\section{Introduction}

Topological spaces have been generalised in many ways. A. D. Alexandroff (1940) weakened the union requirements where only countable union of open sets were taken to be open.

The idea of generalised closed sets in a topological space was given by Levine [9]. Later many works on generalised closed sets have been done [2], [3], [5], [6] etc. In 2003, P. Das et al obtained a generalisation of closed sets in Alexandroff spaces which was called $g^*$-closed sets. They investigated various properties on $g^*$-closed sets and also introduced a new separation axiom namely $T_{\omega}$ axiom in Alexandroff spaces in the same way as that of $T_{\omega}$-spaces introduced by Levine [9] in a topological space. Recently M. S. Šarsak [11] studied the same in a generalised topological
space where a generalised topology \( \mu \) on a nonempty set \( X \) is a collection of subsets of \( X \) such that \( \emptyset \in \mu \) and \( \mu \) is closed under arbitrary unions. Members of \( \mu \) are called \( \mu \)-open sets. He also introduced some new separation axioms namely \( \mu-T_1 \), \( \mu-T_2 \), and \( \mu-T_\omega \) axioms and studied their properties and relations between the axioms.

Here we have studied the idea of generalised closed sets namely the \( g^* \)-closed sets in Alexandroff spaces. We have investigated few more properties of \( g^* \)-closed sets which were not studied in [5]. Also we have obtained some separation axioms like \( T_\omega \), \( T_\omega \), and \( T_\omega \) in Alexandroff spaces in the same way as that of Sarsak [11] and investigate how far several results as valid in [11] are affected in Alexandroff spaces. Also we have introduced a new separation axiom namely \( T_\omega \) axiom in a Alexandroff space which was not studied before. We have established that \( T_\omega \)-space can be placed in between \( T_\omega \) and \( T_\omega \) spaces, \( T_\omega \) axiom can be placed in between \( T_\omega \) and \( T_\omega \), and \( T_\omega \) axiom can be placed in between \( T_\omega \) and \( T_\omega \). In general these axioms are not equivalent. In [5] we have seen that \( T_\omega \) axiom is independent with \( T_1 \) axiom. However, we have shown that \( T_\omega \), \( T_\omega \) axioms and these axioms are equivalent under certain additional conditions.

2. Preliminaries

**Definition 2.1.** [1] A non empty set \( X \) is called a \( \sigma \)-space or simply a space if in it is chosen a system of subsets \( \mathcal{F} \) satisfying the following axioms:

1. The intersection of a countable number of sets in \( \mathcal{F} \) is a set in \( \mathcal{F} \).
2. The union of a finite number of sets in \( \mathcal{F} \) is a set in \( \mathcal{F} \).
3. The void set \( \emptyset \) and the whole set \( X \) are sets in \( \mathcal{F} \).

Sets of \( \mathcal{F} \) are called closed sets. Their complementary sets are called open sets. The collection of all such open sets will sometimes be denoted by \( \tau \) and the space by \( (X, \tau) \). When there is no confusion, the space \( (X, \tau) \) will simply be denoted by \( X \).

Note that a topological space is a space but in general \( \tau \) is not a topology as can be easily seen by taking \( X = R \) and \( \tau \) as the collection of all \( F_\sigma \)-sets in \( R \). Several examples of spaces are seen in [4], [5], [8]. The definition of closure of a set and interior of a set in a space are similar as in the case of a topological space. Note that closure of a set in a space may
not be closed in general. Also interior of a set in a space may not be open.

**Definition 2.2.** [6] Two sets $A, B$ in $X$ are said to be weakly separated if there are two open sets $U, V$ such that $A \subset U, B \subset V$ and $A \cap V = B \cap U = \emptyset$.

**Definition 2.3.** [1] A space $(X, \tau)$ is called $T_0$ if for any pair of distinct points of $X$, there is an open set containing one of the points but not the other.

Observe that a space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_0$ if and only if for any pair of distinct points $x, y \in X$, there is a set $A$ containing one of the points such that $A$ is either open or closed.

Clearly it can be easily checked that if a space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_0$ then for every pair of distinct points $p, q \in X$, either $p \not\in \{q\}$ or $q \not\in \{p\}$.

**Definition 2.4.** [1] $(X, \tau)$ is said to be $T_1$ space if for any pair of distinct points $x, y \in X$, there exist open sets $U, V$ such that $x \in U, y \not\in U, y \in V, x \not\in V$.

**Definition 2.5.** [7] A point $x \in X$ is said to be a limit point of $A$ in a space $(X, \tau)$ if for any open set $U$ containing $x$, $U \cap (A - \{x\}) \neq \emptyset$. The set of all limit points of $A$ is called derived set of $A$ and is denoted by $A'$.

**Definition 2.6.** [10] A space $(X, \tau)$ is said to be a $R_0$-space if every open set contains the closure of each of its singleton.

**Definition 2.7.** [1] A space $(X, \tau)$ is said to be bicom pact if every open cover of it has a finite subcover.

**Definition 2.8.** [9] A set $A$ in a topological space is said to be a generalised closed ($g$-closed for short) if and only if $\overline{A} \subset U$ whenever $A \subset U$ and $U$ is open.

**Definition 2.9.** [5] A set $A$ is said to be a $g^*$-closed set in a space if and only if there is a closed set $F$ containing $A$ such that $F \subset U$ whenever $A \subset U$ and $U$ is open. A set $A$ is called $g^*$-open set if $X - A$ is $g^*$-closed.
Clearly every closed set is \(g^\ast\)-closed but Example 1 [5] shows that converse may not hold.

**Theorem 2.10.** [5] For each \(x \in X\), \(\{x\}\) is either closed or \(X - \{x\}\) is \(g^\ast\)-closed.

**Theorem 2.11.** [5] A set \(A\) is \(g^\ast\)-closed if and only if there is a closed set \(F\) containing \(A\) such that \(F - A\) does not contain any non-void closed set.

**Theorem 2.12.** [5] A set \(A\) is \(g^\ast\)-open set if and only if there is an open set \(V\) contained in \(A\) such that \(F \subset V\) whenever \(F\) is closed and \(F \subset A\).

Note that open set is \(g^\ast\)-open but the converse may not hold as it can be verified from Example 1 [5]. Also union of two \(g^\ast\)-closed sets is \(g^\ast\)-closed [5] and so intersection of two \(g^\ast\)-open sets is \(g^\ast\)-open.

**Theorem 2.13.** Let \(A\) be a subset in a space \((X, \tau)\), then \(X - X - A = \text{Int}(A)\).

The proof is straightforward and so is omitted.

### 3. \(A^\wedge_\tau\)-sets and \(g^\wedge_\tau\)-sets in a space

Throughout the paper \(X\) stands for a space and sets are always subsets of \(X\). The letters \(R\) and \(Q\) stand respectively for the set of real numbers and the set of rational numbers.

**Definition 3.1.** (cf. [11]) Let \(A \subset X\). We denote \(A^\wedge_\tau = \cap\{U \in \tau : A \subset U\}\) and \(A^\vee_\tau = \cup\{F : X - F \in \tau : F \subset A\}\). \(A\) is called a \(\wedge_\tau\)-set if \(A = A^\wedge_\tau\) or, equivalently, \(A\) is the intersection of all open sets containing \(A\). \(A\) is called a \(\vee_\tau\)-set if \(A = A^\vee_\tau\) or, equivalently, \(X - A\) is a \(\wedge_\tau\)-set (i.e. \(A\) is the union of all closed sets contained in \(A\)).

**Lemma 3.2.** Let \(A, B\) be subsets of \(X\). Then the following hold:

1. \(\emptyset^\wedge_\tau = \emptyset\), \(\emptyset^\vee_\tau = \emptyset\), \(X^\wedge_\tau = X\), \(X^\vee_\tau = X\)
2. \(A \subset A^\wedge_\tau\), \(A^\vee_\tau \subset A\)
3. \((A^\wedge_\tau)^\vee_\tau = A^\wedge_\tau\), \((A^\wedge_\tau)^\wedge_\tau = A^\vee_\tau\).
\( A \subset B \Rightarrow A_\cap \subset B_\cap. \)
\( A \subset B \Rightarrow A_\vee \subset B_\vee. \)
\( (X \setminus A)_\cap = X \setminus A_\cap, \quad (X \setminus A)_\vee = X \setminus A_\vee. \)

The proof is straightforward and so is omitted.

**Remark 3.3.** It is easy to verify from definition that a set \( A \) is \( g^* \)-closed if and only if there is a closed set \( F \) containing \( A \) such that \( F \subset A \cap. \)

**Theorem 3.4.** Arbitrary union of \( \vee_\tau \)-sets is a \( \vee_\tau \)-set.

**Proof.** Suppose that \( A_i \)'s are \( \vee_\tau \)-sets, \( i \in I \) where \( I \) is an index set and \( A = \cup\{A_i : i \in I\} \). So \( A_i \subset A \) for each \( i \). Therefore \( A_i \vee \subset A_\vee \) for all \( i \in I \) and so \( \cup\{A_i : i \in I\} \subset A_\vee \). So, \( \cup\{A_i : i \in I\} = \cup\{A_i \vee : i \in I\} \subset I \subset A_\vee \subset A \) by Lemma 3.2(2). Therefore \( A = A_\vee. \)

**Corollary 3.5.** Arbitrary intersection of \( \land_\tau \)-sets is a \( \land_\tau \)-set. Proof is simple so is omitted.

**Theorem 3.6.** Intersection of two \( \vee_\tau \)-sets is a \( \vee_\tau \)-set.

**Proof.** Let \( A, B \) be two \( \vee_\tau \)-sets. Then \( A = A_\vee \), \( B = B_\vee \). Now \( A \cap B \subset A \) and \( A \cap B \subset B \). Therefore \( (A \cap B)_\vee \subset A_\vee \) and \( (A \cap B)_\vee \subset B_\vee \). So \( (A \cap B)_\vee \subset A_\vee \cap B_\vee = A \cap B. \)

Conversely, suppose that \( x \in A_\vee \cap B_\vee \). Since \( x \in A_\vee \) and \( x \in B_\vee \), there exist closed sets \( F, P \) such that \( x \in F \subset A, x \in P \subset B \). Therefore \( x \in F \cap P \subset A \cap B \). This implies that \( x \in (A \cap B)_\vee \). Therefore \( A_\vee \cap B_\vee \subset (A \cap B)_\vee \). So \( A \cap B = A_\vee \cap B_\vee = (A \cap B)_\vee. \)

**Corollary 3.7.** Clearly collection of all \( \vee_\tau \)-sets in a space \( (X, \tau) \) forms a topology.

**Theorem 3.8.** In a space \( (X, \tau) \), a set \( A \) is \( g^* \)-open if and only if there is an open set \( V \) containing \( A \) such that \( A_\vee \subset V. \)

**Proof.** Let \( A \) be a \( g^* \)-open set. Then by Theorem 2.12, there exists an open set \( V \subset A \) such that \( F \subset V \) whenever \( F \subset A \) and \( F \) is closed. So \( \cup\{F : F \subset A, F \text{ is closed}\} \subset V. \) This implies that \( A_\vee \subset V. \)

Conversely, let there be an open set \( V \subset A \) such that \( A_\vee \subset V. \) This implies that \( A_\vee = \cup\{F : F \subset A, F \text{ is closed}\} \subset V. \) So there is an open...
set \( V \) such that \( F \subset V \) whenever \( F \subset A, F \) is closed. Hence \( A \) is \( g^* \)-open by Theorem 2.12.

**Remark 3.9.** As in [11], following result holds in a space: if \( A \) is a \( \land_r \)-set (resp. \( \lor_r \)-set), then \( A \) is \( g^* \)-closed (resp. \( g^* \)-open) if and only if \( A \) is closed (resp. open). In particular \( (A^\land_r)^\land_r = A^\land_r \) (resp. \( (A^\lor_r)^\lor_r = A^\lor_r \)). So \( A^\land_r \) is a \( \land_r \)-set (resp. \( A^\lor_r \) is a \( \lor_r \)-set). Therefore \( A^\land_r \) is \( g^* \)-closed (resp. \( A^\lor_r \) is \( g^* \)-open) if and only if \( A^\land_r \) is closed (resp. \( A^\lor_r \) is open).

**Theorem 3.10.** If \( A^\land_r \) is \( g^* \)-closed, then \( A \) is \( g^* \)-closed.

**Proof.** Let \( A \subset X \) and \( A^\land_r \) be \( g^* \)-closed. Then by Remark 3.3, there exists a closed set \( F \) containing \( A^\land_r \) i.e. \( F \supset A^\land_r \supset A \) such that \( F \subset (A^\land_r)^\land_r = A^\land_r \) by Lemma 3.2(3). So by Remark 3.3, we get \( A \) is \( g^* \)-closed.

It can be easily proved that if \( A^\lor_r \) is \( g^* \)-open, then \( A \) is \( g^* \)-open. If \( A^\lor_r \) is \( g^* \)-open then \( X - A^\lor_r = (X - A)^\land_r \) is \( g^* \)-closed. So \( X - A \) is \( g^* \)-closed and hence \( A \) is \( g^* \)-open.

But the converses may not be true in a space as shown in Example 3.11.

**Example 3.11.** Suppose that \( X = R - Q \), where \( G_i \) runs over all countable subsets of \( X \), each contains \( \sqrt{2} \), and \( \tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i, A_i\} \) where \( A_i \)’s are the cocompact subsets of \( X \) each contains \( \sqrt{2} \). Then \((X, \tau)\) is a space but not a topological space. Let \( A \) be a countably infinite subset of \( X \) excluding \( \sqrt{2} \). Then \( A \) is a closed set and so \( A \) is \( g^* \)-closed. But \( A^\land_r = \cap\{\sqrt{2} \cup (X - \{\alpha\}), \alpha \in X - A, \alpha \neq \sqrt{2}\} = \{\sqrt{2}\} \cup A \) is an open set which is not closed, since \( \sqrt{2} \in A^\land_r \). Since \( A^\land_r \) is a \( \land_r \)-set, by Remark 3.9, \( A^\land_r \) is not \( g^* \)-closed. Therefore \( X - A \) is \( g^* \)-open, but \( (X - A)^\lor_r = X - A^\lor_r \) is not \( g^* \)-open.

**Lemma 3.12.** If \( A, B \) are two subsets of \( X \), then \( A^\land_r \cup B^\land_r = (A \cup B)^\land_r \).

**Proof.** Let \( A, B \) be two subsets of \( X \), then \( A \subset A \cup B \) implies that \( A^\land_r \subset (A \cup B)^\land_r \) and \( B \subset A \cup B \) implies that \( B^\land_r \subset (A \cup B)^\land_r \). Therefore \( (A^\land_r \cup B^\land_r) \subset (A \cup B)^\land_r \). Again, \( A^\land_r = \cap\{U_i : U_i \supset A, U_i \text{ is open}\} \) and \( B^\land_r = \cap\{V_j : V_j \supset B, V_j \text{ is open}\} \). Therefore \( A^\land_r \cup B^\land_r = \cap\{(U_i \cup V_j) : U_i \supset A, V_j \supset B, U_i, V_j \text{ are open}\} \supset \cap\{G : G \supset A \cup B; G \text{ is open}\} = (A \cup B)^\land_r \). Therefore \( A^\land_r \cup B^\land_r = (A \cup B)^\land_r \). \( \square \)
**Theorem 3.13.** Union of finite number of $\land_\tau$-sets is a $\land_\tau$-set.

The proof is straightforward by above Lemma 3.12 and so is omitted.

But arbitrary union of $\land_\tau$-sets is not a $\land_\tau$-set as revealed from the Example 3.14.

**Example 3.14.** Let $X = R - Q$, $G_i$ be the all countable subsets of $X$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i\}$. Therefore $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. Suppose $A$ is the set of all irrationals in $[0, 2]$. Here every singleton of $A$ is an open set, so a $\land_\tau$-set, but $A$ is not a $\land_\tau$-set. Also $A$ is not closed but $g^*$-closed.

**Definition 3.15 (cf. [11]):** A set $A$ is called a generalised $\land_\tau$-set denoted as $g\land_\tau$-set if $A \land_\tau \subset F$ whenever $F \supset A$ and $F$ is closed. A set $A$ is called a generalised $\lor_\tau$-set denoted as $g\lor_\tau$-set if $X - A$ is $g\land_\tau$-set, or equivalently, $A^\lor \lor_\tau \supset U$ whenever $A \lor_\tau \supset U$ and $U$ is open.

Clearly if $A$ is a $\land_\tau$-set then $A$ is $g\land_\tau$-set. But the converse is not true.

**Example 3.16.** Let $X = R$, $G_i$ be the nonempty countable subsets of $X - \{\sqrt{3}\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i \cup \{\sqrt{3}\}\}$. Therefore $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. Assume $A = \{\sqrt{3}\}$, then $A^\lor = \emptyset$. Only open set contained in $A$ is $\emptyset$ and $\emptyset \subset \emptyset = A^\lor$. So $A$ is a $g\lor_\tau$-set.

**Theorem 3.17.** Union of two $g\land_\tau$-sets is $g\land_\tau$-set.

**Proof.** Suppose $A, B$ be two $g\land_\tau$-sets of $X$, then $A^\land \land_\tau \subset F_1$ whenever $F_1$ is closed and $A \subset F_1$ and $B^\land \land_\tau \subset F_2$ whenever $F_2$ is closed and $B \subset F_2$. Let $(A \lor_\tau B) \lor_\tau \subset F$, $F$ is closed then $A \lor_\tau B \subset F$ which imply that $A^\land \lor_\tau B^\land \lor_\tau \subset F$. So $(A^\land \lor_\tau B^\land \lor_\tau) \subset F$. Therefore by Lemma 3.12, $(A \lor_\tau B)^\land = (A^\land \lor_\tau B^\land \lor_\tau) \subset F$. Hence $A \lor_\tau B$ is $g\land_\tau$-set. 

But union of two $g\lor_\tau$-sets may not be $g\lor_\tau$-set as shown by the Example 3.18.

**Example 3.18.** Let $X = R - Q$, $G_i$ be the nonempty countable subsets of $X - \{\sqrt{3}\}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i \cup \{\sqrt{3}\}\}$. Therefore $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. Assume $A = \{\sqrt{3}\}$, then $A^\lor = \emptyset$. Only open set contained in $A$ is $\emptyset$ and $\emptyset \subset \emptyset = A^\lor$. So $A$ is a $g\lor_\tau$-set.
Suppose \( B = \{ \sqrt{5} \} \). So \( B \) is a \( g\vee\tau \)-set. Let \( C = A \cup B = \{ \sqrt{5}, \sqrt{3} \} \). Then \( C_{\tau} = \emptyset \). Also \( C \) is an open set and \( C \subset C \) but \( C \not\subset C_{\tau} \). Therefore \( A \cup B \) is not a \( g\vee\tau \)-set.

We can easily deduce the following three results in a space \((X, \tau)\).

**Theorem 3.19.** For each \( x \in X \), \( \{x\} \) is either open or a \( g\vee\tau \)-set.

**Theorem 3.20.** If \( A \) is a \( g\vee\tau \)-set and \( A_{\tau} \cup (X - A) \subset F \), \( F \) is closed, then \( F = X \).

**Corollary 3.21.** If \( A \) is a \( g\vee\tau \)-set then \( A_{\tau} \cup (X - A) \) is closed if and only if \( A \) is a \( \vee\tau \)-set.

4. **\( T_\omega \)-Space**

**Definition 4.1** [5] A space \((X, \tau)\) is said to be \( T_\omega \)-space if and only if \( g^* \)-closed set is closed.

In Theorem 16 [5], it is shown that every \( T_\omega \)-space is \( T_0 \) space. But the converse is not true as shown in the Example 6 [5]. Also, in Examples 6 and 7 [5] it has been shown that \( T_\omega \) and \( T_1 \) axioms in a space are independent of each other.

**Definition 4.2** [5] For any \( E \subset X \) let \( \overline{E^*} = \cap \{ A : E \subset A, A \) is \( g^* \)-closed set in \( X \} \), then \( \overline{E^*} \) is called \( g^* \)-closure of \( E \).

We consider the following sets which will be used frequently in the sequel:

\[
C = \{ A : (X - A) \) is closed \} \text{ and } C^* = \{ A : (X - A)^* \) is \( g^* \)-closed \}.
\]

**Theorem 4.3** [5] A space \((X, \tau)\) is \( T_\omega \) if and only if
\( (a) \) for each \( x \in X \), \( \{x\} \) is either open or closed and
\( (b) \) \( C = C^* \).

**Theorem 4.4.** The following are equivalent:
\( (1) \) \( (X, \tau) \) is \( T_\omega \)-space.
\( (2) \) Every \( g\wedge\tau \)-set is \( \wedge\tau \)-set and \( C = C^* \).
(3) Every \( g\vee \tau \)-set is \( \vee \tau \)-set and \( C = C^* \).

**Proof.** (1) \( \Rightarrow \) (2): Let \((X, \tau)\) be \( T_\omega \)-space and let \( A \) be a \( g\wedge \tau \)-set. We wish to prove \( A \supset A^\wedge \). If not, suppose \( x \in A^\wedge \) and \( x \notin A \). By Theorem 4.3, \( \{x\} \) is either open or closed. We discuss two cases:

Case (i): Suppose \( \{x\} \) is open. So \( X - \{x\} \) is closed containing \( A \). Since \( A \) is \( g\wedge \tau \)-set, we get \( A^\wedge \subset (X - \{x\}) \) which implies that \( x \notin A^\wedge \), a contradiction.

Case (ii): Suppose \( \{x\} \) is closed. Then \( X - \{x\} \) is an open set containing \( A \). But \( x \in A^\wedge = \cap \{U, U \in \tau, U \supset A\} \subset X - \{x\} \), a contradiction. Hence in any case \( A \supset A^\wedge \) and so \( A^\wedge \subset (X - \{x\}) \) which implies that \( x \notin A^\wedge \), a contradiction.

Hence in any case \( A \supset A^\wedge \) and so \( A = A^\wedge \) which implies that \( A \) is \( \wedge \tau \)-set. Also by Theorem 4.3, \( C = C^* \).

(2) \( \Rightarrow \) (3): Let \( A \) be a \( g\vee \tau \)-set and \( C = C^* \). Then \( X - A \) is \( g\wedge \tau \)-set. By supposition \( X - A \) is a \( \wedge \tau \)-set. So \( A \) is a \( \vee \tau \)-set.

(3) \( \Rightarrow \) (2): Let \( B \) be a \( g\wedge \tau \)-set and \( C = C^* \). Then \( X - B \) is \( g\vee \tau \)-set. By supposition, \( X - B \) is \( \vee \tau \)-set. So \( B \) is \( \wedge \tau \)-set.

(2) \( \Rightarrow \) (1): Let \( x \in X \) and \( C = C^* \). We will prove \( \{x\} \) is either open or closed. If \( \{x\} \) is not open, \( X - \{x\} \) is not closed. So \( X \) is the only closed set containing \( X - \{x\} \). Also \( (X - \{x\})^\wedge \subset X \). Therefore by definition \( X - \{x\} \) is a \( g\wedge \tau \)-set. By supposition, \( X - \{x\} \) is \( \wedge \tau \)-set i.e. \( (X - \{x\})^\wedge = X - \{x\} \). So \( X - \{x\} \) must be open. So \( \{x\} \) is a closed set. Therefore the space is \( T_\omega \). \( \square \)

5. \( \lambda^* \)-closed sets and \( \lambda^* \)-open sets in a space

**Definition 5.1.** A subset \( A \) of a space \((X, \tau)\) is said to be \( \lambda^* \)-closed if \( A = L \cap \overline{F} \) where \( L \) is a \( \wedge \tau \)-set and \( F \) is a subset of \( X \). \( A \) is said to be \( \lambda^* \)-open if \( X - A \) is \( \lambda^* \)-closed.

**Lemma 5.2.** For a subset \( A \) of a space \((X, \tau)\) the following are equivalent:

(i) \( A \) is \( \lambda^* \)-closed

(ii) \( A = A^\wedge \cap \overline{F}, F \subset X \).

(iii) \( A = L \cap \overline{A}, L \) is a \( \wedge \tau \)-set .

(iv) \( A = A^\wedge \cap \overline{A} \).

The proof is simple, so is omitted.
Note 5.3. From Lemma 5.2 (iv) we can say that a subset $A$ is said to be $\lambda^*$-closed if $A$ can be expressed as the intersection of all open sets and all closed sets containing it.

Remark 5.4. Clearly every $\wedge_\tau$-set is $\lambda^*$-closed and closed set is $\lambda^*$-closed. But the converse is not true as revealed from the Example 3.14, since the set $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed but not $\wedge_\tau$-set and not closed. It is seen that if a subset $A$ is closed then $A$ is $g^*$-closed and $\lambda^*$-closed. But the converse of this result may not hold in a space which is also seen from Example 3.14, although it is true in a Generalized Topological space [11]. However, it is true if the additional condition that $C = C^*$ holds.

Theorem 5.5. If $A$ is $g^*$-closed and $\lambda^*$-closed satisfies $C = C^*$ then $A$ is closed.

Proof. Suppose $A$ is $g^*$-closed and $\lambda^*$-closed satisfying the condition $C = C^*$. Since $A$ is $g^*$-closed, there is a closed set $F$ containing $A$ such that $F \subseteq A^\wedge$. Since $A \subseteq F$, $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{F}$ and so $\overline{A} \subseteq F \subseteq A^\wedge$. Again since $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed, $A = A^\wedge \cap \overline{A} = \overline{A}$........................(1).

Now $A$ is $g^*$-closed, so $\overline{A^\wedge} = A$, therefore $(X - A) \in C^*$. Since $C = C^*$, $(X - A) \in C$ which implies that $\overline{A}$ is closed. Therefore, by (1), we have $A$ is a closed set. \hfill \Box

Theorem 5.6. If $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed set and $g\wedge_\tau$-set with $\overline{A}$ is closed, then $A$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set.

Proof. Suppose the conditions hold. Since $\overline{A}$ contains $A$ and $A$ is $g\wedge_\tau$-set, then $A^\wedge \subseteq \overline{A}$. Since $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed, $A = A^\wedge \cap \overline{A}$ which implies $A = A^\wedge$. Hence $A$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set. \hfill \Box

Theorem 5.7. A set $A$ of $X$ is $\lambda^*$-open if and only if $A = M \cup \text{Int}(V)$ where $M$ is a $\vee_\tau$-set and $V$ is a subset of $X$.

Proof. Let $A$ be a $\lambda^*$-open set. Then $X - A$ is a $\lambda^*$-closed set. So $X - A = L \cap \overline{F}$, where $L$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set and $F \subseteq X$. Therefore $X - L \subseteq A$ and $X - \overline{F} \subseteq A$. So by Theorem 2.13, $A = L^c \cup (\overline{F})^c = M \cup \text{Int}(X - F) = M \cup \text{Int}(V)$ where $M = X - L$, a $\vee_\tau$-set and $V = X - F \subseteq X$.

Conversely, Let $A = M \cup \text{Int}(V)$, $M$ is a $\vee_\tau$-set and $V \subseteq X$. So $A^c = M^c \cap (\text{Int}(V))^c$ where $M^c$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set and $(\text{Int}(V))^c = \overline{X - V}$ by Theorem 2.13. So $X - A = L \cap \overline{F}$, where $L = M^c$ and $F = X - V$. Hence $X - A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed and hence $A$ is $\lambda^*$-open. \hfill \Box
**Corollary 5.8.** A is $\lambda^*$-open if and only if $A = A_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(A)$.

**Proof.** Let $A$ is $\lambda^*$-open. Then $A = M \cup \text{Int}(V)$ where $M$ is a $\vee_\tau$-set and $V \subset X$. Since $M \subset A$, $M_\vee^\gamma \subset A_\vee^\gamma$ and since $\text{Int}(V) \subset A$, $\text{Int}(\text{Int}(V)) \subset \text{Int}(A)$. So, $A = M \cup \text{Int}(V) = M_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(V) \subset A_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(\text{Int}(V)) \subset A_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(A)$. Again since $A_\vee^\gamma \subset A$ and $\text{Int}(A) \subset A$, $A_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(A) \subset A$. Therefore we get $A = A_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(A)$.

Conversely, let $A = A_\vee^\gamma \cup \text{Int}(A)$. Since $A_\vee^\gamma$ is a $\vee_\tau$-set and $A \subset X$, $A$ is $\lambda^*$-open. \hfill $\square$

**Remark 5.9.** Clearly $\vee_\tau$-sets are $\lambda^*$-open sets and open sets are $\lambda^*$-open sets. On the other hand if a set $A$ is open and $g\vee_\tau$-set then $A$ is a $\vee_\tau$-set and if $A$ is $g^*$-open and $\lambda^*$-open satisfies the condition $C = C^*$, then $A$ is open.

In view of above Note 5.3 and by Theorem 18 [5] we have the following Theorem 5.10. However we are also giving a separate proof of the Theorem 5.10.

**Theorem 5.10.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_\omega$ if and only if every subset of $(X, \tau)$ is $\lambda^*$-closed and $C = C^*$.

**Proof.** Suppose every subset of $(X, \tau)$ is $\lambda^*$-closed and $C = C^*$ and $x \in X$. We shall show that $\{x\}$ is either open or closed. Suppose $\{x\}$ is not open, then $X - \{x\}$ is not closed. Since $X - \{x\}$ is also a $\lambda^*$-closed set then $X - \{x\} = (X - \{x\})^\gamma \cap (X - \{x\}) = (X - \{x\})^\gamma \cap X = (X - \{x\})^\gamma$. Therefore $X - \{x\}$ is a $\land_\tau$-set. So $X - \{x\}$ is an open set which implies $\{x\}$ is closed. Then by Theorem 4.3, $(X, \tau)$ is $T_\omega$-space.

Conversely, suppose that $(X, \tau)$ is $T_\omega$-space and $A \subset X$. Then by Theorem 4.3, every singleton is either open or closed and $C = C^*$. So each $x \in X - A$, either $\{x\} \in \tau$ or $(X - \{x\}) \in \tau$. Let $A_1 = \{x : x \in X - A, \{x\} \in \tau\}$, $A_2 = \{x : x \in X - A, X - \{x\} \in \tau\}$, $L = \cap[X - \{x\} : x \in A_2] = X - A_2$ and $F = \cap[X - \{x\} : x \in A_1] = X - A_1$. Note that $L$ is a $\land_\tau$-set i.e. $L = L_\land^\gamma$ and $F = F_\land^\gamma$. Now, $L \cap F = (X - A_2) \cap (X - A_1) = X - (A_1 \cup A_2) = X - (X - A) = A$. Thus $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed. \hfill $\square$

Following Example shows that union of two $\lambda^*$-closed sets may not be $\lambda^*$-closed.
Example 5.11. Let $X = \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$, $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i \cup \{\sqrt{3}\}\}$ where $G_i$ be all countable subsets of $X - \{\sqrt{2}\}$. Then $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. Suppose $A = \{\sqrt{2}\}$, then $A^c = X$ and $\overline{A} = A$ and so $A = A^c \cap \overline{A}$. This implies that $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed. Again suppose $B = \{\sqrt{3}\}$, then $B$ is also $\lambda^*$-closed, since $B = B^c$ and $\overline{B} = X$. It can be verified that every singleton is $\lambda^*$-closed. Now let $C = \{\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}\}$. Then $C^c = X$ and $\overline{C} = X$. So $C^c \cap \overline{C} = X \neq C$ which implies that $C$ is not $\lambda^*$-closed.

Remark 5.12. It is shown in [5] that in a bicompact space (Alexandroff space), $g^*$-closed sets may not be bicompact. Likewise, $\lambda^*$-closed sets in a bicompact space may not be bicompact as shown in the following Example 5.13.

Example 5.13. Let $X = \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$, where $G_i$ be the all countable subsets of $X - \{\sqrt{2}\}$, $A_i$ be the all cofinite subsets of $X$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i, A_i\}$.

Then $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. Clearly $(X, \tau)$ is a bicompact space. Suppose $A$ is the set of all irrationals in $(0, 1)$. Then there is no open set of $G_i$ type containing $A$ and so $A^c = \cap\{X - \{\alpha\} : \alpha \in X - A\} = A$. Therefore $A$ is a $\wedge_{\tau}$-set which implies $A$ is a $\lambda^*$-closed set. But $A$ is not bicompact since $\{\{r\} : r \in A\}$ forms an open cover for $A$ which has no finite subcover.

In [11] it is seen that the collection of all $\lambda_{\mu}$-open sets forms a generalised topology $\mu$ on $X$, but unlikely the collection of $\lambda^*$-open sets does not form a space structure $\sigma$ on $X$ since intersection of two $\lambda^*$-open sets is not $\lambda^*$-open as can be easily verified from the Example 5.11.

6. $T_{\frac{u}{q}}$-space, $T_{\frac{w}{w}}$-space, $T_{\frac{u}{u}}$-space

Definition 6.1. A space $(X, \tau)$ is called $T_{\frac{u}{q}}$-space if for every finite subset $P$ of $X$ and for every $y \in X - P$, there exists a set $A_y$ containing $P$ and disjoint from $\{y\}$ such that $A_y$ is either open or closed.

Theorem 6.2. Every $T_{\frac{u}{q}}$-space is $T_0$-space.

Proof. Suppose that $(X, \tau)$ is $T_{\frac{u}{q}}$ and $x, y$ are two distinct points in $X$. Since the space is $T_{\frac{u}{q}}$, then for every $y \in X - \{x\}$ there exists a set
A_y such that for every \{x\} \subset A_y and \{y\} \not\subset A_y where A_y is either open or closed. This implies $T_{\frac{\lambda}{4}}$-space is $T_0$-space. \qed

**Theorem 6.3.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_{\frac{\lambda}{4}}$ if and only if every finite subset of $X$ is $\lambda^*$-closed.

**Proof.** Suppose $(X, \tau)$ is $T_{\frac{\lambda}{4}}$-space and $P$ is a finite subset of $X$. So for every $y \in X - P$ there is a set $A_y$ containing $P$ and disjoint from $\{y\}$ such that $A_y$ is either open or closed. Let $L$ be the intersection of all open sets $A_y$ and $F$ be the intersection of all closed sets $A_y$. Then $L = L^\wedge$ and $\overline{F} = F$. Therefore $P = L \cap F = L \cap \overline{F}$. So $P$ is $\lambda^*$-closed.

Conversely, let $P$ be a finite set. So by the condition it is $\lambda^*$-closed. Then by Lemma 5.2 (iii) $P = L \cap \overline{F}$, where $L$ is a $\wedge$-set. Let $y \in X - P$. If $y \not\in P$ then there exists a closed set $F = A_y$ containing $P$ such that $\{y\} \not\subset A_y$. Again if $y \in \overline{P} - P$, then $y \not\in L$ and so $y \not\in U$ for some open set $U = A_y$ containing $L$. So $P \subset U$. Hence $(X, \tau)$ is $T_{\frac{\lambda}{4}}$-space. \qed

**Theorem 6.4.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_0$ if and only if every singleton of $X$ is $\lambda^*$-closed.

Proof is similar to that of the Theorem 6.3.

Note that converse of Theorem 6.2 may not be true as revealed from the Example 5.11.

**Definition 6.5.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is called $T_{\frac{\lambda}{\omega}}$-space if for every countable subset $P$ of $X$ and for every $y \in X - P$, there exists a set $A_y$ containing $P$ and disjoint from $\{y\}$ such that $A_y$ is either open or closed.

**Theorem 6.6.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_{\frac{\lambda}{\omega}}$-space if and only if every countable subset of $X$ is $\lambda^*$-closed.

Proof is similar to the proof of Theorem 6.3, so is omitted.

**Definition 6.7.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is called $T_{\omega}$-space if for any subset $P$ of $X$ and for every $y \in X - P$, there exists a set $A_y$ containing $P$ and disjoint from $\{y\}$ such that $A_y$ is either open or closed.

**Theorem 6.8.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_{\omega}$-space if and only if for every subset $E$ of $X$ is $\lambda^*$-closed. Proof is similar to the proof of Theorem
Note that $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$ axiom does not imply $C = C^*$.

**Remark 6.9.** It follows from Theorem 5.10, Theorem 6.8, Theorem 6.6, Theorem 6.3 that every $T_{\omega}$-space is $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space and $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space is $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space.

However, the converse of each implication may not be true as shown in the undermentioned Examples 6.10, 6.11, 6.12.

**Example 6.10.** Example of a $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space which is not $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space.
This can be easily verified from the Example 3.14.

**Example 6.11.** Example of a $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space which is not $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space.

Let $X = R - Q$, $G_i$ be the countable subsets of $X$ containing $\sqrt{2}$ and $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i\}$. So $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. Take any countable subset $A \subset X$. Then if $\sqrt{2} \in A$, $A$ is a closed set. Therefore $A = A^\omega$ which implies that $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed. If $\sqrt{2} \notin A$, $A^\omega = \{\sqrt{2}\} \cup A$ and $\overline{A} = A$. This implies that $A$ is $\lambda^*$-closed. So $(X, \tau)$ is a $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space. Now let $B$ be an uncountably infinite subset of $X$ containing the point $\sqrt{2}$. Therefore $B^\omega = X$ and $\overline{B} = X$. Therefore $B^\omega \cap \overline{B} = X \neq B$ which implies that $B$ is not $\lambda^*$-closed by Lemma 5.2 (iv). So $(X, \tau)$ is not $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space by Theorem 6.8.

**Example 6.12.** Example of a $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space which is not $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space.

Suppose $X = R - Q$, $X^* = \{2\} \cup X$. Let $\tau = \{\emptyset, X^*, \{2\} \cup (X - A); A \subset X\}$ where A's are the finite subsets of $X$. Therefore $(X^*, \tau)$ is a topological space so a space also. Take any finite subset $E \subset X^*$, we get the following observations:

(i) if $2 \in E$, $E^\omega = \cap\{(X - \{\alpha\}) \cup \{2\}, \alpha \in X - E\} = \{2\} \cup E = E$ which implies that $E$ is a $\wedge, \tau$-set. Therefore $E$ is a $\lambda^*$-closed set.

(ii) if $2 \notin E$, $E$ is a closed set which implies that $E$ is $\lambda^*$-closed.

So $(X^*, \tau)$ is a $T_{\omega\cdot\omega}$-space.

Now suppose $Y$ is a countably infinite subset of $X$, so $2 \notin Y$. Here closed sets are finite. Therefore $\overline{Y} = X^*$ and $Y^\wedge = \{2\} \cup Y$. Thus $\overline{Y} \cap Y^\wedge = \{2\} \cup Y \neq Y$. Therefore $Y$ is not $\lambda^*$-closed. Hence $(X, \tau)$ is
not $T_{\text{fr}}$-space.

**Theorem 6.13.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_1$ if and only if it is $T_0$ and $R_0$.

*Proof.* Let $(X, \tau)$ be $T_1$-space. Obviously then it is $T_0$. Let $A \subset X, A$ be open, $x \in A$. Since the space is $T_1$, for $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$ there are open sets $U, V$ such that $x \in U$ and $y \not\in U$ and $y \in V$ and $x \not\in V$. Hence $y$ cannot be a limit point of $\{x\}$. Therefore no point lying outside $\{x\}$ can be a limit point of $\{x\}$, so $\{x\}' \subset \{x\}$. Hence $\overline{\{x\}} = \{x\} \subset A$. So $(X, \tau)$ is $R_0$-space.

Conversely, let $(X, \tau)$ be $T_0$ and $R_0$. So for $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$, either $x \not\in \overline{\{y\}}$ or $y \not\in \overline{\{x\}}$. Suppose $x \not\in \overline{\{y\}}$. Then there exists a closed set $F$ containing $y$ such that $x \not\in F$. Therefore $x \in X - F$, an open set and $y \not\in X - F$. Since the space is also $R_0$, $\overline{\{x\}} \subset X - F$. So $\overline{\{x\}} \cap F = \emptyset$ which implies that $\overline{\{x\}} \cap \{y\} = \emptyset$. Hence $y \not\in \overline{\{x\}}$, so $y$ is not a limiting point of $\{x\}$. Therefore there exists an open set $V$ containing $y$ such that $x \not\in V$. Since $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$, we get two open sets $X - F$ and $V$ containing $x, y$ respectively and $y \not\in X - F$ and $x \not\in V$. Thus $(X, \tau)$ is $T_1$-space.

**Theorem 6.14.** A space $(X, \tau)$ is $T_1$ if and only if every singleton is $\wedge_\tau$-set.

*Proof.* Let $(X, \tau)$ be $T_1$. So by Theorem 6.13, $(X, \tau)$ is $T_0$ and $R_0$. Since $(X, \tau)$ is $T_0$, every singleton is $\lambda^*$-closed, by Theorem 6.4. Suppose $x \in X$, then $\{x\}$ is $\lambda^*$-closed. So $\{x\} = \overline{\{x\}} \cap \overline{\{x\}}$, by Lemma 5.2 (iv). We claim that $\{x\} = \overline{\{x\}} \cap \overline{\{x\}}$. If not, there exists $y \in \overline{\{x\}} \cap \overline{\{x\}}$. So $y \not\in \overline{\{x\}}$, hence there is a closed set $F, F \supset \{x\}$ such that $y \not\in F$. Therefore $y \in X - F$, an open set. Again since $(X, \tau)$ is $R_0$, $\overline{\{y\}} \subset X - F$. Thus $\overline{\{y\}} \cap F = \emptyset$. Since $x \in F$, $x \not\in \overline{\{y\}}$. Therefore there exists an open set $V$ containing $x$ but $y \not\in V$. This implies that $y \not\in \overline{\{x\}}$, a contradiction. Hence $\{x\}$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set.

Conversely, let $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$. So $y \not\in \{x\}$. By supposition $\{x\}$ and $\{y\}$ are $\wedge_\tau$-sets i.e. $\{x\} = \overline{\{x\}} \cap \overline{\{x\}}$ and $y \not\in \overline{\{x\}}$. Therefore there exists an open set $V'$ such that $x \in V'$, but $y \not\in V'$. Similarly, since $\{y\} = \overline{\{y\}} \cap \overline{\{y\}}$, there exists an open set $U'$ such that $y \in U'$ and $x \not\in U'$. Hence $x, y$ are weakly separated by open sets $V'$ and $U'$ and $(X, \tau)$ is $T_1$-space. □
Definition 6.15. A space $(X, \tau)$ is said to be Weak $R_0$-space if every $\lambda^*$-closed singleton is a $\wedge_\tau$-set.

Theorem 6.16. Every $R_0$-space is a Weak $R_0$-space.

Proof. Suppose $x \in X$ and $\{x\}$ is $\lambda^*$-closed, then $\{x\} = \{x\}^\wedge \cap \overline{\{x\}}$ by Lemma 5.2(iv). We claim that $\{x\}$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set. If not, then $\{x\} \neq \{x\}^\wedge$ and so let $y \in \{x\}^\wedge - \{x\}$. Then $y \notin \overline{\{x\}}$. So there is a closed set $F, F \supseteq \{x\}$ such that $y \notin F$. This implies that $y \in X - F$, an open set. Since $(X, \tau)$ is $R_0$-space, $\{y\} \subset X - F$. Therefore $\{y\} \cap F = \emptyset$. Since $x \in F$, $x \notin \overline{\{y\}} = \{y\} \cup \{y\}'$ where $\{y\}'$ denotes the set of limit points of $\{y\}$. Therefore there exists an open set $V \supseteq \{x\}$ such that $y \notin V$, since $x \neq y$ and $x$ is not also the limit point of $\{y\}$. This implies that $y \notin \{x\}^\wedge$, a contradiction. Hence $(X, \tau)$ is weak $R_0$-space. \qed

But following Example shows that the converse of the Theorem 6.16 may not be true.

Example 6.17. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $G_i$ be the all countable subsets of $X - \mathbb{Q} - \{\sqrt{2}\}$, $\tau = \{X, \emptyset, G_i\}$. Then $(X, \tau)$ is a space but not a topological space. We will easily check that rational singletons including $\sqrt{2}$ are not $\lambda^*$-closed. For any irrational $r$ except $\sqrt{2}$, $\{r\}$ is $\lambda^*$-closed and $\{r\} = \{r\}^\wedge$. So $(X, \tau)$ is a weak $R_0$-space. If $B = \{\sqrt{5}\}$ then $\overline{B} = B \cup \mathbb{Q} \cup \{\sqrt{2}\}$ and $B$ is an open set but $B$ does not contain $\overline{B}$, hence the space is not $R_0$.

Lemma 6.18. If every subset of $X$ is $\wedge_\tau$-set, then $(X, \tau)$ is $T_1$-space. The proof is simple.

Note 6.19. By Theorem 6.14, converse of Lemma 6.18 is not true as revealed from the Example 3.14. But the converse is true by imposing additional conditions as given in the undermentioned Lemma 6.21. Also note that the converse part is true in a $\mu$-space [11].

Definition 6.20 [5] A space $(X, \tau)$ is said to be strongly symmetric if $\{x\}$ is $g^*$-closed for each $x \in X$.

Lemma 6.21. If $(X, \tau)$ is a strongly symmetric $T_1$-space and satisfies the condition $C = C^*$, then every subset of $X$ is a $\wedge_\tau$-set.
Proof. Let \((X, \tau)\) be a strongly symmetric \(T_1\)-space satisfying the condition \(C = C^*\) and \(A \subset X, x \in X\) and \(x \notin A\). Then, by definition, \(\{x\}\) is \(g^*\)-closed. Since \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_1\)-space, \(\{x\}\) is a \(\wedge_r\)-set by Theorem 6.14 and so a \(\lambda^*\)-closed set. Therefore \(\{x\}\) is a closed set by Theorem 5.5. Therefore \(X - \{x\}\) is an open set containing \(A\). So \(A = \cap\{X - \{x\}, x \in X - A\}\) which implies \(A\) is a \(\wedge_r\)-set.

Remark 6.22. If the space \((X, \tau)\) is a strongly symmetric \(T_1\)-space and satisfies the condition \(C = C^*\), then union and intersection of two \(\lambda^*\)-closed sets are \(\lambda^*\)-closed sets.

Theorem 6.23 (cf. [11]) For a space \((X, \tau)\), the following statements are equivalent:

1. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_1\)
2. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_0\) and \(R_0\)
3. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_0\) and weak \(R_0\).

Proof. (1) \(\Rightarrow\) (2): It follows from Theorem 6.13.

(2) \(\Rightarrow\) (3): It follows from Theorem 6.16.

For (3) \(\Rightarrow\) (1): Let \((X, \tau)\) be \(T_0\) and weak \(R_0\) and \(\{x\} \subset X\). So by Theorem 6.4, \(\{x\}\) is \(\lambda^*\)-closed. Again \((X, \tau)\) is weak \(R_0\), \(\{x\}\) is \(\wedge_r\)-set. By Theorem 6.14, \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_1\).

Theorem 6.24. If \((X, \tau)\) is a strongly symmetric \(T_1\)-space and satisfies the condition \(C = C^*\), then it is \(T_\omega\)-space.

Proof. Let \((X, \tau)\) be strongly symmetric \(T_1\)-space satisfying the condition \(C = C^*\) and let \(A\) be a \(g^*\)-closed set. Then \(\overline{A^c} = A\) and so \(\overline{A^c}\) is \(g^*\)-closed. Therefore \(A^c \in C^* = C\) which implies that \(\overline{A}\) is closed. Now let \(x \in \overline{A} - A\). Since \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_1\) and strongly symmetric space, \(\{x\}\) is \(g^*\)-closed and \(\lambda^*\)-closed and since \(C = C^*, \{x\}\) is a closed set by Theorem 5.5. But by Theorem 2.11, \(\{x\} \not\subset \overline{A} - A\). Therefore \(x \in A\) and so \(\overline{A} = A\) which implies that \(A\) is a closed set and hence the space \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_\omega\).

Theorem 6.25. If the space \((X, \tau)\) is strongly symmetric, Weak \(R_0\), and satisfies the condition \(C = C^*\), then the following are equivalent:

1. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_0\)
2. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_1\)
3. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_\omega\)
4. \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_{\omega^\tau}\)
(5) \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_{\omega}^4\).

(6) \((X, \tau)\) is \(T_{\omega}^7\).

7. Conclusion

In this paper we have characterised \(g^*-\)closed sets in terms of \(A_\lambda^\tau\)-sets, and also \(T_\omega\)-space in terms of generalized \(\wedge_\tau\) (in short \(g\wedge_\tau\))-sets and \(\lambda^*\)-closed sets. Besides, introducing few new separation axioms viz. \(T_{\omega}^2, T_{\omega}^5\) and \(T_{\omega}^8\) in Alexandroff spaces we have shown that a \(T_\omega\) space is \(T_{\omega}^2\), a \(T_{\omega}^5\) space is \(T_{\omega}^5\), a \(T_{\omega}^8\) space is \(T_{\omega}^8\) and a \(T_{\omega}^2\) space is \(T_0\) but the reverse implications may not hold which are substantiated by suitable examples. We have seen in [5] that \(T_\omega\) and \(T_1\) axioms in a space are independent of each other. But we have obtained a result showing that \(T_0, T_1\) and all the above axioms are equivalent under additional three conditions viz. the space is (i) strongly symmetric (ii) weak \(R_0\) and (iii) it satisfies the condition \(C = C^*\).

References


Amar Kumar Banerjee
Department of Mathematics
The University of Burdwan
Golapbag, India.
E-mail: akbanerjee1971@gmail.com

Jagannath Pal
Department of Mathematics
The University of Burdwan
Golapbag, India.
E-mail: jpalbu1950@gmail.com