

# Nets

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Roughly speaking, nets are a generalization of sequences wherein the indexing set  $\mathbb{N}$  is replaced by a *directed set*. As the name suggests, these sets have a notion of direction much like  $\mathbb{N}$  does ( $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \dots$ ), however they may be uncountable and may have multiple paths to “infinity.” The elements that are indexed by a directed set live in a topological space so that one can consider the notion of convergence of a net. Nets are essential for general topology in the sense that they can characterize closedness, compactness, and continuity in the same way that sequences do in metric spaces.

## 1 Directed Sets

**Definition 1.1.** A **directed set**  $I$  is a set equipped with a binary relation  $\leq$  that satisfies:

- (i)  $i \leq i$  for all  $i \in I$  (reflexive);
- (ii) if  $i \leq j$  and  $j \leq k$ , then  $i \leq k$  (transitive);
- (iii) for any  $i, j \in I$  there exists  $k \in I$  with  $i, j \leq k$  (upper bound property).

Typically reflexivity and transitivity are obvious, whereas the upper bound property may need to be justified.

**Example 1.2.**  $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$  are all directed sets with the usual ordering. In fact, any subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  (even finite ones) are directed sets with the order they inherit from  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 1.3.** Let  $X$  be a set, and let  $\mathcal{F}$  denote the collection of all finite subsets of  $X$ . For  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ , write  $A \leq B$  if  $A \subset B$ . This makes  $\mathcal{F}$  into a directed set. Note that  $A \cup B$  serves as an upper bound for both  $A$  and  $B$ .

**Example 1.4.** Let  $X$  be a topological space, and fix  $x_0 \in X$ . Let  $\mathcal{N}(x_0)$  denote the collection of open neighborhoods of  $x_0$ . For  $A, B \in \mathcal{N}(x_0)$ , write  $A \leq B$  if  $A \supset B$ . This makes  $\mathcal{N}(x_0)$  into a directed set where  $A \cap B$  is an upper bound for  $A$  and  $B$ .

**Example 1.5.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then  $\{(\epsilon, K) : \epsilon > 0, K \subset X \text{ compact}\}$  is a directed set where

$$(\epsilon, K) \leq (\epsilon', K')$$

if and only if  $\epsilon \geq \epsilon'$  and  $K \subset K'$ . (**Exercise:** determine a common upper bound for  $(\epsilon, K)$  and  $(\epsilon', K')$ .)

## 2 Nets

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. A **net** in  $X$  is a map  $x: I \rightarrow X$  where  $I$  is a directed set.

A net  $x: I \rightarrow X$  is usually denoted  $(x(i))_{i \in I}$  or  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  where  $x_i := x(i)$ . This is supposed to remind you of sequence notation. As with sequences in a metric space, there is a notion of convergence:

**Definition 2.2.** A net  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  **converges** to  $x \in X$  if for every open subset  $U \subset X$  containing  $x$  there is  $i_0 \in I$  so that  $x_i \in U$  whenever  $i \geq i_0$ . In this case we call  $x$  the **limit** of the net and write

$$x = \lim_i x_i.$$

When  $I = \mathbb{N}$ , this is simply the usual notion of convergence for a sequence. When  $I = \mathbb{R}$  this is also capturing familiar behavior:

**Example 2.3.** Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function. Recall that we say  $f$  has a limit at  $\infty$  if there exists  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  so that for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  so that

$$|f(t) - L| < \epsilon \quad \forall t \geq t_0.$$

But this is precisely saying that the net  $(f(t))_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$  converges to  $L$ .

**Example 2.4.** Let  $X$  be a topological space, let  $x_0 \in X$  and let  $\mathcal{N}(x_0)$  be as in Example 1.4. For each  $U \in \mathcal{N}(x_0)$  pick any point in  $U$  and label it  $x_U$ . Then  $(x_U)_{U \in \mathcal{N}(x_0)}$  is a net which converges to  $x_0$ . Indeed, let  $U \subset X$  be an open set containing  $x_0$ . Then  $U \in \mathcal{N}(x_0)$  and for any  $U' \in \mathcal{N}(x_0)$  with  $U' \geq U$ , we have  $x_{U'} \in U' \subset U$ .

**Example 2.5.** Let  $X$  be a topological space and let  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a function. For each pair  $(\epsilon, K)$  as in Example 1.5, let  $f_{(\epsilon, K)}$  be any function  $g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  satisfying  $|f(x) - g(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in K$ . Then the net  $(f_{(\epsilon, K)})$  converges to  $f$  in the topology of uniform convergence on compact subsets. Indeed, fix  $K \subset X$  compact. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , then for any  $(\epsilon', K') \geq (\epsilon, K)$  we have  $|f(x) - f_{(\epsilon', K')}| < \epsilon' \leq \epsilon$  for all  $x \in K'$ ; in particular, for all  $x \in K$ .

**Proposition 2.6.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then  $V \subset X$  is closed if and only if for every convergent net  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset V$  one has  $\lim_i x_i \in V$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ): Let  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset V$  be a convergent net. Suppose, towards a contradiction, that  $x := \lim_i x_i$  is not contained in  $V$ . Then  $x \in V^c$  which is an open set. Consequently, by definition of the convergence of a net, there exists  $i_0 \in I$  such that  $x_i \in V^c$  for all  $i \geq i_0$ . But this contradicts  $x_i \in V$  for all  $i \in I$ . Thus it must be that  $x \in V$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ): To show that  $V$  is closed, we will show that  $V^c$  is open. Suppose, towards a contradiction, that there exists  $x \in V^c$  such that for all open subsets  $U$  containing  $x$  one has  $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $\mathcal{N}(x)$  be as in Example 1.4. For each  $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ , let  $x_U \in U \cap V$ . Then  $(x_U)_{U \in \mathcal{N}(x)} \subset V$  and it converges to  $x$  by Example 2.4. By assumption we must have  $x \in V$ , but this contradicts  $x \in V^c$ . Thus for any  $x \in V^c$  there is an open set containing which does not intersect  $V$ ; that is,  $V^c$  is open.  $\square$

We say a subset  $S \subset X$  in a topological space is *sequentially closed* if whenever  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset S$  is a convergent sequence one has  $\lim_n x_n \in S$ . Since sequences are particular kinds of nets, the above proposition implies that closed sets are sequentially closed. In a metric space, the two notions are equivalent. However, for general topological spaces sequentially closed does not imply closed, as the following example illustrates.

**Example 2.7.**<sup>1</sup> Consider  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$  with the product topology, which we think of as arbitrary functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Recall that under the product topology, an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$  is a union of subsets of the form

$$\prod_{t \in \mathbb{R}} U_t,$$

where  $U_t \subset \mathbb{R}$  is open for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $U_t \neq \mathbb{R}$  for only finitely many  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Consequently, a net  $(f_i)_{i \in I} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$  converges to  $f \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$  if and only if they converge pointwise as functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $B$  be the subset of Borel functions. Then  $B$  is sequentially closed because we know from measure theory that the pointwise limit of a sequence of Borel functions is Borel.  $B$  is also dense. Indeed, let  $f \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the collection of finite subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ , ordered by inclusion. Then for each  $F \in \mathcal{F}$  we can find a polynomial  $p_F$  such that  $p_F(t) = f(t)$  for each  $t \in F$ . The net  $(p_F)_{F \in \mathcal{F}}$  converges pointwise to  $f$  and consists of Borel functions. Therefore the closure of  $B$  is all of  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$ . On the otherhand, we know there are non-Borel functions so  $B$  is not closed.

**Proposition 2.8.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. Then  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if and only if for every convergent net  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset X$  one has that  $(f(x_i))_{i \in I} \subset Y$  is a convergent net with  $\lim_i f(x_i) = f(\lim_i x_i)$ .

<sup>1</sup>Thanks to Ben Hayes for supplying this example.

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ): Suppose  $f$  is continuous and  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset X$  converges to some  $x \in X$ . Let  $U \subset Y$  be an open subset containing  $f(x)$ . Then  $f^{-1}(U) \subset X$  is an open subset containing  $x$ . Consequently there exists  $i_0 \in I$  such that for all  $i \geq i_0$  we have  $x_i \in f^{-1}(U)$ . Thus for all  $i \geq i_0$  we have  $f(x_i) \in U$ . So  $(f(x_i))_{i \in I}$  converges to  $f(x)$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ): Let  $U \subset Y$  be an open subset. We must show  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open. If not, then there is an  $x \in f^{-1}(U)$  such that  $N \cap f^{-1}(U)^c \neq \emptyset$  for all  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ . We can then define a net by letting  $x_N \in N \cap f^{-1}(U)^c$  for each  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ . Then the net  $(x_N)_{N \in \mathcal{N}(x)}$  converges to  $x$  by Example 2.4. By construction,  $f(x_N) \in U^c$  for all  $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ . By assumption,  $(f(x_N))_{N \in \mathcal{N}(x)}$  converges to  $f(x)$ , and since  $U^c$  is closed the previous proposition implies  $f(x) \in U^c$ . But this contradicts  $x \in f^{-1}(U)$ . Thus  $f^{-1}(U)$  must be open and therefore  $f$  is continuous.  $\square$

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. We say a net  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset X$  is *Cauchy* if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $i_0 \in I$  so that whenever  $i, j \geq i_0$  we have  $d(x_i, x_j) < \epsilon$ . We conclude this section by examining Cauchy nets in a metric spaces. In particular, we will show that Cauchy nets in a complete metric space converge. The idea is to extract a Cauchy sequence from the Cauchy net, so as to use the completeness.

**Proposition 2.9.** *Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space and let  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  be a Cauchy net. Then  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  converges.*

*Proof.* Let  $i(1) \in I$  be such that  $d(x_i, x_j) < 1$ . Let  $i(2) \in I$  be such that  $i(2) \geq i(1)$  and  $d(x_i, x_j) < \frac{1}{2}$  for all  $i, j \geq i(2)$ . We inductively find  $i(n) \in I$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $i(n) \geq i(n-1)$  and  $d(x_i, x_j) < \frac{1}{n}$  for all  $i, j \geq i(n)$ . We claim that the sequence  $(x_{i(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. Indeed, let  $\epsilon > 0$ . If  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  satisfies  $\frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$ , then for  $n, m \geq N$  we have  $d(x_{i(n)}, x_{i(m)}) < \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$ . Since  $(X, d)$  is complete,  $(x_{i(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges to some  $x \in X$ . We claim the original net also converges to this  $x$ . Indeed, let  $\epsilon > 0$  and choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $d(x_{i(n)}, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . By choosing a larger  $N$  if necessary, we may assume  $\frac{1}{N} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Then for any  $i \geq i(N)$  we have

$$d(x_i, x) \leq d(x_i, x_{i(N)}) + d(x_{i(N)}, x) < \frac{1}{N} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq \epsilon.$$

Hence the  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  converges to  $x$ .  $\square$

**Remark 2.10.** When  $(X, d)$  is a metric space, any Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset X$  is bounded. Indeed, let  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  be such that  $d(x_n, x_m) \leq 1$  for all  $n, m \geq N$ . Then setting  $R := \max\{d(x_1, x_N), \dots, d(x_{N-1}, x_N), 1\}$ , we have  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset B(x_N, R)$ . This same argument does **not** work for nets. We can still find  $i_0 \in I$  such that  $d(x_i, x_j) \leq 1$  for all  $i, j \geq i_0$ , but then there are not necessarily finitely many  $i \leq i_0$ . For example, the net  $(e^{-t})_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$  to zero but is not bounded.

### 3 Subnets

*Subnets* are the analogue of subsequences, though they are a bit more subtle.

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  be a net in a topological space. Then  $(y_j)_{j \in J}$  is a **subnet** of  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  if there exists a map  $\sigma: J \rightarrow I$  such that

- (i)  $x_{\sigma(j)} = y_j$  for all  $j \in J$ ;
- (ii) if  $j_1 \leq j_2$  then  $\sigma(j_1) \leq \sigma(j_2)$  (monotone);
- (iii) for any  $i \in I$  there exists  $j \in J$  such that  $\sigma(j) \geq i$  (final).

**Example 3.2.** For a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , any subsequence  $(x_{n_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a subnet where  $\sigma(k) = n_k$ . However, because we only require the map  $\sigma$  to be monotone (rather than strictly monotone) there are subnets of the sequence which are **not** subsequences. For example,  $(x_1, x_1, x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$  is a valid subnet, even though it is not a valid subsequence.

**Proposition 3.3.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space. If a net  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset X$  converges, then every subnet converges to the same limit.*

*Proof.* Let  $x := \lim_i x_i$ . Let  $(y_j)_{j \in J}$  be a subnet with monotone final map  $\sigma: J \rightarrow I$ . Let  $U \subset X$  be an open subset containing  $x$ . Then there exists  $i_0 \in I$  such that  $x_i \in U$  for all  $i \geq i_0$ . By finality there exists  $j_0 \in J$  such that  $\sigma(j_0) \geq i_0$ . Thus by monotonicity we for all  $j \geq j_0$  that  $\sigma(j) \geq \sigma(j_0) \geq i_0$  and hence  $y_j = x_{\sigma(j)} \in U$ . That is,  $(y_j)_{j \in J}$  converges to  $x$ .  $\square$

Finally, we conclude this note by characterizing compactness in terms of convergent subnets. This is the analogue of the fact that in a metric space a set is compact if and only if every sequence in it has a convergent subsequence (which is sometimes called being sequentially compact).

**Proposition 3.4.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then  $K \subset X$  is compact if and only if every net  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset K$  has a convergent subnet.*

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ): Let  $K$  be a compact. We recall that it has the finite intersection property: if  $\{C_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a collection of closed subsets of  $K$  satisfying  $\bigcap_{i \in F} C_i \neq \emptyset$  for any finite subset  $F \subset I$ , then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} C_i \neq \emptyset$ . Indeed, otherwise  $\{C_i^c\}_{i \in I}$  is an open cover for  $K$  with no finite subcover.

Now, let  $(x_i)_{i \in I} \subset K$  be a net. Define  $C_i := \overline{\{x_j : j \geq i\}}$ . Then for  $F \subset I$  finite, we can find  $j \geq i$  for each  $i \in F$  and so

$$x_j \in \bigcap_{i \in F} C_i \neq \emptyset$$

By the finite intersection property we therefore have  $\bigcap_{i \in I} C_i \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $y$  be an element of this set. Then for every  $i \in I$ ,  $y \in C_i$  which means for every neighborhood  $U$  of  $y$ ,  $U \cap \{x_j : j \geq i\} \neq \emptyset$ . That is, for every  $i \in I$  and every neighborhood  $U$ , there exists  $j \geq i$  such that  $x_j \in U$ . Set  $y_{(U,j)} := x_j$ . Then  $(y_{(U,j)})$  is a net (where  $(U,j) \leq (U',j')$  means  $U \supset U'$  and  $j \leq j'$ ), which converges to  $y$ . Defining  $\sigma(U,j) := j$  yields a monotone final map and so  $(y_{(U,j)})$  is a (convergent) subnet of  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ): Towards a contradiction, let  $\{U_i : i \in I\}$  be an open cover of  $K$  with no finite subcover. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the collection of finite subsets of  $I$ , which we make into a directed set by ordering by inclusion. For each  $F \in \mathcal{F}$  let  $x_F$  be any point in  $K \setminus \bigcup_{i \in F} U_i$  (which exists by virtue of there being no finite subcover). Then  $(x_F)_{F \in \mathcal{F}}$  is a net and consequently has a convergent subnet  $(x_{\sigma(j)})_{j \in J}$ , say with limit  $x$ . Then  $x \in U_i$  for some  $i \in I$  and consequently there is  $j_0 \in J$  such that  $x_{\sigma(j)} \in U_i$  for all  $j \geq j_0$ . Let  $j_1 \in J$  be such that  $\sigma(j_1) \geq \{i\} \in \mathcal{F}$ . Then there exists  $j \geq j_1$  and  $j \geq j_0$ . For this  $j$  we have  $x_{\sigma(j)} \in U_i$  but  $\sigma(j) \geq \sigma(j_1) \geq \{i\}$  implies  $x_{\sigma(j)} \notin U_i$ , a contradiction. Thus every open cover of  $K$  has a finite subcover and  $K$  is therefore compact.  $\square$