# Lecture 3: Countability and Separation Axioms

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### 1 The Countability and Separation Axioms

### 1.1 The Countability Axioms

#### • Definition (*First-Countable*)

A space X is said to have a <u>countable basis at x</u> if there is a <u>countable collection</u>  $\mathcal{B}$  of <u>neighborhoods</u> of x such that <u>each neighborhood</u> of x <u>contains at least one</u> 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 1.1 (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  $x \in \overline{A}$ ; the **converse** holds if X is **first-countable**.
  - 2. Let  $f: X \to Y$ . If f is continuous, then for every convergent sequence  $x_n \to x$  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 <u>the second</u> countability axiom, or to be <u>second-countable</u>.

#### • 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  $\mathbb{R}^\omega$  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  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  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 ( $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  under Uniform Topology Not Second-Countable)
  In the uniform topology,  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  satisfies the first countability axiom (being metrizable). However, it does not satisfy the second.

To verify this fact, we first show that if X is a space having a countable basis  $\mathcal{B}$ , then any discrete subspace A of X must be countable. Choose, for each  $a \in A$ , a basis element  $B_a$  that intersects A in the point a alone. If a and b are distinct points of A, the sets  $B_a$  and  $B_b$  are different, since the first contains a and the second does not. It follows that the map  $a \mapsto B_a$  is an injection of A into  $\mathcal{B}$ , so A must be countable (as  $\mathcal{B}$  being countable).

Now we note that the subspace A of  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  consisting of all sequences of 0's and 1's is uncountable; and it has the **discrete topology** because  $\bar{\rho}(a,b) = 1$  for any two distinct points a and b of A. Therefore, in the uniform topology  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$  does not have a countable basis.

• 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 1.2 (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 <u>dense</u> 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 1.3 (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 1.4 (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).
- Proposition 1.5 (Compact Metrizable Space) [Munkres, 2000]

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

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

- Proposition 1.6 (Preservation by Continuity) [Munkres, 2000] Let  $f: X \to Y$  be continuous.
  - 1. If X is  $\mathbf{Lindel\"{o}f}$ , then f(X) is  $\mathbf{Lindel\"{o}f}$ ;
  - 2. if X has a countable dense subset, then f(X) satisfies the same condition.
- Proposition 1.7 (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).
- Example (The Product of two Lindelöf Spaces Need Not be Lindelöf)
  The space  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$  is Lindelöf, but the product space  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}^2$  is not.  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}^2$  is called the Sorgenfrey plane.

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

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

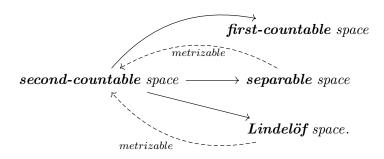
It is easy to check that L is **closed** in  $\mathbb{R}^2_{\ell}$ . Let us cover  $\mathbb{R}^2_{\ell}$  by **the open set**  $\mathbb{R}^2_{\ell} \setminus L$  and by all basis elements of the form

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

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

- 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 1.8 (Preservation by Continuous Open Map) [Munkres, 2000]
   Let f: X → Y be continuous open map. If X satisfies the first or the second countability axiom, then f(X) satisfies the same axiom.
- Remark (Relationship of Several Topological Properties)



• Definition  $(G_{\delta} \ \textbf{Set})$ A  $G_{\delta} \ \textbf{set}$  in a space X is a set A that equals a **countable intersection** of open sets of X.

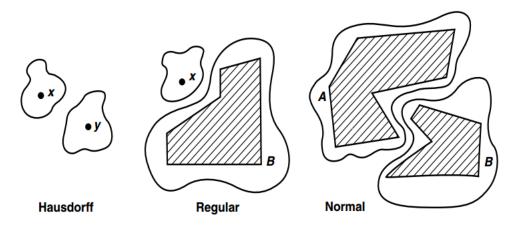


Figure 1: The separation axioms [Munkres, 2000]

- Remark By definition of topology,  $G_{\delta}$  is neither open nor closed.
- Exercise 1.9 Show that in a first-countable  $T_1$  space, every one-point set is a  $G_\delta$  set.

### 1.2 The Separation Axioms

• Definition (Regular Space and Normal Space)
Suppose that one-point sets are closed in X (i.e. X is  $T_1$  space). Then X is said to be
regular  $(T_3)$  if for each pair consisting of a point x and a closed set B disjoint from x,
there exist disjoint open sets containing x and B, respectively.

The space X is said to be <u>normal</u>  $(T_4)$  if for each pair A, B of **disjoint closed sets** of X, there exist **disjoint open** <u>sets</u> containing A and B, respectively.

• Proposition 1.10

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

• 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 1.11 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  $\overline{V} \subseteq U$ .
- 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 1.12 (Simply Ordered Set is Hausdorff) [Munkres, 2000] Every simply ordered set is a Hausdorff space in the order topology.
- Proposition 1.13 (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 1.14 (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  $(\mathbb{R}_K \text{ is Hausdorff but Not Regular})$

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. 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 $(\mathbb{R}_{\ell} \ is \ Normal)$

The space  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$  is **normal**. Recall that  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$  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  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ , since the topology of  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$  is finer than that of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

To check **normality**, suppose that A and B are disjoint closed sets in  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ . 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

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

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

### $\bullet \ \ \mathbf{Example} \ \ (\mathit{The \ Sorgenfrey \ plane} \ \mathbb{R}^2_{\ell} \ \mathit{is \ Not \ Normal})$

The space  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$  is regular, so the product space  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}^2$  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  $p: X \to Y$  is called a <u>perfect map</u> if  $p^{-1}(\{y\})$  is compact for each  $y \in Y$ .

- Remark A perfect map is a quotient map.
- Proposition 1.15 (Preservation Properties of Perfect Map) [Munkres, 2000]
   Let p: X → Y be a perfect map, i.e. it is a closed continuous surjective map who 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 1.16 (Preservation Properties of Orbit Space) [Munkres, 2000] Let G be a compact topological group; let X be a topological space; let  $\alpha$  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.

### 1.3 Normal Spaces

• 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 <u>normality</u> are central to much of topology. The *Urysohn metrization theorem* and the <u>Tietze extension theorem</u> are two such results

- Proposition 1.17 [Munkres, 2000] Every locally compact Hausdorff space is regular.
- Theorem 1.18 (Regular + Second-Countable ⇒ Normal)[Munkres, 2000] Every regular space with a countable basis is normal.
- Proposition 1.19 (Regular + Lindelöf ⇒ Normal)[Munkres, 2000] Every regular Lindelöf space is normal.
- Theorem 1.20 [Munkres, 2000] Every <u>metrizable</u> space is normal.
- Theorem 1.21 [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980] Every compact Hausdorff space X is normal.
- Theorem 1.22 [Munkres, 2000] Every <u>well-ordered</u> set X is normal in the order topology.

In fact, a stronger theorem holds:

Theorem 1.23 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). Recall  $S_{\Omega} = \{x : x \in X \text{ and } x < \Omega\}$  is the uncountable section of a well-ordered set X by  $\Omega$  where  $\Omega$  is the largest element of X (called the minimal uncountable well-ordered set).

Consider the well-ordered set  $\bar{S}_{\Omega}$ , in the order topology, and consider the subset  $S_{\Omega}$ , 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  $\underline{a}$  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  $\underline{a}$  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 Important Theorems

### 2.1 The Urysohn Lemma

• Theorem 2.1 (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

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

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

• Corollary 2.2 (Urysohn Lemma for  $G_{\delta}$ ). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a normal space. Then there exists a continuous map

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

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  $G_{\delta}$  set, i.e. it equal to a countable intersection of open sets in X.

• Theorem 2.3 (Strong Form of Urysohn Lemma). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a normal space. Then there exists a continuous map

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

Table 1: Comparison the Urysohn Lemma and Geometric Hahn-Banach Theorem	Table 1:	Comparison the	Urysohn	Lemma and	Geometric	Hahn-Banach	Theorem
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	Urysohn's Lemma	Geometric Hahn-Banach Theorem				
space	$normal$ topological space $T_4$	normed linear space				
weaker space	completely regular topological space	locally convex space				
objects	two closed subsets A, B	two convex subsets A, B				
separation pre-condition	closed subsets are disjoint	convex sets are disjoint				
$\begin{array}{c} separating \\ function \end{array}$	$egin{aligned} m{continuous\ function}\ f:X  ightarrow [0,1] \end{aligned}$	$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned\\ egin{aligned} egi$				
conclusion	two closed sets can be separated by f	two convex sets can be separated by hyperplane				
conclusion in math	$f(A) = \{0\} \text{ and } f(B) = \{1\}$	$\sup_{a \in A} \ell(a) \le a \le \inf_{b \in B} \ell(b)$				

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  $G_{\delta}$  set in X.

- Definition (Separation by Continuous Function)

  If A and B are two subsets of the tanalogical space Y and if the tanalogic
  - If A and B are two subsets of the topological space X, and if there is a **continuous** function  $f: X \to [0,1]$  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  $f: X \to [0,1]$  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  $\mathcal{C}_{\mathbb{R}}(X)$  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 <u>completely regular</u> if one-point sets are closed in X and if for each point  $x_0$  and each <u>closed</u> set A not containing  $x_0$ , there is a **continuous function**  $f: X \to [0,1]$  such that  $f(x_0) = 1$  and  $f(A) = \{0\}$ .

#### • Remark

 $normal \Rightarrow completely regular \Rightarrow regular$ 

Proposition 2.4 A subspace of a completely regular space is completely regular.

A product of completely regular spaces is completely regular.

- Example  $(S_{\Omega} \times \bar{S}_{\Omega} \text{ is Completely Regular but Not Normal}).$  $S_{\Omega} \times \bar{S}_{\Omega} \text{ is not normal but it is the product space of two completely regular spaces.}$
- Theorem 2.5 (Urysohn Lemma, Locally Compact Version). [Folland, 2013] Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space and K ⊆ U ⊆ X where K is compact and U is open. Then there exists a continuous map

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

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

- Corollary 2.6 [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 the Riesz-Markov theorem is based on the Urysohn lemma for locally compact space.

#### 2.2 The Urysohn Metrization Theorem

- Theorem 2.7 (Urysohn Metrization Theorem). [Munkres, 2000] Every regular space X with a countable basis is metrizable.
- Theorem 2.8 (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  $f_{\alpha}: X \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfying the requirement that for each point  $x_0$  of X and each neighborhood U of  $x_0$ , there is an index  $\alpha$  such that  $f_{\alpha}$  is positive at  $x_0$  and vanishes outside U. Then the function  $F: X \to \mathbb{R}^J$  defined by

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

is a <u>topological embedding</u> of X in  $\mathbb{R}^J$ . If  $f_\alpha$  maps X into [0,1] for each  $\alpha$  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.

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

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

• Corollary 2.9 (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 The Tietze Extension Theorem

- Theorem 2.10 (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 2.11 (Tietze Extension Theorem, Locally Compact Version) [Folland, 2013]
  - Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space; let K be a compact subspace of X. If  $f \in C(K)$  is a continuous map of K into  $\mathbb{R}$ , there exists a continuous extension  $F \in C(X)$  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).

### 3 Embeddings of Manifolds

# 4 Summary of Preservation of Topological Properties

 Table 3: Summary of Preservation of Topological Properties Under Transformations

	subspace	$product\ space$	$image\ of\ continuous \ function$
connected	<b>√</b>	if finite product, ✓; if countable product, ✓ under product topology	✓
locally connected	if open and connected subspace, √	if all but finitely many of spaces are connected,	in general ×
compact	if $closed$ subspace, $\checkmark$ ;	for <i>arbitrary</i> product,	✓
locally compact	if <i>closed</i> or <i>open</i> subspace and Hausdorff,	if <i>finite</i> product, ✓; if infinite product ×	if $f$ is a <b>perfect map</b> , then $\checkmark$ ; in general $\times$
first-countable	<b>√</b>	if $countable$ product, $\checkmark$	if $f$ is a <b>open map</b> , then $\checkmark$ ; in general $\times$
second-countable	<b>√</b>	if <i>countable</i> product, ✓	if $f$ is a open map or perfect map, then $\checkmark$ ; in general $\times$
separable	if metrizable, then √; in general ×	if $countable$ product, $\checkmark$	✓
Lindelöf	if metrizable, then $\checkmark$ ; in general $\times$	×	✓
$T_1$ axiom	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product,	in general $\times$
$ extbf{\emph{Hausdorff}}\ T_2$	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product,	if $f$ is a <b>perfect map</b> , then $\checkmark$ ; in general $\times$
$regular T_3$	✓	for <i>arbitrary</i> product,	if $f$ is a <b>perfect map</b> , then $\checkmark$ ; in general $\times$
completely regular	<b>√</b>	for <i>arbitrary</i> product,	in general $\times$
$oldsymbol{normal}\ T_4$	×	×	×
paracompact	if $closed$ subspace, $\checkmark$ ;	×	×
$topologically\\ complete$	for <i>closed</i> or <i>open</i> subspace, $\checkmark$	if $countable$ product, $\checkmark$	×

# 5 Summary of Counterexamples for Topological Properties

 Table 4: Summary of Counterexamples for Topological Properties

	$\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$	$\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$	$\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$						_	_	(x,
	$\mathscr{T}_{prod}$	$\mathcal{T}_{box}$	$\mathscr{T}_{unif}$	$\mathbb{R}_K$	$\mathbb{R}_\ell$	$\mathbb{R}^2_\ell$	$I_o^2$	$S_{\Omega}$	$ar{S}_{\Omega}$	$S_{\Omega}  imes ar{S}_{\Omega}$	$\sin(1/x)$
connected	$\checkmark$	×	×	$\checkmark$	×	×	✓	×	×	×	✓
$\begin{array}{c} path \\ connected \end{array}$	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
$locally \\ connected$	✓	×	<b>√</b>	×	×	×	<b>√</b>	×	×	×	×
locally path connected	✓	×	<b>√</b>	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
compact	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓
$limit\ point\ compact$	×	×	×	×	×	×	<b>√</b>	<b>✓</b>	<b>√</b>		<b>✓</b>
$sequentially\\ compact$	×	×	×	×	×	×	<b>√</b>	✓	✓		✓
$locally \\ compact$	×	×	×	×	×	×	<b>√</b>	✓	✓	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>
paracompact	✓	<b>✓</b>	<b>√</b>	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓	×	✓
first-countable	✓	×	<b>✓</b>	✓	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>✓</b>	×	×	
second-countable	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	
separable	✓	×	×	✓	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	×	×	×	×	
Lindelöf	✓	×	×	✓	<b>√</b>	×	<b>√</b>	×	<b>√</b>	×	✓
$T_1$ axiom	✓	<b>√</b>	✓	✓	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	✓	✓
$egin{aligned} \textit{Hausdorff} \ T_2 \end{aligned}$	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	✓	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	✓	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>
regular $T_3$	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
completely regular	✓	<b>√</b>	✓	×	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	
normal T <sub>4</sub>	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	×	
locally metrizable	✓	×	✓	×			×	<b>√</b>	×	×	
metrizable	✓	×	<b>√</b>	×	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×

- 1.  $(\mathbb{R}^{\omega}, \mathscr{T}_{prod})$ : 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.  $(\mathbb{R}^{\omega}, \mathscr{T}_{box})$ : 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  $\mathbb{R}^{\omega}$ , which is defined by the equation

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

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

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

5.  $\mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ : 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 \le x < b\},\$$

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

- 6.  $\mathbb{R}^2_{\ell} = \mathbb{R}_{\ell} \times \mathbb{R}_{\ell}$ : 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

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

8.  $S_{\Omega}$ : 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  $S_{\Omega}$  is an uncountable well-ordered set in which each section  $S_x$  is countable. This description of  $S_{\Omega}$  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.  $\bar{S}_{\Omega}$ : 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  $\bar{S}_{\Omega}$  iff x < y in  $S_{\Omega}$ , and (b) if  $x \in S_{\Omega}$  then  $x < \Omega$ . Notice that  $\Omega$  is a maximal element in  $\bar{S}_{\Omega}$  (but  $S_{\Omega}$  does not have a maximal element).  $S_{\Omega}$  is the section of  $\Omega$  in  $\bar{S}_{\Omega}$ .

- 10.  $S_{\Omega} \times \bar{S}_{\Omega}$
- 11.  $\bar{S}$ : is called  $\it{the\ topologist's\ sine\ curve}$ . It is the closure of the graph

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

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

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