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## On some properties of Alexandroff space

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### Abstract

The generalized definition of topology is based on the properties of standard Euclidean topology. The goal of this paper is to study spaces that have topologies, which satisfies the stronger condition namely arbitrary intersection of open sets are open. The topological space with this strong property is known as Alexandroff space. With this restriction we lose some important spaces such as Euclidean spaces, but the specialized spaces in turn display interesting properties that are not necessary for a standard Euclidean topology.

**Keywords:** Alexandroff space; Euclidean Topology; Basis; Posets; Combinatorial topology

### 1. Introduction

The general definition of a topology [1] is based off the properties of the standard Euclidean topology. The goal of this paper is to study spaces that have topologies which satisfy a stronger condition. Namely, arbitrary intersections of open sets are open. With this restriction, we lose important spaces such as Euclidean spaces, but the specialized spaces in turn display interesting properties that are not necessary for a standard topological space [2].

An Alexandroff space, also known as a finitely generated topological space, is a type of topological space named after the Russian mathematician Pavel S. Alexandrov [3] (often transliterated as Alexandroff). Introduced in the early 20th century, Alexandroff spaces have played a foundational role in the intersection of topology, lattice theory, and theoretical computer science. This essay explores the historical development, key concepts, and significance of Alexandroff spaces.

Pavel Alexandrov (1896–1982) was a prominent topologist who made substantial contributions to general topology, combinatorial topology, and set theory. In 1937, Alexandrov introduced the concept of what is now called an Alexandroff space in his work on general topology. These spaces are characterized by the property that arbitrary intersections of open sets are open.

Alexandroff spaces arose from Alexandrov's interest in generalizing classical topological concepts and investigating their algebraic and combinatorial counterparts. The simplicity of their definition and their connection to partially ordered sets (posets) made them an attractive subject for study [4].

An Alexandroff space  $(X, \tau)$  is defined by the property that the topology  $\tau$  is finitely generated. This means: Any open set can be expressed as a union of a finite number of basic open sets [5]. The family of open sets forms a distributive lattice under union and intersection. Equivalently, an Alexandroff space can be associated with a partially ordered set (poset): For any poset  $(P, \leq)$ , there is a topology on  $P$  where the open sets are the upward-closed subsets (sets containing all elements greater than a given element in  $P$ ). This equivalence between posets and Alexandroff spaces has been a central theme in their study.

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The development of Alexandroff spaces is closely linked to broader trends in topology and mathematics like Order Theory and Algebra [6], Combinatorial Topology, General Topology and Theoretical Computer Science. The relationship between Alexandroff spaces and posets highlights the interplay between topology and order theory. This connection has been used to study topological properties using algebraic methods and vice versa. Alexandroff spaces influenced the development of combinatorial topology, particularly in the study of simplicial complexes and their geometric realizations [7]. Alexandroff's work on these spaces contributed to the broader effort of classifying and generalizing topological structures. They provided a simple yet rich example of spaces with distinct properties compared to more familiar topologies [8]. Alexandroff spaces gained renewed interest in the late 20th century due to their applications in theoretical computer science, particularly in domain theory, which is used to study the semantics of programming languages. The connection between Alexandroff spaces and posets made them a natural framework for modeling computational processes and continuity.

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## 2. Definitions and Properties

### Definition 1

Let  $X$  be a set and let  $\tau$  be a family of subsets of  $X$  satisfying the following conditions:

- The set  $X$  and the empty set  $\varnothing$  belongs to  $\tau$ .
- The union of any family of members of  $\tau$  is a member of  $\tau$ .
- The intersection of any finite family of members of  $\tau$  are a member of  $\tau$ .

Then  $\tau$  is called a topology for  $X$  and the members of  $\tau$  are called open sets. The ordered pair  $(X, \tau)$  is called a topological space or simply a space.

### Examples1:

- (a) The usual topology for the real line is the topology generated by its usual metric.
- (b) The usual topology for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the topology generated by the usual metric. It is referred to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the usual topology as Euclidian  $n$ - space.
- (c) For a set  $X$ , the topology generated by the discrete metric is the discrete topology. In the discrete topology every subset of  $X$  is open. A set with the discrete topology is called the discrete space. The discrete topology is the largest possible collection of open subsets of  $X$ .
- (d) At the opposite extreme, the indiscrete topology for  $X$  is the family  $\tau = \{ \varnothing, X \}$  whose only members are  $\varnothing$  &  $X$ . A set with its trivial topology is called a indiscrete space.

### Definition 2:

A subset  $C$  of a topological space  $X$  is closed provided that its complement  $X/C$  is an open set.

### Theorem1

The closed subsets of a topological space  $X$  have the following properties:

- $X$  and  $\varnothing$  are closed sets.
- The intersection of any family of closed sets is a closed set.
- The union of any finite family of closed sets is a closed set.

### Definition 3

Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . A point  $x$  in  $X$  is a limit point, cluster point, or accumulation point of  $A$  if every open set containing  $x$  contains a point of  $A$  distinct from  $x$ . The set of limit points of  $A$  is called the derived set of  $A$ .

#### Definition 4

Let  $A$  be a subset of a topological space  $X$ . A point  $x$  in  $A$  is an interior point of  $A$ , if there is an open set  $O$  containing  $x$  and contained in  $A$ . Equivalently  $A$  is called a neighbourhood of  $x$ . The closure of  $A$  is the union of  $A$  with its set of limit points.

#### Definition 5

A subset  $A$  of a space  $X$  is dense in  $X$  provided that  $\bar{A} = X$ . If  $X$  has a countable dense subset, then  $X$  is a separable space.

#### Definition 6

Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. A base or basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for  $\tau$  with the property that each member  $\tau$  is a union of members of  $\mathcal{B}$ . The members of  $\mathcal{B}$  are called basic open sets, and  $\tau$  is the topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$ .

#### Definition 7

Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a space and let  $a$  be a member of  $X$ . A local base or local basis at  $a$  is a sub collection of  $\mathcal{B}_a$  of  $\tau$  such that

- belongs to each member of  $\mathcal{B}_a$ , and
- Each open set containing  $a$  contains a member of  $\mathcal{B}_a$

#### Definition 8

A space  $X$  is first countable or satisfies the first axiom of countability provided that there exist a countable local base at each point of  $X$ . The space  $X$  is second countable or satisfies the second axiom of countability provided that the topology of  $X$  has a countable basis.

#### Theorem 2

Every second countable space is separable.

#### Definition 9

A function  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \tau')$  is continuous means that for each open set  $V$  in  $Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an open set in  $X$ .

#### Theorem 3

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a function on the indicated topological spaces and let  $a \in X$ . The following statements are equivalent:

- $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .
- For each open set  $V$  in  $Y$  containing  $f(a)$ , there is an open set  $U$  in  $X$  such that  $a \in U$  and  $U \subset f^{-1}(V)$ .
- For each neighbourhood  $V$  of  $f(a)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is a neighbourhood of  $a$ .
- For each subset  $V$  of  $Y$  with  $f(a) \in \text{int } V$ ,  $a$  belongs to  $\text{int } f^{-1}(V)$ .

#### Definition 10

A subspace of a space  $X$  is compact if and only if every open cover of  $A$  by open sets in  $X$  has finite sub cover.

#### Definition 11

A space  $X$  is a  $T_0$  — space if for each pair  $a, b$  of distinct points of  $X$ , there is an open set containing one of the point but not the other.

### 3. Alexandroff Space

#### Definition 12

Let  $X$  be a topological space, and then  $X$  is an Alexandroff space if arbitrary intersection of open sets are open.

#### Lemma

Any discrete topological space is an Alexandroff space.

Proof:

This is clear because in a discrete space, any subset is open. Intersection of open sets are open. Therefore discrete topological space is an Alexandroff space.

#### Theorem 4

Let  $X$  be a metric space, then is an Alexandroff space if and only if  $X$  has the discrete topology.

Proof:

Suppose  $X$  is an Alexandroff space. Let  $x$  be a point in  $X$ . Then the open balls  $B(x, 1/n)$  with radius  $1/n$  and centre  $x$ ,  $n$  be a natural number, are open in  $X$ . Since  $\{x\}$  is an Alexandroff space is an open set. But by the properties of the metric,  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B(x, \frac{1}{n}) = \{x\}$ . So we have shown that singletons are open. Hence,  $X$  has the discrete topology. The reverse direction follows by the above Lemma.

#### Theorem 5

$X$  is an Alexandroff space if and only if each point in  $X$  has a minimal open neighbourhood.

Proof:

Suppose  $X$  is an Alexandroff space with  $x \in X$ . Let  $O(x) = \{U \subset X : U \text{ is an open neighbourhood of } x\}$ .

Take  $S(x) = \bigcap U$  for  $U \in O(x)$ , then  $S(x)$  is an open neighbourhood of  $x$  because  $X$  is Alexandroff. And from the definition of  $S(x)$ , it is clear that  $S(x)$  is a minimal open neighborhood of  $x$ . For the converse, suppose each  $x \in X$  has a minimal open neighbourhood  $S(x)$ . Consider an arbitrary intersection of open sets,  $V = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} U_{\alpha}$ , where each  $U_{\alpha}$  is open in  $X$ . If  $V = \emptyset$ , then  $V$  is open and we are done. If  $V \neq \emptyset$ , then pick  $x \in V$  and we have  $x \in U_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha \in A$ . Hence,  $S(x) \subset U_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha$  because  $S(x)$  is the minimal open neighbourhood of  $x$ . Therefore,  $S(x) \subset V$ . Hence,  $V$  is open because it contains an open set around each of its points.

From here on, we will write  $S(x)$  to denote the minimal open neighbourhood of a point  $x$  in an Alexandroff space. In order to understand the properties of Alexandroff spaces, we will study the minimal open neighbourhoods of these spaces. The proofs of the theorems show us that the minimal open neighbourhoods of an Alexandroff space are the natural objects to study.

#### Theorem 6

If  $\beta$  is a collection of subsets of  $X$ . Such that for each  $x \in X$  there is a minimal set  $m(x) \in \beta$  containing  $x$ , then  $\beta$  is a basis for a topology on  $X$  and  $X$  is an Alexandroff space with this topology. In addition,  $S(x) = m(x)$ .

Proof:

Clearly the sets in  $\beta$  cover  $X$ . Suppose  $U, V \in \beta$  and that  $x \in U \cap V$ . Then  $m(x)$  is a minimal set in  $\beta$  containing  $x$  so we must have  $m(x) \subset U$  and  $m(x) \subset V$ . Hence,  $m(x) \subset U \cap V$ . So  $\beta$  is a basis for a topology on  $X$ . To show that  $X$  is an Alexandroff space with this basis, take any  $x \in X$  and let  $U$  be any open set in  $X$  containing  $x$ . Then  $U = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$  where  $V_{\alpha} \in \beta$ . But  $x$  must be in  $V_{\alpha}$  for at least one  $\alpha$ ,

which means  $m(x) \subset V \alpha \subset U$ . Hence,  $m(x)$  is a minimal open set containing  $x$ . Therefore,  $X$  is an Alexandroff and  $S(x) = m(x)$ .

The above theorem is powerful tool that will allow us to construct Alexandroff spaces by specifying a basis.

**Theorem 7**

If  $X$  is an Alexandroff space with topology  $\tau$ , then  $\beta = \{ S(x) : x \in X \}$  is a basis for  $\tau$ .

**Proof:**

By the above theorem,  $\beta$  is a basis for a topology  $\tau$  on  $X$ . It shall be show  $\tau = \tau$ .  $\tau \subset \tau$  because  $\beta \subset \tau$ . Suppose  $U \in \tau$ . Let  $U = \bigcup_{x \in U} S(x)$ , then  $U \in \tau$  and we also have  $U = U$ . Hence,  $\tau \subset \tau$  so we have  $\tau = \tau$ .

**Corollary:**

If  $\tau, \tau$  are two topologies on  $X$  such that  $X$  is an Alexandroff space and  $S_{\tau}(x) = S_{\tau}(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $X$ , then  $\tau = \tau$ .

**Proof:**

From the above theorem, we have  $\beta = \{ S_{\tau}(x) : x \in X \}$  and  $\beta = \{ S_{\tau}(x) : x \in X \}$  are basis for  $\tau$  and  $\tau$  respectively. But  $\beta = \beta$  so we have  $\tau = \tau$ .

**Theorem 8**

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are Alexandroff spaces, then  $X \times Y$  is also an Alexandroff space, with  $S(x,y) = S(x) \times S(y)$ .

**Proof:**

$X \times Y$  has a basis  $\beta = \{ U \times V : U \text{ is open in } X \text{ and } V \text{ is open in } Y \}$ . Let  $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ , then  $S(x) \times S(y)$  is in  $\beta$  and the claim is that this is a minimal set in  $\beta$  containing  $(x, y)$ . If  $(x, y) \in U \times V \in \beta$ , then  $x \in U$  and  $y \in V$  so  $S(x) \subset U$  and  $S(y) \subset V$ . Therefore  $S(x) \times S(y)$  is contained in  $U \times V$ . So by applying above theorem we know that  $X \times Y$  is an Alexandroff space and  $S(x, y) = S(x) \times S(y)$ .

**Theorem 9**

If  $S(x)$  and  $S(y)$  are distinct irreducible subsets of  $X$ , then  $S(x) \cap S(y) = \phi$ .

**Proof:**

Suppose  $S(x)$  and  $S(y)$  are distinct irreducible subsets of  $X$ . Suppose that  $z \in S(x) \cap S(y)$ . Then  $S(z) \subset S(x) \cap S(y)$  which implies that  $S(z) \subset S(x)$  and  $S(z) \subset S(y)$ . Using the irreducibility of  $S(x)$  and  $S(y)$  gives that  $S(x) = S(y) = S(z)$ , which is a contradiction. Hence,  $S(x) \cap S(y) = \phi$ .

**Theorem 10**

If  $X$  is an Alexandroff space, then  $S(x)$  contain at most one basic set for each  $x \in X$ .

**Proof:**

Suppose  $S(x)$  contains two basic sets  $S(y)$  and  $(z)$ . Then by definition of basic,  $S(y) \subset S(z)$  and  $S(z) \subset S(y)$ . Hence  $S(y) = S(z)$ .

The number of basic sets in a compact Alexandroff space will give us another invariant of the space. We must first show that there is always a finite number of basic sets in a compact Alexandroff space.

**Theorem 11**

If  $X$  is a compact Alexandroff space, then the number of basic sets is less than or equal to  $\min(X)$ .

**Proof:**

Cover  $X$  by  $\{S(x_1), \dots, S(x_{\min(X)})\}$ . Suppose the number of basic subsets of  $X$  is greater than  $\min(X)$ . The claim is that each basic set,  $S(y)$ , is contained in  $S(x_i)$  for some  $i$ . Suppose not,  $S(y) \cap S(x_i) = \emptyset$  for all  $i$ . This is a contradiction because the  $S(x_i)$  cover  $X$ . Hence,  $S(y) \subset S(x_i)$  for some  $i$ . If the number of basic subsets of  $X$  is greater than  $\min(X)$ , then some  $S(x_i)$  contains more than one basic set which contradicts theorem 10. So the number of basic sets of  $X$  is less than or equal to  $\min(X)$ .

**4. Applications**

In modern mathematics, Alexandroff spaces continue to be studied for their theoretical simplicity and wide-ranging applications. Alexandroff spaces often serve as elementary examples in topology due to their straight forward construction and clear combinatorial properties. In the study of digital images and discrete structures, Alexandroff spaces provide a natural topological framework for analyzing connectivity and continuity in discrete settings. The lattice structure of open sets in an Alexandroff space has been used in abstract algebra and category theory.

Alexandroff spaces were first studied by Alexandroff. It is a topological space in which arbitrary intersection of open sets is open. Equivalently each singleton has a minimal neighborhood base. Alexandroff spaces have important applications because of their use in Digital topology.

This topic of research arose in connection with image processing. The only sets which can be handled on computers are discrete or digital sets, which mean sets that contain at most a denumerable number of elements. There are two sources of discrete sets. The data structures of computer science are enumerable by definition. So, only discrete objects can be represented. This covers a great number of practical situations. For example in most applications of artificial intelligence the universe of discourse is a finite set.

Another example is discrete classification. Example of planets and animals or stars into spectral classes etc. Continuous objects are discretized, that is they are approximated by discrete objects. This is done Eg: Infinite element models in engineering but also in image processing where the intrinsically continuous image is represented by a discrete set of pixels. In some cases the objects under consideration are taken from a space with certain geometric characteristics. Any useful discrete model of the situation should model the geometry faithfully in order to avoid wrong conclusions.

The simplest part of geometry is topology. The digital model topology [9] necessarily reflects only certain facets of the underlying continuous structure. It is therefore necessary to approach digital topology. Our visual system seems to be well adapted to copy with topological properties of the world. For example, letters in a document can be classified in a first step according to their topological homotopy types. The layout of documents frequently is based on topological predicates. Optional checking of writing of chips amounts in finding out whether the writing has the homotopy type wanted [10].

There are mainly three approaches for defining a digital analog of the well-known natural topology of the Euclidean space [11]. There are several practical situations other than image processing or spatial reasoning in artificial intelligence where topological spaces were used to model discrete situations, starting from Alexandroff's work in 1937. In his publications, Alexandroff provided a theoretical basis for the topology of "cell complexes"

**5. Conclusion**

The history of Alexandroff spaces reflects their dual nature as both a fundamental concept in topology and a versatile tool for applications in other fields. Introduced by Pavel Alexandrov in the 1930s, these spaces have influenced areas ranging from general topology to computer science and algebra. Their unique properties and connections to posets ensure that Alexandroff spaces remain an important topic in the study of both theoretical and applied mathematics.

## Compliance with ethical standards

### *Disclosure of conflict of interest*

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper

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