

# Module-5: Homeomorphism

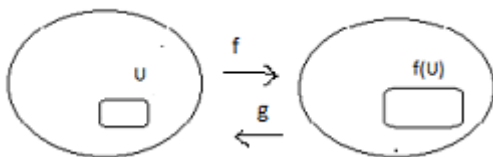
In studying group theory, metric spaces we have observed structure preserving mappings such as isomorphism, isometry. In this module we will discuss structure preserving mappings of topological spaces.

**Definition 1.** A continuous map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  between topological spaces is said to be a homeomorphism if there exists a continuous map  $g : Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $g \circ f = 1_X$  and  $f \circ g = 1_Y$ .

Clearly, here  $g$  is actually  $f^{-1}$ . So if  $O$  is an open set of  $X$  then the inverse image of  $O$  under  $f^{-1}$  is the same as the image of  $O$  under the map  $f$ . The same thing happens in case of closed sets. So we can define a homeomorphism in the following way.

**Theorem 1.** A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  between two topological spaces is a homeomorphism if and only if it is continuous and open or closed.

*Proof.* Since  $f$  is a homeomorphism there exists  $g : Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $g \circ f = 1_X$  and  $f \circ g = 1_Y$ . This means that  $f(U) = g^{-1}(U)$  which is open.  $\square$



**Example 1.** A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = ax + b$ , where  $a \neq 0$  is a homeomorphism.

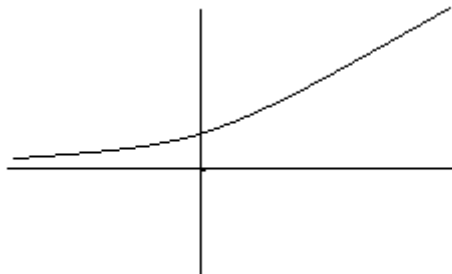
*Proof.*  $g(y) = \frac{f(y)-b}{a}$  is the inverse mapping. Continuity is clear.  $\square$

**Example 2.** Now we can observe that any two same type of intervals are homeomorphic.

Without loss of generality let us consider open intervals  $(0, 1)$  and  $(3, 4)$ . The mapping  $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow (3, 5)$ , defined by  $f(x) = ax + b$  gives a homeomorphism. We have just to choose  $a, b$  suitable real numbers.

**Example 3.** This example shows that  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $(0, \infty)$  are homeomorphic.

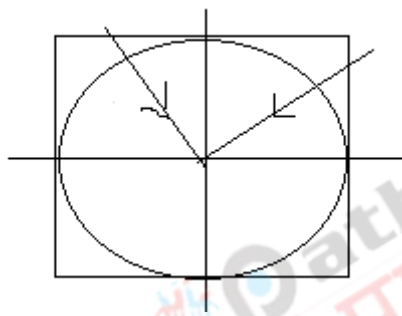
*Proof.* Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  defined by  $f(x) = e^x$ . The following diagram clearly shows that  $f$  is a homeomorphism.



□

**Example 4.** This example shows that unit square and unit circle are homeomorphic.

*Proof.* The following diagram clearly shows the homeomorphism.



□

**Example 5.** Consider  $B^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be the open unit ball, and if we define a map  $f : B^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  by

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{1 - |x|}.$$

Then this gives a homeomorphism from  $B^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . An easy computation shows that  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow B^n$  defined by

$$g(x) = \frac{x}{1 + |x|}$$

is the continuous inverse of  $f$ .

**Example 6.** Next we present an example of a homeomorphism between sphere  $S^2$  and cube  $C = \{(x, y, z) : \max\{x, y, z\} = 1\}$ . First we define  $f : C \rightarrow S^2$  by the mapping

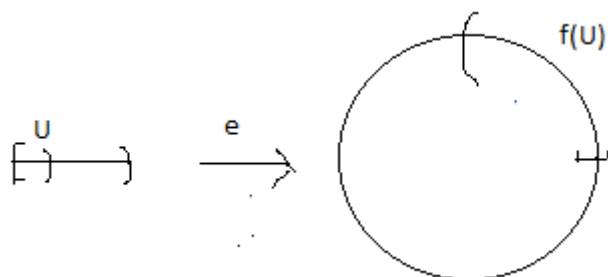
$$f((x, y, z)) = \frac{(x, y, z)}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}.$$

Now  $g : S^2 \rightarrow C$  defined by

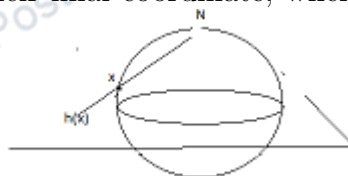
$$g((x, y, z)) = \frac{(x, y, z)}{\max\{|x|, |y|, |z|\}}$$

gives the inverse of  $f$ .

**Example 7.** The mapping  $p : [0, 1) \rightarrow S^1$  defined by  $p(x) = e^{2\pi ix}$  is a continuous bijection, which is not a homeomorphism.

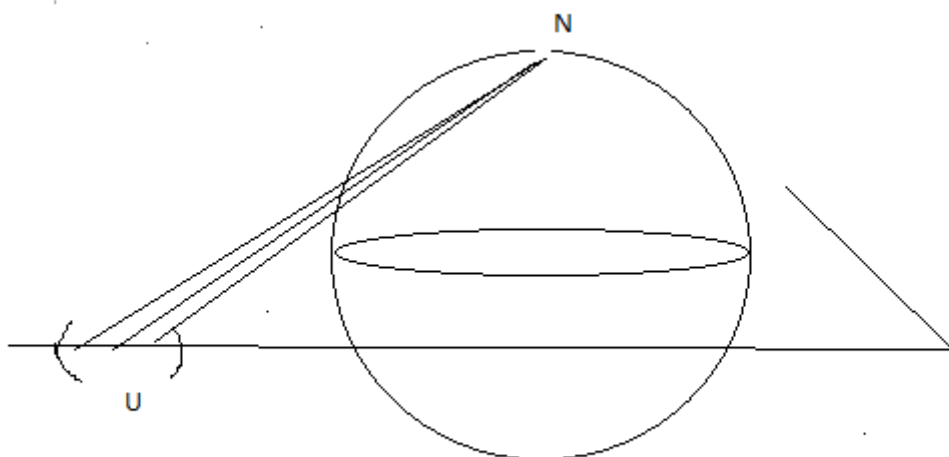


Let  $S^n$  denote the  $n$ -dimensional sphere  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : \|x\| = 1\}$  taken with the subspace topology. We claim that removing a single point from  $S^n$  gives a space homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Which point we remove is irrelevant because we can rotate any point of  $S^n$  into any other; for convenience we choose to remove the point  $N = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$ . Now the set of points of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  which have zero as their final coordinate, when given the induced



topology, is clearly homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

We define a function  $h : S^n \setminus \{N\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , called stereographic projection, as follows. For any  $x \in S^n \setminus \{N\}$ , let  $h(x)$  be the point of intersection of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and the straight line determined by  $x$  and  $N$ . Clearly  $h$  is bijective. Let  $O$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we construct a new set  $U$  in  $S^n$  whose points are the points of intersection of the straight line segments which start at  $N$  and pass through points of  $O$ , except the point  $N$  (See the diagram in the next page). Then  $O$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . But  $h^{-1}(O)$  is precisely the set  $U$ . Therefore  $h^{-1}(O)$  is open in  $S^n \setminus \{N\}$ . This establishes the continuity of  $h$  and a precisely similar argument deals with  $h^{-1}$ . Therefore  $h$  is a homeomorphism.



**Definition 2.** A property say  $\mathcal{P}$  of a topological space is said to be topological property if when ever two topological spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  are homeomorphic and one posses the property then the other will posses the property.

**Example 8.** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and let  $d$  be the usual metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $Y = (0, 1)$  (the open interval) and let  $\rho$  be the usual metric on  $(0, 1)$ . Then  $X$  and  $Y$  are homeomorphic as topological spaces, but  $(X, d)$  is complete and  $(Y, \rho)$  is not. So the completeness is not a topological property.

**Theorem 2.** Both  $T_1$  ness and Hausdorffness are topological property.

*Proof.* Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two topological spaces,  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a homeomorphism and  $X$  be  $T_1$ . Now if  $F$  be a finite set of  $Y$  then  $|f^{-1}(F)| = |F|$  and hence  $f^{-1}(F)$  is closed and  $f$  being closed  $F = f(f^{-1}(F))$  is also closed. Hence  $Y$  is  $T_1$ .

Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a homeomorphism,  $X$  be Hausdorff and let  $x \neq y$  be two distinct points in  $Y$ . Choose  $u$  and  $v$  be unique preimages of  $x$  and  $y$  respectively. Then there exist disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  in  $X$  containing  $x$  and  $y$  respectively. Then using openness of  $f$  we get disjoint open sets  $f(U)$  and  $f(V)$  containing  $x \neq y$  respectively. This proves that proved that  $Y$  is Hausdorff.  $\square$

The following result will be needed in the study of manifold. By a disc we shall mean any space homeomorphic to the closed unit disc  $D$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . If  $A$  is a disc, and if  $h : A \rightarrow D$  is a homeomorphism, then  $h^{-1}(S^1)$  is called the boundary of  $A$  and is written  $\partial A$ .

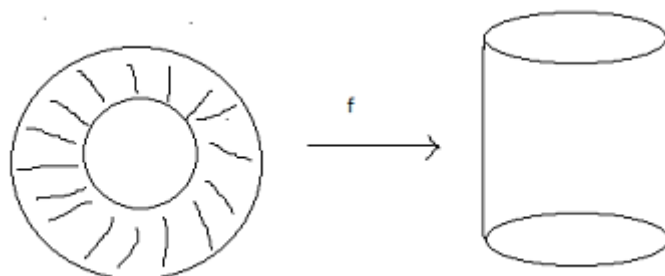
**Theorem 3.** Any homeomorphism from the boundary of a disc to itself can be extended to a homeomorphism of the whole disc.

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be a disc and choose a homeomorphism  $h : A \rightarrow D$ . Given a homeomorphism  $g : \partial A \rightarrow \partial A$  we can easily extend  $hgh^{-1} : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$  to a homeomorphism of all of  $D$  as follows. Send 0 to 0, and if  $x \in D \setminus \{0\}$  send  $x$  to the point  $\|x\|hgh^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{\|x\|}\right)$ . In other words extend conically. If we call this extension  $f$ , then  $h^{-1}fh$  extends  $g$  to a homeomorphism of all of  $A$  as required. □

We have already discussed about finite product topology. One can observe easily that each projection map is continuous. Let us examine the following example.

**Example 9.** If we view points in the unit circle  $S^1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  as angles  $\theta$ , then polar coordinates give a homeomorphism  $f : S^1 \times (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$  defined by  $f(\theta, r) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$ . This is one-to-one and onto since each point in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , other than the origin has unique polar coordinates  $(\theta, r)$ . To see that  $f$  is a homeomorphism, just observe that it takes a basic open set  $U \times V$ , (where  $U$  is an open interval  $(\theta_0, \theta_1)$  and  $V$  is an open interval  $(r_0, r_1)$ ) to an open polar rectangle and such rectangles form a basis for the topology on  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ , as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . By restricting  $f$  to a product  $S^1 \times [a, b]$  for  $0 < a < b$  we obtain a homeomorphism from this product to a closed annulus in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , the region between two concentric circles.

**Example 10.** A product  $S^1 \times [1, 2]$  is homeomorphic to a cylinder as well as to an annulus. If we use cylindrical coordinates  $(r, \theta, z)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  then a cylinder is specified by taking  $r$  to be a constant 1, letting range over the circle  $S^1$ , and restricting  $z$  to an interval  $[1, 2]$ .



Consider the spaces Con-

sider  $[0, 1]$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ . This following Theorem shows that we can't hope a Theorem like Cantor Bernstein Theorem.