

AN INTERESTING TOPOLOGICAL SPACE USING WEAK TOPOLOGY

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ABSTRACT. We use weak topology to construct an example of a space which is Hausdorff, not first countable and not regular, but which preserves many of the properties of a planar open set.

1. Introduction. Cohen [1] defined weak topology as follows. Let

$$\xi = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha},$$

where each X_{α} is a topological space. We say that $U \subset \xi$ is open (in the weak topology induced by the X_{α} subsets) if $U \cap X_{\alpha}$ is open in X_{α} for all $\alpha \in J$. In general, we note that, for a topological space X , if $X_{\alpha} \subset X$ has the subspace topology for all $\alpha \in J$ and $X = \cup_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$, then if we define $\xi = \cup_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$ to be the space whose points are the points of X , with weak topology induced by the X_{α} subsets, then the topology on ξ is at least as fine as the topology on X . Every open set in X intersects each X_{α} in an open set in X_{α} by definition of the subspace topology and is therefore open in ξ . It is possible, of course, for the topologies on X and ξ to be the same.

We will use the convention that (x_n) refers to a sequence of points (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) and use the notation $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ to mean that (x_n) converges to p , and we will use $\{x_n\}$ to denote $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$, the set of image points for (x_n) . Let R^2 denote the plane with the Euclidean metric.

2. Properties of the space $\overline{R^2}$.

Example. For every point $p \in R^2$, let T_p be the union of a vertical and a horizontal line in R^2 which intersect at point p (a translation of

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the coordinate axes with p at the intersection) with the usual subspace topology. We define \overline{R}^2 to be the space consisting of the points of R^2 with the weak topology induced by the T_p subsets. In other words, a set $U \subset \overline{R}^2$ will be open if and only if every translation of the axes, T_p , intersects U in an open subset of T_p .

The topology of \overline{R}^2 is strictly finer than the topology on R^2 . The interior of the rose defined by the polar curve $r = \cos(2\theta)$ plus the origin is open in \overline{R}^2 , but would not be open in R^2 .

It follows that, if $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in \overline{R}^2 , then $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in R^2 , but the converse is false. For example, the sequence $(1/n, 1/n) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ in R^2 , but the aforementioned rose is an example of an open set about the origin containing no members of this sequence, so this sequence does not converge in \overline{R}^2 .

Lemma. *A set U is open in \overline{R}^2 if and only if, for every $x \in U$, there is an $\varepsilon_x > 0$ and an open ball in the plane centered at x with radius ε_x (denoted as $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x)$) so that $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x \subset U$.*

Proof. First assume that U is open in \overline{R}^2 . Then by the definition of the topology on \overline{R}^2 it follows that, for every $x \in U$, the set $T_x \cap U$ is open in T_x under the subspace topology, which implies that for some $\varepsilon_x > 0$, the set $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x \subset U$.

Next, suppose we define $U \subset R^2$ to be any set such that, for each $x \in U$, we can choose some $\varepsilon_x > 0$ so that $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x \subset U$. Then, for every $y \in R^2$ and any $x \in (T_y \cap U)$, there is some $(B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x) \subset U$ so that $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x \cap T_y$ is an open subset of T_y containing x . Thus, $T_y \cap U$ is open for all $y \in R^2$, and U is open in \overline{R}^2 . The result follows. \square

Theorem 1. *Let $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in R^2 . If $\{x_n\} \cap T_p = \emptyset$, then $\{x_n\}$ is discrete in \overline{R}^2 .*

Proof. Since the topology on \overline{R}^2 is finer than the topology on R^2 , we know that $\{x_n\}$ has no limit points other than possibly p in \overline{R}^2 . Hence, we need only show that p is not a limit point of $\{x_n\}$. For each point

$x \in T_p \setminus \{p\}$, since $x \notin \overline{\{x_n\}}$ in R^2 , we can pick an open ball $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x)$ which does not intersect $\{x_n\}$. The set

$$U = \left(\bigcup_{x \in T_p \setminus \{p\}} B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \right) \cup \{p\}$$

is open in $\overline{R^2}$ and does not intersect $\{x_n\}$. We know U is open in $\overline{R^2}$ by the lemma because U is the union of an open set in R^2 with $\{p\}$, and all of T_p is contained in U . It follows that $\{x_n\}$ is discrete in $\overline{R^2}$. \square

Theorem 2. *Let $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in R^2 . Then $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in $\overline{R^2}$ if and only if there is a positive integer N so that if $n > N$ then $x_n \in T_p$.*

Proof. First, assume there is a natural number N so that, if $n > N$, then $x_n \in T_p$. Let U be an open set in $\overline{R^2}$ containing p . Then, for some $\varepsilon > 0$, $B_\varepsilon(p) \cap T_p \subset U$. Since $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in R^2 , we know that there is an integer N_1 so that, if $n > N_1$, then $x_n \in B_\varepsilon(p)$. Thus, if $n > \max(N, N_1)$, then $x_n \in U$, so $(x_n) \rightarrow p$ in $\overline{R^2}$.

Next assume that, for every positive integer N , there is some integer $n > N$ so that $x_n \notin T_p$. Let x_{n_k} be the k th member of (x_n) which is not an element of T_p . Then, by Theorem 1, $\{x_{n_k}\}$ is discrete in $\overline{R^2}$ and therefore (x_n) does not converge in $\overline{R^2}$ since (x_n) has a subsequence (x_{n_k}) which does not converge. \square

Theorem 3. *A set K is compact in $\overline{R^2}$ if and only if K is compact in R^2 and there are points $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n \in \overline{R^2}$ so that $K \subset \cup_{i=1}^n T_{p_i}$.*

Proof. First, let K be compact in $\overline{R^2}$. Then, since $\overline{R^2}$ has a finer topology than R^2 , it follows that K is compact in R^2 . Suppose that K is not contained in the union of finitely many sets of the form T_x . Let $p_1 \in K$. Since $K \not\subset T_{p_1}$, we can find a point $p_2 \in K$ such that $p_2 \notin T_{p_1}$. If we have chosen points p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n , then note that

$$K \not\subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n T_{p_i},$$

so we can choose a point

$$p_{n+1} \in K \setminus \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n T_{p_i} \right).$$

The sequence (p_n) has a subsequence (p_{n_k}) which converges to a point $p \in K$ in R^2 since K is compact in R^2 . However, T_p can contain at most two elements of $\{p_n\}$ by construction, and so it follows that (p_{n_k}) is discrete in $\overline{R^2}$ by Theorem 1 (since a discrete set plus two more points is still discrete), and therefore K is not compact in $\overline{R^2}$ because a compact set cannot contain an infinite discrete subset.

Next, assume that K is both compact in R^2 and $K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n T_{p_i}$ for some points p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . Then $K_i = K \cap T_{p_i}$ is compact in R^2 for every i . Let C be an open cover of K_i in $\overline{R^2}$. For each $U \in C$ we construct a set U' which is open in R^2 as follows. For each $x \in (U \cap K_i)$, choose an open ball $B_{\varepsilon_x}(x)$ so that $(B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_{p_i}) \subset U$. Then let

$$U' = \bigcup_{x \in K_i} B_{\varepsilon_x}(x),$$

and note that U' is an open set in R^2 such that $(U' \cap K_i) = (U \cap K_i)$. We then define $C' = \{U' \mid U \in C\}$. Since K_i is compact in R^2 , it follows that C' has a finite subcover $\{U'_1, U'_2, \dots, U'_m\}$. Thus, $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_m\}$ is a finite subset of C which covers K_i . Hence, each K_i is compact in $\overline{R^2}$, and so $K = \bigcup_{i=1}^m K_i$ is a finite union of compact sets, and therefore K is compact in $\overline{R^2}$. \square

Theorem 4. *The space $\overline{R^2}$ is locally path-wise connected.*

Proof. Let $p \in U$ be an open set in $\overline{R^2}$. Choose $\varepsilon_p > 0$ so that $L_1 = (B_{\varepsilon_p}(p) \cap T_p) \subset U$. Inductively, if some L_i has been defined, then for every point $x \in L_i$ we choose $\varepsilon_x > 0$ so that $(B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x) \subset U$, and we let

$$L_{i+1} = \bigcup_{x \in L_i} (B_{\varepsilon_x}(x) \cap T_x).$$

Then the set

$$L = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} L_i$$

is path-wise connected, open and contained in U . \square

Corollary 5. \overline{R}^2 has a basis of connected open sets.

Theorem 6. \overline{R}^2 is not first countable.

Proof. Let (U_n) be a sequence of open sets so that $p \in U_n$ for every positive integer n . For each n , we choose a point $x_n \in (U_n \cap (T_p \setminus \{p\}) \cap B_{1/n}(p))$. Then, for each x_n , we can find an $\varepsilon_{x_n} > 0$ so that $(B_{\varepsilon_{x_n}}(x_n) \cap T_{x_n}) \subset U_n$. Thus, we may also choose a point $y_n \in (B_{\varepsilon_{x_n}}(x_n) \cap T_{x_n}) \setminus T_p$. The sequence (y_n) thus defined has the property that $y_n \in U_n$ for every integer n , $\{y_n\} \cap T_p = \emptyset$, and $(y_n) \rightarrow p$ in R^2 . Therefore, by Theorem 1, $\{y_n\}$ is discrete in \overline{R}^2 . But then $\overline{R}^2 \setminus \{y_n\}$ is an open set containing p which does not contain any of the open sets U_n . It follows that \overline{R}^2 is not first countable. \square

Corollary 7. \overline{R}^2 is neither second countable nor metrizable.

Theorem 8. \overline{R}^2 is not regular.

Proof. We will show that there is a compact set and a closed set which cannot be placed into disjoint open sets. Let $K = \{ (x, 0) \in R^2 \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1 \}$. Note that K is compact in \overline{R}^2 . Let C_n consist of the set of points (x, y) whose x -coordinates are the rational numbers whose denominator in reduced terms is n , with y -coordinates $1/n$. Let $C = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_i$.

We claim that C is discrete in \overline{R}^2 . To see this, let $p \in \overline{R}^2$. First, assume that p is not on the x -axis. Then, if the y -coordinate of p has absolute value ε , then there are only finitely many points of C within $\varepsilon/2$ of p , so p is not a limit point of C . Next, assume that $p = (x_p, 0)$ is on the x -axis. Then T_p contains at most one point of C . Thus, we can choose $\varepsilon_p > 0$ so that $B_{\varepsilon_p}(p) \cap T_p \cap C = \emptyset$. Let $L_p = \{ (x_p, y) \mid |y| < \varepsilon_p \}$. For each $z \in L_p$, we can choose $\varepsilon_z > 0$ so that $B_{\varepsilon_z}(z) \cap C = \emptyset$. Define

$$W_p = (B_{\varepsilon_p}(p) \cap T_p) \cup \bigcup_{z \in L_p} B_{\varepsilon_z}(z).$$

Notice that W_p is the union of an open set in R^2 and an open interval on the x -axis containing p . For every point $t = (x, 0)$ on the x -axis, we choose W_t similarly, and let $W = \cup_{x \in R} W_{(x,0)}$. Using the lemma we can see that W is open in \overline{R}^2 because W is the union of an open set in R^2 with the x -axis and for every point t on the x -axis there is an $\varepsilon_t > 0$ so that $(B_{\varepsilon_t}(t) \cap T_t) \subset W_t \subset W$ by construction. Hence, $p \in W$ and $W \cap C = \emptyset$, so C is discrete and therefore closed in \overline{R}^2 .

Let U and V be open sets in \overline{R}^2 containing K and C , respectively. If we let $E_n = \{ (x, 0) \in K \mid B_{1/n}((x, 0)) \cap T_{(x,0)} \subset U \}$, then since $\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = K$ and, by the Baire category theorem, it follows that there is some E_m which is dense in a sub-interval I of K . But then we can choose an integer $t > m$ so that C_t contains a point p with x -coordinate within I . Hence, for any $\varepsilon > 0$ it follows that $(B_{\varepsilon}(p) \cap T_p) \cap U \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$, and so \overline{R}^2 is not regular. \square

Corollary 9. *The space \overline{R}^2 is not locally compact.*

Proof. Since \overline{R}^2 is Hausdorff and not completely regular, it follows that \overline{R}^2 is not locally compact. \square

Notation. Let $K_{\varepsilon}(p)$ denote the set of points in T_p whose distance from p is less than or equal to ε . Let $L_{\varepsilon}(p), R_{\varepsilon}(p), U_{\varepsilon}(p), D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ denote the line segments consisting of the point p and all points of T_p which are left of, right of, above or below, respectively, the point p and have distance less than or equal to ε from p . Let X and Y denote the x and y coordinate axes in the remaining theorems.

Theorem 10. *Let $h : \overline{R}^2 \rightarrow \overline{R}^2$ be a homeomorphism. Then, for any $p \in R^2$, there are $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$ so that $h(K_{\delta}(p)) \subset T_{h(p)}$ and $K_{\varepsilon}(h(p)) \subset h(K_{\delta}(p))$.*

Proof. First note that, since the topology on \overline{R}^2 is finer than the topology on R^2 , h is also a homeomorphism on R^2 . Since $K_1(p)$ is compact, we know by Theorem 3 that $h(K_1(p))$ is contained in a finite number of vertical and horizontal line segments. Thus, there is some

line segment $L_{\gamma_1}(p) \subset L_1(p)$ so that $h(L_{\gamma_1}(p)) = l_{h(p)}$ is a horizontal or vertical line segment containing $h(p)$ as one of its end points. We can similarly choose segments $R_{\gamma_2}(p), U_{\gamma_3}(p), D_{\gamma_4}(p)$ with corresponding horizontal or vertical line segment images $r_{h(p)} = h(R_{\gamma_2}(p)), u_{h(p)} = h(U_{\gamma_3}(p)), d_{h(p)} = h(D_{\gamma_4}(p))$. Since h is bijective, $h(p)$ is the only point common to any two of these line segments. If we set δ equal to the minimum of $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_4$ and set ε equal to the minimum of the lengths of $l_{h(p)}, r_{h(p)}, u_{h(p)}, d_{h(p)}$, then the desired result follows. \square

Theorem 11. *Let $h : \overline{R}^2 \rightarrow \overline{R}^2$ be a homeomorphism. Then the image of every horizontal or vertical line under h is a horizontal or vertical line. Furthermore, if the image of one horizontal line under h is horizontal or vertical, respectively, then the images of all other horizontal lines are horizontal or vertical, respectively, and the images of all vertical lines are vertical or horizontal, respectively.*

Proof. Let $p = (0, 0)$, and let $h(p) = q$. By Theorem 10, we can find $\delta, \varepsilon > 0$, so that $h(K_\delta(p)) \subset T_q$ and $K_\varepsilon(q) \subset h(K_\delta(p))$. Let $l_q = h(L_\delta(p)), r_q = h(R_\delta(p)), d_q = h(D_\delta(p)), u_q = h(U_\delta(p))$. We wish to show first that $l_q \cup r_q$ is either a vertical line segment or a horizontal line segment, with q in its interior. We will first assume (without loss of generality, since all cases are similar) that $l_q = L_{\gamma_1}(q)$ for some $\gamma_1 > \varepsilon$. Suppose that $r_q = D_{\gamma_2}(q)$ for some $\gamma_2 > \varepsilon$. Since h is a homeomorphism on $B_\delta(p)$ and $L_\delta(p) \cup R_\delta(p)$ separates $B_\delta(p)$, it follows that $h(L_\delta(p) \cup R_\delta(p))$ separates $h(B_\delta(p))$. Thus, all points above X in $B_\delta(p)$ must map to one component of $h(B_\delta(p)) \setminus (l_q \cup r_q)$, and all points below X in $B_\delta(p)$ must map to the other component of $h(B_\delta(p)) \setminus (l_q \cup r_q)$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that points below X map below l_q . But then we can find a horizontal line segment $H \subset B_\delta(p)$ above $L_\delta(p) \cup R_\delta(p)$ so that the end points a and b of H are near enough to the end points of $L_\delta(p) \cup R_\delta(p)$ that $h(a)$ is directly above a point of l_q and $h(b)$ is directly to the right of a point of r_q . We know that $h(L_\delta(p) \cup D_\delta(p))$ separates $h(a)$ and $h(b)$ in $h(B_\delta(p))$, and $h(H)$ is connected. Therefore, $h(H)$ intersects $h(D_\delta(p))$. But this is impossible because H does not intersect $D_\delta(p)$. A similar contradiction arises if l_q and r_q form any corner at $h(p)$ or if p is any point of the plane. Thus, it follows that every point of every horizontal (or vertical) line is contained in an interval along that line which is mapped into a vertical or horizontal line under h .

Assume that $l_q \cup r_q$ is part of the horizontal line P . If there are points of X that do not map to P , let t be the least upper bound of $S = \{x \in R \mid h(z, 0) \in P \text{ for all } z \in [0, x]\}$. Then, for some $\alpha > 0$, $h(B_\alpha((t, 0)) \cap X$ is entirely contained in a single horizontal or vertical line. Since we know that $h(t - (\alpha/2), 0) \in P$, it then follows that $(h(B_\alpha((t, 0)) \cap X) \subset P$, contradicting t being the supremum of S . Thus, $h(X) = P$. Similarly, if $l_q \cup r_q$ is a vertical line segment, then $h(X)$ is a vertical line. By a similar argument, we see that every horizontal or vertical line maps to a horizontal or vertical line.

Since horizontal lines are disjoint, their images are disjoint under h , so if one horizontal line maps to a horizontal line then no horizontal line can map to a vertical line. Similarly, since every vertical and horizontal line intersect, their images under h must intersect. Thus, if any horizontal line maps to a horizontal (respectively, vertical) line, then all horizontal lines map to horizontal (respectively, vertical) lines and all vertical lines map to vertical (respectively, horizontal) lines. \square

Theorem 12. *A function $h : \overline{R}^2 \rightarrow \overline{R}^2$ is a homeomorphism if and only if there are homeomorphisms $h_1, h_2 : R \rightarrow R$ such that $h(x, y) = (h_1(x), h_2(y))$ or $h(x, y) = (h_1(y), h_2(x))$ for all $x, y \in \overline{R}^2$.*

Proof. First, assume that $h(x, y) = (h_1(x), h_2(y))$ for homeomorphisms $h_1, h_2 : R \rightarrow R$. That h is a bijection follows from the fact that its coordinate functions are bijective. Let U be open in \overline{R}^2 , and let $(x_1, y_1) \in U$, where $h_1(x_0) = x_1$ and $h_2(y_0) = y_1$. Then there are open intervals (a, b) and (c, d) so that $\{(x_1, x) \in \overline{R}^2 \mid c < x < d\} \subset U$ and $\{(x, y_1) \in \overline{R}^2 \mid a < x < b\} \subset U$. Thus, $(\{(x_0, x) \in \overline{R}^2 \mid x \in h_1^{-1}(c, d)\} \cup \{(x, y_0) \in \overline{R}^2 \mid x \in h_1^{-1}(a, b)\}) \subset h^{-1}(U)$. Hence, h is continuous and, by a similar argument, h^{-1} is continuous. If $h(x, y) = (h_1(y), h_2(x))$, then the argument is similar.

Next, assume that $h : \overline{R}^2 \rightarrow \overline{R}^2$ is a homeomorphism. Then $h(X)$ is either a vertical or a horizontal line. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $h(X)$ is a horizontal line, and therefore $h(Y)$ is a vertical line. Let $\pi_X, \pi_Y : \overline{R}^2 \rightarrow R$ denote x -coordinate and y -coordinate projections, respectively. Let $h_1, h_2 : R \rightarrow R$ be defined by letting $h_1(x) = \pi_X(h(x, 0))$, and let $h_2(x) = \pi_Y(h(0, x))$ for all $x \in R$. The topology of a horizontal or vertical line in \overline{R}^2 is

the same as the topology on R , so π_X is a homeomorphism on any horizontal line and π_Y is a homeomorphism on any vertical line. Hence, h_1 and h_2 are compositions of homeomorphisms and are therefore homeomorphisms. Given any point $(x_0, y_0) \in \overline{R}^2$, we know that the line $x = x_0$ maps to a vertical line under h , and therefore the x -coordinate of $h(x_0, y_0)$ is $h_1(x_0)$, and similarly the y -coordinate of $h(x_0, y_0)$ is $h_2(y_0)$. Thus, $h(x, y) = (h_1(x), h_2(y))$ for all $(x, y) \in \overline{R}^2$. The proof is similar if $h(X)$ is vertical, yielding a homeomorphism of the form $h(x, y) = (h_1(y), h_2(x))$. \square

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