

ON THE SEQUENCE SPACES $l_{(p_n)}$ AND
 $\lambda_{(p_n)}$, $0 < p_n \leq 1$

BY

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ABSTRACT. Let (p_n) and (q_n) be sequences in the interval $(0, 1]$, let $l_{(p_n)}$ be the set of all real sequences (x_n) such that $\sum |x_n|^{p_n} < \infty$, and let $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ be the set of all real sequences (y_n) such that $\sup_{\pi} \sum |y_{\pi(n)}|^{q_{\pi(n)}} < \infty$ where the sup is taken over all permutations π of the positive integers. The purpose of this paper is to investigate some of the properties of these spaces. Our results are primarily concerned with (1) conditions which are necessary and/or sufficient for $l_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(p_n)}$) to equal $l_{(q_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(q_n)}$), and (2) isomorphic and topological properties of the subspaces of these spaces.

In connection with (1), we show that the following four conditions are equivalent for any sequence (ε_n) which decreases to zero and has $\varepsilon_1 < 1$. (a) There exists a number $K > 1$ such that the series $\sum 1/K^{1/\varepsilon_n}$ converges; (b) the elements ε_n of the sequence satisfy the condition $\varepsilon_n = O(1/\ln n)$; (c) the sequence $((\ln n)((1/n) \sum_1^n \varepsilon_j))$ is bounded; and (d) $l_{(1-\varepsilon_n)}$ equals l_1 . In connection with (2), we show that the following are true when (p_n) increases to one. (a) $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ contains an infinite-dimensional closed subspace where the $l_{(p_n)}$ -topology and the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology agree; (b) $l_{(p_n)}$ and $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ contain closed subspaces isomorphic to l_1 ; and (c) $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ contains no infinite-dimensional subspace where the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology agrees with the l_1 -topology if and only if

$$\lim((1/n)^{p_1} + (1/n)^{p_2} + \cdots + (1/n)^{p_n}) = \infty.$$

1. Introduction and summary. If (p_n) is a sequence of numbers in the interval $(0, 1]$, the space $l_{(p_n)}$ is the set of all real sequences $x = (x_n)$ such that $\|x\|_{(p_n)} = \sum |x_n|^{p_n}$ is finite, and the space $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is the set of all real sequences $y = (y_n)$ such that $|y|_{(p_n)} = \sup_{\pi} \sum |y_{\pi(n)}|^{p_n}$ is finite where the supremum is taken over the set of all permutations π of the natural numbers. The $l_{(p_n)}$ -spaces have been used or studied in many places, e.g., in [2], [7], [8], [10] and [11]; and the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -spaces, which are nonlocally convex analogues of the symmetric sequence spaces studied in [1], [5], and [6], have been used in [8] and [9].

The purpose of this paper is to investigate a few of the properties of $l_{(p_n)}$ and $\lambda_{(p_n)}$, and we summarize now some of our results. Assume for the

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remainder of this section that $0 < p_n < q_n \leq 1$. We first generalize some of the results obtained in [10]. In particular, we show that $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(q_n)}$ if and only if there exists a positive number K such that the series $\sum 1/K^{p_n/(q_n-p_n)} < \infty$. We then use this result to help us show that $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(q_n)}$ when the sequence $(n(1/n)^{p_n/q_n})$ is bounded, and $l_{(p_n)}$ does not equal $l_{(q_n)}$ when $\lim n(1/n)^{p_n/q_n} = \infty$. If (p_n) increases to p , and $j(n) < k(n) < j(n+1)$, then $l_{(p_{j(n)})}$ equals $l_{(p_{k(n)})}$ (while it is not necessarily true that $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(p_{2n})}$), and $l_{(p_n)}$ equals l_p if and only if the sequence $(n(1/n)^{a_n/p})$ is bounded where a_n is the arithmetic mean given by $a_n = (1/n)(p_1 + \dots + p_n)$.

When (p_n) increases to p , we write $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_p$ if and only if

$$\lim((1/n)^{p_1/p} + (1/n)^{p_2/p} + \dots + (1/n)^{p_n/p}) = \infty.$$

Using this definition, we show that when $p = 1$, $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$ if and only if there does not exist any infinite-dimensional subspace of $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ on which the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology and the l_1 -topology agree. We show that every closed infinite-dimensional subspace of $l_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(p_n)}$) contains an isomorphic copy of l_p when (p_n) increases to p , and $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ always contains an infinite-dimensional subspace where the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ and the $l_{(p_n)}$ topologies agree when (p_n) increases to p . We also show that when $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to \emptyset or to l_1 , then $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is not locally convex, and $l_{(p_n)}$ contains no locally bounded infinite-dimensional subspaces if and only if $\lim p_n = 0$. Finally, we show that any time $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is isomorphic to $\lambda_{(q_n)}$, where (p_n) and (q_n) increase to one, and $l_{(q_n)} \neq^s l_1$, then $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ must equal $\lambda_{(q_n)}$.

2. Notation. In addition to the terminology used in §1, we find it convenient to use the following notation and conventions. The set R_p , $0 < p \leq 1$, is the collection of all sequences (x_n) of real numbers in $(0, p)$ which increase to p . The letter R denotes R_1 . Unless otherwise stated, the letters p and q will always represent numbers in the interval $(0, 1]$. The symbol \emptyset will represent the space of all finitely nonzero sequences of real numbers equipped with the strongest vector topology. The vector e_n is the vector $(0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$ where the nonzero entry is in the n th position. A block basic sequence $\{z_n\}$ is a sequence of nonzero vectors of the form $z_n = \sum_{i=k_{n-1}}^{k_n} a_i e_i$ where (k_n) is a strictly increasing sequence of nonnegative integers. The notation $[x_n]_\tau$ denotes the τ -closed linear span of the sequence $\{x_n\}$. The letter E represents the set of all real numbers, and the space $E \oplus l_{(p_n)}$ is the space of all sequences (x_0, x_1, \dots) such that $x_0 \in E$ and $(x_1, x_2, \dots) \in l_{(p_n)}$. The equality $(x_n) = O(y_n)$ means that $|x_n| \leq M|y_n|$ for some M . For $0 < p \leq 1$, l_p has the usual meaning and $\|x\|_p$ is $\sum_1^\infty |x_n|^p$ when $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$. Finally, $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ is the usual l_∞ -norm of a bounded sequence.

3. Main results. Before proving our first theorem, we make some observations. For a fixed p , $0 < p \leq 1$, there is an uncountable number of distinct

spaces $l_{(p_n)}$ such that (p_n) is in R_p . Hence the $l_{(p_n)}$ spaces occur in great abundance. If $\inf p_n > 0$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ is locally bounded and a set is bounded in $l_{(p_n)}$ if and only if it is metrically bounded (cf. [10]). Also if (p_n) is an enumeration of the rational numbers in $(0, 1)$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ contains a complemented isomorphic copy of each $l_{(q_n)}$. Hence $l_{(p_n)}$ is universal, in the terminology of [3], for the class $\{l_{(q_n)}: 0 < q_n \leq 1\}$. Our first theorem is a standard type result which is useful in the following.

PROPOSITION 1. *Let X be an infinite-dimensional closed subspace of $l_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(p_n)}$) where $0 < p_n \leq 1$ and $\inf p_n > 0$. Then X contains an infinite-dimensional subspace Y which is $l_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(p_n)}$) isomorphic to a subspace Z of $l_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(p_n)}$) where the subspace Z is the closed linear span of a block basic sequence.*

PROOF. Let $\{x_j\}$ be a sequence of linearly independent elements of X such that $\|x_j\|_{l_{(p_n)}} = 1$. By taking linear combinations and normalizing if necessary, we can assume that $x_n = (0, \dots, 0, x_{k_{n-1}+1}^n, x_{k_{n-1}+2}^n, \dots)$ where (k_n) is a strictly increasing sequence of nonnegative integers such that

$$\|(0, \dots, 0, x_{k_n+1}^n, x_{k_n+2}^n, \dots)\|_{l_{(p_n)}} < \epsilon_n.$$

Since $l_{(p_n)}$ is locally bounded when $\inf p_n > 0$, we can apply Theorem 1' of [4]. This theorem implies that $[x_n]_{l_{(p_n)}}$ is isomorphic to $[y_n]_{l_{(p_n)}}$ if (ϵ_n) is chosen sufficiently small and $y_n = (0, \dots, 0, x_{k_{n-1}}^n, \dots, x_{k_n}^n, 0, \dots)$; and the isomorphism is the natural mapping taking x_n to y_n for each n .

Since $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is also locally bounded when $\inf p_n > 0$, the proof just given for $l_{(p_n)}$ also applies to $\lambda_{(p_n)}$. \square

The following theorem is a generalization of a result in [10]. Since the proof is similar, it will be omitted.

THEOREM 2. *Suppose that $0 < p_n < q_n \leq 1$. Then $l_{(p_n)}$ is equal to $l_{(q_n)}$ if and only if there exists a number $K > 1$ such that $\sum (1/K^{p_n/(q_n-p_n)}) < \infty$ (equivalently $\sum (1/K^{q_n/(q_n-p_n)}) < \infty$).*

COROLLARY 3. *Suppose that $0 < p_n < q_n \leq 1$ and $\inf p_n > 0$. Then $l_{(p_n)}$ is equal to $l_{(q_n)}$ if and only if there exists a number $K > 1$ such that $\sum (1/K^{1/(q_n-p_n)}) < \infty$.*

COROLLARY 4. *Suppose (p_n) is in R_p , and suppose $(j(n))$ and $(k(n))$ are increasing sequences of positive integers such that $j(n) < k(n) \leq j(n+1)$. Then $l_{(p_{j(n)})} = l_{(p_{k(n)})}$ (and hence $\lambda_{(p_{j(n)})} = \lambda_{(p_{k(n)})}$).*

PROOF. Let b_n be defined by $p_{k(n)} = p_{j(n)} + 1/b_n$. Since $(p_n) \in R_p$, it follows that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/b_n) < \infty$. This implies that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{1/(p_{k(n)}-p_{j(n)})}} = \sum \frac{1}{2^{b_n}} < \infty.$$

Hence Corollary 3 implies that $l_{(p_j(n))} = l_{(p_k(n))}$.

It is easy to see that $\lambda_{(r_n)}$ equals $\lambda_{(s_n)}$ when $l_{(r_n)}$ equals $l_{(s_n)}$ because $|x|_{(r_n)} = \infty$ implies $\sum |x_{\pi(n)}|^n = \infty$ for some π . \square

If (p_n) is not required to be in R_p , the conclusion of Corollary 4 does not necessarily follow. For example, consider the following: Let $p_n = 1/2^n, j(n) = n$, and $k(n) = n + 1$. Then $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_{(p_{n+1})}$ follows from Theorem 2. Note also that for this choice of the sequence (p_n) , $l_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to $E \oplus l_{(p_n)}$. (However, $l_{(p_n)}$ must be equal to $E \oplus l_{(p_n)}$ when $(p_n) \in R_p$, and $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ must be equal to $E \oplus \lambda_{(p_n)}$ always.)

We will show next that there are $l_{(p_n)}$ spaces where (p_n) is in R_p such that $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_{(p_{2n})}$. This is perhaps somewhat surprising in view of Corollary 4.

THEOREM 5. *There exists a sequence (p_n) in R such that $l_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to $l_{(p_{2n})}$.*

PROOF. Choose a sequence (b_n) of positive numbers such that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1/b_n) = B < 1$ and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2^n/K^{b_n})$ diverges for $K = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Let $p_1 = 1 - B$, let $p_{2^{k+1}} = p_{2^k} + 1/b_k$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, and let $p_n = p_{2^k}$ for $2^k \leq n < 2^{k+1}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Then for $K > 1$, the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/K^{1/(p_{2n}-p_n)})$ equals the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2^n/K^{b_n})$, and hence diverges. Corollary 3 implies that $l_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to $l_{(p_{2n})}$. \square

THEOREM 6. *Suppose $0 < p_n < q_n \leq 1$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. If $(n(1/n)^{p_n/q_n})$ is a bounded sequence, then $l_{(p_n)}$ is equal to $l_{(q_n)}$. If $\lim n(1/n)^{p_n/q_n} = \infty$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to $l_{(q_n)}$.*

PROOF. Let $M_n = n(1/n)^{p_n/q_n}$. Then $p_n/q_n = 1 - (\ln M_n)/(\ln n)$. Hence

$$q_n/(q_n - p_n) = (\ln n)/(\ln M_n).$$

Thus $\sum 1/(K^{q_n/(q_n - p_n)}) = \sum 1/K^{(\ln n)/(\ln M_n)}$. If r is chosen such that $K = e^r$, this last series becomes $\sum 1/(n^{r/\ln M_n})$. The result now follows from Theorem 2. \square

It is easy to see and will prove useful to note now that one can actually construct a sequence (p_n) in R_p such that $\lim n(1/n)^{p_n/p} = \infty$.

COROLLARY 7. *If $(p_n) \in R_p, 0 < p \leq 1$, and if the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is $l_{(p_n)}$ -bounded where*

$$x_n = \underbrace{((1/n)^{1/p}, \dots, (1/n)^{1/p}, 0, \dots)}_{n \text{ terms}}$$

then $l_{(p_n)}$ is equal to l_p .

PROOF. The conditions imply that $\sup n(1/n)^{p_n/p} < \infty$, and hence the corollary follows from Theorem 6. \square

The following example shows that the boundedness condition of Theorem 6 is not necessary.

EXAMPLE. There are sequences (p_n) and (q_n) such that $0 < p_n < q_n \leq 1$ for which the sequence $(n(1/n)^{p_n/q_n})$ is not bounded but $l_{(p_n)}$ is equal to $l_{(q_n)}$.

PROOF. One can select the sequences (p_n) and (q_n) and a strictly increasing sequence (n_k) of positive integers such that, in the notation of the proof of Theorem 6, $M_{n_k} \geq k$ while $\sum (1/n^{r/\ln M_n})$ converges for some $r > 0$. \square

It is not possible to construct an example like the one above when $q_n = q$ for all n and (p_n) is in R_q . This is true because the inequality $n(1/n)^{p_n/q} \leq (1/n)^{p_1/q} + (1/n)^{p_2/q} + \dots + (1/n)^{p_n/q}$ implies that the sequence $\{(1/n)^{1/q}, (1/n)^{1/q}, \dots, (1/n)^{1/q}, 0, \dots\}$ with n nonzero terms would not be $l_{(p_n)}$ -bounded while the members of this sequence are l_q -normalized.

The preceding discussion suggests the following question: Suppose (p_n) and (q_n) are in R_p and $p_n \leq q_n$ for all n . If there exists a number M such that $\|x\|_{(q_n)} = 1$ implies $\|x\|_{(p_n)} \leq M$ for all x of the form $x = (r, r, \dots, r, 0, \dots)$, must $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ equal $\lambda_{(q_n)}$?

THEOREM 8. Suppose that $0 < p_n < q_n \leq 1$. Then $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(q_n)}$ if and only if there exists a permutation π of the positive integers such that $(q_{\pi(n)} - p_{\pi(n)})/p_{\pi(n)} = O(1/\ln n)$.

PROOF. Suppose there exists a permutation π having the above property. We can assume that π is the identity. Then there exists an M such that $(q_n - p_n)/p_n \leq M/\ln n$. Thus

$$p_n/(q_n - p_n) \geq (\ln n)/M$$

and

$$\sum 1/(K^{p_n/(q_n - p_n)}) \leq \sum 1/(K^{(\ln n)/M}) \leq \sum 1/(n^{(\ln n)/M}).$$

Hence the series $\sum 1/(K^{p_n/(q_n - p_n)})$ converges for all large K . This implies, by Theorem 2, that $l_{(p_n)} = l_{(q_n)}$.

Conversely, if $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(q_n)}$, there exists a $K > 1$ such that the series $\sum 1/(K^{p_n/(q_n - p_n)})$ converges by Theorem 2. Choose a permutation π such that the terms of the series $\sum 1/(K^{p_{\pi(n)}/(q_{\pi(n)} - p_{\pi(n)})})$ are in decreasing order. Then

$$\lim n(1/(K^{p_{\pi(n)}/(q_{\pi(n)} - p_{\pi(n)})})) = 0.$$

Thus $\ln n - (p_{\pi(n)}/(q_{\pi(n)} - p_{\pi(n)}))(\ln K) < 0$ for all large values of n . This implies that $(q_{\pi(n)} - p_{\pi(n)})/p_{\pi(n)} \leq (\ln K)/(\ln n)$ for all large values of n . \square

We omit the proof by Corollary 9 and Corollary 10 because these proofs are implicitly contained in [10].

COROLLARY 9. If $(p_n) \in R_p$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ equals l_p if and only if $(p - p_n) = O(1/\ln n)$.

COROLLARY 10. If $0 < p_n \leq q_n \leq 1$ and if $\sum (q_n/p_n - 1) < \infty$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(q_n)}$.

PROPOSITION 11. Suppose $(p_n) \in R_p$ and $a_n = (1/n)(p_1 + p_2 + \dots + p_n)$; then $l_{(p_n)} = l_p$ if and only if the sequence $(n(1/n)^{a_n/p})_{n=1}^\infty$ is bounded.

PROOF. It is a well-known fact that the geometric mean is less than or equal to the arithmetic mean, i.e., $(c_1 c_2 \dots c_n)^{1/n} \leq (1/n)(c_1 + c_2 + \dots + c_n)$. If we let $c_k = (1/n)^{p_k/p}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, in this last expression, we obtain the inequality

$$\begin{aligned} & [(1/n)^{p_1/p} (1/n)^{p_2/p} \dots (1/n)^{p_n/p}]^{1/n} \\ & \leq (1/n)[(1/n)^{p_1/p} + (1/n)^{p_2/p} + \dots + (1/n)^{p_n/p}]. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $n(1/n)^{a_n/p} \leq (1/n)^{p_1/p} + \dots + (1/n)^{p_n/p}$. The sequence $\{x_n\}$ where $x_n = ((1/n)^{1/p}, (1/n)^{1/p}, \dots, (1/n)^{1/p}, 0, \dots)$ is (topologically) bounded in l_p . Thus if $l_{(p_n)} = l_p$, $\{x_n\}$ is bounded in $l_{(p_n)}$, and this implies that $(n(1/n)^{a_n/p})$ is bounded by the last inequality. Conversely, suppose $(n(1/n)^{a_n/p})$ is bounded. Since $a_n \leq p_n$, $n(1/n)^{a_n/p} \geq n(1/n)^{p_n/p}$. Hence Theorem 6 implies that $l_{(p_n)} = l_p$. \square

Combining Corollary 3, Corollary 9, and Proposition 11, we see the following four conditions are equivalent for any sequence (ϵ_n) converging monotonically to zero such that $\epsilon_1 < 1$: (1) There exists a number $K > 1$ such that $\sum 1/K^{1/\epsilon_n} < \infty$; (2) $\epsilon_n = O(1/\ln n)$; (3) $((\ln n)((1/n)(\sum_{j=1}^n \epsilon_j)))$ is a bounded sequence; and (4) $l_{(1-\epsilon_n)} = l_1$.

COROLLARY 12. Suppose $(p_n) \in R_p$ and $l_{(p_n)} = l_p$; then $l_{(a_n)} = l_p$ where $a_n = (1/n)(p_1 + p_2 + \dots + p_n)$.

PROOF. If $l_{(p_n)}$ equals l_p , then Proposition 11 implies that $n(1/n)^{a_n/p} \leq M$, for some M . Hence, the proof of Theorem 6 implies that $l_{(a_n)}$ equals l_p . \square

Unfortunately we do not know the answer to the following question: If (p_n) is in R_p and if $a_n = (1/n)(p_1 + \dots + p_n)$, is $l_{(a_n)}$ equal to $l_{(p_n)}$?

THEOREM 13. If $(p_n) \in R_p$, then $\lambda_{(p_n)} = l_{(p_n)}$ if and only if $l_{(p_n)} = l_p$.

PROOF. Clearly $\lambda_{(p_n)} \subset l_{(p_n)} \subset l_p$. Suppose $l_{(p_n)} = l_p$ and $(x_n) \in l_{(p_n)}$. Then $(x_{\pi(n)}) \in l_{(p_n)}$ for any permutation π . If $\{y_n\} \in l_{(p_n)} \setminus \lambda_{(p_n)}$, then one can find a permutation π such that $\{y_{\pi(n)}\} \notin l_{(p_n)}$. Hence $\lambda_{(p_n)} = l_p$. Conversely, suppose that $\lambda_{(p_n)} = l_{(p_n)}$ and $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_p$. Choose an element $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ in $l_p \setminus l_{(p_n)}$. Clearly one can find an element of the form $\bar{x} = (x_1, 0, \dots, 0, x_2, 0, \dots, 0, x_3, \dots)$ which is in $l_{(p_n)}$. Since $l_{(p_n)} = \lambda_{(p_n)}$, \bar{x} is in $\lambda_{(p_n)}$. However,

this implies that x is in $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ which is clearly impossible. \square

We remarked after the proof of Theorem 6 that there are sequences (p_n) in R_p such that $\lim n(1/n)^{p_n/p} = \infty$. One can also construct a sequence (p_n) in R such that $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_1$ while $l_{(p_n)}$ has the following property: There exists a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ (where $x_n = (1/n, \dots, 1/n, 0, \dots)$ has n nonzero terms) such that $(\|x_{n_k}\|_{(p_n)})$ is bounded. These facts lead us to make the following definition.

DEFINITION. *If (p_n) is in R_p , then $l_{(p_n)}$ is strongly not equal to l_p (written $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_p$) if and only if $\lim \|x_m\|_{(p_n)} = \infty$ where $x_m = ((1/m)^{1/p}, (1/m)^{1/p}, \dots, (1/m)^{1/p}, 0, \dots)$ has m nonzero entries.*

In order to utilize this definition, we need the following lemmas.

LEMMA 14. *Suppose $0 < b < 1, (p_n) \in R, rb \geq 1$, and $p_n < 1$; then the minimum, $\min\{\|x\|_{(p_n)} : x = (x_1, \dots, x_r, 0, \dots), \|x\|_\infty = b, \|x\|_1 = 1, \text{ and } x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \dots \geq 0\}$ is attained at a point of the form $x = (b, b, \dots, b, c, c, \dots, c, 0, \dots)$ where $c \geq 0$.*

PROOF. Assume that the minimum does not occur at a point of the form given above. Then the minimum must occur at a point x having at least three distinct entries. We will show that x cannot be of the form

$$x = (b, \dots, b, \underset{\xrightarrow{n_1}}{y}, \dots, \underset{\xrightarrow{n_2}}{y}, z, \dots, z, 0, \dots)$$

where $b > y > z > 0$. It will be clear from the proof of this claim that x cannot have more than two distinct entries. We note if $0 < d < 1$, the function g_d given by $g_d(t) = t^p + (d - t)^q, 0 \leq t \leq d, 0 < p \leq q < 1$, is strictly increasing in $[0, t_0]$ and strictly decreasing in $[t_0, d]$ where t_0 is the solution to the equation $p/t^{1-p} = q/(d - t)^{1-q}$. We note further that if $0 < r \leq p$ and $q \leq s < 1$, then the solution to $r/t^{1-r} = s/(d - t)^{1-s}$ is not greater than t_0 . Thus if one cannot lower the value of y in the n_2 entry and raise the value of z in the $n_2 + 1$ entry the same amount to decrease the value of $\|x\|_{(p_n)}$, then it must be true that y is greater than t_0 . But if y is greater than t_0 , then y is greater than the solution to the equation $p_{n_1}/t^{1-p_{n_1}} = p_{n_3}/t^{1-p_{n_3}}$. Hence we can increase y in the n_1 entry and decrease z in the n_3 entry a comparable amount to decrease the value of $\|x\|_{(p_n)}$. This contradicts the fact that x was chosen so that $\|x\|_{(p_n)}$ was a minimum. \square

The following lemma generalizes a result contained in [8].

LEMMA 15. *Given any positive number ϵ , there exists a positive number δ such that $0 < a < b < \delta$ implies that $a^p + b^q < a^q + b^p$ whenever $\epsilon \leq p < q \leq 1$.*

PROOF. Suppose that the lemma is not true. Then there exist convergent sequences $(a_n), (b_n), (p_n)$, and (q_n) such that $\epsilon \leq p_n < q_n \leq 1, 0 < a_n < b_n$

$< 1/n$, and $a_n^{p_n} + b_n^{q_n} \geq a_n^{q_n} + b_n^{p_n}$. By the intermediate value theorem, there exists a number c_n in $(0, a_n)$ such that $c_n^{p_n} + b_n^{q_n} = c_n^{q_n} + b_n^{p_n}$. Let $f_n(x) = x^{p_n}$, and let $g_n(x) = x^{q_n}$. Applying the generalized mean value theorem to f_n and g_n on $[c_n, b_n]$, we obtain ξ_n in (c_n, b_n) such that

$$1 = \frac{b_n^{p_n} - c_n^{p_n}}{b_n^{q_n} - c_n^{q_n}} = \frac{p_n \xi_n^{(p_n-1)}}{q_n \xi_n^{(q_n-1)}}.$$

Thus $\xi_n = (q_n/p_n)^{1/(p_n-q_n)}$. Let $p = \lim p_n$ and $q = \lim q_n$. If $p \neq q$, then $\lim \xi_n = (q/p)^{1/(p-q)}$, and $\lim \xi_n \neq 0$. This contradicts the fact that $0 < \xi_n < 1/n$. If $p = q$, let $s_n = (q_n - p_n)/p_n$. Then $\xi_n = [(1 + s_n)^{1/s_n}]^{-1/p_n}$. Hence $\lim \xi_n = e^{-1/p}$, $p \geq \varepsilon > 0$. Again this contradicts the fact that $0 < \xi_n < 1/n$. \square

DEFINITION. Let $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ be any sequence of real numbers such that $\lim x_n = 0$. Then $\hat{x} = (|x_{j_1}|, |x_{j_2}|, \dots)$ where $|x_{j_1}| = \max_j \{|x_j|\}$, and $|x_{j_n}| = \max_{j \neq j_1, \dots, j_{n-1}} \{|x_j|\}$, for $n = 2, 3, \dots$

THEOREM 16. If $(p_n) \in R_p$, there exists a positive number ε such that $|x|_{(p_n)} = \|\hat{x}\|_{(p_n)}$ whenever $\|x\|_\infty < \varepsilon$.

PROOF. This follows immediately from Lemma 15. \square

We have already observed in the proof of Corollary 4 that $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ equals $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ when $l_{(p_n)}$ equals $l_{(q_n)}$. The converse of this statement is trivially false when we allow $\lim p_n$ to be zero, for in this case $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ equals \emptyset , but $l_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to \emptyset . We are now in a position to show that the converse is false even when the sequence (p_n) is bounded away from zero. This fact is shown in Theorem 17.

THEOREM 17. There are sequences (p_n) and (q_n) in R such that $0 < p_n \leq q_n$ and $\lambda_{(p_n)} = \lambda_{(q_n)}$ while $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_{(q_n)}$.

PROOF. Choose (p_n) in R as in the proof of Theorem 5. Then $l_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to $l_{(p_{2n})}$; but $l_{(p_{2n})}$ is equal to $l_{(p_{2n-1})}$ by Corollary 4. Let $q_n = p_{2n-1}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Clearly $p_n \leq p_{2n-1} = q_n$, and this implies that $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ contains $\lambda_{(p_n)}$. Let $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ be an element of $\lambda_{(q_n)}$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq x_3 \geq \dots \geq 0$ and $x_1 < \varepsilon$ where $\varepsilon > 0$ is the number given in the statement of Theorem 16. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^{p_i}}{2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^{q_i}} &\leq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^{p_i}}{(x_1^{p_1} + x_2^{p_3} + \dots + x_n^{p_{2n-1}}) + (x_1^{p_2} + x_2^{p_4} + \dots + x_n^{p_{2n}})} \\ &\leq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^{p_i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{2n} x_i^{p_i}} \leq 1. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $|x|_{(p_n)} \leq 2|x|_{(q_n)}$, and this implies that $\lambda_{(p_n)} \supset \lambda_{(q_n)}$. \square

We now turn our attention to some theorems involving the notion $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_p$.

THEOREM 18. *Suppose $(p_n) \in R$, $x_k = (x_{k1}, x_{k2}, \dots)$, $x_{k1} \geq x_{k2} \geq \dots \geq 0$, $\|x_k\|_1 = 1$ and $\lim \|x_k\|_\infty = 0$; then $\lim \|x_k\|_{(p_n)} = \infty$ if $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$.*

PROOF. Suppose $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$ and x_k satisfies the above conditions. By using Lemma 14, we can construct a sequence $\{y_k\}$ such that $\frac{1}{2}\|y_k\|_\infty = \|x_k\|_\infty = b_k$, $\|y_k\|_1 = 1$, $\|y_k\|_{(p_n)} \leq 2\|x_k\|_{(p_n)}$, and $y_k = (2b_k, \dots, 2b_k, c_k, \dots, c_k, 0, \dots)$, $0 \leq c_k \leq 2b_k$. Since $\lim b_k = 0$ and $\|y_k\|_1 = 1$, the fact that $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$ implies that $\lim \|y_k\|_{(p_n)} = \infty$. This of course implies that $\lim \|x_k\|_{(p_n)} = \infty$. \square

We are unable to determine if Theorem 18 generalizes to l_p in the following way: Suppose (p_n) is in R_p , $\|x_k\|_p = 1$, and $\lim \|x_k\|_\infty = 0$ where x_k is as above. Is $\lim \|x_k\|_{(p_n)} = \infty$ if $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_p$?

COROLLARY 19. *Suppose $(p_n) \in R$, $x_k \in \lambda_{(p_n)}$, $\|x_k\|_1 = 1$, $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$, and $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k\|_\infty = 0$; then $\lim \|x_k\|_{(p_n)} = \infty$.*

PROOF. If $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$, then Theorem 18 implies the result because any rearrangement of a sequence in $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ has the same $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ norm. \square

THEOREM 20. *Suppose $(p_n) \in R$; then $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$ if and only if there is no infinite-dimensional subspace of $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ on which the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ - and the l_1 -topologies agree.*

PROOF. Suppose $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$ and the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology and the l_1 -topology agree on an infinite-dimensional subspace X . By checking the proof of Proposition 1, we observe that we may assume that X is closed and contains a block basic sequence $\{x_n\}$. By taking linear combinations of the x_n 's, we can obtain a sequence $\{y_n\}$ in X such that $\|y_n\|_1 = 1$ and $\|y_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$. By Corollary 19, $\|y_n\|_{(p_n)} \rightarrow \infty$. This is a contradiction.

Conversely, suppose that it is not true that $l_{(p_n)} \neq^s l_1$. Then there exists a strictly increasing sequence (m_k) of positive integers such that

$$x_k = (x^k, x^k, \dots, \underbrace{x^k}_{m_k}, 0, \dots)$$

has the property that $\|x_k\|_1 = 1$ and $\|x_k\|_{(p_n)} \leq M$ for some M and all k . Choose a strictly increasing subsequence (n_k) of the sequence (m_k) such that $l_{(p_{n_k})}$ is equivalent to l_1 . Then Theorem 13 implies that $\lambda_{(p_{n_k})}$ is equivalent to l_1 .

Let

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= (y^1, \dots, \underbrace{y^1}_{n_1}, 0, \dots), \\ y_2 &= (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{y^2}_{n_1}, \dots, \underbrace{y^2}_{n_1+n_2}, 0, \dots), \\ y_3 &= (0, \dots, \underbrace{y^3}_{n_1+n_2+1}, \dots, \underbrace{y^3}_{n_1+n_2+n_3}, 0, \dots), \end{aligned}$$

etc., where y^j is chosen such that $\|y^j\|_1 = 1$. The conditions imply that $|y_j|_{(p_n)} \leq M$. Hence if $\sum a_j y_j$ is any element in $[y_j]_{\lambda_{(p_n)}}$, Theorem 16 implies that there is a permutation π of the natural numbers such that

$$\begin{aligned} |\sum a_j y_j|_{(p_n)} &= (|a_{\pi(1)} y^{\pi(1)}|^{p_1} + |a_{\pi(1)} y^{\pi(1)}|^{p_2} + \dots + |a_{\pi(1)} y^{\pi(1)}|^{p_{n_{(1)}}}) \\ &\quad + (|a_{\pi(2)} y^{\pi(2)}|^{p_{n_{(1)}+1}} + |a_{\pi(2)} y^{\pi(2)}|^{p_{(n_{(1)}+2)}} + \dots + |a_{\pi(2)} y^{\pi(2)}|^{p_{(n_{(1)}+n_{(2)})}}) + \dots \\ &\leq M(|a_{\pi(1)}|^{p_1} + |a_{\pi(2)}|^{p_{n_{(1)}}} + |a_{\pi(3)}|^{p_{(n_{(1)}+n_{(2)})}} + \dots) \\ &\leq M(|a_{\pi(1)}|^{p_1} + |a_{\pi(2)}|^{p_{n_{(1)}}} + |a_{\pi(3)}|^{p_{n_{(2)}}} + \dots) \\ &\leq M|(a_1, a_2, \dots)|_{(p_n)} \end{aligned}$$

when the $|a_j|, j = 1, 2, \dots$, are sufficiently small. Since $|\cdot|_{(p_n)}$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_1$, the above implies that the l_1 -topology on $[y_j]_{\lambda_{(p_n)}}$ is stronger than the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology on $[y_j]_{\lambda_{(p_n)}}$. This implies that the two topologies agree on $[y_j]_{\lambda_{(p_n)}}$. \square

If (q_n) increases "rapidly" to $q = 1$, then the unit vector basis in $l_{(q_n)}$ is equivalent to the unit vector basis in l_1 , and the $l_{(q_n)}$ -topology agrees with the l_1 -topology on $l_{(q_n)}$. Hence we have the following.

COROLLARY 21. *Suppose $(p_n) \in R, l_{(p_n)} \neq l_1$, and (n_k) is an increasing sequence of positive integers chosen such that the $l_{(p_n)}$ -basic sequence $\{e_{n_k}\}$ is equivalent to the unit vector basis in l_1 . Then the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -closed linear span of $\{e_{n_k}\}$ contains no infinite-dimensional subspace where the $l_{(p_n)}$ -topology and the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology agree.*

If $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_1$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ is not locally convex. This is easy to show, and is shown in [10]. Proposition 22 shows that the analogous result holds in $\lambda_{(p_n)}$.

PROPOSITION 22. *If $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is not equal to \emptyset or to l_1 , then $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is not locally convex.*

PROOF. If $\lambda_{(p_n)} \neq \emptyset$ there exists $p, 0 < p \leq 1$, such that $p \leq p_n$ for all n . The set $\{x \in \lambda_{(p_n)} : |x|_{(p_n)} < \epsilon\}$ contains the set $\{x \in \lambda_{(p_n)} : \|x\|_p < \epsilon\}$. Since the convex hull of the last set contains an " l_1 ball", the convex hull of the first set contains an " l_1 ball". This implies that the strongest locally convex topology weaker than the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology is the l_1 -topology. Hence, if $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is locally convex it must be equal to l_1 . \square

PROPOSITION 23. *Suppose (p_n) is in R_p and $\{x_n\}$ is a block basic sequence such that $|x_n|_{(p_n)} = 1$ and $0 < b \leq \|x_n\|_\infty \leq B$. Then the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -closed linear span of $\{x_n\}$ is isomorphic to $\lambda_{(p_n)}$.*

PROOF. Let T be the linear mapping of $[x_n]$ into $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ defined by $Tx_n = e_n$. If $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k, 0, \dots)$ is any finitely nonzero sequence such that $|c_j| \leq 1$,

then there exists a permutation π of the natural numbers such that $|(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k, 0, \dots)|_{(p_n)} = |c_1|^{p_{\pi(1)}} + \dots + |c_k|^{p_{\pi(k)}}$. Let $\|x_i\|_\infty = a_i$. Then $\varepsilon \leq a_i \leq 1$ implies that $a_i^{p_{\pi(i)}/\varepsilon} \geq 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} |(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k, 0, \dots)|_{(p_n)} &= c_1^{p_{\pi(1)}} + \dots + c_k^{p_{\pi(k)}} \\ &\leq (1/\varepsilon)[(c_1 a_1)^{p_{\pi(1)}} + \dots + (c_k a_k)^{p_{\pi(k)}}] \\ &\leq (1/\varepsilon)[c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_k x_k]_{(p_n)}. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that T is continuous. Also

$$|c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_k x_k|_{(p_n)} \leq |(c_1, \dots, c_k, 0, \dots)|_{(p_n)}$$

implies that T^{-1} is continuous. Since T is one-to-one, the theorem follows. \square

The $l_{(p_n)}$ part of the next theorem appears in [11], but its proof is also included here for convenience.

THEOREM 24. *If (p_n) is in R_p , then any infinite-dimensional closed subspace X of $l_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $\lambda_{(p_n)}$) contains a subspace isomorphic to l_p .*

PROOF. We first prove the theorem for $l_{(p_n)}$. By Proposition 1, we can assume that X contains an $l_{(p_n)}$ -normalized block basic sequence $\{x_n\}$, and by taking linear combinations if necessary, we can assume that

$$x_n = (0, \dots, 0, x_{k_n}^n, \dots, x_{k_{n+1}-1}^n, 0, \dots)$$

where $\{k_n\}$ is an increasing sequence of positive integers such that $l_{(p_{k_n})} = l_p$.

Let $T: [x_n] \rightarrow l_p$ be the linear map satisfying $T(x_k) = e_k$. Since

$$\|c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots\|_{(p_n)} \leq |c_1|^{p_{k_1}} + |c_2|^{p_{k_2}} + |c_3|^{p_{k_3}} + \dots$$

when $|c_j| \leq 1$, and since $l_{(p_{k_n})} = l_p$, T must map onto all of l_p . Since T is clearly continuous, the open mapping theorem implies that T is an isomorphism, and this completes the proof for $l_{(p_n)}$.

Let X be a closed infinite-dimensional subspace of $\lambda_{(p_n)}$. Because of Proposition 1, we can assume that X contains a block basic sequence $\{x_n\}$. By taking linear combinations of the x_n 's, we can obtain a block basic sequence $\{y_k\}$ such that $\|y_k\|_\infty = a_k$, $|y_k|_{(p_n)} = 1$, and each y_k is of the form

$$y_k = (0, \dots, 0, *, \dots, *, a_k, *, \dots, *, a_k, *, \dots, *, a_k, *, \dots, *, 0, \dots)$$

where y_k contains m_k a_k 's and (m_k) is a strictly increasing sequence of positive integers chosen so that $l_{(p_{j_i})} = l_p$ where $s_j = \sum_{i=1}^j m_i$. Then Theorem 13 implies that $\lambda_{(p_{j_i})} = l_p$. Let T be the mapping of the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -closed linear span of $\{y_k\}$ into l_p satisfying $T(y_k) = e_k$. We will show that T is a $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -to- (l_p)

isomorphism. Let (c_k) be an element of l_p . Then by Theorem 16, if $\|(c_k)\|_p$ is sufficiently small, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\sum c_k y_k|_{(p_n)}\| &= \|(\sum c_k y_k)^\wedge|_{(p_n)}\| \\ &= |c_1 a_1|^{p_{k_1}} + \dots + |c_1 a_1|^{p_{k_1+m_1-1}} + (\text{other } c_1 y_1 \text{ terms}) \\ &\quad + |c_2 a_2|^{p_{k_2}} + \dots + |c_2 a_2|^{p_{k_2+m_2-1}} + (\text{other } c_2 y_2 \text{ terms}) + \dots \\ &\leq |c_1|^{p_{s_{\pi(1)}}} + |c_2|^{p_{s_{\pi(2)}}} + |c_3|^{p_{s_{\pi(3)}}} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

for some permutation π of the natural numbers. This series converges since $\lambda_{(p_{s_j})}$ equals l_p , and thus T is onto. Clearly T is one-to-one, and the graph of T is closed because $\{y_k\}$ is a $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -Schauder basis and $\{e_k\}$ is an l_p -Schauder basis. Hence T is continuous by the Closed Graph Theorem. The Open Mapping Theorem then implies that T is an isomorphism. \square

It is interesting to compare Theorem 20 and Theorem 24: Together these theorems show that there are cases where (p_n) is in R and $l_{(p_n)}$ has subspaces isomorphic to l_1 but these subspaces do not have the topology "inherited" from l_1 . It is also interesting to note that there are choices of (p_n) in R_p such that the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ - and the l_p -topology do not agree on any infinite-dimensional subspaces (cf. Theorem 20) while Theorem 25 below shows that there is always an infinite-dimensional subspace where the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ - and the $l_{(p_n)}$ -topology agree when (p_n) is in R .

THEOREM 25. *If (p_n) is in R_p , then $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ contains an infinite-dimensional subspace where the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology and the $l_{(p_n)}$ -topology agree.*

PROOF. Let

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= (x^1, \dots, \underbrace{x^1}_{\rightarrow m_1}, 0, \dots), \\ x_2 &= (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{x^2}_{\rightarrow m_1+1}, \dots, \underbrace{x^2}_{\rightarrow m_1+m_2}, 0, \dots), \\ x_3 &= (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{x^3}_{\rightarrow m_1+m_2+1}, \dots, \underbrace{x^3}_{\rightarrow m_1+m_2+m_3}, 0, \dots), \end{aligned}$$

etc; where (m_k) is a strictly increasing sequence of positive integers chosen so that $m_0 = 1$, $\|x_j\|_{(p_n)} = 1$, $|x_j|_{(p_n)} \leq 2$, and $l_{(p_{m_k})}$ equals l_p . Note that Theorem 13 implies that $\lambda_{(p_{m_k})}$ also equals l_p . Let $x = \sum a_j x_j$ where $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots)$ is a finitely nonzero sequence. If $|a_j|, j = 1, 2, \dots$, is sufficiently small, Theorem 16 implies that there exists a permutation π of the positive integers such that

$$\begin{aligned} |x|_{(p_n)} &= |a_{\pi(1)} x^{\pi(1)}|^{p_1} + \dots + |a_{\pi(1)} x^{\pi(1)}|^{p_{m_{\pi(1)}}} \\ &\quad + |a_{\pi(2)} x^{\pi(2)}|^{p_{(m_{\pi(1)}+1)}} + \dots + |a_{\pi(2)} x^{\pi(2)}|^{p_{(m_{\pi(1)}+m_{\pi(2)})}} + \dots \\ &\leq 2(|a_{\pi(1)}|^{p_1} + |a_{\pi(2)}|^{p_{m_{\pi(1)}}} + |a_{\pi(3)}|^{p_{m_{\pi(2)}}} + \dots). \end{aligned}$$

The above implies that $|x|_{(p_n)} \leq 2|a|_{(p_{m_k})}$. Also when $|a_j| \leq 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &|a_1|^{p_{m_1}} + |a_2|^{p_{(m_1+m_2)}} + |a_3|^{p_{(m_1+m_2+m_3)}} + \dots \\ &= |a_1|^{p_{m_1}} \|x_1\|_{(p_n)} + |a_2|^{p_{(m_1+m_2)}} \|x_2\|_{(p_n)} + |a_3|^{p_{(m_1+m_2+m_3)}} \|x_3\|_{(p_n)} + \dots \\ &\leq (|a_1 x^1|^{p_1} + \dots + |a_1 x^1|^{p_{m_1}}) + (|a_2 x^2|^{p_{(m_1+1)}} + \dots + |a_2 x^2|^{p_{(m_1+m_2)}}) + \dots \\ &= \|x\|_{(p_n)}. \end{aligned}$$

If we let $s_j = \sum_1^j m_i$, then $\|\cdot\|_{(p_{s_j})}$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_p$. Since $\|\cdot\|_{(p_{m_k})}$ is also equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_p$, the above inequalities imply that the $l_{(p_n)}$ -topology is stronger than the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology on $sp(x_n)$. This means that the two topologies agree on $sp(x_n)$ and hence on the closure of $sp(x_n)$. \square

THEOREM 26. *Suppose (p_n) and (q_n) are in R , $l_{(q_n)} \neq^s l_1$, and $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is isomorphic to $\lambda_{(q_n)}$; then $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ equals $\lambda_{(q_n)}$.*

PROOF. Let $T: \lambda_{(p_n)} \rightarrow \lambda_{(q_n)}$ be the given isomorphism, and let $f_k = T(e_k)$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$. Since $\{f_n\}$ is a $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ -bounded sequence, the set of the k th coordinates of the sequence $\{f_n\}$ forms a bounded set. Thus we can apply the proof of Proposition 1 to construct two strictly increasing sequences (m_j) and (n_j) of positive integers such that $m_j < n_j < m_{j+1}$ and the sequence $\{f_{m_j} - f_{n_j}\}$ is a $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ -basic sequence equivalent to the "truncated" block basic sequence $\{\tilde{f}_{m_j} - \tilde{f}_{n_j}\}$. Since T can be extended to an l_1 -to- l_1 isomorphism, the sequence $\{\tilde{f}_{m_j} - \tilde{f}_{n_j}\}$ is l_1 -bounded away from zero. Thus Corollary 19 implies that the sequence $(\|\tilde{f}_{m_j} - \tilde{f}_{n_j}\|_\infty)$ is bounded away from zero. Hence Proposition 23 implies that $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ is isomorphic to $[\tilde{f}_{m_j} - \tilde{f}_{n_j}]_{\lambda_{(q_n)}}$ and hence to $[f_{m_j} - f_{n_j}]_{\lambda_{(q_n)}}$. Since $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is isomorphic to $[e_{m_j} - e_{n_j}]_{\lambda_{(p_n)}}$ and all of these isomorphisms are given by the natural mappings, $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ equals $\lambda_{(q_n)}$. \square

We are unable to answer the following question: If (p_n) and (q_n) are in R_p and if $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $l_{(p_n)}$) is isomorphic to $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ (resp., $l_{(q_n)}$), must $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ (resp., $l_{(p_n)}$) equal $\lambda_{(q_n)}$ (resp., $l_{(q_n)}$)?

We mentioned at the beginning of this section that if $p_n \geq p > 0$, then $l_{(p_n)}$ is a locally bounded space and a subset of this space is bounded if and only if the subset is metrically bounded. (It is easy to see that the same is also true for $\lambda_{(p_n)}$.) The following is an extension of this idea.

THEOREM 27. *Suppose $0 < p_n < 1$ for all n . Then $l_{(p_n)}$ contains no infinite-dimensional locally bounded subspace if and only if $\lim p_n = 0$.*

PROOF. If $\lim p_n \neq 0$, then (p_n) contains a subsequence (q_n) which is bounded away from 0. Since $l_{(q_n)}$ is locally bounded, then $l_{(p_n)}$ contains a locally bounded subspace. Conversely, let $\lim p_n = 0$ and let X be an infinite-dimensional subspace of $l_{(p_n)}$. Select a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X such that x_n is of

the form $x_n = (0, \dots, 0, x_{k_n}^n, x_{k_n+1}^n, \dots)$ where (k_n) is a strictly increasing sequence of positive integers. Suppose that X contains a bounded neighborhood N of 0 and ϵ is a positive number such that $\|x\|_{(p_n)} \leq \epsilon$ implies that x is in N . Without loss of generality, assume that $\|x_n\|_{(p_n)} = \epsilon$. Since $N_\epsilon = \{x: \|x_n\|_{(p_n)} \leq \epsilon\}$ is bounded, there exists a positive number α such that $N_{\epsilon/2} \supset \alpha N_\epsilon$. However, $\lim \|\alpha x_n\|_{(p_n)} = \lim \|x_n\|_{(p_n)} = \epsilon$. \square

Suppose $0 < p_n \leq 1$. Clearly $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ is the intersection $\bigcap_{\pi \in \Pi} l_{(p_{\pi(n)})}$ where Π is the set of all permutations of the natural numbers. Let \mathfrak{T}_π denote the "sup topology" obtained from the F -seminorms $\|\cdot\|_{(p_{\pi(n)})}$. With this notation, we have the following.

THEOREM 28. *If $(p_n) \in R_p$, then \mathfrak{T}_π lies between the l_p -topology and the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology. Furthermore, \mathfrak{T}_π is metrizable if and only if $\lambda_{(p_n)} = l_p$.*

PROOF. It is clear that \mathfrak{T}_π is stronger than the l_p -topology and weaker than the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology. Since $\lambda_{(p_n)} = l_p$ implies that the $\lambda_{(p_n)}$ -topology is equal to the l_p -topology, \mathfrak{T}_π is metrizable when $\lambda_{(p_n)} = l_p$.

Conversely, suppose \mathfrak{T}_π is metrizable and $\lambda_{(p_n)} \neq l_p$. Then there exists permutations $\{\pi_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ and a decreasing sequence of positive numbers $\{\epsilon_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ such that the sets $U_k = \{x: \|x\|_{(p_{\pi_k(n)})} < \epsilon_k\}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$, form a neighborhood base at zero for \mathfrak{T}_π . By Theorem 6, there exists a positive integer n_1 such that

$$\left\| \underbrace{\left(\left(\frac{1}{n_1}\right)^{1/p}, \left(\frac{1}{n_1}\right)^{1/p}, \dots, \left(\frac{1}{n_1}\right)^{1/p}, 0, \dots \right)}_{n_1 \text{ times}} \right\|_{(p_n)} > 1.$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{\pi_1(n)} = p$, there exists a point z_1 of the form

$$z_1 = \frac{\epsilon_1}{2} \left(0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{n_1}\right)^{1/p}}_{m_1}, \dots, \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{n_1}\right)^{1/p}}_{m_2+n_2-1}, 0, \dots \right)$$

such that z_1 is in U_1 . We will construct a permutation (q_n) of (p_n) in stages. The first $m_1 + n_1 - 1$ terms of (q_n) are

$$\left(p_{n_1+1}, \dots, p_{k_1}, \underbrace{p_1}_{m_1}, p_2, \dots, \underbrace{p_{n_1}}_{m_1+n_1-1} \right)$$

where $k_1 = m_1 + n_1 - 1$. Since $l_{(p_n)} \neq l_p$, $l_{(p_{k_1+n})} \neq l_p$. Again, by Theorem 6, there exists a positive integer n_2 such that

$$\left\| \underbrace{\left(\left(\frac{1}{n_2}\right)^{1/p}, \dots, \left(\frac{1}{n_2}\right)^{1/p}, 0, \dots \right)}_{n_2 \text{ times}} \right\|_{(p_{k_1+n})} > 1.$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n_1(n)} = p$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n_2(n)} = p$, there exists a point z_2 of the form

$$z_2 = \frac{\varepsilon_2}{2} \left(0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{n_2}\right)^{1/p}, \dots, \left(\frac{1}{n_2}\right)^{1/p}}_{m_2}, 0, \dots \right)$$

such that z_2 is in U_1 and U_2 and $m_2 > m_1 + n_1$. The first $m_2 + n_2 - 1$ terms of (q_n) are

$$\left(p_{n_1+1}, \dots, p_{k_1}, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{n_1}, p_{k_1+n_2+1}, \dots, p_{k_2}, \underbrace{p_{k_1+1}, \dots, p_{k_1+n_2}}_{m_2}, \dots \right)$$

where $k_2 = m_2 + n_2 - 1$. Continue this process inductively to obtain (q_n) and $\{z_n\}$ such that z_n is in $\bigcap_{j=1}^n U_j$ and $\|z_k\|_{(q_n)} > 1$. Let U be defined by $U = \{x: \|x\|_{(q_n)} < 1\}$. Then clearly U is a neighborhood of 0 in \mathfrak{G}_π , but there does not exist any integer, n , such that $\bigcap_{k=1}^n U_k$ is contained in U . This is a contradiction. \square

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