## MMA 32 Topology

## Dr S. Srinivasan

Assistant Professor, Department of Mathematics, Periyar Arts College,
Cuddalore - 1, Tamil nadu

Email: smrail@gmail.com
Cell: 7010939424

### 1.1 Topological Spaces

## Definition 1.

A topology on a set X is a collection $\tau$ of subsets of X having
the following properties:
(1) $\phi$ and X are in $\tau$.
(2) The union of the elements of any sub collection of $\tau$ is in $\tau$.

$$
\text { i.e., if }\left\{U_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in A} \subset \tau \text { then } \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha} \in \tau \text {. }
$$

(3) The intersection of the elements of any finite sub collection of $\tau$ is in $\tau$.
i.e., if $U_{1}, U_{2}, \ldots, U_{n} \in \tau$ then $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} U_{i} \in \tau$.

## Topological spaces

## Definition 2.

A set $X$ for which a topology $\tau$ has been specified is
called a topological space.

## Note:

1. An ordered pair $(X, \tau)$ consisting a set and a topology $\tau$ on $X$.
2. A subset of $X$ which is in $\tau$ is called an open set.
i.e., if $U \in \tau \Rightarrow U$ is an open set of $X$.

## Example 1. Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$.

Here We list 9 topologies on $X$. There are
(1) The trivial topology $\tau_{1}=\{\phi, X\}$.
(2) $\tau_{2}=\{\phi,\{a\}, X\}$.
(3) $\tau_{3}=\{\phi,\{a, b\}, X\}$.
(4) $\tau_{4}=\{\phi,\{a\},\{a, b\}, X\}$.
(5) $\tau_{5}=\{\phi,\{a, b\},\{c\}, X\}$.
(6) $\tau_{6}=\{\phi,\{a\},\{b\},\{a, b\}, X\}$.
(7) $\tau_{7}=\{\phi,\{a\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\}, X\}$.
(8) $\tau_{8}=\{\phi,\{a\},\{c\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\}, X\}$.
(9) The discrete topology $\tau_{9}=P(X)$ (power set with 8 elements).

Example. Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$.
Here are some collections of subsets of $X$ that are not topologies.
(1) $\{\{a\},\{c\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\}\}$ does not contain $\phi$ and $X$.
(2) $\{\phi,\{a\},\{b\}, X\}$ is not closed under union.
(3) $\{\phi,\{a, b\},\{a, c\}, X\}$ is not closed under finite intersection.

## Example 2. Let $X$ be a set.

$\tau_{f}$ be the collection of all subsets $U$ of $X$ such that
$X-U=X \backslash U=\{x \in X \mid x \notin U\}$ is either finite or all of $X$.
Then $\tau_{f}$ is a topology on $X$, called the finite complement topology.
Example 3. Let $X$ be a set.
$\tau_{c}$ be the collection of all subsets $U$ of $X$ such that
$X \backslash U$ is either countable or all of $X$.
Then $\tau_{c}$ is a topology on $X$.

## Finer or Coarser

## Definition 3.

Suppose that $\tau$ and $\tau^{\prime}$ are two topologies on a given set $X$.
If $\tau^{\prime} \supset \tau$ then $\tau^{\prime}$ is finer then $\tau$.

If $\tau^{\prime}$ properly contains $\tau$ then $\tau^{\prime}$ is strictly finer than $\tau$.
We also say that $\tau$ is coarser then $\tau^{\prime}$, or $\tau$ is strictly coarser then $\tau^{\prime}$,
respectively.
We say $\tau$ is comparable with $\tau^{\prime}$ if either $\tau^{\prime} \supset \tau$ or $\tau \supset \tau^{\prime}$

## Note:

1. If $\tau^{\prime}$ is finer than $\tau$ then $\tau^{\prime}$ has more open sets than $\tau$.
2. The trivial topology is coarser than any other topology, and the discrete topology is finer than any other topology.

## Assignment Problems

1. Consider the nine topologies on the set $X=\{a, b, c\}$ indicated in Example 1. Compare them, i.e.,for each pair of topologies, determine whether they are comparable, and if so, which is the finer.
2. If $\left\{\tau_{\alpha}\right\}$ is a family of topologies on $X$, show that $\bigcap \tau_{\alpha}$ is a topology on $X$. Is $\bigcup \tau_{\alpha}$ a topology on $X$ ?
3. If $X=\{a, b, c\}$, let $\tau_{1}=\{\phi, X,\{a\},\{a, b\}\}$ and $\tau_{2}=\{\phi, X,\{a\},\{b, c\}\}$. Find the smallest topology containing $\tau_{1}$ and $\tau_{2}$, and the largest topology contained in $\tau_{1}$ and $\tau_{2}$.

## Assignment Problems

4. Let $\left\{\tau_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a family of topologies on $X$. Show that there is a unique smallest topology on $X$ containing all the collections $\tau_{\alpha}$, and a unique largest topology contained in all $\tau_{\alpha}$.
5. Let $X=\{a, b, c, d, e\}$. Determine whether or not each of the following classes of subsets of $X$ is a topology on $X$.
(i) $\tau_{1}=\{\phi, X,\{a\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\}\}$
(ii) $\tau_{2}=\{\phi, X,\{a, b, c\},\{a, b, d\},\{a, b, c, d\}\}$
(iii) $\tau_{3}=\{\phi, X,\{a\},\{a, b\},\{a, c, d\},\{a, b, c, d\}\}$

### 1.2 Basis for a Topology

## Definition 1.

Let $X$ be a set.

A basis for a topology on $X$ is a collection $\mathcal{B}$ of subsets of $X$
(called basis elements) such that
(1) For each $x \in X$, there is at least one basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$
such that $x \in B$.
(2) If $x \in B_{1} \cap B_{2}$ where $B_{1}, B_{2} \in \mathcal{B}$ then there is a $B_{3} \in \mathcal{B}$
such that $x \in B_{3}$ and $B_{3} \subset B_{1} \cap B_{2}$

## $\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B}$

## Definition 2.

The topology $\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B}$ is defined as follows:

A subset $U$ of $X$ is said to be open in $X$ (i.e., $U \in \mathcal{T}$ )
if for each $x \in U$ there is a basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that
$x \in B$ and $B \subset U$.

## Note :

1. Therefore each basis element is in $\mathcal{T}$
2. In fact, the topology generated by basis $\mathcal{B}$ is a topology.

Example 1. A basis for the standard topology on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$
is given by the set of all circular regions in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{B}=\left\{B\left(\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right), r\right) \mid r>0\right\} \text { where } \\
& \quad B\left(\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right), r\right)=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid\left(x-x_{0}\right)^{2}+\left(y-y_{0}\right)^{2}<r^{2}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 2. If $X$ is any set.

$$
\mathcal{B}=\{\{x\} \mid x \in X\}
$$

is a basis for the discrete topology on $X$.

## Theorem A

## Theorem A.

Let $X$ be a set and
$\mathcal{B}$ be a basis for a topology $\mathcal{T}$ on $X$.

Define $\mathcal{T}=\{U \subset X \mid x \in U$ implies $x \in B \subset U$ for some $B \in \mathcal{B}\}$.
the topology generated by $\mathcal{B}$.

Then $\mathcal{T}$ is in fact a topology on $X$.

Lemma 1. Let $X$ be a set.

Let $\mathcal{B}$ be a basis for a topology $\mathcal{T}$ on $X$.
Then $\mathcal{T}$ equals the collection of all unions of elements of $\mathcal{B}$.

## Proof.

By Theorem A above, all elements of $\mathcal{B}$ are open and so in $\mathcal{T}$.
Since $\mathcal{T}$ is a topology, then by part (2) of the definition, any union of elements of $\mathcal{B}$ are in $\mathcal{T}$.
$\Rightarrow \mathcal{T}$ contains all unions of elements of $\mathcal{B}$.

Conversely, given $U \in \mathcal{T}$.
For each $x \in U$.

Choose $B_{x} \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_{x} \subset U \quad(\mathcal{T}$ generated by $\mathcal{B})$.
Then $U=\bigcup_{x \in U} B_{x}$.
i.e., $U$ equals a union of elements of $\mathcal{B}$.

Since $U$ is an arbitrary element of $\mathcal{T}$,
then all elements of $\mathcal{T}$ are unions of elements of $\mathcal{B}$.

Lemma 2. Let $(X, \mathcal{T})$ be a topological space.
Suppose that $\mathcal{C}$ is a collection of open sets of $X$ such that
for each open subset $U \subset X$ and each $x \in U$, there is an element
$C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C \subset U$.

Then $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis for the topology $\mathcal{T}$ on $X$.

Proof. First we show that $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis.
(i) By the definition of basis, for $x \in X$. (since $X$ itself is an open set)

Then (by hypothesis) there is an element $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C \subset X$.
(ii) For the second part of the definition of basis.

Let $x \in C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ where $C_{1}, C_{2} \in \mathcal{C}$.
Since $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are open then $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ is open.

Then by hypothesis, there is an element $C_{3} \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C_{3} \subset C_{1} \cap C_{2}$.

Thus $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis for a topology on $X$.

Let $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ be the topology on $X$ generated by $\mathcal{C}$.
To prove that $\mathcal{T}=\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$.
First, Let $U \in \mathcal{T}$ and $x \in U$.

Since $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis for topology $\mathcal{T}$,
$\Rightarrow$ there is an element $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in C \subset U$.
i.e., $U \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$. (by the def of topology generated by $\mathcal{C}$ )

Hence $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$.

Conversely,
If $W$ belongs to $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$.

Then $W$ is a union of elements of $\mathcal{C}$. (by Lemma 1)
Now each element of $\mathcal{C}$ is an element of $\mathcal{T}$.
(by the definition of topology generated by)
(and a union of open sets is open)
$\Rightarrow W$ belongs to $\mathcal{T}$.
That is, $\mathcal{T}^{\prime} \subset \mathcal{T}$.

Therefore, $\mathcal{T}=\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$.

Lemma 3. Let $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ be bases for topologies $\mathcal{T}$ and $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$, respectively,
on $X$. Then the following are equivalent:
(1) $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ is finer than $\mathcal{T}$.
(2) For each $x \in X$ and each basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$ containing $x$, there is
a basis element $B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ such that $x \in B^{\prime} \subset B$.

Proof. (2) $\Rightarrow(1)$
Given $U \in \mathcal{T}$, let $x \in U$.

Since $\mathcal{B}$ generates $\mathcal{T}$, there is $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subset U$.

By hypothesis (2), there is $B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ such that $x \in B^{\prime} \subset B$.
$\Rightarrow x \in B^{\prime} \subset U$.
$\Rightarrow U \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$. (By the definition of topology generated by $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$.)
$\Rightarrow \mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$.
(1) $\Rightarrow(2)$

Let $x \in X$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ where $x \in B$.
Since $\mathcal{B}$ generates $\mathcal{T}$, then $B \in \mathcal{T}$.
By hypothesis (1), $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ and so $B \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$.
Since $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ is generated by $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$.
Then there is (by definition) $B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B^{\prime} \subset B$.

## Standard topology

## Definition 3.

Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the set of all open intervals in the real line:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{B}=\{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a<b\}, \text { where } \\
& (a, b)=\{x \mid a<x<b\}
\end{aligned}
$$

The topology generated by $\mathcal{B}$ is the standard topology on $\mathbb{R}$.

## Lower limit topology

## Definition 4.

Let $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ be the set of all half open intervals.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{B}^{\prime}=\{[a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a<b\}, \text { where } \\
& {[a, b)=\{x \mid a \leq x<b\}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The topology generated by $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ is called the lower limit topology on $\mathbb{R}$.
It is denoted by $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$.

## K-topology

## Definition 5.

Let $K=\{1 / n \mid n \in N\}$.

$$
\mathcal{B}^{\prime \prime}=\{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a<b\} \cup\{(a, b)-K \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a<b\} .
$$

The topology generated by $\mathcal{B}^{\prime \prime}$ is the $K$-topology on $\mathbb{R}$.

It is denoted by $\mathbb{R}_{K}$.

Lemma 4. The topologies of $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ and $\mathbb{R}_{K}$ are each strictly finer than the standard topology on $\mathbb{R}$.

But are not comparable with one another.

## Proof.

Let $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$, and $\mathcal{T}^{\prime \prime}$ be the topologies of $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ and $\mathbb{R}_{K}$ respectively.

Given a basis element $(a, b)$ for $\mathcal{T}$ and $x \in(a, b)$,

Then the basis element $[x, b) \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ contains $x$ and lies in $(a, b)$
i.e., $x \in[x, b) \subset(a, b)$.

On the other hand, given basis element $[x, d) \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$, there is no open interval $(a, b)$ containing $x$ which is a subset of $[x, d)$.

By Lemma 3.(2) $\Rightarrow \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ is strictly finer than $\mathcal{T}$.

Given a basis element $(a, b)$ for $\mathcal{T}$ and $x \in(a, b)$.

Then this same basis element $(a, b) \in \mathcal{T}^{\prime \prime}$ contains $x$.
Which satisfies $x \in(a, b) \subset(a, b)$.

On the other hand, given the basis element $C=(-1,1)-K$ for $\mathcal{T}^{\prime \prime}$.
Then the point $0 \in C$.
But there is no open interval $(a, b)$ containing 0
which is a subset of $C . \quad$ (For example $\left(\frac{-1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \notin C$ )
By Lemma 3.(2) $\Rightarrow \mathcal{T}^{\prime \prime}$ is strictly finer than $\mathcal{T}$.

Show that topologies of $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ and $\mathbb{R}_{K}$ are not comparable.

Let $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{K}$ be the topologies of $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ and $\mathbb{R}_{K}$, respectively.
It suffices to show that neither of the topologies is
finer than the other.
i.e., to prove $\mathcal{T}_{\ell} \not \subset \mathcal{T}_{K}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{K} \not \subset \mathcal{T}_{\ell}$.

Given $x \in \mathbb{R}$ where $a<x<b$ is contained in the basis element $[x, b)$ of $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$.

However, every basis element of $\mathbb{R}_{K}$ is an open interval
(in some cases, minus the set K ).

There is no open interval $(a, b)$ that contains $x$ and
is contained in $[x, b)$ because $a<x$.
By Lemma $3(2), \mathcal{T}_{K}$ is not finer than $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$.

Conversely, 0 is contained in the basis element $(-1,1)-K$ of $\mathcal{T}_{K}$.
Any basis element $[a, b)$ of $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$ contains 0 , where $a<0$ and $b>0$.
But this basis element cannot be contained in $(-1,1)-K$.
Given $b>0$, let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ where $k>1 / b$.
It follows that $0<1 / k<b, \Rightarrow 1 / k \in[a, b)$.
But $1 / k \notin(-1,1)-K$.
Again by Lemma 3(2), $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$ is not finer than $\mathcal{T}_{K}$.

Hence $\mathcal{T}_{\ell}$ and $\mathcal{T}_{K}$ are not comparable.

## Subbasis

## Definition 5.

A subbasis $\mathcal{S}$ for a topology on set $X$ 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 $\mathcal{T}$ of all unions of finite intersections of elements of $\mathcal{S}$.

## Example

## Example 1.

Observe that every open interval $(a, b)$ in the line $\mathbb{R}$ is the intersection of two infinite open intervals $(a, \infty)$ and $(-\infty, b)$

$$
(a, b)=(-\infty, b) \cap(a, \infty)
$$

But the open intervals form a base for the usual topology on $\mathbb{R}$.
Hence the class $\mathcal{S}$ of all infinite open intervals is a subbase for $\mathbb{R}$.

## Example

## Example 2.

If $X=\{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\mathcal{S}=\{\{a, b, c\},\{b, c, d\}\}$ then the topology
generated by $\mathcal{S}$ is
$\tau=\{\phi,\{a, b, c\},\{b, c, d\},\{b, c\},\{a, b, c, d\}\}$.

## Theorem B

Theorem B.

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a subbasis for a topology on $X$.
Define $\mathcal{T}$ to be all unions of finite intersections of elements of $\mathcal{S}$.
Then $\mathcal{T}$ is a topology on $X$.

### 1.3 The Order Topology

Definition 1. Intervals

Let $X$ be a set with a simple order relation $<$.
The following sets are intervals in $X$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (a, b)=\{x \in X \mid a<x<b\} \text { (open intervals) } \\
& \text { (a,b] }=\{x \in X \mid a<x \leq b\} \text { (half-open intervals) } \\
& {[a, b)=\{x \in X \mid a \leq x<b\} \text { (half-open intervals) }} \\
& {[a, b]=\{x \in X \mid a \leq x \leq b\} \text { (closed intervals). }}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Order Topology

## Definition 2.

Let $X$ be a set with a simple order relation and assume $X$ hax more than one element.

Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the collection of all sets of the following types:
(1) All open intervals $(a, b)$ in $X$.
(2) All intervals of the form $\left[a_{0}, b\right)$ where $a_{0}$ is the least element of $X$.
(3) All intervals of the form $\left(a, b_{0}\right]$ where $b_{0}$ is the greatest element of $X$.

The collection $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for a topology on $X$ called the order topology.

## Example 1.

The standard topology on $\mathbb{R}$ is the order topology based on the usual less than order on $\mathbb{R}$.

## Example 2.

We can put a simple order relation on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ as follows:
$(a, b)<(c, d)$ if either
(1) $a<c$, or
(2) $a=c$ and $b<d$.

This is often called the lexicographic ordering

## Open rays, Closed rays

## Definition 3.

If $X$ is a set with a simple order relation $<$, and $a \in X$ then there are four subsets of $X$, called rays determined by $a$.

They are the following:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(a, \infty)=\{x \in X \mid x>a\} & \text { (open rays) } \\
(-\infty, a)=\{x \in X \mid x<a\} & \text { (open rays) } \\
{[a, \infty)=\{x \in X \mid x \geq a\}} & \text { (closed rays) } \\
(-\infty, a]=\{x \in X \mid x \leq a\} . & \text { (closed rays) }
\end{array}
$$

### 1.4 The Product Topology on $X \times Y$

If $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces, then there is a
natural topology on the Cartesian product.

$$
X \times Y=\{(x, y) \mid x \in X, y \in Y\} . \quad \text { (product topology) }
$$

## Definition 1.Basis

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

Theorem 1. 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

$$
D=\{B \times C \mid B \in \mathcal{B} \& C \in \mathcal{C}\}
$$

is a basis for the topology of $X \times Y$.

## Proof.

Let $W \in X \times Y$ be an open set.
Let $(x, y) \in W$.
By the definition of product topology, there is a basis element $U \times V$, where $U$ is open in $X$ and $V$ is open in $Y$, such that $(x, y) \in U \times V \subset W$.
$\Rightarrow x \in U$ and $y \in V$.

Since $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ are bases for $X$ and $Y$, respectively.
Then there are open sets $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $x \in B \subset U$
and $y \in C \subset V$.
Notice that $B \times C$ is an element of the basis for the product topology
and so open and $B \times C \in D$.

That is, $(x, y) \in B \times C \subset W$ where $B \times C \in D$.
By Lemma 2, $D$ is a basis for the product topology.

Theorem 2. The set
$S=\left\{\pi_{1}^{-1}(U) \mid U\right.$ is open in $\left.X\right\} \cup\left\{\pi_{2}^{-1}(V) \mid V\right.$ is open in $\left.Y\right\}$
is a subbasis for the product topology on $X \times Y$.

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

Let $\tau^{\prime}$ be the topology generated by set $\mathcal{S}$.
For open sets $U \subset X$ and $V \subset Y$, we have
$\pi_{1}^{-1}(U)=U \times Y$ and $\pi_{2}^{-1}(V)=X \times V$ are elements of the basis
for the product topology $\tau$.
$\Rightarrow \pi_{1}^{-1}(U), \pi_{2}^{-1}(V)$ are open in $\tau$.

## Hence $\mathcal{S} \subset \tau$.

So arbitrary unions of finite intersections of elements of $\mathcal{S}$ are in $\tau$.

Therefore, by Lemma $1, \tau^{\prime} \subset \tau$.

On the other hand, every basis element $U \times V$ for $\tau$ is of the form
$U \times V=(U \times Y) \cap(X \times V)=\pi_{1}^{-1}(U) \cap \pi_{2}^{-1}(V)$
(a finite intersection of elements of $\mathcal{S}$ )
Thus $U \times V$ is in the topology $\tau^{\prime}$ generated by $\mathcal{S}$.
That is, $\tau \subset \tau^{\prime}$ and hence $\tau=\tau^{\prime}$.
So the collection of all unions of finite intersections of $\mathcal{S}$ is $\tau$. Hence $\mathcal{S}$ is a subbasis for the product topology $\tau$.

### 1.5 The Subspace Topology

## Definition 1.

Let $X$ be a topological space with topology $\tau$.
If $Y$ is a subset of $X$, then the set

$$
\tau_{Y}=\{Y \cap U \mid U \in \tau\}
$$

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

Lemma 1. If $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for the topology of $X$ then the set

$$
\mathcal{B}_{Y}=\{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}
$$

is a basis for the subspace topology on $Y$.

Proof. Let $U$ be open in $X$.

Let $y \in U \cap Y$.
Since $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for the topology of $X$, then there is a open set
$B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $y \in B \subset U$.
Then $y \in B \cap Y \subset U \cap Y$.
By Lemma 2, $\mathcal{B}_{Y}$ is a basis for the subspace topology on $Y$.

Lemma 2. Let $Y$ be a subspace of $X$. If $U$ is open in $Y$ and $Y$ is open in $X$, then $U$ is open in $X$.

## Proof.

Let $Y$ be a subspace of $X$.
Let $U$ be open in $Y$.
Then by above Lemma $U=Y \cap V$ for some set $V$ open in $X$.

Since $Y$ and $V$ are both open in $X$.
$\Rightarrow Y \cap V=U$ is open in $X$.

Lemma 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.

Let $U \times V$ be a basis element for the product topology
on $X \times Y$.

Then $(U \times V) \cap(A \times B)$ is a basis element for the subspace topology on $A \times B$.

Now $(U \times V) \cap(A \times B)=(U \cap A) \times(V \cap B)$.

Since $U \cap A$ and $V \cap B$ are open relative to $A$ and $B$, respectively.

Then $(U \cap A) \times(V \cap B)$ is a basis element for the product topology on $A \times B$.

So the basis for the subspace topology on $A \times B$ is a subset of the basis for the product topology on $A \times B$.

Conversely,

A basis element for the product topology on $A \times B$ is of the form
$(U \cap A) \times(V \cap B)$ where $U$ and $V$ are open in $X$ and $Y$, respectively.

By the equality above, this is a basis element for the subspace topology on $A \times B$.

So the basis for the product topology on $A \times B$ is a subset of the basis for the subspace topology on $A \times B$.

Thus, the bases are the same and hence the topologies are the same.

## Convex

## Definition 2.

Given an ordered set $X$, a subset $Y \subset X$ is convex in $X$
if for each pair of points $a, b \in Y$ with $a<b$,
the entire interval $(a, b)$ lies in $Y$.

Lemma 4. Let $X$ be an ordered set in the order topology.
Let $Y$ be a subset of $X$ that is convex in $X$.
Then the order topology on $Y$ is the same as the subspace topology on $Y$.

Proof. By Theorem B, the set of all open rays form a subbasis for the order topology on $X$.

Then the set $\mathcal{B}_{S}=\{(a,+\infty) \cap Y, Y \cap(-\infty, a) \mid a \in X\}$ is a subbasis for the subspace topology on $Y$.

Since $Y$ is convex then for $a \in Y$, we have
$(a,+\infty) \cap Y=\{a \in Y \mid x>a\}$ and $(-\infty, a) \cap Y=\{x \in Y \mid x<a\}$
and each of these is an open ray in $Y$.
If $a \notin Y$ then these two sets are either all of $Y$ or are $\phi$.

In all cases, each is open in the order topology and so
the order topology is a subset of the subspace topology.

Conversely, any open ray of $Y$ equals the intersection of an open ray of $X$ with $Y$ and so is open in the subspace topology on $Y$.

Since the open rays of $Y$ are a subbasis for the order topology on $Y$.

By Theorem B, this topology is a subset of the subspace topology.

Therefore, the subspace topology on $Y$ is the same as the order topology on $Y$.

### 1.6 Closed Sets and Limit Points

## Definition 1. Closed

A subset $A$ of a topological space $X$ is closed if
set $X-A$ is open.

## Example 1.

The subset $[a, b]$ of $R$ is closed because its compliment
$R-[a, b]=(-\infty, a) \cup(b,+\infty)$ is open.

Theorem 1. Let $X$ be a topological space.
Then the following conditions hold:
(1) $\phi$ and $X$ are closed.
(2) Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.
(3) Finite unions of closed sets are closed

Proof of (1) follows: Since $X$ and $\phi$ are open in $X$.
$\Rightarrow$ the compliments of $\phi$ and $X$ are $X$ and $\phi$, respectively.
(i.e., $X-\phi=X$ and $X-X=\phi$ )

Then by definition of closed, $\phi$ and $X$ are closed in $X$.
(2): Given a collection of closed sets $\left\{A_{\alpha}\right\}$.

$$
X-\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}=\bigcup_{\alpha \in J}\left(X-A_{\alpha}\right) \quad \text { (by DeMorgans law) }
$$

Since each $A_{\alpha}$ is closed. $\Rightarrow X-A_{\alpha}$ is open.
The right side of this equation is a union of open sets and so is open.

Therefore the left hand side is open.

By definition its compliment $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}$ is closed.
(3): If $A_{i}$ is closed for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.

Consider the equation

$$
X-\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}=\bigcap_{i=1}^{n}\left(X-A_{i}\right) \quad \text { (by DeMorgans law) }
$$

The set on the right side is a finite intersection of open sets and is therefore open.

So the left hand side is open.
By definition its compliment $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}$ is closed.

## Closed in $Y$

## Definition 2.

If $Y$ is a subspace of $X$, we say that a set $A$ is closed in $Y$ if $A \subset Y$ is closed in the subspace topology of $Y$
that is, $Y-A$ is open in the subspace topology of $Y$.

## Theorem 2. Let $Y$ be a subspace of $X$.

Then a set $A$ is closed in $Y$ if and only if it equals the intersection of a closed set of $X$ with $Y$.

Proof. Suppose $A=C \cap Y$ where $C$ is closed in $X$.
Since $C$ is closed in $X, X-C$ is open in $X$.
$\Rightarrow(X-C) \cap Y$ is open in $Y$.
(by the definition of the subspace topology).
But $(X-C) \cap Y=Y-A$ (the compliment of $A$ in $Y$ )
$\Rightarrow Y-A$ is open in $Y$. Hence $A$ is closed in $Y$.

Conversely, suppose that $A$ is closed in $Y$.
Then $Y-A$ is open in $Y$.
By definition of open in $Y$, there is an open set $U$ in $X$ such that
$Y-A=Y \cap U$.
$\Rightarrow X-U$ is closed in $X$.
But $A=Y \cap(X-U)$.
$\Rightarrow A$ is the intersection of $Y$ and a closed set $X-U$ of $X$.

Theorem 3. Let $Y$ be a subspace of $X$.
If $A$ is closed in $Y$ and $Y$ is closed in $X$, then $A$ is closed in $X$.

## Proof

Given $A$ is closed in $Y$.

By Theorem 2, $A=Y \cap C$ where $C$ is closed in $X$.
$\Rightarrow Y \cap C$ closed in $X . \quad$ ( since $Y$ is closed in $X$, by Theorem 1)
$\Rightarrow A$ is closed in $X$.

## Interior and closure of A

Definition 3. Given a subset $A$ of a topological space $X$.

The interior of $A$, denoted $\operatorname{Int}(A)$, is the union of all open subsets contained in $A$.

The closure of $A$, denoted $\bar{A}$ or $C I(A)$, is the intersection of all closed sets containing $A$.

## Lemma A

Lemma A. Let $A$ be a subset of topological space $X$.

Then $A$ is open if and only if $A=\operatorname{Int}(A)$.
$A$ is closed if and only if $A=\bar{A}$.

Theorem 4. Let $Y$ be a subspace of $X$.
Let $A \subset Y$ and denote the closure of $A$ in $X$ as $\bar{A}$.
Then the closure of $A$ in $Y$ equals $\bar{A} \cap Y$.
Proof. Let $B$ denote the closure of $A$ in $Y$.
To prove $B=\bar{A} \cap Y$.
Since $\bar{A}$ is closed in $X$.
By Theorem 2, $\bar{A} \cap Y$ is closed in $Y$.
Given $A \subset Y$ and $A \subset \bar{A} \Rightarrow \bar{A} \cap Y$ contains $A$.

Since, by definition of closure, $B$ equals the intersection of all closed subsets of $Y$ containing $A$.
$\Rightarrow B \subset \bar{A} \cap Y$.

On the other hand, $B$ is closed in $Y$.

Hence by Theorem 2, $B=C \cap Y$ for some closed set $C$ in $X$.

Then $C$ is a closed set of $X$ containing $A .(A \subset B \subset C)$
Now $\bar{A}$ is the intersection of all closed sets in $X$ containing $A$.
$\Rightarrow \bar{A} \subset C \Rightarrow \bar{A} \cap Y \subset C \cap Y=B$.
$\Rightarrow \bar{A} \cap Y \subset B$
Thus, $B=\bar{A} \cap Y$.

Theorem 5. Let $A$ be a subset of the topological space $X$.
(a) Then $x \in \bar{A}$ if and only if every open set $U$ containing
$x$ intersects $A$.
(b) Supposing the topology of $X$ is given a basis, then $x \in \bar{A}$
if and only if every basis element $B$ containing $x$ intersects $A$.
Proof (a). Consider the contrapositive.
i.e., $x \notin \bar{A}$ if and only if there is a neighborhood $U$ of $x$ that does not intersect $A$.

If $x \notin \bar{A}$ then the set $U=X-\bar{A}$ is a neighborhood of $x$ which does not intersect $A$, as claimed.

Conversely, if there is a neighborhood $U$ of $x$ which does not intersect $A$.

Then $X-U$ is a closed set containing $A$.
By definition of the closure $\bar{A}$, the set $X-U$ must contain $\bar{A}$.
Since $x \in U$, then $x \notin \bar{A}$.

## Proof (b). Suppose $x \in \bar{A}$.

Then by part (a), every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $A$.
Then every basis element $B$ containing $x$ intersects $A$.
(since each $B$ is open).
Conversely, if every basis element containing $x$ intersects $A$.

Then every neighborhood $U$ of $x, \Rightarrow U$ contains a basis element
that contains $x$.
i.e., every neighborhood $U$ of $x$ intersects $A$.
i.e., $x \in \bar{A}$.

## Limit point

## Definition 4.

If $A$ is a subset of topological space $X$ and if $x \in X$
then $x$ is a limit point (or cluster point or point of accumulation) of $A$
if every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $A$ in some point other than
$x$ itself.

Theorem 6. Let $A$ be a subset of the topological space $X$.

Let $A^{\prime}$ be the set of all limit points of $A$.
Then $\bar{A}=A \cup A^{\prime}$.

Proof. If $x \in A^{\prime}$ then every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $A$ in a point different from $x$.

Therefore, by Theorem 17.5(a), x belongs to $\bar{A}$.
Hence $A^{\prime} \subset \bar{A}$.
Since $A \subset \bar{A}$, we have $A \cup A^{\prime} \subset \bar{A}$.

Let $x \in \bar{A}$.

If $x \in A$, then $x \in A \cup A^{\prime} . \quad\left(\Rightarrow \bar{A} \subset A \cup A^{\prime}.\right)$
If $x \notin A$ then, since $x \in \bar{A}$, every neighborhood $U$ of $x$ intersects $A$.
Because $x \in \bar{A}$ then $U$ must intersect $A$ in a point different from $x$.
Then $x \in A^{\prime}$.
so that $x \in A \cup A^{\prime}$.
Therefore, $\bar{A} \subset A \cup A^{\prime}$.

Hence $\bar{A}=A \cup A^{\prime}$, as claimed.

Corollary 7. A subset of a topological space is closed if and only if
it contains all its limit points. (i.e., $A=\bar{A}$ )

## Proof.

By Lemma 17. $A$, the set $A$ is closed if and only if $A=\bar{A}$.
By Theorem 17.6, $\bar{A}=A \cup A^{\prime}$.
$\Rightarrow A=\bar{A}$ if and only if $A^{\prime} \subset A$.
i.e., $A$ is closed in $X$, if and only if it contains all its limit points.

## Hausdorff space

## Definition 5.

A topological space $X$ is a Hausdorff space if for each pair of distinct points $x_{1}, x_{2} \in X$, there exist neighborhoods $U_{1}$ of $x_{1}$ and $U_{2}$ of $x_{2}$ such that $U_{1} \cap U_{2}=\phi$.

Theorem 8. Every finite point set in a Hausdorff space $X$ is closed.

Proof. Consider the set $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$.
Consider $x \in X$ where $x \neq x_{0}$.
Since $X$ is a Hausdorff space, there are disjoint neighborhoods
$U$ of $x$ and $V$ of $x_{0}$.
$\Rightarrow U$ does not intersect $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$.
By Theorem 5(a), $x$ is not in the closure of set $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$.

Since $x \neq x_{0}$ is an arbitrary element of $X$, the only points of closure of $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ is $x_{0}$ itself.

By Corollary 7, $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ is a closed set.

Now consider a finite point set, say $\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$.
Write the set as $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{1}\right\} \cup \ldots \cup\left\{x_{n}\right\}$.
Observe that each $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ is closed in $X$.

Apply Theorem 17.1 part (3), $\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is closed.
Thus, every finite point set in a Hausdorff space $X$ is closed.

Theorem 9. Let $X$ be a space satisfying the $T_{1}$ Axiom.
Let $A$ be a subset of $X$.

Then $x$ is a limit point of $A$ if and only if every neighborhood
of $x$ contains infinitely many points of $A$.
Proof. Suppose every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $A$ in
infinitely many points.

Then every neighborhood of $x$ intersects set $A$ at a point other than $x$.
By definition, $x$ is a limit point of $A$.

Conversely, suppose that $x$ is a limit point of $A$.

Assume some neighborhood $U$ of $x$ intersects $A$ in only finitely many points.

Then $U$ also intersects $A-\{x\}$ in finitely many points.
Say $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}=U \cap(A-\{x\})$.
Since $X$ satisfy $T_{1}$ Axiom $\Rightarrow\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ is closed.
Therefore, set $X-\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ is open in $X$.

Then $U \cap\left(X-\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}\right)$ is a neighborhood of $x$ that does not intersect the set $A-\{x\}$.

But this CONTRADICTS the hypothesis that $x$ is a limit point of $A$.
So the assumption that $U$ intersects $A$ in finitely many points is false.

That is, any neighborhood of $x$ must intersect $A$ in infinitely many points.

Theorem 10. If $X$ is a Hausdorff space, then a sequence of points of $X$ converges to at most one point of $X$.

## Proof.

Let $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence of points of $X$ that converges to $x$.

Let $y \neq x$.
Let $U$ and $V$ be disjoint neighborhoods of $x$ and $y$, respectively.

Since $U$ is a neighborhood of $x$, then there is $N_{1} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that
$x_{n} \in U$ for all $n \in N_{1}$.

So there is no $N_{2} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for $n \in N_{2}$ we have $x_{n} \in V$
Since for $n \in N_{1}, x_{n} \in U$ and $U \cap V=\phi$.
That is, $x_{n}$ does not converge to $y \neq x$.
Thus, $x_{n}$ converges to at most one point $x$ in $X . \quad\left(x_{n} \rightarrow x\right)$

## Theorem 11.

(a). Every simply ordered set is a Hausdorff space in the order topology.
(b). The product of two Hausdorff spaces is a Hausdorff space.
(c). A subspace of a Hausdorff space is a Hausdorff space.

Proof (a). Suppose $\tau$ is an order topology on a given set $X$.
Let $x_{1}, x_{2}$ be distinct points in $X$ where $x_{1}<x_{2}$.
If $x_{2}$ is not the immediate successor of $x_{1}$, there is some $c \in\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$.

If $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are not the smallest or largest elements of $X$, respectively.
Then there is some $a<x_{1}$ and $b>x_{2}$.

It follows that $(a, c)$ and $(c, b)$ are neighborhoods of $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$
that are disjoint.

On the other hand, if $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ is empty, then $\left(a, x_{1}\right)$ and $\left(x_{2}, b\right)$ are the appropriate disjoint neighborhoods.

If $x_{1}$ is the smallest element of $X$.

By the same argument as above.
Let us consider the neighborhood of $x_{1}$ be $\left[x_{1}, c\right)$ or $\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$,
as appropriate.

Similarly, if $x_{2}$ is the largest element of $X$.
Then the neighborhood of $x_{2}$ be $\left(c, x_{2}\right]$ or $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right]$, as appropriate.

Hence, every order topology is Hausdorff.

## Proof (c). Let $X$ be a Hausdorff space and $Y$ a subset of $X$.

Given any distinct $x_{0}, x_{1}$ in $Y \subset X$.

Then there are neighborhoods $U$ of $x_{0}$ and $V$ of $x_{1}$ in $X$
that are disjoint.

By definition, $U^{\prime}=U \cap Y$ and $V^{\prime}=V \cap Y$ are open in $Y$.
Now $U^{\prime} \cap V^{\prime}=(U \cap Y) \cap(V \cap Y)=(U \cap V) \cap Y=\phi$.

Hence, $U^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime}$ are disjoint neighborhoods of $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$ in $Y$.

Hence, the subspace $Y$ is Hausdorff.

Proof (b). Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are Hausdorff spaces.
Given distinct $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right),\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ of $X \times Y$, if $x_{0} \neq x_{1}$ and $y_{0} \neq y_{1}$.
Then there are neighborhoods $A_{0}$ of $x_{0}$ and $A_{1}$ of $x_{1}$ and neighborhoods $B_{0}$ of $y_{0}$ and $B_{1}$ of $y_{1}$ that are disjoint.

Consider, $\left(A_{0} \times B_{0}\right) \cap\left(A_{1} \times B_{1}\right)=\left(A_{0} \cap A_{1}\right) \times\left(B_{0} \cap B_{1}\right)=\phi$.
Therefore $A_{0} \times B_{0}$ and $A_{1} \times B_{1}$ are disjoint neighborhoods of $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$.

On the other hand, if $x_{0}=x_{1}$ (in which case $y_{0} \neq y_{1}$ ).
Let $A$ be any neighborhood of $x_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ and $B_{1}$ be as above.
Consider, $\left(A \times B_{0}\right) \cap\left(A \times B_{1}\right)=(A \cap A) \times\left(B_{0} \cap B_{1}\right)=A \cap \phi=\phi$.

Therefore $A \times B_{0}$ and $A \times B_{1}$ are disjoint neighborhoods
of $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and $\left(x_{0}, y_{1}\right)$.
Similarly, there exist disjoint neighborhoods for $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and
$\left(x_{1}, y_{0}\right)$ where $x_{0} \neq x_{1}$.
Thus, the product of two Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.

