

P-I-OPEN MAPPINGS, *P-I*-CONTINUOUS MAPPINGS AND *P-I*-IRRESOLUTE MAPPINGS

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ABSTRACT. The notions of *P-I*-open (closed) mappings, *P-I*-continuous mappings, *P-I*-neighborhoods, *P-I*-irresolute mappings and *I*-irresolute mappings are introduced. Relations between *P-I*-open (closed) mappings and *I*-open (closed) mappings are given. Characterizations of *P-I*-open (closed) mappings are provided. Relations between a *P-I*-continuous mapping and an *I*-continuous mapping are discussed, and characterizations of a *P-I*-continuous mapping are considered. Conditions for a mapping to be an *I*-irresolute mapping (resp. *P-I*-irresolute mapping) are provided.

1. INTRODUCTION

In 1990, D. Janković, and T.R. Hamlett have introduced the notion of *I*-open sets in topological spaces. Since then, several kinds of *I*-openness, that is, (weakly) semi-*I*-open set, δ -*I*-open sets, β -*I*-open sets, α -*I*-open sets, *b-I*-open sets, (weakly) pre-*I*-open sets, etc. are introduced, and several properties and relations are investigated (see [2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 25, 28]). In [18], Kang and Kim first introduced the notions of pre-local function, semi-local function and α -local function with respect to a topology and an ideal, and investigated several properties. They next introduced the concept of *P-I*-open set and *P-I*-closed set in ideal topological spaces, and investigated related properties. They discussed relations between *I*-open sets and *P-I*-open sets. Finally they introduced the notion of *P*-*closure, and investigated many properties related to *P-I*-open set, pre-local function, semi-local function and α -local function with respect to a topology and an ideal.

In this paper, we deal with *P-I*-open mappings, *P-I*-continuous mappings and *P-I*-irresolute mappings. In section 3, we define the notion of *P-I*-open (closed) mappings, and give relations between *P-I*-open (closed) mappings and *I*-open (closed)

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mappings. We provide characterizations of P - \mathcal{I} -open (closed) mappings. In section 4, we define a P - \mathcal{I} -continuous mapping and a P - \mathcal{I} -neighborhood, and then we investigate relations between a P - \mathcal{I} -continuous mapping and an \mathcal{I} -continuous mapping. We discuss characterizations of a P - \mathcal{I} -continuous mapping. In the final section, we introduce the notions of P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute mappings and \mathcal{I} -irresolute mappings. We give conditions for a mapping to be an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping (resp. P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping).

2. PRELIMINARIES

Through this paper, (X, τ) and (Y, κ) (simply X and Y) always mean topological spaces. A subset A of X is said to be *semi-open* [19] (respectively, α -*open* [26] and *pre-open* [24]) if $A \subset \text{Cl}(\text{Int}(A))$ (respectively, $A \subset \text{Int}(\text{Cl}(\text{Int}(A)))$ and $A \subset \text{Int}(\text{Cl}(A))$). The complement of a pre-open set (respectively, an α -open set and a semi-open set) is called a *pre-closed set* (respectively, an α -*closed set* and a *semi-closed set*). The intersection of all pre-closed sets (respectively, α -closed sets and semi-closed sets) containing A is called the *pre-closure* (respectively, α -*closure* and *semi-closure*) of A , denoted by $p\text{Cl}(A)$ (respectively, $\alpha\text{Cl}(A)$ and $s\text{Cl}(A)$). A subset A is also pre-closed (respectively, α -closed and semi-closed) if and only if $A = p\text{Cl}(A)$ (respectively, $A = \alpha\text{Cl}(A)$ and $A = s\text{Cl}(A)$). We denote the family of all pre-open sets (respectively, α -open sets and semi-open sets) of (X, τ) by τ^p (respectively, τ^α and τ^s).

An *ideal* is defined as a nonempty collection \mathcal{I} of subsets of X satisfying the following two conditions.

- (1) If $A \in \mathcal{I}$ and $B \subset A$, then $B \in \mathcal{I}$. (heredity)
- (2) If $A \in \mathcal{I}$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}$, then $A \cup B \in \mathcal{I}$. (finite additivity)

An *ideal topological space* is a topological space (X, τ) with an ideal \mathcal{I} on X , and it is denoted by (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) . For a subset $A \subset X$, the set

$$A^*(\tau, \mathcal{I}) = \{x \in X : U \cap A \notin \mathcal{I} \text{ for each } U \in \tau(x)\}$$

is called the *local function* of A with respect to τ and \mathcal{I} , where

$$\tau(x) = \{U \in \tau : x \in U\}.$$

We will use A^* and/or $A^*(\mathcal{I})$ instead of $A^*(\tau, \mathcal{I})$.

Lemma 2.1 ([16]). *Let (X, τ) be a topological space with ideals \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} on X . For subsets A and B of X , we have the following assertions.*

- (i) $A \subset B \Rightarrow A^* \subset B^*$.
- (ii) $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{J} \Rightarrow A^*(\mathcal{J}) \subset A^*(\mathcal{I})$.
- (iii) $A^* = \text{Cl}(A^*) \subset \text{Cl}(A)$ (A^* is a closed subset of $\text{Cl}(A)$).
- (iv) $(A^*)^* \subset A^*$.
- (v) $(A \cup B)^* = A^* \cup B^*$.
- (vi) $A^* \setminus B^* = (A \setminus B)^* \setminus B^* \subset (A \setminus B)^*$.
- (vii) $U \in \tau \Rightarrow U \cap A^* = U \cap (U \cap A)^* \subset (U \cap A)^*$.
- (viii) $B \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow (A \cup B)^* = A^* = (A \setminus B)^*$.

Definition 2.2. Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space. A subset A of X is said to be \mathcal{I} -open [1] if $A \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$.

The set of all \mathcal{I} -open sets in ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) is denoted by $\text{IO}(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ or written simply as $\text{IO}(X)$ when there is no chance for confusion.

Definition 2.3 ([18]). Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space and let A be a subset of X . Then the set

$$A_p^*(\tau, \mathcal{I}) = \{x \in X : U \cap A \notin \mathcal{I} \text{ for each } U \in \tau^p(x)\}$$

is called the *pre-local function* with respect to τ and \mathcal{I} , where

$$\tau^p(x) = \{U \in \tau^p : x \in U\}.$$

We will use A_p^* and/or $A_p^*(\mathcal{I})$ instead of $A_p^*(\tau, \mathcal{I})$.

Lemma 2.4 ([18]). Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space and let A be a subset of X . Then

- (i) If $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset\}$, then $A_p^* = p\text{Cl}(A)$, $A_s^* = s\text{Cl}(A)$ and $A_\alpha^* = \alpha\text{Cl}(A)$.
- (ii) If $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{P}(X)$, then $A_p^* = A_s^* = A_\alpha^* = \emptyset$.

Lemma 2.5 ([18]). Let (X, τ) be a topological space with ideals \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} on X , and let A, B be subsets of X . Then

- (i) $A \subset B \Rightarrow A_p^* \subset B_p^*$.
- (ii) $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{J} \Rightarrow A_p^*(\mathcal{J}) \subset A_p^*(\mathcal{I})$.
- (iii) $A_p^* = p\text{Cl}(A_p^*) \subset p\text{Cl}(A)$ (A_p^* is a pre-closed subset of $p\text{Cl}(A)$).
- (iv) $(A_p^*)_p^* \subset A_p^*$.
- (v) $B \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow B_p^* = \emptyset$.
- (vi) $U \in \tau^\alpha \Rightarrow U \cap A_p^* = U \cap (U \cap A)_p^* \subset (U \cap A)_p^*$.
- (vii) $B \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow (A \cup B)_p^* = A_p^* = (A \setminus B)_p^*$.
- (viii) $A_p^*(\mathcal{I} \cap \mathcal{J}) \supset A_p^*(\mathcal{I}) \cup A_p^*(\mathcal{J})$.

Definition 2.6 ([18]). Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space. A subset A of X is said to be $P\mathcal{I}$ -open if $A \subset p\text{Int}(A_p^*)$. A subset B of X is said to be $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed if the complement of B is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open.

The set of all $P\mathcal{I}$ -open sets in (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) is denoted by $P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$. Simply $P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ is written as $P\mathcal{I}O(X)$ or $P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau)$ when there is no chance for confusion.

Definition 2.7 ([1]). A mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ is said to be \mathcal{I} -open (resp. \mathcal{I} -closed) if for each $U \in \tau$ (resp. $U^c \in \tau$), $f(U)$ is an \mathcal{I} -open (resp. \mathcal{I} -closed) set.

Theorem 2.8 ([18]). Let $A \in P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau)$. Then A is \mathcal{I} -open.

Remark 2.9. By Theorem 2.8, we know that $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set implies \mathcal{I} -open set. By [1, Remark 2.2], we know that \mathcal{I} -open set implies pre-open set. Hence we can deduce that $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set implies pre-open set. The converse is not true, in general.

Theorem 2.10 ([18]). Let $\{U_i \in P\mathcal{I}O(X) : i \in \Lambda\}$ be a class of $P\mathcal{I}$ -open sets in an ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) . Then $\bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} \{U_i \in P\mathcal{I}O(X) : i \in \Lambda\}$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open.

Theorem 2.11 ([18]). If A is $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed in an ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) , then $A \supset (p\text{Int}(A))_p^*$.

Lemma 2.12 ([17]). Let A be a subset of a topological space (X, τ) . Then the following assertions are satisfied.

- (i) $(p\text{Int}(A))^c = p\text{Cl}(A^c)$.
- (ii) $(p\text{Cl}(A))^c = p\text{Int}(A^c)$.

3. $P\mathcal{I}$ -OPEN MAPPINGS AND $P\mathcal{I}$ -CLOSED MAPPINGS

Definition 3.1. A mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ is said to be $P\mathcal{I}$ -open (resp. $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed) if for each $U \in \tau$ (resp. $U^c \in \tau$), $f(U)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set (resp. $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed set).

Example 3.2. Consider a topological space (X, τ) with $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{b, c\}\}$, and consider an ideal topological space (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) where $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$. Then

$$P\mathcal{I}O(Y, \kappa) = \{\emptyset, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{2, 3, 4\}\}.$$

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping given by $f(a) = 2 = f(b)$ and $f(c) = 3$. Then $f(\{a\}) = \{2\}$, $f(\{b, c\}) = \{2, 3\}$, $f(X) = \{2, 3\}$ and $f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$. Hence f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. Let $g : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping given by $g(a) = 1 = g(b)$

and $g(c) = 4$. Then $g(\{b, c\}) = \{1, 4\} = g(X)$, $g(\{a\}) = \{1\}$ and $g(\emptyset) = \emptyset$. Hence g is a *P-I*-closed mapping.

Theorem 3.3. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a *P-I*-open (resp. *P-I*-closed) mapping. Then f is an \mathcal{I} -open (resp. \mathcal{I} -closed) mapping.*

Proof. Suppose that $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a *P-I*-open (resp. *P-I*-closed) mapping. Let $G \in \tau$ (resp. $G^c \in \tau$). Then $f(G)$ is a *P-I*-open set (resp. *P-I*-closed set) in Y . Since *P-I*-open (resp. *P-I*-closed) set is an \mathcal{I} -open (resp. \mathcal{I} -closed) set by Theorem 2.8, $f(G)$ is an \mathcal{I} -open (resp. \mathcal{I} -closed) set. Hence f is \mathcal{I} -open (resp. \mathcal{I} -closed). □

The converse of Theorem 3.3 may not be true as seen in the following example.

Example 3.4. Consider a topological space (X, τ) with $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and consider an ideal topological space (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) where $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$. Then a mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ given by $f(a) = 1$, $f(b) = 2 = f(c)$, and $f(d) = 3$ is \mathcal{I} -open. Since $f(\{a, b\}) = \{1, 2\} \not\subseteq \{2\} = p\text{Int}(\{1, 2\}_p^*)$, we know that f is not *P-I*-open.

Corollary 3.5. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a *P-I*-open (resp. *P-I*-closed) mapping. Then f is a pre-open (resp. pre-closed) mapping.*

Proof. Using Theorem 3.3 and Remark 2.9, we know that f is a pre-open (resp. pre-closed) mapping. □

Example 3.6. Consider a topological space (X, τ) with $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{1\}, \{2, 3\}\}$, and consider an ideal topological space (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) where $Y = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Then a mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ given by $f(1) = b = f(2)$ and $f(3) = c$ is *P-I*-open. But f is not an open mapping because $f(1) = \{b\} \notin \kappa$ for $\{1\} \in \tau$.

Example 3.7. Consider a topological space (X, τ) with $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{1\}, \{2, 3\}\}$, and consider an ideal topological space (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) where $Y = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Then a mapping $g : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ given by $g(1) = c$, $g(2) = a$, and $g(3) = b$ is an open mapping. But g is not a *P-I*-open mapping since $g(\{2, 3\}) = \{a, b\} \not\subseteq p\text{Int}(\{a, b\}_p^*) = \{b\}$ for $\{2, 3\} \in \tau$.

Remark 3.8. We know that the *P-I*-open mapping and the open mapping are independent notions as seen in Examples 3.6 and 3.7.

Theorem 3.9. Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping.
- (ii) For each $x \in X$ and each open neighborhood U of x , there exists a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set $W \subset Y$ containing $f(x)$ such that $W \subset f(U)$

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Suppose that f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. Let $x \in X$. Then for each open set G containing x , $f(x) \in f(G)$. Since f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open, $f(G)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set in Y . Putting $W := f(G)$, we obtain (ii).

(ii) \Rightarrow (i). Let G be an open set in X . Then for any $x \in G$, there exists $W_x \in P\mathcal{I}O(Y, \kappa)$ such that $f(x) \in W_x \subset f(G)$. This implies that $f(G) = \bigcup_{x \in G} f(x) \subset \bigcup_{x \in G} W_x \subset f(G)$. Hence $\bigcup_{x \in G} W_x = f(G)$. By Theorem 2.10, $f(G)$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open. Therefore f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. \square

Theorem 3.10. Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping. Then f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open if and only if it satisfies the following assertion:

$$(3.1) \quad f(\text{Int}(A)) \subset p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*)$$

for all A in (X, τ) .

Proof. Suppose that f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. Let A be a subset of X . Then $\text{Int}(A)$ is an open set and $f(\text{Int}(A))$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set. Hence

$$f(\text{Int}(A)) \subset p\text{Int}(f(\text{Int}(A))_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*).$$

Conversely, suppose that f satisfies (3.1). Let G be an open subset of X . Then $f(G) = f(\text{Int}(G)) \subset p\text{Int}(f(G)_p^*)$. Hence $f(G)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set in (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) . Therefore f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. \square

Corollary 3.11. Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping satisfying the inclusion $f(\text{Int}(A)) \subset p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*)$ for all A in (X, τ) . Then f is an \mathcal{I} -open mapping.

Proof. Straightforward. \square

If f is an \mathcal{I} -open mapping then is Theorem 3.10 true? The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 3.12. Consider a topological space (X, τ) with $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and consider an ideal topological space (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) where $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$. Then a mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ given by $f(a) = 1$, $f(b) = 2 = f(c)$, and $f(d) = 3$ is an \mathcal{I} -open

mapping. If $A = \{a, b, d\}$, then $f(\text{Int}(A)) = f(\{a, b\}) = \{1, 2\}$ and

$$p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*) = p\text{Int}(\{1, 2, 3\}_p^*) = p\text{Int}(\{2, 3, 4\}) = \{2, 3, 4\}.$$

Hence we know that $f(\text{Int}(A)) \not\subset p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*)$.

Theorem 3.13. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping. Then f is P-I-open if and only if it satisfies the following assertion:*

$$(3.2) \quad \text{Int}(f^{-1}(B)) \subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(B_p^*))$$

for all B in (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) .

Proof. Suppose that f is P-I-open. Let B be a subset of Y . Then $f^{-1}(B)$ is a subset of (X, τ) . Since f is P-I-open, we obtain

$$f(\text{Int}(f^{-1}(B))) \subset p\text{Int}(f(f^{-1}(B))_p^*).$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Int}(f^{-1}(B)) &\subset f^{-1}(f(\text{Int}(f^{-1}(B)))) \\ &\subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(f(f^{-1}(B))_p^*)) \\ &\subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(B_p^*)). \end{aligned}$$

Conversely, suppose that f satisfies (3.2). Let G be an open set in (X, τ) . Then $\text{Int}(f^{-1}(f(G))) \subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(f(G)_p^*))$ since $f(G)$ is a set in (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) . Since $G \subset f^{-1}(f(G))$ and $\text{Int}(G) = G$, we have

$$G \subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(f(G))) \subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(f(G)_p^*)).$$

This implies that $f(G) \subset f(f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(f(G)_p^*))) \subset p\text{Int}(f(G)_p^*)$. Hence $f(G)$ is a P-I-open set in (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) . Therefore f is P-I-open. □

If f is an \mathcal{I} -open mapping then does Theorem 3.13 hold? The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 3.14. In Example 3.12, let $B = \{1, 2\}$. Then

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

and $f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(B_p^*)) = f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(\{2\})) = \{b, c\}$. Hence we know that $\text{Int}(f^{-1}(B)) \not\subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(B_p^*))$.

Theorem 3.15. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a mapping. Then f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -closed if and only if it satisfies the following assertion:*

$$(3.3) \quad p\text{Cl}(((f(\text{Cl}(A))^c)_p^*)^c) \subset f(\text{Cl}(A))$$

for A in X .

Proof. Let f be a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -closed mapping. Then

$$f(\text{Cl}(A))^c \subset p\text{Int}((f(\text{Cl}(A))^c)_p^*).$$

Hence $p\text{Cl}(((f(\text{Cl}(A))^c)_p^*)^c) \subset f(\text{Cl}(A))$.

Conversely, assume that (3.3) is valid and let B be a closed set in X . Then

$$p\text{Cl}(((f(B))^c)_p^*)^c = p\text{Cl}(((f(\text{Cl}(B))^c)_p^*)^c) \subset f(\text{Cl}(B)) = f(B).$$

This implies that $f(B)^c \subset p\text{Int}((f(B))^c)_p^*$. Hence f is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -closed mapping. \square

If f is an \mathcal{I} -closed mapping then do f satisfy the following assertion?

$$p\text{Cl}(((f(\text{Cl}(A))^c)_p^*)^c) \subset f(\text{Cl}(A))$$

The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 3.16. Let (X, τ) be a topological space with $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and consider an ideal topological space (Y, κ, \mathcal{I}) where $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$. Then a mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ given by $f(a) = 2 = f(b)$, $f(c) = 1$, and $f(d) = 4$ is an \mathcal{I} -closed mapping. Let $A = \{d\}$. Then we know that $p\text{Cl}(((f(\text{Cl}(A))^c)_p^*)^c) = \{1\}$ and $f(\text{Cl}(A)) = \{4\}$. Hence

$$p\text{Cl}(((f(\text{Cl}(A))^c)_p^*)^c) \not\subset f(\text{Cl}(A)).$$

Theorem 3.17. *Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ be $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open such that*

$$(3.4) \quad (\forall A \subset X)(f(A^*) \subset f(A)_p^* \text{ or } f(A^*) \subset f(A)).$$

Then the image of each \mathcal{I} -open set is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open.

Proof. Suppose that $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. Let A be an \mathcal{I} -open set in X . Then $A \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$. Since f is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping, $f(\text{Int}(A^*))$ is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open set in Y . It follows that

$$f(A) \subset f(\text{Int}(A^*)) \subset p\text{Int}(f(\text{Int}(A^*))^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f(A^*)^*).$$

Since $f(A^*) \subset f(A)_p^*$ or $f(A^*) \subset f(A)$, we have

$$f(A) \subset p\text{Int}((f(A)_p^*)^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*),$$

and so $f(A) \subset p\text{Int}(f(A)_p^*)$. □

The converse of Theorem 3.17 is not valid as seen in the following example.

Example 3.18. Consider two ideal topological spaces (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) and (Y, κ, \mathcal{J}) where $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$, $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{3\}\}$. Then a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = 1$, $f(b) = 2 = f(c)$ and $f(d) = 4$ is a P-I-open mapping in which the image of each I-open set is a P-I-open set. But if $A = \{b, c\}$ then $f(A^*) = f(X) = \{1, 2, 4\} \not\subset \{2\} = f(A)_p^* = f(A)$.

Corollary 3.19. Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ be P-I-open. Assume that every subset A of X satisfies $f(A^*) \subset f(A)_p^*$ or $f(A^*) \subset f(A)$. Then the image of each P-I-open set is P-I-open.

Proof. We can obtain the result by analogous way to Theorem 3.17. □

We have a question : In Theorem 3.17, if we use the following condition

$$(3.5) \quad (\forall A \subset X)(f(A^*) \subset f(A)^*)$$

instead of the condition (3.4), then does Theorem 3.17 hold?

We provide a partial answer to the above question.

Theorem 3.20. Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ be P-I-open such that

$$(3.6) \quad \begin{aligned} &(\forall A \subset X)(f(A^*) \subset f(A)^*) \\ &(\forall B \subset Y)((B^*)_p^* \subset B_p^*). \end{aligned}$$

Then the image of each I-open set is P-I-open.

Proof. Suppose that $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ is P-I-open. Let A be an I-open set in X . Then $A \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$. Since f is P-I-open, $f(\text{Int}(A^*))$ is a P-I-open set in Y . It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} f(A) &\subset f(\text{Int}(A^*)) \\ &\subset p\text{Int}(f(\text{Int}(A^*))_p^*) \\ &\subset p\text{Int}(f(A^*)_p^*) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\subset p\text{Int}((f(A)^*)^*_p) \\ &\subset p\text{Int}(f(A)^*_p). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $f(A)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set in Y . \square

Theorem 3.21. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. If $W \subset Y$ and F is a closed set in X containing $f^{-1}(W)$, then there exists a $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed set H in Y containing W such that $f^{-1}(H) \subset F$.*

Proof. Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$ be a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. Suppose that $W \subset Y$ and F is a closed set in X containing $f^{-1}(W)$. Then F^c is open in X and $f(F^c)$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open in Y . Putting $H := f(F^c)^c$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(W) \subset F &\Rightarrow f^{-1}(W^c) \supset F^c \\ &\Rightarrow f(f^{-1}(W^c)) \supset f(F^c) \\ &\Rightarrow W^c \supset f(f^{-1}(W^c)) \supset f(F^c) \\ &\Rightarrow W \subset f(F^c)^c = H, \end{aligned}$$

and $f^{-1}(H) = f^{-1}(f(F^c)^c) \subset (F^c)^c = F$. Hence H is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed set containing W and $f^{-1}(H) \subset F$. \square

Lemma 3.22. *For any bijective mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{I})$, f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open if and only if f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed.*

Proof. Suppose that f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open. Let F be closed in X . Then F^c is open in X . This implies that $f(F^c) = f(F)^c$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open in Y . Hence $f(F)$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed in Y . Therefore f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -closed mapping.

Conversely, we can obtain the result by analogous way \square

Theorem 3.23. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ and $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ be two mappings, where $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{J}, \mathcal{H}$ are ideals on X, Y and Z respectively. Then*

- (i) $g \circ f$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open if f is an open mapping and g is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping.
- (ii) Assume that $g(V^*) \subset g(V)^*_p$ or $g(V^*) \subset g(V)$ for every subset V of Y . If f is \mathcal{I} -open and g is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open, then $g \circ f$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open.

Proof. (i) Straightforward.

(ii) Let $A \subset X$ be an open set. Since f is \mathcal{I} -open, $f(A)$ is an \mathcal{I} -open set. Since g is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open, it follows from Theorem 3.17 that $g(f(A))$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set. Hence $g \circ f$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. \square

Corollary 3.24. *Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ and $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ be two mappings, where $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{J}, \mathcal{H}$ are ideals on X, Y and Z respectively. Assume that $g(V^*) \subset g(V)_p^*$ or $g(V^*) \subset g(V)$ for every subset V of Y . If f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open and g is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open, then $g \circ f$ is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open.*

Proof. Straightforward. □

If f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open and g is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open then is $g \circ f$ $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open? The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 3.25. Consider a topological space

$$(X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\})$$

and ideal topological spaces (Y, κ, \mathcal{J}) and (Z, δ, \mathcal{H}) where $Y = \{x, y, z\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{x\}\}$, $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{y\}\}$, $Z = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\delta = \{\emptyset, Z, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and $\mathcal{H} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. A mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(1) = x$, $f(2) = y = f(3)$, and $f(4) = z$ is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. And a mapping $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ given by $g(x) = b$, $g(y) = d$, and $g(z) = c$ is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. Let $A = \{1, 2\} \in \tau$. Then $g \circ f(A) = \{b, d\}$ is not a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open set in (Z, δ, \mathcal{H}) . Hence $g \circ f$ is not a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping.

Remark 3.26. From Theorem 3.3 and Example 3.25, we know that the answers to the following questions are negative.

- (i) If a mapping f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open and a mapping g is \mathcal{I} -open, then is $g \circ f$ $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open?
- (ii) If a mapping f is \mathcal{I} -open and a mapping g is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open, then is $g \circ f$ $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open?
- (iii) If a mapping f is \mathcal{I} -open and a mapping g is \mathcal{I} -open, then is $g \circ f$ $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open?

If a mapping f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open and a mapping g is open, then is $g \circ f$ $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open? The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 3.27. Consider the example as presented in Example 3.25. A mapping $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(1) = x$, $f(2) = y = f(3)$, and $f(4) = z$ is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping. And a mapping $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ given by $g(x) = c$, $g(y) = a$, and $g(z) = b$ is an open mapping. Let $A = \{1, 2\} \in \tau$. Then $g \circ f(A) = \{a, c\}$ is not a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open set in (Z, δ, \mathcal{H}) . Hence $g \circ f$ is not a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping.

Let $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ and $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ be two mappings. We have two questions as follow.

- (i) If $g \circ f$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open and g is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open, then is f an open mapping?
- (ii) If $g \circ f$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open and f is open, then is g a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping?

The answers to these questions are negative as seen in the following two examples.

Example 3.28. Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$. Let $Y = \{x, y, z\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{x\}\}$, $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{y\}\}$ and let $Z = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\delta = \{\emptyset, Z, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, $\mathcal{H} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Consider mappings $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(1) = x = f(2)$, $f(3) = z = f(4)$ and $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ given by $g(x) = b$, $g(y) = d$ and $g(z) = c$. Then $g \circ f$ and g are $P\mathcal{I}$ -open. But f is not an open mapping because $f(A) = \{x, z\} \notin \kappa$ for $A = \{1, 2, 3\} \in \tau$.

Example 3.29. Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$. Let $Y = \{x, y, z\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{x\}, \{x, y\}\}$, $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{y\}\}$ and let $Z = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\delta = \{\emptyset, Z, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, $\mathcal{H} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Consider mappings $f : (X, \tau) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(1) = f(2) = f(3) = x$, $f(4) = y$ and $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$ given by $g(x) = b$, $g(y) = c$, $g(z) = a$. Then $g \circ f$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open and f is open. But g is not a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open mapping because $g(Y) = \{a, b, c\}$ is not a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set in Z .

4. $P\mathcal{I}$ -CONTINUOUS MAPPINGS

Definition 4.1. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ is said to be $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous if $f^{-1}(V) \in P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ for all $V \in \kappa$.

Example 4.2. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with topology $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and an ideal $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Then we know that

$$P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, d\}, \{b, d\}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, d\}, X\}.$$

Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ with topology $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{2, 3\}\}$. Then a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ given by $f(a) = 2$, $f(b) = 3$, and $f(c) = 5 = f(d)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous mapping.

Theorem 4.3. If a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, then it is \mathcal{I} -continuous.

Proof. It follows from Theorem 2.8. □

Corollary 4.4. If a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, then it is pre-continuous.

Proof. It follows from Remark 2.9. □

Is any \mathcal{I} -continuous mapping a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous mapping? The answer to this question is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 4.5. Consider an ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) where $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Then

$$PIO(X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}\},$$

$$\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) = \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}, X\}.$$

Let (Y, κ) be a topological space where $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and

$$\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}.$$

Consider a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ given by $f(a) = 3 = f(d)$, $f(b) = 1$ and $f(c) = 2$. Then $f^{-1}(\{1\}) = \{b\}$, $f^{-1}(\{2\}) = \{c\}$, $f^{-1}(\{1, 2\}) = \{b, c\}$ and $f^{-1}(\{1, 2, 3\}) = X = f^{-1}(Y)$. Hence f is \mathcal{I} -continuous. But f is not $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous because $f^{-1}(\{1, 2, 3\}) = X$ is not $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open.

Is any $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous mapping a continuous mapping and vice versa? The following examples show that the answer to this question is negative.

Example 4.6. Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space with $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Consider a topological space (Y, κ) with $Y = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}$. Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ be defined by $f(a) = f(b) = f(c) = 1$ and $f(d) = 3$. Then $f^{-1}(\{1\}) = \{a, b, c\} = f^{-1}(\{1, 2\})$, $f^{-1}(\{2\}) = \emptyset$ and $f^{-1}(Y) = X$. Hence f is continuous. But f is not $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous because $f^{-1}(Y) = X$ is not $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open.

Example 4.7. Consider an ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) with $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}\}$, and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{b\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with topology $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$. Define a mapping $g : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ by $g(a) = 1$, $g(b) = 2$ and $g(c) = 4$. Then $g^{-1}(\{1, 2\}) = \{a, b\} = f^{-1}(\{1, 2, 3\})$ and $f^{-1}(Y) = X$. Hence f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous. However, f is not continuous because $f^{-1}(\{1, 2\}) = \{a, b\}$ is not open.

Definition 4.8. Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space. A subset S of X is called a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -neighborhood of x if S is a superset of a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open set G containing x .

Example 4.9. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with a topology $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and an ideal $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Then

$$PIO(X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, d\}, \{b, d\}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, d\}, X\},$$

and the set $S = \{a, c, d\}$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -neighborhood of a because there exists a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set $\{a, d\}$ such that $a \in \{a, d\} \subset S$. But S is not a $P\mathcal{I}$ -neighborhood of c .

Theorem 4.10. *For a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$, the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous.
- (ii) For each $x \in X$ and each $V \in \kappa$ containing $f(x)$, there exists

$$W \in PIO(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$$

containing x such that $f(W) \subset V$.

- (iii) For each $x \in X$ and each $V \in \kappa$ containing $f(x)$, $f^{-1}(V)_p^*$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -neighborhood of x .
- (iv) For each $x \in X$ and each $V \in \kappa$ containing $f(x)$, $f^{-1}(V)_p^*$ is a pre-neighborhood of x .

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let $x \in X$ and $V \in \kappa$ containing $f(x)$. Since f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(V)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set. Putting $W := f^{-1}(V)$, we have $f(W) \subset V$.

(ii) \Rightarrow (i) Let A be an open set in Y . If $f^{-1}(A) = \emptyset$ then $f^{-1}(A)$ is clearly $P\mathcal{I}$ -open. Assume that $f^{-1}(A) \neq \emptyset$. Let $x \in f^{-1}(A)$. Then $f(x) \in A$, which implies that there exist $P\mathcal{I}$ -open W containing x such that $f(W) \subset A$. Thus $W \subset f^{-1}(f(W)) \subset f^{-1}(A)$. Since W is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open, $x \in W \subset p\text{Int}(W_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$ and so $f^{-1}(A) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$. Hence $f^{-1}(A)$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set and so f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Let $x \in X$ and $V \in \kappa$ containing $f(x)$. Then there exist $P\mathcal{I}$ -open W containing x such that $f(W) \subset V$. It follows that $W \subset f^{-1}(f(W)) \subset f^{-1}(V)$. Since W is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open,

$$x \in W \subset p\text{Int}(W_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(V)_p^*) \subset f^{-1}(V)_p^*.$$

Hence $f^{-1}(V)_p^*$ is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -neighborhood of x .

(iii) \Rightarrow (iv) By Remark 2.9, it is straightforward.

(iv) \Rightarrow (i) Let A be an open set in Y . If $f^{-1}(A) = \emptyset$ then $f^{-1}(A)$ is clearly $P\mathcal{I}$ -open. Assume that $f^{-1}(A) \neq \emptyset$ and let $x \in f^{-1}(A)$. Then $f(x) \in A$. Since $f^{-1}(A)_p^*$ is a pre-neighborhood of x , there exists a pre-open set H such that $x \in H \subset f^{-1}(A)_p^*$. Since H is pre-open, $x \in H = p\text{Int}(H) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$ and so

$f^{-1}(A) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$. Hence $f^{-1}(A)$ is a P-I-open set. Therefore f is P-I-continuous. □

Theorem 4.11. *For a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$, the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) f is P-I-continuous.
- (ii) The inverse image of each closed set in Y is P-I-closed.
- (iii) For each subset A of Y , $f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A)) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$.

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let F be a closed subset of X . Then F^c is open in Y . Since f is P-I-continuous, $f^{-1}(F^c) = (f^{-1}(F))^c$ is P-I-open. Hence $f^{-1}(F)$ is P-I-closed.

(ii) \Rightarrow (i) Let G be an open set in (Y, κ) . Then G^c is closed. By (ii), $f^{-1}(G^c) = (f^{-1}(G))^c$ is P-I-closed. Hence $f^{-1}(G)$ is P-I-open, and so f is P-I-continuous.

(i) \Rightarrow (iii) Suppose that f is P-I-continuous. Let A be a subset of Y . Then $f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A))$ is P-I-open. It follows that

$$f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A)) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A))_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*).$$

(iii) \Rightarrow (i) Let A be an open set in (Y, κ) . Then $f^{-1}(A) = f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A)) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$ by (iii). Hence $f^{-1}(A)$ is P-I-open. Therefore f is P-I-continuous. □

Proposition 4.12. *Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) $X = X_p^*$.
- (ii) $\tau^p \cap \mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset\}$. (τ^p is a set of all pre-open sets in (X, τ)).
- (iii) If $A \in \mathcal{I}$, then $p\text{Int}(A) = \emptyset$.

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) Suppose that $\tau^p \cap \mathcal{I} \neq \{\emptyset\}$. Then there exists $G(\neq \emptyset) \in \tau^p \cap \mathcal{I}$. Let $a \in G$, i.e., $a \notin X \setminus G$. Then $G \in \tau^p(a)$ and $X \cap G = G \in \mathcal{I}$. Thus $a \notin X_p^*$ and so $X_p^* \subset X \setminus G$. Since $G \neq \emptyset$, $X_p^* \neq X$. This is a contradiction. Hence $\tau^p \cap \mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset\}$.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) Let $A \in \mathcal{I}$. If $A = \emptyset$ then clearly $p\text{Int}(A) = \emptyset$. Assume that A is not empty. Then for every $H \in \tau^p \setminus \{\emptyset\}$, we have $H \notin \mathcal{I}$ by (ii) and so, $H \not\subset A$. Hence $p\text{Int}(A) = \emptyset$.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i) Let $x \in X$. If there exist $G_x \in \tau^p(x)$ such that $G_x \cap X \in \mathcal{I}$, then $G_x = p\text{Int}(G_x) = p\text{Int}(G_x \cap X) = \emptyset$ by (iii). It is a contradiction. Hence $G_x \cap X \notin \mathcal{I}$ for every $G_x \in \tau^p(x)$ and so $x \in X_p^*$. This means that $X = X_p^*$. □

Theorem 4.13. *Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space. If $U \subset U_p^*$ for every pre-open U , then $X = X_p^*$.*

Proof. Since X is always pre-open, $X \subset X_p^*$ by the hypothesis. In general, $X_p^* \subset X$. Hence $X = X_p^*$ \square

The converse of Theorem 4.13 may not be true as seen in the following example.

Example 4.14. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with topology $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, ideal $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Then $\tau^p = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{a, d\}, \{b, c\}, \{b, d\}, \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, d\}, \{a, c, d\}, \{b, c, d\}, X\}$. We know that $X = X_p^*$ but there exist a pre-open set $\{a, c\}$ such that $\{a, c\} \not\subset \{a, c\}_p^* = \{a\}$.

Theorem 4.15. *If $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, then $X = X_p^*$.*

Proof. Suppose that $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous. Since Y is an open set in (Y, κ) and f is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(Y) = X$ is a $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -open set and thus $X \subset p\text{Int}(X_p^*) \subset X_p^*$. Hence $X = X_p^*$ because $X_p^* \subset X$ in general. \square

The converse of Theorem 4.15 may not be true as seen in the following example.

Example 4.16. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ with topology $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, ideal $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3\}$ with a topology $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}\}$, ideal $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{2\}\}$. Consider a mapping $f : X \rightarrow Y$ defined by $f(a) = 2 = f(b)$, $f(c) = 1$, $f(d) = 3$. Then $X = X_p^*$ but f is not $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous.

Remark 4.17. By Proposition 4.12 and Theorem 4.15, we can deduce that if $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ is $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, then the following statements are valid.

- (i) $X = X_p^*$.
- (ii) $\tau^p \cap \mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset\}$, (τ^p is a set of all pre-open sets in (X, τ)).
- (iii) If $A \in \mathcal{I}$, then $p\text{Int}(A) = \emptyset$.

5. $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -IRRESOLUTE MAPPINGS

Definition 5.1. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ is said to be $P\text{-}\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute if $f^{-1}(V) \in PIO(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ for all $V \in PIO(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$.

Definition 5.2. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ is said to be \mathcal{I} -irresolute if $f^{-1}(V) \in IO(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ for all $V \in IO(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$.

Example 5.3. Let (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) be an ideal topological space with $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$, $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$, and let (Y, κ, \mathcal{J}) be an ideal topological space with $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{2\}\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) &= \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}, X\}, \\ P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) &= \{\emptyset, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}\}, \\ \mathcal{I}O(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) &= \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 4\}, \{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 4\}, \{1, 3, 4\}, Y\}, \\ P\mathcal{I}O(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) &= \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 4\}, \{1, 3, 4\}\}. \end{aligned}$$

(a) A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = 2, f(b) = 1, f(c) = 4 = f(d)$ is both $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute and \mathcal{I} -irresolute.

(b) A mapping $g : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $g(a) = 2 = g(d), g(b) = 1, g(c) = 3$ $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute which is not \mathcal{I} -irresolute.

(c) A mapping $h : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $h(a) = 3, h(b) = 1, h(c) = 2 = h(d)$ \mathcal{I} -irresolute which is not $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute.

(d) A mapping $i : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $i(a) = 1, i(b) = 2 = i(c), i(d) = 3$ is neither \mathcal{I} -irresolute nor $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute.

The above example shows that an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping and a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping are independent.

Theorem 5.4. *If a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa)$ satisfy the following conditions,*

- f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous.
- $f^{-1}(V^*) \subset f^{-1}(V)$ or $f^{-1}(V^*) \subset f^{-1}(V)_p^*$ for each $V \subset Y$.

then f is both an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping and a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping.

Proof. Assume that f satisfy two conditions. It is sufficient to show that the inverse image of \mathcal{I} -open set is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set because every $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set is an \mathcal{I} -open set by Theorem 2.8. Let A be an \mathcal{I} -open set. Then $A \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$. Since f is $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous, $f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*))$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open and hence $f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*)) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*))_p^*)$. It follows from the second condition that

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(A) &\subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*))_p^*) \\ &\subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A^*)_p^*) \\ &\subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $f^{-1}(A)$ is $P\mathcal{I}$ -open. Since every $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set is an \mathcal{I} -open set by Theorem 2.8, f is both an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping and a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping. □

The following example shows that a $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous mapping is neither an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping nor a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping.

Example 5.5. Consider two ideal topological spaces (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) and (Y, κ, \mathcal{J}) where $X = \{a, b, c, d\}, \tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}, \mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}, Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\},$ and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}.$ Define a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow$

(Y, κ, \mathcal{J}) by $f(a) = 3$, $f(b) = 1$, $f(c) = 4$ and $f(d) = 2$. Then f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -continuous mapping. Note that $A = \{2\}$ is both an \mathcal{I} -open set and a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set in (Y, κ, \mathcal{J}) . But $f^{-1}(A) = \{d\}$ is neither an \mathcal{I} -open set nor a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set. Hence f is neither an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping nor a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping.

Theorem 5.6. *If a mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ satisfy the following conditions,*

- f is \mathcal{I} -continuous.
- $f^{-1}(V^*) \subset f^{-1}(V)$ or $f^{-1}(V^*) \subset f^{-1}(V)^*$ for each $V \subset Y$.

then f is an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping.

Proof. Assume that f satisfy two given conditions. Let A be an \mathcal{I} -open set. Then $A \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$. Since f is \mathcal{I} -continuous, $f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*))$ is \mathcal{I} -open. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(A) &\subset f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*)) \\ &\subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*))^*) \\ &\subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A^*)^*) \\ &\subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)^*) \end{aligned}$$

so that $f^{-1}(A)$ is \mathcal{I} -open. Therefore f is an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping. \square

The following example shows that although a mapping f satisfy two conditions of Theorem 5.6, f may not be a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping.

Example 5.7. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}\}$, and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{2\}\}$. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = f(c) = 1$, $f(b) = 2$, and $f(d) = 3$ is \mathcal{I} -irresolute and satisfy the condition

$$f^{-1}(V^*) \subset f^{-1}(V) \text{ or } f^{-1}(V^*) \subset f^{-1}(V)^* \text{ for each } V \subset Y.$$

But f is not $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute because $f^{-1}(\{1\}) = \{a, c\} \notin P\mathcal{I}O(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$.

Theorem 5.8. *Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ be a mapping. If*

$$f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$$

for each $A \subset Y$, then f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping.

Proof. Let A be a $P\mathcal{I}$ -open set. Then $A \subset p\text{Int}(A_p^*)$ which implies that

$$f^{-1}(A) \subset f^{-1}(p\text{Int}(A_p^*)) \subset f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*).$$

Hence f is a $P\mathcal{I}$ -irresolute mapping. \square

The converse of above theorem may not be true as seen in the following example.

Example 5.9. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}\}$, and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{2\}\}$. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = 1$, $f(b) = 2 = f(c)$ and $f(d) = 3$ is P-I-irresolute. For a set $A = \{1\}$, we have

$$f^{-1}(A_p^*) = X \not\subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*) = \{a\}.$$

If $f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$ for each $A \subset Y$, then is f a I-irresolute mapping? The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 5.10. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{2\}\}$. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = 2 = f(d)$, $f(b) = 1$, $f(c) = 3$, is satisfied $f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset p\text{Int}((f^{-1}(A))_p^*)$ for each $A \subset Y$. But f is not a I-irresolute mapping because $f^{-1}(\{1, 2\}) = \{a, b, d\} \notin IO(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ for $\{1, 2\} \in IO(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$.

Theorem 5.11. Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ be a mapping. If

$$f^{-1}(A^*) \subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)^*)$$

for each $A \subset Y$, then f is an I-irresolute mapping.

Proof. Let A be an I-open set. Then $A \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$ which implies that

$$f^{-1}(A) \subset f^{-1}(\text{Int}(A^*)) \subset f^{-1}(A^*) \subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)^*).$$

Hence f is an I-irresolute mapping. □

The converse of above theorem may not be true as seen in the following example.

Example 5.12. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{1\}, \{1, 2\}\}$, and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{2\}\}$. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = 1 = f(c)$, $f(b) = 2$ and $f(d) = 3$ is I-irresolute. For a set $A = \{3\}$, we obtain

$$f^{-1}(A_p^*) = \{d\} \not\subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*) = \emptyset.$$

If $f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$ for each $A \subset Y$, then is f a P-I-irresolute mapping? The answer is negative as seen in the following example.

Example 5.13. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{\emptyset, \{c\}\}$. Let $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\kappa = \{\emptyset, Y, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, and $\mathcal{J} = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{3\}, \{1, 3\}\}$. A mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ given by $f(a) = 2 = f(c)$, $f(b) = 1$, $f(d) = 3$,

is satisfied $f^{-1}(A^*) \subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)^*)$ for each $A \subset Y$. But f is not a P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping because $f^{-1}(\{2\}) = \{a, c\} \notin P\mathcal{I}O(X, \tau, \mathcal{I})$ for $\{2\} \in P\mathcal{I}O(Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$.

Lemma 5.14 ([18]). *Let A be a subset in an ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) . Then $p\text{Int}(A_p^*) \subset \text{Int}(A^*)$.*

Lemma 5.15 ([18]). *For any subset A of an ideal topological space (X, τ, \mathcal{I}) , we have*

- (i) $A_p^* \subset A^*$.
- (ii) $A_p^* \subset p\text{Cl}(A)$.

Corollary 5.16. *Let $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ be a mapping. If*

$$f^{-1}(A^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*)$$

for each $A \subset Y$, then f is both an \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping and a P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute mapping.

Proof. Since $A_p^* \subset A^*$ by Lemma 5.15(i), $f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset f^{-1}(A^*)$. It follows that $f^{-1}(A_p^*) \subset f^{-1}(A^*) \subset p\text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)_p^*) \subset \text{Int}(f^{-1}(A)^*)$ by the hypothesis and Lemma 5.14. Thus f is both P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute and \mathcal{I} -irresolute by Theorem 5.8 and Theorem 5.11. \square

Theorem 5.17. *For two mappings $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$ and $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$, the following statements are valid.*

- (i) *If f is P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute and g is P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute, then $g \circ f$ is P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute.*
- (ii) *If f is P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute and g is P - \mathcal{I} -continuous, then $g \circ f$ is P - \mathcal{I} -continuous.*
- (iii) *If f is \mathcal{I} -irresolute and g is \mathcal{I} -irresolute, then $g \circ f$ is \mathcal{I} -irresolute.*
- (iv) *If f is \mathcal{I} -irresolute and g is P - \mathcal{I} -continuous, then $g \circ f$ is \mathcal{I} -continuous.*
- (v) *If f is \mathcal{I} -irresolute and g is \mathcal{I} -continuous, then $g \circ f$ is \mathcal{I} -continuous.*

Proof. Straightforward. \square

Theorem 5.18. *Let mapping $f : (X, \tau, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J})$, $g : (Y, \kappa, \mathcal{J}) \rightarrow (Z, \delta, \mathcal{H})$. If g is an injective mapping then the followings are valid.*

- (i) *If g is P - \mathcal{I} -open and $g \circ f$ is P - \mathcal{I} -irresolute, then f is P - \mathcal{I} -continuous.*
- (ii) *If g is \mathcal{I} -open and $g \circ f$ is \mathcal{I} -irresolute, then f is \mathcal{I} -continuous.*
- (iii) *If g is open and $g \circ f$ is P - \mathcal{I} -continuous, then f is P - \mathcal{I} -continuous.*
- (iv) *If g is open and $g \circ f$ is \mathcal{I} -continuous, then f is \mathcal{I} -continuous.*

Proof. Straightforward. \square

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