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Research Article N_{θ} -Ward Continuity

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A function *f* is continuous if and only if *f* preserves convergent sequences; that is, $(f(\alpha_n))$ is a convergent sequence whenever (α_n) is convergent. The concept of N_θ -ward continuity is defined in the sense that a function *f* is N_θ -ward continuous if it preserves N_θ -quasi-Cauchy sequences; that is, $(f(\alpha_n))$ is an N_θ -quasi-Cauchy sequence whenever (α_n) is N_θ -quasi-Cauchy. A sequence (α_k) of points in **R**, the set of real numbers, is N_θ -quasi-Cauchy if $\lim_{r \to \infty} (1/h_r) \sum_{k \in I_r} |\Delta \alpha_k| = 0$, where $\Delta \alpha_k = \alpha_{k+1} - \alpha_k$, $I_r = (k_{r-1}, k_r]$, and $\theta = (k_r)$ is a lacunary sequence, that is, an increasing sequence of positive integers such that $k_0 = 0$ and $h_r : k_r - k_{r-1} \to \infty$. A new type compactness, namely, N_θ -ward compactness, is also, defined and some new results related to this kind of compactness are obtained.

1. Introduction

It is well known that a real function f is continuous if and only if, for each point α_0 in the domain, $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(\alpha_n) = f(\alpha_0)$ whenever $\lim_{n\to\infty} \alpha_n = \alpha_0$. This is equivalent to the statement that $(f(\alpha_n))$ is a convergent sequence whenever (α_n) is. This is also equivalent to the statement that $(f(\alpha_n))$ is a Cauchy sequence whenever (α_n) is Cauchy provided that the domain of the function is either whole **R** or a bounded and closed subset of **R** where **R** is the set of real numbers. These well known results for continuity for real functions in terms of sequences suggested to introduce and study new types of continuities such as slowly oscillating continuity [1], quasi-slowly oscillating continuity [2], δ -quasi-slowly oscillating continuity [3], forward continuity [4], statistical ward continuity [5] which enabled some authors to obtain some characterizations of uniform continuity in terms of sequences in the sense that a function preserves either quasi-Cauchy sequences or slowly oscillating sequences (see [6–8]).

The purpose of this paper is to introduce a new kind of continuity and a new type of compactness, namely, N_{θ} -ward continuity and N_{θ} -ward compactness, respectively, in the senses that a function f is N_{θ} -ward continuous if f preserves N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences,

and a subset *A* of **R** is N_{θ} -ward compact if any sequence of points in *A* has an N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy subsequence and to investigate relations among this kind of continuity, compactness, and some other types of continuities.

2. Preliminaries

We will use boldface letters α , x, y, z,... for sequences $\alpha = (\alpha_k)$, $x = (x_n)$, $y = (y_n)$, and $z = (z_n)$,... of points in **R** for the sake of abbreviation. s and c will denote the set of all sequences and the set of convergent sequences of points in **R**.

A subset of **R** is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded. A subset *A* of **R** is bounded if $|a| \leq M$ for all $a \in A$ where *M* is a positive real constant number. This is equivalent to the statement that any sequence of points in *A* has a Cauchy subsequence. The concept of a Cauchy sequence involves far more than that the distance between successive terms is tending to zero. Nevertheless, sequences which satisfy this weaker property are interesting in their own right. A sequence (α_n) of points in **R** is quasi-Cauchy if $(\Delta \alpha_n)$ is a null sequence where $\Delta \alpha_n = \alpha_{n+1} - \alpha_n$. These sequences were named as quasi-Cauchy by Burton and Coleman [8, page 328], while they were called as forward convergent to 0 sequences in [4, page 226].

It is known that a sequence (α_n) of points in **R** is slowly oscillating if

$$\lim_{\lambda \to 1^+} \overline{\lim_{n \to 1^+}} \max_{n+1 \le k \le [\lambda n]} |\alpha_k - \alpha_n| = 0,$$
(2.1)

where $[\lambda n]$ denotes the integer part of λn (see [9, Definition 2 page 947]). Any Cauchy sequence is slowly oscillating, and any slowly oscillating sequence is quasi-Cauchy. There are quasi-Cauchy sequences which are not Cauchy. For example, the sequence (\sqrt{n}) is quasi-Cauchy, but not Cauchy. Any subsequence of a Cauchy sequence is Cauchy. The analogous property fails for quasi-Cauchy sequences, and fails for slowly oscillating sequences as well. A counter example for the case, quasi-Cauchy, is again the sequence $(a_n) = (\sqrt{n})$ with the subsequence $(a_{n^2}) = (n)$. A counter example for the case slowly oscillating is the sequence $(\log_{10} n)$ with the subsequence (n). Furthermore we give more examples without neglecting: the sequences $(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/n), (\ln n), (\ln(\ln n)), (\ln(\ln(\ln n))), \ldots, (\ln(\ln(\ln(n \cdots (\ln n) \cdots))))$ and combinations like that are all slowly oscillating, but not Cauchy. The bounded sequence $(\cos(6\log(n + 1)))$ is slowly oscillating, but not Cauchy. The sequences $(\cos(\pi \sqrt{n}))$ and $(\sum_{k=1}^{k=n} (1/k)(\sum_{j=1}^{j=k} (1/j)))$ are quasi-Cauchy, but not slowly oscillating.

By a method of sequential convergence, or briefly a method, we mean a linear function *G* defined on a subspace of *s*, denoted by c_G , into **R**. A sequence $\mathbf{x} = (x_n)$ is said to be *G*-convergent to ℓ if $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \in c_G$ and $G(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \ell$ [10]. In particular, lim denotes the limit function lim $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \lim_n \alpha_n$ on the space *c* of convergent sequences of points in **R**. A method *G* is called regular if $c \subset c_G$; that is, every convergent sequence $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_n)$ is *G*-convergent with $G(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) =$ lim $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$. A point ℓ in **R** is in the *G*-sequential closure of a subset *A* of **R** if there is a sequence $\mathbf{x} = (x_n)$ of points in *A* such that $G(\mathbf{x}) = \ell$. A subset *A* is called *G*-sequentially closed if it contains all of the points in its *G*-sequential closure.

Consider an infinite matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ of real numbers. Then, for any sequence **x** = (x_n) the sequence **Ax** is defined as

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k\right)_n \tag{2.2}$$

provided that each of the series converges. A sequence x is called A-convergent (or A-summable) to ℓ if Ax exists and is convergent with

$$\lim \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k = \ell.$$
(2.3)

Then ℓ is called the A-limit of **x**. We have thus defined a method of sequential convergence, that is, $G(\mathbf{x}) = \lim A\mathbf{x}$, called a matrix method or a summability matrix.

The concept of statistical convergence is a generalization of the usual notion of convergence that, for real-valued sequences, parallels the usual theory of convergence. A sequence (α_k) of points in **R** is called statistically convergent to an element ℓ of **R** if for each ε

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} |\{k \le n : |\alpha_k - \ell| \ge \varepsilon\}| = 0,$$
(2.4)

and this is denoted by st-lim_{$k\to\infty$} $\alpha_k = \ell$ (see [11–15]). This defines a method of sequential convergence, that is, $G(\alpha) := \text{st-lim}_{k\to\infty} \alpha_k$.

Now we recall the concepts of ward compactness, and slowly oscillating compactness: a subset *A* of **R** is called ward compact if whenever (α_n) is a sequence of points in *A*, there is a quasi-Cauchy subsequence $\mathbf{z} = (z_k) = (\alpha_{n_k})$ of (α_n) [4]. A subset *A* of **R** is called slowly oscillating compact if whenever (α_n) is a sequence of points in *A*, there is a slowly oscillating subsequence $\mathbf{z} = (z_k) = (\alpha_{n_k})$ of (α_n) [1].

A function *f* is called *G*-sequentially continuous at $u \in \mathbf{R}$ if, given a sequence $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_n)$ of points in \mathbf{R} , $G(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = u$ implies that $G(f(\boldsymbol{\alpha})) = f(u)$.

Recently, Cakalli (see [16, page 594], [17]) gave a sequential definition of compactness, which is a generalization of ordinary sequential compactness, as in the following: a subset A of **R** is G-sequentially compact if for any sequence (α_k) of points in A there exists a subsequence **z** of the sequence such that $G(\mathbf{z}) \in A$. His idea enables us obtaining new kinds of compactness via most of the nonmatrix sequential convergence methods as well as all matrix sequential convergence methods.

3. N_{θ} -Quasi-Cauchy Sequences

A lacunary sequence $\theta = (k_r)$ is an increasing sequence $\theta = (k_r)$ of positive integers such that $k_0 = 0$ and $h_r : k_r - k_{r-1} \to \infty$. The intervals determined by θ will be denoted by $I_r = (k_{r-1}, k_r]$, and the ratio k_r/k_{r-1} will be abbreviated by q_r . Sums of the form $\sum_{k_{r-1}+1}^{k_r} |\alpha_k|$ frequently occur, and will often be written for convenience as $\sum_{k \in I_r} |\alpha_k|$. Throughout this paper, we will assume that $\lim \inf_r q_r > 1$.

The notion of N_{θ} convergence was introduced and studied by Freedman et al. in [18]. Basarir and Altundag studied Δ - N_{θ} -asymptotically equivalent sequences in [19]. Using the idea of Sember and Raphael, Fridy and Orhan introduced lacunary statistical convergence (see [20, 21]).

A sequence (α_k) of points in **R** is called N_θ -convergent to an element ℓ of **R** if

$$\lim_{r \to \infty} \frac{1}{h_r} \sum_{k \in I_r} |\alpha_k - \ell| = 0, \tag{3.1}$$

and it is denoted by N_{θ} -lim $\alpha_k = \ell$. This defines a method of sequential convergence, that is, $G(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) := N_{\theta}$ -lim α_k . Any convergent sequence is N_{θ} -convergent, but the converse is not always true. Throughout the paper N_{θ} will denote the set of N_{θ} convergent sequences of points in **R**.

For example, limit of the sequence of the ratios of Fibonacci numbers converge, to the golden mean. This property ensures the regularity of lacunary sequential method obtained via the sequence of Fibonacci numbers; that is, $\theta = (k_r)$ is the lacunary sequence defined by writing $k_0 = 0$ and $k_r = F_{r+2}$ where (F_r) is the Fibonacci sequence, that is, $F_1 = 1$, $F_2 = 1$, and $F_r = F_{r-1} + F_{r-2}$ for $r \ge 3$.

Now we modify the definition of *G*-sequential compactness to the special case, $G = N_{\theta}$ [16] as in the following: a subset *A*, of **R** is called N_{θ} -sequentially compact if whenever (α_n) is a sequence of points in *A* there is an N_{θ} -convergent subsequence $\mathbf{z} = (z_k) = (a_{n_k})$ of (α_n) whose N_{θ} -limit is in *A*.

Adopting the technique in the proof of the necessity of Theorem 6 in [22], we see that the sequential method N_{θ} is subsequential. It follows from [16, Corollary 5, page 597] that a subset *A* of **R** is sequentially compact if and only if it is N_{θ} -sequentially compact. A subset *A* of **R** is closed and bounded if and only if it is N_{θ} -sequentially compact. A subset of **R** is *G*-sequentially compact if and only if it is N_{θ} -sequentially compact for any regular subsequential method *G*.

In connection with N_{θ} -convergent sequences and convergent sequences the problem arises to investigate the following types of continuity of functions on **R**:

$$(N_{\theta}): (\alpha_{n}) \in N_{\theta} \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in N_{\theta},$$

$$(N_{\theta}c): (\alpha_{n}) \in N_{\theta} \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in c,$$

$$(c): (\alpha_{n}) \in c \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in c,$$

$$(cN_{\theta}): (\alpha_{n}) \in c \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in N_{\theta}.$$

(3.2)

We see that (N_{θ}) is N_{θ} -sequential continuity of f, and (c) is the ordinary continuity of f. It is easy to see that $(N_{\theta}c)$ implies (N_{θ}) , and (N_{θ}) does not imply $(N_{\theta}c)$; (N_{θ}) implies (cN_{θ}) , and (cN_{θ}) does not imply (N_{θ}) ; $(N_{\theta}c)$ implies (c), and (c) does not imply $(N_{\theta}c)$; and (c) is equivalent to (cN_{θ}) .

If a function f is N_{θ} -sequentially continuous at a point α_0 , then it is continuous at α_0 . If a function f is N_{θ} -sequentially continuous on a subset A of \mathbf{R} , then it is statistically continuous on A. We obtain from [16, Theorem 7, page 597] that N_{θ} -sequentially continuous image of any N_{θ} -sequentially compact subset of \mathbf{R} is N_{θ} -sequentially compact.

In [23] a nonempty subset A of a **R** is called *G*-sequentially connected if there are no nonempty and disjoint *G*-sequentially closed subsets U and V such that $A \subseteq U \bigcup V$, and $A \cap U$ and $A \cap V$ are nonempty. As far as *G*-sequentially connectedness is considered, we see that N_{θ} -sequentially continuous image of any N_{θ} -sequentially connected subset of **R** is N_{θ} sequentially connected, so N_{θ} -sequentially continuous image of any interval is an interval. Furthermore it can be easily seen that a subset of **R** is N_{θ} -sequentially connected if and only if it is connected in the ordinary sense, and so it is an interval.

Definition 3.1. A sequence (α_n) of points in **R** is called N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy if $(\Delta \alpha_n)$ is N_{θ} -convergent to 0. ΔN_{θ}^0 will denote the set of all N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences of points in **R**.

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We note that N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences were studied in [19] in a different point of view.

Now we give the definition of N_{θ} -ward compactness.

Definition 3.2. A subset *A* of **R** is called N_{θ} -ward compact if whenever (α_n) is a sequence of points in *A*, there is an N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy subsequence $\mathbf{z} = (z_k) = (a_{n_k})$ of (α_n) .

Theorem 3.3. A subset A of **R** is bounded if and only if it is N_{θ} -ward compact.

Proof. Let *A* be any bounded subset of **R** and let (α_n) be any sequence of points in *A*. (α_n) is also a sequence of points in \overline{A} where \overline{A} denotes the closure of *A*. As \overline{A} is sequentially compact, there is a convergent subsequence (α_{n_k}) of (α_n) (no matter the limit is in *A* or not). This subsequence is N_{θ} -convergent since N_{θ} -method is regular. Hence (α_{n_k}) is N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy. Thus (a) implies (b). To prove that (b) implies (a), suppose that *A* is unbounded. If it is unbounded above, then one can construct a sequence (α_n) of numbers in *A* such that $\alpha_{n+1} > 1 + \alpha_n$ for each positive integer *n*. Then the sequence (α_n) does not have any N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy subsequence, so *A* is not N_{θ} -ward compact. If *A* is bounded above and unbounded below, then similarly we obtain that *A* is not N_{θ} -ward compact. This completes the proof of the theorem.

It easily follows from the preceding theorem that a closed subset of **R** is N_{θ} -ward compact if and only if it is N_{θ} -sequentially compact and a closed subset of **R** is N_{θ} -ward compact if and only if it is statistically ward compact.

A sequence $\alpha = (\alpha_n)$ is δ -quasi-Cauchy if $\lim_{k\to\infty} \Delta^2 \alpha_n = 0$ where $\Delta^2 \alpha_n = a_{n+2} - 2a_{n+1} + \alpha_n$ [3]. A subset *A* of **R** is called δ -ward compact if whenever $\alpha = (\alpha_n)$ is a sequence of points in *A*, there is a subsequence $\mathbf{z} = (z_k) = (\alpha_{n_k})$ of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ with $\lim_{k\to\infty} \Delta^2 z_k = 0$. It follows from the previous theorem that any N_{θ} -ward compact subset of **R** is δ -ward compact.

We see that for any regular subsequential method *G* defined on **R**, if a subset *A* of **R** is *G*-sequentially compact, then it is N_{θ} -ward compact. But the converse is not always true.

Now we give the definition of N_{θ} -ward continuity in the following.

Definition 3.4. A function defined on a subset *A* of **R** is called N_{θ} -ward continuous if it preserves N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences; that is, $(f(\alpha_k))$ is an N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequence whenever (α_k) is.

Sum of two N_{θ} -ward continuous functions is N_{θ} -ward continuous, but product of N_{θ} -ward continuous functions need not be N_{θ} -ward continuous.

In connection with N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences and convergent sequences the problem arises to investigate the following types of continuity of functions on **R**:

$$(\delta N_{\theta}) : (\alpha_{n}) \in \Delta N_{\theta}^{0} \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in \Delta N_{\theta}^{0},$$

$$(\delta N_{\theta}c) : (\alpha_{n}) \in \Delta N_{\theta}^{0} \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in c,$$

$$(c) : (\alpha_{n}) \in c \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in c,$$

$$(c\delta N_{\theta}) : (\alpha_{n}) \in c \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in \Delta N_{\theta}^{0},$$

$$(N_{\theta}) : (\alpha_{n}) \in N_{\theta} \Longrightarrow (f(\alpha_{n})) \in N_{\theta}^{0}.$$

(3.3)

We see that (δN_{θ}) is N_{θ} -ward continuity of f, (N_{θ}) is N_{θ} -sequential continuity of f, and (c) is the ordinary continuity of f. It is easy to see that $(\delta N_{\theta}c)$ implies (δN_{θ}) , and (δN_{θ}) does not imply $(\delta N_{\theta}c)$; (δN_{θ}) implies $(c\delta N_{\theta})$, and $(c\delta N_{\theta})$ does not imply (δN_{θ}) ; $(\delta N_{\theta}c)$ implies (c), and (c) does not imply $(\delta N_{\theta}c)$; (N_{θ}) clearly implies (c) as we have seen in Section 3.

Now we give the implication that (δN_{θ}) implies (N_{θ}) ; that is, any N_{θ} -ward continuous function is N_{θ} -sequentially continuous.

Theorem 3.5. If f is N_{θ} -ward continuous on a subset A of \mathbf{R} , then it is N_{θ} -sequentially continuous on A.

Proof. Assume that *f* is an N_{θ} -ward continuous function on a subset *A* of **R**. Let (α_n) be any N_{θ} -convergent sequence with $N_{\theta} - \lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k = \alpha_0$. Then the sequence

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_0, \alpha_2, \alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{n-1}, \alpha_0, \alpha_n, \alpha_0, \dots)$$

$$(3.4)$$

is also N_{θ} -convergent to α_0 . Hence it is N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy. As f is N_{θ} -ward continuous, the sequence

$$(f(\alpha_1), f(\alpha_0), f(\alpha_2), f(\alpha_0), \dots, f(\alpha_{n-1}), f(\alpha_0), f(\alpha_n), f(\alpha_0), \dots)$$

$$(3.5)$$

is N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy. It follows from this that the sequence $(f(\alpha_n))$ N_{θ} -converges to $f(\alpha_0)$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

The converse is not always true for the function $f(x) = x^2$ is an example since the sequence (\sqrt{n}) is N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy while $(f(\sqrt{n})) = (n)$ is not.

Corollary 3.6. If f is N_{θ} -ward continuous on a subset A of **R**, then it is continuous on A.

Proof. The proof immediately follows from the preceding theorem, so it is omitted.

Corollary 3.7. If f is N_{θ} -ward continuous on a subset A of \mathbf{R} , then it is statistically continuous on A.

It is well known that any continuous function on a compact subset A of \mathbf{R} is uniformly continuous on A. It is also true for a regular subsequential method G that any N_{θ} -ward continuous function on a G-sequentially compact subset A of \mathbf{R} is also uniformly continuous on A (see [6]). Furthermore, for N_{θ} -ward continuous functions defined on an N_{θ} -ward compact subset of \mathbf{R} , we have the following.

Theorem 3.8. Let A be an N_{θ} -ward compact subset A of **R** and let $f : A \to \mathbf{R}$ be an N_{θ} -ward continuous function on A. Then f is uniformly continuous on A.

Proof. Suppose that *f* is not uniformly continuous on *A* so that there exists an $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ such that for any $\delta > 0$ there are $x, y \in E$ with $|x - y| < \delta$ but $|f(x) - f(y)| \ge \varepsilon_0$. For each positive integer *n*, there exist α_n and β_n such that $|\alpha_n - \beta_n| < 1/n$, and $|f(\alpha_n) - f(\beta_n)| \ge \varepsilon_0$. Since *A* is N_θ -ward compact, there exists an N_θ -quasi-Cauchy subsequence (α_{n_k}) of the sequence (α_n) . It is clear

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that the corresponding subsequence (β_{n_k}) of the sequence (β_n) is also N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy, since $(\beta_{n_{k+1}} - \beta_{n_k})$ is a sum of three N_{θ} -null sequences, that is,

$$\beta_{n_{k+1}} - \beta_{n_k} = (\beta_{n_{k+1}} - \alpha_{n_{k+1}}) + (\alpha_{n_{k+1}} - \alpha_{n_k}) + (\alpha_{n_k} - \beta_{n_k}).$$
(3.6)

On the other hand, it follows from the equality $\alpha_{n_{k+1}} - \beta_{n_k} = \alpha_{n_{k+1}} - \alpha_{n_k} + \alpha_{n_k} - \beta_{n_k}$ that the sequence $(\alpha_{n_{k+1}} - \beta_{n_k})$ is N_{θ} -convergent to 0. Hence the sequence

$$(a_{n_1}, \beta_{n_1}, \alpha_{n_2}, \beta_{n_2}, \alpha_{n_3}, \beta_{n_3}, \dots, \alpha_{n_k}, \beta_{n_k}, \dots)$$
(3.7)

is N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy. But the transformed sequence

$$(f(\alpha_{n_1}), f(\beta_{n_1}), f(\alpha_{n_2}), f(\beta_{n_2}), f(\alpha_{n_3}), f(\beta_{n_3}), \dots, f(\alpha_{n_k}), f(\beta_{n_k}), \dots)$$
(3.8)

is not N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy. Thus f does not preserve N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences. This contradiction completes the proof of the theorem.

Corollary 3.9. If a function f is N_{θ} -ward continuous on a bounded subset A of \mathbf{R} , then it is uniformly continuous on A.

Proof. The proof follows from the preceding theorem and Theorem 3.3. \Box

Theorem 3.10. N_{θ} -ward continuous image of any N_{θ} -ward compact subset of **R** is N_{θ} -ward compact.

Proof. Assume that f is an N_{θ} -ward continuous function on a subset A of \mathbf{R} and E is an N_{θ} -ward compact subset of A. Let (β_n) be any sequence of points in f(E). Write $\beta_n = f(\alpha_n)$ where $\alpha_n \in E$ for each positive integer n. N_{θ} -ward compactness of E implies that there is a subsequence $(\gamma_k) = (\alpha_{n_k})$ of (α_n) with $N_{\theta} \lim_{k \to \infty} \Delta \gamma_k = 0$. Write $(t_k) = (f(\gamma_k))$. As f is N_{θ} -ward continuous, $(f(\gamma_k))$ is N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy. Thus we have obtained a subsequence (t_k) of the sequence $(f(\alpha_n))$ with $N_{\theta} - \lim_{k \to \infty} \Delta t_k = 0$. Thus f(E) is N_{θ} -ward compact. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Corollary 3.11. N_{θ} -ward continuous image of any compact subset of **R** is N_{θ} -ward compact.

The proof follows from the preceding theorem.

Corollary 3.12. N_{θ} -ward continuous image of any bounded subset of **R** is bounded.

The proof follows from Theorems 3.3 and 3.10.

Corollary 3.13. N_{θ} -ward continuous image of a G-sequentially compact subset of **R** is N_{θ} -ward compact for any regular subsequential method G.

For a further study, we suggest to investigate N_{θ} -quasi-Cauchy sequences of fuzzy points and N_{θ} -ward continuity for the fuzzy functions (see [24] for the definitions and related concepts in fuzzy setting). However due to the change in settings, the definitions and methods of proofs will not always be analogous to those of the present work.

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