1 Topological and metric spaces

1.1 Basic Definitions

Definition 1.1 (Topology). Let S be a set. A subset \mathcal{T} of the set $\mathfrak{P}(S)$ of subsets of S is called a *topology* iff it has the following properties:

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ and $S \in \mathcal{T}$.
- Let $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ be a family of elements in \mathcal{T} . Then $\bigcup_{i\in I} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$.
- Let $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$. Then $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$.

A set equipped with a topology is called a *topological space*. The elements of \mathcal{T} are called the *open* sets in S. A complement of an open set in S is called a *closed* set.

Definition 1.2. Let S be a topological space and $x \in S$. Then a subset $U \subseteq S$ is called a *neighborhood* of x iff it contains an open set which in turn contains x.

Definition 1.3. Let S be a topological space and U a subset. The *closure* \overline{U} of U is the smallest closed set containing U. The *interior* $\overset{\circ}{U}$ of U is the largest open set contained in U. U is called *dense* in S iff $\overline{U} = S$.

Definition 1.4 (base). Let \mathcal{T} be a topology. A subset \mathcal{B} of \mathcal{T} is called a *base* of \mathcal{T} iff the elements of \mathcal{T} are precisely the unions of elements of \mathcal{B} . It is called a *subbase* iff the elements of \mathcal{T} are precisely the finite intersections of unions of elements of \mathcal{B} .

Proposition 1.5. Let S be a set and \mathcal{B} a subset of $\mathfrak{P}(S)$. \mathcal{B} is the base of a topology on S iff it satisfies all of the following properties:

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$.
- For every $x \in S$ there is a set $U \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in U$.
- Let $U, V \in \mathcal{B}$. Then there exits a family $\{W_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in A}$ of elements of \mathcal{B} such that $U \cap V = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} W_{\alpha}$.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Definition 1.6. Let S be a topological space and p a point in S. We call a family $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in A}$ of open neighborhoods of p a *neighborhood base* at p iff for any neighborhood V of p there exists $\alpha \in A$ such that $U_{\alpha} \subseteq V$.

Definition 1.7 (Continuity). Let S, T be topological spaces. A map $f : S \to T$ is called *continuous* iff for every open set $U \in T$ the preimage $f^{-1}(U)$ in S is open. We denote the space of continuous maps from S to T by C(S,T).

Proposition 1.8. Let S, T, U be topological spaces, $f \in C(S, T)$ and $g \in C(T, U)$. Then, the composition $g \circ f : S \to U$ is continuous.

Proof. Immediate.

Definition 1.9. Let \mathcal{T}_1 , \mathcal{T}_2 be topologies on the set S. Then, \mathcal{T}_1 is called *finer* than \mathcal{T}_2 and \mathcal{T}_2 is called *coarser* than \mathcal{T}_1 iff all open sets of \mathcal{T}_2 are also open sets of \mathcal{T}_1 .

Definition 1.10 (Induced Topology). Let S be a topological space and U a subset. Consider the topology given on U by the intersection of each open set on S with U. This is called the *induced topology* on U.

Exercise 1. Show that the induced topology is the coarsest topology on U making the inclusion $U \hookrightarrow S$ continuous.

Definition 1.11 (Product Topology). Let S be the cartesian product $S = \prod_{\alpha \in I} S_{\alpha}$ of a family of topological spaces. Consider subsets of S of the form $\prod_{\alpha \in I} U_{\alpha}$ where finitely many U_{α} are open sets in S_{α} and the others coincide with the whole space $U_{\alpha} = S_{\alpha}$. These subsets form the base of a topology on S which is called the *product topology*.

Exercise 2. Show that alternatively, the product topology can be characterized as the coarsest topology on $S = \prod_{\alpha \in I} S_{\alpha}$ such that all projections $S \to S_{\alpha}$ are continuous.

Proposition 1.12. Let S, T, X be topological spaces and $f \in C(S \times T, X)$, where $S \times T$ carries the product topology. Then the map $f_x : T \to X$ defined by $f_x(y) = f(x, y)$ is continuous for every $x \in S$.

Proof. Fix $x \in S$. Let U be an open set in X. We want to show that $W := f_x^{-1}(U)$ is open. We do this by finding for any $y \in W$ an open neighborhood of y contained in W. If W is empty we are done, hence assume that this is not so. Pick $y \in W$. Then $(x, y) \in f^{-1}(U)$ with $f^{-1}(U)$ open by continuity of f. Since $S \times T$ carries the product topology there must be open sets $V_x \subseteq S$ and $V_y \subseteq T$ with $x \in V_x$, $y \in V_y$ and $V_x \times V_y \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$. But clearly $V_y \subseteq W$ and we are done.

Definition 1.13 (Quotient Topology). Let S be a topological space and ~ an equivalence relation on S. Then, the *quotient topology* on S/\sim is the finest topology such that the quotient map $S \to S/\sim$ is continuous.

1.2 Some properties of topological spaces

In a topological space it is useful if two distinct points can be distinguished by the topology. A strong form of this distinguishability is the *Hausdorff* property. **Definition 1.14** (Hausdorff). Let S be a topological space. Assume that given any two distinct points $x, y \in S$ we can find open sets $U, V \subset S$ such that $x \in U$ and $y \in V$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Then, S is said to have the Hausdorff property. We also say that S is a Hausdorff space.

Definition 1.15. Let S be a topological space. S is called *first-countable* iff there exists a countable neighborhood base at each point of S. S is called *second-countable* iff the topology of S admits a countable base.

Definition 1.16 (open cover). Let S be a topological space and $U \subseteq S$ a subset. A family of open sets $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is called an *open cover* of U iff $U \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$.

Proposition 1.17. Let S be a second-countable topological space and $U \subseteq S$ a subset. Then, every open cover of U contains a countable subcover.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Definition 1.18. Let S be a topological space and $U \subseteq S$ a subset. U is called *compact* iff every open cover of U contains a finite subcover.

Proposition 1.19. A closed subset of a compact space is compact. A compact subset of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Proposition 1.20. The image of a compact set under a continuous map is compact.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

1.3 Sequences and convergence

Definition 1.21 (Convergence of sequences). Let $x := \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in a topological space S. We say that x has an *accumulation* point (or limit point) p iff for every neighborhood U of x we have $x_k \in U$ for infinitely many $k \in \mathbb{N}$. We say that x converges to a point p iff for any neighborhood U of p there is a number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $k \geq n$: $x_k \in U$.

Proposition 1.22. Let S, T be topological spaces and $f : S \to T$. If f is continuous, then for any $p \in S$ and sequence $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converging to p, the sequence $f\{(x_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in T converges to f(p). Conversely, if S is first countable and for any $p \in S$ and sequence $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converging to p, the sequence $f\{(x_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in T converges to f(p), then f is continuous.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.23. Let S be Hausdorff space and $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ a sequence in S which converges to a point $x \in S$. Then, $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ does not converge to any other point in S.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

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Definition 1.24. Let S be a topological space and $U \subseteq S$ a subset. The set \overline{U}^s of points to which sequences of elements of U converge is called the sequential closure of S.

Proposition 1.25. Let S be a topological space and $U \subseteq S$ a closed subset. Let x be a sequence of points in U which has an accumulation point $p \in S$. Then, $p \in U$.

Proof. Suppose $p \notin U$. Since U is closed $S \setminus U$ is an open neighborhood of p. But $S \setminus U$ does not contain any point of x, so p cannot be accumulation point of x. This is a contradiction.

Corollary 1.26. Let S be a topological space and U a subset. Then, $\overline{U}^s \subseteq \overline{U}$.

Proof. Immediate.

Proposition 1.27. Let S be a first-countable topological space and U a subset. Then, $\overline{U}^s = \overline{U}$.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Definition 1.28. Let S be a topological space and $U \subseteq S$ a subset. U is said to be *limit point compact* iff every sequence in S has an accumulation point (limit point) in U. U is called *sequentially compact* iff every sequence of elements of U contains a subsequence converging to a point in U.

Proposition 1.29. Let S be a first-countable topological space and $x = \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence in S with accumulation point p. Then, x has a subsequence that converges to p.

Proof. By first-countability choose a countable neighborhood base $\{U_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ at p. Now consider the family $\{W_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ of open neighborhoods $W_n := \bigcap_{k=1}^n U_k$ at p. It is easy to see that this is again a countable neighborhood base at p. Moreover, it has the property that $W_n \subseteq W_m$ if $n \ge m$. Now, Choose $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_{n_1} \in W_1$. Recursively, choose $n_{k+1} > n_k$ such that $x_{n_{k+1}} \in W_{k+1}$. This is possible since W_{k+1} contains infinitely many points of x. Let V be a neighborhood of p. There exists some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $U_k \subseteq V$. By construction, then $W_m \subseteq W_k \subseteq U_k$ for all $m \ge k$ and hence $x_{n_m} \in V$ for all $m \ge k$. Thus, the subsequence $\{x_{n_m}\}_{m\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to p.

Corollary 1.30. The notions of limit point compactness and sequential compactness coincide for first-countable spaces.

Proof. Immediate.

Proposition 1.31. A compact set is limit point compact.

Proof. Consider a sequence x in a compact set S. Suppose x does not have an accumulation point. Then, for each point $p \in S$ we can choose an open neighborhood U_p which contains only finitely many points of x. However, by compactness, S is covered by finitely many of the sets U_p . But their union can only contain a finite number of points of x, a contradiction. \Box

1.4 Metric and pseudometric spaces

Definition 1.32. Let S be a set and $d : S \times S \to \mathbb{R}^+_0$ a map with the following properties:

- $d(x,y) = d(y,x) \quad \forall x, y \in S.$ (symmetry)
- $d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z) \quad \forall x, y, z \in S.$ (triangle inequality)
- $d(x, x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in S.$

Then d is called a *pseudometric* on S. S is also called a *pseudometric space*. Suppose d also satisfies

• $d(x,y) = 0 \implies x = y \quad \forall x, y \in S.$ (definiteness)

Then d is called a *metric* on S and S is called a *metric space*.

Definition 1.33. Let S be a pseudometric space, $x \in S$ and r > 0. Then the set $B_r(x) := \{y \in S : d(x, y) < r\}$ is called the *open ball* of radius r centered around x in S. The set $\overline{B}_r(x) := \{y \in S : d(x, y) \le r\}$ is called the *closed ball* of radius r centered around x in S.

Proposition 1.34. Let S be a pseudometric space. Then, the open balls in S together with the empty set form the basis of a topology on S. This topology is first-countable and such that closed balls are closed. Moreover, the topology is Hausdorff iff S is metric.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Definition 1.35. A topological space is called *(pseudo)metrizable* iff there exists a (pseudo)metric such that the open balls given by the (pseudo)metric are a basis of its topology.

Proposition 1.36. In a pseudometric space any open ball can be obtained as the countable union of closed balls. Similarly, any closed ball can be obtained as the countable intersection of open balls.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.37. Let S be a set equipped with two pseudometrics d^1 and d^2 . Then, the topology generated by d^2 is finer than the topology generated by d^1 iff for all $x \in S$ and $r_1 > 0$ there exists $r_2 > 0$ such that $B^2_{r_2}(x) \subseteq B^1_{r_1}(x)$. In particular, d^1 and d^2 generate the same topology iff the condition holds both ways.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.38 (epsilon-delta criterion). Let S, T be pseudometric spaces and $f: S \to T$ a map. Then, f is continuous iff for every $x \in S$ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $f(B_{\delta}(x)) \subseteq B_{\epsilon}(f(x))$.

Proof. Exercise.

1.5Elementary properties of pseudometric spaces

Proposition 1.39. Let S be a pseudometric space and $x := \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence in S. Then x converges to $p \in S$ iff for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$: $d(x_n, p) < \epsilon$.

Proof. Immediate.

Definition 1.40. Let S be a pseudometric space and $x := \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence in S. Then x is called a Cauchy sequence iff for all $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n, m \ge n_0$: $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$.

Exercise 3. Give an example of a set S, a sequence x in S and two metrics d^1 and d^2 on S that generate the same topology, but such that x is Cauchy with respect to d^1 , but not with respect to d^2 .

Proposition 1.41. Any converging sequence in a pseudometric space is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.42. Suppose x is a Cauchy sequence in a pseudometric space. If p is accumulation point of x then x converges to p.

Proof. Exercise.

Definition 1.43. Let S be a pseudometric space and $U \subseteq S$ a subset. If every Cauchy sequence in U converges to a point in U, then U is called complete.

Proposition 1.44. A complete subset of a metric space is closed. A closed subset of a complete pseudometric space is complete.

Proof. Exercise.

Exercise 4. Give an example of a complete subset of a pseudometric space that is not closed.

Definition 1.45 (Totally boundedness). Let S be a pseudometric space. A subset $U \subseteq S$ is called *totally bounded* iff for any r > 0 the set U admits a cover by finitely many open balls of radius r.

Proposition 1.46. A subset of a pseudometric space is compact iff it is complete and totally bounded.

Proof. We first show that compactness implies totally boundedness and completeness. Let U be a compact subset. Then, for r > 0 cover U by open balls of radius r centered at every point of U. Since U is compact, finitely many balls will cover it. Hence, U is totally bounded. Now, consider a Cauchy sequence x in U. Since U is compact x must have an accumulation point $p \in U$ (Proposition 1.31) and hence (Proposition 1.42) converge to p. Thus, U is complete.

We proceed to show that completeness together with totally boundedness imply compactness. Let U be a complete and totally bounded subset. Assume U is not compact and choose a covering $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in A}$ of U that does not admit a finite subcovering. On the other hand, U is totally bounded and admits a covering by finitely many open balls of radius 1/2. Hence, there must be at least one such ball B_1 such that $C_1 := B_1 \cap U$ is not covered by finitely many U_{α} . Choose a point x_1 in C_1 . Observe that C_1 itself is totally bounded. Inductively, cover C_n by finitely many open balls of radius $2^{-(n+1)}$. For at least one of those, call it B_{n+1} , $C_{n+1} := B_{n+1} \cap C_n$ is not covered by finitely many U_{α} . Choose a point x_{n+1} in C_{n+1} . This process yields a Cauchy sequence $x := \{x_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$. Since U is complete the sequence converges to a point $p \in U$. There must be $\alpha \in A$ such that $p \in U_{\alpha}$. Since U_{α} is open there exists r > 0 such that $B(p,r) \subseteq U_{\alpha}$. This implies, $C_n \subseteq U_{\alpha}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $2^{-n+1} < r$. However, this is a contradiction to the C_n not being finitely covered. Hence, U must be compact.

Proposition 1.47. The notions of compactness, limit point compactness and sequential compactness are equivalent in a pseudometric space.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.48. A totally bounded pseudometric space is second-countable.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.49. Let S be equipped with a pseudometric d. Then $p \sim q \iff d(p,q) = 0$ for $p,q \in S$ defines an equivalence relation on S. The prescription $\tilde{d}([p],[q]) := d(p,q)$ for $p,q \in S$ is well defined and yields a metric \tilde{d} on the quotient space S/\sim . The topology induced by this metric on S/\sim is the quotient topology with respect to that induced by d on S. Moreover, S/\sim is complete iff S is complete.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Exercise 5. Show the following universal property of the quotient construction given above: Let S be a pseudometric space, T be a Hausdorff space and $f: S \to T$ a continuous map. Then, there exists a unique continuous map $\tilde{f}: S/\sim \to T$ such that $f = \tilde{f} \circ q$, where q is the quotient map $S \to S/\sim$.

1.6 Completion of metric spaces

Often it is desirable to work with a complete metric space when one is only given a non-complete metric space. To this end one can construct the *completion* of a metric space. This is detailed in the following exercise.

Exercise 6. Let S be a metric space.

- Let $x := \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $y := \{y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be Cauchy sequences in S. Show that the limit $\lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, y_n)$ exists.
- Let T be the set of Cauchy sequences in S. Define the function \tilde{d} : $T \times T \to \mathbb{R}^+_0$ by $\tilde{d}(x, y) := \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, y_n)$. Show that \tilde{d} defines a pseudometric on T.
- Define \overline{S} as the metric quotient T/\sim as in Proposition 1.49.
- Show that \$\overline{S}\$ is complete. [Hint: First show that given a Cauchy sequence \$x\$ in \$S\$ and a subsequence \$x'\$ of \$x\$ we have \$\overline{d}(x,x') = 0\$. That is, \$x ~ y\$ in \$T\$. Use this to show that for any Cauchy sequence \$x\$ in \$S\$ an equivalent Cauchy Sequence \$x'\$ can be constructed which has a specific asymptotic behavior. For example, \$x'\$ can be made to satisfy \$d(x'_n, x'_m) < \frac{1}{min(m,n)}\$. Now a Cauchy sequence \$\overline{x}\$ can be made to satisfy \$d(x'_n, x'_m) < \frac{1}{min(m,n)}\$. Now a Cauchy sequence \$\overline{x}\$ = \$\{\overline{x}^n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}\$ in \$\overline{S}\$ consists of equivalence classes \$\overline{x}^n\$ of Cauchy sequences in \$S\$. Given some representative \$x^n\$ of \$\overline{x}\$ show that there is another representative \$x'^n\$ for all \$n \in \mathbf{N}\$ show that the equivalence class in \$\overline{S}\$ of the diagonal sequence \$y\$:= \$\{x'_n^n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}\$ is a limit of \$\overline{x}\$.]
- Show that there is a natural isometric embedding (i.e., a map that preserves the metric) $i_S : S \to \overline{S}$. Furthermore, show that this is a bijection iff S is complete.

Definition 1.50. The metric space \overline{S} constructed above is called the *completion* of the metric space S.

Proposition 1.51 (Universal property of completion). Let S be a metric space, T a complete metric space and $f: S \to T$ an isometric map. Then, there is a unique isometric map $\overline{f}: \overline{S} \to T$ such that $f = \overline{f} \circ i_S$. Furthermore, the closure of f(S) in T is equal to $\overline{f}(\overline{S})$.

Proof. Exercise.

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1.7 Norms and seminorms

In the following \mathbb{K} will denote a field which can be either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

Definition 1.52. Let V be a vector space over K. Then a map $V \to \mathbb{R}_0^+$: $x \mapsto ||x||$ is called a *seminorm* iff it satisfies the following properties:

- 1. $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}, x \in V$.
- 2. For all $x, y \in V$: $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$. (triangle inequality)

A seminorm is called a *norm* iff it satisfies in addition the following property:

3. $||x|| = 0 \implies x = 0.$

Proposition 1.53. Let V be a seminormed vector space over \mathbb{K} . Then, d(v, w) := ||v - w|| defines a pseudometric on V. Moreover, d is a metric iff the seminorm is a norm.

Proof. <u>Exercise</u>.

Remark 1.54. Since a seminormed space is a pseudometric space all the concepts developed for pseudometric spaces apply. In particular the notions of convergence, Cauchy sequence and completeness apply to pseudonormed spaces.

Definition 1.55. A complete normed vector space is called a *Banach space*.

Exercise 7. Let S be a set and $F_b(S, \mathbb{K})$ the set of bounded maps $S \to \mathbb{K}$.

- 1. $F_{b}(S, \mathbb{K})$ is a vector space over \mathbb{K} .
- 2. The *supremum norm* on it is a norm defined by

$$\|f\|_{\sup} := \sup_{p \in S} |f(p)|$$

3. $F_{b}(S, \mathbb{K})$ with the supremum norm is a Banach space.

Exercise 8. Let S be a topological space and $C_b(S, \mathbb{K})$ the set of bounded continuous maps $S \to \mathbb{K}$.

- 1. $C_{b}(S, \mathbb{K})$ is a vector space over \mathbb{K} .
- 2. $C_b(S, \mathbb{K})$ with the supremum norm is a Banach space.

Proposition 1.56. Let V be a vector space with a seminorm $\|\cdot\|_V$. Consider the subset $A := \{v \in V : \|v\|_V = 0\}$. Then, A is a vector subspace. Moreover $v \sim w \iff v - w \in A$ defines an equivalence relation and $W := V/\sim$ is a vector space. The seminorm $\|\cdot\|_V$ induces a norm on W via $\|[v]\|_W := \|v\|_V$ for $v \in V$. Also, V is complete with respect to the seminorm $\|\cdot\|_V$ iff W is complete with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|_W$.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.57. Let V, W be seminormed vector spaces. Then, a linear map $\alpha: V \to W$ is continuous iff there exists a constant $c \ge 0$ such that

$$\|\alpha(v)\|_W \le c \|v\|_V \quad \forall v \in V.$$

Proof. Exercise.