

# MATH 3961 - METRIC SPACES

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## 1. METRIC SPACES

**Definition 1.1** (Metric). A metric, or distance function, on a set  $X$  is a mapping  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$ , and  $d(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$ .
- $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ .
- $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in X$ .

We call  $(X, d)$  a **metric space**.

**Definition 1.2** (Open ball). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. For  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , the set  $B_d(x, \epsilon)$  defined by

$$B_d(x, \epsilon) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < \epsilon\}$$

is called an **open ball** in the set  $X$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Open sets in metric spaces). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $U$  be any subset of  $X$ . Then  $U$  is called an **open set** in  $X$  if every point of  $U$  is an interior point of  $U$ ; that is, for any  $a \in U$ , there is an open ball  $B(a, \epsilon)$  such that  $B(a, \epsilon) \subseteq U$ .

**Definition 1.4** (Properties of open sets). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

- $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are open.
- The union of an arbitrary collection of open sets is open.
- The intersection of a **finite** number of open sets is open.

**Definition 1.5** (Closed set). A subset  $A$  of a metric space  $(X, d)$  is **closed** if its complement  $X \setminus A$  is open in  $X$ .

**Definition 1.6** (Properties of closed sets). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

- $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are closed.
- The union of a finite collection of closed sets is closed.
- The intersection of an arbitrary number of closed sets is closed.

**Definition 1.7** (Limit point of a subset). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . Then a point  $x$  in  $X$  is a **limit point** of  $A$  if every open ball  $B(x, \epsilon)$  contains at least one point of  $A$ .

The set of all limit points of  $A$  is called the **derived set**  $A'$ .

**Definition 1.8** (Closure of a set). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then the set consisting of  $A$  and its limit points is called the **closure** of  $A$ , denoted  $\bar{A}$ .

$$\bar{A} = A \cup A'$$

**Theorem 1.9.** *The closure of a set is a closed set, and a set is closed if and only if it is equal to its closure.*

**Definition 1.10** (Interior of a set). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $A \subseteq X$ . A point  $a \in A$  is an **interior point** of  $A$  if there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that

$$B(a, \epsilon) \subseteq A$$

The set of interior points of  $A$  is called  $\text{Int } A$ , the **interior** of  $A$ .

**Theorem 1.11.** *The set  $\text{Int } A$  is open, and a set  $A$  is open if and only if  $\text{Int } A = A$ .*

**Theorem 1.12** (Properties of interior and closure). *The interior of a set  $A$  is the largest open subset contained in  $A$ , and the closure of  $A$  is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ .*

**Definition 1.13** (Isolated point). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . A point  $x \in A$  is called an **isolated point** if there exists an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that

$$B(x, \epsilon) \setminus \{x\} \cap A = \emptyset$$

**Definition 1.14** (Boundary of a subset). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then the **boundary** of  $A$  is defined as

$$\partial A = \overline{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A} = \overline{A} \setminus \text{Int } A$$

**Theorem 1.15** (Properties of the boundary). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $A \subset X$ . Then we have*

- $\overline{A} = \text{Int } A \cup \partial A$ .
- $A$  is closed if and only if  $\partial A \subseteq A$ .
- $A$  is open if and only if  $\partial A \subseteq X \setminus A$ .
- $\partial(X \setminus A) = \partial A$ .

**Definition 1.16** (Diameter of a set). The diameter of a subset  $A$  of a metric space  $(X, d)$ ,  $\delta(A)$  is defined as

$$\delta(A) = \sup_{x, y \in A} d(x, y)$$

**Definition 1.17** (Bounded set). A subset  $A$  of a metric space  $(X, d)$  is **bounded** if its diameter is finite. Alternatively, a subset is bounded if it is contained in a large enough open set - i.e., there exists  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $A \subseteq B(x, \epsilon)$

### 1.1. Separable metric spaces.

**Definition 1.18** (Separable metric space). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Then a subset  $A$  of  $X$  is said to be **dense** in  $X$  if  $\overline{A} = X$ . A metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be **separable** if  $X$  has a countable dense subset.

**Corollary 1.19.** *We note that  $A$  is dense in  $X$  if and only if for any  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a point  $a \in A$  such that  $d(x, a) < \epsilon$ .*

### 1.2. Subspaces.

**Definition 1.20** (Open sets in a subspace). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be a metric subspace of  $(X, d)$ . Let  $G$  be a subset of  $Y$ . Then  $G$  is open in  $Y$  if and only if, for any  $x \in G$ , there is an open ball  $B(x, \epsilon)$  in  $X$  such that

$$B(x, \epsilon) \cap Y \subseteq G$$

A subset  $H$  of  $Y$  is closed in  $Y$  if its complement  $G = Y \setminus H$  of  $H$  is open in  $Y$ .

**Theorem 1.21** (Open sets in a metric subspace). *Let  $(Y, d_Y)$  be a metric subspace of a metric space  $(X, d)$ , and let  $G \subseteq Y$ . Then  $G$  is open in  $Y$  if and only if there exists an open subset  $U$  in  $X$  such that  $G = U \cap Y$ .*

### 1.3. Convergence in a Metric Space.

**Definition 1.22** (Convergence). A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to **converge** to a point  $x \in X$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$$

The point  $x$  is called a **limit** of the sequence  $(x_n)$

**Corollary 1.23.** *A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to **converge** to a point  $x \in X$  if any open ball  $B(x, \epsilon)$  contains almost all  $x_n$ .*

**Theorem 1.24** (Connection between closed sets and convergent sequences). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space,  $A \subseteq X$  and  $x \in X$ . Then*

- $x \in \bar{A}$  if and only if there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $A$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$ .
- $A$  is closed if and only if  $A$  contains all the limits of convergent sequences in  $A$ .

**Definition 1.25** (Uniform convergence). Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of real-valued functions defined on a set  $S$  and let  $f$  be a function defined on  $S$ . Then we say that the sequence  $(f_n)$  converges to  $f$  uniformly if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that

$$\sup_{x \in S} d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$$

for all  $n > N$ , and where  $N$  is independent of  $x$ .

**Definition 1.26** (Cauchy Sequences). A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be **Cauchy** in  $X$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that

$$m, n > N \Rightarrow d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$$

**Definition 1.27** (Completeness in Metric Spaces). A space  $X$  is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence in  $X$  converges in  $X$ .

**Proposition 1.28.** Every convergent sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is a Cauchy sequence.

**Corollary 1.29.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space. Then a closed metric subspace  $Y = (Y, d_Y)$  of  $X$  is complete.

**Proposition 1.30.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. If a Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $(X, d)$  has a subsequence converging to  $x$ , then  $(x_n)$  converges to  $x$ .

## 2. CONTINUOUS MAPPINGS

**Definition 2.1** (Continuous mapping between metric spaces). Let  $(X, d)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be two metric spaces. Then a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is said to be **continuous** at a point  $a \in X$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta$  such that

$$d_X(x, a) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(a)) < \epsilon$$

**Theorem 2.2** (Topological characterisations of continuity). A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous at  $a \in X$  if and only if for any open set  $W$  containing  $f(a)$ , there exists an open set  $G$  containing  $a$  such that  $f(G) \subseteq W$ .

**Theorem 2.3** (Sequential characterisation of continuity). A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous at  $a \in X$  if and only if for any sequence  $(x_n)$  which converges to  $a$  in  $X$ , the corresponding sequence  $(f(x_n))$  converges to  $f(a)$  in  $Y$ .

**Definition 2.4** (Continuous mapping). A map is continuous on  $X$  if and only if it is continuous at every point in  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.5** (Topological definition of continuous mapping). A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous on  $X$  if and only if for any open set  $W$  in  $Y$ , the set  $f^{-1}(W)$  is open in  $X$ . Alternatively, a function is continuous if the preimage of open sets are open in  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.6** (Continuity in terms of closed sets). A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous on  $X$  if and only if the preimage of closed sets are closed in  $X$ .

## 3. HOMEOMORPHISM AND EQUIVALENT METRICS

**Definition 3.1** (Homeomorphism). Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a map between them. Then  $f$  is a **homeomorphism** from  $X$  to  $Y$  if we have

- $f$  is a bijection.
- $f$  and  $f^{-1}$  are continuous

If a homeomorphism exists between  $X$  and  $Y$ , we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are **homeomorphic**, and that  $X \simeq Y$ .

**Definition 3.2** (Characterisations of homeomorphism). Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a bijective mapping. Then the following are equivalent.

- $f$  is a homeomorphism;
- for any  $U \subseteq X$ ,  $U$  is open in  $X$  if and only if  $f(U)$  is open in  $Y$ ;
- for any  $G \subseteq X$ ,  $G$  is closed in  $X$  if and only if  $f(G)$  is closed in  $Y$ ;
- for any  $A \subseteq X$ ,  $f(\overline{A}) = \overline{f(A)}$ ;
- for any  $B \subseteq Y$ ,  $\overline{f^{-1}(B)} = f^{-1}(\overline{B})$
- for any  $B \subseteq Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(\text{Int } B) = \text{Int } f^{-1}(B)$

**Definition 3.3** (Isometric mappings). Let  $(X, d)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be two metric spaces and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  a mapping. Then  $f$  is said to be **isometric** or an **isometry** if  $f$  preserves distances; that is, for all  $x, y \in X$ ,

$$d_Y(f(x), f(y)) = d_X(x, y)$$

The space  $X$  is said to be isometric with the space  $Y$  if there exists a bijective isometry of  $X$  onto  $Y$ . The spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  are isometric spaces

**Theorem 3.4.** *Any isometric mapping from  $X$  onto  $Y$  is a homeomorphism. Moreover, if  $X$  is complete and  $Y$  is isometric with  $X$ , then  $Y$  is also complete.*

**Definition 3.5** (Equivalent metrics). Let  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  be two metric spaces. If the identity mapping  $\text{id} : (X, d_1) \rightarrow (X, d_2)$  is a homeomorphism, then the metrics  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are said to be equivalent on  $X$ .

**Theorem 3.6** (Characterisations of equivalent metrics). *Let  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  be two metric spaces. Then the following are equivalent.*

- The metrics  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are equivalent on  $X$ ;
- for any  $U \subseteq X$ ,  $U$  is open in  $(X, d_1)$  if and only if  $U$  is open in  $(X, d_2)$ ;
- for any  $G \subseteq X$ ,  $G$  is closed in  $(X, d_1)$  if and only if  $G$  is closed in  $(X, d_2)$ ;
- The sequence  $(x_n)$  converges to  $a$  in  $(X, d_1)$  if and only if it converges to  $a$  in  $(X, d_2)$ .

**Theorem 3.7** (Equivalent metrics). *Let  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  be two metric spaces. If there exist strictly positive numbers  $c$  and  $C$  such that*

$$cd_1(x, y) \leq d_2(x, y) \leq Cd_1(x, y)$$

*for all  $x, y \in X$ , then the metrics  $d_1, d_2$  are equivalent on  $X$ .*

## 4. CONTRACTION MAPPING THEOREM

**Definition 4.1** (Uniformly continuous). A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is uniformly continuous if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d_X(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$$

where  $\delta$  is independent of  $x, y$ .

**Definition 4.2** (Contraction mapping). Let  $f$  be a mapping from a metric space  $(X, d)$  to itself. Then  $f$  is called a **contraction mapping** if there exists a constant  $K > 1$  such that for all  $x, y \in X$ ,

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \leq K d(x, y)$$

**Proposition 4.3.** *If  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is a contraction mapping, then  $f$  is **uniformly continuous**, and hence continuous, on  $X$*

**Theorem 4.4** (Banach fixed point theorem). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space and let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be a contraction mapping. Then  $f$  has a unique fixed point  $p$  in  $X$*

*Proof. Existence:* Show that the sequence  $(x_n)$ , defined as  $x_n = f^n(x_0)$  for some  $x_0 \in X$  is Cauchy.

**Uniqueness:** If  $p$  and  $q$  are fixed points of  $f$ , then we have that

$$d(p, q) = d(f(p), f(q)) \leq K d(p, q)$$

and so  $p = q$ . □

**Corollary 4.5** (Application of Banach fixed point theorem to ordinary differential equations). *We seek to solve the differential equation*

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t, x)$$

*given the initial condition  $x(t_0) = x_0$ .*

*Define  $Y$  be the subspace of the set of all continuous functions on  $[t_0 - \beta, t_0 + \beta]$  with the supremum metric, satisfying  $d(x(t), x_0) < c\beta$ . We claim that the mapping  $F : Y \rightarrow Y$  defined by*

$$F(x(t)) = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(s, x(s)) ds$$

*is a contraction mapping. As  $F$  is a contraction mapping on a complete metric space, we must have that it has a unique fixed point, which satisfies the differential equation above.*

## 5. COMPLETENESS

We recall the definition of completeness in metric spaces.

**Definition 5.1** (Completeness in Metric Spaces). A space  $X$  is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence in  $X$  converges in  $X$ .

We now state the theorem that every metric space can be completed. The space  $\hat{X}$  in the theorem is called the completion of the given space  $X$ .

**Theorem 5.2** (Completion of a metric spaces). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Then there exists a complete metric space  $\hat{X} = (\hat{X}, \hat{d})$  which has a subspace  $W$  that is isometric with  $X$  and is dense in  $\hat{X}$*

*Proof.* TO DO □

## 6. CONNECTEDNESS

**Definition 6.1** (Disconnected). Let  $X$  be a metric space (or topological space). Then  $X$  is said to be **disconnected** if there exist two non-empty subsets  $A_1, A_2$  of  $X$  such that

$$X = A_1 \cup A_2 \text{ and } A_1 \cap \bar{A}_2, \bar{A}_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$$

If no two sets  $A_1, A_2$  exist, we say that  $X$  is **connected**

**Theorem 6.2** (Characterisations of connectedness). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- $X$  is disconnected;
- There exist two non-empty disjoint open subsets  $A_1, A_2$  in  $X$  such that  $X = A_1 \cup A_2$ ;
- There exist two non-empty disjoint closed subsets  $A_1, A_2$  in  $X$  such that  $X = A_1 \cup A_2$ ;
- There exists a proper subset of  $X$  which is both open and closed in  $X$

**Definition 6.3** (Connected subspace). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $A$  a non-empty subset of  $X$ . Then  $A$  is said to be a connected subset of  $X$  if  $A$  is connected as a metric subspace and to be a **disconnected** subset of  $X$  if  $A$  is disconnected as a metric subspace.

**Theorem 6.4** (Intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ ). *A subset  $A$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  containing at least two points is connected if and only if  $A$  is an interval.*

**Theorem 6.5** (Characterisations of connectedness). *Let  $\mathcal{S}(2)$  be the two point discrete metric space. If  $A$  is connected then any continuous mapping  $f : A \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(2)$  is a constant mapping. Alternatively, if  $f : A \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(2)$  is continuous, then  $f(A) = \{0\}$  or  $\{1\}$ .*

**Theorem 6.6** (Connectedness is a topological property). *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two metric spaces, and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous mapping. Then if  $A \subseteq X$  is connected in  $X$ , then the image  $f(A)$  is connected in  $Y$ .*

**Definition 6.7** (Path-connected). Let  $X$  be a metric space and  $A$  a subset of  $X$ . Then  $A$  is said to be **path-connected** if for any  $a, b \in A$ , there is a path joining  $a$  and  $b$ , that is, a continuous mapping  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow A$  such that  $f(0) = a, f(1) = b$ .



**Theorem 6.8** (Path-connectedness implies connectedness). *Let  $X$  be a metric space and  $A$  a subset of  $X$ . If  $A$  is path-connected, then  $A$  is connected.*

We note that the converse is not necessarily true - that is, there exist connected sets that are not path connected. However, in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we have the following.

**Theorem 6.9** (For open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , path-connectedness is equivalent to connectedness). *Let  $X$  be any open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $X$  is connected if and only if  $X$  is path-connected.*

## 7. COMPACTNESS

Compactness in metric spaces.

**Definition 7.1** (Open covering of a set). Let  $X$  be a metric space (or any topological space), and let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then a family  $\mathcal{U}$  of open sets in  $X$ , is called an **open covering** of  $A$  if

$$A \subseteq \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U$$

A subset  $\mathcal{V}$  of  $\mathcal{U}$  is called a **finite subcovering** if  $\mathcal{V}$  covers  $A$  and has a finite number of elements.

**Definition 7.2** (Compact subset of a topological space). Let  $X$  be a metric space (or any topological space), and let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $A$  is called a **compact subset** of  $X$  if **every** open covering  $\mathcal{U}$  of  $A$  has a finite subcovering  $\mathcal{V}$  of  $A$ .

In metric spaces, we have the following useful theorem.

**Theorem 7.3** (Implications of compactness in metric spaces). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. If  $A$  is a compact subset in  $X$ , then  $A$  is closed and bounded in  $X$ .*

In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we have the following, more general, results. These are key results in characterising compact subsets of Euclidean space.

**Theorem 7.4** (Heine-Borel). *Every closed and bounded interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  is compact.*

**Theorem 7.5** (Compactness in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). *Let  $A$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $A$  is compact if and only if  $A$  is closed and bounded.*

### 7.1. Properties of compact sets.

**Theorem 7.6.** *A subset  $A$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if and only if every sequence in  $A$  has a convergent subsequence with limit in  $A$ .*

**Definition 7.7** (Compactness is a topological property). Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces, and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous mapping. If a subset  $A$  in  $X$  is compact, then the image  $f(A)$  is compact in  $Y$ .

That is, continuous images of compact sets are compact.

**Corollary 7.8.** *The following are true in an arbitrary metric space.*

- *A continuous image of a compact subset is closed.*
- *A continuous image of a compact subset is bounded.*

**Theorem 7.9.** *Any closed subspace  $A$  of a compact space  $X$  is compact.*

*Proof.* TO DO □

## 8. APPLICATIONS TO CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

**Theorem 8.1** (Intermediate Value Theorem). *Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Let  $K$  be a number lying between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ . Then there exists a point  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = K$ .*

*Proof.* Using connectedness of  $[a, b]$ , we have that  $f([a, b])$  is connected. Thus, if  $f(a) < K < f(b)$ , then  $K \in f([a, b])$ . Hence, there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = K$ . □

## 9. TOPOLOGICAL SPACES

A topological space is defined as follows. Let  $X$  be a non-empty set. Then a family  $\tau$  of subsets of  $X$  is called a topology for  $X$  if  $\tau$  satisfies

- $\emptyset, X \in \tau$ ;
- The union of any subfamily of members of  $\tau$  is in  $\tau$ ;
- The intersection of any **finite** subfamily of members of  $\tau$  is in  $\tau$ .

The pair  $(X, \tau)$  is called a **topological space**, and the members of  $\tau$  are called the **open sets** in  $(X, \tau)$ .

**Definition 9.1** (Interior of a subset). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be any topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $a \in A$  is called an **interior point** of  $A$  if there exists an open set  $U$  containing  $a$  such that  $U \subseteq A$ . We denote by  $\text{Int } A$  the set of all interior points of  $A$ .

**Theorem 9.2** (Properties of the interior). *Let  $(X, \tau)$  be any topological space and let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $\text{Int } A$  is the **largest** open subset contained in  $A$ .*

**Definition 9.3** (Closed subsets). Let  $A$  be a subset of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $A$  is called a **closed set** in  $X$  if the complement  $X \setminus A$  is open in  $X$ , that is, if  $X \setminus A \in \tau$ .

**Theorem 9.4.** *In a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ ,*

- $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are closed;
- The intersection of any collection of closed sets is closed;
- The union of any **finite** collection of closed sets are closed.

**Definition 9.5** (Limit point of a subset). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then a point  $x \in X$  is called a **limit point** or **accumulation point** of  $A$  if every open set  $G$  containing  $x$  contains a point of  $A$  different from  $x$ , i.e.,

$$G \in \tau, x \in G \Rightarrow (G \setminus \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

We denote by  $A'$  the set of all limit points of  $A$ , and is called the derived set of  $A$ .

**Theorem 9.6** (Properties of closed sets). *Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and let  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $A$  is closed if and only if  $A' \subseteq A$ .*

**Definition 9.7** (Closure of a subset). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then the set consisting of  $A$  together with all its limit points is called the **closure** of  $A$ , and is denoted by  $\bar{A}$ . Thus,

$$\bar{A} = A \cup A'$$

**Proposition 9.8.** *Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then*

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in X \mid \text{for every open set } U \text{ containing } x, U \cap A \neq \emptyset\}.$$

**Theorem 9.9.** *Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $\bar{A}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ .*

**Definition 9.10** (Dense subset). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then a subset  $A$  of  $X$  is said to be **dense** in  $X$  if  $\bar{A} = X$ .

**Definition 9.11** (Nowhere dense). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then  $A$  is **nowhere dense** in  $X$  if and only if the interior of the closure of  $A$  is empty. That is,  $\text{Int}(\bar{A}) = \emptyset$ .

Alternatively, a set is nowhere dense if and only if  $X \setminus \bar{A}$  is dense in  $X$ .

**Definition 9.12** (Boundary of a subset). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then the **boundary** of  $A$ , denoted by  $\partial A$ , is defined as

$$\partial A = \bar{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$$

**Theorem 9.13** (Characterisation of the boundary). *Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then*

$$\bar{A} = \text{Int}A \cup \partial A$$

**Definition 9.14** (Convergence in topological spaces). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then a sequence  $(x_n)$  of points in  $X$  is said to **converge** to a point  $x \in X$  if for any open set  $U$  containing  $x$ , there exists a positive integer  $N$  such that

$$n > N \Rightarrow x_n \in U$$

That is, if any open set  $U$  containing  $x$  contains almost all of the terms of the sequence.

**Definition 9.15** (Induced or relative topology). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $Y \subseteq X$ . Let

$$\tau_Y = \{G \subseteq Y \mid G = U \cap Y \text{ for some } U \in \tau\}$$

Then  $\tau_Y$  is a topology for  $Y$ , called the **induced** or **relative topology** on  $Y$  and the space  $(Y, \tau_Y)$  is called a subspace of  $(X, \tau)$

**Definition 9.16** (Bases for a topology). Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then a subfamily  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\tau$  is called a **base** for the topology if for every open set  $U$  in  $\tau$  is the union of members of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Equivalently,  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \tau$  is a basis for  $\tau$  if and only if for any point  $a$  in an open set  $U \in \tau$ , there exists  $V \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $a \in V \subseteq U$ .

**Theorem 9.17** (Characterisation of a basis for a topology). *A family of nonempty subsets of a set  $X$  is a base for some topology  $\tau$  on  $X$  if and only if it satisfies the following properties.*

- $X = \cup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$
- For any  $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $B_1 \cap B_2$  is the union of members of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Equivalently, if  $b \in B_1 \cap B_2$ , then there exists  $B_b \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $b \in B_b \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$ .

**Theorem 9.18** (Continuity in terms of a basis). *Let  $(X, \tau_X)$  and  $(Y, \tau_Y)$  be topological spaces and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  a mapping. Let  $\mathcal{B}_Y$  be a basis for  $\tau_Y$ . Then  $f$  is continuous if and only if for any  $B \in \mathcal{B}_Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(B)$  is open in  $X$  - i.e., is in  $\tau_X$ .*

**Theorem 9.19** (Product spaces). *Let  $(X, \tau_X)$  and  $(Y, \tau_Y)$  be topological spaces. Then the family  $\mathcal{B}$  given by*

$$\mathcal{B} = \{U \times V \mid U \in \tau_X, V \in \tau_Y\}$$

*is a base for a topology on  $X \times Y$ .*

### 9.1. Compactness.

**Definition 9.20** (Compactness in terms of a basis). A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is compact if and only if there exists a base  $\mathcal{B}$  for  $\tau$  such that every open covering of  $X$  by members of  $\mathcal{B}$  has a finite subcovering.

**Theorem 9.21.** *The product space of two compact topological spaces is compact.*

### 9.2. Connectedness.

**Theorem 9.22.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a homeomorphism. Then  $X$  is connected if and only if  $Y$  is connected.*

**Theorem 9.23.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space. Let  $\{A_i\}$  be a family of connected subsets in  $X$  and suppose that for all  $i, j$ ,  $A_i \cap A_j \neq \emptyset$ . Then the union  $A = \cup_i A_i$  is connected.*

## 10. SEPARATION PROPERTIES

**Definition 10.1** ( $T_0$ -spaces). A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a  $T_0$ -**space** if for any pair of distinct points  $a, b$  of  $X$ , either there exists an open set  $U$  containing  $a$  and not  $b$  or an open set  $V$  containing  $b$  and not  $a$ .

**Definition 10.2** ( $T_1$ -spaces). A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a  $T_1$ -**space** if for any pair of distinct points  $a, b$  of  $X$ , there exists an open set  $U$  in  $X$  with  $a \in U$  and  $b \notin U$ .

Every  $T_1$ -space is  $T_0$ , but not the reverse.

**Theorem 10.3** (Characterisation of  $T_1$ -spaces). *AA topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a  $T_1$ -**space** if and only if every singleton set  $\{a\}$  of  $X$  is closed (and so every finite subset of  $X$  is closed).*

**Definition 10.4** ( $T_2$ -spaces or Hausdorff spaces). A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a  $T_2$ -**space** or a **Hausdorff space** if for any pair of distinct points  $a, b$  of  $X$ , there are disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  in  $X$  such that  $a \in U$  and  $b \in V$ .

Every  $T_2$ -space is  $T_1$ , but not the reverse.

**Example 10.5.** Any metric space is a  $T_2$ -space

**Theorem 10.6.** *Every subspace of a  $T_1$ - or  $T_2$ -space is a  $T_1$ - or  $T_2$ -space.*

**Theorem 10.7.** *Every product space of a  $T_1$ - or  $T_2$ -space is a  $T_1$ - or  $T_2$ -space.*

10.1. Regular Spaces and  $T_3$ -spaces.

**Definition 10.8** (Regular space). A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a **regular** space if for any closed set  $F$  in  $X$  and  $a \in X \setminus F$ , there are disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  in  $X$  such that  $F \subseteq U$  and  $a \in V$ . A regular  $T_1$ -space is called a  $T_3$ -space.

**Theorem 10.9.** *A topological space  $X$  is regular if and only if for any point  $a$  in  $X$  and any open set  $U$  containing  $A$ , there is an open set  $W$  containing  $a$  such that  $\overline{W} \subseteq U$ .*

Every  $T_3$ -space is  $T_2$ , but not the reverse.

10.2. Normal Spaces and  $T_4$ -spaces.

**Definition 10.10** (Normal spaces and  $T_4$ -spaces). A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a **normal space** if for any two disjoint closed sets  $A$  and  $B$  in  $X$ , there are disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  in  $X$  such that  $A \subseteq U$  and  $B \subseteq V$ . A normal  $T_1$ -space is called a  $T_4$ -space.

Clearly every  $T_4$ -space is a  $T_3$ -space. However, a normal space may not be a  $T_1$ -space or a regular space and a regular space may not be normal.

**Theorem 10.11.** *Every metric space  $(X, d)$  is a  $T_4$ -space*

**Theorem 10.12.** *Every compact Hausdorff space is normal. Additionally, any compact subset  $A$  of a Hausdorff space  $X$  is closed.*

Our final theorem is **Urysohn's Lemma**.

**Theorem 10.13** (Urysohn's Lemma). *Let  $X$  be a normal space. Then, for any disjoint closed sets  $A$  and  $B$  in  $X$ , there exists a continuous function  $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that  $f(A) = \{0\}$  and  $f(B) = \{1\}$ .*

**Theorem 10.14** (Tietze Extension Theorem). *Let  $X$  be a normal space,  $A$  a closed subset of  $X$ , and  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then there is a continuous function  $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $g|_A = f$  - that is,  $g$  restricted to  $A$  is  $f$ .*

## 11. HILBERT SPACES

Let  $V$  be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , where  $\mathbb{F}$  is either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 11.1** (Inner product space). A function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  is called an inner product if

- $\langle u, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, u \rangle}$  for all  $u, v \in V$ .
- $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $u \in V$  with equality if and only if  $u = 0$ .
- $\langle \alpha u + \beta v, w \rangle = \alpha \langle u, w \rangle + \beta \langle v, w \rangle$  for all  $u, v, w \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ .

We say that  $V$  equipped with  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is an **inner product space**.

**Definition 11.2** (Induced norm). If  $V$  is an inner product space with  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , we define

$$\|u\| := \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$$

for all  $u \in E$ . The operation  $\|\cdot\|$  is the **induced norm**.

**Theorem 11.3** (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality). *Let  $V$  be an inner product space. The*

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

**Definition 11.4** (Hilbert space). An inner product space which is complete with respect to the induced norm is called a **Hilbert space**.

**Proposition 11.5** (Continuity of the inner product). *Let  $V$  be an inner product space. Then the inner product is continuous with respect to the induced norm.*

**Proposition 11.6** (Parallelogram identity). *Let  $V$  be an inner product space and  $\|\cdot\|$  the induced norm. Then*

$$\|u + v\|^2 + \|u - v\|^2 = 2\|u\|^2 + 2\|v\|^2$$

for all  $u, v \in E$

### 11.1. Projections and orthogonal complements.

**Definition 11.7** (Projection). Let  $V$  be a normed space and  $M$  a non-empty closed subset of  $V$ . We define the **set of projections of  $x$  onto  $M$**  by

$$P_M(x) = \{m \in M \mid \|x - m\| = d(x, M)\}$$

This set is non-empty as  $M$  is closed.

**Definition 11.8** (Orthogonal complement). For an arbitrary non-empty subset  $M$  of an inner product space  $H$  we set

$$M^\perp := \{x \in H \mid \langle x, m \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } m \in M\}$$

We call  $M^\perp$  the orthogonal complement of  $M$  in  $H$ .

**Lemma 11.9** (Properties of the orthogonal complement). *Suppose  $M$  is a non-empty subset of the inner product space  $H$ . Then  $M^\perp$  is a closed subspace of  $H$  and  $M^\perp = \overline{M}^\perp = (\text{span } M)^\perp = (\text{span } \overline{M})^\perp$ .*

**Theorem 11.10** (Key properties of the orthogonal complement). *Suppose that  $M$  is a closed subspace of a Hilbert space  $H$ . Then*

- $H = M \oplus M^\perp$

**Corollary 11.11** (Dense subspace of a Hilbert space). *A subspace  $M$  of a Hilbert space  $H$  is dense in  $H$  if and only if  $M^\perp = \{0\}$ .*

### 11.2. Orthogonal systems.

**Definition 11.12** (Orthogonal systems). Let  $H$  be an inner product space with inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and induced norm  $\|\cdot\|$ . Let  $M \subset H$  be a non-empty subset.

- $M$  is called an **orthogonal system** if  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$  for all  $u, v \in M$  with  $u \neq v$ .
- $M$  is called an **orthonormal system** if it is orthogonal and  $\|u\| = 1$ .
- $M$  is called a **complete orthonormal system** or **orthonormal basis** of  $H$  if it is an orthonormal system and  $\overline{\text{span } M} = H$ .

**Theorem 11.13** (Pythagoras's Theorem). *Suppose that  $H$  is an inner product space and  $M$  an orthogonal system in  $H$ . Then the following assertions are true:*

- $M \setminus \{0\}$  is linearly independent.
- If  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $M$  with distinct terms and  $H$  is complete, then  $\sum x_k$  converges if and only if  $\sum \|x_k\|^2$  converges. In that case,

$$\left\| \sum x_k \right\|^2 = \sum \|x_k\|^2$$

**Theorem 11.14** (Bessel's Inequality). *Let  $H$  be an inner product space and  $M$  an orthonormal system in  $H$ . Then*

$$\sum_{m \in M} |\langle x, m \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2$$

*for all  $x \in H$ . Moreover, the set  $\{m \in M \mid \langle x, m \rangle \neq 0\}$  is at most countable for all  $x \in H$ .*