

On R-Closed Maps and R-Homeomorphisms in Topological Spaces

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ABSTRACT: The aim of this paper is to introduce R-closed maps, R-open maps, R-homeomorphisms, R*-homeomorphisms, strongly R-continuous, perfectly R-continuous and study their properties. Using these new types of maps, several characterizations and properties have been obtained.

Key words and phrases- R-closed maps, R-open maps, R-homeomorphism, R*-homeomorphism, strongly R-closed maps, perfectly R-closed maps.

I. Introduction

In the course of generalizations of the notion of homeomorphism, Sheik John[1] have introduced ω -closed maps and ω -homeomorphism. Devi et al. [2] have studied semi-generalized homeomorphisms and also they have introduced α -homeomorphisms in topological spaces. In this paper, we first introduce R-closed maps in topological spaces and then we introduce R-homeomorphism. We also introduce strongly R-closed maps, perfectly R-closed maps and R*-homeomorphism. We conclude that the set of all R*-homeomorphism forms a group under the operation of composition of maps.

II. Prelimineries

Throughout this paper $(X, \tau), (Y, \sigma)$ and (Z, ζ) will always denote topological spaces on which no separation axioms are assumed, unless otherwise mentioned. When A is a subset of $(X, \tau), \text{cl}(A), \text{Int}(A)$ denote the closure, the interior of A , respectively. We recall the following definitions and some results, which are used in the sequel.

Definition 2.1

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. A subset A of the space X is said to be

- (i) Pre open [3] if $A \subseteq \text{Int}(\text{cl}(A))$ and preclosed if $\text{cl}(\text{Int}(A)) \subseteq A$.
- (ii) Semi open [4] if $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{Int}(A))$ and semiclosed if $\text{Int}(\text{cl}(A)) \subseteq A$.
- (iii) α -open [5] if $A \subseteq \text{Int}(\text{cl}(\text{Int}(A)))$ and α -closed if $\text{cl}(\text{Int}(\text{cl}(A))) \subseteq A$.
- (iv) Semi preopen [6] if $A \subseteq \text{cl}(\text{Int}(\text{cl}(A)))$ and semi preclosed if $\text{Int}(\text{cl}(\text{Int}(A))) \subseteq A$.

Definition 2.2

Let (X, τ) be a topological space. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is said to be

- (i) a generalized closed set [7] (briefly g-closed) if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) ; the complement of a g-closed set is called a g-open set.
- (ii) an α -generalized closed set [8] (briefly α g-closed) if $\alpha \text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) ; the complement of a α g-closed set is called a α g-open set.
- (iii) a generalized semi preclosed set [9] (briefly gsp-closed) if $\text{spcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is open in (X, τ) ; the complement of a gsp-closed set is called a gsp-open set.
- (iv) an ω -closed set [1] if $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is semi open in (X, τ) ; the complement of a ω -closed set is called a ω -open set.
- (v) a generalized preclosed set [10] (briefly gp-closed) if $\alpha \text{cl}(A) \subseteq \text{int}U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is α -open in (X, τ) ; the complement of a gp-closed set is called a gp-open set.
- (vi) a generalized pre regular closed set [11] (briefly gpr-closed) if $\text{pcl}(A) \subseteq U$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is preopen in (X, τ) ; the complement of a gpr-closed set is called a gpr-open set.
- (vii) an R-closed [12] if $\alpha \text{cl}(A) \subseteq \text{int}(U)$ whenever $A \subseteq U$ and U is ω -open in (X, τ) ; the complement of R-closed set is called an R-open set.

Definition 2.3

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

- (i) g-continuous [13] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is g-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (ii) ω -continuous [1] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is ω -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (iii) gsp-continuous [9] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gsp-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (iv) gp-continuous [14] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gp-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (v) gpr-continuous [11] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is gpr-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (vi) α -continuous [15] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (vii) Contra-continuous [16] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is closed in (X, τ) for every open set V in (Y, σ)
- (viii) ω -irresolute [1] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is ω -closed in (X, τ) for every ω -closed set V in (Y, σ)
- (ix) closed [17] (resp. g-closed [18], pre-closed [10], gp-closed [10], gpr-closed [19], gsp-closed, α -closed, α g-closed) if $f(V)$ is closed (resp. g-closed, pre-closed, gp-closed, gpr-closed, gsp-closed, α -closed, α g-closed) in (Y, σ) for every closed set V in (X, τ) .
- (x) contra-open [20] if $f(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) for every open set V in (X, τ) .
- (xi) α -irresolute [15] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is an α -open set in (X, τ) for each α -open set V of (Y, σ) .
- (xii) α -quotient map [15] if f is α -continuous and $f^{-1}(V)$ is open set in (X, τ) implies V is an α -open set in (Y, σ) .
- (xiii) α^* -quotient map [15] if f is α -irresolute and $f^{-1}(V)$ is an α -open set in (X, τ) implies V is an open set in (Y, σ) .
- (xiv) an R-continuous [12] if $f^{-1}(V)$ is R-closed in (X, τ) for every closed set V of (Y, σ) .

Definition 2.4

A space (X, τ) is called

- (i) a $T_{1/2}$ space [21] if every g-closed set is closed.
- (ii) a T_ω space [22] if every ω -closed set is closed.
- (iii) $gsT_{1/2}^\#$ space [18] if every #g-semi-closed set is closed.

III. R- Closed Maps And R-Open Maps

Definition 3.1 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be an R-closed map (R-open map) if the image $f(A)$ is R-closed (R-open) in (Y, σ) for each closed (open) set A in (X, τ) .

Example 3.2 Taking $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$. Define $f(a)=f(b)=a, f(c)=b, f(d)=c$. Then f is a R-closed map. Taking $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{d\}, \{c, d\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a, b\}\}$. Define $f(a)=f(b)=a, f(c)=b, f(d)=c$. Then f is not a R-closed map.

Proposition 3.3 For any bijection $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ the following statements are equivalent.

- (i) $f^{-1}: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$ is R-continuous.
- (ii) f is an R-open map.
- (iii) f is an R-closed map.

Proof: (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let U be an open set of (X, τ) . By hypothesis, $(f^{-1})^{-1}(U)$ is R-open in (Y, σ) (by theorem 4.10 [12]). Thus $f(U)$ is R-open in (Y, σ) . Hence f is R-open.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Let F be a closed set of (X, τ) . Then F^c is open in (X, τ) . By hypothesis, $f(F^c)$ is R-open. Thus $f(F)$ is R-closed. Thus f is R-closed.

(iii) \Rightarrow (ii) Let F be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(F)$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . That is $(f^{-1})^{-1}(F)$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . Thus f^{-1} is R-continuous.

Proposition 3.4 A mapping $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed if and only if $R-cl(f(A)) \subseteq f(cl(A))$ for every subset A of (X, τ) .

Proof: Suppose that f is R-closed and $A \subseteq X$. Then $f(cl(A))$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . We have $A \subseteq cl(A)$. Thus $f(A) \subseteq f(cl(A))$. Then $R-cl(f(A)) \subseteq R-cl(f(cl(A))) = f(cl(A))$. Conversely, let A be any closed set in (X, τ) . Then $A = cl(A)$. Thus $f(A) = f(cl(A))$. But $R-cl(f(A)) \subseteq f(cl(A)) = f(A)$. Also $f(A) \subseteq R-cl(f(A))$. Thus $f(A)$ is R-closed and hence f is R-closed.

Theorem 3.5 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed if and only if for each subset S of (Y, σ) and for each open set U containing $f^{-1}(S)$ there is an R-open set V of (Y, σ) such that $S \subseteq V$ and $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq U$.

Proof: Suppose that f is R-closed. Let $S \subseteq Y$ and U be an open set of (X, τ) such that $f^{-1}(S) \subseteq U$. Then $V = (f(U^c))^c$ is an R-open set containing S such that $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq U$. Conversely, let F be a closed set of (X, τ) . Then $f^{-1}((f(F))^c) \subseteq F^c$ and F^c is open. By assumption, there exists an R-open set V of (Y, σ) such that $(f(F))^c \subseteq V$ and $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq F^c$ and so $F \subseteq (f^{-1}(V))^c$. Hence $V^c \subseteq f(F) \subseteq f((f^{-1}(V))^c) \subseteq V^c$. Thus $f(F) = V^c$. Since V^c is R-closed, $f(F)$ is R-closed and therefore f is R-closed.

Proposition 3.6 The composition of two R-closed maps need not be R-closed.

Taking $X = \{a,b,c,d\}, Y = \{a,b,c\}$ and $Z = \{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{b,c\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$ and $\zeta = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{b,c\}\}$. Define $f(a)=a, f(b)=f(c)=b, f(d)=c$ and $g(a)=c, g(b)=b, g(c)=a$. Then $g(f(\{b,c,d\})) = g(\{b,c\}) = \{a,b\}$ is not a R-closed set. Thus $g \circ f$ is not a R-closed map.

Theorem 3.7 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$, $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be R-closed maps and (Y, σ) be a T_R space. Then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is R-closed.

Proof: Let A be a closed set of (X, τ) . By assumption $f(A)$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is a T_R space, $f(A)$ is closed in (Y, σ) and again by assumption $g(f(A))$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus $g \circ f(A)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Hence $g \circ f$ is R-closed.

Proposition 3.8 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a closed map and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be an R-closed map then $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is R-closed.

Proof: Let U be a closed set of (X, τ) . Hence $f(U)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Now $(g \circ f)(U) = g(f(U))$ which is R-closed in (Z, ζ) .

Remark 3.9 If f is R-closed map and g is a closed map then $g \circ f$ need not be a R-closed map.

Taking $X = \{a,b,c,d\}, Y = \{a,b,c\}$ and $Z = \{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{b,c\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$, $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$ and $\zeta = \{Z, \phi, \{b\}, \{a,b\}, \{b,c\}\}$. Define $f(a)=a, f(b)=f(c)=b, f(d)=c$ and $g(a)=c, g(b)=b, g(c)=a$. Then f is a R-closed map and g is a closed map. Here $g(f(\{b,c,d\})) = g(\{b,c\}) = \{a,b\}$ is not a R-closed set. Thus $g \circ f$ is not a R-closed map.

Definition 3.10 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called strongly R-continuous if the inverse image of every R-open set in (Y, σ) is open in (X, τ) .

Example 3.11 Taking $X = \{a,b,c,d\}, Y = \{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{b,c\}, \{a,b,c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{a,c\}\}$. Define $f(a)=a, f(b)=f(c)=b, f(d)=c$. Then f is strongly R-continuous.

Theorem 3.12 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be two mappings such that their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be an R-closed mapping. Then the following statements are true.

- (i) If f is continuous and surjective then g is R-closed.
- (ii) If g is R-irresolute and injective then f is R-closed.
- (iii) If f is ω -continuous, surjective and (X, τ) is a T_ω -space then g is R-closed.
- (iv) If g is strongly R-continuous and injective then f is closed.

Proof: (i) Let A be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is continuous $f^{-1}(A)$ is closed in (X, τ) . Thus $(g \circ f)(f^{-1}(A))$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) , since $g \circ f$ is R-closed. This gives $g(A)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) , since f is surjective. Hence g is an R-closed map.

(ii) Let B be a closed set of (X, τ) . Since $g \circ f$ is R-closed, $(g \circ f)(B)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus $g^{-1}((g \circ f)(B)) = f(B)$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) , since g is injective and R-irresolute. Thus f is an R-closed map.

(iii) Let C be a closed set of (Y, σ) . Since f is ω -continuous, $f^{-1}(C)$ is ω -closed in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_ω -space, $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in (X, τ) and so as in (i) g is an R-closed map.

(iv) Let D be a closed set of (X, τ) . Since $g \circ f$ is R-closed, $(g \circ f)(D)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Since g is strongly R-continuous, $g^{-1}((g \circ f)(D))$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Thus f is a closed map.

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

Theorem 3.13 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed and A is a closed subset of (X, τ) , then $f_A: (A, \tau_A) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed.

Proof: Let B be a closed set of A . Then $B = A \cap F$ for some closed set F of (X, τ) and so B is closed in (X, τ) . By hypothesis, $f(B)$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . But $f(B) = f_A(B)$ and hence f_A is an R-closed map.

Theorem 3.14 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a continuous R-closed map from a normal space (X, τ) onto a space (Y, σ) then (Y, σ) is normal.

Proof: Let A and B be two disjoint closed sets of (Y, σ) . Let A and B are disjoint closed sets of (Y, σ) . Then $f^{-1}(A)$ and $f^{-1}(B)$ are disjoint closed sets of (X, τ) , since f is continuous. Therefore there exists open sets U and V such that $f^{-1}(A) \subseteq U$ and $f^{-1}(B) \subseteq V$, since X is normal. Using theorem 3.5, there exists R-open sets C, D in (Y, σ) such that $A \subseteq C, B \subseteq D, f^{-1}(C) \subseteq U$ and $f^{-1}(D) \subseteq V$. Since A and B are closed, A and B are α -closed and ω -closed. By the result, C is R-open if and only if $cl(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{-int}(C)$ whenever $A \subseteq C$ and A is ω -closed, we get $cl(A) \subseteq \alpha\text{-int}(C) \subseteq \text{Int}(C)$. Thus $A \subseteq \text{int}(C)$ and $B \subseteq \text{int}(D)$. Hence Y is normal.

Proposition 3.15 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an α -irresolute where (X, τ) is a discrete space and (Y, σ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space then f is an R-irresolute.

Proof: Let U be R-closed in (Y, σ) . Then U is α -closed. Since (Y, σ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space, U is α -closed. Since f is α -irresolute and (X, τ) is discrete, $f^{-1}(U)$ is α -closed and open. Hence $f^{-1}(U)$ is R-closed. Thus f is R-irresolute.

Proposition 3.16 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a α^* -quotient map and (Y, σ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space then (Y, σ) is a T_R -space.

Proof: Let U be R-closed in (Y, σ) . Then U is α -closed in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space, $f^{-1}(U)$ is α -closed in (X, τ) . Since f is α -irresolute, $f(f^{-1}(U))$ is closed. Thus (Y, σ) is a T_R -space.

Theorem 3.17 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed and $g: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is a continuous map that is constant on each set $f^{-1}(y)$ for $y \in Y$, then g induces a R-continuous map $h: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ such that $h \circ f = g$.

Proof: Since 'g' is constant on $f^{-1}(y)$ for each $y \in Y$, the set $g(f^{-1}(y))$ is a one point set in (Z, ζ) . If $h(y)$ denote this point, it is clear that 'h' is well defined and for each $x \in X$, $h(f(x)) = g(x)$.

We claim that 'h' is R-continuous. Let U be closed in (Z, ζ) , then $g^{-1}(U)$ is closed in (X, τ) .

But $g^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(h^{-1}(U))$ is closed in (X, τ) . Since 'f' is R-closed, $h^{-1}(U)$ is R-closed. Hence h is R-continuous.

Theorem 3.18 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a contra closed and α -closed map then 'f' is a R-closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is α -closed and open. Hence V is R-closed. Thus V is a R-closed map.

The converse need not be true as seen from the following example.

Consider $X=Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}\}$. Define $f(a)=c, f(b)=a, f(c)=b$. Then f is R-closed map but not a contra closed map.

Proposition 3.19 Every R-closed map is α g-closed, gsp-closed, gp-closed and gpr-closed.

Proof: Since every R-closed set is α g-closed, gsp-closed, gp-closed and gpr-closed, we get the proof.

Remark 3.20 The converse need not be true as seen from the following examples.

Consider $X=Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{a,b\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a,c\}\}$. Define $f(a)=b, f(b)=c, f(c)=a$. Then f is gsp-closed but not R-closed.

Consider $X=Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{a,c\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a,b\}\}$. Define $f(a)=b, f(b)=a, f(c)=c$. Then f is gp-closed but not R-closed.

Consider $X=Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{a\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{b,c\}\}$. Define $f(a)=a, f(b)=b, f(c)=b$. Then f is α g-closed but not R-closed.

Consider $X=\{x,y,z\}$ and $Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{y,z\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a,b\}\}$. Define $f(x)=a, f(y)=b, f(z)=c$. Then f is gpr-closed but not R-closed.

Remark 3.21 The concept of R-closed map and g-closed maps are independent.

Consider $X=\{x,y,z\}$ and $Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{x,z\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}\}$. Define $f(x)=c, f(y)=b, f(z)=a$. Then f is R-closed but not g-closed. Consider $X=\{x,y,z\}$ and $Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{y,z\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a,c\}\}$. Define $f(x)=b, f(y)=a, f(z)=c$. Then f is g-closed but not R-closed.

Remark 3.22 The concept of R-closed map and pre-closed maps are independent.

Consider $X=\{x,y,z\}$ and $Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{z\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$. Define $f(x)=a, f(y)=b, f(z)=c$. Then f is R-closed but not pre-closed. Consider $X=\{x,y,z\}$ and $Y=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{x,z\}\}$ and $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a,b\}\}$. Define $f(x)=b, f(y)=a, f(z)=c$. Then f is pre-closed but not R-closed.

Theorem 3.23 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed, $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is R-closed and (Y, σ) is a T_R -space then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is R-closed.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is a T_R -space, $f(V)$ is closed in (Y, σ) . Hence $g(f(V)) = g \circ f(V)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus $g \circ f$ is a R-closed map.

Theorem 3.24 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a ω -closed map (resp. g-closed, #gs-closed map), $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is a R-closed map and Y is a T_ω -space ($T_{1/2}$ space, $gsT_{1/2}^\#$ space), then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is a R-closed map.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is ω -closed (g-closed, #gs-closed) set in (Y, σ) . Since (Y, σ) is a T_ω -space ($T_{1/2}$ space, $gsT_{1/2}^\#$ space), $f(V)$ is a closed set in (Y, σ) . Since g is R-closed, $g(f(V)) = (g \circ f)(V)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus $g \circ f$ is a R-closed map.

Theorem 3.25 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a closed map and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be a R-closed map then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is R-closed.

Proof: Let V be a closed set in (X, τ) . Then $f(V)$ is a closed set in (Y, σ) . Hence $g(f(V)) = (g \circ f)(V)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus $g \circ f$ is a R-closed map.

Remark 3.26 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is R-closed and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is closed, then their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ need not be a R-closed map.

For example, consider $X=\{a,b,c\}, Y=\{a,b,c\}$ and $Z=\{a,b,c\}$. Let $\tau=\{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$, $\sigma=\{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a,b\}\}$ and $\zeta=\{Z, \phi, \{c\}, \{b,c\}\}$. Define $f(a)=c, f(b)=a, f(c)=b$ and $g(a)=c, g(b)=b, g(c)=a$. Then f is R-closed and g is closed. Here $(g \circ f)^{-1}\{a\}=\{a\}$, which is not R-closed. Thus $g \circ f$ is not a R-closed map.

Theorem 3.27 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be two mappings such that their composition $g \circ f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ be a R-closed mapping. Then the following statements are true if:

- (i) f is continuous and surjective, then g is R-closed.
- (ii) g is R-irresolute and injective, then f is R-closed.
- (iii) f is ω -continuous and (X, τ) is a T_ω space, then g is R-closed.
- (iv) f is g-continuous, surjective and (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space, then g is R-closed.
- (v) f is R-continuous, surjective and (X, τ) is a T_R space, then g is R-closed.

Proof:

(i) Let f be continuous and surjective. Let A be a closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is continuous, $f^{-1}(A)$ is closed in (X, τ) . Since gof is R-closed, $(\text{gof})(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$ (since f is a surjective) is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus g is a R-closed map.

(ii) Let A be closed in (X, τ) . Since gof is R-closed, $(\text{gof})(A)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Since g is R-irresolute, $(g^{-1}(\text{gof})(A))$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . Since g is injective, f is a R-closed map.

(iii) Let A be closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is ω -continuous, $f^{-1}(A)$ is ω -closed in (X, τ) and (X, τ) is a T_0 space. Thus $f^{-1}(A)$ is closed in (X, τ) . Since gof is R-closed and f is a surjective, $(\text{gof})(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus g is a R-closed map.

(iv) Let A be closed in (Y, σ) . Since f is g -continuous, $f^{-1}(A)$ is g -closed in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a $T_{1/2}$ space, $f^{-1}(A)$ is closed in (X, τ) . Since gof is R-closed and f is a surjective, $(\text{gof})(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus g is a R-closed map.

(v) Let A be a closed set in (Y, σ) . Since f is R-continuous, $f^{-1}(A)$ is R-closed in (X, τ) . Since (X, τ) is a T_R space, $f^{-1}(A)$ is closed in (X, τ) . Since gof is R-closed and f is a surjective, $(\text{gof})(f^{-1}(A)) = g(A)$ is R-closed in (Z, ζ) . Thus g is a R-closed map.

Theorem 3.28 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a R-open map, then for each $x \in X$ and for each neighbourhood U of x in (X, τ) , there exist a R-neighbourhood W of $f(x)$ in (Y, σ) such that $W \subseteq f(U)$.

Proof: Let $x \in X$ and U be an arbitrary neighbourhood of x . Then there exist an open set V in (X, τ) such that $x \in V \subseteq U$. By assumption $f(V)$ is a R-open set in (Y, σ) . Further $f(x) \in f(V) \subseteq f(U)$. Clearly $f(U)$ is a R-neighbourhood of $f(x)$ in (Y, σ) and so the theorem holds by taking $W = f(V)$.

IV. R-Homeomorphisms

Definition 4.1 A bijection $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called R-homeomorphism if f is both R-continuous and R-open.

Example 4.2 Taking $X = \{a, b, c\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = c$. Then f is R-homeomorphism.

Proposition 4.3 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be a bijective R-continuous map. Then the following are equivalent.

- (i) f is an R-open map.
- (ii) f is an R-homeomorphism.
- (iii) f is an R-closed map.

Proof: The proof follows from proposition 3.3

Remark 4.4 The composition of two R-homeomorphisms need not be an R-homeomorphism.

Since the composition of two R-continuous functions need not be a R-continuous function (Remark 6.3 [12]) we get the conclusion.

Definition 4.5 A bijection $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is said to be R*-homeomorphism if both f and f^{-1} are R-irresolute.

Example 4.6 Taking $X = \{a, b, c\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{c\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = c, f(c) = a$. Then f is R*-homeomorphism.

Proposition 4.7 Every R*-homeomorphism is R-irresolute.

Proof: It is the consequence of the definition.

Remark 4.8 Every R-irresolute map need not be a R*-homeomorphism.

For example, consider $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = c$. Then f is R-irresolute but not a R*-homeomorphism.

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

Theorem 4.9 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is a R*-homeomorphism then $R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B)) = f^{-1}(R\text{-cl}(B))$ for all $B \subseteq Y$. is R-closed

Proof: Since f is R*-homeomorphism, f is R-irresolute. Since $R\text{-cl}(f(B))$ in (Y, σ) , $f^{-1}(R\text{-cl}(f(B)))$ is R-closed in (X, τ) . Thus $R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq f^{-1}(R\text{-cl}(B))$. Again f^{-1} is R-irresolute and $R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B))$ is R-closed in (X, τ) , $(f^{-1})^{-1}(R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B))) = f(R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B)))$ is R-closed in (Y, σ) . Thus $B \subseteq (f^{-1})^{-1}(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq (f^{-1})^{-1}(R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B))) = f(R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B)))$. Hence $f^{-1}(R\text{-cl}(B)) \subseteq R\text{-cl}(f^{-1}(B))$.

Proposition 4.10 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ and $g: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ are R*-homeomorphisms then their composition $\text{gof}: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Z, \zeta)$ is also R*-homeomorphism.

Proof: Let U be an R-open set in (Z, ζ) . Then $g^{-1}(U)$ is R-open in (Y, σ) . Now $(\text{gof})^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(U))$ is R-open in (X, τ) . Thus gof is R-irresolute. Also for an R-open set G in (X, τ) , $(\text{gof})(G) = g(f(G)) = g(W)$ where $W = f(G)$. By hypothesis, $f(G)$ is R-open in (Y, σ) . Thus $g(f(G))$ is R-open in (Z, ζ) . Hence $(\text{gof})^{-1}$ is R-irresolute and hence gof is R*-homeomorphism.

Theorem 4.11 The set $R^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ is a group under the composition of maps.

Proof: Define a binary operation $*$ as follows. $*: R^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \times R^*\text{-h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow R^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ by $f * g = \text{gof}$ for all $f, g \in R^*\text{-h}(X, \tau)$ and ' \circ ' is the usual operation of composition of maps.

By the above result $\text{gof} \in R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$. We know that the composition of maps is associative and the identity map $I: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (X, \tau) \in R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$ serves as the identity element. If $f \in R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$ then $f^{-1} \in R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$ such that $\text{fof}^{-1} = f^{-1}\text{of} = I$ and so inverse exists for each element of $R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$. Thus $R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$ is a group under composition of maps.

Theorem 4.12 Let $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ be an R^* -homeomorphism. Then f induces an isomorphism from the group $R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$ onto the group $R^*-\text{h}(Y, \sigma)$.

Proof: Using the map f , we define $I_f: R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau) \rightarrow R^*-\text{h}(Y, \sigma)$ by $I_f(h) = \text{fohof}^{-1}$ for every $h \in R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$. Then I_f is a bijection.

Further for every $h_1, h_2 \in R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$, $I_f(h_1 \circ h_2) = \text{fo}(h_1 \circ h_2)\text{of}^{-1} = (\text{fo}h_1\text{of}^{-1}) \circ (\text{fo}h_2\text{of}^{-1}) = I_f(h_1) \circ I_f(h_2)$. Thus I_f is a homeomorphism and so it is an isomorphism induced by f .

Theorem 4.13 $*$ is an equivalence relation in $R^*-\text{h}(X, \tau)$.

Proof: By proposition 7 transitivity follows. Reflexive and symmetric are immediate.

Corollary 4.14 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an R^* -homeomorphism then $R-\text{cl}(f(B)) = f(R-\text{cl}(B))$ for all $B \subseteq X$.

Proof: Since $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an R^* -homeomorphism, $f^{-1}: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$ is also an R^* -homeomorphism.

Thus $R-\text{cl}((f^{-1})^{-1}(B)) = (f^{-1})^{-1}(R-\text{cl}(B))$. Hence $R-\text{cl}(f(B)) = f(R-\text{cl}(B))$.

Corollary 4.15 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an R^* -homeomorphism, then $f(R-\text{int}(B)) = R-\text{int}(f(B))$ for every $B \subseteq X$.

Proof: We have $(R-\text{int}(A))^c = R-\text{cl}(A^c)$. Thus $R-\text{int}(B) = (R-\text{cl}(B^c))^c$. Then $f(R-\text{int}(B)) = f((R-\text{cl}(B^c))^c) = (f(R-\text{cl}(B^c)))^c = (R-\text{cl}(f(B^c)))^c = R-\text{int}(f(B))$.

Corollary 4.16 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an R^* -homeomorphism, then $f^{-1}(R-\text{int}(B)) = R-\text{int}(f^{-1}(B))$ for every subset B of Y .

Proof: If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is an R^* -homeomorphism then $f^{-1}: (Y, \sigma) \rightarrow (X, \tau)$ is also an R^* -homeomorphism, the proof follows from the above corollary.

Definition 4.17 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called perfectly R -continuous if the inverse image of every R -open set in (Y, σ) is both open and closed in (X, τ) .

Example 4.18 Taking $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b, c, d\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \phi, \{a, c\}\}$.

Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = a, f(d) = c$. Then f is perfectly R -continuous.

Proposition 4.19 If $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is perfectly R -continuous then it is strongly R -continuous but not conversely.

Proof: Let U be an R -open set in (Y, σ) . Since $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is perfectly R -continuous, $f^{-1}(U)$ is both open and closed in (X, τ) . Therefore f is strongly R -continuous.

Remark 4.20 Every strongly R -continuous mappings need not be perfectly R -continuous.

Taking $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \phi, \{a, c\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = c, f(d) = c$. Then $f^{-1}(\{b\}) = \{a\}$ is open but not closed. Hence f is strongly R -continuous but not perfectly R -continuous.

Remark 4.21 Strongly R -continuous is independent of R -continuous.

Every strongly R -continuous need not be R -continuous.

For example, consider $X = \{a, b, c\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \phi, \{a, c\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = c$. Then f is strongly R -continuous but not R -continuous.

Conversely, consider $X = \{a, b, c\}, Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{X, \phi, \{a, c\}\}$. Define $f(a) = c, f(b) = b, f(c) = a$. Then f is R -continuous but not strongly R -continuous.

Definition 4.22 A map $f: (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \sigma)$ is called strongly R -open if $f(U)$ is R -open in (Y, σ) for each R -open set U in (X, τ) .

Example 4.23 Consider $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = c$. Then f is strongly R -open.

Proposition 4.24 Every R^* -homeomorphism is strongly R -open.

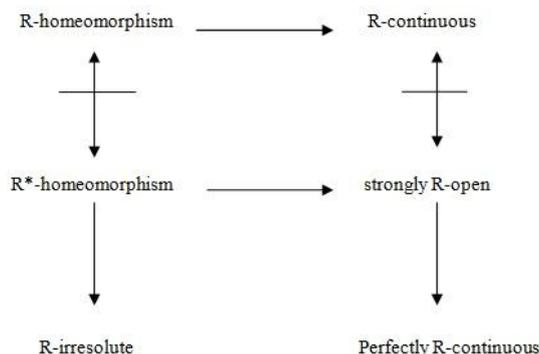
Proof: It is the consequence of the definition.

Remark 4.25 Every strongly R -open map need not be R^* -homeomorphism.

Consider $X = Y = \{a, b, c\}$. Let $\tau = \{X, \phi, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y, \phi, \{a\}\}$. Define $f(a) = b, f(b) = a, f(c) = c$. Then f is strongly R -open but not a R^* -homeomorphism.

V. Conclusion

We conclude that the set of all R^* -homeomorphisms form a group under the composition of mappings. Also from the above discussions we have the following implications. $A \rightarrow B$ ($A \leftrightarrow B$) represents A implies B but not conversely (A and B are independent of each other).



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