

## A SUFFICIENT CONDITION FOR A REGULAR MATRIX TO SUM A BOUNDED DIVERGENT SEQUENCE

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If a matrix  $A$  transforms a sequence  $\{z_n\}$  into the sequence  $\{\sigma_n\}$ , i.e., if  $\sigma_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{n,k} z_k$ , and if  $\sigma_n \rightarrow z$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  whenever  $z_n \rightarrow z$ ,  $A$  is said to be regular. The well known necessary and sufficient conditions for  $A$  to be regular are<sup>1</sup>

- (a)  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_{n,k}| < M$  for every positive integer  $n > n_0$ ,
- (b)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n,k} = 0$  for every fixed  $k$ ,
- (c)  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{n,k} \equiv A_n \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

It is known<sup>2</sup> that if a regular matrix sums a bounded divergent sequence, then it also sums some unbounded sequence. The converse is, however, false.<sup>3</sup> It is consequently of interest to find sufficient conditions for a regular matrix to sum a *bounded* divergent sequence. Many authors have considered summability of bounded sequences.<sup>4</sup> R. P. Agnew has given a simple sufficient condition that a regular matrix shall sum a bounded divergent sequence. He has proved<sup>5</sup> that if  $A$  is a regular matrix such that  $\lim_{n,k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n,k} = 0$ , then some divergent sequences of 0's and 1's are summable- $A$ . There are, however, very many simple regular matrices which do not satisfy this condition, but which are known to sum a bounded divergent sequence. For example, the matrix  $A$  obtained by replacing every third row of the Cesàro matrix  $(C, 1)$  by the corresponding row of the unit matrix, given by

$$a_{3n-2,k} = \frac{1}{3n-2} \quad (k \leq 3n-2), \quad a_{3n-1,k} = \frac{1}{3n-1} \quad (k \leq 3n-1),$$

$$a_{3n,k} = \delta_{3n,k}, \quad a_{n,k} = 0 \quad (k > n) \quad (n, k = 1, 2, \dots),$$

sums the sequence  $\{0, 2, 1, 0, 2, 1, 0, \dots\}$  to the limit 1. This matrix does, however, satisfy the conditions which will be given in Theorem II.

I first show that I need consider only normal matrices, i.e., lower-

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<sup>1</sup> See R. G. Cooke [1, pp. 64-65].

<sup>2</sup> Stated without proof by S. Mazur and W. Orlicz [2]; a proof is given by V. M. Darevsky [3]. See also J. D. Hill [4]; A. Wilansky [5]; K. Zeller [6].

<sup>3</sup> See R. G. Cooke [1, p. 178, Examples 7, no. 10].

<sup>4</sup> See, e.g., G. G. Lorentz [7; 8]; R. P. Agnew [9]; A. Wilansky [10; 11].

<sup>5</sup> R. P. Agnew [12, pp. 128-132]; this is a special case of G. G. Lorentz [7, p. 181, Theorem 8 and footnote].

semi-matrices with no zero element in the leading diagonal. A normal matrix has a unique right-hand reciprocal which is also normal, and which is also a left-hand reciprocal.<sup>6</sup> If a matrix  $B$  is such that  $\|B\| = \sup_n \sum_k |b_{n,k}| = \infty$ , then, by a method now classical, we can construct a null sequence whose  $B$ -transform is unbounded. It is not, in general, possible to construct a null sequence whose  $B$ -transform is bounded and divergent. This can be done, however, if  $B$  is normal and its columns form null sequences. This is the main result of this paper and its interest lies in its sufficiency that  $B^{-1}=A$  shall sum a bounded divergent sequence.

The following theorem is due to A. Brudno.<sup>7</sup> Brudno's proof, however, is somewhat complicated, and I give here a simpler proof.

**THEOREM I.** *If  $A$  is a general (square) regular matrix, there exists a normal regular matrix  $A^*$ , such that  $A$  and  $A^*$  are mutually consistent<sup>8</sup> for bounded sequences.*

**PROOF.** Let  $\{\epsilon_n\}$  be any null sequence with  $\epsilon_n > 0$  for each  $n$ . Since  $A$  is regular, by (a) we can choose a monotonic increasing sequence of positive integers  $\{p_n\}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ) such that

$$\sum_{k=p_n+1}^{\infty} |a_{n,k}| < \epsilon_n \quad \text{for every } n.$$

Let the matrix  $A^*$  be given by

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n,k}^* &= a_{1,k} && (1 \leq k < n < p_1), \\ a_{n,n}^* &= \begin{cases} a_{1,n} & (a_{1,n} \neq 0) \\ 1/n & (a_{1,n} = 0) \end{cases} && (n < p_1), \\ a_{n,k}^* &= a_{l,k} && (p_l \leq n < p_{l+1}, l \geq 1, 1 \leq k < n), \\ a_{n,n}^* &= \begin{cases} a_{l,n} & (a_{l,n} \neq 0) \\ 1/n & (a_{l,n} = 0) \end{cases} && (p_l \leq n < p_{l+1}, l \geq 1), \\ a_{n,k}^* &= 0 && (k > n). \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\sigma_n = A(z_n) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{n,k} z_k$ ,  $\rho_n = A^*(z_n) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{n,k}^* z_k$ . If  $p_l \leq n < p_{l+1}$ ,  $\sigma_l - \rho_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_{l,k} z_k + (a_{l,n} - a_{n,n}^*) z_n$ . Hence, if  $\{z_n\}$  is a bounded sequence for which  $|z_n| \leq M$  for every  $n$ ,

<sup>6</sup> R. G. Cooke [1, pp. 19, 22].

<sup>7</sup> A. Brudno [13].

<sup>8</sup> I.e.,  $A^*$  sums, to the same limit, every bounded sequence which is summable- $A$  and vice versa.

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\sigma_l - \rho_n| &\leq M \sum_{k=p_l+1}^{\infty} |a_{l,k}| + \frac{M}{n} \\
 &< M \left( \epsilon_l + \frac{1}{n} \right) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } l \rightarrow \infty,
 \end{aligned}$$

since  $n$  and  $l$  tend to  $\infty$  together.

Thus  $A(z_n)$  and  $A^*(z_n)$  either both converge to the same limit, or neither converges, and  $A^*$  is normal.

I now prove the main theorems.

**THEOREM II.** *In order that the regular normal matrix  $A$  shall sum a bounded divergent sequence it is sufficient that its unique two-sided reciprocal  $B$  shall not be regular, and that all the columns of  $B$  shall form bounded sequences.*

**THEOREM III.** *In order that the regular normal matrix  $A$  shall sum a bounded divergent sequence it is sufficient that*

- (a) *its unique reciprocal  $B$  shall not be regular, and*
- (b) *there exists a normal matrix  $Q$  with  $\|Q\| < \infty$ , whose columns are all null sequences, such that the matrix  $C = BQ$  has bounded columns and  $\|C\| = \infty$ .*

**PROOF OF THEOREM III.** If  $A(z_n) = \sigma_n$ , then

$$B(\sigma_n) = B[A(z_n)] = (BA)(z_n) = (z_n),$$

the alteration in the order of summation being justified, since only finite sums are involved.

If  $B$  is regular,  $\{z_n\}$  converges whenever  $\{\sigma_n\}$  converges, so that  $A$  sums only convergent sequences. If  $B$  is not regular, there exists a convergent sequence  $\{\sigma_n\}$  such that  $\{z_n\}$  is divergent. Thus, in order that  $A$  shall be stronger than convergence it is necessary and sufficient that  $B$  shall not be regular.

Since  $B$  and  $Q$  are normal,  $C = BQ$  is also normal, and hence

$$AC = A(BQ) = (AB)Q = Q,$$

so that, assuming condition (b),  $A$  transforms each column of  $C$  into a null sequence. Since  $A$  is regular, it follows that each column of  $C$  is either a divergent or a null sequence. If at least one column of  $C$  is divergent, the result is proved. There remains to be considered only the case in which all the columns of  $C$  form null sequences. Thus  $c_{n,k} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for every fixed  $k$ , and if  $M_n = \sum_{k=1}^n |c_{n,k}|$ , the sequence  $\{M_n\}$  is unbounded, by hypothesis, and therefore has a subsequence which tends to infinity.

If  $Z = re^{i\theta}$ , let  $\operatorname{sgn} Z = e^{-i\theta}$  ( $Z \neq 0$ ),  $\operatorname{sgn} 0 = 0$ .

Choose a positive integer  $n_1$  such that  $M_{n_1} > M_n$  for all  $n < n_1$ . Put

$$x_k = \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_1, k})}{M_{n_1}} \quad (k \leq n_1).$$

If  $C(x_n) = y_n$ ,

$$y_{n_1} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} c_{n_1, k} x_k = \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} |c_{n_1, k}| = 1.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be fixed and arbitrarily small. We can choose  $n_2 > n_1$  such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n_1} |c_{n, k}| < \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \quad \text{for every } n \geq n_2$$

and

$$M_{n_2} > M_n \quad \text{for every } n < n_2.$$

Put

$$x_k = -\frac{\operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_2, k})}{M_{n_2}} \quad (n_1 < k \leq n_2).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} y_{n_2} &= \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} c_{n_2, k} x_k - \sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} \frac{c_{n_2, k} \operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_2, k})}{M_{n_2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} c_{n_2, k} \operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_1, k}) - \frac{1}{M_{n_2}} \sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} |c_{n_2, k}|. \end{aligned}$$

We now choose  $n_3 > n_2$  such that

$$\sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} |c_{n, k}| < \frac{1}{2^2} \epsilon \quad \text{for every } n \geq n_3,$$

and

$$M_{n_3} > M_n \quad \text{for every } n < n_3.$$

Put

$$x_k = \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_3, k})}{M_{n_3}} \quad (n_2 < k \leq n_3).$$

Then

$$y_{n_3} = \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} c_{n_3,k} \operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_1,k}) - \frac{1}{M_{n_2}} \sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} c_{n_3,k} \operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_2,k}) + \frac{1}{M_{n_3}} \sum_{k=n_2+1}^{n_3} |c_{n_3,k}|.$$

Continue in this way; thus

$$x_k = (-1)^{p-1} \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(c_{n_p,k})}{M_{n_p}} \quad (n_{p-1} < k \leq n_p).$$

For any integer  $p$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \frac{1}{M_{n_p}} \sum_{k=n_{p-1}+1}^{n_p} |c_{n_p,k}| &= \frac{1}{M_{n_p}} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} |c_{n_p,k}| + \sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} |c_{n_p,k}| + \dots \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{k=n_{p-2}+1}^{n_{p-1}} |c_{n_p,k}| \right\} \\ &< \frac{1}{M_{n_p}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \epsilon + \frac{1}{2^2} \epsilon + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{p-1}} \epsilon \right\} \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{M_{n_p}} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } p \rightarrow \infty, \end{aligned}$$

and is arbitrarily small for  $p=1, 2, 3, \dots$ . If  $p$  is odd,

$$\begin{aligned} &\left| y_{n_p} - \frac{1}{M_{n_p}} \sum_{k=n_{p-1}+1}^{n_p} |c_{n_p,k}| \right| \\ &< \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} |c_{n_p,k}| + \frac{1}{M_{n_2}} \sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} |c_{n_p,k}| + \dots + \frac{1}{M_{n_{p-1}}} \sum_{k=n_{p-2}+1}^{n_{p-1}} |c_{n_p,k}| \\ &< \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \epsilon + \frac{1}{M_{n_2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2^2} \epsilon + \dots + \frac{1}{M_{n_{p-1}}} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{p-1}} \epsilon \\ &< \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \epsilon \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{p-1}} \right) \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{M_{n_1}}, \end{aligned}$$

which is arbitrarily small. The last two inequalities together show that

$$y_{n_p} - 1 \text{ can be made arbitrarily small when } p \text{ is odd.}$$

Similarly  $y_{n_p} + 1$  can be made arbitrarily small when  $p$  is even. Thus the sequence  $\{y_n\}$  is divergent. Moreover, if  $n_q < n \leq n_{q+1}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 |y_n| &\leq \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_1} |c_{n,k}| + \frac{1}{M_{n_2}} \sum_{k=n_1+1}^{n_2} |c_{n,k}| + \dots \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{M_{n_q}} \sum_{k=n_{q-1}+1}^{n_q} |c_{n,k}| + \frac{1}{M_{n_{q+1}}} \sum_{k=n_q+1}^n |c_{n,k}| \\
 &< \frac{1}{M_{n_1}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \epsilon + \frac{1}{2^2} \epsilon + \dots + \frac{1}{2^q} \epsilon \right\} + \frac{M_n}{M_{n_{q+1}}} \\
 &< \frac{\epsilon}{M_{n_1}} + 1, \text{ since } M_n < M_{n_{q+1}}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\{y_n\}$  is a bounded divergent sequence, and  $y_n = C(x_n)$ , where  $\{x_n\}$  is a null sequence.

Hence  $B[Q(x_n)] = (BQ)(x_n) = C(x_n) = y_n$ . Let  $Q(x_n) = \xi_n$ . Now since  $\|Q\| < \infty$  and  $q_{n,k} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for every fixed  $k$ , it follows<sup>9</sup> that  $Q$  transforms every null sequence into a null sequence. Thus  $\{\xi_n\}$  is a null sequence and  $B(\xi_n) = y_n$ . Hence  $A(y_n) = \xi_n$ , and  $A$  sums the bounded divergent sequence  $\{y_n\}$  to the limit zero.

The theorem is now proved.

For  $Q = I$ , Theorem II follows. For, in this case,  $M_n = \sum_{k=1}^n |b_{n,k}|$ . It is obvious that the sequence  $\{M_n\}$  is unbounded; for if  $M_n < M$  for every  $n$ ,  $B$  would transform every convergent sequence into a bounded sequence. This would imply that all the divergent sequences which are summable- $A$  are bounded. This is impossible, as already mentioned.

**COROLLARY.** *The theorem still holds if all but a finite number of the columns of  $C$  form bounded sequences.*

If all but the first  $N$  columns are bounded, we put  $x_k = 0$  ( $k \leq N$ ). Define  $\{M_n\}$  by the equation  $M_n = \sum_{k=N+1}^n |c_{n,k}|$  ( $n > N$ ), and with slight modifications the proof proceeds as before.

**EXAMPLES.** The matrix  $A$ , already quoted, obtained by modifying the  $(C, 1)$  matrix, has reciprocal  $B$  given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 b_{3n,3n} &= 1, & b_{3n-1,3n-1} &= 3n - 1, & b_{3n-1,3n-2} &= -(3n - 2), \\
 b_{3n-2,3n-2} &= 3n - 2, & b_{3n-2,3n-3} &= -1, \\
 b_{3n-2,3n-4} &= -(3n - 4), & b_{n,k} &= 0 \text{ otherwise.}
 \end{aligned}$$

$B$  is not regular, and every column of  $B$  tends to zero. The conditions of Theorem II are satisfied.

<sup>9</sup> See, e.g., R. G. Cooke [1, p. 64].

P. Vermes has suggested the following example of a matrix which satisfies the conditions of Theorem III.

Let  $U$  be the matrix for which  $u_{n+1,n} = 1$ ,  $u_{n,k} = 0$  otherwise. Take  $A = 2^{-p}(I + U)^p$ ,  $p$  being a positive integer  $\geq 2$ ; then  $A$  is regular, and sums the sequence  $\{1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \dots\}$  to  $1/2$ .  $B = 2^p(I + U)^{-p}$  is not regular and its columns are not bounded. Take  $Q = (I + U)^{p-1}$ ; then  $\|Q\| = 2^{p-1}$  and  $Q$  has zero column limits. Thus  $C = BQ = 2^p(I + U)^{-1}$ , which has bounded columns, and  $\|C\| = \infty$ .

I am unable to prove that the conditions of Theorem III are also necessary.

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