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## Some Properties of Weak Separation Axioms in Coc-Compact Sets

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**Abstract.** In this paper, we introduce some separation axioms in coc-compact set, namely coc- $T_0$ -space, coc- $T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ - space, coc- $T_{\frac{1}{8}}$ - space, coc- $T_{\frac{1}{8$ 

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**Key Words and Phrases**:  $\cos T_i$ - space for  $i = 0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{8}, \frac{3}{4}$ ,  $\cos D_i$ - space,  $\cos R_i$ - space for i = 0, 1, weak  $\cos D_i$ - space and weak  $\cos R_0$ - space

#### 1. Introduction and Preliminaries

In [4], the authors defined a new type of open sets called coc-compact set as a generalizations of open sets. After this paper many papers in this concept were appeared, see [1–3].

Also many authors studied weak separation axioms in different types of open sets, for example [5, 8, 9].

**Definition 1.** [4] A subset A of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact open set (notation: coc-open) if for every  $x \in A$ , there exists an open set  $U \subseteq X$  and a compact subset K of X such that  $x \in U - K \subseteq A$ . The complement of a coc-open subset is called coc-closed. The family of all coc-open subsets of a topological space X will be denoted by  $\tau^k$ .

**Theorem 1.** [4] Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then

- (i) The collection  $\tau^k$  forms a topology on X with  $\tau \subseteq \tau^k$ .
- (ii) The set  $\{U K : U \in \tau \text{ and } K \text{ is compact in } X\}$  forms a base for  $\tau^k$ .

**Lemma 1.** [4] Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and A be a closed subset of X. Then  $(\tau \mid_A)^k = \tau^k \mid_A$ .

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Throughout this paper, we use  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{N}$  to denote the set of real numbers, rational numbers and natural numbers, respectively. The coc-closure of A and the coc- interior of A will be denoted by  $\overline{A}^{coc}$  and  $int_{coc}(A)$ , respectively.

Terms and notations not explained in this paper are taken from [4, 7].

### 2. Coc-T-spaces and Coc-D-spaces

**Definition 2.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact- $T_0$ -space (coc- $T_0$ -space) if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exists a coc-open set U contains one point but not other.

**Definition 3.** A subset A of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called coc-D-set if A = U - V, for some  $U, V \in \tau^k$ .

**Definition 4.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact- $D_0$ -space (coc- $D_0$ -space) if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exists a coc-D-set U contains one point but not other.

**Theorem 2.** A coc-closed subspace of a coc- $D_0$ -space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $D_0$ -space.

*Proof.* Let A be a coc-closed subset X and let  $x \neq y \in A$ . So there exists a coc-D-set D = U - V with  $U, V \in \tau^k$  such that  $x \in D$  and  $y \notin D$ . Now  $x \in D \cap A = (U - V) \cap A = (A \cap U) - (A \cap V)$ , so by Lemma 1 we have  $A \cap U$  and  $A \cap V \in (\tau \mid_A)^k = \tau^k \mid_A$ , hence the result.

**Theorem 3.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_0$ -space if and only if it is coc- $D_0$ -space.

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) It is clear since every proper coc-open subset of X is coc-D-set. ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $x \neq y \in X$ , so there exists a coc- $D_0$ - set U contains x with  $U = U_1 - U_2$  where  $U_1, U_2 \in \tau^k$  i.e.  $x \in U_1$  and  $x \notin U_2$ . For y, we have the following cases:(1) If  $y \notin U_1$ , we are done. (2) If  $y \in U_1$  and  $y \in U_2$ , so  $U_2$  contains y but not x.

**Theorem 4.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_0$ -space if and only if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , we have  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} = \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exists a coc- open set U contains one point but not other, say  $x \in U$  and  $y \notin U$ . Then X - U is a coc-closed set contains y and  $\overline{\{y\}}^{coc} \subseteq X - U$ , so  $x \notin \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , hence  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $x \neq y \in X$ . Then it is clear that  $X - \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$  is coc-open set contains x but not y, hence X is coc- $T_0$ -space.

**Definition 5.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact  $-T_1$ -space (coc- $T_1$ -space) if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exist coc-open sets  $U_x, V_y$  with  $\{U_x, V_y\} \cap \tau \neq \phi$  such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $y \in V_y$  and  $y \notin U_x$ ,  $x \notin V_y$ .

**Definition 6.** [3] A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact  $T_2$ -space (coc- $T_2$ -space) if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exist coc-open sets  $U_x, V_y$  with  $\{U_x, V_y\} \cap \tau \neq \phi$  such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $y \in V_y$  and  $U_x \cap V_y = \phi$ .

It is clear that if  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_1$ -space, then  $(X, \tau^k)$  is  $T_1$ -space. And every  $T_1$ -space is coc- $T_1$ -space, but the converse need not be true, consider the following example.

**Example 1.** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $\tau = \{\phi\} \cup \{U \subseteq \mathbb{R}, 0 \in U\}$ .

Proof.

A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_1$ - space, to prove this let  $x \neq y \in X$ , so we have the following cases:

- (i) For  $x = 0, y \neq 0$ , let  $U = \{0\}$  and  $V = \{y, 0\} \{0\}$ , then  $U, V \in \tau^k$  and  $\{U, V\} \cap \tau = \{V\}$  with  $x \notin V$  and  $y \notin U$ .
- (ii) For  $y = 0, x \neq 0$ , same as (i).
- (iii) For  $x \neq 0, y \neq 0$ , let  $U = \{x, 0\}, V = \{y, 0\} \{0\}$ , then  $U, V \in \tau^k$  and  $\{U, V\} \cap \tau = \{V\}$ , then  $x \notin V$  and  $y \notin U$ .

But  $(X, \tau)$  is not  $T_1$ - space, for instance take x = 0, y = 1, then there is no open set contains y but not x.

**Theorem 5.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_1$ -space if and only if every singleton is coc-closed.

**Definition 7.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact- $D_1$ -space (coc- $D_1$ -space) if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exist coc-D-sets  $U_x, V_y$  such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $y \in V_y$  and  $y \notin U_x$ ,  $x \notin V_y$ .

**Theorem 6.** A coc-closed subspace of a coc- $D_1$ -space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $D_1$ -space.

**Definition 8.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact- $D_2$ -space (coc- $D_2$ -space) if for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exist disjoint coc-D-sets  $U_x, V_y$  such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $y \in V_y$  and  $y \notin U_x$ ,  $x \notin V_y$ .

**Theorem 7.** Let  $(X,\tau)$  be a topological space. Then:

- (i) If X is coc- $T_i$ -space, then X is coc- $T_{i-1}$ -space for i = 1, 2.
- (ii) If X is coc- $T_i$ -space, then X is coc- $D_i$ -space for i = 1, 2.
- (iii) If X is coc- $D_i$ -space, then X is coc- $D_{i-1}$ -space for i = 1, 2.
- (iv) If X is  $coc-D_1$ -space, then X is  $coc-T_0$ -space.
- (v) X is  $coc-D_1$ -space if and only if X is  $coc-D_2$ -space.

*Proof.* We will prove (v) only.

- $(\Leftarrow)$  Obvious.
- (⇒) For  $x \neq y \in X$ , there exist coc-*D*-sets  $U_1, U_2$  with  $x \in U_1, y \notin U_1$  and  $y \in U_2, x \notin U_1$ , assume  $U_1 = V_1 W_1, U_2 = V_2 W_2$  where  $V_1, W_1, V_2, W_2 \in \tau^k$ . Then for  $x \notin U_2$ , we have the following cases:
- (1)  $x \notin V_2$  (2)  $x \in V_2$  and  $x \in W_2$ . For (1) If  $x \notin V_2$ , we have: (i) If  $y \notin V_1$ ,  $x \in V_1 W_1$ , then  $x \in V_1 (V_2 \cup W_1)$  and  $y \in V_2 W_2$ , so  $y \in V_2 (V_1 \cup W_2)$  and

 $(V_1 - (V_2 \cup W_1)) \cap (V_2 - (V_1 \cup W_2)) = \phi$ . (ii) If  $y \in V_1$  and  $y \in W_1$ , we have  $x \in U_1 - U_2$ ,  $y \in U_2$  and  $(U_1 - U_2) \cap U_2 = \phi$ .

For (2) If  $y \in U_2 = V_2 - W_2$ , then  $x \in W_2$  and  $(V_2 - W_2) \cap W_2 = \phi$ . From (1) and (2), X is  $\text{coc-}D_2\text{-space}$ .

The following theorem gives improvement of Theorem 7(iv).

**Theorem 8.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $D_1$ -space if and only if X is coc- $T_0$ -space and  $int_{coc}(A_x) \neq X$  for all  $x \in A_x \subseteq X$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) For  $x \in X$ , there exists a coc-*D*-set  $O_x = U - V$  with  $U, V \in \tau^k$  and  $x \in O_x$ , but  $U \neq X$ , so  $int_{coc}(U) \neq X$ , hence the result.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) For  $x \neq y \in X$ , with out loss of generality there exists a coc-open set U contains x but not y and there exists coc-open set V contains y and  $int_{coc}(V) \neq X$ , hence  $y \in V - U$ , therefore X is coc- $D_1$ -space.

#### 3. $\operatorname{Coc-} R_0$ and $\operatorname{Coc-} R_1$ -spaces

**Definition 9.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact- $R_0$ -space (coc- $R_0$ -space) if every cocopen set contains the coc-closure of its singletons, i.e. for each coc-open set O we have  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq O$  for all  $x \in O$ .

**Definition** 10. A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called co-compact- $R_1$ -space (coc- $R_1$ -space) if for  $x \neq y \in X$  with  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , then there exist disjoint coc-open sets U, V with  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq U$ ,  $\overline{\{y\}}^{coc} \subseteq V$ .

The following theorem is obvious.

**Theorem 9.** Let  $(X,\tau)$  be a topological space. Then:

- (i) A coc-closed subspace of a coc- $R_0$ -space X is coc- $R_0$ -space.
- (ii) A coc-closed subspace of a coc- $R_1$ -space X is coc- $R_1$ -space.

**Theorem 10.** Every coc- $R_1$ -space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $R_0$ -space.

Proof. Let U be a coc-open set in X with  $x \in U$ . For  $y \notin U$ , we have  $x \notin \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , thus  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , but X is  $\operatorname{coc-}R_1$ -space, so there exits a coc-open set  $V_y$  contains y such that  $\overline{\{y\}}^{coc} \subseteq V_y$  and  $x \notin V_y$ , hence  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq U$ , thus X is  $\operatorname{coc-}R_0$ -space.

**Theorem 11.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_1$ -space if and only if it is coc- $T_0$ -space and coc- $R_0$ -space.

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Notes that  $\{x\}$  is coc-closed subset of X for all  $x \in X$ . ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $x \neq y \in X$ , with out loss of generality there exists a coc-open set O with  $x \in O \subseteq X - \{y\}$ . Thus  $x \notin \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , so  $y \notin \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , hence  $X - \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$  is coc-open set contains y but not x.

Corollary 1. Let  $(X,\tau)$  be a coc-R<sub>0</sub>-space. Then the following are equivalent:

- (i) X is coc- $T_2$ -space,
- (ii) X is coc- $T_1$ -space,
- (iii) X is coc- $T_0$ -space.

**Definition 11.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then the coc-Kernal of A define by:

$$coc\text{-}ker(A) = \cap \{U \in \tau^k : A \subseteq U\},\$$

if there no coc-open set contains A, then coc-ker(A) = X.

**Lemma 2.** If  $(X, \tau)$  is a topological space and A is a subset of X, then  $\operatorname{coc-ker}(A) = \{x \in X : \overline{\{x\}}^{\operatorname{coc}} \cap A \neq \emptyset\}.$ 

*Proof.* For  $x \notin coc\text{-}ker(A)$ , there exists a coc-open set U contains A and  $x \notin U$ , then  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap U = \phi$ . For  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap U = \phi$ , we have  $x \notin X - \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , thus  $x \notin coc\text{-}ker(A)$ .

**Lemma 3.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $x \in X$ . Then  $y \in coc\text{-ker}(\{x\})$  if and only if  $x \in \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ .

**Theorem 12.** Let  $(X,\tau)$  be a topological space and  $x \neq y \in X$ . Then  $coc\text{-ker}(\{x\}) \neq coc\text{-ker}(\{y\})$  if and only if  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ .

 $\frac{Proof. \ (\Rightarrow) \ \mathrm{Let} \ w \in coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \ \mathrm{and} \ w \notin coc\text{-}ker(\{y\}). \ \mathrm{Then} \ \overline{\{w\}}^{coc} \cap \{x\} \neq \phi \ \mathrm{and} \ \overline{\{w\}}^{coc} \cap \{y\} = \underline{\phi}, \ \mathrm{soc} \ x \in \overline{\{w\}}^{coc}, \ \mathrm{and} \ \mathrm{hence} \ \overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq \overline{\{w\}}^{coc}, \ \mathrm{therefore} \ \overline{\{w\}}^{coc} \cap \{y\} = \phi \ \mathrm{and} \ \mathrm{hence} \ y \notin \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}.$ 

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Since  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \neq coc\text{-}ker(\{y\})$ , there is  $z \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$  and  $z \notin \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , hence there exists a coc-open set  $U_z$  with  $x \in U_z$  and  $y \notin U_z$ , so  $y \notin coc\text{-}ker(\{x\})$ .

**Theorem 13.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $R_0$ -space if and only if for  $x \neq y \in X$ ,  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$  gives  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap \overline{\{y\}}^{coc} = \phi$ .

 $\frac{\textit{Proof.}\ (\Leftarrow)}{\{x\}} \overset{\text{($\Leftarrow$)}}{=} \underbrace{\{y\}}^{coc}, \text{ so } \underbrace{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap \underbrace{\{y\}}^{coc} = \phi, \text{ therefore } y \notin \underbrace{\{x\}}^{coc} \text{ and } \underbrace{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq O_x, \text{ so } X \text{ is coc-} R_0\text{-space.}$ 

coc- $R_0$ -space.  $(\Rightarrow)$  Let  $x \neq y \in X$  with  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ . So there exists  $z \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$  and  $z \notin \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , then  $z \in X - \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , so there exists a coc-open set U contains z but not y, but  $z \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , so  $x \in U$  and  $x \notin \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , hence  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq X - \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , therefore  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap \overline{\{y\}}^{coc} = \phi$ .

**Theorem 14.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is  $coc\text{-}R_0\text{-}space$  if and only if for  $x \neq y \in X$ ,  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \neq coc\text{-}ker(\{y\})$  gives  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \cap coc\text{-}ker(\{y\}) = \phi$ .

- *Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let X be a coc- $R_0$ -space and for  $x \neq y \in X$  with  $coc-ker(\{x\}) \neq coc-ker(\{y\})$ . Let  $w \in coc-ker(\{x\}) \cap coc-ker(\{y\})$ . Then  $w \in coc-ker(\{x\}) \text{ so } x \in \{w\}^{coc}$ , and then by Lemma 3  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} = \overline{\{w\}}^{coc}$ , in same method we have  $\overline{\{y\}}^{coc} = \overline{\{w\}}^{coc}$ , and this is a contradiction which completes the proof.
- is a contradiction which completes the proof. ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \neq \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , then  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \neq coc\text{-}ker(\{y\})$ , so  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \cap coc\text{-}ker(\{y\}) = \phi$ . If  $z \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , then  $x \in coc\text{-}ker(\{z\})$  and  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \cap coc\text{-}ker(\{z\}) = \phi$ , so  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) = coc\text{-}ker(\{z\})$ . Now for  $z \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , we have  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) = coc\text{-}ker(\{y\}) = coc\text{-}ker(\{z\})$ , and this is a contradiction, hence  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap \overline{\{y\}}^{coc} = \phi$ .

#### **Theorem 15.** For a topological space $(X, \tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) X is a coc- $R_0$ -space,
- (ii) For a subset A of X and G coc-open set of X such that  $A \cap G \neq \phi$ , there exists a coc-closed subset F of X such that  $A \cap F \neq \phi$  and  $F \subseteq G$ ,
- (iii) For any coc-open set G of X,  $G = \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is coc-closed subset with } F \subseteq G\},$
- (iv) For any coc-closed subset F of X, F = coc-ker(F),
- (v) For any  $x \in X$ ,  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq coc\text{-}ker(\{x\})$ .

*Proof.*  $(iii) \Rightarrow (iv), (v) \Rightarrow (i)$  Obvious.

- $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$  Let  $A \subseteq X$  and G is a coc-open set and let  $x \in A \cap G$ . Then the needed coc-closed subset F is  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ .
- $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$  For a coc-open set  $G \supseteq \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is a coc-closed with } F \subseteq G\}$ , let  $x \in G$ , then there exists a coc-closed set F such that  $x \in F$  and  $F \subseteq G$ , so  $x \in F \subseteq \bigcup \{F : F \text{ is a coc-closed}, F \subseteq G\}$ , hence the result.
- $(iv) \Rightarrow (v)$  Let  $\underline{x} \in X$  and  $y \notin coc\text{-}ker(\{x\})$ , there exists a coc-open set  $U_x$  contains x with  $y \notin U$ , so  $\overline{\{y\}}^{coc} \cap U = \phi$  and hence  $\overline{coc\text{-}ker(\{y\})}^{coc} \cap U = \phi$ , therefore there exists a coc-open set  $O_y$  such that  $x \notin O_y$  and  $\overline{\{y\}}^{coc} \subseteq O_y$ , so  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \cap O_y = \phi$  and  $y \notin \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , hence the result.

**Lemma 4.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc-R<sub>0</sub>-space if and only if for each  $x \neq y \in X$  with  $x \in \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$  gives  $y \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ 

Proof. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let X be a coc- $R_0$ -space and  $x \in \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ . If U is any coc-open set with  $y \in U$ , then  $x \in U$  and any coc-open set contains y must contains x, hence  $y \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ .  $(\Leftarrow)$  Let U be a coc-open set with  $x \in U$ . For  $x \in \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ , we have  $y \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , therefore  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} \subseteq U$ , hence X is coc- $R_0$ -space.

## **Theorem 16.** For a topological space $(X, \tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) X is a coc- $R_0$ -space,
- (ii) If F is a coc-closed subset of X with  $x \in F$ , then  $\operatorname{coc-ker}(\{x\}) \subseteq F$ ,

(iii) If  $x \in X$ , then  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \subseteq \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ .

*Proof.*  $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$  Obvious.

- $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$  Let F be a coc-closed and  $x \in F$ . So  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \subseteq coc\text{-}ker(F)$ , then by Theorem 15 we have  $coc\text{-}ker(\{x\}) \subseteq F$ .
- $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$  Let  $x \in \overline{\{y\}}^{coc}$ . So  $y \in coc\text{-}ker(\{x\})$ , therefore by (iii)  $y \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , and the result comes from Lemma 4.

Corollary 2. A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc-R<sub>0</sub>-space if and only if coc-ker( $\{x\}$ ) =  $\{x\}^{coc}$  for all  $x \in X$ .

# 4. Coc- $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space, Coc- $T_{\frac{3}{2}}$ -space and Coc- $T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space

In this section we define more weak separation axioms in coc-open set, but before this we need some definitions and lemmas.

**Definition 12.** Let A be a subset of a topological space  $(X,\tau)$ . Then A is called coc-g-closed if  $\overline{\{A\}}^{coc} \subseteq U$ , whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and U is coc-open set. A is called coc-g-open if X-A is coc-g-closed.

Clearly, A is a coc-g-closed of  $(X,\tau)$  if  $F\subseteq int_{coc}(A)$ , whenever  $F\subseteq A$  and F is coc-closed set of X.

**Definition 13.** Let A be a subset of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $coc A^{\vee} = \bigcup \{F : X - F \in \tau^k : F \subseteq A\}$ , if there is no coc-closed set contains in A, then  $coc A^{\vee} = \phi$ .

**Lemma 5.** Let A be a subset of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . Then A is coc-g-closed (coc-g-open) if and only if  $\overline{\{A\}}^{coc} \subseteq coc\text{-}ker(A)$  (coc- $A^{\vee} \subseteq int_{coc}(A)$ ).

**Definition 14.** Let A be a subset of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . Then A is called coc- $\wedge$ -set (coc- $\vee$ -set) if  $A = coc-ker(A)(A = coc-A^{\vee})$ , or equivalently, A is the intersection of coc-open sets or A = X(A is the union of coc-closed sets or  $A = \phi$ ).

**Lemma 6.** Let A, B are subsets of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . Then:

- (i)  $\operatorname{coc-ker}\{\phi\} = \phi$ ,  $\operatorname{coc-}\phi^{\vee} = \phi$ ,  $\operatorname{coc-ker}\{X\} = X$ ,  $\operatorname{coc-}X^{\vee} = X$ .
- (ii)  $A \subseteq coc\text{-}ker(A)$ ,  $coc\text{-}A^{\vee} \subseteq A$ .
- $(iii) \;\; coc\text{-}ker(coc\text{-}ker(A)) = coc\text{-}ker(A), \;\; coc\text{-}\big(coc\text{-}A^\vee\big)^\vee = coc\text{-}A^\vee.$
- (iv) If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $coc\text{-}ker(A) \subseteq coc\text{-}ker(B)$ .
- (v) If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $coc A^{\vee} \subseteq coc B^{\vee}$ .

**Lemma 7.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then the following are hold:

(i) If A is coc o -set ( $coc o A^{\vee} -set$ ), then A is coc o g -closed (coc o g -open) if and only if A is coc o closed (coc o pen).

(ii) For  $A \subseteq X$ , if coc-ker(A) is coc-g-closed set ( $coc\text{-}A^{\vee}$  is coc-g-open set), then A is coc-g-closed (coc-g-open).

*Proof.* (i) Obvious.

(ii) From Lemma 5 and Lemma 6.

The following definition gives a weaker form of  $\operatorname{coc-} \land \operatorname{-set}$ .

**Definition 15.** A subset A of a space  $(X, \tau)$  is called generalized coc-kernal set  $(g\text{-}coc-\land set)$  if  $coc\text{-}ker(A) \subseteq \overline{\{A\}}^{coc}$ , or equivalently  $coc\text{-}ker(A) \subseteq F$ , whenever  $A \subseteq F$  and F is coc-closed. A subset A of a space  $(X, \tau)$  is called generalized  $coc\text{-}\lor\text{-}set$   $(g\text{-}coc\text{-}\lor\text{-}set)$  if X - A is  $g\text{-}coc\text{-}\land\text{-}set$ , or equivalently  $int_{coc}(A) \subseteq coc - A^{\lor}$ .

**Lemma 8.** Let A be subset of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . If A is  $coc \land -set$  ( $coc - A^{\lor} -set$ ), then it is  $g - coc - \land -set$  ( $g - coc \lor -set$ ).

**Theorem 17.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Then for  $x \in X$ ,  $\{x\}$  is either coc-open or g-coc- $\vee$ -set.

*Proof.* Let  $x \in X$  and  $\{x\}$  is not coc-open subset of X. Hence  $X - \{x\}$  is not coc-closed subset of X and  $\overline{\{X - \{x\}\}}^{coc} = X$ , so coc-ker  $(X - \{x\}) \subseteq \overline{\{X - \{x\}\}}^{coc}$ , therefore  $X - \{x\}$  is g-coc- $\land$ -set, i.e.  $\{x\}$  is g-coc- $\lor$ -set.

**Definition 16.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called  $coc T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space if every coc-g-closed subset of X is coc-closed.

**Lemma 9.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . Then A is coc-g-closed subset if and only if  $\overline{A}^{coc} - A$  contains no coc-closed subset of X.

*Proof.*  $(\Leftarrow)$  Obvious.

 $(\Rightarrow)$  Let A be coc-g-closed and assume there exists a coc-closed subset F with  $A \subseteq X - F$ . Since A is coc-g-closed set, we have  $\overline{A}^{coc} \subseteq X - F$ , hence  $F \subseteq X - \overline{A}^{coc}$  and this is a contradiction which completes the proof.

**Theorem 18.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space if and only if every singleton of X is coc-open or coc-closed.

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $x \in X$  and  $\{x\}$  is not coc-closed set. Hence  $X - \{x\}$  is not coc-open, therefore X is the only coc-open set with  $X - \{x\} \subseteq X$ , that is mean  $X - \{x\}$  is coc-g-closed, so  $X - \{x\}$  is coc-closed, i.e.  $\{x\}$  is coc-open.

 $(\Leftarrow)$  Let  $x \in X$  and A is coc-g-closed subset of X with  $x \in \overline{A}^{coc}$ . If  $\{x\}$  is a coc-open set, then  $\{x\} \cap A \neq \phi$  and hence  $x \in A$ . If  $\{x\}$  is a coc-closed, then by Lemma 9,  $x \notin \overline{A}^{coc} - A$ , hence  $x \in A$  and  $A = \overline{A}^{coc}$ , therefore X is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space.

Corollary 3. Every coc- $T_1$ -space is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space.

**Theorem 19.** For a topological space  $(X,\tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) X is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space,
- (ii) Every g-coc- $\wedge$  set is coc- $\wedge$ -set,
- (iii) Every g-coc- $\vee$ -set is coc- $\vee$ -set.

Proof.

- $(iii) \Rightarrow (ii)$  Obvious.
- $(ii) \Rightarrow (i)$  Let  $x \in X$ . If  $\{x\}$  is not coc-open, then  $X \{x\}$  is not coc-closed, so the only coc-open set contains  $X \{x\}$  is X, but  $X \{x\}$  is g-coc- $\wedge$ -set, so  $X \{x\}$  is coc- $\wedge$ -set, therefore  $X \{x\}$  is coc-open, hence  $\{x\}$  is coc-closed set, that's complete the proof.
- $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$  Assume that a subset A of X is g-coc- $\wedge$ -set which is not coc- $\wedge$ -set, then  $\operatorname{coc-ker}(A) \not\subseteq A$ , so there exists  $x \in \operatorname{coc-ker}(A)$  and  $x \notin A$ , but X is a  $\operatorname{coc-}T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space, so  $\{x\}$  is a coc-open or coc-closed set, we need to discuss the following two cases:
- (1) If  $\{x\}$  is a coc-closed, then  $X \{x\}$  is a coc-open set contains A, but  $x \in coc ker(A)$ , so  $x \in X \{x\}$  and this is a contradiction. (2) If  $\{x\}$  is coc-open set, then  $X \{x\}$  is a coc-open set contains A, by assumption coc-ker  $(A) \subseteq X \{x\}$ , i.e.  $x \notin coc-ker(A)$  and this is a contradiction, hence A is coc- $\land$ -set.

**Definition 17.** A subset A of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called  $coc-\lambda$ -closed if  $A = L \cap F$ , where L is  $coc-\lambda$ -set and F is coc-closed set. A subset A is  $coc-\lambda$ -open if X - A is  $coc-\lambda$ -closed.

**Lemma 10.** For a subset A of  $(X, \tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) A is  $coc-\lambda$ -closed,
- (ii)  $A = L \cap \overline{A}^{coc}$ , where L is  $coc \land -set$ .
- (iii)  $A = coc ker(A) \cap \overline{A}^{coc}$ .

**Theorem 20.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is  $\operatorname{coc-}T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space if and only if every subset of X is  $\operatorname{coc-}\lambda$ -closed.

*Proof.* ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $x \in X$ . Assume that  $\{x\}$  is not coc-open, then  $A = X - \{x\}$  is not coc-closed, but A is coc- $\lambda$ -closed, so A is coc- $\wedge$ -set, thus A is coc-open set, then A is coc-open, that is  $\{x\}$  is coc-closed, which is complete the proof.

 $(\Rightarrow) \text{ Let } A\subseteq X \text{ and } x\in X-A. \text{ Then } \{x\} \text{ is coc-open or coc-closed subset of } X.$  Define  $B=\{x\in X-A,\{x\}\in \tau^k\},\ C=\{x\in X-A,X-\{x\}\in \tau^k\}.$  Also define  $F=\bigcap_{x\in B}\big(X-\{x\}\big)=X-B,$  and  $L=\bigcap_{x\in C}\big(X-\{x\}\big)=X-C,$  then F is coc-closed set and L is coc- $\land$ -set with  $L\cap F=A,$  hence A is coc- $\land$ -set.

**Definition 18.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called coc- $T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space if every finite subset F of X and every  $y \in X - F$ , there exists a set  $A_y$  with  $F \subseteq A_y$  such that  $\{y\} \cap A_y = \phi$  and  $A_y$  is either coc-open or coc-closed.

**Theorem 21.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is  $\operatorname{coc-}T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space if and only if every finite subset of X is  $\operatorname{coc-}\lambda\text{-}closed$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let F be any finite subset of X and  $y \in X - F$ . So there exist a set  $A_y$  such that  $A_y \cap \{x\} = \phi$ , and  $A_y$  is either coc-open or coc-closed. Let C be the intersection of all coc-open sets  $A_y$  and let L be the intersection of all coc-closed sets  $A_y$ , clearly  $F = C \cap L$ , C is coc- $\wedge$ -set and L is coc-closed set, hence F is coc- $\lambda$ -closed set.

(⇐) Let  $F = L \cap C$  and  $y \in X - F$  where C is coc- $\wedge$ -set and L coc-closed set. If  $y \notin C$ , we are done. If  $y \in C$ , then  $y \notin L$ , so there exists a coc-open set  $U_y$  with  $y \in U_y$ , hence X is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space.

**Definition 19.** A topological space  $(X,\tau)$  is called  $coc T_{\frac{3}{8}}$ -space if every countable subset F of X and every  $y \in X - F$ , there exists a set  $A_y$  with  $F \subseteq A_y$  such that  $\{y\} \cap A_y = \phi$  and  $A_y$  is coc-open or coc-closed.

Clearly every  $\cot T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space is  $\cot T_{\frac{3}{2}}$ -space and hence  $\cot T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space.

**Theorem 22.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is  $coc T_{\frac{3}{8}}$ -space if and only if every countable subset of X is  $coc - \lambda$ -closed.

*Proof.* Same as Theorem 21.

In the end of this section, we give weak forms of  $\cos D_1$ -space and  $\cos R_0$ -space.

**Definition 20.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called weak coc- $D_1$ -space if  $\bigcap_{x \in X} \overline{\{x\}}^{coc} = \phi$ .

**Theorem 23.** A coc-closed subspace of weak coc- $D_1$ -space  $(X, \tau)$  is weak coc- $D_1$ -space.

**Theorem 24.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is weak coc- $D_1$ -space if and only if  $int_{coc}(A_x) \neq X$  for all  $x \in A_x \subseteq X$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Assume that there exists  $y \in X$  with  $int_{coc}(\{A_y\}) = X$ , then  $y \in \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$  for each  $x \in X$ , this is a contradiction, hence the result.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $y \in \bigcap_{x \in X} \overline{\{x\}}^{coc}$ , then the coc-open set contains y must be X, so  $int_{coc}(\{A_y\}) = X$ , this is a contradiction, hence the result.

Corollary 4. A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $D_1$ -space if and only if  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_0$ -space and weak coc- $D_1$ -space.

**Theorem 25.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is weak coc- $D_1$ -space if and only if coc-ker( $\{x\}$ )  $\neq$  X for all  $x \in X$ .

*Proof.*  $(\Rightarrow)$  Obvious.  $(\Leftarrow)$  From Theorem 24.

**Definition 21.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called weak coc- $R_0$ -space if every coc- $\lambda$ -closed singleton is a coc- $\wedge$ -set.

**Theorem 26.** Every coc- $R_0$ -space  $(X, \tau)$  is weak coc- $R_0$ -space.

Proof. Let  $x \in X$  with  $\{x\}$  is  $\operatorname{coc}-\lambda-\operatorname{closed}$ . By Lemma 10  $\{x\}=\operatorname{coc-ker}(\{x\})\cap \overline{\{x\}}^{\operatorname{coc}}$ . If  $\{x\}$  is not coc-ker-set, then there exists  $y\in\operatorname{coc}-\ker(\{x\})-\{x\}$  with  $y\notin \overline{\{x\}}^{\operatorname{coc}}$ , but X is  $\operatorname{coc-R_0}$ -space, so  $\overline{\{x\}}^{\operatorname{coc}}\cap \overline{\{y\}}^{\operatorname{coc}}=\phi$  and  $x\in \overline{\{y\}}^{\operatorname{coc}}$ , therefore there exists a cocopen set  $U_x$  contains x but not y, thus  $y\notin\operatorname{coc}-\ker(\{x\})$ , and this is a contradiction which completes the proof.

The following theorems are easily to prove.

**Theorem 27.** For a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) X is coc- $T_1$ -space,
- (ii) Every subset of X is  $coc \land -set$ ,
- (iii) Every singleton of X is  $coc \land -set$ .

**Theorem 28.** For a topological space  $(X, \tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) X is coc- $T_1$ -space,
- (ii) X is coc- $T_0$ -space and coc- $R_0$ -space,
- (iii) X is coc- $T_0$ -space and weak coc- $R_0$ -space.

Corollary 5. For a weak coc- $R_0$ -space  $(X, \tau)$ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) X is coc- $T_0$ -space,
- (ii) X is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space,
- (iii) X is coc- $T_{\frac{3}{8}}$ -space,
- (iv) X is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space,
- (v) X is coc- $T_1$ -space.

## 5. Hereditary Property for Weak Coc-compact Separation Axioms

In this section, we discuss the known problem that appeared by Arenas [6] "If every subspace of a topological space X has a property, then the space X has this property" in weak separation axioms via coc-open sets.

**Theorem 29.** If every proper subspace of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is  $\operatorname{coc-}T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space, then X is  $\operatorname{coc-}T_{\frac{1}{2}}$ -space with  $|X| \geq 4$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x \in X$  and let  $z_1 \neq z_2 \neq z_3 \in X - \{x\}$  and  $Z_i = X - \{z_i\}$  for i = 1, 2, 3. So  $\{x\}$  is either coc-open or coc-closed in  $Z_i$ , therefore either  $\{x\}$  is coc-open in at least two of  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3$ , and hence  $\{x\}$  is coc-open in X, or  $\{x\}$  is coc-closed in at least two of  $Z_1, Z_2, Z_3$ , and hence  $\{x\}$  is coc-closed in X, hence the result.

**Theorem 30.** Let  $(X,\tau)$  be infinite topological space. If every proper subspace of a topological space X is  $coc-T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space, then X is  $coc-T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space.

*Proof.* Let F be a finite set and  $y \notin F$  and let  $z \in X - (F \cup \{y\})$ . So there exists a set A contains F and  $y \notin A$  which is either coc-open or coc-closed in  $X - \{z\}$ , therefore there exists a set B which is either coc-open or coc-closed in X with  $A = B \cap (X - \{x\})$ , hence X is coc- $T_{\frac{1}{4}}$ -space.

**Theorem 31.** Let  $(X,\tau)$  be infinite topological space. If every proper subspace of a topological space X is  $coc-T_{\frac{3}{2}}$ -space, then X is  $coc-T_{\frac{3}{2}}$ -space.

Proof. Same as Theorem 30.

**Theorem 32.** If every proper subspace of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $R_0$ -space, then X is  $coc-R_0$ -space with  $|X| \geq 3$ .

*Proof.* Assume that all proper subspaces of X are  $\operatorname{coc-}R_0$ -space. Let U be coc-open subset of X. If X = U we are done, so we may assume  $X \neq U$ . Let  $x \notin U$  and  $p \in U$  with  $y \in X - \{p, x\}$ . So we have the following cases :

- (1) If  $y \in U$ , so  $X \{y\}$  is coc- $R_0$ -space, so by Theorem 15 (iii) there is a coc-closed set  $G_y$  in  $X \{y\}$  such that  $p \in G_y \subseteq U \{y\}$  and also there exists a coc-closed set G in X such that  $G_y = G \cap (X \{y\})$ , then  $p \in G \subseteq G_y \cup \{y\} \subseteq (U \{y\}) \cup \{y\} = U$ , hence X is coc- $R_0$ -space.
- (2) If  $y \notin U$ , then  $X \{x\}$  and  $X \{y\}$  are proper subspaces of X, so there exist cocclosed subsets  $G_x, G_y$  in  $X \{x\}$  and  $X \{y\}$ , respectively such that  $p \in G_x \subseteq U$  and  $p \in G_y \subseteq U$ , also there exist cocclosed sets  $G_1, G_2$  in X such that  $G_x = G_1 \cap (X \{x\})$  and  $G_y = G_2 \cap (X \{y\})$ . Define  $G = G_1 \cap G_2$ , so  $p \in G \subseteq (G_x \cup \{x\}) \cap (G_y \cup \{y\}) \subseteq U$ , hence X is coc- $R_0$ -space.

**Theorem 33.** If every proper subspace of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_1$ -space, then X is  $coc-T_1$ -space with  $|X| \ge 3$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that X is not a coc- $T_1$ -space, so there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $\{x\}$  is not coc-closed in X. Let  $z \in X - \{x\}$ . Then  $X - \{z\}$  is a coc- $T_1$ -space, so  $\{x\}$  is coc-closed is  $X - \{z\}$  and  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc} = \{x, z\}$ . Now let  $y \in X - \{x, z\}$  and  $B = X - \{y\}$ , then  $\overline{\{x\}}^{coc(B)} = \{x, z\}$  that means  $\{x\}$  is not coc-closed in B which is a contradiction, hence X is coc- $T_1$ -space.

The following theorem can be proved as the previous one.

**Theorem 34.** If every proper subspace of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is coc- $T_2$ -space, then X is  $coc-T_2$ -space with  $|X| \ge 3$ .

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