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GENERALIZATIONS OF TOPOLOGICAL SPACES

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ABSTRACT

This is the fourth in a series of papers on U-spaces. Here several generalizations of topological spaces (I-spaces, CU-spaces, CUI-spaces, FUspaces and FUI- spaces) have been introduced and many topological theorems have been generalized to I- spaces, as an extension of study of infratopological spaces. We have generalized some properties of topological spaces to the other spaces too.

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INTRODUCTION

In a previous paper [1] we have introduced U- spaces and studied some of their properties. In this paper we use the terminology of [1]. Some study of these spaces was done previously in ([2],[3],[8],[12]) in less general form, and the spaces were called supratopological spaces. In this paper we have introduced the concepts of I-spaces, CU-spaces, CUI-spaces, FU-spaces and FUI-spaces as generalization of topological spaces. I-spaces have been called infratopological spaces by some authors [4], [9], [10]. The concepts of limit point of a set, Interior point of a set, closure of a set, three types of continuity, compactness, connectedness, and separation axioms in the topological spaces have been generalized to the case of I-spaces. The concepts can be defined similarly for CU-spaces, CUI-spaces, FU-spaces and FUI-spaces. We have constructed many examples and proved a number of theorems involving these concepts in case of I-spaces. For the other types of spaces some of these have been dealt with briefly.

2. I-SPACES

Definition 2.1 Let X be a non- empty set. A collection I of subsets of X is called an I- structure on X if (i) X, $\Phi \in I$,

(ii) $G_1, G_2, G_3, G_4, G_5, \cdots \cap G_n \in I$, implies $G_1 \cap G_2 \cap G_3 \cap G_4 \cap G_5 \cap \cdots \cap G_n \in I$. Then (X, I) is called an I-space.

Example 2.1 For a non- empty X, $\{X, \Phi\}$ is an I-structure. In fact every topology is an I-structure on X, and so, every topological space is an I-space.

Example 2.2 Let X = Z, and I = {{m Z $| m \in N } \cup \{ \Phi \} }.$

Then mZ \cap m⁷Z = IZ, where m, m⁷ \in N and I = I.c.m of m and m⁷.

Then (X, I) is an I-space. However, X is not a U-space.

Definition 2.2 An I-space which is not a topological space is called a proper I-space.

Example 2.3 Let X ={a, b, c, d}, I = { X, Φ , {a}, {a, b}, {a, c}, {a, d}, {a, c, d} is a proper I-structure which is not a **topology**, since {a, b} \cup {a, c} = {a, b, c} \notin I.

Definition 2.3 Let X = R and I = {R, Φ , all finite intersection of sets of the form (a,b), a, b \in R}. Then (X, I) is an I-space and is called the usual I-space R of the first kind. Thus, I consists of R, Φ and the intervals (a, b).

Definition 2.4 The usual I-space R of the second kind is the I-space (R, I), where

I = The collection of the finite intersection of all rays (- ∞ , b) and (a, ∞) together with R and Φ . Thus, I consists of the sets of the form R, Φ , (- ∞ ,b), (a, ∞) and (a, b).

We may define the interior points and the interior of a set in an I-space as in the case of a topological space. The limit points and the closure of a subset in an I-space may be defined similarly. But in an I-space the interior and the closure of a subset may not have the properties of those in a topological space.

We consider below the following definitions in this situation. Let (X, I) be an I-space. Let $A \subseteq X$. We have thus the following definitions.

Definition 2.5 A point $x \in X$ such that, for each I- open set G which contains $x, G \cap A$ contains an element other than x, is called a limit point of A. The set of all limit points of A is called the derived set of A and is denoted by D(A).

Definition 2.6 The closure of A written A, is the subset of X consists of the elements x such that for each an I-

open set G containing x, $G \cap A \neq \Phi$. i.e., $\overline{A} = \{x \in X \mid \text{ for each } G \in I \text{ with } x \in G, G \cap A \neq \Phi$. }. Clearly, $\overline{A} = A \cup D(A)$

Definition 2.7 A point $x \in X$ is called **an interior point of A**, if there is an I-open set G such that $x \in G$ and $G \subseteq A$.

Definition 2.8 The set of all interior points of A is called the interior of A and is denoted by IntA. Thus, IntA = { $x \in X \mid \exists G \in I$ such that $x \in G \subseteq A$ }

Comment 2.1

For a subset A of a topological space X,

(i) A is an I-closed set and is the intersection of all I-closed supersets of A.

(ii) IntA is an I-open set and is the union of all I-open subsets of A.

But these properties may or may not hold for A and IntA in I-spaces. The truth of the comment follows from the following theorems and illustrations;

1. (i) Let X = The usual I-space R of the first or the second kind. Let A = Q. Then A = R, and R is I-closed and is the intersection of all I-closed supersets of Q.

(ii) Let X ={a, b, c, d}. Then I ={X, Φ , {a}, {a,b}, {a,c}, {a, d}, {a, b,d}, {a,c, d}} is proper

I-structure on X. Then (X, I) is a proper I-space. The I-closed sets are {c, d}, {b, d}, {b, c, d}, {c}, {b}, {b, c}, X, Φ .

Let A ={b}. Then \overline{A} ={b}. \overline{A} is an I-closed and is the intersection of all I-closed supersets of A.

2. Let A = {d}. Then $A = \{d\}$. A is not an I-closed, but is the intersection of all I-closed supersets of A.

3.(i) Let X be the usual I- space R of the first or the second kind, and let A = N. then A = N, and N is neither Iclosed nor is the intersection of all I-closed supersets of N.

(ii) Let X ={a, b, c, d} and let I = {X, Φ , {b}, {d}, {a, b}, {b,d}}. Then (X, I) is a proper

I-space. The I-closed sets are {a, c, d}, {a, b, c},{c, d}, {a, c}, X, Φ .

Let A = {b}. Then A = {a, b}. A is neither I-closed nor is the intersection of all I-closed supersets of A.

4.(i) Let X = The usual I- space R, A = Q. Then IntA = Int Q = Φ , and so IntA is an I - open and is the union of all I- open sets G \subseteq A = Q.

(ii) Let X ={a, b, c, d} and I = {X, Φ , {a}, {a, c}, {a, d}, {a, b, d}} is a proper I- structure. The

(X, I) is a proper I- space.

Let A = {a}. Then IntA = {a}, and so IntA is an I-open and is the union of all I- open sets $G \subseteq A$.

5. (i) Let X = {a,b,c,d} and I = {X, Φ , {a}, {d}, {a, c}, {a, d}, {b, d}} is a proper I-structure. The (X, I) is a proper I-space.

Let A = {a, c, d}. Then IntA = {a, c, d}, and so IntA is not an I-open and is the union of all I-open sets $G \subseteq A$.

(ii) Let X be the usual I-space R of the second kind, and let $A = [a, b] \cup [c, d]$,

where a <b <c < d. I-open sets are of the form (- ∞ ,b),(a, ∞),(a, b), R, Φ .

IntA = (a, b) \cup (c, d) is not an I-open set but is a union of I-open sets.

3. I-CONTINUITY

We define I-continuous, I -continuous and I*-continuous maps as we have done for U-continuous, U - continuous and U*-continuous maps.

Definition 3.1 If X, Y are I-spaces (resp. X I-space, Y top-space; X top-space, Y I-space) a map f: $X \rightarrow Y$ is said to

be **I-continuous** (resp. *I* -continuous, I*-continuous) if for each I-open set (resp. open, I-open) H in Y, $f^{-1}(H)$ is an I-open (resp. I-open, open) set in X.

Example 3.1 Let X ={a, b, c, d }, $I = {X, \Phi, {a}, {b}, {d}, {a, b}, {a, d}, {b, c, d}}$

 $Y = \{p, q, r, s\}, I' = \{Y, \Phi, \{p\}, \{q\}, \{s\}, \{p, q\}, \{p, s\}, \{q, r, s\}\}.$ Let f: X \rightarrow Y be defined by f(a) = p, f(b) = q, f(c) = r, f(d) = s.

Then f is I-continuous.

Example 3.2 Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $I = \{X, \Phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, d\}\}$.

Let $Y = \{p, q, r\}$, $T = \{Y, \Phi, \{p\}, \{q\}, \{p, r\}\}$. Then (X, I) is an I-space and (Y, I) is a topological space. The function f: $X \rightarrow Y$ is defined by f(a) = p, f(b) = q, f(c) = r, f(d) = q. Then

f is I -continuous.

Example 3.3 Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, T = \{X, \Phi, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}\}$

 $Y = \{p, q, r, s \}, I = \{Y, \Phi, \{p\}, \{q\}, \{p, q\}, \{p, r\}, \{q, s\}\}. Then (Y, I) is an I- space. The function f: X \rightarrow Y is defined by f(a) = p, f(b) = q, f(c) = q, f(d) = s.$

Then f is I *-continuous.

4. COMPACTNESS

Definition 4.1 Let (X,I) be an I- space. An I-open cover of subset K is a collection $\{G_{\alpha}\}$ of

I-open sets such that K $\subseteq \bigcup_lpha G_lpha$.

Definition 4.2 An I-space X is said to be compact if every I-open cover of X has a finite sub-cover. A subset K of a I-space X is said to be compact if every I-open cover of K has a finite sub-cover.

Example 4.1 Let X = N and let $A_{n_o} = \{n \in N \mid n \ge n_o\}$, $I = \{\Phi, \{A_{n_o} \mid n_o \in N\}\}$. Then (X, I) is an I-space. In this I-space, N is compact, because every I-open cover of N must contain $A_1 = N$.

Comment 4. 1 We note however that

(i) For I-space (N, I), where I = {N, Φ } \cup {n_o + 1, n_o + 2, n_o + r | n_o, r \in N}. N is not compact.

(ii) In the usual I-space R, of the first kind, (and also of the second kind), N is not compact.

For, $\{(n - \frac{1}{2}, n + \frac{1}{2}) \mid n \in N\}$ is an I-open cover of N which does not have a finite subcover.

Theorem 4.1 Every I-continuous image of a compact I-space is compact. The proof is similar to that in topology.

The Heine-Borel Theorem of topology, 'A subset A of the usual space R is compact if and only if A is closed and bounded', has the following forms in the case of the usual I-space R of the first kind:

Theorem 4.2

(1) The compact subsets of R are precisely the finite subsets of R.

(2) No non-empty compact subset is I-closed.

(3) No non-empty I-closed subset is compact.

Proof :

(1) For, if A is an infinite subset of R, let A = $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a countable subset of R, and suppose $a_n < a_{n+1}$, for each n. Consider the intervals

$$I_{n} = \left(a_{n} - \frac{\epsilon_{n}}{2}, a_{n} + \frac{\epsilon_{n}}{2}\right), \text{ where } \epsilon_{n} = \min\{a_{n+1} - a_{n}, a_{n} - a_{n-1}\}. \text{ Then, } I_{n} \cap I_{n'} = \Phi, \text{ if } n \neq n'. \text{ If } \{I_{n}\}$$

covers A, let C be this cover. Otherwise, let $\{J_k\}$ be a collection of I-open sets such that (i)

$$J_k \cap \left(\bigcup_n I_n\right) = \Phi$$
, for each k, and (ii) $\{I_n\} \cup \{J_k\}$ is a cover of A. In this case, let C denote this cover. In both

the cases, C does not have a finite subcover. Thus, the compact subsets of R are finite.

(2) For, the definition of the I-structure on R shows that every non-empty I-closed set must contain subsets of the form $(-\infty, a]$ and $[b, \infty)$ both of which are infinite. Hence (2) follows from (1)

(3) The discussions in (1) and (2) prove (3).

For the usual I-space R of the second kind, the theorem corresponding to the Heine-Borel Theorem in topology is the following:

Theorem 4.3

(i) a compact subset need not be I-closed,

(ii) a compact subset need not be bounded,

(iii) every I-closed and bounded subset is compact.

Proof :

(1) Being finite, the subset {1, 2, 3,.....,n} of the usual I- space R of the second kind is compact. But it is not I-closed, since the non-trivial I-closed subsets of R are of the form $(-\infty, a]$, $[b, \infty)$ and $(-\infty, a] \cup [b, \infty)$, (a < b). This proves (i).

(2) Any I-open cover C of N must contain either R, or an I-open subset of the form (b, ∞),

b < 1. Any one of these two sets covers N. Hence N is compact.

Clearly, N is unbounded.

(3) Let F be an I-closed and bounded subset of R. Then $F = \Phi$ or F = [a, b] or $F = \{c\}$, for some a, b, $c \in R$, a < b. Φ and $\{c\}$ are obviously compact. The proof that [a, b] is compact is exactly similar to the corresponding proof in topology.

Definition 4.3 A subset A of an I- space (X, I) is said to be **disconnected** if there exist I- open sets I_1 and I_2 of X such that $A \cap I_1 \cap I_2 = \Phi$ and $I_1 \cup I_2 \supseteq A$.

A said to be **connected** if it is not disconnected.

Example 4.2 Let X = {a, b, c, d} and I = {X, Φ , {c}, {a, c}, {c, d}, {a, b, c}, {a, c, d}}. Then (X, I) is an I-space. Let A = {b, c, d} and B = {b, d}. Then A is connected and B is disconnected.

Example 4.3 In the usual I-spaces R of the first and the second kinds, all intervals are connected subsets.

Remark 4.1 As in topological spaces, the closure of a connected subset of I-space is connected too.

Remark 4.2 Although in the usual topological space R and the usual U-space R, N, Z, Q are disconnected, in the usual I-space R of the first kind, the above subsets of R are connected. However, these subsets are again disconnected in the usual I-space R of the second kind.

A Housdorff (resp. normal, regular, completely regular) I-space is defined as in topology. The usual I-spaces R of the first and the second kind are Hausforff.

Remark 4.3. A compact subset of a Hausdorff topological space is closed. But a compact subset of a Hausdorff I-space need not be I-closed.

Its truth follows from (2) of Theorem 4.2 as well as (1) of Theorem 4.3.

Remark 4.4 Unlike the usual topological space R and the usual U-space R, the usual I-spaces R of the first kind and the second kind are normal but not regular.

Proof: Let X denote the usual I-space R of the first kind. The I-closed sets of X are R, Φ and sets of the form (- ∞ , a] \cup [b, ∞) with a < b. Let F = (- ∞ , a] \cup [b, ∞) and x \notin F. Then x \in (a, b). But the only I- open set containing F is R and it also contains x. Hence X is not regular.

The only pairs of disjoint I-closed sets of X are {R, Φ },{F, Φ } and { Φ , Φ }. Then the disjoint I-open sets R and Φ separate each of these pairs of disjoint I-closed sets. Thus, X is normal.

Now, let Y denote the usual I-space R of the second kind.

Then the I-closed sets of Y are R, Φ , and the sets of the form (- ∞ , a], [b, ∞),

 $(-\infty, c] \cup [d, \infty)$ with c < d. As in the case of X, if $F = (-\infty, c] \cup [d, \infty)$ and $x \notin F$, then $x \in (c, d)$. The only I-open set of Y which contains F is R which also contains x. Hence Y is not regular.

The only pairs of disjoint I-closed sets of Y are $P_1 = \{(-\infty, a], [b, \infty)\}$ (a < b), $P_2 = \{(-\infty, a] \cup (-\infty, b)\}$

[b, ∞), Φ }, $P_3 = \{R, \Phi\}$. Then P_1 is separated by the each of disjoint I-open sets $\left(-\infty, \frac{a+b}{2}\right)and\left(\frac{a+b}{2}, \infty\right)$, while P_2 and P_3 is separated by the disjoint I-open sets R and Φ . Hence Y is

normal.

5. CU – SPACES

Definition 5.1 X be a non empty set and let CU a collection of subsets of X such that

(i) X, $\Phi \in \mathsf{CU}$,

(ii) C U is closed under countable unions.

Then C U is called a CU-structure on X and (X, CU) is **called a CU-space.** [Clearly, every topology T (resp. every U-structure U) on X is CU-structure on X and (X, T) (resp. (X, U)) is a CU-space.] A CU-space, which is neither a topological space, nor a U-space will be called a proper CU-space.

Example 5.1 Let X be an uncountable set and let CU consists of X, Φ and all countable unions of finite subsets of X. Then (X, C U) is a proper CU-space.

Example 5.2 The σ algebra B of Borel sets on R is a proper CU-structure on R. Hence (R, B) is a proper CU-space.

To see this, we first note that every singleton subset of R belongs to B. Let A be a proper uncountable subset of Q^c , the set of irrationals. Then $A = \bigcup \{x\}$, $A \notin B$. So, B is a proper CU-structure.

Example 5.3 let X = R, CU = { R, Φ , all countable unions of all closed intervals [a, b]}. Then (X, CU) is a CU-space. C U properly contains the usual topology on R. For,

(i) (a, b) =
$$\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[a + \frac{1}{m}, b - \frac{1}{n} \right] \in C U$$
 and every proper open set in the usual topology of R is a countable

union of open intervals (a, b).

(ii) $[a, b] \in CU$, but it does not belong to the usual topology of R.

Definition 5.2 The usual U-space R is also a CU- space. It is called the usual CU-space R.

Definition 5.3 The closure of A written A, is the subset of X consisting of the elements x such that for each

CU-open set G containing x, $G \cap A \neq \Phi$. i.e, $\overline{A} = \{x \in X | \text{ for each } G \in CU \text{ with } x \in G, G \cap A \neq \Phi \}$.

6. CUI- SPACES

Definition 6.1 Let X be a non- empty set. A collection CUI of subsets of X is called a

CUI-structure on X if X, $\Phi \in$ CUI and CUI is closed under countable union, and finite intersection. Then (X,CUI) is a **CUI-space**.

Examples 5.1 and 5.2 of CU-spaces are examples of CUI-spaces too.

Example 6.1 Let X = R and CU = {R, Φ , and the infinite countable subsets of R}. Then

(X, CU) is a CU-space. Let A = {n \in Z $|-\infty < n < 5$ } and

B = { n ∈ Z $|-7 < n < \infty$ }. Then A, B ∈ CU. A ∩ B = {-6, -5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4}∉ CU. (X, CU) is a

proper CU-space but not I-space.

Example 6.2 Let X =RandC = {R, Φ , \cup {(n, ∞) $| n \in Z$ }, \cup {(- ∞ , n) $| n \in Z$ }, \cup { [(m, ∞) \cup (- ∞ , n), $m, n \in Z$ }}.

Then (R, C) is a U- space and so, a CU-space but not an I-space.

Example 6.3 Let X = N or, Z, and $I = \{X, \Phi, A\}$ all finite subsets of X}.

Then (X, I) is an I-space but not a CU-space, and hence, not a U-space.

Definition 6.2 The usual topological space R is defined to be the usual CUI- space R.

7. FU- SPACES

Definition 7.1 Let X be a non-empty set and let FU be a collection of subsets of X such that

(i) X, $\Phi \in FU$

(ii) FU is closed under finite unions.

Then FU is called an FU-structure on X and (X, FU) is called an FU-space.

Example 7.1 Topological spaces, U-spaces and CU-spaces are FU-spaces.

Definition 7.2 A FU-space which is not a CU-space (and hence neither a U-space nor a topological space) is called a proper FU-space.

Example 7.2 Let X be an infinite set and let FU be the collection of all finite subsets of X. Then (X, FU) is a proper FU-space.

Example 7.3 Let X be R and FU the collection of all finite union of sets of the form (- ∞ , a) and (b, ∞). Then (X, FU) is FU-space.

Definition 7.3 The usual FU-space R is R with the FU-structure consisting of R, Φ , and all finite unions of the sets of the form (- ∞ , a), (b, ∞) and (c, d).

We thus note:

Remark 7.1 The FU-structure of the usual FU-space R consists precisely of the sets R, Φ and sets of the form $(-\infty, a), (b, \infty), (-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$ (a < b), $(a_1, b_1) \cup (a_2, b_2) \cup \cdots \cup (a_r, b_r)$, for some positive integer r with $a_i < b_i$, $1 \le i \le r$, and $(-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty) \cup (a_1, b_1) \cup (a_2, b_2) \cup \cdots \cup (a_s, b_s)$, ($a < a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \cdots < a_s < b_s < b$) for some positive integer s.

Definition 7.4 Let (X, FU) be an FU-space and let A be a subset of X. For $x \in X$, x is called an interior point of A if $x \in G \subseteq A$, for some FU-open set G in X.

Definition 7.5 The set of all interior points of A is called the interior of A, and is denoted by IntA.

Remark 7.2 Unlike in topological spaces, IntA need not be FU-open in an FU-space.

To see this, let us consider the usual FU-space R. Let A = $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (2n, 2n+1)$.

Then, A = IntA . But A is not FU-open.

Remark 7.3 However, for every FU-open set A in an FU-space, A = IntA.

The FU-closed sets of X are the complements of FU-open sets.

Definition 7.6 The FU-closure A of a subset A of an FU-space X is defined by

A = { $x \in X | x \in G$ for each FU-open set G in X with G \cap A $\neq \Phi$ }.

Theorem 7.1 Let X be an FU-space,

(i) For every FU-closed set F of X, $\overline{F} = F$,

(ii) For a subset A of X, A need not be FU-closed.

Proof: (i) Let $x \in \overline{F}$. If $x \notin F$, then $x \in F^c$. Now $x \in \overline{F}$ and since F^c is FU-open, and $x \in F^c$, $F^c \cap F \neq \Phi$, a contradiction. Hence $x \in F$.

(ii) Let X be the usual FU-space R and A = $(1, 2) \cup (3, 4)$.

Then, $A = [1, 2] \cup [3, 4]$. But this is not an FU-closed set in X, since the FU-closed subsets of X are precisely R, Φ and sets of the form [a, b], $[-\infty, a_1] \cup [a_2, b_1] \cup \cdots \cup [a_r, b_{r-1}] \cup [b_r, \infty](a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \cdots < a_r < b_r)$, $[a_1,b_1] \cup [a_2, b_2] \cup \cdots \cup [a_s, b_s]$, $a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \cdots < a_s < b_s$.

Definition 7.7 A subset A of an FU-space X is called **compact** if every FU-open cover has a finite subcover.

Example 7.4 In the usual FU-space R, N and the intervals [a, b] are compact subsets.

The proof that [a, b] is compact is similar to that in topology.

To see that N is compact, we note that every FU-open cover of N must contain a FU-open set of the form (a, ∞), a < 1. Then, at most [a] more FU-open sets of the cover are needed to cover A, where [a] is the largest positive integer less than or equal to a. Thus, N is compact.

Theorem 7.2 Every FU-closed subsets of a compact FU-space is compact.

The proof is as in topology.

Remark 7.4 The following is the FU-version of the Heine-Borel Theorem in topology: Let X be the usual FU-space R.

(i) Every FU-closed and bounded set in X is compact,

(ii) A compact set in X may be neither FU-closed nor bounded.

Proof: (i) It follows from the nature of the FU-closed sets in X that every non-empty FU-closed bounded set in X is of the form $[a_1, b_1] \cup [a_2, b_2] \cup \cdots \cup [a_r, b_r]$ which is obviously compact.

(ii) We have proved above (in Example 7.4) that N is compact.

However, N is neither FU-closed nor bounded.

Definition 7.8 A non-empty subset A of an FU-space X is called disconnected if there exist FU-open sets G_1 and G_2 , such that $A \cap G_1 \neq \Phi \neq A \cap G_2$, $A \cap G_1 \cap G_2 = \Phi$, $A \subseteq G_1 \cup G_2$. A is called connected if it is not disconnected.

Example 7.5 In the usual FU-space R, the connected subsets are precisely R, Φ and sets of the form (- ∞ , a), (b, ∞) and (c, d).

As in topology, we have every FU- continuous image of a connected set is connected.

8. FUI- SPACES

Definition 8.1 Let X be a non-empty set. A collection FUI of subsets of X is called an

FUI-structure on X if

(i) X, $\Phi \in \mathsf{FUI}$

(ii) UI is closed under finite unions and finite intersections.

Then FUI is called an FUI-structure on X and (X, FU I) is called an FUI-space.

Example 8.1 Every topological space and every CUI-space is an FUI-space.

Example 8.2 Let X be an infinite set and FUI = {R, Φ , all finite subsets of X}. Then, (X, FUI) is an FUI-space which is neither a CUI-space nor a topological space.

Example 8.3 Let X = R and FUI = The subsets of R obtained from the sets of the form $(-\infty, a)$ and (b, ∞) under finite unions and intersections.

Then, (X, FUI) is an FUI-space. It is called the usual FUI-space R. We note that here FUI consists of R, Φ and the sets of the form (- ∞ , a), (b, ∞) and (- ∞ , a) \cup

 (b, ∞) (a < b), $(a_1, b_1) \cup (a_2, b_2) \cup \cdots \cup (a_r, b_r)$, and $(-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty) \cup (a_1, b_1) \cup (a_2, b_2) \cup \cdots \cup (a_r, b_r)$

 (a_s, b_s) , $(a < a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < \cdots < a_s < b_s < b$). Thus, the usual FUI-space is exactly the same as the usual FU-space R.

Remark 8.1 Let X be a FUI-space. As in the case FU-spaces,

(i) for each FUI-open subset A of X, A = IntA;

but (ii) InA need not always be FUI-open.

The first part is obvious and the second part follows the example in Remark 7.2.

Remark 8.2 Example 7.3 is an FU-space but not an FUI-space. Thus, the class of FU-spaces and the class of FUI-spaces are distinct.

Theorem 8.1 Let X be an FUI-space,

(i) For every FUI-closed set F of X, $\overline{F} = F$,

(ii) For a subset A of X, A need not be FUI-closed.

The proof is exactly similar to that of Theorem 7.1.

All the statements about the compact sets and the connected sets proved earlier for an FU-space, and in particular the statement corresponding to the Heine-Borel Theorem, hold for an FUI-space.

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