

Modern Functional Analysis in the Theory of Sequence Spaces and Matrix Transformations

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1. Introduction

Several concepts and theories in functional analysis have turned out to be powerful and widely used tools in operator theory, in particular in the theory of matrix transformations in summability.

We study the theories of

- *FK, BK, AK* and *AD* spaces
- multiplier and dual spaces
- matrix transformations
- measures of noncompactness

Summability

The **classical summability theory** deals with a generalisation of the convergence of sequences or series of real or complex numbers. The idea is to assign a **limit** to divergent sequences or series by considering a **transform**. Most popular are **matrix transformations**.

Let $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=0}^{\infty}$ be an infinite matrix, and $x = (x_k)_{k=0}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of complex numbers. Then A defines a matrix transformation or **summability method A** by

$$(1.1) \quad y_n = (Ax)_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{nk}x_k \text{ for } n = 0, 1, \dots$$

The sequence $x = (x_k)_{k=0}^{\infty}$ is said to be **summable A to ℓ** , if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = \ell \text{ exists.}$$

The most important summability methods are given by

- Hausdorff matrices and their special cases
 - Cesàro
 - Euler
 - Hölder matrices
- Nörlund matrices

We refer to [Har, Mad, Pey, Z-B] for the classical summability theory.

Matrix Transformations

The theory of matrix transformations deals with establishing necessary and sufficient conditions on the entries of a matrix to map a sequence space X into a sequence space Y .

Let ω , c and ℓ_∞ denote the sets of all complex, convergent and bounded sequences. Given $X, Y \subset \omega$, we write (X, Y) for the class of all infinite matrices that map X into Y . So $A \in (X, Y)$ if and only if the series $(Ax)_n$ in (1.1) converge for all n and all $x \in X$ and

$$(1.2) \quad Ax = (Ax)_{n=0}^\infty \in Y \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

The first results were the **Toeplitz theorem** for the class (c, c) , the characterisation of **conservative** matrices, and the **Schur theorem** for the class (ℓ_∞, c) , the characterisation of **coercive** matrices.

Theorem 1.1 (O. Toeplitz, 1911) ([Toe]) $A \in (c, c)$ if and only if

$$(i) \quad \|A\| = \sup_n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| < \infty,$$

$$(ii) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{nk} = \alpha_k \text{ exists for every } k$$

and

$$(iii) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{nk} = \alpha \text{ exists.}$$

Theorem 1.2 (O. Schur, 1920) $A \in (l_{\infty}, c)$ if and only if

$$(i) \quad \sup_n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| \text{ is uniformly convergent in } n$$

and

$$(ii) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{nk} = \alpha_k \text{ exists for every } k.$$

Applications

Example 1.3 Steinhaus type theorems

A matrix is called *regular* if it is conservative and preserves limits. Toeplitz also proved that A is conservative if and only if conditions (i), (ii) and (iii) of [Theorem 1.1](#) hold with $\alpha_k = 0$ for all k and $\alpha = 1$.

The [Steinhaus theorem](#) states that, for every regular matrix A , there is a bounded sequence which is not summable A .

Proof. Assume there is a regular matrix $A \in (\ell_\infty, c)$. Then it follows from [Theorem 1.1](#) (iii), (ii), and [Theorem 1.2](#) (i) that

$$1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{nk} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{nk} \right) = 0.$$

□

Example 1.4 Weak and strong convergence coincide in ℓ_1 , the set of all absolutely convergent series.

We assume that the sequence $(x^{(n)})_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is weakly convergent to x in ℓ_1 , that is

$$f(x^{(n)}) - f(x) \rightarrow 0 \text{ for every } f \in \ell_1^*.$$

Since ℓ_1^* and ℓ_∞ are norm isomorphic, to every $f \in \ell_1^*$ there corresponds a sequence $a \in \ell_\infty$ such that

$$f(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k y_k \text{ for all } y \in \ell_1.$$

We define the matrix $B = (b_{nk})_{n,k=0}^{\infty}$ by $b_{nk} = x_k^{(n)} - x_k$ ($n, k = 0, 1, \dots$).

Then we have for all $a \in \ell_\infty$

$$f(x^{(n)}) - f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \left(x_k^{(n)} - x_k \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_{nk} a_k \rightarrow 0 \text{ (} n \rightarrow \infty \text{),}$$

that is $B \in (\ell_\infty, c)$. It follows from Theorem 1.2 that

$$\|x^{(n)} - x\|_1 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x_k^{(n)} - x_k| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |b_{nk}| \rightarrow 0 \quad (n \rightarrow \infty).$$

Surveys of results on matrix transformations can be found in [S-T, Z-B, Wil2, Mad, M-R], and in [Mad1] for infinite matrices of operators.

2. FK, BK, AK and AD Spaces

The theory of *FK* spaces is the most powerful tool in the theory of matrix transformations ([Wil1, Wil2, K-G, Zel, M-R]).

Definition 2.1 *Let H be a linear space and a Hausdorff space. An **FH space** is a (locally convex) Fréchet space X such that X is a linear subspace of H and the topology of X is stronger than the restriction of the topology of H on X .*

If $H = \omega$ with its topology given by the metric d with

$$(2.1) \quad d(x, y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} \frac{|x_k - y_k|}{1 + |x_k - y_k|} \quad (x, y \in \omega),$$

*then an **FH space** is called an **FK space**.*

*A **BH space** or a **BK space** is an **FH** or **FK** space which is a Banach space.*

Remark 2.2 *Since convergence in (ω, d) and coordinatewise convergence are equivalent, convergence in an FK space implies coordinatewise convergence.*

Example 2.3 *Let $H = \mathcal{F} = \{f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$, and, for every $t \in [0, 1]$, let $\hat{t} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function with $\hat{t}(f) = t(f)$. We assume that \mathcal{F} has the weak topology by $\Phi = \{\hat{t} : t \in [0, 1]\}$. Then $C[0, 1]$ is a BH space with $\|f\| = \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |f(t)|$.*

Proof. Let $(f_k)_{k=0}^{\infty}$ be a sequence in $C[0, 1]$ with $f_k \rightarrow 0$ ($k \rightarrow \infty$), then

$$\hat{t}(f_k) = f_k(t) \rightarrow 0 \quad (k \rightarrow \infty) \text{ for all } \hat{t} \in \Phi,$$

that is $f_k \rightarrow 0$ ($k \rightarrow \infty$) in \mathcal{F} . □

Example 2.4 Trivially ω is an *FK* space with its metric defined in (2.1)

The sets ℓ_∞ , c and c_0 (of null sequences), and ℓ_1 are Banach spaces with the natural norms

$$\|x\|_\infty = \sup |x_k| \text{ on } \ell_\infty, c, c_0$$

and

$$\|x\| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x_k| \text{ on } \ell_1.$$

Since

$$x_k \leq \|x\| \text{ in each case,}$$

norm convergence implies coordinatewise convergence.

So these spaces are *BK* spaces.

Theorem 2.5 Let X be a Fréchet space, Y be an FH space and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be linear.

If $f : X \rightarrow H$ is continuous, then $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.

Proof. Let \mathcal{T}_X , \mathcal{T}_Y and \mathcal{T}_H be the topologies on X , Y and of H on Y . If $f : X \rightarrow (Y, \mathcal{T}_H)$ is continuous, then it has closed graph by the **closed graph lemma** (any continuous map to a Hausdorff space has closed graph). Since Y is an FH space, we have $\mathcal{T}_H \subset \mathcal{T}_Y$, and so $f : X \rightarrow (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ has closed graph.

Consequently $f : X \rightarrow (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ is continuous by the **closed graph theorem**.

□

Corollary 2.6 Let X be a Fréchet space, Y be an FK space, $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be linear, and $P_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}_0$) be defined by $P_n(x) = x_n$.

If $P_n \circ f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is continuous for every n , then $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.

Proof. Since convergence and coordinatewise convergence are equivalent in ω , the continuity of $P_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ for all n implies the continuity of $f : X \rightarrow \omega$, hence of $f : X \rightarrow Y$ by **Theorem 2.5**. \square

Theorem 2.7 Let $X \supset \phi$ be an *FK* space where ϕ denotes the set of all finite sequences.

If the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x_k$ converges for all $x \in X$, then the linear functional $f_a : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by

$$f_a(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x_k \text{ for all } x \in X$$

is continuous.

Proof. We define $f_a^{[n]} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}_0$) by

$$f_a^{[n]}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x_k \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Since X is an FK space, $f_a^{[n]} \in X^*$ for all n . The limit $f_a(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_a^{[n]}(x)$ exists for all $x \in X$, hence $f_a \in X^*$ by the **Banach–Steinhaus theorem**. \square

Theorem 2.8 *Any matrix map between FK spaces is continuous.*

Proof. Let X and Y be FK spaces, $A \in (X, Y)$ and $f_A : X \rightarrow Y$ be defined by $f_A(x) = Ax$ for all $x \in X$.

Since the maps $P_n \circ f_A : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ are continuous for all n by **Theorem 2.7**, $f_A : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous by **Corollary 2.6**. \square

The FH topology of an FH space is unique.

Theorem 2.9 Let X and Y be FH spaces with $X \subset Y$.

Then the topology \mathcal{T}_X is larger than the topology $\mathcal{T}_Y|_X$ of Y on X .

They are equal if and only if X is a closed subspace of Y .

In particular, the topology of an FH space is unique.

Proof. Apply **Theorem 2.5** to the inclusion map $\iota : X \rightarrow Y$ to obtain all the statements except that about the equality of the topologies.

If X is closed in Y then X becomes an FH space with $\mathcal{T}_Y|_X$. By the uniqueness $\mathcal{T}_X = \mathcal{T}_Y|_X$.

If $\mathcal{T}_X = \mathcal{T}_Y|_X$, then X is a complete, hence closed, subspace of Y . \square

The class of FK spaces is fairly large.

Example 2.10 A Banach sequence space which is not a BK space

We consider the spaces $(c_0, \|\cdot\|_\infty)$ and

$$\ell_2 = \left\{ x \in \omega : \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x_k|^2 < \infty \right\} \text{ with } \|x\|_2 = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x_k|^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

Since they have the same algebraic dimension, there is an isomorphism $f : c_0 \rightarrow \ell_2$. We define a second norm $\|\cdot\|$ on c_0 by

$$\|x\| = \|f(x)\|_2.$$

Then $(c_0, \|\cdot\|)$ is a Banach space. But c_0 and ℓ_2 are not linearly homeomorphic, since ℓ_2 is reflexive, and c_0 is not. Therefore the two norms on c_0 are incomparable. By *Example 2.4* and *Theorem 2.9*, $(c_0, \|\cdot\|)$ is a Banach sequence space which is not a BK space.

Theorem 2.11 Let X , Y and Z be FH spaces with $X \subset Y \subset Z$.
If X is closed in Z , then X is closed in Y .

Proof. X is closed in $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Z|_Y)$, so in (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y) by **Theorem 2.9**. \square

Theorem 2.12 Let X and Y be FH spaces with $X \subset Y$, and E be a subset of X .

Then

$$cl_Y(E) = cl_Y(cl_X(E)), \text{ in particular } cl_X(E) \subset cl_Y(E).$$

Proof. Since $\mathcal{T}_Y|_X \subset \mathcal{T}_X$ by **Theorem 2.9**, it follows that $cl_X(E) \subset cl_Y(E)$. This implies

$$cl_Y(cl_X(E)) \subset cl_Y(cl_Y(E)) = cl_Y(E).$$

Conversely, $E \subset cl_X(E)$ implies $cl_Y(E) \subset cl_Y(cl_X(E))$. \square

Example 2.13 (a) Since c_0 and c are closed in ℓ_∞ , their *BK* topologies are the same; since ℓ_1 is not closed in ℓ_∞ , its *BK* topology is strictly stronger than that of ℓ_∞ on ℓ_1 (**Theorem 2.9**).

(b) If c is not closed in an *FK* space X , then X must contain unbounded sequences (**Theorem 2.11**).

Definition 2.14 Let $X \supset \phi$ be an *FK* space. Then X is said to have

(a) **AD** if $cl_X(\phi) = X$;

(b) **AK** if every sequence $x = (x_k)_{k=0}^\infty \in X$ has a unique representation

$$x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x_k e^{(k)} \text{ where } e_k^{(k)} = 1 \text{ and } e_j^{(k)} = 0 \text{ (} j \neq k \text{)}.$$

Example 2.15 (a) Every FK space with AK has AD .

(b) An Example of an FK space with AD which does not have AK can be found in [Wil2, Example 5.2.14, p. 80].

(c) The spaces ω , c_0 and ℓ_1 have AK .

(d) The space c does not have AK ; every sequence $x = (x_k)_{k=0}^{\infty} \in c$ has a unique representation

$$x = \ell e + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (x_k - \ell) e^{(k)} \text{ where } \ell = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k \text{ and } e_k = 1 \text{ for all } k.$$

(e) The space ℓ_{∞} has no Schauder basis, since it is not separable.

Applications

Theorem 2.16 Let X be an FK space with AD , and Y and Y_1 be FK spaces with Y_1 a closed subspace of Y .

Then $A \in (X, Y_1)$ if and only if $A \in (X, Y)$ and $Ae^{(k)} \in Y_1$ for all k .

Proof. First we assume $A \in (X, Y_1)$.

$Y_1 \subset Y$ implies $A \in (X, Y)$, and $e^{(k)} \in X$ implies $Ae^{(k)} \in Y_1$.

Now we assume $A \in (X, Y)$ and $Ae^{(k)} \in Y_1$ for all k .

Define $f_A : X \rightarrow Y$ by $f_A(x) = Ax$ for all $x \in X$. First $Ae^{(k)} \in Y_1$ implies $f_A(\phi) \subset Y_1$. By **Theorem 2.8**, f_A is continuous, hence $f_A(\text{cl}_X(\phi)) = \text{cl}_Y(f_A(\phi))$. Since Y_1 is closed in Y , and ϕ is dense in X , we have

$$f_A(X) = f_A(\text{cl}_X(\phi)) = \text{cl}_Y(f_A(\phi)) \subset \text{cl}_Y(Y_1) = \text{cl}_{Y_1}(Y_1) = Y_1$$

by **Theorem 2.9**. □

Theorem 2.17 Let X be an FK space, $X_1 = X \oplus e$ and Y a linear subspace of ω .

Then $A \in (X_1, Y)$ if and only if $A \in (X, Y)$ and $Ae \in Y$.

Proof. First we assume $A \in (X_1, Y)$.

$X \subset X_1$ implies $A \in (X, Y)$, and $e \in X_1$ implies $Ae \in Y$.

Conversely, we assume $A \in (X, Y)$ and $Ae \in Y$.

Let $x_1 \in X_1$ be given. Then there are $x \in X$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $x_1 = x + \lambda e$, and it follows that

$$Ax_1 = A(x + \lambda e) = Ax + \lambda Ae \in Y.$$

□

Let X and Y be Banach spaces. As usual, we denote by $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ set of all bounded linear operators $L : X \rightarrow Y$ which is a Banach space with the

norm

$$\|L\| = \sup \{ \|L(x)\| : \|x\| = 1 \}.$$

Theorem 2.18 Let X and Y be BK spaces.

(a) Then $(X, Y) \subset \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, that is every $A \in (X, Y)$ defines an operator $L_A \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ by $L_A(x) = Ax$ for all $x \in X$.

(b) If X has AK then $\mathcal{B}(X, Y) \subset (X, Y)$.

(c) We have $A \in (X, \ell_\infty)$ if and only if

$$(2.2) \quad \|A\|_{(X, \ell_\infty)} = \sup_n (\sup \{ |(Ax)_n| : \|x\| = 1 \}) < \infty;$$

if $A \in (X, \ell_\infty)$ then

$$(2.3) \quad \|L_A\| = \|A\|_{(X, \ell_\infty)}.$$

Proof. (a) This is **Theorem 2.8**.

(b) Let $L \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ be given.

We write $L_n = P_n \circ L$ for all n , and put $a_{nk} = L_n(e^{(k)})$ for all n and k .

Let $x = (x_k)_{k=0}^{\infty} \in X$ be given.

Since X has *AK*, $x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x_k e^{(k)}$, and since Y is a *BK* space, $L_n \in X^*$ for all n . Hence

$$L_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x_k L_n(e^{(k)}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k = (Ax)_n \text{ for all } n,$$

and so $L(x) = Ax$.

(c) The sufficiency of (2.2) is trivial.

Assume $A \in (X, Y)$.

Then $L_A \in \mathcal{B}(X, \ell_\infty)$ by Part (a), hence

$$\|L_A(x)\|_\infty \leq \|L_A\| \text{ for all } x \in X,$$

and (2.2) is an immediate consequence.

Also, (2.3) is obvious from the definitions of the operator norm and the norm $\|\cdot\|_{(X, \ell_\infty)}$. □

3. Multiplier and Dual Spaces

The so-called β -duals are of importance in the theory of matrix transformations. They are special cases of the multiplier spaces. Let cs and bs be the sets of all convergent and bounded series.

Definition 3.1 *Let X and Y be subsets of ω . Then*

$$M(X, Y) = \{a \in \omega : ax = (a_k x_k)_{k=0}^{\infty} \in Y \text{ for all } x \in X\}$$

is called the multiplier space of X in Y . Special cases are

$$X^{\alpha} = M(X, \ell_1), \quad \text{the } \alpha\text{-dual of } X,$$

$$X^{\beta} = M(X, cs), \quad \text{the } \beta\text{-dual of } X,$$

$$X^{\gamma} = M(X, bs), \quad \text{the } \gamma\text{-dual of } X.$$

Proposition 3.2 Let $X, X_1, Y, Y_1 \subset \omega$ and $\{X_\delta\}$ be a collection of subsets of ω . Then

$$(i) \quad Y \subset Y_1 \text{ implies } M(X, Y) \subset M(X, Y_1)$$

$$(ii) \quad X \subset X_1 \text{ implies } M(X_1, Y) \subset M(X, Y)$$

$$(iii) \quad X \subset M(M(X, Y), Y)$$

$$(iv) \quad M(X, Y) = M(M(M(X, Y), Y), Y)$$

$$(v) \quad M\left(\bigcup_{\delta} X_{\delta}, Y\right) = \bigcap_{\delta} M(X_{\delta}, Y).$$

Definition 3.3 Let $X \supset \phi$ be an FK space and X' be the continuous dual of X . Then $X^f = \{(f(e^{(n)}))_{n=0}^{\infty} : f \in X'\}$ is called the functional dual of X .

Theorem 3.4 (a) Let \dagger denote any of the symbols α , β and γ . Then

$$X^\alpha \subset X^\beta \subset X^\gamma \subset X^f \text{ and } X \subset X^{\dagger\dagger}.$$

(b) Let $X \supset \phi$ be an *FK* space. Then

$$X^f = (\text{cl}_X(\phi))^f.$$

(c) If $X \subset Y$ then $X^f \supset Y^f$. If X is closed in Y then $X^f = Y^f$.

Example 3.5 Let $X = c_0 \oplus z$ with z unbounded. Then X is a *BK* space, $X^f = \ell_1$ and $X^{ff} = \ell_\infty$, so $X \not\subset X^{ff}$.

Theorem 3.6 Let $X \supset \phi$ be an *FK* space.

(a) If X has *AK* then $X^\beta = X^f$.

(b) If X has *AD* then $X^\beta = X^\gamma$.

Theorem 3.7 Let $X \supset \phi$ be an FK space. Then $X^\beta \subset X'$; this means, that there is a linear one-to-one map $T : X^\beta \rightarrow X'$. If X has AK then T is onto.

The map T of **Theorem 3.7** is defined as follows

$$T : X^\beta \rightarrow X'$$

$$a \mapsto f_a \in X' \text{ where } f_a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x_k \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Theorem 3.8 Let $X \supset \phi$ be an FK space. Then $X^f = X'$ if and only if X has AD .

The following results do not extend to FK spaces, in general.

Theorem 3.9 Let $X \supset \phi$ and Y be BK spaces. Then $Z = M(X, Y)$ is a BK space with

$$\|z\| = \sup\{\|xz\| : \|x\| \leq 1\} \text{ for } z \in Z.$$

Theorem 3.10 Let $X \supset \phi$ be a BK space. Then X^f is a BK space.

Theorem 3.11 Let $X \supset \phi$ be a BK space. Then

$$X^{ff} \supset cl_X(\phi).$$

Hence, if X has AD , then $X \subset X^{ff}$.

Example 3.12 (i) $M(c_0, c) = \ell_\infty$; (ii) $M(c, c) = c$; (iii) $M(\ell_\infty, c) = c_0$.

Example 3.13 Let \dagger denote any of the symbols α , β or γ . Then

$$\omega^\dagger = \phi; \phi^\dagger = \omega; c_0^\dagger = c^\dagger = \ell_\infty^\dagger = \ell_1$$

$$\ell_1^\dagger = \ell_\infty; \ell_p^\dagger = \ell_q \quad (1 < p < \infty; q = p/(p - 1)).$$

Example 3.14 We have $c^\beta = c^f = \ell_1$. The map T of **Theorem 3.7** is not onto. We consider $\text{lim} \in X'$. If there were $a \in X^f$ with $\text{lim} a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x_k$ then it would follow that $a_k = \text{lim} e^{(k)} = 0$, hence $\text{lim} x = 0$ for all $x \in c$, contradicting $\text{lim} e = 1$.

Example 3.15 Let $X = c_0 \oplus z$ with $z \in \ell_\infty$. Then

$$X^{ff} = \ell_1^f = \ell_\infty \supset X,$$

but X does not have AD , hence the condition of **Theorem 3.10** is not necessary.

4. Matrix Transformations

We apply the results of the previous sections to give necessary and sufficient conditions on the entries of a matrix A to be in a class (X, Y) .

The first two results concern the transpose A^T of a matrix A .

Theorem 4.1 *Let X be an FK space and Y be any set of sequences.*

If $A \in (X, Y)$ then $A^T \in (Y^\beta, X^f)$.

If X and Y are BK spaces and Y^β has AD then

$$A^T \in (Y^\beta, cl_{X^f}(X^\beta)).$$

Theorem 4.2 *Let X and Z be BK spaces with AK and $Y = Z^\beta$.*

Then $(X, Y) = (X^{\beta\beta}, Y)$; furthermore

$$A \in (X, Y) \text{ if and only if } A^T \in (Z, X^\beta).$$

Remark 4.3 *The results of the previous sections yield the characterisations of the classes (X, Y) where X and Y are any of the spaces ℓ_p ($1 \leq p \leq \infty$), c_0 , c with the exceptions of (ℓ_p, ℓ_r) where both $p, r \neq 1, \infty$ (the characterisations are unknown), and of (ℓ_∞, c) (**Schur's theorem 1.2**) and (ℓ_∞, c_0) (**[S-T, 21 (21.1)]**) (no functional analytic proof seems to be known).*

*The class (ℓ_2, ℓ_2) was characterised by Crone (**[Cro]** or **[Ruc, pp. 111–115]**).*

Example 4.4 (a) *We have $(c_0, \ell_\infty) = (c, \ell_\infty) = (\ell_\infty, \ell_\infty)$; furthermore $A \in (\ell_\infty, \ell_\infty)$ if and only if*

$$(4.1) \quad \|A\|_{(\infty, \infty)} = \sup_n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| < \infty.$$

If A is in any of the classes above then

$$\|L_A\| = \|A\|_{(\infty, \infty)}.$$

(b) (*Toeplitz's theorem 1.1*) We have $A \in (c, c)$ if and only if (4.1) holds and

$$(4.2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{nk} = \alpha_k \text{ exists for every } k;$$

and

$$(4.3) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{nk} = \alpha \text{ exists.}$$

Proof. (a) We have $A \in (c_0, l_\infty)$ if and only if (4.1) by (2.2) in *Theorem 2.18*, and since $c_0^\beta = l_1$ and c_0^* and l_1 are norm isomorphic.

Furthermore $c_0 \subset c \subset l_\infty$ implies $(l_\infty, l_\infty) \subset (c, l_\infty) \subset (c_0, l_\infty)$.

Also $(l_\infty, l_\infty) = (c_0^{\beta\beta}, l_\infty)$ by the first part of *Theorem 4.2*.

The last part is obvious from *Theorem 2.18*.

(b) This is an immediate consequence of Part (a), and *Theorems 2.16* and

2.17.



Example 4.5 We have $(\ell_1, \ell_1) = \mathcal{B}(\ell_1, \ell_1)$ and $A \in (\ell_1, \ell_1)$ if and only if

$$(4.4) \quad \|A\|_{(1,1)} = \sup_k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| < \infty.$$

If $A \in (\ell_1, \ell_1)$ then

$$(4.5) \quad \|L_A\| = \|A\|_{(\ell_1, \ell_1)}.$$

Proof. Since ℓ_1 has AK , **Theorem 2.18** (b) yields the first part.

We apply the second part of **Theorem 4.2** with $X = \ell_1$, $Z = c_0$, BK spaces with AK , and $Y = Z^\beta = \ell_1$ to obtain $A \in (\ell_1, \ell_1)$ if and only if $A^T \in (\ell_\infty, \ell_\infty)$; by **Example 4.4** (a), this is the case if and only if (4.4) is

satisfied.

Furthermore, if $A \in (\ell_1, \ell_1)$ then

$$\|L_A(x)\|_1 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k \right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_{nk} x_k| \leq \|A\|_{(1,1)} \|x\|_1$$

implies

$$\|L_A\| \leq \|A\|_{(1,1)}.$$

Also have $L_A \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_1, \ell_1)$ implies

$$\|L_A(x)\|_1 = \|Ax\|_1 \leq \|L_A\| \|x\|_1,$$

and it follows from $\|e^{(k)}\|_1 = 1$ for all k that

$$\|A\|_{(1,1)} = \sup_k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| = \sup_k \|L_A(e^{(k)})\|_1 \leq \|L_A\|.$$

□

5. Measures of Noncompactness

Now we find necessary and sufficient conditions for a matrix $A \in (X, Y)$ to define a compact operator L_A .

This can be achieved by applying the Hausdorff measure of noncompactness.

The first measure of noncompactness was defined and studied by Kuratowski ([Kur]), and later used by Darbo ([Dar]).

The Hausdorff measure of noncompactness was introduced and studied by Goldenstein, Gohberg and Markus ([GGM]).

Istrăţesku introduced and studied the Istrăţesku measure of noncompactness ([Ist]).

The interested reader is referred for measures on noncompactness to [AKP, B–G, Ist1, TBA, M–R].

We will only consider the Hausdorff measure of noncompactness; it is the most suitable one for our purposes.

Let (X, d) be a metric space, $x_0 \in X$ and $r > 0$. Then

$$B(x_0, r) = \{x \in X : d(x, x_0) < r\}$$

denotes the open ball of radius r , centred at x_0 .

Definition 5.1 Let (X, d) be a metric space and \mathcal{M} denote the collection of bounded subsets of X . The function $\chi : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ with

$$\chi(Q) = \left\{ \varepsilon > 0 : Q \subset \bigcup_{k=0}^n B(x_k, r_k); x_k \in X, r_k < \varepsilon \right\}$$

is called Hausdorff measure of noncompactness; $\chi(Q)$ is called the Hausdorff measure of noncompactness of Q .

Proposition 5.2 Let X be a metric space and $Q, Q_1, Q_2 \in \mathcal{M}$. Then

$\chi(Q) = 0$ if and only if Q is totally bounded,

$$\chi(Q) = \chi(\bar{Q}),$$

$Q_1 \subset Q_2$ implies $\chi(Q_1) \leq \chi(Q_2)$,

$$\chi(Q_1 \cup Q_2) = \max\{\chi(Q_1), \chi(Q_2)\},$$

$$\chi(Q_1 \cap Q_2) \leq \min\{\chi(Q_1), \chi(Q_2)\}.$$

Proposition 5.3 Let X be a normed space and $Q, Q_1, Q_2 \in \mathcal{M}$. Then

$$\chi(Q_1 + Q_2) \leq \chi(Q_1) + \chi(Q_2),$$

$$\chi(Q + x) = \chi(Q) \text{ for all } x \in X,$$

$$\chi(\lambda Q) = |\lambda| \chi(Q) \text{ for all scalars,}$$

$$\chi(Q) = \chi(\text{conv}(Q)).$$

Theorem 5.4 (Goldenstein, Gohberg, Markus) ([GGM])

Let X be a Banach space with a Schauder basis $(b_k)_{k=0}^{\infty}$, $Q \in \mathcal{M}$ and $\mathcal{P}_n : X \rightarrow X$ be the projector onto the linear span of $\{b_0, b_1, \dots, b_n\}$.

Then

$$(5.1) \quad \frac{1}{a} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup_{x \in Q} \|(I - \mathcal{P}_n)(x)\| \right) \leq \chi(Q) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup_{x \in Q} \|(I - \mathcal{P}_n)(x)\| \right)$$

where

$$a = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|I - \mathcal{P}_n\|.$$

So far we considered the measure of noncompactness of bounded subsets of a metric space. Now we define the **measure of noncompactness of an operator**.

Definition 5.5 Let κ_1 and κ_2 be measures of noncompactness on the Banach spaces X and Y , and \mathcal{M}_X and \mathcal{M}_Y denote the collections of bounded sets in X and Y . An operator $L : X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be (κ_1, κ_2) -bounded if

$$L(Q) \in \mathcal{M}_Y \text{ for all } Q \in \mathcal{M}_X$$

and there exists a non-negative real c such that

$$\kappa_2(L(Q)) \leq c \kappa_1(Q) \text{ for all } Q \in \mathcal{M}_X.$$

If an operator L is (κ_1, κ_2) -bounded, then the number

$$\|L\|_{(\kappa_1, \kappa_2)} = \inf\{c \geq 0 : \kappa_2(L(Q)) \leq c \kappa_1(Q) \text{ for all } Q \in \mathcal{M}_X\}$$

is called the (κ_1, κ_2) -measure of noncompactness of L .

If $\kappa = \kappa_1 = \kappa_2$, then we write $\|L\|_\kappa = \|L\|_{(\kappa, \kappa)}$.

Theorem 5.6 Let X and Y be Banach spaces, $L \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, S_X and \bar{B}_X be the unit sphere and the closed unit ball in X , and χ be the Hausdorff measure of noncompactness.

Then

$$(5.2) \quad \|L\|_\chi = \chi(L(S_X)) = \chi(L(\bar{B}_X)).$$

Theorem 5.7 Let X , Y and Z be Banach spaces, $L \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$, $\tilde{L} \in \mathcal{B}(Y, Z)$, and $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$ denote the set of compact operators in $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$.

Then $\|\cdot\|_\chi$ is a seminorm on $\mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ and

$$(5.3) \quad \begin{aligned} \|L\|_\chi &= 0 \text{ if and only if } L \in \mathcal{C}(X, Y), \\ \|L\|_\chi &\leq \|L\|, \\ \|\tilde{L} \circ L\|_\chi &\leq \|\tilde{L}\|_\chi \|L\|_\chi. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 5.8 Let $L \in \mathcal{B}(\ell_1, \ell_1)$, and A denote the infinite matrix such that $L(x) = Ax$ for all $x \in \ell_1$. Then $L \in \mathcal{C}(\ell_1, \ell_1)$ if and only if

$$(5.4) \quad \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup_k \sum_{n=r}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| \right) = 0.$$

Proof. By Theorem 2.18 (b), every $L \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ can be represented by a matrix $A \in (X, Y)$.

Writing $S = S_{\ell_1}$, we have by (5.2) in Theorem 5.6

$$\|L\|_{\chi} = \chi(L(S)).$$

For $r = 0, 1, \dots$, let $A^{(r)}$ be the matrix with the first r rows replaced by 0. Then

$$\|(I - \mathcal{P}_{r-1})(L(x))\|_1 = \|A^{(r)}x\|_1$$

hence, by (4.4) in Example 4.5,

$$\sup_{x \in S} \|(I - \mathcal{P}_{r-1})(L(x))\|_1 = \|A^{(r)}\|_{(\ell_1, \ell_1)} = \sup_k \sum_{n=r}^{\infty} |a_{nk}|.$$

Since obviously $\|I - \mathcal{P}_{r-1}\| = 1$ for all r , and the limit on the right hand side of (5.4) exists, it follows from (5.1) in Theorem 5.4 that

$$\chi(L(S)) = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup_k \sum_{n=r}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| \right).$$

Finally it follows from (5.3) in Theorem 5.7 that $L \in \mathcal{C}(X, Y)$ if and only if (5.4) is satisfied. \square

Remark 5.9 *It follows from Theorem 5.8 and Example 4.5 that every $L \in \mathcal{B}(X, Y)$ is compact.*

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