# On the number of topologies on a finite set 

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Abstract. We denote the number of distinct topologies which can be defined on a set $X$ with $n$ elements by $T(n)$. Similarly, $T_{0}(n)$ denotes the number of distinct $T_{0}$ topologies on the set $X$. In the present paper, we prove that for any prime $p, T\left(p^{k}\right) \equiv k+$ $1(\bmod p)$, and that for each natural number $n$ there exists a unique $k$ such that $T(p+n) \equiv k(\bmod p)$. We calculate $k$ for $n=0,1,2,3,4$. We give an alternative proof for a result of Z. I. Borevich to the effect that $T_{0}(p+n) \equiv T_{0}(n+1)(\bmod p)$.

## 1. Introduction

Given a finite set $X$ with $n$ elements, let $\mathfrak{T}(X)$ and $\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)$ be the family of all topologies on $X$ and the family of all $T_{0}$ topologies on $X$, respectively. We denote the cardinality of $\mathfrak{T}(X)$ by $T(n)$ and the cardinality of $\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)$ by $T_{0}(n)$. There is no simple formula giving $T(n)$ and $T_{0}(n)$.

Calculation of these sequences by hand becomes very hard for $n \geqslant 4$. The online encyclopedia of N. J. A. Sloane [1] gives the values of $T(n)$ and $T_{0}(n)$ for $n \leqslant 18$. For a more detailed discussion of results in the literature, we refer to the article by Borevich [4].

In the present paper, we prove that for any prime $p, T\left(p^{k}\right) \equiv k+$ $1(\bmod p)$, and that for each natural number $n$ there exists a unique $k$ such that $T(p+n) \equiv k(\bmod p)$. We calculate $k$ for $n=0,1,2,3,4$. We give an alternative proof for a result of Z. I. Borevich [5] to the effect that $T_{0}(p+n) \equiv T_{0}(n+1)(\bmod p)$. Our results depend on basic properties of group action, which is the first time used in this problem as far as the author is aware.

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## 2. Main results

Let $G$ be a group acting on the finite set $X$. Then the action of $G$ on $X$ can be extended to the action of $G$ on $\mathfrak{T}(X)$ by setting $g \tau=$ $\{g U \mid U \in \tau\}$ where $\tau \in \mathfrak{T}(X)$ and $g U=\{g u \mid u \in U\}$. Now set $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))=\{\tau \in \mathfrak{T}(X) \mid g \tau=\tau$ for all $g \in G\}$. Notice that if $G$ is a $p$-group, $|\mathfrak{T}(X)| \equiv|\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))|(\bmod p)$ as every non-fixed element of $\mathfrak{T}(X)$ has orbit of length a positive power of $p$. For a given topology $\tau \in \mathfrak{T}(X)$ and $x \in X$, we denote the intersection of all open sets of $\tau$ including $x$ by $O_{x}$. Note that $O_{x} \in \tau$ as we are in the finite case.

Definition 1. A base $\mathfrak{B}$ of a topology $\tau$ is called a minimal base if any base of the topology contains $\mathfrak{B}$.

Example. Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$ be a set and let $\tau$ be a topology on $X$ with $\tau=\{\varnothing,\{a\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\},\{a, b, c\}\}$. Now if $\mathfrak{B}$ is an arbitrary base for $\tau$ then we have $U=\bigcup_{x \in U} B_{x}$ where $U \in \tau$ and $B_{x} \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \in B_{x} \subseteq U$. Thus, we observe that $\mathfrak{B}^{\prime}=\{\{a\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\}\} \subseteq \mathfrak{B}$. Moreover, $\mathfrak{B}^{\prime}$ is also a base for $\tau$ which implies that $\mathfrak{B}^{\prime}$ is a minimal base for $\tau$.

Proposition 1. Let $\tau \in \mathfrak{T}(X)$ and $M_{\tau}$ be the set of all distinct $O_{x}$ for $x \in X$. A base $\mathfrak{B}$ of $\tau$ is a minimal base if and only if $\mathfrak{B}=M_{\tau}$.

By the proposition, we extend the definition: a base $\mathfrak{B}$ on $X$ is minimal if $\mathfrak{B}=M_{\tau}$ where $\tau$ is the topology generated by $\mathfrak{B}$.

Lemma 1. $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ if and only if $M_{\tau}$ is $G$-invariant.
Proof. Let $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ and $O_{x} \in M_{\tau}$. We need to show that $g O_{x} \in M_{\tau}$. Let $g x=y$ for $g \in G$. As $g \tau=\tau, g O_{x} \in \tau$. Thus, $g O_{x}$ is an open set containing the element $g x=y$. Hence, $O_{y} \subseteq g O_{x}$. Since $g^{-1} y=x$, we can show that $O_{x} \subseteq g^{-1} O_{y}$ which forces $g O_{x}=O_{y}$. So, $g O_{x} \in$ $M_{\tau} \forall g \in G$. Now assume that $M_{\tau}$ is $G$-invariant. For each $U \in \tau$, we have $U=\bigcup_{x \in U} O_{x}$. Then $g U \in \tau$ as $g O_{x} \in M_{\tau}$ for all $g \in G$, and hence $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$.

Theorem 1. Let $p$ be a prime and let $k$ be a natural number. Then $T\left(p^{k}\right) \equiv k+1(\bmod p)$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, let $X$ be the cyclic group of order $p^{k}$, that is, $X=C_{p^{k}}$. Clearly $X$ acts on $X$ by left multiplication. By extending
this action, $X$ acts on $\mathfrak{T}(X)$. Notice that $|\mathfrak{T}(X)| \equiv|\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))|(\bmod p)$ as $X$ is a $p$-group. It is left to show that $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ has $k+1$ elements.

Let $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ and let $O_{x}, O_{y} \in M_{\tau}$ for $x, y \in X$. Then $\left(y x^{-1}\right) O_{x}$ is an open set including $y$. Hence, $O_{y} \subseteq\left(y x^{-1}\right) O_{x}$ which means $\left|O_{y}\right| \leqslant\left|O_{x}\right|$. The other inclusion can be done similarly so $\left|O_{x}\right|=\left|O_{y}\right|$ for all $x, y \in X$. Now if $m \in O_{x} \cap O_{y}$, then $O_{m} \subseteq O_{x} \cap O_{y}$. As their orders are equal, we must have $O_{x}=O_{y}$ or $O_{x} \cap O_{y}=\varnothing$. Thus, $X$ is a disjoint union of elements of $M_{\tau}$, that is, $X=\biguplus_{O_{x} \in M_{\tau}} O_{x}$. It follows that $|X|=\left|M_{\tau}\right|\left|O_{x}\right|$ for any $x \in X$.

Note that $X$ also acts on $M_{\tau}$ by Lemma 1 . Let $e$ be the identity element of $X$ and $\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right)$ be the stabilizer of $O_{e}$ in the action of $X$ on $M_{\tau}$. Then we obtain that $\left|X: \operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right)\right|=\left|M_{\tau}\right|$ as the action is transitive. It follows that $\left|\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right)\right|=\left|O_{e}\right|$ as $|X|=\left|M_{\tau}\right|\left|O_{e}\right|$ also holds. Since our action is induced from left multiplication in the group $X$, the product $\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right) O_{e}$ is exactly set multiplication in the group $X$. Then we obtain that $O_{e}=\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right) O_{e} \supseteq \operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right) e=\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right)$. But the equality $\left|O_{e}\right|=\left|\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right)\right|$ forces that $O_{e}=\operatorname{Stab}\left(O_{e}\right)$.

Hence, the set $M_{\tau}$ is the set of left cosets of a subgroup of $X$. Since the chosen topology $\tau$ from $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ uniquely determines $M_{\tau}$ and $M_{\tau}$ uniquely determines a subgroup $O_{e}$ of $X$, we have an injection from $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ to the set of all subgroups of $X$. Conversely, for a subgroup $H$ of $X$, the set of left cosets of $H$ forms an $X$-invariant minimal base for a topology. The topology $\tau$ generated by this base is an element of $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ by Lemma 1 . Hence, the cardinality of $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ is equal to the number of the subgroups of $X$, which is $k+1$.

By applying the same method in the above proof, we can also show that $T_{0}\left(p^{k}\right) \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. Actually, Z. I. Borevich proved a more general result about $T_{0}(n)$. Now we establish an alternative proof for the theorem of Z. I. Borevich.

Theorem $2(\mathrm{Z} . \mathrm{I} . \operatorname{Borevich})$. Let $p$ be a prime. If $k \equiv l(\bmod p-1)$, then $T_{0}(k) \equiv T_{0}(l)(\bmod p)$.

Proof. It is equivalent to show that $T_{0}(n+p) \equiv T_{0}(n+1)(\bmod p)$ for an integer $n \geqslant 0$. Let $C=C_{p}$ be the cyclic group of order $p$ and $N$ be a set with $n$ elements. Without loss of generality, let $X$ be the disjoint union of $C$ and $N$ so that the cardinality of $X$ is $p+n$. We define the action of $C$ on $X$ in the following way: for $c \in C$ and for $x \in X, c * x=c x$ if $x \in C$ and $c * x=x$ if $x \in N$. Then the action of $C$ on $X$ can be extended to
the action of $C$ on $\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{0}}(X)$. As $\left|\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{0}}(X)\right| \equiv\left|\operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{o}}(X)\right)\right|(\bmod p)$, it is left to show that $\left|\operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{0}}(X)\right)\right|=T_{0}(n+1)$.

Let $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)\right)$. Pick $x, y \in C$ and $a \in N$ where $x \neq y$. We know that $y x^{-1} O_{x}=O_{y}$. Then we can observe that $O_{x} \cap N=O_{y} \cap N$ as $N$ is fixed by $C$. Similarly, $O_{x} \cap C$ and $O_{y} \cap C$ are disjoint or equal. But we can not have $O_{x}=O_{y}$ as it is a $T_{0}$ topology. Hence, $\left(O_{x} \cap C\right) \cap\left(O_{y} \cap C\right)=\varnothing$. Then we obtain that $O_{x} \cap C=\{x\}$, and hence $O_{x}=\{x\} \cup S$ for a subset $S$ of $N$. On the other hand, $x\left(C \cap O_{a}\right)=C \cap O_{a}$, which forces that $C \cap O_{a}$ is either $C$ or $\varnothing$, and hence $O_{a}$ is either $C \cup T$ or $T$ for a subset $T$ of $N$. Set $Y=\{x\} \cup N$ then for each $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)\right)$, we have subspace topology $\tau_{Y}=\{U \cap Y \mid U \in \tau\}$ on $Y$. Note that $\tau_{Y}$ is a $T_{0}$ topology as it is the subspace topology on $Y$ induced from $\tau$.

Now our aim is to show that the mapping $\tau \mapsto \tau_{Y}$ is a bijection from $\operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)\right)$ to $T_{0}(Y)$. Let $\pi, \tau \in \operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)\right)$ such that $\tau_{Y}=\pi_{Y}$. Then we have $O_{t} \cap Y=O_{t}^{\prime} \cap Y$ for all $t \in Y$ where $O_{t} \in M_{\tau}$ and $O_{t}^{\prime} \in M_{\pi}$. Note that $O_{x} \subseteq Y$ by the properties deduced in previous paragraph, and hence we obtain $O_{x}=O_{x}^{\prime}$. We also have the equality $O_{a} \cap Y=O_{a}^{\prime} \cap Y$ for $a \in N$, which forces that $O_{a} \cap C=O_{a}^{\prime} \cap C$ is either $C$ or $\varnothing$ by previous paragraph. Since $O_{a} \cap N=O_{a}^{\prime} \cap N$, we get $O_{a}=O_{a}^{\prime}$ for $a \in N$. Then it follows that $O_{t}=O_{t}^{\prime}$ for all $t \in Y$. Since $O_{z}=z x^{-1} O_{x}$ for $z \in C$, we obtain that $O_{t}=O_{t}^{\prime}$ for all $t \in X$, which implies the equality $\tau=\pi$. Thus, our map is one to one.

Now, let $\pi \in \mathfrak{T}_{0}(Y)$ and let $M_{\pi}$ be the minimal base of $\pi$. Set

$$
O_{t}= \begin{cases}t x^{-1} O_{x}^{\prime} & \text { if } t \in C \\ O_{t}^{\prime} & \text { if } t \in N \text { and } x \notin O_{t}^{\prime} \\ C \cup O_{t}^{\prime} & \text { if } t \in N \text { and } x \in O_{t}^{\prime}\end{cases}
$$

for each $O_{t}^{\prime} \in M_{\pi}$. We need to show that $\mathfrak{B}=\left\{O_{t} \mid t \in X\right\}$ is a minimal base and the topology $\tau$ generated by $\mathfrak{B}$ is a $T_{0}$ topology. To show that it is a minimal base, we need to show that if $a \in O_{t}$ then $O_{a} \subseteq O_{t}$ for any $a, t \in X$. In fact, we will observe that $O_{a} \subset O_{t}$ which shows that $\tau$ is a $T_{0}$ topology. It can be done case by case but here we present only nontrivial cases. Fix $a \in N$ and let $a \in O_{x}$. Note that $a \in O_{x}^{\prime}$ as $O_{x}^{\prime}=O_{x}$, and hence we obtain $O_{a}^{\prime} \subseteq O_{x}^{\prime}$. If $x \in O_{a}^{\prime}$ then we have $O_{a}^{\prime}=O_{x}^{\prime}$ which is not possible as $\pi$ is a $T_{0}$ topology. Thus, $x \notin O_{a}^{\prime}$ which implies $O_{a}=O_{a}^{\prime}$ by our setting. Then we obtain that $O_{a} \subset O_{x}$. Now assume that $x \in O_{a}$. Then we get that $x \in O_{a}^{\prime}$ otherwise $x \notin O_{a}$ by our setting. Thus, we obtain $O_{x}^{\prime} \subset O_{a}^{\prime}$ in a similar way. It follows that $O_{x} \subset O_{a}$ as $O_{x}=O_{x}^{\prime}$. As a result $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{0}}(X)\right)$ as $\mathfrak{B}$ is a $C$-invariant minimal base. Moreover,
the equality $\tau_{Y}=\pi$ holds, which concludes that the mapping $\tau \mapsto \tau_{Y}$ from $\operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{0}}(X)\right)$ to $\mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{0}}(Y)$ is a bijection, which completes the proof.

Corollary 1. $T_{0}\left(p^{k}\right) \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ where $k$ is a natural number and $p$ is a prime number.

The proof of next theorem is similar to the proof of Theorem 2 in the sense that both use the same technique. For clarity, we repeat some arguments.

Theorem 3. For each natural number $n$, there exists a unique integer $k$ such that $T(p+n) \equiv k(\bmod p)$ for all primes $p$.

Proof. If $n=0, T(p) \equiv 2(\bmod p)$ by Theorem 1 . Now we can assume that $n>0$. Let $C=C_{p}$ be the cyclic group of order $p$ and $N$ be a set with $n$ elements. We define the action of $C$ on $X$ as in the proof the previous theorem. Then the action of $C$ on $X$ can be extended to the action of $C$ on $\mathfrak{T}(X)$. As $|\mathfrak{T}(X)| \equiv|\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))|(\bmod p)$, it is left to show that $|\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))|$ does not depend on the choice of prime $p$.

Due to Lemma 1, $|\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))|$ is equal to the number of $C$-invariant minimal bases on $X$. Let $x, y \in C$. Notice that $O_{x}$ completely determines $O_{y}$ as $\left(y x^{-1}\right) O_{x}=O_{y}$. Then $\left|O_{x} \cap C\right|=\left|O_{y} \cap C\right|$ as $y x^{-1}\left(O_{x} \cap C\right)=O_{y} \cap C$. Now it is easy to see that $O_{x} \cap C$ and $O_{y} \cap C$ are either disjoint or equal. As cardinality of $C$ is prime, $O_{x} \cap C$ is either $\{x\}$ or $C$. If $a \in N$ then we must have $g O_{a}=O_{a}$ for all $g \in C$ as $g a=a$. Hence, $O_{a} \cap C$ is either $\varnothing$ or $C$. Thus, the elements of $C$ have no contribution to the number of possible minimal bases. Now we know that such $k$ exists. If $k^{\prime}$ is also such an integer then $k \equiv k^{\prime}(\bmod p)$ for all primes $p$. Hence $k-k^{\prime}$ is divisible by all primes which forces $k-k^{\prime}=0$.

By the previous theorem, we see that $k$ is uniquely determined by $n$, which leads the following definition.

Definition 2. We define the integer sequence $k(n)$ for $n \geqslant 0$ to be the unique number such that $k(n) \equiv T(p+n)(\bmod p)$ for all primes $p$.

The sequence $k(n)$ has appeared in the online encyclopedia of N. J. A. Sloane [2] with reference number (A265042) after this article appeared in arxiv. The proof of the theorem also gives an algorithm to calculate $k(n)$ for a given $n$.

Corollary 2. $T(p+1) \equiv 7(\bmod p)$ for all primes $p$, that is, $k(1)=7$.

Proof. By following the proof the Theorem 3, it can be easily counted that there are exactly seven $C$-invariant minimal bases. Then the result follows.

However, it is difficult to count $C$-invariant minimal bases for larger $n$ to determine $k(n)$. We develop a new method to calculate $k(n)$ for larger $n$. But the method requires knowing values of $T(s)$ for some $s$.

Theorem 4. The sequence $k(n)$ satisfies the following inequality

$$
T(n+1)+T_{0}(n+1) \leqslant k(n)<2 T(n+1)
$$

for $n \geqslant 1$.
Proof. We follow the proof of Theorem 3. We have $k(n)=|\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))|$ where $|X|=n+p$ and $|C|=p$. Thus, we need to count $C$-invariant minimal bases. According to the proof, we have two main cases.
Case 1: $O_{x} \cap C=C$ for $x \in C$. Then $O_{y} \cap C=C$ for all $y \in C$ and $O_{x}=O_{y}$ for all $x, y \in C$. If $a \in N$ then $O_{a} \cap C$ is either $C$ or $\varnothing$. Hence we can see the whole $C$ as one element, that is, pass to the quotient $\bar{X}=X / \sim$ where $x \sim y$ if $x, y \in C$ then there is a one to one correspondence between $C$-invariant topologies and quotient topologies. It follows that we have exactly $T(n+1)$ possible sub-cases.
Case 2: $O_{x} \cap C=\{x\}$ for $x \in C$. Let $x, y \in C$ then when we define $O_{x}, O_{y}$ is completely determined as $O_{y}=y x^{-1} O_{x}$. Moreover, we have $O_{x} \cap N=O_{y} \cap N$ as $C$ acts trivially on $N$. We also have $O_{a} \cap C$ is either $C$ or $\varnothing$. Now set $Y=N \cup\{x\}$ then the mapping $\tau \rightarrow \tau_{Y}$ is one to one from $\operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ to $\mathfrak{T}(Y)$. Hence we can have at most $T(n+1)$ possible sub-cases. But we can not have exactly $T(n+1)$ possible subcases as the given map is not onto. To see this, set $O_{x}^{\prime}=\{x, a\}$ for $a \in N$ and $O_{a}^{\prime}=\{x, a\}$ for a topology $\pi \in \mathfrak{T}(Y)$. Let $\tau \in \operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ such that $\tau_{Y}=\pi$. Note that $O_{a}^{\prime}=O_{a} \cap Y$ and $O_{a}$ must be fixed by the action of $C$. Thus, we have $C \cup\{a\} \subseteq O_{a}$. Since $O_{x}=O_{x}^{\prime}=\{x, a\}$, we obtain that $O_{a} \subseteq\{x, a\}$. Then we obtain that $O_{a}=\{a\}$ as it must be fixed by $C$, which is a contradiction. Thus, the map is not onto. Then we get that $k(n)<2 T(n+1)$. Moreover, the mapping is onto from $\operatorname{Fix}\left(\mathfrak{T}_{0}(X)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Fix}(\mathfrak{T}(X))$ to $\mathfrak{T}_{0}(Y) \subseteq \mathfrak{T}(Y)$. (See the proof of Theorem 2 for details of how the map $\tau \rightarrow \tau_{Y}$ is one to one. It also shows why this map is onto when the target set is $\mathfrak{T}_{0}(Y)$.) Thus, we have at least $T_{0}(n+1)$ sub-cases, and hence $T(n+1)+T_{0}(n+1) \leqslant k(n)<2 T(n+1)$.

Corollary 3. $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k(n)}{T(n+1)}=2$.
Proof. We have $1+\frac{T_{0}(n+1)}{T(n+1)} \leqslant \frac{k(n)}{T(n+1)}<2$ by Theorem 4. In [6], it is proved that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T_{0}(n)}{T(n)}=1$, and hence the result follows.

Theorem 5. The sequence $k(n)=2,7,51,634,12623$ for $n=0,1,2,3,4$ respectively.

Proof. If $n=0$, the result follows from Theorem 1. Now assume that $n \geqslant 1$. We only show the calculation of $k(2)$ and rest of them follow in a similar way. By previous theorem, we have $T(3)+T_{0}(3) \leqslant k(2)<2 T(3)$ so $48 \leqslant k(2)<58$. Clearly, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(5) & \equiv k(2)(\bmod 3) \\
T(7) & \equiv k(2)(\bmod 5)
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $k(2) \equiv 6(\bmod 15)$ by solving the above congruence relation. We obtain that $k(2)=51$ as $48 \leqslant k(2)<58$. For $n=3,4$, we have the same procedure.

We should note that for $n \geqslant 5$, there is no unique solution satisfying the inequality. For example, $k(5) \in\{357593,387623,417653\}$. The closed form of $k(n)$ seems to be another open problem. Hence calculation of $k(n)$ for specific $n$ or some better lower and upper bounds can be seen as new problems arising from this article.

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