Lecture 3: Topology Review

Tianpei Xie

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1 Review of Topology

1.1 Set Theory Basis

• **Definition** Given a set X, the collection of all subsets of X, denoted as 2^X , is defined as

$$2^X := \{E : E \subseteq X\}$$

- Remark The followings are basic operation on 2^X : For $A, B \in 2^X$,
 - 1. *Inclusion*: $A \subseteq B$ if and only if $\forall x \in A, x \in B$.
 - 2. *Union*: $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \lor x \in B\}$.
 - 3. *Intersection*: $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \land x \in B\}$.
 - 4. **Difference**: $A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \land x \notin B\}$.
 - 5. Complement: $A^c = X \setminus A = \{x : x \in X \land x \notin A\}.$
 - 6. Symmetric Difference: $A\Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A) = \{x \in X : x \notin A \lor x \notin B\}.$

We have **deMorgan's laws**:

$$\left(\bigcup_{a\in A} U_a\right)^c = \bigcap_{a\in A} U_a^c, \quad \left(\bigcap_{a\in A} U_a\right)^c = \bigcup_{a\in A} U_a^c$$

• **Remark** Note that the following equality is useful:

$$A\Delta B = (A \cup B) \setminus (A \cap B)$$

• **Definition** A <u>rule of assignment</u> is a subset r of the cartesian product $C \times D$ of two sets, having the property that each element of C appears as the first coordinate **at most one ordered pair belonging to** r. Thus, a subset r of $C \times D$ is a rule of assignment if

$$[(c,d) \in r \text{ and } (c,d') \in r] \Rightarrow [d=d'].$$

Given a rule of assignment r, <u>the domain</u> of r is defined to be the *subset* of C consisting of all first coordinates of elements of r, and the image set of r is defined as the subset of D consisting of all second coordinates of elements of r.

A function f is a rule of assignment r, together with a set B that contains the image set of r

The pre-image of f is defined as

$$f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in E\}.$$

• Remark The pre-image operation commutes with all basic set operations:

$$A \subseteq B \Rightarrow f^{-1}(A) \subseteq f^{-1}(B)$$

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$$

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$$

$$f^{-1}(A \setminus B) = f^{-1}(A) \setminus f^{-1}(B)$$

$$f^{-1}(E^{c}) = (f^{-1}(E))^{c}$$

• Remark The image operation commutes with only inclusion and union operations:

$$A \subseteq B \Rightarrow f(A) \subseteq f(B)$$
$$f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f(E_{\alpha})$$

For the other operations:

$$f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha\in A} E_{\alpha}\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha\in A} f\left(E_{\alpha}\right)$$
$$f\left(A\setminus B\right) \supseteq f(A)\setminus f(B)$$

• **Definition** A map $f: X \to Y$ is *surjective*, *or*, *onto*, if for every $y \in Y$, there exists a $x \in X$ such that y = f(x). In set theory notation:

$$f: X \to Y$$
 is surjective $\Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(Y) \subseteq X$.

A map $f: X \to Y$ is **injective**, if for every $x_1 \neq x_2 \in X$, their map $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$, or equivalently, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ only if $x_1 = x_2$.

If a map $f: X \to Y$ is both *surjective* and *injective*, we say f is a **bijective**, or there exists an **one-to-one correspondence** between X and Y. Thus Y = f(X).

• Remark

$$f^{-1}(f(B)) \supseteq B, \quad \forall B \subseteq X$$

$$f(f^{-1}(E)) \subseteq E, \quad \forall E \subseteq Y$$

$$f: X \to Y \text{ is surjective } \Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(Y) \subseteq X.$$

$$\Rightarrow f(f^{-1}(E)) = E.$$

$$f: X \to Y \text{ is injective } \Rightarrow f^{-1}(f(B)) = B$$

$$\Rightarrow f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} f\left(E_{\alpha}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow f\left(A \setminus B\right) = f(A) \setminus f(B)$$

- Proposition 1.1 The following statements for composite functions are true:
 - 1. If f, g are both injective, then $g \circ f$ is injective.
 - 2. If f, g are both surjective, then $g \circ f$ is surjective.
 - 3. Every injective map $f: X \to Y$ can be writen as $f = \iota \circ f_R$ where $f_R: X \to f(X)$ is a bijective map and ι is the inclusion map.
 - 4. Every surjective map $f: X \to Y$ can be writen as $f = f_p \circ \pi$ where $\pi: X \to (X/\sim)$ is a quotient map (projection $x \mapsto [x]$) for the equivalent relation $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow f(x) = f(y)$ and $f_p: (X/\sim) \to Y$ is defined as $f_p([x]) = f(x)$ constant in each coset [x].
 - 5. If $g \circ f$ is **injective**, then f is **injective**.
 - 6. If $g \circ f$ is surjective, then g is surjective.
- **Definition** A <u>relation</u> on a set A is a subset R of the cartesian product $A \times A$.

If R is a relation on A, we use the notation xRy to mean the same thing as $(x,y) \in R$. We read it "x is in the relation R to y."

- Remark A rule of assignment r for a function $f: A \to A$ is also a subset of $A \times A$. But it is a subset of a very special kind: namely, one such that each element of A appears as the first coordinate of an element of r exactly once. Any subset of $A \times A$ is a relation on A.
- **Definition** An equivalence relation on X is a relation R on X such that
 - 1. (**Reflexivity**): xRx for all $x \in X$;
 - 2. (Symmetry): xRy if and only if yRx for all $x, y \in X$;
 - 3. (**Transitivity**): xRy and yRz then xRz for all $x, y, z \in X$.

We usually denote the equivalence relation R as \sim .

- Definition (*Equivalence Class*)

 The equivalence class of an element x is denoted as $[x] := \{y \in X : xRy\}$.
- **Definition** A relation C on a set A is called <u>an order relation</u> (or a simple order, or a linear order) if it has the following properties:
 - 1. (Comparability) For every x and y in A for which $x \neq y$, either xCy or yCx.
 - 2. (**Nonreflexivity**) For no x in A does the relation xCx hold.
 - 3. (**Transitivity**) If xCy and yCz, then xCz.

We denote order relation as > or <. We shall use the notation $x \le y$ to stand for the statement "either x < y or x = y"; and we shall use the notation y > x to stand for the statement "x < y." We write x < y < z to mean "x < y and y < z"

• **Definition** Suppose that A is a set ordered by the relation <. Let A_0 be a subset of A. We say that the element b is the *largest element* of A_0 if $b \in A_0$ and $x \le b$ for every $x \in A_0$.

Similarly, we say that a is <u>the smallest element</u> of A_0 if $a \in A_0$ and if $a \le x$ for every $x \in A_0$.

- Remark It is easy to see that a set has at most one largest element and at most one smallest element.
- Definition (The Upper Bound and The Supremum of Subset)

We say that the subset A_0 of A is <u>bounded above</u> if there is an element b of A such that $x \leq b$ for every $x \in A_0$; the element $b \in A$ is called **an upper bound for** A_0 .

If the set of all upper bounds for A_0 has a **smallest element**, that element is called **the least upper bound**, or **the supremum**, of A_0 . It is denoted by $\sup A_0$, it may or may not belong to A_0 . If it does, it is **the largest element** of A_0 .

• Definition (The Lower Bound and The Infimum of Subset)

Similarly, we say that the subset A_0 of A is <u>bounded below</u> if there is an element a of A such that $a \le x$ for every $x \in A_0$; the element $a \in A$ is called **a lower bound for** A_0 .

If the set of all lower bounds for A_0 has a **largest element**, that element is called **the greatest lower bound**, or **the infimum**, of A_0 . It is denoted by inf A_0 , it may or may not belong to A_0 . If it does, it is **the smallest element** of A_0 .

• Definition (The Least Upper Bound Property and The Greatest Lower Bound Property)

An ordered set A is said to have <u>the least upper bound property</u> if every nonempty subset A_0 of A that is bounded above has a least upper bound.

Analogously, the set A is said to have <u>the greatest lower bound property</u> if every nonempty subset A_0 of A that is bounded below has a greatest lower bound.

• Definition (Well-Ordered Set)

A set A with an order relation < is said to be **well-ordered** if every nonempty subset of A has a **smallest element**.

• Definition (Strict Partial Order)

Given a set A, a relation \prec on A is called a <u>strict partial order</u> on A if it has the following two properties;

- 1. (*Nonreflexivity*) The relation $a \prec a$ never holds.
- 2. (**Transitivity**) If $a \prec b$ and $b \prec c$, then $a \prec c$.

Moreover, suppose that we define $a \leq b$ either $a \prec b$ or a = b. Then the relation \leq is called a partial order on A.

• Definition (Upper Bound and Maximal Element for Strict Partial Order) Let A be a set and let \prec be a strict partial order on A. If B is a subset of A, an upper bound on B is an element c of A such that for every b in B, either b = c or $b \prec c$.

<u>A maximal element</u> of A is an element m of A such that for <u>no element a of A</u> does the relation $m \prec a$ hold.

- Theorem 1.2 (Zorn's Lemma). [Munkres, 2000] Let A be a set that is strictly partially ordered. If every simply ordered subset of A has an upper bound in A, then A has a maximal element.
- Principle 1.3 (The Axiom of Choice). If $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ is a nonempty collection of nonempty sets, then $\prod_{{\alpha}\in A} X_{\alpha}$ is non-empty.

• Corollary 1.4 If $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ is a disjoint collection of nonempty sets, there is a set $Y\subset\bigcup_{{\alpha}\in A}X_{\alpha}$ such that $Y\cap X_{\alpha}$ contains **precisely one element** for each $\alpha\in A$.

1.2 Topological Space

- **Definition** Let X be a set. $\underline{A \ topology}$ on X is a collection \mathscr{T} of subsets of X, called **open** subsets, satisfying
 - 1. X and \emptyset are open.
 - 2. The *union* of *any family* of open subsets is open.
 - 3. The *intersection* of any *finite* family of open subsets is open.

A pair (X, \mathcal{T}) consisting of a set X together with a topology \mathcal{T} on X is called **a topological space**.

- **Definition** A map $F: X \to Y$ is said to be <u>continuous</u> if for every open subset $U \subseteq Y$, the **preimage** $F^{-1}(U)$ is **open** in X.
- **Definition** A continuous bijective map $F: X \to Y$ with continuous inverse is called a <u>homeomorphism</u>. If there exists a homeomorphism from X to Y, we say that X and Y are <u>homeomorphic</u>.
- **Definition** Suppose X is a topological space. A collection \mathscr{B} of open subsets of X is said to be **a basis** for the topology of X (plural: **bases**) if every open subset of X is the union of some collection of elements of \mathscr{B} .

More generally, suppose X is merely a set, and \mathscr{B} is a collection of *subsets* of X satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. $X = \bigcup_{B \in \mathscr{B}} B$.
- 2. If $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$, then there exists $B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$.

Then the collection of all unions of elements of \mathcal{B} is a topology on X, called the topology generated by \mathcal{B} , and \mathcal{B} is a basis for this topology.

- Lemma 1.5 (Obtaining Basis from Given Topology). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a topological space. Suppose that $\mathscr C$ is a collection of open sets of X such that for each open set U of X and each x in U, there is an element C of $\mathscr C$ such that $x \in C \subset U$. Then C is a basis for the topology of X.
- Lemma 1.6 (Topology Comparison via Bases). [Munkres, 2000]
 Let $\mathscr B$ and $\mathscr B'$ be bases for the topologies $\mathscr T$ and $\mathscr T'$, respectively, on X. Then the following are equivalent:
 - 1. \mathcal{T}' is finer than \mathcal{T} .
 - 2. For each $x \in X$ and each basis element $B \in \mathcal{B}$ containing x, there is a basis element $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subset B$.
- Definition (Subbasis)

A subbasis \mathcal{S} for a topology on X is a collection of subsets of X whose union equals X.

The topology generated by the *subbasis* $\mathscr S$ is defined to be the collection $\mathscr T$ of **all unions** of **finite intersections** of elements of $\mathscr S$.

• Remark (Basis from Subbasis)
For a subbasis \mathscr{S} , the collection \mathscr{B} of all finite intersections of elements of \mathscr{S} is a basis,

1.3 Limit Point and Closure

- **Definition** A subset A of a topological space X is said to be **closed** if the set $X \setminus A$ is open.
- **Definition** Given a subset A of a topological space X, the interior of A is defined as the union of all open sets contained in A, and the closure of A is defined as the intersection of all closed sets containing A.

The interior of A is denoted by Int A or by \mathring{A} and the closure of A is denoted by CI A or by \overline{A} . Obviously \mathring{A} is an open set and \overline{A} is a closed set; furthermore,

$$\mathring{A} \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}$$
.

If A is **open**, $A = \mathring{A}$; while if A is **closed**, $A = \overline{A}$.

- Proposition 1.7 (Characterization of Closure in terms of Basis) [Munkres, 2000] Let A be a subset of the topological space X.
 - 1. Then $x \in \bar{A}$ if and only if every open set U containing x intersects A.
 - 2. Supposing the topology of X is given by a basis, then $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if every basis element B containing x intersects A.
- Remark We can say "U is a neighborhood of x" if "U is an open set containing x".
- Definition (*Limit Point*)

If A is a subset of the topological space X and if x is a point of X, we say that x is a $\underbrace{limit\ point}$ (or "cluster point," or "point of accumulation") of A if every neighborhood of x intersects A in some point other than x itself.

Said differently, x is **a** limit point of A if it belongs to the closure of $A \setminus \{x\}$. The point x may lie in A or not; for this definition it does not matter.

Theorem 1.8 (Decomposition of Closure)
 Let A be a subset of the topological space X; let A' be the set of all limit points of A. Then
 Ā = A ∪ A'.

• Corollary 1.9 A subset of a topological space is **closed** if and only if it contains all its **limit** points.

1.4 Subspace, Product and Quotient Topologies

1.4.1 Subspace Topology

• Definition If X is a topological space and $S \subseteq X$ is an arbitrary subset, we define **the** subspace topology on S (sometimes called the relative topology) by declaring a subset

 $U \subseteq S$ to be open in S if and only if there exists an open subset $V \subseteq X$ such that $U = V \cap S$.

Any subset of X endowed with the subspace topology is said to be a subspace of X.

• Lemma 1.10 (Basis of Subspace Topology)

If \mathscr{B} is a basis for the topology of X then the collection

$$\mathscr{B}_S = \{B \cap S : B \in \mathscr{B}\}\$$

is a **basis** for the subspace topology on $S \subset X$.

- Proposition 1.11 Let Y be a subspace of X. If A is closed in Y and Y is closed in X, then A is closed in X.
- Proposition 1.12 (Closure in Subspace Topology)
 Let Y be a subspace of X; let A be a subset of Y; let \(\bar{A}\) denote the closure of A in X. Then the closure of A in Y equals \(\bar{A}\) ∩ Y.

1.4.2 Product Topology

• Definition (J-tuples)

Let J be an index set. Given a set X, we define a $\underline{J\text{-tuple}}$ of elements of X to be a function $x:J\to X$. If α is an element of J, we often denote $\overline{the\ value\ of\ X}$ at α by X_{α} rather than $x(\alpha)$; we call it $\underline{the\ \alpha\text{-th\ coordinate}}$ of x. And we often denote the function x itself by the symbol

$$(x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}$$

which is as close as we can come to a "tuple notation" for an arbitrary index set J. We denote the set of all J-tuples of elements of X by X^J .

• Definition (Arbitrary Cartestian Products)

Let $\{A_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in J}$ be an indexed family of sets; let $X=\bigcup_{{\alpha}\in J}A_{\alpha}$. The cartesian product of this indexed family, denoted by

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}$$

is defined to be the set of all J-tuples $(x_{\alpha})_{{\alpha}\in J}$ of elements of X such that $x_{\alpha}\in A_{\alpha}$ for each ${\alpha}\in J$. That is, it is the set of all functions

$$x: J \to \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_{\alpha}$$

such that $x(\alpha) \in A_{\alpha}$ for each $\alpha \in J$.

• Definition (Projection Mapping or Coordinate Projection)
Let

$$\pi_{\beta}: \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha} \to X_{\beta}$$

be the function assigning to each element of the product space its β -th coordinate,

$$\pi_{\beta}((x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J}) = x_{\beta};$$

it is called the projection mapping associated with the index β .

• Definition (*Product Topology*)

Let \mathscr{S}_{β} denote the collection

$$\mathscr{S}_{\beta} = \left\{ \pi_{\beta}^{-1}(U_{\beta}) : U_{\beta} \text{ open in } X_{\beta} \right\},$$

and let \mathcal{S} denote the union of these collections,

$$\mathscr{S} = \bigcup_{\beta \in J} \mathscr{S}_{\beta}.$$

The topology generated by the **subbasis** S is called **the product topology**. In this topology $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$ is called **a product space**.

• Remark (Product Topology = Weak Topology by Coordinate Projections)

The product topology on $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_{\alpha}$ is the weak topology generated by a family of projection mappings $(\pi_{\beta})_{\beta \in J}$. It is the coarest (weakest) topology such that $(\pi_{\beta})_{\beta \in J}$ are continuous.

A typical element of the basis from the product topology is the finite intersection of subbasis where the index is different:

$$\pi_{\beta_1}^{-1}(V_{\beta_1})\cap\ldots\cap\pi_{\beta_n}^{-1}(V_{\beta_n})$$

Thus a neighborhood of x in the product topology is

$$N(x) = \{(x_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in J} : x_{\beta_1} \in V_{\beta_1}, \dots, x_{\beta_n} \in V_{\beta_n}\}$$

where there is **no restriction** for $\alpha \in \{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n\}$.

Note that for the box topology, a neighborhood of x is

$$N_b(x) = \{(x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in J} : x_\alpha \in U_\alpha, \ \forall \alpha \in J\} \subset N(x)$$

Thus the box topology is finer than the product topology. Moreover, for finite product $\prod_{\alpha=1}^{n} X_{\alpha}$, the box topology and the product topology is the same.

• **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a continuous injective map $F: X \to Y$ is called a **topological embedding** if it is a **homeomorphism** onto its image $F(X) \subseteq Y$ in the subspace topology.

1.4.3 Quotient Topology

• Definition $(Quotient\ Map)$

Let X and Y be topological spaces; let $\pi: X \to Y$ be a *surjective map*. The map π is said to be <u>a quotient map</u> provided a subset U of Y is *open* in Y <u>if and only if</u> $\pi^{-1}(U)$ is *open* in X.

• Remark (Quotient Map = Strong Continuity)

The condition of quotient map is stronger than continuity (it is called $\underline{strong\ continuity}$ in some literature).

continuity: U is open in $Y \Rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$ is open in X

open map: $\pi(V)$ is open in $Y \Leftarrow V$ is open in X

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quotient map : U is open in $Y \Leftrightarrow \pi^{-1}(U)$ is open in X

An equivalent condition is to require that a subset A of K be **closed** in Y if and only if $\pi^{-1}(A)$ is **closed** in X. Equivalence of the two conditions follows from equation

$$\pi^{-1}(Y \setminus B) = X \setminus \pi^{-1}(B).$$

• Definition (Saturated Set and Fiber)

If $\pi: X \to Y$ is a *surjective map*, a subset $U \subseteq X$ is said to be <u>saturated</u> with respect to π if U contains every set $\pi^{-1}(\{y\})$ that it **intersects**. Thus U is **saturated** if it equals to the **entire preimage** of its **image**: $U = \pi^{-1}(\pi(U))$.

Given $y \in Y$, the **fiber** of π over y is the set $\pi^{-1}(\{y\})$.

ullet Definition (Quotient Map via Saturated Set)

A surjective map $\pi: X \to Y$ is a **quotient map** if π is **continuous** and π maps **saturated open sets** of X to **open sets** of Y (or saturated closed sets of X to closed sets of Y).

• Definition (Open Map and Closed Map)

A map $f: X \to Y$ (continuous or not) is said to be an <u>open map</u> if for every open subset $U \subseteq X$, the image set f(U) is open in Y, and a <u>closed map</u> if for every closed subset $K \subseteq X$, the image f(K) is closed in Y.

• Definition (Quotient Topology)

If X is a space and A is a set and if $\pi: X \to A$ is a **surjective** map, then there exists **exactly one topology** \mathscr{T} on A relative to which π is a quotient map; it is called **the quotient topology** induced by π .

• Definition (Quotient Space)

Suppose X is a topological space and \sim is an equivalence relation on X. Let X/\sim denote the set of equivalence classes in X, and let $\pi: X \to X/\sim$ be the natural projection sending each point to its equivalence class. Endowed with the quotient topology determined by π , the space X/\sim is called the quotient space (or identification space) of X determined by π .

1.5 Constructing Continuous Functions

- Proposition 1.13 (Rules for Constructing Continuous Functions). [Munkres, 2000] Let X, Y, and Z be topological spaces.
 - 1. (Constant Function) If $f: X \to Y$ maps all of X into the single point y_0 of Y, then f is continuous.
 - 2. (Inclusion) If A is a subspace of X, the inclusion function $\iota: A \stackrel{X}{\hookrightarrow} is$ continuous.
 - 3. (Composites) If $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$ are continuous, then the map $g \circ f: X \to Z$ is continuous
 - 4. (Restricting the Domain) If $f: X \to Y$ is continuous, and if A is a subspace of X, then the restricted function $f|_A: A \to Y$ is continuous.
 - 5. (Restricting or Expanding the Range) Let $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. If Z is a subspace of Y containing the image set f(X), then the function $g: X \to Z$ obtained

by restricting the range of f is continuous. If Z is a space having Y as a subspace, then the function $h: X \to Z$ obtained by expanding the range of f is continuous.

- 6. (Local Formulation of Continuity) The map $f: X \to Y$ is continuous if X can be written as the union of open sets U_{α} such that $f|_{U_{\alpha}}$ is continuous for each α .
- Theorem 1.14 (The Pasting Lemma / Gluing Lemma). [Munkres, 2000] Let $X = A \cup B$, where A and B are closed in X. Let $f : A \to Y$ and $g : B \to Y$ be continuous. If f(x) = g(x) for every $x \in A \cap B$, then f and g combine to give a continuous function $h : X \to Y$, defined by setting $h|_A = f$, and $h|_B = g$.
- Remark The set A and B can be open sets, and the gluing lemma comes "Local Formulation of Continuity".
- Remark Notice the condition for the gluing lemma:
 - 1. The domain X is a union of two **closed sets** (or open sets) A and B
 - 2. The two functions f and g are **continuous** each of closed domain sets, respectively
 - 3. f and g agree on the intersection of two sets $A \cap B$.
- Theorem 1.15 (Maps into Products). [Munkres, 2000] Let $f: A \to X \times Y$ be given by the equation

$$f(a) = (f_1(a), f_2(a)).$$

Then f is continuous if and only if the functions

$$f_1: A \to X$$
 and $f_2: A \to Y$

are continuous. The maps f_1 and f_2 are called the coordinate functions of f.

1.6 Metric Topology

• Definition (*Metric Space*)

A metric space is a set M and a real-valued function $d(\cdot,\cdot): M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies:

- 1. (Non-Negativity) $d(x,y) \geq 0$
- 2. (**Definiteness**) d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y
- 3. (Symmetric) d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- 4. (Triangle Inequality) $d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

The function d is called a <u>metric</u> on M. The metric space M equipped with metric d is denoted as (M, d).

• Definition $(\epsilon - Ball)$

Given a metric d on X, the number d(x, y) is often called the **distance** between x and y in the metric d. Given $\epsilon > 0$, consider the set

$$B_d(x,\epsilon) = \{y : d(x,y) < \epsilon\}$$

of all points y whose distance from x is less than ϵ . It is called <u>the ϵ -ball centered at x</u>. Sometimes we omit the metric d from the notation and write this ball simply as $B(x, \epsilon)$, when no confusion will arise.

• Definition (*Metric Topology*)

If d is a metric on the set X, then the collection of all ϵ -balls $B_d(x, \epsilon)$, for $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, is a **basis** for a topology on X, called **the metric topology** induced by d.

• Definition (Metrizability)

If X is a topological space, X is said to be $\underline{metrizable}$ if there exists a metric d on the set X that induces the topology of X. \underline{A} \underline{metric} \underline{space} is a metrizable space X together with a specific metric d that gives the topology of X.

• Remark (Metrizability as Inverse Problem)

Given a metric d on X, we can generate a metric topology using ϵ -balls as basis. Conversely, given a topology $\mathscr T$ on X, is $\mathscr T$ a metric topology for some unknown metric d?

This is the question that *the metrization theory* is trying to answer.

• Theorem 1.16 (ϵ - δ Definition of Continuous Function in Metric Space). [Munkres, 2000]

Let $f: X \to Y$; let X and Y be **metrizable** with metrics d_x and d_y , respectively. Then **continuity** of f is **equivalent** to the requirement that given $x \in X$ and given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$d_x(x,y) < \delta \Rightarrow d_y(f(x),f(y)) < \epsilon.$$

- Remark To use ϵ - δ definition, both domain and codomain need to be metrizable.
- Lemma 1.17 (The Sequence Lemma). [Munkres, 2000]
 Let X be a topologicaJ space; let A ⊆ X. If there is a sequence of points of A converging to x, then x ∈ Ā; the converse holds if X is metrizable.
- Proposition 1.18 Let $f: X \to Y$. If the function 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 **metrizable**.
- Remark To show the converse part, i.e. "if $x_n \to x \Rightarrow f(x_n) \to f(x)$ then f is continuous", we just need the space X to be **first countable**. That is, at each point x, there is **a countable** collection $(U_n)_{n\in\mathbb{Z}_+}$ of **neighborhoods** of x such that any neighborhood U of x contains at least one of the sets U_n .
- Proposition 1.19 (Arithmetic Operations of Continuous Functions).
 If X is a topological space, and if f, g: X → Y are continuous functions, then f + g, f g, and f · g are continuous. If g(x) ≠ 0 for all x, then f/g is continuous.
- Definition (*Uniform Convergence*)

Let $f_n: X \to Y$ be a sequence of functions from the **set** X to **the metric space** Y. Let d be the metric for Y. We say that the sequence (f_n) **converges uniformly** to the function $f: X \to Y$ if given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an integer N such that

$$d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$$

for all n > N and **all** x **in** X.

• Theorem 1.20 (Uniform Limit Theorem). [Munkres, 2000] Let f_n: X → Y be a sequence of continuous functions from the topological space X to the metric space Y. If (f_n) converges uniformly to f, then f is continuous.

1.7 Connectedness and Compactness

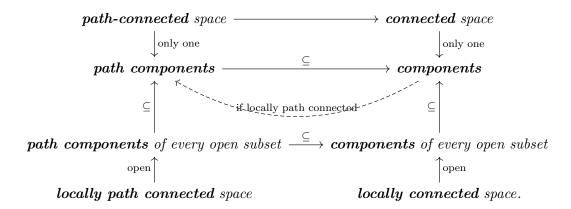
Remark Connectedness and compactness are basic topological properties. Both of them are defined based on a collection of open subsets.

- 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 uniformly 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.

1.7.1 Connectedness and Local Connectedness

• Concepts Related to Connectedness



• 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 <u>connected</u> 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.

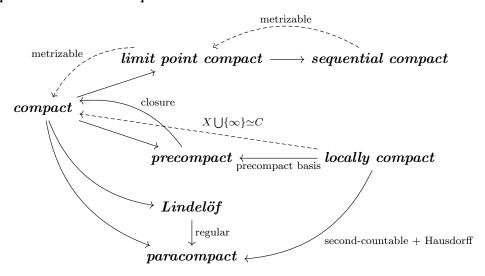
• Remark (Proof of Connectedness)

As the definition suggests, the proof of connectedness is done **by contradition**. One first assume that the set X has a **seperation**; 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.).

- **Definition** Recall that a topological space X is
 - <u>connected</u> 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.
- **Definition** A *maximal connected subset* of X (i.e., a connected subset that is not properly contained in any larger connected subset) is called a *component* (or *connected component*) of X.

1.7.2 Compactness and Local Compactness

• Concepts Related to Compactness



• Definition (Covering of Set and Open Covering of Topological Set)

A collection \mathscr{A} of subsets of a space X is said to <u>cover X</u>, or to be a <u>covering</u> of X, if the union of the elements of \mathscr{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 <u>compact</u> if every open covering \mathscr{A} of X contains a **finite** subcollection that also covers X.

• To prove *compactness*, the following property is useful:

Definition (Finite Intersection Property)

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

finite subcollection

$$\{C_1,\ldots,C_n\}$$

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

- Proposition 1.21 (Equivalent Definition of Compactness) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a topological space. Then X is compact if and only if for every collection \mathscr{C} of closed sets in X having the finite intersection property, the intersection $\bigcap_{C \in \mathscr{C}} C$ of all the elements of \mathscr{C} is nonempty.
- **Definition** If X and Y are topological spaces, a map $F: X \to Y$ (continuous or not) is said to be **proper** if for every **compact** set $K \subseteq Y$, the **preimage** $F^{-1}(K)$ is **compact**.
- **Definition** A topological space X is said to be <u>locally compact</u> if every point has a **neighborhood** contained in a **compact subset** of X.

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 1.22 (Unique One-Point Compactification) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space. Then X is <u>locally compact Hausdorff</u> 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.

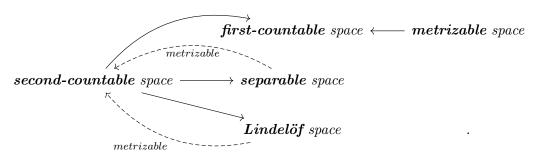
- Proposition 1.23 (Locally Compact Hausdorff = Precompact Basis) [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a Hausdorff space. Then X is locally compact if and only if given x in X, and given a neighborhood U of x, there is a neighborhood V of x such that \bar{V} is compact and $\bar{V} \subseteq U$.
- Corollary 1.24 (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 1.25 [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.
- 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.
- Theorem 1.26 (Tychonoff Theorem). [Munkres, 2000]
 An arbitrary product of compact spaces is compact in the product topology.

1.8 Countability and Separability

1.8.1 Countability Axioms

• Concepts Related to Countablity Axioms



• Definition (Countability)

A topological space X is said to be

- 1. first-countable if there is a countable neighborhood basis at each point,
- 2. <u>second-countable</u> if there is a countable basis for its topology.
- Proposition 1.27 (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 $f: X \to Y$. 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 (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*)

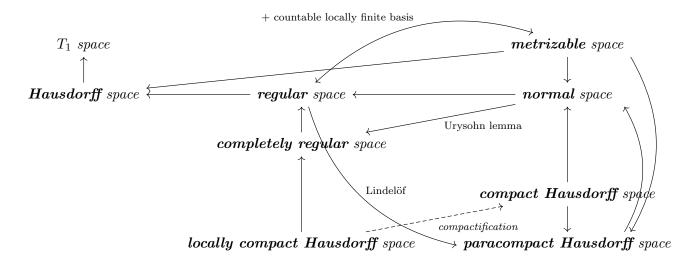
A space for which every open covering contains a countable subcovering is called a Lindelöf space.

- Proposition 1.28 (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 1.29 (Metric Space Countablility and Separablility)
 - 1. Every metric space is first countable.
 - 2. A metric space is **second countable** if and only if it is **separable**.
 - 3. Any **second countable** topological space is **separable**.

1.8.2 Separability Axioms

• Concepts Related to Separation Axioms



• Definition (Separation Axioms)

1. A topological space is called a $\underline{T_1}$ **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 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 <u>regular</u> (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 1.30

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

- Proposition 1.31 (*Limit Point in T*₁ *Axiom*). [Munkres, 2000] Let X be a space satisfying the T₁ axiom; let A be a subset of X. Then the point x is a limit point of A if and only if every neighborhood of x contains infinitely many points of A.
- Proposition 1.32 (Limit Point is Unique in Hausdorff Space). [Munkres, 2000]

 If X is a Hausdorff space, then a sequence of points of X converges to at most one point of X.
- Lemma 1.33 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 $\overline{V} \subseteq U$.
- Proposition 1.34 [Munkres, 2000] Every locally compact Hausdorff space is regular.

1.9 Important Results and Theorems on Normal Space

- Theorem 1.35 (Regular + Second-Countable \Rightarrow Normal)[Munkres, 2000] Every regular space with a countable basis is normal.
- Proposition 1.36 (Regular + Lindelöf ⇒ Normal)[Munkres, 2000] Every regular Lindelöf space is normal.
- Theorem 1.37 [Munkres, 2000] Every <u>metrizable</u> space is normal.
- Theorem 1.38 [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980] Every compact Hausdorff space X is normal.
- Theorem 1.39 [Munkres, 2000] Every <u>well-ordered</u> set X is normal in the order topology.
- Theorem 1.40 (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.

- 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 → [0,1] such that f(A) = {0} and f(B) = {1}, we say that A and B can be <u>separated</u> by a continuous function.
- 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 <u>continuous function</u> $f: X \to [0, 1]$ such that $f(x_0) = 1$ and $f(A) = \{0\}$.

• Remark

 $normal \Rightarrow completely regular \Rightarrow regular$

• Theorem 1.41 (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 1.42 [Folland, 2013] Every locally compact Hausdorff space is completely regular.
- Proposition 1.43 [Reed and Simon, 1980] Let C(X) be the set of all complex-valued continuous functions on X and $C_{\mathbb{R}}(X) \subseteq C(X)$ be the set of all real-valued continuous functions on X. Also define $C^b(X)$ as the set of all complex-valued bounded continuous functions on X. When X is a compact space, $C^b(X) = C(X)$. Define the norm as

$$||f||_{\infty} = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)|.$$

Then for <u>compact Hausdorff space</u> X, C(X) is a (complex) <u>Banach space</u> and C(X) is a (real) <u>Banach space</u>.

• Theorem 1.44 (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 α such that f_{α} 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_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 1.45 (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.
- Theorem 1.46 (Tietze Extension Theorem) [Munkres, 2000, Reed and Simon, 1980] Let X be a normal space; let A be a closed subspace of X.

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- 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 1.47 (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.

1.10 Metrization

• Theorem 1.48 (The Urysohn Metrization Theorem). [Munkres, 1975, Folland, 2013] Every second countable normal space is metrizable.

1.11 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 $\alpha, \beta \in l$ then there exists $\gamma \in I$ so that $\gamma \succ \alpha$ and $\gamma \succ \beta$.
- 2. \prec is a partial ordering.
- Definition (Net)

A <u>net</u> 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 $\alpha > \beta$.

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.

 \bullet 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 $x_{\alpha}\to x$) if for **any neighborhood** N of x, **there exists** a $\beta\in l$ so that $x_{\alpha}\in N$ if $\alpha\succ \beta$. The point x that being converged to is called **the limit point** of x_{α} .

Note that if $x_{\alpha} \to x$, then x_{α} is <u>eventually</u> in all neighborhoods of x. If x_{α} is <u>frequently</u> 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 1.49 [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 Let A be a set in a topological space X. Then, a point x is in the closure of A if and only if there is a net {x_α}_{α∈I} with x_α ∈ A, So that x_α → x.
- Proposition 1.50 [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 - 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 $x_{\alpha} \to x$, 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 $x_{\alpha}\to x$ and $x_{\alpha}\to y$, then x=y.
- **Definition** A net $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in I}$ is a <u>subnet</u> of a net $\{y_{\beta}\}_{{\beta}\in J}$ if and only if there is a function $F:I\to J$ 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 $\beta \in J$).
- Proposition 1.51 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 1.52 (The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem) [Reed and Simon, 1980]
 A space X is compact if and only if every net in X has a convergent subnet.

2 Special Space

- 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 meterizable;
 - 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 $A \subset X$, $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if there exists a squence of points in A that converges to x. (\Rightarrow need X being metric space);
 - f is **continuous** at x if and only if $x_n \to x$ leads to $f(x_n) \to f(x)$ (\Leftarrow part holds for metric space)
 - unform limit theorem: If the range of f_n is a metric space and f_n are continuous,

- then $f_n \to f$ uniformly means that f is a continuous function.
- $unform\ continuity\ theorem$: if f is a countinous 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 homemorphism (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**.

3 Summary of Preservation of Topological Properties

 Table 1: Summary of Preservation of Topological Properties Under Transformations

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

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