

TOPOLOGIZING THE HYPERSETS¹⁾

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Introduction

In this paper we investigate some topologies on closed subsets of a topological space. In introducing a topology, we use a family of subsets that we call a topologizing system (and have it denoted by \mathcal{A}), resuming so a point of view that, in dealing with hyperspaces, a topologizing system is what matters, not the family of closed subsets. So we try to develop further an idea initiated in [7].

In section 1., we consider several mappings between the families of sets and state some basic facts without proofs (which, for instance, can be found in [6] and [8]). We only prove 1.5 and 1.6.

In section 2., we follow the construction of the space $\kappa(X)$ (this notation is after [10]), being introduced first by A. Tychonoff [10] and studied by V. I. Ponomarov in [10]. Varying a topologizing system, the spaces $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ have all essential properties of $\kappa(X)$ as they were established in [10] or, in the case of such a minimal system, in [3] (simple Funktionentopologie). That this generality is not only formal can be seen from 2.10, 2.11 and 2.13.

In section 3, we establish some of the properties of the spaces $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ which, in the case when the topologizing system is the family of all open sets of X , are reduced to $\lambda(X)$ (this notation is again after [10]). Giving first a λ -characterization of the families of finite character, a result (3.6) is proved which formally extends the Tukey lemma. A realization of the topological product as a subspace of a $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$, with the "small" open sets in \mathcal{A} , is also given.

In the last section 4, we establish a set theoretic formula and prove a proposition in connection with it (4.5), which is logically equivalent to the Alexander lemma. For X compact $\lambda(X)$ is compact what is implied by this proposition and, in a set theoretical form, that is what the proposition actually means.

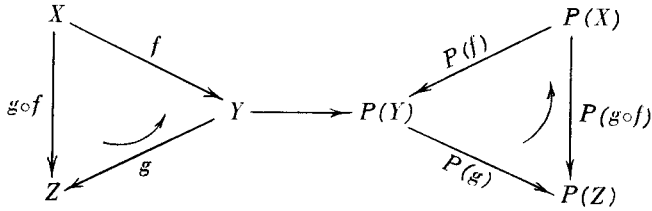
1. Some mappings of families of sets.

Let \mathcal{S} be the category of all sets and all mappings. Define the *P*-functor $P: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ in the following way: For an object $X \in \mathcal{S}$, $P(X)$ is the partitive set of X and for a morphism $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in \mathcal{S} let $P(f): P(X) \rightarrow P(Y)$ be such that for $A \in P(X)$,

$$P(f)(A) = \{y \in Y: y = f(x), \text{ for some } x \in A\}.$$

¹⁾ I wish to express my gratitude to professor Dragiša Ivanović. Without his kind help the work on this paper would have been impossible.

Then, P is a covariant functor, what can be represented by the following diagram



and $P(\mathcal{S})$ is a subcategory of \mathcal{S} (though not a full subcategory).

For $X \in \mathcal{S}$, let $P^2(X) = P(P(X))$ and $P^2(X)$ is called the second partitive set of X . The elements of $P(X)$ will be denoted by A, B, \dots, F, \dots and called subsets of X and those of $P^2(X)$ by $A^{(1)}, B^{(1)}, \dots, F^{(1)}, \dots$, called families of subsets of X .

A union mapping $u: P^2(X) \rightarrow P(X)$ is defined so that

$$u(A^{(1)}) = \{x: x \in A, \text{ for some } A \in A^{(1)}\}.$$

We will also use the symbol $|A^{(1)}|$ to denote $u(A^{(1)})$. The set $u(A^{(1)})$ is called the body of the family $A^{(1)}$. Let $i: X \rightarrow P(X)$ be the mapping $i(x) = \{x\}$.

The set $P(X)$ is partially ordered by inclusion and we use the same symbol \subseteq to denote the order relation in $P(X)$ and $P^2(X)$ what is justified by

1.1. If $A^{(1)} \subseteq B^{(1)}$, then $u(A^{(1)}) \subseteq u(B^{(1)})$.

The object (and subobjects) of $P(\mathcal{S})$ and $P^2(\mathcal{S})$ have “more structure” what allows one to define some natural mappings and relations which are not definable in \mathcal{S} .

The complement mapping $C: P(X) \rightarrow P(X)$ is defined by $C(A) = X \setminus A$, and it is evident that $C \circ C = \text{id}$. Two mappings $C: P^2(X) \rightarrow P^2(X)$ and $P(C): P^2(X) \rightarrow P^2(X)$ are distinct and should not be confused. If $A \subseteq X$, write $\langle A \rangle$ to denote $P(A)$. So

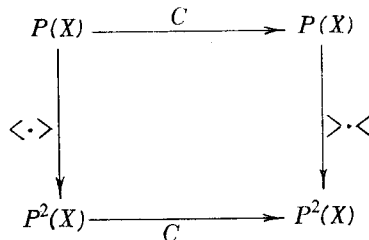
$$\langle A \rangle = \{F \in P(X): F \subseteq A\}.$$

is a mapping of $P(X)$ into $P^2(X)$. The following properties of the mapping $\langle \cdot \rangle$ are easily established.

1.2. (I) $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow \langle A \rangle \subseteq \langle B \rangle$, (II) $\langle A \cap B \rangle = \langle A \rangle \cap \langle B \rangle$,

(III) $A \neq B \Rightarrow \langle A \rangle \neq \langle B \rangle$.

Since the mapping C is an epimorphism there is a unique mapping $\rangle \cdot \langle$ such that the following diagram commutes



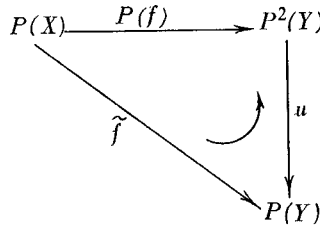
Now we have

- 1.3. (I) $\langle \cdot \rangle = C \circ \cdot \cdot \langle \circ C$, (II) $\cdot \langle = C \circ \langle \cdot \rangle \circ C$
 (III) $\rangle A \langle = \{F \in P(X) : F \cap A \neq \emptyset\}$, (IV) $\rangle A \langle \supseteq \langle A \rangle$.

Using 1.2 and applying 1.3 (II), we also have

- 1.4. (I) $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow \rangle A \langle \subseteq \rangle B \langle$, (II) $\rangle A \cup B \langle = \rangle A \langle \cup \rangle B \langle$,
 (III) $A \neq B \Rightarrow \rangle A \langle \neq \rangle B \langle$.

To denote the set of all singletons $\{\{x\} : x \in X\}$, we will use X and for the set X taken as an element of $P(X)$, the symbol $\{X\}$: Consider two mappings $\Phi_i : P(X) \rightarrow P(Y)$, $i = 1, 2$. We will write $\Phi_1 \subseteq \Phi_2$ if $\Phi_1(A) \subseteq \Phi_2(A)$ for each $A \in P(X)$. For a mapping $\Phi : P(X) \rightarrow P(Y)$, let $f = \Phi | X : X \rightarrow P(X)$ and let \tilde{f} be the mapping defined by the diagram



The mapping Φ is *monotone* if $A \subseteq B$ in $P(X)$ implies $\Phi(A) \subseteq \Phi(B)$ in $P(Y)$. Now we can prove.

1.5. If the mapping $\Phi : P(X) \rightarrow P(Y)$ is monotone then $\tilde{f} \subseteq \Phi$.

Proof. Let $A \in P(X)$ and $Y \in f(A) = uP(f)(A)$. Then $y \in P(f)(x) = \Phi(x)$, for some $x \in A$. Since $\{x\} \subseteq A$ and Φ is monotone, we have $\Phi(x) \subseteq \Phi(A)$ and so $y \in \Phi(A)$. Thus $\tilde{f}(A) \subseteq \Phi(A)$.

1.6. Let $X \subseteq A^{(1)} \subseteq P(X)$ and $Y \subseteq B^{(1)} \subseteq P(Y)$ and let

$$\Phi : A^{(1)} \rightarrow B^{(1)}$$

be 1-1 and onto and let both Φ and Φ^{-1} be monotone. Then $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow Y$ is 1-1 and onto and $\tilde{f} = \Phi$.

Proof. Since $Y \subseteq B^{(1)}$, for $y \in Y$ there is an $x \in X$ such that $y \in \Phi(x)$. From $\{y\} \subseteq \Phi(X)$, it follows that $\Phi^{-1}(y) \subseteq \{x\}$ what implies $\Phi^{-1}(y) = x$. Being Φ 1-1 we have $\Phi(x) = y$. Hence $f = \Phi | X : X \rightarrow Y$ is 1-1 and onto. Since Φ^{-1} is monotone, according to 1.5, for $B \in B^{(1)}$ we have

$$\tilde{f}^{-1}(B) \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(B) = A$$

or being \tilde{f} monotone,

$$\tilde{f}(\tilde{f}^{-1}(B)) = B = \Phi(A) \subseteq \tilde{f}(A).$$

So $\Phi \subseteq \tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{f} \subseteq \Phi$ imply $\Phi = \tilde{f}$.

2. The space $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$.

Let X be a topological T_1 -space and \mathcal{A} a family of subsets of X containing the family $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ having for its members all complements of the singletons $\{X \setminus \{x\} : x \in X\}$ as well as X itself. The family \mathcal{A} will be called the *topologizing system*. To the pair (X, \mathcal{A}) we correspond the topological space $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ having for its elements all closed subsets of X (the empty set \emptyset included), and for the open subbase of its topology the collection of all

$$\langle U \rangle : U \in \mathcal{A}.$$

In the case \mathcal{A} equals the topology \mathcal{G}_x of X , we write $\kappa(X)$ instead of $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$.

2.1. Let $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ be the family of all finite intersections of the members \mathcal{A} . Then

$$\kappa(X, \tilde{\mathcal{A}}) = \kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$$

Proof. Follows from 1.2 (II).

So we can suppose that $\langle U \rangle : U \in \mathcal{A}$ is a base for $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ replacing \mathcal{A} by $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ if necessary.

2.2. There exist topologically equivalent bases \mathcal{A}_1 and \mathcal{A}_2 for some topology on X and yet

$$\kappa(X, \mathcal{A}_1) \neq \kappa(X, \mathcal{A}_2).$$

Proof. Take X to be the set N of all natural numbers. Let

$$\mathcal{A}_1 = \{\{x\} : x \in N\} \cup \{N \setminus \{x\} : x \in N\} \cup \{N\}, \mathcal{A}_2 = P(N).$$

Then the set $\langle 1, 2 \rangle$ is not open in $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A}_1)$.

Let $i : X \rightarrow \kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ be such that $i(x) = \{x\}$. Then for $U \subseteq X : i(U) \subseteq \langle U \rangle$ and $i^{-1}(\langle U \rangle) = U$. So if $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{G}_x$, the mapping i is continuous.

2.3. The space $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ is a T_0 -space.

Proof. Let $F_1 \neq F_2$ and, say, $x \in F_1 \setminus F_2$. Then $\langle X \setminus \{x\} \rangle$ is a neighborhood of F_2 which does not contain F_1 .

$$2.4. F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}} \text{ in } \kappa(X, \mathcal{A}) \Leftrightarrow F_1 \supseteq F_2.$$

Proof. \Rightarrow : Let $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$. If $F_1 = X$, then $F_1 \supseteq F_2$. If $F_1 \neq X$, take any $x \in X \setminus F_1$. Then $\langle X \setminus \{x\} \rangle$ is a neighborhood of F_1 and $F_2 \in \langle X \setminus \{x\} \rangle$. The last relation means that $F_2 \subseteq X \setminus \{x\}$. Therefore

$$F_2 \subseteq \bigcap \{X \setminus \{x\} : x \in X \setminus F_1\} = F_1.$$

\Leftarrow : Suppose $F_1 \supseteq F_2$ and let $\langle U \rangle, U \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ be a basic open set containing F_1 . Then $F_1 \subseteq U$ and so $F_2 \subseteq U$, or $F_2 \in \langle U \rangle$ what implies $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$.

Notice that the empty set \emptyset is everywhere dense in $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ and that \emptyset need not be open if $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ does not contain \emptyset .

2.5. If $f : \kappa(X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \kappa(Y, \mathcal{B})$ is continuous, then f is monotone.

Proof. By 2.4, if $F_1 \subseteq F_2$ then $F_2 \in \overline{\{F_1\}}$ and since f is continuous $f(F_2) \in \overline{\{f(F_1)\}} \subseteq \overline{\{f(F_1)\}}$. Using again 2.4, we have $f(F_1) \subseteq f(F_2)$.

2.6. If $f: \kappa(X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \kappa(Y, \mathcal{B})$ is a homeomorphism, then f defines a mapping $g: X \rightarrow Y$ which also is a homeomorphism.

Proof. Immediately follows from 1.6. (The converse of 2.6 is, of course, false).

2.7. The space $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ is compact and connected for each X .

Proof. Let $F^{(1)}$ and $F^{(2)}$ be two non-empty, closed sets in $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$. Then, according to 2.4, $\{X\} \in F^{(1)} \cap F^{(2)}$.

2.8. If $f: \kappa(X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ is continuous and onto, then $f(\{X\}) = \{X\}$.

Proof. Let F be an arbitrary element of $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$. Then $F \subseteq X$ and, according to 2.5, $f(F) \subseteq f(\{X\})$. Since f is onto, $f(F)$ is an arbitrary element of $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ what implies $f(\{X\}) = \{X\}$.

2.9. If X is compact, then each continuous mapping $f: \kappa(X, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ has a fixed point.

Proof. Let \mathcal{F} be the family of those $F \in \kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ such that $f(F) \subseteq F$. $X \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$. Let $\{F: F \in \mathcal{L}\}$ be a chain in \mathcal{F} . Then, since X is compact

$$\emptyset \neq F_0 = \bigcap \{F: F \in \mathcal{L}\} \subseteq F.$$

So, by 2.5, $f(F_0) \subseteq f(F)$ for $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Further

$$f(F_0) \subseteq \bigcap \{f(F): F \in \mathcal{L}\} \subseteq \bigcap \{F: F \in \mathcal{L}\} = F_0,$$

and $F_0 \in \mathcal{F}$. According to the minimal principle, ([4], p. 33), there is a minimal element \underline{F} of \mathcal{F} . Then $f(\underline{F}) \subseteq \underline{F}$, and since \underline{F} is minimal $f(\underline{F}) = \underline{F}$.

Now let X be a set of cardinality τ taken with the discrete topology and let $\mathcal{A} = \underline{\mathcal{A}}$ ($\underline{\mathcal{A}}$ consists of X and of all complements of singletons). Denote, in this case, $\kappa(X, \mathcal{A})$ by $\kappa(\tau)$ or $\kappa(X)$.

On the other hand, let $F = \{0, 1\}$ be the space having for its open sets $\emptyset, \{0\}$ and F . The topological product of τ copies of F is denoted by F^τ . The universality of F for the category of T_0 -spaces having the weight $\leq \tau$ was shown by P. S. Alexandrov in [1].

2.10. The spaces $\kappa(\tau)$ and F^τ are homeomorphic.

Proof. The mapping $f: \kappa(\tau) \rightarrow F^\tau$ given by

$$f(A) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A \\ 0, & x \notin A, \end{cases}$$

for each $A \subseteq X$ is obviously a homeomorphism. Another universal T_0 -space in which any T_0 -space of the weight $\leq \tau$ can be imbedded, is $\kappa(D^\tau)$, where D^τ is the topological product of τ copies of the discrete space $D = \{0, 1\}$ (see [10]). A. N. Kolmogorov asked whether $\kappa(D^\tau)$ and F^τ were homeomorphic, and that they are not was shown in [9] and [2].

2.11. The spaces $\kappa(D^\tau)$ and F^τ are not homeomorphic.

Proof. By 2.6, the homeomorphism of $\kappa(D^\tau)$ and $F^\tau \approx \kappa(\tau)$ would imply the homeomorphism of D^τ and X , but they are not even of the same cardinality ($\text{card } X = \tau$).

2.12. Let Y be a subspace of X . Then $\underline{\kappa}(Y) \approx \langle Y \rangle$ taken as a subspace of $\underline{\kappa}(X)$.

Proof. If K is any finite subset of X , then basic open sets in $\underline{\kappa}(Y)$ and $\langle Y \rangle$ are $\langle Y \setminus K \rangle$ and $\langle Y \rangle \cap \langle X \setminus K \rangle$ respectively. It is easy to see that $\langle Y \setminus K \rangle = \langle Y \rangle \cap \langle X \setminus K \rangle$.

The following result is a theorem due to P. S. Alexandrov ([1]) We will give a proof close to that of Alexandrov but carried out in the ambient space $\underline{\kappa}(X)$.

2.13. Each T_0 -space of the weight $\leq \tau$ is homeomorphic to some subspace of $\kappa(\tau)$.

Proof. Let X be of the weight $\sigma \leq \tau$ and let Σ be a base of closed sets in X of cardinality σ . The mapping $f: X \rightarrow \underline{\kappa}(\Sigma)$ given by

$$f(x) = \{F \in \Sigma : x \in F\}$$

is 1-1 because X is T_0 -space and so there is an F containing one and not containing the other of each two points in X . Let $V = \langle \Sigma \setminus \{F_1, \dots, F_n\} \rangle$ be a basic open set in $\underline{\kappa}(\Sigma)$. Then

$$f^{-1}(V) = X \setminus \cup \{F_i : i = 1, \dots, n\}$$

since for $x \in F_i$, $f(x)$ contains F_i . So f is continuous. On the other hand $f: X \rightarrow f(X)$ is open for

$$f(U) = \langle \Sigma \setminus (X \setminus U) \rangle \cap f(X)$$

is open in $f(X)$ when U is open in X .

3. The space $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$.

Let X be a topological space and \mathcal{A} a family of subsets of X containing at least the set X . The family \mathcal{A} will be called again a *topologizing system*. Now to the pair (X, \mathcal{A}) we correspond the topological space $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ having for its elements all closed subsets of X (the empty set excluded or if included is taken to be close and open) and for the open subbase of its topology the collection of all

$$\rangle U \langle : U \in \mathcal{A}.$$

In the case \mathcal{A} equals the topology \mathcal{G}_x of X , we write $\lambda(X)$ instead of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$.

Since the mapping $\rangle \cdot \langle : P(X) \rightarrow P^2(X)$ has a natural extension to the set Σ of all finite families of members of $P(X)$, putting for $\sigma = \{U_1, \dots, U_n\} \in \Sigma$ that

$$\rangle \sigma \langle = \rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle = \rangle U_1 \langle \cap \dots \cap \rangle U_n \langle,$$

then it follows that a standard base for $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ will be

$$\rangle\sigma\langle : \sigma \in \Sigma(\mathcal{A}),$$

where $\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ stands for the set of all finite families of members of \mathcal{A} .

3.1. If $F_1 \subseteq F_2$, then $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$, If $\mathcal{A} \supseteq \mathcal{G}_x$ then $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$ implies $F_1 \subseteq F_2$.

Proof. Suppose $F_1 \subseteq F_2$ and let $\rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle$ be a basic open set containing F_1 . Then $F_1 \cap U_i \neq \emptyset$, $i=1, \dots, n$, and it follows that $F_2 \cap U_i \neq \emptyset$, so that $F_2 \in \rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle$. Hence $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$.

To prove the second part, suppose $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$. Then $F_2 \supseteq F_1$, for otherwise $X \setminus F_2 \in \mathcal{A}$ and $F_1 \in \rangle X \setminus F_2 \langle$, $F_2 \notin \rangle X \setminus F_2 \langle$, what would contradict $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$.

From 3.1 it follows that $\{X\}$ is everywhere dense in $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$.

3.2. If $f: \lambda(X) \rightarrow \lambda(Y)$ is continuous, then f is monotone.

Proof. By the first part of 3.1, $F_1 \subseteq F_2$ implies $F_1 \in \overline{\{F_2\}}$ and we have $f(F_1) \subseteq f(\overline{\{F_2\}}) \subseteq \overline{\{f(F_2)\}}$. Now, by the second part of 3.1, $f(F_1) \subseteq f(F_2)$.

3.3. Let X and Y be T_0 -spaces. If $\lambda(X) \approx \lambda(Y)$ then $X \approx Y$.

Proof. Follows from 1.6 (The converse is, of course, true).

3.4. The space $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ is connected.

Proof. Let $F_0^{(1)}$ and $F_1^{(1)}$ be two open disjoint sets of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ such that $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A}) = F_0^{(1)} \cup F_1^{(1)}$. If $\{X\} \in F_i^{(1)}$, then $\overline{\{X\}} = \lambda(X, \mathcal{A}) \subseteq F_i^{(1)}$ and so $F_{1-i}^{(1)}$ must be empty.

The space $\lambda(X)$ will have some other properties analogous to $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ and being implied by 3.2.

In proceeding further, we give a „ λ -topology“ characterization of a family of finite character (see [4]). Before stating that characterization, recall that a family \mathcal{A} of sets is of *finite character* if and only if each finite subset of a member of \mathcal{A} is a member of \mathcal{A} , and each set A , every finite subset of which belongs to \mathcal{A} , itself belongs to \mathcal{A} .

3.5. A family $\mathcal{A} \subseteq P(X)$ is of finite character $\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is a closed subset of $\lambda(X)$, where X is the discrete space.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose \mathcal{A} is of finite character and let $F \in \mathcal{A}$, where $F \in \lambda(X)$ (Two sets $P(X) \setminus \emptyset$ and $\lambda(X)$ are identical). Then there is a finite set $K = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ such that $K \subseteq F$ and $K \in \mathcal{A}$, for otherwise every finite subset of F belongs to \mathcal{A} and, according to the definition of a family of finite character F would belong to \mathcal{A} . K is not a subset of any $A \in \mathcal{A}$ since every finite subset of a member of \mathcal{A} belongs to \mathcal{A} . The singletons are open in X so the set $\rangle x_1 \langle \cap \rangle x_2 \langle \cap \dots \cap \rangle x_n \langle$ is open in $\lambda(X)$, contains F and does not contain any $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

\Leftarrow : Suppose \mathcal{A} is closed in $\lambda(X)$. For $A \in \mathcal{A}$, $\overline{\{A\}} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ and, according to 3.1, each subset and so each finite subset of A belongs to \mathcal{A} . Let $F \in \lambda(X)$ has the property that each finite subset of F belongs to \mathcal{A} . Let $\rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle$

be a basic open set containing F . Let $x_i \in F \cap U_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then the set $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \in \rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle$. This implies $F \in \overline{\mathcal{A}} = \mathcal{A}$. Hence \mathcal{A} is of finite character.

3.6. Let \mathcal{F} be a closed subset of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$, where $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{G}_x$. Then \mathcal{F} has a maximal member.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{L} = \{F\}$ be a chain in \mathcal{F} . Let

$$A_0 = \cup \{F : F \in \mathcal{L}\}$$

Then

$$\overline{A_0} \supseteq F, \text{ for each } F \in \mathcal{L}.$$

Let $\rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle$ be a basic neighborhood of $\overline{A_0}$. Let $x_i \in \overline{A_0} \cap U_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Since $U_i \in \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{G}_x$ is an open neighborhood of x_i in X , there is an $y_i \in A_0$ such that $y_i \in U_i$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$. Each y_i is an element of some $F_i \in \mathcal{L}$ and let $F \in \mathcal{L}$ be such that $F \supseteq F_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Now, $F \in \rangle U_1, \dots, U_n \langle$ and so $\overline{A_0} \in \overline{\mathcal{A}} = \mathcal{A}$. Applying the maximal principle we conclude that \mathcal{A} has a maximal member.

When X is a discrete space and the topologizing system $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{G}_x$, 3.6 reduces to the Tukey lemma. On the other hand 3.6 is a consequence of the Hausdorff maximal principle which is logically equivalent to the Tukey lemma. So we have.

3.7. The statement 3.6 is logically equivalent to the Tukey lemma (and so to the axiom of choice).

Note that we have taken the Tukey lemma in the form as given in [4]. According to the same book [4], p. 36 there is another more general formulation.

3.8. The topological product hyperspace.

Consider an arbitrarily given indexed family

$$\mathcal{F} = \{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$$

of spaces. Let $X = \cup \{\zeta \times X : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$. Then for $\zeta' \neq \zeta''$, two sets $\zeta' \times X_{\zeta'}$ and $\zeta'' \times X_{\zeta''}$ are disjoint. For $U \subseteq X_\zeta$, denote by U_ζ the set $\zeta \times U$ and topologize X_ζ so that U_ζ is open if and only if U is open X_ζ . By this convention it follows that the subset $\zeta \times X_\zeta$ of X will be denoted by X_ζ .

Take X to have the discrete topology and the topologizing system \mathcal{A} to be the family of all open sets in X_ζ for every $\zeta \in \mathcal{Z}$. Then $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ will be called the *topological product hyperspace of the family* \mathcal{F} . Consider now the subspace

$$\Pi = \Pi \{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$$

of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ given by

$$\Pi = \{A \in X : A \cap X_\zeta \text{ is a singleton for each } \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}.$$

On the other hand, let $\times \{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$ be the topological product of the spaces $\{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$. Consider the mapping

$$\Gamma : \times \{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\} \rightarrow \Pi$$

given by $\Gamma(x) = \{(\zeta, x(\zeta)) : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$. It is obvious that Γ is 1-1 and onto. From

$$\Gamma^{-1}(\supset U_{\zeta} \langle \cap \Pi \rangle = \{x : x(\zeta) \in U\}$$

$$\Gamma \{x : x(\zeta) \in U\} = \supset U_{\zeta} \langle \cap \Pi \rangle.$$

where $U_{\zeta} = \zeta \times U$ and $U \subseteq X_{\zeta}$, it follows that Γ is a homeomorphism. Hence the subspace Π of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ is just another realization of the topological product space what motivates us to call $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$ the topological product hyperspace.

4. Compactness of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$.

In what follows we will prove several set theoretic formulas connected with the formalism involved in the consideration of compactness of $\lambda(X, \mathcal{A})$. We will also consider the logical equivalence of some propositions and now we will cite some of the known equivalences that we will need here.

According to [5], the Tychonoff theorem (the topological product of compact spaces is compact) is equivalent to the axiom of choice (AC) (see also [12]).

According to [13], the following three propositions are logically equivalent:

Alexander lemma: If \mathcal{S} is a subbase for the topology of a space X such that every cover of X by members of \mathcal{S} has a finite subcover, then X is compact.

Axiom of choice for families of finite sets (ACF): There is a choice function for every family of non-empty finite sets.

Tychonoff theorem for finite spaces (TF): The topological product of a family of finite spaces is compact.

Now consider two families $F^{(1)}$ and α of sets in X . (If X was supposed to be a topological space, $F^{(1)}$ would stand for the family of closed and α of open sets in X). Both $F^{(1)}$ and α will be considered fixed. Let $\Sigma = \{\sigma\}$ be some collection of finite families of members of α . The family π consisting of one and only one member of each $\sigma \in \Sigma$, will be called the *trace* of Σ . (π is actually a choice function for Σ). Let for $\sigma = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$, $A_i \in \alpha$, $i = 1, \dots, n$,

$$\supset \sigma \langle = \{F \in F^{(1)} : F \cap A_i \neq \emptyset, i = 1, \dots, n\}.$$

$$4.1. \cup \{ \supset \sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \} = \cap \{ \supset \pi \langle : \pi \text{ trace of } \Sigma \}.$$

Proof. Let $F \in \cup \{ \supset \sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \}$. Then there is a $\sigma_0 \in \Sigma$ such that $F \in \supset \sigma_0 \langle$, what means that $F \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for each $A \in \sigma_0$. Since for each π , $|\pi| \supseteq A$ for some $A \in \sigma_0$, it follows that $F \cap |\pi| \neq \emptyset$ for every π . Hence $F \in \cap \{ \supset \pi \langle$.

Conversely, let $F \in \cap \{ \supset \pi \langle$. Suppose that for each σ there is an $A^\sigma \in \sigma$, such that $F \cap A^\sigma = \emptyset$. Take $\pi = \{A^\sigma\}$, then $F \cap |\pi| = \emptyset$ (we use ACF here). So for some $\sigma \in \Sigma$, $F \notin \supset \sigma \langle$.

The notation $A = X^{F^{(1)}}$ will mean that

$$F^{(1)} \cap \langle X \setminus A \rangle = \emptyset.$$

For example, if $X = \cup \{X_{\zeta} : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$, $F^{(1)} = \Pi$, $A = X_{\zeta}$ then $A = X^{F^{(1)}}$ (see 3.8). So if the members of F^1 are "big", the "small" parts may be "equal" to X .

4.2. If $\cup\{\sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \rangle = F^{(1)}$, then for each trace π of Σ , $|\pi| = X$ holds.

Proof. By 4.1, $F^{(1)} = \cap\{\pi \langle \}$ that is for each π , $F^{(1)} = \pi \langle$. So for $F \in F^{(1)}$ it follows that $F \cap \pi \langle \neq \emptyset$ and so F is not contained in $X \setminus \pi \langle$. Hence $|\pi| = X$.

4.3. Let for each π , $|\pi| = X$. Then $\cup\{\sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \rangle = F^{(1)}$.

Proof. Using 4.1 and having that $\pi \langle = X \langle$, we get

$$\cup\{\sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \rangle = \cap\{\pi \langle \} = \cap\{X \langle \} = F^{(1)}.$$

4.4. A proof of the Tychonoff theorem. Let $\{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$ be a family of compact topological spaces, $\Pi = \prod\{X_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\}$ their topological product (see 3.8 again). Let $\{U \langle \}$ be a cover by subbasic open sets. Then

$$\Pi = \cup\{U \langle \}.$$

Now at least one X_ζ is covered by the sets $\{U\}$, for otherwise there would exist $x_\zeta = X_\zeta$ for every ζ not being contained in any U and $A = \{x_\zeta : \zeta \in \mathcal{Z}\} \notin \cup\{U\}$ (Here we use AC).

X_ζ being compact and $X_\zeta \subseteq \cup\{U\}$, there exists a finite number of sets U_1, \dots, U_n such that $U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_n = X_\zeta$. Hence $\Pi = \cup_{\Pi} \{U_1 \langle \cup \dots \cup U_n \langle \}$, since the trace $\pi = \{U_1, \dots, U_n\}$ is such that $|\pi| = X$ and 4.3 applies. The rest of the proof is implied by the Alexander lemma.

Next we prove a consequence of TF:

4.5. Let $F^{(1)} = \cup\{\sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \rangle$. If every trace π of Σ has a finite subfamily π' such that $|\pi'| = X$, then there exist a finite subcollection Σ' of Σ such that

$$F^{(1)} = \cup\{\sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma' \rangle.$$

Proof. Consider each σ as a finite topological space taken with the discrete topology. Then the traces π can be considered as the elements of the topological product $\prod\{\sigma : \sigma \in \Sigma\} = \Pi$. Each π is the element of $\pi' \langle$ and $\pi' \langle$ is an open set in Π . According to TF, Π is compact and there is a finite subcover of the cover $\{\pi' \langle \}$,

$$\pi'_1 \langle, \pi'_2 \langle, \dots, \pi'_n \langle.$$

Let $\Sigma_0 = \{\sigma : \sigma \cap \pi'_i \neq \emptyset, \text{ for some } i\}$. Take an arbitrary π from Π . Since π belongs to some $\pi'_i \langle$ and for each $A \in \pi'_i, A \in \pi (\pi \cap \{A\} = A \text{ for } A \in \pi'_i)$, the union $|\pi_{\Sigma_0}|$ of those $A \in \pi$ which belong to some $\sigma \in \Sigma_0$ is such that $|\pi_{\Sigma_0}| = X$. By 4.3,

$$\cup\{\sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma_0 \rangle = F^{(1)}.$$

Now we will use 4.5 to obtain the Alexander lemma (A), which will be taken in the following form:

Let \mathcal{S} be any family of subsets of X with the property: any subfamily which covers X has itself a finite subfamily which also covers X . Then the

family \mathcal{S}^* of all finite intersections of members of \mathcal{S} enjoys the same property (see [5]).

4.6. 4.5. *implies* (A).

Proof. Let a subfamily \mathcal{A}^* of \mathcal{S}^* cover X . Each $A^* \in \mathcal{A}^*$ is of the form $A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n$, where $A_i \in \mathcal{S}$, and let $\sigma(A^*) = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$. Since $A_i \supseteq A^*$, the traces $\Sigma = \{\sigma(A^*) : A^* \in \mathcal{A}^*\}$ cover X so that, by 4.3,

$$\bigcup \{ \rangle \sigma(A^*) \langle : A^* \in \mathcal{A}^* \} = P(X).$$

Since for each trace there is a finite subfamily which also covers, applying 4.5, we have

$$\bigcup \{ \rangle \sigma(A_i^*) \langle : i = 1, \dots, n \} = P(X),$$

for some $A_i^* \in \mathcal{A}^*$. Take $x \in X$, then $x \in \rangle \sigma(A_i^*) \langle$ for some i . The last relation means that $x \in A_i^*$ and so

$$X = A_1^* \cup \dots \cup A_n^*.$$

In proving 4.3, or better 4.1, and 4.5 we used *ACF* and *TF*. Combining that with 4.6 we have.

4.7. *The propositions ACF, TF 4.5 and A, are all logically equivalent.*

The question of the logical equivalence of *A* was raised in [5] and has probably been answered so that we do not insist upon it.

4.8. *If X is compact, then $\lambda(X)$ is compact.*

Proof. Let $\lambda(X) = \bigcup \{ \rangle \sigma \langle : \sigma \in \Sigma \}$. Since X is compact all traces of Σ have finite subfamilies which also cover X and 4.5 applies.

Note that there are several proofs of this fact. Let us show how, for X being a T_1 -space, 4.8 is directly implied by 4.3. Indeed $x \in \rangle \sigma \langle$ means $x \in \bigcap \{ U : U \in \sigma \}$ and the last sets form an open cover which is reducible to a finite one, say $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$. Then the traces of $\Sigma_0 = \{ \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n \}$ obviously cover X and 4.3 applies.

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