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Local Fixed Point Theorems for Graphic Contractions in Generalized Metric Spaces

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Abstract

In this paper, we will present some local fixed point theorems for graphic contractions on a generalized metric space in the sense of Perov.

Keywords: vector-valued metric, fixed point, graphic contraction, local fixed point theorem.
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1. Introduction

The classical Banach contraction principle was extended for single-valued contraction on spaces endowed with vector-valued metrics by Perov (Perov, 1964). Other fixed point results, given in the framework of a set endowed with a complete vector-valued metric, are given in (Agarwal, 1983), (Filip & Petruşel, 2009), (O'Regan *et al.*, 2007), (Petruşel *et al.*, 2015), (Precup, 2009), ...

On the other hand, the concept of graphic contraction is more general that that of contraction mapping, since the contraction condition is assumed to be satisfied only for pairs $(x, y) \in Graph(f) := \{(x, f(x)) : x \in X\}$. In this case, existence of the fixed point can be established under some additional continuity assumption on f. In this sense, several fixed point results for graphic contractions were proved in (Rus, 1972) (see also (Rus *et al.*, 2008), page 29), (Subrahmanyam, 1974) and (Hicks & Rhoades, 1979).

An existence and uniqueness result for graphic contractions in complete metric spaces was recently proved in (Chaoha & Sudprakhon, 2017).

For a synthesis and new results concerning fixed point theory for graphic contractions in complete metric spaces see (Petruşel & Rus, 2018).

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The purpose of this paper is to give some local fixed point theorems for graphic contractions in the context of complete vector-valued metric spaces. Our results extend, to the case of vector-valued metric spaces, a local variant of Banach's contraction principle, which was proved for the first time (to our best knowledge) by M.A. Krasnoselskii. Our results also extend some local fixed point theorems for graphic contractions in complete metric spaces given in (Petruşel, 2019).

2. Main results

We first some preliminary notions and results.

We denote by $M_{mm}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ the set of all $m \times m$ matrices with positive elements, By O_m the null $m \times m$ matrix and by I_m the identity $m \times m$ matrix. If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $x = (x_1, ..., x_m)$ and $y = (y_1, ..., y_m)$, then, by definition:

$$x \leq y \text{ if and only if } x_i \leq y_i \text{ for } i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}.$$

Notice that, through this paper, we will make an identification between row and column vectors in $\mathbb{R}^m$.

Let X be a nonempty set. A mapping $d : X \times X \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is called a vector-valued metric on X if the following properties are satisfied:

(a) $d(x, y) \geq O$ for all $x, y \in X$; if $d(x, y) = O$, then $x = y$; (where $O := \underbrace{(0, 0, \cdots, 0)}_{m-times})$

(b) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$;

(c) $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$.

A nonempty set X endowed with a vector-valued metric d is called a generalized metric space in the sense of Perov (or a vector-valued metric space) and it will be denoted by (X, d). In this context, if $x_0 \in X$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $r_i > 0$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$, then we denote

$$B(x_0, r) := \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) < r\}, \ \tilde{B}(x_0, r) := \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) \leq r\}.$$

The notions of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, completeness, open, closed, bounded and compact subset are similar to those for usual metric spaces. Notice also that in Precup (Precup, 2009) are pointed out the advantages of working with vector-valued metrics with respect to the usual scalar ones.

Definition 2.1. ((Varga, 2000)) A square matrix of real numbers is said to be convergent to zero if and only if its spectral radius $\rho(A)$ is strictly less than 1. In other words, this means that all the eigenvalues of A are in the open unit disc, i.e., $|\lambda| < 1$, for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$, where I denotes the unit matrix of $\mathcal{M}_{m,m}(\mathbb{R})$.

A classical result in matrix analysis is the following theorem (see (Varga, 2000)).

Theorem 2.1. *Let $A \in M_{mm}(\mathbb{R}_+)$. The following assertions are equivalent:*

(i) A is convergent to zero;

(ii) $A^n \to O_m$ as $n \to \infty$;

(iii) The matrix $(I_m - A)$ is nonsingular and

$$(I_m - A)^{-1} = I_m + A + ... + A^n + ... \tag{2.1}$$

(iv) The matrix $(I_m - A)$ is nonsingular and $(I_m - A)^{-1}$ has nonnegative elements.

We recall now some contraction conditions in vector-valued metric spaces.

Definition 2.2. Let (X, d) be a generalized metric space in the sense of Perov and $f : X \to X$ be an operator. Then, f is called:

(i) an A-contraction if $A \in M_{mm}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ converges to zero and

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \leq Ad(x, y), \text{ for every } x, y \in X.$$

(ii) a graphic A-contraction if $A \in M_{mm}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ converges to zero and

$$d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq Ad(x, f(x)), \text{ for every } x \in X.$$

Notice that any A-contraction is a graphic A-contraction, but not reversely.

The following local fixed point theorem in generalized metric space in the sense of Perov is an extension of a result proved by R. Agarwal in (Agarwal, 1983).

Theorem 2.2. *Let (X, d) be a complete generalized metric in the sense of Perov. Let $x_0 \in X$, $r = (r_1, \cdots, r_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $r_i > 0$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$ and let $f : \tilde{B}(x_0, r) \to X$ be an operator which has closed graph with respect to d. We suppose:*

(i) f is a graphic A-contraction on $\tilde{B}(x_0, r)$;

(ii) $(I_m - A)^{-1} d(x_0, f(x_0)) \leq r$.

Then:

(a) $Fix(f) \neq \emptyset$;

(b) $f^n(x_0) \in \tilde{B}(x_0, R)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (where $R := (I_m - A)^{-1} d(x_0, f(x_0))$) and the sequence of successive approximations $(f^n(x_0))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to a fixed point of f;

(c) if $x^* := \lim_{n\to\infty} f^n(x_0)$, then the following apriori estimation holds

$$d(f^n(x_0), x^*) \leq A^n (I_m - A)^{-1} d(x_0, f(x_0)), \text{ for each } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Proof. We can prove, by mathematical induction, that

$$d(x_0, f^n(x_0)) \leq (I_m + A + \cdots + A^{n-1}) d(x_0, f(x_0)), \text{ for each } n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2. \tag{2.2}$$

Indeed, we have

$$d(x_0, f^2(x_0)) \leq d(x_0, f(x_0)) + d(f(x_0), f^2(x_0)) \leq$$
$$d(x_0, f(x_0)) + Ad(x_0, f(x_0)) = (I + A) d(x_0, f(x_0)).$$

Next, for the general case of (2.2), we have

$$d(x_0, f^n(x_0)) \leq d(x_0, f^{n-1}(x_0)) + d(f^{n-1}(x_0), f^n(x_0)) \leq$$
$$(I_m + A + \cdots + A^{n-2}) d(x_0, f(x_0)) + A^{n-1} d(x_0, f(x_0)) =$$
$$(I_m + A + \cdots + A^{n-1}) d(x_0, f(x_0)).$$

Thus, by (2.2), we obtain that

$$d(x_0, f^n(x_0)) \leq (I_m - A)^{-1} d(x_0, f(x_0)) := R, \text{ for each } n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2. \tag{2.3}$$

Hence, $f^n(x_0) \in \tilde{B}(x_0, R)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, by the graphic contraction condition, we obtain that $d(f^n(x_0), f^{n+1}(x_0)) \leq A^n d(x_0, f(x_0))$, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Using this relation, we immediately obtain, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \in \mathbb{N}^*$, that

$$d(f^n(x_0), f^{n+p}(x_0)) \leq A^n(I_m + A + \cdots + A^{p-1})d(x_0, f(x_0)) \leq A^n(I_m - A)^{-1}d(x_0, f(x_0)). \quad (2.4)$$

The relation (2.4) shows that the sequence $(f^n(x_0))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy and, by the completeness of the space, there exists $x^* \in \tilde{B}(x_0, R)$ such that $x^* := \lim_{n\to\infty} f^n(x_0)$. The conclusions follow now by the closed graph condition of the operator f. The apriori evaluation follows by (2.4) letting $p \to \infty$. □

Remark. In particular, if f is an A-contraction, we get Theorem 2.1 in (Agarwal, 1983).

A more general result can be proved using the framework of a complete metric space endowed with a partial order relation. Our next theorem result extends the main result given in (Ran & Reurings, 2004).

Theorem 2.3. *Let X be a nonempty set endowed with a partial order relation "$\preceq$" and let $d : X \times X \to \mathbb{R}^m_+$ be a complete generalized metric in the sense of Perov on X. Let $x_0 \in X$, $r = (r_1, \cdots, r_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $r_i > 0$ for every $i \in \{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$ and $f : \tilde{B}(x_0, r) \to X$ be an operator which has closed graph with respect to d and is increasing with respect to "$\preceq$". We suppose:*

(i) there exists $A \in M_{mm}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ convergent to zero such that

$$d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq Ad(x, f(x)), \text{ for every } x \in X \text{ with } x \preceq x_0;$$

(ii) $f(x_0) \preceq x_0$;
(iii) $(I_m - A)^{-1}d(x_0, f(x_0)) \leq r$.

Then $Fix(f) \neq \emptyset$ and the sequence of successive approximations $(f^n(x_0))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to a fixed point of f. Moreover, if $x^* := \lim_{n\to\infty} f^n(x_0)$, then the following apriori estimation holds

$$d(f^n(x_0), x^*) \leq A^n(I_m - A)^{-1}d(x_0, f(x_0)), \text{ for each } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Proof. By (ii) and the monotonicity assumption on f we get that

$$x_0 \succeq f(x_0) \succeq f^2(x_0) \succeq \cdots \succeq f^n(x_0) \succeq \cdots$$

Next, as before, we can prove that

$$d(x_0, f^n(x_0)) \leq (I_m + A + \cdots + A^{n-1})d(x_0, f(x_0)), \text{ for each } n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2. \quad (2.5)$$

Thus, by (2.5), we obtain that

$$d(x_0, f^n(x_0)) \leq (I_m - A)^{-1}d(x_0, f(x_0)) := R, \text{ for each } n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2. \quad (2.6)$$

Hence, $f^n(x_0) \in \tilde{B}(x_0, R)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, by the graphic contraction condition, we obtain that $d(f^n(x_0), f^{n+1}(x_0)) \leq A^n d(x_0, f(x_0))$, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Using this relation, we immediately obtain, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \in \mathbb{N}^*$, that

$$d(f^n(x_0), f^{n+p}(x_0)) \leq A^n(I_m + A + \cdots + A^{p-1})d(x_0, f(x_0)) \leq A^n(I_m - A)^{-1}d(x_0, f(x_0)). \quad (2.7)$$

The relation (2.7) shows that the sequence $(f^n(x_0))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy and, thus, it converges to an element $x^* \in \tilde{B}(x_0, R)$. We notice that $x^* \in Fix(f)$, by the closed graph condition of the operator f. The apriori evaluation follows again letting $p \to \infty$ in (2.7). □

Remark. It is an open question to obtain the convergence (to a fixed point) of the sequence of successive approximations $(f^n(x))_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ for each $x \in \tilde{B}(x_0; R)$. Another open question to extend the above results to the multi-valued case.

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Theory and Applications of Mathematics & Computer Science 8 (1) (2018) 6 – 23

Coefficient Inequalities for Some Subclasses of Analytic Functions Associated with Conic Domains Involving q-calculus

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Abstract

Main purpose of this paper is to define and study some new classes of analytic functions associated with conic type regions. By using Salagean q-differential operator we investigate several interesting properties of these newly defined classes. Comparison of new results with those that were obtained in earlier investigation are given as Corollaries.

Keywords: q-differential operator, Salagean q-differential operator, Janowski functions, k-uniformly convex functions, k-starlike functions, close-to-convex functions, conic domain.
2010 MSC: 30C45, 30C50.

1. Introduction

Let $\mathcal{A}$ denote the class of functions f analytic in the open unit disc $E = \{z : z \in \mathbb{C}, |z| < 1\}$ and satisfying the normalization condition $f(0) = f'(0) - 1 = 0$. Thus, the functions in $\mathcal{A}$ are represented by the Taylor-Maclaurin series expansion given by

$$f(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n z^n, \quad z \in E. \tag{1.1}$$

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the subset of $\mathcal{A}$ consisting of the functions that are univalent in E. The convolution (Hadamard product) of functions $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ is defined by

$$(f * g)(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n b_n z^n, \quad z \in E,$$

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where $f(z)$ is given by (1.1) and

$$g(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} b_n z^n, \qquad z \in E.$$

For two functions $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$, we say that f is subordinate to g in E, denoted by

$$f(z) \prec g(z) \qquad (z \in E),$$

if there exists a function w where

$$w(0) = 0, \ |w(z)| < 1, \qquad (z \in E),$$

such that

$$f(z) = g(w(z)), \qquad (z \in E).$$

If g is univalent in E, then it follows that

$$f(z) \prec g(z) \qquad (z \in E), \ \Rightarrow \ f(0) = 0 \text{ and } f(E) \subset g(E).$$

For more detail see (Miller & Mocanu, 2000). A function p analytic in E and of the form

$$p(z) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_n z^n \in \mathcal{P}[A, B] \Leftrightarrow p(z) \prec \frac{1 + Az}{1 + Bz}$$

where $-1 \leq B < A \leq 1$. This class was introduced and investigated by Janowski (Janowski, 1973). In particular, if $A = 1$ and $B = -1$, we obtain the class $\mathcal{P}$ of functions with a positive real part (see (Goodman, 1983)). The classes $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{P}[A, B]$ are connected by the relation

$$p(z) \in \mathcal{P} \Leftrightarrow \frac{(A+1)\,p(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)\,p(z) - (B-1)} \in \mathcal{P}[A, B].$$

Now consider, for $k \geq 0$, the classes $k - CV$ and $k - ST$ of k-uniformly convex functions and corresponding k-starlike functions, respectively, introduced by Kanas and Wisniowska. For some details, see (Kanas, 2003), (Kanas & Wisniowska, 2000), (Kanas & Wisniowska, 1999).
Kanas and Wisniowska (Kanas & Wisniowska, 2000), (Kanas & Wisniowska, 1999) introduced the conic domain $\Omega_k, k \geq 0$ as

$$\Omega_k = \left\{ u + iv : u > k\sqrt{(u-1)^2 + v^2} \right\}.$$

We note that Ω_k represents the conic region bounded successively by the imaginary axis ($k = 0$), the right branch of hyperbola ($0 < k < 1$), a parabola for $k = 1$, and ellipse for $k > 1$. The extremal functions for these conic regions are

$$p_k(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{1+z}{1-z} & k = 0, \\ 1 + \frac{2}{\pi^2}\left(\log \frac{1+\sqrt{z}}{1-\sqrt{z}}\right)^2 & k = 1, \\ 1 + \frac{2}{1-k^2}\sinh^2\left\{\frac{2}{\pi}(\arccos k) \arctan h\sqrt{z}\right\} & 0 < k < 1, \\ 1 + \frac{1}{k^2-1}\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2R(t)}\int_0^{\frac{u(z)}{\sqrt{t}}} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}\sqrt{1-t^2x^2}}\right) + \frac{1^2}{k^2-1} & k > 1, \end{cases} \tag{1.2}$$

where

$$u(z) = \frac{z - \sqrt{t}}{1 - \sqrt{t}z}, \quad z \in E,$$

and $t \in (0,1)$ is chosen such that $k = \cosh(\pi R'(t)/(4R(t)))$. Here $R(t)$ is Legender's complete elliptic integral of first kind and $R'(t) = R(\sqrt{1-t^2})$ and $R'(t)$ is the complementary integral of $R(t)$ for details see (Ahiezer, 1970), (Hussain *et al.*, 2017), (Kanas & Wisniowska, 2000), (Kanas & Wisniowska, 1999). If $p_k(z) = 1 + Q_1(k)z + Q_2(k)z^2 + ..., z \in E$. Then it was shown in (Kanas & Wisniowska, 2000) that for (1.2) one can have

$$Q_1 := Q_1(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{2A^2}{1-k^2} & 0 \leq k < 1, \\ \frac{8}{\pi^2} & k = 1, \\ \frac{\pi^2}{4(k^2-1)\sqrt{t}(1+t)R^2(t)} & k > 1, \end{cases} \tag{1.3}$$

with $A = \frac{2}{\pi} \arccos t$.
The classes $k - UCV$ and $k - ST$ are defined as follows.
A function $f(z) \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be in the class $k - UCV$, if and only if,

$$\frac{\left(zf'(z)\right)'}{f'(z)} \prec p_k(z), \quad z \in E, \ k \geq 0.$$

A function $f(z) \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be in the class $k - ST$, if and only if,

$$\frac{zf'(z)}{f(z)} \prec p_k(z), \quad z \in E, \ k \geq 0.$$

For more study (see (Srivastava *et al.*, 2012), (Srivastava *et al.*, 2009), (Srivastava *et al.*, 2007)). These classes were then generalized to $KD(k, \alpha)$ and $SD(k, \alpha)$ respectively by Shams et al. (Shams *et al.*, 2004) subject to the conic domain $G(k, \alpha), k \geq 0, 0 \leq \alpha < 1$, which is

$$G(k, \alpha) = \{w : \Re(w) > k|w - 1| + \alpha\}.$$

Now using the concepts of Janowski functions and the conic domain, Noor and Malik (Noor & Malik, 2011) define the following

Definition 1.1. (See (Noor & Malik, 2011)) A function $p(z)$ is said to be in the class $k - \mathcal{P}[A, B]$, if and only if,

$$p(z) \prec \frac{(A+1)p_k(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)p_k(z) - (B-1)}, \quad k \geq 0,$$

where $p_k(z)$ is defined in (1.2) and $-1 \leq B < A \leq 1$. Geometrically, the function $p \in k - \mathcal{P}[A, B]$ takes all values from the domain $\Omega_k[A, B]$, $1 \leq B < A \leq 1$, $k \geq 0$ which is defined as:

$$\Omega_k[A, B] = \left\{ w : \Re\left(\frac{(B-1)w - (A-1)}{(B+1)w - (A+1)}\right) > k\left|\frac{(B-1)w - (A-1)}{(B+1)w - (A+1)} - 1\right|\right\},$$

or equivalently $\Omega_k[A, B]$ is a set of numbers $w = u + iv$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}&\left[\left(B^2-1\right)\left(u^2+v^2\right)-2(AB-1)u+\left(A^2-1\right)\right]^2\\ > \;& k^2\left[\left(-2(B+1)\left(u^2+v^2\right)+2(A+B+2)u-2(A+1)\right)^2+4(A-B)^2v^2\right].\end{aligned}$$

This domain represents the conic type regains for detail see (Noor & Malik, 2011), (Noor *et al.*, 2017). It can be easily seen that $0-\mathcal{P}[A,B]=\mathcal{P}[A,B]$ introduced in (Janowski, 1973) and $k-\mathcal{P}[1,-1]=\mathcal{P}(p_k)$ introduced in (Kanas & Wisniowska, 1999).
For any non-negative integer n, the $q-$integer number n, $[n]_q$ is defined by:

$$[n]_q=\frac{1-q^n}{1-q}=1+q+...+q^{n-1},\qquad [0]_q=0.$$

The $q-$number shifted factorial is defined by $[0]!=1$ and $[n]_q!=[1]_q[2]_q\ldots[n]_q$. Clearly, $\underset{q\to1^-}{Lim}[n]_q=n$ and $\underset{q\to1^-}{Lim}[n]_q!=n!$. In general we will denote $[t]_q=\frac{1-q^t}{1-q}$ also for a non-integer number.

Definition 1.2. Let $f\in\mathcal{A}$, and let the $q-$derivative operator or $q-$difference operator be defined by

$$\partial_q f(z)=\frac{f(qz)-f(z)}{(q-1)z}\qquad (z\in E).$$

It is easy to check that for $n\in\mathbb{N}:=\{1,2,...\}$ and $z\in E$

$$\partial_q z^n=[n]_q z^{n-1}.$$

In the field of Geometric Function Theory, various subclasses of the normalized analytic function class $\mathcal{A}$ have been studied from different viewpoints. The q-calculus as well as the fractional q-calculus provide important tools that have been used in order to investigate various subclasses of $\mathcal{A}$. Moreover, in recent years, such q-calculus operators as the fractional q-integral and fractional q-derivative operators were used to construct several subclasses of analytic functions (see, for example, (Altınkaya & Yalçın, 2017), (Magesh *et al.*, 2018), (Purohit & Raina, 2013), (Srivastava, 1989)).

Throughout this paper we assume q to be a fixed number between 0 and 1.

Definition 1.3. (See (Govindaraj & Sivasubramanian, 2018)) For $f\in\mathcal{A}$, let Salagean q-differential operator be defined as follows:

$$S_q^0f(z)=f(z),\; S_q^1f(z)=z\partial_qf(z),...,S_q^mf(z)=z\partial_q\left(S_q^{m-1}f(z)\right).\tag{1.4}$$

A simple calculation implies

$$S_q^mf(z)=f(z)*F_{m,q}(z),\; z\in E,\; m\in\mathbb{N}U\{0\}=\mathbb{N}_0.$$

where

$$F_{m,q}(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [n]_q^m z^n. \tag{1.5}$$

Making use of (1.4) and (1.5), the power series of $S_q^m f(z)$ for f of the form (1.1) is given by

$$S_q^m f(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [n]_q^m a_n z^n.$$

Note that

$$\lim_{q \to 1-} F_{m,q}(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n^m z^n$$

and

$$\lim_{q \to 1-} S_q^m f(z) = z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n^m a_n z^n$$

which is the familiar Salagean derivative (Salagean, 1983).
Motivated by the recent work presented by Noor and Malik (Noor & Malik, 2011) and (Mahmood *et al.*, 2017), we define some classes of analytic functions associated with conic domains and by using Salagean q-differential operator.

Definition 1.4. A function $f(z) \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be in the class $k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$, $k \geq 0$, $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, if and only if

$$\Re\left(\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z) - (C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z) - (C+1)}\right) > k\left|\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z) - (C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z) - (C+1)} - 1\right|,$$

where

$$G_{m,q}(z) = \frac{S_q^{m+1} f(z)}{S_q^m f(z)},$$

or equivalently

$$G_{m,q}(z) \in k - P[C, D].$$

Definition 1.5. A function $f(z) \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be in the class $k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$, $k \geq 0$, $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, if and only if

$$\Re\left(\frac{(D-1)H_{m,q}(z) - (C-1)}{(D+1)H_{m,q}(z) - (C+1)}\right) > k\left|\frac{(D-1)H_{m,q}(z) - (C-1)}{(D+1)H_{m,q}(z) - (C+1)} - 1\right|,$$

where

$$H_{m,q}(z) = \frac{z\partial_q S_q^{m+1} f(z)}{S_q^{m+1} f(z)},$$

or equivalently,

$$H_{m,q}(z) \in k - P[C, D].$$

It can be easily seen that

$$f(z) \in k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D) \iff z\partial_q f(z) \in k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D). \tag{1.6}$$

Special cases:

(i) For $q \to 1^-$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $k - \mathcal{ST}(C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{CV}(C, D)$ introduced by Noor and Malik in (Noor & Malik, 2011).

(ii) For $q \to 1^-$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $k - \mathcal{ST}$ and $k - \mathcal{UCV}$ introduced by Kanas and Wisniowska in (Kanas & Wisniowska, 2000), (Kanas & Wisniowska, 1999).

(iii) For $q \to 1^-$, $C = 1 - 2\alpha$, $D = -1$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $SD(k, \alpha)$ and $KD(k, \alpha)$ introduced by Shams et al. in (Shams *et al.*, 2004).

(iv) For $q \to 1^-$, $k = 0$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $\mathcal{S}^*(C, D)$ and $\mathcal{C}(C, D)$ introduced by Janowski (Janowski, 1973).

Definition 1.6. A function $f(z) \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be in the class $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$, if and only if, for $k \geq 0$, $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, $-1 \leq B < A \leq 1$, there exists $g(z) \in k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$, such that

$$\Re\left(\frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A+1)}\right) > k\left|\frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A+1)} - 1\right|,$$

where

$$L_{m,q}(z) = \frac{S_q^{m+1} f(z)}{S_q^m g(z)},$$

or equivalently

$$L_{m,q}(z) \in k - \mathcal{P}[A, B].$$

Definition 1.7. A function $f(z) \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be in the class $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$, if and only if, for $k \geq 0$, $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, $-1 \leq B < A \leq 1$, there exists $g(z) \in k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$, such that

$$\Re\left(\frac{(B-1)K_{m,q}(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)K_{m,q}(z) - (A+1)}\right) > k\left|\frac{(B-1)K_{m,q}(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)K_{m,q}(z) - (A+1)} - 1\right|,$$

where

$$K_{m,q}(z) = \frac{z\partial_q S_q^{m+1} f(z)}{S_q^{m+1} g(z)},$$

or equivalently,

$$K_{m,q}(z) \in k - \mathcal{P}[A, B].$$

It can be easily seen that

$$f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D) \iff z\partial_q f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D). \tag{1.7}$$

Special cases:

(i) For $q \to 1^-$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}(A, B, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}(A, B, C, D)$ introduced by Mahmood at al. in (Mahmood *et al.*, 2017).

(ii) For $q \to 1^-$, $A = 1 - 2\beta$, $B = -1, C = 1 - 2\gamma, D = -1$ and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}(\beta, \gamma)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}(\beta, \gamma)$ introduced by AghalaryAghalary and Azadi in (Aghalary & Azadi, 2015).

(iii) For $q \to 1^-$, $A = 1 - 2\beta$, $B = -1, C = 1 - 2\gamma, D = -1$, $k = 0$ and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $\mathcal{K}(\beta, \gamma)$ and $\mathcal{Q}(\beta, \gamma)$ introduced by Libera and Noor in (Libera, 1964), (Noor, 1987).

(iv) For $q \to 1^-$, $k = 0$, and $m = 0$, then the class $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduce into the class $\mathcal{K}(A, B, C, D)$ introduced by Silvia in (Silvia, 1983).

(v) For $q \to 1^-$, $k = 0$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, and $m = 0$, then the class $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduce into the class $\mathcal{Q}(A, B)$ introduced by Noor in (Noor, 1989).

(vi) For $q \to 1^-, A = 1, B = -1, C = 1, D = -1$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduce into the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}$ introduced by Acu in (Acu, 2006).

(vii) For $q \to 1^-$, $k = 0$, $A = 1$, $B = -1$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, and $m = 0$, then the classes $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ and $k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ reduced into the classes $\mathcal{K}$ and $\mathcal{Q}$ introduced by Kaplan and Noor et al. in (Kaplan, 1952), (Noor *et al.*, 2009).

Lemma 1.1. *(See (Rogosinski, 1943)) Let* $h(z) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ *be subordinate to* $H(z) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n z^n$. *If* $H(z)$ *is univalent in* E *and* $H(E)$ *is convex, then*

$$|c_n| \leq |C_1|, \quad n \geq 1.$$

Lemma 1.2. *(See (Noor & Malik, 2011)) Let* $h(z) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n \in k - \mathcal{P}[A, B]$, *then*

$$|c_n| \leq |Q_1(k, A, B)|, |Q_1(k, A, B)| = \frac{A - B}{2} |Q_1(k)|,$$

where $|Q_1(k)|$ *is given by (1.3).*

2. Main Results

Theorem 2.1. *A function* $f \in \mathcal{A}$ *and of the form (1.1) is in the class* $k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$, *if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left\{2(k + 1)(q [n - 1]_q) + \left|[n]_q (D + 1) - (C + 1)\right|\right\} [n]_q^m |a_n| \leq C - D, \tag{2.1}$$

where $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, $k \geq 0$.

Proof. Assuming that (2.1) holds, then it suffices to show that

$$k\left|\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C+1)}-1\right|-\Re\left\{\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C+1)}-1\right\}<1.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
& k\left|\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C+1)}-1\right|-\Re\left\{\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C+1)}-1\right\} \\
\leq\ & (k+1)\left|\frac{(D-1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C-1)}{(D+1)G_{m,q}(z)-(C+1)}-1\right| \\
=\ & (k+1)\left|\frac{(D-1)S_q^{m+1}f(z)-(C-1)S_q^m f(z)}{(D+1)S_q^{m+1}f(z)-(C+1)S_q^m f(z)}-1\right| \\
=\ & 2(k+1)\left|\frac{S_q^m f(z)-S_q^{m+1}f(z)}{(D+1)S_q^{m+1}f(z)-(C+1)S_q^m f(z)}\right| \\
=\ & 2(k+1)\left|\frac{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}([n]_q-1)[n]_q^m a_n z^n}{(D-C)z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{(D+1)[n]_q-(C+1)\right\}[n]_q^m a_n z^n}\right| \\
\leq\ & 2(k+1)\left\{\frac{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} q[n-1]_q[n]_q^m |a_n|}{C-D-\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left|(D+1)[n]_q-(C+1)\right|[n]_q^m |a_n|}\right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

The last expression is bounded above by 1 if

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{2(k+1)q[n-1]_q+\left|[n]_q(D+1)-(C+1)\right|\right\}[n]_q^m |a_n|\leq C-D.$$

This completes the proof. □

When $q\to 1^-$, $m=0$, we have the following known result, proved by Noor and Malik in (Noor & Malik, 2011).

Corollary 2.1. *A function $f\in\mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k-\mathcal{ST}(C,D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\{2(k+1)(n-1)+|n(D+1)-(C+1)|\}|a_n|\leq|D-C|.$$

When $q\to 1^-$, $m=0$, $C=1-2\alpha$, $D=-1$ with $0\leq\alpha<1$, then we have the following known result, proved by Shams et al. in (Shams *et al.*, 2004).

Corollary 2.2. *A function $f\in\mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $SD(k,\alpha)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\{n(k+1)-(k+\alpha)\}|a_n|\leq 1-\alpha,$$

where $0\leq\alpha<1$ and $k\geq 0$.

When $q \to 1^-$, $k = 0$, $m = 0$, $C = 1 - 2\alpha$, $D = -1$ with $0 \leq \alpha < 1$, then we have the following known result, proved by Silverman in (Silverman, 1975).

Corollary 2.3. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $S^*(\alpha)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \{n - \alpha\} |a_n| \leq 1 - \alpha, \qquad 0 \leq \alpha < 1.$$

Theorem 2.2. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left\{2(k+1)(q[n-1]_q) + \left|[n]_q (D+1) - (C+1)\right|\right\} [n]_q^{m+1} |a_n| \leq C - D,$$

where $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, $k \geq 0$.

The proof follows immediately by using Theorem 2.1 and (1.6).

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, then, we have the following known result, proved by Noor and Malik in (Noor & Malik, 2011).

Corollary 2.4. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k - \mathcal{UCV}(C, D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n \{2(k+1)(n-1) + |n(D+1) - (C+1)|\} |a_n| \leq C - D.$$

Theorem 2.3. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq \prod_{j=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[j]_q [j+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[j+1]_q [j+2]_q^m} \right), \qquad n \geq 2, \tag{2.2}$$

where $|Q_1(k)|$ is defined by (1.3).

Proof. By definition, for $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$, we have

$$\frac{S_q^{m+1} f(z)}{S_q^m f(z)} = p(z), \tag{2.3}$$

where

$$p(z) \in k - P[C, D].$$

Now from (2.3), we have

$$S_q^{m+1} f(z) = S_q^m f(z) p(z),$$

which implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}[n]_q^{m+1}a_nz^n &= \left(1+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}c_nz^n\right)\left(z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}[n]_q^m a_nz^n\right)\\
z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}[n]_q^{m+1}a_nz^n &= \left(1+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}c_nz^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}[n]_q^m a_nz^n\right)\\
z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}[n]_q^{m+1}a_nz^n &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}[n]_q^m a_nz^n+\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}[n]_q^m a_nz^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}c_nz^n\right)\\
\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{[n]_q-1\right\}[n]_q^m a_nz^n &= \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}[n]_q^m a_nz^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}c_nz^n\right)\\
\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m a_nz^n &= \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}[n]_q^m a_nz^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}c_nz^n\right). \qquad (2.4)
\end{aligned}$$

By using Cauchy product formula on R.H.S of (2.4), we have

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m a_nz^n=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}[j]_q^m a_jc_{n-j}\right]z^n. \qquad (2.5)$$

Equating coefficients of z^n on both sides of (2.5), we have

$$q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m a_n=\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}[j]_q^m a_jc_{n-j}, \quad [1]_q^m=1,\ a_1=1.$$

This implies that

$$|a_n|\le\frac{1}{q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\left|c_{n-j}\right|,\ [1]_q^m=1,\ a_1=1.$$

Using lemma (1.2), we have

$$|a_n|\le\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|, \qquad [1]_q^m=1, a_1=1. \qquad (2.6)$$

Now we prove that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\\
\le\ &\prod_{j=1}^{n-1}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2q[j-1]_q\,[j]_q^m D\right|}{2q\,[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m}\right),\\
&\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[n-1]_q\,[n]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\\
\le\ &\prod_{j=0}^{n-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m C\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right).
\end{aligned}$$

For this, we use the induction method.
For $n=2$ from (2.6), we have

$$|a_2|\le\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[2]_q^m}.$$

From (2.2), we have

$$|a_2| \leq \frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q\,[2]_q^m}.$$

For $n = 3$ from (2.6), we have

$$\begin{aligned} |a_3| &\leq \frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q[2]_q\,[3]_q^m}\left\{1+[2]_q^m\,|a_2|\right\} \\ &\leq \frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q[2]_q\,[3]_q^m}\left\{1+\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q}\right\}. \end{aligned}$$

From (2.2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} |a_3| &\leq \frac{(C-D)\,|Q_1(k)|}{2q\,[2]_q^m}\left\{\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2q\,[2]_q^m\,D\right|}{2q[2]_q\,[3]_q^m}\right\}, \quad [1]_q=1, \\ &\leq \frac{(C-D)\,|Q_1(k)|}{2q\,[2]_q^m}\left\{\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)+2q\,[2]_q^m\,|D|}{2q[2]_q\,[3]_q^m}\right\} \\ &\leq \frac{(C-D)\,|Q_1(k)|}{2q[2]_q\,[3]_q^m}\left\{1+\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q\,[2]_q^m}\right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Let the hypothesis be true for $n = t$.
From (2.6), we have

$$|a_t| \leq \frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q\,[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|, \quad a_1=1, \quad [1]_q^m.$$

From (2.2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} |a_t| &\leq \prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\,D\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right) \\ &\leq \prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right). \end{aligned}$$

By the induction hypothesis, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q\,[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right| \\ &\leq \prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right). \end{aligned} \tag{2.7}$$

Multiplying both sides by

$$\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m},$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m}\times\prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right)\\
\geq\;&\left\{\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m}\right\}\times\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|,\\
&\prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right)\\
\geq\;&\left\{\begin{array}{l}\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q[t+1]_q[t+2]_q^m}\left\{\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q[t-1]_q[t]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\right\}\\
+\frac{2q[t-1]_q[t]_q^m}{2q[t+1]_q[t+2]_q^m}\left\{\frac{|Q_1(k)|(C-D)}{2q[t-1]_q[t]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\right\},\end{array}\right.\\
\geq\;&\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m}\left\{\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[t-1]_q\,[t]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|+\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\right\},\\
&\prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right)\\
\geq\;&\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m}\left\{|a_t|+\sum_{j=1}^{t-1}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\right\},\\
=\;&\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(C-D)}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|.
\end{aligned}$$

That is,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\frac{|Q_1(k)|\,(A-B)}{2q\,[t+1]_q\,[t+2]_q^m}\sum_{j=1}^{t}[j]_q^m\left|a_j\right|\\
\leq\;&\prod_{j=0}^{t-2}\left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)+2q[j]_q\,[j+1]_q^m\right|}{2q\,[j+1]_q\,[j+2]_q^m}\right).
\end{aligned}$$

which shows that inequality (2.7) is true for $n = t + 1$. Hence the required result. □

When $m = 0$, $q \to 1^-$, we have the following known result, proved by Noor and Malik in (Noor & Malik, 2011).

Corollary 2.5. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k-\mathcal{ST}[C,D]$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$|a_n| \leq \prod_{j=0}^{n-2}\left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2jD|}{2\,(j+1)}\right).$$

When $m = 0$, $q \to 1^-$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, then we have the following known result, proved by Kanas and Wisniowska in (Kanas & Wisniowska, 2000).

Corollary 2.6. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k-\mathcal{ST}$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$|a_n| \leq \prod_{j=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k) + j|}{(j+1)} \right).$$

When $m = 0$, $q \to 1^-$, $k = 0$, then $Q_1(k) = 2$ and we get the following known result, proved in (Janowski, 1973).

Corollary 2.7. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $\mathcal{ST}[C, D]$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$|a_n| \leq \prod_{j=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{|(C-D) - jD|}{(j+1)} \right), \qquad -1 \leq D < C \leq 1.$$

When $m = 0$, $q \to 1^-$, $C = 1 - 2\alpha$, $D = -1$, with $0 \leq \alpha < 1$, then we have the following known result, proved by Shams et al. in (Shams et al., 2004).

Corollary 2.8. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $SD(k, \alpha)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$|a_n| \leq \prod_{j=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(1-\alpha) + j|}{(j+1)} \right), \qquad -1 \leq D < C \leq 1.$$

Theorem 2.4. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{CV}_q(m, C, D)$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{1}{[n]_q} \prod_{j=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{\left| Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[j]_q \, [j+1]_q^m \, D \right|}{2q \, [j+1]_q \, [j+2]_q^m} \right), \qquad (n \geq 2).$$

The proof follows immediately by using Theorem (2.3) and the relation (1.6).

When $m = 0$, $q \to 1^-$, we have the following known result, proved by Noor and Sarfaraz in (Noor & Malik, 2011).

Corollary 2.9. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k - \mathcal{UCV}[C, D]$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{1}{n} \prod_{j=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2jD|}{2\,(j+1)} \right).$$

Theorem 2.5. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left\{ 2(k+1) \left| b_n - [n]_q \, a_n \right| + \left| (B+1) \, [n]_q \, a_n - (A+1) b_n \right| \right\} [n]_q^m \leq A - B, \tag{2.8}$$

where $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, $-1 \leq B < A \leq 1$, $k \geq 0$.

Proof. Assuming that (2.8) holds, then it suffices to show that

$$k \left| \frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A+1)} - 1 \right| - \Re \left\{ \frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z) - (A+1)} - 1 \right\} < 1.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} & k\left|\frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z)-(A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z)-(A+1)}-1\right|-\Re\left\{\frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z)-(A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z)-(A+1)}-1\right\} \\ \leq\ & (k+1)\left|\frac{(B-1)L_{m,q}(z)-(A-1)}{(B+1)L_{m,q}(z)-(A+1)}-1\right| \\ =\ & (k+1)\left|\frac{(B-1)S_q^{m+1}f(z)-(A-1)S_q^m g(z)}{(B+1)S_q^{m+1}f(z)-(A+1)S_q^m g(z)}-1\right| \\ =\ & 2(k+1)\left|\frac{S_q^m g(z)-S_q^{m+1}f(z)}{(B+1)S_q^{m+1}f(z)-(A+1)S_q^m g(z)}\right| \\ =\ & 2(k+1)\left|\frac{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{b_n-[n]_q a_n\right\}[n]_q^m z^n}{(B-A)z+\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{(B+1)[n]_q a_n-(A+1)b_n\right\}[n]_q^m z^n}\right| \\ \leq\ & 2(k+1)\left\{\frac{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left|b_n-[n]_q a_n\right|[n]_q^m}{A-B-\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left|(B+1)[n]_q a_n-(A+1)b_n\right|[n]_q^m}\right\}. \end{aligned}$$

The last expression is bounded above by 1 if

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{2(k+1)\left|b_n-[n]_q a_n\right|+\left|(B+1)[n]_q a_n-(A+1)b_n\right|\right\}[n]_q^m \leq A-B.$$

This completes the proof. □

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, we have the following known result, proved by Mahmood at al. (Mahmood *et al.*, 2017).

Corollary 2.10. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k-\mathcal{UK}(A,B,C,D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left\{2(k+1)\left|b_n-na_n\right|+\left|(B+1)na_n-(A+1)b_n\right|\right\} \leq A-B.$$

Theorem 2.6. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k-\mathcal{UQ}_q(m,A,B,C,D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}[n]_q^{m+1}\left\{2(k+1)\left|b_n-[n]_q a_n\right|+\left|(B+1)[n]_q a_n-(A+1)b_n\right|\right\} \leq A-B,$$

where $-1 \leq D < C \leq 1$, $-1 \leq B < A \leq 1, k \geq 0$.

The proof follows immediately by using Theorem 2.1 and (1.7).

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, we have the following known result, proved by Mahmood at al. (Mahmood *et al.*, 2017)

Corollary 2.11. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $k-\mathcal{UQ}(A,B,C,D)$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n\left\{2(k+1)\left|b_n - na_n\right| + \left|(B+1)na_n - (A+1)b_n\right|\right\} \leq A - B.$$

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, $A = 1-2\beta$, $B = -1$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$ with $0 \leq \beta < 1$, then we have the following known result, proved by Subramanian et al. in (Subramanian *et al.*, 2003).

Corollary 2.12. *A function $f \in \mathcal{A}$ and of the form (1.1) is in the class $\mathcal{UQ}(\beta)$, $g(z) = z$, if it satisfies the condition*

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n^2 \left|a_n\right| \leq 1 - \beta.$$

Theorem 2.7. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UK}_q(m,A,B,C,D)$ and is of the form* (1.1). *Then*

$$\left|a_n\right| \leq \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{[n]_q} \prod_{i=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right) \\ + \frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2[n]_q[n]_q^m} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m \prod_{i=0}^{j-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right), \quad n \geq 2. \end{array} \right.$$

where $|Q_1(k)|$ is defined by (1.3).

Proof. Let us take

$$\frac{S_q^{m+1} f(z)}{S_q^m g(z)} = p(z), \tag{2.9}$$

where

$$p(z) \in k - \mathcal{P}[A,B] \text{ and } g(z) \in k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m,C,D).$$

Now from (2.9), we have

$$S_q^{m+1} f(z) = S_q^m g(z) p(z),$$

which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [n]_q^{m+1} a_n z^n &= \left(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n\right)\left(z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [n]_q^m b_n z^n\right), \\ z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [n]_q^{m+1} a_n z^n &= \left(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [n]_q^m b_n z^n\right), \\ z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [n]_q^{m+1} a_n z^n &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [n]_q^m b_n z^n + \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [n]_q^m b_n z^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n\right), \\ \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left\{[n]_q a_n - b_n\right\} [n]_q^m z^n &= \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [n]_q^m b_n z^n\right)\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n\right), \end{aligned} \tag{2.10}$$

By using Cauchy product formula on R.H.S of (2.10), we have

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left\{[n]_q a_n - b_n\right\} [n]_q^m z^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m b_j c_{n-j}\right] z^n. \tag{2.11}$$

Equating coefficients of z^n on both sides of (2.11), we have

$$\left\{[n]_q a_n - b_n\right\}[n]_q^m = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m b_j c_{n-j}, \quad , a_0 = 1,$$

$$[n]_q^{m+1} a_n = [n]_q^m b_n + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m b_j c_{n-j}.$$

This implies that

$$[n]_q^{m+1} |a_n| \leq [n]_q^m |b_n| + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m \left|b_j\right| \left|c_{n-j}\right|, \quad a_1 = 1. \tag{2.12}$$

Since $p(z) \in k - \mathcal{P}[A, B]$, therefore by using lemma 1.2 on (2.12), we have

$$[n]_q^{m+1} |a_n| \leq [n]_q^m |b_n| + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2} [j]_q^m \left|b_j\right|. \tag{2.13}$$

Again $g(z) \in k - \mathcal{ST}_q(m, C, D)$, therefore by using Theorem 2.3 on (2.13), we have

$$[n]_q^{m+1} |a_n| \leq \begin{cases} [n]_q^m \prod_{i=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right) \\ + \frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m \prod_{i=0}^{j-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right), \end{cases}$$

which implies that

$$|a_n| \leq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{[n]_q} \prod_{i=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right) \\ + \frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2[n]_q[n]_q^m} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m \prod_{i=0}^{j-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right). \end{cases}$$

□

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, we have the following known result, proved by Mahmood et al. (Mahmood *et al.*, 2017).

Corollary 2.13. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UK}(m, A, B, C, D)$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} \prod_{i=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2iD|}{2(i+1)} \right) \\ + \frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \prod_{i=0}^{j-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(C-D) - 2iD|}{2(i+1)} \right), \quad n \geq 2, \end{cases}$$

where $Q_1(k)$ is defined by (1.3).

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, $A = 1$, $B = -1$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, we have the following known result, proved by Noor et al. (Noor *et al.*, 2009).

Corollary 2.14. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UK}(0, 1, -1, 1, -1)$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{(|Q_1(k)|)_{n-1}}{n!} + \frac{|Q_1(k)|}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{(|Q_1(k)|)_{j-1}}{(j-1)!}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, $k = 0$, $A = 1$, $B = -1$, $C = 1$, $D = -1$, we have the following known result, proved by Kaplan (Kaplan, 1952).

Corollary 2.15. *If $f(z) \in 0 - \mathcal{UK}(0, 1, -1, 1, -1) = \mathcal{K}$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq n, \quad n \geq 2.$$

Theorem 2.8. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UQ}_q(m, A, B, C, D)$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{[n]_q^2} \prod_{i=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right) \\ +\frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2[n]_q^2[n]_q^m} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} [j]_q^m \prod_{i=0}^{j-2} \left(\frac{\left|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2q[i]_q[i+1]_q^m D\right|}{2q[i+1]_q[i+2]_q^m} \right), \end{cases}$$

where $|Q_1(k)|$ is defined by (1.3).

Proof. The proof follows immediately by using Theorem 2.7 and (1.7). □

When $q \to 1^-$, $m = 0$, we have the following known result, proved by Mahmood at al. (Mahmood *et al.*, 2017).

Corollary 2.16. *If $f(z) \in k - \mathcal{UK}(m, A, B, C, D)$ and is of the form (1.1). Then*

$$|a_n| \leq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n^2} \prod_{i=0}^{n-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2iD|}{2(i+1)} \right) \\ +\frac{|Q_1(k)|(A-B)}{2n^2} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \prod_{i=0}^{j-2} \left(\frac{|Q_1(k)(C-D)-2iD|}{2(i+1)} \right), \; n \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

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Domain Complexity in Corrective Maintenance Tasks' Complexity: An Empirical Study in a Micro Software Company

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Abstract

Corrective maintenance is very important in software engineering practice since it enables correction of problems identified in operational use of software applications. Therefore, modeling complexity of maintenance tasks is essential for estimation and planning activities in software organizations that spend majority of resources on maintenance tasks. The article presents a study aimed at developing a model for maintenance task complexity by considering specific parameters of domain complexity associated to each software application. The study was conducted in a micro software company. The model enables analysis of trends for maintenance task complexity and correlation between task complexity and time spent for completing tasks. Implication and benefits of the presented research for the selected software company, for managers in software industry and researchers are discussed. The article concludes with challenging research directions.

Keywords: Task complexity, Domain complexity, Mathematical model, Corrective maintenance.
2010 MSC: 68N30 Mathematical aspects of software engineering (specification, verification, metrics, requirements, etc.), 68Q25 Analysis of algorithms and problem complexity.

1. Introduction

Software maintenance relates to post delivery activities aimed at ensuring efficient use of software systems without significant changes in software design. Software maintenance includes planned activities, such as bug fixing or enhancing functionality, and unplanned activities, such as adapting a system to new business conditions (Tripathy & Naik, 2015). Maintenance activities involve tight cooperation of software engineers engaged in maintaining software systems and clients that use software systems, both of them with different views of software maintenance, which strongly emphasizes managerial issues as the biggest problem in software maintenance

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(April & Abran, 2008). Recognized technical and organizational complexity of maintenance activities resulted with high costs, which are usually between 50% and 90% of total costs in software life cycle (Grubb & Takang, 2003; Junio *et al.*, 2011; Pino *et al.*, 2012; Bourque & Fairley, 2014). Despite recognized complexity and high costs of software maintenance activities, it is much less investigated compared to software development (Banker & Slaughter, 1997; Jones, 2010). In addition, software maintenance activities are mainly short term tasks, in many cases completed on day-to-day basis in order to keep software operational (Tan & Mookerjee, 2005; Junio *et al.*, 2011). Software maintenance activities are more difficult and complex comparing to software development activities (Jones, 2010).

Software maintenance tasks are performed in order to sustain software systems useful and operable for users. Maintenance tasks are performed on already developed software, and in many cases require not only technical skills but also organizational skills related to estimation of costs and risks, and evaluation of necessary tasks to be performed. The complexity of software maintenance is reflected in existence of 23 types of work that might be performed on software systems, which are systematized by (Jones, 2010) in a book Software Engineering Best Practices. In many cases, intensive maintenance of software systems results with degradation of their structure and characteristics, making them more difficult to maintain (April & Abran, 2008).

Software maintenance tasks have been researched for over 40 years, which resulted with several classifications and typologies of maintenance types. The first and the most influential typology of maintenance types was proposed by (Swanson, 1976), in which corrective, adaptive and perfective maintenance can be distinguished. This typology was later used and interpreted in variety of ways by many researchers, resulting with several typologies and definitions of maintenance types. (Chapin *et al.*, 2001) proposed a refined classification of software evolution and maintenance types aligned to clusters related to software systems, suggesting that different software organization can use different types of software maintenance. In this refined typology with 12 types of software maintenance activities, corrective maintenance occurs in the cluster related to business rules. In standard ISO 14764:2006 Software Engineering - Software Life Cycle Processes - Maintenance(ISO, 2006), there are four maintenance categories: corrective, adaptive, perfective and preventive. Corrective maintenance is in ISO 14764:2006 defined as ”*the reactive modification of a software product performed after delivery to correct discovered problems*”. According to (April & Abran, 2008), corrective maintenance is reactive since it is performed after a problem or a failure is identified in a software, requiring work to solve the problem and bring the software into a usable state. In *Guide to the Software Engineering Body of Knowledge (SWEBOK)* (Bourque & Fairley, 2014) is stated that emergency maintenance is a special type of corrective maintenance aimed at mitigating identified problems without scheduling maintenance request in a classical maintenance process defined in software organizations. (Tripathy & Naik, 2015) distinguished intention-based classification of software maintenance activities which is aligned with ISO 14764:2006 (ISO, 2006), but also proposed activity-based classification with corrections and enhancements as the main types of activities. In addition, maintenance types usually overlap in industrial practice, and it is common case that adaptive and perfective work hide corrective work in software maintenance (Hatton, 2007). In any of proposed classification of maintenance types, corrective maintenance attracted significant attention since it intends to fix discovered problems and bring software to operational state for end users, and usually has priority over other types of work (April & Abran, 2009)

Task is a central concept in studying human behavior in various situations and includes a set of activities performed by humans in a given context in order to achieve proposed goals. Studying tasks is necessary part of organizational research lading towards improvement of practice. The main directions of researching task complexity relates to complexity of information processing, decision making and goal setting (Wood, 1986; Campbell, 1988), in which the complexity has been treated as a psychological experience, as an interaction between task and person characteristics, and as a function of tack properties. The most commonly used definition of task complexity defines a task as set of products, required acts and information ques (Wood, 1986). In organizational research of human performed tasks, objective task complexity depends only on task intrinsic characteristics, while subjective task complexity depends on task solver's experience and knowledge (Maynard & Hakel, 1997; Braarud, 2001; Parkes, 2017). Since software engineering has been considered as a complex discipline that includes technical, organizational and human factors, investigation of human performed tasks is essential for understanding and improving everyday practice (Dybå *et al.*, 2011; Capretz, 2014).

Complexity is very important issue to consider in software evolution and maintenance since it influences quality of software products and all activities in software life cycle (Keshavarz *et al.*, 2011). Complexity assessment assumes the use of carefully selected metrics for measuring trends and relations in historical data about software evolution and maintenance (Suh & Neamtiu, 2010). (Sun *et al.*, 2015) stated that selecting relevant information from maintenance repositories is essential for improving maintenance tasks. Complexity has been in software engineering mostly associated to structural complexity of software systems (Lilienthal, 2009; Lu *et al.*, 2016), but (Li & Delugach, 1997) suggested that traditional software complexity metrics cannot be effectively implemented for measuring complexity of application domains. In addition, (Shaft & Vessey, 1998) indicated the importance of domain knowledge (knowledge of the problem area) on program comprehension activities, which are essential in software maintenance practice. However, due to the evolving nature of domain knowledge (evolving nature of business), (Mendes-Moreira & Davies, 1993) suggested regular update of domain knowledge for efficient maintenance of software systems.

Based on the stated observations and the authors experience in researching software maintenance processes in small software companies the proposed objective of this study is to examine the influence of software domain complexity on corrective maintenance tasks. The empirical study was organized in a local micro company with majority of resources dedicated to maintenance activities. The rest of the article is structured as follows. The second section provides a literature review of studies dealing with corrective maintenance tasks. The third section presents the study conducted in a micro software company, followed with the sections in which limitations and validity, as well as implications of the presented research are discussed. The last section contains concluding remarks and outlines future research directions.

2. Related work

It has been recognized in software industry, and reported in empirical studies, that software maintenance tasks are complex and require skilled maintainers (Jones, 2010; Bourque & Fairley, 2014). The complexity of maintenance tasks is the consequence of the following facts (Podnar & Mikac, 2001): (1) they are implemented on complex software systems, (2), they involve people who have different roles in the maintenance process, and (3) they contain several feedback loops that ensure the flow of information between participants in the process. (Ko *et al.*, 2006) emphasized the importance of collecting and tracking information relevant for each specific maintenance task, while (Vasilev, 2012) pointed out the importance of information related to processes for reduction of costs and enterprise practice improvement. Proposed or required maintenance task is usually defined in a textual field, which contains maintenance request description that is essential for efficient performance of a maintenance task (Mockus & Votta, 2000). Understanding of maintenance requests' descriptions requires both technical knowledge specific for software systems and domain knowledge specific for the domain of software use. According to (Boehm & Basili, 2001) understanding of context dependent-factors (e.g. the level of data coupling and cohesion, data size and complexity) can positively contribute to corrective maintenance tasks

(Vans *et al.*, 1999) conducted a field study with four professional software maintainers engaged in maintaining large-scale software systems, aimed at investigating program understanding behavior in corrective maintenance tasks. During the study, the authors observed maintainers while they were solving corrective maintenance tasks. Data analysis revealed that maintainers work at three levels of abstractions: code, algorithm and application domain. In addition, maintainers regularly switch between these abstraction levels based on the current problem they solve. Maintainers need information about domain concepts and connect this information to software being maintained during corrective tasks.

(De Lucia *et al.*, 2005) presented an empirical study aimed at assessing and improving the effort estimation models for corrective maintenance in an international software enterprise. The study contained two phases. In the first phase was constructed a multiple linear regression models that were validated against real data from five corrective maintenance project. In the second phase the authors replicated the assessment of the constructed models from the first phase on a new corrective maintenance project. The results enable prediction of trends for corrective maintenance tasks, while early estimates of the average number of corrective tasks contribute to practice improvement in the selected company.

(Wang & Arisholm, 2009) investigated the difficulty level of maintenance tasks based on the number and complexity of classes that would be affected by the change. The study was based on two controlled experiments with 3rd to 5th year software engineering students without prior knowledge of the software being maintained. Results revealed that solving easier tasks (less complex) before harder (more complex) is more appropriate for inexperienced programmers, and that task order influence correctness of performed maintenance tasks.

(Li *et al.*, 2010) presented an empirical study aimed at analyzing around 1400 corrective maintenance activities associated to defect reports in two large software companies in Norway. The most important cost drivers for corrective maintenance tasks identified in the first company are: size of the system to be maintained, complexity of the system to be maintained and maintainers experience. In the second company the most important cost driver is domain knowledge. These results indicate that: (1) models resulted from empirical research studies should be customized for each company based on its specific characteristics, and (2) maintainers experience and domain knowledge significantly influence corrective task performance.

(Nguyen *et al.*, 2011) conducted a controlled experiment to assess the productivity and effort distribution of three different maintenance types: enhancive, corrective, and reductive. As the metrics were used three independent LOC (lines of code) metrics (added, modified, and deleted). Results revealed that: (1) the productivity of corrective maintenance is significantly lower than that of the other types of maintenance, and (2) task comprehension activity is the most complex task in maintenance. Based on these results it is evident that corrective maintenance tasks are more complex than other maintenance tasks, which requires highly skilled maintainers.

(Lee *et al.*, 2015) organized a qualitative study aimed at identifying factors that impact effort in corrective maintenance tasks. By using causal mapping methodology, the authors identified and ranked a set of 17 factors that contribute to corrective maintenance tasks implementation. Among all identified factors *High code complexity* (structural complexity) was ranked as the most critical with the weighted score of 0.8027, while *High version/deployment complexity* (management of multiple versions of software systems) was ranked at the 12th place with the weighted score of 0.6508. Regarding the influence of maintenance request description, the important identified factor is *Low clarity or availability of defect documentation*, which is ranked at the 10th place with weighted score of 0.6729. The identified factors suggest that complexity factors related to software structure and domain of problem should be taken into account in corrective maintenance tasks.

(Lenarduzzi *et al.*, 2018) presented an industrial case study aimed at prioritizing corrective maintenance tasks caused by crash reports and the exceptions for android applications for the period of four years. The applications were developed by an Italian public transportation company, while crash reports were collected directly from the Google Play Store. The study results indicate that six exceptions caused over 70% corrective tasks, and that most of the exceptions were generated by bad development practices. Results are useful for the selected company for improving its corrective maintenance efforts.

To summarize, there has been a large number of empirical studies addressing corrective maintenance tasks. Some studies were organized at universities (Wang & Arisholm, 2009; Nguyen *et al.*, 2011), while some of them were organized in industrial settings (De Lucia *et al.*, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2010; Lee *et al.*, 2015; Lenarduzzi *et al.*, 2018). Although these studies address different aspects of corrective maintenance in different settings, there is significant space for researching this important segment of industrial practice. Our study differs from the outlined studies because it deals with the subjective assessment of domain complexity influence on corrective maintenance tasks, which has not been addressed in previous research.

3. Case study

The study was conducted in an indigenous software company, which can be classified as a micro enterprise according to European Commission for Enterprise and industry publications (Commission, 2015). The company has 7 employees: 3 senior programmers, 3 junior programmers and 1 administrative worker. The company develops business software applications for local clients in Serbia. Totally 48 software applications are used by over 100 client companies in Serbia.

Data analysis is based on historical data extracted from the company internal repository of tasks, which is common practice in empirical software engineering studies aimed at investigating

Table 1. Distribution of software maintenance tasks according to the typology proposed in (Stojanov *et al.*, 2017)

Maintenance task type	Number of tasks	Share [%]
Adaptation	22	1.08
Correction	489	24.02
Enhancement	1050	51.57
Preventive	8	0.39
Support	467	22.94
TOTAL	**2036**	**100.00**

what happens in everyday practice (Dit *et al.*, 2013; Stojanov *et al.*, 2013*b*). The study is a continuation of the research on maintenance trends in the selected company (Stojanov *et al.*, 2013*a*), but with the improved typology of software maintenance tasks introduced in (Stojanov *et al.*, 2017). The data set consists of totally 2293 tasks solved in 2013 and 2014 years, where 2036 tasks were categorized as maintenance tasks (88.79% of all tasks). The classification of software maintenance tasks according to the typology presented in (Stojanov *et al.*, 2017) is presented in table 1.

Maintenance tasks are created in order to solve maintenance requests (MR) submitted by software users. Submission of a MR assumes that a user should provide a textual description of a request and indicate a software application to which a MR relates to. Each request is assigned to one of the programmers who is responsible for maintaining a target software application. Maintenance task record contains the fields that enable tracking of all relevant data for processing associated MR and calculating costs of implemented work.

Corrective maintenance tasks account for almost one quarter of all maintenance tasks (24.02%), and since these tasks relates to direct solving of client problems with software, they deserve attention to be analyzed. The aim of the study is to analyze the influence of domain complexity on corrective maintenance tasks complexity, where domain complexity reflects the complexity of a business domain in which software is used.

3.1. Maintenance tasks

Maintenance tasks were recorded in a local repository of tasks in the company. For each task, the following parameters recorded in the repository are interesting for the data analysis:

- *Worker ID*. The identification number of a programmer engaged in solving a task.
- *Application*. The name of the application to which a maintenance task relates to.
- *Maintenance request description*. The description of a maintenance request to which the task is associated to.
- *Working Hours Company [WHC]*. Working hours spend in the company on solving the task.

Table 2. Distribution of corrective maintenance tasks on software applications

Software application	Number of tasks	Share [%]
Application 1	89	18.20
Application 2	48	9.82
Application 3	97	19.84
Application 4	28	5.73
Application 5	97	19.84
Other 29 applications	130	26.58
TOTAL	**489**	**100.00**

- *Working Hours Internet [WHI]*. Working hours spend at Internet on solving the task. Programmer works in the company and uses Internet to access software application at client side.
- *Working Hours Client Side [WHCS]*. Working hours spend at the client side (in the client's organization) on solving the task.
- *Working Hours TOTAL [WHT]* Total number of working hours spent on solving the task

Total number of working hours is the cum of three types of working hours, which is expressed in the following way

$$WHT = WHC + WHI + WHCS. \tag{3.1}$$

The values for WHC, WHI, and WHCS enters a programmer assigned to the task after completing it. The value for WHT is calculated and stored in the repository.

3.2. Corrective maintenance trends in the company

Corrective maintenance tasks were performed on 34 software applications. The data about corrective maintenance tasks were extracted from the local repository for tracking all tasks in the company. Each maintenance task is associated to a maintenance request (MR) received from a user, and assigned to a programmer in the company.

Initial data analysis based on descriptive statistical methods revealed that only 5 software applications have more than 5% of the total number of tasks. Other 29 software applications together consume 26.58% of all tasks, which is approximately less than 1% per software application, which can be treated as insignificant for further statistical data analysis. Based on this fact, further data analysis is focused on the selected 5 software applications. Distribution of corrective maintenance tasks for all software applications is presented in table 2.

For the selected five software applications, average number of working hours spent on corrective tasks is presented in table 3.

Average values of working hours spent on corrective maintenance tasks presented in table 3 revealed the following interesting trends: (1) Average time spent on tasks is usually between 1 and 1.5 hours, (2) tasks associated to applications 2 and 3 last longer than tasks for applications 1,4

Table 3. Average number of working hours for 5 selected software applications

Software application	Average WHC	Average WHI	Average WHCS	Average WHT
Application 1	0.26	0.49	0.45	1.21
Application 2	0.48	0.58	0.35	1.42
Application 3	0.41	0.45	0.66	1.53
Application 4	0.25	0.52	0.54	1.30
Application 5	0.14	0.61	0.49	1.25

Table 4. Scale for subjective rating of domain complexity

Level	Abbreviation	Value
Very Low	VL	1
Low 2	L	2
Medium	M	3
High	H	4
Very High	VH	5

and 5, and (3) programmers usually access clients information system via Internet (WHI) or work at client side (WHCS) since the average values for WHC are the lowest for all applications.

3.3. Domain complexity model

Software is used to solve problems in specific domains of business or living, which influences all requirements and activities related to software. Maintenance activities are triggered by maintenance requests submitted by software users, who describe requests by using unstructured text with domain terminology. These requests should be understandable for programmers who are engaged to solve reported problems by correcting identified faults. Therefore, it is important to describe domain complexity, and develop a model that can be used for modeling complexity of corrective maintenance tasks. Domain complexity reflects intellectual effort required for understanding a domain of software use, and how the domain influences complexity of maintenance tasks performed on that software.

In this study, domain complexity for all software applications was rated by the company manager by using predefined scale with the values presented in table 4.

Since the majority of time and effort in maintenance consume activities related to comprehension of a maintenance request and software to be modified (Von Mayrhauser & Vans, 1995; O'Brien *et al.*, 2004), complexity in this study relates to understanding a maintenance task for the given domain of a software application based on the description available in the maintenance request. For that purpose, a set of subjective measures (parameters) for domain complexity for all software applications is defined:

- *Terminology Complexity (TC)*. Complexity of terminology used for defining and describing entities, relations and processes in a domain.

Table 5. Subjective ratings of domain complexity for selected software applications

Software application	TC	RC	BPC	HFC
Application 1	4	5	5	5
Application 2	4	5	4	4
Application 3	5	5	4	5
Application 4	4	3	3	3
Application 5	5	5	4	5

- *Relations complexity (RC)*. Complexity of relations between entities and processes in a domain.
- *Business processes complexity (BPC)*. Complexity of business processes in a domain (process flow, sub-processes, constraints, inputs and outputs).
- *Human Factor Complexity (HFC)*. Complexity of humans who perform business processes in a domain, including the number and roles of people engaged in business processes.

The model of domain complexity assumes subjective rating of each specific parameter of domain complexity obtained from the company manager (the most experienced programmer). Subjective ratings of domain complexity TC, RC, BPC and HFC for selected 5 software applications are presented in table 5.

3.4. Task complexity model

Task is the basic unit of work in software maintenance in the company, aimed at solving a maintenance request. Each task is performed by one programmer, and always is associated to a specific software application. The task is defined with the description of a maintenance request, which is in the form of unstructured text submitted by a user. The description is implemented as a text field in each task record stored in a local repository of tasks. For each task description complexity measures are defined as a subjective ratings of TC, RC, BPC and HFC parameters expressed with values from the table 4. These values present subjective ratings of a task complexity provided by a programmer engaged in solving the task. Maintenance task complexity is expressed as

$$TaskCompl = TC * mtTC + RC * mtRC + BPC * mtBPC + HFC * mtHFC, \tag{3.2}$$

where coefficients TC, RC, BPC and HFC presents specific domain complexities for the selected application, while mtTC, mtRC, mtBPC and mtHFC presents specific complexities for a selected maintenance task.

For each of the five selected applications, overall maintenance task complexity is calculated for all maintenance tasks by using formula 3.2.

For the extracted data and defined subjective specific domain complexity measures for all software applications, the arithmetic mean (MEAN), standard deviation (STDEV) and coefficient

Table 6. Measures of spread for corrective maintenance task complexity affected by domain complexity parameters for selected software applications

Software application	MEAN	STDEV	CV [%]
Application 1	50.79	11.00	21.66
Application 2	40.63	8.46	20.82
Application 3	39.43	10.63	26.95
Application 4	31.50	6.96	22.10
Application 5	29.99	6.47	21.56

Table 7. Correlation coefficients between calculated corrective maintenance task complexity and working hours spent on solving task

	WHC	WHI	WHCS	WHT
Task complexity of Application 1	0.10	0.19	0.05	0.35
Task complexity of Application 2	0.74	0.18	0.02	0.85
Task complexity of Application 3	0.61	0.17	0.48	0.81
Task complexity of Application 4	-0.08	-0.06	0.63	0.71
Task complexity of Application 5	0.05	-0.13	0.59	0.61

of variance (CV) for all tasks are calculated (Buglear, 2001). Calculated values are presented in table 6.

Data presented in table 6 revealed that Application 1 has the highest complexity of maintenance tasks (50.79 in average), followed with Application 2 with maintenance task complexity of 40.63 in average, while the simplest tasks are tasks related to Application 5 (29.99 in average). Tasks are almost twice as complex for Application 1 than for Application 5.

Variance coefficient analysis for selected applications revealed that the spread of task complexity for each application is acceptable (between 20.82 for Application 2 and 26.95 for application 3), which indicates small variances of task complexity. This enables more reliable predictions of task complexity for further maintenance activities. Based on data presented in table 6, the most reliable prediction of maintenance task complexity can be given for Application 2, while the most unreliable predictions of maintenance task complexity are for Application 3.

3.5. The task complexity and working hours correlation

Table 7 presents correlation coefficients between corrective maintenance tasks complexity and working hours spent on solving tasks. Correlation coefficients are calculated between task complexity and each type of working hours: in the company (WHC), at Internet (WHI), in the client company (WHCS) and total working hours WHT calculated by using formula 3.1.

Data presented in table 7 revealed that the correlation between task complexity and total working hours (WHT) vary from 0.35 for the Application 1 to 0.85 for the Application 2. Calculated values indicate strong correlations for Application 2, Application 3 and Application 4, which means that based on subjective evaluation of task complexity provided by a programmer, reliable assessment of total working hours can be given. For Application 1 (r=0.35) and Application 5 (r=0.61) it is not possible to reliably estimate working hours.

Although estimates of total working hours based on task complexity are reliable for Application 2, Application 3 and Application 4, correlation between task complexity and specific types of working hours (WHC, WHI and WHCS) are weak, which means that it is not possible to estimate these specific working hours. The only exception is correlation between task complexity and WHC for the Application 2 with value of 0.74, which means that only working hours in the company can be estimated for the Application 2.

4. Limitations and validity

Despite the clear and useful results obtained through empirical data analysis, this study certainly has some limitations that influence the results and conclusions. The first limitation is quite simple mathematical model for calculating task complexity. The model resulted with results that enable reliable estimates in some segments of maintenance practice, but it will be incrementally improved in order to increase reliability of decisions based on obtained results.

The next limitation relates to initial examination and proper preprocessing of data that deviate from typical values in empirical data set (outliers) (Chatfield, 1985; Cousineau & Chartier, 2010). Data analysis with appropriate treatments of outliers could provide more reliable results and estimates, which will be used for assessment and improvement of task complexity models, and finally better planning and decision making in the company. This limitation will be addressed in further research, and results will be compared with results obtained in this study.

Internal and external validity are commonly used for judging quality and reliability of empirical studies in software engineering (Kitchenham *et al.*, 2002; Shull *et al.*, 2008). Internal validity relates to selection and definition of used parameters (variables) and proper use of selected data analysis methods that leads to reliable results. The main threat to internal validity relates to data set used for modeling domain complexity of maintenance tasks, which is collection of subjective measures provided by programmers for each maintenance tasks. The improvement of the presented model will include more objective measures based on data extracted directly from maintenance request descriptions and data related to technical details of maintained software applications (e.g. number of lines and modules affected by maintenance request). This improvement of task complexity model requires more accurate data in the company repository of tasks, and will be addressed in future research after improving recording of maintenance tasks in the company.

(Briand *et al.*, 2017) discussed context-driven aspect of empirical research in software engineering and suggested that there is no need to force external validity issue related to generalizability of study results. However, generalizability can be viewed from the aspect of used research methods that may produce specific, but different, findings in other settings. Therefore, it is possible to use the presented methods for analyzing complexity of tasks in other software (or engineering) organizations and get context-specific results that can be of benefit for these organizations.

5. Implications and benefits

Despite limitations stated in the previous section, this research has significant benefits and implications for practice and research in the field of software engineering. Study design and results can be of benefits to the selected company, software industry in general, and software engineering research community.

The benefits for the selected company are: (1) The presented model of task complexity enables calculation of complexity for corrective maintenance tasks by considering subjective evaluation of maintainers that solve these tasks, which further enables identification of trends for task complexity for each software application, (2) Based on the calculated task complexity, the company staff can estimate required time for solving maintenance tasks based on the interpretation of the correlation between task complexity and spent working hours, and (3) Based on calculated task complexity and estimated time for solving the task, the company management can design more reliable and effective organization of maintenance activities in the company (e.g. scheduling of maintenance tasks among programmers in order to accelerate processing of maintenance requests).

Managers and experts from software industry can find useful directions how to collect and use field data in their organizations for developing models for task complexity by considering some specific characteristics of the practice in their organizations. In addition, they can find some directions for correlating task complexity with elements of planning in their organizations

Researchers can find lessons how to organize an empirical study aimed at assessing complexity of tasks in real industrial settings by considering subjective evaluations of specific parameters that affects specific types of tasks. Presented study shows how to identify attributes that influence task complexity, how to define a scale for evaluating specific attributes of task complexity, and how to identify the correlation between the complexity of tasks and organizational parameters that are essential for planning activities in a selected organization.

6. Concluding remarks

As the task complexity is significant factor that affects software maintenance, presented study contributes to software maintenance practice and research. The study presents the model for calculating the complexity of corrective maintenance tasks, which is based on subjective evaluations of domain specific factors provided by programmers engaged in handling maintenance tasks. The model enables calculation of corrective maintenance task complexity, which can be further used for estimating the time needed to solve the tasks. The results can be useful for planning in everyday maintenance practice in the selected software company, but the study design can be implemented in other software companies by considering their specificity.

Several further work directions can be distinguished. The first direction relates to including other factors that influence software maintenance tasks in the analysis of task complexity. These factors might be characteristics of human factor involved in maintenance tasks (experience, knowledge of specific software technologies, domain knowledge, communication skills) and objective (quantitative) attributes of software applications such as structural complexity of maintained software systems. The second direction relates to developing more accurate model for task complexity by including preliminary analysis of empirical data and excluding from the analysis all data that significantly variate from a typical set of values. The third direction relates to implementation of the proposed model on other types of maintenance tasks in the selected company (enhancement and support tasks) which will enable more reliable planning and scheduling of all maintenance activities. And finally, adaptation of the presented model to other software organizations by considering their specificity is also challenging research direction that will provide further evaluation of the model usefulness.

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Maximal Centroidal Vortices in Triangulations. A Descriptive Proximity Framework in Analyzing Object Shapes

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Abstract

This paper introduces a framework for approximating visual scene object shapes captured in sequences of video frames. To do this, we consider the hyper-connectedness of image object shapes by extending the Smirnov proximity measure to more than two sets. In this context, a *shape* is a finite, bounded planar region with a nonempty interior. The framework for this work is encapsulated in descriptive frame recurrence diagrams, introduced here. These diagrams offer a new approach in tracking the appearance and eventual disappearance of shapes in studying the persistence of object shapes in visual scenes. This framework is ideally suited for a machine intelligence approach to tracking the lifespans of visual scene structures captured in sequences of images in videos. A practical application of this framework is given in terms of the analysis of vehicular traffic patterns.

Keywords: Hyper-connectedness, Object shape, Proximity, Recurrence, Vortices
2010 MSC No: Primary 54E05 (Proximity), Secondary 68U05 (Computational Geometry).

1. Introduction

A grasp of the persistence and wearout patterns of object shapes in visual scenes is important from a machine intelligence perspective, especially in terms of the increasing need for analytic methods to cope with the high volume of object shape data obtained by video capture devices that monitor our environment. This paper introduces a framework for approximating visual scene surface shapes captured in single digital images and in sequences of video frames. To do this,

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we consider the hyper-connectedness of image objects by extending the Smirnov proximity measure (Smirnov, 1964, §1, pp. 8-10) to more than two sets. It is the topology of cellular complexes introduced by P. Alexandroff (Alexandroff, 1965; Alexandroff & Hopf, 1935; Alexandroff, 1928, 1926), (extended and elaborated by G.E. Cooke and R.L. Finney (Cooke & Finney, 1967)), K. Borsuk (Borsuk, 1948, 1975; Borsuk & Dydak, 1980), a recent formulation of this topology by H. Edelsbrunner and J.L. Harer (Edelsbrunner & Harer, 2010) and the work on persistence homology by E. Munch (Munch, 2013) that provide a solid basis for this study of the object shapes and structures in visual scenes.

2. Preliminaries

A nonempty set K, such that each element in K is contained in a disjoint open set is termed a *Hausdorff space*. Every subset in the partion of K is a *cell*. The *boundary* of a cell A is denoted by $bdy\,A$, and its *closure* by $cl\,A$. The *interior* of a cell is defined as $int\,A = cl\,A - bdy\,A$. A *complex* σ is a collection of subsets in K. σ^n denotes a complex with n cells in K. The closure of a complex is its image under a continuous homomorphic map $f : \sigma^n \to \mathrm{cl}\,\sigma^n$. An *n-skeleton* K^n is the union of all $\sigma^j \in K$ such that $j \leq n$. A CW space is Hausdorff and satisfies the following two conditions:

1^o The closure of each cell $cl\,A\ s.t.\,A \in K$, intersects only a finite number of other cells (**Finite Closure**).

2^o A cell $A \in K$ is closed, provided $A \cap cl\,\sigma^n \neq \emptyset$ is also closed (**Weak Topology**).

Next, consider the structures inherent in a triangulated digital image. In a triangulation of a finite, bounded, planar region K, a collection of triangles A with a common vertex is called a *nerve* (denoted by Nrv$A$). The nerve with the highest number of triangles is called a *maximal nuclear cluster*(MNC). The intersection of an MNC is called the *nucleus*. Each of the triangles in an MNC is called a *1-spoke* (denoted by sk_1). The notion of a 1-spoke can be extended to a *k-spoke*,sk_k, using a recursive definition. All the sets that are not a sk_{k-1}, but have a nonempty intersection with a sk_{k-1} are a sk_k. The nucleus is a 0-spoke (denoted by sk_0). The union of all the $sk_k \in K$ forms a *k-spoke complex* denoted by $skcx_k$.

Nerve spokes lead to two new structures that are useful. A *maximal k-cycle* is a simple closed path connecting the centroids of all the $sk_k \in K$. A closed path has the same start and end points. A simple path has no self-intersections. As a triangualtion can have multiple MNCs, each one has its own maximal k-cycles. Let $mcyc_k(d)$ denote a maximal k-cycle associated with the MNC $d \in K$. A *maximal k-vortex* is the union of all the maximal j-cycles for an MNC $d \in K$,$mcyc_j(d)$, such that $j \leq k$. Let $mvort_k(d)$ be the maximal k-vortex for the MNC $d \in K$.

In a CW topology on a triangulated finite bounded region, two topological spaces are homotopic, provided they can be transformed into one another by means of continuous functions (no tearing and gluing incolved). A classical example is the transformation of a coffee cup to a doughnut and vice versa. An important result linking *nerves* with *homotopy* is the Edelsbrunner-Harer nerve theorem.

Theorem 1. *(Edelsbrunner & Harer, 2010, p. 59). A finite collection of closed, convex sets in Euclidean space, then nerve of the collection is homotopy equivalent to the union of sets in the nerve*

The notion of proximity can be extended from a relation on two as defined previously (Naimpally & Warrack, 1970)(Peters, 2013), to a binary valued function on $n > 2$ sets. This extended notion is termed **hyper-connectedness**. Suppose $A, B \in X$, then $A\delta B$, $A \overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta} B$, $A\delta_\Phi B$ represent that A, B are spatial Lodato(δ), strongly($\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}$) and as descriptively near ($A\delta_\Phi B$), respectively. Similarly, $A \not\delta B$, $A \overset{\wedge\wedge}{\not\delta} B$, $A\not\delta_\Phi B$ represent that the sets are spatial Lodato, strongly and descriptivly far respectivley. Proximity can also be quantified using the Smirnov proximity measure, defined as $\delta(A, B) = 0$, if the sets A and B are close and $\delta(A, B) = 1$ if the sets A and B are far from each other.

Recall the notation for hyper-connectedness in (Ahmad & Peters, 2017), by extending the Smirnov proximity measure to more than two sets. Suppose $X_1, \cdots, X_n \in X$, then $\delta^n(X_1, \cdots, X_n) = 0$ if they are near and $\delta^n(X_1, \cdots, X_n) = 1$ if they are far. The corresponding hyper-connectedness notions for the proximity relations discussed above are spatial Lodato δ^n, strong $\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}{}^n$, and descripticve δ^n_Φ hyper-connectedness. The superscript n represents the number of sets regarding which the notion of proximity is being formulated. For the strong hyper-connectedness $\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}{}^k$, the super-script $\wedge\wedge$ signifies intersection of the interiors required to satisfy this particular relation.

Let $\{A\}_i, B, C \in X$, where $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ is an index set. We define the hyper-connectedness as a function on set X. Moreover, if F is a set then $S(F)$ is the set of all the n-permutations of the elements in F, where $n = |F|$. As an example suppose $F = \{a, b, c\}$, then $S(F) = \{\{a, b, c\}, \{a, c, b\}, \{b, a, c\}, \{b, c, a\}, \{c, a, b\}, \{c, b, a\}\}$. Different types of hyper-connectedness require conformity to varying axioms. The spatial Lodato hyper-connectedness(δ^k) on k sets, requires the following axioms:

(hP1) $\forall A_k \subset X, \delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 1,\ if\ any\ A_1, \cdots, A_k = \emptyset.$

(hP2) $\delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \delta^k(Y) = 0,\ \forall Y \in S(\{A_1, \cdots, A_k\}).$

(hP3) $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} A_i \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0.$

(hP4) $\delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, B \cup C) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, B) = 0\ or\ \delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, C) = 0.$

(hP5) $\delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, B) = 0\ and\ \forall b \in B,\ \delta^2(\{b\}, C) = 0 \Rightarrow \delta^k(A_1, \cdots, A_{n-1}, C) = 0.$

(hP6) $\forall A \subset X,\ \delta^1(A) = 0$, a constant map.

Next, the definition of strong hyper-connectedness($\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}{}^k$) on k sets, requires the following axioms:

(snhN1) $\forall A_k \subset X, \overset{\wedge\wedge}{\not\delta}{}^k(A_i, \cdots, A_k) = 1\ if\ any\ A_1, \cdots, A_k = \emptyset\ and\ \overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}{}^k(X, A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}) = 0, \forall A_i \subset X.$

(snhN2) $\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}{}^k(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta}{}^k(Y) = 0,\ \forall Y \in S(\{A_1, \cdots, A_k\}).$

(snhN3) $\overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^k(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0 \Rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^{k} A_i \neq \emptyset$.

(snhN4) If $\{B_i\}_{i\in I}$ is an arbitrary family of subsets of X and $\overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^k(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, B_{i^*}) = 0$ for some $i^* \in I$ such that $int(B_{i*}) \neq \emptyset$, then $\overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^n(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, (\bigcup_{i\in I} B_i)) = 0$.

(snhN5) $\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} intA_i \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^k(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0$.

(snhN6) $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{k-1} int(A_i) \Rightarrow \overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^k(x, A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}) = 0$.

(snhN7) $\overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^k(\{x_1\}, \cdots, \{x_k\}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$.

(snhN8) $\forall A \in X, \overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^1(A) = 0$ is a constant map.

Let us define the notion of a descriptive intersection, $A \underset{\Phi}{\cap} B = \{x \in A \cup B : \phi(x) \in \phi(A)\, and\, \phi(x) \in \phi(B)\}$. Here $\phi : K \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is a probe function whic can be seen as a feature extractor. Using these notions, the descriptive hyper-connectedness(δ^k_Φ) on k sets, has the underlying axioms:

(dhP1) $\forall A_i \subset X$, $\delta^k_\Phi(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 1$ if any of the $A_1, \cdots, A_k = \emptyset$.

(dhP2) $\delta^k_\Phi(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \delta^k_\Phi(Y) = 0\, \forall Y \in S(\{A_1, \cdots, A_k\})$.

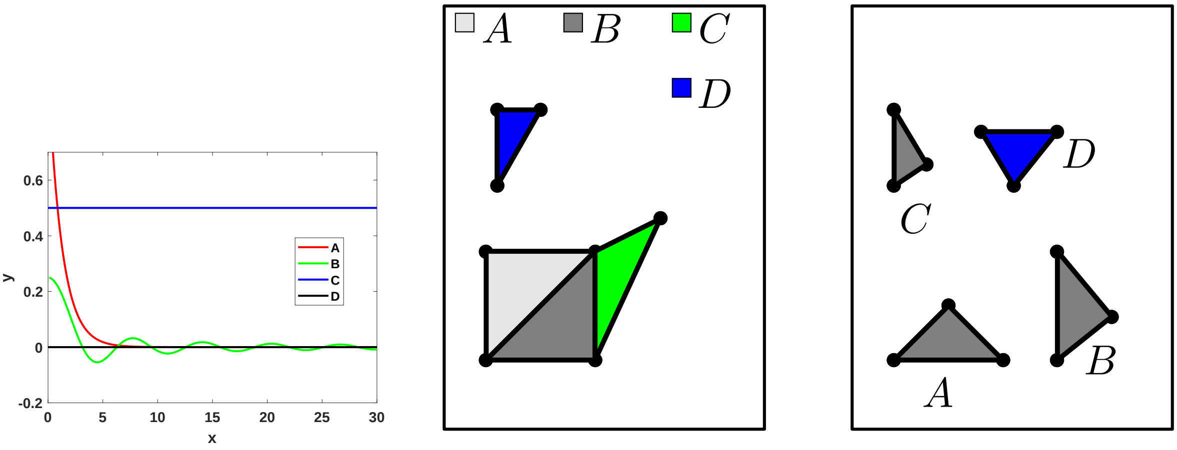
(dhP3) $\underset{\Phi}{\bigcap} A_i \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \delta^k_\Phi(A_1, \cdots, A_k) = 0$.

(dhP4) $\delta^k_\Phi(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, B) = 0\, and\, \forall b \in B,\ \delta^2_\Phi(\{b\}, C) = 0 \Rightarrow \delta^k_\Phi(A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}, C) = 0$.

(dhP5) $\forall A \subset X, \delta^1_\Phi(A) = 0$ a constant map.

The distinctions between different notions of hyper-connectedness are important. The spatial Lodato(δ^k) version allows k sets to be near, provided the sets overlap or asymptotically approach each other. Strong hyper-connectedness($\overset{\wedge\!\!\wedge}{\delta}^k$) requires that the sets have non-empty intersection. The descriptive(δ^k_Φ) version allows for the sets to be near, provided the sets contain elements with matching descriptions under the probe functionϕ, regardless of their spatial proximity.

Example 1. *We begin with the notion of Lodato hyper-connectedness(δ^k). The most important thing to note here is that although sharing points implies δ^k, it is not necessary. In addition, asymptotic equality can also qualify sets for Lodato hyper-connectedness. Consider, for example, Fig. 1.1, where A, B, C, D are sets defined by $e^{-0.8x}$, $\frac{\sin x}{4x}$, 0.5, and 0. It must be noted that A approaches D asypmtotically, but B and D intersect at many points. Moreover, B does not share any elements with C, but, A and C intersect. Thus, we can write $\delta^2(A, C) = 0$, $\delta^3(A, B, C) = 0$ and $\delta^4(A, B, C, D) = 1$.*



1.1: Lodato hyperconnectedness 1.2: Strong hyperconnectedness 1.3: Descriptive hyperconnectedness

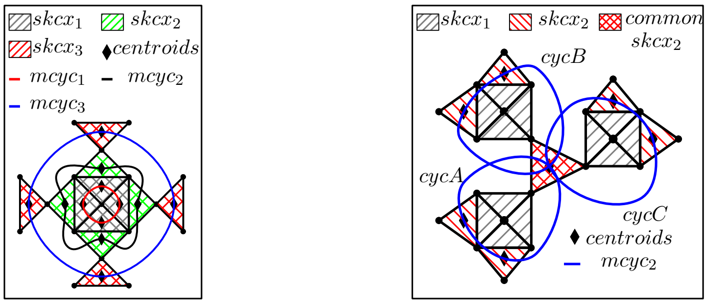
Figure 1: This figure illustrates the different variants of hyperconnectedness. Fig. 1.1 depicts Lodato hyperconnectedness δ^k. Fig.1.2 illustrates the strong hyperconnectedness $\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta^k}$. Fig. 1.3 shows descriptive hyperconnectedness δ^k_Φ.

The sets in Fig. 1.2 illustrate the notion of strong hyper-connectedness($\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta^k}$*). Observe that* A, B, C *share a common vertex while* D *is disjoint from the remaining sets. We can hence conclude that* $\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta^3}(A, B, C) = 0$ *and* $\overset{\wedge\wedge}{\delta^4}(A, B, C, D) = 1$. *The sets in Fig. 1.3 illustrate descriptive hyper-connectedness. We can see that the filled triangles in Fig. 1.3 are spatially disjoint. Triangles* A, B, C *are coloured gray, while* D *is blue. This means that* $\delta^3_\Phi(A, B, C) = 0$ *and* $\delta^4(A, B, C, D) = 1$.
■

Next, consider hyper-connectedness relationships in terms of spoke complexes and maximal centroidal cycles.

Example 2. *Let us first illustrate the idea of spoke complexes(*$skcx_k$*) and the associated maximal centroidal cycles(*$mcyc_k$*), using Fig. 2.1. The notion of maximal nuclear cluster(MNC) is identical to the concept of* $skcx_1$ *as defined in this section. The common intersection of the triangles in* $skcx_1$ *is the nucleus. It is shown as the four triangles shaded gray. The* $skcx_2$ *are represented as green, and have a non-empty intersection with the* $skcx_1$ *but not with the nucleus. Similarly, the* $skcx_3$ *are the red triangles that have a non-empty intersection with* $skcx_2$ *and an empty interesection with* $skcx_1$*. It can be seen that the closed simple path constructed by connecting the centroids of the triangles in a spoke complex is the corresponding maximal centroidal cycle. We can see that* $mcyc_1$ *is shown in red,* $mcyc_2$ *in black and* $mcyc_3$ *is in blue.*

Next, consider proximity and hyper-connectedness of maximal centroidal cycles associated with multiple MNCs in a triangulation. For this consider the illustration in Fig. 2.2. In this figure we have threee different MNCs with three disjoint $skcx_1$ *represented by gray triangles. The red triangles(with slanted lines) are the* $skcx_2$*, but in this case the three MNCs share a triangle which is represented as a red triangle with a crosshatch pattern. We only consider the* $mcyc_2$ *for each of the three different MNCs* A, B, C*, represented as cycA,cycB and cycC.*



2.1: Maximal Centroidal Cycles 2.2: Hyper-connectedness of *mcyc*

Figure 2: This figure illustrates the concept of maximal centroidal vortex. Fig. 2.1 displays the different maximal centroidal k-cycles, $mcyc_k$ in relation to the corresponding spoke complexes, $skcx_k$. Fig. 2.2 illustrates the notion of hyper-connectedness of *mcyc* for different MNCs.

From the proximity relations we have introduced, we can make a number observations. Observe that $skcx_2A,\ \delta\, skcx_2B$, $skcx_2A\,\delta\, skcx_2C$, $skcx_2B\,\delta\, skcx_2C$ *and* $\delta^3(skcx_2A, skcx_2B, skcx_2C)$. *Similarly, we can say* $mcyc_2A\,\delta\, mcyc_2B$, $mcyc_2A\,\delta\, mcyc_2C$, $mcyc_2B\,\delta\, mcyc_2C$ *and* $\delta^3(mcyc_2 A, mcyc_2B, mcyc_2C)$. *As we have seen that the spoke complexes and the cycles share a triangle and centroid respectively, it can be concluded that they share the same description. This leads to* $skcx_2A\,\delta_\Phi\, skcx_2B$, $skcx_2A\,\delta_\Phi\, skcx_2C$, $skcx_2B\,\delta_\Phi\, skcx_2C$, $\delta^3_\Phi(skcx_2A, skcx_2B, skcx_2C)$, $mcyc_2A\,\delta_\Phi\, mcyc_2B$, $mcyc_2A\,\delta_\Phi\, mcyc_2C$, $mcyc_2B\delta_\Phi\, mcyc_2C$ *and* $\delta^3_\Phi(mcyc_2A, mcyc_2B, mcyc_2C)$. ■

3. Main Theoretical Results

Proximity and topology are two ways of talking about how a space is constructed from its subspaces. In this section, we introduce some proximity-related results regarding spoke complexes. Consider first a result for spatial Lodato hyper-connectedness(δ^n) on spoke complexes.

Theorem 2. *Let K a cell complex equipped with a Lodato hyper-connectedness relation. Let* $skcx_{k-1}, skcx_k, skcx_{k+1} \in K$ *be spoke complexes in K. Then*
1^o $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k+1} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \delta^2(skcx_k, skcx_{k+1}) = 0.$
2^o $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k-1} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \delta^2(skcx_k, skcx_{k-1}) = 0.$

Proof.

1^o It can be established that $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k+1} \neq \phi$ by definition of a spoke complex. Which implies $\delta^2(skcx_k, skcx_{k+1}) = 0$ as per axiom (**hP3**).
2^o It can be establised that $skcx_{k-1} \cap skcx_k \neq \phi$ by the definition of a spoke complex. Which implies $\delta^2(skcx_{k-1}, skcx_k) = 0$ as per axiom (**hP3**)

□

Next, consider a result pertaining to the descriptive Lodato hyper-connectedness(δ^n_Φ).

Theorem 3. *Let K a cell complex equipped with a descriptive hyper-connectedness relation. Let* $skcx_{k-1}, skcx_k, skcx_{k+1} \in K$ *be spoke complexes in K. Then*

1^o $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k+1} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \delta^2_\Phi(skcx_k, skcx_{k+1}) = 0$.
2^o $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k-1} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \delta^2_\Phi(skcx_k, skcx_{k-1}) = 0$.

Proof. 1^o It can be established that $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k+1} \neq \emptyset$ by definition of a spoke complex. Suppose $x \in skcx_k \cap skcx_{k+1}$, then $x \in skcx_k \cup skcx_{k+1}$ and $x \in \phi(skcx_k)$, $x \in \phi(skcx_{k+1})$. Hence, $skcx_k \underset{\Phi}{\bigcap} skcx_{k+1}$. From axiom (**hdP3**), this implies $\delta^2_\Phi(skcx_k, skcx_{k+1}) = 0$.

2^o It can be established that $skcx_k \cap skcx_{k-1} \neq \emptyset$ by definition of a spoke complex. Suppose $x \in skcx_k \cap skcx_{k-1}$, then $x \in skcx_k \cup skcx_{k-1}$ and $x \in \phi(skcx_k)$, $x \in \phi(skcx_{k-1})$. Hence, $skcx_k \underset{\Phi}{\bigcap} skcx_{k-1}$. From axiom (**hdP3**), this implies $\delta^2_\Phi(skcx_k, skcx_{k-1}) = 0$.

□

Theorems 2 and 3 give results for spatial($\delta^k = 0$) and descriptive($\delta^k_\Phi = 0$) hyper-connectedness, respectively. Consider next results for sub-complexes that are far either spatially($\delta^k = 1$) or descriptively($\delta^k_\Phi = 1$).

Theorem 4. *Let $(K, \{\delta^n, \delta^n_\Phi\})$ be a relator space equipped with two hyper-connectedness relations and let $skcx_j, skcx_k \in K$ be spoke complexes in the K, where $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then*
1^o $\|j - k\| \geq 2 \Leftrightarrow \delta^2(skcx_j, skcx_k) = 1$.
2^o $\|j - k\| \geq 2 \not\Rightarrow \delta^2_\Phi(skcx_j, skcx_k) = 1$.

Proof. 1^o Since this is a biconditional, we need to prove the implication in both directions. By the definition of spoke complex it can be established that $skcx_k \cap skcx_j \neq \emptyset \Leftrightarrow \|j - k\| \geq 2$. Using a result from (Naimpally & Warrack, 1970, pg. 7), if a space is equipped with a pseudo-metric and $D(A, B) = inf\{d(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$, then $A\delta B$ iff $D(A, B) = 0$. Suppose K is a Euclidean space equipped with the Euclidean metric. It follows that in this triangulation $D(A, B) = 0 iff A \cap B \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $D(skcx_k, skcx_j) = 0$ iff $\|j - k\| < 2$ and $D(skcx_k, skcx_j) \neq 0$ otherwise. Hence, we can conclude that $\|j - k\| \geq 2 \Leftrightarrow \delta^2(skcx_j, skcx_k) = 1$.

2^o It can be established from the definition of the spoke complex that any $\sigma^2 \in K$, that is not in $skcx_k$ but has a non-empty intersection with $skcx_k$ is an element of $skcx_{k+1}$. Thus, it can be established that $skcx_j \cap skcx_k \neq \emptyset$ iff $\|j - k\| \leq 1$. Which means $j \in \{k - 1, k, k + 1\}$. From this we can establish that $skcx_j \cap skcx_k = \emptyset$ if $\|j - k\| \geq 2$. From the definition of $\underset{\Phi}{\cap}$, it follows that $A \cap B \Rightarrow A \underset{\Phi}{\cap} B$, and $A \underset{\Phi}{\cap} B \not\Rightarrow A \cap B$. Thus, it is possible that $A \underset{\Phi}{\cap} B$ eventhough $A \cap B = \phi$. Thus, it is still possible that $skcx_j \underset{\Phi}{\cap} skcx_k \neq \emptyset$ even if $\|j - k\| \geq 2$. From axiom (**hdP3**), we can conclude that, $\delta^2_\Phi(skcx_j, skcx_k) = 0$ even if $\|j - k\|$. Hence proved.

□

The notion of proximity in a space can be defined using a function. Let us cosntruct a function which quantifies the proximity of a subset to the nucleus of a MNC in the triangulation.

Definition 1. *Let K be a triangulation, $d \subset K$ be the nucleus and $A, skcx_k \subset K$. Then, $\mu_d(A) : K \to \mathbb{Z}^+$ is a function satisfying*

$$A \subset skcx_k \Leftrightarrow \mu_d(A) = k.$$

We can use this function to quantify the proximity between pairs $\sigma^2 \in K$ by using the MNC as a reference point.

Definition 2. *Let A, B are two $\sigma^2 \in K$, μ_d is a function as defined in def. 1. We can define*

$$\mu_d(A, B) = \|\mu_d(B) - \mu_d(A)\|.$$

It can be shown that $\mu_d(x, y)$ is a pseudo-metric.

Theorem 5. *Let K be a triangulation of a finite, bounded planar region, $A, B, C \in K$ be σ^2, and let $d \subset K$ be the MNC. We can define a function $\mu_d(A, B)$ as per def. 2. Then*
1^o $\mu_d(A, A) = 0$.
2^o $\mu_d(A, B) = \mu_d(B, A)$.
3^o $\mu_d(A, C) \leq \mu_d(A, B) + \mu_d(B, C)$.
Hence, $\mu_d(A, B)$ is a pseudo-metric.

Proof. 1^o is true by definition, since $\mu_d(A, A) = \|\mu_d(A) - \mu_d(A)\|= 0$.
2^o is true by definition, since $\mu_d(A, B) = \|\mu_d(B) - \mu_d(A)\|= \|\mu_d(A) - \mu_d(B)\|= \mu_d(B, A)$
3^o To prove this, consider the following two cases. First, let B, C are in the same spoke complex and A in a different complex, $B, C \in skcx_k$, and $A \in skcx_j$. Then it is easy to see that $\mu_d(A, C) = \mu_d(A, B) + \mu_d(B, C)$, as $\mu_d(B, C) = 0$, $\mu_d(A, B) = \mu_d(B, A) = \|j - k\|$.
For the second case, let A, B, C be in different spoke complexes, where $A \in skcx_j$,$B \in skcx_k$ and $C \in skcx_l$. For simplicity, let us divide this into two subcases. Let us begin with $j < k < l$. It can be seen that $\mu_d(A, C) = \mu_d(A, B) + \mu_d(B, C)$, as $\mu_d(A, C) = \|l - j\|$, $\mu_d(A, B) = \|k - j|$ and $\mu_d(B, C) = \|l - k\|$. The second subcase is $j < l < k$. It can be seen that $\mu_d(A, C) < \mu_d(A, B) + \mu_d(B, C)$, as $\mu_d(A, C) = \|l - j\|$, $\mu_d(A, B) = \|k - j|$ and $\mu_d(B, C) = \|l - k\|$. Hence, we have proved that $\mu_d(A, C) \leq \mu_d(A, B) + \mu_d(B, C)$.

□

It can be established that $\mu_d(A, B)$ is not a metric, since $\mu_d(A, B) = 0$ for any two distinct σ^2 in the same spoke complex $A, B \in skcx_k$, as per def. 1. A spoke complex is a subcomplex of the original triangulation K. It is important to note that as per the def. 1, every $\sigma^2 \in skcx_k$ has the same proximity, as quantified by μ_d, to the MNC. Moreover, the $\sigma^2 \in skcx_k$ have $\mu_d = 0$ with each other. Let us define some new notions using the function μ_d.

Definition 3. *Let K be a CW complex, μ_d be the function as per def. 1. We only relax the codition that d is a nucleus of an MNC and let it be any arbitrary $\sigma \in K$. Then*

$$K^n_{\mu,d} = \{\sigma^2 : \sigma^2 \in K \, and \, \mu_d(\sigma^2) = n\}$$

is a n-proximal subcomplex of K w.r.t base point d.

We can term all the n-proximal subcomplexes as *iso-proximal complexes*, since all of their elements the same proximity, as quantified by μ_d to the base point. It is also important to note the following result.

Theorem 6. *Let K be a triangulation, $d \subset K$ be the nucleus and $skcx_k \in K$ be the k-spoke complex. Then,*

$$skcx_k \iff K^k_{\mu,d}$$

Proof. This follows directly from defs. 1 and 3. □

We specify the notation for a cycle in a triangulation. Suppose $a, b, c \in K$ are three vertices, then (abc) is a cycle such that there is a path from a back to a, passing through b and c. Moreover, $cntr(a)$ represents the centroid of set a. Let us define the notion of an iso-proximal cycle using the function μ_d.

Definition 4. *Let K be a CW complex, μ_d be the function from def. 1. We relax the condition that d is the nucleus of a MNC and let it be an arbitrary $\sigma \in K$. Let us first generate an index set of the $\sigma^2 \in K^k_{\mu,d}$ as follows*

$$\mathcal{K} = \{k_i : k_i = \sigma^2 \in K^k_{\mu,d}, k_i = k_j \iff i = j, i \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}.$$

Now, using this index set we can define the notion

$$cyc^n_{\mu,d} = \{(a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n) : a_i = cntr(k_i)\ s.t.\ k_i \in \mathcal{K}\}.$$

Here, $cyc^n_{\mu,d}$ is a $n-$proximal cycle of K relative to the base point d.

Similar to the notion of n-proximal complex, a n-proximal cycle can be termed an iso-proximal cycle. Next, consider the following result.

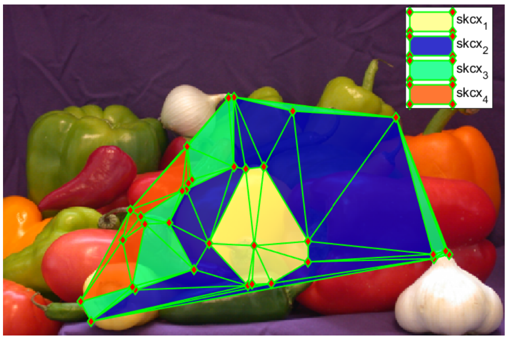
Theorem 7. *Let K be a triangulation, $d \subset K$ be the nucleus and $mcyc_k d$ be the maximal k-cycle. Then*

$$mcyc_k d \iff cyc^k_{\mu,d}.$$

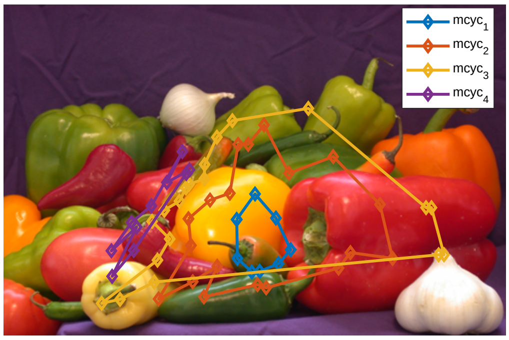
Proof. A maximal k-cycle, $mcyc_k$, is a simple closed path connecting the centroids of all the $sk_k \in K$. Comparing this with Def. 4, it follows that maximal k-cycle is a $k-$proximal cycle. □

To help clarify the concepts we have introduced, we give an example.

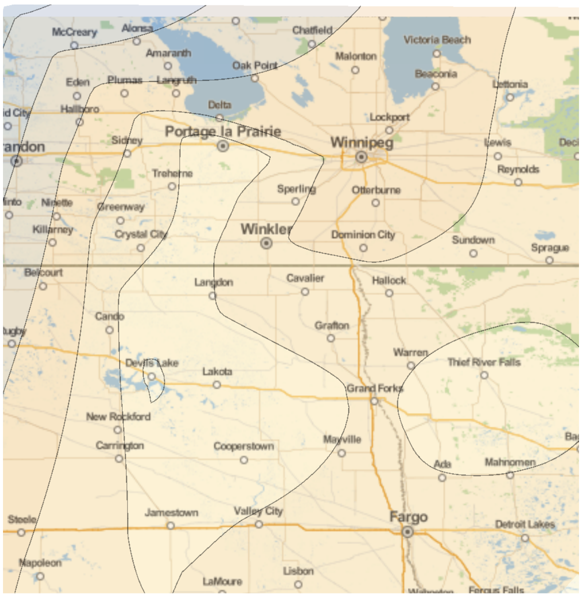
Example 3. *We illustrate the spke complexes in a stock digital image peppers.png in MATLAB®. Now consider theorem 6 stating the equivalence between the k^{th} spoke complex and $k-$proximal cycle w.r.t. nucleus as the base point. Thus, $skcx_1$ shown in yellow is $K^1_{\mu,d}$, $skcx_2$ (blue) is $K^2_{\mu,d}$, $skcx_3$ (green) is $K^3_{\mu,d}$ and $skcx_4$ (orange) is $K^4_{\mu,d}$. Let us now move on to theorem 7, which states that k^{th} maximal centroidal cycle is the $k-$proximal cycle w.r.t. nucleus as the base point. Thus, $mcyc_1$ shown in blue is the $cyc^1_{\mu,d}$, $mcyc_2$(red) is $cyc^2_{\mu,d}$, $mcyc_3$(orange) is $cyc^3_{\mu,d}$ and $mcyc_4$(indigo) is $cyc^4_{\mu,d}$. Now that we have seen how the iso-proximal complexes and cycles are defined in digital images, let us look at a closely associated concept in meteorology. It is the conept of an isobar, which is a line connecting points with the same barometric pressure.*



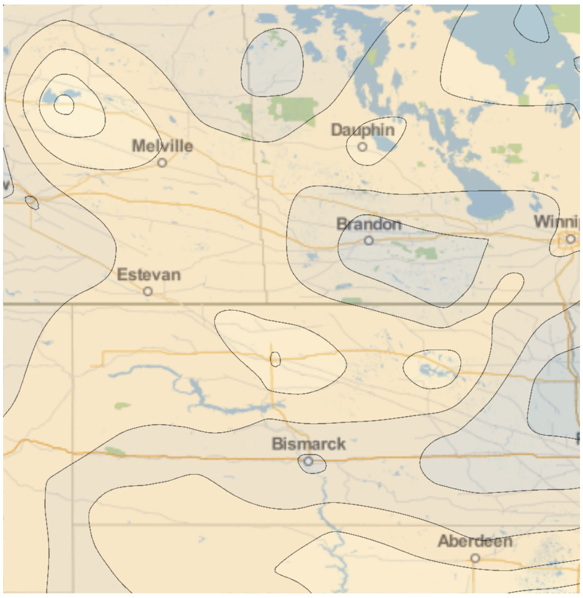
3.1: $skcx_k$ in digital image



3.2: $mcyc_k$ in digital image



3.3: Isobars in Weather Maps



3.4: Isotherms in Weather Maps

Figure 3: This figure illustrates the concepts of iso-proximal complexes and cycles. Fig. 3.1 shows the $skcx_k$, each of which is an iso-proximal complex. Fig. 3.2 shows $mcyc_k$, each of which is an iso-proximal cycle. Fig. 3.3 is an example of isobars in weather map, generated using Mathematica. Fig. 3.4 is an example of isotherms in weather map, generated using Mathematica.

Replace μ in the definition of $cyc^k_{\mu,d}$, which is a function that measures proximity w.r.t. point d, with the function that defines barometeric pressure over the surface of earth. We can then get isobars in a region around Winnipeg using Mathematica as shown in Fig. 3.3. Each of the black lines connects regions with similar pressure. The value of barometric pressure is different for each line. Again in the case of isotherms, we have lines connecting regions with identical tempratures. Next, we can obtain a similar effect by replacing μ with a function that defines air temperature over the surface of earth. Isotherms in the region around Winnipeg are shown in Fig. 3.4. These are also generated using Mathematica. Similarly, each of the black lines corresponds to a different temprature. The regions on each line have same value of air temprature. ■

4. Descriptve Frame Recurrence Diagrams

This section introduces what are known as descriptive frame recurrence diagrams derived from triangulated video frames. For construction of the Delaunay trianglation of video frames, we use hole based keypoints. A hole is defined as a region of constant intensity in a digital image. For this purpose, we use the gradient magnitude for detection and filter out small holes based on the number of pixels contained in them. The process is detailed in Alg. 1. These keypoints are used

Algorithm 1: Hole based Keypoints

Input : digital image *img*, Horizontal filter radius r_x, Vertical filter radius r_y, Hole threshold t, Number of holes n_{hole}
Output: Hole locations $\mathscr{K}_{holes}$

$g :=$ *empty matrix*;
foreach *pixel* $\in$ *img* **do**
  $g(i, j) \leftarrow$ *Gradient Magnitude at* (i, j);
$g :=$ *set all values of* $g < t$ *to* 1 *and rest to* 0;
$g \longmapsto$ *connected components*;
connected components $\longmapsto$ *size in terms of pixels*;
/* arrange in descending order w.r.t. size in terms of pixels */;
connected components $\longmapsto$ *arranged connected components*;
hole $\leftarrow$ *first* n_{hole} *arranged connected components*;
hole $\longmapsto$ *centroids*;
$\mathscr{K}_{holes} \leftarrow$ *centroids*;

to generate a triangulation, in which the spoke complexes and the maximal centroidal vortices are identified. The process of detecting the spoke complexes starts with the identification of MNCs. The nucleus($skcx_0$) in a triangulation are the vertices that are common to the greatest number of triangles. The nuclei along with the repective triangles containing them are the MNCs($skcx_1$). The triangles that are excluded in $skcx_i$ for $i = 0, 1$, and share interesections(vertices, edges) with $skcx_1$ are included in the $skcx_2$. $skcx_k$ for any $k > 2$ can be constructed in a similar fashion. The process stops when all the triangles in the triangulation have been assigned to a particular level k in the spoke complex. It is to be noted that we have separate $skcx_k$ for each of the nuclei.

The construction of centroidal maximal centroidal cycles follows from this. The $mcyc_k$ is a closed simple path that connects the centroids of triangles included in $skcx_k$. There is a slight problem regarding the arrangements of centroids so as to form a non-intersecting cycle. For this we caluclate the centroid of vertices in a particular $mcyc_k$, represented as $cntr_{cyck} = (cntr^x_{cyck}, cntr^y_{cyck})$. Then for each vertex $v_i = (v^x_i, v^y_i) \in mcyc_k$ calculate arctan $\frac{v^y_i - cntr^y_{cyck}}{v^x_i - cntr^x_{cyck}}$. Going through the vertices in order of ascending values of this quantity results in a simple closed path. The collection of all the $mcyc_k$ is the maximal centroidal vortex.

In Theorems 6 and 7, we have established that each of the spoke complexes is a cell complex is an iso-proximal complex and maximal centroidal cycles are iso-proximal cycles. These structures encode the spatial proximity of sub-regions in a triangulated finite, bounded planar region. This is an alternate way to study the topology or the shape of a space. Traditionaly, the interior of a shape is considered to have binary nature. It is either empty or nonempty, which paves the way for shape interiors with subregions that are holes. This is a narrow view which is ill-suited to the study of digital images which have a rich interior that is instrumental in understanding and analysis. An earlier attempt at overhauling the classical methods of homology(classification of shapes based on the holes) was taken up in (Ahmad & Peters, 2018). Using the notion of iso-proximal cycles and complexes the description of a shape interior can be fused with a consideration of spatial proximities.

Next, we introduce structures to integrate proximity structure of triangulation with the description of interiors. For this purpose, we introduce descriptive maximal centroidal cycles. A fibre bundle is a structure (E, B, π, F), where $\pi : E \to B$ is a continuous surjection, E is the *total space*, B is the *base space* and $F \subset E$ is the *fiber*. Using this framework we can define two different structures. The first of these is

Definition 5. *Let $mcyc_k$ be a maximal k-cycle, $skcx_k$ a $k-$spoke complex in a triangulation CW complex K. Let us define a function,*

$$\phi_{vrt} : 2^K \to \mathbb{R}^n,$$
$$a \mapsto \begin{cases} \phi_{vrt}(a) & if\, a = cntr(\triangle \in skcx_k), \\ 0 & otherwise, \end{cases}$$

Then the descriptive maximal k-cycle (denoted by $mcyc^{\phi}_k$) is a fiber bundle $(mcyc^{\phi}_k, mcyc_k, \pi, \phi_{vrt}(U))$, where $U \subset mcyc_k$.

A variant of the above is

Definition 6. *Let $mcyc_k$ be a maximal $k-$ cycle, $skcx_k$ be a $k-$spoke complex in a triangulation K. Let us define a function,*

$$\phi_{avg} : 2^K \to \mathbb{R}^n$$
$$a \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{\sum \phi(a)}{|a|} & if\, a = cntr(\triangle \in skcx_k), \\ 0 & otherwise, \end{cases}$$

Then the region descriptive maximal k-cycle ($mcyc_k^{\bar{\phi}}$)*, is a fiber bundle* ($mcyc_k^{\bar{\phi}}, mcyc_k, \pi, \phi_{vrt}(U)$)*, where* $U \subset mcyc_k$*.*

The two proposed structures, namely the descriptive($mcyc_k^{\phi}$) and region descriptive maximal cycle($mcyc_k^{\bar{\phi}}$), differ only slightly. The basic idea behind these structures is that each vertex in a $mcyc_k$ corresponds to a trinagle in the $skcx_k$. We have established via Thm. 6 that each of the triangles in a $skcx_k$ has the same proximity to the nucleus. We have also established vis Thm. 7 that each of the vertices in a $mcyc_k$ is the centroid of a triangle in $skcx_k$. Thus, both $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k$ encode the spatial proximity of the triangulation.

Next, we choose $mcyc_k$ as the base space and then assign to each vertex a description using the probe functions ϕ_{vrt} or ϕ_{avg}. The only differennce between the two probes is that ϕ_{vrt} assigns to a vertex the description at centroid of the corresponding triangle in $skcx_k$, while ϕ_{avg} assigns the average description of all the subregions(pixels) of the triangle. These descriptions can be arranged in the form of a vector for each of the $mcyc_k$ or combine all into a single vector. The basic feature that we will be using in this study is wavelength,λ. It is a nonlinear function of hue. The first step in the calculation of λ is the conversion of RGB image to HSV (Hue Saturation Value). Then we transform the hue channel(h) according to the following equation which is an approximation of the nonlinear mapping.

$$\lambda(i, j) = \begin{cases} 435nm & \text{if } h(i, j) > 0.7483, \\ \frac{-(h(i,j)-2.60836)}{0.004276} & otherwise. \end{cases} \tag{4.1}$$

Here we assume that the hue values are scaled between [0, 1]. The wavelengths caluclated by this equation (measured in nanometers nm, *i.e.*, 10^{-9} meter) are limited to the range $[435nm, 610nm]$.

A consideration of hue wavelength gives a useful feature vector useful in the study of shapes in video frames. The i^{th} image(frame) is represented as $\mathcal{V}_i$. Tracking similar frames in a video is important. We use the framework of descriptive similarity with the two probe functions defined in Defs. 5,6. To discuss regarding similarity of frames we define a feature vector,

$$\eta_\phi(\mathcal{V}_i) = \{\frac{\sum\limits_{\forall \triangle \in skcx_k} \phi(mcyc_k(\mathcal{V}_i))}{|skcx_k|} : \text{for } k \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \text{and } \phi = \phi_{avg} \text{ or } \phi_{vrt}\}, \tag{4.2}$$

where $|skcx_k|$ is the number of triangles in $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k(\mathcal{V}_i)$ is a maximal centroidal cycle in frame i of the video. Two frames are similar if,

$$\delta^2_\Phi(\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{V}_j) = 0 \iff \|\eta_\phi(\mathcal{V}_i) - \eta_\phi(\mathcal{V}_j)\|_2 \leq th, \tag{4.3}$$

where th is a suitable threshold empirically determined.

Since it is possible for an image to have multiple maximal vortices, we compute the value of ϕ for each vortiex and then compare the value for all the possible combinations. If any of the multiple vortices in an image are similar to any in the other image, then these frames are said to be similar. Let us plot $\delta^2_\Phi(V_i, V_j)$ for $i, j = 1, \cdots, |\mathcal{V}|$, where $|\mathcal{V}|$ is the number of frames in the video. As δ^2_Φ is a binary relation we only mark the locations for which $\delta^2_\Phi(\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{V}_j) = 0$. Moreover, due to the symmetry of Euclidean distance($\|\cdot\|_2\}$) we can ignore the lower half below the diagonal.

Moreover, as each frame is similar to itself, the diagonal is always marked. This leads to what we call a *descriptive frame recurrence diagram* and mark it as $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$ for video $\mathcal{V}$ and threshold th. We present a formal definition of the descriptive frame recurrence diagram.

Definition 7. *Let $\mathcal{V}$ be a video η_ϕ be a feature vector as defined in Eq. 4.2 . Then,*

$$\mathbb{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th) = \{(i, j) : \|\eta_\phi(\mathcal{V}_i) - \eta_\phi(\mathcal{V}_j)\|_2 \leq th, j \geq i \, and \, i, j = 1, \cdots, |\mathcal{V}|\},$$

where $th \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $|\mathcal{V}|$ is the number of frames in the video $\mathcal{V}$. The set $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$ is the descriptive frame recurrence diagram.

We combine all the tools presented above in a framework for video processing, illustrated in Fig. 4. Calculation of $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k$ for all the frames of a video is the starting step. Once, we have the $mcyc_k$ we calculate $\eta_\phi(\mathcal{V}_i)$ as defined in Eq. 4.2. For this step we use wavelength,λ defined in Eq. 4.1, as the probe function ϕ. The last step is to calculate the recurrance diagram $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$ as defined in Def. 7. Thus, for every frame $\mathcal{V}_i$ a recurrance diagram tells values of $j > i$, such that $\delta^2_\Phi(\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{V}_j) = 0$.

5. Application of Descriptive Frame Recurrence Diagrams

This section introduces an application of descriptive frame recurrence diagrams in terms of the occurrence of similar frames in a video. In this section, we will present a pair of frames detected as similar using each of the probe functions defined in Defs. 5,6. Then we finish the section with a pair frames that are not similar for both probe functions.

We start the discussion with the vertex-based probe function defined in Def. 5. In this probe as discussed in Sec. 4, we only use the value of probe function at the vertices of cycles(centroids of triangles in spoke complexes). The feature that we are interested in is the wavelength as calculated using the Eq. 4.1. The results are displayed in the Fig. 5.

We calculate the descriptive frame recurrence diagram for the video $\mathcal{V}$. It is represented as $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$ and is shown in Fig. 5.1. For this study we set $th = 5$. It can be seen that apart from the diagonal only four other points show up in $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$. Since every frame is similar to itself we only look at the points apart from the diagonal. We select a pair of frames((15, 87)) marked with a red circle in Fig. 5.1. We display frame 15 in Fig. 5.2 and frame 87 in Fig. 5.3.

Next we display the $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k$, $k = 1, \cdots, 4$, for both the frames. Figs. 5.4, 5.5 display $skcx_1$ and corresponding $mcyc_1$ for frame 15 and 87 respectivly. It can be seen that both the $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ are identical for both the frames. $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ are also identical for both the frames as shown in Figs. 5.6,5.7. The $skcx_3$ and corresponding $mcyc_3$ for frame 15 is in Fig. 5.8, and $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ for frame 87 is illustrated in Fig. 5.9. The $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ are slightly different. Figs. 5.10,5.11 show the $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ for both the frames. It is evident from the figures that spoke complex at level 4 and the corresponding maximal centroidal cycles differ slightly for the frames.

Now that we have seen the $mcyc_k$ for both the frames, let us comapre the values of ϕ_{vrt} for different cycles across the two frames. For ease of comparison we take the average value of ϕ_{vrt} calculated at all the vertices in an $mcyc_k$ for a particular k. We plot these values as a bar graph

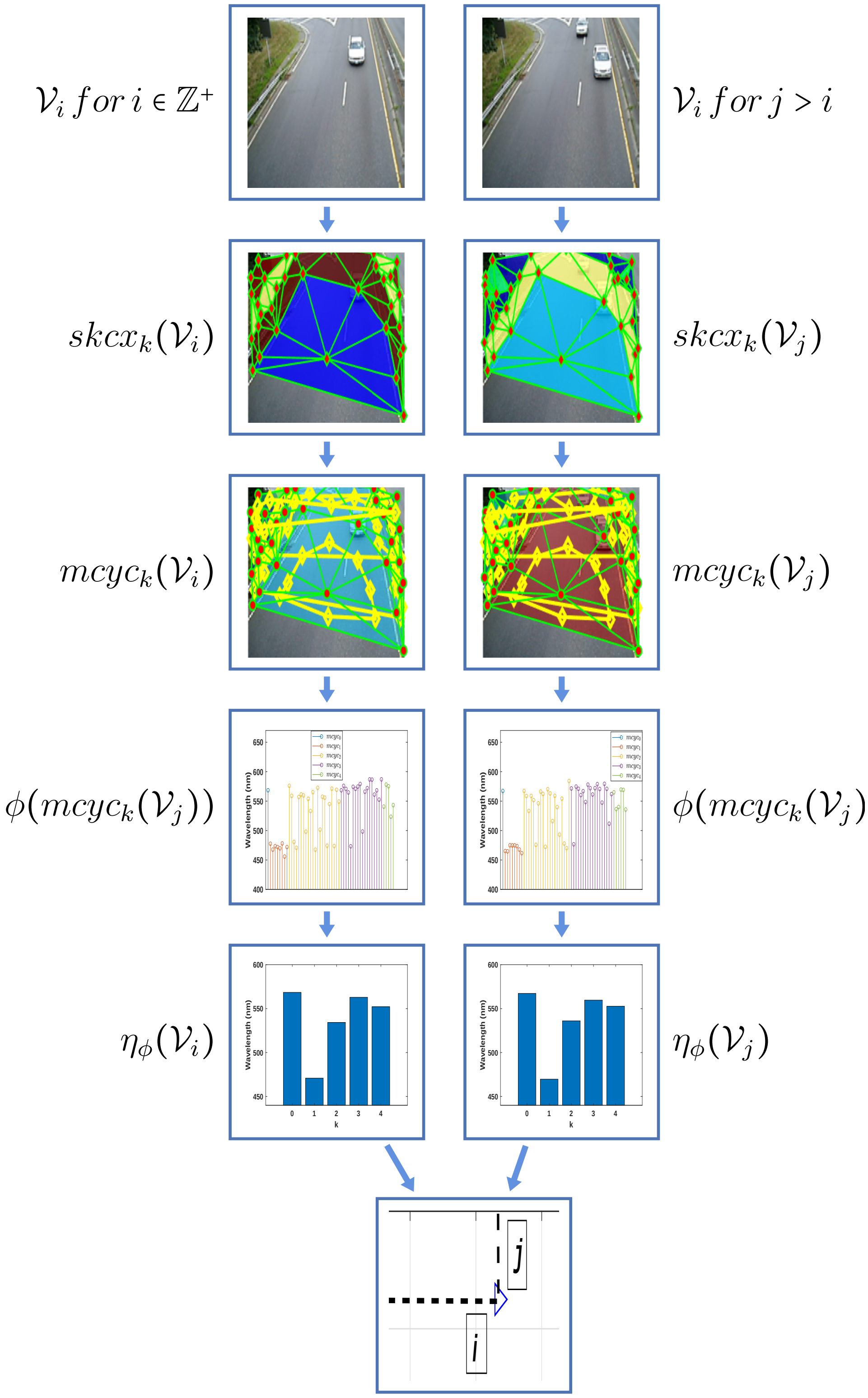
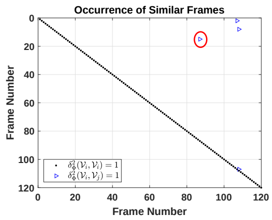
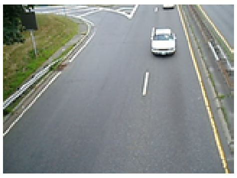


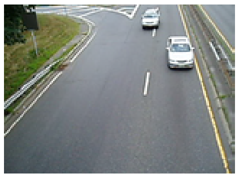
Figure 4: This flow diagram illustrates the methodology for constructing a descriptive frame recurrance diagram, $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$. Repeating thsi process for all valid pairs of (i, j), such that $i = 1, \cdots, |\mathcal{V}|$ and $j > i$. Here, $\mathcal{V}$ represents the number of frames in the video.



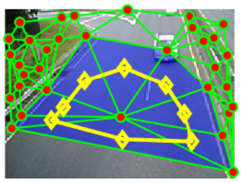
5.1: Descriptive Frame Recurrance



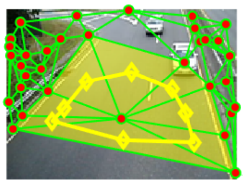
5.2: Frame 1



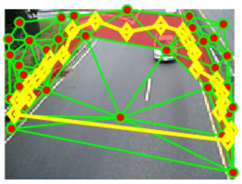
5.3: Frame 2



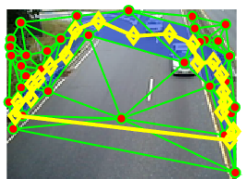
5.4: $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ in Frame 1



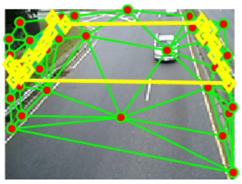
5.5: $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ in Frame 2



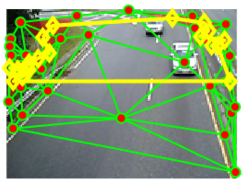
5.6: $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ in Frame 1



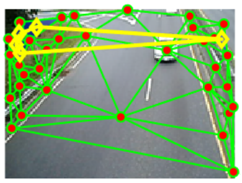
5.7: $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ in Frame 2



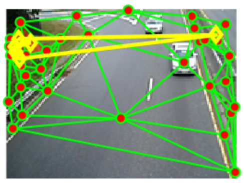
5.8: $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ in Frame 1



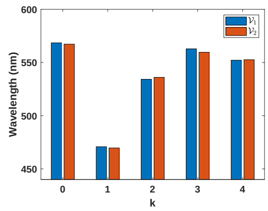
5.9: $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ in Frame 2



5.10: $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ in Frame 1



5.11: $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ in Frame 2



5.12: Mean Wavelengths for both images

Figure 5: This figure illustrates the application of the framework developed in sec. 4. In this illustration we use the values of wavelengts at centroids only. Fig. 5.1, represents the descriptive frame recurrance diagram. The red circle annotates the frame pair being analyzed. Fig. 5.2,5.3 are the frames that have been detected as descriptivly similar. Figs. 5.4,5.6,5.8,5.10 represent $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k, k = 1, \cdots, 4$ for frame in Fig. 5.2. Figs. 5.5,5.7,5.9,5.11 represent $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k, k = 1, \cdots, 4$ for frame in Fig. 5.3. Figs. 5.12 represents the average wavelengts calculated at each spoke level k. $skcx_0$ and $mcyc_0$ are the nucleus. The frames are similar in terms of these values as can be seen in this figure.

comparing the frames in Fig. 5.12. It can bee seen that values almost identical for the different $mcyc_k$ across the frames. We conclude that $\delta^2_{\Phi}(\mathcal{V}_{15}, \mathcal{V}_{87}) = 0$. Most noticable difference occurs for $k = 3$. It must be noted that both the images shown in Fig. 5.2,5.3 have multiple vortices.

In the Fig. 5 we only show cycles across the frames that were detected as being descriptivly similar(δ^2_{Φ}). It is in teresting to note that frame 15 and 87 are almost identical apart from the fact that later has two cars. The position of cars, their shape and color are almost identical. The fact that location, shape and the description of these vortices are similar is due to the similarity in images.

Next, consider the case of ϕ_{avg}, region based probe defined in 6. The result for this method are displayed in Fig. 6. The structure of the figure is similar to one adopted for Fig. 5. We start by showing the descriptive frame recurrence diagram $\mathcal{R}_{\Phi}(\mathcal{V}, th)$ in Fig. 6.1. The value of $th = 5$ is the same for this study also. It can be noted that apart from the diagonal there are eight other points in the diagram, representing a pair of frames that is descriptivly similar. The number of off-diagonal points was only four for the case(Fig. 5) where neighborhood was not used. This can be easily explained as the ϕ_{vrt} only takes into account the value of feature at a single point(the centroid of triangles).

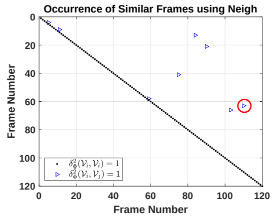
The value at a single pixel in an image can vary due a number of reasons e.g. quantization errors, noise, motion artifacts and sudden changes in illumination at the scene. Thus there is a chance that similar frames can be detected as disimilar when using ϕ_{vrt}. When we use the neighborhood, noise and illumination effects cancel due to averaging over a region. This can also lead to two different frames being classified as similar if the changes are small enough to be destroyed in averaging.

Consider next a marked as a red circle in Fig. 6.1, namely, the frame 63 shown in Fig. 6.2 and the frame 110 in Fig. 7.3. There are some similarities and differences in the frames. Frame 63 has three cars while the frame 110 has only one car. The car in frame 110 is similar to one of the cars in frame 63 but not identical and it is in the different lane.

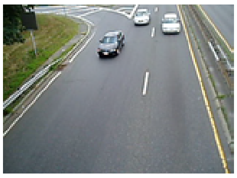
This pair of frames have similar vortices due to the fact that we are looking at wavelengths in a region as opposed to at a point. The cars are black, the same color as the road, which results in their being detected as similar in terms of wavelength averaged over the spoke triangles. Let us look at the $skcx_k$ and the corresponding $mcyc_k$ for both the frames. The Figs. 6.4,6.6,6.8,6.10,6.12 illustrate $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k$ for $k = 1, \cdots, 5$, in frame 63(Fig.). Figs. 6.5,6.7,6.9,6.11,6.13 represent $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k$ for frame 110. We can observe that all the spokes vary slightly interms of structure.

This structural vairation is due to the slight difference in the triangulation of frames. The reason that spoke lie in almost the same area accounts for the similarity. The black cars occurs in different spoke levels but their color is almost similar to color of road thus the difference is not registered when we average over the spoke. We ahve seen in Eq. 4.1 that the wavelength is a fucntion of hue or the color. This fact is further established when we look at the average wavelengths for each of the $mcyc_k$ and compare them across the two frames in Fig. 6.14.

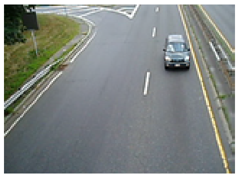
There are slight difference in the values for each value of k and the overall difference is smaller than the threshold. Hence $\delta^2_{\Phi}(\mathcal{V}_{63}, \mathcal{V}_{110}) = 0$. This is an example of the flexibility yielded by the neighborhood based probe function(ϕ_{avg},Def. 6) yields as compared to the vertex based probe(ϕ_{vrt},Def. 5). It can be seen that frames detected as similar by ϕ_{vrt} are almost identical in all



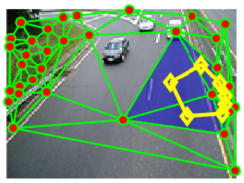
6.1: Descriptive Frame Recurrance



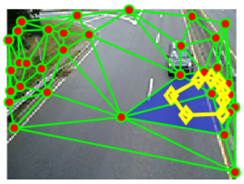
6.2: Frame 1



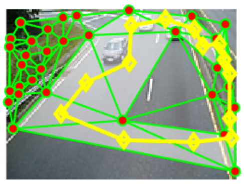
6.3: Frame 2



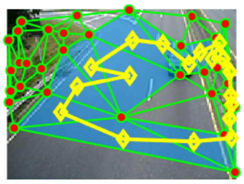
6.4: $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ in Frame 1



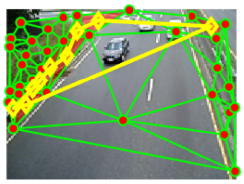
6.5: $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ in Frame 2



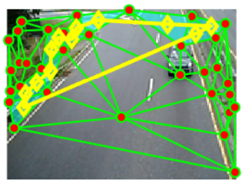
6.6: $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ in Frame 1



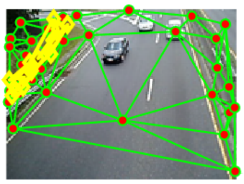
6.7: $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ in Frame 2



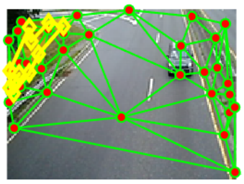
6.8: $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ in Frame 1



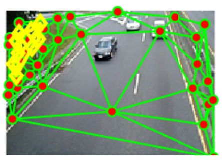
6.9: $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ in Frame 2



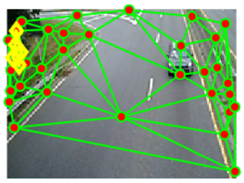
6.10: $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ in Frame 1



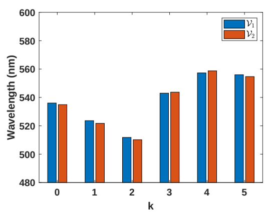
6.11: $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ in Frame 2



6.12: $skcx_5$ and $mcyc_5$ in Frame 1

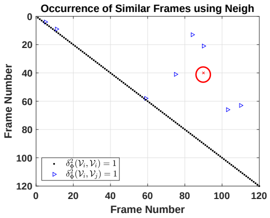


6.13: $skcx_5$ and $mcyc_5$ in Frame 2

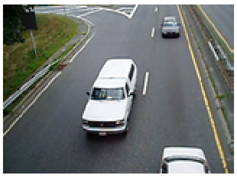


6.14: Mean Wavelengths for both images

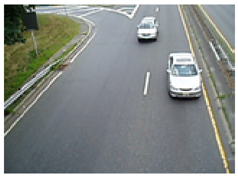
Figure 6: This figure illustrates the application of framework developed in sec. 4. In this illustration we use the values of wavelengts averaged over the spoke triangles(neighborhoods). Fig. 6.1, represents the descriptive frame recurrance diagram. The red circle annotates the frame pair being analyzed. Fig. 6.2,6.3 are the frames that have been detected as descriptivly similar. Figs. 6.4,6.6,6.8,6.10,6.12 represent $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k, k = 1, \cdots, 5$ for frame in Fig. 6.2. Figs. 6.5,6.7,6.9,6.11,6.13 represent $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k, k = 1, \cdots, 5$ for frame in Fig. 6.3. Figs. 6.14 represents the average wavelengts calculated at each spoke level k. $skcx_0$ and $mcyc_0$ are the nucleus. The frames are similar in terms of these values as can be seen in this figure.



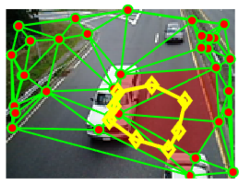
7.1: Descriptive Frame Recurrance



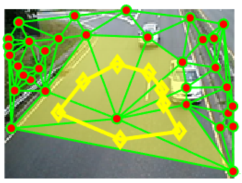
7.2: Frame 1



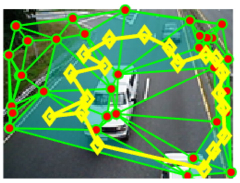
7.3: Frame 2



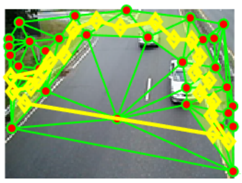
7.4: $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ in Frame 1



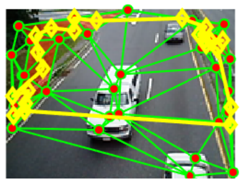
7.5: $skcx_1$ and $mcyc_1$ in Frame 2



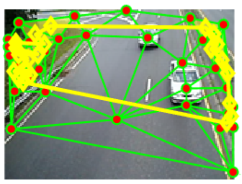
7.6: $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ in Frame 1



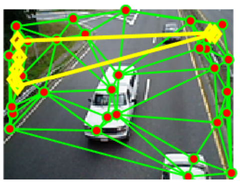
7.7: $skcx_2$ and $mcyc_2$ in Frame 2



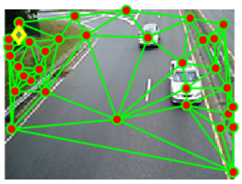
7.8: $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ in Frame 1



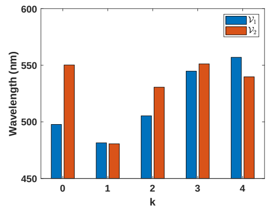
7.9: $skcx_3$ and $mcyc_3$ in Frame 2



7.10: $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ in Frame 1



7.11: $skcx_4$ and $mcyc_4$ in Frame 2



7.12: Mean Wavelengths for both images

Figure 7: This figure illustrates the application of framework developed in sec. 4. In this illustration we display two frames which are dissimilar as none of the vortices are descriptivly similar. Fig. 7.1, represents the descriptive frame recurrance diagram. The red circle and cross annotates the frame pair being analyzed. Fig. 7.2,7.3 are the frames that have been detected as descriptivly not similar. Figs. 7.4,7.6,7.8,7.10 represent $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k, k = 1, \cdots, 4$ for frame in Fig. 7.2. Figs. 7.5,7.7,7.9,7.11 represent $skcx_k$ and corresponding $mcyc_k, k = 1, \cdots, 4$ for frame in Fig. 7.3. Figs. 7.12 represents the average wavelengts calculated at each spoke level k. $skcx_0$ and $mcyc_0$ are the nucleus. The frames are not similar due to marked difference in these values as can be seen in this figure.

respects as shown in Fig. 5. The frames detected as similar by ϕ_{avg} have matching aspects such as containing the car of same color and similar background(as the camera position is fixed) but are also different in terms of the location and number of cars.

In addition to resulting from the flexibility due to ϕ_{avg}, it is also necessary to point out its extents. Let us look at a pair of frames that have been marked as dissimilar by both ϕ_{avg} and ϕ_{vrt}. The pair of frames is $(40, 90)$ and the results are displayed in Fig. 7. The pair of frames has been marked by a red cross and circle in $\mathcal{R}_\Phi(\mathcal{V}, th)$ as shown in Fig. 7.1. The threshold value is the same as previous experiments, *i.e.*, $th = 5$.

Consider, first Figs. 7.2, 7.3 to illustrate frame 40 and 90 respectively. It can be observed that the frames are very different in terms of the number and location of cars. This was also the case with Fig. 6, but the frames were detected as similar. In this case there were also cars with similar appearance (the white jeep and white sedan), but the size difference and the location of jeep forces a lot of keypoints to the center of frame 40. In contrast to this, the keypoints are distributed near the edges with a single point in the middle. Delaunay triangulation thus forces the nucleus to that point and hence the MNC also to the centre. This significant change in the location of the keypoints results in a significant change in structure of the triangulation for both frames.

Now let us move on to the $skcx_k$ and the $mcyc_k$ for both the frames. Figs. 7.4, 7.6, 7.8, 7.10 represent the $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k$ for $k = 1, \cdots, 4$ in frame 40(Fig. 7.2). Figs. 7.5, 7.7, 7.9, 7.11 represent the $skcx_k$ and $mcyc_k$ for $k = 1, \cdots, 4$ in frame 90(Fig. 7.3). We can see that all the $skcx_k$ and the corresponding $mcyc_k$ have a different structure. Moreover, it is important to note which features of the image lie in the different spokes for each of the frames. Let us first look at the comparison of average wavelengths for the differnet $mcyc_k$. This is presented in Fig. 7.12 for both the frames. It is evident from the bar graph that the major difference lies in $mcyc_0, mcyc_2$ and $mcyc_4$.

Let us now examine the reasons for this difference. As has been established in the paper that when using the neighborhood based probe(ϕ_{avg}) we are not only looking at the vertices in $mcyc_k$ but we are looking at the triangles corresponding to the vertices. Thus, ineffect we are looking at the corresponding $skcx_k$. It must also be noted that $skcx_0$ is the nucleus thus a single point. If we look at Fig. 7.4(frame 40) we can see that the nucleus lies on the bonnet of white jeep, while the nucleus for frame 90, as shown in Fig. 7.4, lies on the black road. As wavelength is a function of the hue(color) as depicted by Eq. 4.1, this explains the difference in average wavelength for $mcyc_0$. If we look at the $skcx_2$ for frame 40 as shown in Fig. 7.6, it can be seen that majority of the areas are black road and a small portion of white car. While for frame 90, shown in Fig. 7.7, most of the regions in $skcx_2$ are the white cars and the green grass. This results in the difference in average wavelength for $skcx_2$ as observed in Fig. 7.12.

With respect to the difference in $skcx_4$, it can be seen that in frame 40, as shown in Fig. 7.10, contains the dark green tree, light green grass and the gray separator in the highway(to the right side of frame). For frame 90 the $skcx_4$ only contains the dark green tree as shown in Fig. 7.11. This leads to the different average wavelengt values depicted in Fig. 7.12. When the differences are added up as per the euclidean distance as in Def. 7, this leads to $\delta^2_\Phi(\mathcal{V}_{40}, \mathcal{V}_{90}) = 1$.

Each of these examples depicted in Figs. 5, 6 and 7 illustrate the utility of considering the descriptive similarity of maximal centroidal vortices across the frames. We have seen that the ϕ_{vrt}(vertex based probe function) imposes a more strict notion of similarity than the ϕ_{avg}(region based probe function). Moreover, we saw that there are limits to the flexibility of ϕ_{avg}, since too much change in either the description of regions or structure of the underlying triangulation can result in the frames being marked as dissimilar.

6. Conclusions

In this paper, we have introduced a proximity based framework for the study of videos. We start by developing the notion of maximal centroidal cycles and establishing their relation to the spoke complexes. Further, we have defined the notion of iso-proximal complex and cycle, explaining how they encode the proximity structure of a triangulated space. We establish that spoke complexes and maximal centroidal cycles are iso-proximal.

After having developed the structure to encode the spatial proximity in a video frame, we use the notion of vertex and region based probe functions to track the features along these cycles. This yields a framework that combines the spatial and descriptive proximity to analyze a video frame. We calculate the proposed features on each frame and then find out which frames across the video are descriptively similar. This results in a descriptive frame recurrence diagram. We analyze in great detail how the vertex and region based probes differ in terms of detecting similar frames.

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A Proof of a Generic Fibonacci Identity From Wolfram's MathWorld

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Abstract

The generic identity $F_{kn+c} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} C_k^i F_{c-i} F_n^i F_{n+1}^{k-i}$ involving the Fibonacci numbers F_n (where C_k^i denotes the binomial coefficient counting the number of choices of i elements from a set of k elements), is attributed on Wolfram's MathWorld website (Chandra & Weisstein, 2018) to a personal communication from Aleksandrs Mihailovs. In spite of a very thorough search, we have been unable to find a published proof. We present here a combinatorial proof of our own, using the methods of Benjamin, Eustis and Plott (Benjamin *et al.*, 2008).

Keywords: Combinatorics, Fibonacci sequence, Identities
2010 MSC: 05A19, 11B39

1. Introduction

Pravin Chandra and Eric W. Weisstein on Wolfram's Mathworld website (Chandra & Weisstein, 2018) list over 100 identities involving the Fibonacci numbers, including

$$F_{kn+c} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} C_k^i F_{c-i} F_n^i F_{n+1}^{k-i} \tag{1.1}$$

as eq. (50). This is attributed to Aleksandrs Mihailovs (also known as Alec Mihailovs), through a personal communication from the 24th of January, 2003. Having been unable to find any published proof of this identity, we present here our own combinatorial proof, which uses the methods of (Benjamin *et al.*, 2008).

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2. Theory

Definition 2.1. The Fibonacci sequence $(F_n)_{n\geq 0}$ is defined recursively by the initial conditions $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$ and the recurrence relation $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$, for all $n \geq 0$. See (Sloane, 1964).

Definition 2.2. As in (Benjamin *et al.*, 2008), for each integer $L \geq 1$ denote by f_L the number of linear tilings of length L made from squares s of length 1 and dominoes d of length 2.

Then $f_1 = 1$, $f_2 = 2$, and for all $L \geq 1$, $f_{L+2} = f_{L+1} + f_L$, since there are f_{L+1} tilings of length $L + 2$ ending in a square, and f_L tilings of length $L + 2$ ending in a domino. Setting $f_0 = 1$, it follows that for all $L \geq 0$, $f_L = F_{L+1}$.

For example, Figure 1 shows one possible tiling of length $L = 25$, namely $ddsdssssddsssssdds$ (or $d^2sds^4d^2s^5d^2s$).

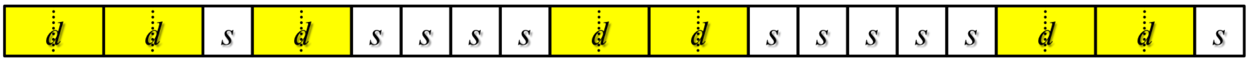

Figure 1. A tiling of length 25 made from squares (s) and dominoes (d).

There are $f_{25} = F_{26} = 121,393$ possible such tilings.

Definition 2.3. Let $l \geq 1$. We define an *l-block* to be either one of the following:

(i) a tiling of length l (of which there are f_l); or

(ii) a tiling of length $l + 1$ that ends in a domino (of which there are $f_{l+1-2} = f_{l-1}$),

and we define the *l-blocking* of a tiling to be the unique representation of that tiling as a sequence of consecutive l-blocks, followed by a "tail" of length t such that $0 \leq t \leq l - 1$.

The requirement, that an l-block of length $l + 1$ must end in a domino, is made in order to ensure the uniqueness of the l-blocking of a tiling. In our proof of the theorem below, this will prevent us from overcounting. Figure 2 shows the unique 4-blocking of the tiling in Figure 1. Note that there are five 4-blocks of length $l = 4$ or $l + 1 = 5$, and that the tail has length $t = 3$.

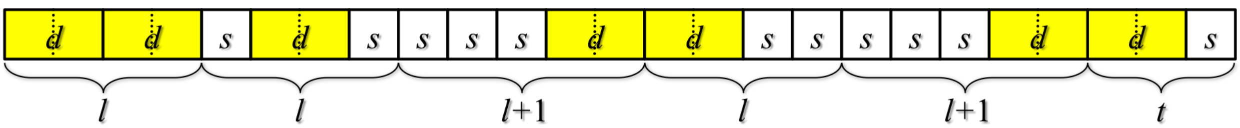

Figure 2. The unique 4-blocking of the tiling in Figure 1.

Theorem 2.1. *For all $k \geq 0, l \geq 1$ and $c \geq k+1$, the identity*

$$F_{kl+c} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} C_k^i F_{c-i} F_l^i F_{l+1}^{k-i}$$

holds, where C_k^i denotes the binomial coefficient counting the number of choices of i elements from a set of k elements.

Proof. Let S be a tiling of length $kl + c - 1$, as in Definition 2.2. Since $kl + c - 1 \geq k(l+1)$, S must begin with at least k consecutive l-blocks, as in Definition 2.3. Consider the prefix X of S comprising the first k such blocks, and note that X is uniquely determined by S, l and k, and conversely that any sequence of k many l-blocks may constitute X. Let $0 \leq i \leq k$, and suppose that X includes exactly i blocks of length $l+1$, hence $k-i$ blocks of length l. There are C_k^i possible such patterns of blocks, considering where in X the blocks of length $l+1$ may occur. Since X has length $i(l+1) + (k-i)l = i + kl$, the remainder of S, which is comprised of any l-blocks appearing after X, and the tail of the blocking, has length $kl + c - 1 - (i + kl) = c - i - 1$, and can therefore be tiled in f_{c-i-1} different ways. It follows that

$$f_{kl+c-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} C_k^i f_{c-i-1} f_{l-1}^i f_l^{k-i},$$

hence

$$F_{kl+c} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} C_k^i F_{c-i} F_l^i F_{l+1}^{k-i},$$

as required. □

In the example in Figures 1 and 2, we have $L = 25$ and $l = 4$. There are five 4-blocks altogether, so we can choose any k such that $0 \leq k \leq 5$, and then let c equal $L + 1 - kl = 26 - 4k$. Let's suppose that $k = 3$, hence $c = 14$. Among the first $k = 3$ blocks in Figure 2 there is exactly $i = 1$ of length $l + 1 = 5$. The lengths of those first 3 blocks form the pattern $4, 4, 5$, which is one of $C_k^i = C_3^1 = 3$ possible such patterns. In general, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=0}^{3} C_3^i F_{14-i} F_4^i F_5^{3-i} &= F_{14} F_5^3 + 3 \cdot F_{13} F_4 F_5^2 + 3 \cdot F_{12} F_4^2 F_5 + F_{11} F_4^3 \\
&= 377 \cdot 5^3 + 3 \cdot 233 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 + 3 \cdot 144 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 + 89 \cdot 3^3 \\
&= 121,393 \\
&= F_{26}.
\end{aligned}$$

Staying with $L = 25$ and $l = 4$, if instead we were to set $k = 5$, hence $c = 6$, we would obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=0}^{5} C_5^i F_{6-i} F_4^i F_5^{5-i} &= F_6 F_5^5 + 5 \cdot F_5 F_4 F_5^4 + 10 \cdot F_4 F_4^2 F_5^3 + 10 \cdot F_3 F_4^3 F_5^2 + 5 \cdot F_2 F_4^4 F_5 + F_1 F_4^5 \\
&= 8 \cdot 5^5 + 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^4 + 10 \cdot 3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^3 + 10 \cdot 2 \cdot 3^3 \cdot 5^2 + 5 \cdot 1 \cdot 3^4 \cdot 5 + 1 \cdot 3^5 \\
&= 121,393 \\
&= F_{26}.
\end{aligned}$$

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On Normal Fuzzy Submultigroups of a Fuzzy Multigroup

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Abstract

In this paper, we propose the notion of normal fuzzy submultigroups of a fuzzy multigroup. Some properties of normal fuzzy submultigroups of a fuzzy multigroup are explored and some related results are obtained. It is shown that a fuzzy submultigroup of a fuzzy multigroup is normal if and only if its alpha-cut is a normal subgroup of a given group. The concepts of commutator and normalizer in fuzzy multigroup setting are introduced and some results are deduced.

Keywords: Fuzzy comultiset, Fuzzy multiset, Fuzzy multigroup, Fuzzy submultigroup, Normal fuzzy submultigroup.
2010 MSC: 03E72, 08A72, 20N25.

1. Introduction

The concept of fuzzy sets proposed by (Zadeh, 1965) is a mathematical tool for representing vague concepts. The theory of fuzzy sets has grown stupendously over the years giving birth to fuzzy groups proposed in (Rosenfeld, 1971). Several works have been done on fuzzy groups and fuzzy normal subgroups (see Ajmal & Jahan, 2012; Malik *et al.*, 1992; Mashour *et al.*, 1990; Mordeson *et al.*, 1996; Mukherjee & Bhattacharya, 1984; Seselja & Tepavcevic, 1997; Wu, 1981).

Motivated by the work in (Zadeh, 1965), the idea of fuzzy multisets was conceived in (Yager, 1986) as the generalization of fuzzy sets in multisets framework. For some details on fuzzy multisets (see Ejegwa, 2014; Miyamoto, 1996; Syropoulos, 2012). Recently, in (Shinoj *et al.*, 2015), the concept of fuzzy multigroups was introduced as an application of fuzzy multisets to group theory, and some properties of fuzzy multigroups were presented. In fact, fuzzy multigroup is a generalization of fuzzy groups. (Baby *et al.*, 2015) continued the algebraic study of fuzzy multisets by proposing the idea of abelian fuzzy multigroups.

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The work in (Ejegwa, 2018*c*), which was built on (Shinoj *et al.*, 2015), introduced the concept of fuzzy multigroupoids and presented the idea of fuzzy submultigroups with a number of results. More properties of abelian fuzzy multigroups were explicated in (Ejegwa, 2018*b*), in the same vein, the notions of centre and centralizer in fuzzy multigroup setting where established with some relevant results. In (Ejegwa, 2018*a*), the notion of homomorphism in the context of fuzzy multigroups was defined and some homomorphic properties of fuzzy multigroups in terms of homomorphic images and homomorphic preimages, respectively, were presented. Since the notions of fuzzy multigroups, fuzzy submultigroups and abelian fuzzy multigroups have been established in literature, then it is germane to consider when a fuzzy submultigroup is said to be normal. Hence the motivation for this present research. In fact, this study is an application of fuzzy multisets to group theoretical notions like normal subgroups.

In this paper, we propose the notion of normal fuzzy submultigroups of a fuzzy multigroup and discuss some of its properties. The concepts of commutator and normalizer in fuzzy multigroup setting are also introduced, and some related results are deduced. By organization, the paper is thus presented: Section 2 provides some preliminaries on fuzzy multisets, fuzzy multigroups and fuzzy submultigroups. In Section 3, we propose the idea of normal fuzzy submultigroups of a fuzzy multigroup and discuss some of its properties. Also, the concepts of commutator and normalizer in fuzzy multigroup setting are also introduced, and some related results are obtained. Finally, Section 4 concludes the paper and provides direction for future studies.

2. Preliminaries

In this section, we review some existing definitions and results which shall be used in the sequel.

Definition 2.1. (Yager, 1986) Assume X is a set of elements. Then a fuzzy bag/multiset A drwan from X can be characterized by a count membership function CM_A such that

$$CM_A : X \to Q,$$

where Q is the set of all crisp bags or multisets from the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$.

From (Syropoulos, 2012), a fuzzy multiset can also be characterized by a high-order function. In particular, a fuzzy multiset A can be characterized by a function

$$CM_A : X \to N^I \text{ or } CM_A : X \to [0, 1] \to N,$$

where $I = [0, 1]$ and $N = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

By (Miyamoto & Mizutani, 2004), it implies that $CM_A(x)$ for $x \in X$ is given as

$$CM_A(x) = \{\mu_A^1(x), \mu_A^2(x), ..., \mu_A^n(x), ...\},$$

where $\mu_A^1(x), \mu_A^2(x), ..., \mu_A^n(x), ... \in [0, 1]$ such that $\mu_A^1(x) \geq \mu_A^2(x) \geq ... \geq \mu_A^n(x) \geq ...$, whereas in a finite case, we write

$$CM_A(x) = \{\mu_A^1(x), \mu_A^2(x), ..., \mu_A^n(x)\},$$

for $\mu_A^1(x) \geq \mu_A^2(x) \geq ... \geq \mu_A^n(x)$.

A fuzzy multiset A can be represented in the form

$$A = \{\langle \frac{CM_A(x)}{x} \rangle \mid x \in X\} \text{ or } A = \{\langle x, CM_A(x) \rangle \mid x \in X\}.$$

In a simple term, a fuzzy multiset A of X is characterized by the count membership function $CM_A(x)$ for $x \in X$, that takes the value of a multiset of a unit interval $I = [0, 1]$ (see Biswas, 1999; Mizutani *et al.*, 2008).

We denote the set of all fuzzy multisets by $FMS(X)$.

Example 2.1. Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ be a set. Then a fuzzy multiset of X is given as

$$A = \{\langle \frac{0.5, 0.4, 0.3}{a} \rangle, \langle \frac{0.6, 0.4, 0.4}{b} \rangle, \langle \frac{0.7, 0.4, 0.2}{c} \rangle\}.$$

Definition 2.2. (see Miyamoto, 1996) Let $A, B \in FMS(X)$. Then A is called a fuzzy submultiset of B written as $A \subseteq B$ if $CM_A(x) \leq CM_B(x) \forall x \in X$. Also, if $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$, then A is called a proper fuzzy submultiset of B and denoted as $A \subset B$.

Definition 2.3. (see Syropoulos, 2012) Let $A, B \in FMS(X)$. Then the intersection and union of A and B, denoted by $A \cap B$ and $A \cup B$, respectively, are defined by the rules that for any object $x \in X$,

(i) $CM_{A \cap B}(x) = CM_A(x) \wedge CM_B(x)$,
(ii) $CM_{A \cup B}(x) = CM_A(x) \vee CM_B(x)$,

where $\wedge$ and $\vee$ denote minimum and maximum, respectively.

Definition 2.4. (see Miyamoto, 1996) Let $A, B \in FMS(X)$. Then A and B are comparable to each other if and only if $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$, and $A = B \Leftrightarrow CM_A(x) = CM_B(x) \forall x \in X$.

Definition 2.5. A fuzzy multiset B of a set X is said to have sup-property if for any subset $W \subset X$ $\exists\, w_0 \in W$ such that

$$CM_B(w_0) = \bigvee_{w \in W} \{CM_B(w)\}.$$

Definition 2.6. (Shinoj *et al.*, 2015) Let X be a group. A fuzzy multiset A of X is said to be a fuzzy multigroup of X if it satisfies the following two conditions:

(i) $CM_A(xy) \geq CM_A(x) \wedge CM_A(y) \forall x, y \in X$,
(ii) $CM_A(x^{-1}) \geq CM_A(x) \forall x \in X$.

It follows immediately that,

$$CM_A(x^{-1}) = CM_A(x), \forall x \in X$$

since

$$CM_A(x) = CM_A((x^{-1})^{-1}) \geq CM_A(x^{-1}).$$

Also,

$$CM_A(x^n) \geq CM_A(x) \forall x \in X,\ n \in \mathbb{N}$$

since

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(x^n) = CM_A(x^{n-1}x) &\geq CM_A(x^{n-1}) \wedge CM_A(x) \\ &\geq CM_A(x) \wedge ... \wedge CM_A(x) \\ &= CM_A(x). \end{aligned}$$

It can be easily verified that if A is a fuzzy multigroup of X, then

$$CM_A(e) = \bigvee_{x \in X} CM_A(x) \, \forall x \in X,$$

that is, $CM_A(e)$ is the tip of A. The set of all fuzzy multigroups of X is denoted by $FMG(X)$.

Example 2.2. Let $X = \{e, a, b, c\}$ be a Klein 4-group such that

$$ab = c, ac = b, bc = a, a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = e.$$

Again, let

$$A = \{\langle \frac{1, 0.9}{e} \rangle, \langle \frac{0.7, 0.5}{a} \rangle, \langle \frac{0.8, 0.6}{b} \rangle, \langle \frac{0.7, 0.5}{c} \rangle\}$$

be a fuzzy multiset of X. We investigate whether $A \in MG(X)$ using Definition 2.6.

$$CM_A(ea) = CM_A(a) = 0.7, 0.5 \geq CM_A(e) \wedge CM_A(a) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(eb) = CM_A(b) = 0.8, 0.6 \geq CM_A(e) \wedge CM_A(b) = 0.8, 0.6$$

$$CM_A(ec) = CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5 \geq CM_A(e) \wedge CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(ab) = CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5 \geq CM_A(a) \wedge CM_A(b) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(ac) = CM_A(b) = 0.8, 0.6 \geq CM_A(a) \wedge CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(bc) = CM_A(a) = 0.7, 0.5 \geq CM_A(b) \wedge CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(aa) = CM_A(e) = 1, 0.9 \geq CM_A(a) \wedge CM_A(a) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(bb) = CM_A(e) = 1, 0.9 \geq CM_A(b) \wedge CM_A(b) = 0.8, 0.6$$

$$CM_A(cc) = CM_A(e) = 1, 0.9 \geq CM_A(c) \wedge CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5$$

$$CM_A(ee) = CM_A(e) = 1, 0.9 \geq CM_A(e) \wedge CM_A(e) = 1, 0.9$$

$$CM_A(a^{-1}) = CM_A(a) = 0.7, 0.5, CM_A(b^{-1}) = CM_A(b) = 0.8, 0.6$$

$$CM_A(c^{-1}) = CM_A(c) = 0.7, 0.5, CM_A(e^{-1}) = CM_A(e) = 1, 0.9$$

Because all the axioms in Definition 2.6 are satisfied $\forall x, y \in X$, it follows that A is a fuzzy multigroup of X.

Clearly, a fuzzy multigroup is a fuzzy group that admits repetition of membership values. That is, a fuzzy multigroup collapses into a fuzzy group whenever repetition of membership values is ignored.

Remark. We notice the following from Definition 2.6:

(i) every fuzzy multigroup is a fuzzy multiset but the converse is not always true.
(ii) a fuzzy multiset A of a group X is a fuzzy multigroup if $\forall x, y \in X$,

$$CM_A(xy^{-1}) \geq CM_A(x) \wedge CM(y)$$

holds.

Definition 2.7. (Shinoj *et al.*, 2015) Let A be a fuzzy multigroup of a group X. Then A^{-1} is defined by $CM_{A^{-1}}(x) = CM_A(x^{-1})\ \forall x \in X$.

Thus, we notice that $A \in FMG(X) \Leftrightarrow A^{-1} \in FMG(X)$.

Definition 2.8. (Ejegwa, 2018*c*) Let $A, B \in FMG(X)$. Then the product $A \circ B$ of A and B is defined to be a fuzzy multiset of X as follows:

$$CM_{A\circ B}(x) = \begin{cases} \bigvee_{x=yz}(CM_A(y) \wedge CM_B(z)), & \text{if } \exists\, y, z \in X \text{ such that } x = yz \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This definition is adapted from (Shinoj *et al.*, 2015).

Definition 2.9. (Ejegwa, 2018*c*) Let $A \in FMG(X)$. A fuzzy submultiset B of A is called a fuzzy submultigroup of A denoted by $B \sqsubseteq A$ if B is a fuzzy multigroup. A fuzzy submultigroup B of A is a proper fuzzy submultigroup denoted by $B \sqsubset A$, if $B \sqsubseteq A$ and $A \neq B$.

Definition 2.10. (Baby *et al.*, 2015) Let $A \in FMG(X)$. Then A is said to be abelian (commutative) if for all $x, y \in X$, $CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)$.

Whenever A is a fuzzy multigroup of an abelian group X, it implies that A is abelian.

Definition 2.11. (see Ejegwa, 2018*c*; Shinoj *et al.*, 2015) Let $A \in FMG(X)$. Then the sets A_* and A^* are defined as

(i) $A_* = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(x) > 0\}$ and
(ii) $A^* = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(x) = CM_A(e)\}$, where e is the identity element of X.

Proposition 2.1. (see Ejegwa, 2018*c*; Shinoj *et al.*, 2015) *Let $A \in FMG(X)$. Then A_* and A^* are subgroups of X.*

Definition 2.12. Let $A \in FMG(X)$. Then the sets $A_{[\alpha]}$ and $A_{(\alpha)}$ defined as

(i) $A_{[\alpha]} = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(x) \geq \alpha\}$ and
(ii) $A_{(\alpha)} = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(x) > \alpha\}$

are called strong upper alpha-cut and weak upper alpha-cut of A, where $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.

Definition 2.13. Let $A \in FMG(X)$. Then the sets $A^{[\alpha]}$ and $A^{(\alpha)}$ defined as

(i) $A^{[\alpha]} = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(x) \leq \alpha\}$ and

(ii) $A^{(\alpha)} = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(x) < \alpha\}$

are called strong lower alpha-cut and weak lower alpha-cut of A, where $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.

Theorem 2.1. *Let $A \in FMG(X)$. Then $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a subgroup of X for all $\alpha \leq CM_A(e)$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a subgroup of X for all $\alpha \geq CM_A(e)$, where e is the identity element of X and $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.*

Proof. Let $x, y \in A_{[\alpha]}$, then $CM_A(x) \geq \alpha$ and $CM_A(y) \geq \alpha$. Because $A \in FMG(X)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(xy^{-1}) &\geq (CM_A(x) \wedge CM_A(y)) \geq \alpha \\ &= CM_A(x) \geq \alpha \wedge CM_A(y) \geq \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $xy^{-1} \in A_{[\alpha]}$. Hence, $A_{[\alpha]}, \alpha \in [0, 1]$ is a subgroup of X for all $\alpha \leq CM_A(e)$. The proof of the second part, that is, $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a subgroup of X $\forall\ \alpha \geq CM_A(e)$ is similar. □

3. Main Results

In this section, some properties of normal subgroups in fuzzy multigroup setting are investigated by redefining some concepts in the light of fuzzy multigroups.

Definition 3.1. Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then A is called a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B if for all $x, y \in X$, it satisfies

$$CM_A(xyx^{-1}) \geq CM_A(y).$$

Example 3.1. Let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be a group of modulo 4 with respect to addition. Then a fuzzy multigroup of X is given as

$$B = \{\langle\frac{1, 0.9, 0.8}{0}\rangle, \langle\frac{0.9, 0.7, 0.5}{1}\rangle, \langle\frac{0.8, 0.7, 0.4}{2}\rangle, \langle\frac{0.9, 0.7, 0.5}{3}\rangle\},$$

and

$$A = \{\langle\frac{1, 0.8, 0.7}{0}\rangle, \langle\frac{0.8, 0.6, 0.4}{1}\rangle, \langle\frac{0.7, 0.6, 0.4}{2}\rangle, \langle\frac{0.8, 0.6, 0.4}{3}\rangle\}$$

is a fuzzy submultigroup of B. It follows that A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B since

$$CM_A(1 + 2 + 1^{-1}) = CM_A(1 + 2 + 3) = 0.7, 0.6, 0.4 \geq CM_A(2)$$

$$CM_A(2 + 1 + 2^{-1}) = CM_A(2 + 1 + 2) = 0.8, 0.6, 0.4 \geq CM_A(1)$$

$$CM_A(3 + 2 + 3^{-1}) = CM_A(3 + 2 + 1) = 0.7, 0.6, 0.4 \geq CM_A(2)$$

$$CM_A(2 + 3 + 2^{-1}) = CM_A(2 + 3 + 2) = 0.8, 0.6, 0.4 \geq CM_A(3)$$

$$CM_A(1 + 3 + 1^{-1}) = CM_A(1 + 3 + 3) = 0.8, 0.6, 0.4 \geq CM_A(3)$$

$$CM_A(3 + 1 + 3^{-1}) = CM_A(3 + 1 + 1) = 0.8, 0.6, 0.4 \geq CM_A(1).$$

Definition 3.2. Let $A \in FMG(X)$ and $x, y \in X$. Then x and y are called conjugate elements in A if for some $z \in X$,

$$CM_A(x) = CM_A(zyz^{-1}).$$

Two fuzzy multigroups A and B of X are conjugate to each other if for all $x, y \in X$,

$$CM_A(y) = CM_B(xyx^{-1}) \text{ or } CM_A(y) = CM_{B^x}(y)$$

and

$$CM_B(x) = CM_A(yxy^{-1}) \text{ or } CM_B(x) = CM_{A^y}(x).$$

Remark. Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. From Definitions 2.6 and 2.7, A is normal if and only if A^{-1} is normal.

Proposition 3.1. *If $B \in FMG(X)$ and A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. Then A_* and A^* are normal subgroups of X. Also, A_* is a normal subgroup of B_* and A^* is a normal subgroup of B^*.*

Proof. We know that A_* and A^* are subgroups of X by Proposition 2.1. Now, we proof that A_* and A^* are normal subgroups of X.

Let $x, y \in A_*$. By the definition of A_*, it follows that $CM_A(x) > 0$ and $CM_A(y) > 0$. That is,

$$CM_A(xyx^{-1}) \geq CM_A(y) > 0.$$

So, $xyx^{-1} \in A_* \Rightarrow A_*$ is a normal subgroup of X.

Similarly, assume $x, y \in A^*$. By the definition of A^*, it follows that

$$CM_A(x) = CM_A(e) = CM_A(y).$$

That is,

$$CM_A(xyx^{-1}) \geq CM_A(y) = CM_A(e) \geq CM_A(xyx^{-1}).$$

Thus, $CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(e)\ \forall x, y \in X$. Hence, $xyx^{-1} \in A^*$ and the result follows.

Recall that, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B, and A_* and A^* are normal subgroups of X. Synthesizing these, it implies that A_* is a normal subgroup of B_* and A^* is a normal subgroup of B^*. □

Proposition 3.2. *Let A be a normal fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of X for all $\alpha \leq CM_A(e)$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of X for all $\alpha \geq CM_A(e)$, where e is the identity element of X and $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. Consequently, $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of $B_{[\alpha]}$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of $B^{[\alpha]}$.*

Proof. It implies from Theorem 2.1 that, $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a subgroup of X for all $\alpha \leq CM_A(e)$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a subgroup of X for all $\alpha \geq CM_A(e)$, where $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. Now, we proof that $A_{[\alpha]}$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ are normal subgroups of X.

Let $x, y \in A_{[\alpha]}$. By the definition of $A_{[\alpha]}$, we get

$$CM_A(x) \geq \alpha \text{ and } CM_A(y) \geq \alpha.$$

That is,

$$CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(y) \geq \alpha.$$

Thus, $xyx^{-1} \in A_{[\alpha]}$, so $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of X. Similarly, it follows that $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of X.

But we know that, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B, and $A_{[\alpha]}$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ are normal subgroups of X. Synthesizing these, it happens that $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of $B_{[\alpha]}$ and $A^{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of $B^{[\alpha]}$. □

Theorem 3.1. *For a fuzzy submultigroup A of $B \in FMG(X)$, the following statements are equivalent:*

(i) A is a normal submultigroup of B.

(ii) $A_{[\alpha]}$ (for $\alpha \in [0,1]$ and $\alpha \leq CM_A(e)$, where e is he identity element of X) is a normal subgroup of X. It also holds for$A^{[\alpha]}$, where $\alpha \in [0,1]$ and $\alpha \geq CM_A(e)$.

Proof. (i)⇒(ii). Let $x \in X$ and $y \in A_{[\alpha]}$. By the hypothesis, we have

$$CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(y) \geq \alpha.$$

It follows that $y = xyx^{-1} \in A_{[\alpha]}$ and hence $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of X.

(ii)⇒(i). Let $x, g \in X$. Take $\alpha = CM_A(x)$ and $\beta = CM_B(g)$, so that $x \in A_{[\alpha]}$ and $g \in B_{[\beta]}$.

Case 1: $\alpha \geq \beta$. This implies that $\alpha_0 \geq CM_A(x) \geq \beta = CM_B(g)$ for $\alpha \in [0, \alpha_0]$. Thus $\beta \in Im(B)$ and $\beta \leq \alpha_0$. By the hypothesis, $A_{[\beta]}$ is a normal subgroup of $B_{[\beta]}$. Also, $x \in A_{[\beta]}$ and $g \in B_{[\beta]}$. Hence $gxg^{-1} \in A_{[\beta]}$. So,

$$CM_A(gxg^{-1}) \geq \beta = CM_B(g) = CM_A(x) \wedge CM_B(g).$$

Case 2: $\beta \geq \alpha$. This implies that

$$CM_B(g) \geq \alpha = CM_A(x).$$

Thus $\alpha \in Im(A)$ and $x \in A_{[\alpha]}$, $g \in B_{[\alpha]}$. By the hypothesis, $A_{[\alpha]}$ is a normal subgroup of $B_{[\alpha]}$. Consequently, $gxg^{-1} \in A_{[\alpha]}$. So,

$$CM_A(gxg^{-1}) \geq \alpha = CM_A(x) = CM_A(x) \wedge CM_B(g).$$

Hence (i) holds. □

Proposition 3.3. *Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

(i) A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B.

(ii) $CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(y)\ \forall x, y \in X$.

(iii) $CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall x, y \in X$.

Proof. (i)⇒(ii). Suppose A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. From Definition 3.1, it implies that $CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(y)\ \forall x, y \in X$.

(ii)⇒(iii). Suppose that $CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(y)$. Then, it implies that

$$CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall x, y \in X.$$

(iii)⇒(i). Assume that $CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall x, y \in X$. It follows that A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B since $A \subseteq B$. □

Remark. Every normal fuzzy submultigroup of a fuzzy multigroup is abelian.

Proposition 3.4. *If A is a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$ such that $CM_A(x) = CM_A(y)\ \forall x, y \in X$. Then the following assertions are equivalent.*

(i) A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B.
(ii) $CM_A(yx) = CM_A(xy) \wedge CM_B(y)\ \forall x, y \in X$.

Proof. (i)⇒(ii). Since A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B and $CM_A(x) = CM_A(y)$, it follows from Definition 3.1 and Proposition 3.3 that,

$$CM_A(yx) = CM_A(y(xy)y^{-1}) = CM_A(xy) \wedge CM_B(y)\ \forall x, y \in X.$$

(ii)⇒(i). Suppose $CM_A(yx) = CM_A(xy) \wedge CM_B(y)$. We infer that

$$CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx) \wedge CM_B(y).$$

Then it implies that, $CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)$. Hence, the proof is completed by Proposition 3.3. □

Proposition 3.5. *Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $G \in FMG(X)$ and B be a fuzzy submultiset of G. If A and B are conjugate, then B is a fuzzy submultigroup of G.*

Proof. Since A and B are conjugate, then by Definition 3.2 it implies that $A = B$. And this completes the proof for the fact that, A is a fuzzy submultigroup of $G \in FMG(X)$. □

Proposition 3.6. *Let $A, B, C \in FMG(X)$ such that A and B are normal fuzzy submultigroups of C. If $A \subseteq B$, then $A \cap B$ and $A \cup B$ are normal fuzzy submultigroups of C.*

Proof. Since A and B are normal fuzzy submultigroups of C such that $A \subseteq B$, it follows that $A \cap B = A$ and $A \cup B = B$. Thus, $A \cap B$ and $A \cup B$ are normal fuzzy submultigroups of C. □

Theorem 3.2. *Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B if and only if $x \in X$ is constant on the conjugacy classes of A.*

Proof. Suppose that A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. Then

$$CM_A(y^{-1}xy) = CM_A(xyy^{-1}) = CM_A(x)\ \forall x, y \in X.$$

This implies that, $x \in X$ is constant on the conjugacy classes of A.

Conversely, let $x \in X$ be constant on each conjugacy classes of A. Then

$$CM_A(xy) = CM_A(xyxx^{-1}) = CM_A(x(yx)x^{-1}) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall x, y \in X.$$

Hence, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. □

We now give an alternative formulation of the notion of normal fuzzy submultigroup in terms of commutator of a group. First, we recall that if X is a group and $x, y \in X$, then the element $x^{-1}y^{-1}xy$ is usually depicted by $[x, y]$ and is called the commutator of x and y.

Theorem 3.3. *Let $A, B \in FMG(X)$ such that $A \subseteq B$. Then A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B if and only if*

(i) $CM_A([x, y]) \geq CM_A(x)\ \forall x, y \in X$.
(ii) $CM_A([x, y]) = CM_A(e)\ \forall x, y \in X$, *where e is the identity of X.*

Proof. (i) Suppose A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. Let $x, y \in X$, then

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(x^{-1}y^{-1}xy) &\geq CM_A(x^{-1}) \wedge CM_A(y^{-1}xy) \\ &= CM_A(x) \wedge CM_A(x) = CM_A(x). \end{aligned}$$

Conversely, assume that A satisfies the inequality. Then for all $x, y \in X$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(x^{-1}yx) &= CM_A(yy^{-1}x^{-1}yx) \\ &\geq CM_A(y) \wedge CM_A([y, x]) = CM_A(y). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $CM_A(x^{-1}yx) \geq CM_A(y) \forall x, y \in X$. Hence, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B.

(ii) Let $x, y \in X$. Suppose A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. We know that A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B
$\Leftrightarrow CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall x, y \in X$
$\Leftrightarrow CM_A(x^{-1}y^{-1}x) = CM_A(y^{-1})\ \forall x, y \in X$
$\Leftrightarrow CM_A(x^{-1}y^{-1}xyy^{-1}) = CM_A(y^{-1})\ \forall x, y \in X$
$\Leftrightarrow CM_A([x, y]y^{-1}) = CM_A(y^{-1})\ \forall x, y \in X$.
Consequently, $CM_A([x, y]) = CM_A(y^{-1}y) = CM_A(e)\ \forall x, y \in X$.

Conversely, assume $CM_A([x, y]) = CM_A(e)\ \forall x, y \in X$. Then

$$CM_A(x^{-1}y^{-1}xy) = CM_A(e) \Rightarrow CM_A((yx)^{-1}xy) = CM_A(e).$$

That is, $CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall x, y \in X$. Thus, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. □

Theorem 3.4. *Let A be a normal fuzzy submultigroup of $G \in FMG(X)$. Then $\bigcap_{x\in X} A^x$ is normal and is the largest normal fuzzy submultigroup of G that is contained in A.*

Proof. Suppose $A^x \in FMG(X)\ \forall x \in X$. Then for all $y \in X$, we observe that $A^x = A^{xy}\ \forall x, y \in X$ since

$$CM_{A^x}(z) = CM_A(xzx^{-1}) = CM_A(z)$$

and

$$CM_{A^{xy}}(z) = CM_A((xy)z(xy)^{-1}) = CM_A(z).$$

That is, $A^x = A$ whenever A is normal. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \bigwedge_{x\in X} CM_{A^x}(yzy^{-1}) &= \bigwedge_{x\in X} CM_A(xyzy^{-1}x^{-1}) \\ &= \bigwedge_{x\in X} CM_A((xy)z(xy)^{-1}) \\ &= \bigwedge_{x\in X} CM_{A^{xy}}(z) \\ &= \bigwedge_{x\in X} CM_{A^x}(z)\ \forall y, z \in X. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\bigcap_{x\in X} A^x$ is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of G. Now, let B be a normal fuzzy submultigroup of G such that $B \subseteq A$. Then $B = B^x \subseteq A^x\ \forall x \in X$. Thus, $B \subseteq \bigcap_{x\in X} A^x$. Therefore, $\bigcap_{x\in X} A^x$ is the largest normal fuzzy submultigroup of G that is contained in A. □

Definition 3.3. Let A be a submultiset of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then the normalizer of A in B is the set given by

$$N(A) = \{g \in X \mid CM_A(gy) = CM_A(yg)\ \forall y \in X\}.$$

Theorem 3.5. *Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then $N(A)$ is a subgroup of X.*

Proof. Let $g, h \in N(A)$. Then

$$CM_{A^{gh}}(x) = CM_{(A^h)^g}(x) \;=\; CM_{A^h}(x) = CM_A(x) \forall x \in X$$

since $CM_{A^g}(x) = CM_A(g^{-1}xg) = CM_A(x)$. Hence, $gh \in N(A)$. Again, let $g \in N(A)$. We show that $g^{-1} \in N(A)$. For all $y \in X$, $CM_A(gy) = CM_A(yg)$ and so $CM_A((gy)^{-1}) = CM_A((yg)^{-1})$. Thus, for all $y \in X$,

$$CM_A(y^{-1}g^{-1}) = CM_A(g^{-1}y^{-1})$$

and so $CM_A(yg^{-1}) = CM_A(g^{-1}y)$, since $CM_A(y) = CM_A(y^{-1})$. Thus,
$g^{-1} \in N(A)$. Hence, $N(A)$ is a subgroup of X. □

Theorem 3.6. *Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B if and only if $N(A) = X$.*

Proof. Let A be a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B and $g \in X$. Then $\forall x \in X$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{A^g}(x) &= CM_A(g^{-1}xg) = CM_A((g^{-1}x)g) \\ &= CM_A(g(g^{-1}x)) = CM_A(x). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $CM_{A^g}(x) = CM_A(x)$ and so $g \in N(A)$. Therefore, $N(A) = X$.

Conversely, suppose $N(A) = X$. Let $x, y \in X$. To prove that A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B, it is sufficient we show that $CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(xy) &= CM_A(xyxx^{-1}) = CM_A(x(yx)x^{-1}) \\ &= CM_{A^{x^{-1}}}(yx) = CM_A(yx), \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows since $N(A) = X$ and so, $x^{-1} \in N(A)$. Hence, $CM_{A^{x^{-1}}}(y) = CM_A(y)$ (that is, $A^{x^{-1}} = A = A^x$). Therefore, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. □

Remark. Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then $S = N(A) = T$, if

$$S = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(xy(yx)^{-1}) = CM_A(e)\ \forall y \in X\}$$

and

$$T = \{x \in X \mid CM_A(xyx^{-1}) = CM_A(y)\ \forall y \in X\}.$$

Theorem 3.7. *Let A, B and C be fuzzy multigroups of an abelian group X such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$. Then*

(i) $N(A) \cap N(B) \subseteq N(A \cap B)$.

(ii) $N(A) \cap N(B) \subseteq N(A \circ B)$.

Proof. (i) Let $y \in N(A)$ and $y \in N(B) \Rightarrow y \in N(A) \cap N(B)$. For any $x, y \in X$, we get $CM_{A\cap B}(xy) = CM_{A\cap B}(yx) \Rightarrow CM_{A\cap B}(xyx^{-1}) = CM_{A\cap B}(y)$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{A\cap B}(xyx^{-1}) &= CM_A(xyx^{-1}) \wedge CM_B(xyx^{-1}) \\ &= CM_A(yxx^{-1}) \wedge CM_B(yxx^{-1}) \\ &= CM_A(y) \wedge CM_B(y) \\ &= CM_{A\cap B}(y). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $y \in N(A \cap B)$. Hence, $N(A) \cap N(B) \subseteq N(A \cap B)$.

(ii) Let $y \in N(A) \cap N(B)$, that is $y \in N(A)$ and $y \in N(B)$. Then for all $x \in X$,

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{A\circ B}(y) &= \bigvee_{y=ab} (CM_A(a) \wedge CM_B(b)), \forall a, b \in X \\ &= \bigvee_{y=ab} (CM_A(x^{-1}ax) \wedge CM_B(x^{-1}bx)), \forall a, b \in X \\ &\leq \bigvee_{x^{-1}yx=cd} (CM_A(c) \wedge CM_B(d)), \forall c, d \in X \\ &= CM_{A\circ B}(x^{-1}yx) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow CM_{A\circ B}(y) \leq CM_{A\circ B}(x^{-1}yx)$. The inequality holds since

$$y = ab \Rightarrow x^{-1}abx = cd \Rightarrow ab = xcdx^{-1} = (xcx^{-1})(xdx^{-1})$$

and since $a = xcx^{-1}$ and $b = xdx^{-1}$ imply $x^{-1}ax = c$ and $x^{-1}bx = d$. Again,

$$CM_{A\circ B}(x^{-1}yx) \leq CM_{A\circ B}(x(x^{-1}yx)x^{-1}) = CM_{A\circ B}(y).$$

So, $CM_{A\circ B}(y) \geq CM_{A\circ B}(x^{-1}yx)$. Thus,

$$CM_{A\circ B}(y) = CM_{A\circ B}(x^{-1}yx).$$

Hence, $y \in N(A \circ B)$. Therefore, $N(A) \cap N(B) \subseteq N(A \circ B)$. □

Corollary 3.1. *Let $A, B, C \in FMG(X)$ such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$ and $CM_A(e) = CM_B(e)$. Then $N(A) \cap N(B) = N(A \cap B)$.*

Proof. Recall that

$$\begin{aligned} N(A) &= \{x \in X \mid CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)\ \forall y \in X\} \\ &= \{x \in X \mid CM_A(xyx^{-1}y^{-1}) = CM_A(e)\ \forall y \in X\}. \end{aligned}$$

Let $y \in N(A \cap B)$. Then from the definition of $N(A)$, for all $x \in X$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{A\cap B}(xyx^{-1}y^{-1}) &= CM_A(xyx^{-1}y^{-1}) \wedge CM_B(xyx^{-1}y^{-1}) \\ &= CM_A(e) \wedge CM_B(e), \end{aligned}$$

implies $y \in N(A)$ and $y \in N(B)$. Thus, $y \in N(A) \cap N(B)$ since

$$CM_A(xyx^{-1}y^{-1}) = CM_A(e) \Rightarrow CM_A(xy) = CM_A(yx)$$

and similarly in the case of B because $CM_A(e) = CM_B(e)$. Hence, it follows that $N(A) \cap N(B) = N(A \cap B)$. □

Remark. If A and B are fuzzy submultigroups of $C \in FMG(X)$ such that $A \subseteq B$. Then $N(A) \subseteq N(B)$.

Definition 3.4. Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $G \in FMG(X)$. Then the fuzzy submultiset yA of G for $y \in X$ defined by

$$CM_{yA}(x) = CM_A(y^{-1}x)\ \forall x \in X$$

is called the left fuzzy comultiset of A. Similarly, the fuzzy submultiset Ay of G for $y \in X$ defined by

$$CM_{Ay}(x) = CM_A(xy^{-1})\ \forall x \in X$$

is called the right fuzzy comultiset of A.

Proposition 3.7. *Let A be a normal fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then $CM_{xA}(xz) = CM_{xA}(zx) = CM_A(z)\ \forall x, z \in X$.*

Proof. Let $x, z \in X$. Suppose A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B, then by Proposition 3.3 and Definition 3.4, we get

$$CM_{xA}(xz) = CM_{xA}(zx) = CM_A(x^{-1}zx) = CM_A(z).$$

Hence,

$$CM_{xA}(xz) = CM_{xA}(zx) = CM_A(z)\ \forall z \in X.$$

□

Theorem 3.8. *Let $A, B \in FMG(X)$ such that $A \subseteq B$. Then A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B if and only if for all $x \in X$, $Ax = xA$.*

Proof. Suppose A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B. Then for all $x \in X$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{Ax}(y) &= CM_A(yx^{-1}) = CM_A(x^{-1}y) \\ &= CM_{xA}(y)\ \forall y \in X. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $Ax = xA$.

Conversely, let $Ax = xA$ for all $x \in X$. We get,

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(xy) &= CM_{x^{-1}A}(y) = CM_{Ax^{-1}}(y) \\ &= CM_A(yx)\ \forall y \in X. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B by Proposition 3.3. □

Theorem 3.9. *Let X be a finite group and A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Define*

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \{g \in X \mid CM_A(g) = CM_A(e)\}, \\ K &= \{x \in X \mid CM_{Ax}(y) = CM_{Ae}(y)\}, \end{aligned}$$

where e denotes the identity element of X. Then H and K are subgroups of X. Again, $H = K$.

Proof. Let $g, h \in H$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(gh) &\geq CM_A(g) \wedge CM_A(h) \\ &= CM_A(e) \wedge CM_A(e) \\ &= CM_A(e) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow CM_A(gh) \geq CM_A(e)$.

But, $CM_A(gh) \leq CM_A(e)$ from Definition 2.6. Thus, $CM_A(gh) = CM_A(e)$, implying that $gh \in H$. Since X is finite, it follows that H is a subgroup of X.

Now, we show that $H = K$. Let $k \in K$. Then for $y \in X$ we get

$$CM_{Ak}(y) = CM_{Ae}(y) \Rightarrow CM_A(yk^{-1}) = CM_A(y).$$

Choosing $y = e$, we obtain

$$CM_A(k^{-1}) = CM_A(e) \Rightarrow k^{-1} \in H,$$

and so, $k \in H$ since H is a subgroup of X. Thus, $K \subseteq H$.

Again, let $h \in H$. Then $CM_A(h) = CM_A(e)$. Also,

$$CM_{Ah}(y) = CM_A(yh^{-1}) \ \forall y \in X$$

and

$$CM_{Ae}(y) = CM_A(y) \ \forall y \in X.$$

Thus, to show that $h \in K$, it suffices to prove that

$$CM_A(yh^{-1}) = CM_A(y) \ \forall y \in X.$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(yh^{-1}) &\geq CM_A(y) \wedge CM_A(h^{-1}) \\ &= CM_A(y) \wedge CM_A(h) \\ &= CM_A(y) \wedge CM_A(e) \\ &= CM_A(y). \end{aligned}$$

Again,

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(y) &= CM_A(yh^{-1}h) \\ &\geq CM_A(yh^{-1}) \wedge CM_A(h) \\ &= CM_A(yh^{-1}) \wedge CM_A(e) \\ &= CM_A(yh^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow CM_A(yh^{-1}) = CM_A(y)$, thus $H \subseteq K$. Hence, $H = K$. Therefore, K is a subgroup of X. □

Corollary 3.2. *With the same notation as in Theorem 3.9, H is a normal subgroup of X if A is a normal fuzzy submultigroup of B.*

Proof. Let $y \in X$ and $x \in H$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} CM_A(yxy^{-1}) &= CM_A(yy^{-1}x) \ \text{ since } A \text{ is normal in } B \\ &= CM_A(x) = CM_A(e). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $yxy^{-1} \in H$. Hence, H is normal in X. □

Definition 3.5. Let A and B be fuzzy submultigroups of $C \in FMG(X)$. Then the commutator of A and B is the fuzzy multiset (A, B) of X defined as follows:

$$CM_{(A,B)}(x) = \begin{cases} \bigvee_{x=[a,b]}\{CM_A(a) \wedge CM_B(b)\}, & \text{if } x \text{ is a commutator in } X \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

That is,

$$CM_{(A,B)}(x) = \bigvee_{x=aba^{-1}b^{-1}} \{CM_A(a) \wedge CM_B(b)\}.$$

Since the supremum of an empty set is zero, $CM_{(A,B)}(x) = 0$ if x is not a commutator.

Definition 3.6. Let A and B be fuzzy submultigroups of $C \in FMG(X)$. Then the commutator fuzzy multigroup of A and B is the fuzzy multigroup generated by the commutator (A, B). It is denoted by $[A, B]$.

Definition 3.7. Let A be a fuzzy submultigroup of $B \in FMG(X)$. Then the fuzzy submultigroup of B generated by A is the least fuzzy submultigroup of B containing A. It is denoted by $< A >$. That is

$$< A >= \bigcap \{A_i \in FMG(X) | CM_A(x) \leq CM_{A_i}(x)\}.$$

With the aid of Definitions 3.5 and 3.6, we obtain the result that follows.

Theorem 3.10. *Let A and B be normal fuzzy submultigroups of* $C \in FMG(X)$. *Then* $[A, B] \subseteq A \cap B$.

Proof. Let $x \in X$. Now if x is not a commutator, then $CM_{(A,B)}(x) = 0$ and therefore there is nothing to prove. Suppose that $x = aba^{-1}b^{-1}$ for some $a, b \in X$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{A\cap B}(x) &= CM_A(x) \wedge CM_B(x) \\ &= CM_A(aba^{-1}b^{-1}) \wedge CM_B(aba^{-1}b^{-1}) \\ &\geq (CM_A(a) \wedge CM_A(ba^{-1}b^{-1})) \wedge (CM_B(aba^{-1}) \wedge CM_B(b^{-1})) \\ &\geq (CM_A(a) \wedge CM_C(b)) \wedge (CM_B(b) \wedge CM_C(a)) \\ &= CM_A(a) \wedge CM_B(b). \end{aligned}$$

This implies that

$$\begin{aligned} CM_{A\cap B}(x) &\geq \bigvee_{x=aba^{-1}b^{-1}} CM_A(a) \wedge CM_B(b) \\ &= CM_{(A,B)}(x). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, $CM_{A\cap B}(x) \geq CM_{(A,B)}(x)$. Thus $[A, B] \subseteq A \cap B$. □

4. Conclusion

We have introduced and also studied the concept of normal fuzzy submultigroups of a fuzzy multigroup and explored some of its properties. Also, the ideas of commutator and normalizer in fuzzy multigroup setting were proposed and some related results were established. However, more properties of normal fuzzy submultigroups could still be exploited.

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