ON $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -SUMMABILITY

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Abstract: In this paper, we introduce and investigate the concept of $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability as an extension of $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability which was recently (2021) introduced by O.H.H. Edely, where $A=(a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ is a nonnegative regular matrix and \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} represent two non-trivial admissible ideals in \mathbb{N} . We study some of its fundamental properties as well as a few inclusion relationships with some other known summability methods. We prove that $A^{\mathcal{K}}$ -summability always implies $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability whereas $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summability. Finally, we give a condition namely $AP(\mathcal{I},\mathcal{K})$ (which is a natural generalization of the condition AP) under which $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summability implies $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability.

Keywords: Ideal, Filter, \mathcal{I} -convergence, $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ -convergence, $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summa-bility, $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability.

1. Introduction

In 2000, Kostrkyo and Salat [12] introduced the notion of ideal convergence. They studied several fundamental properties of \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{I}^* -convergence and showed that their idea was the extended version of so many known convergence methods. Based on \mathcal{I} -convergence several generalizations were made by researchers and several analytical and topological properties have been investigated (see [1, 9, 11, 15–19, 21, 22] where many more references can be found) and this area becomes one of the most focused areas of research.

In 2011, M. Macaj and M. Sleziak [13] generalized the idea of \mathcal{I}^* -convergence to $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ -convergence by involving two ideals \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} . In the case of $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ -convergence, the convergence along the large set is taken with regard to another ideal \mathcal{K} instead of considering ordinary convergence. So from that point of view the concept of $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ -convergence being an extension of \mathcal{I}^* -convergence shows a strong analogy for further investigation. Recent developments in the direction of $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ -convergence from topological aspects can be found from the works of Das et al. [4, 5], Banerjee and Paul [2, 3] and many others.

If $x = (x_k)$ be a real-valued sequence and $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ be an infinite matrix, then Ax is the sequence having n^{th} term $A_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k$. A sequence $x = (x_k)$ is said to be A-summable to L, if $\lim_{n \to \infty} A_n(x) = L$. A matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ is said to be regular if it maps a convergent sequence into a convergent sequence keeping the same limit i.e., $A \in (c, c)_{reg}$ if $A \in (c, c)$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} A_n(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_k$. Here c, (c, c), and $(c, c)_{reg}$ denote the collection of all real-valued convergent sequences, collection of all matrices which maps an element of c to an element of c, respectively. The necessary and sufficient Silverman–Toeplitz conditions for an infinite matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ to be regular are as follows:

(i)
$$\sup_{n} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_{nk}| < \infty;$$

- (ii) For any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_{nk} = 0$;
- (iii) $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} = 1.$

In 2008, Edely and Mursaleen [7] generalized the notion of A-summability to statistical A-summability by using the concept of natural density. Recently, Edely [6] further extended the notion of statistical A-summability to $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summability, where \mathcal{I} represents an ideal in \mathbb{N} . In this paper we intend to introduce the notion of $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability which is a natural generalization of $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability. For more details regarding summability theory, one may refer to [8, 10, 14, 20].

Throughout the paper, we will use (y_n) to denote the image $(A_n(x))$ of the sequence $x = (x_k)$ under the transformation of the non-negative regular infinite matrix A.

2. Definitions and preliminaries

Definition 1. A collection \mathcal{I} containing subsets of a nonempty set X is called an ideal in X if and only if (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{I}$, (ii) $P, Q \in \mathcal{I}$ implies $P \cup Q \in \mathcal{I}$ (Additive), and (iii) $P \in \mathcal{I}, Q \subset P$ implies $Q \in \mathcal{I}$ (Hereditary).

If for any $x \in X \{\{x\}\} \subset \mathcal{I}$ then it is said that \mathcal{I} satisfies the admissibility property or simply is called admissible. Also \mathcal{I} is called non-trivial if $X \notin \mathcal{I}$ and $\mathcal{I} \neq \{\emptyset\}$.

Some standard examples of ideal are given below:

- (i) The set \mathcal{I}_f consisting of all subsets of \mathbb{N} having finite cardinality is an admissible ideal in \mathbb{N} .
- (ii) The set \mathcal{I}_d of all subsets of natural numbers having natural density 0 is an ideal in \mathbb{N} which is also admissible.
- (iii) The set $\mathcal{I}_c = \{A \subseteq \mathbb{N} : \sum_{a \in A} a^{-1} < \infty\}$ is an ideal in \mathbb{N} which also has the so called admissibility property.
- (iv) Suppose $\mathbb{N} = \bigcup_{p=1}^{\infty} D_p$, where $D_p \subset \mathbb{N}$ for any $p \in \mathbb{N}$ and for $i \neq j$, $D_i \cap D_j = \emptyset$. Then, the set \mathcal{I} of all subsets of \mathbb{N} which intersects finitely many D_p 's forms an ideal in \mathbb{N} .

More important examples can be found in [9] and [11].

Definition 2. A collection \mathcal{F} containing subsets of a nonempty set X is called a filter in X if and only if (i) $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}$ (ii) $M, N \in \mathcal{F}$ implies $M \cap N \in \mathcal{F}$ and (iii) $M \in \mathcal{F}, N \supset M$ implies $N \in \mathcal{F}$.

If \mathcal{I} is a proper non-trivial ideal in X, then the collection $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}) = \{M \subset X : \exists P \in \mathcal{I} \text{ such that } M = X \setminus P\}$ forms a filter in X. It is known as the filter associated with the ideal \mathcal{I} .

Definition 3 [12]. Let \mathcal{I} be an ideal in \mathbb{N} which satisfies the admissibility property. A real-valued sequence $x = (x_k)$ is called \mathcal{I} -convergent to l if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ the set $\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |x_k - l| \ge \varepsilon\}$ is contained in \mathcal{I} . The number l is called the \mathcal{I} -limit of the sequence $x = (x_k)$. Symbolically, $\mathcal{I} - \lim x = l$.

Definition 4 [12]. Let \mathcal{I} be an ideal in \mathbb{N} which satisfies the admissibility property. A sequence $x = (x_k)$ is called \mathcal{I}^* -convergent to l, if there exists a set $M = \{m_1 < m_2 < ... < m_k < ...\}$ in the associated filter $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$, for which $\lim_{k \to \infty} x_{m_k} = l$ holds.

Definition 5 [13]. Let \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{K} denote two ideals in \mathbb{N} . A sequence $x = (x_k)$ is called $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ convergent to l if the associated filter $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ contains a set M such that the sequence $y = (y_k)$ defined by

$$y_k = \begin{cases} x_k, & k \in M, \\ l, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is K-convergent to l.

If we consider $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{I}_f$ then $\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}$ -convergence concept coincides with \mathcal{I}^* -convergence [12].

Definition 6 [13]. Let K be an ideal in \mathbb{N} . Then, $P \subset_K Q$ denotes the property $P \setminus Q \in K$. Also $P \subset_K Q$ and $Q \subset_K P$ together implies $P \sim_K Q$. Thus $P \sim_K Q$ if and only if $P \triangle Q \in K$. A set P is said to be K-pseudointersection of a system $\{P_i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ if for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$ $P \subset_K P_i$ holds.

Definition 7 [13]. Let \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} be two ideals on \mathbb{N} . Then \mathcal{I} is said to have the additive property with respect to \mathcal{K} or the condition $AP(\mathcal{I},\mathcal{K})$ holds if every sequence $(F_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ of sets from $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ has \mathcal{K} -pseudointersection in $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$.

Definition 8 [6]. A real-valued sequence $x = (x_k)$ is said to be $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summable to a real number L, if the transformed sequence $(A_n(x))$ is \mathcal{I} -convergent to L. Symbolically, it is written as $A^{\mathcal{I}} - \lim x_k = L$.

Definition 9 [6]. A real-valued sequence $x = (x_k)$ is said to be $A^{\mathcal{I}^*}$ -summable to a real number L, if there exists a set $M = \{m_1 < m_2 < ... < m_i < ...\} \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ such that

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \sum_{k} a_{m_i k} x_k = \lim_{i \to \infty} y_{m_i} = L.$$

3. Main results

Throughout the section, for a sequence $x = (x_k)$ we will use $y = (y_n)$ to denote the transformed sequence $(A_n(x))$ where $A_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k$.

Definition 10. Let $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ be a non-negative regular matrix and suppose \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{K} be two admissible ideals in \mathbb{N} . A real-valued sequence $x = (x_k)$ is said to be $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to $L \in \mathbb{R}$, if there exists a set $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ such that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined by

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ L, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is K-convergent to L, where the sequence $y = (y_n)$ is defined as

$$y_n = A_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k.$$

In this case we write, $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$.

Example 1. Consider the decomposition of \mathbb{N} given by

$$\mathbb{N} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} D_i, \quad D_i = \{2^{i-1}(2s-1) : s = 1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

Let \mathcal{I} denotes the ideal consisting of all subsets of \mathbb{N} which intersects finitely many of D_i 's. Consider the sequence $x = (x_k)$ defined by $x_k = 1/i$ if $k \in D_i$ and the infinite matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ as

$$a_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = n+2, \\ 0, & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Then, the sequence is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to 0 for $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{I}$.

Justification: Clearly,

$$y_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{nk} x_k = \frac{1}{i}, \quad n+2 \in D_i.$$

Let $M = \mathbb{N} \setminus D_1$. Then, $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ and it is easy to verify that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined by

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ 0, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is \mathcal{I} -convergent to 0. Hence, $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{I}}} - \lim x_k = 0$.

Theorem 1. Let $A^{\mathcal{I}^*} - \lim x_k = L$ then $A^{\mathcal{I}^K} - \lim x_k = L$.

Proof. Let $A^{\mathcal{I}^*} - \lim x_k = L$. Then, there exists a set

$$M = \{m_1 < m_2 < \dots < m_k < \dots\} \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$$

such that $\lim_{i} y_{m_i} = L$. This implies that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined as

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ L, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is usual convergent to L. Now by Theorem 2.1 of [11], we can say that for any ideal \mathcal{K} , the sequence $z=(z_k)$ is \mathcal{K} -convergent to L. Hence, $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}-\lim x_k=L$.

Theorem 2. Let $A^{\mathcal{K}} - \lim x_k = L$ then $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$.

Proof. Since $A^{\mathcal{K}} - \lim x = L$, so for every $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{K}.$$
 (3.1)

Choose $M = \mathbb{N}$ from $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$. Consider the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined by $z_k = y_k$, $k \in M$. Then, using (3.1), we get for every $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |z_k - L| > \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{K}$$

i.e. $z = (z_k)$ is \mathcal{K} -convergent to L. Hence $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$.

Remark 1. Converse of the above theorem is not necessarily true.

Example 2. Consider the ideals

$$\mathcal{I}_c = \{ B \subseteq \mathbb{N} : \sum_{b \in B} b^{-1} < \infty \}, \quad \mathcal{I}_d = \{ B \subseteq \mathbb{N} : d(B) = 0 \}$$

and the infinite matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ defined by

$$a_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = n, \\ 0, & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Let $x = (x_k)$ be the sequence defined as

$$x_k = \begin{cases} 1, & k \text{ is prime,} \\ 0, & k \text{ is not prime.} \end{cases}$$

Then, there exists set M of all non prime numbers $\in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}_d)$ such that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined as

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ 0, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is \mathcal{I}_c -convergent to 0. Hence, $A^{\mathcal{I}_d^{\mathcal{I}_c}} - \lim x_k = 0$. But we claim that $A^{\mathcal{I}_c} - \lim x_k \neq 0$. Because if $A^{\mathcal{I}_c} - \lim x_k = 0$, then for any particular ε with $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, we have the set

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - 0| \ge \varepsilon\} = \text{set of all prime numbers} \in \mathcal{I}_c,$$

it is a contradiction.

The next theorem gives the condition under which $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability implies $A^{\mathcal{K}}$ -summability.

Theorem 3. Let \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} be two admissible ideals in \mathbb{N} . If $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ then $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$ implies $A^{\mathcal{K}} - \lim x_k = L$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$. Then, $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$ gives the assurance of the existence of a set $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ such that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined as

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ L, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is K-convergent to L and subsequently, we have

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \quad \{k \in M : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{K}.$$
 (3.2)

Now as the inclusion

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \subseteq \{k \in M : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \cup (\mathbb{N} \setminus M)$$

holds and by our assumption, $\mathbb{N} \setminus M \in \mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$, from (3.2) we have

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{K}.$$

Hence,
$$A^{\mathcal{K}} - \lim x_k = L$$
.

Theorem 4. If every subsequence of $x = (x_k)$ is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to L, then x is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to L.

Proof. If possible let us assume the contrary. Then, for every $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$, the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined as

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ L, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is not \mathcal{K} -convergent to L. In other words, for any $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$, there exists an $\varepsilon_M > 0$ such that

$$B = M \cap \{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon_M\} \notin \mathcal{K}.$$

Since K is admissible, so B is infinite. Let $B = \{b_1 < b_2 < ... < b_k < ...\}$. Construct a subsequence $w = (w_k)$ defined as $w_k = y_{b_k}$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, $A^{\mathcal{I}^K} - \lim w_k \neq L$, we get a contradiction to the hypothesis.

Theorem 5. Let $x = (x_k)$ be a sequence such that $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$. Then, every subsequence of x is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to L if and only if both \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} does not contain infinite sets.

Proof. There are two possible cases.

Case I. Let K contain an infinite set. Suppose C be an infinite set and $C \in K$. Then, $\mathbb{N} \setminus C \in \mathcal{F}(K)$ and $\mathbb{N} \setminus C$ is also infinite. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be arbitrary. Choose $L_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $L_1 \neq L$. Consider the infinite matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$, defined as

$$a_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = n, \\ 0, & otherwise, \end{cases}$$

and the sequence $x = (x_k)$ such that

$$x_k = \begin{cases} L_1, & k \in C, \\ L, & k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus C. \end{cases}$$

Then,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| > \varepsilon\} \subset C \in \mathcal{K}.$$

This means that x is $A^{\mathcal{K}}$ -summable to L. Therefore by Theorem 2, x is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to L. But clearly the subsequence $(x_k)_{k\in C}$ of x is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to L_1 and not to L.

Case II. Let K does not contain an infinite set. Then $K = \mathcal{I}_f$ and $A^{\mathcal{I}^K}$ -summability concept coincides with $A^{\mathcal{I}^*}$ -summability.

Subcase I: if \mathcal{I} contains an infinite set. Let B be any infinite set such that $B \in \mathcal{I}$. Then, $\mathbb{N} \setminus B \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ and $\mathbb{N} \setminus B$ is also infinite. Define a sequence $x = (x_k)$ as

$$x_k = \begin{cases} \xi, & k \in B, \\ L, & k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus B, \end{cases}$$

where $\xi(\neq L) \in \mathbb{R}$. Clearly x is $A^{\mathcal{I}^*}$ -summable to L for the infinite matrix considered in Case I. But clearly the subsequence $(x_k)_{k\in B}$ of x is not $A^{\mathcal{I}^*}$ -summable to L.

Subcase II: if \mathcal{I} does not contain an infinite set. In this subcase, we have $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{K} = \mathcal{I}_f$ and therefore $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability concept coincides with ordinary summability ([10]) so any subsequence of x is ordinary summable to L.

Remark 2. If a sequence is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable then it may not be $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summable.

Example 3. Let us consider the ideal \mathcal{I} which is defined in Example 1 and the ideal

$$\mathcal{I}_c = \{ A \subseteq \mathbb{N} : \sum_{a \in A} a^{-1} < \infty \}.$$

Let $M = \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k = 2^p \text{ for some non-negative integer p}\}$. Then, for the regular matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ defined as

$$a_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = n, \\ 0, & otherwise, \end{cases}$$

the sequence $x = (x_k)$ defined by

$$x_k = \begin{cases} 1, & k \in M, \\ 0, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{I}_{c}}}$ -summable to 0 but x is not $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summable to 0.

Theorem 6. Let \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} be two ideals in \mathbb{N} . Let $x = (x_k)$ be any real-valued sequence. Then, $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$ implies $A^{\mathcal{I}} - \lim x_k = L$ if and only if $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ and suppose $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$. Then, the result follows directly from the following inclusion

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \subseteq \{k \in M : |y_k - L| \ge \varepsilon\} \cup (\mathbb{N} \setminus M).$$

For the converse part, we assume the contrary. Then, there exists a set say $C \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \mathcal{I}$. Let L_1 and L_2 be two real numbers such that $L_1 \neq L_2$. Define a sequence $x = (x_k)$ as

$$x_k = \begin{cases} L_1, & k \in C, \\ L_2, & k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus C \end{cases}$$

and the regular matrix $A = (a_{nk})_{n,k=1}^{\infty}$ as

$$a_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = n, \\ 0, & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Then, for any $\varepsilon > 0$ we have,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L_2| \ge \varepsilon\} \subseteq C \in \mathcal{K}$$

which means that x is $A^{\mathcal{K}}$ -summable to L_2 . Therefore by Theorem 2, x is $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable to L_2 . By hypothesis x is $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summable to L_2 . Therefore for $\varepsilon = |L_1 - L_2|$,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L_2| \ge |L_1 - L_2|\} = C \in \mathcal{I},$$

it is a contradiction. Hence we must have $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$.

Remark 3. If a sequence is $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summable then it may not be $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summable. Consider the ideal \mathcal{I} and the sequence $x = (x_k)$ defined in Example 1. Then, proceeding as Example 1 of [6], we can prove that $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{I}_f}} - \lim x_k \neq 0$ although $A^{\mathcal{I}} - \lim x_k = 0$.

Theorem 7. Let \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{K} be two admissible ideals of \mathbb{N} such that the condition $AP(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{K})$ holds. Then, for a sequence $x = (x_k)$, $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ -summability implies $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability to the same limit.

Proof. Let $A^{\mathcal{I}} - \lim x_k = L$. Choose a sequence of rationales $(\varepsilon_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$. Then, for every i,

$$M_i = \{k \in \mathbb{N} : |y_k - L| < \varepsilon_i\} \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}).$$

Thus by Definition 7, there exists a set $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I})$ such that for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $M \setminus M_i \in \mathcal{K}$. Consider the sequence $z = (z_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ defined by

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ L, & k \notin M. \end{cases}$$

To complete the proof, it is sufficient to show that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ is \mathcal{K} -convergent to L. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \{k \in \mathbb{N} : |z_k - L| < \varepsilon_i\} &= \{k \in M : |z_k - L| < \varepsilon_i\} \cup \{k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus M : |z_k - L| < \varepsilon_i\} \\ &= (\mathbb{N} \setminus M) \cup \{k \in M : |z_k - L| < \varepsilon_i\} \\ &= (\mathbb{N} \setminus M) \cup (M_i \cap M) \\ &= \mathbb{N} \setminus (M \setminus M_i). \end{aligned}$$

Now as $M \setminus M_i \in \mathcal{K}$, so $\mathbb{N} \setminus (M \setminus M_i) \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{K})$ and consequently we have

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |z_k - L| < \varepsilon_i\} \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{K})$$

i.e. $\mathcal{K} - \lim z_k = L$. Hence, $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$. This completes the proof.

Theorem 8. Let $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{K}_1, \mathcal{K}_2$ be admissible ideals in \mathbb{N} satisfying $\mathcal{I}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{I}_2$ and $\mathcal{K}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K}_2$. Then,

- (i) $A^{\mathcal{I}_1^{\mathcal{K}}} \lim x_k = L \text{ implies } A^{\mathcal{I}_2^{\mathcal{K}}} \lim x_k = L;$
- (ii) $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}_1}} \lim x_k = L \text{ implies } A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}_2}} \lim x_k = L.$

Proof. (i) Suppose $A^{\mathcal{I}_1^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$. Then, by Definition 10, there exists $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}_1)$ such that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined as

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ L, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

is \mathcal{K} -convergent to L. Now since $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}_1)$, we have $\mathbb{N} \setminus M \in \mathcal{I}_1$ and therefore by hypothesis $\mathbb{N} \setminus M \in \mathcal{I}_2$, which again implies $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}_2)$. Hence we must have that $A^{\mathcal{I}_2^{\mathcal{K}}} - \lim x_k = L$.

(ii) Suppose $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}_1}} - \lim x_k = L$. Then, by Definition 10, there exists $M \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{I}_1)$ such that the sequence $z = (z_k)$ defined as,

$$z_k = \begin{cases} y_k, & k \in M, \\ l, & k \notin M \end{cases}$$

satisfies the following property $\forall \varepsilon > 0$,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |z_k - l| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{K}_1.$$

Now by hypothesis the inclusion $\mathcal{K}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K}_2$ holds, so we must have for $\forall \varepsilon > 0$,

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : |z_k - l| \ge \varepsilon\} \in \mathcal{K}_2.$$

Hence
$$A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}_2}} - \lim x_k = L$$
.

4. Conclusion

Summability plays an important role in mathematics, particularly in mathematical analysis. In this paper, we introduce and investigate a few properties of $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability. We generate a few examples and counterexamples in order to study some inclusion relationships with some known methods of summability. But the main focus was to link $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ and $A^{\mathcal{I}^*}$ -summability with $A^{\mathcal{I}^{\mathcal{K}}}$ -summability. We prove that the condition $AP(\mathcal{I},\mathcal{K})$ plays a crucial role in this regard. In the future, this idea can be utilized by the researchers to develop some other forms of summability.

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