

EXPLORING Δ -CONTINUOUS AND Δ -IRRESOLUTE MAPPINGS IN TOPOLOGICAL SPACES

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Received Feb. 9, 2025

ABSTRACT. In this study, we investigate the concepts of Δ -continuous, Δ -irresolute, Δ -open, and Δ -closed mappings. We establish that every continuous mapping is inherently Δ -irresolute and that every Δ -irresolute mapping is Δ -continuous. However, the converse implications do not necessarily hold. This distinction sets Δ -continuous mappings apart from traditional continuous mappings, particularly since the composition of two Δ -continuous mappings may not always preserve Δ -continuity. We propose several methods for constructing new Δ -continuous (or Δ -irresolute) mappings from existing ones, including pasting-type lemmas specifically tailored for these mappings. Additionally, we present counterexamples to illustrate and clarify these concepts.

2020 Mathematics Subject Classification. 54A05; 54C08; 54C10.

Key words and phrases. open set; closed set; symmetric difference; Δ -open set; Δ -closed set; continuous mapping; Δ -continuous mapping; Δ -irresolute mapping; Δ -open mapping; Δ -closed mapping.

1. INTRODUCTION

The study of open-like and closed-like sets in topological spaces has garnered significant attention from researchers over the past few decades. Likewise, numerous variations of continuous-like mappings have been introduced and explored within this framework. A foundational contribution in this area was made by N. Levine, who introduced the concepts of *semi-open sets* and *semi-continuous mappings* in topological spaces [13]. A set S in a topological space \mathfrak{X} is defined as semi-open if

$$S \subseteq Cl(Int(S))$$

[13], where $Cl(\mathcal{A})$ and $Int(\mathcal{A})$ denote the closure and interior of a set \mathcal{A} in \mathfrak{X} , respectively. A mapping is semi-continuous if the inverse image of any open set is semi-open [13].

Building upon this foundation, S. Crossley and S. Hildebrand introduced *irresolute mappings*, which are characterized by the property that the inverse image of any semi-open set is also semi-open [7].

In 1965, Olav Njåstad introduced α -sets [21], where a set S in a topological space X is an α -set if

$$S \subseteq \text{Int}(\text{Cl}(\text{Int}(S)))$$

[21]. This led to the definition of α -irresolute mappings, in which the inverse image of each α -set is also an α -set [15], followed by the development of α -continuous mappings [18].

Further generalizations introduced notions such as θ -open and δ -open sets [30], as well as *pre-open sets* and *pre-continuous mappings* [17]. A set S in a topological space X is pre-open if

$$S \subseteq \text{Int}(\text{Cl}(S))$$

[17] and is classified as semi-preopen if

$$S \subseteq \text{Cl}(\text{Int}(\text{Cl}(S)))$$

[2]. These advancements prompted the exploration of various types of mappings in topological spaces, including semi-precontinuous, semi-preopen, semi-preclosed, semi-preirresolute, pre-semi-preopen, and pre-semi-preclosed mappings, along with their fundamental properties and characterizations [20]. Additionally, M. Veera Kumar contributed to this field by introducing ψ -continuous and ψ -irresolute mappings, based on a novel class of closed-like sets known as ψ -closed sets [29].

The pursuit of new classes of continuous-like mappings based on open-like and closed-like sets remains an active area of research. Recent notable contributions include [1], [3], [5], [6], [9], [10], [11], [12], [24], [25], and [26].

A set in a topological space is termed Δ -open if it is the symmetric difference of two open sets. This concept, first appearing in [22] and [8], is attributed to a preprint by M. Veera Kumar. Correspondingly, the complement of a Δ -open set is defined as Δ -closed. These notions, along with related concepts, have been extensively studied by the author in [16].

This paper is structured as follows:

- **Section 2** provides a consolidation of fundamental notions and preliminary results necessary for the subsequent discussions.
- **Section 3** introduces the concept of a Δ -continuous mapping (Definition 3.1) and examines its properties (Theorem 3.4). Necessary conditions for Δ -continuity are explored in Propositions 3.6, 3.7, and 3.8. Example 3.10 demonstrates that the composition of two Δ -continuous mappings may fail to be Δ -continuous, although Proposition 3.11 establishes that composing a continuous mapping with a Δ -continuous mapping results in a Δ -continuous mapping. Additionally, Proposition 3.12 presents techniques for constructing Δ -continuous mappings, while Theorem 3.15 provides a pasting-type lemma. The section concludes with Proposition 3.17, which states that a Δ -continuous mapping into a

product space $\mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{Y}$ ensures the Δ -continuity of its coordinate mappings.

- **Section 4** defines Δ -irresolute mappings (Definition 4.1) and establishes that every Δ -irresolute mapping is necessarily Δ -continuous. However, as demonstrated by Example 4.2, the converse does not always hold. This section mirrors Section 3 in its analysis of results related to Δ -irresolute mappings.

- **Section 5** introduces the notions of Δ -open and Δ -closed mappings, illustrating through various examples that these concepts are independent of each other and distinct from Δ -continuous mappings. The section further presents several results concerning Δ -open and Δ -closed mappings.

2. PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we provide basic notions and results related to Δ -open and Δ -closed sets. These results will be used and applied in the subsequent sections.

Recall that for two sets \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} , their *symmetric difference* is given as

$$\mathcal{A}\Delta\mathcal{B} := (\mathcal{A} - \mathcal{B}) \cup (\mathcal{B} - \mathcal{A}) = (\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}) - (\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}).$$

Definition 2.1. ([22] and [8]) A set \mathcal{A} in a topological space (\mathfrak{X}, σ) is called Δ -open if there exist open sets \mathcal{O}_1 and \mathcal{O}_2 such that

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{O}_1\Delta\mathcal{O}_2.$$

In a topological space (\mathfrak{X}, σ) , any open set \mathcal{O} satisfies $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}\Delta\emptyset$, which directly implies that every open set is also Δ -open. However, there exist Δ -open sets that are not necessarily open in the standard topology on \mathbb{R} . For instance, the set $(0, 1] \cup [2, 3)$ can be expressed as $(0, 2)\Delta(1, 3)$, demonstrating that it is Δ -open while not being an open set in the usual topology of \mathbb{R} .

The complement of a Δ -open set is called Δ -closed. We recall a characterization of Δ -open sets.

Theorem 2.2. ([16]) A set \mathcal{A} in a topological space (\mathfrak{X}, σ) is Δ -open if and only if there is an open set \mathcal{O} and a closed set \mathcal{C} such that $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}$.

Corollary 2.3. ([16]) A set \mathcal{B} in a topological space (\mathfrak{X}, σ) is Δ -closed if and only if there is an open set \mathcal{O} and a closed set \mathcal{C} such that $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{O} \cup \mathcal{C}$.

From Theorem 2.2, it follows that every open and closed set is Δ -open. Furthermore, the finite intersection of Δ -open sets remains Δ -open. However, the union of two Δ -open sets is not necessarily Δ -open, nor is the arbitrary intersection of Δ -open sets.

Similarly, Corollary 2.3 implies that every open and closed set is Δ -closed. Additionally, a finite union of Δ -closed sets is also Δ -closed. However, the intersection of two Δ -closed sets is not necessarily Δ -closed, and an arbitrary union of Δ -closed sets does not always retain the Δ -closed property.

Example 2.4. ([16]) Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ with a topology

$$\sigma = \{\phi, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}\}.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is

$$\sigma_{\Delta o} = \{\phi, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{d, e\}, \{d\}, \{e\}\}.$$

Clearly, the sets $\{a, b, c\}$ and $\{e\}$ are Δ -open, whereas their union is not.

It is important to observe from the previous example that the collection of all Δ -open sets does not necessarily form a topology in general.

Example 2.5. ([16]) Let $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{r_n\}$ be an enumeration of the rationals. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $S_n = \mathbb{R} - \{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n\}$, then considering \mathbb{R} under the standard topology, each S_n is an open set, so it is Δ -open. However, $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n = \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ is not Δ -open.

It should be noted that the open set \mathcal{O} and the closed set \mathcal{C} in Corollary 2.3 can be chosen to be disjoint. In fact, if $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{O} \cup \mathcal{C}$, with \mathcal{O} is open and \mathcal{C} is closed, then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{O} \cup (\mathcal{C} - \mathcal{O})$ where $\mathcal{C} - \mathcal{O}$ is closed.

Definition 2.6. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space, and $x \in \mathfrak{X}$. A Δ -open set containing x is called Δ -neighborhood. We write $\Delta N(x)$.

Definition 2.7. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space, and $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$.

- (1) The union of all Δ -open sets contained in \mathcal{A} is said to be the Δ -interior of \mathcal{A} and is denoted by $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})$.
- (2) The intersection of all Δ -closed sets containing \mathcal{A} is said to be the Δ -closure of \mathcal{A} and is denoted by $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})$.

Clearly, $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})$ need not be Δ -open and $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})$ need not be Δ -closed. It should be also noted that if \mathcal{A} is Δ -open, then $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$, and if \mathcal{A} is Δ -closed, then $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$. In either case the converse is not true.

Example 2.8. ([16]) Let $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{r_n\}$ be an enumeration of the rationals. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\mathcal{O}_n = (-n, n)$ and $\mathcal{C}_n = \{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n\}$. Then $\mathcal{A}_n = \mathcal{O}_n \cap \mathcal{C}_n$ is Δ -open set in \mathbb{R} under the standard topology. Let $\mathcal{A} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}_n$ then $Int(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$, nevertheless $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{Q}$ is not Δ -open.

It is crucial to note that in the proof of [22, Theorem 3], the authors assumed that the Δ -interior of a set is Δ -open. However, the preceding example demonstrates that this assumption does not always hold.

Because each open set is Δ -open and each closed set is Δ -closed, the following result follows directly.

Lemma 2.9. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space and $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Then

- (1) $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})$.
- (2) $Int(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$.
- (3) $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \Delta Cl(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Cl(\mathcal{A})$.

Proposition 2.10. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space and $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Then $x \in \Delta Int(\mathcal{A})$, if and only if, there is a $\Delta N(x)$, such that $\Delta N(x) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$.

Basic properties of Δ -interior are summarized in the next proposition.

Proposition 2.11. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space and $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Then

- (1) If $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, then $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \Delta Int(\mathcal{B})$.
- (2) $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) \cup \Delta Int(\mathcal{B}) \subseteq \Delta Int(\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B})$.
- (3) $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) = \Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) \cap \Delta Int(\mathcal{B})$.

Proposition 2.12. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space and $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Then, \mathcal{S} is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} if and only if there is a Δ -open set \mathcal{A} in \mathfrak{X} such that $\mathcal{S} = \mathfrak{Y} \cap \mathcal{A}$.

Proposition 2.13. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space and $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Then, \mathcal{S} is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} if and only if there is a Δ -closed set \mathcal{B} in \mathfrak{X} such that $\mathcal{S} = \mathfrak{Y} \cap \mathcal{B}$.

Proposition 2.14. ([16]) Let (\mathfrak{X}, σ) be a topological space and $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. If \mathcal{S} is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} and \mathfrak{Y} is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , then \mathcal{S} is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} .

3. Δ -CONTINUOUS MAPPINGS

Given topological spaces \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} , recall that a mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is called *continuous* if for every open set \mathcal{O} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is open in \mathfrak{X} . Similarly, a mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is termed *semi-continuous* if for every open set \mathcal{O} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is semi-open in \mathfrak{X} [13]. Following this pattern, we introduce the following concept.

Definition 3.1. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. A mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is said to be Δ -continuous if for every open set \mathcal{O} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} .

It is evident that every continuous mapping is Δ -continuous. However, the converse does not necessarily hold.

Example 3.2. Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c\}$. Consider two topologies on \mathfrak{X} :

$$\sigma_1 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}\}, \quad \sigma_2 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b\}\}.$$

Define a mapping $f : (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_1) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_2)$ by

$$f(a) = c, \quad f(b) = b, \quad f(c) = a.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) is given by

$$\sigma_{1\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}.$$

It is clear that f is Δ -continuous. However, the preimage of the set $\{a, b\}$ under f is

$$f^{-1}(\{a, b\}) = \{b, c\},$$

which is not open in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) . Therefore, f is not continuous.

We provide the following characterization for Δ -continuous mappings.

Theorem 3.3. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Then f is Δ -continuous if and only if for every closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} .

Proof. (\implies) Assume that $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -continuous. Let \mathcal{C} be a closed set in \mathfrak{Y} . Since $\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{C}$ is open in \mathfrak{Y} , applying the definition of Δ -continuity gives

$$f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{C}) = \mathfrak{X} \setminus f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}),$$

which must be Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Consequently, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} .

(\impliedby) Conversely, suppose that for every closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . Let \mathcal{O} be an open set in \mathfrak{Y} . Then $\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{O}$ is closed in \mathfrak{Y} , and by assumption, its preimage

$$f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{O}) = \mathfrak{X} \setminus f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$$

must be Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . This implies that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , proving that f is Δ -continuous. \square

Theorem 3.4. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. The Δ -continuity of f implies each of the following statements:

- (1) For each $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ and for every neighborhood $N(f(x))$ of $f(x)$ in \mathfrak{Y} , there exists a Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(x)$ of x in \mathfrak{X} such that $f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq N(f(x))$.
- (2) For every subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have

$$f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq Cl(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

- (3) For every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, we have

$$f^{-1}(Int(\mathcal{B})) \subseteq \Delta Int(f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})).$$

Proof. (1) Let $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ and let $N(f(x))$ be a neighborhood of $f(x)$ in \mathfrak{Y} . Since f is Δ -continuous, the preimage $f^{-1}(N(f(x)))$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , and since $x \in f^{-1}(N(f(x)))$, we take $\Delta N(x) = f^{-1}(N(f(x)))$. Thus,

$$f(\Delta N(x)) = f\left(f^{-1}(N(f(x)))\right) \subseteq N(f(x)).$$

- (2) Let $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Since $Cl(f(\mathcal{A}))$ is closed in \mathfrak{Y} , Theorem 3.3 ensures that $f^{-1}(Cl(f(\mathcal{A})))$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . Moreover, since $\mathcal{A} \subseteq f^{-1}(Cl(f(\mathcal{A})))$, we conclude that

$$\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq f^{-1}(Cl(f(\mathcal{A}))).$$

Therefore, applying f yields

$$f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq Cl(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

- (3) Let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$. Since $Int(\mathcal{B})$ is open in \mathfrak{Y} , its preimage $f^{-1}(Int(\mathcal{B}))$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} by the Δ -continuity of f . Moreover, since $f^{-1}(Int(\mathcal{B})) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$, it follows that

$$f^{-1}(Int(\mathcal{B})) \subseteq \Delta Int(f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})).$$

□

None of the statements in Theorem 3.4 assures Δ -continuity.

Example 3.5. Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c\}$ with the topologies

$$\sigma_1 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}, \quad \sigma_2 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}\}.$$

Define a mapping $f : (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_1) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_2)$ by

$$f(a) = a, \quad f(b) = b, \quad f(c) = a.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) is given by

$$\sigma_{1\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{c\}, \{b\}\}.$$

The set $\{a\}$ is open in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_2) , but its preimage under f is

$$f^{-1}(\{a\}) = \{a, c\},$$

which is not Δ -open in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) . Thus, f is not Δ -continuous.

However, it is easy to verify that statement (1) in Theorem 3.4 is satisfied. Furthermore, in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) , we observe that

$$\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A}) = \Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$$

for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Hence, statements (2) and (3) in Theorem 3.4 are also trivially satisfied.

An extra condition is needed for each statement in Theorem 3.4 to guarantee the Δ -continuity.

Proposition 3.6. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for each $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ and every neighborhood $N(f(x))$ of $f(x)$ in \mathfrak{Y} , there exists a Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(x)$ of x in \mathfrak{X} such that $f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq N(f(x))$. Further, assume that for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, the Δ -interior $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Then f is Δ -continuous.

Proof. Let \mathcal{O} be an open set in \mathfrak{Y} , and let $x \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$. Since \mathcal{O} is a neighborhood of $f(x)$, there exists a Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(x)$ of x in \mathfrak{X} such that $f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq \mathcal{O}$. This implies that $\Delta N(x) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$. Consequently, we obtain

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = \bigcup_{x \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})} \Delta N(x) = \Delta \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})).$$

Since $\Delta \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}))$ is assumed to be Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , it follows that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Hence, f is Δ -continuous. \square

Proposition 3.7. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for every subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have*

$$f(\Delta \text{Cl}(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \text{Cl}(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

Further, assume that for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, the Δ -closure $\Delta \text{Cl}(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . Then f is Δ -continuous.

Proof. Let \mathcal{C} be a closed set in \mathfrak{Y} and set $\mathcal{A} = f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$. Then, $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$ and by assumption, we have

$$f(\Delta \text{Cl}(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \text{Cl}(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

That is,

$$f(\Delta \text{Cl}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}))) \subseteq \text{Cl}(f(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}))) \subseteq \text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{C}.$$

Thus, applying the preimage under f , we obtain

$$\Delta \text{Cl}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})) \subseteq f^{-1}\left(f(\Delta \text{Cl}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})))\right) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}).$$

This implies that

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) = \Delta \text{Cl}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})),$$

which is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . By Theorem 3.3, it follows that f is Δ -continuous. \square

Proposition 3.8. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, we have*

$$f^{-1}(\text{Int}(\mathcal{B})) \subseteq \Delta \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})).$$

Further, assume that for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, the Δ -interior $\Delta \text{Int}(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Then f is Δ -continuous.

Proof. Let \mathcal{O} be an open subset of \mathfrak{Y} . Since the interior of an open set is itself, we have $\text{Int}(\mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{O}$, and thus

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = f^{-1}(\text{Int}(\mathcal{O})).$$

By assumption, it follows that

$$f^{-1}(\text{Int}(\mathcal{O})) \subseteq \Delta \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})).$$

Consequently, we obtain

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = \Delta \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})).$$

Since $\Delta \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\emptyset))$ is assumed to be Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , it follows that $f^{-1}(\emptyset)$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, f is Δ -continuous. \square

Next we consider some methods of constructing Δ -continuous mappings, but first we recall the following result on continuous mappings in topological spaces.

Proposition 3.9. ([19]) *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. Then*

- (1) *If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is given by $f(x) = y_0$ where $y_0 \in \mathfrak{Y}$ is a fixed element, then f is continuous.*
- (2) *If \mathcal{A} is a subspace of \mathfrak{X} , the inclusion mapping $i_{\mathcal{A}} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}$ is continuous.*
- (3) *Let $\pi_1 : \mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{Y} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}$ and $\pi_2 : \mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{Y} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be projections onto the first and second factors, respectively. Then π_1 and π_2 are continuous.*

The composition of two Δ -continuous mappings need not be Δ -continuous as illustrated in the following example.

Example 3.10. *Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with the topology*

$$\sigma = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is

$$\sigma_{\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}, \{c, d\}, \{d\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}\}.$$

Define a mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}$ by

$$f(a) = d, \quad f(b) = b, \quad f(c) = a, \quad f(d) = c.$$

It is easy to check that f is Δ -continuous. Nevertheless, the composition $f \circ f$ is not Δ -continuous. Indeed, we compute:

$$(f \circ f)^{-1}(\{a, b, c\}) = f^{-1}(f^{-1}(\{a, b, c\})) = f^{-1}(\{b, c, d\}) = \{a, b, d\},$$

which is not Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Thus, $f \circ f$ fails to be Δ -continuous.

Next, we demonstrate that the composition of a Δ -continuous mapping and a continuous mapping results in a Δ -continuous mapping.

Proposition 3.11. *Let $\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Y}, \mathfrak{Z}$, and \mathfrak{W} be topological spaces. Consider the mappings $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$, $g : \mathfrak{Y} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$, and $h : \mathfrak{Z} \rightarrow \mathfrak{W}$.*

- (1) *If f is continuous and g is Δ -continuous, then $g \circ f$ is Δ -continuous.*
- (2) *If g is Δ -continuous and h is continuous, then $h \circ g$ is Δ -continuous.*

Proof. (1) Assume that f is continuous and g is Δ -continuous. Let \mathcal{G} be an open set in \mathfrak{Z} . Since g is Δ -continuous, it follows that $g^{-1}(\mathcal{G})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . By Theorem 2.2, we can express $g^{-1}(\mathcal{G})$ as the intersection of an open set \mathcal{O} and a closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{Y} , i.e.,

$$g^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}.$$

Since f is continuous, its preimage preserves openness and closedness, meaning that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is open in \mathfrak{X} and $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is closed in \mathfrak{X} . Consequently, we obtain

$$(g \circ f)^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(\mathcal{G})) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}).$$

By Theorem 2.2, this intersection is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , proving that $g \circ f$ is Δ -continuous.

(2) Suppose that g is Δ -continuous and h is continuous. Let \mathcal{G} be an open set in \mathfrak{W} . Since h is continuous, we know that $h^{-1}(\mathcal{G})$ is open in \mathfrak{Z} . The Δ -continuity of g then ensures that

$$g^{-1}(h^{-1}(\mathcal{G}))$$

is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Hence, we obtain

$$(h \circ g)^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) = g^{-1}(h^{-1}(\mathcal{G})),$$

which is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Therefore, $h \circ g$ is Δ -continuous. □

Proposition 3.12. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces.*

- (1) *If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -continuous and \mathcal{A} is a subspace of \mathfrak{X} , then the restriction of f to \mathcal{A} , denoted by $f|_{\mathcal{A}} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$, is Δ -continuous.*
- (2) *Let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -continuous. If \mathcal{B} is a subspace of \mathfrak{Y} such that $f(\mathfrak{X}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, then the mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is Δ -continuous.*
- (3) *Let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -continuous. If \mathfrak{Z} is a topological space containing \mathfrak{Y} as a subspace, then the mapping $h : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ obtained by extending the codomain of f is Δ -continuous.*

Proof. (1) The mapping $f|_{\mathcal{A}}$ can be expressed as the composition $f|_{\mathcal{A}} = f \circ i_{\mathcal{A}}$, where $i_{\mathcal{A}}$ is the inclusion mapping $i_{\mathcal{A}} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}$. By Proposition 3.9(2) and Proposition 3.11(1), it follows that $f|_{\mathcal{A}}$ is Δ -continuous.

(2) Suppose that $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -continuous and that \mathcal{B} is a subspace of \mathfrak{Y} such that $f(\mathfrak{X}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}$. Let \mathcal{G} be an open set in \mathcal{B} . Then, by the definition of the subspace topology, there exists an open set \mathcal{O} in \mathfrak{Y} such that $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{O}$. The preimage under f satisfies:

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{O}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}).$$

Since $f(\mathfrak{X}) \subseteq \mathfrak{B}$, we have $f^{-1}(\mathfrak{B}) = \mathfrak{X}$, so that

$$f^{-1}(\mathfrak{G}) = \mathfrak{X} \cap f^{-1}(\mathfrak{O}) = f^{-1}(\mathfrak{O}).$$

Since f is Δ -continuous, $f^{-1}(\mathfrak{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , and hence $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is Δ -continuous.

- (3) Assume that $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -continuous and that \mathfrak{Z} is a topological space containing \mathfrak{Y} as a subspace. Define the mapping $h : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ by extending the codomain of f . This mapping can be expressed as the composition

$$h = i_{\mathfrak{Y}} \circ f,$$

where $i_{\mathfrak{Y}} : \mathfrak{Y} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ is the inclusion mapping. By Proposition 3.9(2) and Proposition 3.11(2), it follows that h is Δ -continuous. □

We recall the usual *pasting lemma* for continuous mappings in topological spaces

Theorem 3.13. ([19]) *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. Let $\mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{A} \cup \mathfrak{B}$, where \mathfrak{A} and \mathfrak{B} are closed in \mathfrak{X} . Let $f : \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $g : \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be continuous. Assume $f(x) = g(x)$ for each $x \in \mathfrak{A} \cap \mathfrak{B}$ and let $h : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be a mapping defined by $h(x) = f(x)$ for $x \in \mathfrak{A}$, and $h(x) = g(x)$ for $x \in \mathfrak{B}$. Then, h is continuous.*

Proof. Let \mathfrak{C} be a closed subset of \mathfrak{Y} . Then $h^{-1}(\mathfrak{C}) = f^{-1}(\mathfrak{C}) \cup g^{-1}(\mathfrak{C})$. Since f is continuous, $f^{-1}(\mathfrak{C})$ is closed in \mathfrak{A} , and so it is closed in \mathfrak{X} . Similarly, $g^{-1}(\mathfrak{C})$ is closed in \mathfrak{B} , and so in \mathfrak{X} . Hence, $h^{-1}(\mathfrak{C}) = f^{-1}(\mathfrak{C}) \cup g^{-1}(\mathfrak{C})$ is closed in \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, h is continuous. □

The proof of Theorem 3.13 relies on the following classical result: *Let \mathfrak{Y} be a subspace of \mathfrak{X} . If \mathfrak{C} is closed in \mathfrak{Y} and \mathfrak{Y} is closed in \mathfrak{X} , then \mathfrak{C} is closed in \mathfrak{X} .* However, this conclusion does not necessarily hold in the context of Δ -closedness.

Example 3.14. *Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ be a topological space with topology*

$$\sigma = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}\}.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is

$$\sigma_{\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{d, e\}, \{d\}, \{e\}\}.$$

The collection of all Δ -closed sets in \mathfrak{X} is

$$\sigma_{\Delta c} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{a, b, c, e\}, \{d, e\}, \{e\}\}.$$

Consider the subspace $\mathfrak{Y} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and the set $\mathfrak{C} = \{d\}$. Clearly, \mathfrak{Y} is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . Additionally, since

$$\mathfrak{C} = \mathfrak{Y} \cap \{d, e\},$$

Proposition 2.13 ensures that \mathfrak{C} is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} . However, \mathfrak{C} is not Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} , demonstrating that Δ -closedness is not necessarily transitive in this setting.

Motivated by Theorem 3.13 and Example 3.14 we propose the following pasting-type lemma for Δ -continuous mappings.

Theorem 3.15. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. Suppose that $\mathfrak{X} = \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$, where \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Let $f : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $g : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -continuous mappings such that $f(x) = g(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$. Define a mapping $h : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ by*

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{A}, \\ g(x), & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{B}. \end{cases}$$

Assume further that the union of any two Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is again Δ -open. Then, h is Δ -continuous.

Proof. Let \mathcal{O} be an open subset of \mathfrak{Y} . Then, by the definition of h , we have

$$h^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \cup g^{-1}(\mathcal{O}).$$

Since f is Δ -continuous, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathcal{A} . By Proposition 2.14, this implies that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Similarly, since g is Δ -continuous, $g^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathcal{B} , and thus it is also Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} .

By assumption, the union of any two Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is Δ -open. Therefore,

$$h^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \cup g^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$$

is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Consequently, h is Δ -continuous. \square

The condition in Theorem 3.15 that the union of any two Δ -open sets is again Δ -open cannot be omitted.

Example 3.16. *Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ be a topological space with topology*

$$\sigma = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}\}.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is

$$\sigma_{\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c, d\}, \{d, e\}, \{d\}, \{e\}\}.$$

Clearly, the sets $\{a, b, c\}$ and $\{e\}$ are Δ -open, but their union $\{a, b, c, e\}$ is not Δ -open.

Consider the subspaces $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{d, e\}$. Let $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}$ be the induced topologies on \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} , respectively.

Define a mapping $f : (\mathcal{A}, \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma)$ by

$$f(a) = a, \quad f(b) = b, \quad f(c) = c.$$

Clearly, f is continuous, so it is also Δ -continuous.

Next, define a mapping $g : (\mathcal{B}, \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma)$ by

$$g(d) = e, \quad g(e) = d.$$

Then, g is Δ -continuous.

Now, consider the mapping $h : (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma)$ as defined in Theorem 3.15. For the open set $\mathcal{O} = \{a, b, c, d\}$, we compute

$$h^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \cup g^{-1}(\mathcal{O}).$$

Since $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = \{a, b, c\}$ and $g^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = \{e\}$, we obtain

$$h^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) = \{a, b, c\} \cup \{e\} = \{a, b, c, e\}.$$

However, $\{a, b, c, e\}$ is not Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Thus, h is not Δ -continuous, demonstrating that the assumption on the union of Δ -open sets in Theorem 3.15 is necessary.

Proposition 3.17. Let $\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Y}$, and \mathfrak{Z} be topological spaces. Suppose $f_1 : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $f_2 : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ are mappings, and define $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y} \times \mathfrak{Z}$ by

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x)).$$

If f is Δ -continuous on \mathfrak{X} , then both f_1 and f_2 are Δ -continuous on \mathfrak{X} .

Proof. Let $\pi_1 : \mathfrak{Y} \times \mathfrak{Z} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $\pi_2 : \mathfrak{Y} \times \mathfrak{Z} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ be the natural projection mappings onto the first and second coordinates, respectively. Then, we can express f_1 and f_2 as compositions:

$$f_1(x) = \pi_1(f(x)) = (\pi_1 \circ f)(x), \quad f_2(x) = \pi_2(f(x)) = (\pi_2 \circ f)(x).$$

By Proposition 3.9(3), the projection maps π_1 and π_2 are continuous. Since f is Δ -continuous, applying Proposition 3.11(2) ensures that the compositions $\pi_1 \circ f$ and $\pi_2 \circ f$ are Δ -continuous. Hence, both f_1 and f_2 are Δ -continuous. \square

It is well known that open and closed sets are preserved under homeomorphisms. Similar conclusion holds for Δ -open and Δ -closed sets.

Proposition 3.18. Let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be a homeomorphism. Then:

- (1) The image of a Δ -open set under f is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} .
- (2) The inverse image of a Δ -open set under f is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} .
- (3) The image of a Δ -closed set under f is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} .
- (4) The inverse image of a Δ -closed set under f is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} .

Proof. (1) Let \mathcal{A} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{X} . By Theorem 2.2, there exist an open set \mathcal{O} and a closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{X} such that

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}.$$

Since f is a bijection, we obtain

$$f(\mathcal{A}) = f(\mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}) = f(\mathcal{O}) \cap f(\mathcal{C}).$$

As f is a homeomorphism, the image of \mathcal{O} under f is open in \mathfrak{Y} , and the image of \mathcal{C} is closed in \mathfrak{Y} . By Theorem 2.2, it follows that $f(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} .

- (2) Let \mathcal{B} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{Y} . By Theorem 2.2, there exist an open set \mathcal{G} and a closed set \mathcal{F} in \mathfrak{Y} such that

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{G} \cap \mathcal{F}.$$

Taking the preimage under f , we obtain

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{G} \cap \mathcal{F}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{G}) \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{F}).$$

Since f is a homeomorphism, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{G})$ is open in \mathfrak{X} and $f^{-1}(\mathcal{F})$ is closed in \mathfrak{X} . By Theorem 2.2, it follows that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} .

- (3) The proof for the image of a Δ -closed set follows similarly by applying Corollary 2.3.
 (4) The proof for the inverse image of a Δ -closed set follows analogously using Corollary 2.3.

□

4. Δ -IRRESOLUTE MAPPINGS

Given topological spaces \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} , a mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is called *irresolute* if for every semi-open set \mathcal{O} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is semi-open in \mathfrak{X} [7]. Following this concept, we introduce the following notion in terms of Δ -open sets.

Definition 4.1. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. A mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is said to be Δ -irresolute if for every Δ -open set \mathcal{S} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{S})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} .

Combining Definition 4.1 and Proposition 3.18, we get that each homeomorphism is Δ -irresolute. Evidently each Δ -irresolute mapping is Δ -continuous. The converse need not be true.

Example 4.2. Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c\}$ be a finite set equipped with the topologies

$$\sigma_1 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_2 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{b\}, \{b, c\}\}.$$

Define a mapping $f : (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_1) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_2)$ by

$$f(a) = c, \quad f(b) = b, \quad f(c) = a.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) is given by

$$\sigma_{1\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{c\}, \{b\}\}.$$

Similarly, the collection of all Δ -open sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_2) is

$$\sigma_{2\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{b\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, c\}, \{a\}, \{c\}\}.$$

It is evident that f is Δ -continuous. However, the set $\{a, c\}$ is Δ -open in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_2) , but its preimage under f is

$$f^{-1}(\{a, c\}) = \{a, c\},$$

which is not Δ -open in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) . Thus, f is not Δ -irresolute.

We show that each continuous mapping is Δ -irresolute.

Proposition 4.3. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is continuous, then it is Δ -irresolute.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{S} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{Y} . By Theorem 2.2, there exist an open set \mathcal{O} and a closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{Y} such that

$$\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}.$$

Taking the preimage under f , we obtain

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{S}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{C}) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}) \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{C}).$$

Since f is continuous, it follows that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is open in \mathfrak{X} and $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is closed in \mathfrak{X} . By Theorem 2.2, their intersection is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{S})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , proving that f is Δ -irresolute. \square

Example 3.2 provides an instance of a Δ -irresolute mapping that is not continuous. We have previously established that Δ -continuity can be characterized in terms of closed and Δ -closed sets; see Theorem 3.3. In a similar fashion, we present the following result for Δ -irresolute mappings.

Theorem 4.4. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Then f is Δ -irresolute if and only if for every Δ -closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} .*

Proof. (\implies) Assume that $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -irresolute. Let \mathcal{C} be a Δ -closed set in \mathfrak{Y} . By definition, $\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{C}$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Since f is Δ -irresolute, it follows that

$$f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{C}) = \mathfrak{X} \setminus f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$$

is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Consequently, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} .

(\impliedby) Conversely, suppose that for every Δ -closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{Y} , the preimage $f^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . Let \mathcal{O} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{Y} . Then, $\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{O}$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} , and by assumption, its preimage satisfies

$$f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y} \setminus \mathcal{O}) = \mathfrak{X} \setminus f^{-1}(\mathcal{O}),$$

which is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . This implies that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , proving that f is Δ -irresolute. \square

By similar arguments as Theorem 3.4, Proposition 3.6, Proposition 3.7, and Proposition 3.8, one can prove the next results on Δ -irresolute mappings.

Proposition 4.5. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. If f is Δ -irresolute, then for each $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ and for every Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(f(x))$ of $f(x)$ in \mathfrak{Y} , there exists a Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(x)$ of x in \mathfrak{X} such that

$$f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq \Delta N(f(x)).$$

Proposition 4.6. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. If f is Δ -irresolute and for every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, the Δ -closure $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{B})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} , then for every subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have

$$f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

Proposition 4.7. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. If f is Δ -irresolute and for every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, the Δ -interior $\Delta Int(\mathcal{B})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} , then for every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, we have

$$f^{-1}(\Delta Int(\mathcal{B})) \subseteq \Delta Int(f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})).$$

Proposition 4.8. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for every $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ and every Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(f(x))$ of $f(x)$ in \mathfrak{Y} , there exists a Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(x)$ of x in \mathfrak{X} such that

$$f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq \Delta N(f(x)).$$

Further, assume that for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, the Δ -interior $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Then f is Δ -irresolute.

Proposition 4.9. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for every subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have

$$f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

Further, assume that for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, the Δ -closure $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} . Then f is Δ -irresolute.

Proposition 4.10. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, we have

$$f^{-1}(\Delta Int(\mathcal{B})) \subseteq \Delta Int(f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})).$$

Further, assume that for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, the Δ -interior $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Then f is Δ -irresolute.

The proof of the following theorem is straightforward and is therefore omitted.

Theorem 4.11. Let \mathfrak{X} , \mathfrak{Y} , and \mathfrak{Z} be topological spaces.

- (1) If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is a homeomorphism, then f is Δ -irresolute.
- (2) If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -irresolute and $g : \mathfrak{Y} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ is Δ -irresolute, then the composition $g \circ f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ is Δ -irresolute.
- (3) If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -irresolute and \mathcal{A} is a subspace of \mathfrak{X} , then the restriction $f|_{\mathcal{A}} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -irresolute.
- (4) Let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -irresolute. If \mathcal{B} is a subspace of \mathfrak{Y} such that $f(\mathfrak{X}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, then the mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is Δ -irresolute.

- (5) Let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -irresolute. If \mathfrak{Z} is a topological space containing \mathfrak{Y} as a subspace, then the mapping $h : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ obtained by extending the codomain of f is Δ -irresolute.
- (6) Let $f_1 : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $f_2 : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ be mappings. Define $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y} \times \mathfrak{Z}$ by

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x)).$$

If f is Δ -irresolute, then both f_1 and f_2 are Δ -irresolute.

In connection with Theorem 3.15 the coming result is easily proved.

Theorem 4.12. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. Suppose that $\mathfrak{X} = \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}$, where \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Let $f : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $g : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -irresolute mappings such that $f(x) = g(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$. Define a mapping $h : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{A}, \\ g(x), & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{B}. \end{cases}$$

Assume further that the union of any two Δ -open sets in \mathfrak{X} is again Δ -open. Then, h is Δ -irresolute.

5. Δ -OPEN AND Δ -CLOSED MAPPINGS

Recall that a mapping is called *open* (*closed*) if the image of each open (*closed*) set is again an open (*a closed*) set. Similar notions can be defined in terms of Δ -open and Δ -closed sets.

Definition 5.1. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. A mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is said to be Δ -open if for every Δ -open set \mathcal{S} in \mathfrak{X} , the image $f(\mathcal{S})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} .

Definition 5.2. Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. A mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is said to be Δ -closed if for every Δ -closed set \mathcal{S} in \mathfrak{X} , the image $f(\mathcal{S})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} .

In connection with Proposition 3.18, it is evident that a homeomorphism is both a Δ -open and a Δ -closed mapping. However, for the mapping f in Example 3.10, the set $\mathcal{S} = \{c, d\}$ is both Δ -open and Δ -closed, but its image under f , given by $f(\mathcal{S}) = \{a, c\}$, is neither Δ -open nor Δ -closed. This provides an example of a mapping that is Δ -continuous but neither Δ -open nor Δ -closed.

Example 5.3. Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c\}$ be a topological space with topology

$$\sigma_1 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b\}\}.$$

Let $\mathfrak{Y} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ be a topological space with topology

$$\sigma_2 = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{Y}, \{b, d\}, \{c, d\}, \{d\}, \{b, c, d\}\}.$$

Define a mapping $f : (\mathfrak{X}, \sigma_1) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{Y}, \sigma_2)$ by

$$f(a) = b, \quad f(b) = a, \quad f(c) = d.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) coincides with the collection of all Δ -closed sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) , which is

$$\sigma_{1\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, b\}, \{c\}\}.$$

It is straightforward to verify that f is both a Δ -open and a Δ -closed mapping. However, the set $\{b, d\}$ is open in (\mathfrak{Y}, σ_2) , but its preimage under f ,

$$f^{-1}(\{b, d\}) = \{a, c\},$$

is not Δ -open in (\mathfrak{X}, σ_1) . Thus, f is not Δ -continuous. Consequently, f is neither Δ -irresolute nor continuous.

Next we give an example of a Δ -open mapping that is not Δ -closed and vice versa.

Example 5.4. Let $\mathfrak{X} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ be a topological space with topology

$$\sigma = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, c, d\}, \{c, d\}\}.$$

The collection of all Δ -open sets in (\mathfrak{X}, σ) is given by

$$\sigma_{\Delta o} = \{\emptyset, \mathfrak{X}, \{a, c, d\}, \{c, d\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a\}\}.$$

On one hand, define a mapping $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}$ by

$$f(a) = f(b) = f(c) = f(d) = a.$$

It is easy to verify that f is Δ -open but not Δ -closed.

On the other hand, define a mapping $g : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}$ by

$$g(a) = g(b) = b, \quad g(c) = c, \quad g(d) = d.$$

Then, g is Δ -closed. However, the set $\{a, c, d\}$ is Δ -open, yet its image under g ,

$$g(\{a, c, d\}) = \{b, c, d\},$$

is not Δ -open. Thus, g is not Δ -open.

It is evident that the composition of two Δ -open (respectively, Δ -closed) mappings is again a Δ -open (respectively, Δ -closed) mapping.

Theorem 5.5. Let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ and $g : \mathfrak{Y} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ be mappings. Assume that the composition $g \circ f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Z}$ is Δ -open (respectively, Δ -closed).

(1) If g is a Δ -irresolute injection, then f is Δ -open (respectively, Δ -closed).

(2) If f is a Δ -irresolute surjection, then g is Δ -open (respectively, Δ -closed).

Proof. We consider only the case where $g \circ f$ is Δ -open, as the case for Δ -closed mappings follows analogously.

(1) Let \mathcal{S} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{X} . Since $g \circ f$ is Δ -open, we have

$$(g \circ f)(\mathcal{S}) = g(f(\mathcal{S}))$$

as a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{Y} . Since g is Δ -irresolute, its preimage satisfies

$$g^{-1}(g(f(\mathcal{S})))$$

being Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Since g is injective, we obtain

$$g^{-1}(g(f(\mathcal{S}))) = f(\mathcal{S}).$$

Thus, $f(\mathcal{S})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} , proving that f is Δ -open.

(2) Let \mathcal{S} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{Y} . Since f is Δ -irresolute, we conclude that

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{S})$$

is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} . Because $g \circ f$ is Δ -open, its image satisfies

$$(g \circ f)(f^{-1}(\mathcal{S}))$$

being Δ -open in \mathfrak{Z} . Since f is surjective, it follows that

$$(g \circ f)(f^{-1}(\mathcal{S})) = g(f(f^{-1}(\mathcal{S}))) = g(\mathcal{S}).$$

Hence, $g(\mathcal{S})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Z} , proving that g is Δ -open.

□

Proposition 5.6. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -open, then for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have*

$$f(\Delta \text{Int}(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \Delta \text{Int}(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

Proof. Assume that f is Δ -open. For any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, let $y \in f(\Delta \text{Int}(\mathcal{A}))$. Then there exists some $x \in \Delta \text{Int}(\mathcal{A})$ such that $y = f(x)$. By Proposition 2.10, there exists a Δ -neighborhood $\Delta N(x)$ of x satisfying

$$x \in \Delta N(x) \subseteq \mathcal{A}.$$

Applying f to both sides, we obtain

$$f(x) \in f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq f(\mathcal{A}).$$

Since f is Δ -open, it follows that $f(\Delta N(x))$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Consequently,

$$f(\Delta N(x)) \subseteq \Delta \text{Int}(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

Therefore, we conclude that

$$y = f(x) \in \Delta \text{Int}(f(\mathcal{A})),$$

which proves the desired result. \square

The following result provides a partial converse to Proposition 5.6.

Proposition 5.7. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for each subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have*

$$f(\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \Delta Int(f(\mathcal{A})),$$

and that for each subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, the Δ -interior $\Delta Int(\mathcal{B})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Then f is Δ -open.

Proof. Let \mathcal{A} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{X} . Then by definition, $\Delta Int(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$, so we obtain

$$f(\mathcal{A}) = f(\Delta Int(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq \Delta Int(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

However, since $\Delta Int(f(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq f(\mathcal{A})$, it follows that

$$f(\mathcal{A}) = \Delta Int(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

By assumption, $\Delta Int(f(\mathcal{A})) = f(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Thus, f is Δ -open. \square

Proposition 5.8. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces. If $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is Δ -closed, then for any subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have*

$$\Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})).$$

Proof. Assume that f is Δ -closed and let $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. Then, for any Δ -closed set \mathcal{C} in \mathfrak{X} with $\mathcal{C} \supseteq \mathcal{A}$, we have that $f(\mathcal{C})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} and clearly satisfies $f(\mathcal{C}) \supseteq f(\mathcal{A})$. Therefore, we obtain

$$\Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})) = \bigcap_{\substack{K \supseteq f(\mathcal{A}) \\ K \Delta\text{-closed}}} K \subseteq \bigcap_{\substack{\mathcal{C} \supseteq \mathcal{A} \\ \mathcal{C} \Delta\text{-closed}}} f(\mathcal{C}) \subseteq f\left(\bigcap_{\substack{\mathcal{C} \supseteq \mathcal{A} \\ \mathcal{C} \Delta\text{-closed}}} \mathcal{C}\right) = f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})).$$

\square

The following result provides a partial converse to Proposition 5.8.

Proposition 5.9. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$. Suppose that for every subset $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$, we have*

$$\Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})),$$

and that for every subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$, the Δ -closure $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{B})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} . Then f is Δ -closed.

Proof. Let \mathcal{A} be a Δ -closed set in \mathfrak{X} . Then by definition, $\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$, so we obtain

$$\Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})) \subseteq f(\Delta Cl(\mathcal{A})) = f(\mathcal{A}).$$

However, since $f(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A}))$, it follows that

$$f(\mathcal{A}) = \Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})).$$

By assumption, $\Delta Cl(f(\mathcal{A})) = f(\mathcal{A})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} . Thus, f is Δ -closed. \square

Proposition 5.10. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -open. Then for each subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$ and each Δ -closed set \mathcal{H} in \mathfrak{X} containing $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$, there exists a Δ -closed set \mathcal{K} in \mathfrak{Y} such that $\mathcal{K} \supseteq \mathcal{B}$ and $f^{-1}(\mathcal{K}) \subseteq \mathcal{H}$.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$ and let \mathcal{H} be a Δ -closed set in \mathfrak{X} such that $\mathcal{H} \supseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$. Then $\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H}$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{X} , and since f is Δ -open, it follows that $f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H})$ is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} . Define

$$\mathcal{K} = \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H}).$$

Clearly, \mathcal{K} is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} , and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H} \supseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) &\Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \\ &\Rightarrow f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H}) \subseteq f(\mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{K} = \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H}) \supseteq \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) \\ &\Rightarrow \mathcal{K} \supseteq \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) \supseteq \mathcal{B} \\ &\Rightarrow \mathcal{K} \supseteq \mathcal{B}. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, we verify that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{K}) \subseteq \mathcal{H}$:

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(\mathcal{K}) &= f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H})) \\ &= f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y}) - f^{-1}(f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H})) \\ &= \mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H})) \\ &\subseteq \mathfrak{X} - (\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{H}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 5.11. *Let \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} be topological spaces, and let $f : \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ be Δ -closed. Then for each subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$ and each Δ -open set \mathcal{U} in \mathfrak{X} containing $f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$, there exists a Δ -open set \mathcal{V} in \mathfrak{Y} such that $\mathcal{V} \supseteq \mathcal{B}$ and $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$ and let \mathcal{U} be a Δ -open set in \mathfrak{X} with $\mathcal{U} \supseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$. Then $\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U}$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{X} , and since f is Δ -closed, it follows that $f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U})$ is Δ -closed in \mathfrak{Y} . Define

$$\mathcal{V} = \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U}).$$

Clearly, \mathcal{V} is Δ -open in \mathfrak{Y} , and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{U} \supseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) &\Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B}) \\ &\Rightarrow f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U}) \subseteq f(\mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{V} = \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U}) \supseteq \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow \mathcal{V} \supseteq \mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(\mathcal{B})) \supseteq \mathcal{B} \\ &\Rightarrow \mathcal{V} \supseteq \mathcal{B}. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, we verify that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$:

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) &= f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y} - f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U})) \\ &= f^{-1}(\mathfrak{Y}) - f^{-1}(f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U})) \\ &= \mathfrak{X} - f^{-1}(f(\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U})) \\ &\subseteq \mathfrak{X} - (\mathfrak{X} - \mathcal{U}) = \mathcal{U}. \end{aligned}$$

□

6. CONCLUSION

In this work, we introduced four distinct classes of mappings in topological spaces, each characterized by its interaction with Δ -open and Δ -closed sets.

The first class, Δ -continuous mappings, is defined by the condition that the inverse image of any open set must be Δ -open. A comprehensive characterization of these mappings, incorporating closed and Δ -closed sets, is provided in Theorem 3.3.

Next, we examined Δ -irresolute mappings, which are distinguished by the property that the inverse image of every Δ -open set remains Δ -open. Theorem 4.4 presents a fundamental characterization of Δ -irresolute mappings in terms of Δ -closed sets.

The hierarchical relationships among these classes are encapsulated in the implications

$$\text{continuous mapping} \Rightarrow \Delta\text{-irresolute mapping} \Rightarrow \Delta\text{-continuous mapping}.$$

However, as demonstrated in Example 3.2 and Example 4.2, these implications are not necessarily reversible.

The third and fourth classes— Δ -open and Δ -closed mappings—further enrich this framework. A Δ -open mapping ensures that the image of any Δ -open set remains Δ -open, while a Δ -closed mapping guarantees that the image of every Δ -closed set is also Δ -closed. The distinctions between Δ -open, Δ -closed, and Δ -continuous mappings, as illustrated in Examples 5.3 and 5.4, underscore the intricate relationships among these concepts.

Looking ahead, we intend to extend this study to explore Δ -compactness, Δ -connectedness, and Δ -separation axioms in topological spaces, further expanding the theoretical foundation of Δ -structured mappings.

Authors' Contributions. All authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript. The authors contributed equally to this work.

Acknowledgment. The author would like to thank Palestine Technical University-Kadoorie (PTUK) for their support and help.

Conflicts of Interest. The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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