# Metric and Topological spaces

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## 1 Introduction

This summary has been made by using "Introduction to Metric and Topological Spaces" second edition di Wilson a Sutherland.

# 2 Notation and Terminology

Theorem 1 (De Morgan Laws)

$$S \setminus \bigcup_{I} A_{i} = \bigcap (S \setminus A_{i}) \quad S \setminus \bigcap_{I} A_{i} = \bigcup_{I} (S \setminus A_{i})$$

**Definition 2 (Cartesian product)** The Cartesian product is the set of all ordered pairs (a,b) where  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ ,

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$$

**Definition 3 (injective function)** Let a map/function  $f: X \to Y$ , it said to be injective if  $\{f(x) = f(x') \Rightarrow x = x'\}$ 

**Definition 4 (surjective or onto function)** *Let a map/function*  $f: X \to Y$ , *it said to be onto if*  $\{ \forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X \mid y = f(x) \}$ 

**Definition 5 (bijective function)** Let a map/function  $f: X \to Y$ , it said to be bijective if is both onto and injective.

**Definition 6** Let  $f: X \to Y$ , where  $A \subseteq X$ , then  $f|_A: A \to Y$  and is called restriction, i.e  $f|_A(a) = f(a) \ \forall a \in A$ 

**Examples:** Let C, D be subsets of a set X, then

$$(X \backslash C) \cap D = D \backslash C \quad C \backslash (D \cap C) = A \cap (X \backslash D)$$

## 3 More on sets and functions

**Definition 7 (direct image)** Suppose  $f: X \to Y$  be any map, and let A be subsets of X. The direct image f(A) of A under f is the subset of Y given by

$$\{y \in Y : y = f(a) \text{ for some } a \in A\}$$

**Definition 8 (inverse image)** Suppose  $f: X \to Y$  be any map, and let C be subsets of Y respectively. The inverse image  $f^{-1}(C)$  of C under f is the subset of X given by  $\{x \in X : f(x) \in C\}$ 

Note that definition 8 does not require the existence of an inverse function.

**Example:** For any map  $f: X \to Y$  we have  $f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  and  $f^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ 

**Proposition 9 (3.6)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is a map, that A, B are subsets of X and that C, D are subsets of Y. Then:

$$f(A \cup B) = f(A) \cup f(B), \quad f(A \cap B) \subseteq f(A) \cap f(B)$$
 
$$f^{-1}(C \cup D) = f^{-1}(C) \cup f^{-1}(D), \quad f^{-1}(C \cap D) = f^{-1}(C) \cap f^{-1}(D)$$

**Proposition 10 (3.7)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is a map, and that for each i in some indexing set I we are given a subset  $A_i$  of X and a subset  $C_i$  of Y. Then:

$$f\left(\bigcup_{i\in I} A_i\right) = \bigcup_{i\in I} f(A_i), \quad f\left(\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{i\in I} f(A_i)$$
$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{i\in I} C_i\right) = \bigcup_{i\in I} f^{-1}(C_i), \quad f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{i\in I} C_i\right) = \bigcap_{i\in I} f^{-1}(C_i)$$

**Proposition 11 (3.8)** Suppose  $f: X \to Y$  is a map and B, D are subsets of X, Y respectively. Then,

$$f(X)\backslash f(B) \subseteq f(X\backslash B), \quad f^{-1}(Y\backslash D) = X\backslash f^{-1}(D)$$

Proposition 12 (3.9) with the notation of Proposition 3.6,

$$f(A)\backslash f(B) \subseteq f(A\backslash B), \quad f^{-1}(C\backslash D) = f^{-1}(C)\backslash f^{-1}(D)$$

**Proposition 13 (3.13)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is a map,  $B \subseteq Y$  and for some indexing set I there is a family  $\{A_i : i \in I\}$  of subsets of X with  $X = \bigcup_I A_i$ . Then

$$f^{-1}(B) = \bigcup_{I} (f|A_i)^{-1}(B)$$

**Proposition 14 (3.14)** Let X, Y be sets and  $f: X \to Y$  a map. For any subsets  $C \subseteq Y$  we have  $f(f^{-1}(C)) = C \cap f(X)$ . In particular,  $f(f^{-1}(C)) = C$  if f is onto. For any subset  $A \subseteq X$  we have  $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$ 

## 3.1 Inverse functions

**Definition 15 (3.17)** A map  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be invertible if there exists a map  $g: Y \to X$  such that the composition  $g \circ f$  is the identity map of X and the composition  $f \circ g$  is the identity map of Y.

**Definition 16 (3.18)** A map  $f: X \to Y$  is invertible if and only if it is bijective

**Proposition 17 (3.19)** When f is invertible, there is a unique g satisfing the definition.

**Proposition 18 (3.20)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is one-one correspondence of sets X and Y and that  $V \subseteq X$ . Then the inverse image of V under the inverse map  $f^{-1}: Y \to X$  equals the image set f(V)

## 3.2 examples

**Injectiviness**:  $f: X \to Y$  is a injective map if and only if  $f(f^{-1}(C)) = C$  for all  $C \subseteq Y$ 

**Surjectiviness**:  $f: X \to Y$  is a surjective map if and only if  $f^{-1}(f(A)) = A$  for all  $A \subseteq X$ 

**Ex. 3.8:** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a map and let A, B be subsets of X, then  $f(A \setminus B) = f(A) \setminus f(B)$  if and only if  $f(A \setminus B) \cap f(B) = \emptyset$ , i.e. f is injective.

# 4 Real Analysis

In here some brief review of real analysis. For more details see the summary of the real analysis course.

**Definition 19 (4.2)** Given a non-empty subset S of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above, we call u the least upper bound for S if

 $a\ u\ is\ an\ upper\ bound\ for\ S$ 

b  $x \ge u$  for any upper bound x for S

**Proposition 20 (4.4 Axiom of Completeness)** Any non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above has a lest upper bound

**Remark:** Although the completeness property was stated in terms of sets bounded above, it is equivalent to the corresponding property for sets bounded below

**Proposition 21 (4.5)** If a non-empty subset S of  $\mathbb{R}$  is bounded below then it has a greatest lower bound

**Proposition 22 (4.6)** The set  $\mathbb{N}$  of positive integers is not bounded above

Corollary 23 (4.7) Between any two distinc real numbers x and y there is a rational number

Remark: Between any two distinct real numbers there is also an irrational number

Proposition 24 (4.9 Triangle inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Corollary 25 (4.10 Inverse Triangle Inequality)

$$|x-y| \ge ||x| - |y|| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

## 4.1 Real sequences

**Definition 26 (4.12)** The sequence  $(s_n)$  converges to (the real number) l if given (any real number)  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists (an integer)  $N_{\epsilon}$  such that  $|s_n - l| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \ge N$ 

**Remark:** The smallest  $\epsilon$  is, the larger N will need to be

Proposition 27 (4.13) A convergent sequence has a unique limit

**Lemma 28 (4.14)** Suppose there is a positive real number K such that given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists N with  $|s_n - l| < K\epsilon$  for all  $n \ge N$ . Then  $(s_n)$  convegres to l

**Definition 29 (4.15)** A sequence  $(s_n)$  is said to be monotonically increasing (decreasing) if  $s_{n+1} \ge s_n$   $(s_{n+1} \le s_n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . It is monotonic if it has either of these properties

Theorem 30 (4.16) Every bounded monotonic sequence of real numbers converges

**Definition 31 (4.17 Cauchy sequence)** A sequence  $(s_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists N such that if  $m, n \geq N$  then  $|s_m - s_n| < \epsilon$ 

**Definition 32 (4.18 Cauchy's convergence criterion)** A sequence  $(s_n)$  of real numbers converges if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence

**Theorem 33 (4.19 Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem)** Every bounded sequence of real numbers has at least one convegent subsequence

**Proposition 34 (4.20)** Suppose that  $(s_n), (t_n)$  converge to s, t. Then

- $a (s_n + t_n)$  converges to s + t
- $b(s_nt_n)$  converges to st
- c  $1/t_n$  converges to 1/t provided  $t \neq 0$

## 4.2 Limit functions

**Definition 35 (4.21)** We say that f(x) tends to the limit l as x tends to a if given (any real number)  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists (a real number)  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - l| < \epsilon$  for all real numbers x which satisfy  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ 

**Definition 36 (4.23)** The right hand limit  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x)$  is equal to l if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  for all x in  $(a, a + \delta)$ 

Lemma 37 (4.25) The following are equivalent:

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i \lim_{x \to a} f(x) = l
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ii if  $(x_n)$  is any sequence such that  $(x_n)$  converges to a but for all n we have  $x_n \neq a$ , then  $f(x_n)$  converges to l

## 4.3 Continuity

**Definition 38 (4.26)** A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  has the intermidiate value property (IVP) if given any  $a, b, d \in \mathbb{R}$  with a < b and d between f(a) and f(b), there exists at least one c satisfying  $a \le c \le b$  and f(c) = d

**Definition 39 (4.28)** A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at a if  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  exists and is f(a)

**Definition 40 (4.29)** A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at a if given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  for any x such that  $|x - a| < \delta$ 

**Proposition 41 (4.30)** Suppose that  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and that  $f(a) \neq 0$ . Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f(x) \neq 0$  whenever  $|x - a| < \delta$ 

**Proposition 42 (4.31)** Suppose that  $f, g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then, so are: |f|, f+g, fg and if  $g(a) \neq 0$  then 1/g is continuous at a

**Proposition 43 (4.32)** Let  $p : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be the polynomial function, then p is continuous. Let  $r : \mathbb{R} \setminus Z \to \mathbb{R}$  be the rational function  $x \mapsto p(x)/q(x)$  where p, q are polynomial functions and Z is the zero set of q. Then, r is continuous on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus Z$ 

**Proposition 44 (4.33)** Suppose  $f, g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are such that f is continuous at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , and g is continuous at f(a). Then,  $g \circ f$  is continuous at a

**Definition 45 (4.34)** Let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function defined on a subset  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and let  $a \in X$ . We say f is continuous at a if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|x - a| < \delta$  and  $x \in X$ 

**Theorem 46 (4.35)** The intermideo value property holds also for continuous functions  $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$  for any interval  $I \in \mathbb{R}$ 

# 5 Metric Spaces

The motivation of metric spaces comes from studying continuity.

**Definition 47 (5.1)** A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , say  $a = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ , if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  for every  $x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  satisfying

$$\sqrt{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i-a_i)^2\right)}<\delta$$

**Definition 48 (5.2)** A metric space consists of a non-empty set X together with a function  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  such that the following holds:

M1 For all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $d(x, y) \ge 0$ ; and d(x, y) = 0 iff x = y M2 (Symmetry) for all  $x, y \in X$ , d(y, x) = d(x, y) M3 For all  $x, y, z \in X$ ,  $d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ 

The elements of X are called points of the space, and d is called the metric or the distance function

**Definition 49 (5.3)** Suppose that  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are metric spaces and let  $f: X \to Y$  be a map

- We say f is continuous at  $x_0 \in X$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta$
- We say f is continuous if f is continuous at every  $x_0 \in X$

**Definition 50 (Metric subspaces)** Suppose that (X,d) is a metric space and that A is a non-empty subset of X. Let  $d_A : A \times A \to \mathbb{R}$  be the restriction of d to  $A \times A$ , then the metric axiom hold for  $d_A$  since they hold for d and the metric space  $(A, d_A)$  is called a metric subspace of (X,d)

**Definition 51 (Discrete metric)** Let X be any non-empty set and define  $d_0$  by

$$d_0(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \neq y \\ 0, & x = y \end{cases}$$

**Definition 52 (Manhattan/city block metric)** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$  and for  $x = (x_1, x_2)$ ,  $y = (y_1, y_2)$  and define  $d_1$  by

$$d_1(x,y) = |x_1 - y_1| + |x_2 - y_2|$$

**Definition 53 (Euclidean** *n*-space) The Euclidean *n*-space  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2)$  where for  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, ..., y_n)$  then

$$d_2(x,y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

**Definition 54 (penalty)** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$  and for  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$ ,  $y = (y_1, ..., y_n)$  and define  $d_{\infty}$  by

$$d_{\infty}(x,y) = \max_{i=1}^{n} \{|x_i - y_i|\}$$

**Definition 55 (Supremum metric)** Let X be the set of all bounded functions  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ . Given two points f and g in X, let

$$d(f,g) = \sup_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

### 5.1 Continuous functions on metric spaces

**Proposition 56 (5.17)** Suppose  $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous real-valued functions on a metric space (X,d). Then so are: |f|, f+g, fg and also if g is never zero on X, then 1/g is continuous on X

**Proposition 57 (5.18)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$  are maps of metric spaces with metrics  $d_X, d_Y, d_Z$  that f is continuous at  $a \in X$  and g is continuous at f(a). Then  $g \circ f$  is continuous at a

**Proposition 58 (5.19)** Suppose that  $f: X \to X'$ ,  $g: Y \to Y'$  are maps of metric spaces which are continuous at  $a \in X$ ,  $b \in Y$  respectively. Then the map  $f \times g: X \times Y \to X' \times Y'$  given by  $(f \times g)(x,y) = (f(x),g(y))$  for all  $(x,y) \in X \times Y$ , is continuous at (a,b)

**Proposition 59 (5.20)** The projections  $p_X: X \times Y \to X$  and  $p_Y: X \times Y \to Y$  of a metric product onto its factors, defiend by  $p_X(x,y) = x$  and  $p_Y(x,y) = y$  are continuous

**Definition 60 (5.21)** The diagonal map  $\Delta: X \to X \times X$  of any set X is the map defined by  $\Delta(x) = (x, x)$ 

Proposition 61 (5.22) The diagonal map of any metric space is continuous

## 5.2 Bounded sets in metric spaces

**Definition 62 (5.23)** A subset S of a metric space (X, d) is bounded if there exist  $x_0 \in X$  and  $K \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $d(x, x_0) \leq K$  for all  $x \in S$ 

Note that  $x_0$  can not belong to the set S

**Definition 63 (5.24)** If S is a non-empty bounded subset of a metric space with metric d, then the diameter of S is  $\sup\{d(x,y): x,y \in S\}$ . The diameter of the empty set is 0

**Definition 64 (5.25)** If  $f: S \to X$  is a map from a set S to a metric space X, then we say f is bounded if the subset f(S) of X is bounded

**Proposition 65 (5.26)** The union of any finite number of bounded subsets of a metric space is bounded

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{N < \infty} S_i \subseteq X; \quad S_i \text{ bounded } \Rightarrow S \text{ bounded}$$

### 5.3 Open balls in metric spaces

**Definition 66 (5.27)** Let (X,d) be a metric space,  $x_0 \in X$ , and r > 0 a real number. The open ball X of radius r centred on  $x_0$  is the set

$$B_r(x_0) = \{ x \in X : d(x, x_0) < r \}$$

if we are considering more than one metric on X then we write  $B_r^d(x_0)$ 

**Definition 67 (Reformulation of bounded)** Let the metric space  $(X, d_X)$ , where  $S \subseteq X$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R} > 0$ ., then the subset S of the metric space X is bounded if and only if  $S \subseteq B_r^{d_X}(x_0)$  for some  $x_0 \in X$ .

$$S \ bounded \Leftrightarrow \exists r > 0, \exists x_0 \in X \mid S \subseteq B_r^{d_X}(x_0)$$

**Proposition 68 (5.30)** With notation as in definition 5.3, f is continuous at  $x_0$  iff given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f(B_{\delta}^{d_X}(x_0)) \subseteq B_{\epsilon}^{d_Y}(f(x_0))$ 

**Proposition 69 (5.31)** Given an open ball  $B_r(x)$  in a metric space (X, d) and a point  $y \in B_r(x)$ , there exits  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon}(y) \subseteq B_r(x)$ 

## 5.4 Open sets in metric space

**Definition 70 (5.32)** Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $U \subseteq X$ . We say that U is open in X if for every  $x \in U$  there exists  $\epsilon_x > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon_x}(x) \subseteq U$ 

**Proposition 71 (5.37)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is a map of metric spaces. Then f is continuous iff  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in X whenever U is open in Y

**Proposition 72 (5.39)** If  $U_1, U_2, ..., U_m$  are open in a metric space X then is  $\bigcap_{i=1}^m U_i$ 

**Proposition 73 (5.41)** The union of any collection of sets open in a metric space X is open in X

## 5.5 Examples

Bound subset of a metric space: Suppose that (X, d) is a metric space,  $A \subset X$ , then A is bounded if and only if there is some constant  $\Delta$  such that  $d(a, a') \leq \Delta$  for all  $a, a' \in A$ .

**Diameters:** Suppose that  $A \subseteq B$  where B is bounded subset of a metric space. Then A is bounded and  $diam\ A \leq diam\ B$ 

Union of open balls: A subset of a metric space is open if and only if is a union of open balls.

# 6 More concepts in metric spaces

**Definition 74 (6.1)** A subset V of a metric space X is closed in X if  $X \setminus V$  is open in X

**Proposition 75 (6.3)** If  $V_1, ..., V_m$  are closed subsets of a metric space X, then so is  $\bigcup_{i=1}^m V_i$ 

**Proposition 76 (6.4)** The intersection of any family of sets each of which is closed in a metric space X is also closed in X

**Proposition 77 (6.5)** For any metric space X, the empty set  $\emptyset$  and the whole set X are closed in X

**Proposition 78 (6.6)** Let X, Y be metric spaces and let  $f: X \to Y$  be a map. Then f is continuous iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is closed in X whenever V is closed in Y

#### 6.1 Closure

**Definition 79 (6.7)** Suppose that A is a subset of a metric space X, and  $x \in X$ . we say that x is a point of closure of A in X if given  $\epsilon > 0$  we have  $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . The closure of A in X is the set of all points of closure of A in X

When it is agreed which metric space X we are taking closure in, we denote the closure of A in X by  $\overline{A}$ 

**Definition 80 (6.9)** A subset A of a metric space X is said to be dense in X if  $\overline{A} = X$ 

**Proposition 81 (6.11)** Let A, B be subsets of a metric space X. Then

- 1.  $A \subseteq \overline{A}$
- 2.  $A \subseteq B$  implies that  $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$
- 3. A is closed in X if and only if  $\overline{A} = A$
- 4.  $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$
- 5.  $\overline{A}$  is closed in X
- 6.  $\overline{A}$  is the smallest closed subset of X containing A

**Proposition 82 (6.12)** A map  $f: X \to Y$  of a metric spaces is continuous if and only if  $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$  for every  $A \subseteq X$ 

**Proposition 83 (6.13)** Let  $A_1,...,A_m$  be subsets of a metric space X. Then

$$\overline{\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} A_i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m} \overline{A}_i$$

**Proposition 84 (6.14)** For each i in some indexing set I, let  $A_i$  be a subset of the metric space X. Then

$$\overline{\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i} \subseteq \bigcap_{i\in I} \overline{A}_i$$

## 6.2 Limit points

**Definition 85 (6.15)** A point x in a metric space X is said to be a limit point of a subset A in X if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a point in  $B_{\epsilon}(x) \cap A$  other than x itself, i.e.  $(B_{\epsilon}(x) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ 

**Proposition 86 (6.17)** A subset A of a metric space X is closed in X iff it contains all its limit points in X

**Proposition 87 (6.18)** Let A be any subset of a metric space X. Then,  $\overline{A}$  is the union of A with all its limits points in X

## 6.3 Interior

**Definition 88 (6.19)** The interior Int(A) of a subset A in a metric space X is the set of points  $a \in A$  such that  $B_{\epsilon}(a) \subseteq A$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ 

**Proposition 89 (6.21)** Let A, B be subsets of a metric space X. Then

- 1.  $Int(A) \subseteq A$
- 2.  $A \subseteq B$  implies that  $Int(A) \subseteq Int(B)$
- 3. A is open in X iff Int(A) = A
- 4. Int(Int(A)) = Int(A)
- 5. Int(A) is open in X
- 6. Int(A) is the largest open subset of X contained in A

## 6.4 Boundary

**Definition 90 (6.22)** The boundary  $\partial A$  of a subset A in a metric space X is the set  $\overline{A} \setminus \text{Int}(A)$ 

**Proposition 91 (6.24)** Given a subset A of a metric space X, a point  $x \in X$  is in  $\partial A$  iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  both  $A \cap B_{\epsilon}(x)$  and  $(X \setminus A) \cap B_{\epsilon}(x)$  are non-empty

## 6.5 Convergence in metric space

**Definition 92 (6.25)** A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space X converges to a point  $x \in X$  if given (any real number)  $(\epsilon > 0$ , there exists (an integer) N such that  $x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(x)$  whenever  $n \geq N$ 

**Proposition 93 (6.26)** Suppose that a sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space (X,d) converges to x and also to y in X. Then x = y

**Definition 94 (6.27)** A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space (X,d) is called a Cauchy sequence if for  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$  whenever  $m, x \geq N$ 

Proposition 95 (6.28) Ay convergent sequence in a metric space is a Cauchy sequence

**Proposition 96 (6.29)** Suppose Y is a subset of a metric space X and that  $(y_n)$  is a sequence in Y which converges to a point  $a \in X$ . Then  $a \in \overline{Y}$ 

**Corollary 97 (6.30)** If Y is a closed subset of a metric space X and  $(y_n)$  is a sequence of points in Y which converges in X to a point a then  $a \in Y$ 

## 6.6 Examples

**Ex. 6.9:** If A is a non-empty bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  then sup A and  $\inf A$  are in  $\overline{A}$ 

**Ex. 6.10:** If A is a bounded subset of a metric space then  $\overline{A}$  is bounded and  $\operatorname{diam} \overline{A} = \operatorname{diam} A$  **Ex. 6.23** For a subset of a metric space X, the following holds

- $\operatorname{Int}(A) = A \backslash \partial A = \overline{A} \backslash \partial A$
- $\overline{X \setminus A} = X \setminus \operatorname{Int}(A)$
- $\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \backslash A} = \partial(X \backslash A)$
- $\partial A$  is closed in X

# 7 Topological spaces

**Definition 98** A topological space  $T = (X, \mathcal{T})$  consists of a non-empty set X together with a fix family  $\mathcal{T}$  of subsets of X satisfying

- $T1 \ X, \emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$
- T2 the intersection of any two sets in T is in T
- T3 the union of any collection of sets in  $\mathcal{T}$  is in  $\mathcal{T}$

**Remark:** it is important to remember that  $\mathcal{T}$  is in general only a subfamily of the family of all subsets of X

**Proposition 99 (7.2)** For a subset U of a topological space X to be open in X it is necessary and sufficient that for every  $x \in U$  there is an open subset  $U_x$  of X such that  $x \in U_x \subseteq U$ 

**Definition 100 (7.6)** Given two topologies  $\mathcal{T}_1$  and  $\mathcal{T}_2$  on the same set, we say that  $\mathcal{T}_1$  is coarser than  $\mathcal{T}_2$  if  $\mathcal{T}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{T}_2$ .

The opposite of coarser is finer, we say  $\mathcal{T}_2$  is finer than  $\mathcal{T}_1$  iff  $\mathcal{T}_1$  is coarser than  $\mathcal{T}_2$ 

## 7.1 Examples

**Remark:** Given a metric space (X, d) we may construct a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T}_d)$  by defining  $\mathcal{T}_d$  to consist of precisely those subsets of X which are d-open. This topological space that arises from a metric space is called metrizable.

**Remark:** The metrics  $d_1, d_2, d_{\infty}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  all give rise to the same open sets and hence to the same topology (The Euclidean topology)

**Indiscrete topology:** Let X be any non-empty set. The indiscrete topology on X is the family  $\{\emptyset, X\}$ .

**Co-finite topology:** Let X be any non-empty set. The co-finite topology on X consists of the empty set together with every subset U of X such that  $X \setminus U$  is finite.

**Intersection and Union of topologies:** The intersection of topologies on the same set is also a topology on the set. The union of topologies, instead, may or may not be a topology.

# 8 Continuity in topological spaces; bases

**Definition 101 (8.1)** We say that a map  $f: X \to Y$  of topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is continuous if  $U \in \mathcal{T}_Y \Rightarrow f^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{T}_X$  if necessary clarity we say that f is  $(\mathcal{T}_X, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ -continuous

**Definition 102 (8.2)** With the notation of definition 8.1, we say that f is continuous at a point  $x \in X$  if, given any  $U' \in \mathcal{T}_Y$  such that  $f(x) \in U'$ , there is some  $U \in \mathcal{T}_X$  such that  $x \in U$  and  $f(U) \subseteq U'$ 

**Proposition 103 (8.3)** If  $(X, d_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$  are metric spaces whose underlying topological spaces are  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$ 

 $T_Y$ ), then a map  $f: X \to Y$  is  $(d_X, d_Y)$ -continuous iff is  $(\mathcal{T}_X, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ -continuous

**Definition 104 (8.4)** Given spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$ ,  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ ,  $(Z, \mathcal{T}_Z)$  and continuous maps  $f: X \to Y$ ,  $g: Y \to Z$ , the composition of  $g \circ f: X \to Z$  is continuous (more precisely, if f is  $(\mathcal{T}_X, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  continuous and g is  $(\mathcal{T}_Y, \mathcal{T}_Z)$  continuous then  $g \circ f$  is  $(\mathcal{T}_X, \mathcal{T}_Z)$  continuous)

**Proposition 105 (8.6)** 1. The identity map of any topological space is continuous;

- 2. If  $\mathcal{T}_X$  is the discrete topology than any map  $f: X \to Y$  to another topological space  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is continuous;
- 3. If  $\mathcal{T}_Y$  is the indiscrete topology than ay map  $f: X \to Y$  from another topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  is continuous

## 8.1 Homeomorphisms

**Definition 106 (8.7)** A homeomorphism between topological spaces X and Y is a bijective map  $f: X \to Y$  such that f and its inverse function  $f^{-1}$  are both continuous

**Remark:** If a homeomorphism exists between spaces we say that they are homeomorphic or just equivalent

### 8.2 Bases

**Definition 107 (8.9)** Given a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ , a basis for  $\mathcal{T}$  is a subfamily  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$  such that every set in  $\mathcal{T}$  is a union of sets from  $\mathcal{B}$ 

**Proposition 108 (8.12)** To check that a map  $f: X \to Y$  of topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is continuous, it is enough to check that for each open set B in some basis for  $\mathcal{T}_Y$ , the inverse image  $f^{-1}(B)$  is open in X

**Remark:** A topological space which admits a countable basis for open sets is called second countable.

# 9 Some concepts in topological spaces

**Definition 109 (9.1)** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. A subset V of X is said to be closed in X if  $(X \setminus V)$  is open in X

**Proposition 110 (9.4)** Let X be a topological space. Then

- 1.  $\emptyset$ , X are closed in X
- 2. if  $V_1, V_2$  are closed in X then  $V_1 \cup V_2$  is closed in X
- 3. if  $V_i$  is closed in X for all  $i \in I$  then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} V_i$  is closed in X

**Proposition 111 (9.5)** A map  $f: X \to Y$  of topological spaces is continuous iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is closed in X whenever V is closed in Y

**Definition 112 (9.6)** A point a is a point of closure of a subset A in a topological space X if  $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$  for any open U of X with  $a \in U$ . The closure of  $\overline{A}$  of A in X is the set of points of closure of A in X

**Definition 113 (9.9)** A subset A of a topological space X is said to be dense in X if  $\overline{A} = X$ 

**Proposition 114 (9.10)** Let A, B be subsets of a topological space X. Then

- 1.  $A \subseteq \overline{A}$
- 2.  $A \subseteq B$  implies that  $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$
- 3. A is closed in X if and only if  $\overline{A} = A$
- 4.  $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$
- 5.  $\overline{A}$  is closed in X
- 6.  $\overline{A}$  is the smallest closed subset of X containing A

**Proposition 115 (9.11)** A map  $f: X \to Y$  of a topological spaces is continuous if and only if  $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$  for every  $A \subseteq X$ 

**Proposition 116 (9.12)** Let  $A_1, ..., A_m$  be subsets of a topological space X. Then

$$\overline{\bigcup_{i=1}^m A_i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^m \overline{A}_i$$

**Proposition 117 (9.13)** For each i in some indexing set I, let  $A_i$  be a subset of the topological space X. Then

$$\overline{\bigcap_{i\in I} A_i} \subseteq \bigcap_{i\in I} \overline{A}_i$$

**Definition 118 (9.14)** A point a is an interior point of a subset A of a topological space X if there exists some set U which is open in X and with  $a \in U \subseteq A$ . The set of all interior points of A is called interior of A.

**Proposition 119 (9.16)** We have  $\overline{X \setminus A} = X \setminus \text{Int}(A)$  for any subset A of a space X

**Proposition 120 (9.17)** Let A, B be subsets of a topological space X. Then

- 1.  $Int(A) \subseteq A$
- 2.  $A \subseteq B$  implies that  $Int(A) \subseteq Int(B)$
- 3. A is open in X iff Int(A) = A
- 4. Int(Int(A)) = Int(A)
- 5. Int(A) is open in X
- 6. Int(A) is the largest open subset of X contained in A

**Definition 121 (9.18)** The boundary  $\partial A$  of a subset A of a space X is the set  $\overline{A} \setminus \text{Int}(A)$ 

**Proposition 122 (9.20)** The boundary of a subset A in a space X is  $\overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$ 

Corollary 123 (9.21) We have  $\partial A = \partial(X \setminus A)$  for any subset A of a space X

**Definition 124 (9.22)** A neighbourgh of a point x in a space X is a subset N of X which contains an open subset of X containing x

**Remarks:** Suppose A is a subset of a space X, then

- A is closed in X if and only if  $\partial A \subseteq A$
- $\partial A = \emptyset$  if and only if A is open and closed in X

# 10 Subspaces and product spaces

## 10.1 Subspaces

**Definition 125 (10.3)** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let A be a non-empty subset of X. The subspace topology on A is  $\mathcal{T}_A = \{A \cap U : U \in \mathcal{T}\}$ 

**Proposition 126 (10.4)** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and let A be a non-empty subset of X with the subspace topology  $\mathcal{T}_A$ . Then the inclusion map  $i: A \to X$  defined by i(a) = a for all  $a \in A$ , is  $(\mathcal{T}_A, \mathcal{T})$  continuous

**Corollary 127 (10.5)** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a continuous map of topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T})$ ,  $(Y, \mathcal{T}')$  and let A be a non-empty subset of X with the subspace topology  $\mathcal{T}_A$ . Then the restriction  $f|_A: A \to Y$  is  $(\mathcal{T}_A, \mathcal{T}')$  continuous

**Proposition 128 (10.6)** Let X be a topological space, let A be a subspace of X and let  $i: A \to X$  be the inclusion map. Suppose that Z is a topological space and that  $g: Z \to A$  is a map. Then g is continuous iff  $i \circ g: Z \to X$  is continuous

**Proposition 129 (10.8)** With notation as in proposition 10.6, the subspace topology  $\mathcal{T}_A$  on A is the only topology satisfying proposition 10.6 for all possible maps g

### 10.2 Products

**Proposition 130 (10.9)** Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X), (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are topological spaces, and let  $\mathcal{T}_{X \times Y}$  be the family of all unions of sets of the form  $U \times V$  where  $U \in \mathcal{T}_X$  and  $V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ . Then  $\mathcal{T}_{X \times Y}$  is a topology for  $X \times Y$ , called product topology

**Proposition 131 (10.10)** The two projection maps  $p_X : X \times Y \to X$  and  $p_Y : X \times Y \to Y$  are continuous, where  $p_X(x,y) = x$  and  $p_Y(x,y) = y$  for all  $(x,y) \in X \times Y$ 

**Proposition 132 (10.11)** Any map  $f: Z \to X \times Y$  from a topological space Z into the topological product  $X \times Y$  is continuous if and only if both  $p_X \circ f: Z \to X$  and  $p_Y \circ f: Z \to Y$  are continuous

**Proposition 133 (10.12)** If  $f: X \to X'$  and  $g: Y \to Y'$  are continuous, then so if  $f \times g: X \times Y \to X' \times Y'$  defined by  $(f \times g)(x,y) = (f(x),g(x))$ 

**Proposition 134 (10.13)** For any topological space X let  $\Delta : X \to X \times X$  be the diagonal map defined by  $\Delta(x) = (x, x)$ . Then  $\Delta$  is continuous

**Proposition 135 (10.14)** Let X and Y be topological spaces, and let  $y_0 \in Y$ . Define  $i_{y_0} : X \to X \times Y$  by  $i_{y_0}(x) = (x, y_0)$ . Then  $i_{y_0}$  is continuous

**Proposition 136 (10.15)** If  $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous real-valued functions on a topological space X then so are: |f|, f+g, fg and also if g is never zero on X then 1/g is also continuous

**Proposition 137 (10.20)**  $W \subseteq X \times Y$  is open in  $X \times Y$  if and only if for any  $(x, y) \in W$  there exists subsets U, V of X, Y respectively which are open in X, Y and with  $(x, y) \in U \times V \subseteq W$ 

## 11 The Hausdorff condition

**Definition 138 (11.1)** A sequence of points  $(x_n)$  in a topological space X converges to a point  $x \in X$  if given any open set  $U \ni X$  there exists (an integer) N such that  $x_n \in U$  whenever  $n \ge N$ 

**Definition 139 (11.3)** A topological space X satisfies the Hausdorff condition if for any two distinct points  $x, y \in X$  there exist disjoint open set U, V of X such that  $x \in U$ ,  $y \in V$ 

**Remark:** We refer to a topological space which satisfies the Hausdorff condition as a Hausdorff space

**Remark:** Let  $x_1, ..., x_n$  be distinct points in a Hausdorff space X. Then there exists pairwise disjoint open subsets  $U_1, ..., U_n$  of X such that  $x_i \in U_i$  for every  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ 

**Proposition 140 (11.4)** In a Hausdorff space, any given convergent sequence has a unique limit

**Proposition 141 (11.5)** Any metrizable space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is Hausdorff

**Proposition 142 (11.7)** a Any subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.

- b The topological product  $X \times Y$  of spaces X and Y is Hausdorff if and only if both X and Y are Hausdorff.
- if  $f: X \to Y$  is an injective continuous map of topological spaces and Y is Hausdorff then so is X
- If spaces X and Y are homeomorphic then X is Hausdorff if and only if Y is Hausdorff.

**Definition 143 (11.8)** A topological space is regular (normal) if given any closed subset  $V \subset X$  and point  $x \in X \setminus V$  there exist disjoint open subsets U, U' of X such that  $V \subset U$  and  $x \in U'$ 

# 12 Connected spaces

**Definition 144 (12.1)** A topological space X is connected if there does not exist a continuous map from X onto a two-point discrete space.

**Remark:** X is connected if any continuous map from X to a two-point discrete space is constant

**Definition 145 (12.2)** A partition  $\{A, B\}$  of a topological space X is a pair of non-empty subsets A, B of X such that  $X = A \cup B$ ,  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , and both A, B are open in X

**Remark:** A and B are also closed in X, and  $(A \cap \overline{B}) \cup (\overline{A} \cap B) = \emptyset$ 

**Proposition 146 (12.3)** A topological space is connected if and only if admits no partitions

**Corollary 147 (12.4)** A topological space X is connected if and only if the only subsets of X which are both open and closed in X are  $X,\emptyset$ 

**Remark:** Any discrete space with at least two points is disconnected.

Remark: Any indiscrete space is connected

**Definition 148 (12.6)** A non-empty subset A of a topological space X is connected if A with the subspace topology is connected. Conventionally we regard the empty set to be connected.

**Proposition 149 (12.7)** A non-empty subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is an interval if and only if it satisfies the following property: if  $x, y \in S$  and  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  are such that x < z < y then  $z \in S$ 

**Theorem 150 (12.8)** Any connected subspace S of  $\mathbb{R}$  is an interval

**Theorem 151 (12.10)** Any interval I in  $\mathbb{R}$  is connected

**Proposition 152 (12.11)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map of topological spaces and that X is connected. Then f(X) is connected

Corollary 153 (12.12) Connectedness is a topological property

**Corollary 154 (12.14)** Suppose  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and X is connected. Then f(X) is an interval.

Corollary 155 (12.15 Intermediate value theorem) If  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous then it has the intermediate value property

**Proposition 156 (12.16)** Suppose  $\{A_i : i \in I\}$  is an indexed family of connected subsets of a topological space X with  $A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset$  for each pair  $i, j \in I$ . Then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$  is connected

**Corollary 157 (12.17)** Suppose that  $\{C_i : i \in I\}$  and B are connected subsets of a space X such that for every  $i \in I$  we have  $C_i \cap B \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $B \cup \bigcup_{i \in I} C_i$  is connected

**Theorem 158 (12.18)** The topological product  $X \times Y$  of spaces X, Y is connected if and only if X, Y are connected.

**Proposition 159 (12.19)** Suppose that A is a connected subset of a space X and that  $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$ . Then B is connected

### 12.1 Path-connectedness

**Definition 160 (12.20)** For points x, y in a topological space X, a path in X from x to y is a continuous map  $f: [0,1] \to X$  such that f(0) = x and f(1) = y. We say that such a path joins x and y

**Definition 161 (12.21)** A topological space X is path-connected if any two points of X can be joined by a path in X

Proposition 162 (12.23) Any path-connected space X is connected

**Proposition 163 (12.25)** A connected open subset U of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is path-connected

# 13 Compact spaces

**Proposition 164 (13.1)** A continuous function  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded on [a,b]

**Definition 165 (13.3)** Suppose X is a set and  $A \subseteq X$ . A family  $\{U_i : i \in I\}$  of subsets of X is called a cover for A if  $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ 

**Definition 166 (13.4)** A subcover of a cover  $\{U_i : i \in I\}$  for A is a subfamily  $\{U_j : j \in J\}$  for some subset  $J \subseteq I$  such that  $\{U_j : j \in J\}$  is still a cover for A. We call it a finite subcover if J is finite

**Definition 167 (13.5)** If  $\mathcal{U} = \{U_i : i \in I\}$  is a cover for a subset A of a topological space X and if each  $U_i$  is open in X then  $\mathcal{U}$  is called an open cover for A

**Definition 168 (13.6)** A subset A of a topological space X is compact if every open cover for A has a finite subcover

**Remark:** every open interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  with the usual topology is not compact.

**Remark:** Any finite subset of a space X is compact

**Remark:** Any space with the co-finite topology is compact

## 13.1 Compactness of closed bounded intervals

**Theorem 169 (13.9)** Any closed bounded interval [a,b] in  $\mathbb{R}$  is compact

### 13.2 Properties of compact spaces

**Proposition 170 (13.10)** Any compact subset C of a metric space (X,d) is bounded

Corollary 171 (13.11) Any compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is bounded

**Proposition 172 (13.12)** Let C be a compact subset of a Hausdorff space X. Then C is closed in X

**Remark:** If C, C' are compact subsets of a Hausdorff space X then  $C \cap C'$  is compact

Corollary 173 (13.13) Any compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

**Definition 174 (13.14)** A subset A of a topological space X is said to be relatively compact in X if  $\overline{A}$  is compact, where the closure is taken in X

### 13.3 Continuous maps on compact spaces

**Proposition 175 (13.15)** If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map of topological spaces and X is compact then f(X) is compact

Corollary 176 (13.16) Compactness is a topological property

Corollary 177 (13.17) Any continuous map from a compact space to a metric space is bounded

**Corollary 178 (13.18)** If  $f: C \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and C is compact then f attains its bound on C. This means there is at least one  $c_0 \in C$  such that  $f(c_0) = \inf f(C)$  and at least one  $c_1 \in C$  such that  $f(c_1) = \sup f(C)$ 

Corollary 179 (13.19) A continuous real-valued function on [a, b] attains its bounds

## 13.4 Compactness of subspaces and products

**Proposition 180 (13.20)** Any closed subset C of a compact space X is compact

**Theorem 181 (13.21)** A topological product  $X \times Y$  of spaces X, Y is compact if and only if both X and Y are compact.

Theorem 182 (13.22 Heine-Borel theorem) Any closed bounded subset C of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is compact

Remark: A subset of a metric space may be bounded and closed without being compact

## 13.5 Compactness and uniform continuity

**Definition 183 (13.23)** A map  $f: X \to Y$  of a metric spaces X, Y with metrics  $d_X, d_Y$  is said to be uniformly continuous on X if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_Y(f(x), f(a)) < \epsilon$  for any  $x, a \in X$  satisfying  $d_X(x, a) < \delta$ 

**Remark:** Notice that this is a stronger than ordinary continuity in that  $\delta$  can depend on  $\epsilon$  but not on a (i.e uniformly).

Ordinary continuity of f is a local property in that it says something about the behaviour of f in some neighbourhood of each point in X.

Uniform continuity is a global property since it says something about the behaviour of f over the whole space X.

**Proposition 184 (13.24)** If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map of metric spaces and X is compact then f is uniformly continuous on X

## 13.6 An inverse function theorem

**Proposition 185 (13.26)** Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous one-one correspondence, where X is a compact space and Y is a Hausdorff space. Then f is a homeomorphism.

Corollary 186 (13.27) if  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous injective map from a comapct space X into a Hausdorff space Y, then f determines a homeomorphism of X onto f(X)

## 14 Sequential compactness

## 14.1 Sequential compactness for real numbers

**Definition 187 (14.2)** A subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is called sequentially compact if every sequence in S has at least one subsequence converging to a point in S

**Proposition 188 (14.3)** Any closed bounded subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is sequentially compact

**Theorem 189 (14.5)** A subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is sequentially compact if and only if it is bounded and closed in  $\mathbb{R}$ 

**Theorem 190 (14.6)** A subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  is compact if and only if it is sequentially compact

## 14.2 Sequential compactness for metric spaces

**Definition 191 (14.7)** A metric space X is sequentially compact if every sequence in X has at least one subsequence converging to a point of X

**Definition 192 (14.8)** A non-empty subset A of a metric space (X, d) is sequentially compact if, with the subspace metric  $d_A$ , it satisfies the definition. Conventionally the empty set is considered to be sequentially compact

Remark: Any finite metric space is sequentially compact

**Theorem 193 (14.10)** A metric space is compact if and only if it is sequentially compact

**Proposition 194 (14.11)** Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in a metric space X and let  $x \in X$ . Suppose that for each  $\epsilon > 0$  the neighbourhood  $B_{\epsilon}(x)$  contains  $x_n$  for infinitely many values of n. Then  $(x_n)$  has a subsequence converging to x

**Remark:** Notice that the condition says that  $B_{\epsilon}(x)$  contains  $x_n$  for infinitely many values of n, not that it contains ifinitely many different points in the set  $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

Corollary 195 (14.13) Suppose that a sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space X has no convergent subsequences. Then for each  $x \in X$  there exists  $\epsilon_x > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon_x}(x)$  contains  $x_n$  for only finitely many values of n

**Theorem 196 (14.15)** Any compact subset X of a metric space Y is sequentially compact

**Definition 197 (14.16)** Let  $\mathcal{U}$  be any family of subsets of a metric space X covering a subset  $A \subseteq X$ . A Lebsegue number for  $\mathcal{U}$  is a real number  $\epsilon > 0$  such that for any  $a \in A$  the ball  $B_{\epsilon}(a)$  is contained in some single set from  $\mathcal{U}$ .

**Proposition 198 (14.18)** Any open cover  $\mathcal{U}$  of a sequentially compact metric space X has a Lebesque number

**Definition 199 (14.19)** Given a real number  $\epsilon > 0$  and a metric space X, a subset  $N \subseteq X$  is called an  $\epsilon$ -net for X if the family  $\{B_{\epsilon}(x) : x \in \mathbb{N}\}$  covers X

**Proposition 200 (14.21)** Let (X,d) be a sequentially compact metric space, and let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there exists a finite  $\epsilon$ -net for X

**Theorem 201 (14.22)** Any sequentially compact metric space X is compact

Remark: Any sequentially compact metric space is bounded

Remark: A closed subset of a sequentially compact metric space is sequentially compact

**Remark:** A sequentially compact subspace of a metric space X is closed in X

**Remark:** The product of two sequentially compact metric spaces is sequentially compact.

# 15 Uniform convergence

**Definition 202 (16.1)** The sequence  $(f_n)$  converges to f pointwise on D if for each  $x \in D$  the real number sequence  $(f_n(x))$  converges to f(x)

**Definition 203 (16.3)** A sequence  $(f_n)$  of real valued functions defined on a domain  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  converges to a function f uniformly on D if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$  and all  $x \in D$ 

**Proposition 204 (16.4)** Let  $f, f_n : D \to \mathbb{R}$  be real valued functions on D. Then  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on D if  $M_n = \sup_{x \in D} |f_n(x) - f(x)|$  exists for all sufficiently large n and  $M_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ 

### 15.1 Cauchy's criterion

**Definition 205 (16.8)** A sequence  $(f_n)$  of real valued functions defined on a domain  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is said to be uniformly Cauchy on D if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an integer N such that  $|f_m(x) - f_n(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $m, n \geq N$  and all  $x \in D$ 

**Theorem 206 (16.9 Cauchy's criterion for uniform convergence)** Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of real valued functions defined on  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly on D if and only if it is uniformly Cauchy on D

**Remark:** The Cauchy's criterion for uniform convergence has the advange that the limit function need not to be known in advance in order to prove uniform convergence

### 15.2 Uniform limits of sequences

**Theorem 207 (16.10)** if  $f_n:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  is continuous at  $c\in(a,b)$  for every  $n\in\mathbb{N}$  and if  $f_n\to f$  uniformly on (a,b) then f is continuous at c

**Corollary 208 (16.11)** Suppose for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the function  $f_n$ ;  $[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, and that  $(f_n)$  converges to a function f uniformly on [a,b]. Then f is continuous on [a,b]

Corollary 209 (16.12) Suppose that the pointwise limit of a sequence  $(f_n)$  of continuous functions on [a,b] is not continuous on [a,b]. Then the convergence is not uniform

# 16 Complete metric space

**Definition 210 (17.2)** A metric space X is complete if every Cauchy sequence in X converges (to a point of X)

**Remark:**  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete.  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete.  $(0,1) \subset \mathbb{R}$  is not complete

**Proposition 211 (17.4)** suppose that X, Y are metric spaces and there exists a bijective map  $f: X \to Y$  such that both f and  $f^{-1}$  are uniformly continuous. Then X is complete if and only if Y is complete

**Proposition 212 (17.6)** A complete subspace Y of a metric space X is closed in X

**Proposition 213 (17.7)** A closed subspace Y of a complete metric space X is complete

**Proposition 214 (17.9)** Any compact metric space X is complete

**Lemma 215 (17.10)** If a Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space X has a subsequence converging to  $x \in X$  then  $(x_n)$  converges to x

**Proposition 216 (17.11)** The product of two metric spaces  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  is complete if and only if  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are complete

Corollary 217 (17.12) The product of a finite number of metric spaces is complete if and only if all the factors are complete

Corollary 218 (17.13)  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete for each  $n \in N$ 

### 16.1 Banach's fixed point theorem

**Definition 219 (17.18)** Given any sel-map  $f: S \to S$  of a set S, a fixed point of f is a point  $p \in S$  such that f(p) = p

**Definition 220 (17.19)** For given positive real numbers  $\alpha$  and K, a function  $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfies a Lipschitz condition of order  $\alpha$  on D, with constant K if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le K|x - y|^{\alpha} \quad \forall x, y \in D$$

**Proposition 221 (17.20)** a if f satisfies a Lipschitz condition of order  $\alpha > 0$  on D then f is uniformly continuous on D

b if f satisfies a Lipschitz condition of order  $\alpha > 1$  on [a,b] then f is constant on [a,b]

c if  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on [a,b] and differentiable on (a,b) with  $|f'(x)| \le K$  for all  $x \in (a,b)$  then f satisfies a Lipschitz condition of order 1 with constant K on [a,b]

Theorem 222 (17.22 special case of Banach's fixed point theorem) if  $f:[a,b] \to [a,b]$  satisfies a Lipschitz condition of order 1 with constant K < 1 on [a,b] then f has a unique fixed point p in [a,b]. Moreover, if  $x_1$  is any point in [a,b] and  $x_n = f(x_{n-1})$  for n > 1, then  $(x_n)$  converges to p. The same result holds if [a,b] is replaced throughout by  $(-\infty,b]$  or  $[a,\infty)$ 

## 16.1.1 Contraction mappings

**Definition 223 (17.24)** Let (X,d) be a metric space. A map  $f: X \to X$  is a contraction if for some constant K < 1 we have  $d(f(x), f(y)) \le Kd(x, y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ 

Lemma 224 (17.25) Any contraction of a metric space X is uniformly continuous

**Theorem 225 (17.26 Banach's fixed point theorem)** if  $f: X \to X$  is a contraction of a complete metric space X then f has a unique fixed point p in X

## 16.1.2 Applications of Banach's fixed point theorem

**Theorem 226 (17.29)** Suppose  $K:[a,b]\times[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  and  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  are continuous. Then the Volterra equation

$$\phi(x) = f(x) + \int_{a}^{x} K(x, y)\phi(y) \, dy$$

has a unique continuous solution  $\phi$  on [a, b]

**Theorem 227 (17.31)** Suppose that  $f: D = [x_0 - a, x_0 + a] \times [y_0 - b, y_0 + b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and satisfies the Lipschitz condition

$$|f(x,y_1)-f(x,y_2)| \le K|y_1-y_2| \quad \forall (x,y_1), (x,y_2) \in D, \text{ for some } K>0$$

Let M be an upper bound for |f(x,y)| on D, and let  $c = min\{a,b/M\}$ . Then on  $I = [x_0 - c, x_0 + c]$  there exists a unique solution y of the differential equation  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x,y)$  such that  $y(x_0) = y_0$