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,

$$|A| \le |B| \iff \exists f : A \to B \text{ injective}$$
 (1.1)

Theorem 1.1 (Cantor). For all sets X (including infinite), $X \not\geq \mathcal{P}(X)$. 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.

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

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) \emptyset and X are in \mathcal{T} .

$$\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}, X \in \mathcal{T}$$
 (2.1)

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

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

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

$$A_1, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n \in \mathcal{T}$$
 (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 topological spaces:

- (i) The collection consisting of *X* and \emptyset is called the **trivial topology** or **indiscrete topology**.
 - (a) $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$
- (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 $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$ is a topology.
- (iv) Sierpinski: Let $X = \{a, b\}$ and $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}\}$. 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,

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

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 $B = \{(a, b) \mid b > a\}$. 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:

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

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

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

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 $X - X = \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ and $X - \emptyset = X \in \mathcal{T}$. Therefore X, \emptyset are both closed and open. We call this type of set **clopen**. Further

Closed
$$\neq$$
 Not Open (4.1)

Example 4.2 (Sets can be neither closed nor open). Consider Q in the usual topology on 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 $\mathcal{T}_{ind} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ (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) $d(x, y) \ge 0$
- (ii) d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- (iii) d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- (iv) Triangle inequality: $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \ge d(x, z)$

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**.

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)