

YASAR UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES

(MASTER THESIS)

**ORDERS, ALEXANDROFF SPACES AND DIGRAPHS**

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## Approval page (KABUL VE ONAY SAYFASI)

Omeed AZEEZ tarafından YÜKSEK LİSANS tezi olarak sunulan "Order, Alexandroff Spaces and Digraphs" başlıklı bu çalışma Y.Ü. Lisansüstü Eğitim ve Öğretim Yönetmeliği ile Y.Ü. Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü Eğitim ve Öğretim Yönergesi'nin ilgili hükümleri uyarınca tarafımızdan değerlendirilerek savunmaya değer bulunmuş ve 15 / 05 / 2015 tarihinde yapılan tez savunma sınavında aday oybirliği/oyçokluğu ile başarılı bulunmuştur.

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## ÖZET

Sıralamalar, Alexandroff Uzayları ve Dıgraflar

Hazırlayan: Omeed Asaad AZEEZ, Matematik Yüksek Lisans

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Mehmet TERZİLER

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Bu tez esas olarak önsıralamalar, graflar ve dıgraflar gibi bazı başka kavramlarla bağlantılı olan Alexandroff Uzaylarını ele alıyor.

Birinci bölüm, bir sonraki bölümde kullanılan, topoloji, sıralama ve minimal açık kümeler hakkında bazı temel bilgileri veriyor.

İkinci bölümde, Alexandroff Uzayları minimal açık kümeler kullanılarak tanımlanıyor ve önsıralama, kısmı sıralama tanımları ve de esas konuyla (Alexandroff Uzayları) ve  $T_0$ - Alexandroff Uzayları ile bağlantıları veriliyor. Sonra iki Alexandroff uzayının çarpımı, Hausdorff Alexandroff Uzayları gibi bazı yeni uzaylar oluşturuluyor ve bölüm dönüşümü, bölüm uzayı ve indirgenemezliğin tanımları veriliyor.

Son bölüm graflarla ilgili kavramları tartışıyor ve onları topoloji ve Alexandroff Uzayları ile ilişkilendiriyor; digraf ve geçişken digraf tanımları tanıtılıyor ve Alexandroff Uzayları ile aralarındaki bağıntı değerlendiriliyor.

## **ATTESTATION**

I, Omeed Asaad Azeez do hereby attest that I have completed my thesis to get Master's (MSc) degree in Mathematics and I do hereby declare and attest that this is solely my work.

Sincerely,

Signature

Date: 15 / 05 /2015

## **Abstract**

ORDERS, Alexandroff Spaces and Digraphs

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2015 (40 pages)

This thesis mainly deals with Alexandroff spaces which are related to some concepts like preorders, graphs and digraphs.

The first chapter gives some basic notions about topology, order and minimal open sets, which are used in the next chapter.

In the second chapter, Alexandroff spaces are defined by using minimal open sets, and definitions of preorder, partial order as well as their connection with the main subject(Alexandroff spaces) and  $T_0$ -Alexandroff spaces are given.

Then some new spaces such as the product of two Alexandroff spaces and Hausdorff Alexandroff spaces are constructed, and the definitions of a quotient map and quotient space and irreducibility are given.

The last chapter discusses notions about graphs and relates them to topology and Alexandroff spaces; the definitions of digraph and transitive digraph are introduced, and relation between these and Alexandroff spaces is considered.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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## Introduction

Alexandroff Spaces were first introduced in 1937 by P.S. Alexandroff under the name “discrete spaces”. The name is now forgotten because the name discrete spaces are used for topological spaces in which every subset is open.

Alexandroff showed in [2] that preorders or quasiorders on a set are equivalent to the topologies on in which arbitrary intersections of open sets are open. In other words, Alexandroff topologies on a set are in one-to-one correspondence with preorders on .

Alexandroff topologies have several characterizations. Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then the following are equivalent:

(1) Open and closed characterizations:

Open set. An arbitrary intersection of open sets in  $X$  is open.

Closed set. An arbitrary union of closed sets in  $X$  is closed.

(2) Neighborhood characterization:

Every point of  $X$  has a smallest neighborhood.

(3) Preorder characterizations:

Specialization preorder. Given the preorder  $\leq$  on  $X$ ,  $\tau$  is the finest topology satisfying  $\tau \leq \tau_{\leq}$  if and only if  $\tau \leq \tau_{\leq}$ .

Open up-set. There is a preorder  $\leq$  on  $X$  such that the open sets of  $\tau$  are precisely those that are upward closed.

Closed down-set. There is a preorder  $\leq$  on  $X$  such that the closed sets of  $\tau$  are precisely those that are downward closed.

In 1980s, Alexandroff spaces were rediscovered when the concept of “finite generation” was applied to general topology and the name “finitely generated spaces” was adopted for them; actually, these spaces have all the properties of finite spaces. A systematic investigation of Alexandroff spaces from the point of general topology which had been neglected since the original paper [2] of Alexandroff was taken up by Arenas [3].

Inspired by the use of Alexandroff topologies in computer science, digital topology, graph theory, applied mathematicians and physicists in the late 1990s began investigating the Alexandroff topology corresponding to “causal sets” (locally finite sets with a partial order) which arise from a preorder defined on “spacetime” (fundamentally discrete) modeling causality.

In this thesis, we review almost all works done on Alexandroff spaces. In chapter 2, we relate preorders on a set to Alexandroff spaces, and partial orders to  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces. Then we construct new Alexandroff spaces from given ones, making use of the works from [18], [7], [22] and [3].

In chapter 3, we study Alexandroff spaces in connection with digraphs. Essentially, we state and prove in Theorem 3.3.1 that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of all Alexandroff topologies and the set of all transitive digraphs on a set (not necessarily finite).

Finally, defining the “converse” of digraph we state and prove Theorem 3.3.5 concerning the “closed topology” induced by an Alexandroff topology.

## Chapter 1

### Basic Definitions, Concepts and Results

In this chapter, we introduce basic definitions and concepts to make easier the reading of the thesis.

#### 1.1 Topological Spaces

There are several equivalent definitions of a topology. Among them we can mention *neighborhoods definition* whose axiomatization is due to F.Hausdorff, *Kuratowski closure definition*, *open sets definition*, and using de Morgan's laws *closed sets definition*. The most commonly used is that in term of open sets though the most intuitive is that in the terms of neighborhoods. These concepts can be found in any text book on topology, for example, see [11] and [19].

**Definition 1.1.1** A topological space is a set  $X$  together with a collection  $\tau$  of subsets of  $X$ , called open sets, satisfying the following axioms:

- T<sub>1</sub>. The empty set and  $X$  itself are open.
- T<sub>2</sub>. Any union of open sets is open.
- T<sub>3</sub>. The intersection of any finite number of open sets is open.

The collection  $\tau$  is also called a topology on  $X$ .

#### Examples 1.1.2

- (a) The trivial (indiscrete) topology consists of  $\{\emptyset, X\}$ .
- (b) Given a set  $X$  is called the discrete topology on  $X$ .

- (c) The Sierpinski space (or the connected two-point set) is a finite topological space with two points, only one of which is closed. It is the smallest example of a topological space which is neither trivial nor discrete. More precisely, a Sierpinski space is a topological space  $S$  whose underlying set is and open sets are
  
- (d) Given an infinite set  $X$ , a cofinite topology on  $X$  is a topology in which the open sets are the empty set and the sets whose complements are finite.

Note that the trivial topology is the coarsest topology and the discrete topology is the finest topology on a set.

**Definition 1.1.3** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space.

- (i) It is a  $T_0$  – space or Kolmogorov space if for every pair of distinct points  $x, y$  of  $X$ , at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other.

The intuitive meaning of this condition is that the points of  $X$  are topologically distinguishable, that is, for any  $x, y$  in  $X$ , there is an open set which contains one of these points and not the other.

- (ii) It is  $T_1$  –space or a Fréchet space, if for every pair of distinct points of  $X$  each has a neighborhood not containing the other.
  
- (iii) It is a  $T_2$  –space or a Hausdorff space, or a separated space, if for every pair of distinct points  $x, y$  of  $X$ , there exist a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  and a neighborhood  $V$  of  $y$  such that  $U$  and  $V$  are disjoint.

**Proposition 1.1.4** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (a)  $X$  is a  $T_1$ -space.
- (b)  $X$  is a  $T_0$ -space.
- (c) The singleton  $\{x\}$  is closed set.
- (d) Every subset of  $X$  is the intersection of all open sets containing it.
- (e) Every finite set is closed.
- (f) Every finite set is open.

**Proposition 1.1.5**

Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (a)  $X$  is a  $T_2$ -space.
- (b) Any singleton  $\{x\}$  is equal to the intersection of all closed neighborhoods of  $x$ . (A closed neighborhood of  $x$  is a closed set that contains an open set containing  $x$ .)
- (c) The diagonal  $\Delta = \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$  is closed as a subset of the product space  $X \times X$ .

**Examples and Counterexamples 1.1.6**

1. Nearly all topological spaces considered in mathematics are  $T_0$ ; in particular,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are  $T_0$ -space.
2. The trivial topology is not a  $T_0$ -space; no points are distinguishable.
3. Sierpinski space is a simple example of a topology that is  $T_0$  but not  $T_1$ .
4. The cofinite topology on an infinite set is a simple example of a topology that is  $T_1$  but not  $T_2$ . (That's the case, because no two open sets of the cofinite topology are distinct!).
5. All metric spaces are  $T_2$ -space.

**Definition 1.1.7** Let  $X$  be a topological space. A collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of subsets of  $X$  is said to form a basis for the space if the following two conditions are met:

- B<sub>1</sub>. The union of all elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  is the whole space  $X$ .
- B<sub>2</sub>. Any finite intersection of elements from  $\mathcal{B}$  is itself a union of the members of  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Examples 1.1.8**

1. For any topological space, the collection of all open sets is a basis. (That's because any open subset of a topological space can be expressed as a union of size one).
2. For a discrete space, the collection of singletons forms a basis (since every open subset of a discrete topological space is a union of singletons).
3. A basis for the usual topology on Euclidean space is the open balls.
4. The *family* is a basis for the indiscrete topology on  $X$ .

**Definition 1.1.9** Let  $X$  be a topological space. A subcollection  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\tau$  is said to be a subbase or subbasis of  $\tau$  if  $\mathcal{B}$  satisfies one of the two following equivalent conditions:

- S<sub>1</sub>.  $\mathcal{B}$  generates  $\tau$ , that is,  $\tau$  is the smallest topology containing  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- S<sub>2</sub>. The collection of open sets consisting of all finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  together with  $\emptyset$  and the empty set, forms a basis for  $\tau$ . (This means that every non-empty proper open set in  $X$  can be written as a union of finite intersections of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ .)

### Examples 1.1.10

1. The usual topology on the real numbers has a subbase consisting of all semi-infinite open intervals either of the form  $(-\infty, a)$  or  $(b, \infty)$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are real numbers. Together, these generate the usual topology, since, for  $(a, b)$ , the intersections  $(-\infty, a) \cap (b, \infty)$  generate the usual topology.
2. A second subbase is formed by taking the subfamily where  $a$  and  $b$  are rational.

### 1.2 Orders and topology

In the 1937, P. Alexandroff showed in [2] that quasiorders or preorders on a set  $X$  are equivalent to the topologies on  $X$  which are closed under arbitrary intersections. Then, being an Alexandroff space restricts the type of topological spaces we are studying in general. So in order for an Alexandroff space to be useful, we must find mathematically interesting examples of its applications. Clearly, any discrete space is an Alexandroff space. Also a discrete space is Hausdorff Alexandroff space and vice versa. Furthermore, if  $X$  is Hausdorff, then the associated quasiorder is equality. What is new is that non-Hausdorff topological spaces are finding numerous applications today in the areas of computer science, (see [16], [1]).

**Definition 1.2.1** Let  $X$  be any non-empty set and let  $\leq$  be a binary relation on  $X$ . Then

- (i)  $\leq$  is a quasiorder (or a preorder) on  $X$  if it is reflexive and transitive.
- (ii)  $\leq$  is a partial order on  $X$  if it is antisymmetric and quasiorder on  $X$ .
- (iii)  $\leq$  is a total (or linear) order on  $X$  if  $\leq$  is a partial order and for any two elements  $x, y$  in  $X$  either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$  that is, any two elements are comparable with respect to  $\leq$ .
- (iv)  $\leq$  is the discrete order on  $X$  if  $x \leq y$  if and only if  $x = y$ .
- (v)  $\leq$  is an equivalence relation on  $X$ , if it is symmetric and quasiorder.

From now on we shall denote by  $(P, \leq)$ , and call  $(P, \leq)$  to be a partially ordered or quasiordered set, or even a poset or a qoset for simplicity.

**Definition 1.2.2** Let  $(P, \leq)$  be a poset or qoset and let  $I$  be a subset of  $P$ . Then

- (i)  $I$  is a down-set (or a decreasing set, or order ideal) if, whenever  $x \in I$  and  $y \leq x$ , we have  $y \in I$ .
- (ii)  $I$  is an up-set (or an increasing set, order filter) if, whenever  $x \in I$  and  $x \leq y$ , we have  $y \in I$ .

Note that some authors use the terms *decreasing hole* for down-set and *increasing hole* for up-set.

Thus we may define the following:

$$I(x) = \{y \in P \mid y \leq x\} \quad \text{and} \quad F(x) = \{y \in P \mid x \leq y\},$$

and

Down-sets (up-sets) of the form  $I(x)$  ( $F(x)$ ) are called principal and denoted also by  $I(x)$  ( $F(x)$ ).

**Proposition 1.2.3** Let  $(P, \leq)$  be a poset or a qoset. Then

1.  $I(x)$  is the smallest down-set containing  $x$ .
2.  $I$  is down-set if and only if  $I = I(x)$  for some  $x \in P$ .

**Lemma 1.2.4**

Let  $(P, \leq)$  be a poset and  $I$  be a down-set of  $P$ . Then the following assertions are equivalent:

1.  $I$  is principal. ☒
2.  $I$  is a principal ideal.
3.  $I$  is a principal filter.

More on order ideals can be found, for example, in [9].



Here we recall the following well-known definition and fact.

**Definition 1.2.5** Given a non-empty set  $X$ , let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a subcollection of the subsets of  $X$ . If

- (i)  $\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{P}} A = X$ , for any  $A, B \in \mathcal{P}$ ,
- (ii)  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ,
- (iii)  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ,

then  $\mathcal{P}$  is called a partition of  $X$ ; the members of  $\mathcal{P}$  are called equivalence classes or blocks.

If  $\mathcal{P}$  is a partition of  $X$  and  $\leq$  is a partial order on  $X$ , then  $(\mathcal{P}, \leq)$  is called a partially ordered partition, or a popartition of  $X$ .

**Example 1.2.6** Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be the partition of real line  $\mathbb{R}$ . Order  $\mathcal{P}$  by

if and only if

where  $\leq$  is the usual order on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(\mathcal{P}, \leq)$  is a popartition of  $\mathbb{R}$ . In fact,  $(\mathcal{P}, \leq)$  is a totally ordered partition of  $\mathbb{R}$  since  $\leq$  is a total order on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 1.2.7**

There is a natural correspondence between an equivalence relation on a set and a partition of

As it is pointed out in [21], there is a correspondence between a quasiorder on a set and a popartition of  $X$ .

**Proposition 1.2.8** There is a correspondence between a quasiorder on a set and a popartition of  $X$ .

**Proof** First, suppose that  $\leq$  is a quasiorder on  $X$ . Define a relation  $\sim$  on  $X$  by

$x \sim y$  if and only if  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq x$ .

Clearly,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $X$ . Thus there is a corresponding partition of  $X$ , by Theorem 1.2.7. Let  $\{C_i\}$  be that partition. The elements of  $X$  are equivalence classes of the form  $C_i$ , put

$C_i \leq C_j$  if and only if there exist  $x \in C_i$  with  $x \leq y$  for some  $y \in C_j$ .

Now  $\leq$  is a partial order on the equivalence classes of  $\sim$ . Hence any quasiorder on  $X$  generates a popartition of  $X$ .

Conversely, if  $\{C_i\}$  is a popartition of  $X$ , then define the relation  $\leq$  on  $X$  by

$x \leq y$  if and only if  $x \in C_i$  and  $y \in C_j$  with  $C_i \leq C_j$ .

Clearly,  $\leq$  is a quasiorder. Thus, from any popartition of  $X$  we can obtain a quasiorder on  $X$  and vice – versa. This completes the proof.  $\square$

In 1937, Alexandroff [2] noted another occurrence of quasiorder in terms of topological concepts. Quasiorders on a finite set are identical to the topologies on that set!

A topology on a set is called *principal topology* if arbitrary intersections of open sets are open sets. Quasiorders on an arbitrary set are identical to the principal topologies on that set! (See [5].)

Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. The *specialization order*  $\leq$  on  $X$  is defined by

$x \leq y$  if and only if  $x \in \bar{\{y\}}$

where  $\bar{\{y\}}$  denotes the closure of  $\{y\}$  in  $X$ . This definition means that every open neighborhood of  $x$  contains  $y$ .

**Proposition 1.2.9** The specialization order is quasiorder on  $X$ .

**Proof** Since for each  $x \in X$  we have  $x \leq x$ , it follows that  $\leq$  is reflexive.

Now let  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq z$  for  $x, y, z \in X$ . Then  $x \leq z$  and  $\leq$  imply

$x \leq z$ , hence  $\leq$  is transitive.  $\square$

Now if  $\leq$  is a quasiorder on  $X$ , then the set of all down-sets of  $X$  is a principal topology on  $X$ , called specialization topology associated with  $\leq$ . Since the complement of down-sets in a poset are up-sets, the closure of a set  $A \subseteq X$  relative to the specialization topology is the smallest up-set of  $X$  that contains  $A$ . More on principal topologies can be found, for example, in [10]. Principal topologies are called *Alexandroff discrete topologies* or  $A$  – topologies in [11].  $A$  – topologies are precisely the topology in which every point has a minimal neighborhood, as we show in chapter 2.

We shall mainly be concerned with  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces. Thus, the specialization topology associated with quasiorder  $\leq$  is  $T_0$  if and only if  $\leq$  is anti-symmetric, i.e. if and only if  $\leq$  is a partial order; indeed, whenever  $\leq$  is such a topology, then  $X$  is  $T_0$  if and only if for every pair  $x, y \in X$ , either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ , that is, either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ .

The following is obvious.

**Proposition 1.2.10** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then

- (a) If it is an Alexandroff space, then the only  $T_1$  – topology on  $X$  is the discrete topology.
- (b) If it is a finite  $T_0$  – space, then there is  $x \in X$  such that  $\{x\}$  is closed.

As it is pointed out in [8], *at least for finite case* we can relate quasiorders and partial orders on a set to the topologies on .

Given a set we shall denote by

: the set of quasiorders on ,

the set of partial orders on ,

T the set of topologies on ,

T<sub>0</sub> the set of T<sub>0</sub> - topologies on

**Theorem 1.2.11** Let be a finite set with elements. Then

(a) There is a one - to - one correspondence between and T .

(b) There is a one - to - one correspondence between and T<sub>0</sub> .

**Proof**

(a) Suppose that is a quasiorder on . Define a topology on which has a basis of open sets of the form for . This is indeed a basis, since . Thus, there corresponds a topology to such given quasiorder .

Conversely, assume that is a given topology on . Then define a relation on by:

if and only if , where .

Clearly, the relation is quasiorder on . Thus, from a topology on we obtain a quasiorder on .

(b) Using the correspondence in (a), it suffices to show that a partial order on corresponds to a T<sub>0</sub> -space and vice - versa.

Let  $\leq$  be a partial order on  $X$  and  $\tau$  with  $\leq$ . Then either  $\leq$  and  $\tau$  are incomparable or  $\tau \leq \leq$ , or  $\leq \leq \tau$ .

Case 1:  $\leq$  and  $\tau$  incomparable. Then  $\tau \leq \leq$  and  $\leq \leq \tau$ .

Case 2:  $\tau \leq \leq$ . Then  $\tau \leq \leq$  and  $\leq \leq \tau$ .

Case 3:  $\leq \leq \tau$ . Then  $\tau \leq \leq$  and  $\leq \leq \tau$ .

Thus in all cases we have  $T_0$ -space.

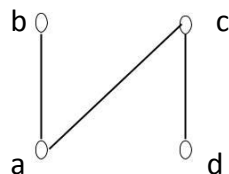
Conversely, suppose that a  $T_0$ -topology is given on  $X$ , and let  $x \neq y$  with  $\tau(x) \neq \tau(y)$ . Then  $x$  belongs to every open set containing  $x$  and  $y$  belongs to every open set containing  $y$ . Therefore  $\tau(x) \neq \tau(y)$ , hence  $\tau$  is antisymmetric, that is,  $\tau$  is a partial order.  $\square$

**Remark 1.2.12**

1. The proof of Theorem 1.2.11 is not valid for *finite* sets, because two correspondences in (a) might no longer be inverses of each other: arbitrary intersections of open sets are not open, in general.
2. For an infinite set  $X$ , the above correspondence holds only for Alexandroff spaces on  $X$ .
3. In connection to this theorem, Proposition 1.2.10 says that the only poset (finite or infinite) corresponding to  $T_1$ -space is the antichain and that every finite poset has a maximal element!

**Example 1.2.13** (Illustrating Theorem 1.2.11(b))

Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$  and  $\leq$ ,  $\tau$ ,  $\sigma$ . This poset has the following diagram:



From this poset, we have the corresponding  $T_0$  – Alexandroff space

$$\{ \dots \}$$

with the *minimal* basis  $\{ \dots \}$ .

Now, let's reverse the process: Consider  $T_0$  – Alexandroff space  $X$ , where

$$\{ \dots \}.$$

Then we will find the specialization order on  $X$ :

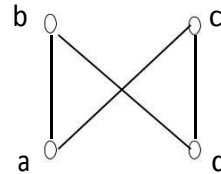
$x \leq y$  if and only if  $x \in \overline{\{y\}}$ .

It is easily found that  $\dots$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\dots$  and  $\dots$ .

Thus we have

$$\dots, \dots, \dots, \dots.$$

The corresponding poset on  $X$  has the diagram



**Definition 1.2.14** A topological space  $X$  is called a *locally Sierpinski space*, if every point has a neighborhood homeomorphic to a Sierpinski space.

This means that for  $x \in X$ , there exists  $U$ ,  $x \in U$ , called Sierpinski set, such that the relative topology on  $U$  is a copy of Sierpinski topology.

Note that Sierpinski sets are open and together with isolated points, they form a basis for open subsets of  $X$ .

The following can be found in [6].

**Example 1.2.15** A locally Sierpinski space is  $T_0$  – Alexandroff space.

**Example 1.2.16** If  $X$  is a locally Sierpinski space and  $Y$  is a discrete space, then  $X \times Y$  is a locally Sierpinski space.

### 1.3 Minimal open sets

When we shall study Alexandroff spaces in Chapter 2, we shall need minimal open sets. This section is dealing with those sets. For details, see [20].

Let  $X$  be a topological space.

#### Definition 1.3.1

A nonempty subset  $U$  of  $X$  is said to be a minimal open set if any open set contained in  $U$  is the empty set or itself.

#### Proposition 1.3.2

- (a) Let  $U$  be a minimal open set and  $V$  be an open set. Then  $U \cap V = \emptyset$  or  $U \subseteq V$ .
- (b) Two minimal open sets are either disjoint or coincide.

#### Proof

- (a) Assume, to the contrary, that  $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$  and  $U \not\subseteq V$ . Since  $U \cap V$  is minimal and  $U \cap V \subseteq U$  by Definition 1.3.1, we must have  $U \cap V = U$ , hence  $U \subseteq V$ .
- (b) Given two minimal open sets  $U$  and  $V$ , if  $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ , then by (a) we have  $U \subseteq V$  and  $V \subseteq U$ , so  $U = V$ . □

**Proposition 1.3.3** Let  $A$  be a minimal open set and  $x \in A$ . Then  $A$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  for any neighborhood of  $x$ .

**Proof** Assume, to the contrary, containing  $x$ . By hypothesis is an open set This Thus, and a minimal open set.  $\square$  contradicts the fact that is

**Proposition 1.3.4** Let  $A$  be a minimal open set.

Then  $A$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  for any neighborhood of  $x$ .

**Proof** First, we have  $A$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ , by Proposition 1.3.3. But, as  $A$  is an open neighborhood of  $x$ , we have  $A$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ . Hence we get  $A$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 1.3.5** Let  $A$  be a minimal open set and let  $x \in A$ . Then  $A$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  for any neighborhood of  $x$ .

**Proof** This follows from Proposition 1.3.2.  $\square$

**Corollary 1.3.6** Let  $A$  be a minimal open set and  $x \in A$ . Let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $x$ . Then  $A \cap U$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  or  $A \cap U = \emptyset$ .

**Proof** Put  $V = A \cap U$ . If  $V \neq \emptyset$ , for any open neighborhood of  $x$ , then  $V$  is a neighborhood of  $x$ . Therefore  $V$ , otherwise there exists an open neighborhood of  $x$  such that  $V \cap W = \emptyset$  then we have  $\square$

**Proposition 1.3.7** Let  $A$  be any nonempty *finite* set. Then there exists at least one *finite* minimal open set such that  $A = \bigcup_{x \in A} U_x$ .

**Proof** If  $A$  is a minimal set, we may have  $A$ . So assume that  $A$  is not a minimal open set. Then there exists a finite open set  $U$  such that  $A \cap U \neq \emptyset$ .



If  $U$  is a minimal open set, we may set  $\mathcal{B} = \{U\}$ . If  $U$  is not a minimal open set, there exists a finite open set  $V$  such that  $U \supsetneq V$ . Containing this process, we obtain a sequence of open sets

But  $\mathcal{B}$  was finite, so this process repeats only finitely. Hence, eventually, we get a minimal open set  $U$  for some positive integer  $n$ , and proof is complete.  $\square$

**Definition 1.3.8**

A topological space is said to be a *locally finite space*, if each of its elements is contained in a finite open set.

**Proposition 1.3.9** Let  $X$  be a locally finite space and  $U$  a nonempty open set. Then there exists at least a *finite* minimal open set  $V$  such that  $V \subseteq U$ .

**Proof** Since  $U$  is nonempty, it contains an element  $x$ .  $X$  is locally finite by hypothesis, hence there is a finite open set  $V$  such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ . Because  $V$  and  $U$  is finite, it follows that we have a minimal open set  $W$  such that  $W \subseteq V$  by Proposition 1.3.7.  $\square$

**Corollary 1.3.10** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a collection of nonempty sets and  $U$  be a nonempty finite open set. Then  $\bigcup \{B \in \mathcal{B} \mid B \subseteq U\}$  is a finite open set.  $\square$

**Corollary 1.3.11** Any locally finite space is an Alexandroff space.  $\square$

## Chapter 2

### ALEXANDROFF SPACES

As we mentioned in Chapter 1, Alexandroff spaces were introduced by P.S.Alexandroff (see [2]) under the name *discrete* spaces as topological spaces in which arbitrary intersections of open sets are open. Discrete spaces today are those special Alexandroff spaces in which every point is isolated; hence every set is open and closed. Accordingly, finite spaces and locally finite spaces (those in which each point has a finite open neighborhood) are clearly Alexandroff spaces.

In this chapter, we discuss the basic properties of Alexandroff spaces. Then we relate preorders (quasiorder) on a set to Alexandroff spaces, and partial orders to  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces. Finally, we show how to construct new Alexandroff spaces from given ones. To do this, we mainly make use of [14] as well as [18], [7], [22], and [3].

#### 2.1 Topological *properties* of Alexandroff spaces

In this section, we study spaces that have topologies with a stronger condition, namely, arbitrary intersections of open sets are open. This condition is a big restriction, since important spaces such as Euclidean spaces do not satisfy this property. Thus, for an Alexandroff space to be a mathematically interesting, it is crucial that it possesses properties that are not necessarily shared by a standard topological space.

**Definition 2.1.1** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then  $X$  is called an Alexandroff space, or sometimes  $A$  - space, if arbitrary intersections of open sets are open.

An immediate consequence of this definition is the following.

**Proposition 2.1.2** Any discrete topological space is an Alexandroff space.

**Proof** This is obvious, since in a discrete space any subset is open.

The following result is also clear.

**Proposition 2.1.3** A metric space  $X$  is an Alexandroff space if and only if  $X$  has the discrete topology.

**Proof** Suppose that  $X$  is an Alexandroff space and let  $x \in X$ . Then the open balls  $B(x, \frac{1}{n})$  are open in  $X$ , where  $n$  is a natural number. Since  $X$  is Alexandroff, any intersection of  $\{B(x, \frac{1}{n})\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is open, so  $\{x\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} B(x, \frac{1}{n})$  is open. But by the property of the metric,  $B(x, \frac{1}{n}) \cap B(x, \frac{1}{m}) = B(x, \min\{\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{m}\})$ . Thus, we have shown that one-point sets, singletons, are open. Hence  $X$  has the discrete topology.

Conversely, if  $X$  has the discrete topology, then it is Alexandroff by Proposition 2.1.2.  $\square$

Definition 2.1.1 is not too useful for proving theorems about Alexandroff spaces. We will use a different, yet equivalent definition in terms of minimal open neighborhoods. Recall that in a topological space  $X$ , a neighborhood of a point  $x \in X$  is a set  $U$  containing an open subset which contains  $x$ .

**Theorem 2.1.4**  $X$  is an Alexandroff space if and only if each point in  $X$  has a minimal open neighborhood.

**Proof** Suppose that  $X$  is an Alexandroff space and let  $x$  be any element in  $X$ . Let  $U$  be an open neighborhood of  $x$ . Take  $y \in U$  for  $y \neq x$ . Then  $\{y\}$  is an open neighborhood of  $y$ , because  $X$  is Alexandroff. On the other hand, by its definition  $U$  is a minimal open neighborhood of  $x$ .

Conversely, assume that each  $x \in X$  has a minimal open neighborhood  $U_x$ . We prove that  $X$  is Alexandroff space. Let  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ , where  $U_\alpha$  is open in  $X$  for each  $\alpha \in I$ . If  $x \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ , then  $U_x$  is open and we are done. If  $x \notin \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ , then  $U_x$  has at least one element; so for  $\alpha \in I$ , we have  $U_x \cap U_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  for all  $\alpha \in I$ . Hence,  $U_x \cap \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \neq \emptyset$  for all  $\alpha \in I$  because  $U_x$  is the minimal open neighborhood of  $x$ .

Thus, we have  $\mathcal{B}_x$ . This means that open set  $U$  is an open set, since it contains an is Alexandroff.  $\square$   
 around each of its points. Therefore,

We denote by  $\mathcal{B}_x$  the set of all open neighborhoods of  $x$ . Thus  $\mathcal{B}_x$ , that is,  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is the minimum element of  $\mathcal{B}_x$  ordered by inclusion.

**Remark 2.1.5** Let  $X$  be a topological space and let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . Then the closure of  $A$  is defined by the set

When  $X$  is Alexandroff, we will denote  $\mathcal{B}_x$  simply by  $\mathcal{B}_x$ .

Note that for every  $x \in X$ , we have

The following fact gathers some easy properties of Alexandroff spaces (see [19]).

**Fact** If  $X$  is an Alexandroff space, then for all  $x \in X$  and  $U \in \mathcal{B}_x$  we have:

- (1)  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{B}_x$ .
- (2)  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is a minimal basis for  $\mathcal{B}_x$ .
- (3)  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is the unique minimal basis for  $\mathcal{B}_x$ .

Also we recall that a basis for a topology is *minimal* if it does not contain any basis as a subfamily.

**Theorem 2.1.6** (see [5]). Let  $X$  be an Alexandroff space. Then the basis  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is the unique minimal basis for  $\mathcal{B}_x$ .

**Proof** Fact (1) states that  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{B}_x$ . We now prove that  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is the unique minimal basis of  $\mathcal{B}_x$ . So let  $\mathcal{B}'$  be any basis of  $\mathcal{B}_x$ . We show that  $\mathcal{B}' = \mathcal{B}_x$ . For  $x \in X$ , we have  $\mathcal{B}'_x = \mathcal{B}_x$  for some  $U \in \mathcal{B}'_x$ , by hypothesis that  $\mathcal{B}'$  is a basis. Thus, there exists  $U \in \mathcal{B}'_x$  such that  $U \in \mathcal{B}_x$ ; consequently,  $\mathcal{B}'_x = \mathcal{B}_x$  by

Fact (2). Since  $\mathcal{B}$  is a minimal basis, we have  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ . So we have proved that  $\mathcal{B}$  is minimal for every  $\mathcal{C}$  and hence  $\mathcal{B}$  is minimal. That shows the minimality of  $\mathcal{B}$ , since every subbase  $\mathcal{C}$  is in fact equal to  $\mathcal{B}$ . That proves also that  $\mathcal{B}$  is the unique minimal basis, because  $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ , and so  $\mathcal{C}$  is not minimal, for every basis  $\mathcal{C}$ .  $\square$

We now construct some examples of Alexandroff spaces (see [14]).

**Example 2.1.7** Take  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$ , where  $\mathbb{R}$  is the set of real numbers and  $\mathbb{Z}$  is the set of integers. Then  $\mathbb{R}$  is an Alexandroff space with neighborhoods  $\mathcal{B}$  where  $B_x = \{x\}$ . Note that for any two minimal open neighborhoods  $B_x$  and  $B_y$ , we have that  $B_x$  and  $B_y$  are disjoint.

**Example 2.1.8** (An Alexandroff space on  $\mathbb{R}$ )

Take  $\mathbb{R}$  and let  $\mathcal{B} = \{B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots\}$ . Here  $B_n$  is the closed ball with center 0 and radius  $1/n$ , and  $B_n = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x| \leq 1/n\}$ . For  $B_0$  is a minimal set in  $\mathcal{B}$  containing 0. Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for an Alexandroff topology.

## 2.2 Alexandroff spaces, Quasiorder and partial orders

In this section, we relate Alexandroff spaces to quasiordered sets, and  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces to partially ordered sets. We first give two definitions.

**Definition 2.2.1** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be quasiordered (or partially ordered) sets. A map  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is order – preserving if  $x \leq y$  implies  $f(x) \leq f(y)$ .

**Definition 2.2.2** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. A function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $X$  for each open  $U$  in  $Y$ .

**Proposition 2.2.3** An Alexandroff space  $X$  admits a quasiordered structure  $\leq$ .

**Proof** For every  $x \in X$ , let  $\mathcal{O}_x = \{U \in \mathcal{O} : x \in U\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{O}_x$  is open, since  $X$  is Alexandroff. Now define the relation  $\leq$  on  $X$  by

$x \leq y$  if and only if  $\mathcal{O}_x \subseteq \mathcal{O}_y$ .

Since  $\mathcal{O}_x \subseteq \mathcal{O}_x$ , for each  $x \in X$ , we have  $x \leq x$ , so  $\leq$  is reflexive. Let  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq z$ , then  $\mathcal{O}_x \subseteq \mathcal{O}_y$  and  $\mathcal{O}_y \subseteq \mathcal{O}_z$  imply  $\mathcal{O}_x \subseteq \mathcal{O}_z$ ; so  $x \leq z$ , showing that  $\leq$  is transitive. Thus, to each Alexandroff space  $X$  there corresponds a quasiordered structure  $\leq$ .

Now we show that there corresponds an Alexandroff space to a given quasiordered set.

**Proposition 2.2.4** Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a quasiordered set and define  $\mathcal{O} = \{U \subseteq X : U \text{ is an upper set}\}$ . Then

- (a) The family  $\mathcal{O}$  forms a basis on  $X$ .
- (b) The topology generated by that basis is Alexandroff.

**Proof** (a) Clearly  $\mathcal{O}$  is a basis since  $X \in \mathcal{O}$ . Now if  $U, V \in \mathcal{O}$ , i.e.  $U, V$  are upper sets, then  $U \cap V$  is also an upper set. Thus, we have  $U \cap V \in \mathcal{O}$  and  $U \cap V \subseteq U, V$ , hence  $\mathcal{O}$  is a basis.

(b) For every collection  $\mathcal{C}$  of open sets, let  $U = \bigcap \mathcal{C}$ . Then for any  $x \in U$ , we have  $x \in C$  for all  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ . This implies that  $U$  is an upper set, that is, we have  $U \in \mathcal{O}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{O}$  is a basis. Hence  $(X, \mathcal{O})$  is Alexandroff.  $\square$

In the context of quasiordered sets, we can give another proof of Theorem 2.1.6.

**Proposition 2.2.5** Let  $(X, \leq)$  be an Alexandroff space. Then for every  $x \in X$ , we have

In other words,  $\mathcal{B}$  is the smallest open set containing  $x$ . In this case,  $\mathcal{B}$  is called the minimal basis for  $x$ .

**Proof** For every  $U \in \mathcal{B}$ , containing  $x$ , write  $U = \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i$ , where  $B_i$  are basic sets. Then there exists  $i_0 \in I$  such that  $x \in B_{i_0}$ , i.e.  $B_{i_0} \subseteq U$ . The transitivity tells us that  $B_{i_0} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ . Also clearly we have  $x \in B_{i_0}$ . Hence  $B_{i_0} = \mathcal{B}$ .  $\square$

Now we connect  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces and posets.

**Proposition 2.2.6** Let  $X$  be a nonempty set. Then  $(X, \tau)$  is a poset if and only if the corresponding topology on  $X$  is  $T_0$ .

**Proof** We have  $(X, \tau)$  is a poset if and only if  $\tau$  is  $T_0$  and  $\tau$  is  $T_0$ , so  $(X, \tau)$  is a poset if and only if  $\tau$  is  $T_0$ . By Proposition 2.2.4,  $\mathcal{B}_x$  and  $\mathcal{B}_y$  are the smallest open sets containing  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively. Thus,  $(X, \tau)$  is  $T_0$  if and only if  $(X, \tau)$  is a poset.  $\square$

We put things together to obtain the following conclusion.

**Theorem 2.2.7** For a set  $X$ , the Alexandroff space topologies on  $X$  are in 1-1 correspondence with the quasiorders on  $X$ . The topology on  $X$  corresponding to  $\leq$  is  $T_0$  if and only if the relation  $\leq$  is a partial order on  $X$ .  $\square$

Given an Alexandroff space  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_x$  will denote the unique minimal basis. The following concern  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces.

**Lemma 2.2.8** If  $(X, \tau)$  is  $T_0$  – Alexandroff space, then  $\mathcal{B}_x \cap \mathcal{B}_y = \mathcal{B}_{x \wedge y}$ , which associates  $\mathcal{B}_x$  to every  $x \in X$ , is a bijection.

**Proof** Note that the definition  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{U \in \tau : x \in U \text{ and } U \subseteq \mathcal{B}_x\}$  gives surjectivity of  $\mathcal{B}_x$ . Now, suppose  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$ . Then we have, for every  $U \in \mathcal{B}_x$ ,  $x \in U$  since  $x \in \mathcal{B}_x$  and  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$  are minimum in  $\mathcal{B}_x$  and  $\mathcal{B}_y$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{B}_x \cap \mathcal{B}_y = \mathcal{B}_{x \wedge y}$  and so  $\mathcal{B}_x$  by the fact that  $(X, \tau)$  is  $T_0$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.2.9** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two  $T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces. The following assertions are equivalent:

- (a)  $X$  and  $Y$  are homeomorphic.
- (b) There exists an order – isomorphism (with respect to inclusion) between  $X$  and  $Y$ .

The proof of this theorem can be found in [19].

Apart from these correspondences, we have the following relation between Alexandroff spaces.

**Proposition 2.2.10** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be Alexandroff spaces, i.e. quasiordered sets. Then a function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if and only if it is order – preserving.

**Proof** Let  $f$  be continuous and suppose that  $x \leq y$ . Then  $f(x) \leq f(y)$  and we have  $f(x) \in \downarrow f(y)$ , since  $f$  is continuous. Thus,  $x \in \downarrow f^{-1}(f(y))$ , which means that  $f^{-1}(\downarrow f(y)) \supseteq \downarrow x$ , so  $f$  is order – preserving.

Conversely, let  $U$  be an open set in  $Y$ . If  $y \in U$ , then  $\downarrow y \subseteq U$ . If  $x \in \downarrow f^{-1}(U)$ , then  $f(x) \in U$  and thus  $\downarrow f(x) \subseteq U$  by hypothesis, which implies that  $\downarrow x \subseteq \downarrow f^{-1}(U)$ , so that  $\downarrow x \subseteq \downarrow f^{-1}(U)$ . Therefore,  $\downarrow f^{-1}(U)$  is the union of these  $\downarrow x$  and hence is open.  $\square$

### 2.3 New Alexandroff Spaces From Old Spaces

In this section, we will construct new Alexandroff spaces from given ones. For more details, see [23], for example.

**Theorem 2.3.1** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are Alexandroff spaces, then product space  $X \times Y$  is also an Alexandroff space, with  $\downarrow(x, y) = \downarrow x \times \downarrow y$ , where  $\downarrow x$  and  $\downarrow y$ , respectively.



**Proof**

The space  $X$  has a basis  $\mathcal{B}$ .  
 Let  $x \in X$ . Then  $\{x\}$  is in  $\mathcal{B}$ . We claim that  $\{x\}$  is the minimal open set in  $X$  containing  $x$ . To see this, if  $U$  is an open set containing  $x$ , then  $U$  is a union of basis elements, and  $\{x\}$  is one of them, so  $\{x\} \subseteq U$  and  $\{x\}$  is minimal. Therefore,  $X$  is Alexandroff with this basis. Thus,  $X$  is Alexandroff with this basis. To show  $X$  is Alexandroff with this basis, take any  $x \in X$  and let  $U$  be any open set in  $X$  containing  $x$ . Then  $U$  is a union of basis elements where  $\{x\}$  is one of them. But  $\{x\}$  must be in  $U$  for at least one  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ , which means that  $\{x\} \subseteq U$ . Hence,  $\{x\}$  is a minimal open set containing  $x$ . Thus, as  $x$  is arbitrary, we have shown that each point  $x$  of  $X$  has a minimal open set, in other words,  $X$  is Alexandroff and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis.  $\square$

The following can be proved by using induction on  $n$  and applying Theorem 2.3.1.

**Corollary 2.3.2** If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are Alexandroff spaces, then so is  $\prod_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Furthermore,  $\prod_{i=1}^n X_i$  is Alexandroff with the product topology, where  $\mathcal{B} = \{ \prod_{i=1}^n B_i \mid B_i \in \mathcal{B}_i \}$ .

**Definition 2.3.3** Let  $X$  be a topological space and let  $Y$  be a subset of  $X$ . Then the collection  $\{ U \cap Y \mid U \text{ is open in } X \}$  defines a topology on  $Y$ , called the *induced topology*;  $Y$  is called a subspace of  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.3.4** If  $Y$  is a subspace of the Alexandroff space  $X$ , then  $Y$  is an Alexandroff space, and  $\mathcal{B}_Y = \{ B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}_X \}$ , where  $\mathcal{B}_X$  is a basis for  $X$ .

**Proof** Let  $x \in Y$  and suppose that  $U$  is an open neighborhood of  $x$  in  $Y$ . Then by the definition we have  $U = V \cap Y$  where  $V$  is open in  $X$ . Since  $X$  is Alexandroff, this means that  $\{x\} \subseteq V$ , so that  $\{x\} \subseteq U$ . Hence  $Y$  is an Alexandroff space with  $\mathcal{B}_Y = \{ B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}_X \}$ .  $\square$

**Remark 2.3.5** Given a nonempty set  $X$ , we can introduce three mutually equivalent but slightly different viewpoints of quotient sets.

1. The quotient set  $X/\sim$ , associated to a surjective function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  onto a nonempty set  $Y$ , is defined to be  $X/\sim_f$ .
2. The quotient set  $X/\sim$ , associated to an equivalence relation on  $X$ , is the set of equivalence classes  $\{[x] \mid x \in X\}$  where  $[x] = \{y \in X \mid x \sim y\}$ .
3. The quotient space  $X/\sim$ , associated to a partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $X$ , is defined as  $X/\sim_{\mathcal{P}}$ .

We use these remarks to define quotient spaces.

**Definition 2.3.6** Let  $X$  be a topological space,  $Y$  any nonempty set, and let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be surjective function. Then

- (a) The *quotient topology*  $\tau_f$  on  $Y$ , induced by  $f$  and  $\tau_X$ , is defined by  $U \in \tau_f$  if and only if  $f^{-1}(U) \in \tau_X$  and  $(Y, \tau_f)$  is called the quotient space.
- (b) A function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is called a *quotient map* if it has the property that  $U \subseteq Y$  is open in  $Y$  if and only if  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.3.7** If  $(Y, \tau_f)$  is a quotient space of the Alexandroff space  $(X, \tau_X)$ , then  $(Y, \tau_f)$  is an Alexandroff space.

**Proof** Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be the quotient map. Consider an arbitrary intersection  $\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$  of open sets in  $Y$ . Then we have  $f^{-1}(\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} f^{-1}(U_i)$ . Since  $f$  is a quotient map, it follows that  $\bigcap_{i \in I} f^{-1}(U_i)$  is an open set in  $X$  for each  $I$ . Hence  $\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$  is open in  $Y$  because  $f$  is Alexandroff, and therefore  $(Y, \tau_f)$  is open in  $Y$  by the definition of quotient space.  $\square$

**Example 2.3.8** If  $X$  is an Alexandroff space, then we can define an equivalence relation on  $X$  by if and only if  $x \sim y$  if and only if  $x \in \text{cl}\{y\}$  and  $y \in \text{cl}\{x\}$ . We can then form the quotient space  $X/\sim$ , which is an Alexandroff space by Theorem 2.3.7.

**Definition 2.3.9** Let  $X$  be an Alexandroff space and let  $U$  be a nonempty open set. Then  $U$  is called *irreducible* if  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$  for every  $x \in U$ .

**Theorem 2.3.10**  $X$  is a discrete space if and only if  $X/\sim$  is irreducible for every nonempty open set  $U$ .

**Proof** Suppose that  $X$  is discrete. If  $U$  is the quotient map, then  $U$  is open in  $X/\sim$  for each  $x \in U$ . Then  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ , because  $\{x\}$  is open in  $X$ . Now if  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ , then  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ , which means  $U = \{x\}$ . Therefore,  $U = \{x\}$ , which gives  $U = \{x\}$ . Now suppose  $U$  is irreducible, then  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ . So we must have  $U = \{x\}$  because  $\{x\}$  is open, hence  $U$  is irreducible.

Conversely, assume that  $X/\sim$  is irreducible for all nonempty open sets  $U$ . Let  $U$  be a nonempty open set in  $X$ , then  $U/\sim$  is open in  $X/\sim$ , so  $U/\sim = \text{cl}\{x/\sim\}$ . This gives  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ . Now if  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ , then  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$ , and since  $U/\sim$  is irreducible we must have  $U/\sim = \{x/\sim\}$ . Therefore,  $U = \{x\}$ , so that  $U = \{x\}$ . Hence, we have  $U = \{x\}$ , open

in  $X$ . This means that  $U$  is open in  $X$ , and so  $X$  is discrete.  $\square$

For general topological spaces, the spaces that satisfy the Hausdorff property are the nicest spaces to study. However, the Hausdorff Alexandroff spaces are not very interesting to study as the following theorem shows.

**Theorem 2.3.11**  $X$  is a Hausdorff Alexandroff space if and only if for every nonempty open set  $U$  in  $X$ , we have  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$  for every  $x \in U$ .

**Proof** If  $X$  is Hausdorff, we can find disjoint open sets  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$ . Then  $U$  and  $V$  are disjoint, so  $U = \text{cl}\{x\}$  and  $V = \text{cl}\{y\}$  must be disjoint.

Conversely, to show that  $X$  is Hausdorff, we can take  $U$  and  $V$  to be the disjoint open sets containing  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.3.12**  $X$  is a Hausdorff Alexandroff space if and only if  $X$  is discrete.

**Proof** Suppose that  $X$  is Hausdorff. Then we claim that  $X$  is discrete. To see this, let  $x \in X$ . Then  $\{x\} = \bigcap \{U \mid x \in U, U \text{ open}\}$ , which means that  $\{x\}$  is open. And since  $x$  was arbitrary, we must have  $X$  discrete by Theorem 2.3.11. Hence,  $X$  is open in  $X$ , so  $X$  must be discrete.

Conversely, if  $X$  is discrete, then it is clearly Hausdorff.  $\square$

## Chapter 3

### ALEXANDROFF SPACES AND DIGRAPHS

In the previous chapters; we introduced some basic notions about topological spaces and Alexandroff spaces, and we related them with preorders (quasiorders) and specialization order. However, for our thesis these are not enough, so we will give some more details in this chapter.

In the first part of this chapter we will mention some well-known definitions and concepts about graphs; for example see [14], [10] and [4]. In the second part and third part, we relate some concepts of general topology and Alexandroff spaces with graphs and digraphs as it can be found in [16] and [15].

#### 3.1 Some basic notions about graphs

**Definition 3.1.1** A graph is a mathematical structure consisting of two finite sets and . The elements of are called *vertices* (or *nodes*), and the elements of are called *edges*. The set of all vertices is denoted by and the set of all edges is denoted by . Each edge has a set of one or two vertices associated to it, which are called its endpoints. An edge is said to join its endpoints.

**Definition 3.1.2** A vertex joined by an edge to a vertex is said to be a *neighbor* of . The *(open) neighborhood* of a vertex in a graph denoted , is the set of all neighbors of and the *(closed) neighborhood* of is given by .

**Definition 3.1.3** A *directed edge* (or *arc*) is an edge, one of whose endpoints is designated as the tail and whose other endpoint is designated as the head. An *arc* is said to be *directed* from its tail to its head.

**Definition 3.1.4** An edge between two vertices creates a connection in two opposite senses at once. Assigning a direction makes one of these senses forward and the other backward. In a line drawing, the choice of forward direction is indicated by placing an arrow on an edge.

**Definition 3.1.5** A *directed edge* (or *arc*) is an edge, one of whose endpoints is designated as the tail, and whose other endpoint is designated as the head.

**Definition 3.1.6** A *directed graph* (or *digraph*) is a graph each of whose edges is directed. A graph is *simple* if it has neither self-loops nor multi-edges. A *digraph is simple* if it has neither self-loops nor multi-edges.

**Definition 3.1.7** *Adjacent vertices* are two vertices that are joined by an edge and *adjacent edges* are two edges that have an endpoint in common. If vertex  $v$  is an endpoint of an edge  $e$ , then  $v$  is said to be *incident on*  $e$ , and  $e$  is *incident on*  $v$ .

**Definition 3.1.8** A *path* is a non-empty graph  $P$  of the form  $v_1 - e_1 - v_2 - e_2 - \dots - e_{n-1} - v_n$  and  $v_i \neq v_j$  for  $i \neq j$ , where the  $v_i$  are all distinct. The vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_n$  are linked by  $P$  and are called its end vertices or ends; the vertices  $v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}$  are the inner vertices of  $P$ . The number of edges of a path is its length, and the path of length  $n$  is denoted by  $P_n$ . A non-empty graph  $G$  is called *connected* if any two of its points are linked by a path in  $G$ .

**Definition 3.1.9** A graph  $H$  is a subgraph of  $G$  (with  $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ ) if and only if  $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$ .

### 3.2 Topological spaces and Alexandroff spaces with graphs

In this part; we will relate some Topological notions and Alexandroff spaces with graphs. One can find it in [15].

**Definition 3.2.1** Let  $G$  be a graph without isolated vertex and let  $N(v)$  be the set of all vertices adjacent to  $v$ , where  $v \in V(G)$  if and only if  $v \in N(v)$ , for all  $v \in V(G)$  and  $v \in N(v)$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ . We have a subbasis  $\{N(v) : v \in V(G)\}$  for a topology on  $V(G)$ , when  $N(v) \cap N(w) = N(v \wedge w)$  and it is called *graphic topology* on  $G$ .

**Proposition 3.2.2** Suppose that  $X$  is a graph. Then  $X$  is an Alexandroff space.

**Proof** We have to prove that arbitrary intersection of members of  $\mathcal{B}$  is open. Let  $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ . If  $x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$ , then  $x \in U_i$  for each  $i \in I$ . Hence,  $x \in U_i$  for each  $i \in I$ . So,  $x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$ . Since  $X$  is locally finite,  $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$  and so  $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$  are finite sets. If  $I$  is infinite, then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$  is empty. But  $I$  is finite, then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$  is the intersection of finitely many open sets. Hence, it is open.  $\square$

**Definition 3.2.3** Let  $X$  be a graph. The minimal basis for the topological graph  $X$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{B}_m$  where  $B_x$  is the smallest open set containing  $x$ , i.e. it is the intersection of all open sets containing  $x$ .

**Proposition 3.2.4** Let  $X$  be a graph, then  $B_x$  and  $B_y$  is finite for every  $x, y \in X$ .

**Proof** Since  $B_x$  is the smallest open set containing  $x$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a subbasis for  $X$ , we have  $B_x = \bigcap_{U \in \mathcal{B}, x \in U} U$  for some subset of  $\mathcal{B}$ ; this implies that  $B_x$  is finite for each  $x \in X$ . Therefore  $B_y$  is finite for every  $y \in X$ . So  $B_x$  and  $B_y$  is finite for every  $x, y \in X$ . By the definition of  $\mathcal{B}_m$ , we have  $B_x$  is finite for every  $x \in X$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.2.5** Let  $X$  be a graph; for every  $x, y \in X$ ,  $B_x = B_y$  if and only if  $x = y$ .  $\square$

**Definition 3.2.6** Let  $X$  be a topological space. A subset  $A$  of  $X$  is clopen, if it is both open and closed in  $X$ .

**Proposition 3.2.7** Let  $X$  be an Alexandroff space; if there is a point  $x \in X$  such that  $B_x$  is both maximal and minimal in  $\mathcal{B}_m$ , then  $B_x$  is clopen and  $X$  is disconnected.

**Proof** We have to show that  $B_x$  is closed or equivalently  $B_x^c$  is open. Suppose  $x \in B_x$ , then there exists  $U \in \mathcal{B}_m$  such that  $x \in U \subseteq B_x$ . So we get  $U = B_x$  and  $B_x$  is clopen.  $\square$

. By minimality of  $\mathcal{B}_x$ , we get  $x \in \mathcal{B}_x$ . So we have  $x \in \mathcal{B}_x$  and by maximality of  $\mathcal{B}_x$ , we get  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{x\}$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{x\}$ , hence,  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{x\}$ .  $\square$

**Definition 3.2.8** A topological space is called *graphic*, if there is some (locally finite) graph with vertex set  $X$  and without isolated vertex such that  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{x\} \cup \{y \mid xy \in E\}$ .

**Proposition 3.2.9** Let  $X$  be a finite topological space and let  $\mathcal{B}_x$  be the smallest open set containing  $x$  for every  $x \in X$ . If for every  $x, y \in X$ ,  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$  or  $y \in \mathcal{B}_x$  then  $X$  is graphic.

**Proof** We construct a graph  $G$  as follows  $G = (X, E)$ , for any  $x, y \in X$ . For every  $x, y \in X$ , let  $\mathcal{B}_x$  and  $\mathcal{B}_y$  be the smallest set containing  $x$  in  $X$  and the set of all adjacent vertices to  $x$  in  $X$ , respectively. We have to prove that  $xy \in E$  [by Definition 3.2.8]. Let  $x, y \in X$ , we have  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$  or  $y \in \mathcal{B}_x$  for every  $x, y \in X$ . Therefore,  $xy \in E$  if and only if  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$  if and only if  $y \in \mathcal{B}_x$ . Hence,  $xy \in E$  if and only if  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$  or  $y \in \mathcal{B}_x$ , otherwise;  $xy \notin E$  and so  $xy \notin E$  which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $xy \in E$  but  $xy \notin E$  implies that  $xy \in E$  which is a contradiction. So  $xy \in E$ .

Conversely, if  $G$  is a graphic then  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{x\} \cup \{y \mid xy \in E\}$ . So if  $x \in \mathcal{B}_y$  for some  $x, y \in X$ , then  $xy \in E$  and so  $y \in \mathcal{B}_x$ . This implies that  $xy \in E$  and so  $xy \in E$ . Therefore,  $xy \in E$  or  $yx \in E$ .  $\square$

**Definition 3.2.10** Let  $X$  be an Alexandroff topological space and  $\mathcal{B}_x$  be the smallest open set containing  $x$  for every  $x \in X$ . Then  $X$  is dense in  $X$  if and only if  $\mathcal{B}_x = \{x\}$  for every  $x \in X$ .

In particular,  $X$  is dense in  $X$ . Since  $\mathcal{B}_x$  is a non-empty open set in  $X$ , we have  $x \in \mathcal{B}_x$ . Let  $x, y \in X$ , then  $xy \in E$ .



**Theorem 3.2.11** Let  $X$  be an Alexandroff topological space, and  $\mathcal{A}$  a family of subsets of  $X$ . Then

- 1) If  $\mathcal{A}$  is minimal dense subset in  $X$  then there exists a surjective function  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow X$  such that  $f(A) \subseteq A$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ . In particular,  $f$  is a retraction.
- 2) Conversely; if  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow X$  is a function such that  $f(A) \subseteq A$  for every  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}$  is a minimal dense subset in  $X$ . Specially, if  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  are minimal dense subsets in  $X$ , then we have  $|\mathcal{A}| = |\mathcal{B}|$ .

where  $|S|$

denotes the cardinality of  $S$ .

**Proof**

- 1) By minimality of elements of  $\mathcal{A}$ , the intersection of every pair of distinct elements of  $\mathcal{A}$  is empty. Our claim is that  $\mathcal{A}$  has a single element for each  $x \in X$ . Since  $X = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ , there exists some  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , so  $x \in A$  and by minimality of  $A$ , we have  $x \in f(A) \subseteq A$ . Assume, to the contrary that  $x \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ . Then  $x \in f(A)$ . Therefore,  $x \in A$ . Hence,  $x \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$  which contradicts the minimality of  $A$ . Let  $f(x)$  be a single element of  $\mathcal{A}$ , for every  $x \in X$ . Suppose that  $f(x) \neq x$ ; we will show that  $f(x) \cap x$ , which implies  $f(x) \cap x$  and this will prove that  $f$  is surjective. Assume, to the contrary,  $f(x) \cap x \neq \emptyset$ ; so there exists  $y$  such that  $y \in f(x) \cap x$ . If  $y \in x$ , then  $y \in f(x)$  by above claim and so  $y \in x$ . Therefore,  $f(x) \subseteq x$ . <sup>implies that</sup>  $f(x) \subseteq x$  <sup>for every</sup>  $x \in X$ .

Thus,

- 2) For every  $x \in X$ , there exists an element  $f(x) \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $x \in f(x)$  and  $f(x) \subseteq x$ . Therefore,  $f(x) \subseteq x$  and so  $f(x)$  is dense in  $x$ . Now, suppose that  $f(x) \cap x \neq \emptyset$  and  $f(x) \cap x \neq x$ . Let  $y \in f(x) \cap x$ . Then there exists  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $y \in A$ . On one hand,  $y \in f(x) \subseteq A$  implies that  $y \in A$  and on the other hand, we have  $y \in x$  which implies  $y \in A$  and so  $y \in A$ , which is a contradiction. Now, if  $f(x)$  is a minimal dense subset in  $x$ , then there

exists a surjective function  $f$  such that  $f(x) = y$ , for every  $y$  by (1). Hence,  $f$  must be injective because if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  for some  $x_1 \neq x_2$ , then  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  and so  $f$  by their minimality. Therefore,  $f$  is constant.  $\square$

### 3.3 Alexandroff spaces with directed graph (digraph)

Given a set (not necessarily finite), let  $\mathcal{D}$  denote the set of transitive digraphs and the set of all Alexandroff topologies on  $X$ , respectively.

We will prove that each transitive digraph  $D$  determines a unique topology  $\tau_D$  on  $X$ , and conversely. It can be found in [16].

**Theorem 3.3.1** There is a one - to - one correspondence between  $\mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$ .

**Proof** Given  $D$  we associate with  $D$  a digraph  $D$  as follows. The vertex set of  $D$  is  $X$  and its edge set is defined by: for any two  $x$  and  $y$  in  $X$ ,  $x$  will be adjacent to  $y$  if and only if  $x$  belongs to every *open* set containing  $y$ . Clearly,  $D$  is transitive and uniquely determined by the topology  $\tau_D$ .

Conversely, let  $\tau$  be any element of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Now the family of down-sets  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$  forms a base for a topology  $\tau_D$  on  $X$ , where  $\mathcal{D}_\tau = \{ \downarrow x \mid x \in X \}$ , here  $\downarrow x$  represents edge  $x$  in  $D$ . We claim that  $\tau_D$  is a member of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a family of open sets and  $\bigcap \mathcal{B}$ . We want to show that  $\bigcap \mathcal{B}$  for each  $x \in \bigcap \mathcal{B}$ . Let  $U \in \mathcal{B}$ . If  $x \in U$ , then  $x \in U$  for each  $U \in \mathcal{B}$ . Suppose  $x \in U$ . Since  $U$  and  $\downarrow x$  being basic set,  $\downarrow x \cap U \neq \emptyset$ , we get  $x \in \downarrow x$  for some  $x \in U$ . Further, as  $\downarrow x$  is transitive, and  $x \in \downarrow x$  implies that  $x \in \downarrow x$ , hence, we have  $x \in \downarrow x$ . Thus,  $x \in \downarrow x$  for each  $x \in \bigcap \mathcal{B}$ .

Hence, for each  $x \in X$ , the open set  $U_x$ , which contains  $x$ , is a subset of  $V$ . This proves that  $V$  is open. Therefore, we have that  $\tau$  is a topology on  $X$ .

Now, by the construction of  $\tau$ , it follows that  $\tau$  is unique. So we have the following configurations:

or

We complete the proof by showing that the digraph  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$  coincides or is the same as the digraph  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$  induced by the topology  $\tau$ ; this means that we have indeed a one – to – one correspondence between  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$  and  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$ .

Let  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$  be given and take  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$ . Since  $\tau$  is transitive, if  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ , then  $(y, z) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ . In other words,  $(x, z) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$  whenever  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$  and  $(y, z) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ . Since the family  $\{U_x\}_{x \in X}$  is a base for  $\tau$ , it follows that  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$  belongs to every open set containing  $x$ . This implies that  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$  is an edge in  $\mathcal{D}_\tau$ , i.e.  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ .

For the converse, suppose that  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ . Then  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$  belongs to  $U_x$  because  $U_x$  belongs to every open set containing  $x$ . Hence,  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$  and this proves that  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ , in other word,  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}_\tau$ .  $\square$

**Remark 3.3.2** By definition, a digraph has no loops! A relation is reflexive if every vertex has a loop. Obviously, it makes no difference in the number of transitive relations whether every point (vertex) has a loop or no point does. Hence we have

**Corollary 3.3.3** On a set (not necessarily finite), there are the same number of transitive relations and Alexandroff topologies.

In view of Theorem 3.3.1, every transitive digraph  $D$  on a set  $X$  induces a unique  $A$ -topology on  $X$ , we denote it by  $\tau_D$ ; conversely, every  $A$ -topology  $\tau$  on  $X$  induced a unique transitive digraph on  $X$ , we denote it by  $D_\tau$ .

**Definition 3.3.4** The “converse” digraph  $D^c$  of a digraph  $D$  is the digraph having the same vertex set as that of  $D$  such that for any two vertices  $x, y \in X$ ,  $x$  is adjacent to  $y$  in  $D^c$  if and only if  $y$  is adjacent to  $x$  in  $D$ . Clearly, if  $D$  is transitive, then  $D^c$  is transitive.

It is evident that for an  $A$ -topology  $\tau$  on  $X$ , the family consisting of all *closed* sets of  $\tau$  also forms a topology on  $X$  which is an  $A$ -topology. Call this topology  $\tau^c$  on  $X$  the *closed topology* induced by  $\tau$ .

**Theorem 3.3.5** Let  $D$  be a transitive digraph and  $D^c$  be its converse. Then

- 1) The transitive digraph on  $X$  induced by the topology  $\tau_{D^c}$  is  $D$ ; that is,  $D_{\tau_{D^c}} = D$ , and
- 2) The topology on  $X$  induced by  $D$  is the closed topology  $\tau_D^c$ ; that is,  $\tau_D = \tau_D^c$ .

**Proof** We prove only (1); (2) can be proved on similar lines. Consider  $x \in X$ . Then  $x$  is in  $X$  and hence  $x$  is in every open set in the topology containing  $x$ . This implies that  $x$  belongs to every closed set in  $X$  (i.e., an open set in  $\tau_{D^c}$  containing  $x$ ). Indeed, suppose  $C$  where  $C$  is a closed set in  $X$  and  $x \notin C$ . Then  $X \setminus C$ , the complement of  $C$ , is open in  $\tau_{D^c}$ , and  $x \in X \setminus C$ , which is not true. This proves that every edge in  $D$  is an edge in  $D_{\tau_{D^c}}$ . Similarly, one can show that every edge in  $D_{\tau_{D^c}}$  is an edge in  $D$ . Thus, we have  $D_{\tau_{D^c}} = D$ .  $\square$

**Definition 3.3.6** Let  $D$  and  $E$  be two digraphs. A function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is said to be a homomorphism if and only if for  $x, y \in X$ , with  $(x, y) \in D$ , implies  $(f(x), f(y)) \in E$ .

**Theorem 3.3.7** Let  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  be two transitive digraphs and  $f$  be a function. Then  $f$  is homomorphism if and only if it is continuous from the

topological space  $(V, \tau)$  into  $(V, \tau)$ .

**Proof** CN . Suppose  $f$  is a homomorphism of  $D_1$  into  $D_2$ . As we have seen in Theorem 3.3.1, the family of sets

$\mathcal{B} = \{U_i \mid i \in V\}$ , where  $U_i = \{j \in V \mid (i, j) \in E_1\}$ , forms a base for  $\tau$ . To prove that  $f$  is continuous, it is sufficient to show that, for every  $U_i$  and for every

$V_j$ ,  $f^{-1}(V_j) \cap U_i$  is open.

Let  $x \in f^{-1}(V_j) \cap U_i$ . Let  $y \in U_i$ . If  $(x, y) \in E_1$ , then  $(f(x), f(y)) \in E_2$ .

Suppose now that  $(x, y) \notin E_1$ . Then as  $f$  and  $D_2$  is a homomorphism,

$(f(x), f(y)) \notin E_2$ . Since  $(f(x), f(y)) \in E_2$ , it follows that either  $f(x) = f(y)$  or

$(f(y), f(x)) \in E_2$ . Now,  $(f(y), f(x)) \in E_2$  implies  $(y, x) \in E_1$  as  $f$  and  $D_1$  is

transitive. In both cases,  $(y, x) \in E_1$ . Thus,  $(x, y) \in E_1$ . This proves that

$f^{-1}(V_j) \cap U_i$  is open, for all  $i, j \in V$ .

CS . Assume that  $f$  is continuous from  $(V, \tau)$  into  $(V, \tau)$ .

Choose  $x \in V$  with  $(x, y) \in E_1$ , and  $(x, z) \notin E_1$ . Let  $U_x$  be an open set in

$(V, \tau)$  containing  $x$ . By the continuity of  $f$ ,  $f(U_x)$  is open, further it

contains  $f(x)$ . Hence it should contain the point  $f(y)$  as  $(f(x), f(y)) \in E_2$ , i.e.  $(y, x) \in E_1$ .

Thus, whenever an open set in  $(V, \tau)$  contains  $x$ , it also contains  $y$ .

This implies that  $(x, y) \in E_1$ . This proves that  $D_1$  is homomorphism.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.3.8** Let  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  be two transitive digraphs with the same vertex set  $V$ . Then  $D_1$  is a subgraph of  $D_2$  if and only if  $D_1$  is stronger than  $D_2$ .

**Proof** CN . Suppose that  $D_1$  is a subgraph of  $D_2$ . Then the identity map  $f$  is homomorphism from  $D_1$  into  $D_2$ . By Theorem 3.3.7, it follows that

$f$  is a continuous function of  $(V, \tau)$  into  $(V, \tau)$ . Hence  $D_1$  is

stronger than  $D_2$ .

CS . Assume that is stronger than . Then as the identity map from ( ) onto ( ) is continuous, by Theorem 3.3.7, it is a homomorphism of into . Further, as it is one – to – one, it follows that is a subgraph of .

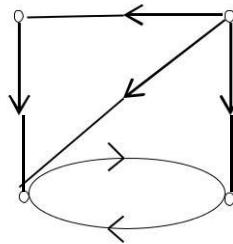
Finally, we can state the following obvious result:

**Corollary 3.3.9** Let and be two transitive digraphs. is isomorphic to if and only if the topological space ( ) is homomorphic to ( ) .

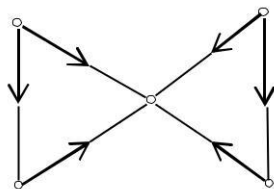
**Example 3.3.9** Let and { } . Then we can determine associated with as follows: Vertex set is . Find its edge set .

. since belongs to every open sets and containing .

. By the same argument and . The other edges can be found similarly. Thus, we get the following transitive digraph , uniquely determined by the given :



Conversely, let and consider the graph (transitive) :



Determine the topology  $\tau$ , uniquely determined by  $\mathcal{B}$ . For this we must first find  $\mathcal{B}$ .  
 $\mathcal{B} = \{ \{x, y\} \mid x, y \in X, x \neq y \}$ . Then  $\tau$  is the topology associated with  $\mathcal{B}$ .

## Conclusion

$T_0$  – Alexandroff spaces can be investigated in terms of general topological concepts such as connected, locally path-connected, regular, separable, first countable, second countable, compact, para-compact spaces. Such an approach is given in [3].

Alexandroff spaces can also be considered as Functional Alexandroff Spaces and dynamical systems (see, for example, F.A.Z. Shirazi and N. Golistani, Functional Alexandroff Spaces, Hacettepe Journal of Mathematics and Statistics, Vol. 40 (4), (2011), 515-522).

Alexandroff spaces are also studied as a class of  $T_0 - A$  – spaces called upper bounded. This class contains the class of Artinian  $A$  – spaces (see, for example, H. Mahdi, On Upper Bounded  $T_0$  – Alexandroff Spaces, Int.J. Contemp. Math. Sciences, Vol.9, 2014, no.81, 361-374).

Recently, as extensions of Alexandroff Spaces, Bi – Alexandroff Spaces are studied in connection with regular bitopological spaces (see, for example, Matutu, P., Bi – Alexandroff Spaces, Quaestiones Mathematicae, Vol. 30, Number 1, March 2007, pp. 57-65(g)).

Lastly, intensive development and research have been conducted in the field of Alexandroff Spaces in graph theory, and in particular in digital topology.



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