




Statistical cluster point and statistical limit point sets of subsequences of a given sequence

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Abstract

J.A. Fridy [Statistical limit points, Proc. Amer. Math. Soc., 1993] considered statistical cluster points and statistical limit points of a given sequence x . Here we show that almost all subsequences of x have the same statistical cluster point set as x . Also, we show an analogous result for the statistical limit points of x .

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1. Introduction

Fridy [1] has proven that Γ_x , the set of statistical cluster points of $x = (x_n)$, is always a closed set and Γ_x is non-empty if x is bounded. However Λ_x , the set of statistical limit points of x , need not be closed. In [2] H.I. Miller studied statistical convergence and relations between statistical convergence of a sequence x and statistical convergence of the subsequences of x . In particular, in [2], it is shown that if L is the statistical limit of x , then almost all subsequences of x have L as their statistical limit. Here we combine two notions, statistical cluster points and subsequences, showing that Γ_x is equal to the statistical cluster point set of almost all subsequences of x . This is a continuation of the results in [3] that also combine statistical cluster points and subsequences. Namely, in [3] it is shown that if $\Gamma_x \neq \emptyset$ and F is a non-empty closed subset of Γ_x , then there exists a subsequence y of x such that $\Gamma_y = F$. Additionally we show that Λ_x is equal to the statistical limit point set of almost all subsequences of x . This is a continuation of the results in [4] that also combine statistical limit points and subsequences.

2. Preliminaries

If $t \in (0, 1]$, then t has a unique binary expansion $t = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e_n}{2^n}$, $e_n \in \{0, 1\}$, with infinitely many ones. Next if $x = (x_n)$ is a sequence of reals, for each $t \in (0, 1]$, let $x(t)$ denote the subsequence of x obtained by the following rule: x_n is in the subsequence if and only if $e_n = 1$. Clearly the mapping $t \rightarrow x(t)$ is a one-to-one onto mapping between $(0, 1]$ and the collection of all subsequences of x .

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If K is a subset of the positive integers N , then following Fridy [1], K_n denotes the set $\{k \in K : k \leq n\}$ and $|K_n|$ denotes the number of elements in K_n . The natural density of K (see [5]) is given by $\delta(K) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-1}|K_n|$, provided this limit exists. In the case that $\delta(K) = 0$ we say that K is thin, and otherwise we say that K is non-thin.

Statistical convergence of a sequence is defined as follows.

We say that L is the statistical limit of the sequence x , if for every $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} |\{k \leq n : |x_k - L| \geq \epsilon\}| = 0.$$

Statistical convergence and its connection to subsequences is studied in [2].

Statistical limit points and statistical cluster points of a sequence x are defined as follows.

We say that a number λ is a statistical limit point of a sequence of reals $x = (x_n)$ if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = \lambda$ for some non-thin subsequence of (x_n) .

We say that a number γ is a statistical cluster point of a sequence of reals (x_n) if for every $\epsilon > 0$ the set $\{k \in N : |x_k - \gamma| < \epsilon\}$ is non-thin.

In [1], given a sequence x , three sets are considered. L_x , the set of limit points of x ; Λ_x , the set of statistical limit points of x , and Γ_x , the set of statistical cluster points of x . Also, if x is bounded, then Γ_x is closed and non-empty.

In this paper we want to examine, Γ_x and its relation to $\Gamma_{x(t)}$. Additionally we also consider Λ_x and its relation to $\Lambda_{x(t)}$.

3. Results

Our main result is the following.

Theorem 3.1. If $x = (x_n)$ is a bounded sequence, then $\Gamma_x = \Gamma_{x(t)}$ for almost all $t \in (0, 1]$ (in the sense of Lebesgue measure).

Proof. Since Γ_x is closed, it is either finite or separable, i.e. there is a countable subset of Γ_x , $\{l_n : n \in N\}$ such that its closure is Γ_x . We consider only the second case, the proof in the first case is much simpler.

First we show that $\Gamma_x \subseteq \Gamma_{x(t)}$ for almost all t . It is sufficient to show that $m(B_n) = 1$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$ where $B_n = \{t \in (0, 1] : l_n \in \Gamma_{x(t)}\}$. This is true since in that case $m(B) = 1$ for $B = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n$ and then $\{l_n : n \in N\} \subseteq \Gamma_{x(t)}$ for all $t \in B$ and consequently $\Gamma_x \subseteq \Gamma_{x(t)}$ for all $t \in B$.

Since $l_n \in \Gamma_x$, then for every $\epsilon > 0$, $\{k \in N : |x_k - l_n| < \epsilon\}$ is non-thin. If $\epsilon = \frac{1}{j}$ we can denote the above set by $\{k_1^j, k_2^j, k_3^j, \dots\}$. Then, since it is non-thin there exists $\delta_j > 0$ such that

$$\frac{1}{p} |\{i : k_i^j \leq p\}| > \delta_j$$

for infinitely many p . We can assume that $p = k_M^j$ for infinitely many sufficiently large M . Now for each j , by the Law of Large Numbers, the limiting frequency of $x_{k_i^j}$ $i = 1, 2, \dots$ among the sequence $x(t)$ is $\frac{1}{2}$ for almost all $t \in (0, 1]$, i.e. if $t = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon_m}{2^m}$, then $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m t_{k_i^j}^j = \frac{1}{2}$ for almost all $t \in (0, 1]$. That is, $m(D_j) = 1$, where

$$D_j = \{t \in (0, 1] : \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m t_{k_i^j}^j = \frac{1}{2}\} \tag{3.1}$$

for all j . Hence if $D = \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} D_j$, $m(D) = 1$. Now we will check that l_n is a statistical cluster point for each t in D .

To see this we will show that $\{i \in N : |x(t)_i - l_n| < \frac{1}{j}\}$ is non-thin for every $j \in N$ and every $t \in D_j$.

Consider the earlier mentioned $p = k_M^j$ for M large enough. Then the number of such $i \leq p$, with $|x_i - l_n| < \frac{1}{j}$ is greater than $p\delta_j$. Now take $t \in D_j$. By (3.1), $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m t_{k_i}^j = \frac{1}{2}$. So for large M , $p = k_M^j$, we have

$$\frac{1}{p} |\{i \leq p : |x(t)_i - l_n| < \frac{1}{j}\}| > \frac{\delta_j}{4},$$

i.e. this holds for infinitely many p , i.e. $\{i \in N : |x(t)_i - l_n| < \frac{1}{j}\}$ is non-thin for every $j \in N$ and every $t \in D_j$. Hence l_n is a statistical cluster point for every $t \in D$. This completes the proof that $\Gamma_x \subseteq \Gamma_{x(t)}$ for almost all t .

Next we show that $\Gamma_{x(t)} \subseteq \Gamma_x$ for almost all t . We will show that this inclusion holds for all normal $t \in (0, 1]$, i.e. for all $t = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon_n}{2^n}$ for which $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i = \frac{1}{2}$. It is well known that almost all $t \in (0, 1]$ are normal (see [5]).

Suppose that l is a statistical cluster point of $x(t)$ for some normal t . Then for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\{i : |(x(t))_i - l| < \epsilon\}$ is non-thin, i.e. there exists $\delta_\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$\frac{1}{n} |i \leq n : |(x(t))_i - l| < \epsilon| > 2\delta_\epsilon$$

for infinitely many n . This implies that

$$\frac{1}{n} |i \leq n : |x_i - l| < \epsilon| > \frac{1}{2}\delta_\epsilon$$

for infinitely many n , and hence l is a statistical cluster point of x . Therefore $\Gamma_{x(t)} \subseteq \Gamma_x$ for all normal t , and consequently for almost all $t \in (0, 1]$. Therefore we conclude that $\Gamma_{x(t)} = \Gamma_x$ for almost all $t \in (0, 1]$. \square

Next, we will prove an analogous result for the set of statistical limit points of x and its subsequences. The set Λ_x is not necessarily closed (see [4]). However the following useful theorem was proved by Kostyrko, Mačaj, Šalat and Strauch [4].

Theorem 3.2. For every bounded sequence x , the set Λ_x is an F_σ -set in R .

In the proof of the above theorem, the authors show that

$$\Lambda_x = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \Lambda(x, \frac{1}{j})$$

where $\Lambda(x, \frac{1}{j}) = \{l, \exists k_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_{k_i} = l, \bar{\delta}(\{k_i\}) \geq \frac{1}{j}\}$ where $\bar{\delta}$ denotes the upper statistical density (i.e. $\bar{\delta}(\{k_i\}) = \limsup_{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{i}{k_i}$) and $\Lambda(x, \frac{1}{j})$ is closed for all j .

Here is our second result.

Theorem 3.3. If $x = (x_n)$ is a bounded sequence, then $\Lambda_x = \Lambda_{x(t)}$ for almost all $t \in (0, 1]$ (in the sense of Lebesgue measure).

Proof. We proceed in a similar manner as in the proof of Theorem 3.1.

First we show that $\Lambda_x \subseteq \Lambda_{x(t)}$ for almost all t .

As mentioned earlier, $\Lambda_x = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} T_j$, where

$$T_j = \Lambda(x, \frac{1}{j}) = \{l, \exists k_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_{k_i} = l, \bar{\delta}(\{k_i\}) \geq \frac{1}{j}\}.$$

Suppose $j \in N$ is fixed. Using the above notation (from [4]), T_j is closed and separable so there exists a set $\{l_{ij} : i \in N\}$ such that its closure is T_j . Let $i \in N$. If $l = l_{ij}$, then by the Law of Large Numbers, $l \in \Lambda(x(t), \frac{1}{4j})$, for all $t \in B_{ij}$, where $m(B_{ij}) = 1$. Let $B_j = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_{ij}$. Then $m(B_j) = 1$. Hence $\{l_{ij} : i \in N\} \subseteq \Lambda(x(t), \frac{1}{4j})$ for every $t \in B_j$. Now since T_j and $\Lambda(x(t), \frac{1}{4j})$ are both closed we get that $T_j \subseteq \Lambda(x(t), \frac{1}{4j})$ for every $t \in B_j$.

Therefore $\Lambda_x = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} T_j \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \Lambda(x(t), \frac{1}{4j}) = \Lambda_{x(t)}$ for all $t \in \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j$. Since $m(\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j) = 1$, we have shown that $\Lambda_x \subseteq \Lambda_{x(t)}$ for almost all t .

Next we show that $\Lambda_{x(t)} \subseteq \Lambda_x$ for almost all t . Again we show that this inclusion holds for all normal $t \in (0, 1]$. Suppose that l is a statistical limit point of $x(t)$ for some normal t . Then $x(t)$ has a non-thin subsequence that converges to l (in the normal sense). It is easy to see that this subsequence $x(t)_i = x_{k_i}$ is then also a non-thin subsequence of x and therefore l is also a statistical limit point of x . This completes the proof. \square

4. Concluding remarks

We mentioned that $m(\nu) = 1$, where ν is the set of normal numbers in $(0, 1]$. However ν is a set of first Baire category. In light of this we suspect that a category analogue of our Theorem 3.1 is not true.

Also, one could examine possible analogues of our results using permutations rather than subsequences.

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