

13.b.19

Unit-I.

Topological Spaces

Daf: (Topological) Topology

A topology on a set X is a collection τ of subsets X having the following.

Properties:

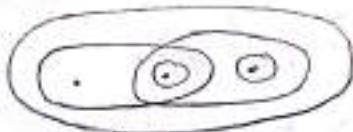
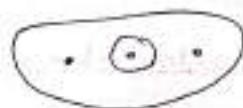
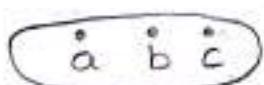
1) \emptyset & X are in τ

2) The Union of the elements of any subcollection τ' is in τ

3) The intersection of the elements of any finite subcollection of τ is in τ .

A set ' X ' for which a topology τ has been specified is called a topological space.

Ex: Let X be a 3 element set $X = \{a, b, c\}$ here are the various topologies listed under in diagrammatic form:-



Ex: 2

If x is any set, the collection of all subsets of x is a topology on x ; it is called the discrete topology.

The collection consisting of x and \emptyset only is also a topology on x called indiscrete topology or trivial topology.

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Defn.:

Suppose τ and τ' are two topologies on a given set x if $\tau' \supset \tau$, then τ' is finer than τ . If τ'

properly contains τ , then τ' is strictly finer than τ .

We also say that τ is coarser than τ' (or) strictly coarser in these above situation

We say τ is comparable with τ' if either τ' is $\tau' \supset \tau$ (or) $\tau \supset \tau'$. In this situation either τ' is larger than τ (or) τ is larger than τ' . Equivalently for second inclusion we say τ is larger than τ' (or) τ' is smaller than τ .

S ④

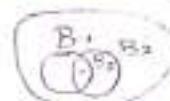
6m (Q iii)

Defn: Basis for a Topology.

If x is a set, a basis for a topology on x is a collection β of subsets of x (called basis elements) such that

i) For each $x \in X$, there is at least one basis element B containing x .

ii) If $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, then there is a basis element B_3 containing x such that $B_3 \subset B_1 \cap B_2$



If \mathcal{B} satisfies these two conditions, then define the topology τ generated by \mathcal{B} as follows.

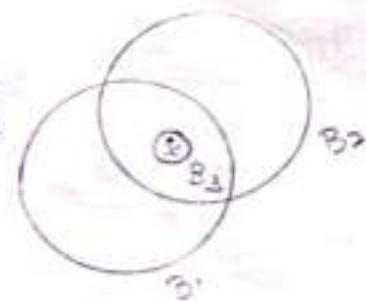
A subset U of X is said to be open in X if for each $x \in U$, there is a basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$

$$\ni x \in B \text{ and } B \subset U$$

Note:- Each basis element is itself an element of τ .

18.6.19 Example:

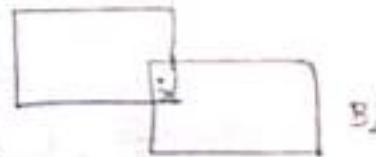
Let \mathcal{B} be the collection of all circular regions (interior of circles) in the plane then \mathcal{B} satisfies both conditions for a basis.



Lemma 1.1

② $\tau = \bigcup \mathcal{B}$

Let X be a set. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the topology τ on X . Then τ equals the collection of all union of elements of \mathcal{B} .



Proof:-

Let X be a set. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for a

topology τ on X . Clearly members in \mathcal{B} are also members in τ .

As τ is a topology, their union is also in τ .

Hence τ equals the family of all union of basic open sets

$\tau = \bigcup \mathcal{B}$

Given $U \in \tau$. For each $x \in U$, choose a basis element $B_x \in \mathcal{B}$

$$\Rightarrow x \in B_x \subset U$$

Hence we write $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} B_x$. This shows that the

open set U in τ equals a union of members of \mathcal{C}

Lemma 1.2: Let X be a topological space. Suppose \mathcal{C} is a collection of open sets in X such that for each $x \in X$ and each open set $U \in \tau$, there is a member $c \in \mathcal{C}$ with $x \in c \subset U$ then \mathcal{C} is a basis for the topology τ on X .

Proof:-

To Show that \mathcal{C} is a basis

I. To show (3)

condition (i): Given that $x \in X$.

$\therefore X$ itself is open set, by hypothesis. Then an element $c \in \mathcal{C}$, $\exists x \in c \subset X$.

Condition (ii):

Let $x \in c_1 \cap c_2$ where $c_1, c_2 \in \mathcal{C}$

$\therefore c_1, c_2$ are open

$\Rightarrow c_1 \cap c_2$ is also open

Then by defn of open set c_3 ,

$\exists x \in c_3 \subset c_1 \cap c_2$.

\therefore From (i) & (ii) \mathcal{C} is a basis for X .

To show that the topology τ' generated by \mathcal{C} equals the topology τ . If $U \in \tau$ and if $x \in U$, then by hypothesis \exists an element $c \in \mathcal{C}$, $\exists x \in c \subset U \Rightarrow u \in \tau'$

$\therefore U \in \tau \Rightarrow U \in \tau'$

$\therefore \tau \subset \tau'$

Conversely if $u \in \tau'$

Then ω equals the union of elements of \mathcal{C}

$$\text{(i.e.) } \omega = \bigcup_{x \in X} C_x.$$

\therefore each $C_x \in \tau$. As $C_x \subset \omega$.

$$\Rightarrow \omega \in \tau.$$

$$\therefore \omega \in \tau' \Rightarrow \omega \in \tau$$

$$\text{(i.e.) } \tau' \subset \tau \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{From (1) \& (2) } \tau = \tau'.$$

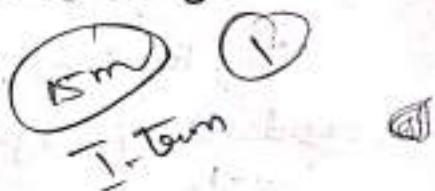


Lemma : 1.3

Let \mathcal{B} & \mathcal{B}' be bases for the topologies τ and τ' respectively on X . Then the following are equivalent

i) τ' is finer than τ .

ii) For each $x \in X$ and each basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$ containing x , there is a basis element $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ containing x .
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 $\Rightarrow x \in B' \subset B$.



Proof:-

To prove (2) \Rightarrow (1)

Given an element U of τ . Let $x \in U$.

Given that \mathcal{B} is a basis for the topology τ on X .

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ generates τ .

\Rightarrow By defn. of basis

$$\Rightarrow x \in B \subset U.$$

By Assumption (2) $x \in B' \subset B$.

But $B \subset U$.

$$\Rightarrow B' \subset U \text{ and } U \in \tau'$$

$$U \in \tau \Rightarrow U \in \tau'$$

$$\therefore \tau \subset \tau' \text{ (as } \tau' \supset \tau).$$

$\Rightarrow \tau'$ is finer than τ .

To prove (b) \Rightarrow (2)

Given that $x \in x$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B$.

$\Rightarrow B \in \tau$

(\mathcal{B} is basis that generates τ)

by (i) τ' is finer than τ

$\Rightarrow \tau' > \tau$

(or) $\tau \subset \tau'$

$B \in \tau \Rightarrow B \in \tau'$

(basis condition)

τ' is generated by \mathcal{B}'

$x \in B \subset \cup$

\Rightarrow by defn of basis \exists a basis element $x \in B' \subset$

Defn: Standard Topology. (\mathcal{B} is a basis)

If \mathcal{B} is the collection of all open intervals

in the real line.

$$(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

The topology generated by \mathcal{B} is called the standard topology on the real line.

Defn: Lower Limit Topology.

If \mathcal{B}' is the collection of all half eqn intervals of the form

$$[a, b] = \{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\} \text{ where } a < b,$$

the topology generated by \mathcal{B}' is called the lower limit topology denoted by \mathbb{R}_l

Defn: K-topology

Let K denote the set of all numbers of the form $\frac{1}{n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let \mathcal{B}'' be the collection of open intervals (a, b) along with all the sets from: $(a, b) - K$.

The topology generated by \mathcal{B}'' will be called the k -topology. This is denoted by \mathbb{R}_k .

Lemma 1.24.

25b¹⁹

The topologies of \mathbb{R}_j and \mathbb{R}_k are strictly finer than the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Proof:-

Let τ , τ' and τ'' be the topologies of \mathbb{R}_j , \mathbb{R}_k and \mathbb{R} respectively.

Given a basis element (a, b) for τ and a point x of $[a, b]$, the basis element $[x, b)$ for τ' contains x and lies in (a, b) .

Given the basis element $[x, d)$ for τ' , there is no open (a, b) that contains x and lies in $[x, d)$.

$\therefore \tau'$ is strictly finer than τ .

||^{why} τ'' is strictly finer than τ

Def: Sub basis

A Subbasis \mathcal{S} for a topology on X is a collection of subsets of X whose union equals X .

The topology generated by the subbasis \mathcal{S} is defined to be the collection τ of all union of finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{S} .

Def: Order topology. (6m) S 17 (ii)

Let X be a set with a simple order relation. Assume that X has more than one element. Let \mathcal{B} be the collection of all sets of the following types.

- open
- All intervals (a, b) in X
 - All intervals of the form $[a_0, b)$, where a_0 is the smallest element (if any) of X .
 - All intervals of the form $[a, b_0]$, where b_0 is the largest element (if any) of X .
- The collection \mathcal{B} is a basis for a topology on X which is called the order topology.

Example :

The standard topology on \mathbb{R} is the order topology from the usual order in \mathbb{R} .

Defn : Rays .

If X is an ordered set and a is an element of X , there are four subsets of X that are called rays determined by a . They are as follows .

$$(a, \infty) = \{x / x > a\}$$

$$(-\infty, a) = \{x / x < a\}$$

$$[a, \infty) = \{x / x \geq a\}$$

$$(-\infty, a] = \{x / x \leq a\}$$

Sets of these first two types are called open rays. Sets of last two types are called closed rays.

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Product Topology

Let X and y be topological spaces. The product topology $X \times y$ is the topology having as basis the collection \mathcal{B} of all sets of the form $U \times V$, where U is open subset of X and V is open subset of y .

Theorem : 1.1

(SM) 2 J-Term

If \mathcal{B} is a basis for the topology of X and \mathcal{C} is a basis for the topology of Y , then the collection $\mathcal{D} = \{B \times C / B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ and } C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ is a basis for the topology of $X \times Y$.

Proof:-

Given an open set W of $X \times Y$ and a point $x \times y$ of W .

by defn of Product topology, there is a basis element $U \times V$

$$\ni x \times y \in U \times V,$$

$$\Rightarrow x \times y \in U \times V \subset W.$$

As \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{C} are bases for X & Y respectively, choose $x \in B \subset U$ and $y \in C \subset V$. Also $x \times y \in B \times C \subset W$.

by a lemma (1.2)

the collection \mathcal{D} is a basis for the topology of $X \times Y$

Example:

(for product topology) The product of the standard topology on \mathbb{R} with itself (i.e) $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$ is a topology called the product topology.

The collection of all products $(a, b) \times (c, d)$ of open intervals in \mathbb{R} will serve as a basis for the topology of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Defn:

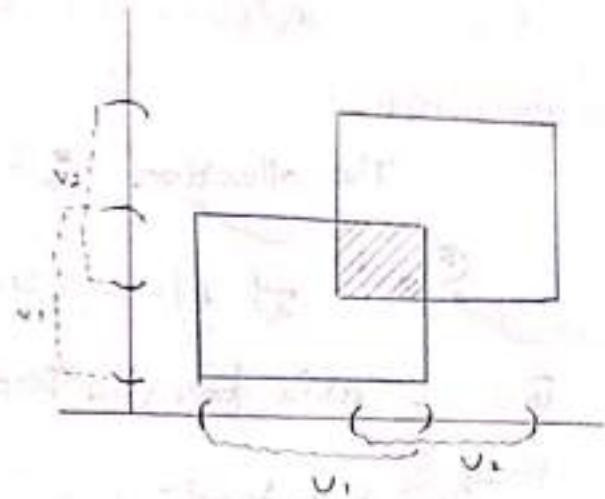
Let $\pi_1: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ be defined by

$$\pi_1(x, y) = x.$$

Let $\pi_2: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ be defined by

$$\pi_2(x, y) = y.$$

The maps π_1 & π_2 are called the projections of $X \times Y$ onto its first and second factors respectively.



If U is an open subset of X , then the set

$\pi_1^{-1}(U)$ is precisely the set $U \times Y$

$$U \times Y = \{x \times y / x \in U\}$$

if V is an open subset

$$X \times V = \{x \times y / y \in V\}$$

of Y the $\pi_2^{-1}(V) = X \times V$ open in $X \times Y$.

Theorem 1.2:

Σ

(3)

(5)

The collection $\Sigma = \{$

$$\Sigma = \{ \pi_1^{-1}(U) / U \text{ is open in } X \} \cup \{ \pi_2^{-1}(V) / V \text{ is open in } Y \}$$

is a subbasis for the product topology on $X \times Y$.

Proof:-

Let τ denote the product topology on $X \times Y$.

Let τ' be the topology generated by Σ .

Any element of Σ is also an element of τ .

\Rightarrow Arbitrary union of finite intersection of elements of τ $\cap \Sigma$ is also in τ .

\therefore The elements of τ are also elements of τ' .

$$\therefore \tau' \subset \tau - \textcircled{1} \quad \{ \pi_1^{-1}(U_1) \cap \pi_1^{-1}(U_2) \dots \cap \pi_1^{-1}(U_n) \}$$

on the other hand, every basis element $U \times V \in \tau$ for the topology τ is a finite intersection of elements of Σ

$$\Rightarrow U \times V \in \Sigma$$

$$\text{i.e. } U \times V \in \tau' \because U \times V \in \tau \Rightarrow U \times V \in \tau'$$

$$\text{from } \textcircled{1} \text{ & } \textcircled{2}$$

$$\tau \subset \tau' - \textcircled{2}$$

$$\tau = \tau'$$

Σ is a basis for τ'

$\Rightarrow \Sigma$ is a basis for τ . But Σ is a basis for τ .

$\Rightarrow \Sigma$ is a subbasis for τ on $X \times Y$.

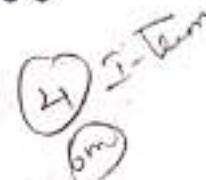
3.1.19
Defn: Subspace Topology. 6m (1) S (ii)

Let X be a topological space with topology τ .

If Y is a subset of X , the collection $\tau_Y = \{Y \cap U | U \in \tau\}$ is a topology on Y , called a subspace topology.

With this topology, Y is called a subspace of X .

To check that τ_Y is a topology:



1) $\emptyset = \emptyset \cap Y$ and $Y = Y \cap X$ are in τ_Y

2) $(U_1 \cap Y) \cap (U_2 \cap Y) \cap (U_3 \cap Y) \cap \dots \cap (U_n \cap Y)$
 $= (U_1 \cap U_2 \cap U_3 \dots \cap U_n) \cap Y$

$= U \cap Y \in \tau_Y$, where $U = U_1 \cap U_2 \cap \dots \cap U_n$

finite intersection of any subcollection of τ_Y is in τ_Y .

3) $\bigcup_{U \in \tau} U \cap Y = (U_1 \cap Y) \cup (U_2 \cap Y) \dots \cup (U_n \cap Y)$

$= (U_1 \cup U_2 \cup U_3 \dots \cup U_n) \cap Y$

$= U \cap Y \in \tau_Y$ where $U = U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_n$

$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{U \in \tau} U \cap Y \in \tau_Y$

\therefore Arbitrary union of any subcollection of τ_Y is in τ_Y

From (1), (2) & (3) τ_Y is a topology for the subspace Y .

(1) I-Term

Lemma 1.5:

6m If \mathcal{B} is a basis for the topology of X , then the collection $\mathcal{B}_Y = \{B \cap Y | B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a basis for the subspace topology on Y .

Proof: Take an open set U in X



and $y \in U \cap Y$.

As \mathcal{B} is a basis for the topology τ on X , by defn, of basis \exists a basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}, \exists x \in B \subset U$

$y \in B, y \in Y \Rightarrow y \in B \cap Y$.

But $B \subset U$.

$\Rightarrow B \cap Y \subset U \cap Y$

$\therefore y \in B \cap Y \subset U \cap Y$.

by lemma 1.2 (by a lemma)

$\Rightarrow y$ is a basis for y .

Lemma 1.6

Let y be a subspace of x . If v is open in y and y is open in x , then v is open in x .

Proof:-

Let U be an open set in y .



$\Rightarrow U = y \cap V$ for some open set V in x .

$y \cap V$ is open in x as y & V are open in x .

(i.e) U is open in x .

6m (S)

Theorem 1.3

If A is a subspace of x and B is a subspace of y , then the Product topology on $A \times B$ is the same as the topology $A \times B$ inherits as a subspace of $x \times y$.

Proof:-

The set $U \times V$ is the general basis element of $x \times y$.

$$\text{Now } (U \times V) \cap (A \times B) = (U \cap A) \times (V \cap B)$$

$\therefore U \cap A$ & $V \cap B$ are general open sets for the subspace topologies on A & B .

The set $(U \cap A) \times (V \cap B)$ is the general basis element for the product topology on $A \times B$.

The basis elements for the subspace topology on $A \times B$ and the product topology on $A \times B$ are the same.

S.1.19

Closed sets and limit Points .

Defn: closed set :

A subset A of a topological space X is said to be closed if the $X - A$ is open.

Example:

The subset $[a, b]$ of \mathbb{R} is closed since its complement $\mathbb{R} - [a, b]$ is open

$$\mathbb{R} - [a, b] = (-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$$

$(-\infty, a)$ & (b, ∞) are open.

$\mathbb{R} - [a, b]$ is open.

i.e., $[a, b]$ is closed.

Theorem: 1.5

Let X be a topological space. Then the following conditions hold:

- 1) \emptyset and X are closed. \rightarrow 15m ③
- 2) Arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed.
- 3) Finite union of closed sets are closed.

Proof:- To prove (1):

As \emptyset and X are complement to each other

$\Rightarrow \emptyset$ and X are closed.

To prove (2):

Given a collection of closed sets. $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$, by demorgan's law.

$$(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i^c$$

$$X - \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (X - A_\alpha)$$

Here each A_α is closed

$\therefore \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (X - A_\alpha)$ is open $\Rightarrow X - A_\alpha$ is open for each x .

i.e., $X - \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$ is open

$\Rightarrow \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$ is closed.

To prove (3): Given a finite collection of closed sets $A_i, i=1, 2, \dots, n$

Given a finite collection of closed sets for each i .

By demorgan's law

$$(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c$$

$$x - \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (x - A_i)$$

as each A_i is closed

$\Rightarrow x - A_i$ is open for each i

$\bigcap_{i=1}^n (x - A_i)$ is open

i.e. $x - \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ is open $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ is closed

Theorem 1.6 Let Y be a subspace of X . Then a set A is closed in Y iff it equals the intersection of a closed set of X with Y .

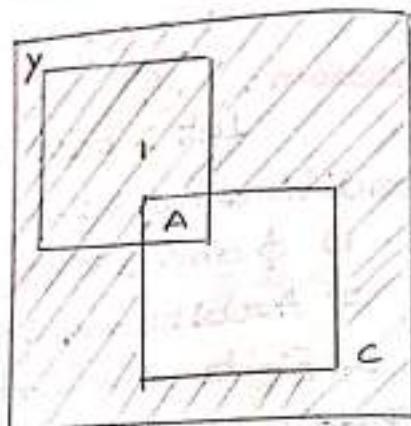
Proof: Direct part:

Assume that $A = c \cap Y$ where c is closed in X .

claim: A is closed in Y

c is closed in $X \Rightarrow x - c$ is open in X .

$\Rightarrow (x - c) \cap Y$ is open in Y



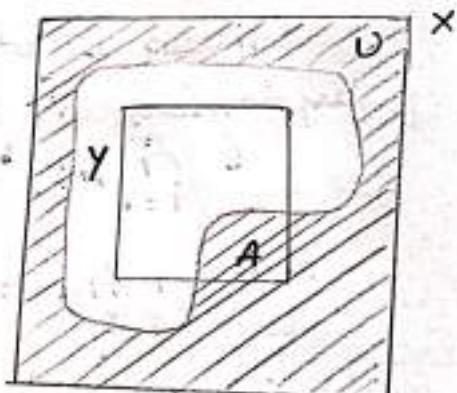
Converse part:

Assume that A is closed in Y .
 $\Rightarrow Y - A$ is open in Y by defn.
of closed set.

From diagram $A = Y \cap (X - U)$

where U is open in X

$\Rightarrow X - U$ is closed in X .



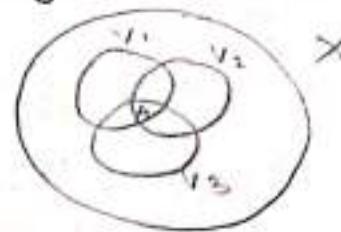
9.1.19 Closure and Interior of a set.

Given a subset A of a topological space X , then the interior of A is defined as the union of all open sets contained in A . Interior of A is denoted by

Int. A

The closure of A is defined as the intersection of all closed sets containing A. Closure of A is denoted by $\text{cl. } A$ ($\text{or } \bar{A}$)

Also Int. A is an open set and cl. A is a closed set.



$$\text{Int } A \subset A \subset \bar{A}$$

If A is open, then $A = \text{Int. } A$

If A is closed, then $A = \bar{A}$.

Theorem 1.7.

Let y be a subspace of X . Let A be a subset of y . Let \bar{A} denote the closure of A in X . Then the closure of A in y equals $\bar{A} \cap y$.

(b) I - term

$$\text{Let } B = \bar{A} \text{ in } y$$

Given that \bar{A} is closed in X .

$$\Rightarrow A \subset \bar{A}$$

$$A \cap y \subset \bar{A} \cap y$$

Also given that \bar{A} is closed in X .

$$\Rightarrow \text{by a thm (1.6), } \bar{A} = \bar{A} \cap y \quad | \quad \bar{A} - \bar{A} \cap y \\ \bar{A} \cap y - \bar{A} \}$$

$$A \subset \bar{A} \Rightarrow A \subset \bar{A} \cap y$$

by def. of closure of A,

B equals the intersection of all closed sets of y containing A.

Containing A.

$$\Rightarrow B \subset \bar{A} \cap y \quad \text{---} \textcircled{1}$$

Again by a thm (1.6)

$B = C \cap y$, where C is closed in X , containing A

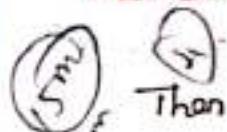
As \bar{A} is closure of A, $A = \bar{A} \subset C$.

$$\bar{A} \cap y \subset C \cap y.$$

From $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$ $B = \bar{A} \cap y \stackrel{\text{(i.e.)}}{=} \bar{A} \cap y \subset B \quad \text{---} \textcircled{2}$

(P.P.Y)

Theorem 1.8 (LSM) S (iii) (B)



Let A be a subset of the topological space X .

Then

a) $x \in \bar{A}$ iff every open set U containing x intersects A .

b) Suppose the topology of X is given by a basis. Then

10.1.19 $x \in \bar{A}$ iff every basis element B containing x intersects A .

Proof:-

To prove (a) (proof by Negation)

Direct part:

$x \in \bar{A} \Rightarrow \exists$ an open set U containing x

that does not intersect A .

Let $x \in \bar{A} \Rightarrow \exists$ an open set $U = X - \bar{A}$ containing x that does not intersect A .

Converse part:

If \exists an open set U containing x that does not intersect A , then a closed set $X - U$ containing A .

\Rightarrow By defn of closure of A (or) \bar{A}

$X - U$ must contain \bar{A}

$X - U$ must contain \bar{A}

By defn of complement of set

$x \in U \Rightarrow x \in X - U$

$\Rightarrow x \notin A$.

To prove (b)

Direct part:

Let $B \in \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow$ by defn of basis

\exists a basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$\Rightarrow x \in B \subset U$.

where U is open in A

$\Rightarrow B$ containing x intersects A .

converse part:

If every basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$.

Containing x intersect A

\Rightarrow Every open set V containing x intersect A

$\Rightarrow x \in A$

(15m) (ii) $\Rightarrow x \in \bar{A}$.

Defn: Limit Point:

If A is a subset of the topological space X and if x is a point x , Then x is a limit point (l.o.i) cluster point or point of accumulation of A

if every neighbourhood of x intersect A in some point other than x itself.

(or)

x is a limit point of A if it belongs to the closure $\overline{A - \{x\}}$

(q3)

Example:

Consider the real line \mathbb{R} . If $A = (0, 1]$

then the point 0 is a limit point of A .

Theorem 1.9. (15m) (ii) (16) Let A be a subset of the topological space X .

Let A' be the set of all limit points of A . Then

$$\bar{A} = A \cup A'$$

Proof: If $x \in A'$ $\Rightarrow x$ is a limit point of A

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \cup A'$$

\Rightarrow by defn of limit every nbd of x intersect A in some point other than x .

\Rightarrow by a thrm $\{1 - f(a)\}, x \in \bar{A}$

$$x \in A \cup A' \Rightarrow x \in \bar{A}$$

$$(i.e.) A \cup A' \subset \bar{A}$$

also

Let $x \in \bar{A} \Rightarrow x$ may lie in A (or) not
If $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in A \cup A'$.
 $x \in A' \Rightarrow x \in A \cup A'$

$$\therefore \bar{A} \subset A \cup A'. \quad - \textcircled{1}$$

Suppose $x \notin A$

$\therefore x \in \bar{A} \Rightarrow$ by a Thm (1.8)

Every nbh of x intersects A in some point than x

$\Rightarrow x$ is a limit point of A

$\Rightarrow x \in A'$.

$\Rightarrow x \in A \cup A'$

$\therefore x \in A' \Rightarrow x \in A \cup A'$.

$$\bar{A} \subset A \cup \bar{A} \quad - \textcircled{2}$$

from $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$

$$\bar{A} \cup A \cup A'.$$

Proof :-

Direct part :

Assume that every nbd of x contains infinitely many points of A .

\Rightarrow The nbd of x intersect A in some point other than x .

\Rightarrow by defn of limit point, x is the limit point of A .

Converse part :

Suppose x is a limit point of A .

Assume that some nbd U of x intersects A in only finitely many points.

$\Rightarrow U$ also intersects $A - \{x\}$ in finitely many pts.

Let $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$ be the points of $U \cap (A - \{x\})$

Now the set $x - \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$ is an open set.

$\therefore U \cap \{x - \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}\}$ is a nbd of x that intersect $A - \{x\}$ not at all
which is a $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ to assumption.

\therefore Every nbd of x

intersect $A - \{x\}$
ininitely many points

$\begin{aligned} & \text{As } x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m \in U \\ & \text{Intersect } A - \{x\} \end{aligned}$

$\begin{aligned} & \Rightarrow \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\} \in \bar{A} \\ & \Rightarrow \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\} \text{ is closed} \end{aligned}$

Theorem : 1.10

Every finite point set in a Hausdorff space

- x is closed.

Proof:- To prove this theorem it is enough to show that every singleton set $\{x_0\}$ is closed.

If x is point of x different from x_0 ($x \neq x_0$)

then the corresponding nbd's of x & x_0 are also distinct.

Now $\therefore U$ does not intersect $\{x_0\}$, the point cannot belong to the closure of the set $\{x_0\}$
 \Rightarrow The closure of the set $\{x_0\}$ is itself $\{\bar{x}_0\} = \{x_0\}$
 $\Rightarrow \{x_0\}$ is closed.
 This is true for every singleton set in X .
 \therefore Every finite point set in X is closed.

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Theorem 1.12

If X is a Hausdorff Space then a Sequence Points of X converges to atmost one point of X .

Proof:- Suppose that x_n is a sequence of points of X that converge to x . If $y \neq x$.

Let U, V be disjoint nbd's of x, y respectively. Since U contains x & n but finitely many values of n , the set V con't

- i. x_n can't converge to y
- ii. x_n converge to one point (\exists only)



Unit -II

Continuous Functions

Continuity of a function

Let X and Y be topological spaces a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be continuous if for each open subset V of Y the set $f^{-1}(V)$ is an open subset of X .

Example 1

Let us consider a function like the studied in analysis a real valued function of a real variable

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Example 2:

In calculus one considers the property of continuity for many kinds of fun. for example, one studies funs. of the following types.

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ (curves in the plane)}$$

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ (curves in space)}$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ (funs. } f(x,y) \text{ of two real variables)}$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ (funs. } f(x,y,z) \text{ of three real variables)}$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ (vector field } v(x,y) \text{ in the plane)}$$

Each of them has a notion continuity defined for it. our general definition of Continuity includes all these as special cases. This fact will be a consequence of general theorems we shall prove concerning continuous funs. on product spaces and on metric spaces.

Example: 3

Let \mathbb{R} denote the set of real numbers in its usual topology, and let \mathbb{R}_l denote the same set in the \lim_{\leftarrow} limit topology. Let

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_l$$

be the identity func. $f(x) = x$ for every real number x . Then f is not continuous func. the inverse image of the open set $[a, b)$ of the equals itself, which is not open in the \mathbb{R} on the other hand the identity func.

$$g: \mathbb{R}_l \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is continuous because the inverse image of (a, b) is itself which is open in \mathbb{R}_l .

Theorem 2.1

Let x and y be topological spaces, let

$f: x \rightarrow y$ Then the following are equivalent.

i) f is continuous.

ii) For every subset A of x , $f(\bar{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$

iii) For every closed set B of y , the set $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in x .

iv) For each $x \in x$ and each neighbourhood V of $f(x)$ there is a neighbourhood U of x s.t. $f(U) \subset V$.

Proof:-

To Prove (i) \Rightarrow (ii)

Suppose $f: x \rightarrow y$ be continuous. let $A \subset x$.

To prove: $f(\bar{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$ choose any arbitrary pt $x \in \bar{A}$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) \in f(\bar{A}).$$

Let v be any neighbourhood of $f(x) \Rightarrow f(v)$
 (If f is continuous)

\exists open set in y containing x and also it intersects A in some point y other than x .

Then v intersects $f(A)$ in some point $f(y)$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$$

As $f(x)$ is arbitrary ^{element} contained in $\overline{f(A)}$

$$\Rightarrow f(\bar{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$$

To prove (ii) \Rightarrow (iii)

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be onto

so that $y = f(x)$ and $f^{-1} = y \rightarrow x$.

Let B be closed set in Y . Take $A = f^{-1}(B)$ then A is a neighbourhood v of x .

$$\Rightarrow f(v) \subset v.$$

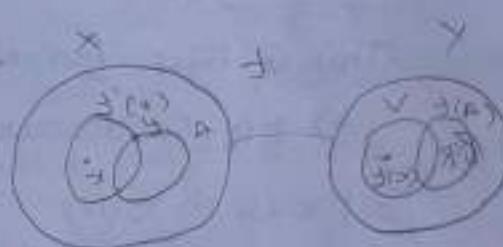
Claim:

A is closed in X .

(i.e) To show that $\bar{A} \subset A$

From the set then the

$$f(A) \subset B$$



If $x \in \bar{A}$ then $f(x) \in f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)} \subset \overline{B} = B$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) \in B$$

(i.e) $x \in f^{-1}(B)$

$$x \in A$$

iii) $x \in \bar{A} \Rightarrow x \in A$, $A \subset \bar{A}$

$\bar{A} \subset A \Rightarrow A$ is closed in X , $A = \bar{A}$

(i.e) $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X .

$$\frac{f(A) \subset B}{f(A) \subset \bar{B}}$$

B is closed in Y
 $\Rightarrow B = \bar{B}$

To prove (iii) \Rightarrow (i)

Assume $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X for every closed

set B in Y .

Claim :-

f is Continuous

Choose an arbitrary open set V in y so that
 $B = y - V$ is closed in y .

by assumption $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in x .

$$V = y - B$$

$$f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(y - B)$$

$$= f^{-1}(y) - f^{-1}(B)$$

$$= X - f^{-1}(B)$$

$X - f^{-1}(B)$ is open in X . $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X .

V is open in y .

$\Rightarrow f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X .

This is true for all open sets in y .

$\Rightarrow f$ is Continuous.

To prove (i) \Rightarrow (iv)

Let $x \in X$ and let V be a neighbourhood of $f(x)$ then the set $U = f^{-1}(V)$ is a $f^{-1}(B)$ neighbourhood of x .
 $f(U) \subset V$.

To prove (iv) \Rightarrow (i)



Let V be a open set of y .

let x be a point of $f^{-1}(V)$

$$\Rightarrow x \in f^{-1}(V)$$

Then $f(x) \in V$.

\Rightarrow by hypothesis there is a neigh. U_x of x

$$\ni f(U_x) \subset V$$

It follows that $f^{-1}(V)$ is written as
Union of open sets U_x .

(i.e) $f^{-1}(v) = \bigcup_{x \in X} U_x$ is open in X .

(ii) $f^{-1}(v)$ is open in X . (by a theorem).

$\Rightarrow f$ is continuous.

Homeomorphism

Let X and Y be topological spaces let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijective. If both the function f and the inverse fun. $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ are continuous then f is called homeomorphism



Remark:

The condition that f^{-1} be continuous says that for each open set U of X , the inverse image of U under the map $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ is open in Y . But the inverse image of U under the map f^{-1} is the same as the image of U under the map f . From the above diagram, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a bijective correspondent such that

$f(U)$ is open iff U is open.

Topological property of X

Any Property of X that is entirely expressed in terms of the topology of X . [e.g In terms of the open sets of X] yields, via the correspondence f , the corresponding property for the space Y .

Such a property of X is called the topological property of X .

Topological imbedding.

Suppose that $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is an injective continuous map, where X and Y are topological spaces. Let Z be the image set $f(X)$, considered as a subspace of Y . Then the fun. $f^{-1}: X \rightarrow Z$ obtained by restricting the range of f is bijective. If f^{-1} happens to be a homeomorphism of X with Z , then we say that $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a topological imbedding of X in Y .

Example: (for homeomorphism)

1. The function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) = 3x+1$ is a homeomorphism.

Define $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$g(y) = \frac{y-1}{3}$$

To show that,

$$\begin{aligned} f(g(y)) &= y \\ f(g(y)) &= f\left(\frac{y-1}{3}\right) \\ &= 3\left(\frac{y-1}{3}\right) + 1 \\ &= y-1+1 \\ &= y \end{aligned}$$

To show that

$$g(f(x)) = x$$

$$\begin{aligned} g(f(x)) &= g(3x+1) \\ &= \frac{y}{3}(3x+1-1) = x \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f$ is bijective and $g = f^{-1}$.

The continuity of f and g is thus follows.

Theorem 2.2

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Rules for Constructing Continuous functions.

Statement :

Let x, y and z be topological spaces

- (constant function). If $f: x \rightarrow y$ maps all of x into the single point y_0 of y then f is continuous.
- (Inclusion) If A is a subspace of x , the inclusion func.
 $j: A \rightarrow y$ is continuous.
- (Composites) If $f: x \rightarrow y$ and $g: y \rightarrow z$ are continuous, then the map $g \circ f: x \rightarrow z$ is continuous.
- (Restricting the domain) If $f: x \rightarrow y$ is continuous, and if A is a subspace of x , then the restricted fun
 $f/A: A \rightarrow y$ is continuous.

- (Restricting (or) expanding the range) .
Let $f: x \rightarrow y$ be continuous. If z is a subspace of y containing the image set $f(x)$, then the fun.
 $g: x \rightarrow z$ obtained by restricting the range of f is continuous. If z is a space having subspace, then the fun.
 $h: x \rightarrow z$ obtained by expanding the range of f is continuous.

$\vdash >$ (Local formulation of Continuity).

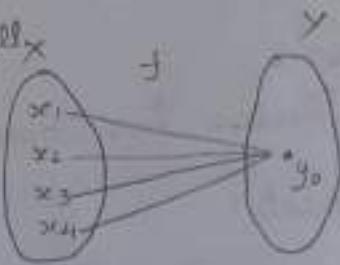
The map $f: x \rightarrow y$ is continuous if x can be written as the union of open sets U_α $\ni: f|_{U_\alpha}$ is points for each α .

Proof -

To prove (i) (a)

Let $f: x \rightarrow y$ be such that

$y'(v) = x$, $f^{-1}(v)$ contains all points of x
 $f(x) = y_0 \quad \forall x \in X$
 $\Rightarrow f(v) \in Y$
 Let v be open set in Y .
 $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(v)$ is either X or \emptyset
 depending on whether v contains y_0 (\emptyset) not
 $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(v)$ is open in X .
 . by defn. f is continuous.
 By defn of subspace topology
 y is subspace of them
 $T_y = \{U \cap y \mid U \text{ is open in } Y\}$



To prove (2)(b)

Consider the inclusion map $j: A \rightarrow Y$.

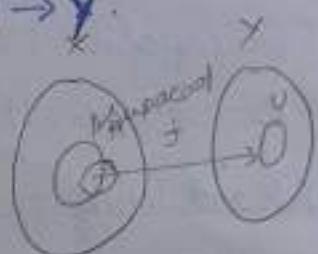
A is a subspace of Y .

Let U be open in Y .

\Rightarrow by defn of subspace topology

$j^{-1}(U) = U \cap A$ is open in A .

by the subspace topology T_A on A the fun. j is continuous.



To prove (3) c

let X, Y, Z be three spaces.

let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ be two given funs.

without loss of generality.

Assume that $f \circ g$ be two onto funs.

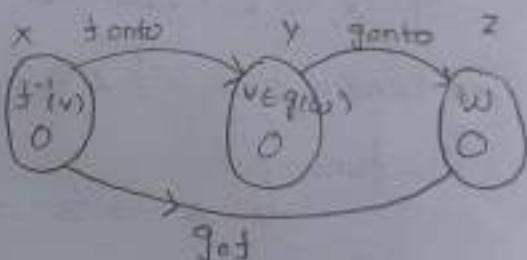
i.e. $f(x) = y, g(y) = z$

claim:

$g \circ f$ is continuous

w.k.t

$$(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$$



choose any arbitrary open set w in Z .

$$\begin{aligned}
 (g \circ f)^{-1}(w) &= f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}(w) && (f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) \\
 &= f^{-1}(g^{-1}(w)) && \text{As } f \circ g \text{ are continuous} \\
 &= f^{-1}(v) && \Rightarrow g^{-1}(w) \text{ is open in } Y \\
 & && \text{and } f^{-1}(v) \text{ is open in } X
 \end{aligned}$$

where $v = g^{-1}(w)$

$\therefore (g \circ f)^{-1}(w)$ is open in X .

$\Rightarrow g \circ f$ is continuous.

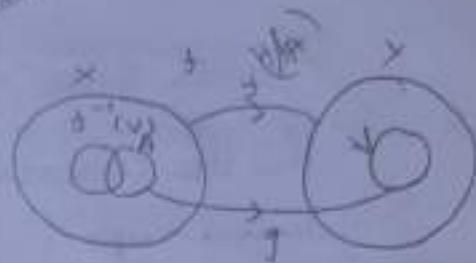
Topology 4 (d)

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be points call $f/A = g$.
Continuous. (continuous)

As f is continuous

\Rightarrow for each open set V in Y

$f^{-1}(V)$ is open in A .



To Prove:

$g: A \rightarrow Y$ is continuous. It is observed that
 $f \circ g$ the identically as far as the subspace A is concerned.

For any open set V in Y ,

$g^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(V) \cap A$ open in A

$g^{-1}(V)$ is open in A .

$\Rightarrow g$ is continuous.

(i.e.) f/A is continuous.

$\therefore T_A = \{U \cap A / U \text{ open in } Y\}$
by defn of subspace topology.

Topology 5

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous &

i) To show that : $g: X \rightarrow Z$, obtained from f is continuous.

Let $f(x) \subseteq z \subseteq Y$.

choose any open set B in Z , i.e.,

$B = U \cap Z$ when U is open in Y .



$$g^{-1}(B) = g^{-1}(U \cap Z)$$

$$= g^{-1}(U) \cap g^{-1}(Z).$$

$$= g^{-1}(U) \cap X.$$

$$= g^{-1}(U)$$

$$g^{-1}(B) = f^{-1}(U)$$

by continuity of f .

$f^{-1}(U)$ is open in X .

$g^{-1}(B)$ is open in X .

(i.e) $g: X \rightarrow Z$ is continuous.

(ii) To Show that

$h: X \rightarrow Z$ is continuous

where Z has y as a subspace.

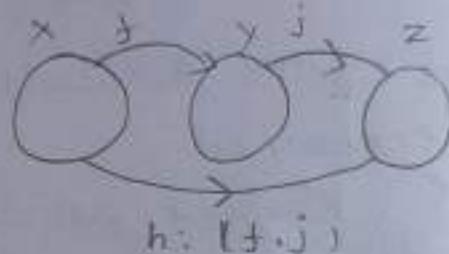
h is the composition of the maps $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and the inclusion maps $j: Y \rightarrow Z$.

Also, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ & $j: Y \rightarrow Z$ are continuous

by the fact the composition of maps is continuous.

$\Rightarrow f \circ j$ is continuous

$\Rightarrow h$ is continuous from X to Z .

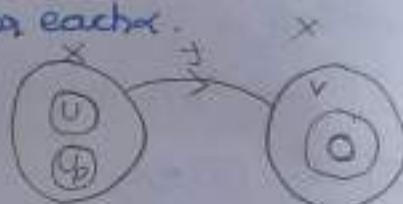


To prove (b)

by definition - let X be written as the union of open sets U_α . $f|_{U_\alpha}$ is continuous for each.

Claim:

$f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.



Let V be any open set in Y .

Then $f^{-1}(V) \cap U_\alpha = (f|_{U_\alpha})^{-1}(V)$ $f^{-1}(V) = V \cap Y$

As both the sets represents the sets of those points x lying in U_α for which $f(x) \in V$.

$f|_{U_\alpha}$ is continuous.

$\Rightarrow (f|_{U_\alpha})^{-1}(V)$ is open in U_α & hence open in X .

But $f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} (f^{-1}(V) \cap U_\alpha)$ being arbitrary union

$f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X for the open set V in Y .

$\therefore f$ is continuous.

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Theorem 2.3 (Pasting lemma)

Statement: let $X = A \cup B$ where A and B are closed in X .

Let $f: A \rightarrow y$ and $g: B \rightarrow y$ be continuous. If

$f(x) = g(x) \quad \forall x \in A \cap B$. Then $f \circ g$ combine to give a continuous func. $h: X \rightarrow y$ defined by $h(x) = f(x)$ if $x \in A$

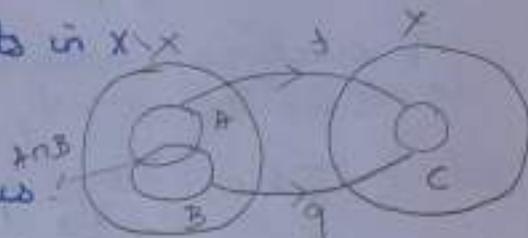
Proof:- Let $X = A \cup B$ $= g(x)$ if $x \in B$.

where A & B are closed sets in X .

Let $f: A \rightarrow y$.

$g: B \rightarrow y$ be continuous.

Also let $f(x) = g(x) \quad \forall x \in A \cap B$.



Claim

$h: X \rightarrow y$ is continuous where $h(x) = f(x) \quad \forall x \in A$.

Let c be any closed set in y .

$$h^{-1}(c) = f^{-1}(c) \cap g^{-1}(c).$$

Here $f^{-1}(c)$ is closed in A and hence closed in X .

Also $g^{-1}(c)$ is closed in B and hence closed in X .

$\Rightarrow f^{-1}(c) \cap g^{-1}(c)$ is closed in X .

$\Rightarrow h^{-1}(c)$ is closed in X .

$\therefore c$ is closed in $y \Rightarrow h^{-1}(c)$ is closed in X

$\therefore h: X \rightarrow y$ is continuous.

Theorem 2.4 (Maps into products)

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Let $f: A \rightarrow X \times Y$ be given by

$f(a) = (f_1(a), f_2(a))$, $a \in A$. Then f is continuous iff $f_1: A \rightarrow X$ and $f_2: A \rightarrow Y$ are continuous.

The maps f_1 & f_2 are called coordinate funcs. of f .

Proof:- Direct Part: $A \rightarrow X \times Y$

Assume $f: A \rightarrow Y$ be continuous

claim: $f_1: A \rightarrow X$, $f_2: A \rightarrow Y$ are continuous

Consider the projections.

$$\pi_1: X \times Y \rightarrow X$$

$\pi_2: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ onto the first and second these
projections are continuous for

$$\pi_1^{-1}(U) = U \times Y$$

$$\pi_2^{-1}(V) = X \times V$$

These sets are open if U & V are open in $X \times Y$.

if $a \in A$, $f_1(a) = \pi_1(f(a))$

$$f_2(a) = \pi_2(f(a))$$

Suppose f is continuous being composition of continuous
func. f_1 & f_2 are continuous.

Converse Part:

Let f_1, f_2 be continuous.

Claim: $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.

Let U be open in Y V be open in X

$$f^{-1}(U \times V) = f_1^{-1}(U) \cap f_2^{-1}(V)$$

~~$$As (U \times V) = f_1^{-1}(U) \cap f_2^{-1}(V)$$~~

As $f_1^{-1}(U)$ is open in A .

& $f_2^{-1}(V)$ is open in A .

$\Rightarrow f_1^{-1}(U) \cap f_2^{-1}(V)$ is open in A

$\Rightarrow f^{-1}(U \times V)$ is open in A

$\Rightarrow f$ is continuous.

The Product Topology.

Def: Let J be an index set. Given a set X we define
 J a J -tuple of continuous of X to be a func. $x: J \rightarrow X$
If α is an continuous of J denote the value of x at α by
 x_α rather than $x(\alpha)$ call it as the α^{th} co-ordinate
of x denote the func. x itself by the symbol.

$$(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} \in J$$

which is an close as tuples notation for an
arbitrary index set J denote the set of all J -tuples
of continuous of X by $\prod J$.

Def: Let $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be an indexed family of sets.

Let $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$. The Cartesian Product of this
indexed family denoted by $\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$.

is defined to be the set of all J -tuples $(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J}$
of continuous of X $\exists: x_\alpha \in A_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$.

That is it is the set of all functions $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = (x_{11}, x_{12}, \dots, x_{1n})$
 $x: J \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = (x_{21}, x_{22}, \dots, x_{2n})$

$\ni: x(\alpha) \in A_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$.

Occasionally denote the product simply by $\prod A_\alpha$,
and its general continuous by (x_α) if the index set
is understood.

Def: Let $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be an indexed family of
topological spaces take as a basis for a topology
on the product space.

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$$

The collection of all sets of the form

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha$$

Where U_α is open in X_α for each $\alpha \in J$ the topology generated by this basis is called the box-topology.

This collection satisfies the 1st condition for a basis because $\pi|_{X_\alpha}$ is itself a basis continuous and it satisfies the 2nd condition because the intersection of any two basis continuous is another basis continuous.

$$\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} U_\alpha \right) \cap \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} V_\alpha \right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} (U_\alpha \cap V_\alpha)$$

Now, generalize the subbasis formulation of the definition. Let

$$\pi_\beta(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} = x_\beta.$$

it is called the projection mapping associated with the index β .

Defn:

Let S_β denote the collection.

$$S_\beta = \{ \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) : U_\beta \text{ open in } X_\beta \}$$

and let S denote the union of item collections.

$$S = \bigcup_{\beta \in J} S_\beta$$

The topology generated by the subbasis S is called the product topology.

In this topology $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ is called a Product space.

Theorem 2.5 Comparison of the box and product topologies.

The box topology on $\prod X_\alpha$ has basis all sets of the form $\prod U_\alpha$ where U_α is open in X_α for each α .

The product topology on $\prod X_\kappa$ has a basis all set of the form $\prod U_\kappa$, where U_κ is open in X_κ for each $\kappa \in I$ and equals X_κ except for finitely many values of κ .

Proof:-

To compare the box Product topologies consider the basis \mathcal{B} that S' generates the collection of all finite intersections of elements of S . As

$$\pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta) \cap \pi_\beta^{-1}(V_\beta) = \pi_\beta^{-1}(U_\beta \cap V_\beta).$$

The intersection of two elements of S_β or of finitely many such _____ again an element of S_β .

The typical elements of the basis \mathcal{B} can thus be described as follows.

Let $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$ be a finite set of distinct indices from the index set I and let U_{β_i} be an open set in X_{β_i} for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Then

$B = \pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(U_{\beta_1}) \cap \pi_{\beta_2}^{-1}(U_{\beta_2}) \cap \dots \cap \pi_{\beta_n}^{-1}(U_{\beta_n})$ is the typical element of \mathcal{B} .

Now a point $x = (x_\kappa)$ is in B iff its β_1^{th} co-ordinate is in U_{β_1} , its β_2^{th} co-ordinate is in U_{β_2} and so on.

There is no restriction whatever on the κ^{th} co-ordinate of x if κ is not one of the indices $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$. As a result,

we can write B as the product

$$B = \prod_{\kappa \in I} U_\kappa.$$

where U_κ element the entire space X_κ is

$$\kappa \neq \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n.$$

Theorem 2.6.

Suppose the topology on each space X_α is given by a basis B_α . The collection of all sets of the form $\prod_{\alpha \in I} B_\alpha$, where $B_\alpha \in B_\alpha$ for each α , will serve as a basis for the box topology $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$.

Theorem 2.7

Let A_α be a subspace of X_α for each $\alpha \in I$. Then $\prod_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$ is a subspace of $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ if both products are given the box topology (or) if both products are given the product topology.

Theorem 2.8

If each space X_α is a Hausdorff space, then $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is a Hausdorff space in both the box and product topologies.

Theorem 2.9

Let (X_α) be an indexed family of spaces. Let $A_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$ for each α if $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ given either the product (or) the box topology. Then

$$\overline{\prod_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha} = \prod_{\alpha \in I} \overline{A_\alpha}$$

Proof:- Let $x = (x_\alpha)$ be a point of $\overline{\prod_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha}$.

To show that $x \in \overline{\prod_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha}$

let $U = \prod_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ be a basis element for either the box or product topology that contains x .

$x_\alpha \in \overline{A_\alpha}$, choose a point $y_\alpha \in U_\alpha \cap A_\alpha$ for each α .

Then $y = (y_\alpha)$ belongs to both U & $\prod_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$

$\therefore U$ is arbitrary it follows that x belongs to the closure of πA_{\prec} .
Conversely,

Suppose $x = (x_{\prec})$ lies in the closure of πA_{\prec} in either topology.

To Show that for any given index β , $x_{\beta} \in \bar{A}_{\beta}$.
Let V_{β} be an arbitrary open set of X_{β} containing x_{β} .

$\therefore \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(V_{\beta})$ is open in πX_{\prec} in either topology it contains a point $y = y_{\prec}$ of πA_{\prec} .

Then y_{β} belongs to $V_{\beta} \cap A_{\beta}$ it follows that $x_{\beta} \in \bar{A}_{\beta}$.

Theorem 2.10

Let $f: A \rightarrow \prod_{\prec \in I} X_{\prec}$ be given by $f(a) = (f_{\prec}(a))_{\prec \in I}$ where $f_{\prec}: A \rightarrow X_{\prec}$ for each \prec . Let πX_{\prec} have the product topology the func. of f is continuous if & each func. f_{\prec} is continuous.

Proof:-

Let π_{β} be the projection of $\prod_{\prec \in I} X_{\prec}$ on to its β^{th} factors X_{β} .

The projection π_{β} is continuous for if V_{β} is open in X_{β} .

Then $\pi_{\beta}^{-1}(V_{\beta})$ is a subbasic open set for the product topology on πX_{\prec} . a

Now,

Suppose that $f: A \rightarrow \prod_{\prec \in I} X_{\prec}$ given by

$f(a) = (f_{\prec}(a))_{\prec \in I}$, for each ' \prec '. where $f_{\prec}: A \rightarrow X_{\prec}$ for each ' \prec ' is continuous the functions.

$$f_{\beta} = \pi_{\beta} \circ f$$

If we assume f is continuous, $f_{\beta} \circ f$ is continuous.

(i.e) f_{β} is continuous for $\beta \in I$.

To Prove the converse, let each co-ordinate func. f_{\prec} be continuous.

Claim: f is continuous if it is sufficient to s.t

f^{-1} of each subbasic open set open in A .

In $\bigcup_{\beta \in I} x_\beta$ choose a subbasic open set of the form $\pi_\beta^{-1}(v_\beta)$ where β is some index and v_β is open in X_β .

$$\text{Now, } f^{-1}(\pi_\beta^{-1}(v_\beta)) = f_\beta^{-1}(v_\beta)$$

because $f_\beta = \pi_\beta$ of the set on the right is open in X_β $\because (f_\beta \text{ is continuous function}) \pi_\beta^{-1}(v_\beta)$ is open in X .

\therefore The set on the left is open i.e. f^{-1} of an open set in X_β is open on X .

(i.e) f is continuous the proof of the theorem

The metric Topology:

Defn. A metric on a set X is a function $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ having the following properties:

i) $d(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $x, y \in X$; equality holds if & only if $x=y$.

ii) $d(x, y) = d(y, x) \forall x, y \in X$.

iii) (Triangle inequality)

$$d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z) \forall x, y, z \in X.$$

Given a metric d on X , the number $d(x, y)$ is often called the distance between x & y in the metric d given $\epsilon > 0$.

Consider the set

$B_d(x, \epsilon) = \{y / d(x, y) < \epsilon\}$ of all points y whose distance from x is less than ϵ , it is called the ϵ -ball centered at x .

Defn:

If d is a metric on the set X then the collection of all ϵ -balls $B_d(x, \epsilon)$ for $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$ is basis for a topology on X called the metric topology induced by d .

The 1st condition for a basis is trivial.

$\because x \in B(x, \epsilon)$ for any $\epsilon > 0$ before checking the second condition for a basis we show that if y is a point of the basis element $B(x, \epsilon)$ then there is a basis element $B(y, s)$ centered at y that is contained in $B(x, \epsilon)$.

Define S to be the two numbers $\epsilon - d(x, y)$

Then $B(y, s) \subset B(x, \epsilon)$ for if $z \in B(y, s)$ then $d(y, z) < s = \epsilon - d(x, y)$ from which we conclude that $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) < \epsilon$.



A set U is open in the metric topology induced by d if for each $y \in U$, there is a $\delta > 0$,

$$\Rightarrow B_d(y, \delta) \subset U.$$

Now to check the second condition for a basis, let B_1, B_2 be two basis elements and let $y \in B_1 \cap B_2$.

We have just shown that we can choose the numbers s, t we conclude that $B(y, s) \subset B_1 \cap B_2$. Clearly, this condition implies that U is open.

Conversely, if U is open, it contains a basis element $B = B_d(x, \epsilon)$ containing $y \in B$ int B contains a basis element $B_d(y, s)$ centered at y .

Metric topology:

Example ①:

Given a set X , define

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$$

The topology it induces is the discrete topology. The basis element is $B(x, 1)$

$$B(x, 1) = \{y / d(x, y) < 1\}.$$

Example : 2

The standard metric on the real numbers \mathbb{R} is defined by the equation,

$$d(x, y) = |x - y|.$$

Metrizable space :

If X is a topological space X is said to be metrizable if \exists a metric d on the set 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 .

Defn:

Let X be a metric space with metric d .

A subset A of X is said to be bounded if there is some number $M \in \mathbb{R}$.

$d(a_1, a_2) \leq M$ for every pair a_1, a_2 of points of A .

If A is bounded and non-empty the diameter of A is defined to be the number.

$$\text{dia } A = \sup \{d(a_1, a_2) / a_1, a_2 \in A\}.$$

Theorem 2.11



Let X be a metric space with metric d define $\bar{d} : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by the eqn $\bar{d}(x, y) = \min\{d(x, y), 1\}$. Then \bar{d} is a metric that induces the same topology as d . The metric \bar{d} is called the standard bounded metric corresponding to d .

Proof: Let (X, d) be a metric space.

Define $\bar{d}(x, y) = \min\{d(x, y), 1\} \quad \forall x, y \in X$.
Clearly \bar{d} is a metric on X .

For 1) $\bar{d}(x, y) \geq 0$ for $\forall x, y \in X$

Because, $d(x, y) \geq 0$ for $\forall x, y \in X$ and

$$\bar{d}(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y$$

$$d(x, y) = 0 \text{ if } x = y$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2) \bar{d}(x, y) &= \min\{d(x, y), 1\} \\ &= \min\{d(y, x), 1\} \\ &= \bar{d}(y, x) \quad \forall x, y \in X. \end{aligned}$$

To check the triangle inequality $\bar{d}(x, z) \leq \bar{d}(x, y) + \bar{d}(y, z)$

Now, either $d(x, y) \geq 1$ (or)

$$d(y, z) \geq 1$$

Then the R.H.S of the above inequality is atleast 1.

\therefore L.H.S is atleast 1.

The inequality holds. It remains to consider
the case in which $d(x, y) < 1$, & $d(y, z) < 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{In this case } d(x, z) &\leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) \\ &= \bar{d}(x, y) + \bar{d}(y, z) \end{aligned}$$

From defn, $\bar{d}(x, z) \leq d(x, z)$

$$\bar{d}(x, z) \leq \bar{d}(x, y) + \bar{d}(y, z)$$

Proving the triangle inequality. The facts that
the metrics d and \bar{d} induce the same topology is a
consequence the following inclusion.

$$B_d(x; \epsilon) \subseteq B_{\bar{d}}(x; \epsilon)$$

$$\text{and } B_{\bar{d}}(x; \delta) \subseteq B_d(x; \epsilon)$$

$$\text{where } \delta = \min\{\epsilon, 1\}$$

Hence Proved.

Defn: Given $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ in \mathbb{R} define the norm of \mathbf{x} by the eqn

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$$

define the euclidean metric d on \mathbb{R} by the eqn.

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = [(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2]^{1/2}$$

define the square metric ρ by the equation

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \max \{ |x_1 - y_1|, |x_2 - y_2|, \dots, |x_n - y_n| \}$$

Lemma: 2.1

Let A and A' be two matrices on the set X .

Let τ and τ' be the topologies they induce,

respectively the τ' is finer than τ iff for each x in X and each $\epsilon > 0$ \exists a $\delta > 0$ \ni :

$$B_d(x, \delta) \subset B_\tau(x, \epsilon).$$

Proof:

Let τ' be finer than τ .

choose any basic open set $B_A(x, t)$ in τ .

then by a (lemma ③ unit I) \exists a basic open set

B' for topology τ' $\ni: x \in B' \subseteq B_\tau(x, t)$ with in B' .

We can find a ball $B_{\tau'}(x, \delta)$ centered at x and

$$\delta = \min \{ \epsilon, 1 \}$$

(i.e.) $B_{\tau'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_\tau(x, \epsilon)$

To prove the converse suppose $\delta - \epsilon$ condition hold
(Given a basic open set B for τ containing x)

We can find with in B an open ball
 $B_\tau(x, \epsilon)$ centred at x .

\therefore By the condition \exists a $\delta > 0$.

$$\ni: B_{\tau'}(x, \delta) \subseteq B_\tau(x, \epsilon)$$

Apply a lemma 1-3 we get τ' is finer than τ .

Theorem 2.12

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2/2*

The topologies on \mathbb{R}^n induced by the Euclidean metric d and the square metric ρ are the same as the product topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof:-

Consider $\bar{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

$\bar{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$

we have from defn.

$$\rho(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \leq d(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \leq \sqrt{n} \rho(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$$

The 1st inequality

$$\Rightarrow \text{That } Bd(\bar{x}, \epsilon) \subseteq B_\rho(\bar{x}, \epsilon) \quad \forall \bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \& \epsilon \geq 0$$

Because $d(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) < \epsilon$

Then $\rho(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) < \epsilon$ also

likewise The 2nd inequality

$$\Rightarrow \text{That } B_\rho(\bar{x}, \epsilon/\sqrt{n}) \subseteq Bd(\bar{x}, \epsilon) \quad \forall \bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \& \epsilon \geq 0$$

∴ by proceeding lemma

That two metric topologies are identical

To ST the Product topologies is the same as that given by the metric ' ρ '

First consider the basic open set

$$B = (a_1, b_1) \times \dots \times (a_n, b_n)$$

For the product topology

Let $\bar{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be an pt in B .

Then for each i , it is possible find $\epsilon_i > 0$,

$$\Rightarrow (x_i - \epsilon_i, x_i + \epsilon_i) \subseteq (a_i, b_i)$$

Now, choose

$$\epsilon = \min \{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n\}$$

Then,

$$B_p(\bar{x}, \epsilon) \in \mathcal{B}.$$

The ρ -topology is finer than product topology.

To prove the other way.

choose $B_p(\bar{x}, \epsilon)$ as a basic open set for the ρ -topology.

Given $\bar{y} \in B_\rho(\bar{x}, \epsilon)$ we need to determine the basic open set B for the product topology s.t. $\bar{y} \in B \subseteq B_p(\bar{x}, \epsilon)$.

But this is bural for $(x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \dots \times (x_n - \epsilon, x_n + \epsilon)$

$$B_p(\bar{x}, \epsilon) = (x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \dots \times (x_n - \epsilon, x_n + \epsilon)$$

is itself a basic open set for the product topology.

This is the product topology is finer than the ρ -topology.

Then two together

\Rightarrow that the product coincides with ρ -topology

Hence proved.

Defn:

Given an index set Γ , and given points

$$x = (x_\kappa)_{\kappa \in \Gamma} \text{ and } y = (y_\kappa)_{\kappa \in \Gamma} \text{ of } \mathbb{R}^\Gamma$$

define a metric $\bar{\rho}$ on \mathbb{R}^Γ by the egn.

$$\bar{\rho}(x, y) = \sup \{ d(x_\kappa, y_\kappa) / \kappa \in \Gamma \}$$

where d is the standard bounded metric on \mathbb{R} . It is called the uniform metric on \mathbb{R}^Γ and the topology $(\bar{\rho})$.

it induces is called the uniform topology.

Theorem 2.13

The uniform topology on $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{T}}$ is finer than the product topology and coarser than the box topology, then three topologies are all different if \mathbb{T} is infinite.

Proof:

Suppose that we are given a point $x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in \mathbb{T}}$ and a product topology basis element $\prod U_{\alpha}$ about x .

Let $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ be the indices for which $U_{\alpha} \neq \mathbb{R}$.

Then for each i , choose $\epsilon_i > 0$ so that the ϵ_i -ball centered at x_{α_i} in the $\bar{\rho}$ metric is contained in U_{α_i} , this we can choose ϵ_0 because U_{α_i} is open in \mathbb{R} .

Let $\epsilon = \min \{ \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n \}$ then the ϵ -ball centred at x in the $\bar{\rho}$ metric is contained in $\prod U_{\alpha}$.

For if z is a point of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{T}}$ s.t. $\bar{\rho}(x, z) < \epsilon$, then $\bar{\epsilon}(x_{\alpha}, z_{\alpha}) < \epsilon \ \forall \alpha$, so that $z \in \prod U_{\alpha}$.

It follows that the uniform topology is finer than the product topology.

on the other hand, let B be the ϵ -ball centered at x in the $\bar{\rho}$ metric.

Then the box neighbourhood

$U = \prod (x_{\alpha} - \epsilon, x_{\alpha} + \epsilon)$ of x is contained in B .

For if $y \in U$ then $\bar{\epsilon}(x_{\alpha}, y_{\alpha}) < \epsilon \ \forall \alpha$,

so that $\bar{\rho}(x, y) \leq \epsilon$

Hence proved.

Theorem 2.14

Let $\bar{d}(a, b) = \min\{|a-b|, 1\}$ be the standard bounded metric on \mathbb{R} . If x, y are two points of \mathbb{R}^ω define,

$$D(x, y) = \sup \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} \right\}$$

Then D is a metric that induces the product topology on \mathbb{R}^ω .

Proof:-
The Properties of a metric are satisfied trivially except for the triangle inequality, which is proved by noting that for all i ,

$$\frac{\bar{d}(x_i, z_i)}{i} \leq \frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} + \frac{\bar{d}(y_i, z_i)}{i} \leq D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

So that,

$$\sup \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}(x_i, z_i)}{i} \right\} \leq D(x, y) + D(y, z)$$

The fact that D gives the product topology requires a little more work.

First, let U be open in the metric topology and let $x \in U$.

We find an open set V in the product topology $\ni x \in V \subset U$.

choose an ϵ -ball $B_D(x, \epsilon)$ lying in U .

Then choose N large enough that $\frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$.

Finally, let v be the basis for the product topology.

$$V = (x_1 - \epsilon, x_1 + \epsilon) \times \dots \times (x_N - \epsilon, x_N + \epsilon) \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots$$

We also asserts that $V \subset B_D(x, \epsilon)$.

Given any y in \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} \leq \frac{1}{N} \text{ for } i \geq N.$$

$$D(x, y) \leq \max \left\{ \frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i}, \frac{\bar{d}(x_N, y_N)}{N} \right\}$$

If y is in V , this expression is less than ϵ . So that $V \subset B_D(x, \epsilon)$ as desired.

Conversely,

consider a basis element $U = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+} U_i$ for the product topology, where U_i is open in \mathbb{R} for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $U_i = \mathbb{R}$ for all other indices i . Given $x \in U$, we find an open set V of the metric topology $\ni x \in V \subset U$. choose an interval $(x_i - \epsilon_i, x_i + \epsilon_i)$ in \mathbb{R} centred about x_i and lying in U_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, chosen each $\epsilon_i \leq 1$.

Then define $\epsilon = \min \{ \epsilon_i / i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n \}$
we assert that $x \in B_D(x, \epsilon) \subset U$.

Let y be a point of $B_D(x, \epsilon)$ then $\forall i$

$$\frac{\bar{d}(x_i, y_i)}{i} \leq D(x, y) < \epsilon$$

Now if $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ then $\epsilon \leq \epsilon_i / i$

So that $\bar{d}(x_i, y_i) < \epsilon_i \leq 1$, it follows

that $|x_i, y_i| < \epsilon_i$

$y \in \prod U_i$ as desired.

Metric topology (continued)

Theorem 2.15

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$. Let X and Y be metrizable.

With metric d_X and d_Y respective then continuity of f is equivalent to the requirement that given

$x \in X$ and given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0 \ni$:

$$d_X(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon.$$

Proof:

Direct Part:

Suppose f is continuous.

Given $x \in X$, consider the set $f^{-1}(B(f(x), \epsilon))$

which is open in X and contains x .

It contains some δ -ball $B(x, \delta)$ centered at x . If $y \in B(x, \delta)$, then $f(y) \in B(f(x), \epsilon)$ as desired.

Suppose that the ϵ - δ condition is satisfied.

Let V be open in Y , we show that $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X .

Let x be a point of the set $f^{-1}(V)$. Since $f(x) \in V$, there is an ϵ -ball $B(f(x), \epsilon)$ centered at $f(x)$ and contained in V . By the ϵ - δ condition, there is a δ -ball $B(x, \delta)$ centered at x such that

$$f(B(x, \delta)) \subset B(f(x), \epsilon)$$

Then $B(x, \delta)$ is a nbd of x contained in $f^{-1}(V)$. So that $f^{-1}(V)$ is open as desired.

Hence proved.

Defn:

A sequence (x_1, x_2, \dots) of the point in X is said to converge to the point $x \in X$ if for every nbd U of x , \exists a true integer N . $\ni x_i$ lies in U $\forall i \geq N$.

Lemma 2.2 Sequence lemma.



Let X be a topological space. Let $A \subset X$. If there is a sequence of points in A converging to x . then $x \in \bar{A}$. The converse holds if X is metrizable.

Proof:-

Direct Part:

Suppose $x_n \rightarrow x$, where $x_n \in A$. From defn (of convergence). U of x contains a point of A .
(i.e) $x \in A$



Converse part:

Let $x \in \bar{A}$, let ' d ' be the metric for the topology on X . For each ' n ' choose a nbhd $B_d(x, r_n)$ of the point x and choose x_n to be a point in $B_d(x, r_n)$.

To Prove: $x_n \rightarrow x \quad \forall n$.

Now any open set U containing x contains an ϵ -ball $B_d(x, \epsilon)$ around x . Choose N .

So that $r_N < \epsilon$, then U contains x , for $i \geq N$.

i.e) $x_n \rightarrow x$.

The sequence x_1, x_2, \dots of points of A converges to x .

Theorem 2.1b Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a function. Let X be metrizable. The fun f is continuous iff for every convergent sequence $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X . The sequence $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$.



is metrizable

Proof:

Direct part

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous

Suppose $x \in X$, $x_n \rightarrow x$

Claim: $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

Let V be a nbhd of $f(x)$

f is continuous $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X and

hence it is a nbhd of x .

\therefore by defn \exists a stage N, \exists :

$x_n \in f^{-1}(V)$ for $n \geq N$

$\Rightarrow f(x_n) \in V$ for $n \geq N$

$\Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

Converse part:

Suppose $x_n \rightarrow x \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

Claim: f is continuous

Let $A \subset X$, choose any point $x \in A$

$\Rightarrow f(x) \in f(A) \quad \text{--- (1)}$

by sequence lemma $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$ iff $x_n \rightarrow x$

\exists a sequence of points x_n in A converges to x .

by hypothesis $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$.

$\therefore f(x_n) \in f(A)$

Again by sequence lemma

$f(x) \in \overline{f(A)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$

From (1) & (2)

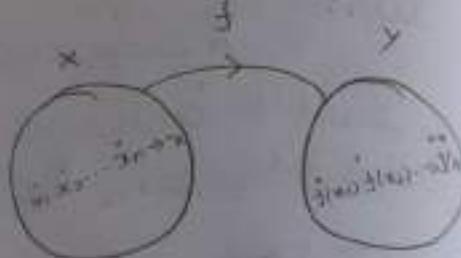
$f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$

by theorem (2.1),

$\therefore A \subset \overline{A} \quad \text{--- } 3$

$f(A) \subset \overline{f(A)}$

$\therefore f$ is continuous.



Defn:

Let $f_n: X \rightarrow Y$ be a sequence of functions from the set X to the metric space Y . Let d' be the metric for Y . The sequence (f_n) converges uniformly to the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ if given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an integer $N \geq 1$ such that

$$d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq N \text{ and all } x \in X.$$

$$f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$$

$$f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$$

$\forall \epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that

claim f is continuous

continuous at x if open

$$A \subset X \quad x \in A \quad f(x) \in f(A)$$

$$x_n \in f^{-1}(V)$$

$$f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$$

$$f(x_n) \in V$$

$$f(x_n) \ni f(x)$$

$$f(x_n) = f(x)$$

$$f(x) \in f(A)$$

$$f(A) \subset f(A)$$

$n \cdot x \in S$ is my

Theorem 2.17 : Uniform Limit theorem

Statement: Let $f_n: X \rightarrow Y$ be a sequence of continuous functions from the space X to the metric space (Y, d) . If the sequence (f_n) converges uniformly to f , then f is continuous.

Proof:

To prove:

$f_n \rightarrow f$ and f is continuous.

Let $f_n: X \rightarrow Y$ be a sequence of functions from metric space X into metric space Y .

Let f_n converge uniformly to f .

Claim:

f is continuous.

To this end choose any open set V in Y .

Let $x \in f^{-1}(V)$

It remains to show that \exists a neighborhood U of x_0 so that $f(U) \subset V$.

Call $y_0 = f(x_0)$. First choose $\epsilon > 0$ so that the ϵ -ball $B(y_0, \epsilon) \subset V$ as V is open.



Apply uniform convergence choose a natural number N . \Rightarrow

$$d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/4 \quad \forall n \geq N \text{ and } \forall x \in X.$$

Then as f_N is continuous, we can choose a nbh of x .

\Rightarrow The function f_N carries U into the $\epsilon/2$ -ball in V centered at $f_N(x)$.

We now S.T f carries U into $B(y_0, \epsilon)$ and hence into V as required.

To achieve this if $x \in U$ then,

$$d(f(x), f_N(x)) < \epsilon/4, \text{ by the choice of } N.$$

$$d(f_N(x), f_N(x_0)) < \epsilon/2, \text{ by the choice of } U.$$

$$d(f_N(x_0), f(x_0)) < \epsilon/4, \text{ by the choice of } N.$$

by applying,

Triangle inequality

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(x), f(x_0)) &\leq d(f(x), f_N(x)) + \\ &\quad d(f_N(x), f_N(x_0)) + d(f_N(x_0), f(x_0)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(x), f(x_0)) &< \epsilon/4 + \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/4 \\ &= \epsilon \text{ for } \forall x \in U. \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f$ is continuous at x_0 .

x_0 is arbitrary

$\therefore f$ is continuous on X .

Hence Proved.

Connectedness

Defn: Connectedness :

Let X be a topological space. A separation of X is a pair U, V of disjoint non empty open subsets of X whose union equals X .

The space X is said to be connected if there does not exist a separation of X .

from Theorem 3.1

* A space X is connected iff the only subsets of X that are both open & closed in X are the empty set and X itself.

Proof: Let A be a non-empty proper subset of X which is both open & closed in X .

Claim:

X is not connected.

$U = A$, which is open in X and $V = X - A$, also open in X . A is closed

$\therefore U$ is a non-empty proper subset of X , V is also non-empty.

Further $U \& V$ are disjoint and their union equals X .

Thus $U \& V$ form a separation of X .

(i.e) X is not connected.

Conversely, X is not connected.

(i.e) $U \& V$ form a separation of X .

So, U is open and non-empty. Also,

$U = X - V$ is closed in X .

Also U is a proper subset of X .

$\because V$ is non-empty)

Hence we are able to find U as a non-empty proper subset of X which is both open and closed in X .
Hence proved

Lemma 3.1 If y is a subspace of X , a separation

If y is a pair of disjoint non-empty sets $A \& B$ of y is a pair of disjoint non-empty sets $A \& B$ whose union is y , neither of which contains a limit point of the other the space y is connected if \exists no separation of y .

Proof.

Suppose A and B from a separation of y .

claim:

$$A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$$

$$\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$$

using the previous theorem we can find ' A ' to be a non-empty proper subset of y which is both open and closed in y .

$\therefore \bar{A}$ denote the closure of A in $X \neq y$ being a subspace X Then $\bar{A} \cap y$ is a closure of A in y .

$\therefore A$ is closed in y , by a theorem, we have.

$$A = \bar{A} \cap y$$

$$\text{Now } A \cap B = (\bar{A} \cap y) \cap B$$

$$= \bar{A} \cap (y \cap B)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \emptyset = \bar{A} \cap B$$

hence we can claim that

$$A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$$

Conversely:

Suppose $A \& B$ are non-empty, and B are disjoint $A \cup B = y$ and $A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$, $\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$

claim

A and B form a separation of y. It is enough to show that A & B are open in y.

consider,

$$A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$$

$$B \cup (A \cap \bar{B}) = B \cup \emptyset$$

$$(B \cup A) \cap (B \cup \bar{B}) = B \cup \emptyset = B$$

$$y \cap \bar{B} = B \quad (\because B \subset \bar{B})$$

by a theorem,

B is closed in y.

then A = y - B which is open in y.

consider,

$$\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$$

$$A \cup (\bar{A} \cap B) = A \cup \emptyset$$

$$(A \cup \bar{A}) \cap (A \cup B) = A$$

$$\bar{A} \cap y = A$$

by a theorem,

A is closed in y.

Hence B = y - A, which is open in y.

Lemma 3.2

If the sets C & D form a separation of X and if y is a connected subspace of X. Then y lies entirely with C or D

Proof:-

∴ C and D form a separation of X, C & D are open in X since y being a subspace of X.

we have,

C ∩ y and D ∩ y are open in y.

[Refer from the defn. of subspace].

Also they are disjoint and their union equals y.

$$(i.e) (C \cap y) \cup (D \cap y) = y \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

If they well both non-empty \Rightarrow $C \cap D = \emptyset$

a separation of y

which is \Rightarrow

The fact that y is connected.

\therefore one of the two sets must be empty.

[either $C \cap y = \emptyset$ (or) $D \cap y = \emptyset$]

Suppose $D \cap y = \emptyset$

Then $C \cap y = y$ (from ①)

Hence $y \subset C$

Hence the theorem.

Theorem 3.2

* The union of a collection of connected
subspace of X that have a point in common is
connected.

Proof:-

Let $\{A_\alpha\}$ be a collection of connected subsets
of a space X , let $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$.

Claim

$y = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$ is connected.

Suppose that $y = C \cup D$ form a separation of y
then the point p is in one of the two sets C or D

Suppose point $p \in C$

$\because A_\alpha$ is a connected subset of y and

$y = C \cup D$ form a separation of y . using Previous
theorem, A_α must lie entirely with in C (or) D

But A_α can't lie in D . because
it contains a point p .

($\because C \text{ & } D$ are disjoint)

Thus $A_\alpha \subset \emptyset$. This is true for every α .

$$\therefore \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha \subset \emptyset$$

i.e.) $y \in \emptyset$ which \Rightarrow the fact that \emptyset is non-empty.

Hence y is connected.

Theorem 3.3

Let A be a connected subspace of X . If $A \subset B \subset \overline{A}$. Then B is also connected.

Proof:-

Let A be a connected subset of X and let $A \subset B \subset \overline{A}$ (given).

claim:-

B is connected suppose $B = C \cup D$ for a separation of B .

(By a lemma 3.2)

A must then entirely within C or D .

[$\because C \text{ & } D$ forms a separation of B and A is a connected subset of B]

Then A must lie entirely within C or D]

Suppose $A \subset C$

then $\overline{A} \subset C$

$\therefore B \subset \overline{A} \subset \overline{C}$ ($\because B \subset \overline{A}$)

by a lemma 3.1

we say that \overline{C} and D are disjoint.

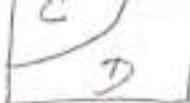
[A separation of B exists iff C and D are non-empty
and C and D are open in B]

$$C \cup D = B \text{ and}$$

$$\overline{C} \cap D = \emptyset$$

$$C \cap \overline{D} = \emptyset \quad]$$

$\therefore B \cap C$ and $B \cap D$ are also disjoint.

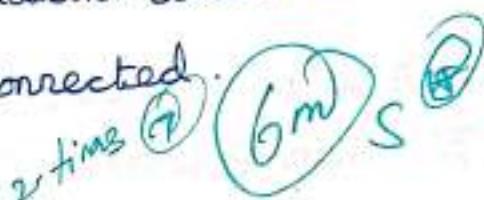


(i.e.) $B \cap D = S$ is empty. ($\because B \cap D$ is non-empty)

But, From the defn of separation of B , we say
 $B \cap D$ is non-empty.

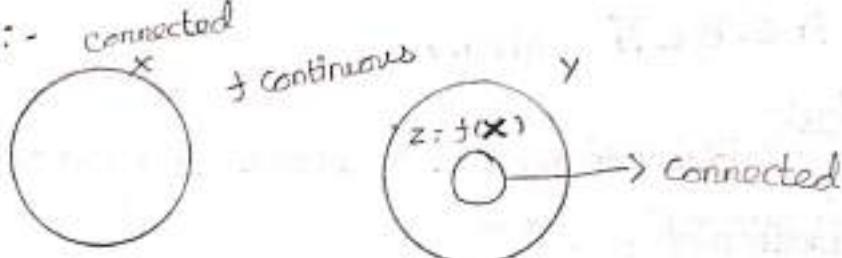
Hence the contradiction arises because of our assumption so, B is connected.

Theorem 3.4.

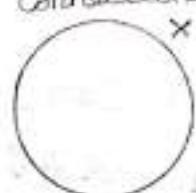


The image of a connected space under a continuous map is connected.

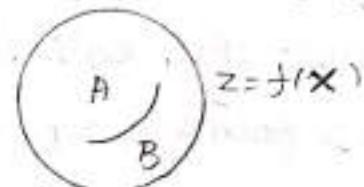
Proof:-



connected space



continuous & subjective



Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. Let X be a connected space.

Claim:

$f(X)$ is connected

\because the map obtained from "f" by restricting the range of "f" to the space Z is also continuous.

[Refer chapter 2] (sec-7)

It is enough to consider the case of a continuous subjective map $g: X \rightarrow Z$.

Hence $z = f(x)$ is connected. \therefore f is continuous at x .

Connected Hence Proved.

Defn.: subspace of the Real Line:

A simply ordered set L having more than one element is called a linear continuum.

If the following hold:

- i) L has the l.u.b property.
- ii) If $x < y$, then there exists $z \in L$ such that $x < z < y$.

Theorem 3.5

~~Is mark~~ If L is a linear continuum in the order topology. Then L is connected and so are intervals & rays in L .

Proof: Let y be a subset of L that equals either L or an interval (or) a ray in L .

[The set y is convex in the sense that if a, b are any two points in y and if $a < b$ then the entire interval $[a, b]$ of points of L is contained in this set y].

Claim 1:

y is connected

Let A and B be two disjoint non-empty sets that are open in y . We shall show that $y \neq A \cup B$.

There by saying that there exists no separation of y .

choose a point 'a' in A & b in B , assume that notation \leq chosen that $a \leq b$. because y is convex we have $[a, b] \subset y$.

Claim 2:

We shall find a point in $[a, b]$ that belongs to neither in A nor in B .

$$[a, b] \subset y$$

$$[a, b] \neq A \cup B$$

$$y \neq A \cup B$$

Consider a set $A_0 = A \cap [a, b]$

$$B_0 = B \cap [a, b]$$

These sets are open in $[a, b]$ in the subspace topology.

$$A_0 = A \cap [a, b]$$

$$B_0 = B \cap [a, b]$$

Further $a \in A_0$ and $b \in B_0$

$\therefore A_0$ and B_0 are non-empty.

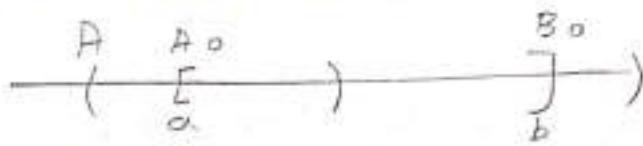
$\therefore A$ and B are disjoint A_0 and B_0 are also disjoint.

Thus A_0 and B_0 are open disjoint and non-empty.

Claim 3:

$$[a, b] \neq A_0 \cup B_0$$

Let $c = \text{lub in } A_0$



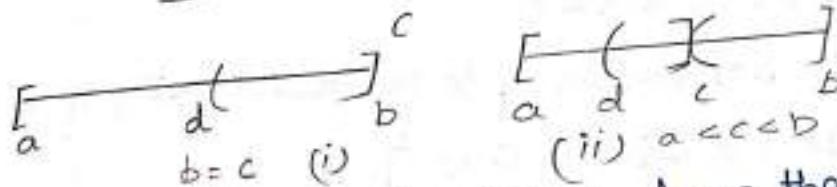
It is enough to show that $c \in A_0$ and $c \notin B_0$.

Case i)

Suppose $c \in B_0$, then $c < a$.

$$\begin{aligned} [\text{Because if } c=a, \text{ then } a \in A, a \in [a, b] \Rightarrow a \in A \cap [a, b]] \\ \Rightarrow a \in A_0 \\ \Rightarrow c \in A_0 \end{aligned}$$

which is not possible because A_0 and B_0 are disjoint.]



In either case, it follows from the fact that B_0 is open in $[a, b]$ that there is some interval of the form $[d, c]$ contained in B_0 .

If $c = b$ we have a contradiction at once.

If $c < b$ we note that $(c, b]$ does not interest A_0 for 'd' is smaller upper bound and for A_0 than c . [refer fig (i)]

Case ii)

If $c < b$ we note that $(c, b]$ does not interest A_0 [$\because c = \text{lub in } A_0$]

Then $(d, b] = (d, c] \cup (c, b]$ \rightarrow does not interest A_0

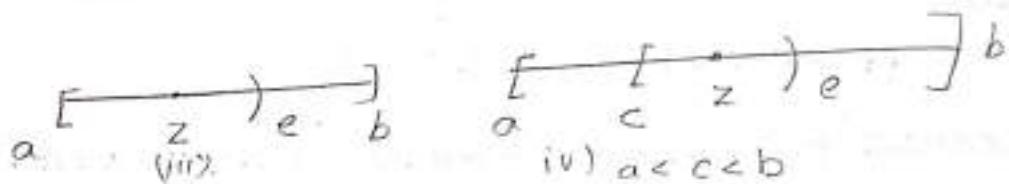
(i.e.) $(d, b]$ does not interest A_0

Again d is a smaller upper bound on A_0 .
Then c , contrary to our assumption that

$$c = \text{l.u.b } A_0$$

Case(iii)

Suppose $c \in A_0$. Then $c \neq b$
so, either $c = a$ (or) $a < c < b$.



Because A_0 is open in $[a, b]$. There must be some interval the form $[c, e]$ contained in A_0 .

Because of order property (2) of the linear continuum L , we can choose a point z of L

$$\Rightarrow c < z < e$$

Then $z \in A_0$, contrary to the fact that
 $c = \text{l.u.b } A_0$ [refer (i) & (iv)]

Hence proved

Note:

Order relation:

A relation C on a set A is called an order relation (or) a simple order (or) a linear order if it has the follow properties. *C - relation b/w*

a) Comparability:

For every $x \neq y$ in A for which $x \neq y$, we have either $x \text{ C } y$ (or) $y \text{ C } x$. $y \text{ C } x$

b) Non - reflexivity:

For no $x \in A$ does the relation $x \text{ C } x$ hold.

c) Transitivity:

If $x \text{ C } y$, $y \text{ C } z$ then, $x \text{ C } z$.

Defn: An ordered set A is said to have one lub property if every non-empty subset A_0 of A that is bounded above has a lub.

The set A is said to have the greatest lower bound property if every non-empty subset A_0 of A

(i.e) bounded below has a greatest lower bound.

Theorem 3.6 Intermediate value theorem.

~~*
Ex~~ Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map of the connected space X into the ordered set Y , in the order topology. If a, b are any two points in X and if r is a point in Y (lying between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$).

Then \exists a point c of X s.t. $f(c) = r$.

Proof:-

Assume the hypothesis of the theorem.

Let $A = (-\infty, r) \cap f(X)$.

$B = (r, \infty) \cap f(X)$.

where $(-\infty, r)$ and (r, ∞) are open rays in Y .

Here A & B are disjoint (\because the open rays $(-\infty, r)$ and $(r, -\infty)$ are disjoint).

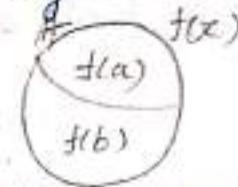
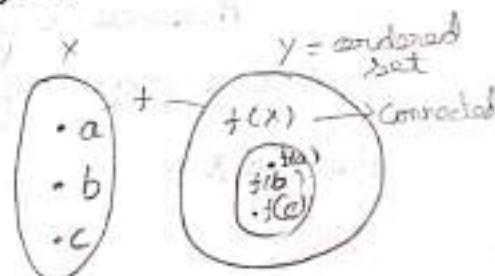
Further A & B are open in $f(X)$.

Because they equal the intersection of an open ray of Y with $f(X)$.

Also A & B are non-empty because one contains $f(a)$ & the other contains $f(b)$.

Suppose if there does not exist a point r in $f(X)$.

$$\Rightarrow f(c) = r.$$



Then $A \cup B$ form a separation of $f(x)$. This gives a contradiction.

Because $f(x)$ is connected.

[\because The image of a connected space of A under a continuous map is connected].

Hence proved.

Defn: path

Given points $x \neq y$ of the space X . Then a path in X from x to y is a continuous map.

$f: [a, b] \rightarrow X$ of some closed intervals of the real line into $X \ni f(a) = x, f(b) = y$.

A space X is said to be path connected if every pair of points of X can be joined by a path in X .

Defn:

Given X , define an equivalence relation on X by setting $x \sim y$ if there is a connected subset of X containing both $x \neq y$.

The equivalence classes are called the components of X .

Here symmetry and reflexivity are obvious. Transitivity follows by noting that if A is a connected set containing $x \neq y$ and B is a connected set containing $y \neq z$.

Then $A \cup B$ is a set containing $x \neq z$,

which is connected because $A \cup B$ have the point 'y' as common.

[by a theorem the union of connected set the have a point in common is connected].

Theorem 3.7

6 m (S) 17

The components of X are connected disjoint subspace of X whose union is X , i.e.: each connected subspace of X intersects only one of them.

Proof:-

Being components are equivalence classes, they are disjoint and their union equals X .

Claim: Each connected set A intersects only one of the components.

Suppose if a connected set A intersects two components C_1 & C_2 (say) at the points x_1 & x_2 respectively.

Then A is a connected set containing both x_1 & x_2 , by defn $x_1 \sim x_2$.

This is possible only if $C_1 = C_2$.

$\therefore A$ intersects in only one of the components.

To show that the components C is connected
choose a point $x_0 \in C$.

For each $x \in C$, we know that $x \sim x_0$,

by defn,

There is a connected subset A_x of X
contains both x & x_0 .

9

of the components, we have $A \supseteq C$

$$\text{Thus } C = \bigcup_{x \in C} A_x$$

\therefore Each A_x is connected and they have a point x_0 in common, this union C is connected.

[By a theorem, the union of a collection of connected set that have a point in common is connected].

Path Components:

Defn an equivalence relation on the space X by defining $x \sim y$ if there exists a path in X from x to y .

The equivalence classes are called path components of X .

Theorem: 3.8

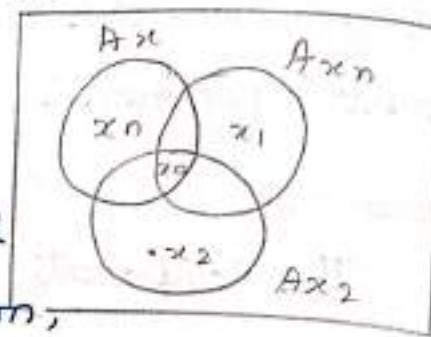
The path components of X are path connected disjoint subspace of X where union is X : each non-empty path connected subspace of X intersects to only one of them.

Proof:

Being path-components are equivalent classes they are disjoint and their union equals X .

Claim:

Each path connected set A intersects in only one of the path components.



Suppose if a path connected set A intersects two path components C_1, C_2 (say) at the points x_1, x_2 respectively.

Then A is path connected set containing both x_1, x_2 .

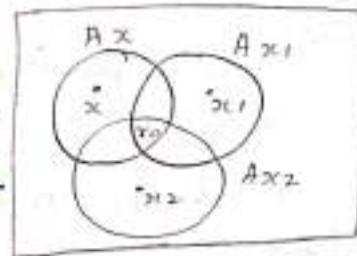
By defn $x_1 \sim x_2$. This is possible only if $C_1 = C_2$.

$\therefore A$ intersects in only one of the path components.

To show the path components C is path-connected, choose a point $x_0 \in C$. For each $x \in C$, we know that $x \sim x_0$.

By defn there is a path connected subset A_x of X contains both x, x_0 .

\because Each path-connected set is contained in only one of the path components we have $A_x \subset C$



$$\text{Thus } C = \bigcup_{x \in C} A_x.$$

\therefore Each A_x is path connected and they have a point x_0 in common, their union - is path connected

[By a thm the union of the two collection of connected sets that have a point in common is connected].

Defn: A space X is said to be locally connected at x if for every nbh U of x there is a connected nbh V of x s.t. $V \subset U$.

If X is locally connected at each of its points.

It is said to be locally connected.

Defn:-

A space X is said to be locally path-connected at x if for every nbh U of x there is a path connected nbh V of x such that $V \subset U$.

If X is locally path connected at each of its points. Then it is said to be locally path connected.

Exm 5 18

Theorem 3.9:

A space X is locally connected \Leftrightarrow for every open set U of X , each component of U is open in X .

Proof:-

Let X be locally connected.

Let U be open in X .

Let C be a component of U in X .

Claim:

C is open in X .

Let $x \in C$

$\because U$ is open in X & X is locally connected,
by defn.

We can choose a connected nbh V of x such that $V \subset U$.

$\therefore V$ is connected it must lie entirely within C .

[By a theorem, each connected set intersects
only one of the components]

Thus, for each $x \in C$ we have $V_x \in C$

$$So C = \bigcup_{x \in C} V_x$$

\therefore Each V_x is open and also w.r.t arbitrary union of open sets is open we say that C is open in X .

Conversely:-

Let the given hypothesis be true.

claim: x is locally connected.

Let $x \in X$ and U be open in X containing x .

Let C be a component of U containing x .

Then C is connected.

(\because Each component is connected).

by hypothesis, C is open.

$\therefore C$ is a connected nbh of x contained in U .

By defn, X is locally connected at x .

$\therefore x$ is arbitrary, we say that X is locally connected.

Theorem 3.10

A space X is locally path connected

\Leftrightarrow For every open set U of X , each path components of U is also open in X .

Proof:- Let X be locally path connected.

Let V be open in X .

Let $x \in V$ be a path component of V in X .

claim:

C is open in X .

Let $x \in C$.

$\therefore U$ is open in X & X is locally path connected

by defn.

We can choose a path connected nbh V of x

$\ni V \subset U$.

$\therefore V$ is connected it must lie entirely

with in C .

[By a theorem each connected set intersects only one of the components].

Thus for each $x \in C$.

we have $V_x \subset C$.

$$\text{So, } C = \bigcup_{x \in U} V_x$$

\therefore Each V_x is open and also we know that arbitrary union of open sets is open.
we say, that,
 C is open in X .

Conversely:-

Let the given hypothesis be true. let $x \in X$ and V be open in X containing x .

Let C be a path component of V containing x . Then C is path connected.

(\because Each path components is path connected)

By hypothesis C is open.

$\therefore C$ is a path connected nbh of x contained in V .

By defn,

X is locally paths connected at x .

$\therefore x$ is arbitrary we say that X is locally path connected.

Hence proved.

Theorem 3.11

If X is a topological space, each path component of X lies in a components of X . If X is locally path connected. Then the components and the path components of X are the same.

Proof:-

Let C be a component of X .

Let x be any point in C .

Let P be a path component of X containing x .
claim:

$$P \subset q^c$$

W.K.T, Each path component of X is necessarily path connected (Thm 8) and path connected is necessarily connected (Thm 10)

Hence we conclude that each path-component of X is necessarily connected.

So, P is connected

By a theorem (3.8) each connected subset of X intersects only one of the components the connected set P lies in q^c .

$$(i.e) P \subset q^c$$

We wish to claim that if X is locally path connected. Then $P = q^c$

$$\text{Suppose } P \neq q^c$$

Let Ω be the union of all path components of X , that are different from P & intersects q . Each of them necessarily lies in q^c so that $q^c = P \cup \Omega$.

$\because X$ is locally path connected each path component of X is open & hence P (path component of X) and Ω (union of path component of X) are open in X .

Further $P \& \Omega$ are disjoint non-empty and their union equals q^c

Hence $P \& \Omega$ form a separation of q^c contradicting the fact that C is connected.

Thus we conclude that,

$$P = q^c$$

Hence proved.

Compact Spaces

Defn: Covering.

A collection A of subspaces of a space X is said to cover X (or) a covering for X if the union of the elements of A equals X .

Example: $X = \{a, b, c\}$

$$A = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$$

$$\emptyset \cup \{a\} \cup \{b, c\} = \{a, b, c\} = X$$

Here A is a covering for X .

Def: open covering:

The set A is called an open covering for X if its elements are open subsets of X .

Defn: Compact space.

A space X is said to be compact if each open covering of X contains a finite subcollection that also covers X .

Lemma : 4.1

Let Y be a subspace of X . They is compact iff every covering of Y sets open in X contains a finite subcollection covering of Y .

Proof:

Direct Part.

Suppose that Y is compact and

$A = \{A_\alpha / \alpha \in J\}$ be a covering of Y by sets open in X

 $\Rightarrow \{A_{\alpha_1}, A_{\alpha_2}, \dots\}$ covers Y .

Claim:

$\{A_{x_1}, A_{x_2}, \dots, A_{x_n}\}$ covers y .

The collection $\{A_{x_i} \cap y : i \in I\}$ covers y by sets open in y .
[By the defn. of subspace topology]

$$\mathcal{T}_y = \{U \cap y / U \text{ is open in } X\}$$

$\therefore y$ is compact.

\Rightarrow by defn. of compact space the subcollection
 $\{A_{x_1} \cap y, A_{x_2} \cap y, \dots, A_{x_n} \cap y\}$ covers y .

$$\therefore \{A_{x_1}, A_{x_2}, \dots, A_{x_n}\}$$

which is a finite subcollection of ~~covers~~ covers y .

Converse Part:

Assume that hypothesis.

\Rightarrow Every covering A of y has a finite subcollection that also covers y .

claim y is compact

let $A' = \{A'_x / x \in J\}$ covers by sets open in y .

for each x , choose A_x open in $X \Rightarrow A'_x = A_x \cap y$

[by defn. of subspace topology]

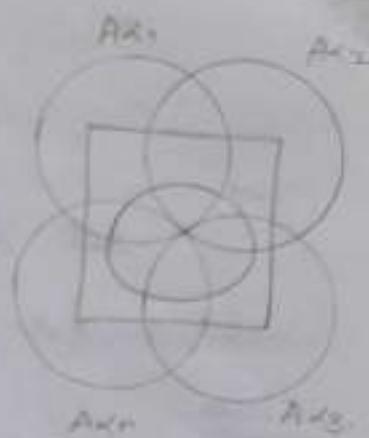
Now the collection,

$A = \{A_x / x \in J\}$ be a covering of y by sets open in X

From the assumption, A a finite subcollection.

$\{A'_x, A''_x, \dots, A''_n\}$ covers y .

$\Rightarrow y$ is compact.



Theorem : 4.1

Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

Proof:-

Let X be a compact space y be a closed subspace of X .

Claim:

y is compact. Let A be a covering of y by sets open in X , For proving y to be compact, it is sufficient to prove that a finite subcollection A covers y .

(Refer Previous thm (4.1)) .

Let us form an open covering B of X adjoining A to the open set $X - y$.

[$\because y \subset X$ and y is closed
 $\Rightarrow X - y$ is open].

$$B = A \cup \{X - y\}$$

Here B the open covering of X covers to space X .

$\therefore X$ is compact (given) a finite subcollection of B covers X .

If the subcollection of B contains $X - y$, either discard $X - y$ (or)

Leave the subcollection alone, this resulting collection is a finite subcollection of A that covers y .

6th Theorem 4.2



Every compact subspace of a hausdorff space is closed.

Proof: Suppose y be a compact space x be a Hausdorff space and y be a subset.

claim: y is closed.

It is sufficient to show that $x - y$ is open.

Let $x_0 \in x - y$.

For each $y \in y$ disjoint nbh v_y & $v_{y'}$ of the pts y & y' respectively (using the Hausdorff condition for the space x)

The collection $\{v_y | y \in y\}$ is a covering for y by sets open in x .

$\because y$ is compact, finitely many of them cover the space y .
(by a thm) So, $\{v_{y_1}, v_{y_2}, \dots, v_{y_n}\}$ cover the space y .

Now, $v = v_{y_1} \cup v_{y_2} \cup \dots \cup v_{y_n}$ is disjoint from the set

$$U = U_{y_1} \cap U_{y_2} \cap \dots \cap U_{y_n}$$

formed by taking the intersect of the corresponding nbh of x_0 , because $z \in v$.

$$\Rightarrow z \in v_{y_i} \forall i$$

$$\Rightarrow z \notin U_{y_i} \forall i$$

$$\Rightarrow z \notin U$$

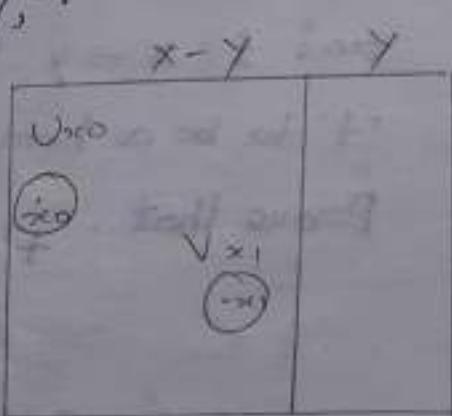
$\therefore U$ is a nbh of x_0 disjoint from y . [$y \subset v$].

$\therefore x_0$ be an arbitrary point in $x - y$,

we say that $x - y$ is open.

Hence y is closed.

$$x - y = U_{x_0} \cup U_{x_1} \cup U_{x_2}$$



Thm 4.3

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

Proof :-

Claim:

$f(x)$ is compact.

Suppose $\{A_\kappa / \kappa \in J^y\}$ is a covering for $f(x)$ by sets open in y .

So, $\{f^{-1}(A_\kappa) / \kappa \in J^y\}$ cover x .

$\because f$ is continuous by defn for each A_κ open in y ,
 $f^{-1}(A_\kappa)$ is open in x .

$\therefore x$ is compact by defn finitely many of them
cover the space.

(i) $f^{-1}(A_{\kappa_1}), f^{-1}(A_{\kappa_2}), \dots, f^{-1}(A_{\kappa_n})$ cover.

Hence $\{A_{\kappa_1}, A_{\kappa_2}, \dots, A_{\kappa_n}\}$ covers $f(x)$ Thus,
 $f(x)$ is compact.

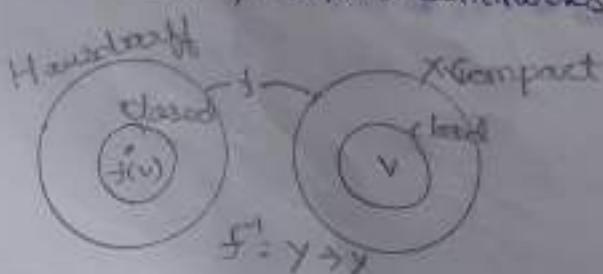
Thm 4.4

Let $f: x \rightarrow y$ be a bijective continuous function.

If x is compact and y is Hausdorff then f is
homeomorphism.

Proof:-

Let $f: x \rightarrow y$ be a bijective function and $f: x \rightarrow y$ be continuous (given) For proving
 f to be a homeomorphism it is sufficient to
prove that $f^{-1}: y \rightarrow x$ is continuous.



Suppose V be closed in X , Since every closed subset of a compact space is compact.

we say that V is compact.

f is continuous from $X \rightarrow Y$ and by a theorem, the continuous image of a compact space is compact, we say that $f(V)$ is also compact.

\therefore Every compact subset of a Hausdorff space is closed, we say that $f(V)$ is closed in Y .

Hence $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous.

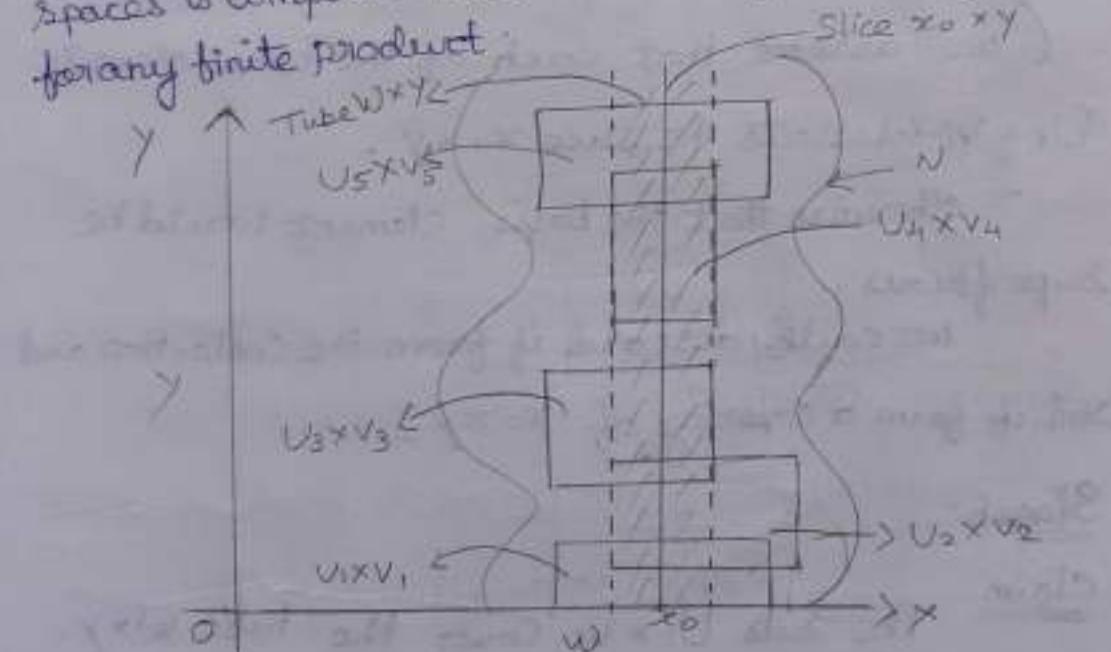
Hence proved.

Theorem 4.5

The Product of finitely many compact spaces is compact.

Proof:-

We shall prove the product of the compact spaces is compact these the theorem follows by induction for any finite product.



Step 1: Suppose that X and Y are topological spaces with Y compact let $x_0 \in X$ and N is an open set in $X \times Y$ containing the slice $x_0 * y$ of $X \times Y$.

Claim:

There is a nbh w of x_0 in such a way that N contains the entire set $w \times y$.

Stage a:-

claim $x_0 \in y$ is covered by $U_i \times V_i$. Let us cover the slice $x_0 \times y$ by means of basis elements $U_i \times V_i$,
[$U_i \times V_i$ is a basis elements of the product topology in $X \times Y \ni U_i$ is open in X and V_i is open in Y]
each is lying in N .

The slice $x_0 \times y$ is compact being homeomorphism to y .

Hence, finitely many of the collection taken from $U_i \times V_i$ (say).

$U_1 \times V_1, U_2 \times V_2, \dots, U_n \times V_n$ covers the slice $x_0 \times y$.
(we assume that each of the basis elements $U_i \times V_i$ intersects the slice $x_0 \times y$.)

\because otherwise that the basis element would be superfluous.

we could discard it from the collection and still it form a covering of $x_0 \times y$).

Stage b:

Claim:

The sets $U_i \times V_i$ cover the tube $w \times y$.

Define, $W = U_1 \cap U_2 \cap \dots \cap U_n$.

W is open in X . Also $x_0 \in W$ [$x_0 \in U_i, V_i$]

let $X \times y \in w \times y$.

Consider the pt $x_0 \times y$ on slice $x_0 \times y$. It is having the same, y co-ordinate as the pt $x \times y$.

Now, $(x_0 \times y) \in U_i \times V_i$ for some i
 $\Rightarrow y \in V_i$ for that i .

$\therefore x \in w$ ($\because x \times y \in w \times y$)

we have, $x \in U_j \forall j$.

$\therefore (w = U_1 \cap U_2 \dots \cap U_n)$.

Hence $x \in U_i$ for that i .

$\therefore x \times y \in U_i \times V_i$ for that i . Hence the collection of the product sets $U_i \times V_i$ cover the tube $w \times y$.

Stage 'c'

\therefore all the sets $U_i \times V_i$ cover the tube $w \times y$ and each $U_i \times V_i$ is lying in N , we get $w \times y$ is covered by N .

Step 2:

Let $X \times Y$ be two compact spaces. Let \star be an open covering of $X \times Y$. Given $x_0 \in X$.

\therefore The slice $x_0 \times Y$ is compact finitely many elements A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m of \star covers $x_0 \times Y$. This union.

$N = A_1 \cup A_2 \dots \cup A_m$ is an open set in $X \times Y$,

containing the slice $x_0 \times Y$.

By using step 1 the open set N contain a tube $w \times y$ about the slice $x_0 \times y$ where w is open on X .

Then $X \times Y$ is covered by finitely many elements A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m of \mathcal{A} .

$$[\because N = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_m]$$

Thus for each $x \in X$, we can choose a nbh W_x of x \ni : tube $W_x \times Y$ is covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} .

Let the collection of all nbh's W_x is an open covering of X .

~~∴ From Compactness of X , there is a finite subcollection $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k\}$ cover the space X .~~

Now,

$$X \times Y = (w_1 \times Y) \cup (w_2 \times Y) \cup \dots \cup (w_k \times Y).$$

\therefore Each tube $w_i \times Y$ is covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} .

So is the case for their union.

Hence a finite number of elements in \mathcal{A} also covers $X \times Y$.

Thus $X \times Y$ is compact.

Hence Proved.

Note: (Tube lemma).

Consider the product space $X \times Y$, where Y is compact.

If N is an open set in $X \times Y$ containing the slice $x_0 \times Y$ of $X \times Y$.

Then N contains some tube W_Y of $x_0 \times Y$ where W is a nbh of x_0 in X .

Proof:-

As in Step 1 in the previous theorem.

Defn:-

A collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of X is said to satisfy the finite intersection condition if for ② every finite subcollection $\{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n\}$ of \mathcal{C} , the intersection $C_1 \cap C_2 \cap C_3 \dots \cap C_n$ is non-empty [F.I.P]

Theorem : 2.6.

Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact iff for every collection \mathcal{C} of closed sets in X , having the finite intersection Property the intersection $\cap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all elements of \mathcal{C} is non empty.

Proof:-

Given a collection λ of subsets of X ,

let $\mathcal{C} = \{x - A / A \in \lambda\}$ be the collection of their complements. Then the following statements hold

i) \mathcal{C} is a collection of open sets iff λ is a collection of closed sets.

ii) The collection \mathcal{C} covers X iff their intersection $\cap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all elements of \mathcal{C} is empty

iii) The finite subcollection $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ of \mathcal{C} covers X iff the intersection of the corresponding elements $C_i = X - A_i$ of \mathcal{C} is empty

[from De Morgan's law;

$$X - \left\{ \bigcup_{\omega \in J} A_\omega \right\} = \bigcap_{\omega \in J} (X - A_\omega) = \emptyset$$

$$\text{Also } X - \left\{ \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right\} = \bigcap_{i=1}^n (X - A_i) = \emptyset$$

$\therefore \bigcup_{\omega \in J} A_\omega$ covers the space X , we have

$$\left[X - \left\{ \bigcup_{\omega \in J} A_\omega \right\} = \emptyset \right]$$

The proof of the theorem is based on

i) Contrapositive of the theorem.

ii) Complement of the sets.

The statement that X is compact is equivalent of saying that "Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open sets of X , if \mathcal{A} covers X , Then some finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X ".

The Contrapositive of the above statement is given in the following way "If any collection of open sets of X is given and if no finite sub-collection \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{A} covers X , Then \mathcal{A} does not cover X ".

Applying Conditions (i), (ii) and (iii), we get the following statement.

" X is compact iff given any collection \mathcal{C} of closed sets in X , if every finite sets in X , if every finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{C} is non empty."

Then the intersection of all elements of \mathcal{C} is also non-empty".

Hence the theorem.

Theorem : [Theorem based on finite intersection property] [Extension]

A special Case of the above theorem occurs when we have a nested sequence $C_1 \supset C_2 \supset C_3 \dots \supset C_n$ of closed sets in a compact space X .

If each of the sets C_n is non-empty,
then the collection

$\mathcal{C} = \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+}$ satisfies the finite intersection
condition.

Then the intersection $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} C_n$ is non-empty.

Compact Sets in the real line

(X) Theorem: 4.8.

Let X be a simply ordered set having
the least upper bound property. In the order
topology, each closed interval in X is compact.

Proof:-

Given $a < b$.

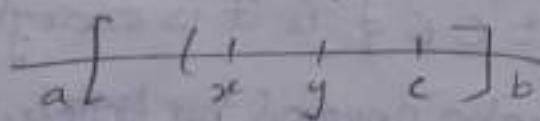
Let \mathcal{A} be a covering of $[a, b]$ by sets open in
 $[a, b]$ in the subspace topology.

Claim: A finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers $[a, b]$.

Step 1: 1st we prove that following:

If $x \in [a, b]$ different from b , Then \exists a point
 $y > x$ in $[a, b] \ni$ the closed interval $[x, y]$ is
covered by at most two elements of \mathcal{A} .

$A \in \mathcal{A}$



If x has an immediate successor in X , let y be
this immediate successor.

Then $[x, y]$ consists of the two point x and y ,
so that it can be covered by at most two elements
of \mathcal{A} .

(i.e. x is an endpoint)

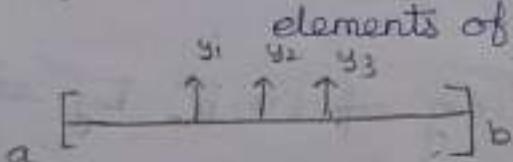
Suppose that x has no immediate successor
in X .

choose an element $A \in \lambda$ containing x . Because
 $x \neq b$ (given) and A is open, A contains an interval
of the form $[x, c)$ for some $c \in [a, b]$.

choose a point y in (x, c) . Then $[x, y]$ is
covered by a single element A of \mathcal{A} .

Step 2: Let \mathcal{G} be the set of all points $y > a$ of $[a, b]$
 $\Rightarrow [a, y]$ can be covered by finitely many elements
of λ .

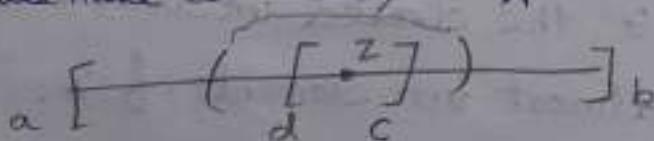
i.e. $\mathcal{G} = \{y > a / [a, y] \text{ is covered by finitely many}$
elements of $\lambda\}$



Apply step 1 to the case $x=a$, we see that \mathcal{G}
at least one such y .

(i) \mathcal{G} is non-empty.

Step 3 Let c be the least upper bound of the set \mathcal{G} ,
Then we have $a < c \leq b \forall A \in \mathcal{A}$



we show that $c \in \mathcal{G}$ i.e. it is enough to
show that $[a, c]$ can be covered by finitely many
elements of \mathcal{A} .

choose an element A of \mathcal{A} containing c .
 $\because A$ is open, by defn, of open set A contains an
interval of the form $[d, c]$ containing the point c
for some $d \in [a, b]$

If $c \notin J$, there must be



Suppose $c < b$:

Apply step(1) to the case $x = c$. Then there exists a point $y > c$ in $[a, b]$ \Rightarrow $[c, y]$ is covered by almost two elements of \mathcal{A} .

$\therefore c \in J$ using step(3), $[a, c]$ can be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} .

$\therefore [a, y] = [a, c] \cup [c, y]$ can be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . By defn, of J we have $y \in J$, contradicting the fact that $c = \text{lub } J$.
a point z of J lying in the interval (d, c) because otherwise "d" would be a smaller upper bound on J than c .

$\therefore z \in J$, the interval $[a, z]$ can be covered by finitely many (say) n elements of \mathcal{A} . Further $[z, c]$ lies in single element A of \mathcal{A} .

Thus $[a, c] = [a, z] \cup [z, c]$ can be covered by $(n+1)$ elements of \mathcal{A} . By defn, of J , we have $c \in J$ contrary to our assumption.

Step 4:

Finally, we have to show that $c = b$ so that the theorem is proved.

This contradiction arises only because of assuming that $c < b$.

Hence we've $c = b$ i.e. $[a, b]$ is covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A}
 $\therefore [a, b]$ is compact.

Theorem 4.9: A subset A of \mathbb{R}^n is compact iff it is closed and bounded in the Euclidean metric 'd' on the square metric 'e'.

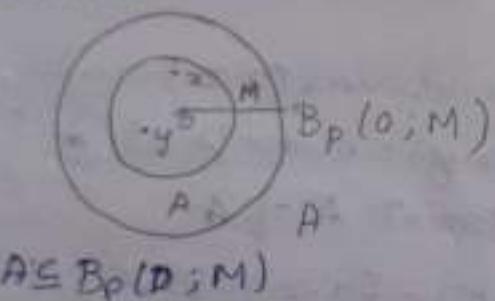
Proof: It is enough to consider only the square metric 'e' because

$e(x, y) \leq d(x, y) \leq \sqrt{n} e(x, y)$ imply that A is bounded under 'd' iff it is bounded under 'e'.

~~Direct Path~~ Suppose A is compact w.r.t. \mathbb{R}^n is a Hausdorff space, (\because Simple ordered set is on Hausdorff space in the order topology).

$\therefore A$ is a subset of \mathbb{R}^n . ($\because A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ we have A is closed (by a theorem Every compact subset of a Hausdorff space is closed)).

claim: A is bounded.



Consider the collection of all open sets $B_p(D; M)$

\exists such $M \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

$\in \{B_p(D; M) / M \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ where union is all of \mathbb{R}^n

($\because B_p(D; M) = \{y / e(D, y) < M\}$)

$\therefore A$ is compact, some finite collection p -balls cover A .

\therefore We have $A \subseteq B_p(D; M)$ for some M .

\therefore for any two pts $x, y \in A$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} e(x, y) &\leq e(x, D) + e(D, y) \\ &\leq M + M \\ &\leq 2M \end{aligned}$$

Hence A is bounded.

Conversely, suppose A is closed and bounded under the metric p .

claim: A is compact

Convergent part: A is bounded, $p(x, y) \leq N$ for every pair of points

$x, y \in A$. Let us choose a point $x_0 \in A$ and $p(x_0, 0) = b$ from

the triangle law of inequality, we have,

$$\text{u} \quad p(x, 0) \leq p(x, x_0) + p(x_0, 0)$$

$$\leq N + b \quad \forall x \in A$$

$$[\because p(x, y) \leq N \quad \forall x, y \in A]$$

$$\text{In particular put } y = x_0 \in A$$

$$\therefore p(x, x_0) \leq N \quad].$$

$$\text{Put } P = N + b.$$

So for every $x \in A$, we have $p(x, 0) \leq P$.

$\therefore A$ is a subset of $[-P, P]^n$.

(ii) $A \subset [-P, P]^n$

Here the closed interval $[-P, P]$ is compact.

Hence $[-P, P]^n$ is also compact [\because product of finitely many compact spaces is also compact].

$\therefore A$ is closed and being a subset of a compact space $[-P, P]^n$, by a theorem, we've A is compact.

Theorem 4.10 Extreme value theorem

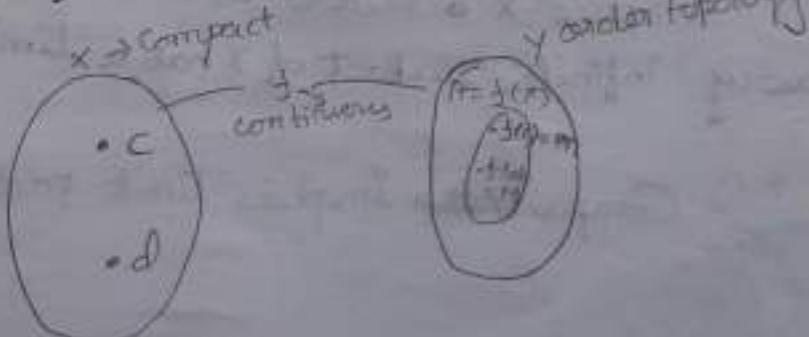
Maximum and minimum value theorem

z - first
3+
2+

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous, where Y is an ordered set in the order topology. If X is compact, then

if points c, d in X $\exists: f(c) \leq f(x) \leq f(d) \quad \forall x \in X$.

Proof:-



It is given that X is compact and $f: X \rightarrow Y$
be continuous.

\therefore The image set $A = f(X)$ is also compact.

[by a theorem, "The image of a compact space under
a continuous map is compact".]

Next we're to ST A contains a largest element
'M' and a smallest element 'm'. Then,

$\because m$ and M belong to A , we must have

$$m = f(c)$$

$$M = f(d) \text{ for some } c, d \in X.$$

Suppose A has no largest element. Then the collection
 $\{(-\infty, a) / a \in A\}$ forms an open covering of A .

$\therefore A$ is compact, finitely many of them cover A . (say)
 $(-\infty, a_1), (-\infty, a_2), \dots, (-\infty, a_n)$ cover A .

If a_i is the largest element in a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n ,
then a_i belongs to none of the above sets, contradicting
the fact that they cover A .

$\therefore A$ should possess the largest element say

$$f(d) = M.$$

A similar argument ST A has a smallest
element say $f(c) = m$.

Hence the theorem.

Dfn:-

A space X is said to be limit point compact
if every infinite subset of X has a limit point.

Theorem 4.11

Compactness implies limit point compact.



Proof - Let X be a compact space. Given a subset A of X . we wish to prove if A is infinite, then A has a limit point.

We prove it's contrapositive. If A has no limit point, Then A must be finite.

Suppose A has no limit. Then A contains all its limit points. Hence A is closed.

[\because A subset A of a topological space X is called closed iff it contains all its limit points].

Every closed subset of a compact space is compact, we say that A is compact.

For each $a \in A$, we can choose a nbd U_a of ' a '.

\exists : U_a does not intersect $A - \{a\}$,

\therefore ' a ' is not a limit point of A .

[$\because x$ is a limit pt of A , Then every nbd U_x of x intersect $A - \{x\}$].

$$\text{i.e } U_a \cap [A - \{a\}] = \emptyset$$

The set A is covered by the open sets U_a .

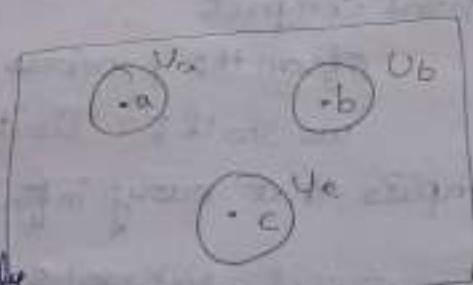
using A is compact, finitely many of the open sets U_a cover A .

Thus A is covered by (say) Some ' n ' finite open sets.

$\therefore U_a$ contains only one point of A , we've the

set A contains ' n ' points. Thus A is finite.

Hence X is a limit point compact



Dfn:- The diameter of a bounded subset A of a metric space (X, d) is the number $\inf \{d(a_1, a_2) | a_1, a_2 \in A\}$.

Df:- If every sequence in space y has a convergent subsequence, we say that y is sequentially compact.

Thm: 4.12 (The Lebesgue number lemma).

Let λ be an open covering of the metric space (X, d) . If X is compact, then there is a $\delta > 0$

\Rightarrow for each subset of X having diameter less than δ ,

Then \exists an element of λ containing it.

[The number δ is called a Lebesgue number for the covering λ]

Proof:

Step 1: Because X is compact, it necessarily limit point compact.

(from the previous theorem)

We shall prove that compactness of X in turn implies that every infinite sequence (x_n) of X has a convergent subsequence.

i.e.) There is an increasing sequence $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_i < \dots$ of positive integers. \Rightarrow The sequence $x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, \dots, x_{n_i}, \dots$ converges.

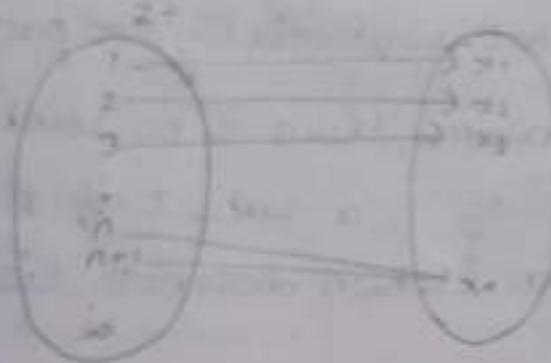
[we have to prove limit point compact
 \Rightarrow Sequentially compact].

Given the sequence (x_n) . Let us consider the set $A = \{x_n | n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$.

First, suppose that the set A is finite.

In this case, we assert that there is a pt. $x \in A$ such that $x = x_n$ for infinitely many values of n .

[To prove this assertion, let $f: Z_+ \rightarrow A$ be defined by $f(n) = x_n$. Then since Z_+ is the union of the finite collection of sets $f^{-1}(x)$, as x ranges over A , at least one of the sets $f^{-1}(x)$ must be infinite.]



Here $f^{-1}(x_n) = \{n, n+1, n+2, \dots\}$ infinite set
then the sequence (x_n) has a subsequence that is constant
which converges automatically.

Second, suppose that A is infinite. Then A has a
limit pt ' x ', i.e. x is limit point compact].

we define a subsequence of (x_n) converging to ' x '

as follows:

First choose n_1 so that $x_{n_1} \in B(x, 1)$. Then suppose
that the positive integer n_{i-1} is given because the ball.

$B(x, \frac{1}{i})$ intersects A in infinitely many points, we can

choose an index $n_i > n_{i-1} \ni x_{n_i} \in B(x, \frac{1}{i})$

Then the subsequence x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, \dots converging to x .

Step 1: If x is compact. Then x is limit pt, compact.

If x is limit pt, compact; then x is sequentially

compact, when there A is finite (\Rightarrow) & infinite.

Step 2: Now we S.T if X is sequentially compact.
Then every open covering \mathcal{A} of X has a lebesgue number δ .

We shall prove the contrapositive:

Suppose there is no $\delta > 0 \Rightarrow$ Every set of diameter less than δ lies in atleast one element of \mathcal{A} .

Then X is not sequentially compact.

So let us assume there is no such δ . This means that for each $\delta > 0$, \exists a subset of X having diameter less than δ which does not lie inside any element of \mathcal{A} .

In particular, for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ we can choose a set C_n having diameter less than $\frac{1}{n}$ which is not contained in any element of \mathcal{A} .

choose, for each n , a point ' x_n ' of C_n we assert that the sequence (x_n) has no convergent subsequences.

Suppose that sequence (x_n) had a convergent subsequence (x_{n_i}) , converging to x .

Now x belongs to some element A of \mathcal{A} and because A is open, there is an $\epsilon > 0 \Rightarrow B(x, \epsilon) \subset A$

Choose i larger of enough that

$$d(x_{n_i}, x) < \epsilon/2 \text{ and } \frac{1}{n_i} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

Now C_{n_i} lies in a $\frac{1}{n_i}$ block of x_{n_i} . It follows that $C_{n_i} \subset B(x, \epsilon)$

Then $C_{n_i} \subset A$, contradicting the choice of the sets.

Theorem 4.13: Uniform Continuity theorem: 1, 14 (5m)

Statement: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map of the compact metric space (X, d_X) to the compact metric space (Y, d_Y) . Then f is uniformly continuous.

(i) for a given $\epsilon > 0$ \exists a $\delta > 0$ s.t. for any two pts.

$x_1, x_2 \in X$ and $d_X(x_1, x_2) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2)) < \epsilon$

Proof:-

Given $\epsilon > 0$, take the open covering of Y by balls $B(y, \epsilon/2)$ of radius $\epsilon/2$.

Let \star be an open covering of X by the inverse image of these balls under f .

[f is continuous].

choose δ to be a lebesgue number for the covering \star . Then if x_1, x_2 are any two pts in X \star :
 $\Rightarrow d_X(x_1, x_2) < \delta$, the two pt set $\{x_1, x_2\}$ has diameter less than δ . So that it's image,

$\{f(x_1), f(x_2)\}$ lies in some ball $B(y, \epsilon/2)$.

Then from triangles inequality, we've

$$d_Y\{f(x_1), f(x_2)\} < \epsilon$$

Hence the theorem.

$f(x_1) \in B(y, \epsilon/2)$ and $f(x_2) \in B(y, \epsilon/2)$ [say]

$$(i.e.) d(f(x_1), y) < \epsilon/2$$

$$d(f(x_2), y) < \epsilon/2$$

$$= d_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2))$$

$$\leq d_Y(f(x_1), y) + d_Y(f(x_2), y)$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$

$$\lambda = \left\{ f^{-1}(B(y_1, \epsilon/2)), f^{-1}(B(y_2, \epsilon/2)) \right\}$$

Theorem 4.14.

6th S.O

Let X be a metrizable space. Then the

following are equivalent

- i) X is compact.
- ii) X is limit point compact.
- iii) X is sequentially compact.

Proof:-

(i) \Rightarrow (ii) (proved)

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) (proved).

Suppose X is sequentially compact.

Claim: X is compact.

w.k.t if X is sequentially compact, Then every open covering \mathcal{A} of X has a Lebesgue number δ .
[Second part].

Step 1: First we S.T $\forall \epsilon > 0$, \exists a finite covering of X by ϵ -balls.

Let us take it's contrapositive. If for some $\epsilon > 0$, The space X cannot be covered by finitely many ϵ -balls.

Then X is not sequentially compact.

So suppose that X cannot be covered by finitely many ϵ -balls.

construct a sequence of pts x_n as follows.

First choose x_1 to be any point in X . noting that the ball $B(x_1, \epsilon)$ is not all of X .

[Otherwise X is covered by this single ϵ -ball ($\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B(x_1, \epsilon)$)]

Choose x_2 to be a point of X which is not in $B(x_1, \epsilon)$.

In general given x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n
choose the pt x_{n+1} not in the
union.

$$B(x_1, \epsilon) \cup B(x_2, \epsilon) \cup \dots \cup B(x_n, \epsilon),$$

using the fact that X cannot be covered by
these ϵ -balls.

Note that by construction $d(x_{n+1}, x_i) \geq \epsilon$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
Therefore, the sequence (x_n) has no convergent subsequences.
In fact, any ball of radius $\epsilon/2$ can contain ' x_n ' for
almost one value of n .

As a consequence X is not sequentially compact.

Step 2:

Now we prove X is ^{compact} let \mathcal{A} be an open covering of X .

$\because X$ is sequentially compact, using previous theorem,
every open covering \mathcal{A} of X has a Lebesgue number δ .
using Step 1, choose a finite covering of X by balls of
radius $\delta/3$.

Each of these balls has diameter at most $\frac{2\delta}{3}$,

Some can choose for each of these balls and element
of \mathcal{A} containing it.

we thus obtain a finite subcollection of \mathcal{A}
that covers X .

Tietze extension theorem continuous

(for proof): $f: X \rightarrow [a, b]$

$f: X \rightarrow [a, b]$

$f(x) = a \vee x \in A$

$f(x) = b \vee x \in B$

$g: X \rightarrow [-\frac{1}{3x}, \frac{1}{3x}]$

$g(x) = -\frac{1}{3}x \vee x \in B$

$g(x) = \frac{1}{3}x \vee x \in A$

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g_n(x) \quad \forall x \in X$$

$$|g(x)| = \left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g_n(x) \right|$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |g_n(x)|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \dots$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{3} \left[1 + \frac{2}{3} + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \dots \right]$$

[Geometric progression $S_\infty = \frac{a}{1-r}$, if $r < 1$]

A Geometric series from comparison

real analysis $1+r+r^2+\dots$ converges if $r < 1$
and diverges if $r > 1$

Def: Isolated Point:-

If x is a space, a point x of X is said to be an isolated point of X if the one point set $\{x\}$ is open in X .

Thm: 4.15

Let X be a non-empty compact Hausdorff space. If X has no isolated points, then X is uncountable.

Proof:-

Step 1: First we S.T given any non-empty open set U of X and any point x of X , if a non-empty open set $V \subset U$ s.t. $x \notin V$

Let us choose a point $y \in U$ different from x . This is possible because of two condition

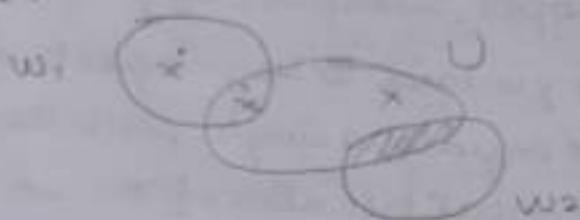
i) If $x \in U$ because x is not isolated point

$x, y \in U$

ii) If $x \notin U$, then since U is non-empty, $y \in U$

$\therefore X$ is Hausdorff, choose disjoint open sets W_1 and W_2 about x & y respectively, then the set $V = W_1 \cap W_2$ is the desired open set.

If it is contained in V_y it is non empty
Since it contains y and its closure does not
contains x .



Step 2: To show $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow X$ is not surjective.
 $\Rightarrow X$ is uncountable.
Let $\bar{x}_n = f(n)$.
Apply step 1 to the non-empty open set $V = X$.
To choose a non-empty open set $V_1 \subset X$ s.t.
 \bar{V}_1 does not contain x .

In general V_{n-1} is an open set chosen V_n to
be non empty open set s.t. $V_n \subset V_{n-1}$ & V_n does not
contain x_n .

Consider a nested sequence

$\bar{V}_1 \supset \bar{V}_2 \supset \bar{V}_3 \dots$ of non-empty closed set of X .

$\therefore X$ is compact, there is a pt $x \in \cap \bar{V}_n$.

By a theorem, $x \neq x_n$ for any n .

(i) $x_n \notin X$,
 $\Rightarrow f(x_n) \notin X$
 $\therefore f$ is not surjective.
 $\Rightarrow X$ is uncountable.

Local Compactness.

A space X is said to be locally compact at ' x '. if there is some compact subspace C of X that contains a neighbourhood of x .

If X is locally compact at each of its
point then X is said to be locally compact.

Definition.

If y is a Hausdorff compact space and x is a proper subspace of y , whose closure equals y . Then y is said to be compactification of x . If $y - x$ equals a single point then y is called the one point compactification of x .

Example for locally compact.

The Real line \mathbb{R} is locally compact. The point x lies in some interval (a, b) which is contained in the compact subspace $[a, b]$. The subspace \mathbb{Q} of Rational Numbers is not locally compact.



6m

Theorem:

Let x be a Hausdorff space then x is locally compact iff Given $x \in x$ and given neighbourhood U of x , there is a neighbourhood V of x such that V is compact and $V \subset U$.

Proof:-

Given $x \in x$ and \exists a neighbourhood U of x ,
 \exists a neighbourhood V of x .

And $V \subset U$ and neighbourhood V of x

$\therefore x$ is locally compact.

Conversely,

Suppose x is locally compact.

Let $x \in x$ and U be a neighbourhood of x . Now take the one point compactification y of x .

Let $C = y - u$ Then C is closed in y ,

$\Rightarrow C$ is compact subspace of y .

Then by Lemma,

If y is compact subspace of Hausdorff space X and x_0 is not in y . Then \exists disjoint open sets U and V of X containing x_0 and y respectively.

chooseen disjoint open sets U and W containing x and c respectively.

Then the close closure \bar{V} of V in y is compact
Also \bar{V} is disjoint from C .

$$\therefore \bar{V} \subset U.$$

Hence proved.

Corollary:

Let X be locally compact Hausdorff let A be a subspace of X . If A is closed in X or open in X then A is locally compact.

Proof:-

Suppose that A is closed in X

Given $x \in A$, let c be a compact subspace of X containing the neighbourhood U of x in X .

Then $U \cap A$ is closed in c and thus compact And it contains the neighbourhood $U \cap A$ of x in A .

Now, suppose that A is open in X

Given $x \in A$,

we apply above theorem, to choose a neighbourhood V of x in X .

$\therefore \bar{V}$ is compact and $\bar{V} \subset A$

Then $C = \bar{V}$ is a compact subspace of A containing the neighbourhood V of x in A .

Hence the proof.

Countability axioms.

Countable Basis:

A space X is said to have a countable basis at a point ' x ' if there is a countable collection \mathcal{B} of neighbourhoods of x such that each neighbourhood of x contains at least one element of \mathcal{B} .

A space that has a countable basis at each of its points is said to satisfy the first countability axiom or to be first-countable.

2nd Countability Axiom:

If a space X has a countable basis for its topology then X is said to satisfy the 2nd countability axiom or to be 2nd countable.

Ex: Any metric space X is a First-Countable.

Proof:-

Let $x \in X$.

$$\text{Let } \mathcal{B} = \{B(x, y_n); n=1, 2, \dots\}$$

Now let U be open, which is open then there exist $\epsilon > 0$
 $\ni B(x, \epsilon) \subset U$.

Now choose $n \ni 1/n < \epsilon$

$$\Rightarrow B(x, y_n) \subset B(x, \epsilon) \subset U$$

Thus X is First-Countable.

Theorem:

* A subspace of a 1st countable space is first countable and a countable product of first-countable spaces is first countable.

A subspace of a 2nd countable space is 2nd countable and a countable product of 2nd countable spaces is 2nd countable.

Suppose X is first countable.

Let A be a subspace of X and let $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in X$.

$\therefore X$ is first-countable \exists a countable basis B for x in X .

Then $B' = \{B \cap A / B \in B\}$ is a countable basis for x in A .

Now $B \in B$.

$\Rightarrow B$ is open in X and $x \in B$.

$\Rightarrow B \cap A$ is also open in A and $x \in B \cap A$.

$\Rightarrow B \cap A$ is a neighbourhood of x in A .

$\therefore B$ is countable.

$\Rightarrow B'$ is also countable.

$\therefore B'$ is a countable collection of neighbourhoods of x in A .

Finally if U is any neighbourhood of x in A then \exists an open set V in $X \ni U = V \cap A$.

$\therefore B$ is a basis at x , $\exists B \in B \ni x \in B \cap V$.

$\Rightarrow x \in B \cap A \subset V \cap A = U$

Hence B' is a countable basis at x in A .

$\therefore A$ is First-countable.

Let $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J} \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$, for each α fixed a countable basis at x_α in X_α .

$B = \{\pi_{B_\alpha} / B_\alpha \in B_\alpha\}$ for a finite number of α 's and $B_\alpha = x_\alpha \vee$ other α 's Then B is countable basis at x .

Hence Product of X_α , i.e., $\prod X_\alpha$ is also first countable.

Now we prove for 2nd countable.

Let B be a countable basis for a topology. Then

$\{B \cap A / B \in B\}$ is a countable basis for the subspace A .

of x if \mathcal{B}_i is a countable basis for the space X_i

Then the collection of all product $\prod U_i$:

where $U_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ for finitely many values of i and $U_i = X_i$ for all other values of i is a countable basis basis for $\prod X_i$.

$\therefore \prod X_i$ is a 2nd countable.

x_n is arbitrary.

$\Rightarrow x \in \overline{D}$ and also $\overline{D} \subset X$.

$\Rightarrow \overline{D} = X$.

Dense set:

a) subset A of a space X is said to be dense in X if $A = X$.

Theorem:

Suppose that X has a countable basis than

a) Every open covering of X contains a countable subcollection covering X .

b) There exists a countable subset of X that is dense in X .

Proof:-

Let $\{B_n\}$ be a countable basis for X .

To prove:

Part a) Let A be an open covering of X for each two integers n choose an element A_n of A containing B_n .

it is indexed with a subset J of the integers, the collection A' of the set A_n is countable.

Now we prove that A' covers X .

Let $x \in X$, we can choose an element A of cover A containing at a point x .

$\therefore A$ is open, \exists a basis element $\Rightarrow x \in B_n \subset A$.

$\therefore B_n \subset A \in A'$.

Then the index n belongs to the set J so a_n is defined.

$$B_n \subset A_n \Rightarrow x \in A_n$$

Thus A' is a cover of x and

A' is a countable subcollection of A that covers x .

To Prove : Part b) :

Choose a point x_n from each non-empty basis element B_n .
Let D be the set containing the point x_n .

To prove that D is dense in X .

i.e.) $\forall S \in T$ every non-empty open set in X intersects with D .

Given any point $x_n \in X$ and let U be any neighbourhood of x_n in X .

$\because B$ is a basis \exists an element $B_n \in B \ni x_n \in B_n \subset U$.

$$\Rightarrow x_n \in D \cap U$$

$$\Rightarrow D \cap U \neq \emptyset$$

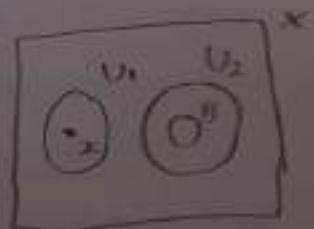
Lindelof Space.

A space for which every open covering contains a countable subcovering. Lindelof Space.

Separable :

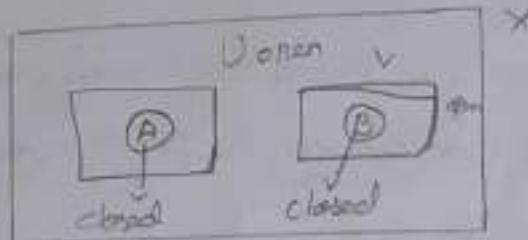
A space having a countable dense subset is called separable. The separation Axioms.

Regular: Suppose that one point sets are closed in X . Then X is said to be regular if for each pair consisting of a point x of X and a closed set B disjoint from x , \exists disjoint open set sets containing x and B respectively.



Normal:

The space X is said to be normal if for each pair A and B of disjoint closed sets of X \exists disjoint open sets containing A and B respectively.



Hausdorff



Lemma: Let X be a topological space and let one point sets in X be closed.

- a) X is regular iff given a point x of X and a neighbourhood U of x \exists a neighbourhood V of x $\ni \bar{V} \subset U$.
- b) X is normal iff given a closed set A and an open set U containing A , there is open set V containing A $\ni \bar{V} \subset U$.

Proof:-

To prove a)

Let X be regular.

Given $x \in X \ni$ a neighbourhood U of x . Let $B = x - U$

$\Rightarrow B$ is a closed set in X .

Now by hypothesis, \exists disjoint open sets U and W containing x and B respectively.

i.e.) $x \in U$ and $B \in W$ or $B \subset W$

$$\Rightarrow U \cap W = \emptyset$$

$$\Rightarrow U \subset X - W$$

$$\Rightarrow U \subset X - B$$

$$\Rightarrow U \subset V \quad \therefore x \in V \subset \bar{V} \subset U$$

$$(ii) \bar{V} \subset U$$

Conversely,

let $x \in X$ and choose a closed set B not containing x .

Suppose $U = X - B$ by assumption, \exists neighbourhood V of $x \Rightarrow \bar{V} \subset U$.

\bar{V} is closed

$\Rightarrow X - \bar{V}$ is open

The open sets V and $X - \bar{V}$ are disjoint containing x and V

$\therefore X$ is regular.

To prove (b):

Let X be normal given A is closed set and \exists an open set U containing x in A .

we choose $E = X - U$

$\Rightarrow E$ is a closed set

$\therefore X$ is normal, \exists an open set V, W of $x \ni A \subset V$, $E \subset W$ and also $V \cap W = \emptyset$

$\Rightarrow V$ contained in $X - W$

$\Rightarrow V \subset X - W$

$\Rightarrow V \subset X - E \subset U$

$\therefore V \subset U$

$A \in V \subset \bar{V} \subset U$

$\therefore \bar{V} \subset V$.

Conversely, let us choose a closed set A of X and a closed set B not containing A . we choose $U = X - B$

$\Rightarrow U$ is an open set containing A

By assumption, \exists an open set V containing $A \ni \bar{V} \subset U$

$\therefore \bar{V}$ is closed

$\Rightarrow X - \bar{V}$ is open

i) The open set V and $X - \bar{V}$ are disjoint containing the closed sets A and B .

$\therefore X$ is normal.

Theorem:

a) A subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.
a product of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

b) A subspace of a regular space is regular.
Product of a regular space is regular.

Proof:-

To prove a):

Let X be a Hausdorff space

Let y be a subspace of X .

Let $x, y \in y$

$\therefore X$ is Hausdorff

\Rightarrow There are two disjoint neighbourhood U and V of x and y in X .

$\Rightarrow x \in U$ and $y \in V$

\Rightarrow Then $U \cap y$ and $V \cap y$ are disjoint neighbourhood of x and y in y .

$\therefore y$ is Hausdorff.

Now we prove that the product of Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

Let $\{X_\alpha\}$ be a family of Hausdorff space. Let $x = (x_\alpha)$ and $y = (y_\alpha)$ be distinct of the product space $\prod X_\alpha$.

$\because x \neq y$, \exists some index $\beta \ni x_\beta \neq y_\beta$. Choose disjoint open sets U and V in X_β containing x_β and y_β . Then the sets $\pi_\beta^{-1}(U)$ and $\pi_\beta^{-1}(V)$ are also disjoint open sets in $\prod X_\alpha$ containing x and y .

\therefore The sets $\pi_\beta^{-1}(U)$ and $\pi_\beta^{-1}(V)$ are disjoint open set in $\prod X_\alpha$ containing x and y .

$\therefore \{X_\alpha\}$ is Hausdorff Space.

To prove (b).

Let X be a regular space and y be a subspace of X .

∴ By using definition of regular
"one point sets and closed in γ ".

Let $x \in \gamma$ and let B be a closed subset of γ disjoint from x .
∴ we choose $\bar{B} \cap \gamma = B$, where \bar{B} is the closure of B .

∴ $x \notin \bar{B}$

By using regularity of γ ,

choose disjoint open set U and V containing x and \bar{B} .

Then $U \cap \gamma$ and $V \cap \gamma$ are disjoint open sets in γ containing x and B respectively.

∴ γ is regular.

Let $\{X_\alpha\}$ be a family of regular spaces and let $X = \prod X_\alpha$ [∴ by a)]

X is Hausdorff so that one point sets are closed in X .

Now we prove that $X = \prod X_\alpha$ is regular (let $x = (x_\alpha)$ be a point of X and let U be a neighbourhood of $x \in X$.

choose a basis element $\prod U_\alpha$ about x containing in U for each α ,

choose a neighbourhood V_α of x_α in X_α ∴ $V_\alpha \subset U_\alpha$

If $U_\alpha = X_\alpha$ Then choose $V_\alpha = X_\alpha$.

∴ $V = \prod V_\alpha$ is a neighbourhood of x in X

∴ $\bar{V} = \prod \bar{V}_\alpha$ is follows that $\bar{V} \subset \prod U_\alpha \subset U$

∴ X is regular

Normal space.

W.M S(18)

Theorem: Every regular space with a countable basis is normal.

Proof:- Let X be a regular space with a countable basis B .

W.M

Let A and B be disjoint closed subsets
each point $x \in X$

\Rightarrow Each point of $x \in A$ has a neighbourhood U not
intersecting B .

By using definition of Regularity, choose a
neighbourhood V of x whose closure lies in U

$$(2) \bar{V} \subset U.$$

Finally choose an element of basis \mathcal{B} containing
 x and contained in V .

By choosing such a basis element for each $x \in A$,
we construct a countable covering of A by open sets
whose closures do not intersect B .

Now let us denote it by $\{U_n\}$

If we choose a countable collection $\{V_n\}$ of open sets
covering B \Rightarrow each \bar{V}_n is disjoint from A .

Now $U = \bigcup U_n$ and $V = \bigcup V_n$ are the open sets
containing A and B respectively.

But they need not be disjoint.

Let us construct two open sets that are
disjoint for given n , we define.

$$U'_n = U_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{V}_i \text{ and } V'_n = V_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{U}_i;$$

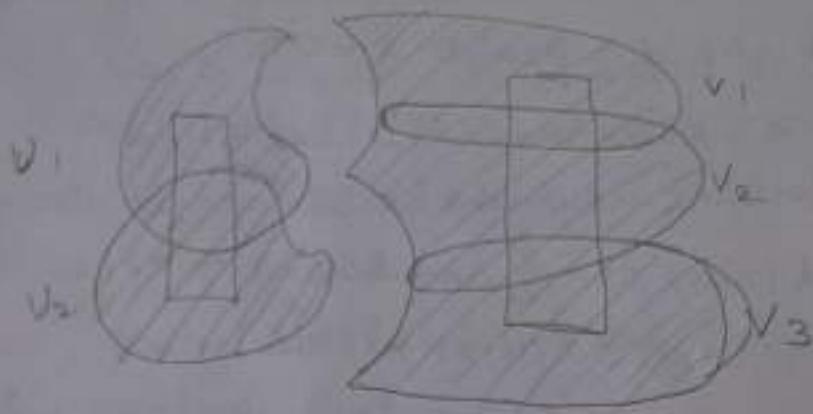
Each set U'_n is open being the difference of an
open set U_n and closed set $\bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{V}_i$.

If Each set V'_n is open.
Now $x \in A \subseteq U_n$ for some n and $x \in$ none
of the sets \bar{V}_i

: The collection sets $\{U'_n\}$ covers A .

If The collection sets $\{V'_n\}$ covers B .
Finally we have to prove that the open sets

$$U' = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} U'_n \text{ and } V' = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} V'_n \text{ are disjoint.}$$



For if $x \in U' \cap V'$ Then $x \in U_j' \cap V_k'$ for some j and k .

Suppose that $j \leq k$ from the definition of $U_j' \subset U_j$ and since $j \leq k$ and also from the definition of V_k' :

$$x \notin \bar{U}_j$$

$$\therefore V_k' = V_k - \bar{U}_j$$

which is a \Rightarrow

A similar contradiction arises if $j \geq k$.

$$\text{Hence } U' \cap V' = \emptyset$$

Theorem

Every metrizable space is normal.

M proof: let X be a metrizable space with metric ' d '.

Let A and B be disjoint closed subsets of X .

For each $a \in A$, choose ϵ_a so that the ball $B(a, \epsilon_a)$ does not intersect B .

Why? For each $b \in B$ choose ϵ_b so that the ball $B(b, \epsilon_b)$ does not intersect A .

Define $U = \bigcup_{a \in A} B(a, \epsilon_a/2)$ and

$$V = \bigcup_{b \in B} B(b, \epsilon_b/2)$$

Then U and V are open sets containing A and B respectively.

Now we prove that $U \cap V = \emptyset$

For, if $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ then let $z \in U \cap V$

i.e.) $z \in B(a, \epsilon_a/2) \cap B(b, \epsilon_b/2)$
for some $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

$$\Rightarrow d(z, a) < \epsilon_a/2 \text{ and } d(z, b) < \epsilon_b/2$$

Now $(a, b) \subseteq d(a, z) + d(z, b)$
 $< \epsilon_a/2 + \epsilon_b/2$
 $< \epsilon_a/2 + \epsilon_b/2$

If $\epsilon_a \leq \epsilon_b$ then $d(a, b) < \epsilon_b$

The ball $B(b, \epsilon_b)$ contains the point 'a'

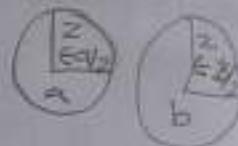
If $\epsilon_b \leq \epsilon_a$ then $d(a, b) < \epsilon_a$

∴ The ball $B(a, \epsilon_a)$ contains the point 'b'

∴ A and B are disjoint.

This is a contradiction.

$$\therefore U \cap V \neq \emptyset$$



Theorem:

56m 18 17 16 3-times

Every Compact Hausdorff space is Normal.

Proof:-

Let X be a compact Hausdorff space.

Let A and B be two disjoint closed subsets of X .

∴ X is compact and A and B are closed.

⇒ A and B are also compact.

By Lemma,

"If y is a compact space of the Hausdorff space X and x_0 is not in y , then \exists disjoint open sets U and V of y containing x_0 and y respectively".

Choose for each point $a \in A$ disjoint open sets U_a and V_a containing A and B respectively.

The collection $\{U_a\}$ covers A .

∴ A is compact, 'A' may be covered.

By finitely many sets U_1, U_2, \dots, U_m . Then

$$U = U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_m \text{ and}$$

$V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \dots \cup V_m$ are disjoint open sets containing A and B respectively.

$\therefore X$ is normal.

Theorem: Every well ordered set X is normal in the order topology.

Proof: Let X be a well ordered set.

We prove that every interval of the form $[x, y]$ is a open in X .

If y is the largest element of X then $[x, y]$ is just a basis element about y .

If y is not the largest element of X then $[x, y]$ equals the open set (x, y')

where y' is the immediate successor of y .

Let A and B be disjoint closed set in y .

Let us assume that neither A nor B contains the smallest element x_0 of X .

For each $a \in A$, find a basis element about 'a' disjoint from B .

It contains some interval of the form $[x, a]$ choose for each $a \in A$, such an interval $[x_a, a]$ disjoint from B .

Similarly for each $b \in B$, choose an interval $[y_b, b]$ disjoint from A .

Then the sets $U = \bigcup_{a \in A} (x_a, a)$ and

$V = \bigcup_{b \in B} (y_b, b)$ are open sets containing A and

B respectively.

Now we prove that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

For If $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ Then $z \in U \cap V$.

$\Rightarrow z \in [x_a, a] \cap [y_b, b]$ For some $a \in A, b \in B$

Assume that $a < b$,

If $a \leq y_b$ Then the two intervals are disjoint.

If $a > y_b$ then $a \in [y_b, b]$

Contrary to the fact that $[y_b, b]$ is disjoint from A .

A similar contradiction occurs if $b < a$

$$\therefore U \cap V = \emptyset.$$

Finally assume that A and B are disjoint closed sets in X .

Let A contains a smallest element a_0 of X .

The set $\{a_0\}$ is both open and closed in X .

By above Result, \exists disjoint open sets U and V containing the closed set $A \{a_0\}$ and B respectively.

Then $U \cup \{a_0\}$ and V are disjoint open sets containing A and B respectively.

$\therefore X$ is Normal.

The Urysohn Lemma

Statement: Let X be a normal space. Let A and B be disjoint closed subsets of X . Let $[a, b]$ be a closed interval in the real line. Then \exists a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow [a, b]$ s.t.

$f(x) = a$ for every x in A and

$f(x) = b$ for every x in B .

Proof:-

Without loss of generality, instead of $[a, b]$ we consider the interval $[0, 1]$.

Step 1. Let P be the set of all rational numbers in the interval $[0, 1]$.

For each $p \in P$, we shall define an open set U_p of x : whenever $p < q$, $\bar{U}_p \in U_q$.

The sets U_p will be simply ordered.

P is countable, we can use induction to define the set U_p .

Arrange the elements of P in an infinite sequence.

Let us suppose that the numbers 1 and 0 be the first two elements of the sequence.

Now define the sets U_p as follows.

First define $U_1 = x - B$.

$\Rightarrow A \subset U_1$

By Normality of x , choose an open set $U_0 \ni x$: $A \subset U_0$ and $\bar{U}_0 \subset U_1$.

In general let P_n denote the set consisting of the n^{th} rational numbers in the sequence.

Suppose that U_p is defined for all rational $p \in P_n$ satisfying the condition $p < q \Rightarrow \bar{U}_p \subset U_q$. —————*

Let r denote the next rational number in the sequence.

Now we define U_r .

Consider the set $P_{n+1} = P_n \cup \{r\}$. P_{n+1} is a finite subset of the interval $[0, 1]$. Also it has a simple ordered set on the Real line.

"In a finite simply ordered set, Every element (other than the smallest and the largest) has an immediate predecessor and successor".

In the simply ordered set P_{n+1} the number 0 is the smallest element and 1 is the largest element and r is neither 0 nor 1.

τ has an immediate predecessor p in P_{n+1} and an immediate successor q in P_{n+1} . The set U_p and U_q are already defined and $\bar{U}_p \subset U_q$ by the induction hypothesis.

Using Normality of X , we can find an open set U_τ of X s.t. $\bar{U}_p \subset U_\tau$ and $\bar{U}_\tau \subset U_q$.

We claim that $\textcircled{*}$ holds for every pair of elements of P_{n+1} .

In both the elements lie in P_n $\textcircled{*}$ by induction hypothesis.

If one of them is τ and other is a point s of P_n .

i.e.) $\tau, s \in P_n$ 

If $s \leq p$ Then $\bar{U}_s \subset \bar{U}_p \subset U_\tau$

If $s \geq q$ Then $\bar{U}_\tau \subset \bar{U}_q \subset U_s$.

Thus every pair of elements of P_{n+1} $\textcircled{*}$ holds.

By induction, we have, up defined $\forall p \in P \ni \textcircled{*}$ holds

Step ②:

In step 1, we define up & rational numbers p in the interval $[0, 1]$.

we extended this definition to all rational numbers in \mathbb{R} .

By defining, $U_p = \emptyset$ if $p < 0$

$U_p = X$ if $p > 1$.

For every pair of rational number p and q , $p < q$,

$\Rightarrow \bar{U}_p \subset U_q$.

Step ③:

Let $x \in X$ and define $\Omega_1(x)$ to be the set of those rational number $p \ni \text{The corresponding open sets } U_p \text{ contain } x$.

$$i) \Theta_1(x) = \{p/x \in \cup P\}$$

Then for $p < 0$, no number less than 0.

Also $P > 1$, every x is in $\cup P$.

∴ This set contains every number greater than 1.

∴ $\Theta_1(x)$ is bounded below and its $g(t)$ is a point of the interval $[0, 1]$.

Define $t: x \rightarrow [0, 1]$ by

$$t(x) = \inf \Theta_1(x)$$

$$= \inf \{p/x \in \cup P\}.$$

Step 0: W.K.T t is the desired function.

If $x \in A$ Then $x \in \cup P$ for every $p \geq 0$

⇒ $\Theta_1(x)$ equals the set of all non-negative rationals and $t(x) = \inf \Theta_1(x) = 0$

if $x \in B$ Then $x \in \cup P$ for no $p \leq 1$

⇒ $\Theta_1(x)$ consists of all rational numbers greater than 1 and $t(x) = 1$.

Now we prove that t is continuous.

For this we prove the following elementary facts,

$$i) x \in \bar{U}_r \Rightarrow t(x) \leq r$$

$$ii) x \notin \bar{U}_r \Rightarrow t(x) \geq r$$

$$iii) \text{If } x \in \bar{U}_r \text{ Then } x \in U_s \text{ for every } s > r$$

∴ $\Theta_1(x)$ contains all rational numbers greater than r .

∴ By definition we have

$$t(x) = \inf \Theta_1(x) \leq r.$$

$$iv) \text{If } x \notin U_r \text{ Then } x \notin U_s \text{ for every } s < r.$$

∴ $\Theta_1(x)$ contains no rational number less than r

so that by definition we have

$$t(x) = \inf \Theta_1(x) \geq r.$$

Now we prove continuity of f

Let $x_0 \in X$ and let (c, d) be an open interval in \mathbb{R} containing the point $f(x_0)$

To prove that, \exists a neighbourhood U of x_0 such that $f(U) \subset (c, d)$.
choose rational numbers p and q , $\exists c < p < f(x_0) < q < d$.

We prove that the open set $U = U_q - \bar{U}_p$ is the desired neighbourhood of x_0 .

First we note that $x_0 \in U$. For the fact that $f(x_0) < q$.

\Rightarrow by condition ii) That $x_0 \in U_p$ while $f(x_0) > p$ implies by i) That $x_0 \notin \bar{U}_p$.

Hence $x_0 \in U_q - \bar{U}_p \cap U$

Next we show that $f(U) \subset (c, d)$.

Let $x \in U$. Then $x \in U_q \subset \bar{U}_q$, so that $f(x) \leq q$.
And $x \notin \bar{U}_p$ so that $x \notin U_p$, $f(x) \geq p$.

Thus $f(x) \in [p, q] \subset [c, d]$.

$\therefore f$ is continuous at $x_0 \in X$.

$\therefore x_0$ is arbitrary.

f is continuous on X .

Hence proved.