

$\psi g\alpha$ -Closed Sets in Topological Spaces

Naveena G.

(16PMA013)

Thesis Submitted to

Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women

Coimbatore-641 043

In Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Science in Mathematics

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INTRODUCTION

Topology is a branch of mathematics which is good at extracting global qualitative features from complicated geometric structures. General topology known as point set topology is the branch of topology dealing with the set theoretic definitions and constructions used in topology. It is the foundation of the most other branches of topology, including differential topology, geometric topology, algebraic topology. The fundamental concepts in point set topology are continuity, compactness and connectedness. The topological structures are modeled suitably in the fields of computer graphics, pattern recognition, artificial intelligence, data mining, information systems, rough set theory, quantum physics etc.

The notion of open sets is the powerful tool for defining a topological spaces. In the study of topological spaces many concepts of topology have been generalized by introducing the concept of semi open sets due to Levine (1963) instead of open sets. Njastad (1965) introduced α -open sets in topological spaces. Levine (1970) introduced the concept of generalized closed (briefly, g-closed) sets in topological spaces. Using this concept many researchers have introduced and studied various types of generalized closed sets.

Maki et al. (1993) introduced generalized α -closed set in topological spaces. Dontchev(1995) introduced generalized semi pre closed set in topological spaces. Maki et al. (1996) introduced generalized pre closed set in topological spaces. Veera kumar (2000) introduced ψ -closed sets in topological space.

Continuous maps are an important notions in the field of mathematics. Sevaral researchers working in the field of general topology have shown interest in studying the properties of generalizations of continuous maps. Levine (1963) introduced the semi-continuous maps in topological spaces. Levine (1970) introduced the concept of continuous maps in topological spaces. Mashhour et al. (1983) introduced and studied α -continuous maps in topological spaces. The generalized continuous (g-continuous) maps were introduced and studied by Balachandran et al. (1991).

The Present study focuses on the following concepts:

- (i) $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets in topological spaces
- (ii) $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps in topological spaces

Chapter 1 deals with preliminary definitions in topological spaces that are needed for the present study.

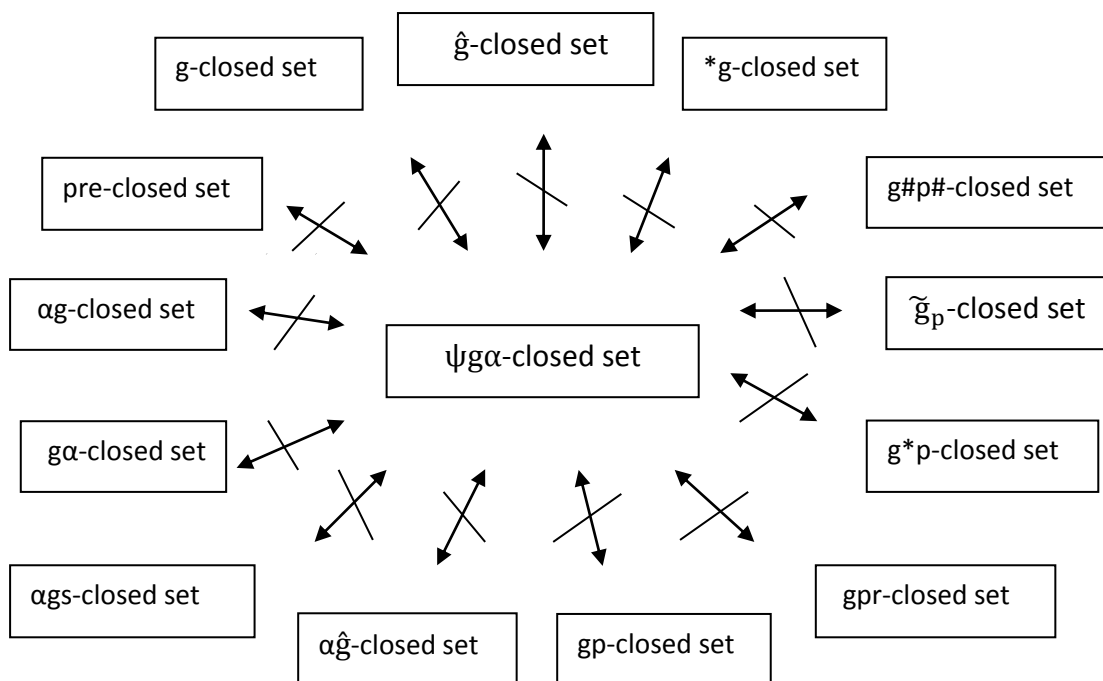
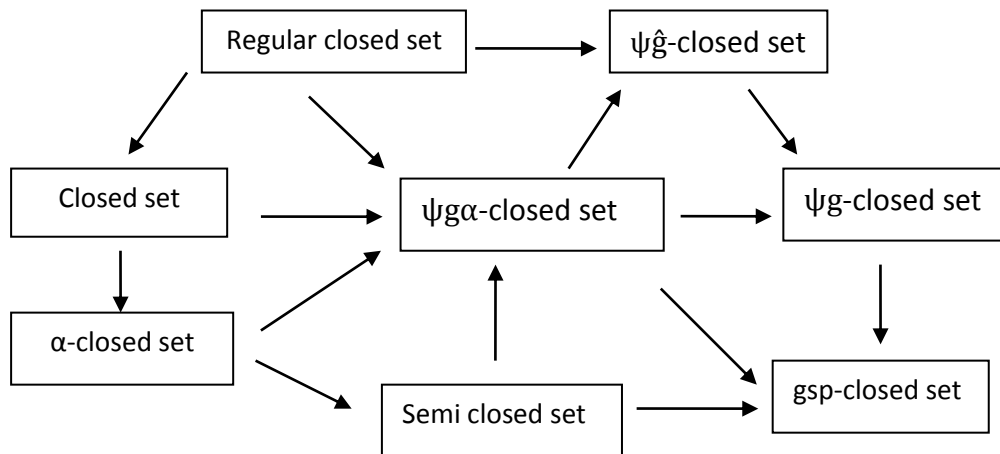
In Chapter 2, a new class of generalized closed sets called $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets is introduced in topological spaces. Properties and characterizations of $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets are derived. A comparative study between $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets and already existing various generalised closed sets is carried out. $\psi g\alpha$ -closure operator is defined and its properties are analyzed. As an application of $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets five new spaces namely $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space, $\psi g\alpha T_\alpha$ -space, $\psi g\alpha T_{sc}$ -space, $\psi g T \psi g\alpha$ -space and $\psi \hat{g} T \psi g\alpha$ -space are introduced and their interrelations are obtained.

Important definitions and results:

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is said to be a **$\psi g\alpha$ -closed set** if $\psi \text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

The collection of all $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets of (X, τ) is denoted by $\psi g\alpha C(X, \tau)$.

The following diagrams exhibit the relations between $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets with other existing various generalized closed sets.



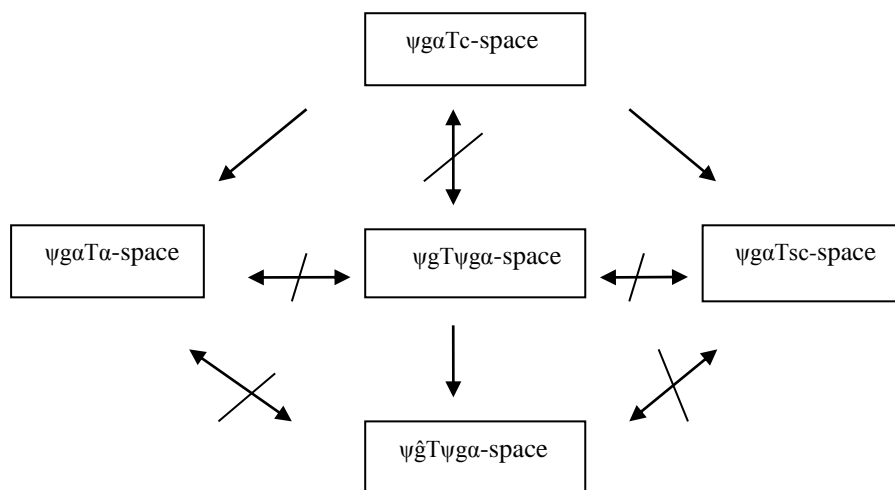
where $A \rightarrow B$ represents A implies B and $A \leftrightarrow B$ represents A and B are independent.

- Let A and B be subsets of (X, τ) such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq \psi\text{cl}(A)$. If A is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) , then B is also a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set.
- Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Then $\psi\text{cl}(A) - A$ contains no non-empty closed sets.
- If a set A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) , then $\psi\text{cl}(A) - A$ contains no non-empty $g\alpha$ -closed set.
- Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) . Then A is ψ -closed if and only if $\psi\text{cl}(A) - A$ is $g\alpha$ -closed.

A topological space (X, τ) is said to be a

- 1) $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space if every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is closed in (X, τ) .
- 2) $\psi g\alpha T_\alpha$ -space if every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is α -closed in (X, τ) .
- 3) $\psi g\alpha T_{sc}$ -space if every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is semi-closed in (X, τ) .
- 4) $\psi g T_{\psi g\alpha}$ -space if every ψg -closed subset of (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .
- 5) $\psi \hat{g} T_{\psi g\alpha}$ -space if every $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

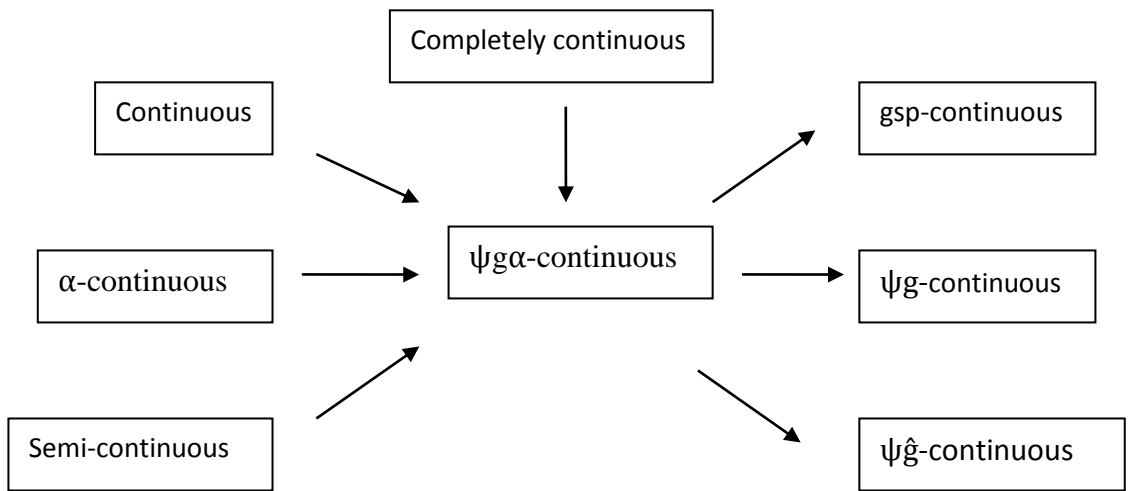
The following diagram exhibits the relations between the newly defined spaces.



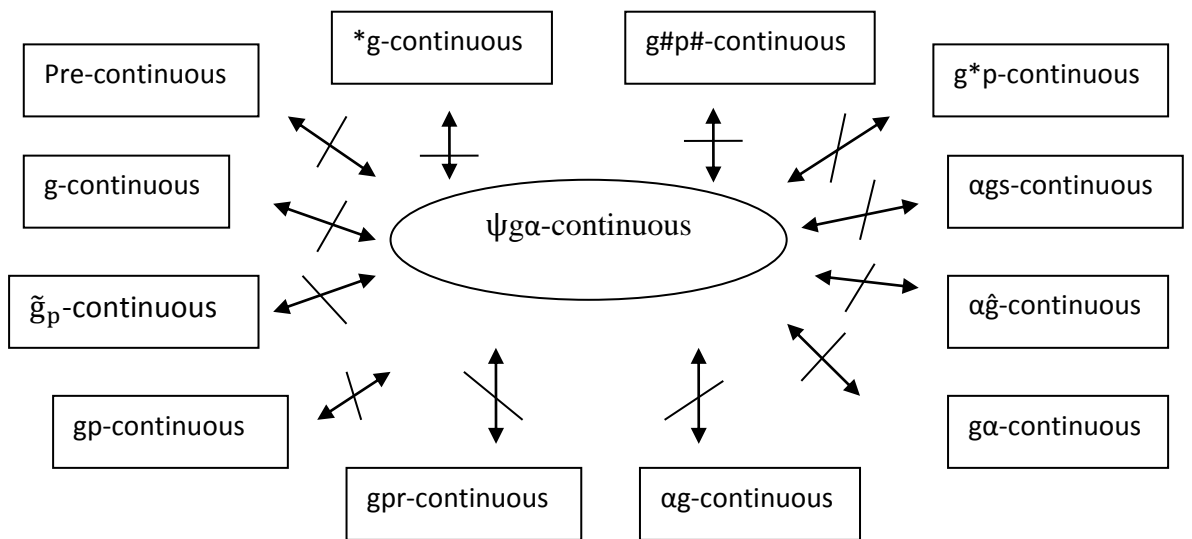
In Chapter 3, using $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets the concept of $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is introduced and some of their properties are analyzed in topological spaces. Also the relationship between $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps with other existing continuous maps is obtained.

A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called **$\psi g\alpha$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ) .

The following diagrams are the output of the comparative study of $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps with already existing continuous maps:



where $A \rightarrow B$ represents A implies B .



where $A \leftrightarrow B$ represents A and B independent.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Topology is one of the widely studied areas of mathematics emerged through the works of the great mathematician Henri Poincare in the 19th century. Topological structures on the collection of data are suitable mathematical models for mathematizing not only quantitative data but also qualitative data.

Initially, open sets is the basic concept for the study of topological spaces. Later Stone (1937) introduced regular open sets in topological spaces. Levine (1963) introduced the notion of semi open sets in topological spaces. Njastad (1965) introduced α -open sets in topological spaces. The study of generalized closed sets was introduced by Levine (1970) in order to extend the topological properties of closed sets to a large family of sets. Mashhour et al. (1983) introduced α -closed sets. Using the concept of α -closed sets, Maki et al. (1993,1994) introduced the concept of generalized α -closed sets and α -generalized closed sets and investigated the properties between these two sets. Dontchev (1995) defined ψ -closed sets and studied their properties.

Veera Kumar (2000) investigated a new class of closed sets called ψ -closed sets in topological spaces. Veera Kumar introduced g^* -closed sets (2000), g^*p -closed sets (2002), \hat{g} -closed sets (2003) and $*g$ -closed sets (2006) in topological spaces. Abd El. Monsef et al. (2007) defined $\alpha\hat{g}$ -closed sets. Ramya and Parvathi (2011) introduced ψg -closed sets and $\psi\hat{g}$ -closed sets in topological spaces.

Continuous maps are important notions in the field of mathematics. Several researchers working in the field of general topology have shown interest in studying the properties of generalizations of continuous maps. Mashhour et al. (1983) defined and studied α -continuous maps. Devi et al. (1997) introduced and studied αg -continuous maps and $g\alpha$ -continuous maps. Veera Kumar introduced ψ -continuous (2000), g^* -continuous (2000), \hat{g} -continuous (2003), $*g$ -continuous (2006) maps in topological spaces.

CHAPTER-1

PRELIMINARIES

Definition 1.1

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. The intersection of all closed sets containing A is called **closure of A** and is denoted by $\text{cl}(A)$. The union of all open sets contained in A is called **interior of A** and is denoted by $\text{int}(A)$.

Definition 1.2[30]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **regular-open** if $A = \text{int}(\text{cl}(A))$ and **regular-closed** if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) = A$.

Definition 1.3[23]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **α -open** if $A \subseteq \text{int}(\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)))$ and **α -closed** if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(\text{cl}(A))) \subseteq A$.

Definition 1.4[15]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **semi-open** if $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{int}(A))$ and **semi-closed** if $\text{int}(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq A$.

Definition 1.5[21]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **pre-open** if $A \subseteq \text{int}(\text{cl}(A))$ and **pre-closed** if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq A$.

Definition 1.6[3]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **semi pre-open** if $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{int}(\text{cl}(A)))$ and **semi pre-closed** if $\text{int}(\text{cl}(\text{int}(A))) \subseteq A$.

Definition 1.7[16]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **generalized closed** (briefly g -closed) if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.8[7]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **semi-generalized closed** (briefly sg-closed) if $scl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is semi-open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.9[5]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **generalized semi closed** (briefly gs-closed) if $scl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.10[18]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **generalized α -closed** (briefly $g\alpha$ -closed) if $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is α -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.11[19]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **α -generalized closed** (briefly αg -closed) if $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.12[10]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **generalized semi pre closed** (briefly gsp-closed) if $spcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.13[20]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **generalized pre closed** (briefly gp-closed) if $pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.14[12]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **generalized pre regular closed** (briefly gpr-closed) if $pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.15[32]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **Ψ -closed** if $scl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is sg-open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.16[31]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **g^* -closed** if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is g -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.17[35]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **$g\#$ -closed** if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is αg -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.18[34]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **\hat{g} -closed** if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is semi-open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.19[2]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **$g\#p\#$ -closed** if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $g\#$ -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.20[11]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **\tilde{g}_p -closed** if $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $\#gs$ -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.21[14]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **\tilde{g} -closed** if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $\#gs$ -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.22[27]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **$\psi\hat{g}$ -closed** if $\psi\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is \hat{g} -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.23[25]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **αgs -closed** if $\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is semi-open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.24[27]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **ψ g-closed** if $\psi\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.25[36]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called ***g -closed** if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is \hat{g} -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.26[33]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **g^*p -closed** if $p\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is g -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.27[1]

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called **$\alpha\hat{g}$ -closed** if $\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is \hat{g} -open in (X, τ) .

Definition 1.28[17]

A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.29[4]

A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **completely continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is regular-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.30[22]

A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **α -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.31[15]

A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **semi-continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is semi-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.32[6]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **generalized continuous** (briefly g -continuous) if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.33[9]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **α -generalized continuous** (briefly αg -continuous) if $f^{-1}(V)$ is αg -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.34[26]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$\alpha g s$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\alpha g s$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.35[29]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$\alpha \hat{g}$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\alpha \hat{g}$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.36[8]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$g s p$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $g s p$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.37[24]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$g \# p \#$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $g \# p \#$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.38[31]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **g^* -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g^* -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.39[28]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **ψg -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is ψg -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.40[28]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$\psi\hat{g}$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi\hat{g}$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.41[9]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$g\alpha$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.42[6]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **gp -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gp -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.43[33]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **g^*p -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g^*p -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.44[11]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **\tilde{g}_p -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is \tilde{g}_p -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.45[30]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **pre-continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is pre-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.46[36]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **$*g$ -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $*g$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 1.47[13]

A function $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **gpr -continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gpr -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

CHAPTER-2

$\psi g\alpha$ -Closed Sets in Topological Spaces

2.1 Introduction

Levine (1970) introduced generalized closed sets in topological spaces. Maki et al. (1993) introduced $g\alpha$ -closed sets in topological spaces. Veera Kumar (2000) defined the concept of ψ -closed sets in topological spaces.

In this chapter a new class of generalized closed sets called $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets in topological spaces is introduced. The relationship between $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets with various existing generalized closed sets are obtained. As an application of $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets five new spaces are defined and their interrelations are derived.

2.2 $\psi g\alpha$ -Closed sets

In this section a new class of generalized closed sets called $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets in topological spaces is introduced and some of their properties and characterizations are analyzed.

Definition 2.2.1

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is said to be a **$\psi g\alpha$ -closed set** if $\psi cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

The collection of all $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets of (X, τ) is denoted by $\psi g\alpha C(X, \tau)$.

Example 2.2.2

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}, \tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$. Then $\phi, \{b, c\}, X$ are $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets.

Proposition 2.2.3

Every closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a closed set and U be any $g\alpha$ -open containing A in X . Since A is closed, $cl(A)=A$. For every subset A of X , $\psi cl(A) \subseteq cl(A)=A \subseteq U$. Therefore A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Example 2.2.4

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.5

Every regular closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Follows from the fact that every regular closed set is closed and by proposition 2.2.3.

Example 2.2.6

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not regular closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.7

Every α -closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be an α -closed set and U be any $g\alpha$ -open set containing A in X . Since A is α -closed, $\alpha cl(A)=A$. For every subset A of X , $\psi cl(A) \subseteq \alpha cl(A)=A \subseteq U$. Therefore A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Example 2.2.8

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{b, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not α -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.9

Every semi-closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a semi-closed set and U be any $g\alpha$ -open set containing A in X . Since A is semi-closed, $scl(A)=A$. For every subset A of X , $\psi cl(A) \subseteq scl(A)=A \subseteq U$. Therefore A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Example 2.2.10

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not semi-closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.11

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) is ψg -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set and U be any open set containing A in X . Since every open set is $g\alpha$ -open and A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $\psi cl(A) \subseteq U$. Hence A is ψg -closed.

Example 2.2.12

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, b\}$ is ψg -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.13

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) is gsp -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set and U be any open set containing A in X . Since every open set is $g\alpha$ -open and A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $\psi cl(A) \subseteq U$. For every subset A of X , $spcl(A) \subseteq \psi cl(A)$ and so $spcl(A) \subseteq U$. Therefore A is gsp -closed.

Example 2.2.14

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.15

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set and U be any \hat{g} -open set containing A in X . Since every \hat{g} -open set is $g\alpha$ -open and A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $\psi \text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$. Hence A is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed.

Example 2.2.16

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.2.17

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -closedness is independent from pre-closedness, g^*p -closedness and \widetilde{g}_p -closedness.

Example 2.2.18

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not pre-closed, g^*p -closed and \widetilde{g}_p -closed.

Example 2.2.19

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{b\}$ is pre-closed, g^*p -closed, \widetilde{g}_p -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 2.2.20

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -closedness is independent from g -closedness, αg -closedness, $\alpha \hat{g}$ -closedness and gp -closedness.

Example 2.2.21

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, c\}$ is g -closed, αg -closed, $\alpha \hat{g}$ -closed and gp -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Example 2.2.22

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not g -closed, αg -closed, $\alpha \hat{g}$ -closed and gp -closed.

Remark 2.2.23

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -closedness is independent from $g\alpha$ -closedness and $\alpha g s$ -closedness.

Example 2.2.24

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not $g\alpha$ -closed and $\alpha g s$ -closed.

Example 2.2.25

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{c\}$ is $g\alpha$ -closed and $\alpha g s$ -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 2.2.26

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -closedness is independent from \hat{g} -closedness.

Example 2.2.27

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not \hat{g} -closed.

Example 2.2.28

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{b\}$ is \hat{g} -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 2.2.29

The following example show that $\psi g\alpha$ -closedness is independent from $*g$ -closedness and $g\#p\#$ closedness.

Example 2.2.30

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$.Then the subset $\{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not $*g$ -closed and $g\#p\#$ closed. The subset $\{a,c\}$ is $*g$ -closed and $g\#p\#$ closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 2.2.31

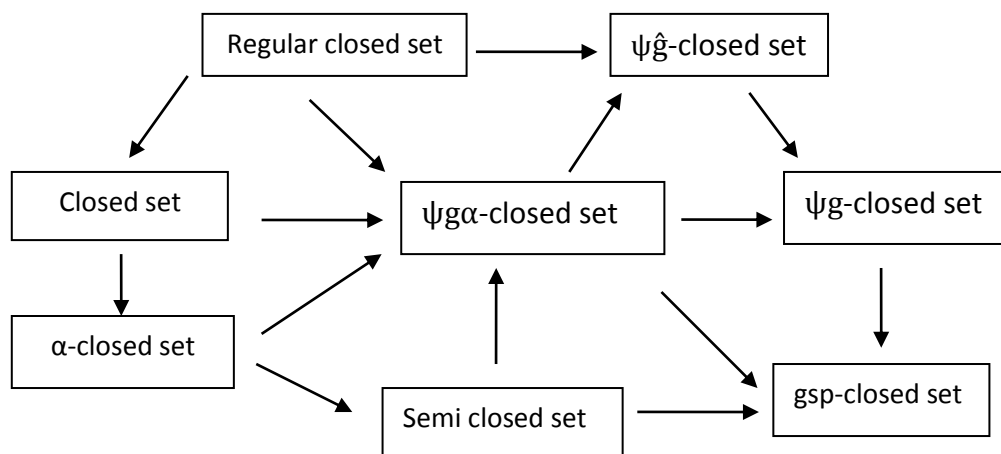
The following example show that $\psi g\alpha$ -closedness is independent from gpr -closedness.

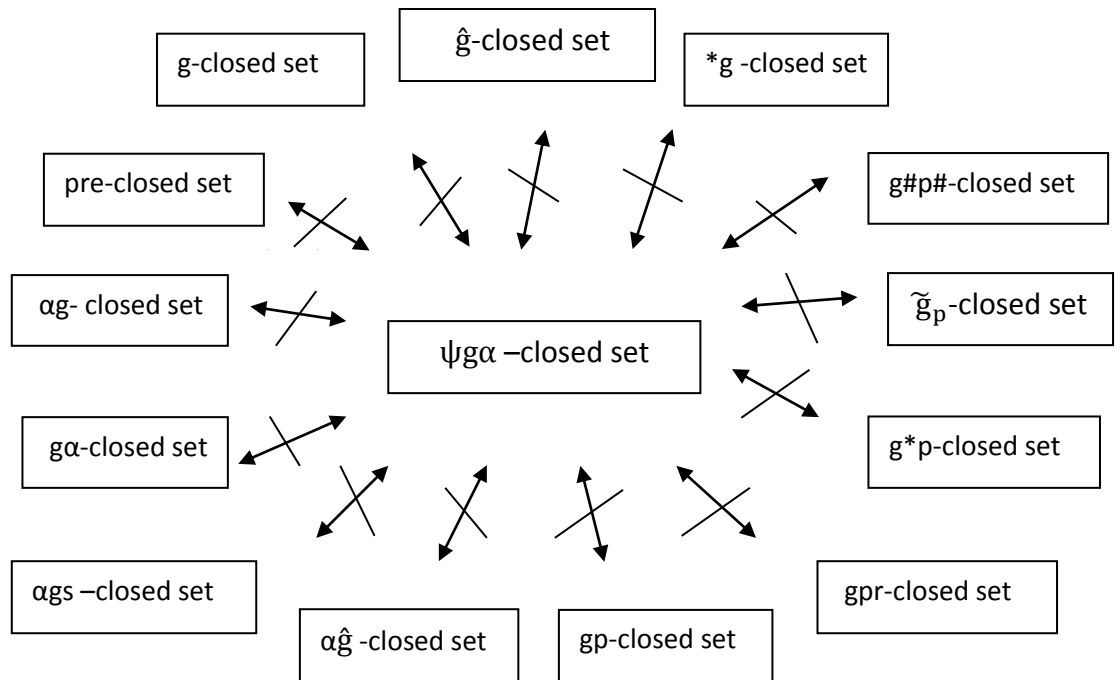
Example 2.2.32

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$.Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not gpr -closed. The subset $\{a, b\}$ is gpr -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Remark 2.2.33

The following diagrams exhibit the relation between $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets with already existing various generalized closed sets.





Proposition 2.2.34

If A is both $g\alpha$ -open and $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set of (X, τ) then A is ψ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proof

Let A be $g\alpha$ -open and $\psi g\alpha$ -closed. Then by definition, $\psi cl(A) \subseteq A$, Always $A \subseteq \psi cl(A)$. Therefore $\psi cl(A) = A$, Hence A is ψ -closed.

Proposition 2.2.35

Let A and B be subsets of (X, τ) such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq \psi cl(A)$. If A is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) , then B is also a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set.

Proof

Let A and B be subsets such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq \psi cl(A)$. Suppose that A is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set. Let U be a $g\alpha$ -open set of (X, τ) such that $B \subseteq U$. Then $A \subseteq U$. Since A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $\psi cl(A) \subseteq U$. Also since $B \subseteq \psi cl(A)$, $\psi cl(B) \subseteq \psi cl(\psi cl(A)) = \psi cl(A)$. Hence $\psi cl(B) \subseteq U$. Hence B is also a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.2.36

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Then $\psi cl(A)-A$ contains no non-empty closed set.

Proof

Suppose that A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed. Let F be a closed subset of $\psi cl(A)-A$. Then F^c is open and hence $g\alpha$ -open such that $A \subseteq F^c$. Since A is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set, $\psi cl(A) \subseteq F^c$. Thus $F \subseteq (\psi cl(A))^c$. Also $F \subseteq \psi cl(A)-A$ implies $F \subseteq \psi cl(A)$. Hence $F \subseteq \psi cl(A) \cap (\psi cl(A))^c = \phi$. Therefore $F = \phi$.

The converse of the above proposition is not true as seen from the following example.

Example 2.2.37

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. If $A = \{a, b\}$ then $\psi cl(A)-A = X - \{a, b\} = \{c\}$ does not contain non-empty closed set. However A is not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed.

Proposition 2.2.38

If a set A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) then $\psi cl(A)-A$ contains no non-empty $g\alpha$ closed set.

Proof

Suppose that A is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set. Let F be a $g\alpha$ -closed set contained in $\psi cl(A)-A$. F^c is a $g\alpha$ -open in X such that $A \subseteq F^c$. Since A is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set of X , $\psi cl(A) \subseteq F^c$. Thus $F \subseteq (\psi cl(A))^c$. Also $F \subseteq \psi cl(A)-A$ implies $F \subseteq \psi cl(A)$. Therefore $F \subseteq \psi cl(A) \cap (\psi cl(A))^c = \phi$. Therefore $F = \phi$.

Proposition 2.2.39

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Then A is ψ -closed if and only if $\psi cl(A)-A$ is $g\alpha$ -closed.

Proof

(Necessity): Suppose that A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed. Let A be an ψ -closed subset of (X, τ) . Then $\psi cl(A)=A$. Hence $\psi cl(A)-A= \phi$ is $g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

(Sufficiency): Let $\psi cl(A)-A$ be a $g\alpha$ -closed set. Since A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, by Proposition 2.2.38, $\psi cl(A)-A$ contains no non-empty $g\alpha$ -closed set which implies $\psi cl(A)-A= \phi$. That is $\psi cl(A)=A$. Hence A is ψ -closed.

Remark 2.2.40

Union of two $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets need not be $\psi g\alpha$ -closed as seen from the following example.

Example 2.2.41

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then $A=\{a\}$, $B=\{b\}$ are $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but $A \cup B = \{a, b\}$ is not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

2.3 $\psi g\alpha$ -closure operator

In this section $\psi g\alpha$ -closure operator is introduced and studied its basic properties.

Definition 2.3.1

The $\psi g\alpha$ -closure of a subset A of a topological space (X, τ) denoted by $\psi g\alpha cl(A)$ is defined as follows.

$$\psi g\alpha cl(A) = \cap \{F \subseteq X : A \subseteq F \text{ and } F \text{ is } \psi g\alpha\text{-closed in } (X, \tau)\}$$

Remark 2.3.2

For a subset A of a topological space (X, τ) , $A \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A) \subseteq cl(A)$

Proof

Follows from proposition 2.2.3 and definition 2.3.1

Remark 2.3.3

Both inclusion relation in Remark 2.3.2 may be proper as seen from the following example.

Example 2.3.4

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $A=\{b\}$. Then $\psi g\alpha cl(A)=\{b, c\}$ and $cl(A)=\{X\}$ and so $A \subset \psi g\alpha cl(A) \subset cl(A)$.

Proposition 2.3.5

Let A be any subset of (X, τ) . If A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) , then $\psi g\alpha cl(A)=A$.

Proof

Follows from the definition 2.3.1.

Proposition 2.3.

Let A and B be any two subsets of (X, τ) . Then the following statements are true

- (a) $\psi g\alpha cl(\phi)=\phi$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(X)=X$.
- (b) If $A \subseteq B$, then $\psi g\alpha cl(A) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(B)$
- (c) $\psi g\alpha cl(A) \cup \psi g\alpha cl(B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A \cup B)$
- (d) $\psi g\alpha cl(A \cap B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A) \cap \psi g\alpha cl(B)$
- (e) $\psi g\alpha cl(\psi g\alpha cl(A)) = \psi g\alpha cl(A)$

Proof

(a) and (b) follow from the **Definition 2.3.1**

(c) Since $A \subseteq A \cup B$ and $B \subseteq A \cup B$, by (b) $\psi g\alpha cl(A) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A \cup B)$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A \cup B)$. Hence $\psi g\alpha cl(A) \cup \psi g\alpha cl(B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A \cup B)$.

(d) Since $A \cap B \subseteq A$ and $A \cap B \subseteq B$, by (b) $\psi g\alpha cl(A \cap B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A)$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(A \cap B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(B)$. Therefore $\psi g\alpha cl(A \cap B) \subseteq \psi g\alpha cl(A) \cap \psi g\alpha cl(B)$.

(e) Follows from the **Definition 2.3.1**

Remark 2.3.7

The Reverse inclusion of (c) in proposition 2.3.6 is not true in general as seen from the following example.

Example 2.3.8

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. If $A=\{a\}, B=\{b\}$ then $\psi g\alpha cl(A)=\{a\}$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(B)=\{b\}$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(A \cup B)=X$, but $\psi g\alpha cl(A) \cup \psi g\alpha cl(B) = \{a, b\}$.

Remark 2.3.9

The reverse inclusion of (d) in proposition 2.3.6 is not true in general as seen from the following example.

Example 2.3.10

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. If $A=\{a\}$ and $B=\{b\}$ the $\psi g\alpha cl(A)=X$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(B)=\{b\}$ and $\psi g\alpha cl(A) \cap \psi g\alpha cl(B)=\{b\}$ but $\psi g\alpha cl(A \cap B) = \phi$.

2.4 $\psi g\alpha$ -open sets

In this section the concept of $\psi g\alpha$ -open sets is introduced and their properties are studied in topological spaces.

Definition 2.4.1

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is called $\psi g\alpha$ -open if its complement A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

The collection of all $\psi g\alpha$ -open sets of (X, τ) is denoted by $\psi g\alpha O(X, \tau)$.

Example 2.4.2

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then $\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, X$ are $\psi g\alpha$ -open sets.

Proposition 2.4.3

Every open set in (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha$ -open set but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be an open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is closed in (X, τ) . Since every closed set is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore A is $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.4

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open but not open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.5

Every α -open set in (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha$ -open set but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be an α -open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is α -closed in (X, τ) . Since every α -closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Hence A is $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.6

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open but not α -open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.7

Every regular open set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -open but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a regular open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is regular closed in (X, τ) . Since every regular closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore A is $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.8

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open but not regular-open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.9

Every semi-open set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -open but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a semi-open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is semi-closed in (X, τ) . Since every semi-closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore A is $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.10

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open but not semi-open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.11

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) is ψg -open but not conversely

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) is ψg -closed, A^c is ψg -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore A is ψg -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.12

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{b\}$ is ψg -open but not $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.13

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) is gsp -open but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) is gsp -closed, A^c is gsp -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore A is gsp -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.14

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{a, c\}$ is gsp -open but not $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.15

Every $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) is $\psi\hat{\text{g}}$ -open but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) . Then A^c is $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) is $\psi\hat{\text{g}}$ -closed, A^c is $\psi\hat{\text{g}}$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore A is $\psi\hat{\text{g}}$ -open in (X, τ) .

Example 2.4.16

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then the subset $\{b\}$ is $\psi\hat{\text{g}}$ -open but not $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.4.17

For a subset A of (X, τ) , $\psi\text{cl}(X - A) = X - \psi\text{int}(A)$.

Proposition 2.4.18

A subset A of a topological space (X, τ) is $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open if and only if $U \subseteq \psi\text{int}(A)$ whenever $U \subseteq A$ and U is $\text{g}\alpha$ -closed.

Proof

Assume that A is $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) . Then A^c is $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -closed. Let U be a $\text{g}\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) contained in A . Then U^c is a $\text{g}\alpha$ -open set in (X, τ) containing A^c . Since A^c is a $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -closed, $\psi\text{cl}(A^c) \subseteq U^c$ equivalently $U \subseteq \psi\text{int}(A)$.

Conversely assume that U is contained in $\psi\text{int}(A)$ whenever U is contained in A and U is $\text{g}\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Let A^c be contained in U , where U is $\text{g}\alpha$ -open. Then U^c is contained in A . By criteria, $U^c \subseteq \psi\text{int}(A)$. This implies $(\psi\text{int}(A))^c \subseteq U$ that is $\psi\text{cl}(A^c) \subseteq U$. Therefore A^c is $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -closed. Therefore A is $\psi\text{g}\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.4.19

If $\psi\text{int}(A) \subseteq B \subseteq A$ and A is $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) then B is $\psi g\alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

Proof

Follows from Remark 2.4.17 and proposition 2.2.35.

Proposition 2.4.20

If a subset A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) then $\psi\text{cl}(A)-A$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open.

Proof

Suppose that A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Let $F \subseteq \psi\text{cl}(A)-A$ and F be $g\alpha$ -closed. Since A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $\psi\text{cl}(A)-A$ does not contain nonempty $g\alpha$ -closed set (by proposition 2.2.38) Hence $F = \phi$. Thus $F \subseteq \psi\text{int}[\psi\text{cl}(A)-A]$. Therefore $\psi\text{cl}(A)-A$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open.

Proposition 2.4.21

Let $A \subseteq B \subseteq \psi\text{cl}(A)$ and Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set .Then $\psi\text{cl}(B)-B$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open.

Proof

Let $A \subseteq B \subseteq \psi\text{cl}(A)$ and A be $\psi g\alpha$ -closed .By proposition 2.2.35, B is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set. Then by proposition 2.4.20 $\psi\text{cl}(B)-B$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open.

Proposition 2.4.22

Let A be a subset of X and $x \in X$, then $x \in \psi g\alpha\text{cl}(A)$ if and only if $U \cap A \neq \phi$ for every $\psi g\alpha$ -open set U containing x .

Proof

Let $x \in \psi g\alpha\text{cl}(A)$ and there exist a $\psi g\alpha$ -open set U containing x such that $U \cap A = \phi$. Then $A \subseteq X-U$ and $\psi g\alpha\text{cl}(A) \subseteq X-U$. Hence $x \notin U$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $U \cap A \neq \phi$.

Conversely, assume that $U \cap A \neq \phi$ for every $\psi g\alpha$ -open set U containing x . Suppose that $x \notin \psi g\alpha cl(A)$. Then there exists a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set F containing A such that $x \notin F$. Then $x \in X - F$ and $X - F$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -open. By assumption, $(X-F) \cap A \neq \phi$. Since $A \subseteq F$, $(X-F) \cap A = \phi$, which is a contradiction. Hence $x \in \psi g\alpha cl(A)$.

2.5 Applications of $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set

As an application of $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets five new spaces namely $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space, $\psi g\alpha T_\alpha$ -space, $\psi g\alpha T_{sc}$ -space, $\psi g T \psi g\alpha$ -space and $\psi \hat{g} T \psi g\alpha$ -space are introduced and their properties and interrelations are obtained.

Definition 2.5.1

A topological space (X, τ) is said to be a

- 1) $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space if every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is closed in (X, τ) .
- 2) $\psi g\alpha T_\alpha$ -space if every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is α -closed in (X, τ) .
- 3) $\psi g\alpha T_{sc}$ -space if every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is semi-closed in (X, τ) .
- 4) $\psi g T \psi g\alpha$ -space if every ψg -closed subset of (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .
- 5) $\psi \hat{g} T \psi g\alpha$ -space if every $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed subset of (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.5.2

Every $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space is a $\psi g\alpha T_\alpha$ -space but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space, A is closed in (X, τ) . Since every closed set is α -closed, A is α -closed in (X, τ) . Hence (X, τ) is $\psi g\alpha T_\alpha$ -space.

Example 2.5.3

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space but not $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space, since the subset $\{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.5.4

Every $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space, A is closed in (X, τ) . Since every closed set is semi-closed, A is semi-closed in (X, τ) . Therefore (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space.

Example 2.5.5

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space but not $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space, since the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.5.6

Every $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space, A is α -closed in (X, τ) . Since every α -closed set is semi-closed, A is semi-closed in (X, τ) . Therefore (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space.

Example 2.5.7

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space but not $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not α -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 2.5.8

Every $\psi g T\psi g\alpha$ -space is a $\psi g\hat{T}\psi g\alpha$ -space but not conversely.

Proof

Let A be a $\psi\hat{g}$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi\hat{g}$ -closed set is ψg -closed in (X, τ) and (X, τ) is a $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space, A is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed. Therefore (X, τ) is a $\psi\hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space.

Example 2.5.9

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi\hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space but not $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{b\}$ is ψg -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.5.10

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space and $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space are independent.

Example 2.5.11

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space but not $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{c\}$ is ψg -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ closed in (X, τ) .

Example 2.5.12

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space but not a $\psi g\alpha Tc$ -space, since the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.5.13

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space and $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space are independent.

Example 2.5.14

Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space but not $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{b\}$ is ψg -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 2.5.15

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space but not a $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not α -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.5.16

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space and $\psi \hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space are independent.

Example 2.5.17

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space but not a $\psi \hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{a, b\}$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 2.5.18

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi \hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space but not a $\psi g\alpha T\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not α -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.5.19

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space and $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space are independent.

Example 2.5.20

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space but not a $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{a, c\}$ is ψg -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 2.5.21

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi gT\psi g\alpha$ -space but not $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space, since the subset $\{b, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not semi-closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.5.22

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha Tsc$ -space and $\psi \hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space are independent.

Example 2.5.23

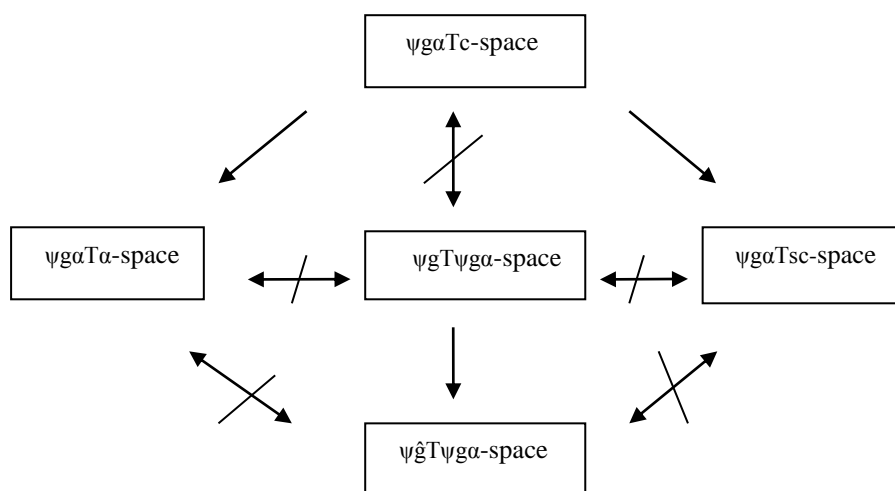
Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi g\alpha T_{sc}$ -space but not $\psi \hat{g} T \psi g\alpha$ -space, since the subset $\{a, c\}$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 2.5.24

Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$. Then (X, τ) is a $\psi \hat{g} T \psi g\alpha$ -space but not $\psi g\alpha T_{sc}$ -space, since the subset $\{b, c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not semi-closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 2.5.25

The following diagram exhibits the interrelations between the newly defined spaces.



CHAPTER-3

$\psi g\alpha$ -Continuous Maps in Topological spaces

3.1 Introduction

Continuity is an important concept in mathematics and various types of continuous maps have been introduced and analyzed over the years. In this chapter $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps using $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets is introduced and obtained some of their properties.

3.2 $\psi g\alpha$ -Continuous Maps

In this section $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps in topological spaces are introduced and discussed some of their basic properties.

Definition 3.2.1

A map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ) .

Example 3.2.2

Let $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a map defined by $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=c$. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

Proposition 3.2.3

Every continuous map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (X, τ) . Since every closed set is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.4

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not continuous, since for the closed set $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}\{c\} = \{c\}$ is not closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.5

Every completely-continuous map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is completely-continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is regular-closed in (X, τ) . Since every regular-closed set is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.6

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not completely continuous, since for the closed set $\{b, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{b, c\}) = \{b, c\}$ is not regular closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.7

Every α -continuous map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is α -continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) . Since every α -closed set is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.8

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not α -continuous, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not α -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.9

Every semi-continuous map $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is semi-continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is semi-closed in (X, τ) . Since every semi-closed set is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Hence f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.10

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not semi-continuous, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not semi-closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.11

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map $f:(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is ψg -continuous.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set is ψg -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is ψg -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is ψg -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.12

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$, with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is ψg -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.13

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is gsp -continuous.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set is gsp -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is gsp -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is gsp -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.14

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is gsp -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.15

Every $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -continuous.

Proof

Let V be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed, $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is $\psi \hat{g}$ -continuous.

The converse of the above proposition need not be true as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.16

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi\hat{g}$ -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.17

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from pre-continuity and g^*p -continuity.

Example 3.2.18

Let $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not pre-continuous and g^*p -continuous, since for the closed set $\{b\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not pre-closed and g^*p -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.19

Let $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$, with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is pre-continuous and g^*p -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed set $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ is pre-closed and g^*p -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.20

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from g -continuity, αg -continuity, $\alpha\hat{g}$ -continuity, $*g$ -continuity and gp -continuity.

Example 3.2.21

Let $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not g -continuous, αg -continuous, $\alpha\hat{g}$ -continuous, $*g$ -continuous and gp -continuous, since for the closed $\{b\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not g -closed, αg -closed, $\alpha\hat{g}$ -closed, $*g$ -closed and gp -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.22

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is g -continuous, αg -continuous, $\alpha \hat{g}$ -continuous, $*g$ -continuous and gp -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is g -closed, αg -closed, $\alpha \hat{g}$ -closed, $*g$ -closed and gp -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.23

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from $g\alpha$ -continuity and $\alpha g\sigma$ -continuity.

Example 3.2.24

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not $g\alpha$ -continuous and $\alpha g\sigma$ -continuous, since for the closed $\{a\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a\}) = \{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not $g\alpha$ -closed and $\alpha g\sigma$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.25

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $g\alpha$ -continuous and $\alpha g\sigma$ -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous since for the closed $\{b\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{b\}$ is $g\alpha$ -closed, $\alpha g\sigma$ -closed, but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.26

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from \hat{g} -continuity.

Example 3.2.27

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not \hat{g} -continuous, since for the closed $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not \hat{g} -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.28

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is \hat{g} -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed set $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ is \hat{g} -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.29

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from \tilde{g}_p -continuity.

Example 3.2.30

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not \tilde{g}_p -continuous, since for the closed $\{a\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{a\}) = \{a\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not \tilde{g}_p -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.31

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is \tilde{g}_p -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed sets $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ is \tilde{g}_p -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.32

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from gpr -continuity.

Example 3.2.33

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is gpr -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ is gpr -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.34

Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not gpr -continuous, since for the closed sets $\{b\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not gpr -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.35

The following examples show that $\psi g\alpha$ -continuity is independent from $g\#p\#$ -continuity.

Example 3.2.36

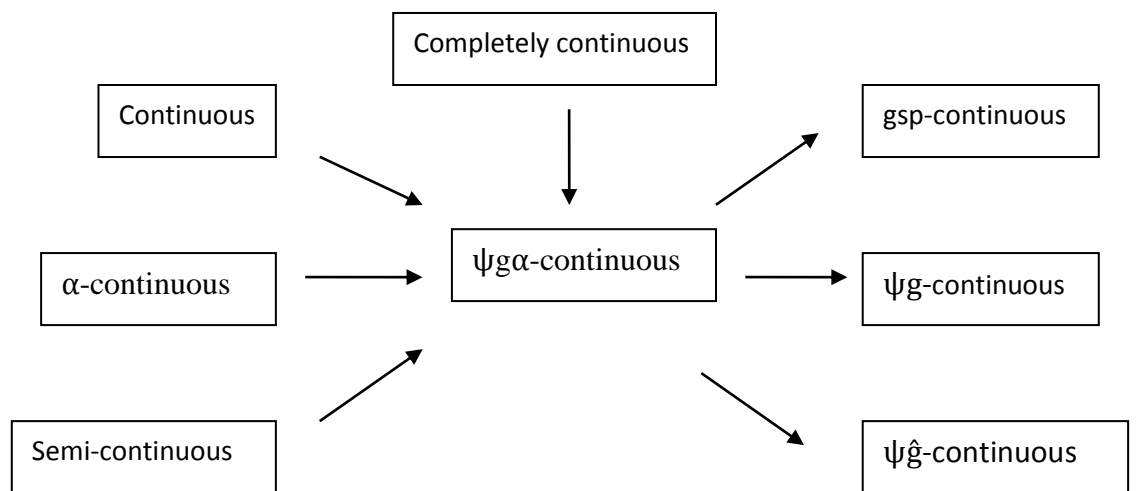
Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $g\#p\#$ -continuous but not $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, since for the closed $\{c\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ is $g\#p\#$ -closed but not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2.37

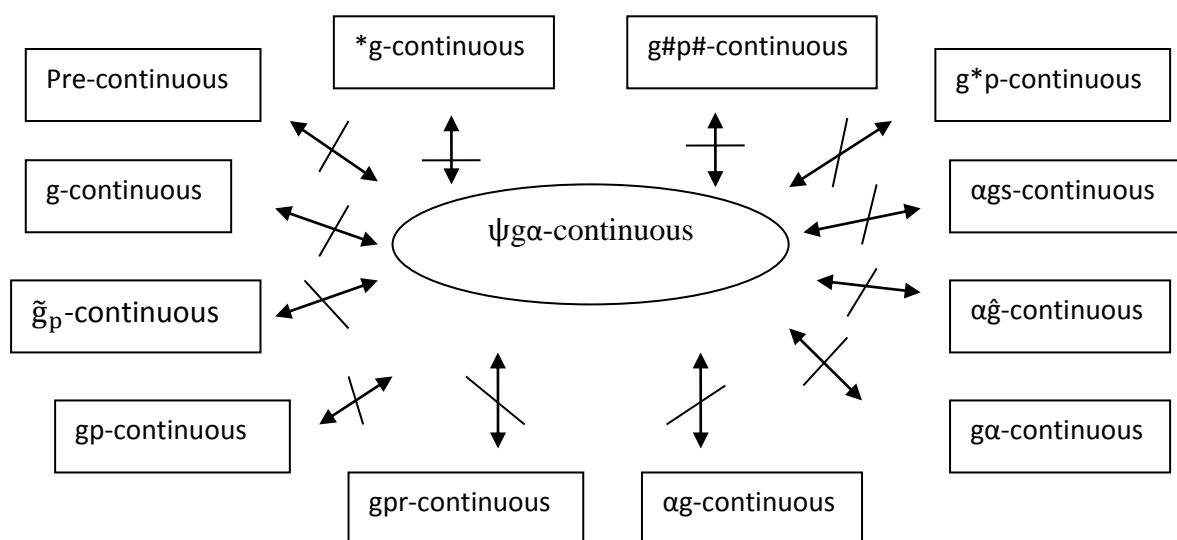
Let $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ with $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$ and $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Y\}$. Let f be the identity map. Then f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but not $g\#p\#$ -continuous, since for the closed $\{b\}$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{b\}$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed but not $g\#p\#$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.2.38

The following diagrams show the relationship between $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map with the existing continuous map.



where $A \rightarrow B$ represents A implies B .



where $A \leftrightarrow B$ represents A and B independent.

Theorem 3.2.39

A map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -open for each open set V in (Y, σ) .

Proof (Necessity):

Let V be an open set in (Y, σ) . Then $Y - V$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(Y - V) = X - f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Hence $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -open in (X, τ) .

(Sufficiency):

Assume that $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -open in (X, τ) for each open set V in (Y, σ) . Let G be any closed set in (Y, σ) . Then $Y - G$ is open in (Y, σ) . By assumption, $f^{-1}(Y - G) = X - f^{-1}(G)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -open in (X, τ) which implies that $f^{-1}(G)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous.

Theorem 3.2.40

If $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous then $f(\psi g\alpha \text{cl}(U)) \subseteq \text{cl}(f(U))$ for every subset U of (X, τ) .

Proof

Let U be any subset of (X, τ) . Then $\text{cl}(f(U))$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(\text{cl}(f(U)))$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) , since $f(U) \subseteq \text{cl}(f(U))$, $U \subseteq f^{-1}(f(U)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\text{cl}(f(U)))$ and hence $f^{-1}(\text{cl}(f(U)))$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set containing U . By definition of $\psi g\alpha$ -closure, we have $\psi g\alpha \text{cl}(U) \subseteq f^{-1}(\text{cl}(f(U)))$ which implies that $f(\psi g\alpha \text{cl}(U)) \subseteq \text{cl}(f(U))$.

Corollary 3.2.41

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a continuous map. Then for every subset U of (X, τ) , $f(\psi g\alpha \text{cl}(U)) \subseteq \text{cl}(f(U))$.

Proof

As every continuous map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous and by Theorem 3.2.40 the result follows.

Proposition 3.2.42

If $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a continuous map, then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Therefore $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.43

If $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a continuous (resp. α -continuous) map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a continuous map, then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is continuous (resp. α -continuous), $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is closed (resp. α -closed). Since every closed (resp. α -closed) set is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed. Therefore $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.44

If $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a semi-continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is semi-continuous, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is semi-closed in (X, τ) . Since every semi-closed set is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed. Therefore $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.45

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be completely-continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is completely-continuous, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is regular-closed in (X, τ) . Since every regular-closed set is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g \alpha$ closed. Therefore $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.46

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a gsp -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g \alpha$ -continuous. $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is $\psi g \alpha$ -closed in

(X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set is gsp-closed, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is gsp-closed, Therefore $g \circ f$ is a gsp-continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.47

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a ψg -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous. $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set is ψg -closed, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is ψg -closed, Therefore $g \circ f$ is a ψg -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.48

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi \hat{g}$ -continuous map.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous., $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Since every $\psi g\alpha$ -closed set is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed, Therefore $g \circ f$ is a $\psi \hat{g}$ -continuous map.

Remark 3.2.49

The composition of two $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map need not be a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map as seen from the following example.

Example 3.2.50

Let $X=Y=Z=\{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}$, $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ and $\mu = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, Z\}$. Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a map defined by $f(a)=a$, $f(b)=b$, $f(c)=c$ and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a map defined by $g(a)=a$, $g(b)=b$, $g(c)=c$. Then the map f and g are $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous but their composition $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is not a

$\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map, since for the closed set $\{a, c\}$ in (Z, μ) , $(g \circ f)^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ is not $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Proposition 3.2.51

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is also a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map, if (Y, σ) is a $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is a $\psi g\alpha T_c$ -space, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Hence $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.52

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a ψg -continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map, if (X, τ) is a $\psi g T \psi g\alpha$ -space.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is ψg -continuous, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is ψg -closed in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $\psi g T \psi g\alpha$ -space, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Hence $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Proposition 3.2.53

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be $\psi \hat{g}$ -continuous map and $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ be a continuous map. Then $g \circ f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \mu)$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map, if (X, τ) is a $\psi \hat{g} T \psi g\alpha$ -space.

Proof

Let V be a closed set in (Z, μ) . Since g is continuous, $g^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is $\psi \hat{g}$ -continuous, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ is $\psi \hat{g}$ -closed in (X, τ) .

Since (X, τ) is a $\psi\hat{g}T\psi g\alpha$ -space, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V)$ is $\psi g\alpha$ -closed in (X, τ) . Hence $g \circ f$ is a $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous map.

Summary and Conclusion

Preliminary definition are presented in **Chapter 1**.

In **Chapter 2**, $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets, $\psi g\alpha$ -closure and $\psi g\alpha$ -open sets are introduced in topological spaces. Properties and relations between $\psi g\alpha$ -closed sets with other existing various generalized closed sets are obtained.

In **Chapter 3**, $\psi g\alpha$ -continuous maps in topological spaces are introduced. Properties and Characterizations are derived.