

## Some Types of Separation Axioms in Topological Spaces \*

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### Abstract

In this paper, we introduce some types of separation axioms via  $\omega$ -open sets, namely  $\omega$ -regular, completely  $\omega$ -regular and  $\omega$ -normal space and investigate their fundamental properties, relationships and characterizations. The well-known Urysohn's Lemma and Tietze Extension Theorem are generalized to  $\omega$ -normal spaces. We improve some known results. Also, some other concepts are generalized and studied via  $\omega$ -open sets.

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## 1. Introduction

Throughout this work, a space will always mean a topological space,  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  and  $(Y, \sigma)$  will denote spaces on which no separation axioms are assumed unless explicitly stated. The notations  $T_{dis}$ ,  $T_{ind}$  denote the discrete and indiscrete topologies and  $\wp$  denotes the usual topology for the set of all real numbers  $R$ . For a subset  $A$  of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$ , the closure and the interior of  $A$  will be denoted by  $Cl_X A$  and  $Int_X A$  (or simply  $ClA$  and  $IntA$ ), respectively. A point  $x \in X$  is called a condensation point of  $A$  [13, pp. 90] if for each  $G \in \mathfrak{S}$  with  $x \in G$ , the set  $G \cap A$  is uncountable.  $A$  is called  $\omega$ -closed [8] if it contains all its condensation points. The complement of an  $\omega$ -closed set is called  $\omega$ -open. It is well known that a subset  $U$  of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is  $\omega$ -open if and only if for each  $x \in U$ , there exists  $G \in \mathfrak{S}$  such that  $x \in G$  and  $G - U$  is countable. The family of all  $\omega$ -open subsets of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is denoted by  $\mathfrak{S}^\omega$ , forms a topology on  $X$  finer than  $\mathfrak{S}$ . The  $\omega$ -closure and  $\omega$ -interior, which are defined in the same way as  $ClA$  and  $IntA$ , and they are denoted by  $\omega ClA$  and  $\omega IntA$ , respectively. Several characterizations of  $\omega$ -closed subsets were provided in [3, 4, and 5]. A subset  $A$  of a space  $X$  is called  $\omega$ -dense [2] if  $\omega ClA = X$ . Authors in General topology used the notation of  $\omega$ -open sets to define some other types of sets, mappings and spaces, till Al-Hawary [1] and Rao and et al [6] used the nation of  $\omega$ -open sets in fuzzy and bitopological spaces, respectively. So we recall the following results and notions:

**Theorem 1.1.** [4] *If  $U$  is  $\omega$ -open subset of  $X$ , then  $U - C$  is  $\omega$ -open for every countable subset  $C$  of  $X$ .*

**Theorem 1.2.** [4 and 5] *For any space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  and any subset  $A$  of  $X$ ,*

1.  $\mathfrak{S}^{\omega\omega} = (\mathfrak{S}^\omega)^\omega = \mathfrak{S}^\omega$ .
2.  $(\mathfrak{S}_A)^\omega = (\mathfrak{S}^\omega)_A$ .

**Definition 1.3.** [5] A space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is said to be locally-countable if each point of  $X$  has a countable open neighborhood.

It is easy to see that

**Theorem 1.4.** *Let  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  be a space. Then  $\mathfrak{S}^\omega = T_{dis}$  if and only if the space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is locally countable.*

**Definition 1.5.** [5] A space  $X$  is said to be anti-locally countable if each non-empty open subset of  $X$  is uncountable.

Note that a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is anti-locally-countable if and only if  $(X, \mathfrak{S}^\omega)$  is so.

**Lemma 1.6.** [5] *If a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is anti-locally-countable, then*

1.  $\omega ClA = ClA$ , for every  $\omega$ -open subset  $A$  of  $X$ .
2.  $\omega IntA = IntA$ , for every  $\omega$ -closed subset  $A$  of  $X$ .

Al-Zoubi in [4] has improved part (1) of the above result, by proving the following lemma:

**Lemma 1.7.** [4] *If  $(A, \mathfrak{S}_A)$  is an anti-locally countable subspace of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$ , then  $\omega ClA = ClA$ .*

**Definition 1.8.** [2] A space  $X$  is said to be an  $\omega$ -space if every  $\omega$ -open set is open.

**Definition 1.9.** A function  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (Y, \rho)$  is called

1.  $\omega$ -continuous [8] if  $f^{-1}(U)$  is  $\omega$ -open in  $X$ , for each open subset  $U$  of  $Y$ ,
2.  $\omega$ -irresolute [2] if  $f^{-1}(U)$  is  $\omega$ -open in  $X$ , for each  $\omega$ -open subset  $U$  of  $Y$ ,
3. almost  $\omega$ -continuous [10] if for each  $x \in X$ , and each open subset  $V$  of  $Y$  containing  $f(x)$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open subset  $U$  of  $X$  that containing  $x$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq Int_Y Cl_Y V$ ,
4. almost  $\omega$ -continuous [2] if for each  $x \in X$ , and each open subset  $V$  of  $Y$  containing  $f(x)$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open subset  $U$  of  $X$  containing  $x$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq \omega Int_Y Cl_Y V$ ,
5. almost weakly- $\omega$ -continuous [2] if for each  $x \in X$ , and each open subset  $V$  of  $Y$  containing  $f(x)$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open subset  $U$  of  $X$  that containing  $x$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq Cl_Y V$ ,

6. pre- $\omega$ -open [2] if image of every  $\omega$ -open set is  $\omega$ -open.

We use the almost  $\omega$ -continuous mapping in the sense of Nour for a mapping that satisfies part (3) and almost- $\omega$ -continuous in the sense of Omari and Noorani for mappings that satisfy part (4) of Definition 1.9. Simply, they are same if  $Y$  is an anti-locally countable space and it is clear from the fact that  $IntA \subseteq \omega IntA$ , the almost  $\omega$ -continuity in sense of Nour implies the almost- $\omega$ -continuity in the sense of Omari and Noorani. But the converse is not true in general. For example, the mapping  $f : (R, \wp^\omega) \rightarrow (Y, \rho)$  defined by  $f(x) = 1$  if  $x \in Q$  and  $f(x) = 3$  if  $x \in Irr$  is almost- $\omega$ -continuity in the sense of Omari and Noorani, but not in the sense of Nour, where  $\rho = \{\phi, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}, X\}$  and  $Q$  and  $Irr$  denote the set of all rational and irrational numbers.

**Theorem 1.10.** [4] *Let  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (Y, \rho)$  be a mapping from an anti-locally countable space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  onto a regular space  $(Y, \rho)$ . Then the following are equivalent:*

1.  $f$  is continuous,
2.  $f$  is  $\omega$ -continuous,
3.  $f$  is almost  $\omega$ -continuous mapping in the sense of Nour,
4.  $f$  is almost- $\omega$ -continuous in the sense of Omari and Noorani,
5.  $f$  is almost weakly  $\omega$ -continuous.

**Theorem 1.11.** [9] *Let  $A \subseteq X$  and  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (Y, \rho)$  be an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping. Then  $f_A : (A, \mathfrak{S}_A) \rightarrow (Y, \rho)$  is  $\omega$ -continuous.*

**Lemma 1.12.** [4] *The open image of an  $\omega$ -open set is  $\omega$ -open.*

## 2. More Properties of $\omega$ -open Sets and Some Other Results

It is easy to see that:

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $(A, \mathfrak{S}_A)$  be any subspace of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$ . Then for any  $B \subseteq A$ , we have:*

1.  $\omega Cl_A B = (\omega Cl_X B) \cap A$ ,
2.  $\omega Int_X B = \omega Int_A B \cap \omega Int_X A$ ,
3.  $\omega b_A(B) \subseteq (\omega b_X(B)) \cap A$ ,
4.  $\omega b_A(B) = \omega Cl_X B \cap \omega Cl_X(A - B) \cap A$ .

Note that the following example shows that the particular case of part (iii) of [8, Theorem 3.1] is not true. It also shows that the general case of [8, Corollary 3.2] is not true:

**Example 2.2.** Let  $X$  be an uncountable set equipped with the topology  $\mathfrak{S} = \{\phi, A, B, X\}$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are uncountable disjoint subsets of  $X$  such that  $X = A \cup B$ . Then  $X$  is a hereditary lindelöf space and it is easy to see that a subset  $G$  of  $X$  is  $\omega$ -open if and only if  $G = X - C$ ,  $G = A - C$  or  $G = B - C$ , for some countable subset  $C$  of  $X$ . Hence a subset  $F$  of  $X$  is  $\omega$ -closed if and only if  $G = C$ ,  $G = A \cup C$  or  $G = B \cup C$ , for some countable subset  $C$  of  $X$ . But there is no  $\omega$ -open subset of  $X$  which is a  $G_\delta$ -set, except for the open sets  $\phi, A, B$  and  $X$ . Al-Zoubi [4] proved that the conditions that  $X$  is anti-locally-countable and  $Y$  is regular are essential in Theorem 1.2.16. But we can improve his result by dropping the condition that  $f$  is surjection. For this, we need to prove the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.3.** *Let  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  be an anti-locally countable space and let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . If for a point  $x \in A$ , there exists an open subset  $G$  of  $X$  which contains  $x$  and  $G - A$  countable, then  $ClG \subseteq ClA$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $x \in A$  and  $G$  be an open set in  $X$  such that  $x \in G$  and  $G - A$  is countable. Suppose that  $y \in ClG - ClA$ , then there exists an open set  $V$  containing  $y$  such that  $V \cap A = \phi$ . Since  $y \in ClG$ ,  $\phi \neq V \cap G \subseteq G - A$ . This is a contradiction.

**Remark 2.4.** *The converse inclusion of Lemma 2.3 is not true in general. As a simple example in the usual space  $(R, \wp^\omega)$ , taking  $A = Irr$ , since  $\sqrt{2} \in A$ ,  $\sqrt{2} \in (1, 2) \in \wp$  and  $(1, 2) - A$  is countable. But  $R = ClA \not\subseteq [1, 2] = Cl(1, 2)$ .*

As an immediate consequence of Lemma 2.3, we have the following corollary:

**Corollary 2.5.** *Let  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  be an anti-locally countable space and  $A$  be an  $\omega$ -open subset of  $X$ . Then for each point  $x \in A$ , there exists an open subset  $G$  of  $X$  containing  $x$  such that  $ClG \subseteq ClA$ .*

The following theorem is an improvement version of Theorem 1.10.

**Theorem 2.6.** *Let  $f$  be a mapping from an anti-locally countable space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  into a regular space  $(Y, \rho)$ . Then the following statements are equivalent:*

1.  $f$  is continuous,
2.  $f$  is  $\omega$ -continuous,
3.  $f$  is almost  $\omega$ -continuous in the sense of Nour,
4.  $f$  is almost  $\omega$ -continuous in the sense of Omari and Noorani,
5.  $f$  is almost weakly  $\omega$ -continuous.

**Proof.** In general the implications  $(1) \Rightarrow (2) \Rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow (4) \Rightarrow (5)$  follows from their definitions and the facts that  $\mathfrak{S} \subseteq \mathfrak{S}^\omega$  and  $\rho \subseteq \rho^\omega$ , see [4]. To show the implication  $(5) \Rightarrow (1)$ , let  $x \in X$  and  $V$  be any open subset of  $Y$  with  $f(x) \in V$ . By regularity of  $Y$ , we can choose two open sets  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  in  $Y$  such that  $f(x) \in V_1 \subseteq ClV_1 \subseteq V_2 \subseteq ClV_2 \subseteq V$ . Since  $f$  is almost weakly  $\omega$ -continuous, there exists an  $\omega$ -open subset  $U$  in  $X$  containing  $x$  such that  $f(U) \subseteq Cl_Y V_1$ . Consequently,  $U \subseteq f^{-1}(Cl_Y V_1)$ . Since  $x \in U \in \mathfrak{S}^\omega$ , there exists an open set  $G$  in  $X$  with  $x \in G$  and  $G - U$  is countable. So by Lemma 1.6 and Lemma 2.3, we have  $Cl_X G \subseteq Cl_X U = \omega Cl_X U$ . Hence  $G \subseteq \omega Cl_X U \subseteq \omega Cl_X (f^{-1}(Cl_Y V_1)) \subseteq (\omega Cl_X f^{-1}(V_2))$ . Now, we have to show that  $\omega Cl_X f^{-1}(V_2) \subseteq f^{-1}(Cl_Y V_2)$ . Let  $u \in \omega Cl_X f^{-1}(V_2)$ . Suppose that  $u \notin f^{-1}(Cl_Y V_2)$ . Then  $f(u) \notin Cl_Y V_2$ . This implies that there exists an open set  $W$  in  $Y$  containing  $f(u)$  such that  $W \cap V_2 = \phi$ . Hence  $(Cl_Y W) \cap V_2 = \phi$ . Since  $f(u) \in W \in \rho$ , by hypothesis there exists an  $\omega$ -open subset  $H$  in  $X$  containing  $u$  such that  $f(H) \subseteq Cl_Y W$ . Since  $u \in \omega Cl_X f^{-1}(V_2)$ ,  $H \cap f^{-1}(V_2) \neq \phi$ , and hence  $f(H) \cap V_2 \neq \phi$ . This implies that  $Cl_Y W \cap V_2 \neq \phi$  which is impossible. Thus,  $\omega Cl_X f^{-1}(V_2) \subseteq f^{-1}(Cl_Y V_2)$ . Hence  $G \subseteq f^{-1}(Cl_Y V_2)$ . Therefore,  $f(G) \subseteq Cl_Y V_2$ . Hence  $f$  is continuous.

In a similar way as continuity, it is easy to prove the following results:

**Theorem 2.7.** *Every constant mapping from  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  into  $(R, \wp)$  is  $\omega$ -continuous. Moreover, if  $f$  and  $g$  from  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  into  $(R, \wp)$  are  $\omega$ -continuous mappings, then the following statements are true:*

1.  $f \pm g, fg, |f|, \min\{f, g\}$  and  $\max\{f, g\}$  are  $\omega$ -continuous mappings,
2. If  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in X$ , then  $\frac{f}{g}$  is  $\omega$ -continuous.

**Theorem 2.8.** *Let  $f_n : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (R, \wp)$  be  $\omega$ -continuous mappings for all  $n \in N$ . If  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (R, \wp)$  is a mapping such that the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  is uniformly convergent to  $f(x)$ , then  $f$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping.*

**Definition 2.9.** A subset  $A$  of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is said to be an  $\omega$ -zero-set of  $X$  if there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (R, \wp)$  such that  $A = \{x \in X; f(x) = 0\}$  and a subset is called  $\text{co}\omega$ -zero-set if it is the complement of an  $\omega$ -zero-set. Furthermore, if  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (R, \wp)$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping, then the set  $\omega Z(f) = \{x \in X; f(x) = 0\}$  is called the  $\omega$ -zero-set of  $f$ .

**Remark 2.10.** 1. *Every  $\omega$ -zero-set of a space is  $\omega$ -closed and hence every  $\text{co}\omega$ -zero-set is an  $\omega$ -open set,*  
 2. *Every zero-set of any space is an  $\omega$ -zero-set.*

The following examples show that the converse of neither parts of Remark 2.10 is true:

**Example 2.11.** Consider an  $\omega$ -closed subset  $Q$  of the space  $(R, \wp)$ . We have to show the set  $Q$  is not  $\omega$ -zero-set. Suppose that  $Q$  is an  $\omega$ -zero-set. Then there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : R \rightarrow R$  such that  $\{x \in R; f(x) = 0\} = Q$ . Therefore,  $f(x) = 0$  if and only if  $x \in Q$ . Since  $f$  is  $\omega$ -continuous,  $f$  is a continuous mapping {by Theorem 2.6}. Hence  $Q$  is a zero-set. Consequently,  $Q$  is a closed subset of  $R$ , which is a contradiction.

**Example 2.12.** Let  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (R, \wp)$  be a mapping defined by  $f(a) = 0$  and  $f(b) = 1 = f(c)$ , where the  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $\mathfrak{S} = \{\phi, X, \{a\}\}$ . Then  $f$  is  $\omega$ -continuous, but not a continuous function. Hence the set  $\{a\}$  is an  $\omega$ -zero-set which is not zero-set.

**Lemma 2.13.** *If  $A$  is an  $\omega$ -zero-set of a space  $X$ , then there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow R$  such that  $f \geq 0$  and  $A = \omega Z(f)$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $A = \omega Z(g)$  for some  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $g : X \rightarrow R$ , by Theorem 2.7, the mapping  $f = |g| \geq 0$  is  $\omega$ -continuous and  $A = \omega Z(f)$ .

**Lemma 2.14.** *The intersection and union of any finite number of  $\omega$ -zero-sets is also an  $\omega$ -zero-set. If  $\omega Z(f)$  and  $\omega Z(g)$  are  $\omega$ -zero-sets of  $f$  and  $g$ , then  $\omega Z(f) \cup \omega Z(g) = \omega Z(fg)$ ,  $\omega Z(f) \cap \omega Z(g) = \omega Z(h)$ , where  $h = f + g$ .*

**Proof.** By Theorem 2.7, it follows that both  $fg$  and  $h = f + g$  are  $\omega$ -continuous. Therefore,  $\omega Z(f) \cup \omega Z(g) = \omega Z(fg)$ ,  $\omega Z(f) \cap \omega Z(g) = \omega Z(h)$  are  $\omega$ -zero-sets.

**Lemma 2.15.** *If  $\alpha \in R$  and  $f : X \rightarrow R$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping, then the set  $A = \{x \in X; f(x) \geq \alpha\}$  as well as  $B = \{x \in X; f(x) \leq \alpha\}$  are  $\omega$ -zero-sets, and hence the sets  $\{x \in X; f(x) < \alpha\}$  and  $\{x \in X; f(x) > \alpha\}$  are cow-zero-sets.*

**Proof.** By using Theorem 2.7, it is easy to see that  $A = \omega Z(\min\{f(x) - \alpha, 0\})$  and  $B = \omega Z(\max\{f(x) - \alpha, 0\})$  are  $\omega$ -zero-sets.

**Lemma 2.16.** *If  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint  $\omega$ -zero-sets the space  $X$ , then there exist disjoint cow-zero-sets  $U$  and  $V$  containing  $A$  and  $B$ , respectively.*

**Proof.** Let  $A = \omega Z(f)$  and  $B = \omega Z(g)$ . Then the mapping  $h : X \rightarrow R$  given by  $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f(x)+g(x)}$  is well-defined and in view of Theorem 2.7 it is  $\omega$ -continuous,  $h(A) = \{0\}$  and  $h(B) = \{1\}$ . Then by Lemma 2.15, the sets  $\{x \in X; h(x) > \frac{1}{2}\}$  and  $\{x \in X; h(x) < \frac{1}{4}\}$  are the required cow-zero (hence  $\omega$ -open) sets.

**Corollary 2.17.** *If  $X$  is anti-locally countable, then every  $\omega$ -zero-set of  $X$  is a zero-set.*

**Proof.** It follows from Theorem 2.6.

Now, we recall the following known definition.

**Definition 2.18.** [8] A space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is said to be  $\omega$ - $T_1$  (resp.  $\omega$ - $T_2$ ) if for each pair of distinct points  $x$  and  $y$  of  $X$ , there exist  $\omega$ -open sets  $U$  and  $V$  containing  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively such that  $y \notin U$  and  $x \notin V$  (resp.  $U \cap V = \phi$ ).



Since each countable subset of any space is  $\omega$ -closed, it is easy to see that each space is an  $\omega$ - $T_1$  space. Therefore, the results ( Theorem 3.12 and Corollary 3.13 of [2]) are trivial and they do not need to  $Y$  satisfy any separating axiom. Note that every  $T_2$ -space is an  $\omega$ - $T_2$ -space but not conversely.

**Theorem 2.19.** *Let  $X$  be an anti-locally countable space. Then  $X$  is an  $\omega$ - $T_2$  space if and only if  $X$  is a  $T_2$ -space.*

**Proof.** Let  $X$  be an anti-locally countable space. It is enough to prove that  $X$  is a  $T_2$ -space if  $X$  is an  $\omega$ - $T_2$ -space. For this, let  $x \neq y$  in an  $\omega$ - $T_2$ -space  $X$ . Then it is easy to see that, there is an  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  containing  $x$  such that  $y \notin \omega CIU$ . Since  $U$  is an  $\omega$ -open set, there exists an open set  $G$  containing  $x$  such that  $G - U$  is countable. In virtue of Lemma 1.6 and Corollary 2.5, we have  $\omega CIU = CIU$  and  $CI G \subseteq CIU$ . Thus  $G, X - CI G$  are disjoint open sets in  $X$  containing  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively. Hence  $X$  is a  $T_2$ -space.

### 3. $\omega$ -Regular and Completely $\omega$ -Regular Space

**Definition 3.1.** A space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is called an  $\omega$ -regular space, if for each  $\omega$ -closed subset  $H$  of  $X$  and a point  $x$  in  $X$  such that  $x \notin H$ , there exist disjoint  $\omega$ -open sets  $U$  and  $V$  containing  $x$  and  $H$ , respectively.

That is, a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is  $\omega$ -regular if and only if the space  $(X, \mathfrak{S}^\omega)$  is regular. Now, we have the following results:

**Theorem 3.2.** *A space  $X$  is  $\omega$ -regular if and only if for each point  $x$  in  $X$  and each  $\omega$ -open set  $G$  containing  $x$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  such that  $x \in U \subseteq \omega CIU \subseteq G$ .*

**Proposition 3.3.** *Every locally-countable space is an  $\omega$ -regular space.*

The following example shows that the converse of Proposition 3.3 is not true in general.

**Example 3.4.** Consider the closed ordinal space  $X = [0, \Omega]$ , where  $\Omega$  is the first uncountable ordinal and the subspace  $[0, \Omega)$  of  $X$  (see [12, Example 43, p. 68]). Since  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -space and regular space, it is  $\omega$ -regular. Since any  $\omega$ -open set which contains  $\Omega$  is uncountable,  $X$  is not locally-countable.

**Theorem 3.5.** *If each point of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  contained in some  $\omega$ -open subset  $G$  such that  $\omega Cl G$  is an  $\omega$ -regular subspace of  $X$ , then  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is  $\omega$ -regular.*

**Proof.** Let  $x \in G \in \mathfrak{S}^\omega$ . Then by hypothesis, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $V$  containing  $x$  such that  $(H, \mathfrak{S}_H)$  is an  $\omega$ -regular subspace of  $X$ , where  $H = \omega Cl V$ . Since  $x \in G \cap H \in \mathfrak{S}_H^\omega$ , by  $\omega$ -regularity of  $(H, \mathfrak{S}_H)$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open subset  $U$  of  $H$  such that  $x \in U \subseteq \omega Cl_H U \subseteq G \cap H \subseteq G$ . Since  $H$  is  $\omega$ -closed and  $x \in V \subseteq H$ ,  $x \in \omega Int_X H$ . Thus by Theorem 2.1, we have  $x \in \omega Int_X U \subseteq \omega Cl_X(U) = \omega Cl_X(U) \cap H = \omega Cl_H U \subseteq G$ . Hence  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -regular space.

**Theorem 3.6.** *If a space  $X$  is an anti-locally countable  $\omega$ -regular space, then  $X$  is a regular and  $\omega$ -space.*

**Proof.** Let  $G$  be any open set in  $X$  and let  $x$  be a point in  $X$  such that  $x \in G$ . Then by Theorem 3.2, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  in  $X$  such that  $x \in U \subseteq \omega Cl U \subseteq G$ . Since  $x \in U$ , there exists an open set  $V$  such that  $x \in V$  and  $V - U$  is countable. Hence by Lemma 1.6 and Corollary 2.5, we have  $Cl U = \omega Cl U$  and  $Cl V \subseteq Cl U$ . Thus,  $x \in V \subseteq Cl V \subseteq G$ . Therefore,  $X$  is regular.

If  $G$  is an arbitrary  $\omega$ -open set in  $X$  and  $x$  is any point of  $G$ , then by the above argument, we can prove that  $G$  is an open set. This implies that  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -space.

The following result gives the relationship between  $\omega$ -regular and an  $\omega$ - $T_2$ -space:

**Proposition 3.7.** *Every  $\omega$ -regular space is an  $\omega$ - $T_2$  space.*

**Proof.** Obvious.

The following examples show that the converse of Proposition 3.7 is not true in general.

**Example 3.8.** Consider the Smirnov's Deleted Sequence Topology [12, Example 64, pp. 88]  $\eta$  on the set of all real number  $R$ , which is defined as: if  $A = \{\frac{1}{n}; n \in N\}$ , then  $\eta = \{U \subseteq R; U = G - B, G \in \wp \text{ and } B \subseteq A\}$ . Since this topology is finer than the usual topology  $\wp$ ,  $(R, \eta)$  is a  $T_2$ -space. Hence,  $(R, \eta)$  is an  $\omega$ - $T_2$  space. Since  $(R, \eta)$  is a non regular anti locally-countable space,  $(R, \eta)$  is not  $\omega$ -regular {by Theorem 3.6}.

The following proposition gives a partial converse of Proposition 3.7 and another relationship between regularity and  $\omega$ -regularity:

**Proposition 3.9.** 1. Every  $\omega$ -compact  $\omega$ - $T_2$  space is an  $\omega$ -regular space,  
2. Every  $\omega$ -compact  $T_2$  space is both regular and  $\omega$ -regular space.

**Proof.** Straightforward.

The following theorem shows that the property of  $\omega$ -regularity is a hereditary property:

**Theorem 3.10.** Every subspace of an  $\omega$ -regular space is also  $\omega$ -regular.

**Proof.** Obvious.

**Definition 3.11.** A space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is said to be a completely  $\omega$ -regular space if for every  $\omega$ -closed subset  $F$  of  $X$  and every point  $x \in X - F$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : (X, \mathfrak{S}) \rightarrow (I, \wp_I)$  (simply,  $f : X \rightarrow I$ ), such that  $f(x) = \{0\}$  and  $f(F) = \{1\}$ .

That is, a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is completely  $\omega$ -regular if and only if  $(X, \mathfrak{S}^\omega)$  is completely regular.

Now, it is easy to show the following results:

**Theorem 3.12.** A space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is a completely  $\omega$ -regular space if and only if for every  $\omega$ -open subset  $G$  of  $X$  and every point  $x \in G$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $f(x) = 0$  and  $f(y) = 1$  for all  $y \notin G$ .

**Proof.** Obvious.

**Proposition 3.13.** Every completely  $\omega$ -regular space is an  $\omega$ -regular space.

**Proof.** Obvious.

**Proposition 3.14.** Every locally-countable space is completely  $\omega$ -regular.

**Proof.** Obvious.

The converse of the Proposition 3.14 is not true; see Example 3.4.

**Question:** Is the converse of Proposition 3.13 true?

**Theorem 3.15.** A space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is completely  $\omega$ -regular if and only if the collection of all cow-zero-sets of  $X$  form a base for  $\mathfrak{S}^\omega$ .

**Proof.** Let  $V$  be any  $\omega$ -open set in a completely  $\omega$ -regular space  $X$  and let  $v \in V$ . Then by Theorem 3.12, there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $g : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $g(v) = 1$  and  $g(X - V) = \{0\}$ . Set  $U = \{x \in X; g(x) \geq \frac{2}{3}\}$  and  $G = \{x \in X; g(x) > \frac{2}{3}\}$ . By Lemma 2.15,  $U$  is an  $\omega$ -zero set and  $G$  is a  $c\omega$ -zero set such that  $x \in G \subseteq U \subseteq V$ .

Conversely, suppose that the condition of theorem holds. Let  $a \in X$  and  $H$  be an  $\omega$ -closed set in  $X$  such that  $a \notin H$ . Then by hypothesis, there exists an  $\omega$ -zero set, say  $\omega Z(h)$  such that  $a \in X - \omega Z(h) \subseteq X - H$ , where  $h : X \rightarrow I$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping. Hence we have  $h(a) = t > 0$ . We define  $f : X \rightarrow I$  by putting  $f(x) = \min \{1, \frac{|h(x)|}{t}\}$ . Then by Theorem 2.7,  $f$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping. Consequently, we have  $f(a) = 1$  and  $x \in \omega Z(h)$  for each  $x \in H$ . Therefore,  $f(x) = 0$  for each  $x \in H$ . Hence  $X$  is completely  $\omega$ -regular.

The following examples show that completely regularity and completely  $\omega$ -regularity are independent topological concepts:

**Example 3.16.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $\mathfrak{S} = \{\phi, X, \{a\}\}$ . Then by Proposition 3.14,  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is a completely  $\omega$ -regular, but not completely regular because it is not regular.

**Example 3.17.** The usual space  $(R, \wp)$  is completely regular but not a completely  $\omega$ -regular space because it is not  $\omega$ -regular.

The following theorem shows that the property of  $\omega$ -regularity is a hereditary property:

**Theorem 3.18.** *Every subspace of a completely  $\omega$ -regular space is also a completely  $\omega$ -regular space.*

**Proof.** Let  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  be a completely  $\omega$ -regular space and let  $(Y, \mathfrak{S}_Y)$  be a subspace of  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$ . Suppose that  $A$  is any  $\omega$ -closed set in  $Y$  and  $y$  is a point of  $Y$  such that  $y \notin A$ . Since  $A$  is an  $\omega$ -closed subset of  $Y$ , by Theorem 1.2, there exists an  $\omega$ -closed subset  $H$  of  $X$  such that  $A = H \cap Y$ . Since  $y \in Y$  and  $y \notin A$ ,  $y \notin H$ . By completely  $\omega$ -regularity of  $X$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $f(y) = \{0\}$  and  $f(A) = \{1\}$ . Hence by Theorem 1.11, the restriction mapping  $f_Y : Y \rightarrow I$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping and  $f_Y(y) = 0 = f(y)$ . Since  $A \subseteq H$  and  $A \subseteq Y$ ,  $f_Y(A) \subseteq f(H) = \{1\}$ . Thus  $f_Y(A) = \{1\}$ .

The following theorem gives a relationship between completely  $\omega$ -regularity and completely regularity:

**Theorem 3.19.** *If  $X$  is an anti-locally countable and completely  $\omega$ -regular space, then  $X$  is completely regular and  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -space.*

**Proof.** Let  $X$  be an anti-locally-countable completely  $\omega$ -regular space. Let  $H$  be a closed set in  $X$  and suppose that  $x$  is an arbitrary point in  $X$  such that  $x \notin H$ . Since every closed set is  $\omega$ -closed and by completely  $\omega$ -regularity of a space  $X$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $f(x) = \{0\}$  and  $f(H) = \{1\}$ . Since  $X$  is anti locally-countable and  $I$  is a regular space, by Theorem 2.6,  $f : X \rightarrow I$  is a continuous mapping. Hence  $X$  is completely regular. Since  $X$  is completely  $\omega$ -regular, by Theorem 2.6, it is  $\omega$ -regular and then by Theorem 3.6, it is  $\omega$ -space.

## 4. $\omega$ -Normal Space

**Definition 4.1.** A space  $X$  is called an  $\omega$ -normal space if for each pair of disjoint  $\omega$ -closed sets  $A$  and  $B$  in  $X$ , there exist disjoint  $\omega$ -open sets  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $A \subseteq U$  and  $B \subseteq V$ .

That is, a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is an  $\omega$ -normal space if and only if  $(X, \mathfrak{S}^\omega)$  is a normal space

It is not difficult to prove the following characterizations of an  $\omega$ -normal space:

**Theorem 4.2.** *A space  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -normal space if for each pair of  $\omega$ -open sets  $U$  and  $V$  in  $X$  such that  $X = U \cup V$ , there exist  $\omega$ -closed sets  $A$  and  $B$  which are contained in  $U$  and  $V$ , respectively and  $X = A \cup B$ .*

**Theorem 4.3.** *If  $X$  is any space, then the following statements are equivalent:*

1. *The space  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal,*
2. *For each  $\omega$ -closed set  $A$  in  $X$  and each  $\omega$ -open set  $G$  in  $X$  containing  $A$ , there is an  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  such that  $A \subseteq U \subseteq \omega CIU \subseteq G$ .*
3. *For each  $\omega$ -closed set  $A$  and each  $\omega$ -open set  $G$  containing  $A$ , there exist  $\omega$ -open sets  $\{U_n, n \in N\}$  such that  $A \subseteq \cup\{U_n; n \in N\}$  and  $\omega CIU_n \subseteq G$  for each  $n \in N$ .*

Now, we can establish the following Urysohn's type lemma of  $\omega$ -normality which is an important characterization of the  $\omega$ -normal space:

**Theorem 4.4.** *Let  $X$  be any space. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

1.  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -normal space,
2. For each  $\omega$ -closed subset  $A$  and  $\omega$ -open subset  $B$  of  $X$  such that  $A \subseteq B$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $f(A) = \{0\}$  and  $f(X - B) = \{1\}$ ,
3. For each pair of disjoint  $\omega$ -closed subsets  $F$  and  $H$  of  $X$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $f(F) = \{0\}$  and  $f(H) = \{1\}$ .

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) : Suppose that  $B$  is an  $\omega$ -open subset of an  $\omega$ -normal space  $X$  containing an  $\omega$ -closed subset  $A$  of  $X$ . Then by Theorem 4.3, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set which we denote by  $U_{\frac{1}{2}}$  such that  $A \subseteq U_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq \omega CIU_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq B$ . Then  $U_{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $B$  are  $\omega$ -open subsets of  $X$  containing the  $\omega$ -closed sets  $A$  and  $\omega CIU_{\frac{1}{2}}$ , respectively. In the same way, there exist  $\omega$ -open sets, say  $U_{\frac{1}{4}}$  and  $U_{\frac{3}{4}}$  such that  $A \subseteq U_{\frac{1}{4}} \subseteq \omega CIU_{\frac{1}{4}} \subseteq U_{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $\omega CIU_{\frac{1}{2}} \subseteq U_{\frac{3}{4}} \subseteq \omega CIU_{\frac{3}{4}} \subseteq B$ . Continuing in this process, for each rational number in the open interval  $(0, 1)$  of the form  $t = \frac{m}{2^n}$ , where  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and  $m = 1, 2, \dots, 2^{n-1}$ , we obtain  $\omega$ -open sets of the form  $U_t$  such that for each  $s < t$  then  $A \subseteq U_s \subseteq \omega CIU_s \subseteq U_t \subseteq \omega CIU_t$ . We denote the set of all such rational numbers by  $\Psi$ , and define  $f : X \rightarrow I$  as follows:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in X - B \\ \inf \{t; t \in \Psi \text{ and } x \in U_t\} & \end{cases}$$

$f(X - B) = \{1\}$  and if  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in U_t$  for all  $t \in \Psi$ . Therefore, by the definition of  $f$ , we have  $f(x) = \inf \Psi = 0$ . Hence  $f(B) = \{0\}$  and  $f(x) \in I$  for all  $x \in X$ . It remains only to show that  $f$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping since the intervals of the form  $[0, a)$  and  $(b, 1]$ , where  $a, b \in (0, 1)$  form an open subbase of the space  $I$ . If  $x \in U_t$  for some  $t < a$ , then  $f(x) = \inf \{s; s \in \Psi \text{ and } x \in U_s\} = r \leq t < a$ . Thus  $0 \leq f(x) < a$ . If  $f(x) = 0$ , then  $x \in U_t$  for all  $t \in \Psi$ . Hence  $x \in U_t$  for some  $t < a$ . If  $0 < f(x) < a$ , by definition of  $f$ , we have  $f(x) = \{s; s \in \Psi \text{ and } x \in U_s\} < a$  {Since  $a < 1$ }. Thus  $f(x) = t$  for some  $t < a$ , and hence  $x \in U_t$  for some  $t < a$ . Therefore, we conclude that  $0 \leq f(x) < a$  if and only if  $x \in U_t$  for some  $t < a$ . Hence  $f^{-1}([0, a)) = \cup \{U_t; t \in \Psi \text{ and } x \in U_t\}$

which is an  $\omega$ -open subset of  $X$ . Also it is easy to assert that:  $0 \leq f(x) \leq b$  if and only if  $x \in U_t$  for all  $t > b$ . Let  $x \in X$  such that  $0 \leq f(x) \leq b$ . It is evident that  $f(x) < t$  for all  $t > b$  which implies that  $x \in U_t$  for all  $t > b$ . For the converse, let  $x \in U_t$  for all  $t > b$ . Then  $f(x) \leq t$  for all  $t > b$ . Thus  $f(x) \leq b$  and it is clear from the definition of  $f$ , that  $f(x) \geq 0$ . This proves our assertion. Since for all  $t > b$ , there is  $r \in \Psi$  such that  $t > r > b$ . Then  $\omega CIU_r \subseteq U_t$ . Consequently we have  $\cap\{U_t; t \in \Psi \text{ and } t > b\} = \cap\{\omega CIU_r; r \in \Psi \text{ and } r > b\}$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1}([0, b]) = \{x; 0 \leq f(x) \leq b\} = \cap\{U_t; t \in \Psi \text{ and } t > b\} = \cap\{\omega CIU_r; r \in \Psi \text{ and } r > b\}$ . Since  $f^{-1}((0, 1]) = f^{-1}(I - [0, b]) = X - f^{-1}([0, b]) = \cup\{X - \omega CIU_r; r \in \Psi \text{ and } r > b\}$  which is  $\omega$ -open, and this completes the proof of this part.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) : Obvious.

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) : Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two disjoint  $\omega$ -closed subsets of  $X$ . Then by hypothesis, there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow I$  such that  $f(A) = \{0\}$  and  $f(B) = \{1\}$ . Then the disjoint open sets  $[0, \frac{1}{2})$  and  $(\frac{1}{2}, 1]$  in  $I$  containing  $f(A)$  and  $f(B)$ , respectively. The  $\omega$ -continuity of  $f$  gives that  $f^{-1}([0, \frac{1}{2}))$  and  $f^{-1}((\frac{1}{2}, 1])$  are disjoint  $\omega$ -open sets in  $X$  containing  $A$  and  $B$ , respectively. It completes the proof.

**Corollary 4.5.** *Every  $\omega$ -normal space is completely  $\omega$ -regular and hence it is  $\omega$ -regular.*

**Question:** Is the converse of corollary 4.5 true?

Recalling that the space  $(X, \mathfrak{S}^\omega)$  is lindelöf if and only if  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is lindelöf [9].

**Theorem 4.6.** *Every  $\omega$ -regular lindelöf space  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal.*

**Proof.** Let  $F$  be any  $\omega$ -closed and  $U$  be any  $\omega$ -open subset of an  $\omega$ -regular lindelöf space  $X$  such that  $F \subseteq U$ . Then by Theorem 3.2, for each  $x \in F$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $V_x$  such that  $x \in V_x \subseteq \omega CIV_x \subseteq U$ . Since  $F$  is  $\omega$ -closed, by part (i) of [8, Theorem 3.3],  $F$  is also a lindelöf subspace. Therefore, the cover  $\{V_x; x \in F\}$  of  $F$  has a countable subcover, say  $\{V_n; n \in N\}$ . Thus  $F \subseteq \{V_n; n \in N\}$  and  $\omega CIV_n \subseteq U$  for each  $n \in N$ . Hence by Theorem 4.3,  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal.

In virtue of Theorem 2.8, Theorem 4.4 and the fact that every bounded closed intervals of  $R$  are homeomorphic, we can generalize the Tietze Extension Theorem to  $\omega$ -normality which is also an important characterization of  $\omega$ -normal space.

**Theorem 4.7.** *A space  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal if and only if every  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $g$  on an  $\omega$ -closed subset of  $X$  into any closed interval  $[a, b]$  has an  $\omega$ -continuous extension  $f$  over  $X$  into  $[a, b]$ .*

The following result contains the relationship between  $\omega$ -normal and an  $\omega$ -zero-set:

**Proposition 4.8.** *Let  $X$  be a space. Then*

1. *An  $\omega$ -zero-set of  $X$  is  $\omega$ -closed and it is the intersection of many countable  $\omega$ -open sets,*
2. *Let  $H$  be an  $\omega$ -closed subset of  $X$  which is the intersection of many countable  $\omega$ -open sets. If  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal, then  $H$  is an  $\omega$ -zero-set.*

**Proof.** (1) Let  $F$  be an  $\omega$ -zero-set of a space  $X$ . Then by Remark 2.10,  $F$  is an  $\omega$ -closed subset of  $X$ . Then by Lemma 2.13, there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f : X \rightarrow R$  such that  $f \geq 0$  and  $F = \omega Z(f)$ . Hence  $F = \cap\{U_n; n \in Z^+\}$ , where  $U_n = \{x \in X; f(x) < \frac{1}{n}\}$ .

(2) Let  $H$  be an  $\omega$ -closed subset of an  $\omega$ -normal space  $X$  such that  $H = \cap\{U_n; n \in Z^+\}$ , where  $U_n$  is an  $\omega$ -open set for each  $n \in Z^+$ . Since  $H \subseteq U_n$  for each  $n \in Z^+$  and  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -normal space, for each  $n \in Z^+$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping  $f_n : X \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{3^n}]$  such that  $f_n(H) = \{0\}$  and  $f_n(X - U_n) = \{\frac{1}{3^n}\}$  {by Theorem 4.4}. Since  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x) \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$  and the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$  is absolutely convergent, the mapping  $f : X \rightarrow R$  given by  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  for each  $x \in X$  is an  $\omega$ -continuous mapping and  $H = \omega Z(f)$  {by Theorem 2.8}.

**Corollary 4.9.** *Every locally-countable space is  $\omega$ -normal.*

The converse of Corollary 4.9 is not true; see Example 3.4 and [12, Example 43, p. 68]. Now, since the usual topological space  $(R, \varphi)$  is not  $\omega$ -regular and by Corollary 4.5,  $(R, \varphi)$  is not  $\omega$ -normal. However, it is a normal space. This means that the  $\omega$ -normality is not implied by normality. The following example shows that the  $\omega$ -normality does not imply normality and hence this means that the  $\omega$ -normality and normality are independent topological concepts.



**Example 4.10.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $\mathfrak{S} = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, X\}$ . Then by Corollary 4.9, the space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is  $\omega$ -normal, but not a normal space because there are no disjoint open sets containing the disjoint closed sets  $\{b\}$  and  $\{c\}$ , respectively.

The following theorem shows a relationship between  $\omega$ -normality and normality:

**Theorem 4.11.** *Let  $X$  be an anti-locally countable  $\omega$ -normal space. Then  $X$  is a normal space and it is an  $\omega$ -space.*

**Proof.** Let  $F$  and  $H$  be two disjoint closed subsets of an anti-locally countable  $\omega$ -normal space  $X$ . Then there exist  $\omega$ -open sets  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $F \subseteq U$ ,  $H \subseteq V$  and  $U \cap V = \phi$ . This implies that  $\omega CIU \cap V = \phi$  and  $U \cap \omega CIV = \phi$ . Since  $X$  is anti-locally-countable, we get  $CIU \cap V = \phi$  and  $U \cap CIV = \phi$  {by Lemma 1.6}. Since  $IntCIU \subseteq CIU$  and  $IntCIV \subseteq CIV$ ,  $IntCIU \cap V = \phi$ ,  $U \cap IntCIV = \phi$ . This implies that  $IntCIU \cap CIV = \phi$  and  $CIU \cap IntCIV = \phi$ . Thus  $IntCIU \cap IntCIV = \phi$ . Hence  $IntCIU$  and  $IntCIV$  are disjoint open sets in  $X$  containing  $F$  and  $H$ , respectively. This implies that  $X$  is a normal space. By Corollary 4.5 and Theorem 3.6, it follows that  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -space.

Recalling that a space  $X$  is said to be a separable space [7, Definition 8.7.1, p. 175], if it contains a countable dense subset. Then it is easy to obtain the following results:

**Proposition 4.12.** *There is no anti-locally countable separable space which is  $\omega$ -regular (and hence  $\omega$ -normal).*

**Proof.** Obvious.

Note that Proposition 4.12, gives another way to proving that  $(R, \wp)$  is neither  $\omega$ -regular nor  $\omega$ -normal. However, the space  $(R, \wp)$  is an anti-locally-countable regular separable space.

**Proposition 4.13.** *There is no uncountable space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  for which  $(X, \mathfrak{S}^\omega)$  is separable.*

**Proof.** Obvious.

**Theorem 4.14.** *Every  $\omega$ -closed subspace of an  $\omega$ -normal space is also an  $\omega$ -normal space.*

**Proof.** Obvious.

We recall that a topological space is said to be completely normal [11, Definition 1.4.1, p. 27] if every subspace of the space is normal. The following example shows that the property that being an  $\omega$ -normal of a space is not hereditary.

**Example 4.15.** Consider the Tychonoff Plank space  $X = [0, \Omega] \times [0, \Omega_0]$  [12, Example 86, p. 106] and [7, Example 3.4, p. 145], where  $\Omega$  and  $\Omega_0$  denoted the first uncountable and first infinite countable ordinals. Since both ordinal spaces  $[0, \Omega]$  and  $[0, \Omega_0]$ , are  $\omega$ -spaces,  $X = [0, \Omega] \times [0, \Omega_0]$  is also an  $\omega$ -space. Since this space is normal, it is  $\omega$ -normal. Since this space is not a completely normal space, it is not hereditary normal. Hence it is not hereditary  $\omega$ -normal.

## 5. Some Covering and Characterizations of $\omega$ -Normal Space

We begin this section with the following definition:

**Definition 5.1.** The family  $\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of subsets of a space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is called:

1.  $\omega$ -locally-finite if for each  $x \in X$ , there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $G$  containing  $x$  such that the set  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; G \cap A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  is finite,
2.  $\omega$ -discrete if for each point  $x \in X$ , there is an  $\omega$ -open set  $G$  containing  $x$  such that the set  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; G \cap A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  has at most one member.

**Proposition 5.2.** *Every locally-finite family of subsets of any space  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite.*

**Proof.** It follows from the fact that  $\mathfrak{S} \subseteq \mathfrak{S}^\omega$ .

The following example shows that the converse implication of Proposition 5.2 is not true in general.

**Example 5.3.** Consider the set  $X = N$  equipped with the indiscrete topology  $T_{ind}$ . Then the family  $\{\{n\}; n \in X\}$  is an  $\omega$ -discrete (and hence  $\omega$ -locally-finite) but not locally-finite (and hence not discrete).

The following example shows that the arbitrary union of  $\omega$ -closed sets need not be  $\omega$ -closed. That is, the union of  $\omega$ -closure of sets does not equal to the  $\omega$ -closure of their union as well as it show that the unions of closed sets need not be closed.

**Example 5.4.** Consider the usual topological space  $(R, \phi)$ . Then  $\{\{x\}; x \in (0, 1)\}$  is a family of  $\omega$ -closed subsets of  $R$ . Thus  $\cup\{\omega Cl\{x\}; x \in (0, 1)\} = \cup\{\{x\}; x \in (0, 1)\} = (0, 1)$  which is not  $\omega$ -closed. But  $\omega Cl(0, 1) = [0, 1]$ .

**Proposition 5.5.** *If  $\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is an  $\omega$ -locally-finite family of subsets of a space  $X$ , then  $\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is also  $\omega$ -locally-finite and  $\omega Cl(\cup\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}) = \cup\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $x \in X$ . Since  $\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $G$  containing  $x$  such that the set  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; G \cap A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  is finite. Since  $G \cap A_\lambda = \phi$  if and only if  $G \cap \omega Cl A_\lambda = \phi$ ,  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; G \cap \omega Cl A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  is finite.  $\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is also  $\omega$ -locally-finite. Since  $\cup\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\} \subseteq \omega Cl(\cup\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\})$ , we have only to prove that  $\omega Cl(\cup\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}) \subseteq \cup\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Let  $x \notin \cup\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Since  $\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  containing  $x$  such that  $\Lambda_0 = \{\lambda \in \Lambda; U \cap \omega Cl A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  is finite. Set  $V = U \cap (\cup\{X - \omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda_0\})$  is an  $\omega$ -open subsets of  $X$  containing  $x$  such that  $V \cap (\cup\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}) = \cup\{V \cap A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\} = \phi$ . Thus  $x \notin \omega Cl(\cup\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\})$ . This completes the proof.

**Corollary 5.6.** *If  $\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is a locally-finite family of subsets of a space  $X$ , then  $\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is also locally-finite and  $\omega Cl(\cup\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}) = \cup\{\omega Cl A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ .*

**Proof.** It follows from Proposition 5.2 and Proposition 5.5.

It is easy to see that for any subset  $A$  and any  $\omega$ -open subset  $G$  of any space  $X$ ,  $G \cap A = \phi$  if and only if  $G \cap \omega Cl A = \phi$ . But the following example shows that with this fact, the  $\omega$ -locally-finiteness of the  $\omega$ -closure of a family does not imply the  $\omega$ -locally-finiteness of the family. Also, it shows that the locally-finiteness of the closure of a family does not imply the locally-finiteness of the family.

**Example 5.7.** Consider the set  $X = R$  equipped with the topology  $\rho = \{\phi, X, Irr\}$ . Then the family  $\{(p, p + 1); p \in Z\}$  is neither  $\omega$ -locally-finite nor

locally-finite. It is easy to see that each non-empty  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  of  $X$  contains a set of the form  $X - C$  or  $Irr - C$ , where  $C$  is a countable subset of  $X$ . Hence  $U \cap (p, p + 1) \neq \phi$ , for each  $p \in Z$ . Thus  $\{\omega Cl(p, p + 1); p \in Z\} = \{X\}$  which is locally-finite (and hence  $\omega$ - locally-finite).

**Proposition 5.8.** *Let  $\{A_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be a family of subsets of a space  $X$  and  $\{B_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  be an  $\omega$ -locally-finite  $\omega$ -closed cover of  $X$  such that for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , the set  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; B_\gamma \cap A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  is finite. Then there exists an  $\omega$ -locally-finite family  $\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $\omega$ -open sets of  $X$  such that  $A_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ .*

**Proof.** For each  $\lambda$ , let  $G_\lambda = X - (\cup\{B_\gamma; B_\gamma \cap A_\lambda = \phi\})$ . So it is easy to see that  $A_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  and by Proposition 5.6,  $G_\lambda$  is  $\omega$ -open for each  $\lambda$ . Let  $x \in X$ . Since  $\{B_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite, there is an  $\omega$ -open set  $U$  containing  $x$  such that the set  $\Gamma_0 = \{\gamma \in \Gamma; U \cap B_\gamma \neq \phi\}$  is finite. Thus  $U \cap B_\gamma = \phi$  for each  $\gamma \notin \Gamma_0$ . Therefore,  $U \subseteq \cup\{B_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma_0\}$ . Also, since for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma_0$ ,  $G_\lambda \cap B_\gamma = \phi$  if and only if  $A_\lambda \cap B_\gamma = \phi$ , the finiteness of  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; B_\gamma \cap A_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  implies the finiteness of  $\{\lambda \in \Lambda; U \cap G_\lambda \neq \phi\}$  and this completes the proof.

**Definition 5.9.** An  $\omega$ -open covering  $\{U_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of a space  $X$  is said to be  $\omega$ -shrinkable if there exists an  $\omega$ -open covering  $\{V_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $X$  such that  $\omega Cl V_\lambda \subseteq U_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ .

**Theorem 5.10.** *Let  $X$  be a space. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

1.  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal,
2. Each point-finite  $\omega$ -open covering of  $X$  is  $\omega$ -shrinkable,
3. Each finite  $\omega$ -open covering of  $X$  has a locally-finite  $\omega$ -closed refinement,
4. Each finite  $\omega$ -open covering of  $X$  has an  $\omega$ -locally-finite  $\omega$ -closed refinement.

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) : Let  $\{U_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be a point-finite  $\omega$ -open covering of an  $\omega$ -normal space  $X$ . Assume that  $\Lambda$  is well-ordered. We shall construct the  $\omega$ -shrinking to  $\{U_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  by the transfinite induction. For this; let  $\mu$  be an element of  $\Lambda$  and suppose that for each  $\lambda < \mu$ , we have an  $\omega$ -open set  $V_\lambda$  such that  $\omega Cl V_\lambda \subseteq U_\lambda$  and for each  $v < \mu$ ,  $[\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda < v\}] \cup [\cup\{U_\lambda; \lambda \geq v\}] = X$ . Let  $x \in X$ . Since  $\{U_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is point-finite, there is the largest element, say

$\xi \in \Lambda$  such that  $x \in U_\xi$ . If  $\xi \geq \mu$ , then  $x \in \cup\{U_\lambda; \lambda \geq \mu\}$ . However, if  $\xi < \mu$ , then  $x \in [\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda < \mu\}]$ . Hence  $[\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda < \mu\}] \cup [\cup\{U_\lambda; \lambda \geq \mu\}] = X$ . Thus  $U_\mu$  contains the complement of an  $\omega$ -open set  $[\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda < \mu\}] \cup [\cup\{U_\lambda; \lambda > \mu\}]$ . Since  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -normal space, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set, say  $V_\mu$  such that  $(X - [\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda < \mu\}] \cup [\cup\{U_\lambda; \lambda > \mu\}]) \subseteq V_\mu \subseteq \omega CIV_\mu \subseteq U_\mu$  {by Theorem 4.3}. Hence  $[\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda \leq \mu\}] \cup [\cup\{U_\lambda; \lambda \geq \mu\}] = X$ . Hence the construction of the  $\omega$ -shrinking of  $\{U_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is completed by transfinite induction.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) : Obvious.

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (4) : Follows from Proposition 5.2.

(4)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) : Let  $X$  be a space which satisfies condition (4) and let  $U$  and  $V$  be two  $\omega$ -open subsets of  $X$  such that  $U \cup V = X$ . Then  $\{U, V\}$  is a finite  $\omega$ -open covering of  $X$ . Then by hypothesis, this covering has an  $\omega$ -locally-finite  $\omega$ -closed refinement, say  $\Psi$ . Let  $F$  and  $H$  be the union of these members of  $\Psi$  which is contained in  $U$  and  $V$ , respectively. Then by Proposition 5.5,  $F$  and  $H$  are  $\omega$ -closed subsets of  $X$ . Since  $\Psi$  is a cover of  $X$ , in view of Theorem 4.2,  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal.

**Theorem 5.11.** *Let  $\{U_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be an  $\omega$ -locally-finite family of an  $\omega$ -open set of an  $\omega$ -normal space  $X$ , and let  $\{E_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be a family of  $\omega$ -closed sets such that  $E_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . Then there exists a family  $\{V_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $\omega$ -open sets such that  $E_\lambda \subseteq V_\lambda \subseteq \omega CIV_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  and the families  $\{E_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $\{\omega CIV_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are similar.*

**Proof.** Assume that  $\Lambda$  is well-ordered. We shall construct a family  $\{V_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $\omega$ -open sets such that  $E_\lambda \subseteq V_\lambda \subseteq \omega CIV_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  by using the transfinite induction. First, we define the family  $\{A_\lambda^v; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  by

$$A_\lambda^v = \begin{cases} \omega CIV_\lambda & \text{if } \lambda \leq \mu \\ E_\lambda & \text{if } \lambda > \mu \end{cases}$$

Suppose that  $\mu \in \Lambda$  and  $V_\lambda$  are defined for each  $v < \mu$  such that the family  $\{A_\lambda^v; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is similar to  $\{E_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Let  $\{B_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be the family given by

$$B_\lambda = \begin{cases} \omega CIV_\lambda & \text{if } \lambda \leq \mu \\ E_\lambda & \text{if } \lambda > \mu \end{cases} .$$

To show  $\{B_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is similar to  $\{E_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Suppose that  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots, \lambda_k \in \Lambda$  such that  $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \dots < \lambda_j < \mu < \lambda_{j+1} < \dots < \lambda_k$ . Since  $\lambda_j < \mu$ ,  $\{A_\lambda^{\lambda_j}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $\{E_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are similar. Since  $\cap\{B_{\lambda_i}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\} =$

$\cap\{A_{\lambda_i}^{\lambda_j}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\}$ ,  $\cap\{B_{\lambda_i}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\} = \phi$  if and only if  $\cap\{E_{\lambda_i}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\} = \phi$ . Thus the families  $\{B_{\lambda}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $\{E_{\lambda}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are similar. Also, since  $B_{\lambda} \subseteq G_{\lambda}$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ , the family  $\{B_{\lambda}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite. Thus, if  $\Gamma$  is the family of finite subsets of  $\Lambda$  and for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , we set  $F_{\gamma} = \cap\{B_{\lambda}; \lambda \in \gamma\}$ . Then the family  $\{F_{\gamma}; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is an  $\omega$ -locally-finite family of  $\omega$ -closed sets. Hence by Proposition 5.5, we obtain that  $F = \cup\{F_{\gamma}; F_{\gamma} \cap E_{\mu}\}$  is  $\omega$ -closed and it is disjoint from  $E_{\mu}$ . Therefore, by Theorem 4.3, there exists an  $\omega$ -open set  $V_{\mu}$  such that  $E_{\mu} \subseteq V_{\mu} \subseteq \omega CIV_{\mu} \subseteq G_{\mu}$  and  $\omega CIV_{\mu} \cap F = \phi$ . Hence the  $\omega$ -open sets  $V_{\lambda}$  are defined for each  $\lambda \leq \mu$ . It remains only to show that the family  $\{A_{\lambda}^{\mu}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is similar to  $\{E_{\lambda}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . For this, it is sufficient to show that it is similar to  $\{B_{\lambda}; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Suppose that  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots, \lambda_t \in \Lambda$  and  $\cap\{B_{\lambda_i}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, t\} = \phi$ , we have to show  $\cap\{A_{\lambda_i}^{\mu}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, t\} = \phi$ . Consider  $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \dots < \lambda_j \leq \mu < \lambda_{j+1} < \dots < \lambda_t$ . If  $\lambda_j \neq \mu$ , then the proof is completed. If  $\lambda_j = \mu$ , then  $\cap\{B_{\lambda_i}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, t\} \cap E_{\mu} = \phi$ . Hence by our construction  $\cap\{B_{\lambda_i}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, t\} \cap \omega CIV_{\mu} = \phi$ . Thus  $\cap\{A_{\lambda_i}^{\mu}; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, t\} = \phi$ . This completes the proof.

**Corollary 5.12.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then the followings statements are equivalent:*

1.  $X$  is  $\omega$ -normal,
2. For each finite family  $\{E_i; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\}$  of  $\omega$ -closed sets of  $X$ , there is a family  $\{V_i; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\}$  of  $\omega$ -open sets such that  $E_i \subseteq V_i$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , and the families  $\{E_i; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\}$  and  $\{\omega CIV_i; i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k\}$  are similar,
3. For each pair  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  of disjoint  $\omega$ -closed sets of  $X$ , there is a pair  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  of  $\omega$ -open sets of  $X$  such that  $\omega CIV_1$  and  $\omega CIV_2$  are disjoint.

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) : It follows by putting  $G_i = X$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$  in Theorem 5.11.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) and (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) are obvious.

**Corollary 5.13.** *Let  $(X, \mathfrak{S})$  be a space and  $B \subseteq A \subseteq X$ . Then the following statements are true:*

1. Let  $A \in \mathfrak{S}^{\omega}$ . Then  $B \in \mathfrak{S}_A^{\omega}$  if and only if  $B \in \mathfrak{S}^{\omega}$ ,

2. Let  $A$  be  $\omega$ -closed. Then  $B$  is  $\omega$ -closed in  $A$  if and only if it is  $\omega$ -closed in  $X$ .

**Proof.** It follows from Theorem 1.2.

**Theorem 5.14.** Let  $E$  be an  $\omega$ -closed subset of an  $\omega$ -normal  $X$  and let  $\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be an  $\omega$ -locally-finite family of an  $\omega$ -open set of  $X$  such that  $E \subseteq \cup\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Then there exists a family  $\{V_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $\omega$ -open sets of  $X$  such that  $\omega CIV_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ ,  $E \subseteq \cup\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $\{\omega CIV_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are similar to  $\{E \cap G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\Gamma$  be the family of finite subsets of  $\Lambda$  such that  $E \cap (\cap\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \gamma\}) \neq \phi$  for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . The family  $\{E \cap (\cap\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \gamma\}); \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  of non-empty  $\omega$ -open subsets of  $E$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite and from Theorem 4.14,  $E$  is  $\omega$ -normal. Hence by Corollary 4.5,  $E$  is  $\omega$ -regular. Therefore, for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , there exists a non-empty  $\omega$ -closed set  $D_\gamma$  of  $E$  such that  $D_\gamma \subseteq E \cap (\cap\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \gamma\})$ . Since  $\{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is  $\omega$ -locally-finite and  $E$  is an  $\omega$ -closed subset of  $X$ , the family  $\{D_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  consists of  $\omega$ -closed subsets of  $X$  and it is  $\omega$ -locally-finite in  $X$  {by Corollary 5.13}. Since  $E$  is  $\omega$ -normal and each  $\omega$ -locally-finite family is point-finite, it follows that there is an  $\omega$ -locally-finite  $\omega$ -closed covering  $\{H_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $E$  such that  $H_\lambda \subseteq E \cap G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda$  {by Theorem 5.10}. Let  $F_\lambda = E_\lambda \cup \{D_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  for each  $\lambda$ . Then by Proposition 5.5,  $F_\lambda = E_\lambda \cup \{D_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is  $\omega$ -closed in both  $E$  and  $X$  and  $F_\lambda = E_\lambda \cap G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda$ . Also  $\{F_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  is an  $\omega$ -closed covering of  $E$ . Furthermore, the families  $\{F_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $\{E \cap G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are similar. For if  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , then  $D_\gamma \subseteq \cap\{F_\lambda; \lambda \in \gamma\}$ . Hence  $\cap\{F_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\} = \phi$ . Since  $X$  is an  $\omega$ -normal space, there exists a family  $\cup\{V_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $\omega$ -open subsets of  $X$  such that  $F_\lambda \subseteq V_\lambda \subseteq \omega CIV_\lambda \subseteq G_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda$  {by Theorem 5.11}. Therefore,  $\{\omega CIV_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $\{E \cap G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are similar. This completes the proof.

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