

Reg. No.....

17MMP202

Karpagam Academy of Higher Education
Coimbatore-21
Department of Mathematics
Second Semester- I Internal test
Topology

Date: 30.01.2018(FN)
Class: I M.Sc Mathematics

Time: 2 hours
Max Marks: 50

Answer ALL questions
PART - A ($20 \times 1 = 20$ marks)

1. Which of the following is a topology on $X = \{a, b, c\}$
A. $\{X, \{a\}, \emptyset\}$ B. $\{X, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \emptyset\}$
C. $\{X, \{a\}, \{b\}, \emptyset\}$ D. $\{X, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \emptyset\}$
2. The maximum number of topology exists on $X = \{a, b\}$ is
A. 2 B. 1
C. 16 D. 13
3. Total number of topology exists on $X = \{a, b, c\}$ is
A. 20 B. 30
C. 39 D. 29
4. If $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ then \mathcal{B} satisfies basis condition
A. (i) B. (ii)
C. neither (i) nor (ii) D. both (i) and (ii)
5. If X is any set, the collection of all one point subsets of X is a basis for the ——— topology
A. cofinite B. discrete
C. indiscrete D. cocountable
6. Which of the following is true?
A. $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{B}$ B. $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{T}$
C. $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{T}$ D. $\mathcal{B} \not\subset \mathcal{T}$
7. Let X be a set; let \mathcal{B} be a basis for a topology \mathcal{T} on X . Then \mathcal{T} equals the collection of all ——— of elements of \mathcal{B}
A. union B. intersection
C. both A and B D. neither A nor B
8. If \mathcal{T}_∞ and \mathcal{T}_ϵ are two topologies on non-empty set X , then ——— is topology
A. $\mathcal{T}_\infty \cap \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$ B. $\mathcal{T}_\infty \cup \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$
C. $\mathcal{T}_\infty - \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$ D. $\mathcal{T}_\infty \times \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$
9. If \mathcal{T} is topology on non-empty set X , then arbitrary ——— of member of \mathcal{T} belong to \mathcal{T} .
A. union B. intersection
C. both A and B D. neither A nor B
10. If \mathcal{T} is topology on non-empty set X , then finite . of member of \mathcal{T} belong to \mathcal{T} .
A. union B. intersection
C. both A and B D. neither A nor B
11. Let \mathcal{T} be a topology on non-empty set X . Which of the following is true?
A. $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{T}$ B. $X \in \mathcal{T}$
C. $X \notin \mathcal{T}$ D. $P(X) \in \mathcal{T}$
12. If $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and \mathcal{T} be the discrete topology. Then number of elements in basis for \mathcal{T} is
A. 1 B. 2
C. 3 D. 4
13. If $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and \mathcal{T} be the indiscrete topology. Then number of open sets related to \mathcal{T} is
A. 1 B. 2
C. 3 D. 4

14. Let X be a set, and let \mathcal{B} is a basis for a topology on X . For each $x \in X$, there is atleast ——— $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B$
 A. 1 B. 2
 C. 3 D. 4
15. Let X be a set, and let \mathcal{B} is a basis for a topology on X . If $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ for $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$, then there is atleast ——— $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subset B_1 \cap B_2$.
 A. 1 B. 2
 C. 3 D. 4
16. If \mathcal{B} is the collection of all open intervals in the real line, then \mathcal{B} satisfies basis condition
 A. (i) B. (ii)
 C. neither (i) nor (ii) D. both (i) and (ii)
17. If \mathcal{B} is the collection of all half open intervals in the real line, then \mathcal{B} satisfies basis condition
 A. (i) B. (ii)
 C. neither (i) nor (ii) D. both (i) and (ii)
18. Let X be a set. \mathcal{T} be the collection of all subsets U of X such that $X - U$ is either ——— or X . Then \mathcal{T} is a topology.
 A. finite B. countable
 C. both A and B D. neither A nor B
19. Arbitrary union of open sets is ——— set
 A. open B. closed
 C. both A and B D. neither A nor B
20. Suppose \mathcal{T}_∞ and \mathcal{T}_ϵ are discrete and indiscrete topologies on non-empty set X . Which of the following is true?
 A. $\mathcal{T}_\infty \subset \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$ B. $\mathcal{T}_\infty \supset \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$
 C. $\mathcal{T}_\infty = \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$ D. $\mathcal{T}_\infty \not\subset \mathcal{T}_\epsilon$

Part B-(3 × 2 = 6 marks)

21. Define K topology
22. Find three noncomparable topologies for $X = \{a, b, c\}$
23. Define subbasis

Part C-(3 × 8 = 24 marks)

24. a) Let X be a set; let \mathcal{T}_c be the collection of all subsets U of X such that $X - U$ is either countable or all of X . Show that \mathcal{T}_c is a topology on X .

OR

- b) Let X be a set; let
 $\mathcal{T}_\infty = \{U \mid X - U \text{ is infinite or } \phi \text{ or } X\}$.
 Is this a topology on X ?

25. a) Find the all the topologies for $X = \{a, b, c\}$

OR

- b) Let \mathcal{T} be the collection of subsets U of X if for each $x \in U$ there is a basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subset U$. Then prove that \mathcal{T} is the topology

26. a) Show that the set $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with the topology $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{a, b, c\}, X\}$ is not a Hausdorff space

OR

- b) Let X be a topological space. Prove that
 i X and \emptyset are closed
 ii closed under arbitrary intersection of closed sets
 iii closed under finite union of closed sets

**KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION***(Deemed to be University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)***Coimbatore – 641 021.**

LECTURE PLAN

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

STAFF NAME: A.HENNA SHENOFR

SUBJECT NAME: TOPOLOGY

SEMESTER: II

SUB.CODE:17MMP202

CLASS: I M.SC MATHEMATICS

S. No	Lecture Duration Hour	Topics To Be Covered	Support Materials
UNIT-I			
1	1	Introduction to topological spaces	T: Ch 2, 75
2	1	Definitions and Examples on topology	T: Ch 2, 76-77
3	1	Basis for a topologies	T: Ch 2, 78
4	1	Theorems on basis for a topologies	T: Ch 2, 79-80
5	1	Theorems on the order topology	T: Ch 2, 84
6	1	Theorems on the order topology	T: Ch 2, 85
7	1	Theorems on the order topology	T: Ch 2, 86
8	1	The product topology $X \times Y$	T: Ch 2,86
9	1	Theorems on product topology $X \times Y$	T: Ch 2,87-88
10	1	Theorems on the subspace topology	T: Ch 2, 89
11	1	Theorems on the subspace topology	R1: Ch 3,101
12	1	Recapitulation and Discussion of possible questions	
Total number of hours planned for unit I 12			
UNIT-II			
1	1	Introduction to closed set	T: Ch 2, 92
2	1	Theorems on closed set	T: Ch 2, 93
3	1	Continuation of theorems on closed set	T: Ch 2, 94
4	1	Continuation of theorems on closed set	T: Ch 2, 94-95
5	1	Limit points	T: Ch 2, 96
6	1	Theorems on limit points	R2: Ch 3,110
7	1	Theorems on continuous functions	T: Ch 2, 101-102
8	1	Continuation of thms on continuous functions	T: Ch 2, 103-104
9	1	Continuation of thms on continuous functions	T: Ch 2, 104
10	1	Theorems on the product topologies	T: Ch 2, 114-116
11	1	Theorems on the metric topologies	T: Ch 2, 117-118
12	1	Recapitulation and Discussion of possible questions	
Total number of hours planned for unit II 12			

UNIT-III			
1	1	Introduction to connected spaces	T: Ch 3,147
2	1	Theorems on connected spaces	R3: Ch 5,107
3	1	Theorems on connected spaces	T: Ch 3,150-151
4	1	Theorems on connected subspaces of R	T: Ch 3,152-155
5	1	Theorems on connected subspaces of R	T: Ch 3,155-158
6	1	Theorems on components	T: Ch 3, 160
7	1	Theorems on components	T: Ch 3, 161
8	1	Theorems on components.	T: Ch 3, 162
9	1	Theorems on local connectedness	T: Ch 3, 163
10	1	Theorems on local connectedness	T: Ch 3, 163-164
11	1	Theorems on local connectedness	T: Ch 3, 164-165
12	1	Recapitulation and Discussion of possible questions	
Total number of hours planned for unit III 12			
UNIT-IV			
1	1	Introduction to Compact spaces	T: Ch 3,164-166
2	1	Theorems on compact spaces	T: Ch 3,166-167
3	1	Theorems on compact spaces	T: Ch 3,168
4	1	Theorems on compact subspaces of R	T: Ch 3,169-170
5	1	Theorems on compact subspaces of R	T: Ch 3,170-172
6	1	Theorems on limit point compactness	T: Ch 3,173-174
7	1	Theorems on limit point compactness	T: Ch 3,175-178
8	1	Theorems on limit point compactness	T: Ch 3,179-181
9	1	Theorems on local compactness	R4: Ch
10	1	Theorems on local compactness	T: Ch 3,183-184
11	1	Theorems on local compactness	T: Ch 3,185
12	1	Recapitulation and discussion of possible questions	
Total number of hours planned for unit IV 12			
UNIT-V			
1	1	The countability axioms	T: Ch 4, 190-191
2	1	Some examples of the separation axioms	T: Ch 4, 192-194
3	1	Normal spaces	T: Ch 4, 195-197
4	1	Theorems on normal spaces	T: Ch 4, 198-200
5	1	Problems on normal spaces	T: Ch 4, 201-202
6	1	The Urysohn lemma	T: Ch 4, 203
7	1	Continuation of the Urysohn lemma	T: Ch 4, 204-206
8	1	The Urysohn metrization theorem	T: Ch 4, 208-210
9	1	The Tietze Extension theorem	T: Ch 4, 210-212
10	1	Recapitulation and discussion of possible questions	
11	1	Discussion on Previous ESE Question Papers	
12	1	Discussion on Previous ESE Question Papers	
Total number of hours planned for Unit V 12			

TEXT BOOK

T James R. Munkres., (2008). Topology, Second edition, Pearson Prentice Hall, New Delhi.

REFERENCES

R1 Simmons, G. F., (2004). Introduction to Topology and Modern Analysis, Tata Mc Graw Hill, New Delhi.

R2 Deshpande, J. V., (1990). Introduction to topology, Tata Mc Graw Hill, New Delhi.

R3 James Dugundji., (2002). Topology, Universal Book Stall, New Delhi.

R4 Joshi, K. D.(2004). Introduction to General Topology, New Age International Pvt Ltd, New Delhi

Total no. of Hours for the Course: 60 hours



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SYLLABUS

Semester - II

L T P C

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17MMP202

Topology

Scope: This paper gives the clear idea about closeness, continuity, shapes of metric spaces and topological spaces which place a vital role in the world of Mathematics.

Objectives: To gain basic knowledge of topological spaces, types of topologies, continuity, connectedness and compactness in normed metric spaces.

UNIT I

Topological spaces, Basis for a topologies, the order topology, the product topology $X \times Y$, the subspace topology.

UNIT II

Closed set and limit points, continuous functions, the product topologies, the metric topologies.

UNIT III

Connected spaces, connected subspaces of the real line, components and local connectedness.

UNIT IV

Compact spaces, compact subspaces of the Real line, limit point compactness, local compactness.

UNIT V

The countability axioms, the separation axioms, normal spaces, The Urysohn lemma, The Urysohn metrization theorem, the Tietze Extension theorem.

SUGGESTED READINGS

TEXT BOOK

T. James R. Munkres., (2008). Topology, Second edition, Pearson Prentice Hall, New Delhi.

REFERENCES

R1. Simmons, G. F., (2004). Introduction to Topology and Modern Analysis, Tata Mc Graw Hill, New Delhi.

R2. Deshpande, J. V., (1990). Introduction to topology, Tata Mc Graw Hill, New Delhi.

R3. James Dugundji., (2002). Topology, Universal Book Stall, New Delhi.

R4 Joshi, K. D.(2004). Introduction to General Topology, New Age International Pvt Ltd, New Delhi.

UNIT-II

SYLLABUS

Closed set and limit points, continuous functions, the product topologies, the metric topologies.

(1.1) Definition: Let (X, \mathfrak{J}) be a topological space. Then a subset A of X is said to be **closed** in X if its complement $X - A$ is open in X .

The definition is fairly straightforward and one can cite as many examples of closed sets as of open sets. It is fortunate that all closed intervals (bounded or not) of real numbers are indeed closed in the usual topology on the real line. If (X, d) is a metric space, $x \in X$ and $r > 0$, then the **closed ball** with centre x and radius r is defined as the set $\{y \in X : d(x, y) \leq r\}$. We leave it to the reader to verify that each such closed ball is a closed subset in the topology induced by the metric.

A word of warning is perhaps in order. In analogy with everyday usage, a beginner is likely to think that 'closed' is the negation of 'open', that is to say, a set is closed if and only if it is not open. But this is not so. The reason for the misleading terminology is probably that complements of sets are defined in terms of negation. The fact is that the possibilities of a set being open and its being closed are neither mutually exclusive nor exhaustive. Note for example that the empty set and the whole set are always open as well as closed in every space. On the other hand, the set of rationals is neither open nor closed in the usual topology on the real line. A set which is both open and closed is sometimes called a **clopen** set.

It is immediate that a set is open iff its complement is closed. As a result, any statement about open sets can be immediately translated into a corresponding statement about closed sets and vice-versa, as we do in the following theorem.

(1.2) Theorem: Let \mathcal{C} be the family of all closed sets in a topological space (X, \mathfrak{J}) . Then \mathcal{C} has the following properties:



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- (i) $\phi \in \mathcal{C}$, $X \in \mathcal{C}$.
- (ii) \mathcal{C} is closed under arbitrary intersections.
- (iii) \mathcal{C} is closed under finite unions.

Conversely, given any set X and a family \mathcal{C} of its subsets which satisfies these three properties, there exists a unique topology \mathfrak{J} on X such that \mathcal{C} coincides with the family of closed subsets of (X, \mathfrak{J}) .

Proof: The first part follows trivially from the definition of a topology and De Morgan's laws. The converse part is equally trivial once it is clearly understood what it says. Here we are given a set X (just a bare set with no topology on it) and some collection \mathcal{C} of its subsets. We are given that properties (i) to (iii) hold for \mathcal{C} . We do not know how \mathcal{C} originated, nor do we know whether its members are closed subsets of X . Actually it is meaningless to talk about closed subsets of X unless a topology on X is specified. The theorem says that given such a family $\mathcal{C} \subset P(X)$ we can define a suitable topology \mathfrak{J} on X such that members of \mathcal{C} are precisely the closed subsets of X (w.r.t. the topology \mathfrak{J}), and that such a topology is unique.

Having understood what the theorem says, the proof itself is trivial as we have no choice but to let \mathfrak{J} consist of complements (in X) of members of \mathcal{C} , i.e. $\mathfrak{J} = \{B \subset X : X - B \in \mathcal{C}\}$. That \mathfrak{J} is a topology on X follows by applying De Morgan's laws. The open subsets of X are precisely the complements of members of \mathcal{C} , and hence the closed subsets of X are precisely the members of \mathcal{C} as asserted. Also this condition determines \mathfrak{J} uniquely. ■

Trivial as the theorem is, its significance is noteworthy. In the definition of a topological space we took 'open set' as a primitive term, that is to say, open sets are not defined (except as members of the topology on the set in question) and nothing is known about their nature save what is implied by the definition of a topology. Everything we do with topological spaces is in terms of open sets. For example, we defined convergence of sequences in a topological space in terms of open sets, and we defined closed sets as complements of open sets. The preceding theorem asserts that this procedure could be reversed. That is, we could as well take 'closed sets' as a primitive concept and then define open sets as complements of closed sets. With this approach our definition of a topological space would be that it is a pair (X, \mathcal{C}) where X is a set, $\mathcal{C} \subset P(X)$ and conditions (i), (ii), (iii) above are satisfied. Although nothing is to be gained and nothing is to be lost by adopting this new approach over the usual one, in particular examples of topological spaces it may be more natural to specify the closed sets rather than the open sets. For instance, in the cofinite topology on a set X , it is so easy to tell what the closed subsets are, they are precisely all finite subsets of X and the set X itself.

Any subset of a topological space generates a closed subset called its closure. The definition is as follows:

(1.3) Definition: The closure of a subset of a topological space is defined

$\cap \{C \subset X : C \text{ closed in } X, C \supset A\}$. It is denoted by \bar{A} . Obviously it depends on the topology \mathfrak{J} and when it is important to stress this, it is customary to write $\bar{A}^{\mathfrak{J}}$ or $(\bar{A})_{\mathfrak{J}}$ instead of mere \bar{A} . Note further that if $Y \subset X$ and $A \subset Y$ then the closure of A in the space (X, \mathfrak{J}) is in general different from its closure in the subspace $(Y, \mathfrak{J}/Y)$. We leave it to the reader to verify that the latter is the intersection of the former with Y . When confusion is likely to arise otherwise, it is usual to write \bar{A}^Y or $(\bar{A})_Y$ to indicate the subspace w.r.t. which the closure is intended. The notations $Cl(A)$ or $C(A)$ or $c(A)$ are also used sometimes to denote the closure. In the next proposition we list down a few properties of closures.

(1.4) Proposition: Let A, B be subsets of a topological space (X, \mathfrak{J}) .

(i) \bar{A} is a closed subset of X . Moreover it is the smallest closed subset of X containing A i.e. if C is closed in X and $A \subset C$ then $\bar{A} \subset C$.

(ii) $\bar{\phi} = \phi$.

(iii) A is closed in X iff $\bar{A} = A$

(iv) $\bar{\bar{A}} = \bar{A}$ or in other words, $c(c(A)) = c(A)$

(v) $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$.

Proof: (i) and (ii) are immediate consequences of the definition and properties of closed sets. For (iii) we note that if A is closed then it is clearly the smallest closed set containing A and consequently $\bar{A} = A$. Conversely if $\bar{A} = A$ then A is closed since \bar{A} is always a closed set, being the intersection of closed sets. Property (iv) follows by applying (iii) to \bar{A} which is known to be closed. Finally, for (v), note that $\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$ is first of all a closed set containing $A \cup B$; as $A \subset \bar{A}$ and $B \subset \bar{B}$, and hence $\overline{A \cup B} \subset \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$. For the other way inclusion, we first observe that whenever $A_1 \subset A_2$, $\bar{A}_1 \subset \bar{A}_2$ (prove!). Now $A \cup B$ contains A as well as B and so \bar{A}, \bar{B} are both subsets of $\overline{A \cup B}$. Hence $\bar{A} \cup \bar{B} \subset \overline{A \cup B}$. This completes the proof. ■

(1.5) Theorem: Let X be a set, $\theta : P(X) \rightarrow P(X)$ a function such that

- (1) for every $A \in P(X)$, $A \subset \theta(A)$ (this condition is sometimes expressed by saying that θ is an **expansive operator**),
- (2) ϕ is a fixed point of θ ,
- (3) θ is idempotent, and
- (4) θ commutes with finite unions.

Then there exists a unique topology \mathfrak{J} on X such that θ coincides with the closure operator associated with \mathfrak{J} . Conversely, any closure operator satisfies these properties.

Proof: The converse part is already established. For the direct implication, suppose $\theta : P(X) \rightarrow P(X)$ satisfies (1) to (4). We want to find a topology \mathfrak{J} on X such that for every $A \subset X$, $\theta(A) = \bar{A}^{\mathfrak{J}}$. If at all such a topology exists then its closed subsets must be precisely the fixed points of θ as we saw above. This gives us a clue to the construction of \mathfrak{J} . We let $\mathcal{C} = \{A \subset X : \theta(A) = A\}$ and contend that \mathcal{C} has properties (i) to (iii) of Theorem (1.2). Condition (2) shows that $\phi \in \mathcal{C}$ while condition (4) implies that \mathcal{C} is closed under finite unions. To prove that $X \in \mathcal{C}$, we merely note that by (1), $X \subset \theta(X)$ and hence $X = \theta(X)$ since $\theta(X) \subset X$ anyway. It only remains to verify that \mathcal{C} is closed under arbitrary intersections. For this we first note that θ is monotonic, i.e., whenever $A \subset B$, $\theta(A) \subset \theta(B)$, which follows by writing B as $A \cup (B - A)$ and applying (4). Now let $A = \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$

where I is an index set and $A_i \in \mathcal{C}$ for each $i \in I$. We want to show that $A \in \mathcal{C}$, i.e. $\theta(A) = A$. By (1) we already know $A \subset \theta(A)$. Also $\theta(A) \subset \theta(A_i)$ for each $i \in I$ since θ is monotonic, and so $\theta(A) \subset \bigcap_{i \in I} \theta(A_i)$. But $\theta(A_i) = A_i$

since $A_i \in \mathcal{C}$ for all $i \in I$. Consequently, $\theta(A) \subset A$ and hence $\theta(A) = A$ as desired. So by theorem (1.2), the family \mathfrak{J} of complements of members of \mathcal{C} is a topology on X .

It remains to be verified that the closure operator associated with \mathfrak{J} coincides with θ . Let $A \subset X$. Then $\bar{A}^{\mathfrak{J}}$ (i.e. \bar{A} w.r.t. \mathfrak{J}) is the intersection of all closed subsets of X containing A . But by very construction, closed subsets of X are precisely the fixed points of θ . Hence $\bar{A} = \bigcap \{B \subset X : A \subset B;$

$\theta(B) = B$. Now, whenever $B \supset A$, $\theta(B) \supset \theta(A)$ by monotonicity of θ . So if $B \supset A$ and $\theta(B) = B$ then $B \supset \theta(A)$. But \bar{A} is the intersection of such B 's and so $\bar{A} \supset \theta(A)$. For the other way inclusion we note that by condition (3), $\theta(A) \in \mathcal{C}$ while by (1) $A \subset \theta(A)$ whence $\bar{A} \subset \theta(A)$, \bar{A} being the smallest member of \mathcal{C} containing A . Hence for all $A \subset X$, $\theta(A) = \bar{A}$ completing the proof. ■

(3.1) Definition: Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a function; $x_0 \in X$ and $\mathfrak{J}, \mathcal{U}$ be topologies on X, Y respectively. Then f is said to be **continuous** (or more precisely **\mathfrak{J} - \mathcal{U} continuous**) at x_0 if for every $V \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $f(x_0) \in V$, there exists $U \in \mathfrak{J}$ such that $x_0 \in U$ and $f(U) \subset V$.

It is convenient to have some other formulations of continuity at a point

(3.2) Proposition: With the notation above, the following statements are equivalent.

1. f is continuous at x_0 .
2. The inverse image (under f) of every neighbourhood of $f(x_0)$ in Y is a neighbourhood of x_0 in X .
3. For every subset $A \subset X$, $x_0 \in \bar{A}$ implies $f(x_0) \in \overline{f(A)}$.
4. For every subset $A \subset X$, $x_0 \delta A$ implies $f(x_0) \delta f(A)$.

Proof (1) \Rightarrow (2). Let N be a neighbourhood of $f(x_0)$ in Y . Then there is an open set V in Y such that $f(x_0) \in V$ and $V \subset N$. Since f is continuous at x_0 , there is an open set U in X such that $x_0 \in U$ and $f(U) \subset V$. This means $x_0 \in U \subset f^{-1}(V) \subset f^{-1}(N)$ thus showing that $f^{-1}(N)$ is a neighbourhood of x_0 .

(2) \Rightarrow (3). Suppose $x_0 \in \bar{A}$ where $A \subset X$. If $f(x_0) \notin \overline{f(A)}$ then by Theorem (2.10) in the last section, there is a neighbourhood N of $f(x_0)$ such that $f(A) \cap N = \emptyset$. This means $f^{-1}(f(A)) \cap f^{-1}(N) = \emptyset$ and hence that $A \cap f^{-1}(N) = \emptyset$ since $A \subset f^{-1}(f(A))$. But by (2), $f^{-1}(N)$ is a neighbourhood of x_0 and so $A \cap f^{-1}(N) \neq \emptyset$, since $x_0 \in \bar{A}$. This is a contradiction.

(3) \Leftrightarrow (4). This is immediate since the nearness relation corresponding to a topology is defined by saying that a point is near a set iff it is in the closure of that set.

(3) \Rightarrow (1). Let V be an open set containing $f(x_0)$. Let $A = X - f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(Y - V)$. Then $f(A) \subset Y - V$ and so $\overline{f(A)} \subset Y - V$ as $Y - V$ is closed. So $f(x_0) \notin \overline{f(A)}$ whence $x_0 \notin \bar{A}$ by (3). Hence there is a neighbourhood N of x_0 such that $N \cap A = \emptyset$. Clearly then $f(N) \subset V$ and the proof is completed if we let $U = \text{int}(N)$. ■

UNIT-IIISYLLABUS

Connected spaces, connected subspaces of the real line, components and local connectedness.

(2.1) Definition: A space X is said to be **connected** if it is impossible to find non-empty subsets A and B of it such that $X = A \cup B$ and $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$. A space which is not connected is called **disconnected**.

(2.2) Proposition: Let X be a space and A, B subsets of X . Then the following statements are equivalent:

1. $A \cup B = X$ and $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$.
2. $A \cup B = X$, $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and A, B are both closed in X .
3. $B = X - A$ and A is clopen (i.e. closed as well as open) in X .
4. $B = X - A$ and ∂A (that is, the boundary of A) is empty.
5. $A \cup B = X$, $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and A, B are both open in X .

Proof: (1) \Rightarrow (2). Clearly $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$ implies that $A \cap B = \emptyset$ since $A \subset \bar{A}$ and $B \subset \bar{B}$. Also $\bar{A} \subset X - \bar{B} \subset X - B = A$ and so $\bar{A} = A$ showing that A is closed. Similarly B is closed.

(2) \Rightarrow (3) is immediate since the complement of a closed set is open.

(3) \Rightarrow (4). This follows from the fact that the boundary of a clopen set is empty (see Exercise (5.2.7).)

(4) \Rightarrow (5). This requires the converse, viz., that a set with empty boundary is clopen. Also if A is closed, then its complement B is open.

(5) \Rightarrow (1). Assume $X = A \cup B$ where $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and A, B are open. Then $A = X - B$ and $B = X - A$ whence A, B are closed as well and so $\bar{A} = A$, $\bar{B} = B$, showing $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$. ■

(2.3) Proposition: Let X be a space. Then the following are equivalent:

1. X is connected.
2. X cannot be written as the disjoint union of two nonempty closed subsets.
3. The only clopen subsets of X are \emptyset and X .
4. Every nonempty proper subset of X has a nonempty boundary.
5. X cannot be written as the disjoint union of two nonempty open subsets.

Proof: The result is immediate from the definition and the last proposition. ■

From the definitions we see immediately that every indiscrete space is connected and that the only connected discrete spaces are those which consist of at most one point. The space of rational numbers is disconnected; given any irrational number α the sets $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < \alpha\}$ and $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x > \alpha\}$ are both open in the relative topology on \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{Q} is clearly their disjoint union. Similarly the set of irrational numbers is disconnected. The Sierpinsky space defined in Chapter 4, Section 2 is connected, although it is not indiscrete. It is clear that if a set is connected w.r.t. a topology \mathfrak{J} on it, then it is connected w.r.t. every topology weaker than \mathfrak{J} . The following proposition shows that connectedness is preserved under continuous functions.

(2.5) Theorem: A subset of \mathbb{R} is connected iff it is an interval.

Proof: First note that a subset $X \subset \mathbb{R}$ is an interval iff it has the property that for any $a, b \in X$, $(a, b) \subset X$. (Prove.) Now if X is not an interval then there exist real numbers a, b, c such that $a < c < b$; $a, b \in X$ and $c \notin X$. Let $A = \{x \in X : x < c\}$ and $B = \{x \in X : x > c\}$. Clearly A, B are disjoint, open subsets of X (in the relative topology) since $A = X \cap (-\infty, c)$ and $B = (c, \infty) \cap X$ and $A \cup B = X$. Further $a \in A$, $b \in B$ and hence A, B are nonempty. This shows that X is not connected.

Conversely suppose X is an interval and that $X = A \cup B$ where $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$, $A \neq \emptyset$, $B \neq \emptyset$ where the closure is relative to X . Let $a_0 \in A$, $b_0 \in B$. Without loss of generality we may suppose that $a_0 < b_0$. Now let x be the mid-point of the interval from a_0 to b_0 , i.e. $x = \frac{a_0 + b_0}{2}$. Then $x \in X$ and so x is exactly in one of the sets A and B . If $x \in A$ we rename it as a_1 and rename b_0 as b_1 . If $x \in B$, we rename a_0 as a_1 and x as b_1 . In any case $[a_1, b_1]$ is an interval with its left end-point in A and the right end-point in B . We can now take the mid-point of $[a_1, b_1]$ and get an interval $[a_2, b_2]$ of half the length with $a_2 \in A$, $b_2 \in B$. Repeating this process ad infinitum, we get a nested sequence of intervals $\{[a_n, b_n] : n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ such that $a_n \in A$ and $b_n \in B$ for all n . Note that $\{a_n\}$ is a bounded monotonically increasing sequence while $\{b_n\}$ is a bounded monotonically decreasing sequence and that $(b_n - a_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. By the order completeness of \mathbb{R} , both sequences converge to a common limit, say c . Note that $c \in X$ since $a_0 \leq c \leq b_0$. Also every neighbourhood of c intersects A as well as B . So $c \in \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$, a contradiction. Hence X is connected. ■

(2.7) Definition: Two subsets A and B of a space X are said to be **(mutually) separated** if $\bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ and $A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$.

(2.8) Proposition: Let X be a space and C be a connected subset of X (that is, C with the relative topology is a connected space). Suppose $C \subset A \cup B$ where A, B are mutually separated subsets of X . Then either $C \subset A$ or $C \subset B$.

Proof: Let $G = C \cap A$ and $H = C \cap B$. Then G, H are closed subsets of C since, A, B are closed in $A \cup B$. Also $G \cap H = \emptyset$. But C is connected. So either $G = \emptyset$ or $H = \emptyset$. In the first case $C \subset B$ while in the second, $C \subset A$. ■

(2.9) Theorem: Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of connected subsets of a space X such that no two members of \mathcal{C} are mutually separated. Then $\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ is also connected.

Proof: Let $M = \bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$. If M is not connected then we could write M as a $A \cup B$ where A, B are nonempty and mutually separated subsets of X . By the proposition above, for each $C \in \mathcal{C}$ either $C \subset A$ or $C \subset B$. We contend that the same possibility holds for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$, i.e. either $C \subset A$ for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$ or $C \subset B$ for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$. If this is not the case, then there exist $C, D \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $C \subset A$ and $D \subset B$. But, A, B are mutually separated and hence their subsets C, D are also mutually separated contradicting the hypothesis. Thus all members of \mathcal{C} are contained in A or all are contained in B . Accordingly $M = A$ or $M = B$, contradicting that A, B are both non-empty. ■

(2.10) Corollary: Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of connected subsets of a space X and suppose K is a connected subset of X (not necessarily a member of \mathcal{C}) such that $C \cap K \neq \emptyset$ for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$. Then $(\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C) \cup K$ is connected.

Proof: Let $M = (\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C) \cup K$. Let $\mathcal{D} = \{K \cup C : C \in \mathcal{C}\}$. Clearly $M = \bigcup_{D \in \mathcal{D}} D$. By the theorem above, each member of \mathcal{D} is connected since it is a union of two connected sets which intersect (and which are therefore not separated). Now any two members of \mathcal{D} have at least points of K in common and so are not mutually separated. So again by the theorem above, M is connected. ■

(2.12) Corollary: The topological product of any finite number of connected spaces is connected.

Proof: If $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n-1}, X_n$ are spaces (with $n \geq 2$) then $X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots \times X_n$ is homeomorphic to $(X_1 \times \dots \times X_{n-1}) \times X_n$ (see Exercise (5.3.6)). The result follows by induction on n and the last proposition. ■

(2.13) Proposition: The closure of a connected subset is connected. More generally if C is a connected subset of a space X then any set D such that $C \subset D \subset \bar{C}$ is connected.

Proof: Suppose C is connected and $C \subset D \subset \bar{C}$. If D is not connected then we can write $D = A \cup B$ where A, B are nonempty, disjoint and closed relative to D . Then $C \cap A, C \cap B$ are disjoint closed subsets of C whose union is C . But C is connected. So one of them, say, $C \cap B$ is empty. This means $C \subset A$, and hence $\bar{C}^D \subset A$ where the closure is w.r.t. D . But $\bar{C}^D = \bar{C}^X \cap D = D$ since $D \subset \bar{C}^X$. Hence $A = D$ contradicting that B is non-empty. So D is connected. ■

UNIT-IV

SYLLABUS

Compact spaces, compact subspaces of the Real line, limit point compactness, local compactness.

Definition. A collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of a space X is said to **cover** X , or to be a **covering** of X , if the union of the elements of \mathcal{A} is equal to X . It is called an **open covering** of X if its elements are open subsets of X .

Definition. A space X is said to be **compact** if every open covering \mathcal{A} of X contains a finite subcollection that also covers X .

EXAMPLE 1. The real line \mathbb{R} is not compact, for the covering of \mathbb{R} by open intervals

$$\mathcal{A} = \{(n, n + 2) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

contains no finite subcollection that covers \mathbb{R} .

Lemma 26.1. Let Y be a subspace of X . Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets open in X contains a finite subcollection covering Y .

Proof. Suppose that Y is compact and $\mathcal{A} = \{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X . Then the collection

$$\{A_\alpha \cap Y \mid \alpha \in J\}$$

is a covering of Y by sets open in Y ; hence a finite subcollection

$$\{A_{\alpha_1} \cap Y, \dots, A_{\alpha_n} \cap Y\}$$

covers Y . Then $\{A_{\alpha_1}, \dots, A_{\alpha_n}\}$ is a subcollection of \mathcal{A} that covers Y .

Conversely, suppose the given condition holds; we wish to prove Y compact. Let $\mathcal{A}' = \{A'_\alpha\}$ be a covering of Y by sets open in Y . For each α , choose a set A_α open in X such that

$$A'_\alpha = A_\alpha \cap Y.$$

The collection $\mathcal{A} = \{A_\alpha\}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X . By hypothesis, some finite subcollection $\{A_{\alpha_1}, \dots, A_{\alpha_n}\}$ covers Y . Then $\{A'_{\alpha_1}, \dots, A'_{\alpha_n}\}$ is a subcollection of \mathcal{A}' that covers Y . ■

Theorem 26.2. *Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.*

Proof. Let Y be a closed subspace of the compact space X . Given a covering \mathcal{A} of Y by sets open in X , let us form an open covering \mathcal{B} of X by adjoining to \mathcal{A} the single open set $X - Y$, that is,

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} \cup \{X - Y\}.$$

Some finite subcollection of \mathcal{B} covers X . If this subcollection contains the set $X - Y$, discard $X - Y$; otherwise, leave the subcollection alone. The resulting collection is a finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} that covers Y . ■

Theorem 26.3. *Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.*

Proof. Let Y be a compact subspace of the Hausdorff space X . We shall prove that $X - Y$ is open, so that Y is closed.

Let x_0 be a point of $X - Y$. We show there is a neighborhood of x_0 that is disjoint from Y . For each point y of Y , let us choose disjoint neighborhoods U_y and V_y of the points x_0 and y , respectively (using the Hausdorff condition). The collection $\{V_y \mid y \in Y\}$ is a covering of Y by sets open in X ; therefore, finitely many of them V_{y_1}, \dots, V_{y_n} cover Y . The open set

$$V = V_{y_1} \cup \dots \cup V_{y_n}$$

contains Y , and it is disjoint from the open set

$$U = U_{y_1} \cap \dots \cap U_{y_n}$$

formed by taking the intersection of the corresponding neighborhoods of x_0 . For if z is a point of V , then $z \in V_{y_i}$ for some i , hence $z \notin U_{y_i}$ and so $z \notin U$. See Figure 26.1.

Then U is a neighborhood of x_0 disjoint from Y , as desired. ■

Lemma 26.4. *If Y is a compact subspace of the Hausdorff space X and x_0 is not in Y , then there exist disjoint open sets U and V of X containing x_0 and Y , respectively.*

Theorem 26.5. *The image of a compact space under a continuous map is compact.*

Proof. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous; let X be compact. Let \mathcal{A} be a covering of the set $f(X)$ by sets open in Y . The collection

$$\{f^{-1}(A) \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

is a collection of sets covering X ; these sets are open in X because f is continuous. Hence finitely many of them, say

$$f^{-1}(A_1), \dots, f^{-1}(A_n),$$

cover X . Then the sets A_1, \dots, A_n cover $f(X)$. ■

Theorem 26.6. *Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a bijective continuous function. If X is compact and Y is Hausdorff, then f is a homeomorphism.*

Proof. We shall prove that images of closed sets of X under f are closed in Y ; this will prove continuity of the map f^{-1} . If A is closed in X , then A is compact, by Theorem 26.2. Therefore, by the theorem just proved, $f(A)$ is compact. Since Y is Hausdorff, $f(A)$ is closed in Y , by Theorem 26.3. ■

Lemma 26.8 (The tube lemma). *Consider the product space $X \times Y$, where Y is compact. If N is an open set of $X \times Y$ containing the slice $x_0 \times Y$ of $X \times Y$, then N contains some tube $W \times Y$ about $x_0 \times Y$, where W is a neighborhood of x_0 in X .*

Definition. A collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of X is said to have the **finite intersection property** if for every finite subcollection

$$\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$$

of \mathcal{C} , the intersection $C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_n$ is nonempty.

Theorem 26.9. *Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if for every collection \mathcal{C} of closed sets in X having the finite intersection property, the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathcal{C} is nonempty.*

Proof. Given a collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of X , let

$$\mathcal{C} = \{X - A \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

be the collection of their complements. Then the following statements hold:

- (1) \mathcal{A} is a collection of open sets if and only if \mathcal{C} is a collection of closed sets.
- (2) The collection \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathcal{C} is empty.
- (3) The finite subcollection $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$ of \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if the intersection of the corresponding elements $C_i = X - A_i$ of \mathcal{C} is empty.

The first statement is trivial, while the second and third follow from DeMorgan's law:

$$X - \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha} \right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} (X - A_{\alpha}).$$

The proof of the theorem now proceeds in two easy steps: taking the *contrapositive* (of the theorem), and then the *complement* (of the sets)!

The statement that X is compact is equivalent to saying: "Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open subsets of X , if \mathcal{A} covers X , then some finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X ." This statement is equivalent to its contrapositive, which is the following: "Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open sets, if no finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X , then \mathcal{A} does not cover X ." Letting \mathcal{C} be, as earlier, the collection $\{X - A \mid A \in \mathcal{A}\}$ and applying (1)–(3), we see that this statement is in turn equivalent to the following: "Given any collection \mathcal{C} of closed sets, if every finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{C} is nonempty, then the intersection of all the elements of \mathcal{C} is nonempty." This is just the condition of our theorem. ■

Theorem 27.1. *Let X be a simply ordered set having the least upper bound property. In the order topology, each closed interval in X is compact.*

Proof. Step 1. Given $a < b$, let \mathcal{A} be a covering of $[a, b]$ by sets open in $[a, b]$ in the subspace topology (which is the same as the order topology). We wish to prove the existence of a finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covering $[a, b]$. First we prove the following: If x is a point of $[a, b]$ different from b , then there is a point $y > x$ of $[a, b]$ such that the interval $[x, y]$ can be covered by at most two elements of \mathcal{A} .

If x has an immediate successor in X , let y be this immediate successor. Then $[x, y]$ consists of the two points x and y , so that it can be covered by at most two elements of \mathcal{A} . If x has no immediate successor in X , choose an element A of \mathcal{A} containing x . Because $x \neq b$ and A is open, A contains an interval of the form $[x, c)$, for some c in $[a, b]$. Choose a point y in (x, c) ; then the interval $[x, y]$ is covered by the single element A of \mathcal{A} .

Step 2. Let C be the set of all points $y > a$ of $[a, b]$ such that the interval $[a, y]$ can be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . Applying Step 1 to the case $x = a$, we see that there exists at least one such y , so C is not empty. Let c be the least upper bound of the set C ; then $a < c \leq b$.

Step 3. We show that c belongs to C ; that is, we show that the interval $[a, c]$ can be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . Choose an element A of \mathcal{A} containing c ; since A is open, it contains an interval of the form $(d, c]$ for some d in $[a, b]$. If c is not in C , there must be a point z of C lying in the interval (d, c) , because otherwise d would be a smaller upper bound on C than c . See Figure 27.1. Since z is in C , the interval $[a, z]$ can be covered by finitely many, say n , elements of \mathcal{A} . Now $[z, c]$ lies in the single element A of \mathcal{A} , hence $[a, c] = [a, z] \cup [z, c]$ can be covered by $n + 1$ elements of \mathcal{A} . Thus c is in C , contrary to assumption.

Step 4. Finally, we show that $c = b$, and our theorem is proved. Suppose that $c < b$. Applying Step 1 to the case $x = c$, we conclude that there exists a point $y > c$ of $[a, b]$ such that the interval $[c, y]$ can be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . See Figure 27.2. We proved in Step 3 that c is in C , so $[a, c]$ can be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . Therefore, the interval

$$[a, y] = [a, c] \cup [c, y]$$

can also be covered by finitely many elements of \mathcal{A} . This means that y is in C , contradicting the fact that c is an upper bound on C . ■

Corollary 27.2. *Every closed interval in \mathbb{R} is compact.*

Now we characterize the compact subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n :

UNIT-V

SYLLABUS

The countability axioms, the separation axioms, normal spaces, The Urysohn lemma, The Urysohn metrization theorem, the Tietze Extension theorem

Definition. A space X is said to have a *countable basis at x* if there is a countable collection \mathcal{B} of neighborhoods of x such that each neighborhood of x contains at least one of the elements of \mathcal{B} . A space that has a countable basis at each of its points is said to satisfy the *first countability axiom*, or to be *first-countable*.

Definition. If a space X has a countable basis for its topology, then X is said to satisfy the *second countability axiom*, or to be *second-countable*.

Theorem 30.2. A subspace of a first-countable space is first-countable, and a countable product of first-countable spaces is first-countable. A subspace of a second-countable space is second-countable, and a countable product of second-countable spaces is second-countable.

Proof. Consider the second countability axiom. If \mathcal{B} is a countable basis for X , then $\{B \cap A \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$ is a countable basis for the subspace A of X . If \mathcal{B}_i is a countable basis for the space X_i , then the collection of all products $\prod U_i$, where $U_i \in \mathcal{B}_i$ for finitely many values of i and $U_i = X_i$ for all other values of i , is a countable basis for $\prod X_i$.

The proof for the first countability axiom is similar. ■

Definition. A subset A of a space X is said to be **dense** in X if $\bar{A} = X$.

Theorem 30.3. Suppose that X has a countable basis. Then:

- (a) Every open covering of X contains a countable subcollection covering X .
- (b) There exists a countable subset of X that is dense in X .

Proof. Let $\{B_n\}$ be a countable basis for X .

(a) Let \mathcal{A} be an open covering of X . For each positive integer n for which it is possible, choose an element A_n of \mathcal{A} containing the basis element B_n . The collection \mathcal{A}' of the sets A_n is countable, since it is indexed with a subset J of the positive integers. Furthermore, it covers X : Given a point $x \in X$, we can choose an element A of \mathcal{A} containing x . Since A is open, there is a basis element B_n such that $x \in B_n \subset A$. Because B_n lies in an element of \mathcal{A} , the index n belongs to the set J , so A_n is defined; since A_n contains B_n , it contains x . Thus \mathcal{A}' is a countable subcollection of \mathcal{A} that covers X .

(b) From each nonempty basis element B_n , choose a point x_n . Let D be the set consisting of the points x_n . Then D is dense in X : Given any point x of X , every basis element containing x intersects D , so x belongs to \bar{D} . ■

Definition. Suppose that one-point sets are closed in X . Then X is said to be **regular** if for each pair consisting of a point x and a closed set B disjoint from x , there exist disjoint open sets containing x and B , respectively. The space X is said to be **normal** if for each pair A, B of disjoint closed sets of X , there exist disjoint open sets containing A and B , respectively.

Lemma 31.1. *Let X be a topological space. Let one-point sets in X be closed.*

(a) *X is regular if and only if given a point x of X and a neighborhood U of x , there is a neighborhood V of x such that $\bar{V} \subset U$.*

(b) *X is normal if and only if given a closed set A and an open set U containing A , there is an open set V containing A such that $\bar{V} \subset U$.*

Proof. (a) Suppose that X is regular, and suppose that the point x and the neighborhood U of x are given. Let $B = X - U$; then B is a closed set. By hypothesis, there exist disjoint open sets V and W containing x and B , respectively. The set \bar{V} is disjoint from B , since if $y \in B$, the set W is a neighborhood of y disjoint from V . Therefore, $\bar{V} \subset U$, as desired.

To prove the converse, suppose the point x and the closed set B not containing x are given. Let $U = X - B$. By hypothesis, there is a neighborhood V of x such that $\bar{V} \subset U$. The open sets V and $X - \bar{V}$ are disjoint open sets containing x and B , respectively. Thus X is regular.

(b) This proof uses exactly the same argument; one just replaces the point x by the set A throughout. ■

Theorem 32.1. *Every regular space with a countable basis is normal.*

Proof. Let X be a regular space with a countable basis \mathcal{B} . Let A and B be disjoint closed subsets of X . Each point x of A has a neighborhood U not intersecting B . Using regularity, choose a neighborhood V of x whose closure lies in U ; finally, choose an element of \mathcal{B} containing x and contained in V . By choosing such a basis element for each x in A , we construct a countable covering of A by open sets whose closures do not intersect B . Since this covering of A is countable, we can index it with the positive integers; let us denote it by $\{U_n\}$.

Similarly, choose a countable collection $\{V_n\}$ of open sets covering B , such that each set \bar{V}_n is disjoint from A . The sets $U = \bigcup U_n$ and $V = \bigcup V_n$ are open sets containing A and B , respectively, but they need not be disjoint. We perform the following simple trick to construct two open sets that are disjoint. Given n , define

$$U'_n = U_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{V}_i \quad \text{and} \quad V'_n = V_n - \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bar{U}_i.$$

Theorem 32.2. *Every metrizable space is normal.*

Proof. Let X be a metrizable space with metric d . Let A and B be disjoint closed subsets of X . For each $a \in A$, choose ϵ_a so that the ball $B(a, \epsilon_a)$ does not intersect B . Similarly, for each $b \in B$, choose ϵ_b so that the ball $B(b, \epsilon_b)$ does not intersect A . Define

$$U = \bigcup_{a \in A} B(a, \epsilon_a/2) \quad \text{and} \quad V = \bigcup_{b \in B} B(b, \epsilon_b/2).$$

Then U and V are open sets containing A and B , respectively; we assert they are disjoint. For if $z \in U \cap V$, then

$$z \in B(a, \epsilon_a/2) \cap B(b, \epsilon_b/2)$$

for some $a \in A$ and some $b \in B$. The triangle inequality applies to show that $d(a, b) < (\epsilon_a + \epsilon_b)/2$. If $\epsilon_a \leq \epsilon_b$, then $d(a, b) < \epsilon_b$, so that the ball $B(b, \epsilon_b)$ contains the point a . If $\epsilon_b \leq \epsilon_a$, then $d(a, b) < \epsilon_a$, so that the ball $B(a, \epsilon_a)$ contains the point b . Neither situation is possible. ■

Theorem 32.3. *Every compact Hausdorff space is normal.*

Proof. Let X be a compact Hausdorff space. We have already essentially proved that X is regular. For if x is a point of X and B is a closed set in X not containing x , then B is compact, so that Lemma 26.4 applies to show there exist disjoint open sets about x and B , respectively.

Essentially the same argument as given in that lemma can be used to show that X is normal: Given disjoint closed sets A and B in X , choose, for each point a of A , disjoint open sets U_a and V_a containing a and B , respectively. (Here we use regularity of X .) The collection $\{U_a\}$ covers A ; because A is compact, A may be covered by finitely many sets U_{a_1}, \dots, U_{a_m} . Then

$$U = U_{a_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{a_m} \quad \text{and} \quad V = V_{a_1} \cap \dots \cap V_{a_m}$$

are disjoint open sets containing A and B , respectively. ■

UNIT-I
SYLLABUS

Topological spaces, Basis for a topologies, the order topology, the product topology $X \times Y$, the subspace topology.

§1 Definition and Examples:

Definition 1.1: Let X be any non-empty set. A family \mathfrak{T} of subsets of X is called a topology on X if it satisfies the following conditions:

$$(i) \quad \phi \in \mathfrak{T} \text{ and } X \in \mathfrak{T}$$

$$(ii) \quad A, B \in \mathfrak{T} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$$

$$(iii) \quad A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda \text{ (where } \Lambda \text{ is any indexing set)} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$$

If \mathfrak{T} is a topology on X , then the ordered pair $\langle X, \mathfrak{T} \rangle$ is called a topological space (or T-space)

Examples 1.2: Throughout X denotes a non-empty set.

1) $\mathfrak{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ is a topology on X . This topology is called **indiscrete topology** on X and the T-space $\langle X, \mathfrak{T} \rangle$ is called indiscrete topological space.

2) $\mathfrak{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$, ($\mathcal{P}(X)$ = power set of X) is a topology on X and is called **discrete topology** on X and the T-space $\langle X, \mathfrak{T} \rangle$ is called discrete topological space.

Remark: If $|X| = 1$, then discrete and indiscrete topologies on X coincide, otherwise they are different.

3) Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ then $\mathfrak{T}_1 = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ and $\mathfrak{T}_2 = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ are topologies on X whereas $\mathfrak{T}_3 = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, X\}$ is not a topology on X .

4) Let X be an infinite set. Define $\mathfrak{T} = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{A \subseteq X \mid X - A \text{ is finite}\}$ then \mathfrak{T} is topology on X .

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}$ (by definition of \mathfrak{T})

As $X - X = \emptyset$, a finite set, $X \in \mathfrak{T}$

(ii) Let $A, B \in \mathfrak{T}$. If either $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$, then $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$. Assume that $A \neq \emptyset$ and $B \neq \emptyset$.

Then $X - A$ is finite and $X - B$ is finite. Hence $X - (A \cap B) = (X - A) \cup (X - B)$ is

finite set. Therefore $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$. Thus $A, B \in \mathfrak{T} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

(iii) Let $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$, for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$ (where Λ is any indexing set). If each $A_\lambda = \emptyset$, then

$$\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda = \emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

If $\exists \lambda_0 \in \Lambda$ such that $A_{\lambda_0} \neq \emptyset$, then $A_{\lambda_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \Rightarrow X - A_{\lambda_0} \supseteq X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$.

As $X - A_{\lambda_0}$ is a finite set and subset of finite set being finite we get $X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$ is finite

and hence $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$. Thus in either case,

$$A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

From (i), (ii) and (iii) is a topology on X . This topology is called **co-finite topology** on X and the topological space is called co-finite topological space.

Remark: If X is finite set, then co-finite topology on X coincides with the discrete topology on X .

5) Let X be any uncountable set. Define $\mathfrak{T} = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{A \subseteq X \mid X - A \text{ is countable}\}$. Then \mathfrak{T} is topology on X .

i. $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}$ (by definition).

As $X - X = \emptyset$ and \emptyset is countable (Since \emptyset is finite) we get $X \in \mathfrak{T}$.

ii. Let $A, B \in \mathfrak{T}$. If either $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$ we get $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

Let $A \neq \emptyset$ and $B \neq \emptyset$.

Then by definition of \mathfrak{T} , $X - A$ and $X - B$ both are countable sets and hence

$X - (A \cap B) = (X - A) \cup (X - B)$ is countable. This shows that $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$. Thus

$A, B \in \mathfrak{T}$ implies $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

iii. Let $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T} \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ is any indexing set. If for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $A_\lambda = \emptyset$

then $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda = \emptyset$ will imply $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$. Let $A_{\lambda_0} \neq \emptyset$ for some $\lambda_0 \in \Lambda$.

$$\text{Then } A_{\lambda_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \Rightarrow X - A_{\lambda_0} \supseteq X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$$

$$\Rightarrow X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \text{ is a subset of a countable set } X - A_{\lambda_0} \text{ (Since } A_{\lambda_0} \in \mathfrak{T} \text{ and } A_{\lambda_0} \neq \emptyset \text{)}$$

$$\Rightarrow X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \text{ is a countable set. (since subset of countable set is countable)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$$

$$\text{Thus in either case, } A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$$

From (i) , (ii) and (iii) we get \mathfrak{T} is a topology on X . This topology on X is called **co-countable topology** on X and the T-space $\langle X, \mathfrak{T} \rangle$ is called co-countable topological space.

Remark: If X is a countable set, the co-countable topology on X coincides with the discrete topology on X .

6) Let $A \subseteq X$. Define $\mathfrak{T} = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{B \subseteq X \mid A \subseteq B\}$. Then \mathfrak{T} is a topology on X .

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}$ by definition. As $A \subseteq X$, $X \in \mathfrak{T}$.

(ii) Let $B, C \in \mathfrak{T}$. If $B = \emptyset$ or $C = \emptyset$, then $B \cap C = \emptyset$ will give $B \cap C \in \mathfrak{T}$. Let $B \neq \emptyset$ or $C \neq \emptyset$. Then $A \subseteq B \cap C$ will imply $B \cap C \in \mathfrak{T}$.

(iii) Let $B_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T} \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ is any indexing set. If for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $B_\lambda = \emptyset$ then

$$\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda = \emptyset \text{ and in this case } \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

Assume that $B_{\lambda_0} \neq \emptyset$ for some $\lambda_0 \in \Lambda$. Then $A \subseteq B_{\lambda_0}$ and $B_{\lambda_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda$ imply $A \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda$.

$$\text{Therefore } \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

From (i), (ii) and (iii) \mathfrak{T} is a topology on X .

- Remarks:** (1) If $A = \emptyset$ then \mathfrak{T} is discrete topology on X .
 (2) If $A = X$ then \mathfrak{T} is indiscrete topology on X .
 (3) If $A = \{p\}$, then $\mathfrak{T} = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{B \subseteq X \mid p \in B\}$ is called **p -inclusive topology on X** .

7) Let $p \in X$. Define $\mathfrak{T} = \{X\} \cup \{A \subseteq X \mid p \notin A\}$. Then \mathfrak{T} is topology on X .

- (i) $p \notin \emptyset$ implies $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}$. By definition $X \in \mathfrak{T}$.
 (ii) Let $A, B \in \mathfrak{T}$. If $A = X$ or $B = X$, then $A \cap B = X$. In this case $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$. Assume that either $A \neq X$ or $B \neq X$. Then $p \notin A$ or $p \notin B$ and hence $p \notin A \cap B$ which proves $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

Thus $A, B \in \mathfrak{T}$ implies $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

- (iii) Let $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T} \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ is any indexing set. If for some $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $A_\lambda = X$ then

$$\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda = X \text{ will give } \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

Assume that $A_\lambda \neq X$ for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$. Then $p \notin A_\lambda$ for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$ will imply,

$$p \notin \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \text{ and hence } \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

$$\text{Thus in either case, } A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T} \forall \lambda \in \Lambda \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

From (i), (ii) and (iii) \mathfrak{T} is a topology on X .

This topology on X is called **p -exclusive topology on X** .

8) Let $\langle X, \mathfrak{T} \rangle$ be topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Define $\mathfrak{T}^* = \{G \cup (A \cap H) \mid G, H \in \mathfrak{T}\}$. Then \mathfrak{T}^* is a topology on X .

- (i) Take $G = \emptyset$ and $H = \emptyset$. Then $G \cup (A \cap H) = \emptyset \cup (A \cap \emptyset) = \emptyset \Rightarrow \emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}^*$. Take $G = X$. Then for any $H \in \mathfrak{T}$ we get $X \cup (A \cap H) = X$. Hence $X \in \mathfrak{T}^*$.
 (ii) Let $G_1 \cup (A \cap H_1) \in \mathfrak{T}^*$ and $G_2 \cup (A \cap H_2) \in \mathfrak{T}^*$ for $G_1, H_1, G_2, H_2 \in \mathfrak{T}$.

$$\text{Then } [G_1 \cup (A \cap H_1)] \cap [G_2 \cup (A \cap H_2)]$$

$$= (G_1 \cap G_2) \cup (G_1 \cap A \cap H_2) \cup (A \cap H_1 \cap G_2) \cup (A \cap H_1 \cap H_2)$$

$$= (G_1 \cap G_2) \cup [A \cap [(G_1 \cap H_2) \cup (H_1 \cap G_2) \cup (H_1 \cap H_2)]]$$

As $(G_1 \cap G_2) \in \mathfrak{T}$ and $[(G_1 \cap H_2) \cup (H_1 \cap G_2) \cup (H_1 \cap H_2)] \in \mathfrak{T}$ we get,

$$[G_1 \cup (A \cap H_1)] \cap [G_2 \cup (A \cap H_2)] \in \mathfrak{T}.$$

- (iii) Let $G_\lambda \cup (A \cap H_\lambda) \in \mathfrak{T}^*$ for $\lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ is any indexing set. Then $G_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$ and $H_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$.

$$\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} [G_\lambda \cup (A \cap H_\lambda)] = \left[\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_\lambda \right] \cup \left[A \cap \left[\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_\lambda \right] \right]$$

As $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$ and $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}$, we get $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} [G_\lambda \cup (A \cap H_\lambda)] \in \mathfrak{T}^*$.

From (i), (ii) and (iii) we get \mathfrak{T}^* is a topology on X .

Remark: This example shows that every topology on X induces another topology on X .

9) Let X and Y be any two non-empty sets and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be any function. Let \mathfrak{T} be topology on Y . Define $\mathfrak{T}^* = \{f^{-1}(G) \mid G \in \mathfrak{T}\}$, where $f^{-1}(G) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in G\}$. Then \mathfrak{T}^* is topology on X .

(i) $f^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset \Rightarrow \emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}^*$ and $f^{-1}(Y) = X \Rightarrow X \in \mathfrak{T}^*$

(ii) Let $f^{-1}(G) \in \mathfrak{T}^*$ and $f^{-1}(H) \in \mathfrak{T}^*$ for $G, H \in \mathfrak{T}$. Then $f^{-1}(G \cap H) = f^{-1}(G) \cap f^{-1}(H)$ and $G, H \in \mathfrak{T}$ will imply $f^{-1}(G) \cap f^{-1}(H) \in \mathfrak{T}^*$.

(iii) Let $f^{-1}(G_\lambda) \in \mathfrak{T}^* \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ any indexing set is. Then

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_\lambda\right) = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} f^{-1}(G_\lambda). \quad \text{As } \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_\lambda \in \mathfrak{T}, \text{ we get } \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} f^{-1}(G_\lambda) \in \mathfrak{T}^*.$$

Thus from (i), (ii) and (iii) we get \mathfrak{T}^* is a topology on X .

10) Let X be any uncountable set and let ∞ be a fixed point of X . Let

$\mathfrak{T} = \{G \subseteq X \mid \infty \notin G\} \cup \{G \subseteq X \mid \infty \in G \text{ and } X - G \text{ is finite}\}$. Then \mathfrak{T} is a topology on X .

Define $\mathfrak{T}_1 = \{G \subseteq X \mid \infty \notin G\}$ and $\mathfrak{T}_2 = \{G \subseteq X \mid \infty \in G \text{ and } X - G \text{ is finite}\}$ then

$$\mathfrak{T} = \mathfrak{T}_1 \cup \mathfrak{T}_2.$$

(i) $\infty \notin \emptyset \Rightarrow \emptyset \in \mathfrak{T}$. $\infty \in X$ and $X - X = \emptyset$ is a finite set $\Rightarrow X \in \mathfrak{T}_2 \Rightarrow X \in \mathfrak{T}$.

(ii) Let $A, B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

Case 1: $A, B \in \mathfrak{T}_1$. Then $\infty \notin A$ and $\infty \notin B$. Hence $\infty \notin A \cap B$.

Therefore $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}_1 \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{T}$.

Case 2 : $A, B \in \mathfrak{S}_2$. Then $A \in \mathfrak{S}_2 \Rightarrow \infty \in A$ and $X - A$ is finite. $B \in \mathfrak{S}_2 \Rightarrow \infty \in B$ and $X - B$ is finite. Then $\infty \in A \cap B$ and $X - (A \cap B) = (X - A) \cup (X - B)$ is finite. Thus $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}_2$ which gives $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}$.

Case 3 : $A \in \mathfrak{S}_1$ and $B \in \mathfrak{S}_2$. Then $\infty \notin A$ will imply $\infty \notin A \cap B$.

Hence $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}_1 \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}$.

Case 4 : $A \in \mathfrak{S}_2$ and $B \in \mathfrak{S}_1$. Then $\infty \notin B$ will imply $\infty \notin A \cap B$.

Hence $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}_1 \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}$.

Thus in all the cases $A, B \in \mathfrak{S} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{S}$.

(iii) $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S} \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ is any indexing set. If $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}_1 \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$ then

$\infty \notin A_\lambda \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$ will imply $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}_1$. Hence $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}$.

If $\exists \lambda_0 \in \Lambda$ such that $A_{\lambda_0} \notin \mathfrak{S}_1$ then $A_{\lambda_0} \in \mathfrak{S}_2$. In this case $\infty \in A_{\lambda_0}$ and $X - A_{\lambda_0}$ is a finite set.

$A_{\lambda_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$ implies $\infty \in \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$ and $X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \subseteq X - A_{\lambda_0}$.

As $X - A_{\lambda_0}$ is finite we get $X - \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$ is a finite set. Thus in this case $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}_2$

and hence $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}$.

Thus in either case, $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{S}$.

From (i), (ii) and (iii) \mathfrak{S} is a topology on X .

This topology \mathfrak{S} is called **Fort's topology** on X and the T-space $\langle X, \mathfrak{S} \rangle$ is called **Fort's space**.

Some Special Topologies on Special sets .

Apart from the topologies given in the above examples there exist some special topologies on \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{N} . (\mathbb{R} = the set of all real numbers, \mathbb{Z} = the set of all integers and \mathbb{N} = the set of all natural numbers). We list some of them in the following examples.

(11) Let $\mathfrak{I}_u = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{A \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid \forall a \in A \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } (a - r, a + r) \subseteq A\}$. Then \mathfrak{I}_u is a topology on \mathbb{R} .

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{I}_u$ (by definition) and $\mathbb{R} \in \mathfrak{I}_u$ as for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $(a - 1, a + 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

(ii) Let $A, B \in \mathfrak{I}_u$. If $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$, then $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{I}_u$. Let $A \neq \emptyset$ and $B \neq \emptyset$.

Then $x \in A \cap B \Rightarrow x \in A$ and $x \in B \Rightarrow \exists r_1 > 0$ such that $(x - r_1, x + r_1) \subseteq A$ and $\exists r_2 > 0$ such that $(x - r_2, x + r_2) \subseteq B$.

Define $r = \min(r_1, r_2)$. Then $r > 0$ and $(x - r, x + r) \subseteq A \cap B$. But this shows that

$A \cap B \in \mathfrak{I}_u$. Thus in either case $A, B \in \mathfrak{I}_u \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathfrak{I}_u$.

(iii) $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{I}_u \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, where Λ is any indexing set.

If $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda = \emptyset$, then obviously, $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{I}_u$.

Hence, assume that $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \neq \emptyset$. Let $x \in \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$. Then $x \in A_{\lambda_0}$ for some $\lambda_0 \in \Lambda$.

As $A_{\lambda_0} \in \mathfrak{I}_u \exists r > 0$ such that $(x - r, x + r) \subseteq A_{\lambda_0}$.

But then $(x - r, x + r) \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda$. But this shows that $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{I}_u$.

Thus in either case $A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{I}_u, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_\lambda \in \mathfrak{I}_u$.

From (i), (ii) and (iii) \mathfrak{I}_u is a topology on \mathbb{R} .

This topology is called **usual topology** on \mathbb{R} .

Remarks: (1) The usual topology on \mathbb{R} is also called standard topology or Euclidean topology.

(2) Any open interval in \mathbb{R} is a member of \mathfrak{I}_u . Consider the open interval (a, b) and $x \in (a, b)$. Take $r = \min(x - a, b - x)$. Then $(x - r, x + r) \subseteq (a, b)$. This shows that $(a, b) \in \mathfrak{I}_u$.

(12) Let $\mathfrak{I}_r = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{A \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid \forall p \in A \exists a, b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } p \in [a, b] \subseteq A\}$. Then \mathfrak{I}_r is a topology on \mathbb{R} .

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathfrak{I}_r$ (by definition). $\mathbb{R} \in \mathfrak{I}_r$ as for any $p \in \mathbb{R} \exists a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$p \in [p, p + 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

(ii) Let $A, B \in \mathfrak{I}_r$. If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $A \cap B \in \mathfrak{I}_r$. If $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ then for

$x \in A \cap B$ there exist half open intervals H_1 and H_2 in \mathbb{R} such that $x \in H_1 \subseteq A$ and



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Subject: Topology

Subject Code: 17MMP202

Class : I M.Sc Mathematics

Semester : II

UNIT -I

PART A (20x1=20 Marks)

(Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

Possible Questions

Question	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Answer
Each space containing a special element denoted by -----	1 x	(x,d)	o	0	
Extended real number system lies between	$-\infty$	$-\infty$ to ∞	0 to ∞	$-\infty$ to 0	$-\infty$ to ∞
If A is empty subset of R then supremum of Sup A = -----	$-\infty$	$-\infty$ to ∞	0 to $-\infty$	$-\infty$ to 0	∞
In a closed interval [3 , 5] find L.U.b -----	3	4	1	5	5
A bounded set is one whose diameter is -----	infinite	uncountable	countable	finite	finite
If its range is bounded set is called	mapping	bounded set	bounded mapping	unbounded set	bounded mapping
An open sphere is always	empty	countable element	finite elements	non -empty	non -empty
Total length of the open sphere is	r	r/2	2r	r/4	2r
In a Definition of a Metric Space the Condition (4) is also known as	Pseudo Metric	Triangle in equality	Symmetry	Cauchy 's inequality	Triangle in equality
If $d(x,y) = 0$ iff -----	$x > y$	$x > y$	$x = y$	$x \neq y$	$x = y$
The Closed interval [a , b] = -----	$\{ x : a < x < b \}$	$\{ x : a \leq x \leq b \}$	$\{ x : a \leq x < b \}$	$\{ x : a < x \leq b \}$	$\{ x : a \leq x \leq b \}$
In the bounded interval $(x_0 - r, x_0 + r)$ the midpoint is-----	x_0	$-r$	x_0	$x_0 + r$	x_0
In a open subset A then Int A = ---	open subset of A	smallest open subset of A	subset of A	Largest open subset of A	Largest open subset of A
In a Complete Metric Space Every Cauchy Sequence -----	limit	no limit point	Convergent	(a) Divergent	Convergent
The Closure of A is denoted by -----	A	\bar{A}	A^*	A-	\bar{A}
Any intersection of closed sets in X is -----	open	open interval	closed	(a) Need not be closed	closed
In a Metric Space M is said to be Complete if -----	Every point of metric space has a limit point	Every Cauchy sequence converges	Every sequence of points has a limit point	Need not be convergent	Every Cauchy sequence of points converges to a point in M
In a Metric Space (X , d) the diameter of A is defined by	$D(A) = \sup \{ d(x,y) : x,y \in A \}$	$D(A) = \inf \{ d(x,y) : x,y \in A \}$	$D(A) = \max \{ d(x,y) : x,y \in A \}$	$D(A) = \min \{ d(x,y) : x,y \in A \}$	$D(A) = \sup \{ d(x,y) : x,y \in A \}$
the greatest lower bound of the distances from x to the points of A is called	distance	radius	diameter	length	diameter
In any metric space X ,each ----- is an open set	closed sphere	open sphere	subset	super set	open sphere
Every non empty ----- on the real line is the union of a countable number of open sets	closed sphere	open sphere	open set	super set	open set

Let A be a open set iff -----	$A = \text{Int}(A)$	$A \not\subset \text{Int}(A)$	$A \subseteq \text{Int}(A)$	$A \subset \text{Int}(A)$	$A = \text{Int}(A)$		
In any metric space X ,the empty set , and the full space X are-----	open set	closed set	both open and closed	either open or closed	both open and closed		
.Let X be a metric space. A subset F of X is----- iff its complement is -----	open set	closed set	both open and closed	either open or closed	closed set		
.Let A be a closed set iff -----	$A \subset \text{cl}(A)$	$A = \text{cl}(A)$	$A \supset \text{cl}(A)$	$A = \text{Int}(A)$	$A = \text{cl}(A)$		
$\text{cl}(A)$ equals the ----- of all closed supersets of A	union	difference	intersection	complement	intersection		
A complete metric space is a metric space in which every Cauchy sequence is -----	divergent	convergent	monotone	decreasing	convergent		
.A subset A of a metric space is said to be ----- if its closure is -----	nowhere dense	dense	everywhere dense	open	nowhere dense		
The Cantor set is -----	nowhere dense	dense	everywhere dense	open	everywhere dense		
A closed set is nowhere dense iff its complement is -----	nowhere dense	dense	everywhere dense	open	everywhere dense		
. A ----- is nowhere dense iff its complement is every where dense	open set	open subset	closed set	subset	open subset		
..... equals the intersection of all closed supersets of A	$\text{Int}(A)$	$\text{cl}(A)$	A		$\text{cl}(A)$		
The----- $S_r[x_0]$ is the subset of X defined by $S_r[x_0] = \{x : d(x, x_0) < r\}$	open sphere	closed sphere	open set	closed set	closed sphere		
Let X and Y be metric spaces and $f : X \rightarrow Y$.Then f is ----- at x_0 iff $x_n \rightarrow x_0 \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$	open mapping	continuous	discontinuous	closed set	continuous		
A sequence is called -----if it satisfies cauchy condition	limit	cauchy sequence	divergent	convergent	convergent		
If a sequence converges then its subsequence also.....	converges	diverges	bounded	limit exist	converges		
Every.....sequence is bounded	divergent	cauchy sequence	divergent	convergent	convergent		
If f is continuous on the[a,b] then f is of bounded variation on[a,b].	compact interval	partial	total variation	bounded	compact interval		
Let X be a metric space, A is a subset of X then the ----- of A is -----	boundary	open subset	closed set	subset	boundary		
$C(X, \mathbb{R})$ is a ----- of the metric space B.	closed intervals	closed subset	closed set	open	closed subset		




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Subject: Topology**Subject Code: 17MMP202****Class : I M.Sc Mathematics****Semester : II****UNIT -II****PART A (20x1=20 Marks)****(Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)****Possible Questions**

Question	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Answer
A Banach space is a----- metric space	dense	closed	complete	everywhere dense	complete
The ----- is a 1-1 continuous mapping of one topological space	homeomorphism	homomorphism	automorphism	isomorphism	homeomorphism
A----- in a topological space is a set whose complement is open	open set	closed set	bounded set	unbounded set	closed set
Let A be subset of X ,the ----- is the set of all limit points of A	derived set	dense	nowhere dense	everywhere dense	derived set
Every ----- metric space is second countable	separable	connected	compact	non separable	separable
The open rectangles in the ----- form an open base	Euclidean space	Euclidean Norm	Euclidean plane	unitary plane	Euclidean plane
Let X be a topological space, any ----- subset of X is dense	countable	infinite	denumerable	finite	infinite
A natural isometry of any ----- which contains X as a dense subset	complete metric space	metric space	Normed linear space	vector space	complete metric space
R^∞ is called ----- infinite dimensional	Euclidean space	Euclidean plane	Euclidean Norm	Euclidean plane	Euclidean space
A set A is ----- iff every non empty open set has a non empty subset of A	nowhere dense	dense	everywhere dense	dense subset	nowhere dense
A subset A of a topological space is said to be----- if $cl(A)$ has no isolated points	nowhere dense	dense	everywhere dense	dense subset	nowhere dense
A subset A of a topological space is said to be a----- if $A=D(A)$	perfect set	dense set	derived set	closed set	perfect set
A subset A of a topological space is -----iff it intersects every non empty open set	no where dense	dense	derived set	everywhere dense	dense
Let A be a non empty subset of a topological space,A is ----- as a subspace	no where dense	dense	derived set	everywhere dense	dense
An open subbase is a class of open subsets of X whose -----	finite intersections	intersections	union	infinite	finite intersections
The real line and complex plane are-----	separable	connected	no where dense	dense	separable
A subclass of an -----which is itself an open cover is called	open cover	open subcover	sub cover	open set	open subcover
A ----- is a topological space in which every open cover has a finite subcover	connected space	compact space	T_1 space	T_2 space	connected space
Any ----- of a compact space is compact.	closed subspace	subset	sub cover	open cover	closed subspace
Any continuous image of a ----- is compact	T_1 space	topological space	compact space	Normed linear space	T_1 space
A ----- of a non-empty set is said to have the finite intersection property	class of subsets	subsets	class of sets	sets	subsets
A ---- is compact iff every class of closed sets with the finite intersection property has non empty intersection	Normed linear space	topological space	T_1 space	metric space	topological space
A ----- of an open cover which is itself an open cover is called	subclass	class	subset	set	subset
A topological space is compact if every ----- has a finite subcover	basic opencover	opencover	basic open subcover	subcover	basic opencover
Every ----- subspace of the real line is compact	bounded	closed and bounded	closed	open	closed and bounded
A ----- is a topological space in which every countable open cover has a countable subcover	countable compact	compact space	T_1 space	metric space	countable compact space
Every closed and bounded subspace of the real line is compact is	weierstrass Theorem	Urysohn's Lemma	Heine Boral Theorem	Tychonoff's Theorem	Heine Boral Theorem

A is a topological space in which every countable open cover has	metric space	T_1 space	compact space	countable compact	countable compact space
A continuous real function defined on a compact space is -----	closed	closed and bounded	bounded	unbounded set	closed
. A continuous mapping of a compact space into any metric space	closed	closed and bounded	bounded	unbounded set	bounded
The product of any non empty class of compact space is compact	Tychonoff's Theorem	Heine Borel Theorem	Urysohn's Lemma	Weierstrass Theorem	Tychonoff's Theorem
The open rectangles in ----- form a open base	\mathbb{R}^n	\mathbb{R}	\mathbb{R}^∞	\mathbb{R}^2	\mathbb{R}^n
Every ----- of the n- dimensional unitary space C^n is compact	closed and bounded	closed and bounded	closed and bounded	open sets	closed and bounded subspaces
Every ----- has the Bolzano Weierstrass property	compact metric space	topological space	compact space	Normed linear space	compact metric space
In a ----- space, every open cover has a Lebesgue number	sequentially compact	topological space	compact space	compact metric	sequentially compact metric
In a sequentially compact metric space, every open cover has a Lebesgue number	Tychonoff's Theorem	Heine Borel Theorem	Urysohn's Lemma	Lebesgue covering	Lebesgue covering lemma

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Subject: Topology			Subject Code: 17MMP202						
Class : I M.Sc Mathematics			Semester : II						
UNIT -III									
PART A (20x1=20 Marks)									
(Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)									
Possible Questions									
Question	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Answer				
In Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, the equality holds iff -----	akx = 0	akx + bkx = 0	akx + bk = 0	bk = 0	akx + bk = 0				
Union of countable sets is -----	uncountable	infinite	countable	disjoint	countable				
The sequence { 1/n } is	convergent & bounded	divergent & unbounded	divergent & bounded	convergent & unbounded	convergent & bounded				
A set F is closed if	it contains all of its uncountable collection	countable collection	uncountable collection	it contains all of its limit points					
Which of the following is not true	Every sequentially compact metric space	Every sequentially compact metric space	Every sequentially compact metric space	Every sequentially compact metric space	Every sequentially compact metric space not separable				
Two sets A and B are not separated sets if	A= {2,3} and B = {4,5}	A= {2,3} and B = {3,4}	A= {3,4} and B = {4,5}	A= {2,3} and B = {3,4}	A= {3,4} and B = {4,5}				
The Product of finitely many compact space is	compact space	open set	null set	closed set	compact space				
A topological space X is compact if every open covering of X contains a finite subcollection	a finite subcollection	a infinite subcollection	a finite subcollection	a finite collection that covers X	a finite subcollection that covers X				
Every metric space is not a	T ₂ space	T ₃ space	T ₄ space	T ₅ space	T ₅ space				
A subspace of a first countable space	1 st countable	2 nd countable	3 rd countable	4 th countable	4 th countable				
A countable product of first countable spaces is	1 st countable	2 nd countable	3 rd countable	4 th countable	1 st countable				
The union of a collection of connected sets that have a point in common is	connected	separable	disconnected	non separable	connected				
A compactification of a space X	is compact hausdorff space	is hausdorff space	is compact hausdorff space	is compact hausdorff space	is compact hausdorff space Y containing X s.t X is dense in Y				
Let X be a set for which a topology T is defined	only X is in T	only X is not in T	empty and X are in T	X alone on T	empty and X are in T				
A subspace of a completely regular space is	normal	regular	completely regular	complete	completely regular				
The Cartesian Product of connected topological space is	connected	disconnected	separable	non separable	connected				
Neighbourhood of X is	an open set U containing X	a null set	an closed set U containing X	an open interval	an open set U containing X				
X is locally compact	if topological space X is compact at each x ∈ X	if topological space X is compact at each x ∈ X	if topological space X is compact at each x ∈ X	if topological space X is compact at each x ∈ X	if topological space X is locally compact at each x ∈ X				
Every simple ordered set is a hausdorff space in the	order topology	discrete topology	non-discrete topology	indiscrete topology	order topology				
A subspace of normal space is	need not normal	hausdorff	normal	need not hausdorff	need not normal				
Let X be metrizable space then X has a basis	Countable locally finite	uncountable local	Countable locally finite	uncountable local	Countable locally finite				
Every metrizable space is	Hausdorff	disjoint	normal	metric space	normal				
A subset of a topological space is closed if	it contains all of its limit points	it contains none of its limit points	it contains some of its limit points	it contains some of its limit points	it contains all of its limit points				
A subspace of regular space is	Hausdorff	disjoint	normal	regular	regular				
Every compact Hausdorff space is	Hausdorff	disjoint	normal	regular	normal				
If the space X is connected	if there does not exist a separation of X	if there exist a separation of X	if there exist a separation of X	if there exist a separation of X	if there does not exist a separation of X				
A topological space X is limit point compact	if every disjoint subset of X is finite	if every infinite subset of X has a limit point	if every finite subset of X has a limit point	if some disjoint subset of X has a limit point	if every disjoint subset of X has a limit point				
Product of normal space is	need not normal	hausdorff	normal	need not hausdorff	need not normal				
Let X be a topological space is Hausdorff space if for each pair x, y ∈ X there exist nbhd U of x and V of y such that U ∩ V = ∅	there exist nbhd U of x and V of y such that U ∩ V = ∅	there exist no nbhd U of x and V of y such that U ∩ V = ∅	there exist nbhd U of x and V of y such that U ∩ V = ∅	there exist no nbhd U of x and V of y such that U ∩ V = ∅	there exist nbhd U ₁ and U ₂ of x ₁ and x ₂ s.t U ₁ and U ₂ are disjoint				
In a topological space (X , T) is	arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed	arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed	arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed	arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed	arbitrary intersection of closed sets are closed				
In a topological space (X , T) is	finite union of closed sets are closed	finite union of closed sets are closed	finite union of open sets are open	finite union of open sets are open	finite union of closed sets are closed				
A topological space satisfies----- if X has a countable basis for its topology	second countability	first countability	third countability	fourth countability	second countability axiom				

If the space $X = \{X, T\}$	discrete topology	indiscrete topology	trivial topology	non trivial topology	indiscrete topology				
A subset Y of a topological space is dense in X if	$Y = X$	$\overline{Y} = X$	$Y \text{ NOT} = X$	$\overline{Y} \text{ subse } x$	$\overline{Y} = x$				
Every closed interval in real line R is	compact space	Hausdorff space	a null set	disjoint	compact space				
The lower limit topology T on real line R	is strictly finer than	is inferior than sta	is finer than star	standard topology	is strictly finer than standard topology T				
Let Y be a subspace of X if U is open in Y and Y is open in X then	U is open in X	U is null set in X	U is closed in X	U is either open or	U is open in X				
If A is closed in Y and Y is closed in X then	a finite subcollectio	A is semi closed in	A is closed in X	A is open in X	A is semi closed in X				
Non separation theorem states	Let A be are In S_2	Let A be are In S_2	Let A be are In S_2	Let A be are In S_2	Let A be are In S_2 then $S_2 - A$ is connected				
Which of the following is true ?	$\{0, 1\}$ is seperable	$(0, 1)$ is compact	$[0, 1]$ is compac	$(0, 1)$ is closed	$[0, 1]$ is compact				
Let X be locally compact Hausdorff space & Y be a subsoace of X	If Y is open in X	If Y is closed in X	either Y is open or	neither Y is open or	either Y is open or Y is closed				
Every sequentially compact metric space is -----	closed and bounde	totally bounded	bounded	closed	totally bounded				
. Any continuous mapping of a compact metric space into a metri	uniformly continuo	bounded	continuous	discontinuous	uniformly continuous				
A subspace of R^n is ----- iff it is totally bounded	closed	closed and bound	bounded	open sets	bounded				
X is compact metric space then a closed subspace of $C(X, R)$ or $C(X, C)$	equicontinuous	uniformly continuc	continuous	discontinuous	equicontinuous				
A compact metric space is -----	closed	separable	closed and bound	bounded	separable				
A ----- is a topological space in which given any pair of dintinct	T_1 space	compact space	Normed linear sp	compact metric sp	T_1 space				

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Subject: Topology			Subject Code: 17MMP202						
Class : I M.Sc Mathematics			Semester : II						
UNIT -IV									
PART A (20x1=20 Marks)									
(Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)									
Possible Questions									
Question	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Answer				
The product of any non-empty class of ----- is Hausdorff	Hausdorff	T1 space	compact space	compact metric sp	Hausdorff				
If X is a -----, every convergent sequence in X has a unique	compact metric sp	compact space	T1 space	Hausdorff	compact metric space				
Every ----- space is normal	compact metric sp	compact Hausdor	T1 space	Hausdorff space	compact Hausdorff				
A ----- of a normal space is normal	closed	closed subspace	closed subset	closed intervals	closed subspace				
. let X be a T1 space ,X is ----- iff each nbd of a closed set F conta	normal	completely regula	regular	Hausdorff space	normal				
..... is a tool to prove Tietze's Theorem.	Urysohn's Lemma	Lebesgue coverin	Heine Boral Theo	weierstrass Theor	Urysohn's Lemma				
If X is a ----- normal space , then there exists a homeomorph	countable	second countable	seperable	compact metric sp	second countable				
Every ----- is normal and also that a normal space is second cou	completely regular	regular	metric space	topological	metric space				
A compact Hausdorff space is----- iff it is second countable	metrizable	completely regula	regular	seperable	metrizable				
. Every ----- of a product of closed intervals is a compact	closed intervals	closed set	closed subset	closed subspace	closed subspace				
A one-one continuous mapping of a compact space onto a Haus	homeomorphism	homomorphism	automorphism	isomorphism	homeomorphism				
Every closed subspace of a product of ----- is a compact Haus	closed subspace	closed set	closed subset	closed intervals	closed intervals				
. Every closed subspace of a product of closed intervals is a -----	T1 space	completely regula	compact Hausdo	Hausdorff space	compact Hausdorff				
.----- are dense subspaces of compact Hausdorff spaces	T1 space	completely regula	compact Hausdo	Hausdorff space	completely regular space				
. If X is a second countable there exists a homeomorphism f of X	Urysohn's Lemma	Lebesgue coverin	Heine Boral Theo	Urysohn's imbedd	Urysohn's imbedding Theorem				
. Each f has uncountably many points of continuity in each -----	closed	discontinuous	open	Bounded	open				
Each f has points of continuity in each ----- subinterval of [a,b]	closed	discontinuous	open	Bounded	open				
. A set s is called.....if it is either finite or countably infinite	countable	uncountable	countably finite	nondenumerable	uncountable				
Every subset of a countable set is.....	uncountable	countably infinite	nondenumerable	countable	countable				
. Two sets A and B are similar then it is called	equivalent	equinumerous	equal	null set	equinumerous				
. If f ison[a,b],then the set of discontinuities of f is counta	increasing	decreasing	monotonic	void	monotonic				
Bounded variation is always a ----- Function	discontinuous	closed set	continuous	unclosed	continuous				
A sequence is called..... If it is not convergent	divergent	convergent	limit	bounded	divergent				
If $\lim a_n = P$ then we call P as the -----of the sequence.	divergent	convergent	limit	bounded	limit				
Absolute convergence implies.....	converges	diverges	bounded	limit exist	converges				
A --- is a topological space X it cannot be as the union of two disj	connected space	T1 space	com[pletely regul	Hausdorff space	connected space				
The space X is said to be ----- if it is not connected	connected	disconnected	seperable	non seperable	disconnected				
A ----- of the real line R is connected iff it is an interval In parti	denseset	derived set	subspace	closed set	subspace				
Any ----- image of a connected space is connected	continuous	equicontinuous	completely regul	discontinuous	continuous				
The range of a ----- function defined on a connected spac	equicontinuous	continuous real	completely regul	continuous	continuous real				
A ---X is disconnected iff there exists a continuous mapping of X	topological space	T1 space	completely regul	Hausdorff space	topological space				
The ----- of any non-empty class of connected space is conn	intersection	sum	product	union	intersection				

The space R_n and C_n are -----	disconnected	connected	seperable	non seperable	connected				
A ----- is connected iff every non-empty proper subset has	topological space	T_1 space	metric space	Hausdorff space	topological space				
If X is a ----- X is connected iff $\beta(X)$ is connected	metric space	T_1 space	completely regular	Hausdorff space	completely regular				
A --- is a topological space it cannot be represented as the union	disconnected	connected	seperable	Hausdorff space	connected				
The space X is said to be disconnected if it is not -----.	connected	separable	disconnected	disjoint	connected				
A subspace of the----- R is connected iff it is an interval In par	real line	complex plane	rational field	irrational field	real line				
Any continuous image of a ----- is connected	disconnected space	connected	seperable	Hausdorff space	connected				



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Subject: Topology

Subject Code: 17MMP202

Class : I M.Sc Mathematics

Semester : II

UNIT -V

PART A (20x1=20 Marks)

(Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

Possible Questions

Question	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Answer
The range of a continuous real function defined on a ----- is	connected	disconnected space	separable	Hausdorff space	connected
A topological space X is ----- iff there exists a continuous mapping	T1 space	connected	disconnected	separable	disconnected
The product of any non-empty class of connected space is -----	connected	disconnected space	separable	disjoint	connected
. A topological space is ----- iff every non-empty proper subset	Hausdorff space	disconnected	separable	connected	connected
If X is a completely regular space X is----- iff $\beta(X)$ is connected	Hausdorff space	connected	separable	disconnected	connected
A connected space cannot be represented as the ---- of disjoint n	union	sum	intersection	product	union
A subspace of the real line R is connected iff it is an interval In p	disconnected	separable	connected	disjoint	connected
The range of a continuous real function defined on a connected s	closed interval	interval	open interval	open set	interval
A space X is disconnected iff there exists a continuous mapping c	$\{0,1\}$	$[0,1)$	$[0,1]$	$(0,1)$	$\{0,1\}$
A topological space is connected iff every non-empty proper subs	dense set	subspace	boundary	closed subset	boundary
The components of a totally----- space are its points	disconnected	separable	connected	disjoint	disconnected
. Let X be a ----- If X has an open base whose sets are also close	connected space	Hausdorff space	T1 space	separable space	Hausdorff space
A totally-----space is homeomorphic to a closed subspace of a	disconnected com	Hausdorff space	T1 space	separable	disconnected compact Hausdorff
Let X be a H.space. If X has an -----whose sets are closed, then	open set	open base	open subbase	sub base	open base
Two closed subsets of a topological space are ----- iff they are	separated	Hausdorff space	T1 space	disconnected	separated
A subspace of a real line is ----- iff it is an interval	connected	Hausdorff space	T1 space	separable space	connected
Two subsets of a topological space are connected iff they are -----	disconnected	separable	connected	disjoint	disjoint
Two open subsets of a topological space are ----- iff they are c	separated	Hausdorff space	T1 space	disconnected	separated
A subspace of a real line is connected iff it is an -----	open set	open base	open subbase	interval	interval
The closure of connected set is -----	disconnected space	connected	separable	Hausdorff space	connected
The set of real numbers with the usual topology is-----	disconnected space	connected	separable	Hausdorff space	connected
The set of real numbers with metric-----	disconnected space	connected	separable	Hausdorff space	connected
The components of a totally----- set X are singleton sets in	disconnected space	connected	separable	Hausdorff space	connected
A is ----- it is a union of two separated sets	disconnected space	connected	separable	Hausdorff space	disconnected space
The range of a ----- function defined on a connected space	equicontinuous	continuous real	completely regul	continuous	continuous
A subset Y of a topological space is dense in X if	$Y = X$	$\overline{Y} = x$	$Y \text{ NOT} = X$	$\overline{Y} \text{ subse } x$	$\overline{Y} = x$
Every closed interval in real line R is	compact space	Hausdorff space	a null set	disjoint	compact space
A compact metric space is -----	separable	disconnected	non separable	connected	separable
A metric space is lindel of space iff it is-----	first countable	second countable	third countability	fourth countability	second countable
A metric space is compact iff it is ---	totally bounded & c	completely regula	complete	regular	totally bounded & complete
Every compact metric space is	disconnected space	connected	complete	regular	complete
Every sequentially compact metric space is -----	totally bounded & c	totally bounded	complete	connected	totally bounded

Every compact metric space has	Urysohn's Lemma	Lebesgue covering	Heine Borel Theorem	weierstrass property	weierstrass property				
Every totally bounded metric space is	separable	disconnected	non separable	connected	separable				
Every open cover of sequentially compact metric space has-----	lebesgue covering	lebesgue number	Urysohn's Lemma	weierstrass property	lebesgue number				
A countably compact topological space has	Urysohn's Lemma	Lebesgue covering	Heine Borel Theorem	weierstrass property	weierstrass property				