

Topological Spaces

Class: III M.Sc Maths
Subject: Topology
Subject Code: P22MACC31

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1. The Real Line (\mathbb{R}) with the Standard Topology:

- **Topology:**

The standard topology on the set of real numbers is generated by open intervals (a,b) , where a and b are real numbers. This means that any open set in this topology can be expressed as a union of such open intervals.

Example: The interval $(-1,1)$ is an open set. The union of $(0,0.5)$ and $(0.7,1.2)$ is also an open set. Concepts like continuity of functions you learned in calculus are defined with respect to this topology.

2. Euclidean Space (\mathbb{R}^n) with the Standard Topology:

- **Topology:** This generalizes the real line to higher dimensions. In \mathbb{R}^n , the standard topology is generated by open balls (or open n -dimensional boxes). An open ball centered at a point x with radius $r > 0$ is the set of all points y such that the Euclidean distance between x and y is less than r .
- **Example:** In \mathbb{R}^2 (the plane), an open ball is an open disk. The set $\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 < 1\}$ is an open set in the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^2 . This topology is fundamental to multivariable calculus and analysis.

3. Metric Spaces and the Metric Topology:

- **Topology:** If you have a metric $d(x,y)$ defined on a set X (a function that measures the "distance" between any two points and satisfies certain properties), you can define a topology on X called the metric topology. The open sets in this topology are unions of open balls $B(x,r)=\{y\in X|d(x,y)<r\}$, where $x\in X$ and $r>0$.
- **Example:** The real line \mathbb{R} with the absolute value as the metric ($d(x,y)=|x-y|$) induces the standard topology. Similarly, Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n with the Euclidean distance metric induces the standard topology on \mathbb{R}^n . Many important topological spaces arise from metrics.

4. Subspace Topology:

- **Topology:** If Y is a subset of a topological space X with topology T , the subspace topology on Y consists of all intersections of open sets in T with Y . That is, a subset $U\subseteq Y$ is open in the subspace topology if and only if there exists an open set $V\in T$ such that $U=V\cap Y$.
- **Example:** Consider the unit circle $S^1=\{(x,y)\in\mathbb{R}^2|x^2+y^2=1\}$ as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 with the standard topology. An open set in the subspace topology on S^1 is the intersection of an open disk in \mathbb{R}^2 with the circle. For instance, the part of the circle lying in the open half-plane $x>0$ is an open set in the subspace topology.

5. Product Topology:

- **Topology:** If X and Y are topological spaces with topologies T_X and T_Y respectively, the product topology on the Cartesian product $X \times Y$ is the topology generated by the basis of sets of the form $U \times V$, where $U \in T_X$ and $V \in T_Y$. This can be generalized to the product of any collection of topological spaces.
- **Example:** The standard topology on \mathbb{R}^2 is the product topology of $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$, where \mathbb{R} has the standard topology. An open rectangle $(a,b) \times (c,d)$ is a basic open set in this product topology.

6. Quotient Topology:

- **Topology:** If X is a topological space and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ is a surjective map, the quotient topology on Y is the finest topology on Y such that the map p is continuous. A subset $V \subseteq Y$ is open in the quotient topology if and only if its preimage $p^{-1}(V)$ is open in X .
- **Example:** Consider the closed interval $[0,1]$ with the subspace topology from \mathbb{R} . If we identify the endpoints 0 and 1, we can define a surjective map $p: [0,1] \rightarrow S^1$ (the unit circle). The quotient topology on S^1 induced by this map makes it a familiar topological space.

Basis

Definition:

Let (X, T) be a topological space. A collection $B \subseteq T$ of open subsets of X is called a **basis** for the topology T if every open set $U \in T$ can be expressed as the union of some subfamily of B .

In simpler terms, you can build any open set in the topology by taking appropriate unions of the sets in the basis. The sets in the basis are often called **basic open sets**.

A collection B of subsets of a set X is a basis for some topology on X if and only if it satisfies the following two conditions:

1. **Coverage:** The union of all the sets in B must be equal to X .¹ That is, every point in X must belong to at least one set in B :
2. **Intersection Property:** For every point $x \in X$ that lies in the intersection of two basic open sets $B_1, B_2 \in B$, there must exist another basic open set $B_3 \in B$ such that $x \in B_3$ and $B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$.

If a collection B satisfies these two conditions, then the topology T generated by B consists of all possible unions of elements from B .

Connected space

Definition:

A topological space (X, T) is said to be **connected** if it cannot be expressed as the union of two non-empty, disjoint open subsets.

In other words, if $X = U \cup V$, where U and V are open in T , and $U \cap V = \emptyset$, then either $U = \emptyset$ or $V = \emptyset$ (or both, if X itself is empty).

A space which is not connected is called as disconnected space.

Examples of Connected Spaces:

- **The Real Line (\mathbb{R}) with the Standard Topology:** It cannot be split into two non-empty disjoint open intervals (or unions of them).
- **Any Interval in \mathbb{R} (open, closed, or half-open):** For example, $(0, 1)$, $[a, b]$, $(-\infty, a]$, etc., are all connected with the subspace topology inherited from \mathbb{R} .
- **Euclidean Space (\mathbb{R}^n) with the Standard Topology:** For any $n \geq 1$, \mathbb{R}^n is connected.

- **Continuous Images of Connected Spaces:** If $f:X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous function and X is connected, then the image $f(X)$ is also connected (with the subspace topology inherited from Y). This is a powerful way to show that many spaces are connected. For example, the circle S^1 is the continuous image of the connected interval $[0,1]$ under the map $t \mapsto (\cos(2\pi t), \sin(2\pi t))$, so S^1 is connected.
- **The Union of Connected Sets with a Non-Empty Intersection:** If $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a collection of connected subsets of a topological space X such that $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$, then their union $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha$ is also connected.

Examples of Disconnected Spaces:

- **The union of two disjoint open intervals in \mathbb{R} :** For example, $(0,1) \cup (2,3)$ is disconnected because $(0,1)$ and $(2,3)$ are non-empty, disjoint, and open in the subspace topology.
- **A discrete space with more than one point:** In a discrete space, every subset is open (and closed). If the space has at least two points, say $\{x,y\}$, then $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ are non-empty, disjoint open sets whose union is the entire space.
- **The rational numbers (\mathbb{Q}) with the subspace topology from \mathbb{R} :** For any two rationals $p < q$, we can find an irrational number r such that $p < r < q$. Then $Q = (Q \cap (-\infty, r)) \cup (Q \cap (r, \infty))$, which are non-empty, disjoint, and open in the subspace topology on Q .

Connected Components:

Every topological space can be uniquely decomposed into maximal connected subspaces called its **connected components**.

- The connected component of a point x in a space X is the union of all connected subsets of X that contain x . This union is itself connected and is the largest connected subset containing x .
- The connected components of a topological space form a partition of the space: they are disjoint, non-empty, and their union is the entire space.
- Connected components are always closed sets.

Definition:

A topological space (X, T) is said to be **compact** if every open cover of X has a finite subcover.

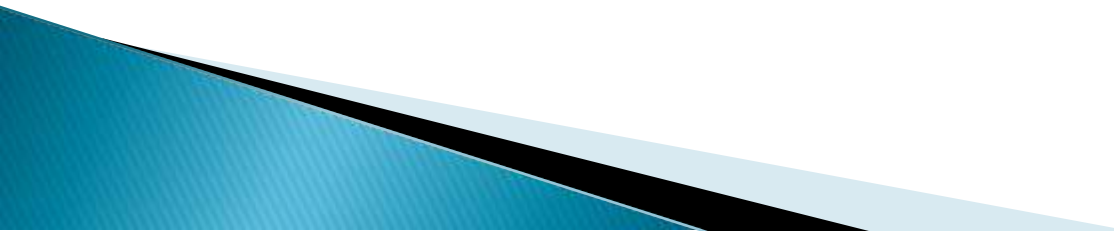
- **Open Cover:** An open cover of a space X is a collection of open sets $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ (where I is an index set, possibly infinite) such that their union contains X : $X \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$
- **Finite Subcover:** A finite subcover is a finite subcollection $\{U_{\alpha_1}, U_{\alpha_2}, \dots, U_{\alpha_n}\}$ of the original open cover such that their union still contains X : $X \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i}$

So, a space is compact if, whenever you cover it with any collection of open sets, you can always find a finite number of those open sets that still cover the entire space.

Key Properties of Compact Spaces:

- **Closed Subsets of Compact Spaces are Compact:** If Y is a closed subset of a compact space X , then Y (with the subspace topology) is also compact.
- **Compact Subspaces of Hausdorff Spaces are Closed:** If Y is a compact subspace of a Hausdorff space X , then Y is a closed subset of X . (A Hausdorff space is one where any two distinct points have disjoint open neighborhoods.)
- **Continuous Images of Compact Spaces are Compact:** If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous function and X is a compact space, then the image $f(X)$ (with the subspace topology inherited from Y) is also compact. This is a very powerful property for proving compactness of new spaces.
- **Compactness in Metric Spaces is Equivalent to Sequential Compactness:** For a metric space, compactness is equivalent to the property that every sequence in the space has a subsequence that converges to a point within the space. It is also equivalent to being complete and totally bounded.
- **The Product of Finitely Many Compact Spaces is Compact (Tychonoff's Theorem extends this to arbitrary products):** If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are compact spaces, then their product $X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots \times X_n$ (with the product topology) is also compact.

Examples of Compact Spaces:

- **Any Finite Topological Space:** Since any cover will be finite, it automatically has a finite subcover (itself).
 - **A Set with the Cofinite Topology:** In this topology, a subset is open if and only if it is empty or its complement is finite. Any open cover of such a space will have at least one non-empty open set U . The complement of U is finite, so you can pick one open set from the cover to contain each of these finitely many points, resulting in a finite subcover.
 - **The Closed Unit Interval $[0,1]$ in \mathbb{R} (with the standard topology):** This is a fundamental example, often proven using the Heine-Borel Theorem.
 - **Any Closed and Bounded Interval $[a,b]$ in \mathbb{R} .**
 - **Closed and Bounded Subsets of \mathbb{R}^n (with the standard topology) - (Heine-Borel Theorem):** For example, closed disks, closed balls, closed rectangles, etc.
 - **The Unit Circle S^1 and the n -Sphere S^n (with the subspace topology from \mathbb{R}^{n+1}):** These are continuous images of compact intervals.
 - **The Cantor Set:** A fascinating example that is compact, totally disconnected, and perfect.
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Examples of Non-Compact Spaces:

- **The Open Interval $(0,1)$ in \mathbf{R} :** The open cover $\{(1/n,1) | n \in \mathbf{N}, n > 1\}$ has no finite subcover.
- **The Real Line \mathbf{R} itself:** The open cover $\{(n-1,n+1) | n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ has no finite subcover.
- **Any Infinite Set with the Discrete Topology:** The open cover consisting of all singleton sets $\{\{x\} | x \in X\}$ has no finite subcover.
- **The Rational Numbers \mathbf{Q} (with the subspace topology from \mathbf{R}):** Even though it's bounded within a compact interval, it's not closed in \mathbf{R} , and it's not compact.

Thank You

