

# Counting of finite topologies and a dissection of Stirling numbers of the second kind

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Certain new combinatorial numbers which arise in the counting of finite topologies are introduced and formulae obtained. These numbers are used to obtain a known formula for  $t_n$ , the number of labelled topologies on  $n$  points in terms of the Stirling numbers  $S(n, p)$  and  $d_n$ , the number of labelled  $T_0$ -topologies on  $n$  points. The numbers  $d_n$  are computed for  $n \leq 5$  with the help of a method of Comtet (1966) (which seems to have been missed by later authors), reinterpreted for transitive digraphs.

## 1. Introduction

Let  $X = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . Let  $t_n$  (and  $d_n$ ) stand for the number of labelled topologies (and labelled  $T_0$ -topologies) respectively, on  $X$ .

That

$$(1) \quad t_n = \sum_p S(n, p) d_p$$

is well known (*cf.* Evans, Harary and Lynn, [2], Comtet, [1], Gupta, [3]) and implicit in Shafaat, [6]. Comtet, [1], also derived a formula for the calculation of  $d_p$  and Shafaat, [6], has a similar formula.

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In this paper we introduce certain combinatorial numbers,  $\lambda(n : r : p)$ , which arise in the counting of finite topologies on  $X$ . These numbers satisfy

$$(2) \quad \sum_r \lambda(n : r : p) = S(n, p) .$$

We prove, independently of (1), that

$$(3) \quad t_n = \sum_p \sum_r \lambda(n : r : p) d_p .$$

We then take up the calculation of  $d_p$  and provide, via transitive digraphs, what seems to be an easier version of Comtet's formula. Our computed values of  $\lambda(n : r : p)$  and of  $d_n$ ,  $n \leq 5$ , lead to known values of  $t_n$  as given in Comtet, [1], and Evans, Harary and Lynn, [2]. Shafaat's method [6], which is akin to that of Comtet, ends up in results for  $t_5$  and  $t_6$  that are wrong.

Unless otherwise mentioned all our topologies and graphs are labelled.

## 2. Combinatorial numbers $\lambda(n : r : p)$ and proof of (3)

We start with the concept of 'Borel equivalence' introduced by Rayburn [5]. Let  $T(X)$  be the set of all topologies on  $X$ . Two topologies on  $X$  are said to be *Borel equivalent* if they generate the same Borel field; that is, a topology in which every open set is also closed, or, what Sharp, [7], calls, a *symmetric topology*. This equivalence partitions  $T(X)$  into what are called Borel equivalence classes. 'How many topologies are there in each Borel equivalence class?' was a question posed by Rayburn.

Recall [2] that  $T(X)$  is in one-to-one correspondence with transitive digraphs (shortly, transgraphs) in the following manner. Given  $\tau \in T(X)$ , denote by  $B_i$  the smallest  $\tau$ -open set containing  $i$ . Construct the directed graph  $G(\tau)$  on  $X$  by stipulating that, for  $j \neq i$ ,  $(i, j) \in G(\tau)$  if and only if  $j \in B_i$ . (Here, and throughout the paper,  $(i, j)$  means the directed edge leading from  $i$  to  $j$ .) The fact that this construction results in  $G(\tau)$  being transitive and that the correspondence  $\tau \rightarrow G(\tau)$  is bijective are proved in [2] and [4]. Under

this correspondence,  $T_0$ -topologies and Borel fields show themselves up as two extremes in  $T(X)$ . Let us use the term 'dwcycle' to denote a directed cycle of length two.

Then  $T_0$ -topologies correspond to transgraphs which have no dwicycles (cf. [2] and [7]) and Borel fields correspond to transgraphs in which every edge is part of a dwicycle. These can be seen easily by noting that:

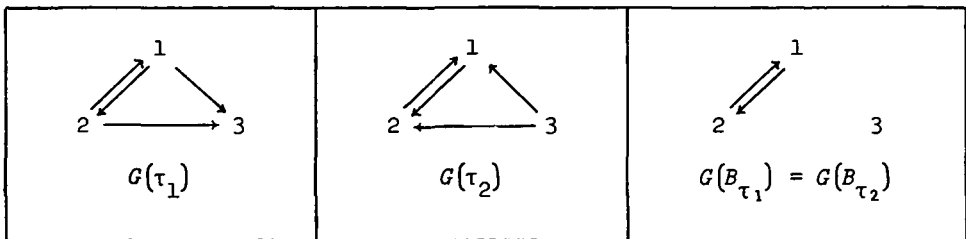
- (1)  $\tau$  is a  $T_0$ -topology if and only if  $j \in B_i \Rightarrow i \notin B_j$ ; and
- (2)  $\tau$  is a Borel field if and only if  $j \in B_i \Rightarrow i \in B_j$  (cf.

Rayburn [5]).

Also note that  $\tau_1$  is finer than  $\tau_2$  if and only if  $G(\tau_1)$  is a subgraph of  $G(\tau_2)$ . This tells us that, to generate the Borel field  $B_\tau$  containing  $\tau$ , we have only to look at the subgraph of  $G(\tau)$  and pick the largest subgraph  $G_0$  which has nothing but dwicycles in it. This  $G_0$  will be  $G(B_\tau)$ . We have thus proved

**PROPOSITION 1.** *If  $\tau \in T(X)$  and  $B_\tau$  is the Borel field generated by  $\tau$  then  $G(B_\tau)$  can be obtained from  $G(\tau)$  by deleting all the edges in the latter which are not part of dwicycles.*

As an illustration, note the following transgraphs on three points:



If  $\tau$  is in the Borel equivalence class  $B(B)$  determined by  $B$  then  $G(\tau)$  and  $G(B)$  differ only in the single lines which do not form part of dwicycles. To construct  $G(\tau)$  from  $G(B)$ , we have, therefore, only to add other lines to  $G(B)$  in such a way that

- (i) the resulting graph is a transgraph, and

(ii) no new dwicycles are introduced.

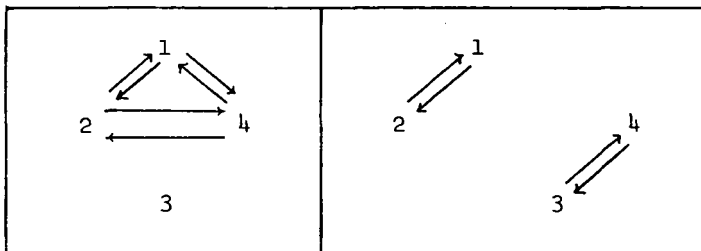
Note that, in this construction, if  $(i, j)$  and  $(j, i)$  form a dwicycle and  $k$  is any other vertex, either we add both  $(i, k)$  and  $(j, k)$  or not at all and similarly, either we add both  $(k, i)$  and  $(k, j)$  or not at all. So, for the purpose of this construction, we can identify pairs of points which are connected by a dwicycle. Consider the resulting smaller set  $X_0$  of points and construct transgraphs on  $X_0$  without dwicycles.

For each such transgraph on  $X_0$  (which is now a  $T_0$ -topology on  $X_0$ ) we can recover a topology on  $X$  which belongs to  $\mathcal{B}(B)$ . This is done by recovering all the identified points and the dwicycles connecting them. Conversely every  $T_0$ -topology on  $X_0$  in the same way gives rise to a topology on  $X$  which belongs to  $\mathcal{B}(B)$ . Thus the number of topologies in  $\mathcal{B}(B)$  is the number of  $T_0$ -topologies on the set  $X_0$  as obtained above.

Hence we have proved the following

**PROPOSITION 2.** *Let  $B$  be a Borel field and  $C(G(B))$  be the graph obtained by identifying pairs of points in  $G(B)$  which are connected by dwicycles. Let  $p$  be the number of vertices in  $C(G(B))$ . Then the number of topologies in the Borel equivalence class determined by  $B$  is  $d_p$ .*

Now in order to count  $|\mathcal{T}(X)|$  we have only to list the various Borel equivalence classes there are and sum up  $d_p$  for the various values of  $p$  that arise. But it happens that the same  $p$  may arise from distinct Borel fields, as can be seen from the two transgraphs on four points shown below.



So it is necessary to take into account the number  $r$  of dwicycles that occur in  $G(B)$ . Each unlabelled Borel field  $B$  is determined by two parameters  $r$  and  $p$ . So we make the following definition.

**DEFINITION 1.** Given integers  $n, r, p$  such that  $n \geq 2$ ,  $0 \leq r \leq \binom{n}{2}$  and  $1 \leq p \leq n$ ,  $\lambda(n : r : p)$  denotes the number of labelled Borel fields  $B$  on a set of  $n$  points, with  $r$  dwicycles and with  $p = |C(G(B))|$ . If there is no such Borel field for a pair  $(r_0, p_0)$ ,  $\lambda(n : r_0 : p_0) = 0$ .

Putting aside the calculation of  $\lambda(n : r : p)$  for a while, we first note that Proposition 2 and the discussion following it gives us the following

**THEOREM 1.**  $t_n = \sum_p \sum_r \lambda(n : r : p) d_p.$

Recall (cf. Sharp [7]) that  $T(X)$  is in bijective correspondence with the set of quasiorders (reflexive and transitive relations) on  $X$ , by the rule

$$j \in B_i \iff iRj.$$

Under this correspondence  $T_0$ -topologies correspond to partial orders and Borel fields correspond to equivalence relations. Given  $p$ , the problem of constructing all the  $\sum_r \lambda(n : r : p)$  labelled Borel fields is the problem of distributing  $n$  distinct objects (the vertices  $1, 2, \dots, n$  in this case) into  $p$  distinct cells (the vertices of  $C(G(B))$ , in this case). Hence

$$\sum_r \lambda(n : r : p) = S(n, p).$$

This observation completes the promised independent proof of (1).

### 3. Calculation of $\lambda(n : r : p)$

When  $r = 0$ ,  $p = n$ , and clearly  $\lambda(n : 0 : n) = 1$ . We shall suppose  $r > 0$  in the rest of this section until we come to Theorem 2. The number  $r$  arises as follows. First, note that, as a consequence of transitivity, no dwicycle can exist in a transgraph except as part of a complete sub-transgraph. The number  $r$  will therefore be the sum of the numbers of dwicycles in the complete subtransgraphs of  $G(B)$ . But the

number of dwicycles in a complete subtransgraph is  $\binom{k}{2}$  where  $k \geq 2$  is the number of vertices in the complete subtransgraph. So,

$$r = \binom{k_1}{2} + \binom{k_2}{2} + \dots,$$

with  $k_i \geq 2$ , and  $k_1 + k_2 + \dots = n$ . The number  $p$  is the number of such complete subtransgraphs in  $G(B)$ . Thus, given the parameters  $n, r, p$  we arrive at a unique unordered partition of the integer  $n$  into  $p$  parts such that  $n = k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_p$  and  $r = \sum_{i=1}^p \binom{k_i}{2}$ .

Conversely, given an unordered partition of the integer  $n$  which has at least one part greater than 1, the parameters  $r$  and  $p$  are determined uniquely.

Thus this correspondence between unordered partitions with at least one part greater than 1 and the triads of parameters  $n, r, p$  for which  $\lambda(n : r : p) > 0$  is bijective. So, to determine  $\lambda(n : r : p)$ , we take the corresponding partition

$$n = k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_p$$

and regroup the integers  $k_1, k_2, \dots, k_p$  into

$\alpha_1$  integers each equal to  $p_1$ ,

$\alpha_2$  integers each equal to  $p_2$ , and so on.

(Note that we must have  $\sum \alpha_i p_i = n$  and at least one  $p_i \geq 2$ .) The corresponding transgraph will consist of

$\alpha_1$  disjoint complete transgraphs each on  $p_1$  points;

$\alpha_2$  disjoint complete transgraphs each on  $p_2$  points; and so on;

subject to the understanding that wherever  $p_j = 1$ , the component corresponding to that reduces to a single point. "In how many ways can such a configuration arise, with  $n, r, p$  given?" is the question. The choice of  $\alpha_1$  subsets of  $p_1$  vertices each can be made in

$$\frac{\binom{n}{p_1} \binom{n-p_1}{p_1} \binom{n-2p_1}{p_1} \cdots \binom{n-(\alpha_1-1)p_1}{p_1}}{\alpha_1!}$$

ways. Having made this choice, the choice of  $\alpha_2$  subsets of  $p_2$  vertices each can be made in

$$\frac{\binom{n-\alpha_1 p_1}{p_2} \binom{n-\alpha_1 p_1 - p_2}{p_2} \cdots \binom{n-\alpha_1 p_1 - (\alpha_2-1)p_2}{p_2}}{\alpha_2!}$$

ways; and so on.

This completes the proof of the following

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $n$  be any integer greater than or equal to 2,  $0 \leq r \leq \binom{n}{2}$  and  $1 \leq p \leq n$  such that  $n = k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_p$  and  $r = \sum_i \binom{k_i}{2}$  where  $\binom{k_i}{2} = 0$  if  $k_i = 1$ . Then*

$$\lambda(n : r : p) = \frac{\binom{n}{p_1} \binom{n-p_1}{p_1} \binom{n-2p_1}{p_1} \cdots \binom{n-(\alpha_1-1)p_1}{p_1}}{\alpha_1!} \times \frac{\binom{n-\alpha_1 p_1}{p_2} \binom{n-\alpha_1 p_1 - p_2}{p_2} \cdots \binom{n-\alpha_1 p_1 - (\alpha_2-1)p_2}{p_2}}{\alpha_2!} \times \dots,$$

where the integers  $k_1, k_2, \dots, k_p$  have

$\alpha_1$  integers each equal to  $p_1$ ,

$\alpha_2$  integers each equal to  $p_2$ , and so on.

#### 4. Calculation of $d_p$

It remains to calculate  $d_p$  for every  $p > 0$ . Clearly  $d_1 = 1$  and  $d_2 = 3$ . To arrive at a general formula for  $d_p$ , we proceed by the method of Comtet but now use the concept of transgraphs intensively. Evans,

Harary and Lynn [2] have done a similar computation but ours is different.

Let  $\Gamma_n$  be the set of transgraphs on  $n$  points without dwicycles. Let  $\gamma$  stand for an arbitrary element of  $\Gamma_n$ . We shall associate with each  $\gamma$  a unique ordered vector of non-empty subsets of  $X$  as follows. Count the outdegrees of each vertex of  $\gamma$ . (The outdegree of a vertex is the number of directed edges leaving it.) We claim that at least one of these outdegrees must be zero. To see this, start with any vertex  $i \in \gamma$ . If  $j \in B_i$ , then  $(i, j) \in \gamma$  but  $(j, i) \notin \gamma$ . Now look at  $B_j$ . If  $k \in B_j$  then  $k$  can be connected only to points other than  $i$  and  $j$ ; this follows easily from the transitivity of  $\gamma$  and the fact that it has no dwicycles. Continuing this process, we finally end up with a vertex  $p$  which is not connected to any other vertex. Thus there exists a  $p$  such that the outdegree of  $p$  is zero. Let  $S_1(\gamma)$  be the set of all vertices of  $\gamma$  with outdegree zero.

Delete all vertices belonging to  $S_1(\gamma)$  from the graph  $\gamma$  and also all the edges leading from or to such vertices. The resulting graph may be called the first truncation  $\gamma_1$ . Clearly it is a transgraph without dwicycles. Compute  $S_1(\gamma_1)$  and denote it by  $S_2(\gamma)$ . Delete from  $\gamma_1$ , the points of  $S_2(\gamma)$  and all edges leading from or to them, thus obtaining the second truncation  $\gamma_2$ . Continue this process until all vertices of  $\gamma$  are exhausted. The last set  $S_k(\gamma)$  will be such that all its points have outdegrees zero in the  $(k-1)$ th truncation of  $\gamma$ . Write

$$(S)_\gamma = (S_1(\gamma), S_2(\gamma), \dots, S_k(\gamma)) .$$

Thus, corresponding to  $\gamma$  we have an ordered partition of non-empty subsets of  $X$ . We write  $\eta(\gamma) = (S)_\gamma$ . Note that  $\eta$  of the discrete graph is  $(X)$ .

**PROPOSITION 3.** (i)  $\eta$  is onto the set of all ordered partitions of non-empty subsets of  $X$ .

(ii)  $\eta$  is many-one.

**Proof.** (i) Given an ordered partition  $(S) = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k)$  of

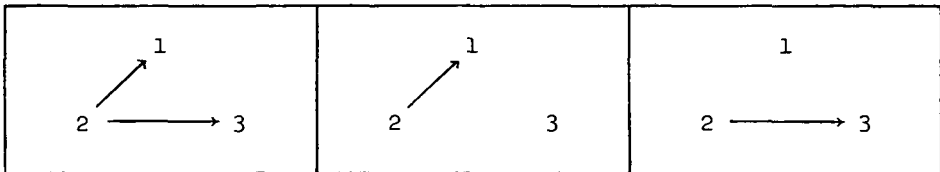


non-empty subsets of  $X$ , we produce a transgraph  $\gamma$  as follows. A directed edge goes from every point of  $S_p$  to one or more points of  $S_q$ ,  $q < p$ , in such a way that, whenever  $p > 2$ ,  $x \in S_p$ ,  $y \in S_{p-1}$ , and  $(x, y) \in \gamma$ , it is true that, for every  $i \leq p-2$ ,

$$z \in S_i \text{ and } (y, z) \in \gamma \Rightarrow (x, z) \in \gamma .$$

The resulting  $\gamma$  is clearly transitive. It has no dwicycles because all directed edges go from points of  $S_i$  to points of  $S_j$ ,  $i > j$ , and never in the opposite direction. The points of  $S_1$  are all of outdegree zero. So  $S_1 = S_1(\gamma)$ .  $\gamma_1 = \gamma \setminus S_1(\gamma)$ , the first truncation of  $\gamma$ , has the points of  $S_2$  as its set of vertices with zero outdegree. Hence  $S_2 = S_2(\gamma)$ ; and so on. Thus  $\eta(\gamma) = (S)$  and (i) is proved.

(ii) To prove (ii) look at  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Suppose  $(S) = (\{1, 3\}, \{2\})$ . Then all the following 3-transgraphs have  $(S)$  as their  $\eta$ -image.



Let  $N(S)$  be the number of  $\gamma \in \Gamma_n$  such that  $\eta(\gamma) = (S)$ .  $N(S)$  can be computed for each  $(S)$  (see Section 4). Given  $(S) = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k)$  where  $|S_i| = s_i$ , the number of ways in which the  $n$  labelled vertices of  $\gamma$  can be distributed into  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k$  is  $\frac{n!}{s_1!s_2! \dots s_k!}$ . This proves the theorem of Comtet [1] as stated below.

**THEOREM 3.**

$$d_n = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} \sum_{\substack{(S) = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k) \\ |S_i| = s_i > 0, S_i \subset X \\ \sum s_i = n}} \frac{n!}{s_1!s_2! \dots s_k!} N(S)$$

where  $N(S)$  is the number of transgraphs  $\gamma$  on  $X$ , without *dwicycles* such that  $\eta(\gamma) = (S)$ .

5. Computation of  $d_n$ ,  $\lambda(n : r : p)$ , and  $t_n$

NOTE. In this section and in the Tables at the end, we use  $(xyz)$  for  $\{x, y, z\}$ .

In the computation of  $d_n$  the main problem is to calculate  $N(S)$  for each possible form of  $(S) = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k)$  where  $(|S_1|, |S_2|, \dots, |S_k|)$  is an ordered partition of the integer  $n$ . Given  $(S)$  we proceed as follows. For each point  $x$  of  $S_p$  and every  $q < p$  we have to choose a point or points of  $S_q$  to which lines from  $x$  will lead. In other words, for each  $x \in S_p$ , one has to choose a non-empty subset of  $S_q$ . It helps to write all the possible choices for all  $p$  and  $q$ ,  $p > q$ , in the form of a tableau as below with  $k - 1$  rows and  $k - 1$  columns where the square at the row titled  $S_p$  and the column titled  $S_q$  lists all the choices for the map  $S_p \rightarrow$  set of non-empty subsets of  $S_q$ . Then a case by case checking is done for transitivity.

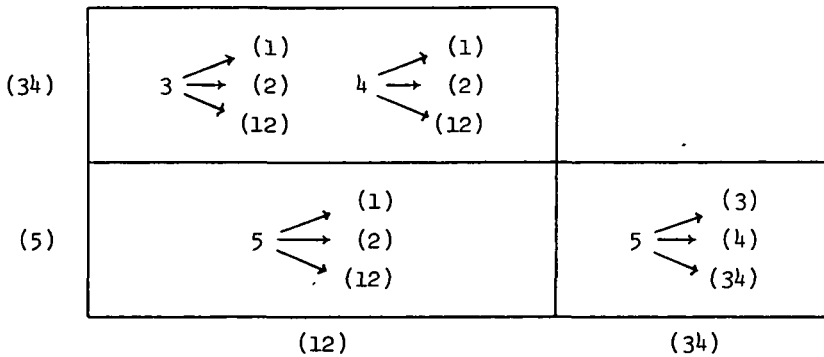
Let us illustrate this with two examples.

EXAMPLE 1.  $n = 5$ ,  $(S) = (12) (3) (4) (5)$ .

(3)			
(4)		4 → (3)	
(5)		5 → (3)	5 → (4)
	(12)	(3)	(4)

The choice  $3 \rightarrow (1)$  implies  $4 \rightarrow (1)$  and  $5 \rightarrow (1)$  or  $4 \rightarrow (12)$  and  $5 \rightarrow (12)$ . This gives 3 choices with  $3 \rightarrow (1)$ . Similarly there are 3 choices with  $3 \rightarrow (2)$ . The choice  $3 \rightarrow (12)$  implies  $4 \rightarrow (12)$  and  $5 \rightarrow (12)$ . Thus  $N(S) = 3 + 3 + 1 = 7$ .

EXAMPLE 2.  $n = 5$ ,  $(S) = (12) (34) (5)$ .



Start with  $5 \rightarrow (3)$  and  $3 \rightarrow (1)$ . This goes with any choice for the image of 4 and implies  $5 \rightarrow (1)$ . Hence there are 6 choices.

Similarly there are 6 choices with  $5 \rightarrow (3)$  and  $3 \rightarrow (2)$ . There are only 3 choices that go with  $5 \rightarrow (3)$  and  $3 \rightarrow (12)$ . Thus there are, in all, 15 choices for  $5 \rightarrow (3)$ . Similarly there are 15 choices for  $5 \rightarrow (4)$ .

Now take up  $5 \rightarrow (34)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 3 \rightarrow (1), 4 \rightarrow (1) &\Rightarrow 5 \rightarrow (1), \\
 3 \rightarrow (1), 4 \rightarrow (2) &\Rightarrow 5 \rightarrow (12), \\
 3 \rightarrow (1), 4 \rightarrow (12) &\Rightarrow 5 \rightarrow (12).
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $3 \rightarrow (1)$  gives 4 choices. Similarly  $3 \rightarrow (2)$  gives 4 choices. Finally  $3 \rightarrow (12)$  gives 3 choices. Thus  $5 \rightarrow (34)$  gives, in all,  $4 + 4 + 3 = 11$  choices. Hence  $N(S) = 15 + 15 + 11 = 41$ .

The completed results are tabulated in Table 1 for  $2 \leq n \leq 5$ .

Table 2 gives the results for  $\lambda(n : r : p)$  and the computations for obtaining  $t_n$ ,  $2 \leq n \leq 5$ .

Table 1  
Computation of  $d_n$ ,  $2 \leq n \leq 5$

$n$	ordered partition of $n$	Typical form of $(S)$	$N(S)$	Number of $S$ 's of the same form	Contribution to $d_n$	$d_n$
2	2	(12)	1	1	1	3
	11	(1) (2)	1	2	2	
3	3	(123)	1	1	1	19
	12	(1) (23)	1	3	3	
	21	(12) (3)	3	3	9	
	111	(1) (2) (3)	1	6	6	
4	4	(1234)	1	1	1	219
	13	(1) (234)	1	4	4	
	31	(123) (4)	7	4	28	
	22	(12) (34)	9	6	54	
	112	(1) (2) (34)	1	12	12	
	121	(1) (23) (4)	3	12	36	
	211	(12) (3) (4)	5	12	60	
	1111	(1) (2) (3) (4)	1	24	24	
5	5	(12345)	1	1	1	4231
	14	(1) (2345)	1	5	5	
	41	(1234) (5)	15	5	75	
	23	(12) (345)	27	10	270	
	32	(123) (45)	49	10	490	
	221	(12) (34) (5)	41	30	1230	
	212	(12) (3) (45)	9	30	270	
	122	(1) (23) (45)	9	30	270	
	311	(123) (4) (5)	19	20	380	
	131	(1) (234) (5)	7	20	140	
	113	(1) (2) (345)	1	20	20	
	1112	(1) (2) (3) (45)	1	60	60	
	1121	(1) (2) (34) (5)	3	60	180	
	1211	(1) (23) (4) (5)	5	60	300	
	2111	(12) (3) (4) (5)	7	60	420	
	11111	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)	1	120	120	

Table 2  
 Values of  $\lambda(n : r : p)$  and  $t_n$

$n$	Unordered partition of $n$	$\lambda(n : r : p)$	$S(n, p)$	$d_p$	Contribution to $t_n$	$t_n$
2	11	$\lambda(2 : 0 : 2) = 1$	$S(2, 2) = 1$	3	3	4
	2	$\lambda(2 : 1 : 1) = 1$	$S(2, 1) = 1$	1	1	
3	111	$\lambda(3 : 0 : 3) = 1$	$S(3, 3) = 1$	19	19	29
	21	$\lambda(3 : 1 : 2) = 3$	$S(3, 2) = 3$	3	9	
	3	$\lambda(3 : 3 : 1) = 1$	$S(3, 1) = 1$	1	1	
4	1111	$\lambda(4 : 0 : 4) = 1$	$S(4, 4) = 1$	219	219	355
	211	$\lambda(4 : 1 : 3) = 6$	$S(4, 3) = 6$	19	114	
	22	$\lambda(4 : 2 : 2) = 3$	$S(4, 2) = 7$	3	9	
	31	$\lambda(4 : 3 : 2) = 4$		3	12	
	4	$\lambda(4 : 6 : 1) = 1$	$S(4, 1) = 1$	1	1	
5	11111	$\lambda(5 : 0 : 5) = 1$	$S(5, 5) = 1$	4231	4231	6942
	2111	$\lambda(5 : 1 : 4) = 10$	$S(5, 4) = 10$	219	2190	
	221	$\lambda(5 : 2 : 3) = 15$	$S(5, 3) = 25$	19	285	
	311	$\lambda(5 : 3 : 3) = 10$		19	190	
	32	$\lambda(5 : 4 : 2) = 10$	$S(5, 2) = 15$	3	30	
	41	$\lambda(5 : 6 : 2) = 5$		3	15	
	5	$\lambda(5 : 10 : 1) = 1$	$S(5, 1) = 1$	1	1	

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