

# ON $\rho$ -HOMEOMORPHISMS IN TOPOLOGICAL SPACES

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## Abstract

In this paper, we first introduce a new class of closed map called  $\rho$ -closed map. Moreover, we introduce a new class of homeomorphism called a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. We also introduce another new class of closed map called  $\rho^*$ -closed map and introduce a new class of homeomorphism called a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism and prove that the set of all  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphisms forms a group under the operation of composition of maps.

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## 1 Introduction

In the course of generalizations of the notion of homeomorphism, Maki et al. [24] introduced  $g$ -homeomorphisms and  $gc$ -homeomorphisms in topological spaces. Devi et al. [6,7] studied semi-generalized homeomorphisms and generalized semi-homeomorphisms and also they have introduced  $\alpha$ -homeomorphisms in topological spaces. In this paper, We first introduce  $\rho$ -closed maps in topological spaces and then we introduce and study  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. We also introduce  $\rho^*$ -closed map and  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism. It turns out that the set of all  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphisms forms a group under the operation of composition of maps.

## 2 preliminaries

Throughout this paper  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $(Y, \sigma)$  and  $(Z, \eta)$  will always denote topological spaces on which no separation axioms are assumed, unless otherwise mentioned. when  $A$  is a subset of  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $\text{cl}(A)$  and  $\text{int}(A)$  denote the closure and the interior of the set  $A$ , respectively.

we recall the following definitions and some results, which are used in the sequel.

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. A subset  $A$  of a space  $(X, \tau)$  is called:

1. preopen[20] if  $A \subseteq \text{int}(\text{cl}(A))$  and preclosed if  $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq A$ .
2. semiopen[18] if  $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{int}(A))$  and semiclosed if  $\text{int}(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq A$ .
3. semipreopen[1] if  $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{int}(\text{cl}(A)))$  and semipreclosed if  $\text{int}(\text{cl}(\text{int}(A))) \subseteq A$ .

**Definition 2.2.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. A subset  $A$  of a space  $(X, \tau)$  is called:

1. generalized closed(briefly g-closed)[19] if  $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$ .
2. generalized preclosed(briefly gp-closed)[25] if  $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$ .
3. generalized preregular closed(briefly gpr-closed)[11] if  $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is regularopen in  $(X, \tau)$ .
4. gp-closed [ 27 ] if  $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is -open in  $X$ .
5. -closed [32] if  $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is semi open in  $X$ .
6.  $\tilde{g}$ -closed [ 33 ] if  $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is semi open in  $X$ .
7. \*g-closed [ 36] if  $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -open in  $X$ .
8. #g- semi closed (briefly #gs-closed)[ 35 ] if  $\text{scl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is \*g-open in  $X$ .
9.  $\tilde{g}$ -closed set [ 15 ] if  $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is #gs-open in  $X$ .
10.  $\rho$ -closed set [ 16 ] if  $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq \text{Int}(U)$  whenever  $A \subseteq U$  and  $U$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -open in  $(X, \tau)$ .
11.  $\pi$ -open [37] if it is a finite union of regular open sets. The complement of a  $\pi$ -open set is said to be  $\pi$ -closed.

The complements of the above mentioned sets are called their respective open set.

**Definition 2.3.** A function  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is called

1. Semi-continuous [ 18 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is semiopen in  $(X, \tau)$  for every open set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
2. Pre-continuous [ 20 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is Preclosed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
3. g-continuous [ 4 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is g-closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
4.  $\omega$ -continuous [ 32 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\omega$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

5. gp-continuous [ 2 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is gp-closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
6. gpr-continuous [ 12 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is gpr-closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
7. gp-continuous [ 28 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is gp-closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
8. #g-semicontinuous [35 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is #gs-closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
9.  $\tilde{g}$ -continuous [ 30 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
10. Contra-continuous [ 9 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every open set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
11.  $\tilde{g}$ -irresolute [ 30 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every  $\tilde{g}$ -closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
12. M-Preclosed [ 22 ] if  $f(V)$  is Preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every preclosed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
13. M-precontinuous[20] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is Preclosed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every preclosed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
14. RC-continuous [ 10 ] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is regular closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every open set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
15.  $\rho$ -continuous [17] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
16.  $\rho$ -irresolute [17] if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$  for every  $\rho$ -closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .
17. contra-open [5] if  $f(V)$  is closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every open set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
18. preclosed [25] if  $f(V)$  is preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
19.  $\omega$ -closed [32] if  $f(V)$  is  $\omega$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
20. g-closed [21] if  $f(V)$  is g-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
21. gp-closed [25] if  $f(V)$  is gp-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
22. gpr-closed [26] if  $f(V)$  is gpr-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
23.  $\pi$ gp-closed if  $f(V)$  is  $\pi$ gp-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
24. gs-closed if  $f(V)$  is gs-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
25.  $\tilde{g}$ -closed [14] if  $f(V)$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .

**Definition 2.4.** A space  $(X, \tau)$  is called

1. a  $T_{1/2}$  space [19] if every  $g$ -closed set is closed.
2. a  $T_\omega$  space [32] if every  $\omega$ -closed set is closed.
3. a  $gsT\#1/2$  space [35] if every  $\#g$ -semi-closed set is closed.
4. a  $T\tilde{g}$ -space [30] if every  $\tilde{g}$ -closed set is closed.
5. a  $\rho$ - $T_s$  space [16] if every  $\rho_s$ -closed set is closed.

**Definition 2.5.** A bijective function  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is called a

1. homeomorphism if  $f$  is both open and continuous.
2. generalized homeomorphism (briefly  $g$ -homeomorphism) [24] if  $f$  is both  $g$ -open and  $g$ -continuous.
3. semi-homeomorphism [6] if  $f$  is both continuous and semi-open.
4. pre-homeomorphism [23] if  $f$  is both  $M$ -precontinuous and  $M$ -preopen.
5.  $gp$ -homeomorphism if  $f$  is both  $gp$ -continuous and  $gp$ -open.
6.  $gpr$ -homeomorphism if  $f$  is both  $gpr$ -continuous and  $gpr$ -open.
7.  $\pi gp$ -homeomorphism if  $f$  is both  $\pi gp$ -continuous and  $\pi gp$ -open.

**Definition 2.6.** (i) Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . We define the  $\rho$ -closure of  $A$  [16] (briefly  $\rho$ - $cl(A)$ ) to be the intersection of all  $\rho$ -closed sets containing  $A$ .

(ii) Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . We define the  $\rho$ -interior of  $A$  [16] (briefly  $\rho$ - $int(A)$ ) to be the union of all  $\rho$ -open sets contained in  $A$ .

(iii) A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is  $\rho$ -compact [17] if every  $\rho$ -open cover of  $X$  has a finite subcover.

(iv) Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. Let  $x$  be a point of  $(X, \tau)$  and  $V$  be a subset of  $X$ . Then  $V$  is called a  $\rho$ -open neighbourhood (simply  $\rho$ -neighbourhood) [17] of  $x$  in  $(X, \tau)$  if there exists a  $\rho$ -open set  $U$  of  $(X, \tau)$  such that  $x \in U \subseteq V$ .

**Proposition 2.7.** [16] Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . The following properties are hold:

- (i)  $\rho$ - $cl(A)$  is the smallest  $\rho$ -closed set containing  $A$ .
- (ii) If  $A$  is  $\rho$ -closed then  $\rho$ - $cl(A) = A$ . Converse not true.
- (iii)  $\rho$ - $int(A)$  is the largest  $\rho$ -open set contained in  $A$ .
- (iv) If  $A \subset B$  then  $\rho$ - $cl(A) \subset \rho$ - $cl(B)$ .

### 3 $\rho$ -closed maps

**Definition 3.1.** A map  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is said to be  $\rho$ -closed if the image of every closed set in  $(X, \tau)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

**Example 3.2.** (i) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c, d, e\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{c, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{d, e\}, \{b, d, e\}, \{a, c, d, e\}, Y\}$ . Define a map  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = d, f(b) = e, f(c) = b, f(d) = c, f(e) = a$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

(ii) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c, d, e\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{c, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{d, e\}, \{b, d, e\}, \{a, c, d, e\}, Y\}$ . Let  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be the identity map. Then  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -closed map. Since for the closed set  $V = \{e\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{e\}$ , Which is not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

**Theorem 3.3.** Every Contra-closed map and Preclosed map  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed map.

*Proof.* : Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is open and preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence by Theorem 3.2[16],  $f(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Therefore  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

Converse of this theorem need not be true as seen from the following example.

**Example 3.4.** As in Example 3.2(i),  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map but neither contra-closed map nor preclosed map. Since for the closed set  $V = \{a, b, e\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{a, d, e\}$  is neither preclosed nor open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

**Theorem 3.5.** Every  $\rho$ -closed map  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is a gp-closed (resp. gpr-closed,  $\pi$ gp-closed) map.

*Proof.* : Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . By Theorem 3.4[16],  $f(V)$  is gp-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  (resp. By Theorem 3.6[16],  $f(V)$  is gpr-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , By Theorem 3.10[16],  $f(V)$  is  $\pi$ gp-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ). Hence  $f$  is a gp-closed (resp. gpr-closed,  $\pi$ gp-closed) map.  $\square$

Converse of this theorem need not be true as seen from the following examples.

**Example 3.6.** (i) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c, d, e\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{a, b, d, e\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{b, c, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{b, c, d, e\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c; f(b) = e; f(c) = a; f(d) = b; f(e) = d$ . Then the function  $f$  is a gp-closed map but not  $\rho$ -closed map. Since for the closed set  $V = \{e\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{d\}$ , is a gp-closed set but not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

(ii) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c, d, e\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{a, b, d, e\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{c, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f$  as in Example 3.6(i), the function  $f$  is gpr-closed map but not  $\rho$ -closed map. Since for all the closed sets in  $(X, \tau)$ , its images are all gpr-closed sets in  $(X, \sigma)$  but no one is  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

(iii) As in Example 3.6(i), Define  $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c; f(b) = b; f(c) = a; f(d) = e; f(e) = d$ . Then the function  $f$  is a  $\pi$ gp-closed map but not  $\rho$ -closed map. Since for the closed set  $V = \{a, d\}$  is  $\pi$ gp-closed set but not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

*Remark 3.7.* The following examples show that closed map is independent of  $\rho$ -closed map.

**Example 3.8.** (i) As in Example 3.2(i),  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map but not a closed map. since for the closed set  $v = \{e\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{a\}$  is  $\rho$ -closed but not closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

(ii) As in Example 2.30[17],  $[0, \frac{1}{4}]$  is closed in  $[0, 1]$ ,  $f([0, \frac{1}{4}]) = [0, \frac{1}{2}]$  is closed in  $[0, 2]$  but it is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $[0, 2]$ . since  $[0, \frac{1}{2}] \subseteq [0, 1)$ , open in  $[0, 2]$  and hence  $\tilde{g}$ -open in  $[0, 2]$  but  $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$  is not contained in  $(0, 1)$ .

*Remark 3.9.* The following examples show that  $g$ -closed map is independent of  $\rho$ -closed map.

**Example 3.10.** (i) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$ ,  $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define a map  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c$ ;  $f(b) = b$ ;  $f(c) = a$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map but not  $g$ -closed map. since for the closed set  $V = \{b\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{b\}$  is  $\rho$ -closed but not  $g$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

(ii) consider  $[0, 1]$  and  $[0, 2]$  with usual topology. Define  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 2]$  by  $f(x) = 2x$ . Let  $[0, \frac{1}{4}]$  be closed in  $[0, 1]$ . Then  $f([0, \frac{1}{4}]) = [0, \frac{1}{2}]$  is  $g$ -closed in  $[0, 2]$  but not  $\rho$ -closed in  $[0, 2]$ . Hence  $f$  is  $g$ -closed but not  $\rho$ -closed.

*Remark 3.11.* The following example shows that the composition of two  $\rho$ -closed maps need not be  $\rho$ -closed.

**Example 3.12.** Let  $X = Y = Z = \{a, b, c\}$ ,  $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, c\}, Y\}$ ,  $\eta = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Z\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = f(b) = b$ ;  $f(c) = a$  and define  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  by  $g(a) = c$ ;  $g(b) = b$ ;  $g(c) = a$ . Then both  $f$  and  $g$  are  $\rho$ -closed maps but their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is not a  $\rho$ -closed map. since for the closed set  $V = \{b, c\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $gf(V) = \{a, b\}$ , Which is not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Z, \eta)$ .

**Theorem 3.13.** *If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is  $\rho$ -closed and  $(Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ - $T_{1/2}$  space then their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is  $\rho$ -closed.*

*Proof.* :Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $(Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ - $T_{1/2}$ , then  $f(V)$  is a closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $g(f(V)) = (gf)(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.14.** *If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is a  $\tilde{g}$ -closed (resp.  $g$ -closed,  $\omega$ -closed,  $gs$ -closed) map,  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map and  $Y$  is  $T\tilde{g}$ -space (resp.  $T_{1/2}$  space,  $T_\omega$  space,  $gsT_{1/2}^\#$  space) then their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.*

*Proof.* :Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is a  $\tilde{g}$ -closed (resp.  $g$ -closed,  $\omega$ -closed,  $gs$ -closed) set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $(Y, \sigma)$  is a  $T\tilde{g}$ -space (resp.  $T_{1/2}$  space,  $T_\omega$  space,  $gsT_{1/2}^\#$  space), therefore  $f(V)$  is a closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $g$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $g(f(V)) = (gf)(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.15.** *If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is a  $\tilde{g}$ -closed and Contra-closed map,  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is a M-Preclosed and open map then their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is  $\rho$ -closed map.*

*Proof.* Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -closed and open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since every  $\tilde{g}$ -closed is Preclosed and  $g$  is M-preclosed and open, hence  $g(f(V)) = (gf)(V)$  is preclosed and open in  $(Z, \eta)$ . By Theorem 3.2 [16],  $(gf)(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.16.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a closed map and  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  be a  $\rho$ -closed map then their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is  $\rho$ -closed.*

*Proof.* Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is a closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $g(f(V)) = (gf)(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

*Remark 3.17.* If  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed map and  $g$  is closed, then their composition need not be a  $\rho$ -closed map as seen from the following example.

**Example 3.18.** Let  $X = Y = Z = \{a, b, c\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, c\}, Y\}, \eta = \{\emptyset, \{c\}, \{a, c\}, Z\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be  $f(a) = f(b) = c; f(c) = b$  and define  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  be the identity map. Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map and  $g$  is a closed map. But their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is not a  $\rho$ -closed map. Since for the closed set  $V = \{a\}$  in  $(X, \tau), (gf)(V) = g(f(V)) = g(c) = \{c\}$ , which is not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Z, \eta)$ .

**Theorem 3.19.** *If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed,  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is M-Preclosed and  $\tilde{g}$ -irresolute map then  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is  $\rho$ -closed.*

*Proof.* Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence by Theorem 3.16[17],  $g(f(V)) = (gf)(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.20.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  and  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  be two mappings such that their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  be a  $\rho$ -closed mapping. Then the following statements are true if:*

1.  $f$  is continuous and surjective then  $g$  is  $\rho$ -closed.
2.  $g$  is  $\rho$ -irresolute, injective then  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed
3.  $f$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -continuous, surjective and  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $T_{\tilde{g}}$ -space, then  $g$  is  $\rho$ -closed.
4.  $f$  is  $g$ -continuous, surjective and  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $T_{1/2}$  space then  $g$  is  $\rho$ -closed.
5.  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous, surjective and  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $\rho$ - $T_s$  space then  $g$  is  $\rho$ -closed.

*Proof.* 1. Let  $A$  be a closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$  and since  $gf$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $(gf)(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ , since  $f$  is surjective. Therefore,  $g$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

2. Let  $A$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $gf$  is  $\rho$ -closed, then  $(gf)(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Since  $g$  is  $\rho$ -irresolute, then  $g^{-1}(gf)(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , since  $g$  is injective. Thus,  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

3. Let  $A$  be a closed set of  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -continuous,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $T\tilde{g}$ -space,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$ , since  $gf$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $(gf)(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ , since  $f$  is surjective. Thus  $g$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

4. Let  $A$  be a closed set of  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is  $g$ -continuous,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is  $g$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $T_{1/2}$ -space,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$ , since  $gf$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $(gf)(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ , since  $f$  is surjective. Thus  $g$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

5. Let  $A$  be a closed set  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous,  $f^{-1}(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $\rho$ - $T_s$  space and by Theorem 3.33 [15],  $f^{-1}(A)$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $gf$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $(gf)f^{-1}(A) = g(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Since  $f$  is surjective. Thus,  $g$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

As for the restriction  $f_A$  of a map  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  to a subset  $A$  of  $(X, \tau)$ , we have the following.

**Theorem 3.21.** *Let  $(X, \tau)$  and  $(Y, \sigma)$  be any topological spaces, Then if :*

1.  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed and  $A$  is a closed subset of  $(X, \tau)$  then  $f_A : (A, \tau_A) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed.
2.  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed and  $A = f^{-1}(B)$ , for some closed set  $B$  of  $(Y, \sigma)$ , then  $f_A : (A, \tau_A) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed.

*Proof.* 1. Let  $B$  be a closed set of  $(A, \tau_A)$ . Then  $B = A \cap F$  for some closed set  $F$  of  $(X, \tau)$  and so  $B$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed, then  $f(B)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . But  $f(B) = f_A(B)$  and therefore  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

2. Let  $F$  be a closed set of  $(A, \tau_A)$ . Then  $F = A \cap H$  for some closed set  $H$  of  $(X, \tau)$ . Now  $f_A(F) = f(F) = f(A \cap H) = f(f^{-1}(B) \cap H) = B \cap f(H)$ . Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed,  $f(H)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so  $B \cap f(H)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Therefore  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.  $\square$

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

*Proof.* Suppose that  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map. Let  $S \subset Y$  and  $U$  be an open subset of  $(X, \tau)$  such that  $f^{-1}(S) \subset U$ . Then  $V = (f(U^c))^c$  is a  $\rho$ -open set containing  $S$  such that  $f^{-1}(V) \subset U$ . For the converse, Let  $S$  be a closed set of  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f^{-1}((f(S))^c) \subset S^c$  and  $S^c$  is open. By assumption, there exists a  $\rho$ -open set  $V$  of  $(Y, \sigma)$  such that  $(f(S))^c \subset V$  and  $f^{-1}(V) \subset S^c$  and so  $S \subset (f^{-1}(V))^c$ . Hence  $V^c \subset f(S) \subset f(f^{-1}(V)^c) \subset V^c$  which implies  $f(S) = V^c$ . since  $V^c$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f(S)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and therefore  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.23.** *If a mapping  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -closed then  $\rho\text{-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$  for every subset  $A$  of  $(X, \tau)$ .*



*Proof.* Suppose that  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed and  $A \subseteq X$ , Then  $f(\text{cl}(A))$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence by Theorem 4.22[16],  $\rho\text{-cl}(f(\text{cl}(A))) = f(\text{cl}(A))$ . Also  $f(A) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$ , and by Proposition 2.7(iv), we have,  $\rho\text{-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq \rho\text{-cl}(f(\text{cl}(A))) = f(\text{cl}(A))$ .  $\square$

Converse of this theorem need not be true as seen from the following example.

**Example 3.24.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ ,  $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c$ ;  $f(b) = a$ ;  $f(c) = b$ . For every subset  $A$  of  $X$ , we have  $\rho\text{-cl}(f(A)) \subseteq f(\text{cl}(A))$ . But  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -closed map. Since for the closed set  $V = \{b, c\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{a, b\}$  is not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

## 4 $\rho$ -Open maps

**Definition 4.1.** A map  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is said to  $\rho$ -open map if the image  $f(A)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every open set  $A$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .

**Theorem 4.2.** For any bijection  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ , the following statements are equivalent.

1.  $f^{-1} : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$  is  $\rho$ -continuous
2.  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -open map and
3.  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

*Proof.* (1)  $\rightarrow$  (2) Let  $U$  be an open set of  $(X, \tau)$ . By assumption,  $(f^{-1})^{-1}(U) = f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -open map.

(2)  $\rightarrow$  (3) Let  $V$  be a closed set of  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $V^c$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$ . By assumption  $f(V^c) = (f(V))^c$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and therefore  $f(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

(3)  $\rightarrow$  (1) Let  $V$  be a closed set of  $(X, \tau)$ . By assumption  $f(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . But  $f(V) = (f^{-1})^{-1}(V)$  and therefore  $f^{-1}$  is  $\rho$ -continuous on  $(Y, \sigma)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 4.3.** Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be mapping. If  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -open mapping then for a subset  $A$  of  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(\text{int}(A)) \subset \rho\text{-int}(f(A))$

*Proof.* Suppose  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open. Let  $A \subset X$ . since  $\text{int}(A)$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$  and  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open, then  $f(\text{int}(A))$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Now  $f(\text{int}(A)) \subset f(A)$  and by Proposition 2.7(iii), we have,  $f(\text{int}(A)) \subset \rho\text{-int}(f(A))$ .  $\square$

Converse of this theorem need not be true as seen from the following example.

**Example 4.4.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d, e\} = Y$ ,  $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{b, c, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{b, c, d, e\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, d\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{a, b, d, e\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = a$ ;  $f(b) = c$ ;  $f(c) = d$ ;  $f(d) = e$ ;  $f(e) = b$ . For a subset  $A$  of  $X$ ,  $f(\text{int}(A)) \subset \rho\text{-int}(f(A))$  but  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -open map. Since for a subset  $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$  of  $X$ ,  $f(\text{int}(A)) = \{a, c, d, e\}$ ,  $f(A) = \{a, c, d, e\}$ , clearly  $f(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq \rho\text{-int}(f(A))$  but  $f(A)$  is not  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

**Theorem 4.5.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be mapping. If  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -open mapping, then for each  $x \in X$  and for each neighbourhood  $U$  of  $x$  in  $(X, \tau)$ , there exists a  $\rho$ -neighbourhood  $W$  of  $f(x)$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$  such that  $W \subseteq f(U)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $x \in X$  and  $U$  be an arbitrary neighbourhood of  $x$ . Then there exists an open set  $V$  in  $(X, \tau)$  such that  $x \in V \subseteq U$ . By assumption,  $f(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -open set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Further,  $f(x) \in f(V) \subseteq f(U)$ , clearly  $f(U)$  is a  $\rho$ -neighbourhood of  $f(x)$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so the theorem holds, by taking  $W = f(V)$ .  $\square$

Converse of this theorem need not be true as seen from the following example.

**Example 4.6.** As in example 4.4, Let  $U = \{a, b, c, d\}$  be an open set in  $(X, \tau)$  and  $f(a) = a$ . Then  $a \in U$  and for each  $a = f(a) \in f(U) = \{a, c, d, e\}$ , by assumption, there exists a  $\rho$ -neighbourhood  $W_a = \{a, c, d, e\}$  of  $a$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$  such that  $W_a \subseteq f(U)$ . But  $f(U)$  is not a  $\rho$ -open set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

**Theorem 4.7.** *A function  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -open if and only if for any subset  $B$  of  $(Y, \sigma)$  and for any closed set  $S$  containing  $f^{-1}(B)$ , there exists a  $\rho$ -closed set  $A$  of  $(Y, \sigma)$  containing  $B$  such that  $f^{-1}(A) \subseteq S$ .*

*Proof.* Similar to theorem 3.22.  $\square$

## 5 $\rho$ -Homeomorphisms

**Definition 5.1.** A bijection  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is called  $\rho$ -homeomorphism if  $f$  is both  $\rho$ -continuous and  $\rho$ -open.

**Example 5.2.** Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{b, c\}, Y\}$ . Define a map  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c, f(b) = b, f(c) = a$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism

**Theorem 5.3.** *Every  $\rho$ -homeomorphism is a gp-homeomorphism (resp. gpr-homeomorphism,  $\pi$ gp-homeomorphism).*

*Proof.* By Theorem 2.5[17], every  $\rho$ -continuous map is gp-continuous (resp. by Theorem 2.7[17], gpr-continuous, by Theorem 2.11[17]  $\pi$ gp-continuous) and also by Theorem 3.4[16], every  $\rho$ -open map is gp-open (resp. by Theorem 3.4[16], gpr-open, by theorem 3.10[16],  $\pi$ gp-open), the proof follows.  $\square$

Converse of the above theorem need not be true as seen from the following example.

**Example 5.4.** (i) Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c, f(b) = a, f(c) = b$ . Then  $f$  is gp-homeomorphism but not  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V = \{c\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V) = \{a\}$  is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ , that is  $f$  is not  $\rho$ -continuous.

(ii) Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{c, a\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{c, a\}, Y\}$ . Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be an identity map. Then  $f$  is  $\pi$ gp-homeomorphism but

not  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V = \{c, a\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V) = \{c, a\}$  is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ , that is  $f$  is not  $\rho$ -continuous.

(iii) Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}$ ,  $\tau = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\emptyset, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c$ ,  $f(b) = a$ ,  $f(c) = b$ . Then  $f$  is gpr-homeomorphism but not  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V = \{c\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V) = \{a\}$  is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ , that is  $f$  is not  $\rho$ -continuous.

**Theorem 5.5.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be both contra-open and contra-continuous functions. If  $f$  is a gp-homeomorphism, then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.*

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be open in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(U)$  is gp-open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $Y-f(U)$  is gp-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is contra-open, then  $f(U)$  is closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so  $Y-f(U)$  is open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . By Theorem 2.2[29],  $Y-f(U)$  is preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and by Theorem 3.2[16],  $Y-f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , that is  $f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open. Let  $V$  be closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is gp-closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is contra-continuous, then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$ . By Theorem 2.2[29] and by Theorem 3.2[16],  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous. Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous and  $\rho$ -open, therefore  $f$  is  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Definition 5.6.** A function  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is called

1. contra- $\pi$ -open (resp. regular-contra-open), if  $f(U)$  is  $\pi$ -closed (resp. regular closed) in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every open set  $U$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .
2. contra- $\pi$ -continuous, if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\pi$ -open in  $(X, \tau)$  for every closed set  $V$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

**Theorem 5.7.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be both contra- $\pi$ -open and contra- $\pi$ -continuous functions. If  $f$  is a  $\pi$ gp-homeomorphism, then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.*

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be open in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(U)$  is  $\pi$ gp-open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $Y-f(U)$  is  $\pi$ gp-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is contra- $\pi$ -open, then  $f(U)$  is  $\pi$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so  $Y-f(U)$  is  $\pi$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . By Theorem 2.4[27],  $Y-f(U)$  is preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and since every  $\pi$ -open is open and by Theorem 3.2[16],  $Y-f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , that is  $f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open. Let  $V$  be closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\pi$ gp-closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is contra- $\pi$ -continuous, then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\pi$ -open in  $(X, \tau)$ . By Theorem 2.4[27] and since every  $\pi$ -open is open and by Theorem 3.2[16],  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous. Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous and  $\rho$ -open, therefore  $f$  is  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.8.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be both contra-regular open and RC-continuous functions. If  $f$  is a gpr-homeomorphism, then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.*

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be open in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(U)$  is gpr-open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $Y-f(U)$  is gpr-closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is contra-regular open, then  $f(U)$  is regular closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so  $Y-f(U)$  is regular open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . By Theorem 3.10[11],  $Y-f(U)$  is preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and since every regular open is open and by Theorem 3.2[16],  $Y-f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , that is  $f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open. Let  $V$  be closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is gpr-closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is

completely contra-continuous, then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is regularopen in  $(X, \tau)$ . By Theorem 3.10[11] and since every regular open is open and by Theorem 3.2[16],  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous. Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous and  $\rho$ -open, therefore  $f$  is  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.9.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be both contra-open and contra-continuous functions. If  $f$  is pre-homeomorphism, then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.*

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be open in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $f(U)$  is preopen in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $Y-f(U)$  is preclosed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $f$  is contra-open, then  $f(U)$  is closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and so  $Y-f(U)$  is open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . By Theorem 3.2[16],  $Y-f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , that is  $f(U)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open. Let  $V$  be closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is preclosed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is contra-continuous, then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$ . By Theorem 3.2[16],  $f^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Hence  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous. Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -continuous and  $\rho$ -open, therefore  $f$  is  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

*Remark 5.10.*  $\rho$ -homeomorphism and homeomorphism are independent as can be seen from the following examples.

**Example 5.11.** (i) Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d\} = Y$ ,  $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, d\}, Y\}$ . If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is an identity function, then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism but not homeomorphism. Since  $f$  is neither continuous nor open.

(ii) Let  $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ ,  $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\phi, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c$ ,  $f(b) = a$ ,  $f(c) = b$ . Then  $f$  is a homeomorphism but not  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V = \{c\}$ ,  $f^{-1}(V) = \{a\}$  is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ , that is  $f$  is not  $\rho$ -continuous.

*Remark 5.12.*  $\rho$ -homeomorphism and g-homeomorphism are independent as can be seen from the following examples.

**Example 5.13.** (i) Let  $X = \{a, b, c\} = Y$ ,  $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\phi, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = b$ ,  $f(b) = a$ ,  $f(c) = c$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism but not g-homeomorphism. Since for the open set  $V = \{a, c\}$  in  $(X, \tau)$ ,  $f(V) = \{b, c\}$  is not g-open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ .

(ii) Consider  $[0, 1]$  and  $[0, 2]$  with usual topology. Define  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 2]$  by  $f(x) = 2x$ . Also  $f^{-1}(x) = x/2$ . Then  $f$  is a g-homeomorphism but not  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V = [0, \frac{1}{2}]$  in  $[0, 2]$ ,  $f^{-1}(V) = [0, \frac{1}{4}]$  is g-closed in  $[0, 1]$  but not  $\rho$ -closed in  $[0, 1]$ , that is  $f$  is not  $\rho$ -continuous.

*Remark 5.14.*  $\rho$ -homeomorphism and semi-homeomorphism are independent as can be seen from the following examples.

**Example 5.15.** (i) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$ ,  $\tau = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be an identity map. Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. But  $f$  is not a semi-homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V = \{b, c\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V) = \{b, c\}$ , Which is not closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $f$  is not a continuous map.

(ii) Let  $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$ ,  $\tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b, c\}, X\}$ ,  $\sigma = \{\phi, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a) = c$ ,  $f(b) = a$ ,  $f(c) = b$ . Then  $f$  is a semi-homeomorphism.

But  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V=\{c\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)=\{a\}$ , Which is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -continuous map.

*Remark 5.16.*  $\rho$ -homeomorphism and pre-homeomorphism are independent as can be seen from the following examples.

**Example 5.17.** (i) Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}, \tau =\{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, X\}, \sigma =\{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=c$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. But  $f$  is not a pre-homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V=\{b, c\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)=\{c, a\}$ , Which is not preclosed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $f$  is not a pre-continuous map.

(ii) Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}, \tau =\{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}, \sigma =\{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Define  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  by  $f(a)=c, f(b)=a, f(c)=b$ . Then  $f$  is a pre-homeomorphism. But  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V=\{c\}$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)=\{a\}$ , Which is not  $\rho$ -closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $f$  is not a  $\rho$ -continuous map.

**Theorem 5.18.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a bijection  $\rho$ -continuous map. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

1.  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -open map.
2.  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.
3.  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

*Proof.* (1) $\rightarrow$ (2) By hypothesis and by assumption, proof is obvious.

(2) $\rightarrow$ (3) Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $V^c$  is open in  $(X, \tau)$ . By hypothesis,  $f(V^c) = (f(V))^c$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . That is,  $f(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Therefore  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -closed map.

(3) $\rightarrow$ (1) Let  $V$  be an open set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Then  $V^c$  is closed in  $(X, \tau)$ . By hypothesis,  $f(V^c) = (f(V))^c$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . That is,  $f(V)$  is  $\rho$ -open in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Therefore  $f$  is a  $\rho$ -open map.  $\square$

*Remark 5.19.* The composition of two  $\rho$ -homeomorphism maps need not be a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism as can be seen from the following example.

**Example 5.20.** Let  $X=Y=Z=\{a, b, c\}, \tau =\{\phi, \{a, b\}, X\}, \sigma =\{\phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, Y\}, \eta =\{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, Z\}$ . Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be an identity map and define  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  by  $g(a)=b, g(b)=a, g(c)=c$ . Then both  $f$  and  $g$  are  $\rho$ -homeomorphisms, but their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is not a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Since for the closed set  $V=\{a\}$  in  $(Z, \eta)$ ,  $(gf)^{-1}(V)=\{b\}$ , Which is not a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is not a  $\rho$ -continuous map and so  $gf$  is not a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.

**Theorem 5.21.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism. Let  $A$  be an open  $\rho$ -closed subset of  $X$  and let  $B$  be a closed subset of  $Y$  such that  $f(A)=B$ . Assume that  $\rho C(X, \tau)$  ( the class of all  $\rho$ -closed sets of  $(X, \tau)$ ) be closed under finite intersections. Then the restriction  $f_A : (A, \tau_A) \rightarrow (B, \sigma_B)$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.*

*Proof.* We have to show that  $f_A$  is a bijection,  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -open map and  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -continuous map.

(i) Since  $f$  is one-one,  $f_A$  is also one-one. Also since  $f(A)=B$  we have  $f_A(A)=B$  so that  $f_A$  is onto and hence  $f_A$  is a bijection.

(ii) Let  $U$  be an open set of  $(A, \tau_A)$ . Then  $U = A \cap H$ , for some open set  $H$  in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is one-one, then  $f(U) = f(A \cap H) = f(A) \cap f(H) = B \cap f(H)$ . Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -open and  $H$  is an open set in  $(X, \tau)$ , then  $f(H)$  is a  $\rho$ -open set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Therefore  $f(U)$  is a  $\rho$ -open set in  $(B, \sigma_B)$ , Hence  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -open map.

(iii) Let  $V$  be a closed set in  $(B, \sigma_B)$ . Then  $V = B \cap K$ , for some closed set  $K$  in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $B$  is a closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ , then  $V$  is a closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . By hypothesis and assumption,  $f^{-1}(V) \cap A = H_1$  (say) is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f_A^{-1}(V) = H_1$ , it is sufficient to show that  $H_1$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(A, \tau_A)$ . Let  $G_1$  be  $\tilde{g}$ -open in  $(A, \tau_A)$  such that  $H_1 \subseteq G_1$ . Then by hypothesis and by Lemma 3.21[17],  $G_1$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -open in  $X$ . Since  $H_1$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ , we have  $\text{Pcl}_X(H_1) \subseteq \text{Int}(G_1)$ . Since  $A$  is open and by Lemma 2.10[12],  $\text{Pcl}_A(H_1) = \text{Pcl}_X(H_1) \cap A \subseteq \text{Int}(G_1) \cap A = \text{Int}(G_1) \cap \text{Int}(A) = \text{Int}(G_1 \cap A) \subseteq \text{Int}(G_1)$  and so  $H_1 = f_A^{-1}(V)$  is  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(A, \tau_A)$ . Therefore  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -continuous map. Hence  $f_A$  is a  $\rho$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Definition 5.22.** A topological space  $(X, \tau)$  is called a  $\rho$ -hausdorff if for each pair  $x, y$  of distinct points of  $X$ , there exists  $\rho$ -open neighbourhoods  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  of  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, that are disjoint.

**Theorem 5.23.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space and let  $(Y, \sigma)$  be a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space. Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a one-one  $\rho$ -irresolute map. Then  $(X, \tau)$  is also a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space.

*Proof.* Let  $x_1, x_2$  be any two distinct points of  $X$ . Since  $f$  is one-one,  $x_1 \neq x_2$  implies  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ . Let  $y_1 = f(x_1)$ ,  $y_2 = f(x_2)$  so that  $x_1 = f^{-1}(y_1)$  and  $x_2 = f^{-1}(y_2)$ . Then  $y_1, y_2 \in Y$  such that  $y_1 \neq y_2$ . Since  $(Y, \sigma)$  is  $\rho$ -hausdorff, then there exists  $\rho$ -open sets  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  of  $(Y, \sigma)$  such that  $y_1 \in U_1, y_2 \in U_2$  and  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \phi$ . Since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -irresolute,  $f^{-1}(U_1)$  and  $f^{-1}(U_2)$  are  $\rho$ -open sets of  $(X, \tau)$ . Now  $f^{-1}(U_1) \cap f^{-1}(U_2) = f^{-1}(U_1 \cap U_2) = f^{-1}(\phi) = \phi$ , and  $y_1 \in U_1$  implies  $f^{-1}(y_1) \in f^{-1}(U_1)$  implies  $x_1 \in f^{-1}(U_1)$ ,  $y_2 \in U_2$  implies  $f^{-1}(y_2) \in f^{-1}(U_2)$  implies  $x_2 \in f^{-1}(U_2)$ . Thus it is shown that for every pair of distinct points  $x_1, x_2$  of  $X$ , there exists disjoint  $\rho$ -open sets  $f^{-1}(U_1)$  and  $f^{-1}(U_2)$  such that  $x_1 \in f^{-1}(U_1)$  and  $x_2 \in f^{-1}(U_2)$ . Accordingly, the space  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.24.** Every  $\rho$ -compact subset  $A$  of a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space  $X$  is  $\rho$ -closed. Assume that  $\rho O(X, \tau)$  (the class of all  $\rho$ -open sets of  $(X, \tau)$ ) be closed under finite intersections.

*Proof.* We shall show that  $X-A$  is  $\rho$ -open. let  $x \in X-A$ , Since  $X$  is hausdorff, for every  $y \in A$ , there exists disjoint  $\rho$ -open neighbourhoods  $U_y$  and  $V_y$  of  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $U_y \cap V_y = \phi$ . Now the collection  $\{V_y / y \in A\}$  is a  $\rho$ -open cover of  $A$ , since  $A$  is compact, there exists a finite subcover  $\{V_{y_i}, i=1, \dots, n\}$  such that  $A \subseteq \cup \{V_{y_i}, i=1, \dots, n\}$ . Let  $U = \cap \{U_{y_i}, i=1, \dots, n\}$  and  $V = \cup \{V_{y_i}, i=1, \dots, n\}$ . Then, by assumption,  $U$  is an  $\rho$ -open neighbourhood of  $x$ . clearly  $U \cap V = \phi$ , hence  $U \cap A = \phi$ , thus  $U \subseteq X-A$ , which means  $X-A$  is  $\rho$ -open, therefore  $A$  is  $\rho$ -closed.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.25.** Let  $(X, \tau)$  a topological space and let  $(Y, \sigma)$  be a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space. Assume that  $\rho O(X, \tau)$  (the class of all  $\rho$ -open sets of  $(X, \tau)$ ) be closed under finite intersections. If  $f, g$  are  $\rho$ -irresolute maps of  $X$  into  $Y$ , then the set  $A = \{x \in X : f(x) = g(x)\}$  is a  $\rho$ -closed subset of  $(X, \tau)$ .

*Proof.* We shall show that  $X-A$  is a  $\rho$ -open subset of  $(X, \tau)$ . Now  $X-A = \{x \in X : f(x) \neq g(x)\}$ . Let  $p \in X-A$ . Set  $y_1 = f(p), y_2 = g(p)$ . By the definition of  $X-A$ , we have  $y_1 \neq y_2$ . Thus  $y_1, y_2$  are two distinct points of  $Y$ . Since  $(Y, \sigma)$  is a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space, there exists  $\rho$ -open sets  $U_1, U_2$  of  $(Y, \sigma)$  such that  $y_1 = f(p) \in U_1, y_2 = g(p) \in U_2$  and  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \phi$ . Therefore  $p \in f^{-1}(U_1), p \in g^{-1}(U_2)$ , so that  $p \in f^{-1}(U_1) \cap g^{-1}(U_2) = W$  (say). Since  $f$  and  $g$  are  $\rho$ -irresolute maps,  $f^{-1}(U_1)$  and  $g^{-1}(U_2)$  are  $\rho$ -open sets of  $(X, \tau)$  and by assumption  $W$  is a  $\rho$ -open set containing  $p$ . We will now show that  $W \subset X-A$ . Let  $y \in W$ , since  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \phi$ , then  $f(y) \neq g(y)$  and hence from the definition of  $X-A, y \in X-A$ . Therefore  $W \subset X-A$ , which means  $X-A$  is a  $\rho$ -open set. It follows that  $A$  is a  $\rho$ -closed subset of  $(X, \tau)$ .  $\square$

We define another new class of maps called  $\rho^*$ -closed maps.

**Definition 5.26.** A map  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is said to be a  $\rho^*$ -closed map if the image  $f(A)$  is  $\rho$ -closed in  $(Y, \sigma)$  for every  $\rho$ -closed set  $A$  in  $(X, \tau)$ .

**Example 5.27.** As in example 3.2,  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -closed map.

**Theorem 5.28.** If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is  $\tilde{g}$ -irresolute and  $M$ -preclosed functions then  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -closed map.

*Proof.* By Theorem 3.16[17], the theorem follows.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.29.** Every  $\rho$ -closed map is a  $\rho^*$ -closed map if  $(X, \tau)$  is  $\rho$ - $T_S$  space.

*Proof.* Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a  $\rho$ -closed map and  $V$  be a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $\rho$ - $T_S$  space, then  $V$  is a closed set in  $(X, \tau)$  and since  $f$  is  $\rho$ -closed, then  $f(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -closed map.  $\square$

We next introduce a new class of maps called  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphisms. This class of maps is closed under composition of maps.

**Definition 5.30.** A bijection  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is said to be  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism if both  $f$  and  $f^{-1}$  are  $\rho$ -irresolute.

**Example 5.31.** Let  $X=Y=\{a, b, c\}, \tau = \{\phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, X\}, \sigma = \{\phi, \{a, b\}, Y\}$ . Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be an identity map. Then  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism.

**Theorem 5.32.** A bijective  $\rho$ -irresolute map of a  $\rho$ -compact space  $X$  onto a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space  $Y$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism.

*Proof.* Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a  $\rho$ -compact space and  $(Y, \sigma)$  be a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space. Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a bijective  $\rho$ -irresolute map. We have to show that  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism. We need only to show that  $f^{-1}$  is a  $\rho$ -irresolute map. Let  $F$  be a

$\rho$ -closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $(X, \tau)$  is a  $\rho$ -compact space, then by Theorem 5.6[17],  $F$  is a  $\rho$ -compact subset of  $(X, \tau)$ . Since  $f$  is irresolute and by Theorem 5.7[17],  $f(F)$  is a  $\rho$ -compact subset of  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Since  $(Y, \sigma)$  is a  $\rho$ -hausdorff space, then by Theorem 5.24,  $f(F)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.33.** *If  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  and  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  are  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphisms then their composition  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is also  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism.*

*Proof.* Let  $V$  be a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Now  $(gf)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$ . Since  $g$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism, then  $g^{-1}(V)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and since  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism, then  $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $gf$  is  $\rho$ -irresolute. Also for a  $\rho$ -closed set  $F$  in  $(X, \tau)$ , we have  $(gf)(F) = g(f(F))$ . Since  $f$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism, then  $f(F)$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Y, \sigma)$  and since  $g$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism, then  $g(f(F))$  is a  $\rho$ -closed set in  $(Z, \eta)$ . Therefore  $(gf)^{-1}$  is  $\rho$ -irresolute. Hence  $gf$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.34.**  *$\rho^*$ -homeomorphism is an equivalence relation in the collection of all topological spaces.*

*Proof.* We have to show that  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism (reflexive), if  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism then  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$  is also a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism (symmetry) and if  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  and  $g : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  are  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphisms then  $gf : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \eta)$  is a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism (transitive).

Reflexive and symmetry are immediate and by theorem 5.33, transitive follows.  $\square$

We denote the family of all  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism of a topological space  $(X, \tau)$  onto itself by  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ .

**Theorem 5.35.** *The set  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$  is a group under the composition of maps.*

*Proof.* Define a binary operation  $\Upsilon : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \times \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$  by  $\Upsilon(f, g) = gf$  (the composition of  $f$  and  $g$ ) for all  $f, g \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ . Then by Theorem 5.33,  $gf \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ . We know that the composition of maps is associative and the identity map  $I : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$  belonging to  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$  serves as the identity element. If  $f \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$  then  $f^{-1} \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$  such that  $f f^{-1} = f^{-1} f = I$  and so inverse exists for each element of  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ . Therefore  $(\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau), \Upsilon)$  is a group under the operation of composition of maps.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.36.** *Let  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  be a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism. Then  $f$  induces an isomorphism from the group  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$  onto the group  $\rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$ .*

*Proof.* We define a map  $\kappa_f : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$  by  $\kappa_f(\theta) = f \theta f^{-1}$ , for every  $\theta \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ . Where  $f$  is a given map. We have to show that  $\kappa_f$  is a bijective homomorphism. Bijection of  $\kappa_f$  is clear. Further, for all  $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ ,  $\kappa_f(\theta_1 \theta_2) = f (\theta_1 \theta_2) f^{-1} = (f \theta_1 f^{-1}) (f \theta_2 f^{-1}) = \kappa_f(\theta_1) \kappa_f(\theta_2)$ . Therefore,  $\kappa_f$  is a homomorphism and so it is an isomorphism induced by  $f$ .  $\square$



Converse of this theorem need not be true as seen from the following example. That is, there exists a map  $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  which induces an isomorphism  $\kappa_f : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$ , but not  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism.

**Example 5.37.** As in example 5.17(ii),  $f$  is not a  $\rho^*$ -homeomorphism. But the induced homeomorphism  $\kappa_f : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$  is an isomorphism. Since  $\kappa_f(\theta_c) = f \theta_c f^{-1} = \theta_a$  and  $\kappa_f(I_x) = I_y$ , where  $\theta_c : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$  and  $\theta_a : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  are defined by  $\theta_c(a) = b, \theta_c(b) = a, \theta_c(c) = c$  and  $\theta_a(a) = c, \theta_a(b) = b, \theta_a(c) = a$ . Then we have  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) = \{\theta_c, I_x\}$  and  $\rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma) = \{\theta_a, I_y\}$ , where  $I_x : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$  and  $I_y : (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$  are identity maps.

**Definition 5.38.** Let  $\kappa_f : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$  be a function defined by  $\kappa_f(\theta) = f \theta f^{-1}$ , for every  $\theta \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ . Let  $\kappa_f$  be a homomorphism. Let  $K = \{\theta / \theta \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau), \kappa_f(\theta) = I_y\}$ , where  $I_y$  is an identity element of  $\rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$ . Then  $K$  is called the kernel of  $\kappa_f$  and is denoted by  $\ker \kappa_f$ .

**Theorem 5.39.** Let  $\kappa_f$  be a homomorphism. Then  $\kappa_f$  is one-one if and only if  $\ker \kappa_f = \{I_x\}$ .

*Proof.* suppose  $\kappa_f$  is one-one. Then clearly  $\ker \kappa_f = \{I_x\}$ . Reverse part is, suppose  $\ker \kappa_f = \{I_x\}, \kappa_f(\theta_1) = \kappa_f(\theta_2)$  implies  $f \theta_1 f^{-1} = f \theta_2 f^{-1}$  implies  $(f \theta_1 f^{-1}) (f \theta_2 f^{-1})^{-1} = I_y$ , hence  $\theta_1 \theta_2^{-1} \in \ker \kappa_f = \{I_x\}$  and so  $\theta_1 = \theta_2$ . Therefore  $\kappa_f$  is one-one.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.40.** Let  $\kappa_f : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$  be a homomorphism. Then  $\ker \kappa_f$  is a normal subgroup of  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\kappa_f(I_x) = I_y, I_x \in \ker \kappa_f$  and hence  $\ker \kappa_f \neq \emptyset$ . Now let  $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in \ker \kappa_f$ , then  $\kappa_f(\theta_1) = \kappa_f(\theta_2) = I_y$ . Therefore  $\kappa_f(\theta_1 \theta_2^{-1}) = \kappa_f(\theta_1) \kappa_f(\theta_2^{-1}) = I_y$ . Thus  $\theta_1 \theta_2^{-1} \in \ker \kappa_f$  and hence  $\ker \kappa_f$  is a subgroup of  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ . Now let  $\theta_1 \in \ker \kappa_f$  and  $g \in \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ , then  $\kappa_f(g \theta_1 g^{-1}) = I_y$  and so  $g \theta_1 g^{-1} \in \ker \kappa_f$ , therefore  $\ker \kappa_f$  is a normal subgroup of  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 5.41.** Let  $\kappa_f : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$  be an epimorphism. Let  $K$  be the kernel of  $\kappa_f$ . Then  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) / K \cong \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$ . [Fundamental theorem of homomorphism]

*Proof.* Define  $\mu : \rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) / K \rightarrow \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$  by  $\mu(Ka) = \kappa_f(a)$ . Clearly  $\mu$  is a well defined bijection. Now  $\mu(KaKb) = \mu(Kab) = \kappa_f(ab) = \kappa_f(a) \kappa_f(b) = \mu(Ka) \mu(Kb)$ , therefore  $\mu$  is a homomorphism. Thus  $\kappa_f$  induces an isomorphism  $\mu$  from  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) / K$  onto  $\rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$ . Hence  $\rho^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) / K \cong \rho^*\text{-h}(Y, \sigma)$ .  $\square$

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