# CONTINUOUS FINITE APOLLONIUS SETS IN METRIC SPACES 

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1. Introduction. The set of all points in the Euclidean plane $E^{2}$, the ratio of whose distances from two fixed points is a constant $\lambda$, is known as the circle of Apollonius [7, p. 62]. This "Apollonius" set is a circle except for the degenerate cases where $\lambda=1$ or $\lambda=0$. In more general metric spaces the same definition applies to select certain Apollonius sets (or " $\lambda$-sets" in our terminology), but of course these sets are not always circles. For example, all $\lambda$-sets $(\lambda>0)$ relative to a circle in $E^{2}$ are two-point sets, and all $\lambda$-sets relative to $E^{1}$ are either singletons or two-point sets. This paper deals with the topological structure of a metric space when certain cardinality conditions have been imposed on its $\lambda$-sets.

Let $\lambda$ be a positive real number. The $\lambda$-set, $\lambda(a, b)$, of two points $a$ and $b$ in a metric space $(X, d)$ is the set $\{x \mid d(a, x)=\lambda d(b, x)\}$. No generality is lost in restricting $\lambda$ to the interval $(0,1]$ since $\lambda(a, b)=\frac{1}{\lambda}(b, a)$. In the special case where $\lambda=1$, the $\lambda$-set is known in the literature as the midset, $M(a, b)$, of $a$ and $b$. A metric space $X$ is said to have the finite $\lambda$-set property $(F \lambda P)$ if there is a number $\lambda$ in $(0,1]$ such that, for each two points $a$ and $b$ of $X, \lambda(a, b)$ is a finite set. The $n$th order $\lambda$-set property $(\lambda P(n))$ implies the existence of a $\lambda \in(0,1]$ such that each $\lambda$-set in $X$ consists of $n$ points. The $\lambda P(1)$ and the $\lambda P(2)$ have also been called the unique $\lambda$-set property $(U \lambda P)$ and the double $\lambda$-set property $(D \lambda P)$, respectively, and when $\lambda=1$ they are known as the unique ( $U M P$ ) and double ( $D M P$ ) midset properties. Similarly the $F \lambda P$ becomes the finite midset property (FMP) when $\lambda=1$.

Theorem 3.1 states that a continuum is an arc if it has the $U \lambda P$. Although the converse is clearly false, a "continuity" restriction on the $\lambda$-set function, defined below, makes it true. Thus an arc is characterized among continua by the continuous unique $\lambda$-set property (Theorem 3.2). However, if an arc has a continuous $\lambda$-set function, then $\lambda=1$ and it has the $U M P$ (Theorem 3.6). In addition we show that arcs and simple closed curves are the only continua having the continuous $n$th order $\lambda$-set property $(C \lambda P(n))$; see Theorems 3.1 and 3.4. The main result of [3] is generalized by showing that a continuum with the continuous double $\lambda$-set property (defined below) must be a simple closed curve (Theorem 3.4). A continuum is a nondegenerate compact connected metric space.

Let $(X, d)$ be a metric space, and let $P(X)$ be the set of all subsets of $X$. In
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the product space $X \times X$, let $D$ be the diagonal $\{(x, y) \mid x=y\}$. The $\lambda$-set function $\lambda:(X \times X-D) \rightarrow P(X)$ is defined by letting $\lambda(x, y)$ be the $\lambda$-set of $x$ and $y$ in $X$. Notice that " $\lambda$ " is being used in a dual role; in one sense it represents the "Apollonius" constant in the definition of the $\lambda$-set while it has now been given meaning as a function. This should cause no confusion since the $\lambda$-set $\lambda(a, b)$ is also the value of the function $\lambda$ at the point $(a, b)$. The function $\lambda$ is continuous if $\lambda(x, y) \subset \lim _{\inf }^{i \rightarrow \infty}, ~ \lambda\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ whenever $\left\{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)\right\}$ converges to $(x, y)$ in $X \times X-D$. It follows from the continuity of the metric function $d$ that $\lim \sup _{i \rightarrow \infty} \lambda\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \subset \lambda(x, y)$; hence, it can be proved that $\lambda$ is continuous if and only if $\left\{\lambda\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)\right\}$ converges to $\lambda(x, y)$ whenever $\left\{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)\right\}$ converges to $(x, y)$ in $X \times X-D$. The definitions of "limit superior" and "limit inferior'" can be found in [9, p. 209].

In the special case where $\lambda=1$, we denote the $\lambda$-set function by $M$ and call it the midset function. The reader might prefer to concentrate on midsets rather than on the more general $\lambda$-sets the first time through the paper.

A continuum with the $U M P$ clearly has a continuous midset function, and thus it has what we call the continuous unique midset property (CUMP). More generally we use the letter " $C$ " preceding the abbreviation for a particular midset or $\lambda$-set property to indicate that in addition to possessing that property the space also has a continuous $\lambda$-set function. For example, a metric space $X$ has the $C D M P$ if and only if the midset function $M$ is continuous and $X$ has the $D M P$. Examples of arcs in the plane are easily found where the midset function fails to be continuous; however, every simple closed curve with the $D M P$ can be shown to have the $C D M P$. Whether or not an arc with the $D M P$ can exist is unknown [6, Question 2, p. 1005], but if there is such an arc its midset function cannot be continuous (see Theorem 3.2). Example 3.8 shows that a 1 -dimensional continuum in the plane can have the CFMP and still contain a triod; however, a triod itself cannot have the CFMP (Theorem 3.7).

It is not difficult to show that a continuum with the $U \lambda P$ is an arc (see Theorem 3.1). Berard proved that a connected metric space with the $U M P$ is homeomorphic to a subset of the real line [1]. It is also known that a complete convex metric space with the $D M P$ is isometric to a circle with the "arc length" metric. This result first appeared in [4, Theorem 2] and later in [2]. A more recent short proof has been given [5]. Such an isometry need not exist when the "convex" hypothesis is replaced with "connected"; the circle with its inherited plane topology illustrates this. It is not known whether a continuum possessing the $D M P$ must be a simple closed curve, although this has been conjectured [6]. A perhaps stronger midset property, the continuous double midset property, is enough to insure that a continuum is a topological simple closed curve [3, Theorem 3]; in fact, a continuum with the $C D \lambda P$ must be a simple closed curve (Corollary 3.5).

An arc is a space homeomorphic to an interval on the real line. We use $[a, b]$ to denote an arc ordered from the endpoint $a$ to the endpoint $b$. An $n$-frame is homeomorphic to the union of $n \operatorname{arcs}\left[v, p_{i}\right]$ in the plane which are
pairwise disjoint except for the vertex $v$. A triod is a 3 -frame, and the legs of a triod are the images of $\left(v, p_{i}\right]$.
2. Basic facts. A metric space $X$ is separated by a midset $M(a, b)$ into two sets, one consisting of all points closer to $a$ than to $b$ and the other consisting of those points closer to $b$ than to $a$. The first lemma generalizes this separation to $\lambda$-sets; the proof is a simple application of the continuity of the metric.

Lemma 2.1. (Standard separation). If $a$ and $b$ are two points of a connected metric space $X$ and $\lambda \in(0,1]$, then $X-\lambda(a, b)$ is the union of disjoint open sets $L$ and $R$ where $L=\{x \mid d(a, x)<\lambda d(b, x)\}$, and $R=\{x \mid d(a, x)>\lambda d(b, x)\}$.

Lemma 2.2. If $X$ is a continuum with the $F \lambda P$, then $X$ is locally connected.
A proof for Lemma 2.2 for the case $\lambda=1$ is outlined in [ $\mathbf{6}$, Lemma 2], and the same argument works for each $\lambda$. Lemma 2.3 is Theorem 75 of [8, p. 218], but an easy proof is outlined in [6, Lemma 3] assuming it is known that a continuum is a simple closed curve if each two-point set separates it [9, Theorem 28.14, p. 207].

Lemma 2.3. If $X$ is a locally connected continuum that contains no triod, then $X$ is either an arc or a simple closed curve.

Lemma 2.4. If $x$ and $y$ are two points of an arc $A$ and $A$ has a continuous $\lambda$-set function for some $\lambda \in(0,1]$, then $\lambda(x, y)$ lies between $x$ and $y$.

Proof. Suppose two points $x$ and $y$ exist in $A$ such that $x<y$ and $\lambda(x, y)$ is not between $x$ and $y$. If $a$ and $b$ are the endpoints of $A$, we see that $\lambda(x, y)$ intersects either $[a, x)$ or $(y, b]$. We may assume for convenience that $\lambda(x, y) \cap$ $(y, b] \neq \emptyset$, and it follows that $y \neq b$. Let $B=\{t \in[y, b] \mid \lambda(x, t) \cap(t, b] \neq \emptyset\}$, and note that $y \in B$ while $b \notin B$.

To show that $B$ is closed, let $\left\{p_{i}\right\}$ be a sequence of points of $B$ converging to a point $p$. Then $\lambda\left(x, p_{i}\right) \cap\left(p_{i}, b\right] \neq \emptyset$, for each $i$, and the continuity of $\lambda$ forces $\lambda(x, p)$ to intersect $(p, b]$. Thus $p \in B$. On the other hand $B$ is open since if $\left\{p_{i}\right\}$ converges to a point $p$ of $B$, then the continuityof $\lambda$ implies that $p_{i} \in B$ for $i$ sufficiently large. But $B$ cannot be open and closed since it is a nonempty proper subset of the connected set $[y, b]$.

Lemma 2.5. No metric space with the $C \lambda P(n)$ can contain a triod.
Proof. Suppose $X$ is a metric space, $n$ is a positive integer, $\lambda$ is a number in $(0,1]$ such that $X$ has the $C \lambda P(n)$, and $X$ contains a triod $T$ with vertex $v$. It is easy to find points $a$ and $b$ in different legs of $T$ such that $v \in \lambda(a, b)$, $d(t, v)<d(a, v)$ for every $t \in(a, v)$, and $d(v, t)<d(v, b)$ for every $t \in(b, v)$. Let $\lambda(a, b)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ where $v_{1}=v$, and let $O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots, O_{n}$ be pairwise disjoint open sets such that $v_{i} \in O_{i}$ for each $i$. Let $X-\lambda(a, b)=L \cup R$ where $a \in L$ and $b \in R$ (see Lemma 2.1), and let $[v, p] \cup[v, q] \cup[v, r]$ be a
subtriod $T^{\prime}$ of $T$ lying in $O_{1}$. There are two cases depending on the location of the legs of $T^{\prime}$ relative to $L$ and $R$.

In the first case we assume at least two of the legs ( $v, p],(v, q]$, and ( $v, r]$ of $T^{\prime}$, say ( $\left.v, p\right]$ and ( $\left.v, q\right]$, lie in $R$. The continuity of $\lambda$ assures the existence of a sequence $\left\{a_{j}\right\}$ of points from ( $a, v$ ) converging to $a$ such that $\lambda\left(a_{j}, b\right)$ intersects each $O_{i}$ for every $j$. We shall exhibit an integer $J$ such that $\lambda\left(a_{j}, b\right)$ separates $\{v\}$ from $\{p, q\}$ if $j>J$. A contradiction to the $C \lambda P(n)$ ensues because $\lambda\left(a_{j}, b\right)$ would then contain two points of $O_{1}$, one point from $(v, p)$ and one from $(v, q)$, and would intersect every other $O_{i}$. To show the existence of $J$ let $X$ $\lambda\left(a_{j}, b\right)=L_{j} \cup R_{j}$ where $a_{j} \in L_{j}$ and $b \in R_{j}$ as in Lemma 2.1.

Now $p$ cannot belong to $L_{j}$ for infinitely many $j$ because $d\left(a_{j}, p\right)<\lambda d(b, p)$ would then imply $d(a, p) \leqq \lambda d(b, p)$, by the continuity of $d$, contrary to $p \in R$. The same applies to $q$, so there must be an integer $J$ such that $\{p, q\} \subset R_{j}$ if $j>J$. By the choice of $a$ we have $d(a, v)>d\left(a_{j}, v\right)$ for all $j$, and since $d(a, v)=$ $\lambda d(b, v)$ it follows that $d\left(a_{j}, v\right)<\lambda d(b, v)$; consequently $v \in L_{j}$ for every $j$. Thus, for $j>J, \lambda\left(a_{j}, b\right)$ separates $\{v\}$ from $\{p, q\}$ as desired.

In the last case we assume at least two, say $(v, p]$ and $(v, q]$, of the three sets $(v, p],(v, q]$, and $(v, r]$ lie in $L$. This time a sequence $\left\{b_{j}\right\}$ of points in $(v, b)$ is chosen converging to $b$ such that $\lambda\left(a, b_{j}\right)$ intersects each $O_{i}$ for every $j$. As in Lemma 2.1 we let $X-\lambda\left(a, b_{j}\right)=L_{j} \cup R_{j}$ where $a \in L_{j}$ and $b_{j} \in R_{j}$. The existence of an integer $J$ such that $\{p, q\} \subset L_{j}$ whenever $j>J$ follows from the continuity of $d$ as above. The point $b$ was chosen such that $d\left(v, b_{j}\right)<$ $d(v, b)$ for every $j$. Thus $\lambda d\left(v, b_{j}\right)<\lambda d(v, b)=d(a, v)$, and it follows that $v \in R_{j}$ for every $j$. Thus if $j>J, \lambda\left(a, b_{j}\right)$ separates $\{p, q\}$ from $\{v\}$. As in the first case above, this implies $\lambda\left(a, b_{j}\right)$ contains at least $n+1$ points, contrary to the $C \lambda P(n)$.

Lemma 2.6. If $T$ is a triod with vertex $v$ and endpoints $a, b$, and $c$ such that $T$ has a continuous $\lambda$-set function for some $\lambda \in(0,1]$, then $\lambda(a, v)$ lies in the leg $[a, v)$ of $T$. Furthermore, if $a^{\prime} \in[a, v)$, then $\lambda\left(a^{\prime}, v\right) \subset\left[a^{\prime}, v\right]$.

Proof. Let $T=[a, b] \cup[v, c]$, and let $H=\{x \in[v, b] \mid \lambda(a, x) \cap(x, b]=\emptyset\}$. Notice that $b \in H$. We shall show that $H$ is both open and closed since this implies $H=[v, b]$. It will then follow that $\lambda(a, v) \cap[v, b]=\emptyset$, and a similar argument will show that $\lambda(a, v) \cap[v, c]=\emptyset$. The conclusion of the first part of Lemma 2.6 will then follow.

To see that $H$ is open consider a sequence $\left\{h_{i}\right\}$ of points converging to a point $h \in H$. Since $\left\{\lambda\left(a, h_{i}\right)\right\}$ converges to $\lambda(a, h)$ and $\lambda(a, h) \cap[h, b]=\emptyset$, it follows that $\lambda\left(a, h_{i}\right) \cap\left[h_{i}, b\right]=\emptyset$ for sufficiently large $i$. Thus some neighborhood of $h$ must lie entirely in $H$, and $H$ is open. If $\left\{h_{i}\right\}$ is a sequence of points of $H$ converging to a point $h$, then the continuity of $\lambda$ implies $\lambda(a, h) \cap$ $[h, b]=\emptyset$. Thus $h \in H$ and $H$ is closed.

We prove the last sentence of Lemma 2.6 by considering the set $H=$ $\{x \in[a, v) \mid \lambda(x, v) \subset[x, v]\}$. Let $C$ be the component of $H$ containing $a$, and let $h$ be the least upper bound of $C$ in $[a, v)$. Suppose $h \neq v$, and let $\left\{h_{i}\right\}$ con-
verge to $h$ where $h_{i} \in C$ for each $i$. Then $\lambda\left(h_{i}, v\right) \subset\left[h_{i}, v\right]$ for all $i$, and by the continuity of $\lambda$ we must have $\lambda(h, v) \subset[h, v]$. Thus $h \in C$. Since $h \neq v$, there is a sequence $\left\{p_{i}\right\}$ of points of $(h, v)$ converging to $h$ such that no $p_{i}$ belongs to $H$ and each $p_{i}$ separates $h$ from $\lambda(h, v)$. Now it is impossible for $\left\{\lambda\left(p_{i}, v\right)\right\}$ to converge to $\lambda(h, v)$ as required by the continuity of $\lambda$. Thus $h=v$, and the proof is complete.
3. Arcs, simple closed curves, and triods. In this section the previous lemmas are used to obtain the main results of the paper.

Theorem 3.1. If $X$ is a continum with the $U \lambda P$, then $X$ is an arc.
Proof. If $X$ has the $U \lambda P$, then $X$ is arcwise connected by Lemma 2.2. By Lemma 2.1, $X$ is separated by a singleton set, so $X$ is not a simple closed curve. From Lemma 2.3, $X$ either contains a triod or $X$ is an arc. It is easy to see that a continuum with the $U \lambda P$ has a continuous $\lambda$-set function, so Lemma 2.5 applies to rule out there being a triod in $X$.

Theorem 3.2. Let $X$ be a continuum with a continuous $\lambda$-set function. Then $X$ is an arc if and only if $X$ has the $U \lambda P$.

Proof. By Theorem 3.1, $X$ is an arc if it has the $U \lambda P$. Suppose $X$ is an arc and that points $a$ and $b$ of $X$ exist such that $\lambda(a, b)$ contains two points. Let $A$ denote the subarc $[a, b]$ of $X$. By the continuity of the metric we see that that $\lambda(a, b)$ is closed. Let $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ be the first and last points, respectively, of $\lambda(a, b)$. From Lemma 2.4 we have $\{a\}<\left\{p_{1}\right\}<\lambda\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)<\left\{p_{2}\right\}<\{b\}$, and from Lemma 2.1 we obtain open sets $L$ and $R$ whose union is $X-\lambda\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)$ where $p_{1} \in L$ and $p_{2} \in R$. Since the connected set $\left[a, p_{1}\right]$ lies in $X-\lambda\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)$ and intersects $L$, it must lie in $L$; and similarly $\left[p_{2}, b\right] \subset R$. It follows that $d\left(p_{1}, a\right)<\lambda d\left(a, p_{2}\right)$ and $d\left(p_{1}, b\right)>\lambda d\left(p_{2}, b\right)$. Substituting $d\left(a, p_{1}\right)=\lambda d\left(b, p_{1}\right)$ and $d\left(a, p_{2}\right)=\lambda d\left(b, p_{2}\right)$ in these inequalities, we obtain $d\left(a, p_{2}\right)<d\left(p_{1}, b\right)$ and $\lambda d\left(b, p_{1}\right)<\lambda d\left(a, p_{2}\right)$. Consequently we have the contradiction that $d\left(a, p_{2}\right)<d\left(a, p_{2}\right)$.

Corollary 3.3. A continuum with a continuous midset function is an arc if it has the unique midset property.

Theorem 3.4. If a continuum $X$ has the $C \lambda P(n)$ for $n>1$, then $X$ is a simple closed curve.

Proof. Theorem 3.4 follows directly from Lemmas 2.2, 2.3, 2.5, and Theorem 3.2.

Corollary 3.5. If a continuum $X$ has the continuous double $\lambda$-set property $(C D \lambda P)$, then $X$ is a simple closed curve.

Theorem 3.6. If $A$ is an arc with a continuous $\lambda$-set function, then $\lambda=1$ and $A$ has the UMP.

Proof. From Theorem 3.2, $A$ has the $U \lambda P$. Let $A=[a, b]$, let $z \in A-$ $\{a, b\}$, and let $\alpha=d(z, b)$. If $\lambda \neq 1$, then a point $x$ exists between $z$ and $b$ on $A$ such that $d(z, x)=\lambda \alpha$. Consequently $z \in \lambda(x, b)$. However $\lambda(x, b)$ separates $x$ from $b$ (Lemma 2.1), so $\lambda(x, b)$ also contains a point of $A$ between $x$ and $b$. Since this contradicts the $U \lambda P$, it follows that $\lambda=1$ and $A$ has the $U M P$.

Theorem 3.7. No triod has a continuous $\lambda$-set function.
Proof. Suppose $T$ is a triod with a continuous $\lambda$-set function $(\lambda \in(0,1])$, and let $A, B$, and $C$ be the legs of $T$. Let $v$ be the vertex of $T$ and choose a positive number $\alpha$ small enough that each leg of $T$ intersects the boundary $S$ of the open $\alpha$-ball $N$ centered at the vertex $v$ of $T$. Order the leg $B$ from $v$ to its other endpoint $b^{\prime}$, and let $b$ be the first point of $B$ in $S$. Then $(v, b) \subset N$ and $d(v, b)=\alpha$. Now let $N_{\lambda}=\{x \in T \mid d(x, v)<\lambda \alpha\}$, and let $S_{\lambda}=B d N_{\lambda}$. In a similar manner we obtain a point $a \in A \cap S_{\lambda}$ such that $(v, a) \subset N_{\lambda}$ and $d(v, a)=\lambda \alpha$, where $(v, a] \subset A=\left(v, a^{\prime}\right]$. Now choose a point $c \in C \cap S$ and let $T^{\prime}$ be the subtriod of $T$ such that

$$
T^{\prime}=\{v\} \cup(v, a] \cup(v, b] \cup(v, c] .
$$

By Lemma 2.6 we see that $\lambda\left(a^{\prime}, v\right) \subset A$ and furthermore that $\lambda(a, v) \subset$ $[a, v]$. Let $H=\{x \in[v, b] \mid \lambda(a, x) \cap C=\emptyset\}$, let $G$ be the component of $H$ containing $v$, and let $h$ be the least upper bound for $G$ in $[a, b]$. Let $\left\{h_{i}\right\}$ be a sequence of points of $G$ converging to $h$. Since $\left\{\lambda\left(a, h_{i}\right)\right\}$ converges to $\lambda(a, h)$ and no $\lambda\left(a, h_{i}\right)$ intersects $C$, it is clear that $\lambda(a, h) \cap C=\emptyset$. Thus $h \in H$. We intend to show that $h=b$; if this is not the case then there is a sequence $\left\{p_{i}\right\}$ of points $[v, b)-H$ converging to $h$. The construction of the leg $(v, b]$ of $T^{\prime}$ insures that $\lambda(a, h)$ does not contain $v(d(a, v)=\lambda \alpha=\lambda d(b, v)>\lambda d(h, v)$ for all $h \in(v, b])$. Now since $\lambda\left(a, p_{i}\right) \cap C \neq \emptyset$ for each $i$, and since $\left\{\lambda\left(a, p_{i}\right)\right\}$ converges to $\lambda(a, h)$, we have the contradiction that $v$ belongs to $\lambda(a, h)$. Thus $h=b$.

The preceding paragraph shows that, for every $b^{*} \in[v, b], \lambda\left(a, b^{*}\right) \cap C=$ $\emptyset$. In much the same way we prove that $\lambda\left(b, a^{*}\right) \cap C=\emptyset$ for every $a^{*} \in$ $[a, v)$. Now we obtain a contradiction by showing that there is no place for the leg $C$.

Let $T-\lambda(a, b)=L \cup R$ where $a \in L$ and $b \in R$ as in Lemma 2.1. Since $C \cap \lambda(a, b)=\emptyset$ and $C$ is connected, we first assume $C \subset L$. Let $q$ be a point of $C$, and note that $d(a, q)<\lambda d(b, q)$. Let $\left\{b_{i}\right\}$ be a sequence of points of $(v, b)$ converging to $b$, and for each $i$ let $T-\lambda\left(a, b_{i}\right)=L_{i} \cup R_{i}$ where $a \in L_{i}$ and $b_{i} \in R_{i}$ (see Lemma 2.1). By the previous two paragraphs we know that $\lambda\left(a, b_{i}\right) \cap C=\emptyset$ for each $i$. The continuity of the metric $d$ insures that $q \in L_{i}$ for all but finitely many $i$, since $q \in L$. Since $d(a, v)=\lambda \alpha>\lambda d\left(b_{i}, v\right)$ for each $i$, we have $v \in R_{i}$. Now the contradiction is apparent since, for sufficiently large $i, \lambda\left(a, b_{i}\right)$ separates $q$ from $v$ and fails to intersect the connected set $(v, q]$. If $C \subset R$ we choose a sequence $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ from ( $a, v$ ) converging to $a$ and the contradiction follows similarly.

The proof of Theorem 3.7 is easily modified to show that no $n$-frame $(n>2)$ has a continuous $\lambda$-set function. The interested reader should observe that Lemma 2.6 is also true for $n$-frames ( $n>2$ ).

At first glance one might expect to generalize the proof of Theorem 3.7 to show that no continuum with a continuous midset function can contain a triod. However a round disk with its inherited plane metric is a counterexample. The continuum in Example 3.8 contains a triod, has only finite midsets, and has a continuous midset function. Thus even the CFMP fails to eliminatetriodic subsets. This same example also shows that one cannot expect the CFMP to select arcs and simple closed curves from the class of continua; hence there are limits to generalizing Theorem 3.4.

Example 3.8. A continuum $X$ with the $C F M P$ that contains a triod.
The continuum $X$ lies in $E^{2}$ and is the union of a circle $C$ and a line segment $S$ joining two points of $C$ such that $S$ does not contain the center of the circle $C$. The space $X$ inherits its metric from the Euclidean plane $E^{2}$. Since no line intersects $X$ in more than three points (unless it contains $S$ ), it is easy to see that no midset in $X$ contains more than three points. The midset function $M$ is continuous, so $X$ has the CFMP.

The hypothesis that $X$ be connected cannot be removed in Theorems 3.1, 3.2 , and 3.4. An easy example showing this is a space consisting of $n+2$ distinct points where the pairwise distances between distinct points are always equal. Such a space is compact and has the $\operatorname{CMP}(n)$. Also Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 become false when "compact" is removed from their hypotheses; the real line illustrates this. We do not know if "compact" is implied by the other hypotheses in Theorem 3.4; this is related to questions asked in $[\mathbf{2}]$ and $[\mathbf{6}]$.

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