Introduction to Topology

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Topological Spaces

- Introduction
- Topological Spaces
- Neighborhoods and Neighborhood Spaces
- Closure, Interior, Boundary
- Functions, Continuity, Homeomorphism
- Subspaces
- Products
- Identification Topologies
- Categories and Functors

Subsection 1

Introduction

From Metric to Topological Spaces

- In the context of metric spaces, the various topological concepts such as continuity, neighborhood, and so on, may be characterized by means of open sets.
- Discarding the distance function and retaining the open sets of a metric space gives rise to a topological space.
- The topological concepts that we studied before must be reintroduced in the context of topological spaces.
- To formulate the definition of a term in a topological space, we find, in a metric space, the characterization of the term by means of open sets, using in most cases what is a theorem in a metric space as a definition in a topological space.
- There are other ways of introducing topological spaces.
 - E.g., if we discard the distance function of a metric space, but retain the systems of neighborhoods of the points, we obtain what we call a neighborhood space.

Subsection 2

Topological Spaces

Topological Spaces

Definition (Topological Space)

Let X be a non-empty set and T a collection of subsets of X such that:

- $01. \ X \in \mathcal{T}.$
- $02. \ \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}.$
- O3. If $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n \in \mathcal{T}$, then $O_1 \cap O_2 \cap \cdots \cap O_n \in \mathcal{T}$.
- O4. If for each $\alpha \in I$, $O_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$, then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$.

The pair of objects (X, \mathcal{T}) is called a **topological space**. The set X is called the **underlying set**, the collection \mathcal{T} is called the **topology** on the set X, and the members of \mathcal{T} are called **open sets**.

If T is the collection of open sets of a metric space (X, d), then (X, T) is a topological space. It is called the topological space associated with the metric space (X, d). The metric space (X, d) is said to give rise to the topological space (X, T).

Examples of Topological Spaces

- For each metric space, its associated topological space is an example of a topological space.
- On the other hand, any set X and collection T of subsets satisfying O1, O2, O3, O4 is an example of a topological space, and we shall see that not every such example arises from a metric space.
- 1. The **real line** is the topological space that arises from the metric space consisting of the real number system and the distance function d(a, b) = |a b|.
- 2. The topological space that arises from the metric space (\mathbb{R}^n, d) . We shall call this topological space **Euclidean** *n*-space with the usual topology.
- 3. Let X be an arbitrary set. Let $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$. Then (X, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space.

Examples of Topological Spaces II

- Let X be a set containing precisely two distinct elements a and b. Let *T*₁ = {∅, X}, *T*₂ = {∅, {a}, X}, *T*₃ = {∅, {b}, X}, *T*₄ = {∅, {a}, {b}, *X*}. Then (X, *T_i*), *i* = 1, 2, 3, 4, are four distinct topological spaces with the same underlying set.
- Let X be an arbitrary set. Let T be the collection of all subsets of X, i.e., T = P(X). Then (X, T) is a topological space. Of all the various topologies that one may place on a set X, this one contains the largest number of elements. It is called the **discrete topology**.
- Let X be an arbitrary set. Let T be the collection of all subsets of X whose complements are either finite or all of X. Then (X, T) is a topological space.
- 7. Let Z be the set of positive integers. For each positive integer n, let $O_n = \{n, n+1, n+2, \ldots\}$. Let $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n, \ldots\}$. Then (Z, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space.

Verifying the Topology Axioms

- To verify that (X, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space, one verifies that \mathcal{T} is a topology, i.e., that it satisfies conditions O1, O2, O3, O4.
- Example: We show that, given an arbitrary subset X, and T the collection of all subsets of X whose complements are either finite or all of X, T is a topology.
 - O1. $X \in \mathcal{T}$, for its complement $\emptyset = C(X)$ is certainly finite.
 - O2. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$, since $C(\emptyset) = X$.
 - O3. Let O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n be subsets of X, each of whose complements is finite or all of X. To show that $O_1 \cap O_2 \cap \cdots \cap O_n \in \mathcal{T}$, we must show that $C(O_1 \cap O_2 \cap \cdots \cap O_n)$ is either finite or all of X. But $C(O_1 \cap O_2 \cap \cdots \cap O_n) = C(O_1) \cup C(O_2) \cup \cdots \cup C(O_n)$.

• Either this set is a union of finite sets and hence finite.

- or for some *i*, $C(O_i) = X$ and the union is all of X.
- O4. Finally, for each $\alpha \in I$, let $O_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$, so that $C(O_{\alpha})$ is either finite or X. Then $C(\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha}) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} C(O_{\alpha})$.
 - Either each of the sets $C(O_{\alpha}) = X$, in which case the intersection is X,
 - or at least one of them is finite, in which case the intersection is a subset of a finite set and hence finite.

Relation Between Metric and Topological Spaces

• The relationship between the totality of metric spaces and the totality of topological spaces is



- Two distinct metric spaces (X, d) and (X, d') may give rise to the same topological space (X, T).
- Also there are topological spaces (X, T), such as Example 7 above, which could not have arisen from a metric space.

• The subcollection of topological spaces that arise from metric spaces is called the collection of **metrizable topological spaces**.

In passing from a metric space to its associated topological space, we may say that the "open" sets have been "preserved".

Neighborhoods

Definition (Neighborhood)

Given a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) , a subset N of X is called a **neighborhood** of a point $a \in X$ if N contains an open set that contains a.

So a subset N of a metric space (X, d) is a neighborhood of a point a ∈ X if and only if N is a neighborhood of a in the associated topological space.

Thus, in passing from a metric space to a topological space, neighborhoods have also been "preserved".

Open Sets In Terms of Neighborhoods and Closed Sets

Corollary

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space. A subset O of X is open if and only if O is a neighborhood of each of its points.

First, suppose that O is open. Then, for each x ∈ O, O contains an open set containing x, namely, O itself.

Conversely, suppose O is a neighborhood of each of its points. Then for each $x \in O$, there is an open set O_x , such that $x \in O_x \subseteq O$. Consequently, $O = \bigcup_{x \in O} O_x$ is a union of open sets and hence is open.

Definition (Closed Set)

Given a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) , a subset F of X is called a **closed set** if the complement, C(F), is an open set.

Subsection 3

Neighborhoods and Neighborhood Spaces

Properties of Neighborhoods

Theorem

- Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space.
- N1. For each point $x \in X$, there is at least one neighborhood N of x.
- N2. For each point $x \in X$ and each neighborhood N of x, $x \in N$.
- N3. For each point $x \in X$, if N is a neighborhood of x and $N' \supseteq N$, then N' is a neighborhood of x.
- N4. For each point $x \in X$ and each pair N, M of neighborhoods of x, $N \cap M$ is also a neighborhood of x.
- N5. For each point $x \in X$ and each neighborhood N of x, there exists a neighborhood O of x, such that $O \subseteq N$ and O is a neighborhood of each of its points.
 - For each point $x \in X$, X is a neighborhood of x.

Properties of Neighborhoods (Cont'd)

 N2 and N3 follow easily from the definition of neighborhood in a topological space.

To verify N4, let N, M be neighborhoods of x. Then there are open sets O and O', such that $N \supseteq O$ and $M \supseteq O'$. Thus, $N \cap M$ contains the open set $O \cap O'$, which contains x, and, consequently, $N \cap M$ is a neighborhood of x.

Finally, for a point $x \in X$, let N be a neighborhood of x. Then N contains an open set O containing x. In particular,

- *O* is a neighborhood of *x*;
- By the preceding corollary, O is a neighborhood of each of its points.

Complete System of Neighborhoods at a Point

Definition (Complete System of Neighborhoods at a Point)

For each point x in a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) , the collection \mathfrak{N}_x of all neighborhoods of x is called a **complete system of neighborhoods at the point** x.

- One may paraphrase the properties N1-N5 of neighborhoods in terms of the complete system of neighborhoods 𝔅_x at the points x ∈ X:
 - N1. For each $x \in X$, $\mathfrak{N}_x \neq \emptyset$;
 - N2. For each $x \in X$ and $N \in \mathfrak{N}_x$, $x \in N$;
 - N3. For each $x \in X$ and $N \in \mathfrak{N}_x$, if $N' \supseteq N$, then $N' \in \mathfrak{N}_x$;
 - N4. For each $x \in X$ and $N, M \in \mathfrak{N}_x$, $N \cap M \in \mathfrak{N}_x$;
 - N5. For each $x \in X$ and $N \in \mathfrak{N}_x$, there exists an $O \in \mathfrak{N}_x$, such that $O \subseteq N$ and $O \in \mathfrak{N}_y$ for each $y \in O$.

Differences Between Metric and Topological Spaces

• It is not always true that statements about neighborhoods that are true in a metric space are also true in a topological space:

Example: Given two distinct points x and y in a metric space (X, d), there are neighborhoods N and M of x and y, respectively, such that $N \cap M = \emptyset$.

This statement is false in many topological spaces.

Let $Y = \{a, b\}$, $a \neq b$. Let $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, Y\}$. Then (Y, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space.

- The only neighborhood of *b* is *Y*.
- Thus, for each neighborhood N of a and each neighborhood M of b, $N \cap M = N \cap Y = N \neq \emptyset$.

Hausdorff Spaces

Definition

A topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) is called a **Hausdorff space** or is said to satisfy the **Hausdorff axiom**, if for each pair a, b of distinct points of X, there are neighborhoods N and M of a and b respectively, such that $N \cap M = \emptyset$.

- Some authors use the term "separated space" instead of Hausdorff space.
- Many of the significant topological spaces are Hausdorff spaces.
 For this reason, certain authors require a topological space to be a Hausdorff space and use the two terms synonymously.

I.e., they add to the list O1-O4 of properties of open sets in the definition of a topological space, the property:

For each pair x, y of distinct points there are open sets O_x and O_y containing x and y respectively, such that $O_x \cap O_y = \emptyset$.

Neighborhoods Spaces

Suppose we have a metric space (X, d) and we discard the distance function, retaining only the neighborhoods of the points in X. Then for each point x ∈ X, we have a collection of subsets of X; namely the complete system of neighborhoods at x. We select some of the properties that neighborhoods satisfy and use them as a set of axioms for "neighborhood spaces".

Definition

Let X be a set. For each $x \in X$, let there be given a collection \mathfrak{N}_x of subsets of X (called the **neighborhoods of** x), satisfying the conditions N1-N5 of the preceding theorem. This object is called a **neighborhood space**.

Definition

In a neighborhood space, a subset O is said to be **open** if it is a neighborhood of each of its points.

Open Sets in Neighborhood Spaces

Lemma

- In a neighborhood space:
 - the empty set and the whole space are open;
 - a finite intersection of open sets is open;
 - an arbitrary union of open sets is open.
 - We may use only the properties N1-N5 of neighborhoods and the definition of open sets.
 - The empty set is open, for in order for it not to be open it would have to contain a point x of which it was not a neighborhood.
 - Given a point x, there is some neighborhood N of x. So, by N3, the whole space is a neighborhood of x. Thus, the whole space is a neighborhood of each of its points. Hence, it is open.

Open Sets in Neighborhood Spaces (Cont'd)

If O and O' are open, then O ∩ O' is also open, for, by N4, given x ∈ O ∩ O', O and O' are neighborhoods of x, hence so is O ∩ O'. Thus the intersection of two open sets is a neighborhood of each of its points.

By induction, any finite intersection of open sets is open.

• Finally, suppose for each $\alpha \in I$, O_{α} is open. If $x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha}$, then $x \in O_{\beta}$ for some $\beta \in I$. But O_{β} is a neighborhood of x and $O_{\beta} \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha}$. Thus, by N3, $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha}$ is a neighborhood of x. It is therefore open.

Topological to Neighborhood to Topological

- If we start with a topological space and define neighborhoods, the underlying set and the complete systems of neighborhoods of the points of the set yield a neighborhood space.
- If we start with a neighborhood space and define open sets, we obtain a topological space.
- If we have a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) ,
 - use the neighborhoods of (X, \mathcal{T}) to form a neighborhood space;
 - then use the open sets in this neighborhood space to create a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}') ,

we end up with our original topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) .

- To prove this, we must show that $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}'$.
 - If $O \in \mathcal{T}$, O is a neighborhood of each of its points, from which it follows that $O \in \mathcal{T}'$.
 - Conversely, if O ∈ T', then O is a neighborhood of each of its points. But the neighborhoods of the neighborhood space we have created are the neighborhoods of (X, T), so that O is open in (X, T) or O ∈ T.

Neighborhoods in terms of Open Sets

Lemma

In a neighborhood space, a subset N is a neighborhood of a point x if and only if N contains an open set containing x.

• First, let *N* contain an open set *O* containing *x*. Then *O* is a neighborhood of *x*. By N3, *N* is a neighborhood of *x*.

Conversely, if N is a neighborhood of x, then by N5, N contains a neighborhood O of x (by N2, O contains x), such that O is a neighborhood of each of its points.

Neighborhood to Topological to Neighborhood

- To denote a neighborhood space, let us use the symbol (X, 𝔅), where for each x ∈ X, 𝔅_x is the collection of neighborhoods of x.
- Now suppose that we start with a neighborhood space (X, \mathfrak{N}) .
 - We define open sets, thus obtaining a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) .
 - In the topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) , we define neighborhood to obtain a neighborhood space (X, \mathcal{N}') .
- If N ∈ 𝔑_x, by the lemma, N contains an open set O containing x, so that N is a neighborhood of x in (X, T), or N ∈ 𝔑'_x.
 Conversely, if N ∈ 𝔑'_x, then N contains a set O ∈ T, and x ∈ O.
 Since O ∈ T, O is open in the neighborhood space (X, 𝔑) and so N is a neighborhood of x.

Topological Spaces and Neighborhood Spaces

• Collecting together the results on the correspondence between topological spaces and neighborhood spaces, we get:

Theorem

Let neighborhood in a topological space and open set in a neighborhood space be defined as before. Then:

- The neighborhoods of a topological space (X, T) give rise to a neighborhood space (X, N) = A(X, T).
- The open sets of a neighborhood space (Y, N') give rise to a topological space (Y, T') = N'(Y, N').
- For each topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) , $(X, \mathcal{T}) = \mathfrak{A}'(\mathfrak{A}(X, \mathcal{T}))$.
- For each neighborhood space (X, \mathfrak{N}) , $(X, \mathfrak{N}) = \mathfrak{A}(\mathfrak{A}'(X, \mathfrak{N}))$.

This establishes a one-one correspondence between the collection of all topological spaces and the collection of all neighborhood spaces.

Illustration of Correspondence

- The preceding theorem justifies the specification of a topological space by defining for a given set X what subsets of X are to be the neighborhoods of a point, i.e., by specifying the corresponding neighborhood space.
- Example: Let X be the set of positive integers.

Given a point $n \in X$, and a subset U of X, let us call U a neighborhood of n if for each integer $m \ge n$, $m \in U$.

Verifying that these neighborhoods satisfy conditions N1-N5, we have a neighborhood space.

Consequently, exploiting the preceding correspondence, we also have a topological space.

Subsection 4

Closure, Interior, Boundary

Closeness in Topological Spaces

Lemma

In a metric space (X, d), for a given point x and a given subset A, d(x, A) = 0 if and only if each neighborhood N of x contains a point of A.

 First, suppose that each neighborhood N of x contains a point of A. In particular, for each ε > 0, there is a point of A in B(x; ε). Thus, g.l.b._{a∈A}{d(x, a)} < ε, for each ε > 0. Consequently, d(x, A) = g.l.b._{a∈A}{d(x, a)} = 0.

Conversely, suppose that there is a neighborhood N of x that does not contain a point of A. Since N is a neighborhood of x in a metric space, there is an $\epsilon > 0$, such that $B(x; \epsilon) \subseteq N$. It follows that $a \in A$ implies that $d(x, a) \ge \epsilon$. Thus, $d(x, A) \ge \epsilon$.

• In a topological space, the points of a subset A are arbitrarily close to a given point x, if each neighborhood of x contains a point of A.

Closure of a Set

• Given a subset *A*, the collection of points that are arbitrarily close to *A* is called the closure of *A*.

Definition

Let A be a subset of a topological space. A point x is said to be **in the closure of** A if, for each neighborhood N of x, $N \cap A \neq \emptyset$. The closure of A is denoted by \overline{A} .

• A description of the closure of a subset in terms of closed sets:

Lemma

Given a subset A of a topological space and a closed set F containing A, $\overline{A} \subseteq F$.

• Suppose $x \notin F$, then x is in the open set C(F). Also, $F \supseteq A$ implies $C(F) \subseteq C(A)$. Thus, $C(F) \cap A = \emptyset$. Since C(F) is a neighborhood of $x, x \notin \overline{A}$. We have thus shown that $C(F) \subseteq C(\overline{A})$ or $\overline{A} \subseteq F$.

Closure and Closed Sets

Lemma

Given a subset A of a topological space and a point $x \notin \overline{A}$, then $x \notin F$, for some closed set F containing A.

- If x ∉ A, then there is a neighborhood and hence an open set O containing x, such that O ∩ A = Ø. Let F = C(O). Then F is closed and F = C(O) ⊇ A. But x ∈ O and, therefore, x ∉ F.
- Combining these two lemmas, we obtain:

Theorem

Given a subset A of a topological space, $\overline{A} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha}$, where $\{F_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is the family of all closed sets containing A.

• By the pre-preceding lemma, $\overline{A} \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha}$, since $\overline{A} \subseteq F_{\alpha}$, for each $\alpha \in I$. By the preceding lemma, $x \in F_{\alpha}$, for each $\alpha \in I$, implies that $x \in \overline{A}$, or $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha} \subseteq \overline{A}$. Thus, $\overline{A} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha}$.

Closed Sets in terms of Closure

- Another possible description of the closure A of a subset A is the characterization of A as the smallest closed set containing A.
 A is contained in each closed set containing A. Moreover, A, being the intersection of closed sets, is itself a closed set.
- The next theorem characterizes closed sets in terms of closure.

Theorem

- A is closed if and only if $A = \overline{A}$.
 - We have just seen that \overline{A} is closed. So, if $A = \overline{A}$, then A is closed.

Conversely, suppose A is closed. In this event A itself is a closed set containing A. Therefore, $\overline{A} \subseteq A$. On the other hand, for an arbitrary subset A, we have $A \subseteq \overline{A}$, for if $x \in A$, then each neighborhood N of x contains a point of A; namely x itself.

Thus, if A is closed, $A = \overline{A}$.

Properties of Closure

- The act of taking the closure of a set associates to each subset A of a topological space a new subset \overline{A} .
- This operation satisfies the following five properties:

Theorem

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In a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}),
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CL1. $\overline{\emptyset} = \emptyset;$

CL2.
$$\overline{X} = X;$$

- CL3. For each subset A of X, $A \subseteq \overline{A}$;
- CL4. For each pair of subsets A, B of X, $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.
- CL5. For each subset A of X, $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$.
 - The property CL3 has already been established. CL2 follows from CL3.

Properties of Closure (Cont'd)

CL1 is true, for given a point $x \in X$ and a neighborhood N of x, $N \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$. Thus, there are no points in $\overline{\emptyset}$.

To prove CL5 we note that \overline{A} is closed, so, $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$.

It remains for us to prove CL4. Suppose $x \in \overline{A}$, then each neighborhood N of x contains points of A and hence points of $A \cup B$. Thus, $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$. Similarly, $\overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$, and, consequently, $\overline{A \cup B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$. On the other hand, $A \subseteq \overline{A}$ and $B \subseteq \overline{B}$, so $A \cup B \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$. Thus, $\overline{A \cup B}$ is a closed set containing $A \cup B$, whence $\overline{A \cup B} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B}$.

• One may use the properties CL1-CL5 as a set of axioms for what we will call a **closure space**.

Then one proves that there is a "natural" one-one correspondence between the collection of topological spaces and the collection of closure spaces.

The Interior of a Set

Definition (Interior)

Given a subset A of a topological space, a point x is said to be in the interior of A if A is a neighborhood of x. Int(A) denotes the interior of A.

Lemma

Given a subset A of a topological space and open $O \subseteq A$, $O \subseteq Int(A)$.

 If x ∈ O, then A is a neighborhood of x, since O is open and O ⊆ A. Thus x ∈ Int(A) and O ⊆ Int(A).

Lemma

Given a subset A of a topological space, if $x \in Int(A)$, then $x \in O$, for some open set $O \subseteq A$.

If x ∈ Int(A), then A is a neighborhood of x, whence A contains an open set O containing x.

Interior and Closure

• The preceding two lemmas combine to yield:

Theorem

Given a subset A of a topological space, $Int(A) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha}$, where $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is the family of all open sets contained in A.

- Thus, Int(A), being the union of open sets, is itself open, and is the largest open set contained in A.
- If {O_α}_{α∈I} is the family of open sets contained in a given set A, then {C(O_α)}_{α∈I} is the family of closed sets containing C(A):

Theorem

$$C(\operatorname{Int}(A)) = \overline{C(A)}.$$

Corollary

$$Int(A) = C(\overline{C(A)})$$
 and $C(\overline{A}) = Int(C(A))$.

Boundary of a Set

• For a given subset A, the set of points that are arbitrarily close to both A and C(A) is called the "boundary" of A.

Definition (Boundary)

Given a subset A of a topological space, a point x is said to be **in the boundary of** A if x is in both the closure of A and the closure of the complement of A. The boundary of A is denoted by Bdry(A).

• Thus,
$$\operatorname{Bdry}(A) = \overline{A} \cap \overline{C(A)}$$
.

- Note $\operatorname{Bdry}(C(A)) = \overline{C(A)} \cap \overline{C(C(A))} = \overline{C(A)} \cap \overline{A} = \operatorname{Bdry}(A).$
- A point x is in the boundary of a set A if and only if each neighborhood N of x contains both points of A and points of the complement of A.

Corollary

For each subset A, Bdry(A) is closed.

• The boundary of A is the intersection of two closed sets.
Subsection 5

Functions, Continuity, Homeomorphism

Continuous Functions

Definition (Function Between Topological Spaces)

A function f from a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) to a topological space (Y, \mathcal{T}') is a function $f : X \to Y$.

If f is a function from a topological space (X, T) to a topological space (Y, T') we shall write f : (X, T) → (Y, T').

If the topologies on X and Y need not be explicitly mentioned, we may abbreviate this notation by $f : X \to Y$ or simply f.

Definition (Continuous Function)

A function $f : (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \mathcal{T}')$ is said to be **continuous at a point** $a \in X$ if for each neighborhood N of f(a), $f^{-1}(N)$ is a neighborhood of a. f is said to be **continuous** if f is continuous at each point of X.

Functions Between Topological and Metric Spaces

- Let (X, d) and (Y, d') be metric spaces and let their associated topological spaces be (X, T) and (Y, T'), respectively.
- Given a function *f* from the first metric space to the second, we also have a function, which we still denote by *f*, from the first topological space to the second.
- For each point a ∈ X, a function f : (X, d) → (Y, d') is continuous at a if and only if f : (X, T) → (Y, T') is continuous at a.

Theorem

A function $f: (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \mathcal{T}')$ is continuous if and only if for each open subset O of Y, $f^{-1}(O)$ is an open subset of X.

Proof of the Theorem

Theorem

A function $f : (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \mathcal{T}')$ is continuous if and only if for each open subset O of Y, $f^{-1}(O)$ is an open subset of X.

 First, suppose that f is continuous. Let O is an open subset of Y. Suppose a ∈ f⁻¹(O). Then O is a neighborhood of f(a). So f⁻¹(O) is a neighborhood of a. Thus, f⁻¹(O) is a neighborhood of each of its points. Hence f⁻¹(O) is an open subset of X.

Conversely, suppose that for each open subset O of Y, $f^{-1}(O)$ is an open subset of X. Let $a \in X$ and a neighborhood N of f(a) be given. N contains an open set O containing f(a), so, by our hypothesis, $f^{-1}(N)$ contains the open set $f^{-1}(O)$ containing a. Thus, $f^{-1}(N)$ is a neighborhood of a. We conclude that f is continuous at a. Since a was arbitrary, f is continuous.

Continuity In Terms of Closed Sets

- For any set X, given a collection E of subsets of X, let C'(E) denote the collection of subsets of X that are complements of members of E.
- Given f : X → Y and a collection E of subsets of Y, let f⁻¹(E) be the collection of subsets of X of the form f⁻¹(E) for some E ∈ E.
- The theorem states that f: (X, T) → (Y, T') is continuous if and only if f⁻¹(T') ⊆ T. Let F = C'(T) and F' = C'(T') be the closed subsets of X and Y, respectively.
 If F ∈ F', f⁻¹(C(F)) = C(f⁻¹(F)). so f⁻¹(F') = C'(f⁻¹(T')).
 - Thus, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{T}') \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ is equivalent to $f^{-1}(\mathcal{F}') \subseteq \mathcal{F}$:

Theorem

A function $f : (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \mathcal{T}')$ is continuous if and only if, for each closed subset F of Y, $f^{-1}(F)$ is a closed subset of X.

Continuous versus Open Mappings

- It is important to remember that the theorem says that a function *f* is continuous if and only if the inverse image of each open set is open.
- This should not be confused with another property that a function may or may not possess, the property that the image of each open set is an open set (such functions are called **open mappings**).
- There are many situations in which a function f : (X, T) → (Y, T') has the property that for each open subset A of X, the set f(A) is an open subset of Y, and yet f is not continuous.

Example: Let Y be a set containing two distinct elements a and b and let each subset of Y be an open set. Let \mathbb{R} be the real line and define $f : \mathbb{R} \to Y$ by f(x) = a, for $x \ge 0$ and f(x) = b for x < 0. Every subset of Y is open, so, in particular, for each open subset U of \mathbb{R} , f(U) is an open subset of Y. On the other hand $\{a\}$ is an open subset of Y but $f^{-1}(\{a\})$, the set of non-negative real numbers, is not an open subset of the reals.

Continuity and Closure

Theorem

 $f: (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \mathcal{T}')$ is continuous if and only if for each subset A of X, $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$.

• First suppose that f is continuous. Given a subset A of X, $f(A) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$, whence $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)})$. The set $f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)})$ is closed. So $\overline{A} \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)})$. Thus $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$. Conversely, suppose that for each subset A of X, $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$. Let F be a closed subset of Y. Then $f(\overline{f^{-1}(F)}) \subseteq \overline{f(f^{-1}(F))} \subseteq \overline{F} = F$. Thus $\overline{f^{-1}(F)} \subseteq f^{-1}(F)$. Since it is always the case that $f^{-1}(F) \subseteq \overline{f^{-1}(F)}$, we have $f^{-1}(F) = \overline{f^{-1}(F)}$. consequently, $f^{-1}(F)$ is closed. So f is continuous.

Continuity of Composition

Theorem

Let $f: (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Y, \mathcal{T}')$ be continuous at a point $a \in X$ and let $g: (Y, \mathcal{T}') \to (Z, \mathcal{T}'')$ be continuous at f(a). Then the composite function $gf: (X, \mathcal{T}) \to (Z, \mathcal{T}'')$ is continuous at a.

• Let N be a neighborhood of (gf)(a) = g(f(a)). Then $(gf)^{-1}(N) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(N))$. But $g^{-1}(N)$ is a neighborhood of f(a), since g is continuous at f(a), and, therefore, $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(N))$ is a neighborhood of a, since f is continuous at a.

Homeomorphism

Definition (Homeomorphism)

Topological spaces (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') are called **homeomorphic** if there exist inverse functions $f : X \to Y$ and $g : Y \to X$, such that f and g are continuous. In this event the functions f and g are said to be **homeomorphisms** and we say that f and g define a **homeomorphism** between (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') .

• Homeomorphism is the translation from metric spaces to topological spaces of the concept of topological equivalence.

Corollary

Let (X, d) and (Y, d') be metric spaces. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') be the topological spaces associated with (X, d) and (Y, d'), respectively. Then the metric spaces (X, d) and (Y, d') are topologically equivalent if and only if the topological spaces (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') are homeomorphic.

Characterization of Homeomorphism

Theorem

A necessary and sufficient condition that two topological spaces (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') be homeomorphic is that there exist a function $f : X \to Y$, such that:

- 1. *f* is one-one;
- 2. *f* is onto;
- 3. A subset O of X is open if and only if f(O) is open.
- Suppose that (X, T) and (Y, T') are homeomorphic. Let the homeomorphism be defined by inverse functions f : X → Y and g : Y → X. f is invertible and consequently one-one and onto. Furthermore, given an open set O in X, the set f(O) = g⁻¹(O) is open in Y, since g is continuous. On the other hand, if f(O) = O' is an open subset of Y, then O = f⁻¹(O') is open in X.

Characterization of Homeomorphism: The Converse

 Now, suppose that a function f : X → Y with the prescribed properties exists. Then f is invertible, Define g : Y → X by

$$g(b) = a$$
 if $f(a) = b$.

Then f and g are inverse functions.

If O is an open subset of X, then $f(O) = g^{-1}(O)$ is open in Y. So g is continuous.

Also, if O' is an open subset of Y, then $f^{-1}(O') = O$ is an open subset of X. Hence f is continuous.

Subsection 6

Subspaces

Subspaces

Definition (Subspace)

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') be topological spaces. The topological space Y is called a **subspace** of the topological space X if $Y \subseteq X$ and if the open subsets of Y are precisely the subsets O' of the form $O' = O \cap Y$, for some open subset O of X.

- In the event that Y is a subspace of X, we may say that each open subset O' of Y is the restriction to Y of an open subset O of X.
- A subset O' that is open in Y is often called **relatively open in** Y or simply **relatively open**.
- A subset O of X that is open in X and is contained in Y is necessarily relatively open in Y, but the relatively open subsets of Y are in general not open in X.

Nonempty Subsets and Subspaces

• There are as many subspaces of a topological space X as there are non-empty subsets Y of X.

Proposition

Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space and let Y be a subset of X. Define the collection \mathcal{T}' of subsets of Y as the collection of subsets O' of Y of the form $O' = O \cap Y$, where $O \in \mathcal{T}$. Then (Y, \mathcal{T}') is a topological space and therefore a subspace of (X, \mathcal{T}) provided $Y \neq \emptyset$.

• We must prove that \mathcal{T}' is a topology.

• $\emptyset = \emptyset \cap Y$ and $Y = X \cap Y$. So $\emptyset, Y \in \mathcal{T}'$.

- Suppose $O'_1, O'_2, \ldots, O'_n \in \mathcal{T}'$, so that, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, $O'_i = O_i \cap Y$, for some $O_i \in \mathcal{T}$. Then $O'_1 \cap O'_2 \cap \cdots \cap O'_n = (O_1 \cap O_2 \cap \cdots \cap O_n) \cap Y$ is in \mathcal{T}' , since $O_1 \cap O_2 \cap \cdots \cap O_n$ is open in X.
- Finally, suppose that for each α ∈ I, O'_α ∈ T'. Thus, for each α ∈ I, O'_α = O_α ∩ Y, for some O_α ∈ T. But ⋃_{α∈I} O'_α = ⋃_{α∈I}(O_α ∩ Y) = (⋃_{α∈I} O_α) ∩ Y is in T', since ⋃_{α∈I} O_α is open in X.

Relative Neighborhoods

Given a subset Y of a topological space (X, T), the preceding topology T' of Y is said to be induced by the topology T on X and is called the relative topology on Y. The neighborhoods in T' are called neighborhoods in Y or relative neighborhoods.

Theorem

Let Y be a subspace of a topological space X and let $a \in Y$. Then a subset N' of Y is a relative neighborhood of a if and only if $N' = N \cap Y$, where N is a neighborhood of a in X.

- If N' is a relative neighborhood of a, N' contains a relatively open set O', which contains a. Let $O' = O \cap Y$, where O is an open subset of X. Then $N = N' \cap O$ is a neighborhood of a in X and $N \cap Y = (N' \cup O) \cap Y = N' \cup (O \cap Y) = N'$. Conversely, if $N' = N \cap Y$, where N is a neighborhood of a in X, N
 - contains an open set O containing a. So N' contains the relatively open set $O' = O \cap Y$ containing a. So N' is a relative nbhd of a.

Example I: Closed Interval [a, b]

- The closed interval [*a*, *b*] of the real line with induced topology is a subspace of the real line.
- A relative neighborhood of the point *a* is any subset *N* of [*a*, *b*] that contains a half-open interval [*a*, *c*), where *a* < *c*.
- Similarly, a relative neighborhood of the point b is any subset M of [a, b] that contains a half-open interval (c, b], where c < b.
- If d is such that a < d < b, then a relative neighborhood of d is any subset U of [a, b] that is a neighborhood of d in the real line ℝ.

Metric and Topological Subspaces

• The relationship of subspace is "preserved" in passing from metric spaces to topological spaces.

Lemma

Let (X, d) be a metric space and let (Y, d') be a subspace of (X, d). If (X, \mathcal{T}) and (Y, \mathcal{T}') are the topological spaces associated with (X, d) and (Y, d'), respectively, then (Y, \mathcal{T}') is a subspace of (X, \mathcal{T}) .

Since d' is the restriction of d, an open ball in (Y, d') is the restriction of an open ball in (X, d) to Y. Consequently, a subset O' of Y is open in Y if and only if, for each y ∈ O', there is an ε_y > 0, such that B(y; ε_y) ∩ Y ⊆ O'. Let O = ⋃_{y∈O'} B(y; ε_y). Then O is open in X and O' = O ∩ Y. Thus, O' ∈ T'. Conversely, if O' ∈ T', then O' = O ∩ Y, for some O ∈ T. For each y ∈ O', we have y ∈ O, and O is open. So there is an ε_y such that B(y; ε_y) ⊆ O. It follows that B(y; ε_y) ∩ Y ⊆ O', and, hence, O' is open in (Y, d').

Example II: A Subset of \mathbb{R}^{n+1}

- Let A be the subset of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} consisting of all points $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1})$, such that $x_{n+1} = 0$.
- Let \mathbb{R}^{n+1} have the usual topology and let A have the induced topology so that A is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .

Claim: The topological space A is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n .

To prove this, we use the fact that the relationship of subspace is "preserved" in passing from metric spaces to topological spaces. Define $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to A$ by setting $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 0)$.

- f is one-one, onto. Its inverse is the function $g : A \to \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by $g(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n, 0) = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$.
- $f: (\mathbb{R}^n, d) \to (A, d')$ is continuous.
- $g: (A, d') \to (\mathbb{R}^n, d)$ is also continuous.

So f and g are continuous functions defined on the topological spaces \mathbb{R}^n and A, where A is considered as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} , and define a homeomorphism.

Relatively Closed Sets

- Given a subspace (Y, T') of a topological space (X, T), the closed subsets of the topological space (Y, T') are called relatively closed in Y or simply relatively closed.
- Again, the relatively closed subsets are the restriction to Y of the closed subsets of X.

Theorem

Let (Y, \mathcal{T}') be a subspace of the topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) . A subset F' of Y is relatively closed in Y if and only if $F' = F \cap Y$, for some closed subset F of X.

• Let F' be relatively closed. Then $C_Y(F')$ is relatively open. Thus, $C_Y(F') = O \cap Y$, where O is open in X. But then $F' = C_Y(O \cap Y)$ $= C_Y(O) = C_X(O) \cap Y$, where $C_X(O)$ is a closed subset of X. Conversely, suppose $F' = F \cap Y$, where F is a closed subset of X. Then, $C_Y(F') = C_X(F) \cap Y$. Hence $C_Y(F')$ is relatively open in Y. Therefore F' is relatively closed.

- Let a < b < c < d. Let $Y = [a, b] \cup (c, d)$ be considered as a subspace of the real line. Then the subset [a, b] of Y is both relatively open and relatively closed.
 - Note that $[a, b] = [a, b] \cap Y$ so that [a, b] is relatively closed.
 - On the other hand, for $0 < \epsilon < c b$, $[a, b] = (a \epsilon, b + \epsilon) \cap Y$ so that [a, b] is relatively open.

Since (c, d) is the complement in Y of a relatively open and relatively closed subset of Y, (c, d) is also relatively open and relatively closed in Y.

Inclusion Mappings

Theorem

Let the topological space Y be a subspace of the topological space X. Then the inclusion mapping $i: Y \to X$ is continuous.

For each subset A of X, i⁻¹(A) = A ∩ Y. Thus, if O is an open subset of X, i⁻¹(O) = O ∩ Y is a relatively open subset of Y.

Definition (Weaker Topology)

Let \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 be two topologies on a set Y. The topology \mathcal{T}_1 is said to be **weaker** than \mathcal{T}_2 if $\mathcal{T}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{T}_2$.

If Y is a subset of a topological space (X, T), then the relative topology T' on Y is the weakest topology such that the inclusion map i : Y → X is continuous:

Suppose \mathcal{T}_1 is another topology on Y, such that $i : (Y, \mathcal{T}_1) \to (X, \mathcal{T})$ is continuous. Let $O' \in \mathcal{T}'$. Then $O' = i^{-1}(O)$, with $O \in \mathcal{T}$. Thus $O' \in \mathcal{T}_1$. We conclude that $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T}_1$.

Restricting the Codomain of a Continuous Function

 Let X and Y be topological spaces and f : Y → X be a function which is not necessarily continuous. The function f induces a function f' : Y → f(Y) which agrees with f and is onto. Viewing f(Y) as a subspace of X we have:

Lemma

- $f: Y \to X$ is continuous if and only if $f': Y \to f(Y)$ is continuous.
 - The inclusion map i : f(Y) → X is continuous. Thus, the continuity of f' yields the continuity of f = if'.

Conversely, if O' is a relatively open set in f(Y), then $O' = O \cap f(Y)$, where O is open in X. If f is continuous, then $f^{-1}(O) = f'^{-1}(O')$ is open in Y. Therefore, f' is continuous.

Subsection 7

Products

Endowing a Product with a Topology

- Throughout this section let (X₁, T₁), (X₂, T₂),..., (X_n, T_n) be topological spaces and let X = ∏ⁿ_{i=1} X_i.
- We wish to define a topology on X that may be regarded as the product of the topologies on the factors of X.
- Our guide is the corresponding situation in metric spaces.
 - If these topological spaces were metrizable, then there is a standard procedure for converting the product of the corresponding metric spaces into a metric space.

In this resulting metric space, the open subsets of X are the unions of sets of the form $O_1 \times O_2 \times \cdots \times O_n$, where each O_i is an open subset of X_i .

 In the general situation, where the topological spaces may not be metrizable, one can show that the unions of the products of open sets will constitute a topology.

The Basis Lemma

Lemma

Let \mathcal{B} be a collection of subsets of a set X with the property that $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$, $X \in \mathcal{B}$ and a finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{B} is again in \mathcal{B} . Then the collection \mathcal{T} of all subsets of X which are unions of elements of \mathcal{B} is a topology.

- We verify the topology axioms:
 - Clearly \emptyset and X are in \mathcal{T} .
 - Suppose O and O' are in T. Then O = U_{α∈I} B_α, O' = U_{β∈J} B_β, where B_α ∈ B, for α ∈ I, and B_β ∈ B, for β ∈ J. Thus, for (α, β) ∈ I × J, B_α ∩ B_β ∈ B. It follows that O ∩ O' = U_{(α,β)∈I×J}(B_α ∩ B_β) is in T.
 - Finally a union of sets each of which is a union of sets of $\mathcal B$ is again a union of sets of $\mathcal B$.

We conclude that \mathcal{T} is a topology.

• Since in the product set X the collection of subsets of X that are unions of sets of the form $O_1 \times O_2 \times \cdots \times O_n$, where each O_i an open subset of X_i , satisfies the conditions of this lemma we may state:

Definition (Product Space)

The topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) , where \mathcal{T} is the collection of subsets of X that are unions of sets of the form $O_1 \times O_2 \times \cdots \times O_n$, where each O_i an open subset of X_i , is called the **product** of the topological spaces (X_i, \mathcal{T}_i) , $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$.

- We often denote a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) simply by X.
- When we say "let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n be topological spaces and $X = \prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i$, we mean that X is considered as the product of the topological spaces.

Basis of a Topological Space

• The sets of the form $O_1 \times O_2 \times \cdots \times O_n$, O_i open in X_i , have been used as a "basis" for the open sets of X.

Definition (Basis)

Let X be a topological space and $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$ a collection of open sets in X. $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is called a **basis** for the open sets of X if each open set is a union of members of $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$.

• The next proposition characterizes the neighborhoods in the product space.

Proposition

In a topological space $X = \prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i$, a subset N is a neighborhood of a point $a = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \in N$ if and only if N contains a subset of the form $N_1 \times N_2 \times \cdots \times N_n$, where each N_i is a neighborhood of a_i .

Proof of the Proposition

First suppose that N₁ × N₂ × ··· × N_n ⊆ N, where each N_i is a neighborhood of a_i. By the definition of neighborhood in a topological space, each N_i contains an open set O_i containing a_i, hence, N contains the open set O₁ × O₂ × ··· × O_n containing a, and, therefore, N is a neighborhood of a.

Conversely, suppose *N* is a neighborhood of *a*. Then *N* contains an open set *O* containing *a*. Since *O* is an open subset of the product space $X = \prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i$, we may write $O = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} O_{\alpha,1} \times O_{\alpha,2} \times \cdots \times O_{\alpha,n}$, where for each *i* and each $\alpha \in I$, $O_{\alpha,i}$ is an open subset of X_i . Since $a \in O$, $a \in O_{\beta,1} \times O_{\beta,2} \times \cdots \times O_{\beta,n}$, for some $\beta \in I$, hence $a_i \in O_{\beta,i}$, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. But $O_{\beta,i}$ is open. Thus, if we set $N_i = O_{\beta,i}$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, N_i is a neighborhood of a_i and $N_1 \times N_2 \times \cdots \times N_n \subseteq O \subseteq N$.

Basis for the Neighborhoods at a Point

Definition (Basis for the Neighborhoods at a Point)

Let X be a topological space and $a \in X$. A collection \mathfrak{N}_a of neighborhoods of a is called a **basis for the neighborhoods at** a if each neighborhood N of a contains a member of \mathfrak{N}_a .

- Thus, if a = (a₁, a₂,..., a_n) ∈ X = ∏ⁿ_{i=1} X_i, a basis for the neighborhoods at a is the collection consisting of all subsets of the form N₁ × N₂ × ··· × N_n, where each N_i is a neighborhood of a_i.
- In a product space the *i*th projection p_i : X → X_i is the function such that p_i(a) = a_i. If O_i ∈ T_i, then p_i⁻¹(O_i) = X₁ × ··· × X_{i-1} × O_i × X_{i+1} × ··· × X_n. Since this set is an open subset of X the projection maps are continuous.
- A subset O₁ × O₂ × ··· × O_n of X can be written as p₁⁻¹(O₁) ∩ ··· ∩ p_n⁻¹(O_n), so that we have a guide to the appropriate topology on an arbitrary product of topological spaces.

Arbitrary Topological Products

Definition (Topological Product)

Let $\{(X_{\alpha}, \mathcal{T}_{\alpha})\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be an indexed family of topological spaces. The topological product of this family is the set $X = \prod_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$, with the topology \mathcal{T} consisting of all unions of sets of the form $p_{\alpha_1}^{-1}(\mathcal{O}_{\alpha_1}) \cap \cdots \cap p_{\alpha_k}^{-1}(\mathcal{O}_{\alpha_k})$, where $\mathcal{O}_{\alpha_i} \in \mathcal{T}_{\alpha_i}$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$.

- This collection is a topology that makes the projections continuous.
- Since any topology on X which makes the projection maps continuous must contain the sets of this form, the product topology is the weakest topology consistent with the continuity of the projections.
- A basis for the neighborhoods at a point x is the collection of sets of the form $p_{\alpha_1}^{-1}(N_{\alpha_1}) \cap \cdots \cap p_{\alpha_k}^{-1}(N_{\alpha_k})$, where N_{α_i} is a neighborhood of $p_{\alpha_i}(x) = x(\alpha_i) \in X_{\alpha_i}$, for i = 1, ..., k.
- In the product X, a point y is in a given neighborhood of x (close to x) if there is finite {α₁,..., α_k}, such that y(α_i) is close to x(α_i).

Subsection 8

Identification Topologies

Identifications

- Let \mathbb{R} be the real line and S the unit circle defined by $S = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}.$
- The function $p : \mathbb{R} \to S$, defined by $p(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t)$ maps \mathbb{R} continuously onto S so that p(t) = p(t'), provided t t' is an integer.
- One may think of *p* as wrapping the real line around the circle so that the points which differ by an integer are identified or superimposed on each other.
- Furthermore, we shall see that the topology of S may be obtained from the topology of \mathbb{R} in such a way as to make the mapping p an identification.

Definition (Identification)

Let $p: E \to B$ be a continuous function mapping the topological space E onto the topological space B. p is called an **identification** if for each subset U of B, $p^{-1}(U)$ open in E implies that U is open in B.

Factoring Through an Identification

- If p: E → B is an identification and g: B → Y is continuous on B, then g induces a continuous function gp: E → Y.
- It turns out that frequently the reverse is true, that is, a continuous function G : E → Y will induce a continuous function g : B → Y.

Theorem

Let $p: E \to B$ be an identification and let $G: E \to Y$ be a continuous function such that for each $x, x' \in E$, with p(x) = p(x'), we also have G(x) = G(x'). Then, for each $b \in B$, we may choose any $x \in p^{-1}(\{b\})$, define g(b) = G(x), and the resulting function g is continuous.

First, g(b) does not depend on the choice of x ∈ p⁻¹({b}): If x' ∈ p⁻¹({b}), then p(x) = p(x') and G(x) = G(x'). g is defined so that gp = G. Hence G⁻¹ = p⁻¹g⁻¹. If O is an open subset of Y, then G⁻¹(O) is open in E. But G⁻¹(O) = p⁻¹(g⁻¹(O)). Since p is an identification, g⁻¹(O) is open in B. Therefore, g is continuous.

Identification Topology Determined by a Function

• The hypothesis on the function G is that Gp^{-1} be well-defined. The conclusion is then that the function g may be inserted in the following diagram and that commutativity will hold:



 One may use an onto function p : X → Y from a topological space X to a set Y (without a topology) to construct a topology for Y so that p becomes an identification.

Definition (Identification Topology Determined by a Function)

Let $p: X \to Y$ be a function from a topological space X onto a set Y. The **identification topology on** Y **determined by** p consists of those sets U such that $p^{-1}(U)$ is open in X.

- We can verify that this collection of sets is a topology.
- Once Y has been given the identification topology determined by p, p is an identification.

Factoring Through a Quotient

Let f : X → Y be a function from a set X to a set Y. Let ~_f be the relation defined on X by x ~_f x' if f(x) = f(x'). ~_f is an equivalence relation. Let X/~_f be the collection of equivalence sets under this relation and let π_f : X → X/~_f be the function which maps each x ∈ X into its equivalence class. π_f is an onto function. Now suppose that X is a topological space and give X/~_f the identification topology determined by π_f. Let Y also be a topological space.

Since $\pi_f(x) = \pi_f(x')$ if and only if f(x) = f(x'), f induces a continuous function f^* : $X/\sim_f \to Y$, such that $f = f^*\pi_f$.



Furthermore, f^* is one-one: If $f^*(u) = f^*(u')$, with $u, u' \in X/\sim_f$, then for $x \in \pi_f^{-1}(\{u\}), x' \in \pi_f^{-1}(\{u'\}), f(x) = f(x')$. Thus $x \sim_f x'$ or $u = \pi_f(x) = \pi_f(x') = u'$.

Topology Induced by Quotient

 Let T be the topology on X/~_f and let S be the topology on Y. Since f* is continuous, f*⁻¹(S) ⊆ T, or, equivalently, since f* is one-one, S ⊆ f*(T).



- If S' were some other topology on Y so that f were continuous we would again have S' ⊆ f*(T). Thus, the topology carried over to Y by f* is the weakest or smallest topology such that f is continuous.
- Introducing the topologies into the preceding diagram we obtain the one on the right in which the inclusion map *i* : (Y, f*(T)) → (Y, S) is continuous.


The Covering of the Circle by the Real Line

• Let $p(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t)$ so that $p : \mathbb{R} \to S$ is a continuous mapping of the real line onto the circle.

Claim: p is an identification mapping, i.e., if $U \subseteq S$ is such that $p^{-1}(U)$ is open, then U is open.

Let
$$x \in p^{-1}(U)$$
 and $s = p(x)$.

x is the center of an open interval $O\subseteq p^{-1}(U)$ of length $2\epsilon < 1.$

Under *p*, *O* is mapped into an arc of *S* centered at *s* of length $4\pi\epsilon$ and contained in *U*.

This arc is an open ball in S with center s.

Hence *U* is open.

The Covering of the Circle (Cont'd)

• The function $g(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t, t)$ is a homeomorphism of the real line with a helix H in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Let
$$S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x^2 + y^2 = 1, z = 0\}.$$

The projection of H onto S defined by

$$(\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t, t) \mapsto (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t, 0)$$

is also an identification.

Let f be continuous on ℝ. f is called **periodic** of period 1 if f(t + 1) = f(t) for all t ∈ ℝ. It follows that f(t) = f(t'), provided t - t' is an integer.



Hence f induces a continuous function f^* , defined on the circle S, such that $f^*(p(t)) = f(t)$.

Shrinking a Subset to a Point

- Let X be a topological space and A a non-empty subset of X.
- Define a new untopologized set X/A as the union of X A and a new point a*.
- Define a function $f: X \to X/A$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{for } x \in X - A \\ a^*, & \text{for } x \in A \end{cases}$$

.

- Now give X/A the identification topology determined by f.
- This space is the space obtained by shrinking A to a point.

Example of Shrinking a Subset to a Point

• Let $\mathring{I} = \{0,1\}$ be the boundary of the unit interval I = [0,1]. Claim: I/\mathring{I} is homeomorphic to a circle. The function

 $p(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t), \quad t \in I,$

must induce a continuous function $p^*: I/\overset{\circ}{I} \to S$.

 p^* is one-one.

Moreover, a basis for the open sets containing a^* is the totality of images of sets of the form $[0, \epsilon) \cup (1 - \epsilon, 1]$.

 Shrinking the boundary of *I* to a point amounts to pasting the two end points together to make the single point *a*^{*} out of the boundary.

Attaching a Space X to a Space Y

- Let X and Y be topological spaces and let A be a non-empty closed subset of X. Assume that X and Y are disjoint and that a continuous function f : A → Y is given.
- Form the set $(X A) \cup Y$ and define a function $\varphi: X \cup Y \rightarrow (X A) \cup Y$ by

$$arphi(x) = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} f(x), & ext{if } x \in A \ x, & ext{if } x \in (X-A) \cup Y \end{array}
ight.$$

- Give X ∪ Y the topology in which a set is open (or closed) if and only if its intersections with both X and Y are open (or closed).
- φ is onto.
- Let X ∪_f Y be the set (X − A) ∪ Y with the identification topology determined by φ.

Attaching a Space X to a Space Y: Special Case

- If Y is a single point a^* , then attaching X to a^* by a function $f: A \rightarrow a^*$ is the same as shrinking A to a point.
- Let I^2 be the unit square in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Let A be the union of its two vertical edges so that

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = 0, 0 \le y \le 1 \text{ or } x = 1, 0 \le y \le 1\}.$$

Let Y = [0,1] be the unit interval. Define $f : A \to Y$ by f(x,y) = y. Then $I^2 \cup_f Y$ is a cylinder formed by identifying the two vertical edges of I^2 .

Subsection 9

Categories and Functors

Categories

 When considering a collection of topological spaces and collections of continuous mappings between these spaces the following abstract structure is involved:

Definition (Category)

A category *C* is a collection of objects *A* whose members are called the **objects** of the category and, for each ordered pair (X, Y) of objects of the category, a set H(X, Y), called the **maps** of *X* into *Y*, together with a rule of **composition** which associates to each $f \in H(X, Y)$, $g \in H(Y, Z)$ a map $gf \in H(X, Z)$. This composition is:

- associative, that is, if $f \in H(X, Y)$, $g \in H(Y, Z)$ and $h \in H(Z, W)$, then h(gf) = (hg)f;
- identities exist, that is, for each object $X \in A$, there is an element $1_X \in H(X, X)$, such that for all $g \in H(X, Y)$, $g1_X = g$ and, for all $h \in H(W, X)$, $1_X h = h$.

Category of Sets and Subcategories

• We know the category C_S of sets and functions:

- A_S is the class of all sets;
- for $X, Y \in A_S$, H(X, Y) is the set of all functions from X to Y.

For $X \in A_S$, 1_X is the identity mapping of X onto itself.

Composition is the ordinary composition of functions.

- One may obtain **subcategories** C' of C_S by taking:
 - as objects A' some specified collection of sets;
 - for X, Y ∈ A', H'(X, Y) to be some specified set of functions from X to Y provided that:
 - we always include the identity mapping 1_X in H(X, X) for each $X \in A'$;
 - for each ordered pair (X, Y) of A' include in H'(X, Y) all functions f which can be written in the form hg for g ∈ H'(X, W) and h ∈ H'(W, Y).

Examples

- A' might be all finite sets and H'(X, Y) all functions from X to Y.
- In particular A' could contain a single set X and H'(X, X) could be all invertible functions.
- Another category is the category C_M of all metric spaces and continuous functions.
- Another is the category C_T of all topological spaces and continuous mappings.

Groups and Group Homomorphisms

Definition (Group)

A **group** G is a set G together with a function which associates to each ordered pair g_1, g_2 of elements of G an element $g_1g_2 \in G$, such that:

(i)
$$g_1(g_2g_3) = (g_1g_2)g_3$$
 for $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G$;

- (ii) there is an element $e \in G$, called the **identity** such that, for all $g \in G$, eg = ge = g;
- (iii) for each $g \in G$, there is an element $g^{-1} \in G$, called the **inverse** of g, such that $gg^{-1} = g^{-1}g = e$.

A **homomorphism** f from a group G to a group K is a function $f: G \to K$, such that:

- f(e) = e' if e and e' are identities in G and K, respectively;
- for all $g, g' \in G$, f(gg') = f(g)f(g').

The Category of Groups

- Let G be a collection of groups and for G, K ∈ G, let H(G, K) be the set of all homomorphisms of G into K.
- Use the ordinary composition of functions to define for f ∈ H(G, K) and g ∈ H(K, L), an element gf ∈ H(G, L).



 It is easily verified that we have constructed a category C_G of groups in G and homomorphisms.

Functors

• A transformation from one category to another which preserves the structure of a category is called a "functor".

Definition

- Let C and C' be categories with objects A and A' respectively. A **functor** $F: C \to C'$ is a pair of functions F_1 and F_2 such that:
 - $F_1: A \to A'$ and
 - for each ordered pair X, Y of objects of A, $F_2: H(X, Y) \rightarrow H'(F_1(X), F_1(Y))$, so that:
 - $F_2(1_X) = 1_{F_1(X)}$ and
 - $F_2(gf) = F_2(g)F_2(f)$, for $f \in H(X, Y)$, $g \in H(Y, Z)$.

Functors Diagrammatically

Denote an element f ∈ H(X, Y) by X → Y.
If F : C → C' is a functor, we have:

$$F_1(X) \xrightarrow{F_2(f)} F_1(Y)$$

• F₂ preserves identities

$$F_1(X) \xrightarrow{F_2(1_X) = 1_{F_1(X)}} F_1(X)$$

• If the diagram on the left



is commutative, then so is the one on the right, i.e., F carries commutative diagrams into commutative diagrams.

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Examples of Functors

- The passage from a metric space (X, d) to its associated topological space (X, T) is an example of a functor from C_M to C_T.
- A functor from C_T to itself: Let Z be a fixed topological space.
 - To each topological space $X \in C_T$ associate the topological space $F_1(X) = X \times Z$.
 - To each continuous function f ∈ H(X, Y) associate the function F₂(f) defined by

$$(F_2(f))(x,z) = (f(x),z), \text{ for } (x,z) \in F_1(X).$$

$$X \times Z \xrightarrow{F_2(f)} Y \times Z$$

$$(x,z) \longmapsto (f(x),z)$$

Then $F_2(f) : F_1(X) \to F_1(Y)$ is continuous. It can be verified that $F = (F_1, F_2)$ is a functor.