

**Definition 35.1.** A (topological)  $n$ -manifold  $M$  is a Hausdorff, second-countable space such that each point has a neighborhood homeomorphic to an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Example 35.2.** (1)  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and any open subset is obviously an  $n$ -manifold

(2)  $S^1$  is a 1-manifold. More generally,  $S^n$  is an  $n$ -manifold. Indeed, we have shown that if you remove a point from  $S^n$ , the resulting space is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(3)  $T^n$ , the  $n$ -torus, is an  $n$ -manifold. In general, if  $M$  is an  $m$ -manifold and  $N$  is an  $n$ -manifold, then  $M \times N$  is an  $(m + n)$ -manifold.

(4)  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  is an  $n$ -manifold. There is a standard covering of  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  by open sets as follows. Recall that  $\mathbb{R}P^n = (\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})/\mathbb{R}^\times$ . For each  $1 \leq i \leq n+1$ , let  $V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$  be the complement of the hyperplane  $x_i = 0$ . This is an open, saturated set, and so its image  $U_i = V_i/\mathbb{R}^\times \subseteq \mathbb{R}P^n$  is open. The  $V_i$ 's cover  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ , so the  $U_i$ 's cover  $\mathbb{R}P^n$ . We leave the rest of the details as an exercise.

(5)  $\mathbb{C}P^n$  is a  $2n$ -manifold. This is similar to the description given above.

(6)  $O(n)$  is a  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ -manifold. Since it is also a topological group, this makes it a *Lie group*. The standard way to see that this is a manifold is to realize the orthogonal group as the preimage of the identity matrix under the transformation  $M_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow M_n(\mathbb{R})$  that sends  $A$  to  $A^T A$ . This map lands in the subspace  $S_n(\mathbb{R})$  of symmetric  $n \times n$  matrices. This space can be identified with  $\mathbb{R}^{n(n+1)/2}$ .

Now the  $n \times n$  identity matrix is an element of  $S_n$ , and an important result in differential topology (Sard's theorem) that says that if a certain derivative map is surjective, then the preimage of the submanifold  $\{I_n\}$  will be a submanifold of  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . In this case, the relevant derivative is the matrix of partial derivatives of  $A \mapsto A^T A$ , written in a suitable basis.

(7)  $\text{Gr}_{k,n}(\mathbb{R})$  is a  $k(n - k)$ -manifold.

Here are some nonexamples

**Example 35.3.** (1) The union of the coordinate axes in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Every point has a neighborhood like  $\mathbb{R}^1$  except for the origin.

(2) A discrete uncountable set is not second countable.

(3) A 0-manifold is discrete, so  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not a 0-manifold.

(4) Glue together two copies of  $\mathbb{R}$  by identifying any nonzero  $x$  in one copy with the point  $x$  in the other. This is second-countable and looks locally like  $\mathbb{R}^1$ , but it is not Hausdorff.

Note that since open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are locally compact, it follows from Prop 29.7 that any  $n$ -manifold is paracompact.

**Theorem 36.1.** Any manifold  $M^n$  admits an embedding into some Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^N$ .

*Proof.* The theorem is true as stated, but we only prove it in the case of a compact manifold. Note that in this case, since  $M$  is compact and  $\mathbb{R}^N$  is Hausdorff, it is enough to find a continuous injection of  $M$  into some  $\mathbb{R}^N$ .

Since  $M$  is a manifold, it has an open cover by sets that are homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Since it is compact, there is a finite subcover  $\{U_1, \dots, U_k\}$ . Since  $M$  is paracompact, there is a partition of unity  $\{\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_k\}$  subordinate to this cover. For each  $i$ , let  $f_i : U_i \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^n$  be a homeomorphism.

We can then piece these together as follows: for each  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , define  $g_i : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  by

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} f_i(x)\varphi_i(x) & x \in U_i \\ \mathbf{0} & x \in X \setminus \text{supp}(\varphi_i) \end{cases} .$$

Note that  $g_i$  is continuous by the glueing lemma, since  $\text{supp}(\varphi_i)$  is closed. Then the  $k$  functions  $g_i$  together give a continuous function  $g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{nk}$ . Now suppose that  $g(x) = g(x')$  for some  $x, x' \in M$ . Unfortunately, this need not be injective, since if  $f_i(x) = \mathbf{0}$  and  $x$  does not lie in any other  $U_j$ , it follows that  $g(x) = \mathbf{0}$ . Since there can be more than one such  $x$ , we cannot conclude that  $g$  is injective.

One way to fix this would be to stick on the functions  $\varphi_i$ , in order to separate out points lying in different  $U_i$ 's. Define  $G = (g_1, \dots, g_k, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_k) : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{nk+k}$ . But now  $G$  is injective, since if  $G(x) = G(x')$  and we pick  $i$  so that  $\varphi_i(x) = \varphi_i(x') > 0$ , then this means that  $x$  and  $x'$  both lie in  $U_i$ . But then  $g_i(x) = g_i(x')$  so  $f_i(x) = f_i(x')$ . Since  $f_i$  is a homeomorphism, it follows that  $x = x'$ . ■

In fact, one can do better. Munkres shows (Cor. 50.8) that every compact  $n$ -manifold embeds inside  $\mathbb{R}^{2n+1}$ .

The last main topic from the introductory part of the course on metric spaces is the idea of a function space. Given any two spaces  $A$  and  $Y$ , we will want to be able to define a topology on the set of continuous functions  $A \rightarrow Y$  in a sensible way. We already know one topology on  $Y^A$ , namely the product topology. But this does not use the topology on  $A$  at all.

Let's forget about topology for a second. A function  $h : X \times A \rightarrow Y$  between sets is equivalent to a function

$$\Psi(h) : X \rightarrow Y^A.$$

Given  $h$ , the map  $\Psi(h)$  is defined by  $(\Psi(h)(x))(a) = h(x, a)$ . Conversely, given  $\Psi(h)$ , the function  $h$  can be recovered by the same formula.

Let's play the same game in topology. What we want to say is that a continuous map  $h : X \times A \rightarrow Y$  is the same as a continuous map  $X \rightarrow \text{Map}(A, Y)$ , for some appropriate *space* of maps  $\text{Map}(A, Y)$ . Let's start by seeing why the product topology does *not* have this property.

We write  $C(X, Z)$  for the *set* of continuous maps  $X \rightarrow Z$ . It is not difficult to check that the set-theoretic construction from above does give a function

$$C(X \times A, Y) \rightarrow C(X, Y^A),$$

where for the moment  $Y^A$  denotes the set of continuous functions  $A \rightarrow Y$  given the product topology. But this function is not surjective.

**Example 36.2.** Take  $A = [0, 1]$ ,  $Y = \mathbb{R}$ , and  $X = Y^A = \mathbb{R}^{[0,1]}$ . We can consider the identity map  $\mathbb{R}^{[0,1]} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{[0,1]}$ . We would like this to correspond to a continuous map  $\mathbb{R}^{[0,1]} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We see that, ignoring the topology, this function must be the evaluation function  $ev : (g, x) \mapsto g(x)$ . But this is not continuous.

To see this consider  $ev^{-1}((0, 1))$ . The point  $(\text{id}, 1/2)$  lies in this preimage, but we claim that no neighborhood of this point is contained in the preimage. In fact, we claim no basic neighborhood  $U \times (a, b)$  lies in the preimage. For such a  $U$  must consist of functions that are close to  $\text{id} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  at *finitely many points*  $c_1, \dots, c_n$ . So given any such  $U$  and any interval  $(a, b) = (1/2 - \epsilon, 1/2 + \epsilon)$ , pick any point  $d \in (a, b)$  that is distinct from the  $c_i$ . It is simple to construct a continuous function  $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that (1)  $g(c_i) = c_i$  for each  $i$  and (2)  $g(d) = 2$ . Then  $(g, d) \in U \times (a, b)$  but  $(g, d) \notin ev^{-1}((0, 1))$  since  $ev(g, d) = g(d) = 2$ .

Last time, we were trying to find a topology  $\text{Map}(X, Y)$  on the set  $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$  of continuous functions  $X \rightarrow Y$  which would provide a bijection

$$\mathcal{C}(X \times A, Y) \cong \mathcal{C}(X, \text{Map}(A, Y)).$$

This problem will be (almost) solved by the compact-open topology.

The **compact-open** topology on the set  $\mathcal{C}(A, Y)$  has a sub-basis given by

$$S(K, U) = \{f : A \rightarrow Y \mid f(K) \subseteq U\},$$

where  $K$  is compact and  $U \subseteq Y$  is open.

**Theorem 37.1.** *Suppose that  $A$  is locally compact Hausdorff. Then a function  $f : X \times A \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if and only if the induced function  $g = \Psi(f) : X \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, Y)$  is continuous.*

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) This direction does not need that  $A$  is locally compact. Before we give the proof, we should note why  $\Psi(f)(x) : A \rightarrow Y$  is continuous. This map is the composite  $A \xrightarrow{L_x} X \times A \xrightarrow{f} Y$  and therefore continuous.

We now wish to show that  $g = \Psi(f)$  is continuous. Let  $S(K, U)$  be a sub-basis element in  $\mathcal{C}(A, Y)$ . We wish to show that  $g^{-1}(S(K, U))$  is open in  $X$ . Let  $g(x) = f(x, -) \in S(K, U)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, the preimage  $f^{-1}(U) \subseteq X \times A$  is open. Furthermore,  $\{x\} \times K \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$ . We wish to use the Tube Lemma, so we restrict from  $X \times A$  to  $X \times K$ . By the Tube Lemma, we can find a basic neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  such that  $V \times K \subseteq (X \times K) \cap f^{-1}(U)$ . It follows that  $g(V) \subseteq S(K, U)$ , so that  $V$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  in  $g^{-1}(S(K, U))$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose that  $g$  is continuous. Note that we can write  $f$  as the composition

$$X \times A \xrightarrow{g \times \text{id}} \mathcal{C}(A, Y) \times A \xrightarrow{ev} Y,$$

so it is enough to show that  $ev$  is continuous.

**Lemma 37.2.** *The map  $ev : \mathcal{C}(A, Y) \times A \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if  $A$  is locally compact Hausdorff.*

*Proof.* Let  $U \subseteq Y$  be open and take a point  $(f, a)$  in  $ev^{-1}(U)$ . This means that  $f(a) \in U$ . Since  $A$  is locally compact Hausdorff, we can find a compact neighborhood  $K$  of  $a$  contained in  $f^{-1}(U)$  (this is open since  $f$  is continuous). It follows that  $S(K, U)$  is a neighborhood of  $f$  in  $\mathcal{C}(A, Y)$ , so that  $S(K, U) \times K$  is a neighborhood of  $(f, a)$  in  $ev^{-1}(U)$ . ■

Even better, we have

**Theorem 37.3.** *Let  $X$  and  $A$  be locally compact Hausdorff. Then the above maps give homeomorphisms*

$$\text{Map}(X \times A, Y) \cong \text{Map}(X, \text{Map}(A, Y)).$$

It is fairly simple to construct a continuous map in either direction, using Theorem 37.1. You should convince yourself that the two maps produced are in fact inverse to each other.

In practice, it's a bit annoying to keep track of these extra hypotheses at all times, especially since not all constructions will preserve these properties. It turns out that there is a "convenient" category of spaces, where everything works nicely.

**Definition 37.4.** A space  $A$  is **compactly generated** if a subset  $B \subseteq A$  is closed if and only if for every map  $u : K \rightarrow A$ , where  $K$  is compact Hausdorff, then  $u^{-1}(B) \subseteq K$  is closed.

We say that the topology of  $A$  is determined (or generated) by compact subsets. Examples of compactly generated spaces include locally compact spaces and first countable spaces.

**Definition 37.5.** A space  $X$  is **weak Hausdorff** if the image of every  $u : K \rightarrow X$  is closed in  $X$ .

There is a way to turn any space into a weak Hausdorff compactly generated space. In that land, everything works well! For the most part, whenever an algebraic topologist says “space”, they really mean a compactly generated weak Hausdorff space. Next semester, we will always implicitly be working with spaces that are CGWH.