# New results regarding the lattice of uniform topologies on $C(X)$ 

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## Abstract

For a Tychonoff space $X$, the lattice $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ was introduced in L.A. PérezMorales, G. Delgadillo-Piñón, and R. Pichardo-Mendoza, The lattice of uniform topologies on $C(X)$, Questions and Answers in General Topology 39 (2021), 65-71.
In the present paper we continue the study of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. To be specific, the present paper deals, in its first half, with structural and categorical properties of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$, while in its second part focuses on cardinal characteristics of the lattice and how these relate to some cardinal functions of the space $X$.

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## 1. Introduction

In [9] the authors define, given a completely regular Hausdorff space $X$, a partially ordered set ( $\mathcal{U}_{X}, \subseteq$ ) (see Section 2 for details and the corresponding definitions) which turns out to be a bounded lattice (the lattice of uniform topologies on $C(X)$ ). Here we expand some of the results obtained in that paper and explore new directions. For example, Section 3 is mainly about finding connections between order-isomorphisms and homeomorphisms, while
the last two sections deal heavily on finding relations between some cardinal characteristics of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ and highly common cardinal functions of $X$.

## 2. Preliminaries

All topological notions and all set-theoretic notions whose definition is not included here should be understood as in [1] and [7], respectively. With respect to lattices, we will follow [8] for notation and results. The same goes for Boolean algebras and [6].

The symbol $\omega$ denotes both, the set of all non-negative integers and the first infinite cardinal. Also, $\mathbb{R}$ is the real line endowed with the Euclidean topology.

Given a set $S,[S]^{<\omega}$ denotes the collection of all finite subsets of $S$. For a set $A$, the symbol ${ }^{A} S$ is used to represent the collection of all functions from $A$ to $S$. In particular, for $f \in{ }^{A} S, E \subseteq A$, and $H \subseteq S$ we define $f[E]:=\{f(x): x \in E\}$ and $f^{-1}[H]:=\{x \in A: f(x) \in H\}$. Moreover, if $y \in S, f^{-1}\{y\}:=f^{-1}[\{y\}]$.

A nonempty family of sets, $\alpha$, is called directed if for any $A, B \in \alpha$ there is $E \in \alpha$ with $A \cup B \subseteq E$. For example, $[S]^{<\omega}$ is directed, for any set $S$.

Assume $X$ is a set. Hence, $\mathcal{P}(X)$ and $\mathcal{D}_{X}$ represent its power set and the collection of all directed subsets of $\mathcal{P}(X)$, respectively. In [10] the term base for an ideal on $X$ was used to refer to members of $\mathcal{D}_{X}$.

Unless otherwise stated, the word space means Hausdorff completely regular space (i.e., Tychonoff space).

Assume $X$ is a space. Then, $\tau_{X}$ and $\tau_{X}^{*}$ stand, respectively, for the families of all open and closed subsets of $X$. Moreover, whenever $x \in X, \tau_{X}(x)$ will be the set $\left\{U \in \tau_{X}: x \in U\right\}$. Now, given $A \subseteq X$, the symbol $\operatorname{cl}_{X} A$ (or $\bar{A}$ when the space $X$ is clear from the context) represents the closure of $A$ in $X$; similarly, $\operatorname{int}_{X} A$ and $\operatorname{int} A$ will be used to denote the interior of $A$ in $X$.
$C(X)$ is, as usual, the subset of ${ }^{X} \mathbb{R}$ consisting of all continuous functions. Now, given $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ we generate a topology on $C(X)$ as follows: a set $U \subseteq C(X)$ is open if and only if for each $f \in U$ there are $A \in \alpha$ and a real number $\varepsilon>0$ with

$$
V(f, A, \varepsilon):=\{g \in C(X): \forall x \in A(|f(x)-g(x)|<\varepsilon)\} \subseteq U
$$

The resulting topological space is denoted by $C_{\alpha}(X)$. As it is explained in [10], $C_{\alpha}(X)$ is a uniformizable topological space which may not be Hausdorff. In fact, one has the following result (whose proof can be found in [10, Proposition 3.1, p. 559]).
Lemma 2.1. For any space $X$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}, C_{\alpha}(X)$ is Hausdorff if and only if $\alpha$ has dense union, i.e., $\overline{\bigcup \alpha}=X$.

Given a space $X$, set $\mathcal{U}_{X}:=\left\{\tau_{C_{\gamma}(X)}: \gamma \in \mathcal{D}_{X}\right\}$. In order to simplify our writing, for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ we identify the space $C_{\alpha}(X)$ with its topology. Thus, expressions of the form $C_{\alpha}(X) \in \mathcal{U}_{X}$ will be common in this paper. Also, in those occasions where the ground space is clear from the context, we will suppress it from our notation, i.e., we will use $C_{\alpha}$ instead of $C_{\alpha}(X)$. Finally, for any $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$, both, $C_{\alpha}(X) \leq C_{\beta}(X)$ and $C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\beta}$, are abbreviations of the relation $\tau_{C_{\alpha}(X)} \subseteq \tau_{C_{\beta}(X)}$.

It is shown in $[9$, Proposition 3.2, p. 67$]$ that the poset $\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}, \subseteq\right)$ is a bounded distributive lattice; to be precise, given $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$, the collections
$\alpha \vee \beta:=\{A \cup B: A \in \alpha, B \in \beta\} \quad$ and $\quad \alpha \wedge \beta:=\{\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}: A \in \alpha, B \in \beta\}$
are directed and, moreover, $C_{\alpha \vee \beta}$ and $C_{\alpha \wedge \beta}$ are, respectively, the supremum and infimum of $\left\{C_{\alpha}, C_{\beta}\right\}$ in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$.

The topologies generated on $C(X)$ by the directed sets $\{\varnothing\},[X]^{<\omega}$, and $\{X\}$ are denoted by $C_{\varnothing}(X), C_{p}(X)$, and $C_{u}(X)$, respectively. Let us note that $C_{\varnothing}$ is the indiscrete topology on $C(X)$, while $C_{p}$ and $C_{u}$ are the topologies of pointwise and uniform convergence on $C(X)$, respectively.

The result below (see [10, Theorem 3.4, p. 560] for a proof) will be used several times in what follows.
Proposition 2.2. If $X$ is a space and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$, then $C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\beta}$ if and only if for each $A \in \alpha$ there is $B \in \beta$ with $A \subseteq \bar{B}$.

We finish this section by mentioning that our notation for topological cardinal functions follows [3]; in particular, all of them are, by definition, infinite.

## 3. Some structural and categorical results

We begin by improving the result presented in [9, Proposition 3.2, p. 67].
Proposition 3.1. For any space $X, \mathcal{U}_{X}$ is a complete lattice.
Proof. Given an arbitrary set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{X}$, define $\mathcal{A}:=\left\{C_{\delta}: \delta \in \mathcal{S}\right\}$.
By letting $\alpha$ be the family of all sets of the form $\bigcup \mathcal{E}$, where $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{S}$ is finite, we obtain $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$. Also, the fact that $\delta \subseteq \alpha$, whenever $\delta \in \mathcal{S}$, implies (see Proposition 2.2) that $C_{\alpha}$ is an upper bound for $\mathcal{A}$.

Now, assume that $\gamma \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ is such that $C_{\gamma}$ is an upper bound for $\mathcal{A}$. In order to show that $C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\gamma}$, fix $A \in \alpha$. There is a finite set $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{S}$ satisfying $A=\bigcup \mathcal{E}$. According to Proposition 2.2, for each $E \in \mathcal{E}$ there exists $E^{*} \in \gamma$ with $E \subseteq \overline{E^{*}}$. Since $\gamma$ is directed, $\bigcup\left\{E^{*}: E \in \mathcal{E}\right\} \subseteq G$ for some $G \in \gamma$ and, consequently, $A \subseteq \bar{G}$. In other words, $C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\gamma}$.

From the previous paragraphs we conclude that any subset of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ has a supremum in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. Now, regarding infima, let us observe that the infimum of $\varnothing$ in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ is $C_{u}$. Thus, we will suppose that $\mathcal{S}$ is non-empty.

Denote by $\mathcal{E}$ the set of all choice functions of $\mathcal{S}$, i.e., $e \in \mathcal{E}$ if and only if $e: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \bigcup \mathcal{S}$ and $e(\delta) \in \delta$, for all $\delta \in \mathcal{S}$. Now, for each $e \in \mathcal{E}$, set

$$
\widetilde{e}:=\bigcap\{\overline{e(\delta)}: \delta \in \mathcal{S}\} .
$$

We claim that if $\beta:=\{\widetilde{e}: e \in \mathcal{E}\}$, then $C_{\beta}$ is the infimum of $\mathcal{A}$.
To show that $\beta$ is directed, consider $d, e \in \mathcal{E}$. Since, for any $\delta \in \mathcal{S}, \delta$ is directed, we deduce that there is a set $f(\delta) \in \delta$ with $d(\delta) \cup e(\delta) \subseteq f(\delta)$. This produces $f$, a choice function of $\mathcal{S}$, in such a way that $\widetilde{d} \cup \widetilde{e} \subseteq \widetilde{f}$.

The fact that $C_{\beta}$ is a lower bound for $\mathcal{A}$ follows from the observation that for each $e \in \mathcal{E}$ and $\delta \in \mathcal{S}, \widetilde{e} \subseteq \overline{e(\delta)}$.

Finally, let $\gamma \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ be such that $C_{\gamma}$ is a lower bound for $\mathcal{A}$. Fix $G \in \gamma$. Then, for any $\delta \in \mathcal{S}$ there is $e(\delta) \in \delta$ with $G \subseteq \overline{e(\delta)}$. As a consequence, we obtain $e$, a choice function of $\mathcal{S}$, with $G \subseteq \widetilde{e}$.

As in [8], we will use the symbol $\Sigma(E)$ to the represent the collection of all topologies on a fixed set $E$. It is well-known that when we order $\Sigma(E)$ by direct inclusion, the resulting structure is a complete lattice. In particular, the supremum of $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \Sigma(E)$ is the topology on $E$ generated by $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ (i.e., it has the collection $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ as a subbase).

Clearly, $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ is a suborder of $\Sigma(C(X))$. Thus, a natural question is, given a family $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{X}$, is the supremum (respectively, infimum) of $\mathcal{A}$ as calculated in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ the same as the supremum (respectively, infimum) of $\mathcal{A}$ as obtained in $\Sigma(C(X))$ ? We have a positive answer for suprema.

Corollary 3.2. If $X$ is a space and $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{X}$, then $\bigvee \mathcal{A}$, the supremum of $\mathcal{A}$ in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$, is the topology on $C(X)$ which has $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ as a subbase.

Proof. Fix $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{X}$ in such a way that $\mathcal{A}=\left\{C_{\beta}: \beta \in \mathcal{S}\right\}$ and denote by $\sigma$ the topology on $C(X)$ generated by $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$. Since $\bigvee \mathcal{A}$ is an upper bound of $\mathcal{A}$ in $\Sigma(C(X))$, we obtain $\sigma \subseteq \bigvee \mathcal{A}$.

Now, let $f \in U \in \bigvee \mathcal{A}$ be arbitrary. According to the proof of Proposition 3.1, there are $\varepsilon>0$ and $\mathcal{E}$, a finite subset of $\bigcup \mathcal{S}$, with $V(f, A, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$, where $A:=\bigcup \mathcal{E}$. When $\mathcal{E}=\varnothing$, we deduce that $U=C(X) \in \sigma$. Hence, let us assume that $\mathcal{E} \neq \varnothing$.

For each $E \in \mathcal{E}$ let $\beta(E) \in \mathcal{S}$ be such that $E \in \beta(E)$. By setting $\mathcal{W}:=$ $\left\{\operatorname{int}_{C_{\beta(E)}} V(f, E, \varepsilon): E \in \mathcal{E}\right\}$ we produce a finite subset of $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ which satisfies $f \in \bigcap \mathcal{W} \subseteq V(f, A, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$. In conclusion, $\bigvee \mathcal{A} \subseteq \sigma$.

Recall that if $E$ is a set and $\sigma, \tau \in \Sigma(E)$, the infimum of $\{\sigma, \tau\}$ in $\Sigma(E)$ is $\sigma \cap \tau ;$ consequently, for any space $X$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}, C_{\alpha} \wedge C_{\beta} \subseteq C_{\alpha} \cap C_{\beta}$. Now, assume that $X$ is a non-empty space which is resolvable (i.e., it can be written as the union of two disjoint dense subsets of it). In [9, Proposition 4.5, p. 69], it is shown that there are two Hausdorff topologies $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{U}_{X}$ with $\sigma \wedge \tau=C_{\varnothing}$. Consequently, $\sigma \cap \tau$ is a $T_{1}$ topology, but $\sigma \wedge \tau$ fails to be $T_{0}$. Hence, the question posed in the paragraph preceding Corollary 3.2 has a negative answer for infima.

Problem 3.3. Given a space $X$, find conditions on $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ in order to obtain $C_{\alpha} \wedge C_{\beta}=C_{\alpha} \cap C_{\beta}$.

As in [9], the symbol $\mathcal{C}_{X}$ represents the collection of all members of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ which have a complement in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. Thus, from the fact that $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ is a bounded distributive lattice, we deduce that $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ is a Boolean algebra if and only if $\mathcal{U}_{X}=\mathcal{C}_{X}$. Our next result shows that this condition is attained only in trivial cases.

Proposition 3.4. For any space $X, \mathcal{U}_{X}$ is a Boolean algebra if and only if $X$ is finite.

Proof. Firstly observe that, in virtue of [9, Proposition 3.3, p. 68], we only need to show that $X$ is a finite space if and only if for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ there is $E \in \alpha$ with $\bar{E} \in \tau_{X}$ and $\bigcup \alpha \subseteq \bar{E}$. Now, evidently any finite $X$ satisfies the latter condition. For the converse let us assume that $X$ is infinite. Since $X$ is Hausdorff, there is $\left\{U_{n}: n<\omega\right\}$, a family of non-empty open subsets of $X$, with $U_{m} \cap U_{n}=\varnothing$, whenever $m<n<\omega$. By setting $\alpha:=\left\{\bigcup_{k=0}^{n} U_{k}: n<\omega\right\}$ we obtain a member of $\mathcal{D}_{X}$ in such a way that, for each $E \in \alpha$, there is $m<\omega$ with $U_{m} \cap E=\varnothing$ and thus, $\bigcup \alpha \nsubseteq \bar{E}$.

For our next results we will need some auxiliary concepts. First of all, assume that $f$ is function from the space $X$ into a space $Y$. One easily verifies that for any $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ the family

$$
f^{*} \alpha:=\{f[A]: A \in \alpha\}
$$

belongs to $\mathcal{D}_{Y}$ and so, we have the following notion (recall that for any space $Z$ and $\gamma \in \mathcal{D}_{Z}$ we are identifying the space $C_{\gamma}(Z)$ with its topology).

Definition 3.5. If $X, Y$, and $f$ are as in the previous paragraph, the phrase $\varphi$ is the $f$-induced relation means that

$$
\varphi=\left\{\left(C_{\alpha}(X), C_{f^{*} \alpha}(Y)\right): \alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}\right\} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{X} \times \mathcal{U}_{Y}
$$

With the notation used above, the domain of $\varphi, \operatorname{dom}(\varphi)$, is equal to $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ and its range, $\operatorname{ran}(\varphi)$, is a subset of $\mathcal{U}_{Y}$.

Proposition 3.6. If $X$ and $Y$ are spaces and $f: X \rightarrow Y$, then $f$ is continuous if and only if $\varphi$, the $f$-induced relation, is an order-preserving function.

Proof. Let us begin by assuming that $f$ is continuous and prove the statement below.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}\left(C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\beta} \rightarrow C_{f^{*} \alpha} \leq C_{f^{*} \beta}\right) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Given $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ with $C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\beta}$, fix $A \in f^{*} \alpha$. There is $B \in \alpha$ with $A=f[B]$ and so (see Proposition 2.2), for some $E \in \beta, B \subseteq \mathrm{cl}_{X} E$. Finally, $f$ 's continuity produces $A=f[B] \subseteq f\left[\mathrm{cl}_{X} E\right] \subseteq \operatorname{cl}_{Y} f[E]$ and, clearly, $f[E] \in f^{*} \beta$.

The final step for this implication is to note that the properties required for $\varphi$ are consequences of (3.1).

Suppose that $\varphi$ is an order-preserving function and fix $A \subseteq X$. According to Proposition 2.2, $C_{\mathrm{cl}_{X} A} \leq C_{A}$ and so,

$$
C_{f\left[\mathrm{cl}_{X} A\right]}=\varphi\left(C_{\mathrm{cl}_{X} A}\right) \leq \varphi\left(C_{A}\right)=C_{f[A]}
$$

i.e., $f\left[\mathrm{cl}_{X} A\right] \subseteq \operatorname{cl}_{Y} f[A]$.

For the rest of the paper, given a space $X$, a point $x \in X$, and a set $A \subseteq X$, we use the symbols $C_{x}(X)$ and $C_{A}(X)$ to represent the topological spaces $C_{\{\{x\}\}}(X)$ and $C_{\{A\}}(X)$, respectively. As expected, if the space $X$ is clear from the context, we only write $C_{x}$ and $C_{A}$; also, as we have done before, $C_{x}$ and $C_{A}$ are, as well, the topologies of the corresponding spaces.

A function $f$ from the space $X$ into the space $Y$ is called open onto its range if, for any $U \in \tau_{X}, f[U] \in \tau_{f[X]}$. Note that if $f$ is one-to-one, then $f$ is open
onto its range if and only if $f$ is closed onto its range (i.e., whenever $G$ is a closed subset of $X, f[G]$ is a closed subset of the subspace $f[X]$ ).

Proposition 3.7. Assume $X$ and $Y$ are spaces. For any $f: X \rightarrow Y$, the following are equivalent.
(1) $f$ is one-to-one and open onto its range.
(2) $\varphi^{-1}$, the inverse relation of the $f$-induced relation, is an order-preserving function.

Proof. Observe that for the implication (1) $\rightarrow(2)$, it suffices to prove that the statement

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}\left(C_{f^{*} \alpha} \leq C_{f^{*} \beta} \rightarrow C_{\alpha} \leq C_{\beta}\right) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

follows from (1). Thus, suppose (1) and fix $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ with $C_{f^{*} \alpha} \leq C_{f^{*} \beta}$. Given $A \in \alpha$, Proposition 2.2 guarantees the existence of $B \in \beta$ with $f[A] \subseteq \operatorname{cl}_{Y} f[B]$, i.e., $A \subseteq f^{-1}\left[\mathrm{cl}_{Y} f[B]\right]$. Thus, we only need to show that $f^{-1}\left[\mathrm{cl}_{Y} f[B]\right] \subseteq \mathrm{cl}_{X} B$. If $x \in f^{-1}\left[\mathrm{cl}_{Y} f[B]\right]$ and $U \in \tau_{X}(x)$ are arbitrary, then $f(x) \in f[X] \cap \mathrm{cl}_{Y} f[B]=$ $\operatorname{cl}_{f[X]} f[B]$ and $f[U] \in \tau_{f[X]}(f(x))$; consequently, $f[U] \cap f[B] \neq \varnothing$. Since $f$ is one-to-one, $f[U \cap B] \neq \varnothing$ and so, $U \cap B \neq \varnothing$, as required.

For the rest of the argument, assume (2). In order to verify that $f$ is one-to-one, let $x, y \in X$ be such that $f(x)=f(y)$. Hence, $C_{f(x)}=C_{f(y)}$ and, as a consequence, $C_{x}=\varphi^{-1}\left(C_{f(x)}\right)=\varphi^{-1}\left(C_{f(y)}\right)=C_{y}$. The use of Proposition 2.2 produces $x=y$.

Given that $f$ is one-to-one, we only need to argue that $f$ is closed onto its range. Suppose $G$ is a closed subset of $X$. By letting $E:=\mathrm{cl}_{Y} f[G]$ and $A:=f^{-1}[E]$, we deduce that $f[A]=E \cap f[X]=\mathrm{cl}_{f[X]} f[G]$. Therefore, $C_{f[A]} \leq C_{E} \leq C_{f[G]}$ and so, $C_{A}=\varphi^{-1}\left(C_{f[A]}\right) \leq \varphi^{-1}\left(C_{f[G]}\right)=C_{G}$. Hence, $A \subseteq \mathrm{cl}_{X} G=G$ and, consequently, $\mathrm{cl}_{f[X]} f[G]=f[A] \subseteq f[G]$, i.e., $f[G]$ is a closed subset of $f[X]$.

Proposition 3.8. If $X$ and $Y$ are spaces and $f: X \rightarrow Y$, then $f$ is onto if and only if $\operatorname{ran}(\varphi)=\mathcal{U}_{Y}$, where $\varphi$ is the $f$-induced relation.

Proof. When $f$ is onto and $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{Y}$, the collection $\beta:=\left\{f^{-1}[A]: A \in \alpha\right\}$ belongs to $\mathcal{D}_{X}$ and $f^{*} \beta=\alpha$. Thus, $\left(C_{\beta}, C_{\alpha}\right) \in \varphi$ and so, $C_{\alpha} \in \operatorname{ran}(\varphi)$.

For the remaining implication, fix $y \in Y$ and note that $C_{y} \in \mathcal{U}_{Y}=\operatorname{ran}(\varphi)$, i.e., for some $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X},\left(C_{\alpha}, C_{y}\right) \in \varphi$. Now, our definition of $\varphi$ produces $\beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ with $C_{\alpha}=C_{\beta}$ and $C_{y}=C_{f^{* \beta}}$. Since $C_{y} \leq C_{f^{*} \beta}$, there is $B \in \beta$ in such a way that $y \in \operatorname{cl}_{X} f[B]$ and so, $B \neq \varnothing$. From the relation $C_{f^{*} \beta} \leq C_{y}$ we obtain $f[B] \subseteq \operatorname{cl}_{Y}\{y\}=\{y\}$ and therefore, $\varnothing \neq B \subseteq f^{-1}\{y\}$.

Since any topological embedding is a continuous one-to-one function that is open onto its range, we obtain the following result.

Corollary 3.9. If $Y$ is a space which can be embedded into a space $X$, then there is an order-embedding from $\mathcal{U}_{Y}$ into $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. In particular, $\left|\mathcal{U}_{Y}\right| \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$.

Assume $X$ and $Y$ are spaces for which there is $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$, an (order) isomorphism. According to [9, Proposition 5.1, p. 70], for each $x \in X, C_{x}(X)$ is an atom of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ (i.e., a minimal element of $\mathcal{U}_{X} \backslash\left\{C_{\varnothing}\right\}$ ) and so, $\varphi\left(C_{x}(X)\right)$ happens to be an atom of $\mathcal{U}_{Y}$; consequently (see [9, Proposition 5.1, p. 70]), there exists a point $y \in Y$ with $\varphi\left(C_{x}(X)\right)=C_{y}(Y)$. Moreover, as one easily deduces from Proposition 2.2, $y$ is the only member of $Y$ with this property.

Definition 3.10. Let $X$ and $Y$ be a pair of spaces. If $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$ is an isomorphism, we will say that $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is the $\varphi$-induced function if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { for each } x \in X, \varphi\left(C_{x}(X)\right)=C_{f(x)}(Y) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that if $f$ is a homeomorphism from a space $X$ onto a space $Y$ and $\varphi$ is the $f$-induced relation, the previous results imply that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism. Now, when $g$ is the $\varphi$-induced function, we obtain that, for each $x \in X$,

$$
\varphi\left(C_{x}\right)=C_{f^{*}\{\{x\}\}}=C_{f(x)} \quad \text { and } \quad \varphi\left(C_{x}\right)=C_{g(x)}
$$

i.e., $f(x)=g(x)$. In conclusion, $f=g$. Hence, the following is a natural question.

Problem 3.11. Assume $X$ and $Y$ are spaces for which there is an isomorphism $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$. If $f$ is the $\varphi$-induced function and $\psi$ is the $f$-induced relation, do we get $\varphi=\psi$ ?

With the idea in mind of giving a positive answer to this question for a class of spaces (zero-dimensional spaces), we will present some auxiliary results.

Lemma 3.12. Assume $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$ is an isomorphism, where $X$ and $Y$ are spaces. If $f$ is the $\varphi$-induced function, then the following statements hold.
(1) $f$ is a bijection and $f^{-1}$ is the $\varphi^{-1}$-induced function.
(2) If $A \subseteq X$ and $\beta \in \mathcal{D}_{Y}$ satisfy $\varphi\left(C_{A}(X)\right)=C_{\beta}(Y)$, then $f\left[\mathrm{cl}_{X} A\right] \subseteq$ $\bigcup \bar{\beta}$.

Proof. For (1), let $g$ be the $\varphi^{-1}$-induced function. Given $x \in X$, the relation $\varphi\left(C_{x}\right)=C_{f(x)}$ implies that $C_{x}=\varphi^{-1}\left(C_{f(x)}\right)=C_{g(f(x))}$ and so, $g \circ f$ is the identity function on $X$. Similarly, $f \circ g$ is the identity function on $Y$.

Given $x \in \bar{A}$, Proposition 2.2 produces $C_{x} \leq C_{A}$ and so, $C_{f(x)}=\varphi\left(C_{x}\right) \leq$ $\varphi\left(C_{A}\right)=C_{\beta}$; hence, $f(x) \in \bigcup \bar{\beta}$.

Proposition 3.13. Let $X$ and $Y$ be spaces in such a way that there is an isomorphism $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$. Denote by $f$ the $\varphi$-induced function and consider the following statements.
(1) $\varphi$ is the $f$-induced relation.
(2) For any $A \subseteq X, \varphi\left(C_{A}(X)\right)=C_{f[A]}(Y)$.
(3) Whenever $G$ is a closed subset of $X, \varphi\left(C_{G}(X)\right)=C_{f[G]}(Y)$.

Then, (1) is equivalent to (2) and if $f$ is continuous, (2) and (3) are equivalent.

Proof. The implications $(1) \rightarrow(2)$ and $(2) \rightarrow(3)$ are immediate. On the other hand, it follows from the work done in the first paragraphs of the proof of Proposition 3.1 that, for any $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$,

$$
C_{\alpha}=\bigvee\left\{C_{A}: A \in \alpha\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad C_{f^{*} \alpha}=\bigvee\left\{C_{f[A]}: A \in \alpha\right\}
$$

therefore, by assuming (2) we obtain

$$
\varphi\left(C_{\alpha}\right)=\bigvee\left\{\varphi\left(C_{A}\right): A \in \alpha\right\}=\bigvee\left\{C_{f[A]}: A \in \alpha\right\}=C_{f^{*} \alpha}
$$

i.e., (1) holds.

Now suppose $f$ is continuous and (3) is true. In order to prove (2), fix $A \subseteq X$ and set $G:=\bar{A}$. According to Proposition $2.2, C_{A}=C_{G}$ and, consequently, $\varphi\left(C_{A}\right)=\varphi\left(C_{G}\right)=C_{f[G]}$. From the relation $f[A] \subseteq f[G]$ we deduce that $C_{f[A]} \leq C_{f[G]}$. The continuity of $f$ produces $f[G] \subseteq \overline{f[A]}$ and so, $C_{f[G]} \leq C_{f[A]}$. In conclusion, $\varphi\left(C_{A}\right)=C_{f[G]}=C_{f[A]}$, as needed.

Recall that for any space $Z, \mathrm{CO}(Z)$ is the collection of all subsets of $Z$ which are closed and open in $Z$. Consequently, $Z$ is zero-dimensional when $\mathrm{CO}(Z)$ is a base for $Z$.

Lemma 3.14. Assume $X$ and $Y$ are spaces for which there is $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$, an isomorphism. If $f$ is the $\varphi$-induced function, the following statements hold.
(1) For each $A \in \mathrm{CO}(X), f[A] \in \mathrm{CO}(Y)$ and $\varphi\left(C_{A}(X)\right)=C_{f[A]}(Y)$.
(2) If $Y$ is zero-dimensional, $f$ is continuous.

Proof. Given $A \in \mathrm{CO}(X)$, the proof of [9, Proposition 3.3, p. 68] shows that $C_{A}$ and $C_{X \backslash A}$ are complements of each other in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ and so, $\varphi\left(C_{A}\right)$ and $\varphi\left(C_{X \backslash A}\right)$ have the same relation in $\mathcal{U}_{Y}$. Then, according to [9, Proposition 5.3, p. 70], there exists $B \in \mathrm{CO}(Y)$ with $\varphi\left(C_{A}\right)=C_{B}$ and $\varphi\left(C_{X \backslash A}\right)=C_{Y \backslash B}$. From Lemma 3.12(2), $f[\bar{A}] \subseteq \bar{B}$ and $f[\overline{X \backslash A}] \subseteq \overline{Y \backslash B}$, i.e., $f[A] \subseteq B$ and $Y \backslash B \supseteq$ $f[X \backslash A]=Y \backslash f[A]$. Thus, $f[A]=B$.

For the second part, fix $B \in \mathrm{CO}(Y)$. According to Lemma 3.12(1), $f^{-1}$ is the $\varphi^{-1}$-induced function and so, we can apply part (1) of this lemma to $f^{-1}$ in order to get $f^{-1}[B] \in \tau_{X}$. Thus, the assumption that $\mathrm{CO}(Y)$ is a base for $Y$ gives $f$ 's continuity.

Lemma 3.15. Let $X$ and $Y$ be spaces, with $X$ zero-dimensional. If $\varphi$ is an isomorphism from $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ onto $\mathcal{U}_{Y}$ and $f$ is the $\varphi$-induced function, then $\varphi\left(C_{G}\right) \leq$ $C_{f[G]}$, whenever $G$ is a closed subset of $X$.
Proof. Given $G$, a closed subset of $X$, there are $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathrm{CO}(X)$ and $\beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ in such a way that $G=\bigcap \mathcal{A}$ and $\varphi\left(C_{G}\right)=C_{\beta}$. Let us argue that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { for all } A \in \mathcal{A} \text { and } B \in \beta, B \subseteq f[A] . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $B \in \beta$ are arbitrary. Since $G \subseteq A$, we deduce that $C_{G} \leq C_{A}$ and, consequently, the use of Lemma 3.14(1) gives

$$
C_{\beta}=\varphi\left(C_{G}\right) \leq \varphi\left(C_{A}\right)=C_{f[A]}
$$

in particular, $B \subseteq \overline{f[A]}$. To complete this part, invoke lemmas 3.12(1) and $3.14(2)$ in order to get the continuity of $f^{-1}$, i.e., the closedness of $f$.

From (3.4) and the fact that $f$ is one-to-one, we obtain that, for any $B \in \beta$,

$$
B \subseteq \bigcap\{f[A]: A \in \mathcal{A}\}=f[\bigcap \mathcal{A}]=f[G]
$$

In other words, $C_{\beta} \leq C_{f[G]}$, as claimed.
Proposition 3.16. Let $X, Y, \varphi, f$, and $\psi$ be as in Problem 3.11. If $X$ and $Y$ are zero-dimensional, then $\varphi=\psi$.
Proof. First of all, lemmas $3.14(2)$ and $3.12(1)$ guarantee that $f$ is a homeomorphism.

With the idea in mind of verifying condition (3) of Proposition 3.13, fix $G$, a closed subset of $X$. According to Lemma 3.15, $\varphi\left(C_{G}\right) \leq C_{f[G]}$. On the other hand, $f[G]$ is a closed subset of $Y$ and so, by applying Lemma 3.15 to $\varphi^{-1}$ and $f^{-1}$, we obtain $\varphi^{-1}\left(C_{f[G]}\right) \leq C_{f^{-1}[f[G]]}=C_{G}$, i.e., $C_{f[G]} \leq \varphi\left(C_{G}\right)$. Thus, $\varphi\left(C_{G}\right)=C_{f[G]}$.

We conclude that $\varphi$ is the $f$-induced relation or, in other words, $\varphi=\psi$.
Corollary 3.17. Let $X$ and $Y$ be a pair of zero-dimensional spaces. For any function $\varphi: \mathcal{U}_{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{Y}$, the following statements are equivalent.
(1) $\varphi$ is an isomorphism.
(2) For some homeomorphism $f: X \rightarrow Y, \varphi$ is the $f$-induced relation.

Problem 3.18. Is the assumption of zero-dimensionality necessary in Corollary 3.17? To be more precise, are there non-homeomorphic spaces $X$ and $Y$ for which the lattices $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ and $\mathcal{U}_{Y}$ are isomorphic?

## 4. Some cardinal characteristics

Definition 4.1. For a space $X$, set $\mathcal{U}_{X}^{+}:=\mathcal{U}_{X} \backslash\left\{C_{\varnothing}\right\}$. Also, given a family $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{X}^{+}$, we say that
(1) $\mathcal{S}$ is an antichain in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ if for any $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{S}$, the condition $\sigma \neq \tau$ implies that $\sigma \wedge \tau=C_{\varnothing}$;
(2) $\mathcal{S}$ is dense in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ if for each $\sigma \in \mathcal{U}_{X}^{+}$there is $\tau \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\tau \leq \sigma$.

For a space $X$, the cellularity of $\mathcal{U}_{X}, c\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right)$, is the supremum of all cardinals of the form $|\mathcal{W}|$, where $\mathcal{W}$ is an antichain in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. The density of $\mathcal{U}_{X}, \pi\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right)$, is the minimum size of a dense subset of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$.
Proposition 4.2. If $X$ is a space, then $c\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right)=\pi\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right)=|X|$.
Proof. As one easily verifies, $\mathcal{A}:=\left\{C_{x}: x \in X\right\}$ is an antichain in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. Thus, $|X| \leq c\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right)$. On the other hand, if $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ satisfies $C_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{U}_{X}^{+}$, then $C_{\alpha} \not \leq C_{\varnothing}$, i.e., there are $A \in \alpha$ and $z \in A$. Therefore, $C_{z} \leq C_{\alpha}$ and, consequently, $\mathcal{A}$ is a dense subset of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. Hence, $\pi\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right) \leq|X|$.

In order to prove that $c\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right) \leq \pi\left(\mathcal{U}_{X}\right)$, let us fix $\mathcal{W}$, an antichain in $\mathcal{U}_{X}$, and $\mathcal{S}$, a dense subset of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$. Then, there is $e: \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ such that $e(\tau) \leq \tau$, whenever $\tau \in \mathcal{W}$. Given $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{W}$ with $\sigma \neq \tau$, one gets $e(\sigma) \wedge e(\tau) \leq \sigma \wedge \tau=C_{\varnothing}$
and so, $e(\sigma) \neq e(\tau)$; in other words, $e$ is one-to-one and, as a consequence, $|\mathcal{W}| \leq|\mathcal{S}|$.

Now we turn our attention to $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$ and $\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right|$, for an arbitrary space $X$. With this in mind, given a cardinal $\kappa$, let us recursively define $\beth_{0}(\kappa):=\kappa$ and, for each integer $n, \beth_{n+1}(\kappa):=2^{\beth_{n}(\kappa)}$.
Proposition 4.3. The following statements hold for any finite space $X$.
(1) When $|X|=1,|\Sigma(X)|<2^{|X|}<\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right|=\beth_{2}(|X|)$.
(2) If $X$ has at least two points, then $2^{|X|} \leq|\Sigma(X)|<\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right|<\beth_{2}(|X|)$.
(3) $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{|X|}$.

Proof. If $X$ has exactly one element, then

$$
\Sigma(X)=\{\{\varnothing, X\}\} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathcal{D}_{X}=\{\varnothing,\{\varnothing\},\{X\},\{\varnothing, X\}\} .
$$

With respect to (2), since the function $\eta: \mathcal{P}(X) \backslash\{\varnothing\} \rightarrow \Sigma(X)$ given by $\eta(A):=\{\varnothing, A, X\}$ is one-to-one, we deduce that $2^{|X|}-1=|\operatorname{ran}(\eta)| \leq|\Sigma(X)|$. Let us fix $p, q \in X$ with $p \neq q$. From the fact that $\{\varnothing,\{p\},\{q\},\{p, q\}, X\}$ is a member of $\Sigma(X) \backslash \operatorname{ran}(\eta)$, it follows that $2^{|X|} \leq|\Sigma(X)|$.

The relations $\Sigma(X) \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{X}$ and $\{X\} \in \mathcal{D}_{X} \backslash \Sigma(X)$ clearly imply that $|\Sigma(X)|<$ $\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right|$. Lastly, the inequality $\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right|<\beth_{2}(|X|)$ follows from the facts $\mathcal{D}_{X} \subseteq$ $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X))$ and $C_{p} \vee C_{q} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X)) \backslash \mathcal{D}_{X}$.

In order to prove (3), start by noticing that from $|X|<\omega$ one gets $C_{p}=C_{u}$. Thus, [9, Proposition 5.2 , p. 70] implies that $\mathcal{P}(X)$, ordered by direct inclusion, and the closed interval $\left[C_{\varnothing}, C_{u}\right]$, equipped with the order it inherits from $\mathcal{U}_{X}$, are order-isomorphic. Finally, (1) in [9, Proposition 3.2, p. 67] guarantees that $\mathcal{U}_{X}=\left[C_{\varnothing}, C_{u}\right]$.

Given a space $X$, let us denote by $\mathrm{RO}(X)$ the collection of all regular open subsets of $X$. According to [6, Theorem 1.37, p. 26], when we order $\mathrm{RO}(X)$ by direct inclusion, the resulting structure is a complete Boolean algebra.

Proposition 4.4. The following relations hold for any infinite topological space $X$.
(1) $\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right|=\beth_{2}(|X|)$.
(2) $\max \left\{2^{|X|}, 2^{|\operatorname{RO}(X)|}\right\} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq 2^{o(X)}$, where $o(X):=\left|\tau_{X}\right|$.

Proof. The inequality $\left|\mathcal{D}_{X}\right| \leq \beth_{2}(|X|)$ follows from the relation $\mathcal{D}_{X} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X))$. On the other hand, according to [5, Theorem 7.6, p. 75], there are $\beth_{2}(|X|)$ filters on the set $X$ and, naturally, each one of them is a member of $\mathcal{D}_{X}$. This proves (1).

With respect to (2), recall that $\tau_{X}^{*}$ is the collection of all closed subsets of $X$. Clearly, $\left|\tau_{X}^{*}\right|=o(X)$. An immediate consequence of Proposition 2.2 is that for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{X}$ the family $\bar{\alpha}:=\{\bar{A}: A \in \alpha\}$ is a directed set and $C_{\alpha}=C_{\bar{\alpha}}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ is equal to $\left\{C_{\beta}: \beta \in \mathcal{D}_{X} \wedge \beta \subseteq \tau_{X}^{*}\right\}$, which, in turn, implies that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq\left|\mathcal{P}\left(\tau_{X}^{*}\right)\right|=2^{o(X)}$.

Now, [9, Proposition 5.2, p. 70] guarantees the existence of a one-to-one map from $\mathcal{P}(X)$ into $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ and so, $2^{|X|} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$.

For the remaining inequality we need some notation. First, given a finite function $p \subseteq \mathrm{RO}(X) \times 2$, set

$$
p^{\sim}:=p^{-1}\{0\} \cup\left\{-x: x \in p^{-1}\{1\}\right\},
$$

where $-x$ is the Boolean complement of $x \in \mathrm{RO}(X)$. Hence, a set $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathrm{RO}(X)$ is called independent if for any finite function $p \subseteq \mathcal{A} \times 2$ one has $\bigwedge p^{\sim} \neq \varnothing$.

The fact that $X$ is an infinite Tychonoff space implies that $\mathrm{RO}(X)$ is infinite as well and so, by Balcar-Franěk's Theorem (see [6, Theorem 13.6, p. 196]), there is an independent set $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathrm{RO}(X)$ with $|\mathcal{A}|=|\mathrm{RO}(X)|$.

Let us argue that, for each $d: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow 2$, the collection

$$
\alpha(d):=\left\{\bigvee p^{\sim}: p \in[d]^{<\omega}\right\}
$$

is a member of $\mathcal{D}_{X}$. Indeed, if $p, q \in[d]^{<\omega}$, then $r:=p \cup q$ is a finite subset of $d$ with $\bigvee r^{\sim}=\left(\bigvee p^{\sim}\right) \vee \bigvee q^{\sim}$ and since $\operatorname{RO}(X)$ is ordered by direct inclusion, we conclude that $\bigvee r^{\sim}$ is an element of $\alpha(d)$ which is a superset of $\bigvee p^{\sim}$ and $\bigvee q^{\sim}$.
Claim. If $d, e \in \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}} 2$ and $U \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfy $d(U)=0$ and $e(U)=1$, then, for any $V \in \alpha(e), U \nsubseteq V$.

Before we present the proof of our Claim, let's assume it holds and fix $d, e \in \mathcal{A}_{2}$ with $d \neq e$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that, for some $U \in \mathcal{A}, d(U)=0$ and $e(U)=1$. Thus, $U \in \alpha(d)$ and if $V$ were a member of $\alpha(e)$ with $U \subseteq \bar{V}$, we would get $U=\operatorname{int} U \subseteq \operatorname{int} \bar{V}=V$, a contradiction to the Claim. As a consequence of this argument, we obtain that the function from $\mathcal{A}_{2}$ into $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ given by $d \mapsto C_{\alpha(d)}$ is one-to-one and so, $2^{|\operatorname{RO}(X)|}=2^{|\mathcal{A}|} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$.

Suppose $d, e$, and $U$ are as in the Claim. Seeking a contradiction, let us assume that $U \subseteq \bigvee p^{\sim}$, for some $p \in[e]^{<\omega}$. We affirm that if $q:=p \upharpoonright$ $(\operatorname{dom}(p) \backslash\{U\})$ (the restriction of the function $p$ to the given set), then

$$
\begin{equation*}
U \subseteq \bigvee q^{\sim} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, when $U \notin \operatorname{dom}(p), p=q$. On the other hand, if $U \in \operatorname{dom}(p)$, the relation $p \subseteq e$ gives $p(U)=1$ and so, $\bigvee p^{\sim}=(-U) \vee \bigvee q^{\sim}$ which, clearly, implies (4.1).

Let us define $r: \operatorname{dom}(q) \cup\{U\} \rightarrow 2$ by $r(V)=1-q(V)$, whenever $V \in$ $\operatorname{dom}(q)$, and $r(U)=0$. Obviously, $r \subseteq \mathcal{A} \times 2$ is a finite function and thus, the independence of $\mathcal{A}$ and the De Morgan's laws produce

$$
\varnothing \neq \bigwedge r^{\sim}=U \wedge\left(-\bigvee q^{\sim}\right)
$$

a contradiction to (4.1).
Let us recall that a $T_{6}$-space (equivalently, perfectly normal space) is a Hausdorff normal space in which all open sets are of type $F_{\sigma}$.
Corollary 4.5. If $X$ is a $T_{6}$-space, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.
Proof. We only need to mention that, according to [3, Theorem 10.5, p. 40], $|\mathrm{RO}(X)|=o(X)$.

Our next result is a direct consequence of corollaries 4.5 and 3.9 (recall that any infinite Tychonoff space contains a copy of the discrete space of size $\omega$ ).

Corollary 4.6. If $Y$ is an infinite discrete subspace of a space $X, \beth_{2}(|Y|) \leq$ $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$. In particular, when $X$ is infinite, $2^{\mathfrak{c}} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$.

Standard arguments show that if $X$ is an arbitrary space and $D$ is a dense subspace of it, then the function from $\operatorname{RO}(X)$ into $\mathcal{P}(D)$ given by $U \mapsto U \cap D$ is one-to-one. Therefore (recall that $d(X)$ is the density of $X$ ),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { for any space } X,|\mathrm{RO}(X)| \leq 2^{d(X)} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Regarding the accuracy of the bounds presented in Proposition 4.4(2), we have the result below.

Proposition 4.7. The following statements are true.
(1) If $X$ is the Moore-Niemytzki plane (see [1, Example 1.2.4, p. 21] ), then $|X|=|\mathrm{RO}(X)|=\mathfrak{c}$ and $o(X)=2^{\mathfrak{c}}$.
(2) When $X$ is the Stone-Čech compactification of the integers, $|\operatorname{RO}(X)|=$ $\mathfrak{c}$ and $|X|=o(X)=2^{\mathfrak{c}}$.
(3) If $X$ is the Arens-Fort space, [1, Example 1.6.19, p. 54], then $|X|=\omega$ and $|\mathrm{RO}(X)|=o(X)=\mathfrak{c}$.

Proof. Let us prove (1). Clearly, $|X|=\mathfrak{c}$. The equality $|\mathrm{RO}(X)|=\mathfrak{c}$ follows from the facts, (i) property (4.2) (recall that $X$ is separable) and (ii) the canonical base for $X$ consists of $\mathfrak{c}$ many regular open sets. Note that from (ii) we also deduce the relation $o(X) \leq 2^{\mathfrak{c}}$. Finally, since $X \backslash(\mathbb{R} \times\{0\})$ is an open subset of $X$ which is homeomorphic to an open subspace of the Euclidean plane, we conclude that $2^{\mathfrak{c}} \leq o(X)$.

Suppose $X$ is as in (2). From [1, Corollary 3.6.12, p. 175], $|X|=2^{\text {c }}$. On the other hand, the relation $|\mathrm{RO}(X)|=\mathfrak{c}$ is a consequence of (4.2) and the fact that, according to Theorem 3.6.13 and Corollary 3.6.12 of [1, p. 175], $X$ is a space of weight $\mathfrak{c}$ possessing a base of closed-and-open sets. This last statement also implies that $o(X) \leq 2^{\text {c }}$. Now, [1, Example 3.6.18, p. 175] guarantees that $X$ has a pairwise disjoint family consisting of $\mathfrak{c}$ many non-empty open sets and so, $2^{\mathfrak{c}} \leq o(X)$.

Finally, when $X$ is as in (3), one clearly gets $|X|=\omega$ and, therefore, $o(X) \leq$ $\mathfrak{c}$. On the other hand, by definition, $X$ has a base consisting of $\mathfrak{c}$ many closed-and-open sets; hence, $\mathfrak{c} \leq|\mathrm{RO}(X)| \leq o(X)$.

In the next section we focus on the problem of calculating $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$, for some spaces $X$.

## 5. The size of $\mathcal{U}_{X}$

Unless otherwise stated, all spaces considered from now on are infinite. Also, recall that [1] is our reference for topological cardinal functions.

In Corollary 4.5 we were able to calculate the precise value of $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$ in terms of the cardinal function $o(X)$, when $X$ belongs to the class of $T_{6}$-spaces. Here,
we present some other classes of topological spaces in which the cardinality of the lattice $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ can be determined in a similar fashion.
Proposition 5.1. Given a space $X$, if any of the following statements holds, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{\text {c }}$.
(1) $X$ is hereditarily Lindelöf and first countable.
(2) $X$ admits a countable network.
(3) $X$ is hereditarily separable and has countable pseudocharacter.

Proof. From Proposition 4.4 and Figure 1 we deduce that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq 2^{\text {c }}$. The reverse inequality is a consequence of Corollary 4.6.

In what follows, given a space $X$, we will employ the inequalities presented in Figure 1 together with Proposition $4.4(2)$ in order to get bounds for $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$.


Figure 1. In this diagram $X$ is an arbitrary space and the symbol $\kappa \rightarrow \lambda$ means that $\kappa \geq \lambda$. The upper right inequality can be found in [4, Theorem 7.1, p. 311] and the rest of them are basic (see [3]).

Now, regarding compact spaces we have the following results.
Lemma 5.2. For any compact space $X,\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq \beth_{2}(h L(X))$.
Proof. Given the hypotheses on $X$, we obtain $\chi(X)=\psi(X) \leq h L(X)$ and thus, the inequality needed follows from Figure 1 and Proposition 4.4.
Proposition 5.3. If $X$ is a compact space in which every open subset of it is an $F_{\sigma}$-set, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{\mathfrak{c}}$. In particular, every compact metrizable space satisfies the previous equality.
Proof. It is sufficient to notice that our assumptions on $X$ imply $h L(X)=\omega$. Thus, Corollary 4.6 and Lemma 5.2 give the desired result.

Given an infinite cardinal $\kappa$, let us denote by $D(\kappa)$ and $\beta D(\kappa)$ the discrete space of size $\kappa$ and its Stone-Čech compactification, respectively. The regularity of $\beta D(\kappa)$ implies that (see [3, Theorem 3.3, p. 11])

$$
w(\beta D(\kappa)) \leq 2^{d(\beta D(\kappa))}=2^{\kappa}
$$

Therefore, from Figure 1 and the compactness of $\beta D(\kappa)$ we deduce that

$$
\left|\mathcal{U}_{\beta D(\kappa)}\right| \leq \beth_{2}(n w(\beta D(\kappa)))=\beth_{2}(w(\beta D(\kappa))) \leq \beth_{3}(\kappa) .
$$

On the other hand, since $|\beta D(\kappa)|=\beth_{2}(\kappa)$, Proposition $4.4(2)$ gives

$$
\beth_{3}(\kappa)=2^{|\beta D(\kappa)|} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{\beta D(\kappa)}\right| .
$$

In conclusion, for any infinite cardinal $\kappa,\left|\mathcal{U}_{\beta D(\kappa)}\right|=\beth_{3}(\kappa)$.
Once again, let $\kappa \geq \omega$ be a cardinal. If $D(2)$ is the discrete space of size 2 , then $D(2)^{\kappa}$ is the Cantor cube of weight $\kappa$. Clearly (see Figure 1),

$$
\left|\mathcal{U}_{D(2)^{\kappa}}\right| \leq \beth_{2}\left(n w\left(D(2)^{\kappa}\right)\right)=\beth_{2}\left(w\left(D(2)^{\kappa}\right)\right)=\beth_{2}(\kappa) .
$$

Also, Proposition 4.4(2) produces

$$
\beth_{2}(\kappa)=2^{\left|D(2)^{\kappa}\right|} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{D(2)^{\kappa}}\right|
$$

Hence, for any infinite cardinal $\kappa,\left|\mathcal{U}_{D(2)^{\kappa}}\right|=\beth_{2}(\kappa)$.
Let $\mathbb{L}$ be the lexicographic square (i.e., $\mathbb{L}$ is the cartesian product $[0,1]^{2}$ endowed with the topology generated by the lexicographical ordering). By setting $Y:=[0,1] \times\left\{\frac{1}{2}\right\}$ one gets a discrete subspace of $\mathbb{L}$ and so, according to Corollaries 4.5 and $3.9, \beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c})=\left|\mathcal{U}_{Y}\right| \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{L}}\right|$. Finally, our definition of $\mathbb{L}$ gives $o(\mathbb{L}) \leq 2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ and, as a consequence, $\left|\mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{L}}\right| \leq \beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c})$. In other words, $\left|\mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{L}}\right|=\beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c})$.

The subspace $[0,1] \times\{0,1\}$ of $\mathbb{L}$ is called the double arrow space and we will denote it by $\mathbb{A}$. Since the subspace $(0,1) \times\{0\}$ of $\mathbb{A}$ is homeomorphic to Sorgenfrey's line, the space $\mathbb{A}^{2}$ contains a discrete subspace of size $\mathfrak{c}$. Therefore, as we did for $\mathbb{L},\left|\mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{A}^{2}}\right| \geq \beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c})$. For the reverse inequality note that $o\left(\mathbb{A}^{2}\right) \leq$ $o\left(\mathbb{L}^{2}\right) \leq 2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ and so, $\left|\mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{A}^{2}}\right|=\beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c})$.

A final note regarding $\mathbb{A}$ is pertinent. From (4.2) and the fact that $\mathbb{A}$ is separable, we deduce that $\left|\operatorname{RO}\left(\mathbb{A}^{2}\right)\right| \leq \mathfrak{c}$ and hence,

$$
\max \left\{2^{\left|\mathbb{A}^{2}\right|}, 2^{\left|\operatorname{RO}\left(\mathbb{A}^{2}\right)\right|}\right\}=2^{\mathfrak{c}}<\beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c})=\left|\mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{A}^{2}}\right|
$$

This shows that the lower bounds for $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$ presented in Proposition 4.4(2) need to be improved.
Proposition 5.4. If $X$ is hereditarily Lindelöf, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.
Proof. With Corollary 4.5 in mind, we only need to show that all open subsets of $X$ are $F_{\sigma}$. Let $U \in \tau_{X}$ be arbitrary. For each $x \in U$ there is $U_{x} \in \tau_{X}$ such that $x \in U_{x} \subseteq \overline{U_{x}} \subseteq U$. Since $U$ is Lindelöf, for some $F \in[U] \leq \omega$ we obtain $U=\bigcup\left\{\overline{U_{x}}: x \in F\right\}$.

We present now our findings regarding the following question.
Problem 5.5. Given a space $X$, what conditions on $X$ imply that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=$ $2^{o(X)}$ ?
Lemma 5.6. If $X$ is a space with $|X|^{h d(X)}=|X|$, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.
Proof. It follows from Figure 1 and our hypotheses that $o(X) \leq|X|$. On the other hand, the fact that $X$ is Tychonoff clearly implies the relation $|X| \leq o(X)$. Hence, the equality we need is a consequence of Proposition 4.4(2).
Proposition 5.7. If $X$ is a space for which there is a cardinal $\kappa$ with $|X|=2^{\kappa}$ and $\kappa \geq h d(X)$, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.

Proof. Our choice for $\kappa$ gives $|X|^{h d(X)}=|X|$ and so, the hypotheses of Lemma 5.6 are satisfied.

As usual, the acronym GCH stands for the Generalized Continuum Hypothesis and $\operatorname{cf}(\alpha)$ denotes the cofinality of an ordinal $\alpha$.
Proposition 5.8. Assuming GCH , if $X$ is a space satisfying $\operatorname{cf}(|X|)>h d(X)$, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.

Proof. According to [7, Lemma 10.42, p. 34], $|X|^{h d(X)}=|X|$ and therefore we only need to invoke Lemma 5.6.

Proposition 5.9. Given a space $X$, if $|X|$ is a singular strong limit cardinal, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.

Proof. The hypothesis allows us to use [2, Theorem 3, p. 22] to find a discrete set $D \subseteq X$ such that $|D|=|X|$. Hence, Proposition 4.4(2) and Corollary 4.6 imply that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.

Let us denote by A the statement "GCH holds and there are no inaccessible cardinals."

Corollary 5.10. Assume A holds. Then, for any space $X$ whose cardinality is a limit cardinal we obtain $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.

With the idea in mind of finding the effect that GCH has on $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$, let us recall that, for a cardinal number $\kappa, \kappa^{+}$represents the successor cardinal of $\kappa$.

Proposition 5.11. If GCH holds, then, for any space $X,\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$ is a regular uncountable cardinal.

Proof. On the one hand, Corollary 4.6 implies that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$ is uncountable. On the other hand, since $2^{|X|} \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq 2^{o(X)} \leq \beth_{2}(|X|)=\left(2^{|X|}\right)^{+}$, we deduce that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \in\left\{|X|^{+},\left(2^{|X|}\right)^{+}\right\}$. In either case, $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$ is regular.

Proposition 5.12. Under the assumptions $\mathfrak{c}=\omega_{1}$ and $2^{\mathfrak{c}}=\omega_{2}$, if $X$ is a hereditarily separable space, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$.
Proof. According to [3, Theorem 4.12, p. 21], the relation $h d(X)=\omega$ guarantees that $|X| \leq 2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ and consequently, $|X| \in\left\{\omega, \omega_{1}, \omega_{2}\right\}$.

When $|X| \in\left\{\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}\right\}$, Proposition 5.7 gives us the desired equality. Finally, if $|X|=\omega$, then $X$ admits a countable network and thus (see Proposition 5.1), $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{\mathfrak{c}}=2^{o(X)}$.

Suppose $X$ is a space. Since $\mathcal{U}_{X}$ is a subset of $\Sigma(C(X))$, we obtain $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq$ $|\Sigma(C(X))|$. With the idea in mind of showing two examples for which this inequality is strict, let us note first that the fact $|C(X)| \geq \omega$ implies, according to $\left[8\right.$, Theorem 1.4 , p. 179], that $|\Sigma(C(X))|=\beth_{2}(|C(X)|)$.

When $X$ is an infinite discrete space, we obtain $|C(X)|=2^{|X|}$ and so, by Proposition 4.4(2),

$$
\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq \beth_{2}(|X|)<\beth_{3}(|X|)=\beth_{2}(|C(X)|)
$$

On the other hand, if $X$ is any infinite countable space, then it follows from Proposition 5.1(2) that

$$
\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{\mathfrak{c}}<\beth_{2}(\mathfrak{c}) \leq \beth_{2}(|C(X)|)
$$

Our final result of this section establishes some conditions for a family of topological spaces under which the corresponding Tychonoff product $X$ satisfies the equality $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=|\Sigma(C(X))|$. For this proposition we won't require for our spaces to be infinite.
Proposition 5.13. Assume that $\kappa$ is an infinite cardinal. Let $X$ be the topological product of a family of spaces $\left\{X_{\xi}: \xi<2^{\kappa}\right\}$. If $\left|X_{\xi}\right| \geq 2$ and $d\left(X_{\xi}\right) \leq \kappa$ for each $\xi<\kappa$, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=|\Sigma(C(X))|$.
Proof. Since we always have the inequality $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \leq|\Sigma(C(X))|$, we only need to show that $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \geq \beth_{2}(|C(X)|)$.

According to Proposition $4.4(2),\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \geq 2^{|X|}$. Now, the fact that each $X_{\xi}$ has at least two points gives $|X| \geq \beth_{2}(\kappa)$ and so, $2^{|X|} \geq \beth_{3}(\kappa)$. On the other hand, the Hewitt-Marczewski-Pondiczery Theorem (see [1, Theorem 2.3.15, p. 81]) implies that $d(X) \leq \kappa$ and therefore, from the well-known relation $2^{d(X)} \geq|C(X)|$ we deduce that $2^{\kappa} \geq|C(X)|$. In conclusion, $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \geq \beth_{3}(\kappa) \geq$ $\beth_{2}(|C(X)|)$, as required.

For example, if $X$ is a Cantor cube of the form $D(2)^{2^{\kappa}}$, where $\kappa$ is an infinite cardinal, then $\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right| \geq \beth_{2}(|C(X)|)$.

We close the paper with a list of open questions.
Problem 5.14. Does Corollary 4.5 remain true if we replace $T_{6}$ with $T_{5}$ in the hypotheses?

Problem 5.15. Regarding Proposition 5.4, is it true that for any compact space $X,\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)}$ ?

Problem 5.16. Can we drop the set-theoretic assumptions $\mathfrak{c}=\omega_{1}$ and $2^{\mathfrak{c}}=\omega_{2}$ in Proposition 5.12?

We conjecture that, under $A$, the equality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|=2^{o(X)} \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for any space $X$. Even though we did not prove or refute this conjecture, we were able to obtain some partial results (for example, if one assumes A, then (i) for any space $X, \beth_{2}(s(X)) \leq\left|\mathcal{U}_{X}\right|$, and (ii) we possess a short list of classes $\mathcal{S}$ in such a way that $X \in \mathcal{S}$ implies that (5.1) holds). Consequently, we pose the following problem.
Problem 5.17. Does it follow from $A$ that (5.1) is true for any space $X$ ?

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