

Scribe notes by Simon Weber. Please contact me for corrections.

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Topological Spaces, continued

Lemma 1. *Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be some topological space, and $Y \subseteq X$. Then, $\mathcal{U} := \{A \cap Y \mid A \in \mathcal{T}\}$ is a topology on Y . We call this a subspace topology.*

Proof. We check the three conditions of a topology:

1. $\emptyset = \emptyset \cap Y$, therefore $\emptyset \in \mathcal{U}$. Similarly, $Y = X \cap Y$, and thus $Y \in \mathcal{U}$.
2. $\bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \cap Y) = (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \cap Y$, and thus $\bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \cap Y) \in \mathcal{U}$.
3. $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (A_i \cap Y) = (\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i) \cap Y$, and thus $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (A_i \cap Y) \in \mathcal{U}$.

□

Since we have seen that \mathbb{R}^d is a topological space, this already tells us that all subsets of \mathbb{R}^d are topological spaces.

Fact 2. *Let X, Y be two topological spaces. Then, $X \times Y$ is a topological space, with the so-called product topology.*

Definition 3. *A topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) is disconnected, if there are two disjoint non-empty open sets $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$, such that $X = U \cup V$. A topological space is connected, if it is not disconnected.*

Metric Spaces

Definition 4. A metric space (X, d) is a set X of points and a distance function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

1. $d(p, q) = 0$ if and only if $p = q$.
2. $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$, $\forall p, q \in X$. (Symmetry)
3. $d(p, q) \leq d(p, s) + d(s, q)$, $\forall p, q, s \in X$. (Triangle inequality)

Note that these three conditions imply that $d(p, q) \geq 0$ for all $p, q \in X$: If some distance $d(p, q)$ would be negative, we would have $0 = d(p, p) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, p) = 2 \cdot d(p, q) < 0$, a contradiction.

Fact 5. Every metric space has a topology (the metric space topology) given by the open metric balls $B(c, r) = \{p \in X \mid d(p, c) < r\}$ and their unions.

Maps between topological spaces

Definition 6. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if for every open set $U \subseteq Y$, its pre-image $f^{-1}(U) \subseteq X$ (the set of all elements $x \in X$ such that $f(x) \in U$) is open. Continuous functions are also called maps. If f is injective, it is called an embedding.

Examples:

For $X \subseteq Y$, we write $X \hookrightarrow Y$ for the function $f(x) = x, \forall x \in X$. This function, which is also called the *inclusion map*, is continuous: $f^{-1}(U) = U \cap X$, which is open in the subspace topology on X .

For a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, continuity agrees with the “ $\epsilon - \delta$ ” definition of continuity from calculus.

Definition 7. A homeomorphism is a bijective map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ whose inverse is also continuous. Two topological spaces are homeomorphic, if there is a homeomorphism between them. We also write $X \simeq Y$ to say that X, Y are homeomorphic.

Examples:

The boundary of a tetrahedron is homeomorphic to the sphere S^2 . Idea: Take a point c within the tetrahedron, and send each point p to the point $f(p)$ on the ray from c through p such that $d(c, f(p)) = 1$.

$I := (-1, 1)$ is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R} . The following map f is a homeomorphism: $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x \mapsto \frac{x}{1-|x|}$. Its inverse is $f^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow I$, $y \mapsto \frac{y}{1+|y|}$.

All knots (embeddings of the circle into \mathbb{R}^3) are homeomorphic. Thus, we cannot distinguish between knots using only homeomorphism.

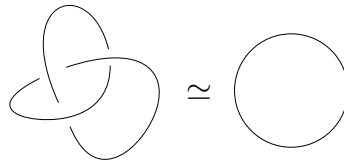


Figure 1: Two knots.

Definition 8. An isotopy connecting $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is a continuous map $\phi : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$, such that $\phi(X, 0) = X$, $\phi(X, 1) = Y$, and $\forall t \in [0, 1]$, $\phi(\cdot, t)$ is a homeomorphism between X and its image. Two spaces are called isotopic, if there is an isotopy connecting them.

Examples:

Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}$ be the union of 0, and $[1, 2]$, and let $Y \subset \mathbb{R}$ be the union of $[0, 1]$ and 2. These spaces are homeomorphic ($X \simeq Y$), but not isotopic.

The two knots from Figure 1 above are also not isotopic.

We have also seen an isotopy between the two spaces in Figure 2, the isotopy is illustrated by the following video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wDZx9B4TAXo>

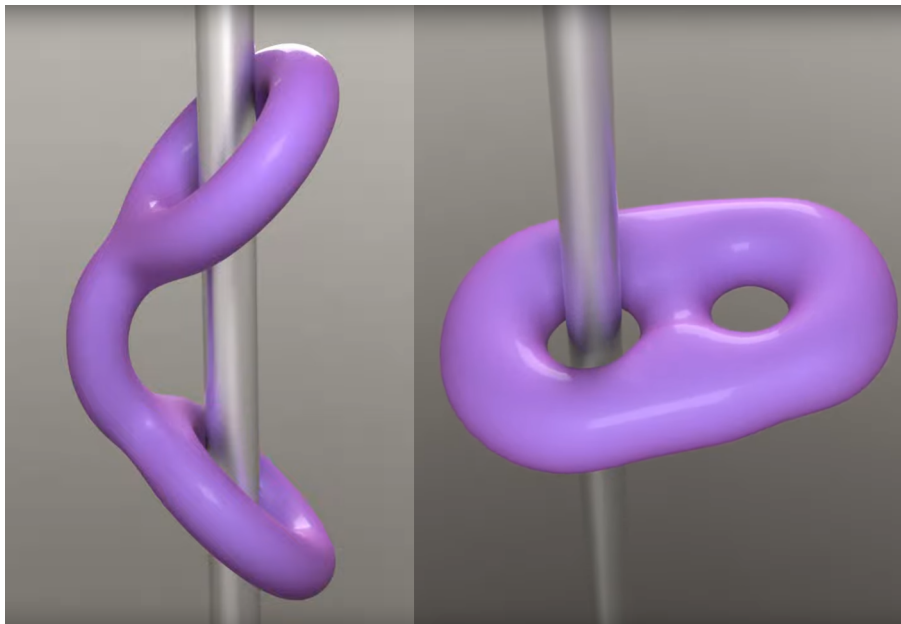


Figure 2: Left: Both handcuffs are connected to an infinite pole. Right: Only one loop of the handcuffs is connected to the infinite pole. These spaces are isotopic.

Definition 9. Let g, h be maps $X \rightarrow Y$. A homotopy connecting g and h is a map $H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$ such that $H(\cdot, 0) = g$ and $H(\cdot, 1) = h$. In this case g and h are called homotopic.

Examples:

The inclusion map $g : \mathbb{B}^3 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ (where \mathbb{B}^3 is the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^3), and $h : \mathbb{B}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ which sends every point to the origin, are homotopic, as shown by the homotopy

$$H(x, t) = (1 - t)g(x).$$

The identity function $g : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ and $h : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ which sends everything to a single point $p \in S^1$ are *not* homotopic.

Definition 10. Two spaces X, Y are homotopy equivalent if there exist maps $g : X \rightarrow Y$ and $h : Y \rightarrow X$ such that:

- $h \circ g$ is homotopic to id_X (the identity map $x \mapsto x$), and
- $g \circ h$ is homotopic to id_Y .

Example: The circle S^1 and $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ are homotopy equivalent. We pick g as the inclusion map $S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$, and $h(x) := \frac{x}{|x|}$. We see that $h \circ g(x) = x$, i.e., $h \circ g = \text{id}_{S^1}$. Furthermore, $g \circ h(x) = h(x)$. $g \circ h$ and $\text{id}_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}}$ are homotopic as certified by the homotopy $H(x, t) := tx + (1 - t)h(x)$.

This example shows us that homotopy equivalence is a somewhat weaker property than homeomorphism, since these two spaces do not even have the same dimension (and thus cannot be homeomorphic), but they are homotopy equivalent.

Definition 11. Let $A \subseteq X$. A deformation retract of X onto A is a map $R : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$, such that

- $R(\cdot, 0) = \text{id}_X$
- $R(x, 1) \in A, \forall x \in X$
- $R(a, t) = a, \forall a \in A, t \in [0, 1]$

If such a deformation retract of X onto A exists, we also say that A is a deformation retract of X .

The intuition behind a deformation retract is to continuously shrink X to A , while leaving A fixed.

Fact 12. If A is a deformation retract of X (there exists a deformation retract of X onto A), then A and X are homotopy equivalent.

Examples:

The circle S^1 is a deformation retract of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$: $R(x, t) = (1 - t)x + t \cdot \frac{x}{|x|}$.

A punctured torus can be deformation retracted onto the symbol 8 where one of the two circles is rotated by 90, as seen by the following video:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tz3QWrfPQj4>

Lemma 13. *If X and Y are homeomorphic, they are also homotopy equivalent.*

Proof. Let $g : X \rightarrow Y$ be the homeomorphism, and $h := g^{-1}$ its inverse. Then $g \circ h = \text{id}_Y$ and $h \circ g = \text{id}_X$, and id is homotopic to itself. \square

Fact 14. *X, Y are homotopy equivalent if and only if there exists a space Z such that X and Y are deformation retracts of Z .*

An example of this fact can be found in Figure 3 below:

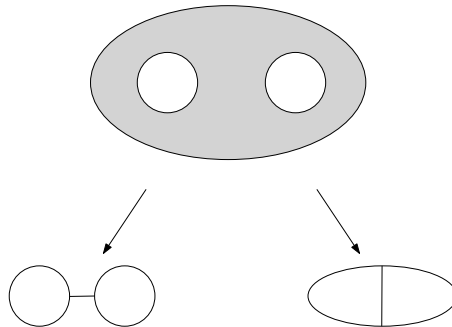


Figure 3: The top space deformation retracts to both spaces below, showing that they are homotopy equivalent.

We note that in general, showing existence of a map with certain properties (e.g., a homeomorphism, isotopy, homotopy) is easy, but showing that such a map cannot exist is hard. The idea of algebraic topology is to find invariant properties preserved by these maps: then, we know that no such map can exist between spaces that differ on these properties. An example of such an invariant property is the number of holes a space has, which we will formalize in the future.