



TDA Review

Tyler Trogden

Brigham Young University

June 16, 2023

Injective

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is injective if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies $x_1 = x_2$.

Surjective

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is surjective if $y \in Y$ implies there exists $x \in X$ such that $f(x) = y$.

Bijjective

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is bijective if it is both injective and surjective. (Equivalently f is bijective if f has both a left and right inverse.)

Pre-image

The pre-image of $y \in Y$ under $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is the set of all $x \in X$ such that $f(x) = y$. This can be extended to whole subsets of Y by letting the pre-image of $U \subseteq Y$ be the set of all $x \in X$ such that $f(x) \in U$.



Let X be a set. A **topology** τ on X is a collection of subsets of X called open sets such that:

- ① $\emptyset, X \in \tau$,
- ② the union of an arbitrary collection of subsets of τ is in τ , and
- ③ the intersection of a finite collection of subsets of τ is in τ .

We call (X, τ) a topological space.

We could have just as easily defined a topology in terms of closed sets. However, the relationship between open and closed sets of a topological space is easy enough. Let $C \subseteq X$, if $X - C \in \tau$, then C is closed.



A **basis** \mathcal{B} of τ is a collection of subsets of X such that:

- 1 for every $x \in X$, there is at least one $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$, and
- 2 if $x \in X$ belongs to the intersection of $\{B_1, \dots, B_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, then there exists $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $B = \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i$, where $x \in B$.

Lemma 13.1 in Munkres

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis of τ on X . Then for every $U \in \tau$ there exists a collection of basis elements $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ such that $U = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} B_\alpha$.

Lemma 13.2 in Munkres

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. Suppose there exists a collection of open sets \mathcal{C} such that for every open set U of X and every $x \in U$, there exists $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C$. Then \mathcal{C} is a basis of τ .



Let (X, τ) be a topological space. A point $x \in X$ is a **limit point** of a subset $A \subseteq X$ if every neighborhood of x contains a point of A . Here we say that a neighborhood of x is a set N such that $x \in N$ and $N \in \tau$.

Corollary 17.7 in Munkres

A subspace of a topological space is closed if and only if it contains all of its limit points.



A topological space (X, τ) is **Hausdorff** if for every $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$ implies that x and y have disjoint neighborhoods.

This definition says something about the separability of a topological space. Interestingly, it means that elements of a Hausdorff space are distinct. Especially considering limit points of certain sequences.

The T_1 axiom is a weaker version of the Hausdorff axiom that says that every finite set is closed.

Theorem 17.10 in Munkres

If X is Hausdorff, then a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X converges to at most one $x \in X$.

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **continuous** if for every open subset $V \subseteq Y$, the subset $f^{\text{pre}}(V) \subseteq X$ is open.

Theorem 18.1 in Munkres

Let (X, τ_X) and (Y, τ_Y) be topological spaces; let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1 f is continuous,
- 2 for every subset $A \subseteq X$, $f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$,
- 3 for every closed subset $C \subseteq Y$, the set $f^{\text{pre}}(C)$ is closed, and
- 4 for each $x \in X$ and neighborhood V of $f(x)$, there exists a neighborhood U of x such that $f(U) \subset V$.

Continuos Functions



Homeomorphisms

Let (X, τ_X) and (Y, τ_Y) be topological spaces. A bijection $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a **homeomorphism** if f is continuous and f^{-1} is continuous. (Note that since f is a bijection, f^{-1} always exists.)

This can be restated in terms of open sets as follows: let f be a bijection such that $f(U)$ is open if and only if U is open. Then f is a homeomorphism.

Having a one-to-one correspondence between open sets gives us a way to map the topology of one space to the topology of another. Therefore, for any property of X that is characterized entirely by the topology of X , the same property holds for Y if f is a homeomorphism. This property is then called a **topological property**.



Metric Topology

A **metric space** is a set X together with a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the following conditions:

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

The function d is called a **metric** on X .

Let (X, d) be a metric space. Given $\epsilon > 0$ the set

$$B_\epsilon(x) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < \epsilon\}$$

is called the **ϵ -ball** centered at x .

A basis for a topology on X is the collection of all $B_\epsilon(x)$ for every $\epsilon > 0$ and $x \in X$. This topology is known as the **metric topology** induced by d .

A topological space (X, τ) is **metrizable** if there exists a metric d on X that induces the topology of X . A metric space is a metrizable space X together with a specific metric d that gives the topology of X .

Having a metrizable topological space is useful because it allows us to use the metric in order to prove certain theorems in topology. Therefore, we'd like to be able to show that a given topological space is metrizable. This is where the **Urysohn Metrization Theorem** comes in (among others).

Urysohn Metrization Theorem

Every regular space X with a countable basis is metrizable.

A space is **regular** if for each pair consisting of a point x and a closed set C not containing x , there exists disjoint neighborhoods containing x and C respectively.

Connectedness and Compactness



Connectedness

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. A **separation** of X is a pair of disjoint non-empty open sets $U, V \subseteq X$ whose union is X . A space is **connected** if it has no separation. Connectedness is a topological property which is invariant.

Put differently a space X is connected if and only if the only subsets of X that are both open and closed in X are X and \emptyset .

Connectedness and Compactness



Connectedness Theorems

Let (X, τ) be a topological space.

Theorem 23.2 in Munkres

If sets C and D form a separation of X , and if $Y \subseteq X$ is connected, then Y is either a subset of C or a subset of D .

Theorem 23.4 in Munkres

Let $A \subseteq X$ be connected. If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \bar{A}$, then B is also connected.

Theorem 23.5 in Munkres

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

Connectedness and Compactness



Compactness

A collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of a topological space (X, τ) covers X if $\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C = X$. It is said to be an **open cover** if each $C \in \mathcal{C}$ is open.

A space X is **covering compact** if every open cover of X has a finite subcover. From now on we shorten covering compact to simply compact.

Connectedness and Compactness



Compactness Theorems

Theorem 26.2 in Munkres

Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

Theorem 26.3 in Munkres

Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Theorem 26.5 in Munkres

The image of a compact space under a continuous map is compact.



A topological space (X, τ) is **limit point compact** if every infinite subset of X has a limit point. Limit point compactness is a weaker property than compactness, but the two coincide if X is metrizable. In fact compactness implies limit point compactness, but not the other way round.

The space X is said to be **sequentially compact** if every sequence of points in X has a convergent subsequence.

Theorem 28.2 in Munkres

Let X be metrizable. Then the following are equivalent:

- ① X is compact.
- ② X is limit point compact.
- ③ X is sequentially compact.

Homotopy

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. A **homotopy** from $f : A \rightarrow X$ to $g : A \rightarrow X$, both continuous, is a continuous map $H : A \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $H(a, 0) = f(a)$ and $H(a, 1) = g(a)$ for all $a \in A$. The homotopy H is parametrized by $t \in [0, 1]$, which may be thought of as time. Essentially H represents a continuous deformation of f into g .

Now suppose that we are considering two maps $f, f' : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ which happen to be paths in X with the same initial point x_0 and final point x_1 . If there exists a continuous map $P : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that

$$P(s, 0) = f(s), \quad P(s, 1) = f'(s), \quad P(0, t) = x_0, \quad P(1, t) = x_1$$

for every $s, t \in [0, 1]$, then we say that f and f' are **homotopic** with P being the **path homotopy**. As Munkres says, “the first condition says that P represents a continuous way of deforming the path f to the path f' , and the second condition says that the end points of the path remain fixed during the deformation.”

It turns out that both homotopy and path homotopy form equivalence relations on their respective sets of maps. For our purposes we will focus on path homotopy with its equivalence relation denoted as \simeq_p and its equivalence class denoted as $[f]$.

If f is a path in X with initial point x_0 and final point x_1 , and if f' is another path in X with initial point x_1 and final point x_2 , we define the **product** $f * f'$ to be the path h , which is defined as

$$h(s) = \begin{cases} f(2s) & , \text{ if } 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ f'(2s - 1) & , \text{ if } \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1 \end{cases}.$$

Since f and f' are continuous paths in X , we know that h is also a continuous path in X .



The product operation $*$ may also be used to induce an operation on the set of equivalence classes of paths. Let $[f]$ and $[f']$ be two equivalence classes of paths in X , then we have $[f] * [f'] = [f * f']$.

The **fundamental group** of a topological space (X, τ) is the set of equivalence classes of paths in X with the $*$ operation. The fundamental group is denoted as $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ where x_0 is a chosen fixed point in X . This fixed point is called the **base point** and we consider only those paths which start and end at the base point. This way we guarantee that the fundamental group is indeed a group.