

Lecture 0: Summary of Topology (Part 2)

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1 Connectedness and Compactness

- **Remark** *Connectedness* and *compactness* are basic *topological properties*. Both of them are defined based on a collection of open subsets.

1. *Connectedness* is a **global topological property**: a topological space is *connected* if it cannot be partitioned by two *disjoint nonempty open* subsets. *Connectedness* reveals the information of *entire space not just within a neighborhood*. *Connectedness* is *compatible* with the *continuity* of functions as it implies *the intermediate value theorem*, which in turn, can be used to construct *inverse function*. Moreover, *connectedness* defines *an equivalence relationship* which allows a *partition* of the space into *components*.
2. *Connectedness* is a **local-to-global topological property**: a topological space is *compact* if every open cover have a finite sub-cover. Using *finite sub-cover*, *local properties* defined *within each neighborhood* can be *generalized globally* to entire space. Concept of functions that are closely related to compactness is *the uniform continuity* and *the maximum value theorem*. The compactness allows us to drop dependency on each individual point x .

Compared to *connectedness*, *compactness* is usually a **strong condition** on the topological space.

1.1 Connected Spaces

1.1.1 Definitions

- **Definition** (*Separation and Connectedness*)

Let X be a topological space. A *separation* of X is a pair U, V of *disjoint nonempty open subsets* of X whose union is X .

The space X is said to be *connected* if there *does not exist* a separation of X .

- **Definition** Equivalently, X is *connected* if and only if the only subsets of X that are *both open and closed* are \emptyset and X itself.

- **Remark** (*Proof of Connectedness*)

As the definition suggests, the proof of connectedness is done *by contradiction*. One first assume that the set X has a *separation*; it can be separated into two *disjoint nonempty open* sets such that $X = A \cup B$. Then we proof by contradiction using *existing connectedness conditions* and the *property of open subsets (basis, continuity etc.)*.

- **Remark** *Connectedness* is obviously a *topological property*, since it is formulated entirely in terms of *the collection of open sets* of X .

Said differently, if X is *connected*, so is any space *homeomorphic* to X .

- **Lemma 1.1** (*Separation and Connected Subspace*) [Munkres, 2000]

If Y is a *subspace* of X , a *separation* of Y is a pair of disjoint nonempty sets A and B whose union is Y , *neither* of which contains a *limit point* of the other. The space Y is *connected* if there exists no separation of Y .

- **Example (*Indiscrete Topology is Connected*)**

Let X denote a two-point space in *the indiscrete topology*. Obviously there is *no separation* of X , so X is *connected*.

- **Example (\mathbb{Q} is Not Connected)**

The *rational*s \mathbb{Q} are **not connected**. Indeed, *the only connected subspaces* of \mathbb{Q} are the *one-point sets*: If Y is a subspace of \mathbb{Q} containing two points p and q , one can choose an *irrational number* a lying between p and q , and write Y as the union of the open sets

$$Y \cap (-\infty, a) \text{ and } Y \cap (a, +\infty).$$

- **Lemma 1.2** *If the sets C and D form a **separation** of X , and if Y is a **connected** subspace of X , then Y lies **entirely within** either C or D .*

- **Proposition 1.3 (*Connectedness by Union*)** [Munkres, 2000]

*The **union** of a collection of connected subspaces of X that **have a point in common** is connected.*

- **Proposition 1.4 (*Connectedness by Closure*)**[Munkres, 2000]

Let A be a connected subspace of X . If $A \subseteq B \subseteq \bar{A}$, then B is also connected.

- **Remark** If B is formed by *adjoining* to the **connected** subspace A some or all of its **limit points**, then B is connected.

- **Proposition 1.5 (*Connectedness by Continuity*)** [Munkres, 2000]

*The **image** of a connected space under a **continuous** map is connected.*

- **Proposition 1.6 (*Connectedness by Finite Product*)** [Munkres, 2000]

*A **finite** cartesian product of connected spaces is connected.*

- **Remark** Countable infinite product of connected spaces **may not be connected**. It depends on the **topology** of the product space.

- **Example (\mathbb{R}^ω is Not Connected under Box Topology)**

Consider the cartesian product \mathbb{R}^ω in *the box topology*. We can write \mathbb{R}^ω as the union of the set A consisting of all **bounded** sequences of real numbers, and the set B of all **unbounded** sequences. These sets are **disjoint**, and each is **open** in the box topology.

- **Example (\mathbb{R}^ω is Connected under Product Topology)**

Consider the cartesian product \mathbb{R}^ω in *the product topology*. Let $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ denote the **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^ω consisting of all sequences $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ such that $x_i = 0$ for $i > n$. The space $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is clearly **homeomorphic** to \mathbb{R}^n , so that it is **connected**. It follows that the space \mathbb{R}^ω that is the **union** of the spaces $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is **connected**, for these spaces have the point $0 = (0, 0, \dots)$ in common. We show that the **closure** of \mathbb{R}^ω equals all of \mathbb{R}^ω , from which it follows that \mathbb{R}^ω is **connected** as well.

1.1.2 Connected Subspaces of Real Line

- **Definition (*Linear Continuum*)**

A **simply ordered set** L having more than one element is called a **linear continuum** if the following hold:

1. L has the *least upper bound property*.

2. If $x < y$, there exists z such that $x < z < y$.

- **Proposition 1.7 (*Linear Continuum is Connected*)** [Munkres, 2000]

If L is a *linear continuum* in the *order topology*, then L is *connected*, and so are *intervals* and *rays* in L .

- **Corollary 1.8 (\mathbb{R} is Connected)**

The real line \mathbb{R} is *connected* and so are *intervals* and *rays* in \mathbb{R} .

- **Theorem 1.9 (*Intermediate Value Theorem*)**. [Munkres, 2000]

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a *continuous* map, where X is a *connected* space and Y is an ordered set in the *order topology*. If a and b are two points of X and if r is a point of Y lying between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then there *exists* a point c of X such that $f(c) = r$.

- **Definition (*Path Connectedness*)**

Given points x and y of the space X , a *path* in X from x to y is a *continuous* map $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ of some *closed interval* in the real line into X , such that $f(a) = x$ and $f(b) = y$.

A space X is said to be *path connected* if *every pair* of points of X can be *joined by a path* in X .

- **Remark** It is easy to see that *a path-connected space X is connected* since $X = f([a, b])$ is the image of connected space under continuous function f . The *converse* is *not true*, i.e. $\text{connected} \not\Rightarrow \text{path-connected}$.

- **Example (*Punctured Euclidean Space $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is Path Connected*)**

Define *punctured euclidean space* to be the space $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, where 0 is the origin in \mathbb{R}^n . If $n > 1$, this space is *path connected*: Given x and y different from 0 , we can join x and y by the *straight-line path* between them if that path does not go through the origin. Otherwise, we can choose a point z *not on the line joining x and y* , and take the *broken-line path* from x to z , and then from z to y .

- **Example (*Common Path-Connected Spaces*)**

The following spaces are *path-connected*:

1. *The unit ball* $\mathbb{B}^n = \{x : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ is *path-connected*;

2. *The unit sphere* \mathbb{S}^{n-1} in \mathbb{R}^n by the equation $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} = \{x : \|x\| = 1\}$ is *path connected*. For the map $g : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ defined by $g(x) = x/\|x\|$ is *continuous* and *surjective*; and the continuous image of path connected space is path connected.

- **Example *The ordered square I_o^2*** (i.e. $I \times I$ under *dictionary order topology*) is *connected* but *not path connected*.

- **Example *The topologist's sine curve*** is defined as the *closure* \bar{S} of the set

$$S = \{(x, \sin(1/x)) : 0 < x \leq 1\}.$$

\bar{S} is *connected* but *not path-connected*.

- **Remark** Recall that a topological space X is

– *connected* if there do not exist two *disjoint, nonempty, open* subsets of X whose union is X ;

- **path-connected** if every pair of points in X can be *joined by a path* in X , and
- ***locally (path-)connected*** if X has a *basis of (path-)connected open subsets*.

We have ***path-connected*** \Rightarrow ***connected*** but ***connected*** $\not\Rightarrow$ ***locally-connected***.

1.1.3 Components and Local Connectedness

- Given an arbitrary space X , there is a natural way to ***break it up into pieces*** that are connected (or path connected).

Definition (*Connected Component as Equivalence Class*)

Given X , define an *equivalence relation* on X by setting $x \sim y$ if there is a ***connected subspace*** of X containing *both* x and y . The *equivalence classes* are called ***the components*** (or the **connected components**) of X .

- **Proposition 1.10 (*Characterization of Connected Components*)**

The components of X are ***connected disjoint subspaces*** of X whose union is X , such that each nonempty ***connected*** subspace of X ***intersects only one*** of them.

- **Definition (*Path Component*)**

We define another *equivalence relation* on the space X by defining $x \sim y$ if there is a *path* in X from x to y . The *equivalence classes* are called **the path components** of X .

- **Proposition 1.11 (*Characterization of Path Components*)**

The path components of X are ***path-connected disjoint subspaces*** of X whose union is X , such that each nonempty ***path-connected*** subspace of X ***intersects only one*** of them.

- **Example** Each connected component of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} consists of a *single point*. ***None*** of the components of \mathbb{Q} are ***open*** in \mathbb{Q} .
- **Example** The “***topologists sine curve*** \bar{S} of the preceding section is a space that has a ***single component*** (since it is *connected*) and ***two path components***. One path component is the curve S and the other is *the vertical interval* $V = 0 \times [-1, 1]$. Note that S is ***open*** in \bar{S} but ***not closed***, while V is ***closed*** but ***not open***.

If one forms a space from \bar{S} by *deleting* all points of V having *rational second coordinate*, one obtains a space that has ***only one component*** but ***uncountably many path components***.

- **Remark** From the example of topologist’s sine curve, we see that the *connectedness* *does not imply the path-connectedness* since ***neither of two path components*** are ***both open and closed***. Note that the vertical line is the set of ***limit points*** of the curve $\sin(1/x)$ but not every sequence approaches to the vertical curve is convergent.
- **Example** See some of examples below:
 1. The intervals and rays in \mathbb{R} are ***both connected and locally connected***.
 2. The subspace $[1, 0) \cup (0, 1]$ of \mathbb{R} is ***not connected***, but it is ***locally connected***.
 3. The rationals \mathbb{Q} are ***neither connected nor locally connected***.
 4. The *topologists sine curve* is ***connected*** but ***not locally connected***.

- **Proposition 1.12** (*Characterization of Locally Connectedness*) [Munkres, 2000]
A space X is locally connected **if and only if** for every open set U of X , each **component** of U is **open** in X .
- **Proposition 1.13** (*Characterization of Locally Path-Connectedness*) [Munkres, 2000]
A space X is locally path connected **if and only if** for every open set U of X , each **path component** of U is **open** in X .
- **Proposition 1.14** (*Relationship between Components and Path Components*)
If X is a topological space, each **path component** of X lies in a **component** of X . If X is **locally path connected**, then the **components** and the **path components** of X are the same.

1.2 Compact Spaces

Remark (*Metric Space and Compact Hausdorff Space*)

Two of the most well-behaved classes of spaces to deal with in mathematics are *the metrizable spaces* and *the compact Hausdorff spaces*.

1. Metrizable space (X, d) :

- **subspace** of metrizable space is *metrizable*;
- **compact subspace** of metric space is **bounded** in that metric and is **closed**;
- every metrizable space is **normal** (T_4);
- **compactness** = **sequential compactness** = **limit point compactness**;
- **sequence lemma**: for $A \subset X$, $x \in \bar{A}$ if and only if there exists a sequence of points in A that converges to x . (\Rightarrow need X being metric space);
- f is **continuous** at x if and only if $x_n \rightarrow x$ leads to $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ (\Leftarrow part holds for metric space)
- **uniform limit theorem**: If the range of f_n is a metric space and f_n are continuous, then $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly means that f is a continuous function.
- **uniform continuity theorem**: if f is a continuous map between two metric spaces, and the domain is **compact**, then f is **uniformly continuous**.
- every metric space is **first-countable**.

2. Compact Hausdorff Space:

- **subspace** of compact Hausdorff space is compact Hausdorff if and only if it is **closed**.
- **closed subspace** of compact space is **compact**;
- **compact subspace** of Hausdorff space is **closed**;
- compact Hausdorff space X is **normal** (T_4), thus it is **completely regular**;
- **arbitrary product** of compact (Hausdorff) space is compact (Hausdorff);
- **compactness** \Rightarrow **sequential compactness**;

- **compactness** = **net compactness**, i.e. every *net* has a convergence *subnet*;
- **image** of *compact* space under continuous map f is *compact*;
- **continuous bijection** between two *compact Hausdorff* spaces is a **homeomorphism** (and is a **closed map**);
- **closed graph theorem**: f is **continuous** if and only if its **graph** is **closed**;
- **uncountability**: for *compact Hausdorff* space, if the space has *no isolated points*, then it is *uncountable*;
- if compact Hausdorff space is **second-countable**, then it is **metrizable**.

1.2.1 Definitions

- **Definition (Covering of Set and Open Covering of Topological Set)**

A collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of a space X is said to **cover** X , or to be a **covering** of X , if the union of the elements of \mathcal{A} is equal to X .

It is called an **open covering of X** if its elements are *open subsets* of X .

- **Definition (Compactness)**

A topological space X is said to be **compact** if *every open covering* \mathcal{A} of X contains a **finite subcollection** that also *covers* X .

- **Example (Compactness is a strong condition)**

Consider the following examples that are *connected* by *not compact*:

1. The **real line** \mathbb{R} is **not compact** since the open covering $\mathcal{A} = \{(n, n+2) : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ has no finite sub-covering.
2. The **half interval** $(0, 1]$ is **not compact** since the open covering $\mathcal{A} = \{(1/n, 1] : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ has no finite sub-covering.

- **Example (Finite Set is Compact)**

Any space X containing only **finitely many points** is necessarily **compact**, because in this case *every open covering of X is finite*.

- **Example** The following *subspace* of \mathbb{R} is **compact** but *not connected*:

$$X = \{0\} \cup \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}.$$

- **Definition** If Y is a subspace of X , a collection \mathcal{A} of *subsets of X* is said to **cover** Y if the *union* of its elements *contains* Y .

- **Lemma 1.15 (Subspace Compactness)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let Y be a subspace of X . Then Y is compact if and only if every covering of Y by sets **open in X** contains a finite subcollection covering Y .

- **Remark** A **compact subset** of a topological space is one that is a compact space in the *subspace topology*.

- **Proposition 1.16 (Compactness by Closed Subspace)** [Munkres, 2000]

Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.

- **Proposition 1.17** (*Compact Subspace + Hausdorff \Rightarrow Closedness*) [Munkres, 2000]
Every **compact** subspace of a **Hausdorff** space is **closed**.
- **Remark** (*Compactness \Rightarrow Closedness*)
Since the *Hausdorff condition is mild*, we can safely say that being *compact* implies that being *closed*.
- **Exercise 1.18** (*Compact Subspace in Metric Space*)
Show that every **compact subspace** of a **metric space** is **bounded** in that **metric** and is **closed**. Find a metric space in which not every closed bounded subspace is compact.
- **Proposition 1.19** If Y is a **compact subspace** of the **Hausdorff** space X and x_0 is not in Y , then there exist **disjoint open** sets U and V of X containing x_0 and Y , respectively.
- **Remark** To prove the compact subspace is closed, one need the *Hausdorff condition*.
- **Proposition 1.20** (*Compactness by Continuity*) [Munkres, 2000]
The **image** of a **compact** space under a **continuous** map is compact.
- **Theorem 1.21** (*Closed Graph Theorem*) [Reed and Simon, 1980, Munkres, 2000]
Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$; let Y be **compact Hausdorff**. Then f is **continuous if and only if the graph** of f ,

$$G(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in X\},$$

is **closed** in $X \times Y$.

- **Theorem 1.22** (*Homeomorphism by Domain Compactness*) [Munkres, 2000]
Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a **bijective continuous** function. If X is **compact** and Y is **Hausdorff**, then f is a **homeomorphism**.
- **Proposition 1.23** (*Compactness by Finite Product*) [Munkres, 2000]
The product of **finitely** many compact spaces is compact.
- **Lemma 1.24** (*The Tube Lemma*). [Munkres, 2000]
Consider the product space $X \times Y$, where Y is **compact**. If N is an open set of $X \times Y$ containing the **slice** $x_0 \times Y$ of $X \times Y$, then N contains some **tube** $W \times Y$ about $x_0 \times Y$, where W is a **neighborhood** of x_0 in X .
- **Remark** (*Compactness by Infinite Product*)
Unlike the *connectedness property*, which may not hold for infinite product space, the *infinite product of compact space is indeed compact*. This is called **the Tychonoff theorem**,
- To prove *compactness*, the following property is useful:

Definition (*Finite Intersection Property*)

A collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of X is said to have **the finite intersection property** if for every finite subcollection

$$\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$$

of \mathcal{C} , the **intersection** $C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_n$ is **nonempty**.

- **Proposition 1.25** (*Equivalent Definition of Compactness*) [Munkres, 2000]
Let X be a topological space. Then X is **compact if and only if** for every collection \mathcal{C} of

closed sets in X having **the finite intersection property**, the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathcal{C} is **nonempty**.

Proof: Given a collection \mathcal{A} of subsets of X , let

$$\mathcal{C} = \{X \setminus A : A \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

be the collection of their *complements*. Then the following statements hold:

1. \mathcal{A} is a collection of open sets if and only if \mathcal{C} is a collection of closed sets.
2. The collection \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if the *intersection* $\bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathcal{C} is **empty**.
3. The **finite subcollection** $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$ of \mathcal{A} covers X if and only if the **intersection** of the corresponding elements $C_i = X \setminus A_i$ of \mathcal{C} is **empty**.

The proof of the theorem now proceeds in two easy steps: taking the **contrapositive** (of the theorem), and then the **complement** (of the sets)!

There are two equivalent statements regarding the compactness of set:

1. “Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open subsets of X , if \mathcal{A} covers X , then some finite subcollection of \mathcal{A} covers X .”
2. “Given any collection \mathcal{A} of open sets, if **no finite subcollection** of \mathcal{A} covers X , then \mathcal{A} **does not cover** X .”
3. \Rightarrow “Given any collection \mathcal{C} of **closed sets**, if **every finite intersection** of elements of \mathcal{C} is **nonempty**, then the **intersection of all the elements** of \mathcal{C} is **nonempty**”

• **Remark (Nested Sequence of Closed Sets in Compact Space)**

A special case of this proposition occurs when we have a **nested sequence** $C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \dots \supseteq C_n \supseteq \dots$ of **closed sets** in a **compact space** X .

If each of the sets C_n is nonempty, then the collection $\mathcal{C} = \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$ automatically has **the finite intersection property**. Then the intersection

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} C_n$$

is nonempty.

1.2.2 Compact Subspaces of the Real Line

• **Theorem 1.26** [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a **simply ordered set** having the **least upper bound property**. In the order topology, each **closed interval** in X is **compact**.

• **Corollary 1.27 (Closed Interval in Real Line is Compact)**[Munkres, 2000]

Every **closed interval** in \mathbb{R} is **compact**.

• **Proposition 1.28 (Closed and Bounded in Euclidean Metric = Compact)**[Munkres, 2000]

A subspace A of \mathbb{R}^n is **compact** if and only if it is **closed** and is **bounded** in the **euclidean metric** d or the **square metric** ρ

- **Theorem 1.29 (Extreme Value Theorem).** [Munkres, 2000]

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be **continuous**, where Y is an **ordered set** in the order topology. If X is **compact**, then there exist points c and d in X such that $f(c) \leq f(x) \leq f(d)$ for every $x \in X$.

- **Definition (Distance to Subset)**

Let (X, d) be a **metric space**; let A be a nonempty subset of X . For each $x \in X$, we define **the distance from x to A** by the equation

$$d(x, A) = \inf \{d(x, a) : a \in A\}.$$

- **Remark** The distance to subset $d(x : A)$ is a **continuous** function with respect to the first argument.
- **Remark** Recall that the **diameter** of a **bounded subset** A of a **metric space** (X, d) is the number

$$\sup \{d(a_1, a_2) : a_1, a_2 \in A\}.$$

- **Lemma 1.30 (The Lebesgue Number Lemma).** [Munkres, 2000]

Let \mathcal{A} be an **open covering** of the **metric space** (X, d) . If X is **compact**, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for each subset of X having **diameter less than δ** , there exists an element of \mathcal{A} containing it.

The number δ is called a **Lebesgue number** for the covering \mathcal{A} .

- **Remark The Lebesgue number** is a **threshold on diameter of subset** so that all of subsets with diameter less than this threshold is fully contained in one of the open sets in the covering of X . The *existence* of this number relies on the **compactness** of domain X .

This number is used in ϵ - δ **condition** to prove *the uniform continuity*.

- **Definition (Uniform Continuity)**

A function $f : (X, d_X) \rightarrow (Y, d_Y)$ is said to be **uniformly continuous** if given $\epsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for every pair of points x_0, x_1 of X ,

$$d_X(x_0, x_1) < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad d_Y(f(x_0), f(x_1)) < \epsilon.$$

- **Theorem 1.31 (Uniform Continuity Theorem).** [Munkres, 2000]

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a **continuous** map of the **compact metric space** (X, d_X) to the **metric space** (Y, d_Y) . Then f is **uniformly continuous**.

- **Remark**

$$f \text{ continuous} + \text{compact domain} \Rightarrow f \text{ uniformly continuous}$$

- **Definition** If X is a space, a point x of X is said to be **an isolated point** of X if the **one-point set** $\{x\}$ is **open** in X .

- **Theorem 1.32 (Uncountability in Compact Hausdorff Space)** [Munkres, 2000]
Let X be a nonempty **compact Hausdorff space**. If X has **no isolated points**, then X is **uncountable**.
- **Corollary 1.33** [Munkres, 2000]
Every **closed interval** in \mathbb{R} is **uncountable**.
- **Exercise 1.34 (Cantor Set)** [Munkres, 2000]
Let A_0 be the **closed interval** $[0, 1]$ in \mathbb{R} . Let A_1 be the set obtained from A_0 by **deleting** its “**middle third** $(1/3, 2/3)$ ”. Let A_2 be the set obtained from A_1 by deleting its “**middle thirds** $(1/9, 2/9)$ and $(7/9, 8/9)$ ”. In general, define A_n by the equation

$$A_n = A_{n-1} \setminus \left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1+3k}{3^n}, \frac{2+3k}{3^n} \right) \right).$$

The **intersection**

$$C = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} A_n$$

is called **the Cantor set**; it is a **subspace** of $[0, 1]$.

1. Show that C is **totally disconnected**.
2. Show that C is **compact**.
3. Show that each set A_n is a **union** of **finitely** many disjoint **closed intervals** of length $1/3^n$; and show that the **end points** of these intervals lie in C .
4. Show that C has **no isolated points**.
5. Conclude that C is **uncountable**.

1.2.3 Limit Point Compactness

- **Definition (Limit Point Compactness)**
A space X is said to be **limit point compact** if every infinite subset of X has a **limit point**.
- **Proposition 1.35 (Compactness \Rightarrow Limit Point Compactness)** [Munkres, 2000]
Compactness implies limit point compactness, but not conversely.
- **Example (Limit Point Compactness \nRightarrow Compactness)**
Let Y consist of **two points**; give Y the topology consisting of Y and the empty set. Then the space $X = \mathbb{Z}_+ \times Y$ is **limit point compact**, for **every nonempty subset** of X has a **limit point**. It is **not compact**, for the covering of X by the open sets $U_n = \{n\} \times Y$ has **no finite subcollection covering** X . ■
- **Definition (Sequential Compactness)**
Let X be a topological space. If (x_n) is a **sequence** of points of X , and if

$$n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_i < \dots$$

is an increasing sequence of positive integers, then the sequence (y_i) defined by setting $y_i = x_{n_i}$ is called a **subsequence** of the sequence (x_n) .

The space X is said to be sequentially compact if every sequence of points of X has a convergent subsequence.

- **Theorem 1.36** (*Equivalent Definitions of Compactness in Metric Space*) [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a metrizable space. Then the following are equivalent:

1. X is compact.
2. X is limit point compact.
3. X is sequentially compact.

1.2.4 Local Compactness

- **Definition** (*Local Compactness*)

A space X is said to be locally compact at x if there is some compact subspace C of X that contains a neighborhood of x .

If X is locally compact at each of its points, X is said simply to be locally compact.

- **Example** For the one-dimensional space:

1. The real line \mathbb{R} is **locally compact**. The point x lies in some interval (a, b) , which in turn is contained in the compact subspace $[a, b]$.
2. The subspace \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is **not locally compact**.

- **Example** For product space of \mathbb{R} :

1. The **finite dimensional space** \mathbb{R}^n is **locally compact**; the point x lies in some basis element $(a_1, b_1) \times \dots \times (a_n, b_n)$, which in turn lies in the compact subspace $[a_1, b_1] \times \dots \times [a_n, b_n]$.
2. The **countable infinite dimensional space** \mathbb{R}^ω is **not locally compact**; none of its basis elements are contained in compact subspaces. For if

$$B = (a_1, b_1) \times \dots \times (a_n, b_n) \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots$$

were contained in a compact subspace, then its **closure**

$$\bar{B} = [a_1, b_1] \times \dots \times [a_n, b_n] \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots$$

would be **compact**, which it is not.

- **Example** (*Simply Ordered Set with Least Upper Bound Property*)

Every simply ordered set X having the least upper bound property is **locally compact**: Given a basis element for X , it is contained in a closed interval in X , which is compact.

- **Example** (*Manifold*) [Lee, 2018]

Every topological manifold is **locally compact Hausdorff**.

Thus every smooth manifold is **locally compact Hausdorff**.

- **Definition** (*Precompactness*)

A subset of X is said to be precompact in X if its closure in X is **compact**.

- If X is not a compact Hausdorff space, then under what conditions is X homeomorphic with a **subspace** of a compact Hausdorff space ?

Theorem 1.37 (Unique One-Point Compactification) [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a space. Then X is **locally compact Hausdorff** if and only if there exists a space Y satisfying the following conditions:

1. X is a subspace of Y .
2. The set $Y \setminus X$ consists of a **single point** (which is the limit point of X).
3. Y is a **compact Hausdorff** space.

If Y and Y' are two spaces satisfying these conditions, then there is a **homeomorphism** of Y with Y' that equals the **identity map** on X .

- **Definition (One-Point Compactification)**

If Y is a **compact Hausdorff** space and X is a proper subspace of Y whose **closure** equals Y , then Y is said to be a **compactification** of X .

If $Y \setminus X$ equals a single point, then Y is called **the one-point compactification** of X .

- **Remark (Locally Compact Hausdorff = Existence of Unique One-Point Compactification)**

X has a **one-point compactification** Y if and only if X is a **locally compact Hausdorff space** that is not itself compact.

We speak of Y as “**the**” one-point compactification because Y is **uniquely** determined up to a homeomorphism.

- **Example The one-point compactification** of the real line \mathbb{R} is **homeomorphic** with the **circle** \mathbb{S}^1 .

Similarly, **the one-point compactification** of \mathbb{R}^2 is **homeomorphic** to the **sphere** \mathbb{S}^2 .

- **Proposition 1.38 (Locally Compact Hausdorff = Precompact Basis)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a **Hausdorff** space. Then X is **locally compact** if and only if given x in X , and given a neighborhood U of x , there is a neighborhood V of x such that \bar{V} is **compact** and $\bar{V} \subseteq U$.

- **Corollary 1.39 (Closed or Open Subspace)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be locally compact Hausdorff; let A be a subspace of X . If A is **closed** in X or **open** in X , then A is locally compact.

- **Corollary 1.40** [Munkres, 2000]

A space X is **homeomorphic** to an **open** subspace of a **compact Hausdorff** space if and only if X is **locally compact Hausdorff**.

- **Remark** Locally Compact Hausdorff = Open Subspace of Compact Hausdorff

- **Theorem 1.41** [Treves, 2016]

Every locally compact Hausdorff topological vector space is **finite-dimensional**.

- **Remark (Equivalent Definition of Locally Compact Hausdorff Space)**

For a **Hausdorff space** X , the following are **equivalent**:

1. X is *locally compact*.
2. Each point of X has a *precompact* neighborhood.
3. X has a basis of *precompact* open subsets.

1.3 The Tychonoff Theorem

- **Lemma 1.42** (*Existence of Maximal Collection with Finite Intersection Property*)
[Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a set; let \mathcal{A} be a collection of subsets of X having the **finite intersection property**. Then there is a collection \mathcal{D} of subsets of X such that \mathcal{D} **contains** \mathcal{A} , and \mathcal{D} has the finite intersection property, and no collection of subsets of X that properly contains \mathcal{D} has this property.

[Hint: apply Zorn's Lemma to the collection of collections of subsets with finite intersection property]

- **Definition** We often say that a collection \mathcal{D} satisfying the conclusion of this theorem is **maximal with respect to the finite intersection property**.
- **Lemma 1.43** (*Elements of Maximal Collection with Finite Intersection Property*)
[Munkres, 2000]
Let X be a set; let \mathcal{D} be a collection of subsets of X that is **maximal with respect to the finite intersection property**. Then:

1. Any **finite intersection of elements of \mathcal{D}** is an element of \mathcal{D} .
2. If A is a subset of X that **intersects every element of \mathcal{D}** , then A is an element of \mathcal{D} .

- **Theorem 1.44** (*Tychonoff Theorem*). [Munkres, 2000]
An arbitrary product of compact spaces is **compact** in the product topology.

1.4 Nets and Convergence in Topological Space

- **Definition** (*Directed System of Index Set*)

A directed system is an index set I together with an **ordering** \prec which satisfies:

1. If $\alpha, \beta \in I$ then there exists $\gamma \in I$ so that $\gamma \succ \alpha$ and $\gamma \succ \beta$.
2. \prec is a **partial ordering**.

- **Definition** A subset K of I is said to be cofinal in I if for each $\alpha \in I$, there exists $\beta \in K$ such that $\alpha \preceq \beta$.
- **Proposition 1.45** If I is a directed system, and K is cofinal in I , then K is a directed system.
- **Definition** (*Net*)
A net in a topological space X is a mapping from a **directed system** I to X ; we denote it by $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$
- **Remark** (*Net vs. Sequence*)

Net is a generalization and abstraction of **sequence**. The directed system I is **not necessarily countable**. So $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ may not be a countable sequence. A **sequence** is a net with countable index set $I \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. The directed system can be any set e.g. a graph.

- **Definition** If $P(\alpha)$ is a **proposition** depending on an **index** α in a **directed set** I we say $P(\alpha)$ is eventually true if there is a β in I with $P(\alpha)$ true if for all $\alpha \succ \beta$.

We say $P(\alpha)$ is frequently true if it is **not eventually false**, that is, if for any β there exists an $\alpha \succ \beta$ with $P(\alpha)$ true.

- **Definition (Convergence)**

A **net** $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in a topological space X is said to **converge** to a point $x \in X$ (written $x_\alpha \rightarrow x$) if for **any neighborhood** N of x , **there exists** a $\beta \in I$ so that $x_\alpha \in N$ if $\alpha \succeq \beta$. The point x that being converged to is called the limit point of x_α .

Note that if $x_\alpha \rightarrow x$, then x_α is **eventually in all neighborhoods of** x . If x_α is **frequently in any neighborhood of** x , we say that x is a cluster point of x_α .

- **Remark** This definition generalizes the ϵ - δ language for convergence in metric space. Notice that the notions of *limit* and *cluster point* generalize the same notions for sequences in a metric space..

- **Proposition 1.46 (Net Lemma)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]

Let A be a set in a topological space X . Then, a point $x \in \bar{A}$, the **closure** of A **if and only if** there is a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ with $x_\alpha \in A$, So that $x_\alpha \rightarrow x$.

- **Proposition 1.47** [Munkres, 2000]

1. (**Continuous Function**): A function f from a topological space X to a topological space Y is **continuous** if and only if for **every convergent net** $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ **in** X , with $x_\alpha \rightarrow x$, the net $\{f(x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ **converges in** Y to $f(x)$.
2. (**Uniqueness of Limit Point for Hausdorff Space**): Let X be a **Hausdorff space**. Then a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X can have **at most one limit**; that is, if $x_\alpha \rightarrow x$ and $x_\alpha \rightarrow y$, then $x = y$.

- **Definition** A net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a **subnet** of a net $\{y_\beta\}_{\beta \in J}$ if and only if there is a function $F : I \rightarrow J$ such that

1. $x_\alpha = y_{F(\alpha)}$ for each $\alpha \in I$.
2. For all $\beta' \in J$, there is an $\alpha' \in I$ such that $\alpha \succ \alpha'$ implies $F(\alpha) \succ \beta'$ (that is, $F(\alpha)$ is **eventually larger than any fixed** $\beta \in J \Rightarrow F(I)$ is **cofinal in** J).

- **Proposition 1.48** A point x in a topological space X is a **cluster point** of a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ if and only if **some subnet** of $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ **converges** to x .

- **Theorem 1.49 (The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem)** [Reed and Simon, 1980, Munkres, 2000]

A space X is **compact** if and only if every net in X has a convergent subnet.

Proof: To prove the implication \Rightarrow , let $B_\alpha = \{x_\beta : \alpha \preceq \beta\}$ and show that $\{B_\alpha\}$ has **the finite intersection property**.

To prove \Leftarrow , let \mathcal{A} be a collection of **closed sets** having the **finite intersection property**, and

let \mathcal{B} be the collection of *all finite intersections* of elements of \mathcal{A} , **partially ordered** by *reverse inclusion*.

- **Remark** (*Compactness via Generalized Sequential Compactness*)

By *generalization* of *sequences* \Rightarrow *nets*, we obtain a *generalization* of the result of *sequential compactness in metric space* to *compactness in general topological space*.

If the **first countability axiom** is satisfied, we can use *subsequence* and *sequence* in place of *subnet* and *net*.

2 Countability and The Separation Axioms

- **Remark** (*Countability*)

A topological space X is said to be

1. **first-countable** if there is a *countable neighborhood basis* at each point,
2. **second-countable** if there is a *countable basis* for its topology.

- **Remark** (*The Separation Axioms*)

A topological space is called a

1. **T_1 space**: every pair of *disjoint one-point sets* can be *separated by one open set, which contains only one of the singular pair*.

It is equivalent to say that *every one point set is closed*.

2. **Hausdorff** (or T_2): every pair of *disjoint one-point sets* can be *separated by two disjoint open sets, each containing one of the singular sets, respectively*.
3. **regular** (or T_3): it is T_1 and every pair of *disjoint one-point set and closed set* can be *separated by two disjoint open sets, each containing one of the pair (singular set and closed set), respectively*.

It is equivalent to say that each point has *closed neighborhood basis*.

4. **normal** (or T_4) if and only if it is T_1 and every pair of *disjoint closed sets* can be *separated by two disjoint open sets, each containing one of the closed sets, respectively*.

- **Remark** The *connectedness* and *compactness* are both *global topological properties* of space;

On the other hand, *the countability axioms* and *the separation axioms* describes *the local topological properties* of the space.

- **Remark** Both *the countability axioms* and *the separation axioms* arise from deeper study of topology itself.

1. **first-countable** \Rightarrow if *convergent sequence* is adequate to *detect limit points* of a set.
2. **second-countable** \Rightarrow *separability* (i.e. existence of *countable dense set*); *Lindelöf space* (existence of *countable open subcovering*); *topological manifolds*;

3. **Hausdorff** (T_2) \Rightarrow if *convergent sequence has at most one limit point*
4. **regular** (T_3) \Rightarrow **Urysohn metrization theorem**: if + *second-countable* then *metrizable*
5. **normal** (T_4) \Rightarrow **Urysohn lemma**: if every pair of *disjoint closed sets* in X can be separated by *disjoint open sets*, then each such pair can be *separated by a continuous function*.
 - \Rightarrow **Urysohn metrization theorem**: since *regular* + *second-countable* \Rightarrow *normal*.
 - \Rightarrow **Tietze extension theorem**: any *real-valued continuous function* on *closed subspace* of *normal space* can be extended to the entire space.
 - \Rightarrow **Existence of finite partitions of unity**:

2.1 The Countability Axioms

- **Definition** (**First-Countable**)

A space X is said to have a **countable basis at x** if there is a **countable collection \mathcal{B}** of **neighborhoods** of x such that *each neighborhood of x contains at least one* of the elements of \mathcal{B} .

A space that has a **countable basis at each of its points** is said to satisfy **the first countability axiom**, or to be **first-countable**.

- **Remark** *Every metric space is first-countable.*

- **Proposition 2.1** (**Limit Point Detected by Convergent Sequence**) [Munkres, 2000]
Let X be a topological space.

1. Let A be a subset of X . If there is a sequence of points of A converging to x , then $x \in \bar{A}$; the **converse** holds if X is **first-countable**.
2. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$. If f is continuous, then for every convergent sequence $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X , the sequence $f(x_n)$ converges to $f(x)$. The **converse** holds if X is **first-countable**.

- **Definition** (**Second-Countable**)

If a space X has a **countable basis** for its topology, then X is said to satisfy **the second countability axiom**, or to be **second-countable**.

- **Example** (\mathbb{R})

The real line \mathbb{R} has a **countable basis**, which is the collection of all *open intervals* (a, b) with **rational end points**.

- **Example** (\mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^ω under product topology)

1. The finite dimensional space \mathbb{R}^n has a **countable basis**, which is the collection of all product of intervals with **rational end points**.
2. The countable infinite dimensional space \mathbb{R}^ω has a **countable basis**, which is the collection of all products $\prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_n$, where U_n is an *open interval with rational end points* for **finitely many** values of n , and $U_n = \mathbb{R}$ for all other values of n .

- **Example** (\mathbb{R}^ω under *Uniform Topology Not Second-Countable*)

In the *uniform topology*, \mathbb{R}^ω satisfies the first countability axiom (being metrizable). However, it *does not satisfy the second*.

- **Example** (*Topological Manifolds*)

Definition Suppose M is a *topological space*. We say that M is a *topological manifold* of dimension n or a *topological n -manifold* if it has the following properties:

1. M is a **Hausdorff space**: for every pair of distinct points $p, q \in M$, there are disjoint open subsets $U, V \subseteq M$ such that $p \in U$ and $q \in V$.
2. M is **second-countable**: there exists a **countable basis** for the topology of M .
3. M is **locally Euclidean of dimension n** : each point of M has a neighborhood that is **homeomorphic** to an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

- Both countability axioms are well behaved with respect to the operations of taking subspaces or countable products:

Proposition 2.2 (*Subspaces and Countable Product*) [Munkres, 2000]

A *subspace* of _____

1. a first-countable space is first-countable;
2. a second-countable space is second-countable.

And a **countable product** of _____

1. first-countable spaces is first-countable;
2. second-countable spaces is second-countable.

- **Definition** (*Dense Subset*)

A subset A of a space X is said to be **dense** in X if $\bar{A} = X$. (That is, *every point in X is a limit point of A* .)

- **Definition** (*Separability*)

A topological space X is called **separable** if and only if it has a **countable dense set**.

- **Definition** (*Lindelöf Space*)

A space for which *every open covering* contains a **countable subcovering** is called a **Lindelöf space**.

- **Proposition 2.3** (*Properties of Second-Countability*) [Munkres, 2000]

Suppose that X has a **countable basis**. Then:

1. Every **open covering** of X contains a **countable subcollection** covering X . (X is **Lindelöf space**)
2. There exists a **countable subset** of X that is **dense** in X . (X is **separable**)

- **Proposition 2.4** (*Metric Space Equivalence*) [Munkres, 2000]

Suppose that X is a **metrizable space**. The following statements are equivalent:

1. X has a **countable basis** (second-countable).
2. X has a **countable dense subset** (separable).

3. Every **open covering** of X contains a **countable** subcollection covering X . (**Lindelöf space**).

- **Example (The Product of two Lindelöf Spaces Need Not be Lindelöf)**

The space \mathbb{R}_ℓ is *Lindelöf*, but the product space \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 is not. \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 is called the Sorgenfrey plane.

The space \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 has as basis all sets of the form $[a, b) \times [c, d)$. To show it is not *Lindelöf*, consider the subspace

$$L = \{(x, -x) : x \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

It is easy to check that L is **closed** in \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 . Let us cover \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 by **the open set** $\mathbb{R}_\ell^2 \setminus L$ and by all **basis elements** of the form

$$[a, b) \times [-a, d).$$

Each of these open sets intersects L in **at most one point**. Since L is **uncountable**, no countable subcollection covers \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 . ■

- **Example (The Subspace of Lindelöf Space Need Not be Lindelöf)**

The **ordered square** I_o^2 is **compact**; therefore it is *Lindelöf*, trivially. However, the *subspace* $A = I \times (0, 1)$ is **not Lindelöf**. For A is the union of the disjoint sets $U_x = \{x\} \times (0, 1)$, each of which is open in A . This collection of sets is **uncountable**, and **no proper subcollection covers** A . ■

- **Proposition 2.5 (Compact Metrizable Space)** [Munkres, 2000]

Every **compact metrizable space** X has a countable basis (i.e. **second-countable**).

[Hint: Let \mathcal{A}_n be a finite covering of X by $1/n$ -balls.]

- **Proposition 2.6 (Preservation by Continuity)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be **continuous**.

1. If X is **Lindelöf**, then $f(X)$ is **Lindelöf**;

2. if X has a **countable dense subset**, then $f(X)$ satisfies the same condition.

- **Proposition 2.7 (Preservation by Product)** [Munkres, 2000]

If X is a **countable product** of spaces having countable dense subsets (**separable**), then X has a countable dense subset (**separable**).

- **Proposition 2.8 (Preservation by Continuous Open Map)** [Munkres, 2000]

Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be **continuous open map**. If X satisfies **the first or the second countability axiom**, then $f(X)$ satisfies the same axiom.

2.2 The Separation Axioms

2.2.1 Definitions and Properties

- **Definition (The Separation Axioms)**

1. A topological space is called a T_1 **space** if and only if for all x and y , $x \neq y$, there is an **open set** U with $y \in U$, $x \notin U$.

Equivalently, a space is T_1 if and only if $\{x\}$ is **closed** for each x .

2. A topological space is called **Hausdorff** (or T_2) if and only if for all x and y , $x \neq y$, there are **open sets** U, V such that $x \in U$, $y \in V$, and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.
3. A topological space is called **regular** (or T_3) if and only if it is T_1 and for all x and C , **closed**, with $x \notin C$, there are **open sets** U, V such that $x \in U$, $C \subset V$, and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Equivalently, a space is T_3 if *the closed neighborhoods of any point are a neighborhood base*.

4. A topological space is called **normal** (or T_4) if and only if it is T_1 and for all C_1, C_2 , **closed**, with $C_1 \cap C_2 = \emptyset$, there are **open sets** U, V with $C_1 \subset U$, $C_2 \subset V$, and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

• **Proposition 2.9**

$$T_4 \Rightarrow T_3 \Rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow T_1$$

• **Remark (Separation axioms \neq Discounnected Space)**

These axioms are called **separation axioms** for the reason that they involve “*separating* certain kinds of *sets from one another* by **disjoint open sets**.”

We have used the word “*separation*” before, of course, when we studied *connected spaces*. But in that case, we were trying to find *disjoint open sets whose union was the entire space*.

• **Lemma 2.10** *Let X be a topological space. Let one-point sets in X be closed.*

1. X is **regular** if and only if given a point x of X and a neighborhood U of x , there is a **neighborhood** V of x such that $\bar{V} \subseteq U$.
2. X is **normal** if and only if given a **closed** set A and an open set U containing A , there is an **open set** V containing A such that $\bar{V} \subseteq U$.

• **Remark** X is **regular** \Leftrightarrow Each point of X has a **closed neighborhood**

Note that X is **locally compact Hausdorff** \Leftrightarrow Each point of X has a **precompact neighborhood** i.e. it has a closed neighborhood and *the closure is compact*.

• **Proposition 2.11 (Simply Ordered Set is Hausdorff)** [Munkres, 2000]

Every simply ordered set is a Hausdorff space in the order topology.

• **Proposition 2.12 (Order Topology is Regular)** [Munkres, 2000]

Every order topology is a regular.

• **Remark** It can be shown actually that every **order topology** is a **normal**, which includes all of these two previous results.

• **Proposition 2.13 (Preservation of Hausdorff and Regular Axioms)**

1. The **product** of two Hausdorff/regular spaces is a Hausdorff/regular space.
2. A **subspace** of a Hausdorff/regular space is a Hausdorff/regular space.

• **Example (\mathbb{R}_K is Hausdorff but Not Regular)**

The space \mathbb{R}_K is **Hausdorff** but **not regular**. Recall that \mathbb{R}_K denotes the reals in the topology having as *basis* all open intervals (a, b) and all sets of the form $(a, b) \setminus K$, where

$K = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$. This space is *Hausdorff*, because any two distinct points have *disjoint open intervals* containing them. But it is **not regular**. The set K is **closed** in \mathbb{R}_K , and it does *not* contain the point 0.

But it is **not regular**. The set K is **closed** in \mathbb{R}_K , and it does *not* contain the point 0. Suppose that there exist *disjoint open sets* U and V containing 0 and K , respectively. Choose a basis element containing 0 and lying in U . It must be a basis element of the form $(a, b) \setminus K$, since each basis element of the form (a, b) containing 0 intersects K . Choose n large enough that $1/n \in (a, b)$. Then choose a basis element about $1/n$ contained in V ; it must be a basis element of the form (c, d) . Finally, choose z so that $z < 1/n$ and $z > \max\{c, 1/(n+1)\}$. Then z belongs to both U and V , so they are not disjoint. ■

- **Example (\mathbb{R}_ℓ is Normal)**

The space \mathbb{R}_ℓ is **normal**. Recall that \mathbb{R}_ℓ is \mathbb{R} with **lower limit topology**. (i.e. the basis element is the *half-interval* $[a, b)$.) It is immediate that *one-point sets are closed* in \mathbb{R}_ℓ , since the topology of \mathbb{R}_ℓ is *finer* than that of \mathbb{R} .

To check **normality**, suppose that A and B are *disjoint closed sets* in \mathbb{R}_ℓ . For each point a of A choose a basis element $[a, x_a)$ *not intersecting* B ; and for each point b of B choose a basis element $[b, x_b)$ *not intersecting* A . The open sets

$$U = \bigcup_{a \in A} [a, x_a) \quad \text{and} \quad V = \bigcup_{b \in B} [b, x_b)$$

are *disjoint open sets* about A and B , respectively.

- **Example (The Sorgenfrey plane \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 is Not Normal)**

The space \mathbb{R}_ℓ is regular, so the product space \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 is regular. Thus this example serves *two purposes*. It shows that **a regular space need not be normal**, and it shows that **the product of two normal spaces need not be normal**.

- **Definition (Perfect Map)**

A **closed continuous surjective map** $p : X \rightarrow Y$ is called a **perfect map** if $p^{-1}(\{y\})$ is **compact** for each $y \in Y$.

- **Remark** A perfect map is a quotient map.

- **Proposition 2.14 (Preservation Properties of Perfect Map) [Munkres, 2000]**

Let $p : X \rightarrow Y$ be a **perfect map**, i.e. it is a **closed continuous surjective map** whose preimage of one point set is **compact**. Then

1. If X is **Hausdorff**, then so is Y .
2. If X is **regular**, then so is Y .
3. If X is **locally compact**, then so is Y .
4. If X is **second-countable**, then so is Y .

- **Theorem 2.15 (Preservation Properties of Orbit Space) [Munkres, 2000]**

Let G be a **compact topological group**; let X be a topological space; let α be an **action** of G on X . The orbit space X/G is the quotient space under equivalence relationship $x \sim \alpha(x)$.

1. If X is **Hausdorff**, then so is X/G .

2. If X is **regular**, then so is X/G .
3. If X is **normal**, then so is X/G .
4. If X is **locally compact**, then so is X/G .
5. If X is **second-countable**, then so is X/G .

- **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a map $F : X \rightarrow Y$ (continuous or not) is said to be **proper** if for every **compact** set $K \subseteq Y$, the **preimage** $F^{-1}(K)$ is **compact**.

2.2.2 Normal Space

- **Remark** As we have seen, unlike its name suggested, normal spaces are *not as well-behaved* as one might wish. On the other hand, **most of the spaces** with which we are familiar do *satisfy this axiom*, as we shall see.

Its **importance** comes from the fact that the results one can prove **under the hypothesis of normality** are central to much of topology. The **Urysohn metrization theorem** and the **Tietze extension theorem** are two such results

- **Proposition 2.16** [Munkres, 2000]
Every **locally compact Hausdorff** space is **regular**.
- **Theorem 2.17** (**Regular + Second-Countable** \Rightarrow **Normal**) [Munkres, 2000]
Every **regular** space with a **countable basis** is **normal**.
- **Proposition 2.18** (**Regular + Lindelöf** \Rightarrow **Normal**) [Munkres, 2000]
Every **regular Lindelöf** space is **normal**.
- **Theorem 2.19** [Munkres, 2000]
Every **metrizable** space is **normal**.
- **Theorem 2.20** [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980]
Every **compact Hausdorff** space X is **normal**.
- **Theorem 2.21** [Munkres, 2000]
Every **well-ordered** set X is **normal** in the **order topology**.

In fact, a stronger theorem holds:

Theorem 2.22 Every **order topology** is **normal**

- **Example** (**The Uncountable Product of Normal Spaces Need Not be Normal**)
If J is **uncountable**, the product space \mathbb{R}^J is **not normal**.

This example serves *three purposes*. It shows that **a regular space \mathbb{R}^J need not be normal**. It shows that **a subspace of a normal space need not be normal**, for \mathbb{R}^J is **homeomorphic** to the subspace $(0, 1)^J$ of $[0, 1]^J$, which (assuming the **Tychonoff theorem**) is **compact Hausdorff** and therefore **normal**. And it shows that **an uncountable product of normal spaces need not be normal**. It leaves unsettled the question as to whether a *finite or a countable product of normal spaces might be normal*.

- **Example** (**The Finite Product of Normal Spaces Need Not be Normal**).

Table 1: Comparison the Urysohn Lemma and Geometric Hahn-Banach Theorem

	<i>Urysohn's Lemma</i>	<i>Geometric Hahn-Banach Theorem</i>
<i>space</i>	normal topological space T_4	normed linear space
<i>weaker space</i>	completely regular topological space	locally convex space
<i>objects</i>	two closed subsets A, B	two convex subsets A, B
<i>separation pre-condition</i>	closed subsets are disjoint	convex sets are disjoint
<i>separating function</i>	continuous function $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$	a hyperplane defined by linear functional $\ell(x) = a$
<i>conclusion</i>	two closed sets can be separated by f	two convex sets can be separated by hyperplane
<i>conclusion in math</i>	$f(A) = \{0\}$ and $f(B) = \{1\}$	$\sup_{a \in A} \ell(a) \leq a \leq \inf_{b \in B} \ell(b)$

Recall $S_\Omega = \{x : x \in X \text{ and } x < \Omega\}$ is the **uncountable section** of a **well-ordered set** X by Ω where Ω is the **largest element** of X (called **the minimal uncountable well-ordered set**).

Consider **the well-ordered set** \bar{S}_Ω , in the order topology, and consider the subset S_Ω , in the subspace topology (which is the same as the order topology). Both spaces are **normal**, but the product space $S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$ is **not normal**.

his example serves *three purposes*. First, it shows that **a regular space need not be normal**, for $S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$ is a *product of regular spaces* and therefore regular. Second, it shows that **a subspace of a normal space need not be normal**, for $S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$ is a *subspace* of $\bar{S}_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$, which is a **compact Hausdorff space** and therefore **normal**. Third, it shows that **the product of two normal spaces need not be normal**.

2.3 Important Theorems

2.3.1 The Urysohn Lemma

- **Theorem 2.23 (Urysohn Lemma).** [Munkres, 2000]
Let X be a **normal** space; let A and B be **disjoint closed subsets** of X . Let $[a, b]$ be a **closed interval** in the real line. Then there exists a **continuous map**

$$f : X \rightarrow [a, b]$$

such that $f(x) = a$ for **every** x in A , and $f(x) = b$ for **every** x in B .

- **Corollary 2.24 (Urysohn Lemma for G_δ).** [Munkres, 2000]
Let X be a **normal** space. Then there exists a **continuous map**

$$f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

such that $f(x) = 0$ for **every** $x \in A$, and $f(x) > 0$ for **every** $x \notin A$ **if and only if** A is a G_δ set, i.e. it equal to a countable intersection of open sets in X .

- **Theorem 2.25 (Strong Form of Urysohn Lemma).** [Munkres, 2000]

Let X be a **normal** space. Then there exists a **continuous** map

$$f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

such that $f(x) = 0$ for $x \in A$, **and** $f(x) = 1$ for $x \in B$, and $0 < f(x) < 1$ **otherwise if and only if** A and B are disjoint closed G_δ set in X .

- **Definition (Separation by Continuous Function)**

If A and B are two subsets of the topological space X , and if there is a **continuous** function $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f(A) = \{0\}$ and $f(B) = \{1\}$, we say that A and B can be **separated by a continuous function**.

- **Remark** The Urysohn lemma says that if every pair of **disjoint closed sets** in X can be separated by disjoint open sets, then each such pair can be **separated by a continuous function**. The **converse** is trivial, for if $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is the function, then $f^{-1}([0, 1/2))$ and $f^{-1}((1/2, 1])$ are **disjoint open sets** containing A and B , respectively.
- **Remark (Separation by Continuous Function vs Separation by Linear Function)**
We can compare the Urysohn lemma with the geometric Hahn-Banach theorem which separate two **convex sets** with linear functional. See Table 1. The geometric Hahn-Banach theorem can be seen as a generalization of the Urysohn lemma in **normed linear space**.
- **Remark (Continuous Function in Compact Hausdorff Space)** [Reed and Simon, 1980]
The Urysohn lemma suggests that there are **a lot of continuous functions** in normal space. The space of all real-valued continuous functions $C_{\mathbb{R}}(X)$ on a **compact Hausdorff space** X (which is normal space) has a **dense subset** since any real-valued continuous functions on $[0, 1]$ is a **uniform limit of polynomials**.
- **Definition (Completely Regular)**
A space X is **completely regular** if **one-point sets** are closed in X and if for each point x_0 and each **closed** set A not containing x_0 , there is a **continuous function** $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $f(x_0) = 1$ and $f(A) = \{0\}$.
- **Remark**

$$\text{normal} \Rightarrow \text{completely regular} \Rightarrow \text{regular}$$

Proposition 2.26 A **subspace** of a completely regular space is completely regular.

A **product** of completely regular spaces is completely regular.

- **Example** ($S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$ is **Completely Regular but Not Normal**).
 $S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$ is **not normal** but it is the product space of two completely regular spaces.
- **Theorem 2.27 (Urysohn Lemma, Locally Compact Version).** [Folland, 2013]
Let X be a **locally compact Hausdorff** space and $K \subseteq U \subseteq X$ where K is **compact** and U is **open**. Then there exists a **continuous** map

$$f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

such that $f(x) = 1$ for every $x \in K$, and $f(x) = 0$ for x outside a **compact subset** of U .

- **Corollary 2.28** [Folland, 2013]

Every locally compact Hausdorff space is completely regular.

- **Remark (Dual Space of $C_c(X)$ on Locally Compact Hausdorff Space)** [Reed and Simon, 1980, Folland, 2013]

The famous **Riesz-Markov theorem** shows that the **dual space** of $C_c(X)$, the space of compactly supported continuous function on *locally compact Hausdorff space* X is isomorphic to the space of **signed regular Borel measures** on X , i.e. $(C_c(X))^* \simeq \mathcal{M}(X)$. The proof of **Riesz-Markov theorem** is based on **the Urysohn lemma** for locally compact space.

2.3.2 The Urysohn Metrization Theorem

- **Theorem 2.29 (Urysohn Metrization Theorem).** [Munkres, 2000]

Every regular space X with a countable basis is metrizable.

- **Theorem 2.30 (Embedding Theorem).** [Munkres, 2000]

*Let X be a space in which one-point sets are closed. Suppose that $\{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is an indexed family of **continuous** functions $f_\alpha : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the requirement that for each point x_0 of X and each neighborhood U of x_0 , there is an index α such that f_α is **positive** at x_0 and **vanishes outside** U . Then the function $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^J$ defined by*

$$F(x) = (f_\alpha(x))_{\alpha \in J}$$

*is a **topological embedding** of X in \mathbb{R}^J . If f_α maps X into $[0, 1]$ for each α then F **embeds** X in $[0, 1]^J$.*

- **Definition (Separation of Points From Closed Set by Continuous Functions)**

*A family of continuous functions that satisfies the hypotheses of the embedding theorem above is said to **separate points from closed sets in** X .*

The existence of such a family is readily seen to be *equivalent*, for a space X in which one-point sets are *closed*, to the requirement that X be *completely regular*.

- **Corollary 2.31 (Embedding Equivalent Definition of Completely Regular)** [Munkres, 2000]

*A space X is **completely regular** if and only if it is **homeomorphic** to a subspace of $[0, 1]^J$ for some J .*

2.3.3 The Tietze Extension Theorem

- **Theorem 2.32 (Tietze Extension Theorem)** [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980]

*Let X be a **normal space**; let A be a **closed subspace** of X .*

1. *Any **continuous** map of A into the **closed interval** $[a, b]$ of \mathbb{R} may be **extended** to a **continuous** map of **all of** X into $[a, b]$.*
2. *Any **continuous** map of A into \mathbb{R} may be **extended** to a **continuous** map of **all of** X into \mathbb{R} .*

- **Theorem 2.33 (Tietze Extension Theorem, Locally Compact Version)** [Folland, 2013]

Table 2: Comparison Tietze Extension Theorem and Hahn-Banach Theorem

	<i>Tietze Extension Theorem</i>	<i>Hahn-Banach Theorem</i>
<i>space</i>	normal topological space T_4	normed linear space
<i>subspace</i>	topological subspace	linear subspace
<i>function to be extended</i>	real-valued continuous function	linear functional
<i>additional constraint</i>	the subspace is closed	the functional bounded above by a sublinear functional
<i>conclusion</i>	the domain of continuous function can be extended to entire space	the domain of linear functional can be extended to entire space

Let X be a **locally compact Hausdorff space**; let K be a **compact subspace** of X . If $f \in \mathcal{C}(K)$ is a **continuous** map of K into \mathbb{R} , there exists a **continuous** extension $F \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ of **all of** X into \mathbb{R} such that $F|_K = f$. Moreover, F may be taken to **vanish outside a compact set**.

- **Remark (*Extension of Continuous Function vs. Extension of Linear Functional*)**
We can compare the *Tietze extension theorem* with the *Hahn-Banach theorem* in normed linear space. See from Table 2 that the Hahn-Banach theorem generalize the Tietze extension theorem from normal topological space to the normed linear space (which is metrizable so normal).

2.4 The Stone-Ćech Compactification

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2.5 Embeddings of Manifolds

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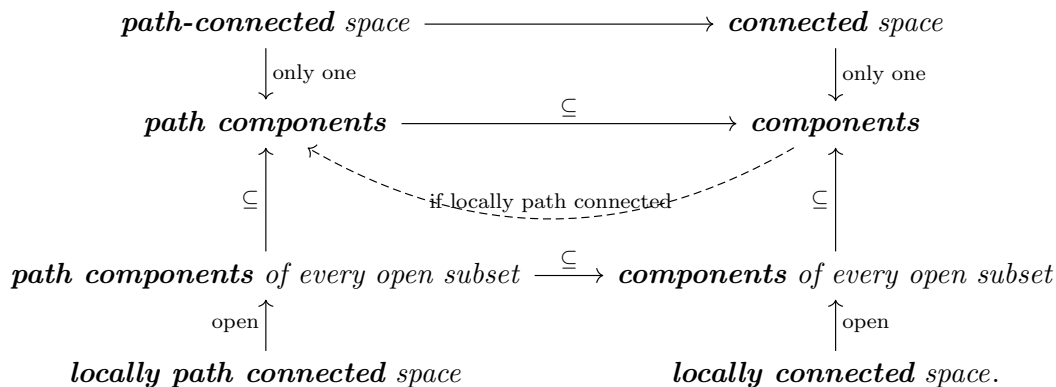
3 Summary of Preservation of Topological Properties

Table 3: Summary of Preservation of Topological Properties Under Transformations

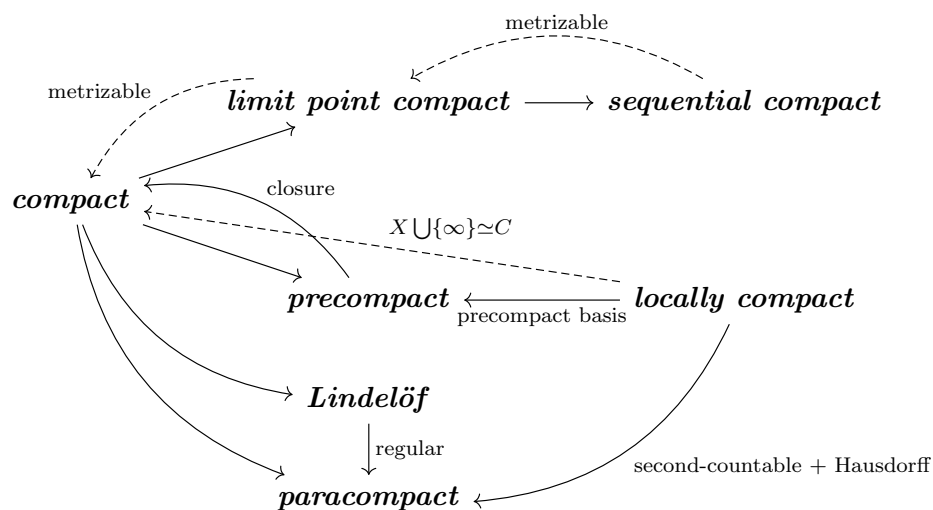
	<i>subspace</i>	<i>product space</i>	<i>image of continuous function</i>
<i>connected</i>	✓	✓ under <i>product topology</i>	✓
<i>locally connected</i>	if <i>open and connected</i> subspace, ✓	if <i>all but finitely many of spaces are connected</i> , ✓	in general ×
<i>compact</i>	if <i>closed</i> subspace, ✓;	for <i>arbitrary</i> product, ✓	✓
<i>locally compact</i>	if <i>closed or open</i> subspace and Hausdorff, ✓	if <i>finite</i> product, ✓; if <i>infinite</i> product ×	if <i>f</i> is a <i>perfect map</i> , then ✓; in general ×
<i>first-countable</i>	✓	if <i>countable</i> product, ✓	if <i>f</i> is a <i>open map</i> , then ✓; in general ×
<i>second-countable</i>	✓	if <i>countable</i> product, ✓	if <i>f</i> is a <i>open map or perfect map</i> , then ✓; in general ×
<i>separable</i>	if metrizable, then ✓; in general ×	if <i>countable</i> product, ✓	✓
<i>Lindelöf</i>	if metrizable, then ✓; in general ×	×	✓
<i>T₁ axiom</i>	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product, ✓	in general ×
<i>Hausdorff T₂</i>	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product, ✓	if <i>f</i> is a <i>perfect map</i> , then ✓; in general ×
<i>regular T₃</i>	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product, ✓	if <i>f</i> is a <i>perfect map</i> , then ✓; in general ×
<i>completely regular</i>	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product, ✓	in general ×
<i>normal T₄</i>	×	×	×
<i>paracompact</i>	if <i>closed</i> subspace, ✓;	×	×
<i>topologically complete</i>	for <i>closed or open</i> subspace, ✓	if <i>countable</i> product, ✓	×

4 Summary of Relationships between Topological Properties

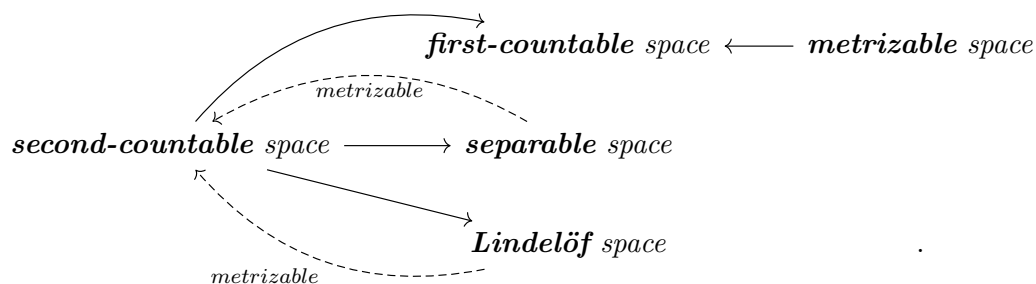
- *Connectedness*



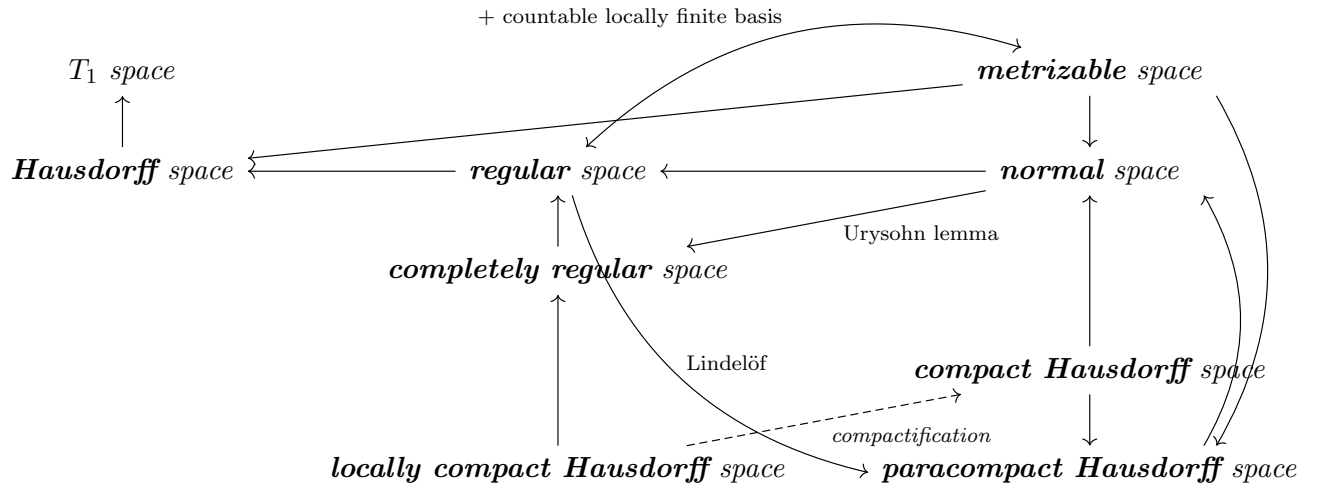
- *Compactness*



- *Countability Axioms*



- *Separation Axioms*



5 Summary of Counterexamples for Topological Properties

Table 4: Summary of Counterexamples for Topological Properties

	$\mathbb{R}^\omega_{\mathcal{T}_{prod}}$	$\mathbb{R}^\omega_{\mathcal{T}_{box}}$	$\mathbb{R}^\omega_{\mathcal{T}_{unif}}$	\mathbb{R}_K	\mathbb{R}_ℓ	\mathbb{R}^2_ℓ	I^2_o	S_Ω	\bar{S}_Ω	$S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$	$(x, \sin(1/x))$
<i>connected</i>	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	×	✓
<i>path connected</i>	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
<i>locally connected</i>	✓	×	✓	×	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×
<i>locally path connected</i>	✓	×	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
<i>compact</i>	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓
<i>limit point compact</i>	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	✓	✓		✓
<i>sequentially compact</i>	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	✓	✓		✓
<i>locally compact</i>	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>paracompact</i>	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓
<i>first-countable</i>	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	×	
<i>second-countable</i>	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	
<i>separable</i>	✓	×	×	✓	✓	✓	×	×	×	×	
<i>Lindelöf</i>	✓	×	×	✓	✓	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓
<i>T_1 axiom</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Hausdorff T_2</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>regular T_3</i>	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
<i>completely regular</i>	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
<i>normal T_4</i>	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	×	
<i>locally metrizable</i>	✓	×	✓	×			×	✓	×	×	
<i>metrizable</i>	✓	×	✓	×	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×

1. $(\mathbb{R}^\omega, \mathcal{T}_{prod})$: space of **countable infinite** real sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ equipped with **product topology**. Note that under product topology, the **basis** is of form $\prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_n$ where there exists some N so that for all $n \geq N$, $U_n = \mathbb{R}$.
2. $(\mathbb{R}^\omega, \mathcal{T}_{box})$: space of **countable infinite** real sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ equipped with **box topology**. Note that under box topology, the **basis** is of form $\prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+} U_n$ where $U_n \neq \mathbb{R}$ for all n .
3. $(\mathbb{R}^\omega, \mathcal{T}_{unif})$: space of **countable infinite** real sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ equipped with **uniform topology**. Note that the uniform topology is induced by **the uniform metric** $\bar{\rho}$ on \mathbb{R}^ω , which is defined by the equation

$$\bar{\rho}((x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}, (y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}) = \sup \{ \bar{d}(x_n, y_n) : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \},$$

where \bar{d} is **the standard bounded metric** on \mathbb{R} .

4. \mathbb{R}_K : the real line \mathbb{R} equipped with the **K -topology**. The K -topology is **generated** by all open intervals (a, b) and all sets of the form

$$(a, b) \setminus K \text{ where } K = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}.$$

5. \mathbb{R}_ℓ : the real line \mathbb{R} equipped with the **lower limit topology**. The basis of lower limit topology is the collection of all **half-open intervals** of the form

$$[a, b) = \{x : a \leq x < b\},$$

where $a < b$. \mathbb{R}_ℓ is also called **the Sorgenfrey line**.

6. $\mathbb{R}_\ell^2 = \mathbb{R}_\ell \times \mathbb{R}_\ell$: is called **the Sorgenfrey plane**.
7. I_o^2 : is called **ordered square** where $I = [0, 1]$. It is the set $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ in **the dictionary order topology**. In dictionary order relationship, $(x_1, x_2) < (y_1, y_2)$ if and only if $x_1 < y_1$ or $(x_1 = y_1) \wedge (x_2 < y_2)$. In dictionary order topology, open intervals are of the form

$$\{(x_1, x_2) : x_1 \in (a, b) \text{ or } (x_1 = c) \wedge (x_2 \in (d, e))\} = ((a, b) \times I) \cup (c \times (d, e)).$$

8. S_Ω : is **the uncountable ordinal space**. If A is a **well-ordered set** then A itself contains a **smallest element** which we will denote by a_0 . For each element x in a **well-ordered set** A , **the section at** x is defined to be the subset

$$S_x = (-\infty, x) = [a_0, x) = \{y \in A : y < x\}.$$

The uncountable ordinal space S_Ω is an **uncountable well-ordered set** in which each section S_x is **countable**. This description of S_Ω is justified by the following:

Lemma 5.1 *There exists an uncountable well-ordered set A such that S_x is countable for each $x \in A$, and any two uncountable well-ordered sets satisfying this property are **order isomorphic** (that is, they have the same order type).*

9. \bar{S}_Ω : is **the closed uncountable ordinal space**. It is defined by $\bar{S}_\Omega = S_\Omega \cup \{\Omega\}$ with **the well-ordering** given by: (a) if $x, y \in S_\Omega$ then $x < y$ in \bar{S}_Ω iff $x < y$ in S_Ω , and (b) if $x \in S_\Omega$ then $x < \Omega$. Notice that Ω is a **maximal element** in \bar{S}_Ω (but S_Ω does not have a maximal element). S_Ω is the section of Ω in \bar{S}_Ω .

10. $S_\Omega \times \bar{S}_\Omega$

11. \bar{S} : is called *the topologist's sine curve*. It is the closure of the graph

$$S = \{(x, \sin(1/x)) : 0 < x \leq 1\}.$$

That is $\bar{S} = S \cup \{(x, y) : x = 0\}$.

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