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On $\alpha\omega$ -closed and $\alpha\omega$ -open maps in Topological Spaces

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to introduce new type $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps and $\alpha\omega$ -open maps, $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed maps and $\alpha\omega^*$ -open maps. We also obtain some properties of $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps and $\alpha\omega$ -open maps.

Keywords: $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps, $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed maps and $\alpha\omega$ -open maps, $\alpha\omega^*$ - open maps.

Introduction

Mappings plays an important role in the study of modern mathematics, especially in Topology and Functional Analysis. Closed and open mappings are one such mappings which are studied for different types of closed sets by various mathematicians for the past many years. Norman Levine introduced the notion of generalized closed sets. After him different mathematicians worked and studied on different versions of generalized closed sets and related topological properties. Generalized closed mappings were introduced and studied by Malghan^[1]. wg-closed maps and rwg-closed maps were introduced and studied by Nagavani^[2]. Regular closed maps, gpr-closed maps and rw-closed maps have been introduced and studied by Long^[3], Gnanambal^[4] and R S Wali^[5] respectively. In this paper, a new class of maps called α regular ω -closed (briefly, $\alpha\omega$ -closed) maps, $\alpha\omega^*$ - closed maps have been introduced and studied their relations with various generalized closed maps. We prove that the composition of two $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps need not be $\alpha\omega$ -closed map. We also obtain some properties of $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps. We give the definitions of some of them which are used in our present study.

2. Preliminaries

Throughout this paper, (X, τ) and (Y, σ) (or simply X and Y) represent a topological spaces on which no separation axioms are assumed unless otherwise mentioned. For a subset A of a space X , $\text{cl}(A)$ and $\text{int}(A)$ denote the closure of A and the interior of A respectively. $X \setminus A$ or A^c denotes the complement of A in X .

We recall the following definitions and results.

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

- 1) Semi-open set^[6] if $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{int}(A))$ and semi-closed set if $\text{int}(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq A$.
- 2) Pre-open set^[7] if $A \subseteq \text{int}(\text{cl}(A))$ and pre-closed set if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq A$.
- 3) α -open set^[8] if $A \subseteq \text{int}(\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)))$ and α -closed set if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(\text{cl}(A))) \subseteq A$.
- 4) Semi-preopen set^[9] ($=\beta$ -open^[10] if $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{int}(\text{cl}(A)))$) and a semi-pre closed set ($=\beta$ -closed) if $\text{int}(\text{cl}(\text{int}(A))) \subseteq A$.
- 5) Regular open set^[11] if $A = \text{int}(\text{cl}A)$ and a regular closed set if $A = \text{cl}(\text{int}(A))$.
- 6) Regular semi open set^[12] if there is a regular open set U such that $U \subseteq A \subseteq \text{cl}(U)$.
- 7) Regular α -open set^[13] (briefly, α -open) if there is a regular open set U such that $U \subseteq A \subseteq \text{acl}(U)$.

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

1. Generalized pre regular closed set (briefly gpr-closed)^[4] if $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular open in X .

2. $\omega\alpha$ - closed set ^[14] if $\text{acl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is ω -open in X .
3. α regular ω - closed (briefly $\alpha\omega$ -closed) set^[15] if $\text{acl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is $\text{r}\omega$ -open in X .
4. Regular generalized α -closed set (briefly, $\text{rg}\alpha$ -closed)^[13] if $\text{acl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular α -open in X .
5. Generalized closed set (briefly g -closed)^[16] if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in X .
6. Generalized semi-closed set (briefly gs -closed)^[17] if $\text{scl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in X .
7. Generalized semi pre regular closed (briefly $gspr$ -closed) set ^[18] if $\text{spcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular open in X .
8. Strongly generalized closed set ^[18] (briefly, g^* -closed) if $\text{Cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is g -open in X .
9. α -generalized closed set (briefly αg -closed)^[19] if $\text{acl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in X .
10. ω -closed set^[20] if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is semi-open in X .
11. weakly generalized closed set (briefly, wg -closed)^[2] if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in X .
12. Regular weakly generalized closed set (briefly, rwg -closed)^[2] if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular open in X .
13. Semi weakly generalized closed set (briefly, swg -closed)^[2] if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is semi open in X .
14. Generalized pre closed (briefly gp -closed) set ^[21] if $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in X .
15. Regular ω -closed (briefly $\text{r}\omega$ -closed) set ^[5] if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular semi-open in X .
16. g^* -pre closed (briefly g^*p -closed) ^[22] if $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is g -open in X
17. Generalized regular closed (briefly gr -closed) set ^[23] if $\text{rcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in X .
18. Regular generalized weak (briefly rgw -closed) set ^[24] if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular semi open in X .
19. Weak generalized regular- α closed (briefly $wgr\alpha$ -closed) set ^[25] if $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular α -open in X .
20. Regular pre semi-closed (briefly rps -closed) set ^[26] if $\text{spcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is rg - open in X .
21. Generalized pre regular weakly closed (briefly gprw -closed) set ^[27] if $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular semi-open in X .
22. α -generalized regular closed (briefly αgr -closed) set ^[28] if $\text{acl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular open in X .
23. R^* -closed set ^[29] if $\text{rcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is regular semi-open in X .

The compliment of the above mentioned closed sets are their open sets respectively.

Definition 2.3: A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be

1. Regular-continuous (r -continuous) ^[30] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is r -closed in X for every closed subset V of Y .
2. Completely-continuous ^[30] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is regular closed in X for every closed subset V of Y .

3. g -continuous^[31] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g -closed in X for every closed subset V of Y
4. $\alpha\omega$ -continuous ^[32] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in X for every closed subset V of Y .
5. Strongly $\alpha\omega$ -continuous ^[32] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed set in X for every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set V in Y .

Definition 2.4: A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be

1. α -irresolute ^[7] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is α -closed in X for every α -closed subset V of Y .
2. $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute ^[32] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in X for every $\alpha\omega$ -closed subset V of Y .
3. αg -irresolute ^[19] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is αg -closed in X for every αg -closed subset V of Y .
4. Irresolute ^[3] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is semi-closed in X for every semi-closed subset V of Y .
5. Contra irresolute ^[7] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is semi-open in X for every semi-closed subset V of Y .
6. contra-irresolute^[1] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is regular-open in X for every regular-closed subset V of Y
7. Contra continuous ^[38] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X for every closed subset V of Y .
8. $\text{r}\omega^*$ -open (resp $\text{r}\omega^*$ -closed) ^[20] map if $f(U)$ is $\text{r}\omega$ -open (resp $\text{r}\omega$ -closed) in Y for every $\text{r}\omega$ -open (resp $\text{r}\omega$ -closed) subset U of X .
9. α^* -quotient map^[34] if f is α -irresolute and $f^{-1}(V)$ is an α -open set in (X, τ) implies V is an open set in (Y, σ) .

Lemma 2.5 see ^[15]

1. Every closed (resp regular-closed, α -closed) set is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X .
2. Every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set is αg -closed set
3. Every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set is αgr -closed (resp $\omega\alpha$ -closed, gs -closed, $gspr$ -closed, wg -closed, rwg -closed, gp -closed, gpr -closed) set in X

Lemma 2.6 see ^[15]: If a subset A of a topological space X , and

1. If A is regular open and $\alpha\omega$ -closed then A is α -closed set in X
2. If A is open and αg -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X
3. If A is open and gp -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X
4. If A is regular open and gpr -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X
5. If A is open and wg -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X
6. If A is regular open and rwg -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X
7. If A is regular open and αgr -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X
8. If A is ω -open and $\omega\alpha$ -closed then A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in X

Lemma 2.7: see ^[15] If a subset A of a topological space X , and

1. If A is semi-open and sg -closed then it is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
2. If A is semi-open and ω -closed then it is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
3. A is $\alpha\omega$ -open iff $U \subseteq \text{aint}(A)$, whenever U is $\text{r}\omega$ -closed and $U \subseteq A$.

Definition 2.8: A topological space (X, τ) is called

1. an α -space [8] if every α -closed subset of X is closed in X .

2. $T_{1/2}$ space^[1] if every g-closed set is closed.
3. $1/2T_{\alpha}$ -space^[19] if every αg -closed set is α -closed.
4. $T_{\alpha\omega}$ space^[32] if every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set is closed.

Definition 2.9 A map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be

1. α -closed^[8] if $f(F)$ is α -closed in Y for every closed subset F of X .
2. αg -closed^[19] if $f(F)$ is αg -closed in Y for every closed subset F of X .
3. wg -closed^[2] if $f(V)$ is wg -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
4. rwg -closed^[2] if $f(V)$ is rwg -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
5. gs -closed^[17] if $f(V)$ is gs -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
6. gp -closed^[21] if $f(V)$ is gp -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
7. gpr -closed^[4] if $f(V)$ is gpr -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
8. αgr -closed^[28] if $f(V)$ is αgr -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
9. $\omega\alpha$ -closed^[14] if $f(V)$ is $\omega\alpha$ -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
10. $gspr$ -closed^[18] if $f(V)$ is $gspr$ -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
11. g -closed^[31] if $f(V)$ is g -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
12. ω -closed^[20] if $f(V)$ is ω -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
13. $rg\alpha$ -closed^[13] if $f(V)$ is $rg\alpha$ -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
14. gr -closed^[23] if $f(V)$ is gr -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
15. g^*p -closed^[21] if $f(V)$ is g^*p -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
16. rps -closed^[26] if $f(V)$ is rps -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
17. R^* -closed^[29] if $f(V)$ is R^* -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
18. $gprw$ -closed^[27] if $f(V)$ is $gprw$ -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
19. $wgr\alpha$ -closed^[25] iff $f(V)$ is $wgr\alpha$ -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
20. swg -closed^[2] if $f(V)$ is swg -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
21. $r\omega$ -closed^[5] if $f(V)$ is $r\omega$ -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
22. rgw -closed^[24] if $f(V)$ is rgw -closed in Y for every closed subset V of X .
23. regular closed if $f(F)$ is closed in Y for every regular closed set F of X .
24. Contra closed^[35] if $f(F)$ is closed in Y for every open set F of X .
25. Contra regular closed if $f(F)$ is r -closed in Y for every open set F of X .
26. Contra semi-closed^[36] if $f(F)$ is s -closed in Y for every open set F of X .

Definition 2.10 A map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be

1. g -open^[31] if $f(U)$ is g -open in (Y, σ) for every open set U of (X, τ) ,
2. w -open^[20] if $f(U)$ is w -open in (Y, σ) for every open set U of (X, τ) ,

3. wg -open^[2] if $f(U)$ is wg -open in (Y, σ) for every open set U of (X, τ) ,
4. rwg -open^[2] if $f(U)$ is rwg -open in (Y, σ) for every open set U of (X, τ) ,
5. gpr -open^[4] if $f(U)$ is gpr -open in (Y, σ) for every open set U of (X, τ) ,
6. regular open if $f(U)$ is open in (Y, σ) for every regular open set U of (X, τ) .

3 $\alpha\omega$ -closed Maps and $\alpha\omega$ -open Maps :

We introduce the following definition

Definition 3.1 A map $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be **α regular ω -closed** (briefly, $\alpha\omega$ -closed) if the image of every closed set in (X, τ) is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) .

Theorem 3.2 Every closed map is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map, but not conversely.

Proof. The proof follows from the definitions and fact that every closed set is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

Theorem 3.3 Every α -closed map is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map but not conversely.

Proof. The proof follows from the definitions and fact that every α -closed set is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

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

Example 3.4 Let $X=Y=\{a,b,c,d\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$ Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by $f(a)=c, f(b)=a, f(c)=b, f(d)=d$, then f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map but not closed map and not α -closed map, as image of closed set $F = \{c,d\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{b,d\}$ in Y , which is not α -closed, not closed set in Y .

Theorem 3.5 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is contra- r -closed and $\alpha\omega$ -closed map then f is α -closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is regular open and $\alpha\omega$ -closed. By Lemma 2.6, $f(V)$ is α -closed. Thus f is α -closed map.

Theorem 3.6 If a map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is closed, Then the following holds.

- i) If f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map, then f is αg -closed map.
- ii) If f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map, then f is wg -closed map (resp gs -closed map, rwg -closed map, gp -closed map, gpr -closed map, gpr -closed map, $\omega\alpha$ -closed map, αgr -closed map).

Proof.(i) The proof follows from the definitions and fact that every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set is αg -closed.

(ii) Similarly we can prove (ii).

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

Example 3.7 Let $X=Y=\{a,b,c\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b,c\}\}$ $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$, Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=c$ then f is αg -closed map, wg -closed map, gs -closed map,

gp-closed map, gspr-closed map, gpr-closed map, rwg-closed map, agr-closed map but not ar ω -closed map as image closed set $F = \{b,c\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{a,c\}$ in Y , which is not ar ω -closed set in Y .

Remark 3.8 The following examples shows that ar ω -closed maps are independent of pre-closed, β -closed, g-closed, ω -closed, r ω -closed, swg-closed, rgw-closed, wgr α -closed, rga-closed, gprw-closed, g*p-closed, gr-closed, R*-closed, rps-closed, semi-closed maps.

Example 3.9 Let $X=Y=\{a,b,c\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b,c\}\}$ $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b,c\}\}$, Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by, $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=c$ then f is pre-closed map, β -closed map, g-closed map, ω -closed map, r ω -closed map, swg-closed map, rgw-closed map, wgr α -closed map, rga-closed map, gprw-closed map, g*p-closed map, gr-closed map, R*-closed map, rps-closed map but f is not ar ω -closed map, as closed set $F = \{b,c\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{a,c\}$ in Y , which is not ar ω -closed set in Y .

Example 3.10 $X=\{a,b,c\}, Y=\{a,b,c,d\}$ $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$, $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$, Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by, $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=d$ then f is ar ω -closed map but f is not gprw-closed map, rps-closed map, wgr α -closed map, rgw-closed map, rga-closed map, swg-closed map, pre-closed map, R*-closed map, r ω -closed map, ω -closed map, as closed set $F = \{b,c\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{a,d\}$ in Y , which is not gprw-closed (resp rps-closed, wgr α -closed, rgw-closed,

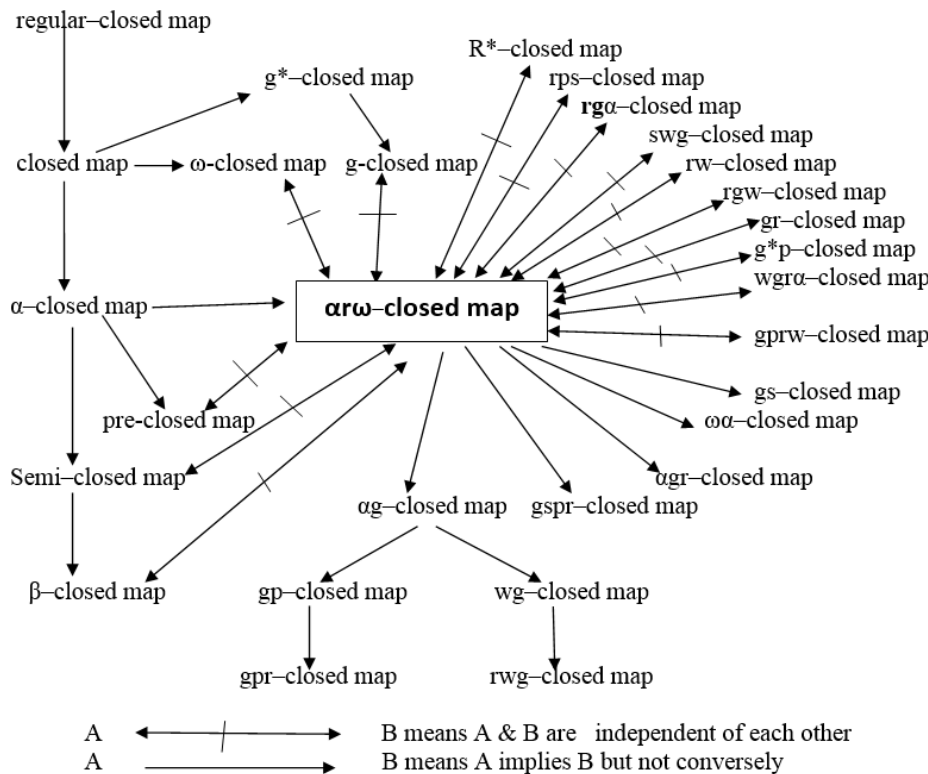
rg α -closed, swg-closed, pre-closed, R*-closed, r ω -closed, ω -closed) set in Y .

Example 3.11 $X=Y=\{a,b,c,d\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$ $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$ Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by, $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=d, f(d)=c$ then f is ar ω -closed map but f is gr-closed map, g-closed map, g*p-closed map, as closed set $F = \{d\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{c\}$ in Y , which is not gr-closed (resp g-closed, g*p-closed) set in Y .

Example 3.12 $X=\{a,b,c\}, Y=\{a,b,c,d\}$ $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$, $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$, Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by, $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=d$ then f is not semi-closed map, β -closed map, as closed set $F = \{a,b,c\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{a,b,d\}$ in Y which is not semi-closed (resp β -closed) set in Y .

Example 3.13 $X=\{a,b,c\}, Y=\{a,b,c,d\}$ $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$, $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$, Let map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ defined by $f(a)=d, f(b)=b, f(c)=c$ then f is semi-closed map, β -closed map but f is not ar ω -closed map, as closed set $F = \{b,c\}$ in X , then $f(F) = \{b,c\}$ in Y , which is not ar ω -closed set in Y .

Remark 3.14 From the above discussion and know results we have the following implications. (Fig)



Theorem 3.15 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is contra closed and αg -closed map then f is ar ω -closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is open and αg -closed. By Lemma 2.6, $f(V)$ is ar ω -closed. Thus f is ar ω -closed map.

Theorem 3.16 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is contra closed and wg -closed map then f is ar ω -closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is open and wg -closed. By Lemma 2.6, $f(V)$ is ar ω -closed. Thus f is ar ω -closed map.

Theorem 3.17 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is contra regular closed and rwg -closed map then f is αrw -closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is regular open and rwg -closed. By Lemma 2.6, $f(V)$ is αrw -closed. Thus f is αrw -closed map.

Theorem 3.18 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is contra semi-closed and ω -closed map then f is αrw -closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is semi-open and ω -closed. By Lemma 2.7, $f(V)$ is αrw -closed. Thus f is αrw -closed map.

Theorem 3.19 If a mapping $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is αrw -closed, then $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$ for every subset A of (X, τ) .

Proof. Suppose that f is αrw -closed and $A \subseteq X$. Then $\text{cl}(A)$ is closed in X and so $f(\text{cl}(A))$ is αrw -closed in (Y, σ) . We have $f(A) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$, by Theorem 5.2(iv) in [33], $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq \alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(\text{cl}(A))) \rightarrow$ (i). Since $f(\text{cl}(A))$ is αrw -closed in (Y, σ) , $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(\text{cl}(A))) = f(\text{cl}(A)) \rightarrow$ (ii), by the Theorem 5.3 in [33]. From (i) and (ii), we have $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$ for every subset A of (X, τ) .

Corollary 3.20 If a mapping $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is αrw -closed, then the image $f(A)$ of closed set A in (X, τ) is $\tau_{\alpha\text{rw}}$ -closed in (Y, σ) .

Proof. Let A be a closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is αrw -closed, by above Theorem 3.19, $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A)) \rightarrow$ (i). Also $\text{cl}(A) = A$, as A is a closed set and so $f(\text{cl}(A)) = f(A) \rightarrow$ (ii). From (i) and (ii), we have $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(A)$. We know that $f(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A))$ and so $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) = f(A)$. Therefore $f(A)$ is $\tau_{\alpha\text{rw}}$ -closed in (Y, σ) .

Theorem 3.21 Let (X, τ) be any topological spaces and (Y, σ) be a topological space where " $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(A) = \alpha\text{-cl}(A)$ for every subset A of Y " and $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a map, then the following are equivalent.

- (i) f is αrw -closed map.
- (ii) $\alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$ for every subset A of (X, τ) .

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Follows from the Theorem 3.19.
 (ii) \Rightarrow (i) Let A be any closed set of (X, τ) . Then $A = \text{cl}(A)$ and so $f(A) = f(\text{cl}(A)) \supseteq \alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A))$ by hypothesis. We have $f(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A))$, by Theorem 5.2(ii) in [33]. Therefore $f(A) = \alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A))$. Also $f(A) = \alpha\text{rw-cl}(f(A)) = \alpha\text{-cl}(f(A))$, by hypothesis. That is $f(A) = \alpha\text{-cl}(f(A))$ and so $f(A)$ is α -closed in (Y, σ) . Thus $f(A)$ is αrw -closed set in (Y, σ) and hence f is αrw -closed map.

Theorem 3.22 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is αrw -closed if and only if for each subset S of (Y, σ) and each open set U containing $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq U$, there is a αrw -open set V of (Y, σ) such that $S \subseteq V$ and $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq U$.

Proof. Suppose f is αrw -closed. Let $S \subseteq Y$ and U be an open set of (X, τ) such that $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq U$. Now $X - U$ is closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is αrw -closed, $f(X - U)$ is αrw -closed set in (Y, σ) . Then $V = Y - f(X - U)$ is a αrw -open set in (Y, σ) . Note that $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq U$ implies $S \subseteq V$ and $f^{-1}(V) = X - f^{-1}(f(X - U)) \subseteq X - (X - U) = U$. That is $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq U$.

For the converse, let F be a closed set of (X, τ) . Then $f^{-1}(((f(F))^c) \subseteq F^c$ and F^c is an open in (X, τ) . By hypothesis, there exists a αrw -open set V in (Y, σ) such that $f(F)^c \subseteq V$ and $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq F^c$ and so $F \subseteq (f^{-1}(V))^c$. Hence $V^c \subseteq f(F) \subseteq f(((f^{-1}(V))^c) \subseteq V^c$ which implies $f(F) = V^c$. Since V^c is αrw -closed, $f(F)$ is αrw -closed. Thus $f(F)$ is αrw -closed in (Y, σ) and therefore f is αrw -closed map.

Remark 3.23 The composition of two αrw -closed maps need not be αrw -closed map in general and this is shown by the following example.

Example 3.24 Let $X = Y = Z = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$, $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$ and $\eta = \{Z, \phi, \{a\}, \{c\}, \{a, c\}\}$. Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ are the identity maps. Then f and g are αrw -closed maps, but their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is not αrw -closed map, because $F = \{c\}$ is closed in (X, τ) , but $g \circ f(F) = g \circ f(\{c\}) = g(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ which is not αrw -closed in (Z, η) .

Theorem 3.25 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is closed map and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is αrw -closed map, then the composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is αrw -closed map.

Proof. Let F be any closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is closed map, $f(F)$ is closed set in (Y, σ) . Since g is αrw -closed map, $g(f(F))$ is αrw -closed set in (Z, η) . That is $g \circ f(F) = g(f(F))$ is αrw -closed and hence $g \circ f$ is αrw -closed map.

Remark 3.26 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is αrw -closed map and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is closed map, then the composition need not be αrw -closed map as seen from the following example.

Example 3.27 Let $X = Y = Z = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$, $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$ and $\eta = \{Z, \phi, \{a\}, \{c\}, \{a, c\}\}$. Define $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ are the identity maps. Then f is αrw -closed map and g is a closed map. But their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is not αrw -closed map, since for the closed set $\{c\}$ in (X, τ) , but $g \circ f(\{c\}) = g(f(\{c\})) = g(\{c\}) = \{c\}$ which is not αrw -closed in (Z, η) .

Theorem 3.28 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is αrw -closed maps and (Y, σ) be a $T_{\alpha\text{rw}}$ -space then $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is αrw -closed map.

Proof. Let A be a closed set of (X, τ) . Since f is αrw -closed, $f(A)$ is αrw -closed in (Y, σ) . Then by hypothesis, $f(A)$ is closed. Since g is αrw -closed, $g(f(A))$ is αrw -closed in (Z, η) and $g(f(A)) = g \circ f(A)$. Therefore $g \circ f$ is αrw -closed map.

Theorem 3.29 Iff: $(X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is g -closed, $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ be αrw -closed and (Y, σ) is $T_{1/2}$ -space then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is αrw -closed map.

Proof. Let A be a closed set of (X, τ) . Since f is g -closed, $f(A)$ is g -closed in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is $T_{1/2}$ -space, $f(A)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Since g is αrw -closed, $g(f(A))$ is αrw -closed in (Z, η) and $g(f(A)) = g \circ f(A)$. Therefore $g \circ f$ is αrw -closed map.

Theorem 3.30 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ be two mappings such that their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ be αrw -closed mapping. Then the following statements are true.

- (i) If f is continuous and surjective, then g is αrw -closed.

- (ii) If g is $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute and injective, then f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
- (iii) If f is g -continuous, surjective and (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ -space, then g is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
- (iv) If g is strongly $\alpha\omega$ -continuous and injective, then f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

Proof.

- (i) Let A be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is continuous, $f^{-1}(A)$ is closed in (X, τ) and since $g \circ f$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, $(g \circ f)(f^{-1}(A))$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Z, η) . That is $g(A)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Z, η) , since f is surjective. Therefore g is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
- (ii) Let B be a closed set of (X, τ) . Since $g \circ f$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, $g \circ f(B)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Z, η) . Since g is $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute, $g^{-1}(g \circ f(B))$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (Y, σ) . That is $f(B)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) , since f is injective. Therefore f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
- (iii) Let C be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is g -continuous, $f^{-1}(C)$ is g -closed set in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ -space, $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed set in (X, τ) . Since $g \circ f$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, $(g \circ f)(f^{-1}(C))$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Z, η) . That is $g(C)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Z, η) , since f is surjective. Therefore g is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.
- (iv) Let D be a closed set of (X, τ) . Since $g \circ f$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, $(g \circ f)(D)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Z, η) . Since g is strongly $\alpha\omega$ -continuous, $g^{-1}((g \circ f)(D))$ is closed set in (Y, σ) . That is $f(D)$ is closed set in (Y, σ) , since g is injective. Therefore f is closed.

Theorem 3.31 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an open, continuous, $\alpha\omega$ -closed surjection and $cl(F) = F$ for every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (Y, σ) , where X is regular, then Y is regular.

Proof. Let U be an open set in Y and $p \in U$. Since f is surjection, there exists a point $x \in X$ such that $f(x) = p$. Since X is regular and f is continuous, there is an open set V in X such that $x \in V \subseteq cl(V) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$. Here $p \in f(V) \subseteq f(cl(V)) \subseteq U \rightarrow$ (i). Since f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, $f(cl(V))$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set contained in the open set U . By hypothesis, $cl(f(cl(V))) = f(cl(V))$ and $cl(f(V)) = cl(f(cl(V))) \rightarrow$ (ii). From (i) and (ii), we have $p \in f(V) \subseteq cl(f(V)) \subseteq U$ and $f(V)$ is open, since f is open. Hence Y is regular.

Theorem 3.32 If a map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed and A is closed set of X , then $f_A: (A, \tau_A) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

Proof. Let F be a closed set of A . Then $F = A \cap E$ for some closed set E of (X, τ) and so F is closed set of (X, τ) . Since f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, $f(F)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (Y, σ) . But $f(F) = f_A(F)$ and therefore $f_A: (A, \tau_A) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

Theorem 3.33 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a continuous, $\alpha\omega$ -closed map from a normal space (X, τ) onto a space (Y, σ) then (Y, σ) is α -normal.

Proof: Let A and B be two disjoint closed sets of (Y, σ) . Let A and B are disjoint closed sets of (Y, σ) . Then $f^{-1}(A)$ and $f^{-1}(B)$ are disjoint closed sets of (X, τ) , since f is continuous. Therefore there exists open sets U and V such that $f^{-1}(A) \subseteq U$ and $f^{-1}(B) \subseteq V$, since X is normal. Using theorem 3.23, there exists $\alpha\omega$ -open sets C, D in (Y, σ) such that $A \subseteq C, B \subseteq D, f^{-1}(C) \subseteq U$ and $f^{-1}(D) \subseteq V$. Since A and B are closed, A and B are α -closed and $\alpha\omega$ -closed. By the definition of $\alpha\omega$ -open, C is $\alpha\omega$ -open if and only if $A \subseteq \alpha\text{-int}(C)$ whenever $A \subseteq C$

and A is $\alpha\omega$ -closed, we get $A \subseteq \alpha\text{-int}(C)$. Thus $A \subseteq \alpha\text{-int}(C)$ and $B \subseteq \alpha\text{-int}(D)$. Hence Y is α -normal.

Theorem 3.34 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an α -irresolute, (Y, σ) is a $\frac{1}{2}T_\alpha$ -space then f is an $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute map.

Proof: Let U be $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) then U is αg -closed. Since (Y, σ) is a $\frac{1}{2}T_\alpha$ -space, U is α -closed. Since f is α -irresolute, $f^{-1}(U)$ is α -closed. Hence $f^{-1}(U)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed. Thus f is $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute map.

Theorem 3.35 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an αg -irresolute where (X, τ) is a discrete space then f is an $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute map.

Proof: Let U be $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) . Then U is αg -closed. Since f is αg -irresolute and (X, τ) is discrete, $f^{-1}(U)$ is αg -closed and open. Hence $f^{-1}(U)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed. Thus f is $\alpha\omega$ -irresolute map.

Theorem 3.36 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a α^* -quotient map and (Y, σ) is $\frac{1}{2}T_\alpha$ -space then (Y, σ) is a $T_{\alpha\omega}$ -space.

Proof: Let U be $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) . Then U is αg -closed in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is $\frac{1}{2}T_\alpha$ -space then U is α -closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is α -irresolute, $f^{-1}(U)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) . Since f is α^* -quotient map $f^{-1}(U)$ is α -irresolute, $f^{-1}(U)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) then U is closed in (Y, σ) . Thus (Y, σ) is a $T_{\alpha\omega}$ -space.

Analogous to $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps, we define $\alpha\omega$ -open map as follows.

Definition 3.37 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called a **$\alpha\omega$ -open map** if the image $f(A)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open in (Y, σ) for each open set A in (X, τ) .

From the definitions we have the following results.

Theorem 3.38 (i) Every open map is $\alpha\omega$ -open but not conversely.

- (ii) Every α -open map is $\alpha\omega$ -open but not conversely.
- (iii) Every $\alpha\omega$ -open map is αg -open but not conversely.
- (iv) Every $\alpha\omega$ -open map is $\alpha\omega$ -open but not conversely.
- (v) Every $\alpha\omega$ -open map is gpr -open but not conversely.

Theorem 3.39 For any bijection map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$, the following statements are equivalent:

- i) $f^{-1}: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -continuous.
- ii) f is $\alpha\omega$ -open map and
- iii) f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map.

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let U be an open set of (X, τ) . By assumption, $(f^{-1})^{-1}(U) = f(U)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open in (Y, σ) and so f is $\alpha\omega$ -open.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Let F be a closed set of (X, τ) . Then F^c is open set in (X, τ) . By assumption, $f(F^c)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open in (Y, σ) . That is $f(F^c) = f(F)^c$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open in (Y, σ) and therefore $f(F)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) . Hence f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i) Let F be a closed set of (X, τ) . By assumption, $f(F)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) . But $f(F) = (f^{-1})^{-1}(F)$ and therefore f^{-1} is continuous.

Theorem 3.40 If a map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open, then $f(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq \alpha\omega\text{-int}(f(A))$ for every subset A of (X, τ) .

Proof. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be an open map and A be any subset of (X, τ) . Then $\text{int}(A)$ is open in (X, τ) and so $f(\text{int}(A))$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open in (Y, σ) . We have $f(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq f(A)$. Therefore by Theorem 5.15 (iii) in [33], $f(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq \alpha\omega\text{-int}(f(A))$.

Theorem 3.41 If a map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open, then for each neighbourhood U of x in (X, τ) , there exists a $\alpha\omega$ -neighbourhood W of $f(x)$ in (Y, σ) such that $W \subseteq f(U)$.

Proof. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be an $\alpha\omega$ -open map. Let $x \in X$ and U be an arbitrary neighbourhood of x in (X, τ) . Then there exists an open set G in (X, τ) such that $x \in G \subseteq U$. Now $f(x) \in f(G) \subseteq f(U)$ and $f(G)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open set in (Y, σ) , as f is an $\alpha\omega$ -open map. By Theorem 6.7 in [33], $f(G)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -neighbourhood of each of its points. Taking $f(G) = W$, W is an $\alpha\omega$ -neighbourhood of $f(x)$ in (Y, σ) such that $W \subseteq f(U)$.

Theorem 3.42 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open if and only if for any subset S of (Y, σ) and any closed set of (X, τ) containing $f^{-1}(S)$, there exists a $\alpha\omega$ -closed set K of (Y, σ) containing S such that $f^{-1}(K) \subseteq F$.

Proof. Suppose f is $\alpha\omega$ -open map. Let $S \subseteq Y$ and F be a closed set of (X, τ) such that $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq F$. Now $X - F$ is an open set in (X, τ) . Since f is $\alpha\omega$ -open map, $f(X - F)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open set in (Y, σ) . Then $K = Y - f(X - F)$ is a $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (Y, σ) . Note that $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq F$ implies $S \subseteq K$ and $f^{-1}(K) = X - f^{-1}(X - F) \subseteq X - (X - F) = F$. That is $f^{-1}(K) \subseteq F$. For the converse, let U be an open set of (X, τ) . Then $f^{-1}((f(U))^c) \subseteq U^c$ and U^c is a closed set in (X, τ) . By hypothesis, there exists a $\alpha\omega$ -closed set K of (Y, σ) such that $(f(U))^c \subseteq K$ and $f^{-1}(K) \subseteq U^c$ and so $U \subseteq (f^{-1}(K))^c$. Hence $K^c \subseteq f(U) \subseteq f((f^{-1}(K))^c) \subseteq K^c$ which implies $f(U) = K^c$. Since K^c is a $\alpha\omega$ -open, $f(U)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open in (Y, σ) and therefore f is $\alpha\omega$ -open map.

Theorem 3.43 If a function $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open, then $f^{-1}(\alpha\omega\text{-cl}(B)) \subseteq \text{cl}(f^{-1}(B))$ for each subset B of (Y, σ) .

Proof. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be an $\alpha\omega$ -open map and B be any subset of (Y, σ) . Then $f^{-1}(B) \subseteq \text{cl}(f^{-1}(B))$ and $(f^{-1}(B))$ is closed set in (X, τ) . By above Theorem 3.44., there exists a $\alpha\omega$ -closed set K of (Y, σ) such that $B \subseteq K$ and $f^{-1}(K) \subseteq \text{cl}(f^{-1}(B))$. Now $\alpha\omega\text{-cl}(B) \subseteq \alpha\omega\text{-cl}(K) = K$, by Theorems 5.2 and 5.3 in [33], as K is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set of (Y, σ) . Therefore $f^{-1}(\alpha\omega\text{-cl}(B)) \subseteq f^{-1}(K)$ and so $f^{-1}(\alpha\omega\text{-cl}(B)) \subseteq f^{-1}(K) \subseteq \text{cl}(f^{-1}(B))$. Thus $f^{-1}(\alpha\omega\text{-cl}(B)) \subseteq \text{cl}(f^{-1}(B))$ for each subset of B of (Y, σ) .

We define another new class of maps called $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed maps which are stronger than $\alpha\omega$ -closed maps.

Definition 3.44 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map if the image $f(A)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) for every $\alpha\omega$ -closed set A in (X, τ) .

Theorem 3.45 Every $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map but not conversely.

Proof. The proof follows from the definitions and fact that every closed set is $\alpha\omega$ -closed.

The converse of the above Theorem is not true in general as seen from the following example.

Example 3.46 Let $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be the identity map. Then f is $\alpha\omega$ -closed map but not $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map. Since $\{b\}$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (X, τ) , but its image under f is $\{b\}$, which is not $\alpha\omega$ -closed in (Y, σ) .

Theorem 3.47 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ are $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed maps, then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is also $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed.

Proof. Let F be a $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (X, τ) . Since f is $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map, $f(F)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (Y, σ) . Since g is $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map, $g(f(F))$ is $\alpha\omega$ -closed set in (Z, η) . Therefore $g \circ f$ is $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map.

Analogous to $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map, we define another new class of maps called $\alpha\omega^*$ -open maps which are stronger than $\alpha\omega$ -open maps.

Definition 3.48 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be $\alpha\omega^*$ -open map if the image $f(A)$ is $\alpha\omega$ -open set in (Y, σ) for every $\alpha\omega$ -open set A in (X, τ) .

Remark 3.49 Since every open set is a $\alpha\omega$ -open set, we have every $\alpha\omega^*$ -open map is $\alpha\omega$ -open map. The converse is not true in general as seen from the following example.

Example 3.50 Let $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$. Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be the identity map. Then f is $\alpha\omega$ -open map but not $\alpha\omega^*$ -open map, since for the $\alpha\omega$ -open set $\{a, c\}$ in (X, τ) , $f(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\}$ which is not $\alpha\omega$ -open set in (Y, σ) .

Theorem 3.51 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ are $\alpha\omega^*$ -open maps, then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$ is also $\alpha\omega^*$ -open.

Proof. Proof is similar to the Theorem 3.47.

Theorem 3.52 For any bijection map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$, the following statements are equivalent:

- $f^{-1}: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$ is $\alpha\omega$ irresolute.
- f is $\alpha\omega^*$ -open map
- f is $\alpha\omega^*$ -closed map.

Proof: Proof is similar to that of Theorem 3.39.

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