## MORE ON CONVERGENCE OF CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS AND TOPOLOGICAL CONVERGENCE OF SETS

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ABSTRACT. Let C(X, Y) denote the set of continuous functions from a metric space X to a metric space Y. Viewing elements of C(X, Y) as closed subsets of  $X \times Y$ , we say  $\{f_n\}$  converges topologically to f if Li  $f_n =$ Ls  $f_n = f$ . If X is connected, then topological convergence in C(X, R) does not imply pointwise convergence, but if X is locally connected and Y is locally compact, then topological convergence in C(X, Y) is equivalent to uniform convergence on compact subsets of X. Pathological aspects of topological convergence for seemingly nice spaces are also presented, along with a positive Baire category result.

1. Introduction. Let  $\langle X, d_X \rangle$  be a metric space and let  $\{C_n\}$  be a sequence of nonempty subsets of X. The lower and upper closed limits of  $\{C_n\}$  are defined as follows [3]: Li  $C_n$  (resp. Ls  $C_n$ ) is the set of all points x each neighborhood of which meets all but finitely (resp. infinitely) many sets  $C_n$ . We say  $\{C_n\}$  converges topologically to a (possibly empty) set C if Li  $C_n = \text{Ls } C_n = C$ . If  $\langle Y, d_Y \rangle$  is another metric space, then we can regard members of C(X, Y), the continuous functions from X to Y, as closed subsets of  $X \times Y$ . What does convergence of sequences in C(X, Y) in the above sense mean? The relationship between topological convergence in C(X, Y) and uniform convergence is explored in [2]. Here we consider in detail topological convergence versus pointwise convergence. In general both pointwise convergence and topological convergence in C(X, Y) are weaker than Hausdorff metric convergence of graphs (induced by a metric compatible with the product uniformity) which is, in turn, weaker than uniform convergence. However, if  $\{f_n\}$  converges to a uniformly continuous function f in the Hausdorff metric, then  $\{f_n\}$  actually converges uniformly to f. In particular, if X is compact, then the Hausdorff metric on C(X, Y) is topologically equivalent to the usual metric of uniform convergence [4]; this equivalence has been the basis for a number of papers in constructive approximation theory by B. Sendov, V. Popov, and their associates in Sofia (see, e.g., [5], [7] or [8]).

The relationship between topological convergence and pointwise convergence for general X and Y is a tenuous one. However, if X is locally connected and Y is locally compact, the situation can be described precisely: topological convergence in C(X, Y) means uniform convergence on compact subsets of X.

Received by the editors May 13, 1983.

AMS Subject Classification (1979): Primary, 40A30; Secondary, 54C35, 54B20.

Key words and phrases: Topological convergence of sets, pointwise convergence, uniform convergence on compact subsets, equicontinuity. Kuratowski convergence of sets.

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In the sequel (1)  $S_{\epsilon}[x]$  will denote the open ball of radius  $\epsilon$  about a point x in a metric space, (2) diam(A) will denote the diameter of a set A, (3) $\tilde{A}$  will denote the complement of A.

2. **Results**. We first resolve a simple question. Under what conditions on X and/or Y will pointwise convergence in C(X, Y) force topological convergence? Essentially, X must be discrete.

THEOREM 1. Let  $\langle X, d_X \rangle$  and  $\langle Y, d_Y \rangle$  be metric spaces. If X is discrete then pointwise convergence in C(X, Y) implies topological convergence. Conversely, if C([0, 1], Y) is nontrivial and pointwise convergence in C(X, Y) implies topological convergence, the X is discrete.

PROOF: Let X be a metric space without limit points. Suppose  $\{f_n\} \subset C(X, Y)$  converges to a continuous function f pointwise. Immediately, we have  $f \subset \text{Li } f_n$ . To show Ls  $f_n \subset f$ , choose (x, y) off f, and let  $\delta = \frac{1}{2} \min \{d_X(x, X - \{x\}), d_Y(y, f(x))\}$ . Since  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ , eventually  $d_Y(y, f_n(x)) > \delta$ . Thus  $S_{\delta}[x] \times S_{\delta}[y]$  is a neighborhood of (x, y) that meets at most finitely many members of  $\{f_n\}$ . We conclude  $(x, y) \notin \text{Ls } f_n$ , whence Li  $f_n = \text{Ls } f_n = f$ .

Conversely suppose X is not discrete and C([0, 1]), Y) is nontrivial, i.e., there exists  $\varphi \in C([0, 1], Y)$  such that  $\varphi(0) \neq \varphi(1)$ . We construct a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  in C(X, Y) convergent pointwise to the function identically equal to  $\varphi(0)$  on X that fails to converge topologically to f. Let  $x_0$  be a limit point of X and let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence in X convergent to  $x_0$  such that for each n,  $d_X(x_0, x_{n+1}) < d_X(x_0, x_n)$ . Set  $\alpha_n = d_X(x_0, x_n)$  and define  $f_n \in C(X, Y)$  by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \varphi\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_n} d_X(x, x_0)\right) & \text{if } 0 \le d_X(x, x_0) \le \alpha_n \\ \varphi\left(2 - \frac{1}{\alpha_n} d_X(x, x_0)\right) & \text{if } \alpha_n < d_X(x, x_0) \le 2\alpha_n \\ \varphi(0) & \text{if } d_X(x, x_0) > 2\alpha_n \end{cases}$$

Notice for each x in X eventually  $f_n(x) = \varphi(0)$ ; so,  $\{f_n\}$  converges to f pointwise. However,  $\{(x_n, f_n(x_n))\}$  converges to  $(x_0, \varphi(1))$ , whence  $\{f_n\}$  fails to converge topologically to f.

For general X and Y we can identify well-behaved sequences in C(X, Y) for which pointwise convergence ensures topological convergence.

DEFINITION.  $\Omega \subset C(X, Y)$  is called *pointwise equicontinuous* if for each  $x \in X$  and each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$ , perhaps dependent on x, such that whenever  $f \in \Omega$  and  $d_X(x, w) < \delta$  then  $d_Y(f(x), f(w)) < \epsilon$ .

THEOREM 2. Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a pointwise equicontinuous sequence in C(X, Y) pointwise convergent to a continuous function f. Then  $\{f_n\}$  converges topologically to f.

PROOF: Since  $f \subset \operatorname{Li} f_n$ , if topological convergence does not occur, then we must have Ls  $f_n \not\subset f$ . Pick  $(x, y) \in \operatorname{Ls} f_n - f$  and choose  $\epsilon < d_Y(y, f(x))$ . By pointwise equicontinuity there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for each n,  $d_X(w,x) < \delta$  implies  $d_Y(f_n(w), f_n(x)) < \epsilon/3$ . Choose  $N \in Z^+$  so large that  $d_Y(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/3$  whenever n > N. Since  $(x, y) \in Ls f_n$ , there exists n > N and  $w \in S_{\delta}[x]$  such that  $d_Y(f_n(w), y) < \epsilon/3$ . Together these facts yield  $d_Y(f(x), y) < \epsilon$ , a contradiction.

If X is locally connected and Y is locally compact, then the converse of Theorem 2 holds.

THEOREM 3. Let X be a locally connected metric space and Y a locally compact metric space. If  $\{f_n\} \subset C(X, Y)$  converges topologically to a continuous function f, then  $\{f_n\}$  converges pointwise to f and  $\{f_n\}$  is pointwise equicontinuous.

PROOF: Suppose for some x,  $\{f_n(x)\}$  fails to converge to f(x). Then there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  and a subsequence  $\{f_{n_k}\}$  of  $\{f_n\}$  such that for each k,  $d_Y(f_{n_k}(x), f(x)) \ge \epsilon$ . Also, since Li  $f_n = f$  there exists a sequence  $\{(w_k, f_{n_k}(w_k)\}$  convergent to (x, f(x)). Since X is locally connected, by passing to a subsequence we can assume that x and  $w_k$  lie in a common connected subset  $C_k$  of X where  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \operatorname{diam}(C_k) = 0$ . Choose  $\epsilon^* < \epsilon$  such that  $E = \{y: d_Y(y, f(x)) = \epsilon^*\}$  is compact. For all k sufficiently large,  $d_Y(f_{n_k}(w_k), f(x)) < \epsilon^*$  so that  $f_{n_k}(C_k)$  meets both  $\{y: d_Y(y, f(x)) < \epsilon^*\}$  and  $\{y: d_Y(y, f(x)) > \epsilon^*\}$ . Since each set  $f_{n_k}(C_k)$  is connected, all but finitely many sets  $f_{n_k}(C_k)$  meet E. Since E is compact, Ls $(f_{n_k}(C_k) \cap E)$  is nonempty. Choosing a point  $y_0$  in this set, the condition  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \operatorname{diam}(C_k) = 0$  yields  $(x, y_0) \in \operatorname{Ls} f_n - f$ , a contradiction.

Suppose now that  $\{f_n\}$  is not equicontinuous at some x in X. Then there exists  $\epsilon > 0$ , a subsequence  $\{f_n\}$  of  $\{f_n\}$  and a sequence  $\{z_k\}$  convergent to x such that for each k,  $d_Y(f_{n_k}(z_k), f_{n_k}(x)) \ge \epsilon$ . However, we know that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} f_{n_k}(x) = f(x)$ ; so, without loss of generality we can assume that for all k,  $d_Y(f_{n_k}(z_k), f(x)) \ge \epsilon$ . Arguing as in the first part of the proof with  $(z_k, f_{n_k}(z_k))$  replacing  $(x, f_{n_k}(x))$  for each k, we reach a contradiction in exactly the same manner.

Example 3 of [2] shows that the local compactness assumption for Y cannot be dropped, even if X is compact. Example 2 of [2] shows that the local connectedness assumption for X cannot be dropped, again, even if X is compact. However, this last example is not completely satisfying in that X is not connected. Now the main result of [2] says that if X is compact and connected and Y is locally compact, then topological convergence in C(X, Y) ensures not only pointwise convergence but also uniform convergence. If X is merely connected and Y is locally compact, we cannot expect topological convergence to force uniform convergence (see Example 1 of [1]). But does it force pointwise convergence or pointwise equicontinuity? The answer is negative, even if Y = R.

EXAMPLE 1. In the plane for each  $n \in Z^+$  let  $E_n = \{(x, n + 1): 1/(n + 1) \le x \le 1/n\}$ ; also define A and B as follows:

$$A = \{(0, y): y \ge 0\}$$
  

$$B = \left\{ (x, y): \text{ for some } n \in Z^+, x = \frac{1}{n} \text{ and } y \ge 0 \right\}$$

c . . .

Clearly  $X = A \cup B \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$  is a closed connected subset of the plane that fails to be locally connected. We define  $f_n: X \to R$  by

$$f_n(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x > \frac{1}{n} \text{ or } y > n \\ n & \text{if } x \le \frac{1}{n} \text{ and } y < n - 1 \\ -ny + n^2 & \text{if } x \le \frac{1}{n} \text{ and } n - 1 \le y \le n \end{cases}$$

Notice that the graph of  $f_n$  restricted to each of the rays x = 0, x = 1/n, x = 1/(n + 1), x = 1/(n + 2), ... consists of a horizontal segment at height *n*, a horizontal ray at height zero, and a segment joining them. The rest of the graph lies in the *xy* plane. It is easy to check that each such  $f_n$  is continuous. Now suppose *f* denotes the zero function. Since  $f_n(0, 0) = n$ , the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge pointwise to *f*. Also  $\{f_n\}$  is not pointwise equicontinuous at the origin. However, we claim  $\{f_n\}$  does converge topologically to *f*. First, it is obvious that  $f \subset \text{Li } f_n$  and that whenever x > 0 and  $(x, y, z) \in \text{Ls } f_n$ , then z = 0. No problems can occur on the *y*-axis, either: if  $y_0 \ge 0$  and  $n - 2 \ge y_0$ , then whenever  $|y - y_0| < 1$  for all *x* we have either  $f_n(x, y) = n$  or f(x, y) = 0. Thus,  $(0, y_0, z) \in \text{Ls } f_n$  implies z = 0. We have shown  $\text{Ls } f_n \subset f \subset \text{Li } f_n$ .

For arbitrary metric spaces X and Y if  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence in C(X, Y) convergent pointwise to a continuous function f, then  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on compact subsets of X if and only if  $\{f_n\}$  is pointwise equicontinuous. This observation, in conjunction with a standard diagonalization argument [6], is all there is to the following version of the Ascoli Theorem: Let X be a separable metric space, let Y be an arbitrary metric space, and let  $\Omega \subset C(X, Y)$ . Then each sequence  $\{f_n\}$  in  $\Omega$  has a subsequence convergent uniformly on compact subsets of X to some continuous function if and only if (i) for each x,  $\Omega_x = \{g(x): x \in \Omega\}$  has compact closure in Y, (ii)  $\Omega$  is pointwise equicontinuous. Theorems 2 and 3 now say that for arbitrary X and Y uniform convergence on compact subsets implies topological convergence, whereas if X is locally connected and Y is locally compact, then these notions of convergence in C(X, Y)agree. The Ascoli Theorem translates as follows.

THEOREM 4. Suppose X is a separable metric space and Y is an arbitrary metric space. Let  $\Omega \subset C(X, Y)$ , and consider the following statements.

(1) Each sequence in  $\Omega$  has a subsequence convergent topologically to a continuous function.

(2)  $\Omega$  is pointwise equicontinuous and for each x,  $\Omega_x = \{g(x): g \in \Omega\}$  has compact closure.

Condition (2) always implies condition (1), and if X is locally connected and Y is locally compact, then condition (1) implies condition (2).

Previous examples show that condition (1) need not imply either subcondition of (2)

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if X is connected and Y = R, or X = [0, 1] and Y is a Hilbert space. However, separability of X is required to obtain condition (1) from condition (2).

EXAMPLE 2. If X is an arbitrary metric space, then by Zorn's Lemma there exists for each  $\epsilon > 0$  a maximal subset  $A_{\epsilon}$  of X such that whenever  $\{w, z\} \subset A_{\epsilon}$  then  $d_X(w, z) \ge \epsilon$ . It follows that  $X \subset \bigcup \{S_{\epsilon}[x]: x \in A_{\epsilon}\}$ , so that if X is nonseparable some  $A_{\epsilon}$  must be uncountable. Suppose such an  $A_{\epsilon}$  has cardinal number at least c (which would be guaranteed for nonseparable X by the continuum hypothesis). Let  $K = \{g: g: Z^+ \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  and g(n) = 1 infinitely often}, and let  $\varphi: K \to A_{\epsilon}$  be an injection. For each g in K set  $E(g) = \{n: g(n) = 1\}$ . For each  $n \in Z^+$  let  $W_n \subset X$  be described as follows:  $x \in W_n$  if there exists  $g_x$  in K such that  $d_X(x, \varphi(g_x)) < \epsilon/3$  and n has an odd number of predecessors in  $E(g_x)$ . By the construction of  $A_{\epsilon}$  the assignment  $x \to g_x$  on  $W_n$  is well defined. We now define  $f_n: X \to [0, 1]$  by the formula

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{\epsilon} d_x(x, \varphi(g_x)) & \text{if } x \in W_n \\ 1 & \text{if } x \notin W_n \end{cases}$$

Note that each  $f_n$  is actually Lipschitz with Lipschitz constant  $3/\epsilon$ ; so, condition (2) of Theorem 4 is satisfied. However, no subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  can converge topologically, because each subsequence is of the form  $\{f_{h(n)}\}$  where *h* is an order isomorphism from  $Z^+$  onto E(g) for some  $g \in K$ , and by construction

$$\operatorname{Li} f_{h(n)} \cap \left( \{ \varphi(g) \} \times [0, 1] \right\} = \emptyset$$

3. Points of convergence of a topologically convergent sequence. We first exhibit a sequence in C(X, R) for a certain compact metric space X that is topologically convergent to a continuous function but which converges nowhere pointwise.

EXAMPLE 3. Let X denote the usual Cantor set in [0, 1] and let  $f: X \to R$  denote the zero function. Since X is a nowhere dense subset of [0, 1] for each  $j \in Z^+$  we can select j points  $\{a_{j1}, a_{j2}, \ldots, a_{jj}\}$  in [0, 1] - X satisfying

(2) 
$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_{1/i}[a_{ji}] \supset [0,1]$$

Set  $I(j, 1) = [0, a_{j1}], I(j, 2) = [a_{j1}, a_{j2}], \dots, I(j, j + 1) = [a_{jj}, 1]$  and let

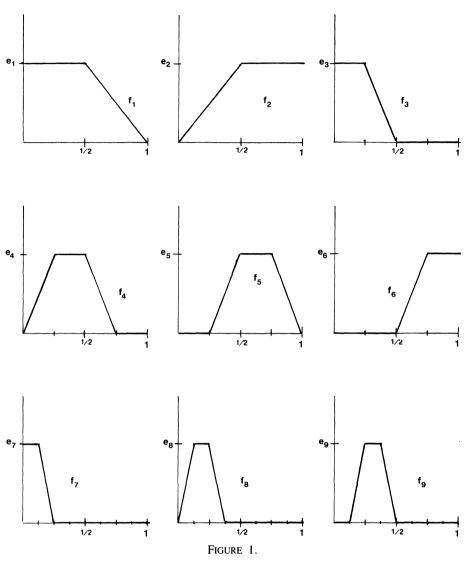
$$\varphi: Z^+ \to \{(J,k): j \in Z^+, K \in Z^+ \text{ and } k \le j+1\}$$

lexicographically order the codomain. Denote  $\varphi(n)$  by  $(j_n, k_n)$  and define  $f_n: X \to R$  by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} j_n & \text{if } x \in I(j_n, k_n) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since the endpoints of each interval  $I(j_n, k_n)$  lie in  $\{0, 1\} \cup ([0, 1] - X)$ , each  $f_n$  is continuous. Since at each  $x \in X$ ,  $\{f_n(x)\}$  exceeds one frequently,  $\{f_n\}$  converges nowhere pointwise to f. We claim, however, that  $\operatorname{Li} f_n = \operatorname{Ls} f_n = f$ . First, since lim diam

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 $(\{x: f_n(x) \neq 0\}) = 0$ , we have  $f \subset \text{Li} f_n$ . Also, for each  $\alpha > 0$  the graphs of  $\{f_n\}$  eventually all fail to meet  $X \times (0, \alpha)$ , and it follows that  $\text{Ls} f_n \subset f$ . This establishes the topological convergence of  $\{f_n\}$  to f.

We can also exhibit an example of nowhere pointwise convergence in the context of Example 3 of [2], i.e., X = [0, 1] and Y = Hilbert space of square summable sequences. Heeding the advice of Professor G. Piranian that "one filthy picture is worth a thousand dirty words", in lieu of an analytic argument, we sketch the graphs of the first nine terms of a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  convergent topologically to the zero function but convergent nowhere pointwise (see Figure 1). As in Example 3 of [2],  $\{e_i: i \in Z^+\}$  denotes the standard orthonormal basis in the Hilbert space.

We next present a Baire category result that says that if X is complete and Y is

arbitrary and  $\{f_n\}$  converges topologically to f, then f(x) is a subsequential limit of  $\{f_n(x)\}$  at most points.

THEOREM 5. Let X be a complete metric space and let Y be any metric space. Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence in C(X, Y) topologically convergent to f in C(X, Y). Then there is a dense  $G_{\delta}$  subset E of X such that for each x in E, f(x) is a subsequential limit of  $\{f_n(x)\}$ .

PROOF: For each  $n \in Z^+$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  we form the closed set

$$A(n,\epsilon) = \bigcap_{j=n}^{\infty} \{x: d_Y(f_j(x), f(x)) \ge \epsilon\}.$$

We claim that each such set is nowhere dense. Let  $x_0 \in A(n, \epsilon)$  and  $\lambda > 0$  be arbitrary. Choose  $\lambda^* < \lambda$  for which  $d_X(x, x_0) < \lambda^*$  implies  $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon/2$ . Since Ls  $f_n \supset f$  we can find j > n and  $x \in X$  such that both  $d_X(x, x_0) < \lambda^*$  and  $d_Y(f(x_0), f_j(x)) < \epsilon/2$ . It follows that  $d_Y(f(x), f_j(x)) < \epsilon$ , establishing the claim. Next for each pair of positive integers *n* and *k* let B(n, k) = the complement of A(n, 1/k), a dense open set. By the Baire Category Theorem

$$E = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B(n,k)$$

is a dense  $G_{\delta}$  set. If  $x \in E$  then for each n and k let j(n, k) be the smallest integer exceeding n for which  $f_{j(n,k)}(x)$  has distance less than 1/k from f(x). If we set  $n_1 = j(1, 1)$  and for each k > 1 we let  $n_k = j(n_{k-1}, k)$ , we have  $\lim_{k \to \infty} f_{n_k}(x) = f(x)$ .

A second look at the proof of Theorem 5 reveals that we really did not need the full strength of  $\operatorname{Li} f_n = \operatorname{Ls} f_n = f$ , but only  $f \subset \operatorname{Ls} f_n$ . With this weaker assumption, our result has a rather nice interpretation: if we can approach each (x, y) in f along some trajectory of the form  $\{(x_k, f_{n_k}(x_k))\}$ , then we can approach most points along a vertical trajectory. Under the stronger assumption  $\operatorname{Li} f_n = \operatorname{Ls} f_n = f$ , must there actually exist a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  convergent to f on some dense  $G_{\delta}$  subset of X? The answer is negative, even if X is compact.

EXAMPLE 4. Let  $\mu$  denote Lebesgue measure on the line, and let X be a Cantor set of positive measure in [0, 1] as constructed in [6]. Note that for each  $x_0$  in X and each  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\mu(\{x: x \in X \text{ and } |x - x_0| < \epsilon\}) > 0$ . For each  $n \in Z^+$  let  $V_n$  be the union of a finite collection of disjoint open intervals  $\{W_{ni}: i = 1, 2, 3, ..., k_n\}$  in (0, 1) such that

(1) For each *n* and  $i \le k_n$  the endpoints of  $W_{ni}$  lie in [0, 1] - X.

(2) For each *n* and  $i \leq k_n$ ,  $W_{ni} \cap X \neq \emptyset$ .

(3) For each  $x \in X$  and  $n \in Z^+$  there exists  $y \in V_n$  such that |x - y| < 1/n.

(4) For each *n*,  $\mu(V_n) < 1/n$ .

By condition (1) each set  $V_n \cap X$  is clopen in X. Define for each  $n, f_n: X \to R$  by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } x \notin V_n \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in V_n \end{cases}$$

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Since  $V_n \cap X$  is clopen in X, each  $f_n$  is continuous, and conditions (2), (3) and (4) imply that  $\{f_n\}$  converges topologically to the zero function. Let  $\{f_{n_k}\}$  be an arbitrary subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$ . For each k write  $A_k$  for  $V_{n_k} \cap X$ , denote the closed set  $\bigcap_{n=k}^{\infty} A_n$  by  $B_k$ . Clearly,

$$\{x: \lim_{k\to\infty} f_{n_k}(x) = 0\} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k.$$

Now whenever  $n \ge k$  we have  $B_k \subset A_n$ ; so, condition (4) implies that for all k,  $\mu(B_k) = 0$ . Since  $\operatorname{int}_X(B_k) \ne \emptyset$  would imply  $\mu(B_k) > 0$ , we conclude that each  $B_k$  is nowhere dense in X. Thus  $\{x: \lim_{k\to\infty} f_{n_k}(x) = 0\}$  is a set of first category in X, and since X is complete  $\{x: \lim_{k\to\infty} f_{n_k}(x) = 0\}$  contains no dense  $G_{\delta}$  set.

We remark in closing that a somewhat simpler counterexample can be constructed for X = [0, 1] and Y = the Hilbert space of square summable sequences. We leave this to the imagination of the reader.

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