

MATH 54 - LECTURE

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INTRODUCTION

In this lecture we examine the notion of convergence in a topological space. We see that in a topological space a sequence can converge to more than one point, and we introduce a condition, called the *Hausdorff condition*, that ensures this pathological behavior does not occur. In the second part of the lecture we review the notion of continuity for function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ in terms of open sets. This leads us to the definition of continuity for function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between topological spaces. We examine some of the properties of continuous functions.

SEQUENCES

Definition If $(x_n) = x_1, x_2, \dots$ is a sequence in a Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n , we say that (x_n) converges to $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$, we can produce an integer $N > 0$ such that if $n > N$, then $\|x_n - x\| < \epsilon$. That is, eventually the sequence enters and stays within any open ball about the point x .

The generalization of this to topological spaces replaces open balls with open sets.

Definition Let $(x_n) = x_1, x_2, \dots$ be a sequence of elements $x_n \in X$, where X is a topological space. Then we say that (x_n) converges to the point $x \in X$ if for every nbhd U of x , we can produce an integer $N > 0$ such that $n > N$ implies that $x_n \in U$. That is, eventually the sequence enters and stays within any nbhd of x .

Theorem 1. *Suppose that X is a topological space with topology generated by the basis \mathcal{B} . Then a sequence (x_n) of points in X converges to $x \in X$ if and only if for every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$, there exists an integer $N > 0$ such that $n > N$ implies that $x_n \in B$.*

Example Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. The sequence $x_n = 1/n$ converges to 0 in the standard topology, because any basis element $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ contains all $1/n$ such that $1/n < \epsilon$.

Example Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. The sequence $x_n = 1/n$ does not converge to 0 in the K -topology, because $(-1, 1) - K$ is a nbhd of 0 which does not contain any points of (x_n) .

Example Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. The sequence $x_n = 1/n$ does not converge to 0 in the upper limit topology, because $(-1, 0]$ is a basis element containing 0 which does not contain any points of the sequence (x_n) .

Example Let $X = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ with the order topology coming from the dictionary topology. Then the sequence $a_n = 1/n \times 1/n$ does not converge to 0×0 in the order topology, because $(0 \times -1, 0 \times 1)$ (the vertical open interval containing $(0, 0)$) is a basis element in the order topology which contains 0×0 and none of the points in the sequence a_n .

Example The if $\tau_1 \subset \tau_2$ are two topologies on X , and $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ in (X, τ_2) , what can we say about convergence in (X, τ_1) ? What about the reverse situation?

Example Let $X = \{a, b\}$ and let $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Then τ is a topology. The sequence $a_n = a$ converges to a , as every point of this sequence belongs to $\{a\}$. However (a_n) also converges to b , for the only open set of X which contains b is $U = X$, and all points of the sequence (a_n) belong to this set.

Example Let X be any set and let τ be the concrete topology which has X and \emptyset as its open sets. Then *every* sequence converges to *every* point.

HAUSDORFF SPACES

For many reasons we prefer sequences not to converge to multiple points. The following condition on a space (X, τ) forbids such behavior, and we will see several other such conditions in the future.

Definition Let X be a topological space. We say that X is a *Hausdorff space* or that X is *Hausdorff* if for every pair $x, y \in X$ such that $x \neq y$, there exists nbhds U and V of x and y respectively such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Example Any Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is a Hausdorff space, as if $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the open balls of radius $\epsilon = \frac{\|x-y\|}{2}$ about x and y give the required neighborhoods.

Example Any discrete space X is a Hausdorff space as the singletons $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ are the required nbhds.

Example The cofinite topology on \mathbb{R} is not Hausdorff, as any non-empty open sets intersect in infinitely many points.

Example If $\tau_1 \subset \tau_2$ and (X, τ_1) is Hausdorff, then (X, τ_2) is Hausdorff. Thus \mathbb{R}_K and \mathbb{R}_ℓ and \mathbb{R}_U the upper limit topology are all Hausdorff, as they contain the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Example An exercise is to prove that any order topology is Hausdorff.

Now we can say why the Hausdorff condition forbids non-unique limits of sequences.

Theorem 2. *Let X be a Hausdorff space and (x_n) a sequence in X . Then (x_n) converges to at most one point of X .*

Proof. Suppose that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $x \neq y$. We show that $x_n \not\rightarrow y$. Let U and V be disjoint nbhds of x and y . We can select an integer N such that $n > N$ implies that $x_n \in U$, because $x_n \rightarrow x$. Then $x_n \notin V$ for all $n > N$, so that the sequence (x_n) cannot converge to y . \square

The Hausdorff condition is mild but many topological spaces fail to possess it. However, there is another simple condition which forbids some bad behavior.

Definition Let X be a space. We say that X satisfies the T_1 axiom if for every $x \in X$, the one-point set $\{x\}$ is a closed subset of X . A space that satisfies the T_1 axiom is called a T_1 space.

Example If we equip \mathbb{R} with the cofinite topology the resulting space is not Hausdorff, but it is a T_1 space. In fact the cofinite topology is the smallest T_1 topology on any set, as you can check.

We aren't interested in this axiom right now, but we will see a large list of these axioms later in the course.

CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

Recall that the principal theorem we proved about continuous functions was

Theorem 3. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function between Euclidean spaces. Then the following are equivalent:

- (1) f is continuous at every point of \mathbb{R}^n .
- (2) If $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ is open, then $f^{-1}(U) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open.

As the definition of continuity of a function between Euclidean spaces requires the existence of the norm function $\|\cdot\|$, which is not defined everywhere, we can't formulate continuity for maps of topological spaces in terms of ϵ s and δ s.

Instead, we use the second formulation to give the following definition: **Definition** Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a map between topological spaces. Then f is continuous if given any open set $U \subset Y$, the preimage $f^{-1}(U) \subset X$ is open in X .

Example Let X be a topological space. Then if $i_X : X \rightarrow X$ is the identity function, $i_X^{-1}(U) = U$ for any open set $U \subset X$. Thus the identity function is continuous.

Example Any constant function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous. Suppose that $f(X) = \{y\}$. Then $f^{-1}(U) = X$ if $y \in U$ and $f^{-1}(U) = \emptyset$ if $y \notin U$. Thus the preimage of an open set is open, and f is continuous.

Example Any function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is continuous in the sense of calculus (i.e. $\epsilon - \delta$ continuous) is continuous in our sense, thanks to the theorem we proved in the first two lectures.

Example The identity function $i_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_\ell$ is not continuous, as the inverse image of $[0, 1)$ is $[0, 1)$ which is not open in \mathbb{R} with the standard topology.

Theorem 4. Let X and Y be top. spaces, let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) f is continuous
- (b) For every subset $A \subset X$, we have $f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$.
- (c) For every closed set B of Y , $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X .
- (d) For each $x \in X$, and each nbhd V of $f(x)$, there is a nbhd U of x such that $f(U) \subset V$.

Proof. (a implies b): Assume that f is continuous and that $y \in f(\overline{A})$. We show that $y \in \overline{f(A)}$. There exists $x \in \overline{A}$ such that $y = f(x)$. Let V be a nbhd containing $y = f(x)$. Then the pre-image $f^{-1}(V)$ is an open set containing x . As $x \in \overline{A}$, some point of A must be contained in $f^{-1}(V)$, say $a \in f^{-1}(V)$. Then $f(a) \in V$. Thus an arbitrary nbhd of y must contain an element of $f(A)$, and $y \in \overline{f(A)}$. Thus $f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$.

(b implies c): Suppose that B is a closed subset of Y . Then $A = f^{-1}(B)$ is a subset of X , and by the assumption of (b) we obtain $f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$. Suppose that $x \in \overline{A}$. Then $f(x) \in f(\overline{A}) \subset \overline{f(A)}$. But $f(A) \subset B$, so we have $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)} \subset \overline{B} = B$. Thus $x \in f^{-1}(B)$. So $\overline{A} \subset A$, and $A = f^{-1}(B)$ is closed.

(c implies d): Assume that preimages of closed sets are closed. Suppose that $x \in X$ and suppose that V is a nbhd of $f(x)$. We exhibit a nbhd U of x such that $f(U) \subset V$. The complement $Y \setminus V$ is closed, as V is open. Thus $f^{-1}(Y \setminus V)$ is closed in X . But the preimage of the complement is the complement of the preimage, i.e. $f^{-1}(Y \setminus V) = f^{-1}(Y) \setminus f^{-1}(V)$. We can replace $f^{-1}(Y)$ with X , to obtain $f^{-1}(Y \setminus V) = X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$. So $X \setminus f^{-1}(V)$ is closed, so that $f^{-1}(V)$ is open. As $f(x) \in V$, we have $x \in f^{-1}(V)$. Thus $U = f^{-1}(V)$ is a nbhd of x such that $f(U) \subset V$.

(d implies a): Assume that such a U exists given such an x and V . We show that f is continuous. Suppose that $V \subset Y$ is an open set. If $f^{-1}(V)$ is empty, then it is open and

we are done. So suppose that $x \in f^{-1}(V)$. Then $f(x) \in V$, and we can produce U such that $f(U) \subset V$. We have shown that about any point of $f^{-1}(V)$ there exists an open set U such that $x \in U \subset f^{-1}(V)$. By the a previous HW problem this is the same as showing that $f^{-1}(V)$ is open. □

HOMEOMORPHISMS

Now that we have developed the notion of a continuous function, we can define what it means for two apparently distinct topological spaces to be "equal."

Recall the following definition:

Definition Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijection between sets. The function $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ given by the rule $f^{-1}(y) = x$ if and only if $f(x) = y$ is called the inverse function or inverse of f .

Definition Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijection between topological spaces. If f and f^{-1} are continuous, then f is called a homeomorphism, and X and Y are said to be homeomorphic if there exists a homeomorphism between X and Y .

Example Suppose that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homeomorphism between top. spaces. Let g be the inverse of f . Then $f(U) = g^{-1}(U)$, for $g(f(U)) = i_X(U) = U$.

Example We show that $(-1, 1)$ and \mathbb{R} are homeomorphic. Let $F : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $F(x) = \frac{x}{1-x^2}$. Then F is a bijection with inverse $G(y) = \frac{2y}{1+(1+4y^2)^{1/2}}$ as you can check. Both functions are continuous as they are built out of algebraic operations on \mathbb{R} , which are continuous (we will prove this rigourously later).

Example The identity function $id : \mathbb{R}_\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where \mathbb{R} has the std topology is continuous, for all open sets in \mathbb{R} are open in \mathbb{R}_ℓ , yet the inverse $id : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_\ell$ is not continuous, as $[0, 1)$ is not open in \mathbb{R} . Thus $id : \mathbb{R}_\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous bijection without continuous inverse.