# $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{I}^*$ convergent function sequences

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**Abstract**. In this paper, we introduce the concepts of  $\mathcal{I}$ -pointwise convergence,  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniform convergence,  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -pointwise convergence and  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -uniform convergence of function sequences and then we examine the relation between them.

**Key words:** pointwise and uniform convergence,  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergence,  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergence

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# 1. Introduction

Steinhaus [20] introduced the idea of statistical convergence [see also Fast [10]]. If K is a subset of positive integers  $\mathbb{N}$ , then  $K_n$  denotes the set  $\{k \in K : k \leq n\}$  and  $|K_n|$  denotes the cardinality of  $K_n$ . The natural density of K [18] is given by  $\delta(K) := \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} |K_n|$ , if it exists. The number sequence  $x = (x_k)$  is statistically convergent to L provided that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  the set  $K := K(\varepsilon) := \{k \in \mathbb{N} : |x_k - L| \geq \varepsilon\}$  has natural density zero; in that case we write  $st - \lim x = L$  [10, 12]. Hence x is statistically convergent to L if  $(C_1\chi_{K(\varepsilon)})_n \to 0$  (as  $n \to \infty$ , for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ), where  $C_1$  is the Cesáro mean of order one and  $\chi_K$  is the characteristic function of the set K. Properties of statistically convergent sequences have been studied in [2, 12, 16, 19].

Statistical convergence can be generalized by using a nonnegative regular summability matrix A in place of  $C_1$ .

Following Freedman and Sember [11], we say that a set  $K \subseteq \mathbb{N}$  has A-density if  $\delta_A(K) := \lim_n (A\chi_K)_n = \lim_n \sum_{k \in K} a_{nk}$  exists, where  $A = (a_{nk})$  is a nonnegative regular matrix.

The number sequence  $x = (x_k)$  is A-statistically convergent to L provided that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  the set  $K(\varepsilon)$  has A-density zero [3, 11, 16].

Connor gave an extension of the notion of statistical convergence where the asymptotic density is replaced by a finitely additive set function. Let  $\mu$  be a finitely additive set function taking values in [0, 1] defined on a field  $\Gamma$  of subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  such

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that if  $|A| < \infty$ , then  $\mu(A) = 0$ ; if  $A \subset B$  and  $\mu(B) = 0$ , then  $\mu(A) = 0$ ; and  $\mu(\mathbb{N}) = 1$  [4,6].

The number of sequence  $x = (x_k)$  is  $\mu$ -statistically convergent to L provided that  $\mu \{k \in \mathbb{N} : |x_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} = 0$  for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  [4,6].

Let  $X \neq \emptyset$ . A class  $S \subseteq 2^X$  of subsets of X is said to be an ideal in X provided that S is additive and hereditary, i.e. if S satisfies these conditions:  $(i) \ \emptyset \in S, \ (ii) \ A, B \in S \Rightarrow A \cup B \in S, \ (iii) \ A \in S, \ B \subseteq A \Rightarrow B \in S \ [15].$ An ideal is called non-trivial if  $X \notin S$ . A non-trivial ideal S in X is called admissible if  $\{x\} \in S$  for each  $x \in X \ [14].$ 

The non-empty family of sets  $F \subseteq 2^X$  is a filter on X if and only if  $(i) \notin F$ , (ii) for each  $A, B \in F$  we have  $A \cap B \in F$ , (iii) for each  $A \in F$  and each  $B \supset A$  we have  $B \in F$ .  $\mathcal{I} \subset 2^X$  is a non-trivial ideal if and only if  $F := F(\mathcal{I}) := \{X - A : A \in \mathcal{I}\}$  is a filter on X [17].

Let F be a filter. F has property (A) if for any given countable subset  $\{A_j\}$  of F, there exists an  $A \in F$  such that  $|A \setminus A_j| < \infty$  for each j [5].

Kostyrko, Mačaj and Šalát [14, 15] introduced two types of "ideal convergence". Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be a non-trivial ideal in  $\mathbb{N}$ . A sequence  $x = (x_k)$  of real numbers is said to be  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent to L if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  the set  $A(\varepsilon) := \{k \in \mathbb{N} : |x_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\}$ belongs to  $\mathcal{I}$  [14]. In this case we write  $\mathcal{I}$ -lim x = L.

Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be an admissible ideal in  $\mathbb{N}$ . A sequence  $x = (x_k)$  of real numbers is said to be  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergent to L if there is a set  $H \in \mathcal{I}$ , such that for  $M = \mathbb{N} \setminus H = \{m_1 < m_2 < ...\}$  we have  $\lim_k x_{m_k} = L$ . In this case we write  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -lim x = L [14].

For every admissible ideal  $\mathcal{I}$  the following relation between them holds: Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be an admissible ideal in N. If  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -limit x = L, then  $\mathcal{I}$ -limit x = L [14].

Note that for some ideals the converse of this result holds (see [14, Example 3.1]). Kostyrko, Mačaj and Šalát have given the necessary and sufficient condition for equivalence of  $\mathcal{I}$  and  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergences. This condition is similar to the additive property for null sets in [4, 11].

An admissible ideal  $\mathcal{I}$  in  $\mathbb{N}$  is said to satisfy the condition (AP) if for every countable system  $\{A_1, A_2, ...\}$  of mutually disjoint sets belonging to  $\mathcal{I}$  there exist sets  $B_j \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ , (j = 1, 2, ...) such that the symmetric differences  $A_j \Delta B_j (j = 1, 2, ...)$  are finite and  $B = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j$  belong to  $\mathcal{I}$  [14].

It is known that  $\mathcal{I}$ -limit  $x = L \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{I}^*$ -limit x = L if and only if  $\mathcal{I}$  has the additive property [14]. Some results on  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergence may be found in [7, 8, 14, 15].

Note that if we define  $\mathcal{I}_{\delta_A} = \{K \subseteq \mathbb{N} : \delta_A(K) = 0\}, \mathcal{I}_{\delta_{C_1}} = \{K \subseteq \mathbb{N} : \delta(K) = 0\}$ and  $\mathcal{I}_{\mu} = \{K \subseteq \Gamma : \mu(K) = 0\}$ , then we get the definition of A-statistical convergence, statistical convergence and  $\mu$ -statistical convergence, respectively.

In this paper we give the  $\mathcal{I}$  analogues of results given by Duman and Orhan [9].

Throughout the paper  $\mathcal{I}$  will be an admissible ideal,  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and  $(f_n)$  a sequence of real functions on D.

#### 2. $\mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{I}^*$ convergent function sequences

**Definition 1.**  $(f_n)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -pointwise to  $f \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in D$ ,  $\exists K_x \notin \mathcal{I}$ and  $\exists n_0 = n_{0(\varepsilon,x)} \in K_x \ i \ \forall n \ge n_0$  and  $n \in K_x$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . In this case we will write  $f_n \to f(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$  on D.

**Definition 2.** We say that  $(f_n)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -uniform to  $f \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0$  and  $\forall \varepsilon < D$ ,  $\exists K \notin \mathcal{I}$  and  $\exists n_0 = n_{0(\varepsilon)} \in K \ni \forall n \ge n_0$  and  $n \in K$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ .

In this case we will write  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$  on D. **Definition 3.**  $(f_n)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -pointwise to  $f \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in D$ ,

 $\{n: |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{I}.$ 

In this case we will write  $f_n \to f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D.

**Definition 4.** The sequence  $(f_n)$  of bounded functions on D converges  $\mathcal{I}$ uniformly to  $f \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in D$ ,  $\{n : ||f_n - f|| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{I}$ , where the form  $||.||_{B(D)}$  is the usual supremum norm on B(D), the space of bounded functions on D.

In this case we will write  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D.

As in the ordinary case the property of *Definition 1* implies that of *Definition 3*; and, of course for bounded functions, the property of *Definition 2* implies that of *Definition 4*. If  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP), then *Definitions 1* and 3 are equivalent, and *Definition 2* and 4 are equivalent.

The following result is a  $\mathcal{I}$  analogue of the result that is well-known in analysis. **Theorem 1.** Let for all n,  $f_n$  be continuous on D. If  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$ on D, then f is continuous on D.

**Proof.** Assume  $f_n \Rightarrow f(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$  on D. Then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a set  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$  and  $\exists n_0 = n_{0(\varepsilon)} \in K$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$  for each  $x \in D$  and for all  $n \ge n_o$  and  $n \in K$ . Let  $x_0 \in D$ . Since  $f_{n_0}$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in D$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies  $|f_{n_0}(x) - f_{n_0}(x_0)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$  for each  $x \in D$ . Now for all  $x \in D$  for which  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ , we have

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \le |f(x) - f_{n_0}(x)| + |f_{n_0}(x) - f_{n_0}(x_0)| + |f_{n_0}(x_0) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon.$$

Since  $x_0 \in D$  is arbitrary, f is continuous on D.

**Corollary 1.** Let all functions 
$$f_n$$
 be continuous on a compact subset  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ , and let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP).

If  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D, then f is continuous on D.

The next example shows that neither of the converses of *Theorem 5* and *Corollary 6* are true.

**Example 1.** Let  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$  and define  $f_n : [0,1) \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & , n \notin K\\ \frac{x^n}{1+x^n} & , n \in K. \end{cases}$$

Then we have  $f_n \to f = 0$  ( $\mathcal{I}^* - convergent$ ) on [0, 1). Hence we get  $f_n \to f = 0$  ( $\mathcal{I} - convergent$ ) on [0, 1). Though all  $f_n$  and f are continuous on [0, 1), it follows from *Definition* 4 that the  $\mathcal{I} - convergent$  of  $(f_n)$  is not uniform for

$$c_n := \sup_{x \in [0,1)} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = \frac{1}{2}$$
 and  $I - \lim c_n = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0.$ 

Now we will give the following result that is an analogue of Dini's theorem.

**Theorem 2.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP). Let D be a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ and  $(f_n)$  a sequence of continuous functions on D. Assume that f is continuous and  $f_n \to f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D. Also, let  $(f_n)$  be monotonic decreasing on D; i.e.  $f_n(x) \ge f_{n+1}(x)$  (n = 1, 2, ...) for every  $x \in D$ . Then  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D.

**Proof.** Write  $g_n(x) = f_n(x) - f(x)$ . By hypothesis, each  $g_n$  is continuous and  $g_n \to 0$  ( $\mathcal{I} - convergent$ ) on D, also  $(g_n)$  is a monotonic decreasing sequence on D. Now, since  $g_n \to 0$  ( $\mathcal{I} - convergent$ ) on D and  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP),  $g_n \to 0$  ( $I^* - convergent$ ) on D. Hence for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and each  $x \in D$  there exists  $K_x \notin \mathcal{I}$  and a number  $n(x) = n(x,\varepsilon) \in K_x$  such that  $0 \leq g_n(x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for all  $n \geq n(x)$  and  $n \in K_x$ . Since  $g_n(x)$  is continuous at  $x \in D$ , for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an open set J(x) which contains x such that  $|g_{n(x)}(t) - g_{n(x)}(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for all  $t \in J(x)$ . Hence given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , by monotonicity we have

$$0 \le g_n(t) \le g_{n(x)}(t) = g_{n(x)}(t) - g_{n(x)}(x) + g_{n(x)}(x)$$
  
$$\le |g_{n(x)}(t) - g_{n(x)}(x)| + g_{n(x)}(x)$$

for every  $t \in J(x)$  and for all  $n \ge n(x)$  and  $n \in K_x$ . Since  $D \subset \bigcup_{x \in D} J(x)$  and D is a compact set, by the Heine-Borel theorem D has a finite open covering such

*D* is a compact set, by the Heine-Borel theorem *D* has a finite open covering such that  $D \subset J(x_1) \cup J(x_2) \cup \ldots \cup J(x_m)$ . Now, let  $K := K_{x_1} \cap K_{x_2} \cap \ldots \cap K_{x_m}$  and  $N := \max\{n(x_1), n(x_2), \ldots, n(x_m)\}$ . Observe that  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$ . Then  $0 \leq g_n(t) < \varepsilon$  for every  $t \in D$  and for all  $n \geq N$  and  $n \in K$ . So  $g_n \rightrightarrows 0$  ( $\mathcal{I}^*$  - convergent) on *D*. Consequently  $g_n \rightrightarrows 0$  ( $\mathcal{I}$  - convergent) on *D*, which completes the proof.  $\Box$ 

Now we will give the Cauchy criterion for  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniform convergence but we first need a definition and a lemma:

**Definition 5.**  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and every  $x \in D$  there is an  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left\{n:\left|f_{n}\left(x\right)-f_{n\left(\varepsilon\right)}\left(x\right)\right|\geq\varepsilon\right\}\in\mathcal{I}$$

**Lemma 1.** Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of a real function on D.  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent if and only if  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy.

**Proof.** First we establish that a  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent sequence is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy. Suppose that  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent to f. Since  $\{n : |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . We can select an  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f_{n(\varepsilon)}(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . The triangle inequality now yields that  $\{n : |f_n(x) - f_{n(\varepsilon)}(x)| < \varepsilon\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary,  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy. Now suppose that  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy.

Now suppose that  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy. Select n(1) such that

$$\left\{n:\left|f_{n}\left(x\right)-f_{n\left(1\right)}\left(x\right)\right|<1\right\}\notin\mathcal{I}$$

and let  $A_1 = \{n : |f_n(x) - f_{n(1)}(x)| < 1\}$ . Suppose that

$$n(1) < n(2) < n(3) < \dots < n(p)$$

have been selected in such a fashion that if  $1 \le r \le s \le p$  and

$$A_{s} = \left\{ n : \left| f_{n} \left( x \right) - f_{n(s)} \left( x \right) \right| < 1/2^{s-1} \right\}$$

then  $A_r \notin \mathcal{I}$  and  $n(s) \in A_r$ . Select N such that

$$\{n: |f_n(x) - f_N(x)| < 1/2^{P+1}\} \notin \mathcal{I}.$$

Since  $\bigcap_{1}^{N} A_{j} \bigcap \{n : |f_{n}(x) - f_{N}(x)| < 1/2^{P+1}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ , there exists an

$$n(p+1) \in \bigcap_{1}^{N} A_{j} \bigcap \{n : |f_{n}(x) - f_{N}(x)| < 1/2^{P+1}\}$$

such that n(p) < n(p+1) and

$$A_{p+1} = \left\{ n : \left| f_n(x) - f_{n(p+1)}(x) \right| < 1/2^p \right\} \supseteq \left\{ n : \left| f_n(x) - f_N(x) \right| < 1/2^{P+1} \right\}.$$

Observe that  $A_{p+1} \notin \mathcal{I}$  and  $n(p+1) \in A_s$  for all  $s \leq p+1$ .

Note that since  $|f_{n(p)}(x) - f_{n(p+1)}(x)| < 2^{-p}$ ,  $(f_{n(p)}(x))$  is Cauchy, and hence there exists an f(x) such that  $\lim_{p} f_{n(p)}(x) = f(x)$ . We claim that  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent to f(x). Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given and select  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left|f_{n(p)}(x) - f(x)\right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 and  $\varepsilon > 2^{-p}$ .

Note that if  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon$ , then  $|f_{n(p)}(x) - f_n(x)| \ge \frac{\varepsilon}{2} > 2^{1-p}$ , and hence n is not an element of  $A_p$ . It follows that  $\{n : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{I}$  and that  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent to f(x).

**Theorem 3.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP) and let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of bounded functions on D. Then  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly convergent on D if and only if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left\{n: \left\|f_n - f_{n(\varepsilon)}\right\|_{B(D)} < \varepsilon\right\} \notin \mathcal{I}$$
(1)

Note: The sequence  $(f_n)$  satisfying property (1) is said to be  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly Cauchy on D.

**Proof.** Assume that  $(f_n)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly to a function f defined on D. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then we have  $\left\{ n : \|f_n - f\|_{B(D)} < \varepsilon \right\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . We can select an  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\left\{ n : \|f_{n(\varepsilon)} - f\|_{B(D)} < \varepsilon \right\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . The triangle inequality yields that  $\left\{ n : \|f_n - f_{n(\varepsilon)}\|_{B(D)} < \varepsilon \right\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly Cauchy on D.

Conversely, assume that  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly Cauchy on D. Let  $x \in D$  be fixed. By (1), for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\{n : |f_n(x) - f_{n(\varepsilon)}(x)| < \varepsilon\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . Hence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -Cauchy, so by Lemma 10 we have that  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent to f(x). Then  $f_n \to f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D. Now we shall show that this convergence must be uniform. Note that since  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP), by (1) there is a  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$  such that  $||f_n - f_{n(\varepsilon)}||_{B(D)} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for all  $n \ge n(\varepsilon)$  and  $n \in K$ . So for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$  and  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left|f_{n}\left(x\right) - f_{m}\left(x\right)\right| < \varepsilon \tag{2}$$

for all  $n, m \ge n$  ( $\varepsilon$ ) and  $n, m \in K$  and for each  $x \in D$ . Fixing n and applying the limit operator on  $m \in K$  in (2), we conclude that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$  and an  $n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n \ge n_0$  and for each  $x \in D$ . Hence  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$  on D, consequently  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on D.

### 3. Applications

Using  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniform convergence, we can also get some applications. We merely state the following theorems and omit the proofs.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP). If a function sequence  $(f_n)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly on [a, b] to a function f and  $f_n$  is integrable on [a, b], then f is integrable on [a, b]. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{I} - \lim_{a} \int_{a}^{b} f_{n}(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \mathcal{I} - \lim_{a} f_{n}(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

**Theorem 5.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP). Suppose that  $(f_n)$  is a function sequence such that each  $(f_n)$  has a continuous derivative on [a,b]. If  $f_n \to f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on [a,b] and  $f'_n \rightleftharpoons g(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on [a,b], then  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on [a,b], where f is differentiable, and f' = g.

#### 4. Function sequences that preserve $\mathcal{I}$ - convergence

This section is motivated by a paper of Kolk [13]. Recall that function sequence  $(f_n)$  is called convergence-preserving (or conservative) on  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  if the transformed sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges for each convergent sequence  $x = (x_n)$  from D [13]. In this section, analogously, we describe the function sequences which preserve the  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergence of sequences. Our arguments also give a sequential characterization of the continuty of  $\mathcal{I}$ -limit functions of  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly convergent function sequences. This result is complementary to *Theorem 5*.

First we introduce the following definition.

**Definition 6.** Let  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of real functions on D. Then  $(f_n)$  is called a function sequence preserving  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergence (or  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative) on D if the transformed sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$  for each  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent sequence  $x = (x_n)$  from D. If  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative and preserves the limits of all  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent sequences from D, then  $(f_n)$  is called  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent regular on D.

Hence, if  $(f_n)$  is conservative on D, then  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative on D. But the following example shows that the converse of this result is not true.

**Example 2.** Let  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$ . Define  $f_n : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f_{n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 \ , \ n \in K \\ 1 \ , \ n \notin K \end{cases}$$

Suppose that  $(x_n)$  from [0,1] is an arbitrary sequence such that  $\mathcal{I} - \lim x = L$ . Then, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\{n : |f_n(x_n) - 0| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{I}$ . Hence  $\mathcal{I} - \lim f_n(x_n) = 0$ , so  $(f_n)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative on [0,1]. But observe that  $(f_n)$  is not conservative on [0,1].

Now we give the first result of this section. But we need the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP). If  $(f_n^r(x))$  is a countable collection of sequences that are  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergent, then there exists  $\lambda : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\lim_n f_{\lambda(k)}^r(x)$  exists for each r and  $\{\lambda(k) : k \in \mathbb{N}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ .

**Proof.** Let F be the filter generated by convergence in  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergence. Since each  $(f_n^r(x))$  is  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergent, there is an  $A^r \in F$  such that  $(f_n^r(x)) \in c_{A^r}$ . Since F has property (A), there is an  $A \in F$  such that  $|A \setminus A^r| < \infty$  for each r. Suppose  $A = \{n_1, n_2, \ldots\}$  where  $n_1 < n_2 < \ldots$  and  $\lambda : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  satisfies  $\lambda(k) = n_k$  for all k. Now  $\lim_n f_{\lambda(k)}^r(x)$  exists for each r and  $\{\lambda(k) : k \in \mathbb{N}\} = A \notin \mathcal{I}$ .  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 6.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP) and let  $(f_k)$  be a sequence of functions defined on closed interval  $[a,b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(f_k)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative on [a,b] if and only if  $(f_k)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly convergent on [a,b] to a continuous function.

**Proof.** Necessity. Assume that  $(f_k)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative on [a, b]. Choose the sequence  $(v_k) = (t, t, ...)$  for each  $t \in [a, b]$ . Since  $\mathcal{I} - \lim v_k = t$ ,  $\mathcal{I} - \lim f_k(v_k)$  exists, hence  $\mathcal{I} - \lim f_k(v_k) = f(t)$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$ . We claim that fis continuous on [a, b]. To prove this we suppose that f is not continuous at a point  $t_0 \in [a, b]$ . Then there exists a sequence  $(u_k)$  in [a, b] such that  $\lim u_k = t_0$ , but  $\lim f(u_k)$  exists and  $\lim f(u_k) \neq f(t_0)$ . Since  $f_k \to f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on [a, b]and  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP), we obtain  $f_k \to f(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$  on [a, b]. Hence, for each j,  $\{f_k(u_j) - f(u_j)\} \to 0(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$ . Hence there exists  $\lambda : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\{\lambda(k) : k \in \mathbb{N}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$  and

$$\lim \left[ f_{\lambda(k)}\left(u_{j}\right) - f\left(u_{j}\right) \right] = 0$$

for each j. Now, by the "diagonal process" [1, p.192] we can choose an increasing index sequence  $(n_k)$  in such a way that  $\{n_k : k \in \mathbb{N}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$  and  $\lim [f_{n_k}(u_k) - f(u_k)] = 0$ . Now define a sequence  $x = (t_i)$  by

$$t_{i} = \begin{cases} t_{0} , i = n_{k} \text{ and } i \text{ is odd} \\ u_{k} , i = n_{k} \text{ and } i \text{ is even} \\ 0 , otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Hence  $t_i \to t_0 (\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$ , which implies  $\mathcal{I} - \lim t_i = t_0$ . But if  $i = n_k$  and i is odd, then  $\lim f_{n_k}(t_0) = f(t_0)$ , and if  $i = n_k$  and i is even, then  $\lim f_{n_k}(u_k) = \lim [f_{n_k}(u_k) - f(u_k)] + \lim f(u_k) \neq f(t_0)$ . Hence  $\{f_i(t_i)\}$  is not  $\mathcal{I}^*$  - convergent since the sequence  $\{f_i(t_i)\}$  converges to two different limit points and has two disjoint subsequences whose index set does not belong to  $\mathcal{I}$ . So, the sequence  $\{f_i(t_i)\}$  is not  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent, which contradicts the hypothesis. Thus f must be continuous on [a, b]. It remains to prove that  $(f_k)$  converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent uniformly on [a, b] to f. Assume that  $(f_k)$  is not  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly convergent on [a, b] to f. Hence, for an arbitrary index sequence  $(n_k)$  with  $\{n_k : k \in \mathbb{N}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ , there exists a number  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ 

and numbers  $t_k \in [a, b]$  such that  $|f_{n_k}(t_k) - f(t_k)| \ge 2\varepsilon_0$   $(k \in \mathbb{N})$ . The bounded sequence  $x = (t_k)$  contains a convergent subsequence  $(t_{k_i})$ ,  $\mathcal{I} - \lim t_{k_i} = \alpha$ , say. By the continuity of f,  $\lim f(t_{k_i}) = f(\alpha)$ . So there is an index  $i_0$  such that  $|f(t_{k_i}) - f(\alpha)| < \varepsilon_0$   $(i \ge i_0)$ . For the same i's, we have

$$\left|f_{n_{k_i}}(t_{k_i}) - f(\alpha)\right| \ge \left|f_{n_{k_i}}(t_{k_i}) - f(t_{k_i})\right| - \left|f(t_{k_i}) - f(\alpha)\right| \ge \varepsilon_0.$$
(3)

Now, defining

$$u_j = \begin{cases} \alpha & , \ j = n_{k_i} \text{ and } j \text{ is odd} \\ t_{k_i} & , \ j = n_{k_i} \text{ and } j \text{ is even} \\ 0 & , \text{ otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

we get  $u_j \to \alpha \left( \mathcal{I}^* - convergent \right)$ . Hence  $\mathcal{I} - \lim u_j = \alpha$ . But if  $j = n_{k_i}$  and j is odd, then  $\lim f\left(t_{k_i}\right) = f\left(\alpha\right)$ , and if  $j = n_{k_i}$  and j is even, then, by (3),  $\lim f\left(t_{k_i}\right) \neq f\left(\alpha\right)$ . Hence  $\{f_i\left(t_i\right)\}$  is not  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -convergent since the sequence  $\{f_i\left(t_i\right)\}$  converges to two different limit points and has two disjoint subsequences whose index set does not belong to  $\mathcal{I}$  So, the sequence  $\{f_i\left(t_i\right)\}$  is not  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent, which contradicts the hypothesis. Thus  $(f_k)$  must be  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniformly convergent to f on [a, b].

Sufficiency. Assume that  $f_n \rightrightarrows f(\mathcal{I} - convergent)$  on [a, b] and f is continuous. Let  $x = (x_n)$  be a  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent sequence in [a, b] with  $\mathcal{I} - \lim x_n = x_0$ . Since  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP),  $x_n \to x_0$  ( $\mathcal{I}^* - convergent$ ), so there is an index sequence  $\{n_k\}$  such that  $\lim x_{n_k} = x_0$  and  $\{n_k : k \in \mathbb{N}\} \notin \mathcal{I}$ . By the continuity of f at  $x_0$ ,  $\lim f(x_{n_k}) = f(x_0)$ . Hence  $f(x_n) \to f(x_0)$  ( $\mathcal{I}^* - convergent$ ). Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists  $K_1 \notin \mathcal{I}$  and a number  $n_1 \in K_1$  such that  $|f(x_n) - f(x_0)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for all  $n \ge n_1$  and  $n \in K_1$ . By assumption  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP). Hence the  $\mathcal{I}$ -uniform convergence is equivalent to the  $\mathcal{I}^*$ -uniform convergence, so there exists a  $K_2 \notin \mathcal{I}$  and a number  $n_2 \in K_2$  such that  $|f_n(t) - f(t)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for every  $t \in [a, b]$  for all  $n \ge n_2$  and  $n \in K_2$ . Let  $N := \max\{n_1, n_2\}$  and  $K := K_1 \cap K_2$ . Observe that  $K \notin \mathcal{I}$ . Hence taking  $t = x_n$  we have

$$|f_n(x_n) - f(x_0)| \le |f_n(x_n) - f(x_n)| + |f(x_n) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$$

for all  $n \geq N$  and  $n \in K$ . This shows that  $f_n(x_n) \to f(x_0)(\mathcal{I}^* - convergent)$ which necessarily implies that  $\mathcal{I} - \lim f_n(x_n) = f(x_0)$ , whence the proof follows.

Theorem 6 contains the following necessary and sufficient condition for the continuity of  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergence limit functions of function sequences that converge  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent uniformly on a closed interval.

**Theorem 7.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP) and let  $(f_k)$  be a sequence of functions that converges  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent uniformly on a closed interval [a,b] to a function f. The function f is continuous on [a,b] if and only if  $(f_k)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent conservative on [a,b].

Now, we study the  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergence regularity of function sequences. If  $(f_k)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent regular on [a, b], then obviously  $\mathcal{I} - \lim f_k(t) = t$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$ . So, taking f(t) = t in *Theorem 6*, we immediately get the following.

**Theorem 8.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  satisfy the condition (AP) and let  $(f_k)$  be a sequence of functions on [a,b]. Then  $(f_k)$  is  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent regular on [a,b] if and only if  $\mathcal{I}$ -convergent uniformly on [a,b] to the function f defined by f(t) = t.

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