

On perfectly $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions in topological spaces

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Abstract

The concept of $\alpha\delta$ -closed sets was introduced in the research paper “On Strongly- $\alpha\delta$ -Super-Irresolute Functions In Topological Spaces. The aim of this paper is to consider and characterize $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute and $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions via the concept of $\alpha\delta$ -closed sets and to relate these concepts to the classes of $\alpha\delta O$ -compact spaces and $\alpha\delta$ -connected spaces.

Keywords: $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute functions, $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions, $\alpha\delta O$ -compact spaces, $\alpha\delta$ -connected spaces.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Closedness is a basic concept for the study and investigation of topological spaces. This concept has been generalized and studied by many authors from different points of views. In particular, Introduced semi-open sets, pre-open sets, α -open sets, δ -closed sets and δ -semi-closed sets, $g\delta$ -closed sets respectively.^[1-8] Introduced α -generalized closed (briefly αg -closed) sets.^[9] Introduced and studied the concept of δg -closed sets, $\delta g s$ -closed sets and $\delta s g$ -closed sets.^[5,10-11] More recently, Introduced and studied the notion of $\alpha\delta$ -closed sets which is implied by that of δ -closed sets and implies that of $g\delta s$ -closed sets.^[12]

The notions of $\alpha\delta$ -open sets, $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -spaces, $\alpha\delta$ -continuity and $\alpha\delta$ -irresoluteness are also available. In this paper, we will continue the study of $\alpha\delta$ -closed sets and associated function with introducing and characterizing $\alpha\delta$ -continuous and $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute functions. Further, we introduce the concepts of strong- $\alpha\delta$ -continuity, perfect- $\alpha\delta$ -continuity, $\alpha\delta O$ -compactness and $\alpha\delta$ -connectedness, and study their behaviour under $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions.

Throughout this paper, spaces X and Y always mean topological spaces. Let X be a topological space and A be a subset of X . The closure of A and the interior of A are denoted by $cl(A)$ and $int(A)$, respectively. A subset A is said to be regular open (resp. regular closed) if $A = int(cl(A))$, (resp. $A = cl(int(A))$). The δ -interior^[4] of a subset A of X is the union of all regular open sets of X contained in A and is denoted by $Int_{\delta}(A)$. The subset A is called δ -open^[4] if $A = Int_{\delta}(A)$, i.e., a set is δ -open if it is the union of regular open sets. The complement of a δ -open set is called δ -closed.

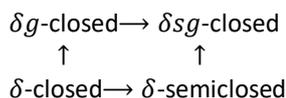
Alternatively, a set $A \subset (X, \tau)$ is called δ -closed^[4] if $A = cl_{\delta}(A)$, where $cl_{\delta}(A) = \{x \mid x \in U \in \tau \Rightarrow int(cl(U)) \cap A \neq \emptyset\}$. The family of all δ -open (resp. δ -closed) sets in X is denoted by $\delta O(X)$ (resp. $\delta C(X)$). A subset A of X is called semi-open^[1] (resp. α -open^[8], δ -semi-open^[5] if $A \subset cl(int(A))$ (resp. $A \subset int(cl(int(A)))$), $A \subset cl(Int_{\delta}(A))$ and the complement of a semi-open (resp. α -open, δ -semi-open) is called semi-closed (resp. α -closed, δ -semi-closed). The intersection of all semi-closed (resp. α -closed, δ -semi-closed) sets containing A is called the semi-closure (resp. α -closure, δ -semi-closure) of A and is denoted by $scl(A)$ (resp. $\alpha scl(A)$, $\delta scl(A)$). Dually, semi-interior (resp. α -interior, δ -semi-interior) of A is defined to be the union of all semi-open (resp. α -open, δ -semi-open) sets contained in A and is denoted by $sint(A)$ (resp. $\alpha sint(A)$, $\delta sint(A)$). Note that $\delta scl(A) = A \cup int(cl_{\delta}(A))$ and $\delta sint(A) = A \cup cl(Int_{\delta}(A))$. A is *en* (= closed and open).

We recall the following definition used in the sequel.

Definition 1.1. A subset A of a space X is said to be

- An α -generalized closed^[9] (αg -closed) set if $\alpha cl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is α -open in (X, τ) .
- An $\alpha\delta$ -closed^[12] set if $cl_{\delta}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is αg -open in (X, τ) .
- δ -semi-generalized closed^[13] ($\delta s g$ -closed) if $\delta scl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .
- A generalized δ -semi-closed^[13] ($g\delta s$ -closed) set if $\delta scl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .
- A δ -generalized closed^[10] (δg -closed) set if $cl_{\delta}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) .

Remark 1.2.[13] The following diagram holds for a subset A in a topological space (X, τ) :



Definition 1.3. Cantor-Bendixson derivative [14]

Let A be a subset of a topological space X . Its Cantor-Bendixson derivative A' is defined as the set of accumulation points of A . In other words $A' = \{x \in X | x \in \overline{A \setminus \{x\}}\}$. Through transfinite induction, the Cantor-Bendixson derivative can be defined to any order α , where α is an arbitrary ordinal. Let $A^{(0)} = A$. If α is a successor ordinal, then $A^{(\alpha)} = (A^{(\alpha-1)})'$. If λ is a limit ordinal, then $A^{(\lambda)} = \bigcap_{\alpha < \lambda} A^{(\alpha)}$. The Cantor-Bendixson rank of the set A is the least ordinal α such that $A^{(\alpha)} = A^{(\alpha+1)}$. Note that $A' = A$ implies that A is a perfect set.

2. $\alpha\delta$ -Interior and $\alpha\delta$ -Closure

Definition 2.1. Let X be a topological space and let $x \in X$. A subset N of X is said to be an $\alpha\delta$ -nbhd of x if there exists an $\alpha\delta$ -open set G such that $x \in G \subset N$.

Definition 2.2. Let A be a subset of X . A point $x \in A$ is said to be $\alpha\delta$ -interior point of A if A is an $\alpha\delta$ -nbhd of x . The set of all $\alpha\delta$ -interior point of A is called the $\alpha\delta$ -interior of A and is denoted by $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$.

Definition 2.3. For a subset A of (X, τ) , we define the $\alpha\delta$ -closure of A as follows:

$$\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = \bigcap \{F : F \text{ is } \alpha\delta\text{-closed in } X, A \subset F\}.$$

Lemma 2.4. Let A be a subset of (X, τ) and $x \in X$. Then $x \in \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A)$ if and only if $V \cap A \neq \emptyset$ for every $\alpha\delta$ -open set V containing x .

Proof: Suppose that there exists a $\alpha\delta$ -open set V containing x such that $V \cap A = \emptyset$. Since $A \subset X \setminus V$, $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) \subset X \setminus V$ and then $x \notin \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A)$, a contradiction. Conversely, suppose that $x \notin \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A)$. Then there exist an $\alpha\delta$ -closed set F containing A such that $x \notin F$. Since $x \in X \setminus F$ and $X \setminus F$ is $\alpha\delta$ -open, $(X \setminus F) \cap A = \emptyset$, a contradiction.

Lemma 2.5. Let A and B be subsets of (X, τ) . Then we have

- (a) $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ and $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(X) = X$.
- (b) If A is $\alpha\delta$ -closed, then $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = A$.
- (c) If $A \subset B$, then $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{Cl}(B)$.
- (d) $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = \alpha\delta_{Cl}(\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A))$.

Proof: Straightforward.

Lemma 2.6. Let (X, τ) be a topological space and $A \subset X$, $B \subset X$. The following properties hold:

- (a) $\alpha\delta_{Int}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ and $\alpha\delta_{Int}(X) = X$.
- (b) $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) \subset A$.
- (c) $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) = \alpha\delta_{Int}(\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))$.
- (d) If $A \subset B$, then $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{Int}(B)$.
- (e) If B is any $\alpha\delta$ -open set contained in A , then $B \subset \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$.

Proof: Straightforward.

Remark 2.7. (a) If A is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in (X, τ) , then $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = A$. But the converse is not true which shows from the following example: Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{d\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, d\}, \{b, d\}, \{a, b, d\}\}$.

Let $A = \{b, d\}$. Then $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = A$ but A is not $\alpha\delta$ -closed.
 (b) In general, $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A \cap B) \not\subset \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) \cap \alpha\delta_{Cl}(B)$. For example, let $X = [-1, 1]$ and τ be the uncountable fort topology on X , i.e., $\tau = \{U \subset [-1, 1] : 0 \notin U \text{ or } X \setminus U \text{ is finite}\}$. Let $A = (-1, 0)$ and $B = (0, 1)$. Since both A and B are not $\alpha\delta$ -closed, $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = (-1, 0]$ and $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(B) = [0, 1)$ and so $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) \cap \alpha\delta_{Cl}(B) = \{0\}$ but $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A \cap B) = \emptyset$.

Theorem 2.8. Let A be any subset of X . Then

- (a) $(\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))^c = \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c)$
- (b) $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) = (\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c))^c$
- (c) $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A) = (\alpha\delta_{Int}(A^c))^c$.

Proof: (a) Let $x \in (\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))^c$. Then $x \notin \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$, i.e., every $\alpha\delta$ -open set U containing x is such that $U \not\subset A$. Then every $\alpha\delta$ -open set U containing x is such that $U \cap A^c \neq \emptyset$. By Lemma 2.4, $x \in \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c)$ and therefore $(\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))^c \subset \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c)$. Conversely, let $x \in \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c)$. Then by Lemma 2.4, every $\alpha\delta$ -open set U containing x is such that $U \cap A^c \neq \emptyset$.

That is every $\alpha\delta$ -open set U containing x is such that $U \not\subset A$. This implies by definition of $\alpha\delta$ -interior of A , $x \notin \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$. That is $x \in (\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))^c$ and $\alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c) \subset (\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))^c$. Thus $(\alpha\delta_{Int}(A))^c = \alpha\delta_{Cl}(A^c)$.

- (b) Follows by taking complements in (a).
- (c) Follows by replacing A by A^c in (a).

Definition 2.9. For a subset A of (X, τ)

- (a) $Int_\delta(A) = \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is } \delta\text{-open in } X, F \subset A\}$ [4].
- (b) $\delta gs\text{-int}(A) = \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is } \delta gs\text{-open in } X, F \subset A\}$ [5].
- (c) $\delta sg\text{-int}(A) = \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is } \delta sg\text{-open in } X, F \subset A\}$ [12].

Theorem 2.10. If A is a subset of X , Then

$$\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) = \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is } \alpha\delta\text{-open in } X, F \subset A\}.$$

Proof: If A be a subset of X , Then

- $x \in \alpha\delta_{Int}(A) \Leftrightarrow x$ is a $\alpha\delta$ -interior point of A .
- $\Leftrightarrow A$ is a $\alpha\delta$ -nbhd of point x .
- \Leftrightarrow there exists $\alpha\delta$ -open set F such that $x \in F \subset A$.
- $\Leftrightarrow x \in \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is } \alpha\delta\text{-open in } X, F \subset A\}$.
- $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) = \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is } \alpha\delta\text{-open in } X, F \subset A\}$.

Theorem 2.11. If A is a subset of X , Then

- (a) $Int_\delta(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$.
- (b) $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) \subset \delta gs\text{-Int}(A)$.
- (c) $\alpha\delta_{Int}(A) \subset g\delta s\text{-Int}(A)$.

Proof: (a) Let A be a subset of X , Then

- $x \in Int_\delta(A) \Rightarrow x \in \bigcup \{F \subset X : F \text{ is } \delta\text{-open}, F \subset A\}$.
- \Rightarrow There exists δ -open set F such that $x \in F \subset A$.
- \Rightarrow There exists $\alpha\delta$ -open set F such that $x \in F \subset A$, as every δ -open set is a $\alpha\delta$ -open set in X .
- $\Rightarrow x \in \bigcup \{F \subset X : F \text{ is } \alpha\delta\text{-open}, F \subset A\}$.
- $\Rightarrow x \in \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$.

Thus $x \in Int_\delta(A) \Rightarrow x \in \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$.

Hence $Int_\delta(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{Int}(A)$.

The proof of (b) and (c) follows from (a). Since we know that every $\alpha\delta$ -open set is a δgs -open set and every $\alpha\delta$ -open set is a $g\delta s$ -open set. Containment relation in the above may be proper as seen from the following example.

Example 2.12.

- (a) Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}$, $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{a\}) = \{a\}$ and $Int_{\delta}(\{a\}) = \emptyset$. It follows that $Int_{\delta}(\{a\}) \subset \alpha\delta_{int}(\{a\})$ and $Int_{\delta}(\{a\}) \neq \alpha\delta_{int}(\{a\})$.
- (b) Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{c\}, \{a, c\}, \{a, c, d\}\}$, $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{b\}) = \emptyset$ and $\delta gs-Int(\{b\}) = \{b\}$. It follows that $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{b\}) \subset \delta gs-Int(\{b\})$ and $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{b\}) \neq \delta gs-Int(\{b\})$.
- (c) Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}$, $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{d\}) = \emptyset$ and $\delta sg-Int(\{d\}) = \{d\}$. It follows that $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{d\}) \subset \delta sg-Int(\{d\})$ and $\alpha\delta_{int}(\{d\}) \neq \delta sg-Int(\{d\})$.

Definition 2.13. The union of all πg -open sets, [15] each contained in a set S in a topological space X is called the πg -interior of S and it is denoted by $\pi g-int(S)$.

Remark 2.14. For a subset A of a space, $\alpha\delta_{int}(A) \subset \pi g-int(A)$.

Definition 2.15. Let (X, τ) be a topological space [12] and $S \subset X$. The set $\bigcap\{A: S \subset A \text{ and } A \in \delta sg - \text{closed}\}$ is called δ -semi-generalized closure of S and is denoted by $\delta sg-cl(S)$.

Definition 2.16. For a topological space (X, τ) ,

- (a) $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \{U \subset X \mid \alpha\delta_{cl}(X \cup U) = X \cup U\}$.
- (b) $\tau_{\delta}^* = \{U \subset X \mid cl_{\delta}(X \cup U) = X \cup U\}$.
- (c) $\tau_{\delta sg}^{\#} = \{U \subset X \mid \delta sgCl(X \cup U) = X \cup U\}$.

Definition 2.17. A space (X, τ) is called

- (a) T^{δ} -space if every δ -closed set in it is closed.
- (b) Submaximal [11] if every dense subset is open.
- (c) $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space [11] if every $\alpha\delta$ -closed set in it is δ -closed.

Proposition 2.18. If $\delta O(X, \tau)$ is closed under finite intersections, then $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$ is a topology for X .

Proof: Clearly, $\emptyset, X \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. Let $\alpha \in I$ and $A_{\alpha} \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. Then $\alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus (\bigcup_{\alpha} A_{\alpha})) = \alpha\delta_{cl}(\bigcap_{\alpha} (X \setminus A_{\alpha})) \subset \bigcap_{\alpha} \alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus A_{\alpha}) = \bigcap_{\alpha} (X \setminus A_{\alpha}) = X \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$ and hence $\bigcup_{\alpha} A_{\alpha} \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. Let $A, B \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. Then $\alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus (A \cap B)) = \alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus A) \cup \alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus B) = X \setminus (A \cap B)$ and hence $A \cap B \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. Therefore $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$ is a topology.

Proposition 2.19. For a subset A of (X, τ) , the following statements hold:

- (a) $A \subset cl_{\delta}(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{cl}(A) \subset \delta sg-cl(A)$.
- (b) $\tau_{\delta}^* \subset \tau_{\alpha\delta}^* \subset \tau_{\delta sg}^{\#}$.

Proof: The proof follows from the definitions.

Definition 2.20. A subset A of a space X is called generalized δp -regular closed (briefly, $g\delta pr$ -closed) [11] if $\delta pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular open in (X, τ) .

Definition 2.21. For a subset A of a topological space [11] (X, τ) , $g\delta pr-cl(A) = \bigcap\{F: A \subset F, F \text{ is } g\delta pr - \text{closed in } X\}$.

Definition 2.22. The intersection of all πg -closed sets, [16] each containing a set S in a topological space X is called the πg -closure of S and it is denoted by $\pi g-cl(S)$.

Remark 2.23. For a subset A of a space, $g\delta pr-cl(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{cl}(A)$ and $\pi g-cl(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{cl}(A)$.

Theorem 2.24. Let (X, τ) be a space. Then

- (a) Every $\alpha\delta$ -closed set is δ -closed (i.e., (X, τ) is $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space) if and only if $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \delta O(X, \tau)$.

(b) Every $\alpha\delta$ -closed set is closed if and only if $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \tau$.

(c) If every δsg -closed set is $\alpha\delta$ -closed (i.e., $G\delta sC(X, \tau) = \alpha\delta C(X, \tau)$), then $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \tau_{\delta sg}^{\#}$.

Proof. (a) Let $A \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. Then $\alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus A) = X \setminus A$. By hypothesis, $cl_{\delta}(X \setminus A) = \alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus A) = X \setminus A$ and hence $A \in \delta O(X, \tau)$. Conversely, let A be $\alpha\delta$ -closed set. Then $\alpha\delta_{cl}(A) = A$ and hence $X \setminus A \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \delta O(X, \tau)$, i.e., A is δ -closed.

(b) Similar to (a).

(c) Let $A \in \tau_{\delta sg}^{\#}$. Then $\delta sg-cl(X \setminus A) = X \setminus A$ and by hypothesis, $\alpha\delta_{cl}(X \setminus A) = \delta sg-cl(X \setminus A) = X \setminus A$.

Hence $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* \subset \tau_{\delta sg}^{\#}$, i.e., $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* \subset \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. By Proposition 2.19, $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \tau_{\delta sg}^{\#}$.

Theorem 2.25. Given a space X , it follows that

- (a) If $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \delta O(X)$ then X is submaximal and $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space.
- (b) If X is submaximal and $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space then X is T^{δ} -space and $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space.

Proof. (a) Let A be a δ -open subset of X . By Proposition 2.19, we have $A \in \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$. By $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \delta O(X)$, A is open. Hence X is submaximal. Let B be a $\alpha\delta$ -closed subset of X . By Theorem 2.24(a), B is δ -closed and so $\alpha\delta$ -closed. Hence X is $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space.

(b) It is proved in [8].

3. Strongly $\alpha\delta$ -continuous and Perfectly $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions.

Definition 3.1. A function [11] $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called

- (a) $\alpha\delta$ -continuous if $f^{-1}(V)$ is an $\alpha\delta$ -closed set in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .
- (b) $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute if $f^{-1}(V)$ is an $\alpha\delta$ -closed set in (X, τ) for every $\alpha\delta$ -closed set V of (Y, σ) .
- (c) Strongly- $\alpha\delta$ -super-Irresolute (briefly, $S\alpha\delta$ -super-Irr) if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -closed set in (X, τ) for every $\alpha\delta$ -closed set V of (Y, σ) .
- (d) Super- $\alpha\delta$ -continuous if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -closed set in (X, τ) for every δ -closed set V of (Y, σ) .
- (e) Super-continuous [Noiri T, (1979/80)] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is δ -closed set in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Remark 3.2.

- (a) If $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \delta O(X, \tau)$ in X , then Super-continuity and $\alpha\delta$ -continuity coincide.
- (b) Every $\alpha\delta$ -continuous function defined on a $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space is Super-continuous.

Definition 3.3. A subset A [11] of a space (X, τ) is said to be $g\delta p$ -closed) if $\delta pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and $U \in \tau$. The compliment of $g\delta p$ -closed set is said to be $g\delta p$ -open.

Definition 3.4. A subset A [5] of a space (X, τ) is said to be $\pi g p$ -closed) if $pcl(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is π -open in X .

Definition 3.5. A function [11] $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called $g\delta p$ -continuous (resp. $g\delta pr$ -continuous) if $f^{-1}(F)$ is $g\delta p$ -closed (resp. $g\delta pr$ -closed) in X for every closed set F of Y .

Definition 3.6. A function [15] $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be almost $\pi g p$ -continuous if $f^{-1}(int(cl(V)))$ is $\pi g p$ -open for every $V \in \sigma$.

Remark 3.7. Every $\alpha\delta$ -continuous function is $g\delta p$ -continuous and so $g\delta pr$ -continuous and almost $\pi g p$ -continuous.

Theorem 3.8. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a function.

- (a) The following statements are equivalent:

- (i) f is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous.
- (ii) The inverse image of every open set in Y is $\alpha\delta$ -open in X .
- (b) If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous, then $f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(A)) \subset cl(f(A))$ for every subset A of X .
- (c) The following statements are equivalent:
 - (i) For each $x \in X$ and each open set V containing $f(x)$, there exists a $\alpha\delta$ -open set U containing x such that $f(U) \subset V$.
 - (ii) For every subset A of X , $f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(A)) \subset cl(f(A))$.
 - (iii) Suppose $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^*$ is a topology. The function $f: (X, \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is continuous.

Proof:

- (a) Straightforward.
- (b) Let $A \subset X$. Since f is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous and $A \subset f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))$, we obtain $\alpha\delta_{cl}(A) \subset f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))$ and then $f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(A)) \subset cl(f(A))$.
- (c) (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let $y \in f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(A))$ and let V be any open neighborhood of y . Then there exists an $x \in X$ and a $\alpha\delta$ -open set U such that $f(x) = y, x \in U, x \in \alpha\delta_{cl}(A)$ and $f(U) \subset V$. By lemma 2.4. $U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ and hence $f(A) \cap V \neq \emptyset$. Hence $y = f(x) \in cl(f(A))$.
- (ii) \Rightarrow (i) Let $x \in X$ and V be any open set containing $f(x)$. Let $A = f^{-1}(V)$. Since $f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(A)) \subset cl(f(A)) \subset Y/V$, then $\alpha\delta_{cl}(A) = A$. Since $x \notin \alpha\delta_{cl}(A)$, there exists a $\alpha\delta$ -open set U containing x such that $U \cap A = \emptyset$ and hence $f(U) \subset f(X/A) \subset V$.
- (ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Let B be closed in (Y, σ) . By hypothesis, $f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(f^{-1}(B))) \subset cl(f(f^{-1}(B))) \subset cl(B) = B$, i.e., $\alpha\delta_{cl}(f^{-1}(B)) \subset B$. This implies that $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in $(X, \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*)$ and hence $f: (X, \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is continuous.
- (iii) \Rightarrow (ii) Let A be any subset of X . Since $cl(f(A))$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Then the function $f: (X, \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is continuous, $f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))$ is closed in $(X, \tau_{\alpha\delta}^*)$ and hence $\alpha\delta_{cl}(f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))) = f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))$. Also since $A \subset f^{-1}(f(A)) \subset f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))$, by Lemma 2.5, we have $\alpha\delta_{cl}(A) \subset \alpha\delta_{cl}(f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))) = f^{-1}(cl(f(A)))$ and so $f(\alpha\delta_{cl}(A)) \subset cl(f(A))$.

R.Devi, V.Kokilavani and P.Basker pointed out that the composition of two $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions need not be $\alpha\delta$ -continuous. However, we have the following.

Proposition 3.9. Let (Y, σ) be a space such that $\sigma_{\alpha\delta}^* = \sigma$. If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ are $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions, then $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is also $\alpha\delta$ -continuous.

Proof. It follows from Theorem 2.24(b).

W.r.to. the restriction of a $\alpha\delta$ -continuous function, we have the following.

Proposition 3.10. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a $\alpha\delta$ -continuous function and H be a αg -open $\alpha\delta$ -closed subset of X . Assume that $\alpha\delta C(X, \tau)$ is closed under finite intersections. Then the restriction $f|_H: (X, \tau|_H) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous.

Proof. Let F be a closed subset of Y . By the hypothesis, $f^{-1}(F) \cap H = H_1$ (say) is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in X . Since $(f|_H)^{-1}(F) = H_1$, it is sufficient to show that H_1 is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in H . Let G_1 be any αg -open set of H such that $H_1 \subset G_1$. $G_1 = G \cap H$ for some αg -open set of X . Since $H_1 \subset G$ and H_1 is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in X , then $\delta cl_X(H_1) \subset G$, $\delta cl_H(H_1) = \delta cl_X(H_1) \cap H \subset G \cap H = G_1$ and

so H_1 is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in H . Hence $f|_H$ is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous.

Theorem 3.11. For a function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$, the following implications hold:

$$S\alpha\delta\text{-super-Irr} \Rightarrow \alpha\delta\text{-irresolute} \Rightarrow \text{Super-}\alpha\delta\text{-continuous.}$$

However, the converse implications in the theorem above are not always true, as can be seen from the following examples.

Example 3.12. (a) Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \sigma)$ be the identity. Then $f^{-1}(\{b, c\})$ is $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute but not a $S\alpha\delta$ -super-Irr, since $f^{-1}(\{b, c\})$ is not a δ -closed set in (X, τ) .

(b) Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{c, a\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}$. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \sigma)$ be the identity. Then $f^{-1}(\{c\})$ is Super- $\alpha\delta$ -continuous but not an $\alpha\delta$ -Irresolute. Since $f^{-1}(\{c\})$ is not an $\alpha\delta$ -closed set in (X, τ) .

Definition 3.13. A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called Strongly- $\alpha\delta$ -continuous (briefly, ST - $\alpha\delta$ -Continuous) if $f^{-1}(V)$ is an open set in (X, τ) for every $\alpha\delta$ -open set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 3.14. A function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called Perfect- $\alpha\delta$ -continuous (briefly, PER - $\alpha\delta$ -Continuous) if $f^{-1}(V)$ is clopen set in (X, τ) for every $\alpha\delta$ -open set V of (Y, σ) .

Note that a function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is Perfect- $\alpha\delta$ -continuous if and only if the inverse image of every $\alpha\delta$ -closed of Y is clopen in X . Noiri.T 1979 introduced the notion of perfect continuity between topological spaces. Recall that a function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called perfectly continuous [Noire.T 1979] if the inverse image of every open set of Y is clopen in X .

Theorem 3.15. If the function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is ST - $\alpha\delta$ -Continuous and the function $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ are $\alpha\delta$ -continuous, then $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is continuous.

Proof. Follows from Definitions 3.1 (a) and Definition 3.13.

Theorem 3.16. If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is perfectly continuous and if Y is both T^δ -space and $\widetilde{T}_{\alpha\delta}$ -space, then f is PER - $\alpha\delta$ -Continuous.

Proof. Follows from Theorem 2.25.

4. $\alpha\delta O$ -compact spaces and $\alpha\delta$ -connected spaces.

Definition 4.1. A topological space (X, τ) is called $\alpha\delta O$ -compact if for every cover of X by $\alpha\delta$ -open sets ($\alpha\delta$ -open cover) has finite subcover.

Definition 4.2.[16] A topological space X is called πg -compact if every cover of X by πg -open sets has finite subcover.

Remark 4.3. Every πg -compact space is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact.

Definition 4.4. A subset A of a space (X, τ) is called $\alpha\delta O$ -compact relative to X if for every collection $\{U_i: i \in \Lambda\}$ of $\alpha\delta$ -open subsets of X such that $A \subset \cup\{U_i: i \in \Lambda\}$, there exists a finite subset Λ_0 of Λ such that $A \subset \cup\{U_i: i \in \Lambda_0\}$.

Definition 4.5. A subset A of a space (X, τ) is called $\alpha\delta O$ -compact if A is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact as a subspace of X .

Lemma 4.6. A topological space (X, τ) is strongly compact if and only if X is compact and the Cantor-Bendixson derivative $X/I(X)$ is finite.

Example 4.7. Let Z be the set of all integers and τ be the double point excluded topology on Z , i.e., $\tau = \{U \subset Z: U \cap \{0, 1\} = \emptyset\} \cup \{Z\}$. Since this is a compact topological space with finite Cantor-Bendixson derivative, by Lemma 4.6., (Z, τ) is strongly

compact. To see that (Z, τ) is not $\alpha\delta O$ -compact, we consider the following $\alpha\delta$ -open cover of $Z: \mathcal{A} = \{\{1, x\}: x \in Z \text{ and } x \neq 0\} \cup \{0\}$. It is obvious that \mathcal{A} has no finite subcover.

Theorem 4.8.

- (a) Every $\alpha\delta$ -closed subsets of a $\alpha\delta O$ -compact space X is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact relative to X .
- (b) The surjective $\alpha\delta$ -continuous image of a $\alpha\delta O$ -compact space is compact.
- (c) Iff: $(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute and a subset A of X is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact relative to X , then its image $f(A)$ is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact relative to Y .
- (d) Iff: $(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is strongly $\alpha\delta$ -continuous surjective and X is compact, then Y is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact.

Proof: (a) Let A be a $\alpha\delta$ -closed subset of a $\alpha\delta O$ -compact space (X, τ) . Let $\{U_i: i \in \Lambda\}$ be a cover of A by $\alpha\delta$ -open subsets of X . So $A \subset \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} U_i$ and then $(X/A) \cup (\bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} U_i) = X$. Since X is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact, there exists a finite subset Λ_0 of Λ such that $(X/A) \cup (\bigcup_{i \in \Lambda_0} U_i) = X$. Then $A \subset \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda_0} U_i$ and hence A is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact relative to X .

(b) Let (X, τ) be a $\alpha\delta O$ -compact space and $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a surjective $\alpha\delta$ -continuous function. Let $\{U_i: i \in \Lambda\}$ be a cover of X by open sets. Then $\{f^{-1}(U_i): i \in \Lambda\}$ is a cover of X by $\alpha\delta$ -open sets, since f is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous. By $\alpha\delta O$ -compactness of X , there is a finite subset Λ_0 of Λ such that $X = \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda_0} f^{-1}(U_i)$. Since f is surjective, $Y = \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda_0} U_i$ and hence Y is compact.

(c) and (d) are similar to (b).

Lemma 4.9. Let $p: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ be a projection. If A is $\alpha\delta$ -closed subset of X , then $p^{-1}(A) = A \times Y$ is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in $X \times Y$.

Proof. Let $A \times Y \subset U$ and U be a αg -open subset of $X \times Y$. Then $U = V \times Y$ for some αg -open set of X . Since A is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in X $\delta cl_X(A) \subset V$, and so $\delta cl_X(A) \times Y \subset V \times Y = U$, i.e., $\delta cl_{X \times Y}(A \times Y) \subset U$. Hence $A \times Y$ is $\alpha\delta$ -closed in $X \times Y$.

Theorem 4.10. If the product space of two non-empty topological spaces is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact, then each factor space is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact.

Proof. Let $X \times Y$ be the product space of the non-empty spaces X and Y and $X \times Y$ be $\alpha\delta O$ -compact. By Lemma 4.9, the projection $p: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ is $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute and then by Theorem 4.8(c), $p(X \times Y) = X$ is $\alpha\delta O$ -compact. The proof for the space Y is similar to the case of X .

Definition 4.11. A space (X, τ) is said to be $\alpha\delta$ -connected if X cannot be expressed as the disjoint union of two nonempty $\alpha\delta$ -open sets. A subset of X is $\alpha\delta$ -connected if it is $\alpha\delta$ -connected as a subspace.

Proposition 4.12. For a space (X, τ) the following are equivalent:

- (a) X is $\alpha\delta$ -connected.
- (b) The only subsets of X which are both $\alpha\delta$ -open and $\alpha\delta$ -closed are the empty set φ and X .
- (c) Every $\alpha\delta$ -continuous function of X into a discrete space Y with at least two points is a constant function.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Proposition 6.2 of [Gnanambal.Y et al. 1999].

Proposition 4.13.

- (a) If (X, τ) is a space with $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \tau$, then X is connected if and only if X is $\alpha\delta$ -connected.
- (b) If (X, τ) is a space with $\tau_{\alpha\delta}^* = \tau_{g\delta s}^\#$, then X is connected if

and only if X is $g\delta s$ -connected.

Proof.

- (a) Follows from the definitions and Theorem 2.24 (b).
- (b) Follows from the definitions and Theorem 2.24 (c).

Proposition 4.14.

- (a) If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous surjective and X is $\alpha\delta$ -connected, then Y is connected.
- (b) If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute surjective and X is $\alpha\delta$ -connected, then Y is $\alpha\delta$ -connected.
- (c) Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a $\alpha\delta$ -continuous surjection and $\alpha\delta C(X, \tau)$ is closed under finite intersections. If H is αg -open, $\alpha\delta$ -closed and $\alpha\delta$ -connected, then $f(H)$ is a connected.

Proof. (a) and (b) follow from definitions.

(c) By Proposition 3.10, the restriction $f|_H$ of f is $\alpha\delta$ -continuous. By (a), the image of the $\alpha\delta$ -connected space $(H, \tau|_H)$ under $f|_H: (X, \tau|_H) \rightarrow (f(H), \sigma|_{f(H)})$ is connected. Hence $f(H)$ is connected subset of Y .

Theorem 4.15. If the product space of two non-empty spaces is $\alpha\delta$ -connected, then each factor space is $\alpha\delta$ -connected.

Proof. Let $X \times Y$ be the product space of non-empty spaces X and Y . By Lemma 4.9, the projection $p: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ is $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute. By Proposition 4.14(b), the $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute image $p(X \times Y) (= X)$ of the $\alpha\delta$ -connected space $X \times Y$, is $\alpha\delta$ -connected. The proof for the space Y is similar to the case of X .

Conclusion

In this paper we have studied about $\alpha\delta$ -open and $\alpha\delta$ -closed sets. Then we introduced $\alpha\delta$ -irresolute and $\alpha\delta$ -continuous functions via the concept of $\alpha\delta$ -closed sets and to relate these concepts to the classes of $\alpha\delta O$ -compact spaces and $\alpha\delta$ -connected spaces.

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