

# OPEN SETS OF CONSERVATIVE MATRICES<sup>1</sup>

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In this paper we present two principal results. In Theorem 1 we show that if  $\Gamma'$  denotes the open set of (conservative) matrices which map some subspace of  $c$  of infinite deficiency isomorphically onto  $c$  and if  $\Lambda$  denotes the closed set of matrices which sum some bounded divergent sequence, then  $[\Gamma']^- = \Lambda$ . In Theorem 2 we produce a class of triangular matrices with the property that no triangular matrix in a neighborhood of one of these matrices has a range, as an operator on  $m$ , whose closure includes  $c$ .

We acknowledge valuable discussions with Dr. B. Johnson of Exeter University, formerly of Yale University.

We first introduce some notation, most of which is quite standard.

We denote by  $m$  the Banach space of bounded sequences of complex numbers, where  $\|x\| = \sup_n |x(n)|$ . We denote by  $c$  the subspace of  $m$  consisting of convergent sequences, by  $c_0$  the subspace of  $c$  consisting of sequences with limit 0, and by  $E^\infty$  the (nonclosed) subspace of  $c_0$  consisting of sequences with only a finite number of nonzero terms.

We denote by  $\Gamma$  the Banach algebra of conservative matrices ( $A$  is called conservative if  $x \in c \Rightarrow Ax \in c$ ), and by  $\Delta$  the Banach algebra of conservative matrices with zeros above the principal diagonal.

We denote by  $C_A$  the vector space of sequences (including unbounded sequences) which are summed by  $A$ , that is, transformed into convergent sequences by  $A$ . If  $C_A \cap m \neq c$  we say  $A \in \Lambda$ .

When no confusion seems likely to arise we do not differentiate, for  $A \in \Gamma$ , between  $A$  as a transformation from  $c$  to  $c$  and  $A$  as a transformation from  $m$  to  $m$ . In this regard we note that if  $A \in \Gamma$  is considered as an operator from  $m$  to  $m$ , from  $c$  to  $c$ , or from  $c_0$  to  $c$ , the norm is the same; indeed  $\|A\| = \sup_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|$ . Furthermore, we recall that, for  $A \in \Gamma$ , if  $A^{-1}$  exists for  $A$  as an operator on  $m$ , then  $A^{-1}$  exists for  $A$  as an operator on  $c$  and, hence, since  $A^{-1}$  is a matrix,  $A^{-1} \in \Gamma$  as was shown by A. Wilansky and K. Zeller [3] and by M. R. Parameswaran [5] or as can be seen from our Lemma 1.

We first present the following characterization of  $\Lambda$ .

**LEMMA 1.**  *$A \in \Lambda$  if and only if for  $\epsilon > 0$  and integer  $n$  there exists  $x \in E^\infty$  such that*

Presented to the Society, January 23, 1964; received by the editors March 16, 1964.

<sup>1</sup> This research was supported in part by N. S. F. Grant GP-1814.

1.  $x(1) = x(2) = \dots = x(n) = 0$ ,
2.  $\|x\| = 1$ ,
3.  $\|Ax\| < \epsilon$ .

PROOF. Let  $A \in \Lambda$ . Then there exists  $x \in m$  such that, if  $T_n x$  denotes  $x$  with its first  $n$  entries replaced by 0,

1.  $|\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (A T_n x)(m)| < 1/N < \epsilon/4$ ,
2.  $\|A T_n(x)\| > 1$ ,

for all  $n$ .

A sequence of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (1/n) T_{m_n} x - \sum_{n=N+1}^{2N} (1/n) T_{m_n} x,$$

for large enough  $m_n$ , will satisfy 1, 2, and 3.

The converse is clear by an easy gliding hump construction.

For details the reader is referred to [1]. This completes the proof of Lemma 1.

Lemma 1 yields the result of Wilansky and Zeller and Parameswaran referred to in the introduction when we observe that  $A \in \Lambda$  can have no left inverse as an operator from  $m$  to  $m$ . Hence, if  $A^{-1}$  exists, then  $A^{-1}(c) = c$ .

Lemma 1 also immediately yields the easy result that  $\Lambda$  is closed.

Let  $A \in \Gamma$ . Suppose there exists some  $c_1$  of infinite deficiency in  $c$  such that if the domain of  $A$  is cut down to  $c_1$ ,  $A$  is an isomorphism (topological) from  $c_1$  onto  $c$ ; i.e., if we consider  $A: c_1 \rightarrow c$ ,  $A$  is an isomorphism onto  $c$ . We will denote the set of such  $A$  by  $\Gamma^1$ .

We will show that the open set  $\Gamma^1$  is dense in  $\Lambda$ .

LEMMA 2.  $\Gamma^1$  is open.

PROOF.  $\Gamma^1$  is clearly open, since if  $A \in \Gamma^1$ ,  $A: c \rightarrow c$  has a right inverse  $A^r$  whose range is  $c_1$ . Hence, for some neighborhood  $A \subset \Gamma$ , say  $V$ ,  $B \in V$  implies  $BA^r(c) = c$ . Hence,  $B(c_1) = c$ .

LEMMA 3.  $\Gamma^1 \subset \Lambda$ .

PROOF. Let  $A \in \Gamma^1$ . Choose an infinite linearly independent set of vectors of the form  $x_i - y_i$  where  $x_i \in c \sim c_1$  and  $y_i \in c_1$  such that  $A(x_i - y_i) = 0$ . It can be easily seen (cf. §3.7 of [4]) that, by a proper choice of scalar  $\lambda_i$ ,

$$A \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i (x_i - y_i) \right] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i (x_i - y_i) \in m \sim c.$$

THEOREM 1.  $[\Gamma^1]^- = [(\Gamma^1)^0]^- = \Lambda$ .

PROOF. By Lemmas 2 and 3,  $\Gamma^l = (\Gamma^l)^0$  and  $[\Gamma^l]^- \subset \Lambda$ . Hence we must show that  $\Gamma^l$  is dense in  $\Lambda$  (which is closed) and our theorem is established.

Let  $A \in \Lambda$ . By Lemma 1 we may choose a succession of columns of  $A$ ,  $a^{j(0)}, \dots, a^{j(n)}, \dots$  as follows: Choose  $j(0)$  so that, for some  $x_0 \in E^\infty$ ,

1.  $x_0[j(0)] = r_0$ , where  $|r_0| = 1$ ,

2.  $\|A(x_0)\| < \epsilon/4$ .

Choose  $j(k)$ ,  $k=1, 2, \dots$ , so that, for some  $x_k \in E^\infty$ ,

1.  $x_k[j(k)] = r_k$ , where  $|r_k| = 1$ ,

2.  $\|Ax_k\| < (\epsilon/8)(1/2^k)$ ,

3.  $x_k(n) = 0$  if  $x_{k-1}(m) \neq 0$  for some  $m \geq n$ .

Now define  $B \in \Gamma$  as follows:  $b^{j(k)} = a^{j(k)} + (\epsilon/4)\delta_k - A(x_k)/r_k$ ,  $k=0, 1, 2, \dots$ , where  $\delta_0$  denotes the constant sequence all of whose entries are 1 and  $\delta_k$ ,  $k=1, 2, \dots$ , denotes the sequence with 1 in the  $k$ th place and 0 elsewhere.  $b^l = a^l$  for all other  $l$ .

It is clear that  $B \in \Gamma$  since  $B = A + A' + A''$ , where  $A' \in \Gamma$  is a compact operator and  $A''$  is a submethod of the identity.

$$\|A - B\| < \frac{\epsilon}{4} + \frac{\epsilon}{4} + \frac{\epsilon}{4} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = \epsilon.$$

To see that  $B \in \Gamma^l$ , observe that  $B(x_k) = (\epsilon/4)x_k[j(k)]\delta_k = (\epsilon/4)r_k\delta_k$ ,  $k=0, 1, 2, \dots$ . Hence, if  $y \in c$ ,  $\|y\| = 1$ ,

$$B \left\{ (r_0 \lim y)x_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (y(j) - \lim y)r_j x_j \right\} = \frac{\epsilon}{4} y.$$

If we denote the above pre-image of  $y$  by  $B^r y$ , we see that  $\|B^r y\| < 3 \cdot 4/\epsilon$ . Clearly,  $B^r(c)$  is isomorphic to  $c_0$ . It is also clear that  $\{j(k)\}$  can be chosen so as to insure  $B^r(c)$  being of infinite deficiency in  $c$ .

However, we note that  $B^r$ , as defined above, cannot be realized by a matrix.

This completes the proof of Theorem 1.

At this point we note that if we let  $\Gamma^{lm}$  denote the set of  $A \in \Gamma$  such that  $A: m_1 \rightarrow m$  is a (topological) isomorphism onto  $m$  from some  $m_1$  of infinite deficiency in  $m$ , the arguments of Lemmas 2, 3 and Theorem 1 all go through to show that  $\Gamma^{lm}$  is an open dense set included in  $\Lambda$ . It is rather easy to see that  $\Gamma^{lm} \supset \Gamma^l$ . To see that the inclusion is proper, consider  $A \in \Gamma$  defined by

$$(Ax)(n) = x(2n) - x(2n-1).$$

It is clear that slight variants of the foregoing arguments lead to other dense open sets in  $\Lambda$ ; e.g., the set of  $A$  which map  $m$  onto a

finite deficiency subspace of  $m$ , but have infinite dimensional kernel. However, we will not weary the reader with a catalogue of essentially similar results.

We now restrict our attention to  $\Delta$ .

In  $\Delta$ , Theorem 1 does not hold; indeed, the set of matrices which are not 1-1 on  $c$  is nowhere dense. In  $\Delta$ , as contrasted with  $\Gamma$ , the maximal group consists of all matrices whose range is all of  $c$ .

We are able to present a small class of matrices in  $\Delta \cap \Lambda$  which are not approximable in  $\Delta$  by matrices whose range closure is  $c$ , hence which are not on the boundary of the maximal group in  $\Delta$ . We note that, by Theorem 1, we may approximate such matrices in  $\Gamma$  by matrices whose range is  $c$ .

J. Copping on p. 193 of [2] presented an example of an element of  $\Delta \cap \Lambda$  which is not on the boundary of the maximal group of  $\Delta$ .

Copping's example belongs to the class of Nörlund matrices described in the next lemma.

LEMMA 4. *Let complex numbers  $k, l$  be given, where  $|k| > 1$ ,  $|l| = 1$ . Let  $A$  be the Nörlund matrix corresponding to  $(x-k)(x-l)$ . That is:*

$$\begin{aligned} a_{i,i} &= 1, \\ a_{i+1,i} &= -(k+l), \\ a_{i+2,i} &= kl, \\ a_{i,j} &= 0 \quad \text{for all other } i, j. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $x_0$  be defined by

$$x_0(1) = 1, x_0(2) = -l, x_0(k) = 0 \text{ for all other } k.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for  $B \in \Delta$ ,

1.  $\|B - A\| < \delta$ ,
2.  $\|x - x_0\| < \delta$

jointly imply

$$\left| \frac{y(n+1)}{y(n)} - k \right| < \epsilon,$$

where  $y = y(n)$  is defined by  $By = x$ . Observe that for small enough  $\epsilon$ ,  $y \notin m$ .

PROOF. It suffices to consider the case  $l = 1$ . Consider  $y$  defined by  $By = x$  where  $B \in \Delta$ .

Fix  $n$ . If we express  $y(n+1)$  as  $y(n+1) = (1+\eta)ky(n)$  and if we express  $y(n+2)$  as  $y(n+2) = k(1+\rho)y(n+1) = k^2(1+\rho)(1+\eta)y(n)$ , the following equation defines  $\rho$ .

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} b_{n+2,j} y(j) + (k + c_1) y(n) - [(k + 1) + c_2] k(1 + \eta) y(n) + k^2(c_3 + 1)(1 + \rho)(1 + \eta) y(n) = x(n + 2),$$

where  $c_1 = (b_{n+2,n} - a_{n+2,n})$ ,  $c_2 = (b_{n+2,n+1} - a_{n+2,n+1})$ ,  $c_3 = (b_{n+2,n+2} - a_{n+2,n+2})$ .

Solving for  $\rho$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \frac{\eta}{k(c_3 + 1)(1 + \eta)} \\ &\quad + \frac{ky(n)[(1 + \eta)c_2 - (k + k\eta)c_3] - \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} b_{n+2,j} y(j)\right) + x(n + 2) - c_1 y(n)}{k^2(c_3 + 1)(1 + \eta) y(n)} \\ &= \frac{\eta}{k(c_3 + 1)(1 + \eta)} \\ &\quad + R, \text{ say (provided all denominators are nonzero).} \end{aligned}$$

Choose  $\delta_1 > 0$ ,  $\bar{\eta} > 0$  so small that

1.  $\bar{\eta} < \min(\epsilon, |k| - 1)$ ,
2.  $|c_3| < \delta_1$ ,  $|\eta| < \bar{\eta}$  imply  $|\eta/k(1 + \eta)(c_3 + 1)| < 2|\eta|/(1 + |k|)$ .

Now choose  $\delta$ ,  $0 < \delta < \delta_1$ , so small that

1.  $\|B - A\| < \delta$ ,  $\|x - x_0\| < \delta$  implies  $|y_2/y_1 - k| < \bar{\eta}$ ,  $|y_3/y_2 - k| < \bar{\eta}$ ,
2. (i)  $|c_i|$ ,  $|x(n + 2)|$ ,  $\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} |b_{n+2,j}| < \delta$ ,
- (ii)  $1/2 < |y(1)| < \dots < |y(n)|$ ,
- (iii)  $|\eta| < \bar{\eta}$ ,

jointly imply

$$R < \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\bar{\eta}}{2} - \frac{\bar{\eta}}{1 + |k|} \right).$$

Let  $\|B - A\| < \delta$ ,  $\|x - x_0\| < \delta$ , where  $\delta$  is chosen as above. (Note that this guarantees that 2(i) holds.)

Suppose  $y(j + 1) = (1 + \eta_j)ky(j)$ , where  $|\eta_j| < |\bar{\eta}|$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .

We now show that  $y(n + 2) = (1 + \rho)ky(n + 1)$  for some  $\rho \in C$  such that  $|\rho| < \bar{\eta}$ .

If  $\eta_n$  is such that  $\bar{\eta}/2 < \eta_n < \bar{\eta}$ , then  $|\rho| < |2\eta/(1 + |k|)| + |R| < |\eta|$ . If  $\eta_n$  is such that  $\eta_n \leq \bar{\eta}/2$ , then  $|\rho| < \bar{\eta}/2 + |R| < \bar{\eta}/2 + \bar{\eta}/2 = \bar{\eta}$ . This completes the proof of Lemma 4.

**THEOREM 2.** Let  $A = BGD$  where  $B$ ,  $G$ ,  $D \in \Delta$  and

1.  $B$  and  $D$  are invertible,
2.  $G$  is the Nörlund matrix corresponding to  $(x - k)(x - l)$ , where  $|k| > 1$ .

Then there is a neighborhood  $V$ , of  $A$  in  $\Delta$  with the following property:

For each  $H \in V$ , there exists some  $f \in l_1$  such that  $H^*f = 0$ , i.e.,  $fH = 0$ , where  $f$  is written as a row matrix. Equivalently, for  $H \in V$ ,  $[H(m)] \not\supset c_0$ .

PROOF. We first observe that it suffices to prove the theorem for neighborhoods of  $G$ . For, if  $V$  is a small enough neighborhood of  $A$ ,  $V = BV'D$  where  $V'$  is a neighborhood of  $G$ . But if  $fH = 0$  for some  $H \in V'$ ,  $fB^{-1} \in l_1$  and  $(fB^{-1})F = 0$  for  $F = BHD$ .

We now consider three cases. Cases 1 and 2 are well known.

Case 1.  $|l| < 1$ . This case is clear since  $G$  is now an isomorphism of  $c$  onto  $f^\perp$  where  $f = (1, k^{-1}, k^{-2}, \dots) \in l_1 = c_0^*$ . Hence there exists  $V \subset \Delta$ , indeed,  $V \subset \Gamma$ , such that, for  $H \in V$ , there exists  $g \in l_1$  such that  $H^*g = 0$ .

Case 2.  $|l| > 1$ . This case is, similarly, clear since  $G$  is now an isomorphism of  $c$  onto  $f^\perp \cap h^\perp$  for appropriate  $h \in l_1$ .

Case 3.  $|l| = 1$ . In this case  $G(c)$  is not closed in  $c$  so the above arguments do not apply. Indeed,  $G(c)$  is dense not closed in  $f^\perp$  where  $f = (1, k^{-1}, k^{-2}, \dots)$ . But, by Lemma 4, there exists a neighborhood of  $G$ ,  $V \subset \Delta$ , such that for  $H \in V$   $[H(m)] \not\supset x_0$  where  $x_0$  is as defined in Lemma 4. Hence there exists  $f \in l_1$  such that  $H^*f = 0$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

In cases 1 and 2 of Theorem 2 the conclusion holds even if neighborhoods were taken in  $\Gamma$ . It is also clear that the arguments in these cases, which are quite standard, did not depend on the degree of the polynomial.

However, Theorem 1 tells us that in case 3 Theorem 2 is false if neighborhoods are taken in  $\Gamma$ . While it seems likely that case 3 is independent of the degree of the polynomial, we have not been able to prove the equivalent theorem for higher degree polynomials.

Theorems 1 and 2 suggest the following question which we cannot answer.

If  $A \in \Delta$  and  $A$  is 1-1 on  $c$ , is  $A$  on the boundary of the maximal group of  $\Gamma$ ?

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