

When compact sets are g-closed

Saheb¹. K. Jassim and Haider² G. Ali

Abstract: This paper is devoted to introduce new concepts which are called $K(gc)$, $gK(gc)$, $L(gc)$, $gL(gc)$ and locally $L(gc)$ -spaces. Several various theorems about these concepts are proved. Further more properties are stated as well as the relationships between these concepts and LC-spaces are investigated.

Key words: g-closed, KC-spaces and LC-spaces.

1-Introduction: It is known that compact subset of a Hausdorff space is closed, this motivates the author [7] to introduce the concept of KC-space, these are the spaces in which every compact subset is closed. Lindelof spaces have always played a highly expressive role in topology. They were introduced by Alexandroff and Urysohn back in 1929. In 1979 the authors [5] introduce a new concept namely LC-spaces, these are the spaces whose lindelof sets are closed. The aim of this paper is to continue the study of KC-spaces (LC-spaces).

2-Preliminaries: The basic definitions that needed in this work are recalled. In this work, spaces always mean topological spaces on which no separation axioms are assumed unless explicitly stated, a topological space is denoted by (X, τ) (or simply by X). For a subset A of X , the closure and the interior of A in X are denoted by $cl(A)$ and $Int(A)$ respectively. A space X is said to be K_2 - space if $cl(A)$ is compact, whenever A is compact set in X [6]. Also a subset F of a space X is g-closed if $cl(F) \subset U$, whenever U is open and containing F [4], X is said to be gT_1 if for every two distinct points x and y in X , there exist two g-open sets U and V such that $x \in U$ and $y \notin U$, also $x \notin V$ and $y \in V$ [3], and gT_2 if for every two distinct points x and y in X , there exist two disjoint g-open sets U and V containing x and y respectively [3]. A space X is said to be g-regular if whenever F is g-closed in X and $x \in X$ with $x \notin F$, then there are two disjoint g-open sets U and V containing x and F respectively [3]. A space X is said to be gT_3 if whenever it is gT_1 and g-regular [3] and X is said to be g-compact if for every g-open cover of X has a finite subcover[2]. A function f from a space X into a space Y is said to be g^{**} -continuous if $f^{-1}(U)$ is g-open, whenever U is g-open subset of a space Y . Also f is said to be g^{**} -closed if $f(F)$ is g-closed, whenever F is g-closed [3].

3-Weak forms of KC-spaces:

The author in [7] introduce the concept KC-spaces; in the present paper we introduce a generalization of KC-spaces namely $K(gc)$ and $gK(gc)$, also we study the

1-Ass. Prof., Department of Mathematics, College of Science, Al-Mustansiriya University

2-Lectuerer, Department of Mathematics, College of Science, Al-Mustansiriya University, E-Mail: haiderali89@yahoo.com

Properties and facts about these concepts and the relationships between these concepts and KC-space.

Definition 3.1 A space X is said to be $K(gc)$ -space if every compact set in X is g -closed. So every KC -space is $K(gc)$, but the converse is not true in general.

Example 3.1: Let $X \neq \emptyset$ and Γ be the indiscrete topology on X . Then (X, Γ) is $K(gc)$ but not KC -space. Since if B is a nonempty proper set in X . Clearly B is compact but not closed. Also it is g -closed, since the only open set which contains B is the whole space and $cl(B) = X$.

Definition 3.2 A space X is said to be $gK(gc)$ -space if every g -compact set in X is g -closed. So every $K(gc)$ -space is $gK(gc)$, but the converse is not true in general.

Definition 3.3 A space X is said to be gK_2 if $g-cl(A)$ is compact, whenever A is compact set in X .

Theorem 3.1: Every $K(gc)$ -space is gK_2 .

Proof: Let K be compact set in $K(gc)$ -space X , then it is g -closed, that is, $Cl_g(K) = K$, which implies to $Cl_g(K)$ is also compact.

Definition 3.4 A space X is said to be locally g -compact if for each point in X has a neighbourhood base which is consisting of g -compact sets. So every locally compact space is locally g -compact, but the converse is not true in general.

Lemma 3.1[1]: A space X is gT_1 if and only if every singleton set is g -closed.

Theorem 3.2 Every $K(gc)$ -space is gT_1 .

Proof: Suppose X is $K(gc)$ -space and $x \in X$, since $\{x\}$ is finite, then it is compact in X , which is $K(gc)$ -space, then it is g -closed. So by lemma 3.1 X is gT_1 .

Theorem 3.3 Every gT_3 -space is gT_2 .

Proof: Let x and y be two distinct points in X , so $\{x\}$ is g -closed, since X is gT_1 and $y \notin \{x\}$, but X is g -regular, then there exist two disjoint g -open sets U and V such that $x \in \{x\} \subset U$ and $y \in V$. Therefore X is gT_2 -space.

Definition 3.5: A set M is said to be g -neighbourhood of a point $x \in X$ if there exists a g -open set U such that $x \in U \subset X$. Clearly every neighbourhood is g -neighbourhood but the converse may be not true.

Example 3.2: Let $X \neq \emptyset$ and Γ be the indiscrete topology on X . Then in (X, Γ) the one point set $\{x\}$ is g -neighbourhood but not neighbourhood.

Theorem 3.4 The following are equivalent for a space X :

- 1) X is g -regular
- 2) If U is g -open in X and $x \in X$ with $x \in U$, then there is a g -open set V containing x such that $g-cl(V) \subset U$.
- 3) Each $x \in X$ has g -neighbourhood base consisting of g -closed sets.

Proof: (1) \rightarrow (2) Suppose X is g -regular, U is g -open in X and $x \in U$, then $X-U$ is a g -closed set in X not containing x , so disjoint g -open sets V and W can be found with $x \in V$ and $X-U \subset W$. Then $X-W$ is a g -closed set contained in U and containing V , so $g\text{-cl}(V) \subset U$. (2) \rightarrow (3) if (2) applies, then every g -open set U containing x contains a g -closed neighbourhood (namely $g\text{-cl}(V)$) of x , so the g -closed neighbourhoods of x form a neighbourhood base. (3) \rightarrow (1) suppose (3) applies and A is a g -closed set in X not containing x . Then $X-A$ is a g -neighbourhood of x , so there is a g -closed neighbourhood B of x with $B \subset X-A$. Then $g\text{-Int}(B)$ and $X-B$ are disjoint g -open sets containing x and A respectively, where $g\text{-Int}(B)$ the set of all g -interior points. Thus X is g -regular.

Theorem 3.5: Every T_2 -space is $K(gc)$ -space.

Theorem 3.6 If X is locally g -compact and $K(gc)$ -space, then X is gT_2 -space.

Proof: Given X is locally g -compact, then every $x \in X$ has a neighbourhood base consisting of g -compact sets, but X is $K(gc)$, then these compact sets are g -closed and hence x has neighbourhood base consisting of g -closed sets, then by theorem 3.4, X is g -regular space and by theorem 3.2 X is gT_1 , then it is gT_3 -space, that is, X is gT_2 .

Theorem 3.7: Every g -compact set in gT_2 -space is g -closed.

Proof: Let A be a g -compact set in a gT_2 -space X . If $p \in X-A$, so for each $q \in A$, there are two disjoint g -open sets U and V containing q and p respectively. The collection $\{U(q): q \in A\}$ is a g -open cover of A which is g -compact, then there is finite subcover of A , that is, $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n U(q_i)$. Put $V_1 = \bigcap_{i=1}^n V_{q_i}(p)$ and $U_1 = \bigcup_{i=1}^n U(q_i)$. Then V_1 is a g -open set containing p . We claim that $U_1 \cap V_1 = \emptyset$, so let $x \in U_1$, then $x \in U(q_i)$ for some i , so $x \notin V_{q_i}(p)$, hence $x \notin V_1$. Thus $U_1 \cap V_1 = \emptyset$. Also $A \subset U_1$, that is, $A \cap V_1 = \emptyset$ which implies $V_1 \subset X-A$. Therefore A is g -closed.

Corollary 3.1: Every gT_2 -space is $gK(gc)$ -space.

Theorem 3.8: The g^{**} -continuous image of g -compact set is g -compact.

Proof: Let f be g^{**} -continuous function from a space X into a space Y and suppose B is g -compact set in X . To show that B is also g -compact, let $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be g -open cover of $f(B)$, that is, $f(B) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} U_\alpha$. So $B \subset f^{-1}f(B) = f^{-1}(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} U_\alpha) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} f^{-1}(U_\alpha)$, then $\{f^{-1}(U_\alpha)\}$ is a g -open cover of B , which is g -compact, then $B \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_i})$. But $f(B) \subseteq f(\bigcup_{i=1}^n f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_i})) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n f(f^{-1}(U_{\alpha_i})) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i}$. Therefore $f(B)$ is g -compact set.

Theorem 3.9: Every continuous function from compact into a $K(gc)$ -space is g -closed function.

Proof: Let A be closed set in X , which is compact, then A is compact. But f is continuous, then $f(A)$ is compact in Y , which is $K(gc)$ -space, then $f(A)$ is g -closed. Therefore f is g -closed.

Lemma 3.2[1]: Every g -closed subset of g -compact space is g -compact.

Theorem 3.10: Every g^{**} -continuous function from g -compact into $K(gc)$ -space is g^{**} -closed function.

Proof: Let f be g^{**} -continuous function from g -compact X into $K(gc)$ -space Y . Also let B be g -closed set in X . So by lemma 3.2 B is g -compact also by theorem 3.8 $f(B)$ is g -compact, which implies it is compact in Y , which is $K(gc)$, then $f(B)$ is g -closed. Therefore f is g^{**} -closed.

Corollary 3.2: Every g^{**} -continuous function from g -compact space into $gK(gc)$ -space is g^{**} -closed.

Remark 3.2: The continuous image of $K(gc)$ -space is not necessarily $K(gc)$.

Example 3.3: Consider $I_R: (R, \Gamma_u) \rightarrow (R, \Gamma)$, where I_R is the identity function, Γ_u and Γ are usual and cofinite topologies respectively. Clearly (R, Γ_u) is $K(gc)$ -space.. Since every compact set in R is closed and bounded, this implies it is g -closed. But $I_R(R) = R$ and (R, Γ) is $K(gc)$ -space. Since if given $[0, 1]$, which is compact and $U = R - \{5\}$, so $U \in \Gamma$, then $[0, 1] \subset U$, but $cl([0, 1]) = R \not\subset U$. So (R, Γ) is not $K(gc)$.

Theorem 3.11: Let f be g^{**} -continuous injective function from X into a $gK(gc)$ – space Y , then X is also $gK(gc)$.

Proof: Let W be any g -compact subset of X , then by theorem 3.7 $f(W)$ is g -compact set in Y , which is $gK(gc)$, then $f(W)$ is g -closed also f is g^{**} -continuous, so $f^{-1}(f(W)) = W$. Therefore X is $gK(gc)$ -space.

Theorem 3.12: The property of space being $K(gc)$ is a hereditary property.

Proof: Let Y be a subspace of $K(gc)$ -space X and A be any compact subset of Y , then A is compact in X , which is $K(gc)$, then A is g -closed in X . But $A = A \cap X$, then A is g -closed in Y . Therefore Y is also $K(gc)$.

Theorem 3.13: Let f be a homeomorphism function from a space X into a space Y , if U is g -open set in X , then $f(U)$ is also g -open.

Proof: Let F be any closed subset of $f(U)$, so $f^{-1}(F) \subset f^{-1}f(U) = U$, but U is g -closed, then $f^{-1}(F) \subset Int(U)$, which implies $F = f(f^{-1}(F)) \subset f(Int(U)) = Int(f(U))$. Therefore $f(U)$ is also g -open.

Corollary 3.3: Let f be a homeomorphism function from a space X into a space Y , if U is g -closed set in X , then $f(U)$ is also g -closed.

Corollary 3.4: Let f be a homeomorphism function from a space X into a space Y , if M is g -compact set in X , then $f(M)$ is also g -compact.

Theorem 3.14: The property of space being $K(gc)$ is a topological property.

Proof: Let f be a homeomorphism function from a $K(gc)$ -space X into a space Y and B be compact set in Y , then $f^{-1}(B)$ is compact in X , which is $K(gc)$, then $f^{-1}(B)$ is g -closed and by corollary 3.3 $f(f^{-1}(B))=B$ is g -closed set in Y .

Corollary 3.5: The property of space being $gK(gc)$ is a topological property.

4. Further type of LC-spaces:

In 1979 the authors [5] introduce a new concept namely LC-spaces, these are the spaces in which every lindelof sets are closed. In the present paper we introduce a new concept namely $L(gc)$ -spaces which is a weak form of LC-spaces.

Definition 4.1 A space X is said to be $L(gc)$ -space if every lindelof set is g -closed. So every LC-space is $L(gc)$ but the converse is not true in general.

Example 4.1: Let R with the indiscrete topology Γ . Clearly (R, Γ) is $L(gc)$, since for every Lindelof set difference from R and \emptyset is g -closed but not closed.

Theorem 4.1 Every $L(gc)$ -space is gT_1 .

Theorem 4.2 Every locally g -compact $L(gc)$ is gT_2 .

Proof: Let X be a locally g -compact and $L(gc)$ -space, then X is $K(gc)$. So by theorem 3.6 X is gT_2 -space.

Theorem 4.3 The property of space being $L(gc)$ is a hereditary property.

Proof: The proof is similar to theorem 3.12.

Theorem 4.4: If X is $L(gc)$ and $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space, then every compact set in X is finite.

Proof: Let A be compact set in X . If A is finite, then the proof is finished, if A is infinite, then either A is countable or uncountable. Suppose A is countable and U is any set in A , then U is countable, so U is lindelof in A , which implies it is lindelof in X , which is $L(gc)$, then U is g -closed in X . But X is $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$, and then U is closed in X . But $U \cap A = U$, then U is closed in A , that is, A is discrete but A is compact, then A is finite, which is a contradiction. If A is uncountable, then there exists a subset K of A is countable and so K is lindelof in A , so it is lindelof in X , which is $L(gc)$ and $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space, then K is closed. Put $K = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$. Let $U_1 = K^c$, now $a_1 \in U_2 = A - \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$

and $a_2 \in A - \{a_3, a_4, \dots\}$, then $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is an open cover of A , which has no finite subcover, which is a contradiction. Then A is finite.

Definition 4.3: A space X is said to be g -lindelof if for every g -open cover of X has a countable subcover. Clearly every g -lindelof-space is lindelof but the converse may be not true.

Example 4.2: Let R with the indiscrete topology Γ . Clearly every subset of R is lindelof, since the only open cover of any set is just R . But (R, Γ) is not g -lindelof, since if given $Q^c = R - Q$, then it is not g -lindelof, since $\{\{x\} : x \in Q^c\}$ is a cover of Q^c consisting of g -open sets, which can not be reduce to a countable subcover.

Theorem 4.5: The g^{**} -continuous image of g -lindelof set is also g -lindelof.

Proof: Let f be g^{**} -continuous function from a space X into a space Y and let K be g -lindelof set in X . To show that $f(K)$ is also g -lindelof, let $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be a g -open cover of $f(K)$, that is, $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \{U_{\alpha}\}$, then $K \subseteq f^{-1}f(K) \subseteq f^{-1} \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \{U_{\alpha}\} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \{f^{-1}U_{\alpha}\}$, which is also g -open cover of K , but K is g -lindelof, then it is has a countable subcover, that is, $K \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{f^{-1}U_{\alpha_i}\}$, which implies to $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{U_{\alpha_i}\}$. Therefore $f(K)$ is g -lindelof.

Theorem 4.6: The property of space being g -lindelof is a topological property.

Proof: Let f be a homeomorphism function from a g -lindelof space X into a space Y .

Suppose $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be g -open cover of Y , that is, $Y = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \{U_{\alpha}\}$, then $X = f^{-1}(Y) = f^{-1} \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \{U_{\alpha}\}$. So by theorem 3.13 $\{f^{-1}U_{\alpha}\}$ is g -open cover of X , which is g -

lindelof, then $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{f^{-1}U_{\alpha_i}\}$, which implies to

$Y = f(X) = f(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{f^{-1}U_{\alpha_i}\}) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} f\{f^{-1}U_{\alpha_i}\} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{U_{\alpha_i}\}$. Therefore Y is also g -lindelof.

Definition 4.3: A space X is said to be $gL(gc)$ -space if every g -lindelof set in X is g -closed. So every LC -space is $gL(gc)$ and every $L(gc)$ -space is $gL(gc)$ but the converses are not true in general.

Theorem 4.7: Let f be a homeomorphism function from a space X into a space Y if X is $gL(gc)$ -space, then Y is also $gL(gc)$.

Proof: Let B be a g -lindelof set in Y , then $f^{-1}(B)$ is g -lindelof in X , which is $gL(gc)$ -space, then it is g -closed, but f is a homeomorphism. So by theorem 3.13 $f(f^{-1}(B))=B$ is g -closed in Y . Therefore Y is also $gL(gc)$.

Definition 4.4: A space X is said to be locally $L(gc)$ -space if every point in X has $L(gc)$ -neighbourhood. So every $L(gc)$ -space is locally $L(gc)$.

Lemma 4.1[3]: If (Y, Γ_Y) is a g -closed subspace of a space (X, Γ_X) , then if B is g -closed in Y , then it is g -closed in X .

Theorem 4.8: A space X is an $L(gc)$ -space if and only if each point has closed neighbourhood which is an $L(gc)$ -subspace.

Proof: If X is $L(gc)$ -space, then for each $x \in X$, X itself is a closed neighbourhood of x , which is $L(gc)$. Conversely, Let L be a lindelof set in X and a point $x \in X$ such that $x \notin L$. Choose a closed neighbourhood W_x of x , which is $L(gc)$ -subspace, then $W_x \cap L$ is closed in L , which is lindelof, then $W_x \cap L$ is lidelof in W_x , but W_x is $L(gc)$ -subspace, then $W_x \cap L$ is g -closed in W_x , which is closed so it is g -closed. So by lemma 4.1 $W_x \cap L$ is g -closed in X . Then $W_x - (W_x \cap L) = W_x - L$ is a g -open set containing x and disjoint with L . Therefore L is g -closed set in X .

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