

## TOPOLOGY HW 5

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### 28.2

Show that  $[0, 1]$  is not limit point compact as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$ .

*Proof.* Define the infinite subset  $A = \{1 - 1/k | k \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset [0, 1]$ . We want to demonstrate that  $A$  has no limit points in  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$ . First, we show that no element of  $A$  is a limit point of  $A$ . To see this, let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $1 - 1/n \in A$ .

$$1 - 1/n \in \left[1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right),$$

which is an open set in  $[0, 1]$  as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$ . Since  $\left[1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)$  intersects  $A$  only at  $1 - \frac{1}{n}$ , we see that  $1 - 1/n$  is not a limit point of  $A$ .

Now, let  $x \in (0, 1), x \notin A$ . Then  $x \in \left[1 - \frac{1}{j}, 1 - \frac{1}{j+1}\right) = U_x$  for some  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $U_x$  intersects  $A$  only at  $1 - 1/j$ , we see that the open set  $\left[x, 1 - \frac{1}{j+1}\right) \ni x$  does not intersect  $A$ . Hence,  $x$  is not a limit point of  $A$ .

We only need to show, then, that 1 is not a limit point of  $A$ . But this is clear, as  $[1, 2)$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$  and  $[1, 2) \cap [0, 1] = \{1\}$ . Therefore,  $\{1\}$  is a neighborhood of 1 which certainly does not intersect  $A$ , so 1 is not a limit point of  $A$ .

Since  $A$  is an infinite subset of  $[0, 1]$  with no limit points, we see that  $[0, 1]$  is not limit point compact as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}_\ell$ .  $\square$

### 28.3

Let  $X$  be limit point compact.

(a) If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, does it follow that  $f(X)$  is limit point compact?

**Answer:** Yes. Let  $A$  be an infinite subset of  $f(X)$ . Then  $A = \{f(x) | x \in B\}$  where  $B \subseteq X$  is infinite. Since  $X$  is limit point compact,  $B$  has a limit point  $b$ . Let  $V_b$  be a neighborhood of  $f(b)$ . Then, since  $f$  is continuous, there exists some neighborhood  $U_b$  of  $b$  such that  $f(U_b) \subseteq V_b$ . Since  $b$  is a limit point of  $B$ , there exists some  $y \in B$  such that  $y \neq b, y \in U_b$ . Thus,

$$f(y) \in f(U_b) \subseteq V_b,$$

so, since  $f(y) \in A$ ,  $V_b$  intersects  $A$  at some point other than  $f(b)$ . Since our choice of neighborhood for  $f(b)$  was arbitrary, we conclude that every neighborhood of  $f(b)$  intersects  $A$  somewhere other than  $f(b)$ , meaning  $f(b)$

is a limit point of  $A$ . Since our choice of infinite subset  $A$  was arbitrary, we conclude that every infinite subset of  $f(X)$  has a limit point, so  $f(X)$  is limit point compact.



(b) If  $A$  is a closed subset of  $X$ , does it follow that  $A$  is limit point compact?

**Answer:** Yes. Let  $Y \subseteq A \subseteq X$  be infinite. Then, since  $X$  is limit point compact,  $Y$  has a limit point  $x \in X$ . That is to say that any open neighborhood of  $x$  intersects  $Y$  at some point  $y \neq x$ . Since  $y \in Y \subseteq A$ ,  $x$  is a limit point of  $A$ . However, since  $A$  is closed in  $X$ ,  $A$  contains all of its limit points, so  $x \in A$ . Hence,  $Y$  has a limit point in  $A$ . Since our choice of infinite set  $Y$  was arbitrary, we conclude that every infinite subset of  $A$  has a limit point in  $A$ , so  $A$  is limit point compact.



(c) If  $X$  is a subspace of the Hausdorff space  $Z$ , does it follow that  $X$  is closed in  $Z$ ?

**Answer:** No. By Theorem 17.11,  $\overline{S_\Omega}$  is Hausdorff in the order topology and, as we saw in Example 2,  $S_\Omega$  is limit point compact in  $\overline{S_\Omega}$ . However,  $S_\Omega$  is not closed in  $\overline{S_\Omega}$  since it does not contain  $\Omega$ , which is a limit point of  $S_\Omega$ .



### 29.1

Show that the rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$  are not locally compact.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathbb{Q}$  is locally compact. Then there exists a compact subspace of  $\mathbb{Q}$  containing a basic neighborhood  $(a, b) \cap \mathbb{Q}$  of 0. Let  $x$  be an irrational element of  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists a Cauchy sequence  $\{x_j\}$  converging to  $x$  such that each  $x_j \in \mathbb{Q} \cap (a, b)$ . Then the only limit point of the sequence of  $x_j$ 's is  $x$ . However,  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , so  $\{x_j\}$ , when viewed as a set, has no limit points in  $\mathbb{Q}$  and, therefore, none in  $C$ . Hence,  $C$  is not limit point compact. Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is Hausdorff, this means  $C$  is not compact. From this contradiction, we conclude that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not, in fact, locally compact.  $\square$

### 29.3

Let  $X$  be a locally compact space. If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, does it follow that  $f(X)$  is locally compact? What if  $f$  is both continuous and open?

If  $f$  is both continuous and open, then  $f(X)$  is locally compact. To see this, let  $y \in f(X)$ . Then  $f^{-1}(y) = x \in X$ . So, since  $X$  is locally compact, there exists a compact subspace  $C$  of  $X$  that contains a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,  $f(C)$  is compact and since  $f$  is open,  $f(U)$  is open in  $Y$ .  $y \in f(U) \subseteq f(C)$ . So  $f(X)$  is locally compact at  $y$ . Since our choice

of  $y$  was arbitrary, we conclude that  $f(X)$  is locally compact at each of its points.

1

Let  $S^n$  denote the  $n$ -sphere.

(a) Show that  $S^n$  is connected for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and define  $f : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow S^n$  by

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{\|x\|}.$$

As seen in Example 5, pg. 156, this map is continuous and surjective, meaning  $f(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}) = S^n$ . Now  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is connected and the continuous image of a connected space is connected, so  $S^n$  is connected. Since our choice of  $n$  was arbitrary, so we see that, for all  $n \geq 1$ ,  $S^n$  is connected.  $\square$

(b) Show that no proper subset of  $S^n$  can be homeomorphic to  $S^n$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $A \subsetneq S^n$  such that  $f : S^n \rightarrow A$  is a homeomorphism. Then  $A$  is compact. Let  $p \in S^n - A$ . Then  $S^n - \{p\}$  is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (since  $S^n$  is the one-point compactification of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ), so we can view  $A$  as a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Since  $A$  homeomorphic to  $S^n$ ,  $A - \{f(p)\}$  is homeomorphic to  $S^n - \{p\}$ , which is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . By Brouwer's Invariance of Domain Theorem, then,  $A - \{f(p)\}$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . However, since  $A$  is compact and contained in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we know that  $A$  is closed. Clearly, we cannot subtract a single point from a compact subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and get an open set. So  $A - \{f(p)\}$  is not open. From this contradiction, we conclude that  $S^n$  is not homeomorphic to any proper subset of itself.  $\square$

2

(a) Show that if  $G$  is a group the element  $e \in G$  is unique. It is known as the *identity element*.

*Proof.* Suppose not. Then there exist two elements  $e_1, e_2 \in G$  such that  $e_1 \neq e_2$  and for all  $x \in G$ ,

$$e_1x = xe_1 = 1 = e_2x = xe_2.$$

Specifically,

$$e_2 = e_1e_2 = e_1,$$

contradicting the fact that  $e_1 \neq e_2$ . From this contradiction, we conclude that the identity element  $e \in G$  is unique.  $\square$

(b) Show that for any  $g \in G$  there is a unique element  $x \in G$  such that  $x \cdot g = g \cdot x = e$ . This element is called the *inverse* of  $g$  and is usually denoted as  $g^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $g \in G$ . By definition of a group, we know there must exist at least one element  $h \in G$  such that

$$hg = gh = e.$$

Suppose there exist two such elements,  $h_1$  and  $h_2$ . Then

$$h_1 = h_1e = h_1(gh_2) = (h_1g)h_2 = eh_2 = h_2.$$

Hence, the element  $x \in G$  such that  $gx = xg = e$  is unique.  $\square$

(c) Let  $(G_1, \cdot)$  and  $(G_2, \cdot)$  be two groups. A *group homomorphism*  $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  is a function such that  $f(x \cdot y) = f(x) \cdot f(y)$  for any  $x, y \in G_1$ . A homomorphism  $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  is said to be an *isomorphism* if  $f$  is bijective and  $f^{-1} : G_2 \rightarrow G_1$  is a homomorphism. Show that if  $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  is a group homomorphism, then  $f(x^{-1}) = f(x)^{-1}$  for any  $x \in G_1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a group homomorphism and let  $x \in G_1$ . First, we show that, if  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are the identity elements in  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , respectively, then  $f(e_1) = e_2$ . To see this, let  $x \in G_1$ . Then,

$$f(x) = f(xe_1) = f(x)f(e_1)$$

by the definition of a group homomorphism, so, since the identity element is unique,  $f(e_1) = e_2$ . Now, let  $x \in G$ . Then

$$f(x)^{-1} = f(x)^{-1}e_2 = f(x)^{-1}f(e_1) = f(x)^{-1}f(xx^{-1}) = (f(x)^{-1}f(x))f(x^{-1}) = e_2f(x^{-1}) = f(x^{-1}).$$

Since our choice of  $x \in G$  was arbitrary, we conclude that  $f(x^{-1}) = f(x)^{-1}$  for all  $x \in G_1$ .  $\square$

(d) A *subgroup* of a group  $(G, \cdot)$  is a subset  $H \subset G$  such that  $e \in H, x \cdot y \in H$  for any  $x, y \in H$  and  $x^{-1} \in H$  for any  $x \in H$ . Now let  $f : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a homomorphism. The *kernel* of  $f$  is the set  $\text{Ker}(f) = f^{-1}(e_2)$ , where  $e_2 \in G_2$  is the identity element. Show that  $\text{Ker}(f)$  is a subgroup of  $G_1$ .

*Proof.* As we saw in part (c) above, we know that  $e_1 \in \text{Ker}(f)$ . Now, suppose  $x, y \in \text{Ker}(f)$ . Then

$$f(xy) = f(x)f(y) = e_2e_2 = e_2,$$

so  $xy \in \text{Ker}(f)$ . Finally, let  $x \in \text{Ker}(f)$ . Then, since  $G_1$  is a group, there exists  $x^{-1} \in G_1$ . By part (c), we know that

$$f(x^{-1}) = f(x)^{-1} = e_2^{-1} = e_2$$

so  $x^{-1} \in \text{Ker}(f)$ . Since all the conditions of a subgroup are fulfilled, we conclude that  $\text{Ker}(f)$  is indeed a subgroup of  $G_1$ .  $\square$