

On Gao-kernel in the digital plane

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ABSTRACT

We introduce the concept of *ga -closed sets in a topological space and characterize it using its Gao-kernel. Moreover we investigate new separation axioms and new functions in topological spaces. For the digital plane, we have explicit forms of Gao-kernel and α -kernel of a subset in the plane.

Key words: *ga -closed sets, ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ spaces, T_c^{**} spaces, ${}_aT_c^{**}$ spaces, ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ spaces, *ga -continuous, *ga -irresolute maps, *gac -homeomorphism, Gao-kernel, α -kernel and digital plane.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Levine [14] and Njastad [19] introduced semi-open sets and α -sets respectively. The complement of a semi-open (resp. α -open) set is called a semi-closed [3] (resp. α -closed [19]) set. Levine [13] introduced g -closed sets and studied their most fundamental properties. S.P. Arya and T. Nour [1], H. Maki et.al. [16, 17] introduced gs -closed sets, ag -closed sets and ga -closed sets respectively. Dontchev [9] and Gnanambal [10] introduced gsp -closed sets and gpr -closed sets respectively.

In this paper, we introduce a new class of sets, namely *ga -closed sets by generalizing ga -open sets. This new class is properly placed between the class of closed sets and the class of g -closed sets. Applying *ga -closed sets, we introduce and study some new spaces, namely ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ spaces, T_c^{**} spaces, ${}_aT_c^{**}$ spaces and ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ spaces. In the fifth chapter we introduce and study *ga -continuous, *ga -irresolute maps and its group structure., In the sixth chapter we investigate *gac -homeomorphism and its properties. In the seventh chapter, we investigate the explicit form in the digital plane of Gao-kernel and α -kernel which are used for characterization of *ga -closed sets and ga -closed sets, respectively. The digital plane is a mathematical model of the computer screen (cf.[5],[11],[12]).

2. PRELIMINARIES

Throughout this paper (X, τ) , (Y, σ) and (Z, η) represent topological space on which no separation axioms are assumed unless otherwise mentioned. For a subset A of a space (X, τ) , $cl(A)$, $int(A)$ and $C(A)$ denote the closure of A , the interior of A and the complement of A in X respectively.

Let us recall the following definitions, which are useful in the sequel.

Definition 2.1: A subset A of a space (X, τ) is called

1. a *semi-open* set [14] if $A \subseteq cl(int(A))$ and a *semi-closed* set if $int(cl(A)) \subseteq A$,
2. an *α -open* set [19] if $A \subseteq int(cl(int(A)))$ and an *α -closed* set if $cl(int(cl(A))) \subseteq A$ and

Definition 2.2: A subset A of a space (X, τ) is called

1. a *generalized closed* (briefly *g -closed*) set [13] if $cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) . The complement of a g -closed set is called a g -open set,
2. a *generalized semi-closed* (briefly *gs -closed*) set [1] if $scl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) ,
3. an *α -generalized closed* (briefly *ag -closed*) set [16] if $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) . The complement of an ag -closed set is called an ag -open set,
4. a *generalized α -closed* (briefly *ga -closed*) set [17] if $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is α -open in (X, τ) ,
5. a *generalized preclosed* (briefly *gp -closed*) set [18] if $pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) ,
6. a *generalized semi-preclosed* (briefly *gsp -closed*) set [9] if $spcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) ,
7. a *generalized preregular closed* (briefly *gpr -closed*) set [10] if $pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and is regular open in (X, τ) ,

Definition 2.3: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called

1. semi-continuous [14] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is semi-open in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
2. α -continuous [15] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
3. g -continuous [2] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
4. gs -continuous [7] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gs -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
5. αg -continuous [4] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is αg -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
6. $g\alpha$ -continuous [17] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
7. gsp -continuous [9] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gsp -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
8. gpr -continuous [10] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gpr -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
9. gc -irresolute [2] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g -closed in (X, τ) for every g -closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
10. gs -irresolute [7] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gs -closed in (X, τ) for every gs -closed set V of (Y, σ) ,
11. αg -irresolute [4] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is αg -closed in (X, τ) for every αg -closed set V of (Y, σ) and
12. $g\alpha$ -irresolute [17] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) for every $g\alpha$ -closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 2.4: A space (X, τ) is called

1. a $T_{1/2}$ space [13] if every g -closed set is closed,
2. a T_b space [6] if every gs -closed set is closed,
3. a T_d space [6] if every gs -closed set is g -closed,
4. an ${}_aT_b$ space [4] if every αg -closed set is closed,
5. an ${}_aT_d$ space [4] if every αg -closed set is g -closed.

Notation 2.5: For a space (X, τ) , $C(X, \tau)$ (resp. $SC(X, \tau)$, $\alpha C(X, \tau)$, $G\alpha C(X, \tau)$, $GC(X, \tau)$, $GSC(X, \tau)$, $\alpha GC(X, \tau)$) denote the class of all closed (resp. semi-closed, α -closed, $g\alpha$ -closed, g -closed, gs -closed, αg -closed) subsets of (X, τ) .

3. BASIC PROPERTIES OF ${}^*g\alpha$ -CLOSED SETS

We introduce the following definition.

Definition 3.1: A subset A of (X, τ) is called a ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set if $cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

The class of ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed subsets of (X, τ) is denoted by ${}^*G\alpha C(X, \tau)$.

Theorem 3.2: Every closed set is a ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set.

Proof: Let $A \subseteq U$, where U is $g\alpha$ -open set in X . Since A is closed, $cl(A) = A \subseteq U$. Therefore $cl(A) \subseteq U$.

Hence A is ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed.

Following example shows that the above implication is not reversible.

Example 3.3: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$. ${}^*G\alpha C(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Here $\{b, c\}$ is a ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) but it is not a closed set of (X, τ) .

Theorem 3.4: Every ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set is g -closed set.

Proof: Let $A \subseteq U$, where U is an open set in X . Since every open set is $g\alpha$ -open, U is $g\alpha$ -open. Since A is ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed, $cl(A) \subseteq U$. Hence A is g -closed.

Following example shows that the above implication is not reversible.

Example 3.5: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$. $GC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$. ${}^*G\alpha C(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$.

Here $\{b\}$ is a g -closed set of (X, τ) it is not a ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) .

Theorem 3.6: Every ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set is $g\alpha$ -closed set.

Proof: Let $A \subseteq U$, where U is an α -open set in X . Since every α -open set is $g\alpha$ -open, U is $g\alpha$ -open. Since A is ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed, $cl(A) \subseteq U$. But $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq cl(A) \subseteq U$. Therefore A is $g\alpha$ -closed.

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Following example shows that the above implication is not reversible.

Example 3.7: Let X and τ be as in the example 3.5. Let $A = \{a, c\}$. A is a $g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) . But A is not a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) .

Theorem 3.8: Every $^*g\alpha$ -closed set is gp -closed set.

Proof: Let $A \subseteq U$, where U is an open set in X . Since every open set is $g\alpha$ -open, U is $g\alpha$ -open. Since A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed, $cl(A) \subseteq U$. But $pcl(A) \subseteq cl(A) \subseteq U$. Therefore A is gp -closed set.

Following example shows that the above implication is not reversible.

Example 3.9: Let X and τ be as in the example 3.5. Let $B = \{a, b\}$. B is a gp -closed set of (X, τ) . But B is not a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) .

Thus the class of $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets are contained in the class of g -closed sets, $g\alpha$ -closed sets, αg -closed sets, gs -closed sets, gsp -closed sets, gpr -closed sets and gp -closed sets. The class of $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets contains the class of closed sets.

Remark 3.10: $^*g\alpha$ -closedness is independent of semi-closedness and α -closedness.

Proof: It can be seen by the following example.

Example 3.11: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$. $SC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}\} = \alpha C(X, \tau)$
 $^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{b, c\}\}$.

Here $\{b\}$ is semi-closed set and α -closed set of (X, τ) . But it is not a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) .

Example 3.12: Let X and τ be as in the example 3.3. Here $\{b, c\}$ is not a semi-closed and α -closed set of (X, τ) . But it is a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) .

Theorem 3.13: The intersection of two $g\alpha$ -closed sets is again in $g\alpha$ -closed set.

Proof: Let A and B are $g\alpha$ -closed sets. Let $A \cap B \subseteq U$, U is α -open. Since A and B are $g\alpha$ -closed sets, $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq U$ and $\alpha cl(B) \subseteq U$. This implies that $\alpha cl(A \cap B) = \alpha cl(A) \cap \alpha cl(B) \subseteq U \Rightarrow \alpha cl(A \cap B) \subseteq U$. Therefore $A \cap B$ is $g\alpha$ -closed.

Theorem 3.14: Let A be an open set and B be an $g\alpha$ -open set, then $A \cup B$ is $g\alpha$ -open set.

Proof: Suppose that A is an open set and B is an $g\alpha$ -open set. Since every open set is $g\alpha$ -open set, A is $g\alpha$ -open set. Then $A \cup B$ is $g\alpha$ -open set, since union of two $g\alpha$ -open set is again $g\alpha$ -open set.

Theorem 3.15:

1. Let A be a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) if and only if $cl(A) - A$ does not contain any non empty $g\alpha$ -closed set.
2. If A is a $^*g\alpha$ -closed and $A \subseteq B \subseteq cl(A)$, then B is $^*g\alpha$ -closed.

Proof:

1. Necessity part- Suppose that A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed and let F be a non empty $g\alpha$ -closed set with $F \subseteq cl(A) - A$. Then $A \subseteq X - F$ and so $cl(A) \subseteq X - F$. Hence $F \subseteq X - cl(A)$, a contradiction.

Sufficient part - Suppose A is a subset of (X, τ) such that $cl(A) - A$ does not contain any non-empty $g\alpha$ -closed set. Let U be a $g\alpha$ -open set of (X, τ) such that $A \subseteq U$. If $cl(A) \subseteq U$, then $cl(A) \cap C(U) \neq \phi$. Then $\phi \neq cl(A) \cap C(U)$ is a $g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) , since the intersection of two $g\alpha$ -closed sets is again $g\alpha$ -closed set.

2. Let U be a $g\alpha$ -open set of (X, τ) such that $B \subseteq U$. Then $A \subseteq U$. Since A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed, $cl(A) \subseteq U$. Now $cl(B) \subseteq cl(cl(A)) = cl(A) \subseteq U$. Therefore B is also a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) .

Theorem 3.16: Let X be a topological space. A subset A of (X, τ) is $^*g\alpha$ -open if and only if $U \subseteq Int(A)$, whenever U is $g\alpha$ -closed set and $U \subseteq A$.

Proof: Let A be a $^*g\alpha$ -open set and U is $g\alpha$ -closed set such that $U \subseteq A$ implies $X - U \supseteq X - A$ and $X - A$ is $^*g\alpha$ -closed set. So $cl(X - A) \subseteq X - U$ implies $(X - cl(X - A)) \supseteq (X - (X - U)) = U$. But $(X - cl(X - A)) = Int(A)$. Thus $U \subseteq Int(A)$.

Conversely, suppose A is subset such that $U \subseteq \text{Int}(A)$. Whenever U is $g\alpha$ -closed and $U \subseteq A$. We show that $X-A$ is $^*g\alpha$ -closed set. Let $X-A \subseteq U$, where U is $g\alpha$ -open. Since $X-A \subseteq U$ implies $X-U \subseteq A$. By assumption that we must have $X-U \subseteq \text{Int}(A)$ or $X-\text{Int}(A) \subseteq U$. Now $X-\text{Int}(A) = \text{cl}(X-A)$ which implies that $\text{cl}(X-A) \subseteq U$ and $X-A$ is $^*g\alpha$ -closed set.

Theorem 3.17: The union of two $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets is a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set.

Proof: Let A and B are $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets. Let $A \cup B \subseteq U$, U is $g\alpha$ -open. Since A and B are $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets, $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ and $\text{cl}(B) \subseteq U$. This implies that $\text{cl}(A \cup B) = \text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B) \subseteq U \Rightarrow \text{cl}(A \cup B) \subseteq U$. Therefore $A \cup B$ is $^*g\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 3.18: The intersection of two $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets is again in $^*g\alpha$ -closed set.

- (i) The intersection of two $^*g\alpha$ -closed sets is again in $^*g\alpha$ -closed set.
- (ii) The intersection of an open and a $^*g\alpha$ -open sets is a $^*g\alpha$ -open set.
- (iii) The union of an open and a $^*g\alpha$ -open sets is a $^*g\alpha$ -open set.

We prepare the following notations:

For a subset A of (X, τ) ,

$G\alpha O(X, \tau) = \{U/U \text{ is } g\alpha\text{-open in } (X, \tau)\};$

$\ker(A) = \cap \{U/U \in \tau \text{ and } A \subseteq U\};$

$\alpha\text{-ker}(A) = \cap \{U/U \text{ is } \alpha\text{-open set and } A \subseteq U\};$

$G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A) = \cap \{U/U \in G\alpha O(X, \tau) \text{ and } A \subseteq U\}.$

$X_{gac} = \{x \in X / \{x\} \text{ is } g\alpha\text{-closed in } (X, \tau)\} \text{ and}$

$X_{^*gao} = \{x \in X / \{x\} \text{ is } ^*g\alpha\text{-open in } (X, \tau)\}.$

Theorem 3.19: Any subset A is $g\alpha$ -closed set if and only if $\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(A)$ holds.

Proof: Necessary: We know that $A \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(A)$. Since A is $g\alpha$ -closed, then $\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(A)$.

Sufficiency: Let $A \subseteq U$ and U is α -open. Given that $\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(A)$. If $U \subseteq \alpha\text{cl}(A)$, then $\alpha\text{-ker}(A) \subseteq U \subseteq \alpha\text{cl}(A)$, which is a contradiction to the hypothesis. Therefore $\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$. Hence A is $g\alpha$ -closed.

Lemma 3.20: For any space (X, τ) , $X = X_{gac} \cup X_{^*gao}$ holds.

Proof: Let $x \in X$. Suppose that $\{x\}$ is not $^*g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Then X is a unique $g\alpha$ -open set containing $X/\{x\}$. Thus $X/\{x\}$ is $^*g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) and so $\{x\}$ is $^*g\alpha$ -open. Therefore $x \in X_{gac} \cup X_{^*gao}$.

Theorem 3.21: For a subset A of (X, τ) , the following conditions are equivalent:

1. A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .
2. $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A)$ holds.
3. (i) $\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{gac} \subseteq A$ and (ii) $\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{^*gao} \subseteq G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A)$ holds.

Proof:

(1) \Rightarrow (2): Let $x \notin G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A)$. Then there exists a set $U \in G\alpha O(X, \tau)$ such that $x \notin U$ and $A \subseteq U$.

Since A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed, $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ and $x \notin \text{cl}(A)$. This is a contradiction.

(2) \Rightarrow (3):

(i): It follows from (2) that $\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{gac} \subseteq G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A) \cap X_{gac}$. We claim that $G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A) \cap X_{gac} \subseteq A$. Suppose $x \in G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A) \cap X_{gac}$ and assume that $x \notin A$. Since the set $X/\{x\} \in G\alpha O(X, \tau)$ and $A \subseteq X/\{x\}$. Then we have that $x \in X/\{x\}$ and so this is a contradiction. Thus we show that $\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{gac} \subseteq A$. by using (2) $\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{gac} \subseteq G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A) \cap X_{gac} \subseteq A$.

(ii): It is obtained by (2).

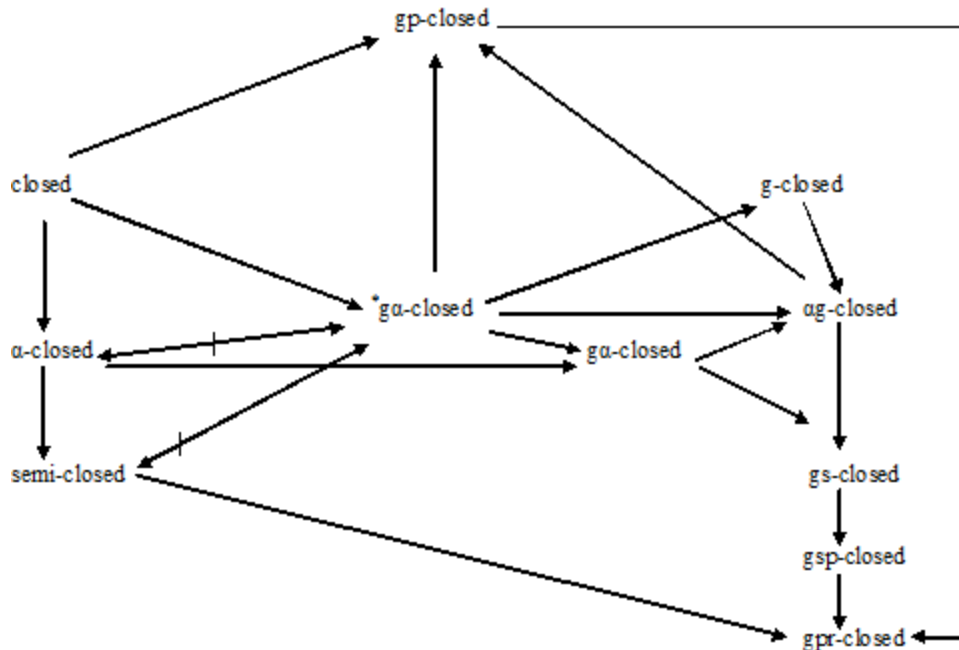
(3) \Rightarrow (2): By Remark 3.8 and (3),

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cl}(A) &= \text{cl}(A) \cap X = \text{cl}(A) \cap (X_{gac} \cup X_{^*gao}) \\ &= (\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{gac}) \cup (\text{cl}(A) \cap X_{^*gao}) \\ &\subseteq A \cup G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A) \\ &= G\alpha O\text{-ker}(A). \end{aligned}$$

That is $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq \text{GaO-ker}(A)$ holds.

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Let $U \in \text{G}\alpha\text{O}(X, \tau)$ such that $A \subseteq U$. Then we have that $\text{G}\alpha\text{O-ker}(A) \subseteq U$ and so by (2) $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$. Therefore A is $\text{g}\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 3.22: The following diagram shows the relationships established between *ga -closed sets and some other sets in theorem 3.2, 3.4, 3.6, 3.8, remark 3.10 and reference [22], [21]. $A \rightarrow B$ ($A \nleftrightarrow B$) represents A implies B but not conversely (A and B are independent each other).



4. APPLICATIONS OF $^*\mathbf{g}\alpha$ -CLOSED SETS

We introduce the following definition.

Definition 4.1: A space (X, τ) is called an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space if every ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set is closed.

The following theorem gives a characterization of ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ spaces.

Theorem 4.2: If (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, then every singleton of X is either $g\alpha$ -closed or open.

Proof: Let $x \in X$ and suppose that $\{x\}$ is not a $g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) . Then $X/\{x\}$ is not $g\alpha$ -open. This implies that X is the only $g\alpha$ -open set containing $X/\{x\}$, so $X/\{x\}$ is a $^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, $X/\{x\}$ is closed or equivalently $\{x\}$ is open in (X, τ) .

Theorem 4.3: Every $T_{1/2}$ space is an ${}_{\alpha}T_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every ${}^*g\alpha$ -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed. Since (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space, A is closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

The space in the following example is an ${}_{\alpha}\mathbf{T}_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not a $\mathbf{T}_{1/2}$ space.

Example 4.4: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$.

$$^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}\}$$

$$\text{GC}(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}.$$

Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not a $T_{1/2}$ space. Since $\{a, c\}$ is a g-closed set but not a closed set.

Theorem 4.5: Every T_b space is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a *ga -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every *ga -closed set is gs -closed, A is gs -closed. Since (X, τ) is a T_b space, A is closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

The space in the following example is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not a T_b space.

Example 4.6: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{b, c\}\}$. ${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, c\}\}$
 $GSC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not a T_b space. Since $\{a, b\}$ is a gs -closed set but not a closed set.

Theorem 4.7: Every ${}_aT_b$ space is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a *ga -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every *ga -closed set is ag -closed, A is ag -closed. Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_b$ space, A is closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

The space in the following example is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not an ${}_aT_b$ space.

Example 4.8: Let X and τ be as in example 4.6. Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not an ${}_aT_b$ space. Since $\{c\}$ is an ag -closed set but not a closed set.

Definition 4.9: A space (X, τ) is called a T_c^{**} if every gs -closed set is *ga -closed.

The following theorem gives a characterization of T_c^{**} spaces.

Theorem 4.10: If (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, then every singleton of X is either closed or *ga -open.

Proof: Let $x \in X$ and suppose that $\{x\}$ is not a closed set of (X, τ) . Then $X/\{x\}$ is not open. This implies X is the only open set containing $X/\{x\}$. So $X/\{x\}$ is a gs -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, $X/\{x\}$ is a *ga -closed set or equivalently $\{x\}$ is *ga -open in (X, τ) .

The converse of the above theorem is not true as can be seen by the following example.

Example 4.11: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$.

*ga -open sets of (X, τ) are $X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}$.

$GSC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Here $\{a\}$ and $\{b\}$ are *ga -open sets and $\{c\}$ is a closed set but (X, τ) is not a T_c^{**} space. Since $\{b\}$ is a gs -closed set but not a *ga -closed set of (X, τ) .

Theorem 4.12: Every T_b space is a T_c^{**} space.

Proof: Let A be a gs -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_b space, A is closed. Since every closed set is *ga -closed, A is *ga -closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space.

The space in the following example is a T_c^{**} space but not a T_b space.

Example 4.13: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space but not a T_b space. Since $\{a, c\}$ is a gs -closed set but not a closed set.

Theorem 4.14: Every T_c^{**} space is a T_d space.

Proof: Let A be a gs -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, A is *ga -closed. Since every *ga -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is a T_d space.

The space in the following example is a T_d space but not a T_c^{**} space.

Example 4.15: Let X and τ be as in example 3.5. Here (X, τ) is a T_d space but not a T_c^{**} space. Since $\{b\}$ is a gs -closed set but not *ga -closed set.

Theorem 4.16: Every T_c^{**} space is an ${}_aT_d$ space.

Proof: Let A be a αg -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every αg -closed set is gs -closed, A is gs -closed. Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, A is *ga -closed. Since every *ga -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is an αT_d space.

The space in the following example is an αT_d space but not a T_c^{**} space.

Example 4.17: Let X and τ be as in example 3.5. Here (X, τ) is an αT_d space but not a T_c^{**} space. Since $\{a, c\}$ is a gs -closed set but not *ga -closed set.

Theorem 4.18: The space (X, τ) is a T_b space if and only if it is a T_c^{**} space and an $\alpha T_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Necessity part: By theorem 4.12 and 4.5.

Sufficient part: Let A be a gs -closed sets of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, A is *ga -closed set. Since (X, τ) is an $\alpha T_{1/2}^{**}$ space, A is closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an T_b space.

Remark 4.19: T_c^{**} space and $\alpha T_{1/2}^{**}$ space are independent of each other.

It can be seen by the following examples.

Example 4.20: Let X and τ be as in example 3.5. Here (X, τ) is an $\alpha T_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not a T_c^{**} space. Since $\{b\}$ is gs -closed set but not *ga -closed set.

Example 4.21: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space but not an $\alpha T_{1/2}^{**}$ space. Since $\{b, c\}$ is *ga -closed set but not closed set.

Definition 4.22: A space (X, τ) is called an αT_c^{**} space if every αg -closed set is *ga -closed.

Theorem 4.23: Every T_b space is an αT_c^{**} space.

Proof: Let A be a αg -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every αg -closed set is gs -closed, A is gs -closed. Since (X, τ) is a T_b space, A is closed. Since every closed set is *ga -closed, A is *ga -closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is a αT_c^{**} space.

The space in the following example is an αT_c^{**} space but not a T_b space.

Example 4.24: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is an αT_c^{**} space but not a T_b space. Since $\{b, c\}$ is a gs -closed set but not closed set.

Theorem 4.25: Every αT_b space is an αT_c^{**} space.

Proof: Let A be a αg -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a αT_b space, A is closed. Since every closed set is *ga -closed, A is *ga -closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is an αT_c^{**} space.

The space in the following example is an αT_c^{**} space but not an αT_b space.

Example 4.26: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is an αT_c^{**} space but not an αT_b space. Since $\{a, c\}$ is a αg -closed set but not closed set.

Theorem 4.27: Every αT_c^{**} space is an αT_d space.

Proof: Let A be a αg -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a αT_c^{**} space, A is *ga -closed. Since every *ga -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is an αT_d space.

The space in the following example is an αT_d space but not an αT_c^{**} space.

Example 4.28: Let X and τ be as in example 3.5. Here (X, τ) is an αT_d space but not an αT_c^{**} space. Since $\{c\}$ is a αg -closed set but not *ga -closed set.

Theorem 4.29: Every T_c^{**} space is an αT_c^{**} space.

Proof: Let A be a αg -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every αg -closed set is gs -closed, A is gs -closed. Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, A is *ga -closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an αT_c^{**} space.

The space in the following example is an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space but not a T_c^{**} space.

Example 4.30: Let X and τ be as in example 4.11. Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space but not a T_c^{**} space. Since $\{a\}$ is a g -closed set but not *g -closed set.

Theorem 4.31: The space (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_b$ space if and only if it is a ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space and an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Necessity part: By theorem 4.25 and 4.7.

Sufficient part: Let A be a g -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space, A is *g -closed. Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$, A is closed set. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_b$ space.

Remark 4.32: ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space and ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space are independent of each other.

It can be seen by the following examples.

Example 4.33: Let X and τ be as in example 3.5. Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space. Since $\{b\}$ is g -closed set but not *g -closed set.

Example 4.34: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space. But not an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space. Since $\{b, c\}$ is *g -closed set but not closed set.

Definition 4.35: A space (X, τ) is called a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space if every g -closed set is *g -closed set.

Theorem 4.36: Every $T_{1/2}$ space is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a g -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space, A is closed. Since every closed set is *g -closed, A is *g -closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

The space in the following example is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not a $T_{1/2}$ space.

Example 4.37: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not a $T_{1/2}$ space. Since $\{b, c\}$ is a g -closed set but not closed set.

Theorem 4.38: Every T_b space is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a g -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every g -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed set. Since (X, τ) is an T_b space, A is closed. Since every closed set is *g -closed, A is *g -closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

The space in the following example is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not a T_b space.

Example 4.39: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not a T_b space. Since $\{a, c\}$ is a g -closed set but not closed set.

Theorem 4.40: Every ${}_aT_b$ space is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a g -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every g -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed set. Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_b$ space, A is closed. Since every closed set is *g -closed, A is *g -closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

The space in the following example is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not an ${}_aT_b$ space.

Example 4.41: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not an ${}_aT_b$ space. Since $\{a, c\}$ is a g -closed set but not closed set.

Theorem 4.42: Every T_c^{**} space is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a g -closed set of (X, τ) . Since every g -closed set is g -closed, A is g -closed set. Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, A is *g -closed. Therefore (X, τ) is an ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space.

The space in the following example is a ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not a T_c^{**} space.

Example 4.43: Let X and τ be as in example 4.11. Here (X, τ) is an ${}^{**}{}_aT_{1/2}$ space but not a T_c^{**} space. Since $\{a\}$ is a g -closed set but not a *g -closed set.

Theorem 4.44: The space (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space if and only if it is a $^{**}T_{1/2}$ space and an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Necessity part: By theorem 4.36 and 4.3.

Sufficient part: Let A be a g -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $^{**}T_{1/2}$ space, A is *ga -closed. Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, A is closed. Therefore (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space.

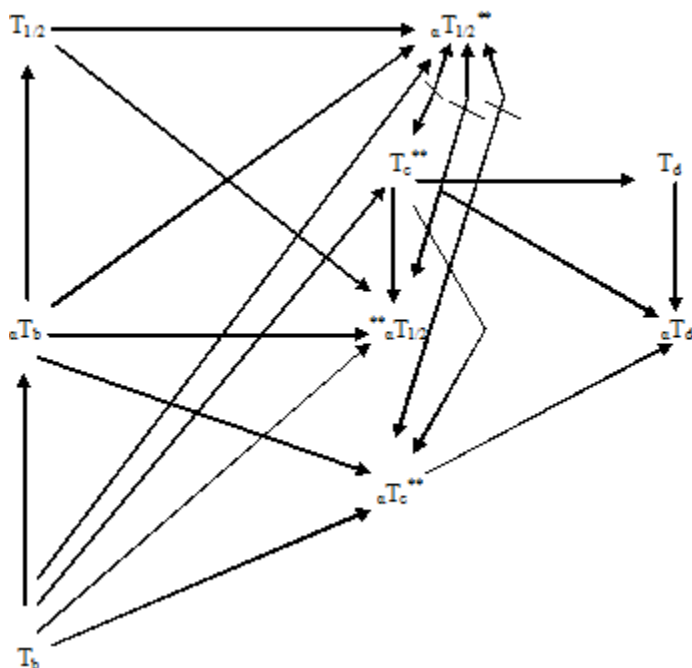
Remark 4.45: $^{**}T_{1/2}$ space and ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space are independent of each other.

It can be seen by the following examples.

Example 4.46: Let X and τ be as in example 3.5. Here (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space but not a $^{**}T_{1/2}$ space. Since $\{b\}$ is g -closed set but not *ga -closed set.

Example 4.47: Let X and τ be as in example 3.3. Here (X, τ) is a $^{**}T_{1/2}$ space but not an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space. Since $\{b, c\}$ is *ga -closed set but not closed set.

Remark 4.48: The following diagram shows them relationship among the separation axioms considered in this paper and reference [18], [19]. $A \rightarrow B$ ($A \nrightarrow B$) represents A implies B but B need not imply A always (A and B are independent of each other).



5. *ga – CONTINUITY AND *ga – IRRESOLUTNESS:

We introduce the following definition

Definition 5.1: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called *ga – continuous if $f^{-1}(V)$ is a *ga – closed set of (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Theorem 5.2: Every continuous map is *ga – continuous.

Proof: Let V be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is continuous $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (X, τ) . But every closed set is *ga -closed set. Hence $f^{-1}(V)$ is *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Thus f is *ga – continuous.

The converse of the above theorem need not be true by the following example.

Example 5.3: Let $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=c$.

$^*Ga C(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Here $f^{-1}(\{b, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not a closed set in (X, τ) . Therefore f is not continuous. However f is *ga -continuous.

Theorem 5.4: Every *ga -continuous map is g -continuous.

Proof: Let V be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga -continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is *ga -closed in (X, τ) . But every *ga -closed set is g -closed set. Hence $f^{-1}(V)$ is g -closed set in (X, τ) . Thus f is g -continuous.

The converse of the above theorem need not be true by the following example.

Example 5.5: Let $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=b, f(b)=c, f(c)=a$.

${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{b, c\}\}$.

$GC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$.

Here $f^{-1}(\{b, c\}) = \{a, b\}$ is not a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Therefore f is not *ga -continuous. However f is g -continuous.

Theorem 5.6: Every *ga -continuous map is ga -continuous.

Proof: Let V be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga -continuous $f^{-1}(V)$ is *ga -closed in (X, τ) . But every *ga -closed set is ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Hence $f^{-1}(V)$ is ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Thus f is ga -continuous.

The converse of the above theorem need not be true by the following example.

Example 5.7: Let $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=b, f(b)=c, f(c)=a$.

${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$.

$GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Here $f^{-1}(\{b, c\}) = \{a, b\}$ is not a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Therefore f is not *ga -continuous. However f is ga -continuous.

Remark 5.8: Every *ga -continuous map is ag -continuous, gs -continuous, gsp -continuous and gpr -continuous.

Theorem 5.9: Every *ga -continuous map is gp -continuous.

Proof: Let V be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga -continuous $f^{-1}(V)$ is *ga -closed in (X, τ) . But every *ga -closed set is gp -closed set in (X, τ) . Hence $f^{-1}(V)$ is gp -closed set in (X, τ) . Thus f is gp -continuous.

The converse of the above theorem need not be true by the following example.

Example 5.10: Let (X, τ) and (Y, σ) be as in example 5.7. Here $f^{-1}(\{b, c\}) = \{a, b\}$ is not a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Therefore f is not *ga -continuous. However f is gp -continuous.

Remark 5.11: *ga -continuity is independent of semi-continuity and α -continuity.

The proof follows from the following example.

Example 5.12: Let $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=a, f(b)=b, f(c)=c$.

${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{b, c\}\}$.

$SC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}\} = \alpha C(X, \tau)$

Here $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{b\}$ is not a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Therefore f is not *ga -continuous. However f is semi-continuous and α -continuous.

Example 5.13: Let $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{b\}, \{b, c\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=c, f(b)=b, f(c)=a$.

${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$. $SC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{c\}\} = \alpha C(X, \tau)$

Here $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not a semi-closed set and α -closed set in (X, τ) . Therefore f is not semi-continuous and α -continuous. However f is *ga -continuous.

Remark 5.14: The composition of two *ga –continuous map need not be a *ga –continuous.

The proof follows from the example.

Example 5.15: Let $X=\{a, b, c\}=Y=Z$ with $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{a\},\{a, b\}\}$, $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\eta=\{Z, \phi, \{b\},\{b, c\}\}$

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=a, f(b)=b, f(c)=c$.

Define $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ by $g(a)=c, g(b)=b, g(c)=a$.

${}^*Ga C(X, \tau)=\{X, \phi, \{c\},\{b, c\}\}$.

${}^*Ga C(Y, \sigma)=\{Y, \phi, \{c\},\{b, c\},\{a, c\}\}$.

Clearly f and g are *ga –continuous.

Here $\{a, c\}$ is a closed set in (Z, η) . But $(gof)^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not a *ga –closed set in (X, τ) .

Therefore gof is not *ga –continuous.

We introduce the following definition.

Definition 5.16: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called *ga –irresolute if $f^{-1}(V)$ is a *ga –closed set of (X, τ) for every *ga –closed set of (Y, σ) .

Theorem 5.17: Every *ga –irresolute function is *ga –continuous.

Proof: Let V be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since every closed set is *ga –closed set. Therefore V is *ga –closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga –irresolute $f^{-1}(V)$ is *ga –closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is *ga –continuous.

The converse of the above theorem need not be true by the following example.

Example 5.18: Let $X=\{a, b, c\}=Y$ with $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{b\},\{b, c\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=c, f(b)=a, f(c)=b$.

${}^*Ga C(X, \tau)=\{X, \phi, \{a\},\{b, c\}\}$.

${}^*Ga C(Y, \sigma) =\{Y, \phi, \{c\},\{b, c\},\{b, c\}\}$.

Here f is *ga –continuous but f is not *ga –irresolute. Since $\{a, c\}$ is *ga –closed set in (Y, σ) but $f^{-1}(\{a, c\})=\{a, b\}$ is not *ga –closed set in (X, τ) .

Theorem 5.19: Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ be any two functions. Then

- (i) $gof: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is *ga –continuous if g is continuous and f is *ga –continuous.
- (ii) $gof: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is *ga –irresolute if both g and f are *ga –irresolute.
- (iii) $gof: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is *ga –continuous if g is *ga –continuous and f is *ga –irresolute.

Proof:

(i) Let V be a closed set in (Z, η) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga –continuous, $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))=(gof)^{-1}(V)$ is *ga –closed in (X, τ) . Therefore gof is *ga –continuous.

Similarly we can prove (ii) and (iii).

Theorem 5.20: Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a *ga –continuous (resp. gs -continuous, ag -continuous, g -continuous) map. If (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ (resp. T_c^{**} , ${}_aT_c^{**}$, ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$) space, then f is continuous (*ga –continuous, *ga –continuous, *ga –continuous).

Proof: Let V be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga –continuous (resp. gs -continuous, ag -continuous, g -continuous), $f^{-1}(V)$ is *ga –closed (resp. gs -closed, ag -closed, g -closed) in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space (resp. T_c^{**} , ${}_aT_c^{**}$, ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space), $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed (*ga –closed) in (X, τ) . Therefore f is continuous (*ga –continuous, *ga –continuous, *ga –continuous).

Theorem 5.21: Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a surjective, ga -irresolute and a closed map. Then $f(A)$ is *ga –closed set of (Y, σ) for every *ga –closed set A of (X, τ) .

Proof: Let A be a *ga –closed set of (X, τ) . Let U be a ga -open set of (Y, σ) such that $f(A) \subseteq U$. Since f is surjective and ga -irresolute, $f^{-1}(U)$ is a ga -open set of (X, τ) . Since $A \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$ and A is *ga –closed set of (X, τ) , $cl(A) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$.

Then $f(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq f(f^{-1}(U)) = U$. Since f is closed, $f(\text{cl}(A)) = \text{cl}(f(\text{cl}(A)))$. This implies $\text{cl}(f(A)) \subseteq \text{cl}(f(\text{cl}(A))) = f(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq U$. Therefore $f(A)$ is a *ga -closed set of (Y, σ) .

Theorem 5.22: Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a surjective, *ga -irresolute and a closed map. If (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, then (Y, σ) is also an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a *ga -closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is *ga -irresolute, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a *ga -closed set of (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a closed set of (X, τ) . Then $f(f^{-1}(A)) = A$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Thus A is a closed set of (Y, σ) . Therefore (Y, σ) is a ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Definition 5.23: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called pre- *ga -closed if $f(A)$ is a *ga -closed set of (Y, σ) for every *ga -closed set A of (X, τ) .

Theorem 5.24: Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a surjective, gs -irresolute and a pre- *ga -closed map. If (X, τ) is an T_c^{**} space, then (Y, σ) is also an T_c^{**} space.

Proof: Let A be a gs -closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is gs -irresolute, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a gs -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_c^{**} space, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is pre- *ga -closed map, $f(f^{-1}(A))$ is *ga -closed in (Y, σ) for every *ga -closed set $f^{-1}(A)$ of (X, τ) . Since f is surjection, $A = f(f^{-1}(A))$. Thus A is a *ga -closed set of (Y, σ) . Therefore (Y, σ) is a T_c^{**} space.

Theorem 5.25 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a surjective, ag -irresolute and a pre- *ga -closed map. If (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space, then (Y, σ) is also an ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a ag -closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is ag -irresolute, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a ag -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is pre- *ga -closed map, $f(f^{-1}(A))$ is *ga -closed in (Y, σ) for every *ga -closed set $f^{-1}(A)$ of (X, τ) . Since f is surjection, $A = f(f^{-1}(A))$. Thus A is a *ga -closed set of (Y, σ) . Therefore (Y, σ) is a ${}_aT_c^{**}$ space.

Theorem 5.26: Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a surjective, gc -irresolute and a pre- *ga -closed map. If (X, τ) is an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, then (Y, σ) is also an ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

Proof: Let A be a g -closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is gc -irresolute, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a g -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space, $f^{-1}(A)$ is a *ga -closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is pre- *ga -closed map, $f(f^{-1}(A))$ is *ga -closed in (Y, σ) for every *ga -closed set $f^{-1}(A)$ of (X, τ) . Since f is surjection, $A = f(f^{-1}(A))$. Thus A is a *ga -closed set of (Y, σ) . Therefore (Y, σ) is a ${}_aT_{1/2}^{**}$ space.

6. *ga -homeomorphism and their group structure

Definition 6.1: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be *ga -open if the image $f(U)$ is *ga -open in (Y, σ) for every open set U of (X, τ) .

Definition 6.2: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be *ga -closed if the image $f(U)$ is *ga -closed in (Y, σ) for every closed set U of (X, τ) .

Definition 6.3: A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be *gac -homeomorphism (resp. *ga -homeomorphism) if f is bijective and f and f^{-1} are *ga -irresolute (resp. *ga -continuous).

Theorem 6.4:

(i) Suppose that f is bijection. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (1) f is *ga -homeomorphism.
- (2) f is *ga -open and *ga -continuous.
- (3) f is *ga -closed and *ga -continuous.
- (ii) If f is a homeomorphism, then f and f^{-1} are *ga -irresolute.
- (iii) Every *gac -homeomorphism is a *ga -homeomorphism.

Proof:

(ii) First we prove that f^{-1} is *ga -irresolute. Let A be a *ga -closed set of (X, τ) . To show $(f^{-1})^{-1}(A) = f(A)$ is *ga -closed in (Y, σ) . Let U be a ga -open set such that $f(A) \subseteq U$. Then $A = (f^{-1}(f(A))) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$ is ga -open. Since A is *ga -closed, $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$. We have $\text{cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq f(f^{-1}(U)) = U$ and so $f(A)$ is *ga -closed. Thus f^{-1} is *ga -irresolute. Since f^{-1} is also a homeomorphism $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$ is *ga -irresolute.

(iii) Let f is bijective. Since f is *gac -homeomorphism, f and f^{-1} are *ga -irresolute. Since every *ga -irresolute map is *ga -continuous, then f and f^{-1} are *ga -continuous. Therefore f is *ga -homeomorphism.

Definition 6.5: For a topological space (X, τ) we define the following three collections of functions:

- (i) ${}^*gach(X, \tau) = \{f/ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau) \text{ is a } {}^*gac\text{-homeomorphism}\}$.
- (ii) ${}^*gah(X, \tau) = \{f/ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau) \text{ is a } {}^*ga\text{-homeomorphism}\}$.
- (iii) $h(X, \tau) = \{f/ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau) \text{ is a homeomorphism}\}$.

Corollary 6.6: For a space (X, τ) the following properties hold.

- (i) $h(X, \tau) \subseteq {}^*gach(X, \tau) \subseteq {}^*gah(X, \tau)$.
- (ii) The set ${}^*gach(X, \tau)$ forms a group under composition of functions.
- (iii) The group $h(X, \tau)$ is a subgroup of ${}^*gach(X, \tau)$.
- (iv) If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a *gac -homeomorphism then it induces an isomorphism $f_*: {}^*gach(X, \tau) \rightarrow {}^*gach(Y, \sigma)$.

Proof:

- (i) These implications are obtained by theorem 6.4(ii), (iii).
- (ii) By theorem 5.19.
- (iii) By (i).
- (iv) We define $f_*: {}^*gach(X, \tau) \rightarrow {}^*gach(Y, \sigma)$ by $f_*(h) = f \circ h \circ f^{-1}$. Then using 5.19 we have that $f_*(h) \in {}^*gach(Y, \sigma)$. It is shown that f_* is the required group isomorphism.

Remark 6.7: The following example shown that the converse of the above theorem (iv) is not true.

Example 6.8: Let $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ with $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$.

Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ by $f(a)=c, f(b)=a, f(c)=b$.

${}^*GaC(X, \tau) = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$.

${}^*GaC(Y, \sigma) = \{Y, \phi, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}\}$.

Also define three functions $h_a, h_b, h_c: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$ by

$h_a(a)=a, h_a(b)=c, h_a(c)=b$

$h_b(a)=a, h_b(b)=b, h_b(c)=c$

$h_c(a)=b, h_c(b)=a, h_c(c)=c$

Then it is shown that ${}^*gach(X, \tau) = \{1_x, h_a\}$, ${}^*gach(Y, \sigma) = \{1_y, h_c\}$ and $f_*: {}^*gach(X, \tau) \rightarrow {}^*gach(Y, \sigma)$ is an isomorphism such that $f_*(h_a) = h_b$. However f is not *gac -homeomorphism.

7. EXAMPLES IN THE DIGITAL PLANE

In the digital plane, we investigate explicit forms of GaO -kernel α -kernel and of a subset. The digital line or the so called Khalimsky line is the set of the integers Z , equipped with the topology k having $\{\{2n+1, 2n, 2n-1\}/n \in Z\}$ as a subbase. This is denoted by (Z, k) . Thus, a subset U is open in (Z, k) if and only if whenever $x \in U$ is an even integer, then $x-1, x+1 \in U$. Let (Z^2, k^2) be the topological product of two digital lines (Z, k) , where $Z^2 = Z \times Z$ and $k^2 = k \times k$. This space is called the digital plane in the present paper(cf.[5],[11],[12]). We note that for each point $x \in Z^2$ there exists the smallest open set containing x , say $U(x)$. For the case of $x = (2n+1, 2m+1)$, $U(x) = \{2n+1\} \times \{2m+1\}$; for the case of $x = (2n, 2m)$, $U(x) = \{2n-1, 2n, 2n+1\} \times \{2m-1, 2m, 2m+1\}$; for the case of $x = (2n, 2m+1)$, $U(x) = \{2n-1, 2n, 2n+1\} \times \{2m+1\}$; for the case of $x = (2n+1, 2m)$, $U(x) = \{2n+1\} \times \{2m-1, 2m, 2m+1\}$, where $n, m \in Z$. For a subset E of (Z^2, k^2) , we define the following three subsets as follows: $E_F = \{x \in E/ x \text{ is closed in } (Z^2, k^2)\}$; $E_k^2 = \{x \in E/ x \text{ is open in } (Z^2, k^2)\}$; $E_{mix} = E \setminus (E_F \cup E_k^2)$. Then it is shown that $E_F = \{(2n, 2m) \in E/ n, m \in Z\}$, $E_k^2 = \{(2n+1, 2m+1) \in E/ n, m \in Z\}$ and $E_{mix} = \{(2n, 2m+1) \in E/ n, m \in Z\} \cup \{(2n+1, 2m) \in E/ n, m \in Z\}$.

Theorem 7.1: Let A and E be subsets of (Z^2, k^2) .

- (i) If E is non - empty α -closed set, then $E_F \neq \phi$ [8].
- (ii) If E is α -closed and $E \subseteq B_{mix} \cup B_k^2$ holds for some subset B of (Z^2, k^2) then $E = \phi$ [8].
- (iii) The set $U(A_F) \cup A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$ is a ga -open set containing A .

Proof:

(iii): We claim that $A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$ is a ga -open set. Let F be any non -empty α -closed set such that $F \subseteq A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$. Then by (ii), $F = \phi$. Thus, we have that $F \subseteq \alpha - \text{Int}(A_{mix} \cup A_k^2)$ then $A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$ is ga -open. But we know that $U(A_F)$ is a open set. Then $U(A_F) \cup A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$ is ga -open by theorem 3.14. But $A = A_F \cup A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$. $A \subseteq U(A_F) \cup A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$. This implies that ga -open set contains A .

Theorem 7.2: Let A be a subset of (Z^2, k^2) . The $G\alpha$ -kernel of A and the α -kernel of A are obtained precisely as follows:

- (i) $G\alpha\text{-ker}(A) = U(A_F) \cup A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$, where $U(A_F) = \bigcup \{U(x) \mid x \in A_F\}$.
- (ii) $\alpha\text{-ker}(A) = U(A)$, where $U(A) = \bigcup \{U(x) \mid x \in A\}$ [8].

Proof:

(i): Let $U_A = U(A_F) \cup A_{mix} \cup A_k^2$. By Lemma 7.1 (iii), $G\alpha\text{-ker}(A) \subseteq U_A$.

To prove $U_A \subseteq G\alpha\text{-ker}(A)$, it is claimed that (*) if there exists a $g\alpha$ -open set V such that $A \subseteq V \subset U_A$ then $V = U_A$. Indeed, let x be any point of U_A . There are three cases for the point x .

Case (1): $x \in (U_A)_F$. we note that $(U_A)_F = (U(A_F))_F \cup (A_{mix} \cup A_k^2)_F = A_F$.

Then we have that $x \in A_F \subseteq A \subseteq V$.

Case (2): $x \in (U_A)_k^2$. We note that

$$(U_A)_k^2 = (U(A_F))_k^2 \cup (A_{mix})_k^2 \cup (A_k^2)_k^2 = (U(A_F))_k^2 \cup A_k^2.$$

Firstly suppose that $x \in U(A_F)$. Then $x \in U(y)$ for some $y \in A_F$. Since $y \in A_F \subseteq A \subseteq V$ and V is $g\alpha$ -open, we have $\{y\} \subseteq \alpha\text{-Int}(V)$. Then $U(y) \subseteq \alpha\text{-Int}(V)$, because $\alpha\text{-Int}(V)$ is α -open. Thus we have that $x \in V$.

Secondly, suppose $x \in A_k^2$, then we have $x \in V$, because $x \in A_k^2 \subseteq A \subseteq V$.

Case (3): $x \in (U_A)_{mix}$. We note that

$$\begin{aligned} (U_A)_{mix} &= (U(A_F))_{mix} \cup (A_k^2)_{mix} \cup (A_{mix})_{mix} \\ &= (U(A_F))_{mix} \cup A_{mix} \end{aligned}$$

Firstly suppose that $x \in U(A_F)$. Then $x \in U(y)$ for some $y \in A_F$. Then y be a α -closed point since every closed point is α -closed point. Since $y \in A_F \subseteq A \subseteq V$, $\{y\}$ is α -closed and V is $g\alpha$ -open set, we have $\{y\} \subseteq \alpha\text{-Int}(V)$. Then $U(y) \subseteq \alpha\text{-Int}(V)$ and so $x \in V$.

Secondly, suppose that $x \in A_{mix}$. Then $x \in A_{mix} \subseteq A \subseteq V$ implies $x \in V$.

For all cases we assume that $x \in U_A$ then we show that $x \in V$, then $U_A \subseteq V$. But we know that $V \subseteq U_A$. From the above cases we conclude that $V = U_A$. Thus we shown (*).

Let $G\alpha o(A)$ be the family of all $g\alpha$ -open sets containing A . Then, we have that $U_A \subseteq W$ for each $W \in G\alpha o(A)$, using (*) above and properties that $A \subseteq W \cap U_A \subseteq U_A$ and $W \cap U_A$ is $g\alpha$ -open set. Hence, we show that $U_A \subseteq \bigcap \{W \mid W \in G\alpha o(A)\} = G\alpha\text{-ker}(A)$.

That is $U_A \subseteq G\alpha\text{-ker}(A)$. Therefore $G\alpha\text{-ker}(A) = U_A$.

Theorem 7.3: Let E be a subset of (Z^2, k^2) .

- (i) If E is a non-empty $g\alpha$ -closed set, then $E_F \neq \emptyset$.
- (ii) If E is $g\alpha$ -closed set and $E \subseteq B_{mix} \cup B_k^2$ holds for some subset B of (Z^2, k^2) , then $E = \emptyset$.

Proof:

(i): We recall that a subset E is $g\alpha$ -closed if and only if $\alpha\text{cl}(E) \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(E)$. Let y be a point of E .

We consider the following three cases for the point y .

Case 1: $y \in E_k^2$. Let $y = (2n+1, 2m+1)$ for some $n, m \in Z$. Then $\alpha\text{cl}(y) = \{2n, 2n+1, 2n+2\} \times \{2m, 2m+1, 2m+2\} \subseteq \alpha\text{cl}(E) \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(E)$. Thus there exists a point $(2n, 2m) \in \alpha\text{-ker}(E)$, say $y_1 = (2n, 2m)$. Using theorem 7.2(ii), we have that $y_1 \in U(z)$ for some $z \in E$.

If $z \in E_{mix}$, say $z = (2s+1, 2t)$ for some $s, t \in Z$, then $U(z) = \{2s+1\} \times \{2t-1, 2t, 2t+1\}$ and $y_1 \notin U(z)$. This is a contradiction.

Next if $z \in E_k^2$, say $z = (2s+1, 2t+1)$ for some $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $U(z) = \{(2s+1, 2t+1)\}$ and $y_1 \notin U(z)$. This is also a contradiction.

Thus we have that $z \in E_F$ and hence $E_F \neq \emptyset$ for case 1.

Case 2: $y \in E_{mix}$. Let $y = (2n+1, 2m)$ for some $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\alpha \text{cl}(y) = \{2n, 2n+1, 2n+2\} \times \{2m\} \subseteq \alpha \text{cl}(E) \subseteq \alpha\text{-ker}(E)$. Thus there exists a point $(2n, 2m) \in \alpha\text{-ker}(E)$, say $y_1 = (2n, 2m)$. Using theorem 7.2(ii), we have that $y_1 \in U(z)$ for some $z \in E$.

If $z \in E_{mix}$, say $z = (2s+1, 2t)$ for some $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $U(z) = \{2s+1\} \times \{2t-1, 2t, 2t+1\}$ and $y_1 \notin U(z)$. This is a contradiction.

Next if $z \in E_k^2$, say $z = (2s+1, 2t+1)$ for some $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $U(z) = \{(2s+1, 2t+1)\}$ and $y_1 \notin U(z)$. This is also a contradiction.

Thus we have that $z \in E_F$ and hence $E_F \neq \emptyset$ for case 2.

Case 3: $y \in E_F$. Then $E_F \neq \emptyset$.

We shown that $E_F \neq \emptyset$ for all cases.

(ii): Suppose that $E \neq \emptyset$. By (i) we have that $E_F \neq \emptyset$. It follows from assumption and definition that $E_F \subseteq (B_{mix} \cup B_k^2)_F = \emptyset$. We have a contradiction.

Theorem 7.4: Let A be a subset in (\mathbb{Z}^2, k^2) .

(i) If $(\mathbb{Z}^2)_F \subseteq A$ holds, then A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed.

(ii) If $(\mathbb{Z}^2)_F \subseteq A$ holds and there exists a point $x \in A_k^2$ such that $\text{cl}\{x\} \subseteq A$, then A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed set which is not α -closed.

Proof:

(i) Using theorem 7.2, we have $G\alpha\text{-ker}(A) = U(A_F) = \mathbb{Z}^2$. Then, A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed set by theorem 3.21.

(ii) By (i), A is $^*g\alpha$ -closed set. Since $\{x\} \subseteq A_k^2 \subseteq A$ and $\text{Int}(\text{cl}(\{x\})) = \{x\}$, we have that $\text{cl}(\{x\}) \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{Int}(\text{cl}(A)))$ and so $\text{cl}(\{x\}) \subseteq \alpha \text{cl}(A)$. Suppose that A is α -closed. Then, we have that $\text{cl}(\{x\}) \subseteq A$. This is a contradiction.

Example 7.5: The converse of the theorem 7.3(i) is not true in general. A set $A = \{x, y, z\}$ where $x = (3, 3)$, $y = (3, 2)$ and $z = (4, 2)$ is not $g\alpha$ -closed but $A_F \neq \emptyset$.

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