Random Process Background (1C)

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Based on Probability, Random Variables and Random Signal Principles,

P.Z. Peebles, Jr. and B. Shi

Outline

- Open Sets and Neighborhoods
 - Open Set
 - Neighborhood
 - Class
- 2 Filters
 - Filter
 - Proper Filter and Ultra Filter
 - Filter Example
- Topological Space
 - Topological Space
 - A discrete topology
 - Examples of topology



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Open set examples

- The *circle* represents the set of points (x, y) satisfying $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$. the *circle* set is its **boundary set**
- The disk represents the set of points (x,y) satisfying x²+y²<r².
 The disk set is an open set
- the union of the *circle* and *disk* sets is a **closed** set.

Open set (1)

- an open set is a generalization of an open interval in the real line.
- a metric space is a set along with a distance defined between any two points
- in a metric space,
 an open set is a set that, along with every point P,
 contains all points that are sufficiently near to P
 - <u>all</u> points whose distance to P is less than some value depending on P



Open set (2-1)

- more generally, an open set is a member of a given collection of subsets of a given set
 - a given set
 - subsets of a given set
 - a given collection of subsets of a given set

Open set (2-2)

- a collection has the following property of containing
 - a collection contains
 - every union of its members
 - every finite intersection of its members
 - the empty set
 - the whole set itself

Open set (3)

- These conditions are very loose, and allow enormous flexibility in the choice of open sets.
- For example,
 - every subset can be open (the discrete topology)
 - <u>no</u> subset can be open (the indiscrete topology)
 except
 - the space itself and
 - the empty set

Open set (4)

- A set in which such a collection is given is called a topological space, and the collection is called a topology.
 - A set is a collection of distinct objects.
 - Given a set A, we say that a is an element of A
 if a is one of the <u>distinct</u> objects in A,
 and we write a ∈ A to denote this
 - Given two sets A and B, we say that A is a subset of B
 if every element of A is also an element of B
 write A ⊂ B to denote this.

https://ximera.osu.edu/mooculus/calculusE/continuityOfFunctionsOfSeveralVariables/digInOpenAnd



Open set (5) Open Balls

- An open ball $B_r(a)$ in \mathbb{R}^n centered at $a = (a_1, \dots a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with radius r is the set of all points $x = (x_1, \dots x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the distance between x and a is less than r
- In \mathbb{R}^2 an **open ball** is often called an **open disk**

We give these definitions in general, for when one is working in \mathbb{R}^n since they are really not all that different to define in \mathbb{R}^n than in \mathbb{R}^2

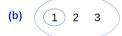
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Open set (6) Interior points

- Suppose that $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$
- A point $p \in S$ is an interior point of S if there exists an open ball $B_r(p) \subseteq S$
- Intuitively, p is an interior point of S
 if we can squeeze an entire open ball
 centered at p within S





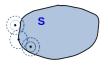


Open set (7) Boundary points

- A point p∈ Rⁿ is a boundary point of S if all open balls centered at p contain both points in S and points not in S
- The boundary of S is the set ∂S that consists of all of the boundary points of S.







a boundary point

Open set (8) Open and Closed Sets

- A set $O \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is **open** if every point in O is an interior point.
- A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if it contains all of its boundary points.

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Open set (9) Bounded and Unbounded

• A set S is **bounded** if there is an open ball $B_M(0)$ such that

$$S \subseteq B$$
.

intuitively, this means that we can enclose all of the set S within a large enough ball centered at the origin, $B_M(0)$

A set that is not bounded is called unbounded

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Family of sets (1)

- a collection F of subsets of a given set S is called a family of subsets of S, or a family of sets over S.
- More generally,
 a collection of any sets whatsoever is called
 a family of sets,
 set family, or
 a set system

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_of_sets

Family of sets (2)

- The term "collection" is used here because,
 - in some contexts,
 a family of sets may be allowed
 to contain repeated copies of any given member, and
 - in other contexts
 it may form a proper class rather than a set.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_of_sets

Examples of family of sets (1)

The set of all subsets of a given set S
is called the power set of S
and is denoted by \(\varphi(S). \)

The **power set** $\mathcal{D}(S)$ of a given set S is a **family** of **sets** over S.

 A subset of S having k elements is called a k-subset of S.

The k-subset $S^{(k)}$ of a set S form a **family** of **sets**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family of sets



Examples of family of sets (2)

• Let $S = \{a, b, c, 1, 2\}$. An example of a **family** of **sets** over S(in the multiset sense) is given by $F = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4\}$, where $A_1 = \{a, b, c\}$, $A_2 = \{1, 2\}$, $A_3 = \{1, 2\}$, and $A_4 = \{a, b, 1\}$.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Family_of_sets

Neighbourhood basis (1)

- A neighbourhood basis or local basis
 (or neighbourhood base or local base) for a point x
 is a filter base of the neighbourhood filter;
- this means that it is a subset $\mathscr{B} \subseteq \mathscr{N}(x)$ such that for all $V \in \mathscr{N}(x)$, there exists some $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B \subseteq V$. That is, for any **neighbourhood** V we can find a **neighbourhood** B in the **neighbourhood basis** that is contained in V.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood system#Neighbourhood basis



Neighbourhood basis (2)

• Equivalently, \mathcal{B} is a local basis at x if and only if the neighbourhood filter \mathcal{N} can be recovered from \mathcal{B} in the sense that the following equality holds:

$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \{ V \subseteq X : B \subseteq V \text{ for some } B \in \mathcal{B} \}$$

• A family $\mathscr{B} \subseteq \mathscr{N}(x)$ is a neighbourhood basis for x if and only if \mathscr{B} is a cofinal subset of $(\mathscr{N}(x),\supseteq)$ with respect to the partial order \supseteq (importantly, this partial order is the superset relation and not the subset relation).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood system#Neighbourhood basis



A collection of sets around x

- In general, one refers to the <u>family</u> of sets containing 0, used to <u>approximate</u> 0, as a <u>neighborhood</u> basis;
- a member of this neighborhood basis is referred to as an **open set**.
- In fact, one may generalize these notions to an arbitrary set (X);
 rather than just the real numbers.
- In this case, given a point (x) of that set (X),
 one may define a collection of sets
 "around" (that is, containing) x, used to approximate x.



Smaller sets containing x

- Of course, this collection would have to satisfy certain properties (known as axioms) for otherwise we may <u>not</u> have a well-defined method to measure distance.
- For example, every point in X should approximate x to some degree of accuracy.
- Thus X should be in this family.
- Once we begin to define "smaller" sets containing x, we tend to approximate x to a greater degree of accuracy.
- Bearing this in mind, one may <u>define</u> the remaining axioms that the family of sets about x is required to satisfy.



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Open ball (1)

- a ball is the solid figure bounded by a sphere;
 it is also called a solid sphere.
 - a closed ball includes the boundary points that constitute the sphere
 - an open ball excludes them

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ball_(mathematics)

Open ball (2)

- A ball in n dimensions is called a hyperball or n-ball and is bounded by a hypersphere or (n-1)-sphere
- One may talk about balls in any topological space X, not necessarily induced by a metric.
- An n-dimensional topological ball of X is any subset of X which is homeomorphic to an Euclidean n-ball.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ball (mathematics)

Neighborhood (1)

- a neighbourhood is one of the basic concepts in a topological space.
- It is closely related to the concepts of open set and interior.
- Intuitively speaking, a neighbourhood of a point is a set of points containing that point where one can move some amount in any direction away from that point without leaving the set.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood (mathematics)

Interior

- the interior of a subset S of a topological space X
 is the union of all subsets of S that are open in X.
- A point that is in the interior of S is an interior point of S.
- The interior of S is the complement of the closure of the complement of S. the closure of (boundary + exterior)
- In this sense, interior and closure are dual notions.

Exterior

- The exterior of a set S is the complement of the closure of \underline{S} ; the closure of S = boundary + interior
- it consists of the points that are in neither the set nor its boundary.
- The interior, boundary, and exterior of a subset together partition the whole space into three blocks
- fewer when one or more of these is empty

Interior Point (1)

- If S is a subset of a Euclidean space, then x is an interior point of S
 if there exists an open ball centered at x which is completely contained in S.
- This definition generalizes to any subset S of a metric space X with metric d:
 - x is an interior point of S if there exists a real number r > 0, such that y is in S whenever the distance d(x, y) < r.

Interior Point (2)

- This definition generalizes to topological spaces by replacing "open ball" with "open set".
 - if there exists an *open ball* centered at *x* which is completely contained in *S*.
 - if x is contained in an open subset of X that is completely contained in S.

Interior Point (3)

- If S is a subset of a topological space X then x is an interior point of S in X
 if x is contained in an open subset of X that is completely contained in S.
- Equivalently, x is an interior point of S
 if S is a neighbourhood of x.

Interior of a Set (1)

- The interior of a subset S of a topological space X,
 can be defined in any of the following equivalent ways:
 - the largest open subset of X contained in S.
 - the union of all open sets of X contained in S.
 - the set of all interior points of S.

Interior of a Set (2)

- The interior of a subset S of a topological space X, denoted by $int_X S$ or int S or S°
- If the space X is understood from context then the shorter notation intS is usually preferred to int X S.

Neighborhood of a point (1-1)

 If X is a topological space and p is a point in X, then a neighbourhood of p is a subset V of X that includes an open set U containing p,

$$p \in U \subseteq V \subseteq X$$
.

X : a topological space

V : a subset of X

• *U* : an open set containing *p*

• p: a point in X

V : a neighbourhood of p

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood_(mathematics)$



Neighborhood of a point (1-2)

- This is also equivalent to the point $p \in X$ belonging to the topological interior of V in X.
- The neighbourhood V need not be an open subset of X, but when V is open in X then it is called an open neighbourhood.
- Some authors have been known to require neighbourhoods to be open, so it is important to note conventions.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood_(mathematics)



Neighborhood of a point (2)

- A set that is a neighbourhood of each of its points is open since it can be expressed as the union of open sets containing each of its points.
- A closed rectangle, as illustrated in the figure, is <u>not</u> a neighbourhood of all its points;
 - points on the edges or corners of the rectangle are not contained in any open set that is contained within the rectangle.
- The collection of <u>all</u> neighbourhoods of a point is called the neighbourhood system at the point.

Neighborhood of a set (1-1)

 If S is a subset of a topological space X, then a neighbourhood of S is a set V that <u>includes</u> an open set U containing S,

$$S \subseteq U \subseteq V \subseteq X$$
.

- It follows that a set V is a neighbourhood of S
 if and only if it is a neighbourhood of all the points in S.
- Furthermore, V is a neighbourhood of S
 if and only if S is a subset of the interior of V.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood_(mathematics)



Neighborhood of a set (1-2)

- A neighbourhood of S that is also an open subset of X is called an open neighbourhood of S.
- The neighbourhood of a point is just a special case of this definition.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neighbourhood_(mathematics)

Neighborhood definition (1)

- the open set axioms are often taken as the <u>definition</u> of a topology, when they are quite *unintuitive*, though extremely useful in the long run.
- the neighbourhood <u>definition</u>, while somewhat <u>cumbersome</u>, has the advantage of being closely related to ideas from analysis, and has a <u>historical basis</u>



Neighborhood definition (2-1)

- A neighbourhood topology on a set X
 <u>assigns</u> to each element x ∈ X
 a <u>non empty</u> set N(x) of subsets of X, called neighbourhoods of x
- with the following properties:

Neighborhood definition (2-2)

- the properties of a neighbourhood topology:
 - If N is a neighbourhood of x then $x \in X$
 - If M is a neighbourhood of x and $M \subseteq N \subseteq X$, then N is a neighbourhood of x
 - The intersection of two neighbourhoods of x is a neighbourhood of x
 - If N is a neighbourhood of x,
 then N contains a neighbourhood M of x
 such that N is a neighbourhood of each point of M.



Neighborhood definition (3-1)

- Then one says a function $f: X \to Y$ is continuous wrt neighbourhoods on X and Y if for each $x \in X$ and neighbourhood N of f(x) there is a neighbourhood M of x such that $f(M) \subseteq N$.
- The open set <u>definition</u> of <u>continuity</u> is then <u>justified</u> as being <u>equivalent</u> to this <u>definition</u> in terms of <u>neighbourhoods</u>.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/157735/definition-of-neighborhood-

and-open-set-in-topology



Neighborhood definition (3-2)

One also says a set U in X is open
 if U is a neighbourhood of all of its points.
 THEN one can develop the open set axioms
 and show that one can recover the neighbourhoods.

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Class (1)

- a class is a collection of sets
 (or sometimes other mathematical objects)
 that can be unambiguously <u>defined</u>
 by a property that all its members share.
- Classes act as a way to have set-like collections while differing from sets so as to avoid Russell's paradox

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)
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Class (2)

- A class that is not a set is called a proper class, and
- a class that is a set is sometimes called a small class.
- the followings are proper classes in many formal systems
 - the class of all sets
 - the class of all ordinal numbers
 - the class of all cardinal numbers

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)

Class (3)

- consider "the set of all sets with property X."
- especially when dealing with categories, since the objects of a concrete category are all sets with certain additional structure.
- However, if we're not careful about this we can get into serious trouble –

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-objects-and-a-class-of-objects

Class (4)

- let X be the set of all sets which do not contain themselves
- Since X is a set, we can ask whether X is an element of itself.
- But then we run into a paradox –
 if X contains itself as an element,
 then it does not, and vice versa.

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-objects-and-a-class-of-objects

Class (5)

- In order to avoid this paradox,
 we <u>cannot</u> consider the collection of <u>all</u> sets to be itself a set.
- This means we have to throw out the whole "the set of all sets with property X" construction.
 But we wanted that.
- So the way we get around it is to say that there's something called a class, which is like a set but not a set.

https://www.quora.com/In-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-ofobjects-and-a-class-of-objects



Class (6)

- Then we can talk about
 "the class X of all sets with property Y."
- Since X is not a set,
 it can't be an element of itself, and we're fine.
- Of course, if we need to talk about the collection of all classes, we need to create another name that goes another step back, and so forth.

https://www.quora.com/ln-set-theory-what-is-the-difference-between-a-set-of-objects-and-a-class-of-objects

Class Examples (1)

- The collection of all algebraic structures of a given type will usually be a proper class.
 (a class that is not a set is called a proper class)
 - the class of all groups
 - the class of all vector spaces
 - and many others.
- Within set theory, many collections of sets turn out to be proper classes.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class (set theory)
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Class Examples (2)

- One way to prove that a class is proper is to place it in bijection with the class of all ordinal numbers.
 - Cardinal numbers indicate an <u>amount</u> how many of something we have: one, two, three, four, five.
 - Ordinal numbers indicate <u>position</u> in a series: first, second, third, fourth, fifth.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)
https://editarians.com/cardinals-ordinals/
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Class Paradoxes (1)

- The paradoxes of naive set theory can be explained in terms of the inconsistent tacit assumption that "all classes are sets".
- These paradoxes do <u>not</u> arise with classes because there is no notion of classes containing classes.
- Otherwise, one could, for example, define a class of all classes that do <u>not</u> contain themselves, which would lead to a <u>Russell paradox</u> for classes.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class_(set_theory)
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Class Paradoxes (2)

- With a rigorous foundation,
 these paradoxes instead suggest proofs
 that certain classes are proper (i.e., that they are not sets).
 - Russell's paradox suggests a proof that the class of <u>all</u> sets which do not contain themselves is proper
 - the **Burali-Forti paradox** *suggests* that the class of all ordinal numbers is proper.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Class (set theory)
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Russell's Paradox (1)

 According to the unrestricted comprehension principle, for any sufficiently well-defined property, there is the set of all and only the objects that have that property.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s paradox

Russell's Paradox (2)

- Let R be the set of all sets $(R = \{x \mid x \notin x\})$ that are <u>not</u> members of themselves $(R \notin R)$.
 - if R is <u>not</u> a member of itself (R ∉ R),
 then its definition (the set of all sets) entails that it is a member of itself (R ∈ R);
 - yet, if it is a member of itself $(R \in R)$, then it is <u>not</u> a member of itself $(R \notin R)$, since it is the set of all sets that are not members of themselves $(R \notin R)$
- the resulting contradiction is Russell's paradox.
- Let $R = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$, then $R \in R \iff R \notin R$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s_paradox



Russell's Paradox (3)

- Most sets commonly encountered are not members of themselves.
- For example, consider the set of all squares in a plane.
- This set is <u>not</u> itself a <u>square</u> in the plane, thus it is not a <u>member</u> of itself.
- Let us call a set "normal" if it is <u>not</u> a member of itself, and "abnormal" if it is a member of itself.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s paradox

Russell's Paradox (4)

- Clearly every set must be either normal or abnormal.
- The set of squares in the plane is normal.
- In contrast, the complementary set
 that contains everything which is <u>not</u> a <u>square</u> in the plane
 is itself <u>not</u> a <u>square</u> in the plane,
 and so it is one of its own members
 and is therefore abnormal.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russell%27s paradox

Russell's Paradox (5)

- Now we consider the set of all normal sets, R, and try to determine whether R is normal or abnormal.
 - If R were normal, it would be contained in the set of all normal sets (itself), and therefore be abnormal;
 - on the other hand if R were abnormal, it would <u>not</u> be contained in the set of all normal sets (itself), and therefore be normal.
- This leads to the conclusion that
 R is neither normal nor abnormal: Russell's paradox.

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Binary Relation (1)

- a binary relation associates elements of one set, called the domain, with elements of another set, called the codomain.
- A binary relation over sets X and Y is
 a new set of ordered pairs (x,y)
 consisting of elements x from X and y from Y.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary relationelation

Binary Relation (2)

- It is a generalization of a unary function.
- It encodes the common concept of relation:
- an element x is related to an element y,
 if and only if the pair (x,y) belongs
 to the set of ordered pairs that defines the binary relation.
- A binary relation is the most studied special case n=2 of an n-ary relation over sets $X_1,...,X_n$, which is a subset of the Cartesian product $X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary relationelation



Homogeneous Relation

- a homogeneous relation (also called endorelation) on a set X is
 a binary relation between X and itself, i.e.
 it is a subset of the Cartesian product X × X.
- This is commonly phrased as "a relation on X" or "a (binary) relation over X".
- An example of a **homogeneous relation** is the relation of kinship, where the relation is between people.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homogeneous_relation

Partially Ordered Set (1-1)

- a partial order on a set is an arrangement such that, for certain pairs of elements, one precedes the other.
- The word partial is used to indicate
 that <u>not</u> every pair of elements needs to be <u>comparable</u>;
 that is, there may be <u>pairs</u> for which <u>neither</u> element <u>precedes</u> the
 other.
- Partial orders thus generalize total orders, in which every pair is comparable.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partially_ordered_set

Partially Ordered Set (1-2)

- Formally, a **partial order** is a homogeneous binary relation that is reflexive, transitive and antisymmetric.
- A partially ordered set (poset for short) is a set on which a partial order is defined.
- A reflexive, weak, or non-strict partial order, commonly referred to simply as a partial order, is a homogeneous relation ≤ on a set P that is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partially_ordered_set

Partially Ordered Set (2)

- a homogeneous relation ≤ on a set P
 that is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.
- That is, for all $a, b, c \in P$, it must satisfy:
 - Reflexivity: $a \le a$, i.e. every element is related to itself.
 - Antisymmetry:
 if a ≤ b and b ≤ a then a = b,
 i.e. no two distinct elements precede each other.
 - Transitivity: if $a \le b$ and $b \le c$ then $a \le c$.
- A non-strict partial order is also known as an antisymmetric preorder.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partially_ordered_set



Filter in Set Theory (1-1)

- A filter on a set may be thought of as representing a "collection of large subsets", one intuitive example being the neighborhood filter.
- keep large grains excluding small impurities

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (set theory)#filter base
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Filter in Set Theory (1-2)

- When you put a filter in your sink,
 the idea is that you filter out the big chunks of food,
 and let the water and the smaller chunks go through
 (which can, in principle, be washed through the pipes)
- You filter out the larger parts.
- A filter filters out the larger sets.
- It is a way to say "these sets are 'large'"

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (set theory)#filter base

Filter in Set Theory (1-3)

- a **filter** on a set X is a family \mathscr{B} of subsets such that:

 - ② if $A \in \mathcal{B}$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$, then $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (set theory)#filter base

Filter in Set Theory (1-4)

• The set of "everything" is definitely large

$$X \in \mathscr{B}$$

and "nothing" is definitely not;

$$\emptyset \notin \mathscr{B}$$

 if something is larger than a large set, then it is also large;

If
$$A, B \subset X, A \in \mathcal{B}$$
, and $A \subset B$, then $B \in \mathcal{B}$

• and two large sets intersect on a large set.

If
$$A \in \mathcal{B}$$
 and $B \in \mathcal{B}$, then $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter_(set_theory)#filter_base



Filter in Set Theory (1-5)

- you can think about this as
 - being co-finite,
 - or being of measure 1 on the unit interval,
 - or having a dense open subset (again on the unit interval).
- These are examples of ways
 where a set can be thought of as "almost everything".
 and that is the idea behind a filter.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (set theory)#filter base
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Co-finite

- a cofinite subset of a set X is
 a subset A whose complement in X is a finite set.
- a subset A contains all but finitely many elements of X
- If the complement is <u>not</u> finite, <u>but</u> is countable, then one says the set is cocountable.
- These arise naturally when generalizing structures on finite sets to infinite sets, particularly on infinite products, as in the product topology or direct sum.
- This use of the prefix "co" to describe a property
 possessed by a set's complement
 is consistent with its use in other terms such as "comeagre set".

Unit interval

- the **unit interval** is the closed interval [0,1], that is, the set of all real numbers that are greater than or equal to 0 and less than or equal to 1.
- It is often denoted I (capital letter I).
- In addition to its role in real analysis, the unit interval is used to study homotopy theory in the field of topology.
- the term "unit interval" is sometimes applied to the other shapes that an interval from 0 to 1 could take: (0,1], [0,1), and (0,1).
- However, the notation I is most commonly reserved for the closed interval [0,1].

Dense set

- In topology, a subset A of a topological space X is said to be dense in X if every point of X either belongs to A or else is arbitrarily "close" to a member of A
 - for instance, the rational numbers are
 a dense subset of the real numbers
 because every real number
 either is a rational number or
 has a rational number arbitrarily close to it
 (see Diophantine approximation).
- Formally, A is dense in X
 if the smallest closed subset of X containing A is X itself.
- The density of a topological space X is the least cardinality of a dense subset of X.

Proper Subset

- a set A is a subset of a set B
 if all elements of A are also elements of B;
- B is then a superset of A.
- It is possible for A and B to be equal;
- if they are unequal, then A is a proper subset of B.
- The relationship of one set being a subset of another is called inclusion (or sometimes containment).
- A is a subset of B may also be expressed
 as B includes (or contains) A or A is included (or contained) in B.
- A k-subset is a subset with k elements.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subset



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Proper Filter (1-1)

- Fix a partially ordered set (poset) P.
- Intuitively, a filter F is a subset of P
 whose members are elements large enough
 to satisfy some criterion.
- For instance, if $x \in P$, then the set of elements <u>above</u> x is a filter, called the principal filter at x.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (mathematics)

Proper Filter (1-2)

- If xand y are incomparable elements of P, then <u>neither</u> the principal filter at x <u>nor</u> y is contained in the other
 - two elements x and y of a set P are said to be comparable with respect to a binary relation ≤
 if at least one of x ≤ y or y ≤ x is true.
 They are called incomparable if they are not comparable.
 - Hasse diagram of the natural numbers, partially ordered by "x ≤ y if x divides y".
 The numbers 4 and 6 are incomparable, since neither divides the other.

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter_(mathematics) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparability
```



Proper Filter (1-3)

- Similarly, a filter on a set S contains those subsets that are sufficiently large to contain some given thing.
- For example, if S is the real line and x ∈ S,
 then the family of sets including x in their interior is a filter, called the neighborhood filter at x.
- The thing in this case is slightly larger than x,
 but it still does not contain any other specific point of the line.

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter_(mathematics)$

Proper Filter (2)

- The above considerations motivate
 the upward closure requirement in the definition below:
 "large enough" objects can always be made larger.
- To understand the other two conditions, reverse the roles and instead consider F as a "locating scheme" to find x.
- In this interpretation, one <u>searches</u> in some <u>space</u> X, and expects F to describe those <u>subsets</u> of X that contain the goal.
- The goal must be <u>located</u> somewhere; thus the empty set Ø can never be in F.
- And if two subsets both contain the goal, then should "zoom in" to their common region.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (mathematics)



Proper Filter (3)

- An ultrafilter describes a "perfect locating scheme"
 where each <u>scheme component</u> gives new information
 (either "look here" or "look elsewhere").
- Compactness is the <u>property</u> that "every search is <u>fruitful</u>," or, to put it another way, "every locating scheme ends in a search result."
- A common use for a filter is to define properties that are satisfied by "generic" elements of some topological space.
- This application generalizes the "locating scheme" to find points that might be hard to write down explicitly.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (mathematics)



Neighborhood Filter (1-1)

- Let X be a set;
- the elements of X are usually called points
- We allow X to be empty.
- Let \mathcal{N} be a function assigning to each x (point) in Xa non-empty collection $\mathcal{N}(x)$ of subsets of X.
- The elements of $\mathcal{N}(x)$ will be called neighbourhoods of x with respect to \mathcal{N} (or, simply, neighbourhoods of x).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space



Neighborhood Filter (1-2)

- Let X be a set;
- \mathcal{N} : a function assigning to each point x in X
- $\mathcal{N}(x)$: a non-empty <u>collection</u> of subsets of X.
- The elements of $\mathcal{N}(x)$
 - subsets of X
 - neighbourhoods of x with respect to \mathcal{N}

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological space

Neighborhood Filter (1-3)

- The function N is called a neighbourhood topology if some axioms are satisfied;
- then X with \mathcal{N} is called a topological space (X, \mathcal{N})

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topological_space$

Neighborhood Filter (1-4)

- If (X, F) is a topological space and p∈ X, a neighbourhood of p is a subset V of X, in which p∈ U⊆ V, and U is open.
- We say that V is a $\mathscr{T}-$ neighbourhood of $x\in X$ or that V is a neighborhood of x
- The set of all neighbourhoods of $x \in X$, denoted $\mathscr{N}_{\mathscr{X}}$ is called the neighbourhood filter of x

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter

Neighborhood Filter (1-4)

- An example of Neighborhood Filters on a Topological space.
- Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and let $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$
- Let

$$\mathcal{N}_{a} = \{\{a\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, X\}$$

 $\mathcal{N}_{b} = \{\{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{b,c\}, X\}$
 $\mathcal{N}_{c} = \{\{b,c\}, X\}.$

- In this example a, c is a neighborhood of a but not of c.
- Thus a set does not have to be a neighborhood of all of its points.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter

Neighborhood Filter (2)

- One can specify a topology in more than four different ways.
 - The standard definition specifies the open sets, what we usually call a "topology."
 - 2 to specify the close sets this is of course only a trivial difference.
 - to specify a closure operation on subsets of your space
 - to specify a neighborhood filter for every point satisfying the natural axiom that every neighborhood of x is a neighborhood of every point of one of its subsets
 - So in this sense neighborhood filters tell you everything they possibly could about a topological space.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter



Neighborhood Filter (3-1)

- Probably the best way to think about the neighborhood filter of x: is that it contains all information regarding convergence to x.
- In the first topological spaces one encounters, convergence is usually of sequences.
- But this <u>isn't</u> enough to describe the topology in arbitrary spaces, for instance the infinite-dimensional spaces of functional analysis.
- It becomes important to speak of convergence of nets, or of filters.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter

Neighborhood Filter (3-2)

- A filter on X is just a <u>nontrivial</u> subset of the powerset of X closed under <u>finite</u> intersection and superset,
 and a filter converges to a point x if and only if it contains the neighborhood filter of x.
- In contrast to the case with sequences, this is enough to specify a topology: in fact it's enough to describe how ultrafilters, that is, maximal filters, converge.
- So in this sense the neighborhood filter encapsulates the viewpoint that topology generalizes the study of convergent sequences.

https://math.stack exchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter



Neighborhood Filter (4-1)

- in a sense the neighborhood filter describes the smallest neighborhood of a point
 - except that there is <u>no</u> smallest neighborhood!
- That's true, at least, in many of the most interesting spaces,
 and is the main reason to worry about a whole filter of neighborhoods
 - if there were a <u>smallest</u> neighborhood then in any hypothesis requiring something to hold on a sufficiently <u>small</u> neighborhood of x we could just pick the smallest neighborhood.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter

Neighborhood Filter (4-2)

- But the <u>smallest</u> neighborhood of a point must be contained in the intersection of all its neighborhoods, and in, say, a Hausdorff space the intersection of all neighborhoods of x is x, which is not a neighborhood of x when x is not isolated.
- So the filter functions as a <u>virtual</u> <u>smallest</u> <u>neighborhood</u> of x:
 it doesn't converge to a <u>neighborhood</u> of x,
 so we can't think about its limit, but functionally we do just that.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/799732/neighborhood-vs-neighborhood-filter

Ultrafilter (1)

- an ultrafilter on a given partially ordered set (or "poset") P is
 a certain subset of P, namely a maximal filter on P;
 that is, a proper filter on P that cannot be enlarged
 to a bigger proper filter on P.
- If X is an arbitrary set, its power set P(X),
 ordered by set inclusion,
 is always a Boolean algebra and hence a poset,
 and ultrafilters on P(X) are usually called
 ultrafilter on the set X.

Ultrafilter (2)

- In order theory, an ultrafilter is
 a subset of a partially ordered set
 that is maximal among all proper filters.
- This implies that any filter that properly contains an ultrafilter has to be equal to the whole poset.

Ultrafilter (3)

- An ultrafilter on a set X may be considered as a finitely additive measure on X.
- In this view, every subset of X is either considered "almost everything" (has measure 1) or "almost nothing" (has measure 0), depending on whether it belongs to the given ultrafilter or not

Ultrafilter (4)

- Formally, if P is a set, partially ordered by \leq then
- a subset F ⊆ P is called a filter on P if F is nonempty, for every x, y ∈ F, there exists some element z ∈ F such that z ≤ x and z ≤ y, and for every x ∈ F and y ∈ P, x ≤ y implies that y is in F too;
- a proper subset U of P is called

 an ultrafilter on P if U is a filter on P,
 and there is no proper filter F on P
 that properly extends U
 (that is, such that U is a proper subset of F).



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Filter Examples (1)

- Let X = 1,2,3Choose some element from X say F = 1,1,2,1,3,1,2,3
- Then every intersection of an element of F
 with another element in F is in F again.

Examples:
$$1 \cap 1, 2, 3 = 1$$
 $1, 2 \cap 1, 2, 3 = 1, 2$ $1, 3 \cap 1, 2, 3 = 1, 3$ $1, 2, 3 \cap 1, 2, 3 = 1, 2, 3$

• Also the original X = 1,2,3 is also in F. Here F = 1,1,2,1,3,1,2,3 is called the filter on X = 1,2,3

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2816362/meaning-behind-filter-in-set-theory

Filter Examples (2)

- .Suppose we have the collection G = 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3
- Then we have $1,3 \cap 2,3 = 3$ but 3 isn't in G. So this G is not called a filter.
- Now with F = 1,1,2,1,3,1,2,3 can we put as any other element in it so that after placing the extra element it is still a filter? Probably not in this case. So on $X = \overline{1,2,3}$, F = 1,1,2,1,3,1,2,3 is an Ultrafilter.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2816362/meaning-behind-filter-in-set-theory

Filter Examples (3)

- If we have started say with H = 1,1,2,1,2,3 this is still a filter on X = 1,2,3
 but we can still add 1,3 and it will still be classified as filter.
- So on X = 1,2,3 F = 1,1,2,1,3,1,2,3 is an Ultrafilter but H = 1,1,2,1,2,3 is a filter but not an Ultrafilter.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2816362/meaning-behind-filter-in-set-theory

Filter Examples (4)

- Now suppose we have X = 1,2,3,4
 Let F = 1,4,1,2,4,1,3,4,1,2,3,4
- Every in intersection of element of F is in F again. We have as examples $1,4\cap 1,4=1,4$ $1,4\cap 1,2,4=1,4$ $1,4\cap 1,3,4=1,4$ $1,2,4\cap 1,2,4=1,2,4$ $1,2,4\cap 1,3,4=1,4$ $1,3,4\cap 1,3,4=1,3,4$ $1,2,3,4\cap 1,2,3,4=1,2,3,4$
- Also X = 1,2,3,4 is also in F = 1,4,1,2,4,1,3,4,1,2,3,4 and the null element $\emptyset =$ is not in F.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2816362/meaning-behind-filter-in-set-theory

Filter Examples (5)

- We call F a filter but not an Ultrafilter on X = 1, 2, 3, 4
- We can still <u>add</u> element in it and it will still be a filter for instance by adding the element 1 from X = 1,2,3,4 we can have the filter F = 1,1,4,1,2,4,1,3,4,1,2,3,4
- This is an Ultrafilter on X = 1,2,3,4
 as we cannot add any further element from X = 1,2,3,4
 that satisfies closures on intersection.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2816362/meaning-behind-filter-in-set-theory

Filter Examples (6)

- There is another collection of sets taken from X = 1, 2, 3, 4
- which is the powerset
 P = 1,2,3,4,1,2,1,3,1,4,2,3,2,4,3,4,1,2,3,1,2,4,1,3,4,2,3,4,1,2,3,4
- This contain the null element \emptyset = so we cannot call this as Ultrafilter.
- This is not a proper filter according to the article in Wikipedia.
- In the powerset every intersection of element is again in the powerset again but it contains t
- he null element \emptyset = and isn't classified as proper filter.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2816362/meaning-behind-filter-in-set-linear properties of the properties of t

theory



Filter Examples (7)

- There is another collection of sets taken from X = 1, 2, 3, 4
- which is the powerset P = 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 4, 2, 3, 2, 4, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 4, 1, 3, 4, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4
- This contain the null element \emptyset = so we cannot call this as Ultrafilter.
- This is not a proper filter according to the article in Wikipedia.
- In the powerset every intersection of element is again in the powerset again but it contains t
- he null element \emptyset = and isn't classified as proper filter.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filter (set theory)#filter base

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Topology

topology
 from the Greek words
 τόπος, 'place, location',
 and λόγος, 'study'

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topology

Topology (2)

- topology is concerned with the properties of a geometric object that are preserved
 - under continuous deformations such as
 - stretching
 - twisting
 - crumpling
 - bending
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Topology

- that is, without
 - closing holes
 - opening holes
 - tearing
 - gluing
 - passing through itself

Topological space (1)

- a topological space is, roughly speaking,
 - a geometrical space in which closeness is defined
 - but <u>cannot</u> <u>necessarily</u> be measured by a numeric distance.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel set

Topological space (2)

- More specifically, a topological space is
 - a set whose elements are called points,
 - along with an additional structure called a topology,
- which can be defined as
 - a set of neighbourhoods for each point
 - that satisfy some <u>axioms</u> formalizing the concept of closeness.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel set



Topological space (3)

 There are several equivalent definitions of a topology, the most commonly used of which is the definition through open sets, which is <u>easier</u> than the others to manipulate.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Borel set

Topological space (4)

- A topological space is the most general type of a mathematical space that allows for the definition of
 - limits
 - continuity
 - connectedness
- Although very general,
 the concept of topological spaces is fundamental,
 and used in virtually every branch of modern mathematics.
- The study of topological spaces in their own right is called point-set topology or general topology.



Topological space (5)

- Common types of topological spaces include
 - Euclidean spaces: a set of points satisfying certain relationships, expressible in terms of distance and angles.
 - metric spaces: a set together with a notion of distance between points. The distance is measured by a function called a metric or distance function.
 - manifolds: a topological space that *locally* resembles
 Euclidean space near each point. More precisely, an n-manifold is a topological space with the property that each point has a neighborhood that is homeomorphic to an open subset of n-dimensional Euclidean space.



Discrete Topology

- a discrete space is a topological space,
 in which the points <u>form</u> a discontinuous sequence,
 meaning they are isolated from each other in a certain sense.
- The discrete topology is the finest topology that can be given on a set.
 - every subset is open
 - every singleton subset is an open set

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete_space

Singletone

- a singleton, also known as a unit set or one-point set, is a set with exactly one element.
- for example, the set {0} is a singleton whose single element is 0

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete_space$

Indiscrete Space (1)

- a topological space with the trivial topology is one where the only open sets are the empty set and the entire space.
- Such spaces are commonly called indiscrete, anti-discrete, concrete or codiscrete.
 - every subset can be open (the discrete topology), or
 - <u>no</u> subset can be open (the indiscrete topology) except the space itself and the empty set.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete space



Indiscrete Space (2)

- Intuitively, this has the consequence that
 <u>all points</u> of the space are "lumped together"
 and <u>cannot</u> be <u>distinguished</u> by topological means (<u>not topologically distinguishable points</u>)
- Every indiscrete space is a pseudometric space in which the distance between any two points is zero.

 $https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete_space$

T₀ Space

- a topological space X is a T₀ space or
 if for every pair of distinct points of X,
 at least one of them has a neighborhood
 not containing the other.
- In a T_0 space, all points are topologically distinguishable.
- This condition, called the T₀ condition, is the weakest of the separation axioms.
- Nearly all topological spaces normally studied in mathematics are T₀ space.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kolmogorov space



Topologically distinguishable points

- Intuitively, an open set provides a method to distinguish two points.
- <u>two</u> points in a topological space, there exists an open set
 - containing one point but
 - not containing the other (distinct) point
 - the two points are topologically distinguishable.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

Topologically distinguishable points

- Intuitively, an open set provides a *method* to *distinguish* two points.
- <u>two</u> points in a topological space, there exists an open set
 - containing one point but
 - not containing the other (distinct) point
 - the two points are topologically distinguishable.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

Metric spaces

- In this manner, one may speak of whether <u>two</u> points, or more generally <u>two</u> subsets, of a topological space are "near" without concretely defining a distance.
- Therefore, topological spaces may be seen as a generalization of spaces equipped with a notion of distance, which are called metric spaces.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open set

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Why called a discrete topology? (1)

- the discrete topology is the finest topology
 it cannot be subdivided further.
- if you think of the <u>elements</u> of the set as indivisible "discrete" atoms, each one appears as a <u>singleton set</u>.
- can effectively "see" the individual points in the topology itself.

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https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2614268/why-is-a-discrete-topology-called-\dots \\
```



Why called a discrete topology? (2)

- the **indiscrete topology** consists only of X itself and \emptyset .
- This topology <u>obscures</u> everything about how many points were in the original set.
- It fully agglomerates the points of the set together.

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Why called a discrete topology? (3)

- helpful to think of topologies as obscuring or blurring together the underlying points of the set.
- topologies are all about nearness relations:
 points in an open set are in the vicinity of one another.
- topologically indistinguishable points points that never appear alone in an open set,
 - they are so close as to be identical, from the perspective of the topology,



Why called a discrete topology? (4)

- the discrete topology
 - has no indistinguishable points.
 - obscures nothing about the underlying set.
 - each point in the set is
 - clearly highlighted
 - distinguishable
 - recoverable as an open singleton set in the topology.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2614268/why-is-a-discrete-topology-called-...



Why called a discrete topology? (5)

 If you think of topologies that can arise from metrics, the discrete topology arises from metrics such as

$$d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y \\ 1 & x \neq y \end{cases}$$

- This metric "shatters" the points X, isolating each one within its own unit ball.
 - In such a space, the only convergent sequences are the ones that are eventually constant;
 - you can't find points arbitrarily close to any other points.
 - because points are isolated in this way,
 - it makes sense to call the space "discrete".

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2614268/why-is-a-discrete-topology-like the properties of t

called-...



Why called a discrete topology? (6-1)

- Every function from a discrete space is automatically continuous.
- for this reason, the discrete topology is the one that best "represents" X in topological space.
- Indeed, in many ways the <u>nature</u> of a set is <u>characterized</u> by its <u>functions</u>,
- and the <u>nature</u> of a topological space is characterized by its continuous functions.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2614268/why-is-a-discrete-topology-called-...



Why called a discrete topology? (6-2)

- So, note that if T is any topological space, there's a natural <u>bijective correspondence</u> between functions $f: X \to set(T)$ and <u>continuous morphisms</u> $g: discrete(X) \to T$.
- For every function on X, you can find a <u>continuous</u> function on <u>discrete(X)</u>, and given any <u>continuous</u> function on <u>discrete(X)</u>, you can uniquely recover a function on X
- The discrete topology best represents the <u>structure</u> of the set X which, as you say, is discretized into individual points.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2614268/why-is-a-discrete-topology-called-...



Why called a discrete topology? (7-1)

- Throughout abstract algebra, isomorphisms describe which structures are "the same".
- A topological isomorphism (a homeomorphism) between two topologies says that they are essentially the same topology.
- An isomorphism of sets is just a bijection;
- it says that the sets contain the same number of elements.

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Why called a discrete topology? (7-3)

- Continuing the discussion of functions above,
 two discrete topologies are topologically isomorphic (homeomorphic)
 if and only if their underlying sets are isomorphic as sets (bijective).
- Put casually, this means that the discrete-topology-creating process maintains the similarity and differences between the underlying sets: discrete topologies are the same if and only if their underlying sets are.

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2614268/why-is-a-discrete-topology-called-...

Why called a discrete topology? (8)

- This is all the more important when we realize that sets are the same when they have the same number of points.
- Hence discrete topologies are the same when (and only when) their underlying sets have "discrete points" in the same quantity.
- You can count the points in a discrete topology through isomorphisms, and the discrete topology is the only topology for which this is possible.

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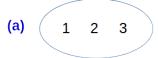


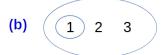
Examples of topoloy (1)

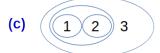
- Let τ be denoted with the circles, here are four examples (a), (b), (c), (d), and two non-examples (e), (f) of topologies on the three-point set {1,2,3}.
- (e) is <u>not</u> a topology because the union of {2} and {3} [i.e. {2,3}] is missing;
- **(f)** is not a topology because the intersection of $\{1,2\}$ and $\{2,3\}$ [i.e. $\{2\}$], is missing.

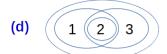


Examples of topoloy (2)

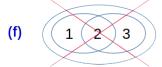












Every union of (c)

(c) is a topology $\{\{\},\{1\},\{2\},\{1,2\},\{1,2,3\}\}$ every union of (c)

U	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{1}	{1}	{1}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{2}	{2}	$\{1, 2\}$	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}

Every intersection of (c)

(c) is a topology $\{\{\},\{1\},\{2\},\{1,2\},\{1,2,3\}\}$ every intersection of (c)

Π	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{}	{}	{}	{}
{1}	{}	{1}	{}	{1}	{1}
{2}	{}	{}	{2}	{2}	{2}
{1,2}	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2}
{1,2,3}	{}	{1}	{2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}

Every union of (f)

(f) is <u>not</u> a topology $\{\{\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$ every union of (f)

U	{}	{1,2}	$\{2,3\}$	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{1,2}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}
{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}
{2,3}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}
{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}	{1,2,3}

Every intersection of (f)

(f) is not a topology $\{\{\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$ every intersection of (f)

\cap	{}	{1,2}	$\{2,3\}$	{1,2,3}
{}	{}	{}	{}	{}
{1,2}	{}	{1,2}	{2}	{1,2}
{2,3}	{}	{2}	{2,3}	{2,3}
{1,2,3}	{}	{1,2}	{2,3}	{1,2,3}

Examples of topoloy (3)

• Given $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, the *trivial* or *indiscrete* topology on X is the family $\tau = \{\{\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4\}\} = \{\emptyset, X\}$ consisting of only the two subsets of Xrequired by the axioms forms a topology of X.

Examples of topoloy (4)

• Given $X = \{1,2,3,4\}$, the family $\tau = \{\{\},\{2\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\},\{1,2,3,4\}\}$ = $\{\varnothing,\{2\},\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\},X\}$ of six subsets of X forms another topology of X.

Examples of topoloy (5)

• Given $X = \{1,2,3,4\}$, the *discrete* topology on X is the power set of X, which is the family $\tau = \mathcal{O}(X)$ consisting of *all possible* subsets of X. the family

$$\tau = \{ \{ \}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\} \}$$

$$\{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{1,4\}, \{2,3\}, \{2,4\}, \{3,4\}, \{1,2,3\}, \{1,2,4\}, \{1,3,4\}, \{2,3,4\}, \{1,2,3,4\} \}$$

• In this case the topological space (X, τ) is called a *discrete* space.



Examples of topoloy (6)

• Given $X = \mathbb{Z}$, the set of integers, the family τ of all finite subsets of the integers plus \mathbb{Z} itself is <u>not</u> a topology, because (for example) the <u>union</u> of all finite sets <u>not</u> containing <u>zero</u> is <u>not</u> finite <u>but</u> is also <u>not</u> all of \mathbb{Z} , and so it cannot be in τ .