Metric Space:

Open sets: Let (X,d) be a metric space . A subset G of X is said to be d-open

iff to each $x \in G$ there exist $r > o$ such that $S(x,r) \subset G$.

Def^n: Let (X,d) be a metric space, and let $x_0 \in X$ if $r \in R^+$ then the set

$\{x \in X; d(x,x_0) < r\}$ is called an open sphere (or open ball).the point x_0 is

called the center and r the radius of the sphere. and we denoted by

$S(x_0,r)$ or by $B(x_0,r)$: i.e. $S(x_0,r) = \{x_0 \in X; d(x,x_0) < r\}$

Closed set is define and denoted by $S[x_0,r] = \{x_0 \in X; d(x,x_0) \leq r\}$.

Ex: Let $x \in R$ then a subset N of R is U nbd of x iff there exist a u-open set G

such that $x \in G \subset N$, but G is U-open and $x \in G$ implies that there exist an

$\delta > 0$ such that $(x-\delta, x+\delta) \subset G$. Thus N is a U-nbd of x if N contains an

open interval $(x-\delta, x+\delta)$ for some $\delta > 0$. In particular every open interval

containing x is a nbd of x.

Ex: Consider the set R of all real numbers with usual metric space

$d(x,y) = |x - y|$ and find whether or not the following sets are open.

A= $(0,1)$,B=$[0,1)$, C= $(0,1]$,D=$[0,1]$, E= $(0,1) \cup (2,3)$, F=$\{1\}$,

G=$\{1,2,3\}$.

Sol^n : A is open set Let x be appoint in A, we take r=min$\{x-0, 1-x\}$, then it is

evident that $(x-r, x+r) \subset A$

For example consider $\frac{1}{4} \in (0,1)$, then r=min$\{\frac{1}{4}-0, 1-\frac{1}{4}\}$=min$\{\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}\}$=$\frac{1}{4}$

$(\frac{1}{4}-\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{4}) = (0, \frac{1}{2}) \subset (0,1) = A$.

B is no open set, since however small we choose a positive number r,

the open interval $(0-r, 0+r) = (-r,r)$ is not contained in B. Thus there

exists no open ball with 0 as centre and contained in B .

Theorem 1: In a metric space the intersection of a finite number of open sets is open.

    Proof: Let (X,d) be a metric space and let $\{G_i \,;i=1,2,3,\ldots,n \}$ be a finite collection of open subsets of X, to show that

    $H=\cap\{G_i;i=1,2,3,\ldots n\}$ is also open. let $x \in G_i$ for every

    $i=1,2,3,\ldots n$, since each G_i is open there exist $r_i>0$ such that

    $S(x,r_i) \subset G_i$ $i=1,2,3,\ldots n$. let $r=\min \{r_1,r_2,r_3,\ldots,r_n\}$, then

    $S(x,r) \subset S(x,r_i)$ for all $i=1,2,3,\ldots n$, it follows that

    $S(x,r) \subset G_i$, for all $i=1,2,3,\ldots,n$, this implies that

    $S(x,r) \subset \cap\{G_i, i=1,2,3,\ldots,n\}=H$, thus it is shown that to each x in

    H there exist $r>0$, such that $S(x,r) \subset H$. Hence H is open.

Theorem 2: In a metric space the union of an arbitrary collection of open set is open.

Proof: let (X,d) be a metric space and let $\{ G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ be an arbitrary collection

    of open subset of X, to show that $G = \cup\{G_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is open, let $x \in G$,

    then by def^n of union $x \in G_\lambda$ for some $\lambda \in \Delta$, since G_λ is open there

    exists $r>0$ such that $S(x,r) \subset G, but\, G_\lambda \subset G,\, hence\, S(x,r) \subset G$, thus we have

    shown that to each $x \in G$, there exists a positive numbers r such that

    $S(x,r) \subset G$,hence G is open

Theorem 3: A subset of a metric space is open iff it is the union of family of open ball.

Proof: Let (X,d) be a metric space and $A \subset X$, let A be open ,if $A=\phi$, then it is

    The union of empty family of ball , now let $A \neq \phi$, and $x \in A$, since A is

open, there exist an open ball B(x,r), r>0 such that B(x,r) $\subset$ A, it

follows that A $\subset$ {B(x,r), x in A} $\subset$ A. Hence A=$\cup\{B(x,r), x \in A\}$

So A is the union of a family of open ball.

Conversely if A is the union of a family of open ball then A is open by Theorem 2.

Ex: Show that in a discrete metric space every set is open.

Sol^n: Let A be a subset of discrete metric space if A=ϕ, then A is open, if

A $\neq \phi$, let x $\in$ A, since S(x,$\frac{1}{2}$)={x}, we have S(x,$\frac{1}{2}$) $\subset$ A. Hence A is open.

Ex: Show that in a metric space, the complement of every singleton set is Open . More generally the complement of a finite set is open.

Sol^n: H.W

Ex: Give an example to show that the intersection of an infinite number of open sets is not open.

Sol^n: Consider the collection $\{(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}), n \in N\}$ of open intervals in R with usual metric d(x,y)=$|x-y|$, then $\cap \{(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}), n \in N\}$={0}, which is not open since there exist not r>0 such that (-r,r) $\subset$ {0}.

Closed sets:

Def^n: Let (X,d) be a metric space , a subset A of X is said to be closed iff the complement of A is open.

Ex: Show that every singleton set in R is closed for the usual metric d for R.

Sol^n: Let a $\in$ R, to show that {a} is closed. Now R-{a}=(-∞,a)$\cup$(a,∞), but (-∞,a) and (a,∞) are open sets, hence their union is also open.

Theorem 4: Let (X,d) be a metric space and let $\{H_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ be an arbitrary

collection of closed subsets of X. then $\bigcap\{H_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is also a closed set. In other words, the intersection of an arbitrary family of closed sets is closed.

Proof: $H_\lambda \text{ is closed}, \forall \lambda \in \Delta,$

then X- $H_\lambda \text{ is open}, \forall \lambda \in \Delta,$

then $\cup \{X\text{-}H_\lambda, \forall \lambda \in \Delta \}$ is open by theorem

then X-$\cap \{H_\lambda, \forall \lambda \in \Delta \}$ is open De-Morgan

then $\cap \{H_\lambda, \forall \lambda \in \Delta \}$ is closed.

Topologies:

Def^n: Let X be anon empty set and let π be a collection of subsets of X satisfying the following three condition:

T$_1$: $\phi \in \pi, \quad X \in \pi.$

T$_2$: if $G_1 \in \pi \quad and \quad G_2 \in \pi \quad then \, G_1 \cap G_2 \in \pi.$

T$_3$: $If \, G_\lambda \in \pi \quad for \, every \, \lambda \in \Delta \, where \, \Delta \, is \, arbitrary \, set \, then \, \bigcup\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\}$

Then π is called a topology for X, the members of π are called π-open sets and the pair (X,π) is called a topological space.

Ex: Show that the union of empty collection of sets is empty i.e. $\cup\{A_\lambda, \lambda \in \phi\} = \phi$ and the intersection of empty collection of subsets of X is X itself i.e. $\cap\{A_\lambda, \lambda \in \phi\} = X$

Ex: Let X={a,b,c}, and consider the following collections of the subset of X:

$1 - \pi_1 = \{\phi, X\}$

$2 - \pi_2 = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$

$3 - \pi_3 = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, X\}$

$4 - \pi_4 = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$

$5 - \pi_5 = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}X\}$

$6 - \pi_6 = \{\{b\}, \{a,c\}, X\}$

$7 - \pi_7 = \{\phi, \{a,b\}, \{b,c\}, X\}$

$8 - \pi_8 = \{\phi, \{b\}, \{b,c\}, X\}$

Let we verify these axioms for π_8,

$T_1 : \phi \in \pi_8 \ , \ X \in \pi_8$

$T_2 : \phi \cap \{b\} = \phi \cap \{a,b\} = \phi \cap X = \phi \in \pi_8$

$\quad \{b\} \cap \{a,b\} = \{b\} \cap X = \{b\} \in \pi_8$

$\quad \{a,b\} \cap X = \{a,b\} \in \pi_8$

$T_3 : \phi \cup \{b\} = \{b\} \ , \ \phi \cup \{a,b\} = \{a,b\} \quad \phi \cup X = X \quad \{b\} \cup \{a,b\} = \{a,b\}$

$\quad \{a,b\} \cup X = \{a,b\} \quad \{b\} \cup \{a,b\} \cup X = X$

$\}$ All are in π_8 .

So π_8 is a topology on X.

Theorem 5: Every metric space is a topological space, but the converse is not true .

Proof: Let (X,d) be any metric space to prove that X, ϕ is open set.

Let $x \in X$ then $\exists B_r(x)$ such that $B_r(x) \subseteq X$ so X is open

If $x \in \phi \to \exists B_r(x)$ such that $B_r(x) \subset \phi \to \phi$ is open

Let A,B be an open sets, to prove that A∩B is open,

Let $x \in A \cap B \to x \in A$ and $x \in \mathbf{B} \to \exists B_r(x) \subset A$ and $B_s(x) \subset B$ Let $i = \min\{r, s\}$ so
$B_i(x) \subset B_r(x) \cap B_s(x) \subset A \cap B \quad$ so $A \cap B$ is open

Let $\{A_i ; i \in I)$ be a faimly of open set to prove that $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ is open

Let $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ then $\exists i \in I$ such that $x \in A_i \to \exists B_{r_i}(x) \subset A_i \to B_{r_i}(x) \subset A_i \subset \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$

$\therefore \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ *is open set.*

But the converse is not true for example let X={a,b,c} and

π={ϕ,{a},X}, suppose hat d is a metric of X , ρ=d(a,b) but $B_\rho(b)$={b}

Which is not open.

Ex: Let X be any set. Then the collection I= { ϕ,X) consisting of empty set and the whole space. Is always a topology for X called the indiscrete or (trivial) topology, the pair (X,I) is called an indiscrete topological space.

Ex: Let D be the collection of all subsets of X, then D is a topology for X called the discrete topology.

Sol^n: Since $\phi \subset X, X \subset X, we have \phi \in D, and X \in D$ so that T_1 satisfied.

T_2 : Also holds since the intersection of two subset of X is a gain a subset of X.

T_3: Is satisfied since the union of any collection of subset of X is again a subset of X.

Ex : Let R be the set of all real numbers and let S consist of subsets of R defined as follows:

i- $\phi \in S$ ii- A non-empty subset G of R belong to S iff to each $p \in G, \exists$ a right half open interval [a,b) where a,b are in R, a<b such that $p \in [a,b) \subset G$ show hat S is a topology for R called the lower limit topology or in short RHO topology for R.

Sol^n ; T_1: $\phi \in S$ $also$ $R \in S$ since to each p$\in$R there exists aright half-open interval $[p,p+\varepsilon$), $\varepsilon > 0, such that p \in [p, p + \varepsilon) \subset R$

T_2: Let $G_1, G_2 \in S, and Let p \in G_1 \cap G_2, then p \in G_1 and p \in G_2$ so there exists a right half-open intervals H_1 and H_2 such that $p \in H_1 \subset G_1 and p \in H_2 \subset G_2$, it follows that $p \in H_1 \cap H_2 \in G_1 \cap G_2, since H_1 \cap H_2 \neq \phi$ so its clear that $H_1 \cap H_2$ is a right half-open intervals, thus to each $p \in G_1 \cap G_2$, there exist a right half-open interval $H_1 \cap H_2, such that p \in H_1 \cap H_2 \subset G_1 \cap G_2$, hence $G_1 \cap G_2 \in S$.

T_3: Let $G_\lambda \in S, \; \forall \lambda \in \Delta$ where Δ is an arbitrary set, let $p \in \cup\{G_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$. Then there exist $\lambda_p \in \Delta \, such\,that \, p \in G_{\lambda_p}.\sin ce \; G_{\lambda_p}$ is S-open, there is a right half-open intervals H such that $p \in H \subset G_{\lambda_p}$. it follows that $p \in H \subset \cup\{G_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$. Hence $\cup\{G_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\} \in S$. Thus S is a topology for R.

Similarly the upper limit topology for R consist of ϕ and all those subset G of R having the property that to each $p \in G$ there exist a left half- open interval (a,b] such that $p \in (a,b] \subset G$.

Ex: let π be the collection of subsets of N consisting of empty set ϕ and all subset of N of the form $G_m = \{m,m+1,m+2, …\}$, m in N show that π is a topology for N, what are the open sets containing 5.

Sol^n : $T_1 ; \phi \in \pi$ and $A_1 = \{1,2,3,...\} = N \in \pi$

$$T_2 : Let\, G_m \in \pi \, and\, G_n \in \pi \, ,m,n \in N, then\, G_m \cap G_n = \begin{cases} G_n & as\; m > n \\ G_m & as\, n < m \end{cases} \; hence\, G_m \cap G_n \in \pi$$

$T_3 : G_\lambda \in \pi \, \forall \lambda \in \Delta$ where Δ is arbitrary subset of N, since N is a well ordered Set (prove that) Δ contains a smallest positive integer m_0 so that $\cup\{G_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\} = \{m_0, m_0 +1, m_0 + 2,...\} = G_{m_0} \in \pi$, hence π is a topology for N.

$G_1 = N = \{1,2,3,…\}$, $G_2 = \{2,3,4,…\}$, $G_3 = \{3,4,5,6,…\}$ $G_4 = \{4,5,6,…\}$ $G_5 = \{5,6,7,8,…\}$

Note: A partially ordered set X is said to be well ordered if every subset of X contains a first element.

Partial ordered set the pair$(x, \leq)$ is called p.o. set if $x \leq y$ for x,y in X If $a \in X$ be such that $a \leq x \forall x \in, then\, a\, is\, a\; first\, element\, of\; X$.

Ex: List all possible topologies for the set X={a,b,c}.

Ex: Let U consist of ϕ and all those subsets G of R having the property that to each $x \in G$ there exist $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G$ to show that U is a topology for R called the usual topology.

Sol^n : T_1 - $\phi \subset U$ by definition also $R \in U$, since to each $x \in R (x-1, x+1) \subset R$, In fact for any $\varepsilon > 0$

$$(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset R$$

T_2 : Let $G_1, G_2 \in U$, if $G_1 \cap G_2 = \phi$ there is nothing to prove if $G_1 \cap G_2 \neq \phi$, let

$x \in G_1 \cap G_2$ then $x \in G_1$ and $x \in G_2$, hence $\exists \varepsilon_1 > o, \varepsilon_2 > o$ such that $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G_1$

$(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G_2$ take $\varepsilon = \min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2\}$, then $\varepsilon > 0$ and $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G_1 \cap G_2$, hence $G_1 \cap G_2 \subset U$.

T_3: Let $\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ be an arbitrary collection of members of U an let

$x \in \bigcup\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\}$, then $x \in G_\lambda$ for some $\lambda \in \Delta$, since $G_\lambda \in U \exists \varepsilon > 0$ such that $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G_\lambda$

But $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset \bigcup\{G_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\}$, therefore $\bigcup\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\} \in U$, so U is a topology for R.

Comparison of topology:

Def^n : Let π_1 and π_2 be two topologies for a set X , we say that π_1 is weaker or (smaller) than π_2 or that π_2 is stronger or (Larger) than π_1 iff $\pi_1 \subset \pi_2$ that is iff ev ery π_1 –open is π_2-open, if either $\pi_1 \subset \pi_2$ or $\pi_2 \subset \pi_1$ we say that the topologies π_1 and π_2 are comparable. If $\pi_1 \not\subset \pi_2$ and $\pi_2 \subseteq \pi_1$, then we say that π_1 and π_2 are not comparable.

For any set X , (X.I) is weaker topology and (X,D) is stronger topology.

Ex : Find three mutually non comparable topologies for the set X={a,b,c}

Sol^n : Let $\pi_1 = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$ $\pi_2 = \{\phi, \{b\}, X\}$, $\pi_3 = \{\phi, \{c\}, X\}$ Also from the following topology $\pi_1 = \{\phi.\{a\}.X\}$, $\pi_2 = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, X\}$, $\pi_3 = \{\phi, \{b\}, \{b,c\}, X\}$, we see that π_1 and π_3 are not comparable since $\pi_1 \not\subset \pi_3$ and $\pi_3 \not\subset \pi_1$ but π_1 and π_2 are comparable.

Intersection and union of topologies:

The union of two topology need not be a topology for example Let X={a,b,c}, consider two topology defined on X as follows $\pi_1 = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$, $\pi_2 = \{\phi, \{b\}, X\}$, then which is not topology for X

Theorem 6: Let $\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ where λ is an arbitrary set be a collection of topologies for X then the intersection $\cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is also a topology for X.

Proof: Let $\{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\}$ be a collection of topologies for X, we have to show that $\cap\{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is also a topology for X , if $\Delta = \phi$, then $\cap\{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\}$=P(X). Thus in this case the intersection of topologies is the discrete topology. Now let $\Delta \neq \phi$,

T_1 : since $\pi_\lambda : \forall \lambda \in \Delta$ is a topology, it follows that $\phi, X \in \pi_\lambda ; \forall \lambda \in \Delta$, but

$\phi \in \pi_\lambda , \forall \lambda \in \Delta, then\ \phi \in \cap\{\pi_{\lambda,}, \lambda \in \Delta\}$ and $X \in \pi_\lambda\ \forall \lambda \in \Delta\ then\ X \in \cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$

T_2 : Let $G_1, G_2 \in \cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ then $G_1, G_2 \in \pi_\lambda ; \forall \lambda \in \Delta, since\ \pi_\lambda\ is\ a\ topolog\ y\ for\ X\ \forall \lambda \in \Delta$

It follows that $G_1 \cap G_2 \in \pi_{\lambda,} ; \forall \lambda \in \Delta$, hence $G_1 \cap G_2 \in \cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$.

T_3: Let $G_\alpha \in \cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$, $\forall \lambda \in \Delta$ where Δ is an arbitrary set, then

$G_\alpha \in \pi_\lambda ; \forall \lambda \in \Delta, and\ \forall \alpha \in \Delta$, since for each π_λ is a topology for X, it follows that $\cup\{G_\alpha ; \alpha \in \Delta\} \in \pi_\lambda ; \forall \lambda \Delta$. Hence $\cup\{G_\alpha ; \alpha \in \Delta\} \in \cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}\ thus \cap\{\pi_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is a topology for X.

Closed sets:

Def^n : Let (X, π) be a topological space, a subset F of X is said to be π-closed Iff its complement F^c is open.

Ex: Let X={a,b,c}, and let π={ϕ,{a},{b,c},X} since ${\{a\}}^c$={b,c}, ${\{b,c\}}^c$={a}
It follows that the closed sets are ϕ, {a},{b,c}, and X.

Def^n : A topological space (X,π) is said to be a door space iff every subset of X is either open or closed. For example let X={a,b,c} and

$\pi=\{\phi,\{b\},\{a,b\},\{b,c\},X\}$ then the closed sets are $X,\{a,c\},\{c\},\{a\},\phi$.

Hence all the subsets of X are either open or closed and consequently (X,π) is a door space.

Ex: If $a \in R$ show that {a} is closed set in the usual topology for R.

Sol^n : $\{a\}^c = (-\infty,a)\cup(a,\infty)$ but (-∞,a) and (a,∞) are open sets hence their union is also open, it follows that $\{a\}^c$ is open , therefore {a} is closed.

Intersection and union of closed sets:

Theorem7 : If $\{F_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is any collection of closed subsets of a topological

space X, then $\cap\{F_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is closed set.

Proof : F_λ is closed $\forall \lambda \in \Delta$ then $F^c{}_{\lambda\lambda}$ is open $\forall \lambda \in \Delta$ then $\cup\{F^c{}_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is open By T_3

$[\cap\{F_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}]^c$ is open De − Morgan Law

then $\cap\{F_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}$ is closed by Def ^{n} of closed set.

Theorem 8: if F_1 and F_2 b any two closed subsets of a topological space X

Then $F_1 \cup F_2$ is a closed set .

Proof : F_1, F_2 are closed $\Rightarrow F_1^c, F_2^c$ are open $\Rightarrow F_1^c \cap F_2^c$ is open by T_2 of Def ^{n}

$(F_1 \cup F_2)^c$ is open By De − Morgan law $\Rightarrow F_1 \cup F_2$ is closed.

Note: $F_1,F_2,F_3,\ldots F_n$ be a finite number of closed subsets of X, then their union will also be a closed subset of X.

Ex : Give an example to show that the union of an infinite collection of closed sets in a topological space is not necessarily closed.

Sol^n : Let (R,U) be the usual topological space. And let $F_n=[1/n,1]$, $n \in N$. So that F_n is closed interval on R, then $[\frac{1}{n},1]^c = \{x \in R, x < \frac{1}{n} \, or \, x > 1\} = (-\infty,\frac{1}{n})\cup(1,\infty)$ which is open hence $[1/n,1]=F_n$ is closed set, Now

$\cup\{F_n, n \in N\}=\{1\}\cup[\frac{1}{2},1]\cup[\frac{1}{3},1]\cup...=(0,1]$ since $(0,1]$ is not closed it follows that the union of an infinite collection of closed sets is not necessarily closed.

Characterization of a topological space in terms of closed sets:

Theorem 9: Let X be anon-empty set $F_1, F_2 \in F \Rightarrow F_1 \cup F_2 \in F$

$\qquad F_3 : F_\lambda \in F \quad \forall \lambda \in \Delta \Rightarrow \cap\{F_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\} \in F$

Then there exist a unique topology on X such that the π-closed subsets of X are precisely the members of F.

Proof: Let π consist of the complements of the members of F, then π is a topology for X.

$T_1:\ X \in F \Rightarrow X^c \in \pi \Rightarrow \phi \in \pi \ and \ \phi \in F \Rightarrow \phi^c \in \pi \Rightarrow X \in \pi$

$T_2:\ G_1, G_2 \in \pi \Rightarrow G_1^c, G_2^c \in F$

$\qquad\qquad \Rightarrow G_1^c, G_2^c \in F \quad by \ F_2$

$\qquad\qquad\quad \Rightarrow (G_1 \cap G_2)^c \in F \qquad by \ De-Morgan$

$\qquad\qquad\quad \Rightarrow G_1 \cap G_2 \in F \qquad by \ Def^n$

$T_3:\qquad G_\lambda \in \pi \quad \forall \lambda \in \Delta$

$\qquad\quad \Rightarrow G_\lambda^c \in F \ \forall \lambda \in \Delta$

$\qquad\quad \Rightarrow \cap\{G_\lambda^c ; \lambda \in \Delta\} \in F \quad by \ F_3$

$\qquad\quad \Rightarrow [\cup\{G_\lambda ; \lambda \in \Delta\}]^c \in F \ De-Morgan$

$\qquad so \cup\{G_\lambda : \lambda \in \Delta\} \in \pi$

Hence π is a topology for X.

further a subset F for X is closed iff $F^c \in \pi$, that is iff $F \in F$. to show the uniqueness of topology, let π and π^- be two topologies have the same system of closed sets.

then $G \in \pi \Leftrightarrow G \, is \, \pi - open$

$\quad \Leftrightarrow G^c \, is \, \pi - closed$

$\quad \Leftrightarrow G^c \, is \, \pi^- - closed$ [*since* π *and* π^- *have the same system of closed sets*]

$\quad \Leftrightarrow G \, is \, \pi^- - open$

$\quad \Leftrightarrow G \in \pi^- \quad hence \, \pi = \pi^-$

Neighbourhoods:

Def^n : Let (X,π) be a topological space and let $x \in X$. A subset N of X is said to be a π-neighbourhood of x iff there exist a π-open set G such that $x \in G \subset N$. Similarly N is called a π-nbd of A subset of X iff there exist an open set G such that $A \subset G \subset N$. The collection of al nbd of in X is called the neighbourhood system at x and denoted by N(x).

EX : Let X={1,2,3,4,5} and let π={ϕ,{1},{1,2},{1,2,5},{1,3,4},{1,2,3,4}X}

$\quad$ then π-nbd of 1 are

{1},{1,2},{1,3},{1,4},{1,5},{1,2,3},{1,2,4},{1,2,5},{1,3,4},{1,3,5},{1,4,5}, {1,2,3,4},{1,2,4,5},{1,3,4,5},{1,2,3,5},and X

Not that {1,3} is not an open set but it is a π-nbd of 1 since is a π-open set such that $1 \in \{1\} \subset \{1,3\}$

Ex: Which of the following subsets of R are nbd of 1?

$\quad$ (0,2),(0,2][1,2], [0,2]-1.5 , R

Theorem 10: A subset of a topological space are open iff it's a nbd of each its points.

Proof: Let a subset G of a topological space be open. Then for every $x \in G$, $x \in G \subset G$ and therefore G is a nbd of each its points.

Conversely let G be a nbd of its point, if G=ϕ, then there is nothing to prove, if x≠ϕ, then to each $x \in G$ there exist an open set G_x such that $x \in G_x \subset G$. It

follows that $G = \bigcup\{G_x, x \in G\}$, hence G is open.

Ex: Let X be a t.s. If F is closed subset of X, and $x \in A^c$, prove that there is a nbd N of x such that $N \cap F = \phi$.

Sol^n: Since F is closed then F^c is open and so by above theorem F^c contains a nbd of each its points. Hence there exist a nbd N of x such that

$N \subset F^c$ i.e. $N \cap F = \phi$

Theorem 11: Let X be a topological space, and for any $x \in X$, Let N$_{(x)}$ be the collection of all nbds of x then:

1- $\forall x \in X, N(x) \neq \phi$, i.e. Every point x has at least one nbd.

2- $N \in N(x) then x \in N(x)$, i.e. Every nbd of x contains x.

3- $N \in N(x), N \subset M then M \in N(x)$ i.e. Every set containing a nbd of x is a nbd of x.

4- $N \in N(x), M \in N(x) then N \cap M \in N(x)$, i.e. the intersection of two nbd of x is nbd of x.

5- $N \in N(x) then there exist M \in N(x) such that M \subset N and M \in N(y)$. i.e. If N is a nbd of x, then there exist a nbd M of x which is a subset of N such that M is a nbd of each of its points.

Proof:1-Since X is an open set it is a nbd of every $x \in X$. Hence there exist at least one nbd (namely X)for each $x \in$ X. Hence N$_{(x)} \neq \phi$ for all $x \in X$.

2-If $N \in N_{(x),}$then N is a nbd of x, so by Def^n of nbd $x \in X$.

3- If $N \in N(x)$, there exist an open set G such that $x \in G \subset N,$ since $N \subset M, x \in G \subset M$, and so M is a nbd of x, hence $M \in N(x)$.

4- Let $N \in N_{(x)}$ and $M \in N_{(x)}$, the by Def^n of nbd , there exist an open sets G$_1$ and G$_2$ such that $x \in G_1 \subset N and x \in G_2 \subset M$ hence $x \in G_1 \cap G_2 \subset N \cap M$, since

$G_1 \cap G_2$, is an open set, it follows from (1) that $N \cap M$ is a nbd of x, hence

$N \cap M \in N(x)$.

5-If $N \in N_{(x)},$ then there exist an open set M such that $x \in N \subset M$. Since M is

open set it is a nbd of each of its point therefore $M \in N(y) \; \forall \; y \in M.$

Base for the neighbouhood system of a point ; Base for a topology

Local Base at a point.

Def^n: Let (X,π) be a topological space, a non-empty collection **B**(x)

of π-neighborhoods of x is called a base for π-nbd system of x iff

for every π-nbd N of x there is B $\in$ **B** (x) such that B $\subset$ N, we say

that **B** (x) is a local base at x or a fundamental system of nbds of x.

If **B**(x) is local base at x, then the members of **B**(x) are called

basic π-nbds of x.

Ex: Let X= {a,b,c,d,e} and let $\pi = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,e\}, \{a,c,d\}, \{a,b,c,d\}, X\}$

Then the local base at each point a,b,c,d,e is given by **B**(a)={{a}},

B(b)={{a,b}}, **B**(c)={{a,c,d}}, **B**(d)={{a,,c,d}},**B**(e)={{a,b,e}}.

Ex : Let (X,π) be any topological space, and let $x \in X$, show that the collection

B(x) of all π-open subset of X containing x is a local base.

Sol^n : Let N be any nbd of x. then there exist an open set G such that

$x \in G \subset N$. since G is an open set containing $x, G \in \beta(x)$, this show that

$\beta(x)$ is a local base at x.

Properties of local base:

Theorem 12: Let X be a topological space and let β (x) be a local base at

any point x of X, then β (x) has the following properties.

B$_0$: β (x) $\neq \phi$ for every x in X.

B_1: If $B \in \beta(x)$ then $x \in B$

B_2: If $A \in \beta(x)$ and $B \in \beta(x)$ then $\exists$ s a $C \in \beta(x)$ such that $C \subset A \cap B$

B_3: If $A \in \beta(x)$ then $\exists$ s a set B such that $x \in B \cap \subset A$, and such that for every $y \in B$, $\exists$ s a set $C \in \beta(y)$ satisfying $C \subset B$

Proof: B_0- Since X is open , it is a nbd of its points, since $\beta(x)$ is a local base

at any point x of X, and X is a nbd of X, it follows that there must

exist a $B \in \beta(x)$ such that $B \subset X$. Hence $\beta(x) \neq \phi \ \forall x \in X.$.

B_1: If $B \in \beta(x)$, then B is a nbd of x, so by Def^n of nbd $x \in B$.

B_2:If $A \in \beta(x)$ then A is a nbd of x, similarly B is a nbd of x it follows

that $A \cap B$ is a nbd of x, since $\beta(x)$ is a local base at x, it follow that

there exist $C \in \beta(x)$ such that $C \in A \cap B$.

B_3: Since $A \in \beta(x)$, A is a nbd of x, hence there exist an open set B

Such that $x \in B \subset A$, since B is an open set it's a nbd of every $y \in B$

Again since $\beta(y)$ is a local base at y and B is a nbd of every $y \in B$

It follows that for every $y \in B$ $\exists s, C \in \beta(y)$ such that $C \subset B$.

Ex : Consider the usual topology U for R and any point $x \in R$. then the

collection $\beta(x) = \{(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon); 0 < \varepsilon \in R\}$ constitutes a base for the U-nebd

system for x, to prove this, let N be any nbd of x, then there exist

U-nbd set G such that $x \in G \subset N$, since G is U-open there exist $\varepsilon > 0$

such that $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset G \subset N$, thus to each nbd N of x, there exist a

member $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \in \beta(x)$ such that $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon) \subset N$

H.W/ Also show that $\beta(x) = \{(x - \frac{1}{n}, x + \frac{1}{n}), n \in N\}$ is anther local base for U-nbd

First countable space:

Def^n : A topological space (x, π) is said to satisfy the first axiom of count-

ability if each points of X possesses a countable locale base, such a

topology is said to be a first countable space.

Ex: A discrete space (X,D) is a first countable, for in a discrete space every

subset of X is open, in particular each singleton {x}, $x \in X$ is open and so

is a nbd of x. Also every nbd N (i.e. open set containing x in this case)

of x must be a superset of {x}.

hence the collection {{x}} consisting of the single nebd {x} of x,

constitutes member is countable. Hence there exists a countable base at

each point of X.

Ex : Show that the topological space (R,U) is first countable.

Sol^n : Let $x \in R$ then the collection $\{(x - \frac{1}{n}, x + \frac{1}{n}); n \in N\}$ is a countable base

at x and so (R,U) is first countable.

Base for a topology:

Def^n: Let (X,π) be a topological space, a collection β of subsets of X is said

to form a base for π iff:

$1 - \beta \subset \pi$ $2 - For each Point\ x \in X\ and\ each\ nebd\ N\ of\ x\ \exists\ some\ B \in \beta\ such\ that\ x \in B \subset N$

Ex : Let X={a,b,c,d} and let $\pi = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c,d\}\{a,b\}, \{a,c,d\}, \{b,c,d\}, X\}$, then the

collection $\beta = \{\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c,d\}\}$ is a base for π since $\beta \subset \pi$ and for each nbd

of a contains {a} which is a member of β containing a. Similarly each

nbd of b contains $\{b\} \in \beta$, and each of c or d contains $\{c,d\} \in \beta$.

Ex : Consider the discrete space (X,D), then the collection β={{x}, $x \in X$}

Consisting of all singleton subset of X is abase for D, since each

singleton set is D-open so that $B \subset D$, also for each $x \in X$ and each nbd

N of x, $\{x\} \in \beta$, is such that $x \in \{x\} \subset N$

Def^n : Let (X,π) be a topological space the space X is said to be second

        countable (or to satisfy the second axiom of count-ability) if there exist

        a countable base for π.

Ex: The space (R.U) is second countable since the set of all open intervals

        (r,s) where r,s are rational numbers forms a countable base for U. This

        Follows from the fact that between any two real numbers there exists

        infinitely many rational numbers. thus to each point x in R and each

        nbd N of x $\exists r, s \in Q \, such that \, x \in (r,s) \subset N$

Theorem 13:Let (x,π) be a topological space, a collection β of π is abase for π

iff every π-open set can be expressed as the union of members of β.

 Proof: Let β be a base for π and let $G \in \pi$, since G is π-open, it is a π-nbd of

each of its point, hence by def^n of base to each $x \in G$ there exist a member

$B \in \beta \, such that \, x \in B \subset G$ it follows that $G = \bigcup \{B ; B \in \beta \, and \, B \subset G\}$.

        Conversely, Let $\beta \subset \pi$ and every open set G be the union of members

        of β , we have to show that β is abase for π, we have

        i- $\beta \subset \pi$ $given$

        $i - Let \, x \in X \, and \, let \, N \, be \, any \, nebd \, of \, x, then \, \exists s \, an \, open \, set \, G \, such that \, x \in G \subset N$

        But G is the union of members of β, hence there exists

        $B \in \beta \, such that \, x \in B \subset G \subset N, thus \, \beta \, is \, a \, base \, for \, \pi$.

Ex: Let π and π^* be topologies for X, which have a common base β then $\pi = \pi^*$.

 Sol^n; Let $G \in \pi$, and $x \in G$, since G is π-open, it is π-nbd of x ,, and since β is

        a base for π, there exists $B \in \beta$ such that $z \in B \subset G \beta$. Since β is a base

        for π^* and $B \in \beta$, it follows that $B \in \pi^*$. Hence G is π^*-nbd of x, since x

        is arbitrary $G \in \pi^*$

Thus $\pi \subset \pi^*$, similarly we can prove $\pi^* \subset \pi$, hence $\pi = \pi^*$

Properties of a base for a topology:

Theorem14: let (X,π) be a topological space and let β be a base for π, then B has the following properties:

$[B^*_1]$ For every $x \in X$ there exists a $B \in \beta$ such that $x \in \beta$, i.e. $X = \bigcup \{B; B \in \beta\}$.

$[B^*_2]$ For every $B_1 \in \beta$, $B_2 \in \beta$ and a point $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ there exists a $B \in \beta$ such That $x \in B \subset B_1 \cap B_2$, that is the intersection of any two members of β is a union of members of β .

Proof: $[B^*_1]$ since X is a π-open set it is a nbd of each of its points hence by def^n of base, for every $x \in X$, there exists some $B \in \beta$ such that $x \in B \subset X$, *in other words* $X = \bigcup \{B, B \in \beta\}$

$[B^*_2]$ If $B_1 \in \beta$ and $B_2 \in \beta$, then B_1 and B_2 are π-open, hence their intersection $B_1 \cap B_2$ is also π-open, and therefore $B_1 \cap B_2$ is a nbd of each of its points and so by def^n of base to each $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ there exists $B \in \beta$ such that $x \in B \subset B_1 \cap B_2$, that is $B_1 \cap B_2$ is the union of members of β.

Limit points :

Def: Let (X, π) be a topological space , and let A be a subset of X , a point $x \in X$ is called a limit point (or a cluster point or an accumulation point) of A iff every nbd of x contains a point of A other than x. i.e. x will be a limit point of A iff every nbd of x meets A in a point different from x , that is $N\backslash\{x\} \cap A \neq \phi$ for all N is and of x or we say that x is a limit point of A iff every open set G containing x , $G\backslash\{x\} \cap A \neq \phi$, also we say that x will not be a limit point of A if there exists a nbd N of x Such that $N \cap A = \phi$ or $N \cap A = \{x\}$.

Def: Let A be a subset of a topological space X, and let $x \in X$, the x is called

an adherent point (or contact point) of A iff every nbd of x contains a

point of A and denoted by d(A).

The set of all limit point of A is called derived set and denoted by D(A).

Def: A point x is said to be an isolated point of a subset A of a topological

space X , if $x \in X$ but x is not a limit point of A . A closed set which has

no isolated point is said to be perfect.

Ex: let (X.D) be descried topological space, and let A be any subset of X

Is A has a limit point?

Sol: let $x \in X$, if $G \backslash \{x\} \cap A \neq \phi$ $N \backslash \{x\} \cap A \neq \phi$ for every open set G containing x

But we have $\{x\} \backslash \{x\} \cap A = \phi$, therefore x is not a limit point of A . Hence A

has not a limit point in a descried topology.

Ex: let X={a,b,c} and let $\pi = \{\phi, X, \{a\}, \{b\}\{a,b\}\}$ find all limit point of the set

A ={a,c}.

Sol: we have three points in X

1- $a \in X$, the open set which contain a are {a}, {a,b} X so since

$\{a,b\} \cap \{a\} \backslash \{a\} = \phi$, a is not a limit point of A.

2- $b \in X$, the open set which contain b are {b},{a,b}, X and

$\{a,c\} \cap \{b\} \backslash \{b\} = \phi$ b is not a limit point of A.

3- $c \in X$, and the open set which contain c is X only, and

$X \backslash \{c\} \cap A = \{c\} \neq \phi$, so c is a limit point of A, the isolated point of A

is a, since a is in A and not a limit point , and D(A)={c}

Ex: let X={a,b,c,d,e} and let $\pi = \{\phi, X, \{b\}, \{d,e\}, \{b,d,e\}, \{a,c,d,e\}\}$ then π is a

topology on X. Consider the subset A={b,c,d} ,the point c is a limit

point of A since the π-open nbds of c are {a,c,d,e}, X each contains a point of A other than c. But b is not a limit point of A since {b} is nbd of b which contains no point of A other than b similarly a,e are limit point of A so D(A)={a,c,e}. The isolated points of A are b and d since b,d are belong to A but are not limit points of A. then an adherent point of A are a,b,c,d,e.

Theorem 15: Let X be a topological space, and let A be a subset of X then A is closed iff D(A)$\subset$A.

Proof: Let A be closed, then A^c is open and so to each $x \in A^c$ there exist a nbd N of x such that $N \subset A^c$. Since $A \cap A^c = \phi$, the nbd N contains no point of A and so x is not a limit point of A. Thus no point of A can be a limit point of A, that is A contains all its limit points. Hence D(A)$\subset$A. Conversely let D(A)$\subset$A and let $x \in A^c$, then $x \notin A$. since D(A)$\subset$A, $x \notin D(A)$ hence there exist a nbd of x such that N$\cap$A=ϕ so that $N \subset A^c$, thus A^c contains a nbd of each of its points and so A^c is open, that is A is closed.

Closure:

Def: Let X be a topological Space and let A$\subset$ X. the intersection of all π-closed supersets of A is called the closure of A and denoted by A or c(A) or ClA. When confusion is possible as to what space the closure is to be take in, we shall Cl (A).

Theorem 16: Let A be a subset of a topological space , then

      1- ClA is the smallest closed set containing A.

      2- A is closed iff ClA=A

Proof: 1- this follows from definition.

2- If A closed, then A itself is the smallest closed set containing A and hence ClA=A. Conversely if ClA=A by 1 ClA is closed and so A is also closed.

Theorem 17: prove that $ClA = A \cup D(A)$.

Proof: We first prove that $A \cup D(A)$ is closed i.e. $[A \cup D(A)]^c = A^c \cap D(A)^c$ is open, let $x \in A^c \cap D(A)^c$, then $x \in A^c$ and $x \in D(A)^c$ so that $x \notin A$ and $x \notin D(A)$. This means that x is not a limit point of A, and hence there exist an open nbd N of x which contains no point of A, it follows that $N \subset A^c$. Now no point $y \in N$ can be a limit point of A, since N is a nbd of y which contains no point of A. hence $N \subset D(A)^c$. since $N \subset A^c$ and $N \subset D(A)^c$, So $N \subset A^c \cap D(A)^c$. thus $A^c \cap D(A)^c$ contains a nbd of each of its point and consequently $A^c \cap D(A)^c$ is open. We now show that $ClA = A \cup D(A)$, since $A \cup D(A)$ is closed set containing A and ClA is the smallest closed set containing A, we have $ClA \subset A \cup D(A)$. Again since ClA is closed, it contains all its limit points, and thus in particular, all limit points of A, so that $D(A) \subset ClA$ also $A \subset ClA$. Hence $A \cup D(A) \subset ClA$, it follows that $ClA = A \cup D(A)$.

Corollary: Prove that $ClA = adh(A) = \{x;$ each nbd of x intersect $A\}$

Proof: $x \in adh(A)$ iff every nbd of x intersects A

Iff $x \in A$ or every nbd of x contains a point of A other than x

Iff $x \in A$ or $x \in D(A)$

Iff $x \in A \cup D(A)$

Iff x∈ClA .

An adherent point is also some times called a closure point.

Ex: Let X={a,b,c,d} and let π={φ,X,{a},{b,c},{a,d},{a,b,c}}

Closed subsets are X, {b,c,d}, {a,d},{b,c},{d},then Cl{b}={b,c}, φ,

since {b,c} is the intersection of all closed subsets of X which contain b .

Again Cl{a,b}=X, since X is the only closed set containing {a,b}.

similarly we have Cl{b,c,d}={b,c, d}.

Ex: Let X={a,b,c} and let $\pi = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}\}$ .Find the limit point of the sets

A={b,c.} , B={a,c}

Properties of closure: "Kuratiwski theorem "

Let X be a topological space, and let A,B be any subset of X, then

$i - Cl\phi = \phi, \quad ii - A \subset ClA \quad iii - if\ A \subset B\ ,\ then\ ClA \subset ClB$

$iv - Cl(A \cup B) = ClA \cup ClB \qquad v - Cl(A \cap B) \subset ClA \cap ClB \quad vi - Cl(ClA) = ClA$

Proof: i-Since ϕ is closed, we have $Cl\phi = \phi$.

ii- By theorem ClA is the smallest closed set containing A, so $A \subset ClA$

iii- By (ii) $B \subset ClB,\ since\ A \subset B$ we have $A \subset ClB$,but ClB is a closed set.

Thus ClB is closed set containing A. Since ClA is the smallest

closed set containing A, we have $ClA \subset ClB$.

$iv - Since\ A \subset A \cup B\ and\ B \subset A \cup B, we\ have\ ClA \subset Cl(A \cup B)\ and\ ClB \subset Cl(A \cup B)$
$by\ iii\ we\ have\ ClA \cup ClB \subset Cl(A \cup B)$ .... (1)

Since ClA and ClB are closed sets, then $ClA \cup ClB$ is also closed, also

$A \subset ClA\ and\ B \subset ClB$ implies that $A \cup B \subset ClA \cup ClB\ thus\ ClA \cup ClB$ is closed

set containing $A \cup B$,since $Cl(A \cup B)$ is the smallest closed set

Containing $Cl(A \cup B) \subset ClA \cup ClB$ ......2 , from 1and 2 we get

$Cl(A \cup B) = ClA \cup ClB$.

v- $A \cap B \subset B$ then $Cl(A \cap B) \subset ClB$ and $A \cap B \subset A$ then $Cl(A \cap B) \subset ClB$. Hence

$Cl(A \cap B) \subset ClA \cap ClB$

vi-Since ClA is closed, we have Cl(Cl(A)).

Theorem 18: Let X be a topological space, and let A be a subset of X then the following statements are equivalent:

i- A is closed   ii- ClA=A   iii-A contains all its limit point.

Ex: Consider the usual topological space and find the closure of the following subsets of R.

i-A=$\{\frac{1}{n}, n \in N\}$ ii- B=The set of all integer numbers ,

iii-C= The set of all rational number,   iv- D=$\{2, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{5}{4}, ...\}$

Interior point and interior set:

Def^n : Let X be a topological space and let $A \subset X$, a point x in X is said to be an interior point of A iff A is a nbd of X, that is iff there exists an open set G such that $x \in G \subset A$, the set of all interior point of A is called the interior of A and is denoted by A^0 or IntA

Theorem 19: $A^\circ = \{G : G \text{ is open}, G \subset A\}$

Proof:

$x \in A^\circ$ iff A is a nbd of x

     iff ther exsit an open set G suh that $x \in G \subset A$

     iff $x \in \bigcup\{G; G \text{ is open}, G \subset A\}$

Hence $A^\circ = \bigcup\{G; G \text{ is open}, G \subset A\}$

Theorem 20: Let X be a topological space. And let A be a subset of X, then

i-   IntA is an open set.

ii-   IntA is the largest open set contained in A.

iii-   A is open if IntA=A.

Proof: i- Let x be an arbitrary point of IntA, Then x is an interior point of A

Hence by Def^n , A is a nebd of x, then there exist an open set G such that

$x \in G \subset A.$ Since G is open, it is a nbd of each of its points and so A is also a

nbd of each of G. It follows that every pint of G is an interior point of A so

that $G \subset IntA$, thus it is shown that to each point $x \in IntA$ there exist an open set

G such that $x \in G \subset IntA$, hence IntA is a nbd of each of its points and

consequently IntA is open.

ii-Let G be any open subset of A and let $x \in G, \, so \, that \, x \in G \subset A$ since G is open,

A is a nbd of x and consequently x is an interior point of A, hence $x \in IntA$,

thus we have shown that $x \in G \Rightarrow x \in IntA, and \, so \, G \subset IntA \subset A$. Hence IntA contains

every open subset of A and it is therefore the largest open subset of A.

iii-Let A=IntA By(i) IntA is an open set and therefore A is also open.

Consequently let A be open. Then A is usually identical with the largest open

subset of A. but by (ii) IntA is the largest open subset of A. Hence A=IntA

Ex: Let (X,D) be s discrete topological space and let A be any subset of X.

Since A is open, we have IntA=A, thus in a discrete space every subset

of X coincides with its interior.

Theorem 21: Let X be a topological space and let A be a subset of X. Then

IntA equals the set all those points of A which are not limit pints of A^c

Proof: Let x be a point of A, which is not a limit point of $A^{c.}$ Then there

exists a nbd N of x which contains no point of A^c , and so $N \subset A$

this implies that A is also a nbd of x and so $x \in IntA$. Conversely let

$x \in IntA$, since IntA is open, it is a nbd of x, also IntA contains no point of A^c, it follows that x is not a limit point of A^c, thus no point of IntA is a limit point of A^c, hence IntA consists of precisely those point of A which are not limit point of A^c.

Theorem 22 : Let X be a topological space, and let A,B be any subset of X, then:

$$i - IntX = X, \; Int\phi = \phi \qquad ii - IntA \subset A \quad iii - A \subset B \Rightarrow IntA \subset IntB$$
$$iv - Int(A \cap B) = IntA \cap IntB \quad v - IntA \cup IntB \subset Int(A \cup B) \quad vi - Int(IntA) = IntA$$

Proof : i- Since X and ϕ are open set, we have by iii Theorem IntX =X, Intϕ=ϕ .

ii- $x \in IntA \Rightarrow x \, is \, an \, \text{int} \, erior \, po\text{int} \, of \, A \Rightarrow A \, is \, a \, nebd \, of \, x \Rightarrow x \in A, hence \, A = IntA$

iii-Let $x \in IntA$,then x is an interior point of A, and so A is a nbd of x, since $A \subset B$, B is also a nbd of x, this implies that $x \in IntB$ thus we shown that $x \in IntA \Rightarrow x \in IntB, \; IntA \subset IntB$

iv-Since $A \cap B \subset A \; and \; A \cap B \subset B \; we \, have \, by \, iii \; Int(A \cap B) \subset IntA \, and \, Int(A \cap B) \subset IntB$

this implies that $Int(A \cap B) \subset IntA \cap IntB$ ....(1)

a gain let $x \in IntA \cap IntB. Then \; x \in IntA \; and \; x \in IntB$, hence x is an interior point of each of the sets A and B, it follows that A and B era nebds of x so that their intersection $A \cap B$ is also a nebd of x, hence

$x \in Int(A \cap B)$ thus $x \in IntA \cap IntB \Rightarrow x \in Int(A \cap B)$ so

$IntA \cap IntB \subset Int(A \cap B) \ldots \ldots .(2)$

From 1 and 2 we get $Int(A \cap B) = IntA \cap IntB$

$v - \; By(iii) \, A \subset A \cup B \Rightarrow IntA \subset Int(A \cup B)$
$\qquad B \subset A \cup B \Rightarrow IntB \subset Int(A \cup B)$
$\qquad hence \, IntA \cup IntB \subset Int(A \cup B)$

Not that in general $IntA \cup IntB \neq Int(A \cup B)$

For example Let A=[0,1) and [1,2) then IntA=(0,1) and IntB=(1,2)

$IntA \cup IntB = (0,1) \cup (1,2) = (0,2) \setminus \{1\}$ also A∪B=[0,1) ∪[1,2)=[1,2]

So Int(A∪B)=(1,2)

Thus in this case IntA∪IntB is a proper subset of Int(A∪B), and

IntA∪IntB ≠ Int(A∪B)

vi-Now by i of Theorem 20 IntA is an open set, hence by iii of the

same theorem Int(IntA)=IntA

Exterior point and the exterior of a set:

Def^n : Let A be a subset of a topological space X, A point $x \in X$ is said to be

an exterior point of A iff it is an interior point of A^c, that is there exist an

open set G such that $x \in G \subset A^c$ or equivalently $x \in G \, and \, G \cap A = \phi$. The set of all

exterior points of A is called the exterior of A and is denoted by extA or

e(A). thus extA=Int(A^c), it follows that $ext(A^c) = [A^{c^{c}}]^0 = A^0$ also we have

$A \cap extA = \phi$, that is no point of A can be exterior point of A.

Remark: Since extA is the interior of A^c, it follows from Theorem 20 that

extA is open and is the largest open set contained in A^c .

Theorem 23: Let (X,π) be a topological space and let A be a subset of X then

$$extA = \bigcup \{G \in \pi, G \subset A^c\}$$

Proof: By Def^n , extA=Int(A^c), but by Theorem 19

$IntA^c = \bigcup \{G \in \pi; G \in A^c\}$ $\,$ $hence \, extA = \bigcup \{G \in \pi; G \subset A^c\}$

Theorem 24: Let A be a subset of a topological space X, then a point x in X

is an exterior point of A iff x is not an adherent point of A, that is iff $x \in ClA^c$.

Proof : let x b an exterior point of A, then x is an interior point of A^c, so A^c

is a nbd of x containing no point of A, it follows that x is not an adherent point of A, that is $x \in ClA^c$.

Conversely, suppose that x is not an adherent point of A, then there exist a nbd N of x which contains no points of A. This implies that $x \in N \subset A^c$. It follows that A^c is a nbd of x and consequently x is an interior point of A^c, that is x is an exterior point of A.

Theorem 25: Let X be a topological space and let A and B be subsets of X. Then:

$$i - extX = \phi, \; exr\phi = X \quad ii - extA \subset A^c \quad iii - extA \subset ext[(extA)^c] \quad iv - A \subset B \Rightarrow extB \subset extA$$

$$v - IntA \subset ext(extA) \quad iv - ext(A \cup B) = extA \cap extB$$

Proof: $i - extX = IntX^c = Int\phi = \phi \quad ext\phi = Int\phi^c = IntX = X$

$$ii - extA = IntA^c \subset A^c \quad by \; ii \; Theorem \; I_4$$

$$iii - ext[ext(A^c)] = ext[IntA^c]^c = ext(IntA^c)^c = Int\{[IntA^c]^c\}^c$$
$$= Int(IntA^c) \quad \{by \; A^{c^c} = A\}$$
$$= IntA^c \quad \{by \; Int(IntA) = IntA\}$$
$$= extA$$

$$iv - A \subset B \Rightarrow B^c \subset A^c \Rightarrow IntA^c \subset IntB^c \Rightarrow extB \subset extA$$

$$v - By \; ii \; we \; have \; extA \subset A^c \; then \; iv \; gives \; extA^c \subset ext(extA), But \; IntA = extA^c$$
$$hence \; IntA \subset ext(extA)$$

$$vi - ext(A \cup B) = Int[(A \cup B)^c]$$
$$= Int(A^c \cap B^c) \quad By \; Demorgan \; law$$
$$= IntA^c \cap IntB^c \quad \textbf{B}y \; iv \; Theorem \; I_4$$
$$= extA \cap extB$$

Frontier point and the frontier of a set.

Def[n] :A point x of a topological space is said to be a frontier point (or boundary point) of a subset A of X iff it is neither an interior nor an exterior point of A. the set of all frontier points of A is called the frontier of A and shall be denoted by FrA.

$$FrA=[IntA \cup extA]^c$$

Theorem 26: Lt X be a topological space and let A be a subset of X. then a Point x in X is a frontier point of A iff every nbd of x intersections both A and A^c .

$Proof : We\, have\, x \in FrA \Leftrightarrow x \notin IntA\, and\, x \notin extA = IntA^c$

$\Leftrightarrow neither\, A\, nor\, A^c\, is\, a\, nebd\, of\, x$

$\Leftrightarrow no\, nebd\, of\, x\, can\, be\, containd\, in\, A\, or\, in\, A^c\quad why?$

$\Leftrightarrow every\, nebd\, of\, x\, int\, er\sec ts\, both\, A\, and\, A^c$

Corollary: $FrA=FrA^c$. for we have

$x \in FrA \Leftrightarrow every\, nebd\, of\, x\, int\, er\sec ts\, both\, A\, and\, A^c$

$\Leftrightarrow every\, nebd\, of\, x\, int\, er\sec ts\, both\, A^c\, and\, A^{c^c}$

$\Leftrightarrow x \in FrA^c \qquad \sin ce\ A^{c^c} = A$

Theorem 27 : LetA be any subset of a topological space X. then IntA, extA and FrA are disjoint and $X = IntA \cup extA \cup FrA$ Further FrA is a closed set.

Proof: By Def[n] extA=IntA^c , also $IntA \subset A\, and\, IntA^c \subset A^c, \sin ce\ A \bigcap A^c = \phi, it\, follows\, that$

$IntA \bigcap extA = IntA \bigcap IntA^c = \phi$ a gain by Def[n] of frontier, we have

$x \in FrA \Leftrightarrow x \notin IntA\, and\, x \notin extA$

$\Leftrightarrow x \notin \{IntA \bigcup extA\}$

$\Leftrightarrow x \in [IntA \bigcup extA]^c$

$Thus\, FrA = [IntA \bigcup extA]^c\ ....(1)$

$It\, follows\, that\, FrA \bigcap IntA = \phi\, and\ FrA \bigcap extA = \phi\, and\, X = IntA \bigcup extA \bigcup FrA$

Since IntA and extA are open, we see from 1 that FrA is closed.

Dense and non-dense sets:

Def^n : Let X be a topological space and let A,B be subset of X. then

  i-   A is said to be dense in B iff $B \subset ClA$

  ii- A is said to be dense in X or every where dense iff $ClA=X$ it follows that A is every where dense iff every point of X is an adherent point of A,

  iii- A is said to be nowhere dense or non-dense in X iff $Int(ClA)=\phi$, that is, iff interior of the closure of A is empty.

  iv- A is said to be dense in itself iff $A \subset D(A)$.

It follows from Def^n (a closed set which has no isolated points is said to be perfect) and iv of a above definition that a set A is perfect iff A is dense in itself and closed. This implies that A is perfect iff $A=D(A)$

  For A is perfect iff A is closed and A has no isolated points

  iff A is closed and every point of A is a limit

  point of A

  iff $D(A) \subset A$ and $A \subset D(A)$

  iff $A=D(A)$.

Separable space:

Def^n: A topological space is said to be separable iff X contains a countable Dense subset, that is, iff there exist a countable subset A of X such That $ClA=X$.

  For example the usual topological space (R,U) is separable since the set Q of all rational numbers is countable dense subset of R.

Ex: Let $X=\{a,b.c.d,e\}$ and let $\pi=\{\phi,\{b\},\{c,d\},\{b,c,d\},\{a,c,d\},\{a,b,c,d\},X\}$.

Find interior, exterior and frontier of the following subset of X.

A={c}   B={a,b}   C={a,c,d}   D={b,c,d}

Sol^n :1- i- since A is not a nebd of c, so $c \notin IntA$, hence IntA=ϕ

ii- Now A^c ={a,b,d,e} it is easy to see that b is an interior point of A^c ,

since A^c is a nebd of b , but a,d,e are not interior points of A^c , hence

extA =b

iii- Since IntA=ϕ and extA=b it follows that FrA={a,c,d,e}.

2- i-Here b is an interior point of B , but a is not. IntB={b}.

ii- Now B^c ={c,d,e}, since c,d$\in \{c,d\} \subset B^c$, it follows that B^c is a nbd of c,d

hence c,d are interior points of B^c. that is c,d are exterior points of B.

that is extB={c,d}

iii-Since IntB={b}, and extB= {c,d} then FrB={a,e}

3- here C is open then IntC=C={a,c,d}, and extC= IntC^c=Int{b,e}={b} also

FrC={e}.

4- Also D is open set so that it is a nbd of each of its points and

consequently every point of D is its interior point, hence IntD=D={b,c,d},

D^c ={a,e}. Since thee exists no open set G such that $a \in G \subset D^c$, D^c is not a

nbd of a hence $a \notin IntD^c$, similarly $e \notin IntD^c$. therefore extD=IntD^c= ϕ

also FrD={a,e}.

Ex: If A is open and closed then FrA=ϕ

Sol^n: Since A is open then IntA=A and also since A is closed A^c is open and

Ext A = IntA^c=A^c but $FrA = \{IntA \cup extA\}^c = \{A \cup A^c\}^c = X^c = \phi$

Ex: consider the usual topology U on R and find interior, exterior and frontier

Of the following subset of R. A=(0,1) B=[0.1) C=[0,1] D=$\{\frac{1}{n}; n \in N\}$,N , Q

Sol^n:1- Since A is open, it is a nbd of each of its points and so every point of A is its interior point. Hence IntA=(0.1)

Now $A^c = (-\infty, o) \cup (1, \infty)$, here A^c is a nebd of each of its point except 0 and 1, hence extA $= IntA^c = (-\infty, o) \cup (1, \infty)$.

Also $FrA = \{IntA \cup extA\}^c = \{0,1\}$.

2- proceeding as in 1 we have IntB=(0,1) $extB = IntB^c = (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$ and

$FrB = \{IntB \cup extB\}^c = \{0,1\}$.

4- Here D cannot be a nbd of any points of its points 1/n , n=1,2,3,...

Since there exists no $\varepsilon > 0 \, such that \, (\frac{1}{n} - \varepsilon, \frac{1}{n} + \varepsilon) \subset D$, hence no point of D can be its interior point so that IntD=ϕ .

It is easy to see that D^c is a nbd of each of its points except 0, hence extD=IntD^c $[D \cup \{0\}]^c$

$FrA = [IntD \cup extD]^c = [D \cup \{0\}]$

Theorem 28 : Let X be a topological space and let A be a subset of X

$$ClA = IntA \cup FrA$$

Proof: By Def^n of ClA, we have $ClA = \bigcap \{F ; F \, is \, closed \, A \subset F\}$,

then by De-Morgan law $[ClA]^c = \bigcup \{F^c ; F^c \, is \, open \, and \, F^c \subset A\} = extA$, taking

complements, we get $[(ClA)^c]^c = [extA]^c = IntA \cup FrA \, so \, that \, ClA = IntA \cup FrA$

Corollary: $ClA = A \cup FrA$

$Proof : Since \, A \subset ClA \, and \, FrA \subset ClA \, so \, that \, A \cup FrA \subset ClA \, ...(1)$

$Also \, FrA = [IntA \cup extA]^c = [IntA]^c \cap [extA]^c \quad again \, since \, IntA \subset A \, and$
$ClA = IntA \cup FrA \, it \, follows \, that \, ClA \subset A \cup FrA \, ...(2)$
$from \, 1 \, and \, 2 \, we \, get \, ClA = A \cup FrA$

Subspace:

Def^n : Let X be a topological space and let $Y \subset X$. The π-relative topology for

Y is the collection π_Y given by $\pi_Y = \{G \cap Y ; G \in \pi\}$.

The topological space (Y, π_Y) is called a subspace of (X,π), the topology π_Y on Y is said to be induced by π.

Theorem29: Let (X,π) be a topological space and let $Y \subset X$, then the collection $\pi_Y = \{G \cap Y; G \in \pi\}$ is a topology on Y.

Proof : T_1: $Since \phi \in \pi \ and \ \phi \cap Y = \phi \Rightarrow \phi \in \pi_Y \ a \ gain \ Y \cap X = Y \sin ce \ Y \subset X \ and \sin ce \ X \in \pi,$

we have $Y \in \pi_Y$.

T_2: Let $H_1, H_2 \in \pi_Y$, $Then \ H_1 = G_1 \cap Y \ and \ H_2 = G_2 \cap Y \ for \ same \ G_1, G_2 \in \pi$.

Now $H_1 \cap H_2 = G_1 \cap Y \cap G_2 \cap Y = (G_1 \cap G_2) \cap Y \in \pi_Y \ [Since G_1, G_2 \in \pi]$.

T_3: Let $H_\lambda \in \pi_Y; \forall \lambda \in \Delta$, $then \ \exists \ open \ set \ G_\lambda \ such \ that \ H_\lambda = G_\lambda \cap Y \ \forall \lambda \in \Delta$, now

$\bigcup \{H_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\} = \bigcup \{G_\lambda \cap Y; \lambda \in \Delta\} = \bigcup \{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Delta\} \cap Y \in \pi_Y \ \sin ce \ \bigcup \{G_\lambda, \lambda \in \Delta\} \in \pi$

Hence π_Y is a topology for Y.

Ex: Let X={a,b,c,d,e}, π={ϕ,{a},{b},{a,b},{a,c},{a,b,c},{a,b,e}{a,b,d,e},X}

Y={b,c,e} then

$\pi_Y = \{\phi, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b,c\}, \{b,e\}\}$

Def^n : Hereditarily property :

A property of a topological space is said to be hereditary if every subspace of the space has that property.

Ex: Consider the usual topology U of R and the subset [0,1] of R, then the set [0,1/2) is open in the U-relative topology of [0,1], since

$[0, \frac{1}{2}) = (-1, \frac{1}{2}) \cap [0,1] \ and \ (-1, \frac{1}{2})$ is U-open, similarly (3/4,1] is open in the U-relative Topology for [0,1], since $(\frac{3}{4},1] = (\frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{2}) \cap [0,1] \ and \ (\frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{2})$ is U-open.

Ex; Let U be the usual topology for R describe the relativization of U to the Set N of natural numbers.

Theorem 30: Let (Y,π_Y) be a sub-space of (X,π); then:

i- A subset A of Y is closed in Y iff there exists a set F closed in

X such that $A = F \cap Y$.

ii- For every $A \subseteq Y$, $cl_Y A = cl_X A \cap Y$.

iii- A subset M of Y is π_Y-nbd of a point $y \in Y$ iff $M = N \cap Y$ for some π-nbd N of Y.

iv- A point y in Y is π_Y- limit point of $A \subseteq Y$ iff y is a π -limit point of A , further $D_Y(A) = D(A) \cap Y$.

v- For every $A \subset Y$, $Int_Y A \supset Int_X A$

vi- For every A in Y $Fr_Y(A) \subset Fr_X(A)$.

Proof: i- A closed in Y iff Y/A is open in Y.

If f $Y/A = G \cap Y$ for some open set G of X.

If f $A = Y/(G \cap Y) = (Y/G) \cup (Y/Y)$

If f $A = Y/G$ [since $Y/Y = \phi$] De-Morgan law

If f $A = Y \cap G^c$ "The complement of G in X"

If f $A = Y \cap F$ where $F = G^c$ is closed in X.

ii- By def^n $Cl_Y A = \bigcap \{K; K \ is \ closed \ in \ Y, and \ A \subset K\}$

$$Cl_Y A = \bigcap \{F \cap Y : F \ is \ closed \ in \ X \ and \ A \subset F \cap Y$$
$$= \bigcap \{F \cap Y; F \ is \ closed \ and \ A \subset F\}$$
$$= [\bigcap \{F; F \ is \ closed \ and \ A \subset F\}] \cap Y$$
$$= Cl_X(A) \cap Y$$

iii- Let M be a π_Y-nbd of y, then there exists a π_Y-open set H such that

$y \in H \subset M \Rightarrow \exists a \ \pi - open \ set \ G \ such \ that \ y \in H = G \cap Y \subset M$. Let $N = M \cup G$.

Then N is a π-nbd of y since G is a π-open set such that $y \in G \subset N$.

$Further \ \ N \cap Y = (M \cup G) \cap Y = (M \cap Y) \cup (G \cap Y) = M \cup (G \cap Y) \ \ \ \ \ Since \ M \subset Y$
$\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ = M \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \sin ce \ G \cap Y \subset M$

Conversely Let $M = N \cap Y$ for some π-nbd N of y, then there exists

A π-open set G such that $y \in G \subset N$, $which\,implies\,that\;y \in G \cap Y \subset N \cap Y = M$

since $G \cap Y$ is π_Y –open set , M is π_Y-nbd of y,

vi- y is a π_Y-limit point of A if f $[M/\{y\} \cap A] \neq \Phi$ for all π_Y –nbds M of y.

if f $[N \cap Y/\{y\} \cap A \neq \Phi$ for all- nbds N of y

if f $[N/\{y\} \cap A] \neq \Phi$ for all nbds N of y

if f y is a π-limit point of A.

$v - x \in IntA \Rightarrow x \text{int} erior\, po \text{int}\, of\, A \Rightarrow A\, is\, a\, \pi - nbd\, of\, x$

$\Rightarrow A \cap Y\, is\, \pi_Y nbd\, of\, x$

$\Rightarrow A\, is\, a\, \pi_Y nbd\, of\, x \quad [\sin ce\, A \subset Y \Rightarrow A \cap Y = A$

$\Rightarrow x \in Int_Y A$

$Hence\, Int_X A \subset Int_Y A.$

$iv - y \in Fr_Y A \Rightarrow y\, is\, \pi_Y - fronier\, po\text{int}\, of\, A\, and\, Y\,/\,A$

$\Rightarrow every\, \pi_Y - nbd\, of\, y \text{int} er \sec ts\, both\, A\, and\, Y - A$

$\Rightarrow N \cap Y \text{int} er \sec tion\, both\, A\, and\, Y\,/\,A \quad \forall \pi - nbd\, N\, of\, y$

$\Rightarrow every\, \pi - nbd\, N\, of\, y\, \text{int} er \sec tion\, both\, A\, and\, X - A$

$\Rightarrow y\, is\, \pi - Frontier\, of\, A$

$\Rightarrow y \in Fr_X A$

$Hence\; Fr_Y A \subset Fr_X A.$

Theorem 31: let (Y, π_Y) be a subspace of a topological space of (X, π) and let

B be a base for π, then $\beta_y = \{\beta \cap Y; B \subset \beta\}$ is a base for π_Y

Proof: Let H be a π_Y open subset of Y and let x in H , then there exists a

π- open subset G of X such that $H = G \cap Y$. since β is a base for the

topologyπ

$\exists s\, B \in \beta\, such\, that\, x \in B \subset G, \sin ce\, H \subset Y, it\, follows\, that\, x \in Y\, and\, x \in B \cap Y \subset G \cap Y = H$

$hence \exists s\, a\, set\, B \cap Y \in \beta_Y, Such\, that\, x \in B \cap Y \subset H.$

$Thus\, to\, each\, x \in H, there\, exists\, a\, member\, \mathbf{B} \cap Y\, of\, B_Y\, such\, that\, x \in \mathbf{B} \cap Y \subset H,$

$that\, is\, H = \cup\{B \cap Y; B \cap Y \in \beta_y\, and\, B \cap Y \subset H\}$

Hence $\beta_y\, is\, a\, base\, for\, \pi_Y.$

Ex: X={a,b,c.d,e} and Y={a,c,e} $\pi_X = \{\phi,\{a\},\{a,b\},\{a,c,d\},\{a,b,c,d\},\{a,b,e\}, X\}$

$\pi_Y = \{\phi,\{a\},\{a,c\},\{a,e\}, Y\}$ $let\ A = \{a,e\} \subset Y$ $\ Int_Y A = \{a,e\}\ and\ Int_X A = \{a\}$

Separated Set

Definition: Let (X, τ) be a t.s. two non-empty subset A & B of X are said to be τ - separated iff $A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$ and $\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$.

Or equivalent we say $(A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (\bar{A} \cap B) = \emptyset$.

Note : Every separated set are disjoint but the converse not true in general

 Example: Let A= (-∞,0) and B=[0,∞) of R . A & B are disjoint which is not separated .

$\bar{A}$ =(-∞,0] and $\bar{A} \cap B$=(-∞,0] ∩[0,∞)={0}≠∅

Theorem(1) : Let (Y, τ_Y) be a subspace pf a t.s. (X, τ) and Let A , B be two subset of Y ,

then A , B are τ –separated iff τ_Y-separated .

Proof: since $CL_Y A = CL_X A \cap Y$ and $CL_Y B = CL_X B \cap Y$

Now $(CL_Y A \cap B) \cup (CL_Y B \cap A) =$

$= (CL_X A \cap Y) \cap B] \cup [(CL_X B \cap Y) \cap A]$

$= (CL_X A \cap B) \cup (CL_X B \cap A)$ [since A,B $\subset$ Y]

Hence [$(CL_Y A \cap B) \cup (CL_Y B \cap A) = \emptyset$ iff $(CL_X A \cap B) \cup (CL_X B \cap A) = \emptyset$] .

It follows that A,B are τ *–separated iff* τ_Y*-separated*

Theorem(2) *:* Two closed (open)subset A,B of a t.s (X, τ) are separated iff subset are disjoint

Proof: Since any two separated sets are disjoint , we need only to prove that two disjoint closed (open) sets are separated if A& B are both disjoint and closed , than A∩B=∅

$A = \bar{A}$ and $B = \bar{B}$ so that

A ∩B=A∩$\bar{B}$ = ∅ and A∩B=$\bar{A}$ ∩B= ∅

Showing that A&B are separated

If A and B are both disjoint and open then $A^c\ and\ B^c$ are both closed so that

$clA^c = A^c\ and\ clB^c = B^c$. Also

$A \cap B = \phi \Rightarrow A \subset B^c \;\; and \;\; B \subset A^c$

$\Rightarrow clA \subset clB^c = B^c \;\; and \;\; clB \subset clA^c = A^c$

$\Rightarrow clA \cap B = \phi \;\; and \;\;\;\; clB \cap A = \phi$

$\Rightarrow A \, and \, B \, are \, separated.$

Connected and disconnected sets

Definition: Let (X, τ) be t.s A subset A of X is said to be τ-disconnected iff it is the union of two non-empty τ-separated sets iff there exist two non-empty sets C and D .such that C∩D= and C∩D= , A=C U D , A is τ - connected if is not τ-disconnected .

Note: two points a and b of a t.s X are said to be connected iff they are contained in a connected subsets of X.

Theorem(3): *At.s X is disconnected iff ∃s a non empty proper subset which is both open and closed.*

Proof: let A be a non empty proper subset we have to prove that X is disconnected

Let B=A^c , then B is a non empty set moreover X=A∪B and A∩B=ϕ

Since A is both open and closed , hence $\overline{A}$=A and $\overline{B}$=B , it follows that A∩$\overline{B}$=ϕ and $\overline{A}$∩B=ϕ , thus X can be expressed as the union of two non-empty separated sets so X is disconnected

Conversely: let X be a disconnected set then ∃s a non empty subset A and B of X such that A∩$\overline{B}$=ϕ , $\overline{A}$∩B=ϕ , and X=A∪B.

Since A⊂$\overline{A}$, $\overline{A}$∩B=ϕ ⇒A∩B=ϕ , hence A=B^c and B is non –empty

A is proper subset of X

Now A∪$\overline{B}$=X ,[A∪B=X and B⊂$\overline{B}$, so A∪$\overline{B}$⊃X and A∪$\overline{B}$⊂X] always

Also A∩$\overline{B}$=ϕ ⇒ A=($\overline{B}$)^c and simillery B=($\overline{A}$)^c

Since $\overline{A}$ and $\overline{B}$ are closed so A&B are open , since A= B^c therefore A is closed thus A is a non-empty proper subset of X

Which both open and closed

Continuity in a topological space

Let (X,τ) and (Y,τ) be a topological space . A function $f(X,\tau)\to(Y,\tau)$ is said to be continuous iff for every μ-nbd M of f(x) $\exists$s a τ-nbd N of x s.t f(N)3M.

Also f is said to be continuous or (τ-μ continuous) iff it is continuous at each point of X.

It follows that from the definition that f is continuous at x_0 iff for every μ-open set H containing $f(x_0)$ $\exists$s an τ-open set G containing x_0 s.t $f(G)\subset H$.

Ex: X={a,b,c,d} and Y={1,2,3,4} $\iota=\{\phi,X,\{a\},\{b,a\},\{a,b,c\}\}$ $\mu=\{\phi,Y,\{1,2,3\},\{1,2\}\}$

And f :X→Y defined by f(a)=4 , f(d)=1,f(b)=2 , f(c0=3 . discuss the continuity X.

Solution : since $a\in X$ and f(a)=4 $f(a)=4\in Y$, $H\in Y$ is μ-open . {a}=G , $f(\{a\})=\{4\}\subset Y$

$f(G)\in H$

$\therefore$ f is continuous at a .

Since $b\in X$ f(b)=2

The μ-open set containing 2 are {1,2},{1,2,3} and Y.

The τ-open set containing b are {a,b},{a,b,c],X .

F(b)=$2\in\{1,2\}$ $b\in\{a,b\}$ $f(\{a,b\})=\{2,4\}\not\subset\{1,2\}$ $b\in\{a,b,c\}$

$F(\{a,b,c\})=\{2,4,3\not\subset\{1,2\}$ f is not continuous at b .

$c\in X$,f(c)=3   the μ-open set containing f(c)=3 are {1,2,3} and Y .

The τ-open set containing c are {a,b,c}and X.

$F(\{a,b,c\})=\{1,2,3\}\not\subset\{1,2,3\}$, $f(X)=Y\not\subset\{1,2,3\}$ f is not τ-μ continuous.

$\therefore$f is not continuous at c . f is not continuous at X .

$A\in$, f(d)=1 , μ-open set ={1,2},{1,2,3},Y   f :Y→X , τ-open set = X .

$F(X)=Y\not\subset\{1,2\}$ f is not continuous at d .

Theorem(4) *: let X and Y be a topological space A function f :X→Y is continuous iff the inverse image under f of every open set in Y is open in x.*

Proof : let f be continuous , and let H be an μ-open set.

We have to prove that $f^{-1}(H)$ is open .

if $f^{-1}(H)=\phi$ there is nothing to prove

if $f^{-1}(H)\neq\phi$ and let $x\in f^{-1}(H)$ so that $f(x)\in H$.

by continuity of f , $\exists$ an open set G containing x in X and $f(G)\subset H$ that is $x\in G\subset f^{-1}(H)$, $f^{-1}(H)$ is an open .

conversely : suppose that v is an open set for every open set H in Y

we shall show that f is continuous

let H be an open set Y containing $f(x)$, $x\in f^{-1}(H)$ but $f^{-1}(H)$ is an open set by hypothesis .

there for $f^{-1}(H)$ is an open set in X containing x.

put $G = f^{-1}(H)\rightarrow f(G)=f(f^{-1}(H))\subset H$

$\therefore$ $f(G)\subset H$, f is continuous (by def) .

Theorem(5) : *let X and Y be a topological space A function f :X→Y is continuous iff the inverse image under f of every closed set Y is closed in* X .

Proof : let f be a function and $F\subset Y$ is closed . $f^{-1}(F)$ is closed

Since F is closed in Y then $Y\backslash F$ is open in Y

By theorem $f^{-1}(Y\backslash F)=X\backslash f^{-1}(F)$ is open in X

$\therefore$ $f^{-1}(F)$ is closed in X

Conversely : to show that f is continuous , let $f^{-1}(F)$ be any closed subset in X for every $F\subset Y$ is closed . let G be any open set in Y ……….

Theorem(6*): let X and Y be any t.s then a function f :X→Y is continuous iff the inverse image of every sub base for Y is open in X* .

Proof : suppose f is continuous , and B* be a sub base for Y , since each member of B* is open in Y it follows from ((theorem 1)) that $f^{-1}(D)$ is open in X for every $D\in B*$

Conversely : let $f^{-1}(D)$ be an open set in X for every $D\in B*$ to show that f is continuous , let H be any open set for Y . let B , so that B is abase for Y ,

If $B \in B$ then $\exists D_1, D_2, D_3, \ldots, D_n$ (n finite) in B* s.t $B = D_1 \cap D_2 \cap \ldots \cap D_n$

$f^{-1}(D) = f^{-1}\{D_1 \cap D_2 \cap \ldots \cap D_n\} = f^{-1}(D_1) \cap f^{-1}(D_2) \cap f^{-1}(D_3) \cap \ldots \cap f^{-1}(D_n)$ by hypothesis

each of $f^{-1}(D_i)$ i=1,2,…,n are open set in X , and there for $f^{-1}(B)$ is an open set in X .

since B is abase for Y , $H \subset \cup \{B; B \subset G \subset B\}$, $f^{-1}(H) \subset f^{-1}(\cup \{B; B \in B\} = 99\{ f^{-1}(B); B \in B\}$

$\therefore f^{-1}(H_1)$ is an open set in X , so by (theorem 1.) f is continuous.

Theorem(7):*let X and Y be an t .s and f :X→Y is continuous iff the inverse image of every member base for Y is an open set in X .*

Theorem(8):*A function f from a space X in the another space Y is continuous iff f(clA)⊂clfA), 00⊂X.*

Proof: let f be a continuous function and let $A \subset X$, $\overline{f(A)}$ is closed set in Y

$\therefore f^{-1}(clf(A))$ is closed in X . by theorem 2 , and there for $clf^{-1}(clf(A)) = f^{-1}(clf(A))$---(*)

Now $f(A) \subset clf(A)[\therefore A \subset \overline{A}]$

$A \subset f^{-1}(f(A)) \subset f^{-1}(clf(A))$

$\therefore clA \subset f^{-1}(clf(A))$

$A \subset f^{-1}(clf(A))$

$\therefore clA \subset f^{-1}(clf(A))$

$F(clA) \subset f(f^{-1}(clf(A)) \subset clf(A)$

$\therefore f(clA) \subset clf(A)$.

Conversely : suppose that $f(clA) \subset clf(A)$ 00A⊂X , to show that f is continuous

Let F be any closed subset of Y , that is clF=F .

$f^{-1}(F)$ subset X so that by hypotheses $f^{-1}(clf(F)) \subset cl f f^{-1}(F) \subset clF=F$

there for $fclf^{-1}(F) \subset F$.

$clf^{-1}(F) \subset f^{-1}(F)$----(1)

but $f^{-1}(F) \subset clf^{-1}(F)$----(2) always by $[A \subset clA]$

from 1 and 2 we get $f^{-1}(F = cl f^{-1}(F)$, it follows that $f^{-1}(F)$ is closed subset of X

hence f is continuous by theorem 2

theorem(9):*A function f from a space X in the another space Y is continuous iff cl f $^{-1}(B) \subset f^{-1}(clB) \ \forall B \in Y$.*

proof: let f be a continuous function and let $B \subset Y$, since clB is a closed subset of Y ,

then $f^{-1}(clB)$ is a closed subset in X (bythe2) cl $f^{-1}(clB) = f^{-1}(clB)$---(1)

now $B \subset clB \rightarrow f^{-1}(B) \subset f^{-1}(clB)$

$\therefore$ cl $f^{-1}(B) \subset$ cl $f^{-1}(clB) = f^{-1}(clB)$.

cl $f^{-1}(B) \subset f^{-1}(clB)$

conversely : let the condition hold let F be any closed subset in Y . so that clF=F . by

hypothesis cl $f^{-1}(F) \subset f^{-1}(clF) = f^{-1}(F)$

$f^{-1}(F) \subset$ cl $f^{-1}(F)$ always

$\therefore$ $f^{-1}(F) =$ cl $f^{-1}(F)$

$\therefore$ $f^{-1}(F)$ is closed in X .

Ex: let τ and μ be two topology for R . find whether the function f: R $\rightarrow$R , define by

$f(x)=1 \ \forall \ x \in R$ is τ - μ continuous

Solution : let H be any μ-open set , if $1 \in H$ then $f^{-1}(H)=R$ and if $1 \notin H$ then $f^{-1}(H)=\Phi$

Since each of R and Φ, are open set in τ , so f is continuous

Example: let f and g be a function from R to R defined as follows:

 (a) $f(x)=x^2$, $\forall x \in R$ **(b)** $g(x)=|x|$, $\forall x \in R$

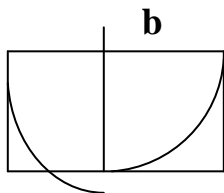Find whether each of these function is :

i- μ - μ continuous .   ii-S- μ continuous

iii-I - μ continuous   iv- D- μ continuous

solution : since the set of all interval (a,b) with a<b form a base for μ it is enough to see

whether $f^{-1}((a,b))$, $g^{-1}(a,b)$ are open w.r.t the given topology for R

$-\sqrt{b}$ a $\sqrt{b}$

$f^{-1}(G)= (-\sqrt{b}, \sqrt{b})$

$$f^{-1}(G)= \begin{cases} \Phi & \text{if } a<b\leq 0 \\ (-\sqrt{b}, \sqrt{b}) & \text{if } a<0<b \\ (-\sqrt{b}, -\sqrt{a})\cup(\sqrt{a}, \sqrt{b}) & \text{if } 0< a < b \end{cases}$$

i- as show above the inverse image of every interval (a,b) is μ-open .

$\therefore$ f is μ-μ continuous .

ii- since S is finer then μ [that is every μ-open is S-open] so that f is S-U-continuous

iii- If we take (a,b)=(1,2) then $f^{-1}(1,2)= (-\sqrt{2}, -1)\cup(1, \sqrt{2})$ which is not I-open

so f is not I-U continuous .

iv- since the inverse image of every open interval is D-open hence the space is D-U

continuous .

Q1: let f be a function of R into R defined as f(x)= $|x|$, $\forall x \in R$. find whether f is

I-U continuous   U-U continuous   D-U continuous   S-U continuous

Example: let f be a function of R in to R defined by

$$F(x)= \begin{cases} 1/x & x\neq 0 \\ 0 & x=0 \end{cases}$$

find whether f is U-U , I-U , S-U and D-U continuous .

solution :consider the open interval (-1,1) where $f^{-1}(-1,1)= f^{-1}\{(-1,0) \cup \{0\}\cup(0,1)\}$

$= f^{-1}(-1,0)\cup f^{-1}\{0\}\cup f^{-1}(-1,0)$

$=(-\infty,-1) \cup \{0\}\cup(1,\infty)$

Homomorphism

Definition : let (X, τ) and (Y, μ) be two topological spaces and let f be a function from X in to Y .. then

i-f is open function(interior function) iff f(G) is μ-open for every τ-open set G.

ii- f is closed function iff f(F) is μ-closed for every τ-closed set F.

iii- f is bicontinuous iff f is continuous and open function .

    iff [f and f^{-1} is continuous]

iv- f is homomorphism iff

1- f is bijective [1-1 and onto]

2-f is continuous

3- f is open [or f is closed or f^{-1} is continuous]

Definition : A space X is said to be homomorphism to another space Y if $\exists$ a homomorphism from X in to Y . and Y is said to be homeomorphic image of X we write $(X, \tau) \approx (Y, \mu)$.

Definition : A property of a topological space X is said to be a topological property if each homeomorphism of X has that property whenever X has that property .

[The image of every open set is open]

[The image of every closed set is closed]

Example: consider $\tau = \{ \varphi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}, X\}$, X={a,b,c} , Y={r,p,q},

$\mu = \{ \varphi, \{r\}, \{p,q\}, Y\}$

F(a)=f(b)=f(c)=r , find whether f is continuous , open , closed , continuous and homomorphism .

Solution : since $f^{-1}(\varphi) = \varphi$, $f^{-1}(\{x\}) = X$, $f^{-1}(\{p,q\}) = \varphi$, $f^{-1}(Y) = X$

Are τ-open hence f is continuous also since $f(\varphi)$, $f(\{a\}) = \{r\}$, $f(\{a,b\}) = \{r\}$, f(x)={r}

Which μ–open so f is open .

Since every τ-open (and μ–open) sets are τ-closed and μ–closed function .

F is continuous and open so f is continuous .

F is bijective   so f isn't homomorphism .

Example : show that the function f:R→R defined by

$$F(x)= \begin{cases} X & \text{where } x<1 \\ 1 & \text{where } x \in [1,2] \\ X^2/4 & \text{where } x>2 \end{cases}$$

Discuses the continuity and opens of f .

Solution : let (a,b) be any open interval then $f^{-1}[(a,b)]= \begin{cases} (a,b) & \text{if } a<b<1 \\ (a,2\sqrt{b}) & \text{if } a<1<b \\ (2\sqrt{a},2\sqrt{b}) & \text{if } 1<a<b \end{cases}$

Since the inverse image of every μ-open set is μ−open hence the function f is continuous.

open:let G be any open set containing x , let G=(1.5,1.9) , f(G)={1} which is not open

theorem(10):*let (X, τ) and (Y, μ) be two t.s the mapping f:X→Y is open iff*

f(IntA)⊂Int(f(A)),

proof : let f be an open function and let A⊂X , IntA is an open set in X , f(IntA) is μ-open since f is open , since IntA⊂A " always"

f(IntA)⊂f(A) ,

again since f(IntA) is μ-open there for f is an open function , then Int f(IntA)=f(IntA)---1

also f(IntA)⊂f(A) , Int f(IntA)=f(IntA)⊂Int f(A)

hence f(IntA)⊂Int f(A) .

conversely:

 suppose that the hypothesis hold , to show that f is open , let G be an τ-open set so Int G=G

f(G)=f(IntG)⊂Intf(G) by hypothesis

∴ f(G)⊂Int f(G) , but Int f(G)⊂f(G) always

$\therefore$ Int f(G)=f(G) which implies that f(G) is open .

Definition : A property of a topological space is said to be hereditary if every subspace of the space has that property .

Separation Axioms

T_0-space (KOLOMOGORV)

Def: the space (X,τ) is said to be a T_0-space iff for every two distinct point of X $\exists$ an open set G which contain one of them but not other **.**

Ex: the (X,I) is not T_0-space , (X,D) is T_0-space **.**

Theorem(11) : *A t.s (X,τ) is T_0-space iff for all $x,y \in X$, $x \neq y$ then $\{\bar{x}\} \neq \{\bar{y}\}$.*

Proof : suppose that (X,τ) is T_0-space and , Let , $x \neq y$ we wont to show that $\{\bar{x}\} \neq \{\bar{y}\}$

$\therefore (X,\tau)$ is a T_0-space , then $\forall$ $x \neq y$, $\exists$ an open set G containing x but not y . i.e $x \in G$ but $y \notin G$.

$\therefore y \in G^c$, then $\{\bar{y}\} \subset G^c$

Since $x \in G$, $x \notin G^c$, that $x \notin \{\bar{y}\}$, but $x \in \{\bar{x}\}$, hence $\{\bar{x}\} \neq \{\bar{y}\}$.

Conversely :Let $x \neq y$ and $\{\bar{x}\} \neq \{\bar{y}\}$, we have to show that (X,τ) is T_0-space

Since $\{\bar{x}\} \neq \{\bar{y}\}$, $\exists$ an element $z \in X$ s.t $z \notin \{\bar{y}\}$ but $z \in \{\bar{x}\}$.

Suppose that $x \in \{\bar{y}\}$ then $\{\bar{x}\} \subset \{\bar{\bar{y}}\} = \{\bar{y}\}$ which implies that $z \in \{\bar{y}\}$ which is contradiction

$\therefore x \notin \{\bar{y}\} \Rightarrow (x \in \{\bar{y}\})^c = X \backslash \{\bar{y}\}$

$\therefore \{\bar{y}\}^c$ is open set containing x but not containing y since $y \in \{\bar{y}\}$

$\therefore (X,\tau)$ is T_0.

Theorem(12):. *Every subspace of a T_0-space is a T_0-space. And hence the property is hereditary.*

Proof :.let(X,τ) be a T_0-space and let (y,τ_y) be any subspace of (X,τ) .we have td show that (y,τ_y) is a T_0-space.

let y_1, y_2 be any two distinct point of Y , since $Y \subset X$, so y_1, y_2 are two distinct point in X .

but (X, τ) is a T_0-space , so an open set G . s.t containing one of them (say) y_1 but not y_2

then $G \cap Y$ is an open set in Y

therefore $G \cap Y$ is a τ_y–open set containing y_1 but not y_2 it follows that (y, τ_y) is a T_0-space.

Theorem(13): *the property of space being a T_0-space is preserved under 1-1 , onto open function and hence is a topological property* .

Proof : let (X, τ) a T_0-space and let f be a 1-1 , onto open function from(X, τ) to another topological space (Y, μ) we have to show that (Y, μ) is a T_0-space

Let y_1, y_2 be any two distinct point in Y .

Since f is 1-1 , onto function , $\exists x_1, x_2 \in X$, s.t $f(x_1) = y_1$ and $f(x_2) = y_2$, $x_1 \neq x_2$.

Since (X, τ) is a T_0-space, $\exists$ a τ -open set G containing one of them(say) x_1 but not x_2

Since f is open function , so f(G) is μ-open set containing $f(x_1) = y_1$, but not $f(x_2) = y_2$.

Hence$(y, \mu)$is a T_0-space.

T_1-space :"Frechet space "

Definition : A t.s. (X, τ) is said to be aT_1-space iff for every two distinct points x and y of x. $\exists$ two open set. G and H s.t. $x \in G$ but $y \notin G$ and $y \in H$ but $x \notin H$.

Note: $T_1 \subset T_0$; that is every T_1-space is a to- space but the converse may not be true in general .

For example: let x be any set and $a \in x$, a is an arbitrary element : Z={ φ ,every subset containing a}

(X, τ) is a T_0-space , but(X, τ) is not T_1-space .

Since every open set containing b contains a also :where $a \neq b$.

 Example : IS (R,U) is a T_1- space .

Solu: let x,ybe any two distinct real numbers . and let $y > x$, let y-x=k then

G={(x-k/4,x=x+k/4)}and H={(y-k/4,y+k/4)}are μ–open , s.t.$x \in G$ but $x \notin H$ and $y \in H$ but $y \notin G$. hence (R,u)is T_1-space

Theorem(14): the *space (X, τ) is T_1-space iff every singleton on subset of x is closed* .

Proof: suppose that every singleton subset of x is closed ,to show that$(X, \tau)$is

aT$_1$-space

Let x, y$\in$X and x $\neq$ y ,{x}and {y}are closed set .

y$\notin${x}$\Rightarrow$then y$\in${x}^{c}

$\therefore$ {x}^{c}is an open set containing y but not x. and {y}^{c}is an open set containing x but not y

$\therefore(X, \tau)$ is a T$_1$-space .

Conversely: Let (X, τ) be a T$_1$-space and let x $\in$X ,we have two show that {x}is closed ,

Since $(X, \tau)$is a T$_1$- space

$\therefore \forall$ y$\in$X , and x $\neq$ y.

$\exists$an open set G containing y but not x.

x$\notin$G$_y \subseteq${x}

$\therefore$ {x}^{c} is the union of all open set containing y . { x}^{c} is open ,{x}is closed

Theorem(15): *the property of a space being a T$_1$- space preserved under 1-1 ,on to*

open function and hence is a topological property .

Proof : let (X, τ) be a T$_1$-space and let f be 1-1 ,open function of (X, τ) on to another t.s.

(y, μ)is we shall show that (y, μ) is a T$_1$- space .

Let y$_1$,y$_2$ be any two distinct points of y, since f is 1-1 and on to,$\exists$a distances points x$_1$,

x$_2$ $\in$X, s.t. y$_1$=f (x$_1$)and y$_2$=f (x$_2$)

since (X, τ) is a T$_1$-space , $\exists$T$_1$-open set G and H s.t x$_1\in$G,x$_1\notin$H and x$_2\in$H but x$_2\notin$G

since f is an open function . f(G)and f(H)are μ -open subset in y .such that y$_1$=f(x$_1$)$\in$f(G)

but y$_2$=f(x$_2$)$\notin$f(G) . and y$_1$=f (x$_1$)$\in$f(H) but y$_2$ =f(x$_2$)$\notin$f(H).

hence (y, μ) is a T$_1$-space .

EXersises:

1- show that every finite T$_1$-space is discreet .

2- show that a t.s (X, τ) is T$_1$-space iff τ –contains a co-finite topology on X

3- show that every topology finer than T$_1$-topology on any set X is a T$_1$-topology .

4- prove that for any set X ,$\exists$s a unique smallest topology τ –set (X, τ) is a T$_1$-space

5- prove that a finite subset of a T_1-space has no a accumulation points.

T2-space : Hausdoff space

Definition : a t.s (X, τ) is said to be a T_2-space iff for every two disjoint points x_1, x_2 , $\exists$ disjoint open set G_1, G_2 s.t , $x_1 \in G_1$ and $x_2 \in G_2$, that is $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X$, $x_1 \neq x_2$, $\exists$ two open set G_1, G_2 , $G_1 \cap G_2 = \phi$, and $x_1 \in G_1$, $x_2 \in G_2$.

Example: show that (R,U) and (R,S) are T_2-space **.**

Solution: let a,b be any tow distinct points in R , and a>b so $|a-b| = \zeta$ then

(a- ζ /4 , a+ζ /4)=G and (b-ζ /4,b+ζ /4) =H are tow W-open set containing   a &b respectively and $G \cap H = \phi$, so the space is T_2-space **.**

Example: Consider the co-finite topology on an infinite set X , show that it is not T_2-space .

Solution: For this topology no two open set can be disjoint , suppose if possible that G,H are tow disjoint open subsets of X so that $G \cap H = \phi$.

Then $(G \cap H)^c = \phi^c$

$G^c \cup H^c = \phi^c = X$ (De Morgan)

$G^c \cup H^c = X$

But G^c and H^c are finite [by definition of co finite then $G^c \cup H^c$ is finite also which is contradiction .

Theorem(16): *let (X, τ) be a t.s and let (Y, μ) be a housdorff space , let f:X$\rightarrow$Y be a 1-1 , onto and continuous function then X is also housdorff .*

Proof: let x_1, x_2 be any tow distinct point of X , since f is 1-1 , and $x_1 \neq x_2$ then $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$.

Let $y_1 = f(x_1)$, $y_2 = f(x_2)$ so that $x_1 = f^{-1}(y_1)$, $x_2 = f^{-1}(y_2)$.

Then $y_1, y_2 \in Y$ s.t $y_1 \neq y_2$

Since (Y, μ) is ahousdorff space , s a μ-open set G and H s.t $y_1 \in G_1$, $y_2 \in G_2$ and $G \cap H = \phi$, Since f is continuous , $f^{-1}(G)$ and $f^{-1}(H)$ are τ –open set

Now $f^{-1}(G) \cap f^{-1}(H) = f^{-1}(G \cap H) = f^{-1}(\phi) = \phi$

And $y_1 \in G \Rightarrow f^{-1}(y_1) \in f^{-1}(G) \Rightarrow x_1 \in f^{-1}(G)$

$Y_2 \in H \Rightarrow f^{-1}(y_2) \in f^{-1}(H) \Rightarrow x_2 \in f^{-1}(H)$

Hence the space is housdorff .

Theorem(17): *every subspace of T_2-space is a T_2-space .*

Proof: let (X, τ) be a T_2-space and let(Y, μ) be any subspace of X ,

Let y_1, y_2 be any tow distinct points of y ,

Since $Y \subset X$, then y_1, y_2 are tow distinct point in X but (X, τ) is T_2-space , so tow open

set H,G s.t $y_1 \in G$, $y_2 \in H$ and $G \cap H = \phi$

But by def , $G \cap Y$ and $Y \cap H$ are τ_y–open sets and

$(G \cap Y) \cap (H \cap Y) = (G \cap H) \cap Y = \phi \cap Y = \phi$

Thus $G \cap Y$, $H \cap Y$ are tow disjoint τ_y–open sets , Hence the subspace (Y_1, τ_y) is T_2-space.

Theorem(18): *Each singleton subset of a T_2-space is closed .*

Proof : Let X be a housdorff space , Let $x \in X$

To show that $\{x\}$ is closed , Let y be an arbitrary point of X distinct from x . Since the

space is T_2-space , $\exists$ an open set G containing y , $x \notin G$ it follows that y is not an

accumulation points of $\{x\}$, so $D(\{x\}) = \phi$.

Hence $\{\bar{x}\} = \{x\}$ it follows that $\{x\}$ is closed set .

Theorem(19): *Every T_2-space is a T_1-space but the converse is not true in general*

Proof: let(X, τ) be a T_2-space and let y_1, y_2 be any two distinct point of X , since the

space X is a T_2-space so , tow open set G , H s.t $y_1 \in G$, $y_2 \in H$ and $G \cap H = \phi$ this implies

that $y_1 \in G$ but $y_1 \notin H$ and $y_2 \notin G$ but $y_2 \in H$.

Hence the space is a T_2-space .

But the converse in above example of co-finite topology on an infinite set X , is not T_2-space , but it is T_1-space since for if x is an arbitrary point of , then by Def of τ X/$\{x\}$

is open {be any the finite set } and consequently $\{x\}$ is closed

The every singleton subset of X is closed and hence the space is T_1-space .

Example: Let (X, τ) be a t.s and Let(Y, μ) be a housdorff space . if f and g are continuous function from X in to Y , show that the set $A=\{x \in X; f(x)=g(x)\}$ is closed

Solution: we shall show that X\A is open set .

Now $X \backslash A = \{x \in X; f(x) \neq g(x)\}$------(1) , Let p be an arbitrary point of X\A .

Put $y_1 = f(p)$ and $y_2 = g(p)$, we have $y_1 \neq y_2$, thus y_1, y_2 are tow distinct point in a housdorff space, $\exists$ two μ-open sets G and H s.t $y_1 = f(p) \in G, y_2 = g(p) \in H$ and $G \cap H = \phi$

$p \in f^{-1}(G), p \in g^{-1}(H), p \in f^{-1}(G) \cap g^{-1}(H) = V$,

since f , g are continuous function

$\therefore f^{-1}(G)$, $g^{-1}(H)$ are open set, Hence is open set We have to show that $V \subset X \backslash A$

Let $y \in V = f^{-1}(G) \cap g^{-1}$ then $y \in f^{-1}(G)$ and $y \in g^{-1}(H)$

$\quad\quad\quad f(y) \in G$ and $g(y) \in H$, since $G \cap H = \phi$ it follows that $f(y) \neq g(y)$ and by(1)

$y \in X \backslash A$, thus we shown that to each arbitrary point $y \in V$, also $y \in X \backslash A$,

hence $V \subset X \backslash A$

X\A is an open set

There for A is closed

Regular and T_3-space

Def: A t.s (X, τ) is said to be a regular space iff for every closed set F and every point $p \in F$, $\exists$ Tow open sets G and H s.t $p \in G, F \subset G$ and $G \cap H = \phi$

The regular space which is also T_1-space is called a T_3-space

Example: Let X={a,b,c} , and Let $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b,c\}, X\}$

$$\tau^c = \{, X\{b,c\}, \{a\}, \phi\}$$

Example: show that (R,U) is a T_3-space .

Solution: let F be a U-closed subset and let $x \in R$, s.t $x \notin F$…….

Theorem(20): *A t.s X is regular iff for every point $x \in X$ and every nbd N of x 9 a nbd M of x such that $\overline{M} \subset N$.*

Proof :"The only if part" let N be any nbd of x .then $\exists$ an open set G such that $x \in G \subset N$.

Since G^c is closed and $x \notin G^c$,

But the space is regular $\exists$ two disjoint open set L&M such that $G^c \subset L$ and $x \in M$.

So that $M \subset L^c$ it follows that

$\overline{M} \subset \overline{Lc} = L^c$ --------- (*)

But $G^c \subset L \rightarrow L^c \subset G \subset N$ -----(**)

From (*) and (**) we get $\overline{M} \subset N$.

The" if part" let the condition hold .

Let f be any closed subset of x .and $x \notin F$, then $x \in F^c$,

Since F^c is an open set containing , so by hypothesis $\exists$ an open set M such that $x \in M$

and $\overline{M} \subset F^c \rightarrow F \subset (\overline{M})^c$ then $(\overline{M})^c$ is an open set , containing F also

$M \cap M^c = \emptyset, M \cap (\overline{M})^c = \emptyset$

$\therefore$ The space is regular

Example: Every T_3-space is a T_3-space

Solu :let (X, τ) be a T_9-space , and let x,y be any two distinct point.

Now by definition of X , the space is R T_1 and so $\{x\}$ is a closed set also $y \notin \{x\}$.

Since X is regular . $\exists$ two open set G&H such that $y \in G$,$\{x\} \subset H$ & $G \cap H = \emptyset$,but $x \in \{x\}$ $\subset H$, hence the space is T_2.

Theorem(21): *Every compact housdorf space is a T_3-space*

Proof //let (X, τ) be compact housdorff space

To show that (X, τ) is a T_3-space

since X is housdorff , so X is a T_1-space , it suffices to show that (X, τ) is a regular , let

F be a closed subset of X and let $p \in X$ such that $p \notin F$

so $p \in X \backslash F$, since (X, τ) is a housdorff space so for every $x \in F$,there must exist two open

sets $G(x) \cap H(x) = \emptyset \ldots$ (*)

The collection $C = \{H(x) ; x \in F\}$ is open cover of F.

Since F is a closed subset of a compact space X, so that F is compact (by theorem)

Hence $\exists$s a finite numbers of points $x_1, x_2, .., x_n$ in F such that $F \subset \{H(x_i), i=1,2,...,n\}$, let

$H = U\{H(x_i), i=1,2,...,n\}$

And $G = \cap \{G(x_i), i=1,...,n\}$

Then $p \in G$, since $p \in G(x_i)$ for each x_i also $G \cap H = \emptyset$,

[other wise $G(x_k) \cap H(x_k) \neq \emptyset$ for some $x_k \in F$ this contradict(*)]

hence the space is regular .

Normal $+ T_3 = T_4$

Normal space and T_4 –space

Definition : At.s.(X, τ) is said to be normal iff for every pair of disjoint τ -closed subset

L and M of x , $\exists$s τ - open sets G and H such that $L \subset G$, $M \subset H$ and $G \cap H = \emptyset$.

A normal space which T_1 –space is called a T_4–space

Example :lets $X = \{a,b,c\}$, $T = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{b,c\}\}$ since the only disjoint closed subsets are

$\{a\}$,$\{b,c\}$ which is also are τ -open sets.

The space is normal.

But τ is not a T_1-space .

Since $b \neq c$,there does not exist an open set containing one of them but not the other .

Theorem(22);*A t.s (X, τ) is normal iff for any closed set F , and open set G^**

containing F, $\exists$ an open set V such that $F \subset H^*$ and $\overline{H}^* \subset G^*$

Proof // the "only if part "let X be a normal space , and let F be any closed set and G be

an open set containing F.

G is open $\Rightarrow G^c$ is closed , and $F \cap G^c = \emptyset$, since the space is normal $\exists$ two disjoint open

set H^* and G^* such that $F \subset H^*$, $G^c \subset G^*$ and $H^* \cap G^* = \emptyset$ so that $H^* \subset G^*$

But $H^* \subset G^{*c} \Rightarrow \overline{H^*} \subset \overline{G^*c} = G^{*c}$ ……. 1

Also $G^c \subset G^* \rightarrow G^{*c} \subset G$ ……… 2

From 1 and 2 we get $\overline{H^*} \subset G$

The "if part "suppose the hypothesis is hold and to show that the space (X, τ) is normal

.

Let L and M be any two disjoint closed subset of X . that is L∩M=Ø then L⊂M^c ,[L is closed , M^c is an open set containing by hypothesis ∃an open set H*such that L⊂H* , and $\overline{H*}$⊂M^c which implies that also H*∩($\overline{H*}$)^c=Ø thus the space is normal

Theorem(23): *normality is topological property*

Theorem(24): *every closed subset of a normal space is normal space is normal* .

Proof :let(X,τ) be a normal space , and let (Y,τ y) be any closed subspace of X we have to show that (Y,τ y) is normal

Let L*, M*be any two disjoint closed subset of Y, then ∃a subset L,M of X such that L*=L∩Y,M*=M ∩Y since Y is closed it follows that L*and M*are τ -closed subset in X. Since X is normal , ∃two τ -open set G and H such that L* ⊂H ,

M*⊂G and H∩G= Ø .

So L*⊂H and L* ⊂Y → L* ⊂H∩Y

M*⊂G and M*⊂Y → M*⊂G∩Y

And (H∩Y)∩(G∩Y)=(H∩G)∩Y=Ø∩Y=Ø

L* ⊂H∩Y , M*⊂G∩Y and (H∩Y)∩(G∩Y)= Ø, hence the space is normal .

Example: *show that if the space is normal*.

Let L,M be any U-closed subset of R   s.t   L∩M=Ø

Let r∈L then r∉M and so r∈R\M since R\M is U – open ,∃ ζ >0 such that (r-ζ , r +ζ)⊂R\M, therefore (r-ζ,r +ζ)∩M=Ø

Let G=U{ (r –ζ /3, r+ζ /3) ; r∈L then L⊂G . similarly it can be shown that for each m∈M , ∃$_s$$\delta$ >0 such that (m- δ ,m+δ)∩L =Ø, and let H=U{(m-δ /3, m+δ /3) ; m∈M} therefore m⊂H,thus G,H are two open set such that L⊂G,M⊂H

we have two show that G∩H=Ø.

Suppose is possible that x∈G∩H so x∈G and x∈H . then x∈ (r-ζ /3 ,ζ/3)for some r∈L and x∈(m-ζ/3 , m+ζ) for some m∈M we then have /r-x/<ζ/3 and /m-x /<ζ/3 hence / r-m /=/r-x+x-m/ ≤ /r-x/ +/m-x / <ζ/3 +ζ/3 if ζ<δ then /r-m/ <ζ and so r∈ (m-ζ/3,m+ζ) which is C!

if δ <ζ then \r-m\ <ζ, and m∈ (r-ζ/3 , r+ζ/3)which is contradiction

it follows that G∩H=Ø hence the space is normal

Urysohn's lemma

let F_1, F_2 be any pair of disjoint closed set in a normal space X, ∃a continuous function F:X→ [o,1] s.t f(x) =o for x∈F_1, and f (x)=1 for x∈F_2

Completely regular space and tychonoff space .

Def: A topological space X is said to be completely regular iff for every closed subset F of X and every point x∈X\F , ∃a continuous function f of X in to the subspace [0,1] of R . s.t f(x)=0 and f(F)=1

A tychonoff space (or T_3-1/2space) is completely regular and T_1-space .

Theorem(25): *A t.s(X, τ)is completely regular iff for every x∈X and every open set G containing x ∃$_s$ a continuous function f of X in to [0,1] such that f(x)=0 and f(y)=1*
∀ y∈X\G

Proof: Let (Y,τ) be a completely regular space and G be an open set containing x , such that x∉X\G then X\G is a closed set which dose not containing x .

By definition of completely regular ∃a continuous function f from (X,τ) in to a subset [0,1] such that f(x)=0 , f(y)=1 for all y∈X\G .

Conversely : Let the condition is hold

Let F be any closed subset of X and x be a point of X such that x∉F . then x∈X\F and since F is closed so X\F is an open set containing x

By hypothesis ∃s a continuous function f from (X,τ) into a subset [0,1] s.t f(x)=0 , f(y)= 1 for all y∈X{X\F}=F

Hence the space is C.R

Theorem(26)*: Every completely regular space is regular . Hence every tychonoff space is a T_3-space .*

Proof: Let X be a completely regular, Let F be a closed subset of X , and let x be a point of X such that x∉F since the space is completely regular . ∃ a continuous function f from(X,τ) into subset [0,1] such that f(x)=0, f(F)={1} .

Also we can see that the space [0,1] with the relative usual topology is a T_2-space

Hence ∃ open sets G and H of [0,1] s.t $0 \in G$ and $1 \in H$ and G∩H=Ø since f is a

continuous then $f^{-1}(G)$ and $f^{-1}(H)$ are open set in (X, τ) s.t

$f^{-1}(G) \cap f^{-1}(H) = f^{-1}(G \cap H) = f^{-1}(Ø) = Ø$

Further $f(x) = 0 \in G \rightarrow x \in f^{-1}(G)$ and $f(F) = \{1\} \subset H \rightarrow F \subset f^{-1}(H)$

Hence the space is regular

Theorem(27): *Every T_4-space is a tychonoff space*.

Proof: Let (X, τ) be a T_4-space by definition T_4=normal+T_1

To show that the space is tychonoff space it suffices to show that the space is C.R,

So Let F be a closed subset of X , and let x be a point of X s.t $x \notin F$,

since the space (X, τ) is a T_1- so $\{x\}$ is closed subset of X ,

thus $\{x\}$ and F are two disjoint closed subset of a normal space

So by ((Urshon's Lemma)) ∃ a continuous function f from (X, τ) in to the set [0,1] s.t

$f(\{x\}) = 0$ i.e $f(x) = 0$ and $f(F) = \{1\}$

it follows that the space is C.R .