Topology Notes

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1 Set Theory

Definition 1.1 (Set cardinality $\leq$)**.** Let A, B be sets. A has **cardinality less than or equal to** B (write $|A| \leq |B|$) if there exists an injection from A to B. In notation,

$$|A| \leq |B| \iff \exists f : A \to B \text{ injective} \tag{1.1}$$

Theorem 1.1 (Cantor)**.** *For all sets X (including infinite), $X \ngeq \mathcal{P}(X)$. That is, there does not exist an injection from $\mathcal{P}(X)$ to X.*

Proof. The proof contains 2 steps:

(i) Show that there is no surjection from X to $\mathcal{P}(X)$.

(ii) Show that (i) implies that there is no injection from $\mathcal{P}(X)$ to X.

We start by proving (ii) through the following lemma:

Lemma 1.2. *Let C, D be sets, $C \neq \emptyset$. If there is an injection $i : C \to D$, then there exists a surjection $j : D \to C$.*

Proof. $\square$

The contrapositive of this lemma gives that no surjection from $D \to C$ implies no injection from $C \to D$. $\square$

Theorem 1.3 (Informal statement of the axiom of choice)**.** *Given a family $\mathscr{F}$ of nonempty sets, it is possible to pick out an element from each set in the family.*

Definition 1.2 (Partial order)**.** A **partial order** is a pair $\mathcal{A} = (A, \triangleright)$ where $A \neq \emptyset$ such that for $a, b, c \in A$

(i) Antireflexivity: $a \triangleright a$ never happens.

(ii) Transitivity: $a \triangleright b, b \triangleright c \Rightarrow a \triangleright c$

Remark. With a partial order, you *can* have incomparable elements.

Example 1.1 (Partial order)**.** For any set X, a partial order is $(\mathcal{P}(X), \subsetneq)$. For example, if $X = \{1, 2\}$, then $\{1\}$ and $\{2\}$ are incomparable.

Definition 1.3 (Maximal)**.** Let $(A, \triangleright)$ be a partial order. Then $m \in A$ is maximal if and only if no $a \triangleright m$.

Example 1.2 (Maximal elements)**.** The following are examples of posets and their maximal elements:

(i) $(\mathbb{N}, <)$ has no maximal element (there is no largest natural number).

(ii) $(\{\{1\}, \{2\}\}, \subsetneq)$ has 2 maximal elements, since the two elements of the set are not comparable.

Definition 1.4 (Chain)**.** A **chain** in a partial order $(A, \triangleright)$ is a $C \subseteq A$ such that $\forall a, b \in C$, $a = b$ or $a \triangleright b$ or $b \triangleright a$. (One interpretation in words, "C is linear")

Theorem 1.4 (Zorn's Lemma)**.** *Let $(A, \triangleright)$ be a partial order such that the following condition is satisfied:*

($\mathcal{Z}$) *In words, if every chain has an upper bound then there is a maximal element. More precisely, ff C is a chain, then $\exists x$ such that $x \triangle$*

2 Topological Spaces

Definition 2.1 (Topology, Topological Space)**.** A **topological space** is a pair $(X, \mathcal{T})$ where X is a nonempty set and $\mathcal{T}$ is a set of subsets of X (called a **topology**) having the following properties:

(i) $\varnothing$ and X are in $\mathcal{T}$.

$$\varnothing \in \mathcal{T},\ X \in \mathcal{T} \tag{2.1}$$

(ii) The union of *arbitrarily* many sets in $\mathcal{T}$ is in $\mathcal{T}$.

$$A_\eta \in \mathcal{T}\ \forall \eta \in H \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\eta \in H} A_\eta = \{a \in X \text{ for some (that is, } a \in A_\eta)\} \in \mathcal{T} \tag{2.2}$$

(iii) The intersection a *finite* number of sets in $\mathcal{T}$ is in $\mathcal{T}$.

$$A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n \in \mathcal{T} \tag{2.3}$$

A set X for which a topology $\mathcal{T}$ has been specified is called a **topological space**, that is, the pair $(X, \mathcal{T})$.

Example 2.1 (Examples of topologies)**.** The following are examples of topologies/topological spaces:

(i) The collection consisting of X and $\varnothing$ is called the **trivial topology** or **indiscrete topology**.

   (a) $\mathcal{T} = \{\varnothing, X\}$

(ii) If X is any set, the collection of all subsets of X is a topology on X, called the **discrete topology**.

   (a) $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$

(iii) Let $X = \{1\}$. Then $\mathcal{T} = \{\varnothing, \{1\}\}$ is a topology.

(iv) Sierpinski: Let $X = \{a, b\}$ and $\mathcal{T} = \{\varnothing, X, \{a\}\}$. In this topology, b is glued to a. That is, we can't have a set with b and without a. However, a is *not* glued to a.

   Remark. Observe that from these examples,

$$\text{indiscrete} \subsetneq \text{Sierpinski} \subsetneq \text{discrete}$$

(v) $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{T} = \{\varnothing, X\} \cup \{[a, \infty) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

Definition 2.2 ((Strictly) Finer, (Strictly) Coarser, Comparable)**.** Suppose $\mathcal{T}$ and $\mathcal{T}'$ are two topologies on a given set X. If $\mathcal{T}' \supset \mathcal{T}$, 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 $\mathcal{T}$. For these respective situations, we say that $\mathcal{T}$ is **coarser** or **strictly coarser** than $\mathcal{T}'$. We say that $\mathcal{T}$ is **comparable** with $\mathcal{T}'$ if either $\mathcal{T}' \supset \mathcal{T}$ or $\mathcal{T} \supset \mathcal{T}'$.

Example 2.2 (Finest and coarsest topologies)**.** For any set X, the finest topology is the discrete topology and the coarsest topology is the trivial topology.

3 Basis for a Topology

Definition 3.1 (Basis, Basis Elements, Topology $\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B}$)**.** If X is a set, a **basis** for a topology on X is a collection $\mathcal{B}$ of subsets of X (called **basis elements**) such that

(i) Every element $x \in X$ belongs to some set in $\mathcal{B}$.

(ii) If x belongs to the intersection of two basis elements B_1 and B_2, then there is a basis element B_3 containing x such that $B_3 \subset B_1 \cap B_2$.

Example 3.1 (Bases)**.** The following are example of bases of topologies:

(i) $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{(a, b) \mid b > a\}$. We can cover $\mathbb{R}$ with open intervals. Further, a real number x is contained in two intervals B_1 and B_2, then there will be an open interval B_3 contained in the intersection of the two intervals. In this example, we can actually set $B_3 = B_1 \cap B_2$.

(ii) $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\text{interiors of circles}\}$. We can cover $\mathbb{R}^2$ with circles. If x is in the intersection of two circles B_1 and B_2, then we can construct a circle B_3 contained in the intersection $B_1 \cap B_2$. Note in this example, we can just take the actual intersection, as it's not a circle. This example can also be extended to other polygons.

Definition 3.2 (Topology $\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B}$)**.** If $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for a topology on X, then we define the **topology $\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B}$** as follows: A subset U of X is said to be open in X (that is, to be an element of $\mathcal{T}$) if for each $x \in U$, there is a basis element $B_x \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_x$ and $B_x \subset U$. Note that each basis element is itself an element of $\mathcal{T}$. More succinctly:

$$U \subset X : U \in \mathcal{T} \iff \forall x \in U \; \exists B_x \in \mathcal{B} \; s.t. \; x \in B_x \subset U$$

Theorem 3.1 (Collection $\mathcal{T}$ generated by a basis $\mathcal{B}$ is a topology on X)**.**

Proof. We check the three conditions:

(i) The empty set is vacuously open (since it has no elements), so $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$. Further, $X \in \mathcal{T}$ since for each $x \in X$, there must be at least one basis element B containing x, which itself is contained in X.

[[Incomplete]] □

Lemma 3.2 (Every open set in X can be expressed as a union of basis elements (not unique))**.** *Let X be a set and $\mathcal{B}$ a basis for a topology $\mathcal{T}$ on X. Then $\mathcal{T}$ equals the collection of all unions of elements of $\mathcal{B}$.*

Proof. We need to show two inclusions:

(i) Collection of elements of $\mathcal{B}$ in $\mathcal{T}$: In the topology $\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B}$, each basis element is itself an element of $\mathcal{T}$. Since $\mathcal{T}$ is a topology, their union is also in $\mathcal{T}$.

(ii) Element of $\mathcal{T}$ in collection of all unions of elements of $\mathcal{B}$: Take $U \in \mathcal{T}$. Then we know $\forall x \in U$ $\exists B_x \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_x \in U$. Then we claim that $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} B_x$, so that U equals a union of elements of $\mathcal{B}$. Indeed, "$\subset$" follows since $x \in U \implies x \in B_x$. And, "$\supset$" follows since $B_x \subset U$, so that the union of all such B_x is in U.

□

Lemma 3.3. *Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ be a topological space. Suppose $\mathcal{C}$is a collection of open sets of X (i.e., $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{T}$) such that for each open set U of X and each $x \in U$, there is an element $V \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in V \subset U$. Then $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis for the topology of X. In notation;*

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{T}\ \forall a \in U\ \exists V \in \mathcal{C}\ s.t.\ a \in V, V \subset U$$

Definition 3.3 (Subbasis)**.** A **subbasis** $\mathscr{S}$ for a topology on X is a collection of subsets of X whose union equals X. The topology generated by the subbasis $\mathscr{S}$ is defined to be the collection $\mathcal{T}$ of all unions of finite intersections of elements of $\mathscr{S}$.

4 Continuous Functions

Definition 4.1 (Closed)**.** A subset A of a topological space $(X, \mathcal{T})$ is said to be **closed** if the set $X - A \in \mathcal{T}$. In words, a subset of a topological space is open if its complement (in the space) is open.

Example 4.1 (Sets can be both closed and open)**.** Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ be a topological space. Then $X - X = \varnothing \in \mathcal{T}$ and $X - \varnothing = X \in \mathcal{T}$. Therefore $X, \varnothing$ are both closed and open. We call this type of set **clopen**. Further

$$\text{Closed} \neq \text{Not Open} \tag{4.1}$$

Example 4.2 (Sets can be neither closed nor open)**.** Consider $\mathbb{Q}$ in the usual topology on $\mathbb{R}$.

Definition 4.2 (Continuous)**.** Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ and (Y, σ) be topological spaces. A function $f : X \to Y$ is said to be **continuous** with respect to $\mathcal{T}$ and σ if for each open subset V of Y, the set $f^{-1}(V)$ is an open subset of X. In symbols, $\forall S \in \sigma$, we have that $f^{-1}(S) \in \mathcal{T}$ (where $f^{-1}(S) = \{a \in X \mid f(a) \in S\}$). In words, the preimage of an open set is open.

Definition 4.3 (Homeomorphic)**.** The topological spaces $(X, \mathcal{T})$ and (Y, σ) are **homeomorphic** if there exists a function $f : X \to Y$ such that

(i) f is bijective.

(ii) f is continuous.

(iii) f^{-1} is also continuous.

We write $(X, \mathcal{T}) \cong (Y, \sigma)$ or $f : (X, \mathcal{T}) \cong (Y, \sigma)$.

Remark. This definition states that we can find a *single* bijection that's continuous in both directions.

Example 4.3 (Continuous functions)**.** Let X be a set with more than one element. Let $\mathcal{T}_{disc} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ and $\mathcal{T}_{ind} = \{\varnothing, X\}$ (that is, the discrete and indiscrete topologies. We require X to have more than one element, else these topologies would be the same). Let $f = id$. Then

(i) $f : (X, \mathcal{T}_{disc}) \to (X, \mathcal{T}_{ind})$ is **continuous**. Indeed, if $S \subseteq X$, $S \in \mathcal{T}_{ind}$, then $f^{-1}(S) \in \mathcal{T}_{disc}$, since $\mathcal{T}_{disc} \supset \mathcal{T}_{ind}$.

(ii) $f : (X, \mathcal{T}_{ind}) \to (X, \mathcal{T}_{disc})$ is **not continuous**. For example, suppose $X = \{1, 2\}$. Let $S = \{1\} \in \mathcal{T}_{disc}$. Then $f^{-1}(\{1\}) = \{1\} \notin \mathcal{T}_{ind}$.

Example 4.4 (Open, closed, continuous functions)**.**

Definition 4.4 (Open map)**.** $f : (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \sigma)$ is an **open map** if $\forall S \in \mathcal{T}$ we have that $f(S) \in \sigma$ (recall $f(S) = \{f(s) \mid s \in S\}$). In words: open sets map to open sets.

Definition 4.5 (Closed map)**.** $f : (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \sigma)$ is a **closed map** if $\forall S \subset X$ such that $X - S \in \mathcal{T}$ we have that $Y - f(S) \in \sigma$. In words: closed sets map to closed sets.

Continuous, open, and closed maps don't have clean relationships: Let $X = \{1, 2\}$.

(i) Continuous, not open, not closed map: Let $f : (X, \mathcal{P}(X)) \to (X, \{\emptyset, X\})$ be the identity map (discrete to indiscrete).

   (a) Continuous: Previous example.

   (b) Not open: $\{1\} \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ maps to $\{1\} \notin \{\emptyset, X\}$. Thus the map is not open.

   (c) Not closed: $X - \{1\} = \{2\} \in \mathcal{P}(X)$, so $\{1\}$ is closed in $(X, \mathcal{P}(X))$. But $\{2\} \notin \{\emptyset, X\}$. Thus $\{1\}$ is closed on the left, but not on the right.

(ii) Open, closed, not continuous map: Let $f : (X, \{\emptyset, X\}) \to (X, \mathcal{P}(X))$ be the identity map (indiscrete to discrete).

   (a) Not continuous: Previous example.

   (b) Open: Since $\mathcal{T}_{ind} \subset \mathcal{T}_{disc}$

   (c) Closed: Since $\mathcal{T}_{ind} \subset \mathcal{T}_{disc}$.

(iii) Continuous, closed, not open:

5 Subspace Topology

Definition 5.1 (Subspace topology)**.** Given a topological space $(X, \mathcal{T})$ and a non-empty set $A \subseteq X$, the **subspace topology on A induced (or given) by $\mathcal{T}$** is $(A, \mathcal{T}_A)$ where $\mathcal{T}_A = \{U \cap A \mid U \in \mathcal{T}\}$.

Proof that $(A, \mathcal{T}_A)$ is a topological space. We check the axioms:

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}_A$: $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$, and $\emptyset \cap A = \emptyset$, so $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}_A$.

(ii) $A \in \mathcal{T}_A$: $X \in \mathcal{T}$, and $X \cap A = A$, so $A \in \mathcal{T}_A$.

(iii) Closure under finite intersections:

□

6 Metric Spaces

Definition 6.1 (Metric space)**.** A **metric space** is a nonempty set X together with a binary function $d : X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies the following properties: For all $x, y, z \in X$ we have that

(i) $d(x, y) \geq 0$

(ii) $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$

(iii) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$

(iv) Triangle inequality: $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$

Definition 6.2 (Metric topology)**.** Given a metric space (X, d), the set $\mathcal{B} = \{B_\varepsilon(x) \mid \varepsilon > 0, x \in X\}$ is a basis for a topology on X (where $B_\varepsilon(x) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < \varepsilon\}$) called the **metric topology**.

7 Sequences

Definition 7.1 (Converges)**.** Fix a topological space $(X, \mathcal{T})$. A sequence of points $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \subset X$ **converges** to $b \in X$ if for every open set W containing b, all but finitely many of the terms of the sequence are in W. In symbols

$$(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \to b \iff \forall W \in \mathcal{T} \text{ s.t. } b \in W, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall m > n, a_m \in W$$

Definition 7.2 (Sequentially closed)**.** A set $S \subset X$ is **sequentially closed** if for every sequence $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ of points in S converging to some $b \in X$, we have $b \in S$.

How do sequentially closed and closed sets relate?

- In a metric space, a set is closed if and only if it is sequentially closed.
- In general topological spaces, this need not be true.

How bad can convergence be in an arbitrary topological space? Pretty bad.

Example 7.1 (Every sequence converges to every point)**.** Let X be a set with at least 2 points and $\mathcal{T}$ be the indiscrete (or trivial) topology (note: $|X| = 1$ isn't that interesting since every sequence in X would then be constant and hence convergent). Let $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in X and fix a point $b \in X$.

Claim 7.1. $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}} \to b$

Proof. Let $U \subset X$ such that $b \in U$ and $U \in \mathcal{T}$. Since $b \in U$, we have that $U \neq \emptyset$, so that the only possibility is that $U = X$ (since $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$). But then U contains all elements of the sequence $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$. Thus $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to b. Since b was arbitrary, $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to every point of X. $\square$

Example 7.2 (Every sequence converges to exactly one point or doesn't converge, or converges to everything)**.** Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ be the cofinite topology (on an infinite set X). For simplicity, let $X = \mathbb{N}$. Let $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in X. We can divide the possible forms of $(a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ into 3 cases:

(i) No infinite repetition of any terms (ex. $(1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots)$).

(ii) Exactly one value gets repeated infinitely often (ex. $(1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 4, 1, \ldots)$).

(iii) At least 2 values get repeated infinitely often.

We will show that the respective outcomes for these cases are

(i) Converges to every point.

(ii) Converges to point repeated infinitely often.

(iii) Doesn't converge.

Claim 7.2. *A sequence with no infinite repetition converges to every point.*

Proof. Let $a = (a_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in X with no infinite repetition and let $b \in X$. Let $b \in U$ where $U \in \mathcal{T}$ (U open). Note that $U \neq \emptyset$. Thus U is cofinite (that is, $X - U$ is finite, so that finitely many points of X are *not* in U). Therefore each point not in U only appears finitely many times in the sequence (since there is no infinite repetition in a). Therefore only finitely many of the terms of a are not in U (finite $\times$ finite = finite). Therefore the sequence converges to b. $\square$

Claim 7.3 (Metric space: closed $\iff$ sequentially closed)**.** *In a metric space, a set is closed if and only if it is sequentially closed. More formally: If (X, d) is a metric space and $\mathcal{T}_d$ is the induced topology on X, then $S \subset X$ is sequentially closed if and only if S is closed (with respect to $\mathcal{T}$, that is $X - S \in \mathcal{T}$).*

Closed $\Rightarrow$ sequentially closed. Suppose (for contradiction) that $A \subset X$, A closed, but A not sequentially closed. Since A is not sequentially closed, there is a sequence of points $(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ from A and a point $b \in X - A$ such that $(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \to b$.

A closed means $X - A$ is open. So since $b \in X - A$, there is some $U \in \mathcal{T}_d$ with $b \in U$ such that $U \cap A = \emptyset$. Of course, $U = X - A$ works. But, we can find a basic open (i.e., a set in the basis we're using, here the set of open balls). Since $b \in X - A$ and $X - A$ open, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $B_\varepsilon(b) \subset X - A$. Thus we have that

(i) $B_\varepsilon(b)$ is open.

(ii) $b \in B_\varepsilon(b)$.

(iii) $B_\varepsilon(b)$ contains none of the terms of $(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ (since $a_i \in A$ for all i).

But then $(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \not\to b$, a contradiction. □

8 Product Topology

Definition 8.1 (Product topology, two sets)**.** Let (X, τ) and (Y, σ) be topological spaces. The **product topology** on $X \times Y$ is the topology having as *basis* the collection $\mathcal{B}$ of all set of the form $U \times V$ where U is an open subset of X and V is an open subset of Y. In symbols,

$$\mathcal{B}_{\tau \times \sigma} = \{U \times V \mid U \in \tau, V \in \sigma\} \tag{8.1}$$

Remark. Note, open sets of $X \times Y$ need not be of the form open set in X $\times$ open set in Y.

Proof that $\mathcal{B}_{\tau \times \sigma}$ is indeed a basis for a topology on $X \times Y$. We check the two conditions required to be a basis:

(i) $\mathcal{B}$ "covers" X: Note that $X \in \tau$ and $Y \in \sigma$ (since they are each topologies). Therefore $X \times Y \in \mathcal{B}$. Thus for any $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, we have that $(x, y) \in X \times Y \in \mathcal{B}$.

(ii) Intersection Property: Take two basis elements $U_1 \times V_1$ and $U_2 \times V_2$. Notice that

$$(U_1 \times V_1) \cap (U_2 \times V_2) = (U_1 \cap U_2) \times (V_1 \cap V_2) \tag{8.2}$$

But then $U_1 \cap U_2 \in \tau$ and $V_1 \times V_2 \in \sigma$, so that $(U_1 \times V_1) \cap (U_2 \times V_2) \in \mathcal{B}$, so the intersection of two basis elements is again a basis element. This is stronger than the property required to be a basis, yet of course sufficient.

□

Definition 8.2 (Product space/topology for finitely many spaces)**.** Let $(X_1, \tau_1), \ldots, (X_n, \tau_n)$ be topological spaces. The set of points of the **product space** is $X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$. The basis for the **product topology** is

$$\mathcal{B}_{\tau_1 \times \cdots \times \tau_n} = \{W_1 \times \cdots \times W_n \mid W_i \in \tau_i\} \tag{8.3}$$

Remark. Again, $\mathcal{B}_{\tau_1 \times \cdots \times \tau_n}$ is indeed a basis since the first condition is trivially satisfied ($X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$ is a basis element) and the intersection of products is a product of intersections, and hence again a basis element.

Definition 8.3 (Projection Maps)**.** Let (X_1, τ_1) and (X_2, τ_2) be topological spaces. Let

$$\pi_1 : X_1 \times X_2 \to X_1 : (x_1, x_2) \mapsto x_1$$
$$\pi_2 : X_1 \times X_2 \to X_2 : (x_1, x_2) \mapsto x_2$$

then π_1 and π_2 are **projection maps**.

Claim 8.1. *Let π_1 be π_2 projection maps (as above). Then*

(i) π_1 is continuous with respect to $\tau_1 \otimes \tau_2$ and τ_1.

(ii) π_2 is continuous with respect to $\tau_1 \otimes \tau_2$ and τ_2.

Proof. We show π_1 is continuous. Suppose $S \subset X_1$ is open (i.e., $\in \tau_1$). We want to show that $\pi^{-1}(S) \in \tau_1 \otimes \tau_2$. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\pi_1^{-1}(S) &= \{p \in X_1 \times X_2 \mid \pi_1(p) \in S\} \\
&= \{(x_1, x_2) \in X_1 \times X_2 \mid \pi_1((x_1, x_2)) \in S\} \\
&= \{(x_1, x_2) \in X_1 \times X_2 \mid x_1 \in S\} \\
&= S \times X_2
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we have that

- S is τ_1-open.
- X_2 is τ_2-open.

so that $S \times X_2$ is in our basis for $\tau_1 \otimes \tau_2$. Thus, $S \times X_2 \in \tau_1 \otimes \tau_2$.

□

9 Compactness

Definition 9.1 (Open cover)**.** An **open cover** of (X, τ) is a family of τ-open sets $\mathcal{C} \subset \tau$ such that $\bigcup \mathcal{C} = X$.

Remark. The notation $\bigcup \mathcal{C} = X$ means X is the union of "stuff" in $\mathcal{C}$.

Example 9.1 (Open covers)**.** The following are examples of open covers of (X, τ):

(i) Any basis for τ is an open cover of (X, τ).

(ii) Any subbasis for τ is an open cover of (X, τ).

(iii) $\{X\}$.

(iv) τ.

(v) Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $\tau = \tau_e$. Then $\{(-n, n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is an open cover of X.

Definition 9.2 (Subcover)**.** $\mathcal{D}$ is a **subcover** of $\mathcal{C}$ if

(i) $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{C}$.

(ii) $\mathcal{D}$ is an open cover.

A **finite subcover** is a subcover which is finite.

Definition 9.3 (Compact)**.** A topological space (X, τ) is **compact** if every open cover has a finite subcover.

Example 9.2 (Non-compact Set)**.** Consider the topological space $(\mathbb{R}, \tau_e)$. This space has a finite subcover: $\{\mathbb{R}\}$. But does this imply that $(\mathbb{R}, \tau_e)$ is compact? No! We need to see if *all* open covers have finite subcovers. Consider the open cover

$$\mathcal{C} = \{(-n, n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \tag{9.1}$$

$\mathcal{C}$ has no finite subcover. Thus $(\mathbb{R}, \tau_e)$ is not compact.

A Set Theory Review

Definition A.1 (Difference)**.** The **difference** of two sets, denoted $A - B$, is the set consisting of those elements of A that are not in B. In notation

$$A - B = \{x | x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

Theorem A.1 (Set-Theoretic Rules)**.** *We have that, for any sets A, B, C,*

(i) First distributive law for the operations $\cap$ and $\cup$:

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \tag{A.1}$$

(ii) Second distributive law for the operations $\cap$ and $\cup$:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \tag{A.2}$$

(iii) DeMorgan's laws:

$$A - (B \cup C) = (A - B) \cap (A - C) \tag{A.3}$$

"The complement of the union equals the intersection of the complements."

$$A - (B \cap C) = (A - B) \cup (A - C) \tag{A.4}$$

"The complement of the intersection equals the union of the complements."

A.1 Functions

Exercise A.1. Let $f : A \to B$. Let $A_0 \subset A$ and $B_0 \subset B$. Then

(i) $A_0 \subset f^{-1}(f(A_0))$ and equality holds if f is injective.

(ii) $f(f^{-1}(B_0)) \subset B_0$ and equality holds if f is surjective.

Solution. We prove each item in turn:

(i) Let $a \in A_0$. Then $f(a) \in f(A_0)$. We have that $f^{-1}(f(A_0)) = \{a \mid f(a) \in f(A_0)\}$. Then $f(a) \in f^{-1}(f(A_0))$, so that $A_0 \subset f^{-1}(f(A_0))$. We can actually show equality holds if and only if f is injective.

(a) $\Leftarrow$ Suppose f is injective. Let $a \in f^{-1}(f(A_0))$. Then $f(a) \in f(A_0)$. Therefore there exists some $b \in f(A_0)$ such that $f(a) = f(b)$. Injectivity implies $a = b \in A_0$.

(b) $\Rightarrow$ We will prove the contrapositive. Suppose f is *not* injective. Then $f(a) = f(b)$ for some $a \neq b$. Therefore $\{a, b\} \subset f^{-1}(f(\{a\}))$. Thus $f^{-1}(f(\{a\})) \not\subset \{a\}$.

(ii) Let $x \in f(f^{-1}(B_0))$. Then there is some $b \in f^{-1}(B_0)$ such that $f(b) = x$. But $f(b) \in B_0$, so $x \in B_0$.

(a) $\Leftarrow$ Suppose f is surjective. Take $b \in B_0$, then there exists some $a \in A_0$ such that $f(a) = b$, so that $a \in f^{-1}(B_0)$, and $b = f(a) \in f(f^{-1}(B_0))$.

Exercise A.2.

Solution. (i) Let $B_0 \subset B_1$. Fix $x \in f^{-1}(B_0)$. Then $f(x) \in B_0$, which implies $f(x) \in B_1$. Thus $f^{-1}(B_0) \subset f^{-1}(B_1)$.

(ii) We show two inclusions:

(a) $\supset$: We can use (i), since $B_i \subset B_0 \cup B_1$, so $f^{-1}(B_0) \subset f^{-1}(B_0 \cup B_1)$ and $f^{-1}(B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_0 \cup B_1)$, so $f^{-1}(B_0) \cup f^{-1}(B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_0 \cup B_1)$.

(b) $\subset$: Let $x \in f^{-1}(B_0 \cup B_1)$. Thus there exists some $b \in B_0 \cup B_1$ such that $f(x) = b$. Therefore $x \in f^{-1}(B_0)$ or $x \in f^{-1}(B_1)$, so that $f^{-1}(B_0 \cup B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_1)$.

(iii)