Basic Properties of Closure Spaces

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Abstract. This technical report summarized facts from the basic theory of generalized closure spaces and gives detailed proofs for them. Many of the results collected here are well known for various types of spaces. We have made no attempt to find the original proofs.

1. Set-Valued Set-Functions

1.1. Closure, Interior, Neighborhood, and Convergent. In this section, which in part generalizes the results of Day [8], Hammer [18, 12] and Gniłka [13] on extended topologies, we explore the surprising fact that some meaningful topological concepts can already be defined on a set X endowed with an arbitrary set-valued set-function, which we will interpret as a generalized closure operator.

More formally, let X be a set, $\mathcal{P}(X)$ its power set (i.e., the set of all subsets of X), and let $\mathsf{cl} : \mathcal{P}(X) \to \mathcal{P}(X)$ be an arbitrary function. We shall see that it is fruitful to interpret cl as a *closure* function on X; hence we call $\mathsf{cl}(A)$ is the *closure* of the set A. In order to simplify the notation in the following we write -A instead of $X \setminus A$ for the complement of A in X.

The dual of the closure function is the *interior function* $\operatorname{int} : \mathcal{P}(X) \to \mathcal{P}(X)$ defined by

$$\operatorname{int}(A) = -\operatorname{cl}(-A) \tag{1}$$

Given the interior function, we obviously recover the closure as cl(A) = -(int(-A)). A set $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ is *closed* if A = cl(A) and *open* if A = int(A). In contrast to "classical" topology, open and closed sets will not play a central role in our discussion. Furthermore, we emphasize that the distinction of closure and interior is completely arbitrary in the absence of additional conditions. **Definition 1.** Let cl and int be closure function and its dual interior function on X. Then the neighborhood function $\mathcal{N} : X \to \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X))$ and the convergent function $\mathcal{N}^* : X \to \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X))$ assign to each $x \in X$ the collections

$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \left\{ N \in \mathcal{P}(X) \middle| x \in \operatorname{int}(N) \right\}$$
$$\mathcal{N}^*(x) = \left\{ Q \in \mathcal{P}(X) \middle| x \in \operatorname{cl}(Q) \right\}$$
(2)

of its neighborhoods and convergents, respectively.

The convergent function was introduced by G. Gastl and P.C. Hammer [12, 20]. It is not hard to see that neighborhoods and convergents are equivalent:

Theorem 1.
$$Q \in \mathcal{N}^*(x) \iff (-Q) \notin \mathcal{N}(x)$$
.

Proof. We have $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ if and only if $x \in int(N) = -cl(-N)$, i.e., $x \notin cl(-N)$. On the other hand, $Q \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$ iff $x \in cl(Q)$. Thus $x \in cl(-N)$ if and only if $(-N) \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$. In other words, $x \notin cl(-N)$, i.e., $x \in -cl(-N) = int(N)$ if and only if $(-N) \notin \mathcal{N}^*(x)$. Using the definition of the neighborhoods we finally have $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ if and only if $(-N) \notin \mathcal{N}^*(x)$. \Box

The next result, which is mentioned for instance in [8], shows that closure and neighborhood are equivalent. Hence given one of closure function cl, interior function int, neighborhood function \mathcal{N} or covergent function \mathcal{N}^* , the other three functions are unambiguously defined.

Theorem 2. Let \mathcal{N} be the neighborhood function defined in equ.(2). Then

$$x \in \mathsf{cl}(A) \iff (-A) \notin \mathcal{N}(x) \qquad and \qquad x \in \mathsf{int}(A) \iff (-A) \notin \mathcal{N}^*(x)$$
(3)

Proof. $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A) = \mathsf{cl}(-(-A))$ if and only if $(-A) \in \{N | x \in \mathsf{cl}(-N)\}$ if and only if $(-A) \notin \{N | x \notin \mathsf{cl}(-N)\} = \{N | x \in (-\mathsf{cl}(-N))\} = \{N | x \in \mathsf{int}(N)\} = \mathcal{N}(x).$

 $x \in \operatorname{int}(A) = \operatorname{int}(-(-A)) \text{ if and only if } (-A) \in \{Q|x \in \operatorname{int}(-N)\} \text{ if and only if } (-A) \notin \{Q|x \notin \operatorname{int}(-N)\} = \{Q|x \in (-\operatorname{int}(-N))\} = \{Q|x \in \operatorname{cl}(N)\} = \mathcal{N}^*(x). \square$

1.2. Comparison of Closure Spaces. Let c' and c'' be two generalized closure operators on X. We say that c' is *finer* than c'', $c' \succeq c''$, or c'' is *coarser* than c' if $c'(A) \subseteq c''(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. Note that $c' \succeq c''$ and $c' \preceq c''$ implies c' = c''.

Theorem 3. Let c' and c'' be two closure function on X. Denote the associated interior, neighborhood, and convergent functions by i', i'', \mathcal{N}' , \mathcal{N}'' , $\mathcal{N}^{*'}$, and $\mathcal{N}^{*''}$, respectively. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) $c'(A) \subseteq c''(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (ii) $i''(A) \subseteq i'(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (iii) $\mathcal{N}''(x) \subseteq \mathcal{N}'(x)$ for all $x \in X$. (iv) $\mathcal{N}^{*'}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{N}^{*''}(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

Proof. We have $c'(-A) \subseteq c''(-A)$ iff $i''(A) = -c''(-A) \subseteq -c'(-A) - i'(A)$ for all A. Using the relationship of closure and neighborhood we may argue $c'(A) \subseteq c''(A)$ iff $x \in c'(A) \implies x \in c''(A)$ iff $-A \notin \mathcal{N}'(x) \implies -A \notin \mathcal{N}''(x)$ iff $-A \in \mathcal{N}''(x) \implies$ $-A \in \mathcal{N}'(x)$ iff $A \in \mathcal{N}''(x) \implies A \in \mathcal{N}'(x)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. The condition for the converents immediately follows from the duality. \Box

If one of the four equivalent conditions in theorem 3 is satisfied we say that (X, c') is finer than (X, c'') and that (X, c'') is coarser than (X, c') and we write $(X, c') \succeq (X, c'')$ or $(X, c'') \preceq (X, c')$.

1.3. Pre-Convergence. An alternative approach to defining very weak generalized topological spaces starts with convergence as the basic ingredient. The discussion here generalized the approaches of Choquet, Fisher, Kent and others [6, 24, 10, 22, 26] which is based on Cartan's concept of a *filter* [4, 3] or its generalizations [35], see Appendix A. A different approach to convergence based on Moore-Smith systems [25] is explored in [36].

Definition 2. A pre-convergence is a relation q on $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X)) \times X$ such that (C0) $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ and $(\mathcal{F}, x) \in q$ implies $(\mathcal{G}, x) \in q$.

We write usually $\mathcal{F} \to x$ instead of $(\mathcal{F}, x) \in \mathbf{q}$ and interpret this symbol as "the collection \mathcal{F} of subsets of X converges to x. The axiom (C0) thus reads " $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{F} \to x$ implies $\mathcal{G} \to x$ ".

There is are natural closure and interior operators cq and iq associated with q:

$$iq(A) = \{x \in X | \mathcal{F} \to x \implies A \in \mathcal{F}\}\$$

$$cq(A) = \{x \in X | \exists F : \mathcal{F} \to x \text{ and } (-A) \notin \mathcal{F}\}$$
(4)

It remains to check that iq and cq are indeed dual: $x \notin cq(-A)$ iff $\mathcal{F} \to x$ implies $(-(-A)) = A \in \mathcal{F}$. The definition of iq(A) looks as usual, while the expression for cq(A) looks somewhat unfamiliar.

We define the **q**-neighborhood of a point $x \in X$ by

$$\mathcal{N}_{q}(x) = \bigcup \{ \mathcal{F} : \mathcal{F} \to x \}$$
(5)

Obviously, $\mathcal{F} \to x$ implies $\mathcal{N}_{q}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Furthermore, if $\mathcal{N}_{q}(x) \to x$ then $\mathcal{F} \to x$ if and only if $\mathcal{N}_{q}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Definition 3. A pre-convergence q is ideal if (C*) $\mathcal{N}_q(x) \to x$ for all $x \in X$.

The definition of the interior reduces to $iq(A) = \{x | A \in \mathcal{N}_q(x)\}$ in the case of ideal pre-convergences. For the closure we obtain $cq(A) = \{x | (-A) \notin \mathcal{N}_q(x)\}$, i.e., $cq(A) = \{x | A \in \mathcal{N}_q^*(x)\}$, where $\mathcal{N}_q^*(x)$ is the dual of the q-neighborhood function. Thus interior, closure, neighborhood and convergent equivalently define an ideal per-convergence relation and *vice versa*.

1.4. Continuity.

Definition 4. A function $f : (X, cl) \to (Y, cl)$ is

closure preserving if for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ holds $f(\mathsf{cl}(A)) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(f(A))$; continuous if for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$ holds $\mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(B))$. It is obvious that the identity $i: (X, cl) \to (X, cl) : x \mapsto x$ is both closure-preserving and continuous since $i(cl(A)) = cl(A) \subseteq cl(A) = cl(i(A))$. Furthermore, the concatenation h = g(f) of the closure-preserving (continuous) functions $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$ is again closure-preserving (continuous):

$$h(\mathsf{cl}(A)) = g(f(\mathsf{cl}(A))) \subseteq g(\mathsf{cl}(f(A))) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(g(f(x))) = \mathsf{cl}(h(x))$$

$$\mathsf{cl}(h^{-1}(B)) = \mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(g^{-1}(B))) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(g^{-1}(B)))$$

$$\subseteq f^{-1}(g^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(B))) = h^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(B))$$

(6)

as a consequence of the continuity of f and g.

Theorem 4. Let (X, cl) and (Y, cl) be two sets with arbitrary closure functions and let $f : X \to Y$. Then the following conditions (for continuity) are equivalent:

(i)
$$\operatorname{cl}(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\operatorname{cl}(B))$$
 for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$.
(ii) $f^{-1}(\operatorname{int}(B)) \subseteq \operatorname{int}(f^{-1}(B))$ for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$.
(iii) $B \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$ and all $x \in X$.
(iv) $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$ implies $B \in \mathcal{N}^*(f(x))$ for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$ and all $x \in X$.

Conditions (iii) and (iv) are equivalent for each individual $x \in X$ as well.

Proof. The result is given without the (simple) proof in [15, Thm.3.1.]. We repeatedly use the identity $f^{-1}(U) = -f^{-1}(-U)$ and the equivalence of $A \subseteq A'$ and $-A' \subseteq -A$. We first show that (i) implies (ii) and then the converse:

$$\begin{split} f^{-1}(\operatorname{int}(B)) &= -f^{-1}(-\operatorname{int}(B)) = -f^{-1}(\operatorname{cl}(-B)) \subseteq -\operatorname{cl}(f^{-1}(-B)) \\ &= -\operatorname{cl}(-f^{-1}(B)) = \operatorname{int}(f^{-1}(B)) \, . \\ \operatorname{cl}(f^{-1}(B)) &= -(-\operatorname{cl}(f^{-1}(B))) = -\operatorname{int}(-f^{-1}(B)) = -\operatorname{int}(f^{-1}(-B)) \\ &\subseteq -f^{-1}(\operatorname{int}(-B)) = -f^{-1}(-\operatorname{cl}(B)) = f^{-1}(\operatorname{cl}(B)). \end{split}$$

By definition we have

$$int(f^{-1}(B)) = \{x \in X | f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)\}$$

$$f^{-1}(int(B)) = \{x \in X | B \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))\}$$

$$cl(f^{-1}(B)) = \{x \in X | f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}^{*}(x)\}$$

$$f^{-1}(cl(B)) = \{x | B \in \mathcal{N}^{*}(f(x))\}$$
(7)

By (ii) f is continuous if and only if $x \in f^{-1}(int(B))$ implies $x \in int(f^{-1}(B))$ for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$ and all $x \in X$. Using equ.(7) this translates to condition (iii), while (i) translates to (iv). It remains to show that (iii) and (iv) are equivalent for a given $x \in X$:

 $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$ implies $B \in \mathcal{N}^*(f(x))$ iff $B \notin \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies $f^{-1}(B) \notin \mathcal{N}^*(x)$, Equivalently, $(-B) \notin \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies $f^{-1}(-B) = -f^{-1}(B) \notin \mathcal{N}^*(x)$ since the conditions must hold for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$. Now we use the duality of neighborhoods and convergents and obtain the equivalent condition: $B \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$. \Box

The last part of the theorem gives rise to the

Definition 5. Let (X, cl) and (Y, cl) be two sets with arbitrary closure functions. Then $f : X \to Y$ is continuous in x if for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$, $B \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ (or, $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$ implies $B \in \mathcal{N}^*(f(x))$.

An immediate consequence of theorem 4 is the following familiar relationship between local and global continuity:

Corollary 1. Let (X, cl) and (Y, cl) be two sets with arbitrary closure functions. Then $f: X \to Y$ is continuous if and only if it is continuous in x for all $x \in X$.

Convergence gives rise to its own "natural" version of continuity. Consider two preconvergence spaces (X, \mathbf{x}) and (X, \mathbf{y}) and $f : X \to Y$. The most natural definition of **q**-continuity would be to require that $f(\mathcal{F}) \to_{\mathbf{y}} f(x)$ implies $f(\mathcal{F}) \to_{\mathbf{y}} f(x)$. This definition behaves reasonably only when f(X) = Y. Otherwise, no function could be continuous whenever there is a convergent pre-filter \mathcal{G} on Y that does not satisfy $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(f(X))$, i.e., continuity would be destroyed by the large neighborhoods in Y.

Theorem 5. (X, c') is finer than (X, c''), $(X, c') \succeq (X, c'')$, if and only if $i : (X, c') \rightarrow (X, c'')$ is continuous.

Proof. By definition i is continuous if and only if $c'(i^{-1}(B)) \subseteq i^{-1}(c''B)$ for all $B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. Since $i(x) = i^{-1}(x) = x$ this condition simplifies to $c'(B) \subseteq c''(B)$, i.e., to the definition of $(X, c') \succeq (X, c'')$.

The definition of finer and coarser structures in section 1.2 thus coincides with the category theoretic notion, see e.g. [28].

1.5. Neighborhoods of Sets. The notation of a neighborhood for an individual point can be extended naturally to sets.

Definition 6. Let $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. A set V is a neighborhood of A, in symbols $V \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ if $V \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ for all $x \in A$.

Obviously $\mathcal{N}(\{x\}) = \mathcal{N}(x)$.

Lemma 1. For all $V, A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ we have $V \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ iff and only if $A \subseteq int(()V)$.

Proof. $V \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ iff $\forall x \in A : V \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $\forall x \in A : xinint(V)$, i.e., iff $x \in A$ implies $x \in int(V)$.

1.6. Limit Points.

Definition 7. A point p is a limit point of $A \subseteq X$ if each neighborhood $N \in \mathcal{N}(p)$ satisfies $N \cap (A \setminus \{p\}) \neq \emptyset$. The set

$$A^{\mathbf{V}} = \{ x \in X | \forall N \in \mathcal{N}(x) : N \cap (A \setminus \{p\}) \neq \emptyset \}$$
(8)

of all limit points of A is called the derived set of A.

Derived sets are at the basis of Sierpiński's presentation of generalized topologies [31]. Note that if x has no neighborhood, $\mathcal{N}(x) = \emptyset$, then $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ and $x \in A^{\checkmark}$ for all sets $A \subseteq X$. Thus $\emptyset^{\blacktriangledown} = \{x \in X | \mathcal{N}(x) = \emptyset\}$.

The definition immediately implies

$$x \in A^{\checkmark} \implies x \in (A \setminus \{x\})^{\checkmark} \tag{9}$$

If $B \subseteq A$ we have $B^{\checkmark} \subseteq A^{\checkmark}$ since $N \cap (B \setminus \{p\}) \neq \emptyset$ obviously implies $N \cap (A \setminus \{p\}) \neq \emptyset$. This property is called isotony and will be the focus of the following section.

Definition 8. A set $A \subseteq X$ is dense-in-itself if $A \subseteq A^{\checkmark}$.

2. Isotonic Spaces

2.1. Isotony and Stacks. Almost all approaches to extend the framework of topology at least assume that the closure functions are isotonic, or, equivalently, that the neighborhoods of a point form a "stack", [17, 18, 8, 2, 13] and many others. The importance of isotony is emphasized by a large number of equivalent conditions.

Lemma 2. [18, Lem.10] The following conditions are equivalent for arbitrary functions $cl : \mathcal{P}(X) \to \mathcal{P}(X)$.

(K1) $A \subseteq B$ implies $cl(A) \subseteq cl(B)$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (K1') $cl(A) \cup cl(A) \subseteq cl(A \cup B)$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (K1") $cl(A \cap B) \subseteq cl(A) \cap cl(B)$

A closure function satisfying (K1) is called *isotonic*.

Proof. Suppose *A* ⊆ *B* implies cl(A) ⊆ cl(B). Then *A*, *B* ⊆ *A* ∪ *B* for all *A* and *B* implies cl(A) ⊆ cl(A ∪ B), cl(B) ⊆ cl(A ∪ B) and therefore cl(A) ∪ cl(B) ⊆ cl(A ∪ B). Analogously, *A* ∩ *B* ⊆ *A*, *B* implies cl(A ∩ B) ⊆ cl(A) ∩ cl(B). Next assume cl(A) ∪ cl(B) ⊆ cl(A ∪ B) and consider *A* ⊆ *B*. Then cl(A) ⊆ cl(A) ∪ cl(B) ⊆ cl(A ∪ B) = cl(B). Finally, if cl(A ∩ B) ⊆ cl(A) ∩ cl(B) and *A* ⊆ *B* we have cl(A) = cl(A ∩ B) = cl(A) ∩ cl(B).

It is easy to derive equivalent conditions for the associated interior function by repeated applications of int(A) = -cl(-A) and cl(A) = -int(-A). One obtains

(K1^{III}) $A \subseteq B$ implies $int(A) \subseteq B$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (K1^{IV}) $int(A) \cup int(B) \subseteq int(A \cup B)$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (K1^V) $int(A \cap B) \subseteq int(A) \cap int(B)$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$.

A (not necessarily non-empty) collection $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ is a *stack* if $F \in \mathcal{F}$ and $F \subseteq G$ implies $G \in \mathcal{F}$. Let us write $\mathfrak{S}(X)$ for the set of all stacks. It is important to distinguish the empty set $\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ and the empty stack $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$.

Most interestingly, there is are conditions equivalent to (K1) in terms of neighborhood and convergent functions:

Lemma 3. The closure functions cl is isotonic if and only if

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(K1^{vi}) $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is a stack for all $x \in X$. (K1^{vii}) $\mathcal{N}^*(x)$ is a stack for all $x \in X$.

Proof. We have $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $x \in int(N)$. Thus, if $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is isotonic we have $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and hence $x \in int(N')$ for all supersets N' of N. It follows that $N \subset N'$ implies $int(N) \subseteq int(N')$. To see the converse, suppose $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is isotonic, $A \subseteq B$, and there is $x \in cl(A)$ such that $x \notin cl(B)$. Equivalently, we have $-A \notin \mathcal{N}(x)$, $-B \in \mathcal{N}(x)$, and $-B \subseteq -A$. Isotony of $\mathcal{N}(x)$ thus implies $-A \in \mathcal{N}(x)$, a contradiction. Thus $A \subseteq B$ implies $cl(A) \subseteq cl(B)$. Finally, it is well known that $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is a stack if and only if its dual $\mathcal{N}^*(x)$ is stack.

Isotony (K1) is necessary and sufficient e.g. to replace equ.(3) by a more familiar expression for the closure in terms of neighborhoods: in (pre)topological spaces the closure c(A) is defined by the well-known formula

$$c(A) = \{ x \in X | \forall N \in \mathcal{N}(x) : A \cap N \neq \emptyset \}$$
(10)

which is meaningful in arbitrary closure spaces. We have the

Theorem 6. [8, Thm.3.1,Cor.3.2] Let (X, cl) an arbitrary closure space.

(i) $c(A) \subseteq cl(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. (ii) $c : \mathcal{P}(X) \to \mathcal{P}(X)$ is isotonic. (iii) c(A) = cl(A) if and only if $cl : \mathcal{P}(X) \to \mathcal{P}(X)$ is isotonic.

Proof. We have $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $x \in \operatorname{int}(N)$ iff $x \in -\operatorname{cl}(-N)$. Thus $x \in c(A)$, i.e., " $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ implies $N \cap A \neq \emptyset$ " is equivalent to " $N \cap A = \emptyset$ implies $x \in \operatorname{cl}(-A)$ ". Now replace B = -N and observe that $(-B) \cap A = \emptyset$ is equivalent with $A \subseteq B$. Thus $x \in c(A)$ iff and only if for all supersets B of A we have $x \in \operatorname{cl}(B)$, i.e.,

$$c(A) = \bigcup_{B:A \subseteq B} \mathsf{cl}(B) \tag{11}$$

 $c(A) \subseteq cl(A)$ and isotony of c follows immediately. We have c(A) = cl(A) if and only if $cl(A) \subseteq CB$ for all $A \subseteq B$, i.e., if and only if the closure function cl is isotonic. \Box

In an isotonic space we also have a more familiar relationship between convergents and neighborhoods. Define

$$\sec \mathcal{F} = \{ G \in \mathcal{P}(X) | \forall F \in \mathcal{F} : G \cap F \neq \emptyset \}$$

$$(12)$$

Theorem 7. [12, Thm.2] Let (X, cl) be an isotonic space. Then $\mathcal{N}^*(x) = \sec \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $\mathcal{N}(x) = \sec \mathcal{N}^*(x)$.

Lemma 4. $A^{\checkmark} \subseteq cl(A)$ and $A^{\checkmark} - A = cl(A) - A$.

Proof. Suppose $p \notin A$. Then $p \in A^{\checkmark}$ iff $\forall N \in \mathcal{N}(p) : N \cap (A - \{p\}) = N \cap A \neq \emptyset$, i.e. iff $p \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ by theorem 6. This proves the second statement. In general $N \cap (A - \{p\}) \neq \emptyset$ implies $N \cap A \neq \emptyset$, hence $p \in A^{\checkmark}$ implies $p \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$.

2.2. Stack-Convergence. A much more useful notion of pre-convergence arises by restricting the convergence relation q to $\mathfrak{S}(X) \times X$. Much of the following is discussed in [37] and in particular in [16].

Definition 9. (X, \mathbf{q}) is a stack-convergence space if $\mathbf{q} \subseteq \mathfrak{S}(X) \times X$ satisfies (C0) $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ and $(\mathcal{F}, x) \in \mathbf{q}$ implies $(\mathcal{G}, x) \in \mathbf{q}$. (X, \mathbf{q}) is an ideal stack-convergence space if in addition (C*) $\mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{q}}(x) \to x$ for all $x \in X$. is satisfied.

Obviously, if (X, \mathbf{q}) is an ideal stack convergence space then the \mathbf{q} -neighborhoods $\mathcal{N}_q(x)$ form a stack. Conversely, if (X, \mathbf{cl}) is an isotonic space, we can define a stackconvergence relation \mathbf{qc} by setting $(\mathcal{F}, x) \in \mathbf{qc}$ iff $\mathcal{N}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Thus we have $(\mathcal{F}, x) \in \mathbf{q}$ if and only if $\mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{q}}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ if and only if $(\mathcal{F}, x) \in \mathbf{qc}$ if and only if $\mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{qc}}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Thus we can identify the ideal stack-convergence spaces with the isotonic spaces.

Let (X, x) and (Y, y) be *stack-convergence* spaces and $f : X \to Y$. We define the associated map $f : \mathfrak{S}(X) \to \mathfrak{S}(Y)$ (for which we will always use the same symbol), by

$$f(\mathcal{F}) = \{ G \in \mathcal{P}(Y) | \exists F \in \mathcal{F} : f(F) \subseteq G \}$$
(13)

It is obvious that $f(\mathcal{F})$ is indeed a stack on Y. Furthermore, we have $f(\mathcal{P}(X)) = \mathcal{P}(Y)$ and $f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$.

2.3. Continuity. Now we are in the position to define stack-continuity in a familiar form:

Definition 10. Let (X, x) and (X, y) be two stack-convergence spaces. Then $f : X \to Y$ is stack-continuous in x if

$$\mathcal{F} \to_{\mathsf{x}} x \quad implies \quad f(\mathcal{F}) \to_{\mathsf{y}} f(x)$$
 (14)

 $f: X \to Y$ is stack-continuous if it is stack-continuous in x for each $x \in X$.

Theorem 8. Let (X, x) and (X, y) be ideal stack-convergence spaces. Then $f : X \to Y$ is q-continuous in x if and only if

$$\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{y}}(f(x)) \subseteq f(\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{x}}(x)) \tag{15}$$

Proof. Using theorem 3 we can rewrite definition 10 in the form $\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{x}}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F} \implies \mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{y}}(f(x)) \subseteq f(\mathcal{F})$. Substituting $\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{x}}(x)$ for \mathcal{F} and using the fact that $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ implies $f(\mathcal{F}) \subseteq f(\mathcal{F})$ we get $\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{y}}(f(x)) \subseteq f(\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{x}}(x)) \subseteq f(\mathcal{F})$ whenever $\mathcal{N}_{\mathsf{x}}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Thus condition (15) is necessary and sufficient.

The most important observation in this section is that in isotonic spaces the different types of structure-preserving maps are the same. We first show that local continuity and local stack-continuity are equivalent.

Theorem 9. Let (X, cl) and (Y, cl) be isotonic spaces and $f : X \to Y$ a function. Then the following properties are equivalent:

- (i) f is continuous in x.
- (ii) f is stack-continuous in x.

Proof. Suppose $B \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Then there is $A \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $A \subseteq f^{-1}(B)$. Thus $f(A) \subseteq f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$ and hence, by isotony, $B \in f(\mathcal{N}(x))$, i.e., $\mathcal{N}(f(x)) \subseteq f(\mathcal{N}(x))$.

Conversely, suppose f is stack-continuous in x. Then $B \in \mathcal{N}(f(x))$ implies that there is $A \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $f(A) \subseteq B$. We have $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A)) \subseteq f^{-1}(B)$ and hence $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Thus f is continuous in x.

Results similar to this and the following theorem can be found e.g. in [8, Thm.6.1]. Let us now turn to the global versions of continuity.

Theorem 10. Let (X, cl) and (Y, cl) be isotonic spaces. Then the following properties are equivalent:

- (i) $f: X \to Y$ is continuous.
- (ii) $f: X \to Y$ is closure preserving.
- (iii) $f(A) \subseteq B$ implies $f(\mathsf{cl}(A)) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(B)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ and all $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$.
- (iv) $f: X \to Y$ is stack-continuous.

In general, (iii) implies that f is continuous and closure preserving.

Proof. We first show that (iii) implies (i) and (ii) without assuming that cl is isotonic. Set $A = f^{-1}(B)$ then $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$, whence (iii) implies $f(\mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(B))) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(B)$. We have $\mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq f^{-1}(f(\mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(B)))) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(B))$, i.e., f is continuous. Now assume (iii) and set B = f(A). Since $f(A) \subseteq f(A)$, we have conclude that $f(\mathsf{cl}(A)) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(f(A))$, i.e., f is closure preserving.

Suppose f is continuous and cl is isotonic. Then

$$\begin{split} f(A) &\subseteq B \implies A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A)) \subseteq f^{-1}(B) \implies \mathsf{cl}(A) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}\left(f^{-1}(B)\right) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(B)) \\ \implies f(\mathsf{cl}(A)) \subseteq f(f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(B))) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(B) \implies \text{(iii)} \end{split}$$

If f is closure preserving and cl is isotonic we argue: $f(A) \subseteq B$ implies $f(cl(A)) \subseteq cl(f(A)) \subseteq cl(B)$, i.e., (iii) is satisfied. (iv) follows directly from theorem 9.

3. Axioms Systems for Closure Spaces

Let (X, cl) be a generalized closure space and consider the following properties of the closure function for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$.

- (K0) $\mathsf{cl}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$.
- (K1) $A \subseteq B$ implies $cl(A) \subseteq cl(B)$ (isotonic).
- (K2) $A \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(A)$ (expanding).
- (K3) $\mathsf{cl}(A \cup B) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(A) \cup \mathsf{cl}(B)$ (sub-additive).
- (K4) $\mathsf{cl}(\mathsf{cl}(A)) = \mathsf{cl}(A)$ (idempotent).
- (K5) $\bigcap_{i \in I} \operatorname{cl}(A_i) = \operatorname{cl}(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i)$ (additive).

Theorem 11. The conditions in each row of table 1 are equivalent.

Further equivalent conditions in terms of convergence in terms of convergence can be found in [16].

Table 1. The basic axioms. The properties below are meant to hold for all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ and all $x \in X$, respectively.

	closure	interior	neighborhood	convergent	
K0'	$\exists A : x \notin cl(A)$	$\exists A: x \in int(A)$	$\mathcal{N}(x) \neq \varnothing$	$\mathcal{N}^*(x) \neq \mathcal{P}(X)$	
K0	$cl(\emptyset) = \emptyset$	$\operatorname{int}(X) = X$	$X \in \mathcal{N}(x)$	$\emptyset \notin \mathcal{N}^*(x)$	
K1	$A \subseteq B \implies cl(A) \subseteq cl(B)$	$A \subseteq B \implies int(A) \subseteq int(B)$	$N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N \subseteq N'$	$Q \in \mathcal{N}^*(x) \text{ and } Q \subseteq Q'$	
isotonic,	$cl(A \cap B) \subseteq cl(A) \cap cl(B)$	$\operatorname{int}(A) \cup \operatorname{int}(B) \subseteq \operatorname{int}(A \cup B)$	\implies	\implies	
monotone	$cl(A) \cup cl(B) \subseteq cl(A \cup B)$	$\operatorname{int}(A \cap B) \subseteq \operatorname{int}(A) \cap \operatorname{int}(B)$	$N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$	$Q' \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$	
KA	cl(X) = X	$int(\emptyset) = \emptyset$	$\emptyset \notin \mathcal{N}(x)$	$X \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$	
KB	$A \cup B = X \implies$	$A \cap B = \emptyset \implies$	$N', N'' \in \mathcal{N}(x) \implies$	$Q' \cup Q'' = X \implies$	
	$cl(A) \cup cl(B) = X$	$int(A) \cap int(B) = \emptyset$	$N'\cap N''\neq \emptyset$	$Q' \in \mathcal{N}^*(x) \lor Q'' \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$	
K2	$A \subseteq cl(A)$	$\operatorname{int}(A) \subseteq \operatorname{int}(A)$	$N \in \mathcal{N}(x) \implies x \in N$	$x \in Q \implies Q \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$	
expansive					
K3	$cl(A \cup B) \subseteq cl(A) \cup cl(B)$	$\operatorname{int}(A) \cap \operatorname{int}(B) \subseteq \operatorname{int}(A \cup B)$	$N', N'' \in \mathcal{N}(x) \implies$	$(Q' \cup Q'') \in \mathcal{N}^*(x) \implies$	
sub-linear			$N' \cap N'' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$	$Q' \in \mathcal{N}^*(x) \lor Q'' \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$	
K4	cl(cl(A)) = cl(A)	int(int(A)) = int(A)	$N \in \mathcal{N}(x) \Longleftrightarrow$	$Q \in \mathcal{N}^*(x) \Longleftrightarrow$	
idempotent			$int(N) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$	$cl(Q) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$	
K5			$\mathcal{N}(x) = \emptyset \text{ or } \exists N(x) :$?	
additive	$\bigcup_{i \in I} cl(A_i) = cl\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i\right)$	$\bigcap_{i \in I} \operatorname{int}(A_i) = \operatorname{int}\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right)$	$N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$		
			$\Longleftrightarrow N(x) \subseteq N$		

Proof. Many of the equivalences in table 1 have been noted previously, see e.g. [12]. We collect the proofs here for completeness. The equivalence of the conditions for neighborhoods and convergents follow immediately from discussion in Appendix A.

K0'. $\mathcal{N}(x) \neq emptyset$ iff there is a set A such that $(-A) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$, i.e., $x \notin cl(A)$, i.e., $x \in -cl(A) = int(-A)$.

K0. $X \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $x \in int(X) = -cl(-X) = -cl(\emptyset)$ iff $x \notin cl(\emptyset)$ for all $x \in X$.

K1. The equivalent definitions of isotony are discussed in section 2.

KA. $X = C(X) = -int(-X) = -int(\emptyset)$ iff $int(\emptyset) = \emptyset$. We have $\emptyset \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $x \in int(\emptyset)$, i.e., $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{N}(x)$ for all x iff $int(\emptyset) = \emptyset$.

KB. First note that $A \cup B = X$ iff $(-A) \cap (-B) = \emptyset$. Hence $A \cap B = \emptyset$ implies $-\operatorname{cl}(-A) \cap -\operatorname{cl}(-B) = \emptyset$, i.e., $\operatorname{int}(A) \cap \operatorname{int}(B) = \emptyset$. Recall $x \in \operatorname{cl}(A) \iff A \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$. Suppose $A \cup B = X$. Then $\operatorname{cl}(A) \cup \operatorname{cl}(B) = X$ means that for each $x \in X$ we have $x \in \operatorname{cl}(A)$ or $x \in \operatorname{cl}(B)$, and equivalently, $A \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$ or $B \in \mathcal{N}^*(x)$. The condition for the neighborhood follows by duality, see Appendix A.

K2. $A \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(A) \iff -A \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(-A) \iff \mathsf{int}(A) = -\mathsf{cl}(-A) \subseteq -(-A) = A$. Hence $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ implies $x \in \mathsf{int}(N) \subseteq N$, i.e., $x \in N$. Conversely, suppose $x \in N$ for all $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and consider $x \in A$. Then $x \notin -A$ and hence $-A \notin \mathcal{N}(x)$, i.e., $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ by equ.(3).

K3. The axiom can be expressed as $x \in cl(A \cup B)$ implies $x \in cl(A)$ or $x \in cl(B)$. Equivalently, $x \notin cl(A)$ and $x \notin cl(B)$ implies $x \notin cl(A \cup B)$. Using equ.(3) three times we see that this is equivalent with: $-A \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $-B \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ implies $-(A \cup B) = (-A) \cap (-B) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Replacing A and B by -A and -B, respectively, completes the proof.

K4. We have $\operatorname{int}(A) = \operatorname{int}(-\operatorname{cl}(-A)) = -\operatorname{cl}(-[-\operatorname{cl}(-A)]) = -\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{cl}(-A))$. Thus $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{cl}(-A)) = \operatorname{cl}(-A)$ implies $\operatorname{int}(\operatorname{int}(A)) = -\operatorname{cl}(-A) = \operatorname{int}(A)$. Conversely, $\operatorname{int}(\operatorname{int}(A)) = \operatorname{int}(A)$ implies $-\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{cl}(-A)) = -\operatorname{cl}(-A)$ and $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{cl}(A)) =$

 $\mathsf{cl}(A)$. We have in general $x \in \mathsf{int}(\mathsf{int}(A)) = -(\mathsf{cl}(\mathsf{cl}(-A)))$ iff $x \notin \mathsf{cl}(\mathsf{cl}(-A))$, i.e., iff $-(\mathsf{cl}(-A)) = \mathsf{int}(A) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Thus K4 is equivalent to the condition that $x \in \mathsf{int}(A)$ if and only if $\mathsf{int}(A) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. On the other hand, we have $x \in \mathsf{int}(A)$ if and only if $A \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Combining these two conditions we obtain $A \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ if and only if $\mathsf{int}(A) \in \mathcal{N}(x)$.

K5. Since (K1) from (K5) we know from theorem 6 that $x \in cl(A)$ iff $N \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for all $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. In particular, therefore, $x \in cl(\{y\}) \iff y \in N$ for all $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$, i.e., if and only if $y \in N(x)$.

Now we have $\mathsf{cl}(A) = \bigcup_{y \in A} \mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$, hence $\mathsf{int}(A) = -(\mathsf{cl}(-A)) = -\bigcup_{y \in -A} \mathsf{cl}(\{y\}) = \bigcap_{y \in -A} -\mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$. Thus $x \in \mathsf{int}(N)$ iff $x \notin \mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$ for all $y \notin N$, i.e., iff $y \notin N(x)$ for all $y \notin N$ i.e., iff $N(x) \subseteq N$. Collecting the equivalences we have $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $N(x) \subseteq N$.

A few remarks are in order here.

(K0) implies (K0').

BASIC PROPERTIES OF CLOSURE SPACES

Table 2. Axioms for closure operators.

Defining axioms are marked by \bullet , further properties that implied are marked by \circ .

Axiom	$cl(\emptyset) = \emptyset$	$\begin{array}{l} A \subseteq B \implies cl(A) \subseteq cl(B) \\ \text{isotonic} \end{array}$	$A \subseteq cl(A)$ enlarging	$cl(A \cup B) \subseteq cl(A) \cup cl(B)$ sub-linear	cl(cl(A)) = cl(A) idempotent	$cl(\bigcup_i A_i) = \bigcup_i cl(A_i)$ additive	Ref.
Extended Topology	•	•					
Brissaud	•		•				[2]
Neighborhood space	•	•	•				[19]
Closure space	(\bullet)	٠	•		•		[33]
Smyth space	•	٠		٠			[32]
Pretopology	٠	٠	•	٠			[5]
Topology	•	0	•	•	•		
Alexandroff space	•	0	•	0		•	
Alexandroff topology	•	0	•	0	•	•	

Isotonic closure functions satisfying (K0') also satisfy (K0). Such closures are studied in detail in [13, 14] under the name *extended topology*.

(KB) and (K0) implies (KA).

(K2) implies (KB).

(K3) implies (KB).

An isotonic sub-linear closure function, (K1) and (K3), is called *linear* or *finitely* additive and satisfied $cl(A \cup B) = CA \cup cl(B)$ and $int(A \cap B) = int(A) \cap IB$. Often, this condition replaces (K1) and (K3) in axiom systems of closure spaces, see e.g. [11].

Axiom (K4) can be rephrased in the more familiar form Each neighborhood $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ contains an open neighborhood, namely int(N) = int(int(N)). Idempotence of the closure operator, hence, is the distinguishing feature of topological spaces.

By definition, (K5) implies linearity and therefore both (K1) and (K3).

Spaces with the same combination of axioms have different names in the literature and the same name is used for different axiom systems by different authors. Table 2 summarizes the names used in this manuscript.

Dikranjan *et al.* [9] show that the class of generalized closure space (X, cl) satisfying (K0), (K1), (K2), and (K4) form a topological category. It is well known that the Čech closure spaces, which satisfy (K0), (K1), (K2), and (K3), are identical to the pretopological spaces which also form a topological category, see e.g. [29].

4. Symmetry and Separation Axioms

The symmetry and separation axiom always deal with the existence of neighborhoods around every point of X such that certain additional conditions are satisfied. Hence we shall assume $\mathcal{N}(x) \neq \emptyset$, i.e. (K0') from now on.

4.1. Symmetry Axioms. The two most important symmetry properties in term of neighborhoods and their closure counterparts are

- (R0) If x is contained in each neighborhood of y then y is contained in each neighborhood of x.
- (R0c) If $x \in \mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$ then $y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{x\})$.
- (wS) If x is contained in each neighborhood of y then $\mathcal{N}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(y)$.
- (cS) $\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap \mathsf{cl}(\{x\}) \neq \emptyset$ implies $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$.
- (S) If x is contained in each neighborhood of y then $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$.
- (RE) If $N_x \cap N_y \neq \emptyset$ for all $N_x \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and all $N_y \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ implies $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$

The (R0) axiom was introduced by Šanin [30]. Eduard Čech proved that a pretopological space is semi-uniformizable if and only if it satisfies (R0c) [5, Thm.23.B.3]. In [23] it is shown that (R0) is equivalent to "weak uniformizability".

In [5, Sect.29] axiom (S) and its variants appear as necessary condition for normality. The equivalence of (wS), (cS) and (S) for preotopological space is shown as Thm.29.A.3.

Reciprocal spaces were considered in [21], where (RE) was termed "axiom P".

Lemma 5. (i) If (X, cl) is an extended topology then (R0) and (R0c) is equivalent. (ii) If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space then (wS) implies (R0). (iii) If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space then (RE) always implies (cS).

Proof. (i) can be seen as follows: Let $N(x) = \cap \{N | N \in \mathcal{N}(x)\}$ be the vicinity of x. Then (R0) can be written as " $y \in N(x)$ implies $x \in N(y)$. The crucial observation is that in isotonic space we have $\mathsf{cl}(\{x\}) = \{y | \forall N \in \mathcal{N}(y) : N \cap \{x\} \neq \emptyset\} = \{y | x \in N(x)\}$, i.e.,

$$x \in N(y) \Longleftrightarrow y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{x\}).$$
(16)

The proof now follows trivially.

(ii) Suppose $x \in N(x)$. Then (wS) implies $\mathcal{N}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(y)$, i.e., $U \in \mathcal{N}(x) \Longrightarrow U \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. Equivalently, $x \notin \mathsf{cl}(-U)$ implies $y \notin \mathsf{cl}(-U)$ and hence $y \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ implies $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ for all A. Now $x \in N(y)$, i.e., $y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{x\})$, and, by (K2), $y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$, implies $x \in \mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$, i.e., $y \in N(x)$.

(iii) If $y \in N(x)$ and by (K2) $y \in N(y)$ then $N(x) \cap N(y) \neq \emptyset$ and hence $N_x \cap N_y \neq \emptyset$ for all $N_x \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and all $N_y \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. Now (RE) implies $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$, i.e., (S) holds as well.

Theorem 12. (i) (S) implies (cS) implies (wS) in isotonic spaces. (ii) In an isotonic (R0) space (wS), (cS), and (S) are equivalent. (iii) If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space then (wS), (cS), and (S) are equivalent. *Proof.* (i) Suppose (S) holds, i.e., $x \in N(y) \iff y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{x\})$ implies that $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ iff $N \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. Equivalently, we have $x \notin \mathsf{cl}(-N)$ iff $y \notin \mathsf{cl}(-N)$, i.e., $x \in \mathsf{cl}(-N)$ iff $y \in \mathsf{cl}(-N)$, i.e., $x \in \mathsf{cl}(-N)$ iff $y \in \mathsf{cl}(-N)$, i.e., $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ iff $y \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ for all $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. Thus $y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{x\})$ and $y \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$ implies $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$, i.e., $\mathsf{cl}(\{x\}) \cap \mathsf{cl}(A) \neq \emptyset$ implies $x \in \mathsf{cl}(A)$. The negation of this implication is (cS).

Now let $x \in N(y)$, i.e., $y \in cl(\{x\})$ and $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$, i.e., $x \notin cl(-U)$. (cS) implies $cl(\{x\}) \cap cl(-U) = \emptyset$, hence $y \in cl(\{x\})$ implies $y \notin cl(-U)$, i.e. $y \in int(U)$, and hence $U \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. Thus $\mathcal{N}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(y)$.

(ii) It suffices to show that (R0) and (wS) implies (S). We have $x \in \mathsf{cl}(\{y\})$ implies $\mathcal{N}(y) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(x)$ by (wS) and $y \in \mathsf{cl}(\{x\})$ by (R0). Applying (wS) again we have $\mathcal{N}(x) \subseteq \mathcal{N}(y)$, and the assertion follows.

(iii) Follows directly from (ii) and Lemma 5(ii).

It is well known that (R0) and (S) are equivalent in topological spaces, see e.g. [29].

4.2. Lower Separation Axioms. The axioms (T0) and (T1), as well as the weak symmetry axiom (R0) above, can be stated in full generality in the same way as in topological spaces:

- (T0) For all $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$ there is $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $y \notin N'$ or there is $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $x \notin N''$.
- (T1) For all $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$ there is $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $x \notin N''$ and $y \notin N'$.

Assuming (K0') we can rewrite (T0) and (T1) in terms of N(x). This notation immediately suggests corresponding axioms in terms of the closure function:

 $\begin{array}{ll} (\text{T0}) & x \neq y \text{: } y \notin N(x) \text{ or } x \notin N(y) & (\text{cT0}) & x \neq y \text{: } y \notin \mathsf{cl}(\{x\}) \text{ or } x \notin \mathsf{cl}(\{y\}) \\ (\text{T1}) & N(x) \subseteq \{x\} & (\text{cT1}) & \mathsf{cl}(x) \subseteq \{x\} \end{array}$

Theorem 13. $(T1) \iff (T0 \text{ and } R0) \text{ and } (cT1) \iff (cT0 \text{ and } cR0)$. If (X, cl) is an extended topology then $(T0) \iff (cT0)$ and thus also $(T1) \iff (cT1)$.

Proof. It is obvious from the definitions that $(T1) \implies (T0)$ and (R0) and that $(cT1) \implies (cT0)$ and (cR0). Conversely, suppose (X, cl) satisfies (T0) and (R0) but not (T1). Then there are two points $x_0 \neq y_0 \in X$ such that $y_0 \in N(x_0)$. Now (T0) implies $x_0 \notin N(y_0)$, contradicting (R0). The argument for (cT1) is analogous. The second part of theorem follow immediately from Lemma 5 and equ.(16).

4.3. Hausdorff-Like Axioms.

(T2) If $x \neq y$ then there is $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $N' \cap N'' = \emptyset$.

(H) A proper prefilter converges to at most one point.

 $(T2_{\frac{1}{2}})$ If $x \neq y$ then there is $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $\mathsf{cl}(N') \cap \mathsf{cl}(N'') = \emptyset$.

Lemma 6. (T2) implies (RE) in general. In a neighborhood space $(T2\frac{1}{2}) \Longrightarrow (T2) \iff (T0 \text{ and } RE) \Longrightarrow (T1).$

Proof. (T2) \implies (RE): $N' \cap N'' \neq \emptyset$ for all $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and all $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ implies x = y and hence trivially $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$.

 \Box

Now assume that (X, cl) is a neighborhood space.

 $(T2_{\frac{1}{2}}) \Longrightarrow (T2) \Longrightarrow (T1)$: If $cl(N') \cap cl(N'') = \emptyset$ then (K2) implies $N' \cap N'' = \emptyset$ and using (K2) again implies both $x \notin N''$ and $y \notin N'$.

Now suppose (RE) holds but (T2) is not satisfied. Then there are points $x \neq y$ such that $N' \cap N'' \neq \emptyset$ for all $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and all $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$. By (RE) we have $\mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$. (K2) now implies $x, y \in N$ for all $N \in \mathcal{N}(x) = \mathcal{N}(y)$. This contradicts (T1) and hence also (T0).

Theorem 14. If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space then $(H) \iff (T2)$.

Proof. In a neighborhood space each neighborhood system $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is by definition a proper prefilter. The union $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$ of two proper prefilters is a proper prefilter if and only if $F \cap G \neq \emptyset$ for all $F \in \mathcal{F}$ and all $G \in \mathcal{G}$.

 $(T2) \Longrightarrow (H)$: Suppose \mathcal{F} is a proper prefilter converging to both x and $y, \mathcal{F} \to x$ and $\mathcal{F} \to y$. In other words, $\mathcal{N}(x) \cup \mathcal{N}(y) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. If $x \neq y$ then by (T2) there is $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $N' \cap N'' = \emptyset$, i.e., \mathcal{F} is not a proper prefilter. Thus x = y. (H) \Longrightarrow (T2): Condition (H) can be rephrased in as "if $x \neq y$ then there is no proper prefilter finer than $\mathcal{N}(x) \cup \mathcal{N}(y)$, and, equivalently, $\mathcal{N}(x) \cup \mathcal{N}(y)$ itself is not a proper prefilter. This means that there is $N', N'' \in \mathcal{N}(x) \cup \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $N' \cap N'' = \emptyset$. Since both $\mathcal{N}(x)$ and $\mathcal{N}(y)$ are proper prefilters we have to choose $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$, and hence (T2) holds.

4.4. Regularity-Like Axioms.

Theorem 15. In an isotonic space the following conditions are equivalent:

- (R) For all $x \in X$ and all $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $cl(U) \subseteq N$.
- (R') For all $x \in X$ and all non-empty $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ such that $x \notin cl(A)$ there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $V \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Proof. Suppose (R') holds. Choose an arbitrary $x \in X$ and $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and set A = -N. We have $x \notin \mathsf{cl}(A)$ iff $-A = N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Now We have $U \cap V = \emptyset$, hence $U \subseteq -V$ and by isotony $\mathsf{cl}(U) \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(-V)$ and finally $\mathsf{int}(V) = -\mathsf{cl}(-V) \subseteq -\mathsf{cl}(U)$. By Lemma 1 we have $A \subseteq \mathsf{int}(V)$, thus $A \subseteq -\mathsf{cl}(U)$, and $\mathsf{cl}(U) \subseteq -A = N$. Thus (R) is satisfied.

Conversely assume (R), and let $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Then there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $\mathsf{cl}(U) \subseteq N$. Set V = -U and A = -N. Then $-N = A \subseteq -\mathsf{cl}(U) = -\mathsf{cl}(-V) = \mathsf{int}(V)$, i.e., $A \in \mathcal{N}(V)$ and $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Observing again that $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ if and only if $x \notin \mathsf{cl}(A)$ completes the proof.

Definition 11. An isotonic space is regular if it satisfies one of conditions in theorem 15.

It is worth noting that condition (R) naturally appears in the theory of generalized convergence spaces (see e.g. []), while (R') is the straightforward generalization of the usual regularity axiom in topological spaces.

A stronger property is

BASIC PROPERTIES OF CLOSURE SPACES

(tR) For all $x \in X$ and all non-empty closed sets $\emptyset \neq A = \mathsf{cl}(A) \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $V \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

It is clear that (tR) implies (R). Obviously (R) and (tR) are equivalent if cl is idempotent.

Definition 12. A closure spaces is (T3) if it satisfies (R) and (T0).

Lemma 7. If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space then $(T3) \Longrightarrow (T2_{\frac{1}{2}}) \Longrightarrow (T2)$.

Proof. We start with (R') and set $A = \{y\}$. Since (R) implies (R0) we know that a (T3) space is (T1), hence $\mathsf{cl}(A) = \mathsf{cl}(\{y\}) = \{y\}$. Thus (R') reduces to the existence of $N' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ such that $N' \cap N'' = \emptyset$, i.e., to (T2). Now we can use (R) to obtain $U' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $U'' \in \mathcal{N}(y)$ with $\mathsf{cl}(U') \subseteq N'$ and $\mathsf{cl}(U'') \subseteq N''$. Clearly $\mathsf{cl}(U') \cap \mathsf{cl}(U'') = \emptyset$, i.e., $(T2\frac{1}{2})$ is satisfied.

4.5. Normality. There appears to be no consistent definition of normal spaces beyond the realm of topological spaces. The nomenclature above is a hybrid of the conventions from different authors, motivated in part by analogy with the terminology of regularity properties above. Cech [5,] call a pretopological space normal if it is quasi-normal and symmetric. In [27] Paoli & Ripoli introduce a notion of normal convergence space based on closed sets, calling (QTN) quasi-normal and using normal for (N). In [34] (QN) is called normal.

Definition 13. Let (X, cl) be a isotonic space. The space is

- (QN) quasi-normal if for all $A, B \neq \emptyset \operatorname{cl}(A) \cap \operatorname{cl}(B) = \emptyset$ implies that there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ and $V \in \mathcal{N}(B)$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.
 - (N) normal For all non-empty closed sets $A = cl(A) = \neq \emptyset$ and all $N \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ such that $cl(U) \subseteq N$.
- (TN) normal For all non-empty closed sets $A = cl(A) = \neq \emptyset$ and all $N \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ there is a closed set $U = cl(U) \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ such that $cl(U) \subseteq N$.
- (QTN) quasi-t-normal if for all non-empty disjoint closed sets, i.e., $A = cl(A) \neq \emptyset$, $B = cl(B) \neq \emptyset$, $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ implies that there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ and $V \in \mathcal{N}(B)$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

Lemma 8. Let (X, cl) be a neighborhood space. Then

(i) (QN) implies (N) implies (QTN), and (TN) implies (N).

(ii) If cl is idempotent then (QN), (TN), (N), and (QTN) are equivalent.

Proof. (i) The implication $(TN) \implies (N)$ is trivial.

Suppose $Q = \operatorname{cl}(Q) \neq \emptyset$ and $W \in \mathcal{N}(Q)$, i.e., $Q \in \operatorname{int}(W)$. Using $Q = \operatorname{cl}(Q)$ and $-\operatorname{int}(W) = \operatorname{cl}(-W)$ we have $\operatorname{cl}(Q) \cap \operatorname{cl}(-W) = \emptyset$ and by (QN) there is $U \in \mathcal{N}(Q)$ and $V \in -\mathcal{W}$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Thus $(-W) \subseteq \operatorname{int}(V) = -\operatorname{cl}(-V)$ and hence $\operatorname{cl}(-V) \subseteq W$. Furthermore $U \subseteq -V$. Now $U \in \mathcal{N}(Q)$ and $U \subseteq -V$ implies $-V \in \mathcal{N}(Q)$ and $\operatorname{cl}(-V) \subseteq W$; thus (N) holds.

(second part of (i) missing).

(ii) The equivalence of (N) and (TN) and the equivalence of (QN) and (QTN), respectively is obvious for idempotent closure operators. Then lemma now follows from (i). \Box

Definition 14. A closure space (X, cl) is (T4) if satisfies (T1) and (QN). **Lemma 9.** If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space, then (T4) implies (T3).

Proof. Consider a point x and a set A such that $x \notin cl(A)$. From (T1) and (K2) we have $cl(\{x\}) = \{x\}$, hence $cl(\{x\}) \cap cl(A) = \emptyset$. Thus (QN) implies that there is $N \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ and $U \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ such that $N \cap U = \emptyset$, i.e., (R') is satisfied. Recall, finally, that (R') and (T0) is equivalent to (T3) in all isotonic spaces.

Cech [5] mentions that a symmetric, quasi-normal pretopological space is topological.

5. Connectedness

Connectedness is closely related to separation. Two sets $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ are semiseparated if there are neighborhoods $N' \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(B)$ such that $A \cap$ $N'' = N' \cap B = \emptyset$; they are separated if if there are neighborhoods $N' \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ and $N'' \in \mathcal{N}(B)$ such that $N' \cap N'' = \emptyset$.

Lemma 10. If (X, cl) is isotone then A and B are semi-separated if and only if $cl(A) \cap B = A \cap cl(B) = \emptyset$.

Proof. Using the definition of the neighborhoods of sets we see that A and B are semiseparated if and only if there are sets U and V such that $A \subset int(U)$ and $B \subset int(V)$. We argue: $A \cap V = \emptyset$ implies $V \in -A$ and hence $B \subseteq int(V) \subseteq int(-A)$ where we have used that cl is isotone. Switching to the complements we have $cl(A) = A - int(-A) \subseteq$ -B and hence $cl(A) \cap B = \emptyset$. Analogously we see $cl(B) \subseteq -A$.

Now suppose $\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap B = A \cap \mathsf{cl}(B) = \emptyset$. Thus $B \subseteq -\mathsf{cl}(A) = \mathsf{int}(-A)$ and hence $V = -A \in \mathcal{N}(B)$. Of course $A \cap V = \emptyset$. Analogously we see that U = -B is a neighborhood of A.

Definition 15. A set $Z \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ is connected in (X, cl) if it is not a disjoint union of a nontrivial semi-separated pairs of sets $A, Z - A, A \neq \emptyset, Z$.

By definition a 1-point set $Z = \{z\}$ is connected. We say that (X, cl) is connected if X is connected in (X, cl). This definition can be rephrased as

Theorem 16. A set $Z \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ is connected in an isotonic space (X, cl) if and only if for each proper subset $A \subseteq Z$ holds

$$[\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (Z \setminus A)] \cup [\mathsf{cl}(Z \setminus A) \cap A] \neq \emptyset$$
(17)

Eq.(17) is known as the Hausdorff-Lennes condition.

Lemma 11. If X and Y are connected in an isotone space (X, cl) and $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$, then $X \cup Y$ is connected.

Proof. We use the Hausdorff-Lennes condition:

 $[\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (Y \cup Z) \setminus A] \cup [A \cap \mathsf{cl}((Y \cup Z) \setminus A)] =$ $[\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (Y \setminus A)] \cup [\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (Z \setminus A)] \cup [A \cap \mathsf{cl}((Y \setminus A) \cup (Z \setminus A))] \supseteq$ (18) $\{ [\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (Y \setminus A)] \cup [A \cap \mathsf{cl}(Y \setminus A)] \} \cup \{ [A \cap \mathsf{cl}(Z \setminus A)] \cup [\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (Z \setminus A)] \}$ If $A \cap Y$ or $A \cap Z$ is a proper subset of Y or Z, respectively, then one of the expressions in the braces in non-empty. Both expressions are empty if and only if either A = Zand $A \cap Y = \emptyset$ or $A \cap Z = \emptyset$ and A = Y. This is impossible if $Y \cap Z \neq \emptyset$. \Box

Theorem 17. If (X, cl) is a neighborhood space then cl(Z) is connected whenever Z is connected.

Proof. Set
$$A' = Z \cap A$$
 and $A'' = A \setminus Z$. We then use the Hausdorff-Lennes condition:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{cl}(A) \cap (\mathsf{cl}(Z) \setminus A) \end{bmatrix} \cup \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{cl}(\mathsf{cl}(Z) \setminus A) \cap A \end{bmatrix} \supseteq$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} (\mathsf{cl}(A') \cup \mathsf{cl}(A'')) \cap (Z \setminus A') \end{bmatrix} \cup \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{cl}(Z - A') \cap (A' \cup A'') \end{bmatrix} \supseteq$$

$$\{\begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{cl}(A') \cap (Z \setminus A') \end{bmatrix} \cup \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{cl}(Z \setminus A') \cap A' \end{bmatrix}\} \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{cl}(Z - A') \cap A'' \end{bmatrix}$$
(19)

Here we have used $Z - A' \subseteq (\mathsf{cl}(Z) \setminus A'') \setminus A'$ which is true only if (K2) holds. If $A' \neq \emptyset$ then the term in braces in non-empty because Z is connected by assumption. If $A' = \emptyset$ then $A'' \subseteq \mathsf{cl}(Z) \setminus Z$ is nonempty and hence $\mathsf{cl}(Z \setminus A') \cap A'' = \mathsf{cl}(Z) \cap A'' \neq \emptyset$. Thus $\mathsf{cl}(Z)$ is connected. \Box

Lemma 12. In neighborhood spaces let $f : (X, cl) \to (Y, cl)$ be continuous and suppose $A, B \subseteq X$ are semi-separated. Then $f^{-1}(A)$ and $f^{-1}(A)$ are semi-separated.

Proof. Suppose $\mathsf{cl}(A) \cap B = \emptyset$. Then $f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(A)) \cap f^{-1}(B) = \emptyset$. Continuity means $\mathsf{cl}(f^{-A}) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathsf{cl}(A))$, hence $\mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(A)) \cap f^{-1}(B) = \emptyset$. By the same argument $\mathsf{cl}(B) \cap A = \emptyset$ implies $\mathsf{cl}(f^{-1}(B)) \cap f^{-1}(A) = \emptyset$, and the lemma follows.

Theorem 18. If $f : (X, cl) \to (Y, cl)$ is a continuous function between neighborhood spaces, and A is connected in X, then f(A) is connected in Y.

Proof. Suppose f(A) is not connected. Then $f(A) = U \dot{\cup} V$, where U and V are semiseparated and non-empty. Thus $f^{-1}(U)$ and $f^{-1}(V)$ are semi-separated. Clearly $A' = A \cap f^{-1}(U)$ and $A'' = A \cap f^{-1}(V)$ are both non-empty and also semi-separated. Furthermore $A' \cup A'' = A$, hence A is not connected. \Box

Appendix A: Filters and Grills

Let \mathcal{F} be an arbitrary collection of subsets of X. The *dual* of \mathcal{F} is defined by

$$\mathcal{F}^* = \{ F \in \mathcal{P}(X) | -F \notin \mathcal{F} \}$$
(20)

Obviously we have $\mathcal{F}^{**} = \mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{G}^*$ if and only if $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{F}^*$, and $\mathcal{P}(X)^* = \emptyset$.

A stack on X is \mathcal{F} a (possibly empty) isotonic collection of subsets of X. \mathcal{F} is a stack if and only if its dual \mathcal{F}^* is a stack. In particular, $\mathcal{P}(X)^*$ and \varnothing are stacks on X.

We call a stack proper if it is non-empty and does not contain the empty set. Note that the only stack containing \emptyset is $\mathcal{P}(X)$ as an immediate consequence of isotony. Thus the dual of a proper stack is again a proper stack. Equivalently, a stack \mathcal{F} is proper if and only if $X \in \mathcal{F}$. In table 3 we list the filter axioms and their duals.

Proper stacks satisfy (F0). The "pair-wise intersection" axiom (F1) is emphasized in [35], the term *prefilter* for an (F1)-stack was used in [1]. Axiom (F2), which implues (F1), defines H. Cartan's notion of a *filter* [4], its dual is called a *grill* [7]. By analogy

Table 3. Filter and Grill Axioms.

Axiom	filter	grill			
ISO	$F \in \mathcal{F}, F \subset F' \implies F' \in \mathcal{F}$				
F0	$\mathcal{F} \neq \varnothing$ and $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}$, i.e., $X \in \mathcal{F}$				
F1	$F', F'' \in \mathcal{F} \implies F' \cap F'' \neq \emptyset$	$G' \cup G'' = X \implies G' \in \mathcal{F} \text{ or } G' \in \mathcal{F}$			
	$F \in \mathcal{F} \implies -F \notin \mathcal{F}$	$G \notin \mathcal{F} \implies -G \in \mathcal{F}$			
F2	$F', F'' \in \mathcal{F} \implies F' \cap F'' \in \mathcal{F}$	$G' \cup G'' \in \mathcal{F} \implies G' \in \mathcal{F} \text{ or } G' \in \mathcal{F}$			
F3	$F \in \mathcal{F} \Longleftrightarrow -F \notin \mathcal{F}$				

we call a stack that satisfies the dual of (F1) a *pregrill*. A stack with property (F3) is *universal*. A universal filter is an *ultrafilter* [3]. Obviously (F3) implies (F1) but not (F2).

Notation

- x Points are denotes by lower case letters, preferably x, y, z, p, q, \ldots
- X A set of points is denoted by captial letters.
- $\mathcal{P}(X)$ The power set if X.
 - \mathcal{F} A family of sets, e.g., $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$.
- $\mathcal{N}(x)$ The family of neighborhoods of x. \mathcal{F}^* The dual of \mathcal{F} .
- $\mathfrak{P}(X) = \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X))$, the set of all families of sets on X.
- $\mathfrak{S}(X)$ The set of all stacks on X.
- $\mathfrak{S}_0(x)$ The set of all proper stacks on X.
- $\mathfrak{J}_0(x)$ The set of all proper prefiltres on X.
- $\mathfrak{F}(x)$ The set of all filters on x.
- $\mathfrak{F}_0(x)$ The set of all proper filters on x.

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