

Remark 3 Lecture 14

A topological manifold is a locally Euclidean, Hausdorff space.

It is important to underline that 'locally Euclidean' and 'Hausdorff' are not redundant properties. Both are required to capture the notion of topological manifold.

Example (locally Euclidean but not Hausdorff)

Consider two copies of the real line $\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$,

Let \sim be the equivalence relation identifying

$$(x, -) \sim (x, +) \quad \forall x > 0$$

The eq. relation \sim is, in terms of eq. classes:

$$[(x, -)] = [(x, +)] = \{(x, -), (x, +)\} \quad \text{for } x > 0$$

$$[(x, -)] = \{(x, -)\} \quad x \leq 0$$

$$[(x, +)] = \{(x, +)\} \quad x \leq 0$$

Define $X := (\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}) / \sim$

⚠ Careful: when working with quotient topology.

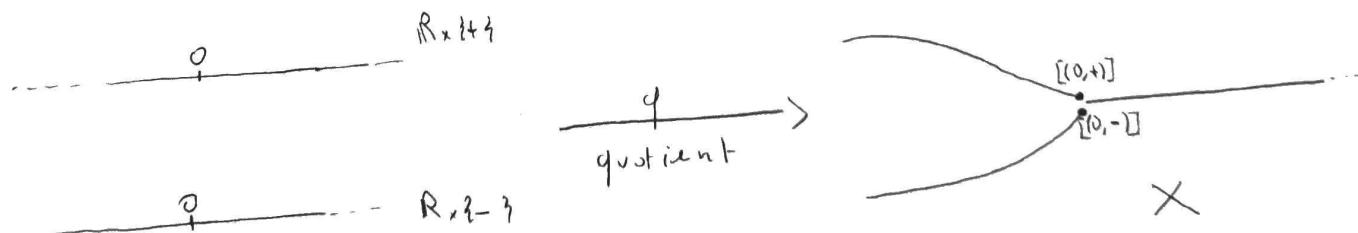
Don't confuse open of A with open set of A/\sim

Always keep in mind the difference.

X is defined as a quotient, and is endowed with quotient topology.
when we work with quotient topology, the golden rule is

$$U \subseteq X \text{ open} \iff q^{-1}(U) \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\} \text{ open}$$

How does X look like



Don't trust too much pictures. Trust this

claim 1: X is not Hausdorff

Let U be an open ngh in X of $[(0, -)]$
 V be an open ngh in X of $[(0, +)]$

We want to show $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$.

By quotient topology def. $q^{-1}(U) \cong \mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$ open

$$q^{-1}(V) \cong \mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$$
 open

Moreover, since $[(0, -)] \in U$ and $[(0, +)] \in V$, we have that

$$(0, -) \in q^{-1}(U) \quad \text{and} \quad (0, +) \in q^{-1}(V).$$

We know how open sets in $\mathbb{R} \times \{\pm\}$ look like
~~(\mathbb{R} usual topology, $\{-, +\}$ discrete topology. Hence open sets in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$ on $\mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D}$ where \mathcal{D} open in \mathbb{R} and \mathcal{D} is $\{-\}$ or $\{+\}$ or $\{-, +\}$)~~

So $q^{-1}(U)$ contains an open set included in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-\}$, containing $(0, -)$
 $q^{-1}(V)$ contains an open set included in $\mathbb{R} \times \{+\}$, containing $(0, +)$

In particular $q^{-1}(U)$ contains an open interval in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-\}$, containing $(0, -)$
say $q^{-1}(U) \ni \{(\lambda, -) : \lambda \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)\} \stackrel{\text{notation}}{=} ((-\varepsilon, \varepsilon), -) =: \mathcal{O}_-$

Similarly $q^{-1}(V)$ contains an open interval in $\mathbb{R} \times \{+\}$, containing $(0, +)$
say $q^{-1}(V) \ni \{(\lambda, +) : \lambda \in (-\varepsilon', \varepsilon')\} \stackrel{\text{notation}}{=} ((-\varepsilon', \varepsilon'), +) =: \mathcal{O}_+$

$$\text{let } \varepsilon := \min \{\varepsilon', \varepsilon''\}.$$

we have that $(0 + \varepsilon_2, -) \in \mathcal{O}_- \quad \text{and} \quad (\varepsilon_2, -) \in \mathcal{O}_-$
 $(0 + \varepsilon_2, +) \in \mathcal{O}_+ \quad \text{and} \quad (\varepsilon_2, +) \in \mathcal{O}_+$

But now notice that $q((\varepsilon_2, -)) = q((\varepsilon_2, +))$ because $\varepsilon_2 > 0$

$$\text{so } (\varepsilon_2, -) \in \mathcal{O}_- \cong q^{-1}(U)$$

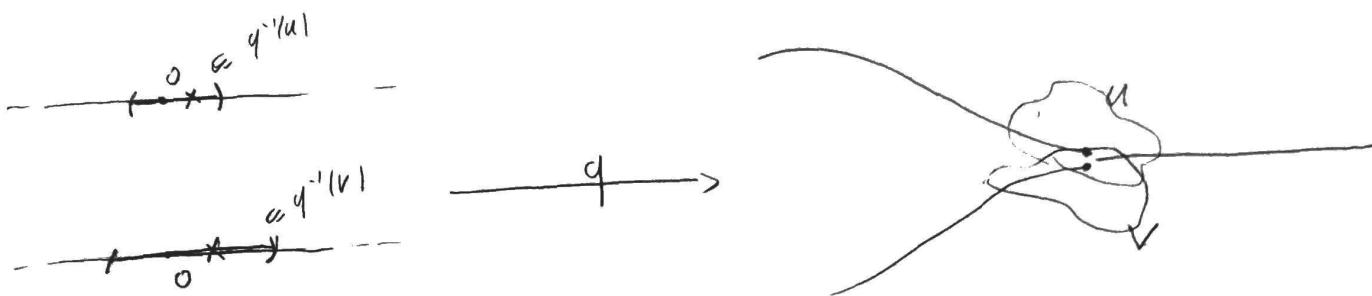
$$(\varepsilon_2, +) \in \mathcal{O}_+ \cong q^{-1}(V)$$

hence $q((\varepsilon_2, -)) \in U$, $q((\varepsilon_2, +)) \in V$

but now notice that $q((\varepsilon_2, -)) = q((\varepsilon_2, +)) = \bar{x}$ because $\varepsilon_2 > 0$

Hence $\bar{x} \in U \cap V$, and X is not Hausdorff.

In a picture



For ϵ small enough
 $(\epsilon, -) \in q^{-1}(u)$
 $(\epsilon, +) \in q^{-1}(v)$

Mapping these points back in X , with q , they are mapped in the same point, which belongs to u and v resp.

$$\Rightarrow u \cap v \neq \emptyset$$

Claim 2: X is locally Euclidean

Let $x \in X$. Say $x = q(y)$, for some $y \in \mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$ w.l.o.g.

Fix $\epsilon > 0$.

WTS: the restriction of the quotient map q on the open interval in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$ containing y , say $\{(x, -) : x \in (y-\epsilon, y+\epsilon)\} \cong ((y-\epsilon, y+\epsilon), -)$ is a homeomorph. onto its image, which contains x , and hence provides the local homeomorph. of x with $((y-\epsilon, y+\epsilon), -) \cong (y-\epsilon, y+\epsilon) \subseteq \mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R}$.

Given the generality of x , it shows every $x \in X$ has a neighborhood homeom. to \mathbb{R} .

Call the interval in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$, I .

$q|_I$ is trivially surjective onto its image $q(I) \ni x$

injective: Yes. the only way the projection can fail to be injective is mapping two points of $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$ and $\mathbb{R} \times \{+1\}$ is the same one in the quotient.

Since $I \cong \mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$, $q|_I$ is injective

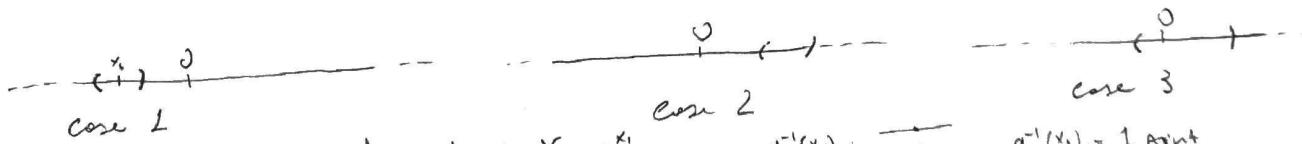
Hence $q|_I : I \rightarrow q(I)$ is a bijection

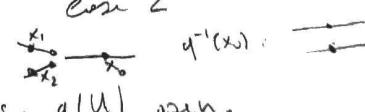
Let's show now that in this case q is an open map.

Let U open in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1, +1\}$. We can restrict to the case when U is an interval, say in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$.

(The argument does not change if U is union of intervals, either in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1\}$ or $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1, +1\}$)

There are now 3 cases to distinguish



Remark: ~~the~~ Preimages of points in Y  $q^{-1}(x_1) = 1$ point
 $q^{-1}(x_2) = 2$ points

Case 1: $U = ((x_0-\epsilon, x_0+\epsilon), -)$. WTS: $q(U)$ open.

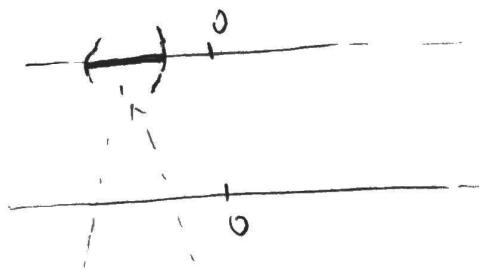
In order to show if $q(U)$ open, we need to check if $q^{-1}(q(U))$ is open

$$q(U) = q((x_0-\epsilon, x_0+\epsilon), -) = \{I(\lambda, -1) : \lambda \in (x_0-\epsilon, x_0+\epsilon)\} = \left\{ \left\{ (\lambda, -1) : \lambda \in (x_0-\epsilon, x_0+\epsilon) \right\} \right\}$$

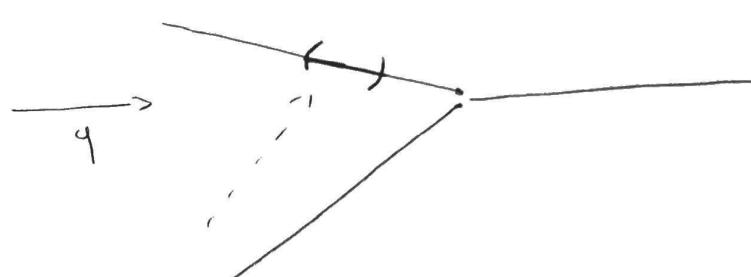
and hence $q^{-1}(q(U)) = U$, which is open in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-1, +1\}$ For $\lambda < 0$ we have $[(\lambda, -1)] = \{(\lambda, -1)\}$

$\Rightarrow q(U)$ is open in X

In a picture, what happens in Case 1 is



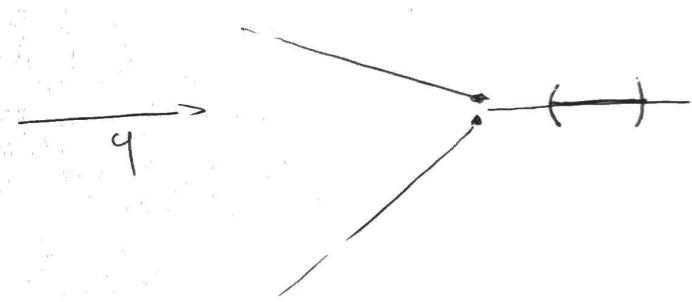
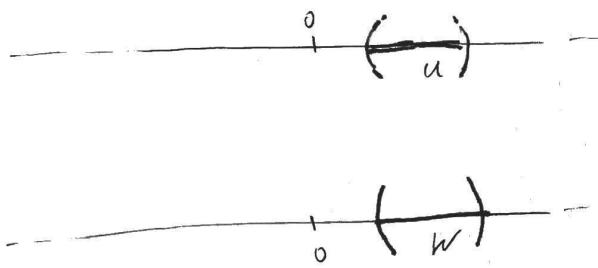
$$u = q^{-1}(q(u))$$



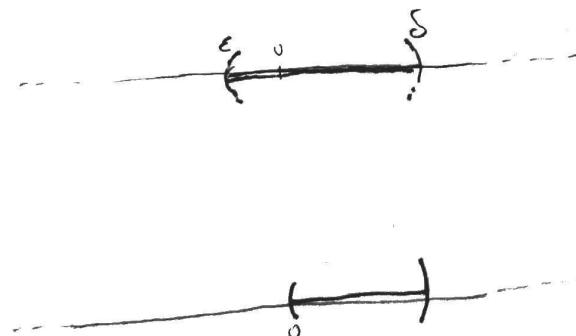
$$q(u)$$

- : u
- - : q(u)
- : $q^{-1}(q(u))$

Case 2



Case 3



Case 2 : Let U be an open interval on the right of the zero, included in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-\}$. Say $U = ((x_0 - \epsilon, x_0 + \epsilon), -)$.



As before:

$$q(U) = \{[x] : x \in U\} = \{((x, -), (x, +)) : x_0 - \epsilon < x < x_0 + \epsilon\}$$

Because remember that for $x > 0$, $(x, -) \sim (x, +)$

therefore

$$q^{-1}(q(U)) = \underset{\substack{| \\ U}}{\underbrace{((x_0 - \epsilon, x_0 + \epsilon), -)}} \cup \underset{\substack{| \\ = W}}{\underbrace{((x_0 - \epsilon, x_0 + \epsilon), +)}}$$

which is open in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$. Hence $q(U)$ open in X ✓

Case 3 : U open interval in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-\}$, containing 0.

$$\text{Say } U = ((-\epsilon, \delta), -).$$

$$q(U) = \{[x] : x \in U\} = \{((x, -)) : x \leq 0\} \cup \{((x, -), (x, +)) : 0 < x < \delta\}$$

Because when $x < 0$, every element is identified only with itself by \sim .
And if $x > 0$, then we have $(x, -) \sim (x, +)$.

therefore

$$\begin{aligned} q^{-1}(q(U)) &= ((-\epsilon, 0], -) \cup ((0, \delta), -) \cup ((0, \delta), +) \\ &= ((-\epsilon, \delta), -) \cup ((0, \delta), +) \end{aligned}$$

which is again, open in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$. Hence $q(U)$ open in X

The same argument applies when U is union of intervals.

To sum up : q is open ✓

Since I open in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$, we have $q|_I$ is open, and hence $(q|_I)^{-1}$ is continuous

Now we just are left to show $q|_I$ is continuous : Let $V \subseteq q(I)$ open in $q(I)$. Since $q(I)$ open in X (because q is an open map), the V is open in X .

then, by continuity of q , $q^{-1}(V)$ is open in $\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\}$, and hence $q^{-1}(V) \cap I$ is open in I , as wanted ✓

To sum up

$$\varphi|_I: I \longrightarrow q(I) \ni x$$

is a homeomorphism from $I \cong \mathbb{R}$ to a neighborhood $q(I)$ of x .

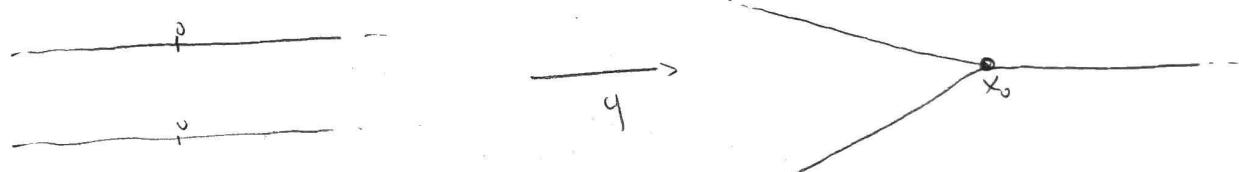
Therefore X is locally euclidean



Remark 1: With just a small variation in \sim , we can make $X = (\mathbb{R} \times \{-, +\})/\sim$ not loc. euclidean, but Hausdorff

$$(x, -) \sim (x, +) \quad \text{if } x \geq 0$$

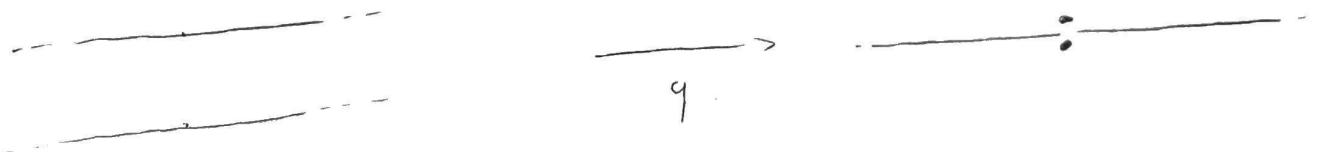
then



Hausdorff, but locally every neighborhood of x_0 looks like "L" $\not\cong \mathbb{R}$

Remark 2: The exact same arguments hold for the example made last week: line with two origins

$$(x, -) \sim (x, +) \quad \forall x \neq 0$$



loc. euclidean, but not Hausdorff.

Ex 7.6

Show that the product space $S^1 \times S^1 =: X$,
homeomorphic to the quotient space

$$X_2 = Q_{\sim}$$

where $Q = [0, 1]^2$ and \sim eq. relation on Q identifying

$$(s, 0) \sim (s, 1) \quad \forall s \in [0, 1]$$

$$(0, t) \sim (1, t) \quad \forall t \in [0, 1]$$

PROOF, Consider the map

$$\begin{aligned} f: [0, 1] \times [0, 1] &\longrightarrow S^1 \times S^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^4 \\ (s, t) &\longmapsto (\cos(2\pi s), \sin(2\pi s), \cos(2\pi t), \sin(2\pi t)) \end{aligned}$$

it obviously is a continuous map

Now, recall the universal property for topological quotients

X top. space, \sim eq. rel. on X , $\pi: X \rightarrow X_{\sim}$ projection.

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map s.t.

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X: x_1 \sim x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) = f(x_2)$$

Then $\exists!$ continuous map $\tilde{f}: X_{\sim} \rightarrow Y$ s.t. $\tilde{f} \circ \pi = f$

In our case we can see that

$$\begin{aligned} f(s, 0) &= (\cos(2\pi s), \sin(2\pi s), \cos 0, \sin 0) = \\ &= (\cos(2\pi s), \sin(2\pi s), \cos 2\pi, \sin 2\pi) = f(s, 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and similarly } f(0, t) = f(1, t) \quad \forall t \in [0, 1]$$

therefore f satisfies the condition of the universal property, and hence it descends to a continuous function $\tilde{f}: Q_{\sim} \rightarrow S^1 \times S^1$

$$\tilde{f}([s, t]) = f(s, t)$$

WTS: \tilde{f} is a homeomorphism.

Recall the Homeomorphism Criterion (seen in class, lecture 9)

$f: X \rightarrow Y$ continuous bijection with X compact, Y Hausdorff
 $\Leftrightarrow f$ is a homeomorphism.

In our case Q_{\sim} is compact being image under projection (i.e. continuous) of the compact space Q . $S^1 \times S^1$ is Hausdorff being subspace of Hausdorff space \mathbb{R}^4 . Hence \tilde{f} homeomorph. \square

let X^* be a compact top. space, and $X \subseteq X^*$ a dense subspace.
we say X^* is a compactification of X .

(C1)

We are interested in the situation where $X^* - X$ is just one point.

Construction: Start with X given topological space.

- Define $X^* := X \cup \{\infty\}$, where ∞ is an element not in X
(∞ is just a symbol here, we could have used ' $*$ ')

Hence we defined X^* by adding a new point to X

• Define a topology on X^* as follows

$$A \in \mathcal{T}^* \iff \begin{cases} A \subseteq X, A \in \mathcal{T} \\ \text{or} \\ \infty \in A \text{ and } A^c \text{ is closed and compact in } X \end{cases}$$

Notation !
In order to distinguish complements in X
and in X^* , write
 $A^c = X^* - A$ $A^{c*} = X - A$
 $\text{if } \infty \in A \text{ then } A^c = A^{c*}$

Since $\mathcal{T}^* = \mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{B}_{\infty}$, and $\mathcal{T} \cap \mathcal{B}_{\infty} = \emptyset$
Remark: We are specifying A^c compact and closed because we are
not assuming X Hausdorff. Hence compact sets are not automatically
closed.

CLAIM: \mathcal{T}^* indeed defines a topology on X^* .

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}^*$ because $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$

$X^* \in \mathcal{T}^*$ because trivially $\infty \in X^*$ and $X^{*c*} = \emptyset$ is closed and compact in X .

(ii) Arbitrary union.
Case 0: If $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a family of elements in \mathcal{T} , then trivially $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \in \mathcal{T}^*$, because \mathcal{T} is already a top.

Case 1: If $\{B_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a family of elements in \mathcal{B}_{∞} . w.r.t $\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\infty}$

$$\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i\right)^c = \bigcap_{i \in I} (X^* - B_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (X - (B_i \setminus \{\infty\}))$$

which is an arbitrary intersection of closed compact sets, hence again
closed and compact

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\infty}, i.e. \in \mathcal{T}^*$$

Case 2: If it is not the case that all the elements of the family
are in \mathcal{B}_{∞}

Consider $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$. Then $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ can be written as $A \cup B$ where
 B is an element in \mathcal{B}_{∞} and A is an element in \mathcal{T}

(2)

But then $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$. Since $\infty \notin B$, then $\infty \notin B^c$, hence
 $\infty \notin A^c \cap B^c$ - $(A \cup B)^c$. Therefore $(A \cup B)^c = (A \cup B)^c$
 $= A^c \cap B^c$ which is intersection of a closed with a closed and compact, hence is again closed
 $\Rightarrow A \cup B \in \tau_x$

To sum up $\{\delta_i\}_{i \in I}$ family of subsets in τ_x

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} \delta_i \in \tau_x \text{ and (ii) is verified}$$

(iii) Case 0 : If $\{U_1, \dots, U_n\}$ is a fin. collection of elements in τ , then trivially
 $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n U_i \in \tau$, because τ is already a topology

Case 1 : Let $\{B_1, \dots, B_n\} \subseteq B_\infty$ all in B_∞ . Then we have

$$(\bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n X - (B_i \setminus \{\infty\}) \text{ which is finite union of closed, compact sets in } X,$$

hence again closed and compact

$$\Rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i \in B_\infty, \text{ i.e. } \in \tau$$

Case 2 : Let $\{\delta_i\}_{i \in I}$ family in τ_x not fin. included in B_∞
 nor in τ . Then

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} \delta_i = U \cap B \text{ by grouping together the elements in } \tau,\text{ and the ones in } B_\infty.$$

$$\text{But then } U \cap B = U \cap (B \setminus \{\infty\}) \text{ because } \infty \notin U$$

Recall $(B \setminus \{\infty\})^c$ is closed in X . Then $B \setminus \{\infty\}$ open in X

Therefore $U \cap (B \setminus \{\infty\})$ is intersection of two open in X , hence
 again open in X , i.e. $U \cap B \in \tau$

$$\text{To sum up } \{\delta_i\}_{i \in I} \subseteq \tau_x = \bigcap_{i \in I} \delta_i \in \tau_x$$

We therefore proved τ_x is a topology,

(X^*, τ_x) is a topological space.

c(3)

The following result motivates why we called X^* a compactification of X .

PROPOSITION: X^* is compact, and X is open in X^*

PROOF: The open sets in \mathcal{X} are open in \mathcal{X}^* . Moreover, every open in \mathcal{X}^* intersects X in an open in \mathcal{X}

Follows that the topology \mathcal{X} is the topology induced by \mathcal{X}_* on X . In particular, X open in \mathcal{X}_* , and X is dense in X^* .

Let us show X^* is compact.

Let $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ be an open covering of X^* . Then in particular $\exists i_0 \in I$ s.t.

$\infty \in A_{i_0}$. Then $K = X - A_{i_0}$ is closed and compact in X , and

$\{A_{i_0}\}_{i \in I \setminus \{i_0\}}$ is an open covering of K .

$\Rightarrow \exists$ finite subcover $\{A_i\}_{i \in J}$, J finite of $K = X - A_{i_0}$.

But then $\{A_i\}_{i \in J} \cup \{A_{i_0}\}$ is a finite subcover of X^* from $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$. Hence X^* is compact

CR/COMMENTS: • $\{\infty\}$ is closed in X^* .

• if X (X is always closed in X^* by PROP.) is compact, then $\{\infty\}$ is also open

That is because then $\{\infty\}^c = X$ compact, and closed.

On the other side, if $\{\infty\}$ is open, by def of \mathcal{X}_* , we mean X is (closed and) compact

Summing up X compact in $X^* \Leftrightarrow \{\infty\}$ is an isolated point in X^*

Now it makes sense to give the following def

Def X non compact top. space. We call the space $X^* = X \cup \{\infty\}$ described so far, the one-point compactification of X

Examples

(1) The topology of the one-point compactification $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ has bases

$$\mathcal{B}^* = \{(a, b) : a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\} \cup \{[a, b]^c : a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\}$$

(2) \mathbb{N} natural numbers, with discrete topology.

A basis of n.h. around ∞ in \mathbb{N}^* is given by the family

$$\{\{m\} \cup \{m \in \mathbb{N} : m > n\}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$$

Comment: compare this with definition of a sequence
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$.

(3) $\mathbb{Q}^* = \mathbb{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$ is an example of a Fréchet space (T1),
 not Hausdorff (not (T2)).

The space X^* in general does not need to be Hausdorff, but we know precisely when it is.

PROPOSITION: X^* is Hausdorff $\Leftrightarrow X$ is locally compact and Hausdorff

PROOF: \Leftarrow Let X is loc. compact and Hausdorff.

In order to show X^* Hausdorff, is enough to show that given $x \in X$, we can find U n.h. of x , V n.h. of ∞ , s.t. $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Since X loc. compact, $\exists K$ compact n.h. of x in X . Since X is open in X^* , K is a n.h. of x in X^* as well.

Moreover X is Hausdorff. Hence K is closed. Therefore $V := K^c$ is a n.h. of ∞ , open. In particular $V \cap U = \emptyset$ and hence X^* is Hausdorff.

\Rightarrow : X^* Hausdorff, then X is automatically Hausdorff.

Let us show that X is loc. compact. Let $x \in X$.

Since X^* is Hausdorff, then $\exists U, V$ n.h. of x and ∞ resp.

s.t. $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Therefore V^c is closed compact n.h. of x

Hence X loc. compact

Example: $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{U})$ where $\mathcal{U} = \underbrace{\{I_x = (-\infty, x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}}}_{\text{basis of } \mathcal{U}} \cup \{\emptyset, \mathbb{R}\}$

Then $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{U})$ is locally compact, but not compact.

(What are the compact sets in this topology? $(-\infty, M]$ for some M)

Follows from previous Prop. that X^* is not Hausdorff.

In fact, the only neighborhood of ∞ is the whole X^* .

Therefore, in order to obtain a "nice" (i.e. Hausdorff) compactification,
we focus on the core X Hausdorff, locally compact, but not compact.

In this case, the one-point compactification X^* of X is
called the Alexandrov compactification, from now on
indicated with \hat{X} .

Alexandrov Compactification is universal, in the following sense
PROPOSITION: \hat{X} Alexandrov compactf. $\Leftrightarrow X$ loc. compact, Hausdorff, not compact.

Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ continuous map, with Y compact, Hausdorff, and such
that $f(X)$ is the complement of a point in Y , and $f(X) \cong X$
(i.e. Y has all the analogous properties of the Alexandrov compactification \hat{X})

then \exists a unique homeomorph. $h: \hat{X} \rightarrow Y$
s.t. $\forall x \in X \quad h(x) = f(x)$

In this sense \hat{X} is unique.

In terms of diagrams:



PROOF. Let us call p the only point in $Y \setminus f(X)$. Define $h: \hat{X} \rightarrow Y$ c⑥
as

$$h(x) = f(x) \quad \text{for } x \in X$$

$$h(\infty) = p.$$

Since h is bijective, \hat{X} is compact, Y is Hausdorff, in
order to show that f is a homeomorphism. It is enough to
show that h is continuous. (Proposition in Ex. Sheet 7)

By construction, the restriction $h|_X: X^{\text{open}} \subseteq \hat{X} \rightarrow f(X)^{\text{open}} \subseteq Y$

is continuous, we just need to check continuity at ∞

Let U an open neighborhood of p in Y . wts $h^{-1}(U)$ is an open neighborhood of ∞ in \hat{X} .
 U^c is closed, and Y is compact. Hence U^c is compact.

In particular $U^c \subseteq f(X)$ is compact in $f(X)$.

But then $f^{-1}(U^c)$ is compact in X . Since X is Hausdorff,
follows that $f^{-1}(U^c)$ is closed in X . Hence

$$(f^{-1}(U^c))^c = h^{-1}(U)$$

is open, and contains ∞ . Hence h is continuous at ∞ ,
and hence an homeomorphism.

The uniqueness of h is trivial

□

Now it finally make sense to refer to \hat{X} as the Alexandroff
compactification of X

Example: Recall Stereographic projection

$$f: \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \{p\}, \quad \hat{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{S}^1$$

In particular, note that $\hat{\mathbb{R}} \cong \mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \{p\} = \hat{\mathbb{S}}^1$.
Therefore the compactification "adds" the point p , which is the one
ideally mapped by f to ∞

$$\text{Analogously } \hat{\mathbb{R}}^n \cong \mathbb{S}^n.$$