpha}}^{-1} = \overline{f_{\alpha^{-1}}}$.

Corollary 242.1. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then G/H is homogeneous.

Proposition 243. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. If H is closed in G then G/H is T_1 .

Proof

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $p: G \rightarrow G/H$ be the canonical surjection
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in G$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3. \ p^{-1}(xH) = f_x(H)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. $p^{-1}(xH)$ is closed in G

PROOF: Since H is closed and f_x is a homemorphism of G with itself.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\{xH\}$ is closed in G/H

Proposition 244. Let G be a topological group and H a subgroup of G. Give G/H the quotient topology. Then the canonical surjection $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ is an open map.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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)) \text{ is open.}
\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ p(U) \text{ is open.}
```

Proposition 245. 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:
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 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. G/H is T_1

Proof: Proposition 243.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 190, 244.

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

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

Lemma 246. 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 247 (Symmetric Neighbourhood). Let G be a topological group. A neighbourhood V of e is *symmetric* if and only if $V = V^{-1}$.

Lemma 248. Let G be a topological group. Let V be a neighbourhood of e. Then V is symmetric if and only if, for all $x \in V$, we have $x^{-1} \in V$.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Immediate from defintions.

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

 $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: for all $x \in V$ we have $x^{-1} \in V$

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

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

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

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

Lemma 249. Let G be a topological group. For every neighbourhood U of e, there exists a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $V^2 \subseteq U$.

Proof:

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

PROOF: Such a neighbourhood exists because multiplication in G is continuous.

```
\langle 1 \rangle 3. PICK a neighbourhood W of e such that WW^{-1} \subset 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 246.
\langle 1 \rangle 6. V is symmetric
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. For all x \in V we have x^{-1} \in V
       \langle 3 \rangle 1. Let: x \in V
       \langle 3 \rangle 2. PICKy, z \in W such that x = yz^{-1}
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ x^{-1} = zy^{-1}
      \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ x^{-1} \in V
      \langle 3 \rangle 5. \ x \in V^{-1}
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Q.E.D.
      Proof: Lemma 248
\langle 1 \rangle 7. \ V^2 \subseteq U
   PROOF: We have V^2 \subseteq (V')^2 \subseteq U
Proposition 250. 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 249.
\langle 1 \rangle 5. Vx and Vy are disjoint neighbourhoods of x and y respectively.
   \langle 2 \rangle 1. Vx is open
      PROOF: Since Vx = r_x(V)
   \langle 2 \rangle 2. Vy is open
      PROOF: Similar.
   \langle 2 \rangle 3. \ Vx \cap Vy = \emptyset
      \langle 3 \rangle 1. Assume: for a contradiction z \in Vx \cap Vy
      \langle 3 \rangle 2. Pick a, b \in V such that z = ax = by
      \langle 3 \rangle 3. \ xy^{-1} \in VV
         Proof: Since xy^{-1} = a^{-1}b
       \langle 3 \rangle 4. \ xy^{-1} \in U
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 $\langle 3 \rangle 5$. Q.E.D.

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PROOF: From \langle 1 \rangle 3.
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Proposition 251. Every topological group is regular.

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Proof:
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- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. 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 249.

- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 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 246

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

Proof: Lemma 246

- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ VA \cap Va = \emptyset$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. 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 252. 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: $p: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ be the canonical surjection.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: A be a closed set in G/H and $aH \in (G/H) \setminus A$.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $B = p^{-1}(A)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. B is a closed saturated set in G.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $B \cap aH = \emptyset$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. B = BH
- $\langle 1 \rangle 7.$ PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that VB does not intersect Va
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $U = G \setminus Ba^{-1}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK a symmetric neighbourhood V of e such that $VV \subseteq U$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1$. U is open

PROOF: Since $Ba^{-1} = r_{a^{-1}}(B)$ is closed.

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2. \ e \in U$

```
PROOF: If e \in Ba^{-1} then a \in B \langle 3 \rangle 3. Q.E.D.

PROOF: Lemma 249
\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 Ba \cap VV \subseteq Ba \cap U.
\langle 1 \rangle 8. \ p(VB) \ \text{and} \ p(Va) \ \text{are disjoint open sets}
\langle 2 \rangle 1. \ p(VB) \ \text{and} \ p(Va) \ \text{are open.}
PROOF: Proposition 244.
\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)
```

36 The Metric Topology

Definition 253 (Metric). Let X be a set. A *metric* on X is a function $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ such that:

- 1. For all $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) \ge 0$
- 2. For all $x, y \in X$, d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- 3. For all $x, y \in X$, d(x, y) = d(y, x)
- 4. (Triangle Inequality) For all $x, y, z \in X$, $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

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

Definition 254 (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 255 (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 256. Let X be a metric space and $U \subseteq X$. Then U is open if and only if, for every $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.

PROOF

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If U is open then, for all $x \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$. $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: U is open.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $x \in U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick $a \in X$ and $\delta > 0$ such that $x \in B(a, \delta) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $\epsilon = \delta d(a, x)$ Prove: $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq U$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 6.$ $d(y,a) < \delta$

Proof:

$$d(y, a) \le d(a, x) + d(x, y)$$
$$< \delta + d(x, y)$$
$$= \epsilon$$

 $\langle 2 \rangle 7. \ y \in U$

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

Definition 257 (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 258. 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 259 (Standard Metric on \mathbb{R}). The *standard metric* on \mathbb{R} is defined by d(x,y) = |x-y|.

Proposition 260. 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 261 (Metrizable). A topological space X is metrizable if and only if there exists a metric on X that induces the topology.

Definition 262 (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 263 (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 264 (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:

```
PROOF:  \langle 1 \rangle 1. \ \overline{d}(x,y) \geq 0  PROOF: Since d(x,y) \geq 0  \langle 1 \rangle 2. \ \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = y  PROOF: \overline{d}(x,y) = 0 if and only if d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y   \langle 1 \rangle 3. \ \overline{d}(x,y) = \overline{d}(y,x)  PROOF: Since d(x,y) = d(y,x)   \langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \overline{d}(x,z) \leq \overline{d}(x,y) + \overline{d}(y,z)  PROOF:  \overline{d}(x,y) + \overline{d}(y,z) = \min(d(x,y),1) + \min(d(y,z),1)   = \min(d(x,y) + d(y,z), d(x,y) + 1, d(y,z) + 1, 2)   \geq \min(d(x,z),1)   = \overline{d}(x,z)
```

Lemma 265. 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 56.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. 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 57.

Proposition 266. Let d be a metric on the set X. Then the standard bounded metric \overline{d} induces the same metric as d.

PROOF: This follows from Lemma 265 since the open balls with radius <1 are the same under both metrics. \Box

Lemma 267. 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 256 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 256

 $\langle 3 \rangle 3$. 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 256.

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Proposition 268. \mathbb{R}^2 under the dictionary order topology is metrizable.

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

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

$$d((x,y),(x',y')) = 1 \qquad \text{if } x \neq x' \square$$

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

Proposition 269. Let $d: X^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be a metric on X. Then the metric topology on X is the coarsest topology such that d is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. d is continuous.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6$. $|d(a,b) d(x,y)| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 3 \rangle 1. \ d(a,b) d(x,y) < \epsilon$

Proof:

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

$$\le d(x,y) + 2\rho((a,b),(x,y))$$

$$< d(x,y) + 2\delta$$

$$= d(x,y) + \epsilon$$

 $\langle 3 \rangle 2$. $d(a.b) - d(x,y) > -\epsilon$

PROOF: Similar.

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

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If \mathcal{T} is any topology under which d is continuous then \mathcal{T} is finer than the metric topology.

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

Proposition 270. 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 270.1. A subspace of a metrizable space is metrizable.

Proposition 271. 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 272 (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 266.

(1)3. Let: D be the metric on \mathbb{R}^{ω} defined by $D(x,y) = \sup_{i} (d_i(x_i,y_i)/i)$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. $D(x,y) \geq 0$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. D(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ D(x,y) = D(y,x)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. $D(x,z) \leq D(x,y) + D(y,z)$

Proof:

$$D(x,z) = \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i) + d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$\leq \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \sup_{i} \frac{d_i(y_i, z_i)}{i}$$

$$= D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Every open ball $B_D(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the product topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. PICK N such that $1/\epsilon < N$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $B_D(a, \epsilon) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} U_i$ where $U_i = B(a_i, i\epsilon)$ if $i \leq N$, and $U_i = X_i$ if i > N
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. For any open set U and $a \in U$, there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_D(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$, V be an open set in \mathbb{R} and $a \in \pi_n^{-1}(V)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_{d_n}(a, \epsilon) \subseteq V$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3. \ B_D(a, \epsilon/n) \subseteq \pi_n^{-1}(V)$

Theorem 273. 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 89.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Pick $\delta > 0$ such that $B(x, \delta) \subseteq U$ Proof: Proposition 256.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. 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 256.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. 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 89.

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Proposition 274. 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 72. \square

Proposition 275. 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 276. \mathbb{R}^{ω} under the box topology is not metrizable.

Example 277. If J is uncountable then \mathbb{R}^J under the product topology is not metrizable.

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Definition 278 (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.

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

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

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Proposition 279. 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 $i = 1, \ldots, n$, PICK $\epsilon_i > 0$ such that $(a_i \epsilon_i, a_i + \epsilon_i) \subseteq U_i$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Let: $\epsilon = \min(\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)$
- $\langle 2 \rangle 4. \ B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$

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Definition 280. 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 281. 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 282 (Inner Product). Given $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, define the *inner product* $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\cdot(y_1,\ldots,y_n)=x_1y_1+\cdots+x_ny_n.$$

We write \vec{x}^2 for $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}$.

Definition 283 (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 284.

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

PROOF: Immediate from definitions. \square

Lemma 285.

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

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

Lemma 286.

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

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 $(a\vec{x} b\vec{y})^2 \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. $\hat{a}^2 \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \hat{b}^2 \|\vec{y}\|^2 \ge 0$ and $\hat{a}^2 \|\vec{x}\|^2 2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \hat{b}^2 \|\vec{y}\|^2 \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $2ab\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + 2 \ge 0$ 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 287 (Triangle Inequality).

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

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 &= \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\vec{x}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y}\|^2 \\ &= (\|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$
 (Lemma 286)

Definition 288 (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.

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

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.

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

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{x} - \vec{z}\| &= \|(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{z})\| \\ &\leq \|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\| + \|\vec{y} - \vec{z}\| \end{aligned}$$
 (Lemma 287)

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Proposition 289. The Euclidean metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: ρ be the square metric.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon) \subseteq B_\rho(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\sqrt{(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2} < \epsilon$ $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. $(x_1 a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n a_n)^2 < \epsilon^2$ $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all i we have $(x_i a_i)^2 < \epsilon^2$

 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 5. For all i we have $|x_i a_i| < \epsilon$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, we have $B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon / \sqrt{n}) \subseteq B_d(\vec{a}, \epsilon)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $\vec{x} \in B_{\rho}(\vec{a}, \epsilon/\sqrt{n})$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. $\rho(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. For all i we have $|x_i x_a| < \epsilon / \sqrt{n}$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all *i* we have $(x_i x_a)^2 < \epsilon^2/n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5. \ d(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Q.E.D.

PROOF: By Lemma 267.

Proposition 290. 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 291. Let $n \geq 0$. For all $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\epsilon > 0$, the closed ball $\overline{B(c, \epsilon)}$ is path connected.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B(c, \epsilon)$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to \overline{B(c,\epsilon)}$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in \overline{B(c, \epsilon)}$ for all t because

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

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

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

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

$$= \epsilon$$

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

Lemma 292. 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 292.1. If $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ converge then $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (x_i + y_i)^2$ con-

PROOF: Since $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i^2$, $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y_i^2$ and $2\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x_i y_i$ all converge.

Definition 293 (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 292.1.

- $\langle 1 \rangle 2. \ d(x,y) \ge 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ d(x,y) = d(y,x)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$

PROOF: By Lemma 287.

Theorem 294. Addition is a continuous function $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. Let: $\delta = \epsilon/2$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5$. Assume: $\rho((a,b),(x,y)) < \delta$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 6$. $|(a+b)-(x+y)| < \epsilon$

PROOF:

$$\begin{aligned} |(a+b)-(x+y)| &= |a-x|+|b-y| \\ &\leq 2\rho((a,b),(x,y)) \\ &< 2\delta \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

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

PROOF: Theorem 273

Theorem 295. 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:

$$\begin{split} |ab-xy| &= |a(b-y) + (a-x)b - (a-x)(b-y)| \\ &\leq |a||b-y| + |b||a-x| + |a-x||b-y| \\ &< |a|\delta + |b|\delta + \delta^2 \\ &\leq |a|\delta + |b|\delta + \delta \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 3) \\ &\leq \epsilon \qquad (\langle 1 \rangle 3) \end{split}$$

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

Proof: Theorem 273

Theorem 296. 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 86 and Lemma 110.

Definition 297. For $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is the space $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| \leq 1\}$.

Proposition 298. For all $n \geq 0$, the unit ball B^n is path connected.

Proof:

 $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a, b \in B^n$

 $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $p:[0,1] \to B^n$ be the function p(t)=(1-t)a+tb

PROOF: We have $p(t) \in B^n$ for all t because

$$||(1-t)a + tb|| \le (1-t)||a|| + t||b||$$

$$\le (1-t) + t$$

$$= 1$$

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

Definition 299 (Punctured Euclidean Space). For $n \geq 0$, defined punctured Euclidean space to be $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$.

Proposition 300. 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 300.1. 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 301 (Unit Sphere). For $n \ge 1$, the unit sphere S^{n-1} is the space

$$S^{n-1} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x|| = 1 \} .$$

Proposition 302. 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 235. \square

Proposition 303. 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.

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Definition 304 (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 305.

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

Proposition 306. 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 215.

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

PROOF: Theorem 214.

Proposition 307 (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 $p(1) = (1, \sin 1)$.

- (1)5. PICK a sequence $(t_n)_{n\geq 1}$ in (b,1] such that $t_n\to b$ and $\pi_2(p(t_n))=(-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Let: $n \geq 1$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. PICK u with $0 < u < \pi_1(p(1/n))$ such that $\sin(1/u) = (-1)^n$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. Pick t_n such that $0 < t_n < 1/n$ and $\pi_1(p(t_n)) = u$

PROOF: One exists by the Intermediate Value Theorem.

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

PROOF: This contradicts 102.

38 The Uniform Topology

Definition 308 (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.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ \overline{\rho}(a,c) \le \overline{\rho}(a,b) + \overline{\rho}(b,c)$

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 309. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is finer than the product topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $j \in J$ and U be open in \mathbb{R} PROVE: $\pi_j^{-1}(U)$ is open in the uniform topology. $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $a \in \pi_j^{-1}(U)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle$ 3. PICK $\epsilon > 0$ such that $(a_j \epsilon, a_j + \epsilon) \subseteq U$ $\langle 1 \rangle$ 4. $B_{\overline{\rho}}(a, \epsilon) \subseteq \pi_j^{-1}(U)$

Proposition 310. The uniform topology on \mathbb{R}^J is coarser than the box topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $a \in \mathbb{R}^J$ and $\epsilon > 0$ PROVE: $B(a, \epsilon)$ is open in the box topology.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. Let: $b \in B(a, \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. For $j \in J$ we have $|a_j b_j| < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. For $j \in J$, Let: $\delta_j = (\epsilon - |a_j - b_j|)/2$ $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \prod_{j \in J} (b_j - \delta_j, b_j + \delta_j) \subseteq B(a, \epsilon)$

Proposition 311. 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 312 (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 $U = \prod_{i \in J} U_i$ where $U_{j_i} =$ (-1/i,1/i) and $U_j=(-1,1)$ for all other j. Then $\vec{0}\in U$ but there is no $\epsilon>0$ such that $B(\vec{0}, \epsilon) \subseteq U$.

Proposition 313. 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

39 Uniform Convergence

Definition 314 (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 315. 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 316 (Uniform Limit Theorem). Let X be a topological space and Y a metric space. Let $(f_n : X \to Y)$ be a sequence of continuous functions and $f : X \to Y$ be a function. If f_n converges uniformly to f as $n \to \infty$, then f is continuous.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$
- (1)2. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$ and $y \in X$, we have $d(f_n(y), f(y)) < \epsilon/3$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. PICK a neighbourhood U of x such that $f_N(U) \subseteq B(f_N(x), \epsilon/3)$ PROVE: $f(U) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon)$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 4$. Let: $y \in U$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 5. \ d(f(y), f(x)) < \epsilon$

Proof:

$$d(f(y), f(x)) \leq d(f(y), f_N(y)) + d(f_N(y), f_N(x)) + d(f_N(x), f(x)) \quad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$
$$< \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3$$
$$= \epsilon$$

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Proposition 317. 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:

$$d(f_n(a_n), f(a)) \le d(f_n(a_n), f(a_n)) + d(f(a_n), f(a)) \quad \text{(Triangle Inequality)}$$
$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$
$$= \epsilon \quad (\langle 1 \rangle 2, \langle 1 \rangle 3)$$

Proposition 318. Let X be a set. Let $(f_n : X \to \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of functions and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. Then f_n converges unifomly to f as $n \to \infty$ if and only if $f_n \to f$ as $n \to \infty$ in \mathbb{R}^X under the uniform topology.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. If f_n converges uniformly to f then f_n converges to f under the uniform topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f_n converges uniformly to f
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle$ 3. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$ and $x \in X$, we have $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) \leq \epsilon/2$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. For all $n \geq N$ we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \epsilon$
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. If f_n converges to f under the uniform topology then f_n converges uniformly to f.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 1$. Assume: f_n converges to f under the uniform topology.
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 2$. Let: $\epsilon > 0$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 3$. PICK N such that, for all $n \geq N$, we have $\overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 4$. Let: $n \geq N$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 5$. Let: $x \in X$
 - $\langle 2 \rangle 6. \ \overline{\rho}(f_n, f) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$

PROOF: From $\langle 2 \rangle 3$.

- $\langle 2 \rangle 7$. $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \min(\epsilon, 1/2)$
- $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$

40 Isometric Imbeddings

Definition 319. 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 320. Every isometric imbedding is an imbedding.

Proof:

- $\langle 1 \rangle 1$. Let: $f: X \to Y$ be an isometric imbedding.
- $\langle 1 \rangle 2$. f is injective.

PROOF: If f(x) = f(y) then d(f(x), f(y)) = 0 hence d(x, y) = 0 hence x = y. $\langle 1 \rangle 3$. f is continuous.

PROOF: For all $\epsilon > 0$, if $d(x, y) < \epsilon$ then $d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$.

 $\langle 1 \rangle 4. \ f: X \to f(X)$ is an open map.

PROOF: $f(B(a, \epsilon)) = B(f(a), \epsilon) \cap f(X)$.