

# SUMMABILITY METHODS DEFINED BY RIEMANN SUMS

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**1. Introduction.** Let  $f(x)$  be real valued, bounded and, integrable in the sense of Riemann on the interval  $X \equiv (0 \leq x \leq 1)$ , with the value of its integral over  $X$  equal to one. For brevity we call such a function *admissible*. The symbol  $X_k^n$  will always denote the interval  $(k-1)/n \leq x \leq k/n$ ,  $x_k^n$  an arbitrarily chosen point of  $X_k^n$ , and  $\delta$  any specified set of intermediate points

$$(x_k^n) \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, n; n = 1, 2, 3, \dots).$$

If  $\{\alpha_k\}$  is a sequence of 0's and 1's such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k = \alpha,$$

then it is known [2] that the "pattern integral," defined by

$$(1.1) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) \alpha_k,$$

exists for all choices of  $\delta$  and has the value  $\alpha$ .

It is clear that (1.1) may also be regarded as defining a method of summability, which we denote by  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$ , and in §2 we find the condition under which this method includes the method  $(C, 1)$  of arithmetic means. In §3, by reinterpreting certain results of Agnew and Rado, we call attention to the existence of two classes of functions for which  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  is equivalent to  $(C, 1)$ . We conclude with a pair of examples, the first of which shows that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$ , for certain  $f$ , may be definitely stronger than  $(C, 1)$  for bounded sequences.

In terms of the pattern integral, the results exhibit conditions under which the existence of the pattern integral implies that the pattern  $\{\alpha_k\}$  has a density in the sense of  $(C, 1)$ ; and the first example shows that the pattern integral may exist without the pattern having a  $(C, 1)$ -density.

**2. Inclusion of  $(C, 1)$  by  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$ .** In addition to the definitions in §1 we need the following facts from the theory of summability. A transformation of the form

$$(T) \quad T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{nk} s_k \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

defines a method of summability by means of which a sequence  $\{s_k\}$  is said to be *summable-T to s* if  $T_n \rightarrow s$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . If every convergent sequence is summable-T

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to its ordinary limit, then  $T$  is said to be *regular*. In order that  $T$  be regular the following conditions are necessary and sufficient:

$$(2.1) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{nk} = 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, 3, \dots),$$

$$(2.2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n a_{nk} = 1,$$

$$(2.3) \quad \sup_n \sum_{k=1}^n |a_{nk}| < \infty.$$

A method  $T_1$  is said to *include* a method  $T_2$  if every sequence summable- $T_2$  is summable- $T_1$  to the same value. If each of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  includes the other, then they are *equivalent*. These definitions can be phrased to hold with respect to a specified class of sequences. For example, it will be necessary to employ the phrase, *equivalent for bounded sequences*, with its obvious meaning. A more restrictive concept than the latter is the following. The methods  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are said to be *absolutely equivalent for bounded sequences* if for each bounded sequence  $\{s_k\}$  the corresponding transforms are related by means of the condition

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [T_n^{(1)} - T_n^{(2)}] = 0.$$

As indicated above, we use the notation  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  for the method of summability defined by the transformation

$$(2.4) \quad T_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) s_k \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots),$$

where  $f$  is admissible and  $\delta = (x_k^n)$  is a given set of intermediate points. If  $f(x) \equiv 1$  on  $X$  we note that (2.4) reduces to the Cesàro method  $(C, 1)$ .

**THEOREM 1.** *For arbitrary  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  the methods  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta_1)$  and  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta_2)$  are absolutely equivalent for bounded sequences.*

*Proof.* Let the set of intermediate points  $\delta_1$  be denoted by  $(x_{k,1}^n)$  and the set  $\delta_2$  by  $(x_{k,2}^n)$ . By a theorem of Cooke [3, p. 105] we have only to show that

$$D_n \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n |f(x_{k,1}^n) - f(x_{k,2}^n)| = o(1).$$

But this is immediate. For let  $M_k^n = \sup f(x)$  on  $X_k^n$ , and  $m_k^n = \inf f(x)$  on  $X_k^n$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n; n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ). Then

$$D_n \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (M_k^n - m_k^n) = o(1).$$

**THEOREM 2.** *Every method  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  includes  $(C, 1)$  for bounded sequences.*

*Proof.* For sequences of 0's and 1's this theorem is merely a restatement of the "principal theorem" in [2]. For arbitrary bounded sequences the proof remains the same.

In order to discuss the inclusion of  $(C, 1)$  by  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  in the general case, we denote by  $t_n$  the  $(C, 1)$  transform,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n s_k,$$

of an arbitrary sequence  $\{s_k\}$ . Then

$$s_n = nt_n - (n - 1)t_{n-1} \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots; \quad t_0 \equiv 0)$$

and this expression for  $s_n$  in (2.4) yields

$$(2.5) \quad T_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n k[f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)]t_k \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots),$$

where  $f(x_{n+1}^n)$  is understood to be zero.

**THEOREM 3.** *In order that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  include  $(C, 1)$  for a given  $\delta$  it is necessary and sufficient that*

$$(2.6) \quad \sup_n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{n} |f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)| \equiv K(\delta) < \infty.$$

*Proof.* In the notation above it is clear that the statements “ $\{s_k\}$  is an arbitrary  $(C, 1)$ -summable sequence” and “ $\{t_n\}$  is an arbitrary convergent sequence” are equivalent. Consequently, convergence in (2.4) for every  $(C, 1)$ -summable  $\{s_k\}$  is equivalent to convergence in (2.5) for every convergent  $\{t_n\}$ . In order that the latter be true it is necessary and sufficient that the matrix

$$\left( \frac{k}{n} [f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)] \right)$$

be regular, and the conditions (2.1), (2.2), (2.3) in this case reduce simply to (2.6).

It seems reasonable to expect that the satisfaction of (2.6) for all  $\delta$  can be characterized by some simple property of the function  $f(x)$ . That this is in fact the case is shown by the next theorem, the proof of which is facilitated by the following lemma.

**LEMMA 1.** *If (2.6) holds for all  $\delta$ , then  $\sup_\delta K(\delta) < \infty$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose to the contrary that  $\sup_\delta K(\delta) = +\infty$ . Then for each  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  there exists a set of intermediate points

$$\delta_i = (x_{k, i}^n)$$

such that  $K(\delta_i) > i$ . Hence there exists a sequence of indices  $\{n_i\}$  such that

$$\frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} k |f(x_{k, i}^{n_i}) - f(x_{k+1, i}^{n_i})| > i,$$

and it is easily seen that  $\{n_i\}$  must contain a strictly increasing subsequence  $\{n_{i_j}\} \equiv \{m_j\}$ . Let a set of intermediate points be defined as follows:  $x_k^n$  is arbitrary if  $n \neq m_j$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ); and

$$x_k^{m_i} = x_{k,i}^{m_i} \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, m_j; \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \dots).$$

Then (2.6) is evidently violated by this choice of  $\delta$ .

**THEOREM 4.** *In order that (2.6) hold for all  $\delta$  it is necessary and sufficient that the function  $xf(x)$  be of bounded variation on  $X$ .*

*Proof.* We first observe that

$$(2.7) \quad \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{n} |f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k^n f(x_k^n) - x_{k+1}^n f(x_{k+1}^n)| + O(1),$$

$$(2.8) \quad \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k^n f(x_k^n) - x_{k+1}^n f(x_{k+1}^n)| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{n} |f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)| + O(1),$$

where the quantities  $O(1)$ , entering here and below, are independent of  $\delta$ . Then if  $xf(x)$  is of bounded variation on  $X$ , we find from (2.7) that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{n} |f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)| \leq V_0^1[xf(x)] + O(1) = O(1),$$

where  $V$  denotes total variation. This establishes the sufficiency.

To prove the necessity, let  $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_m = 1$  be an arbitrary partition of the interval  $X$ . Fix an integer  $p$  so large that at most one of the points  $x_i$  lies in any sub-interval  $X_k^p$ , and let

$$\delta = (x_k^p)$$

be any set of intermediate points such that the set  $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m)$  is contained in the set  $(x_1^p, x_2^p, \dots, x_p^p)$ . Then using (2.8) and Lemma 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^m |x_{i-1} f(x_{i-1}) - x_i f(x_i)| &\leq \sum_{k=1}^p |x_k^p f(x_k^p) - x_{k+1}^p f(x_{k+1}^p)| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^p \frac{k}{p} |f(x_k^p) - f(x_{k+1}^p)| + O(1) \leq \sup_{\delta} K(\delta) + O(1) = O(1) \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof.

Combining Theorems 3 and 4 we obtain

**THEOREM 5.** *In order that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  include  $(C, 1)$  for all  $\delta$  it is necessary and sufficient that  $xf(x)$  be of bounded variation on  $X$ .*

**3. Equivalence of  $(C, 1)$  and  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$ .** For the sake of completeness we now wish to point out that results of Agnew and Rado yield two classes of monotone functions for which  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  is equivalent to  $(C, 1)$ . It is convenient, however, to begin with the following obvious lemma.

**LEMMA 2.** *In order that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  be equivalent to  $(C, 1)$  for all  $\delta$  it is necessary and sufficient that  $xf(x)$  be of bounded variation on  $X$ , and that the matrix*

$$\left(\frac{k}{n} [f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)]\right)$$

in (2.5) define a method  $(\mathfrak{R}^*, f, \delta)$  equivalent to convergence for all  $\delta$ .

The next lemma is a result of Rado [5, p. 274] adapted to the present situation. Essentially the same result was given earlier by Agnew [1, p. 245].

LEMMA 3. *If  $(\mathfrak{R}^*, f, \delta)$  is regular for a given  $\delta$  and if there exists constants  $\theta_\delta$  ( $0 < \theta_\delta < 1$ ) and  $N_\delta > 0$ , such that*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{k}{n} |f(x_k^n) - f(x_{k+1}^n)| \leq \theta_\delta |f(x_n^n)| \quad (\text{all } n \geq N_\delta),$$

then  $(\mathfrak{R}^*, f, \delta)$  is equivalent to convergence.

Using these lemmas we easily deduce the following theorems which are essentially contained in results of Agnew [1, p. 251].

THEOREM 6. *If  $f(x)$  is non-decreasing then  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  is equivalent to  $(C, 1)$  for all  $\delta$ .*

*Proof.* To show that the hypotheses of Lemma 2 are satisfied, we first observe that  $x f(x)$  is of bounded variation if  $f(x)$  is non-decreasing. This implies, by Theorem 4, that  $(\mathfrak{R}^*, f, \delta)$  is regular for all  $\delta$ . Turning now to Lemma 3, we have to show that there exist constants  $\theta$  ( $0 < \theta < 1$ ) and  $N > 0$ , independent of  $\delta$ , such that

$$(3.1) \quad f(x_n^n) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) \leq \theta |f(x_n^n)| \quad (\text{all } n \geq N; \text{ all } \delta).$$

To accomplish this we recall the assumption

$$(3.2) \quad \int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1,$$

which, together with the fact that  $f(x)$  is non-decreasing, implies that  $f(x) > 0$  throughout an interval  $X_m^m$ . Condition (3.2) also implies the existence of an integer  $N \geq m$  such that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

for all  $n \geq N$  and all  $\delta$ . Now fix  $\theta$  ( $0 < \theta < 1$ ) so that  $(1 - \theta)f(1) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ . Then we have

$$(1 - \theta) f(x_n) \leq (1 - \theta) f(1) \leq \frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n),$$

for all  $n \geq N$  and all  $\delta$ , and (3.1) follows at once.

THEOREM 7. *If  $f(x)$  is non-increasing with  $f(1) > \frac{1}{2}$ , then  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  is equivalent to  $(C, 1)$  for all  $\delta$ .*

*Proof.* The proof parallels the preceding one except that (3.1) is now replaced by

$$(3.3) \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) - f(x_n^n) \leq \theta f(x_n^n).$$

In this case, since  $f(1) > \frac{1}{2}$ , we can fix  $\theta$  ( $0 < \theta < 1$ ) so that  $q \equiv (1 + \theta) f(1) > 1$ . We can then choose  $N$  so large that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) \leq q$$

for all  $n \geq N$  and all  $\delta$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^n) \leq (1 + \theta) f(1) \leq (1 + \theta) f(x_n^n),$$

and (3.3) follows.

In terms of the pattern integral, Theorems 6 and 7 provide instances in which the existence of the pattern integral implies that the pattern  $\{\alpha_k\}$  has a  $(C, 1)$ -density. Such examples were lacking in [2].

It is of interest to ask if the restriction  $f(1) > \frac{1}{2}$  in Theorem 7 is essential. In this connection we have the following example in which  $f(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ , and the theorem fails to hold.

*Example 1.* Let  $f^*(x)$  be defined as  $\frac{3}{2}$  for  $0 \leq x < \frac{1}{2}$ , and as  $\frac{1}{2}$  for  $\frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1$ . Then  $f^*(x)$  is admissible and non-increasing but  $(\mathfrak{R}, f^*, \delta)$ , which includes  $(C, 1)$  for all  $\delta$  by Theorem 5, is definitely stronger than  $(C, 1)$ . To prove this we consider the sequence

$$\{\alpha_k^*\} \equiv (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, \dots),$$

composed of groups of 0's and 1's, where each group beyond the second contains twice as many elements as the preceding group. Let  $\{t_n^*\}$  be the  $(C, 1)$ -transform of  $\{\alpha_k^*\}$  and use the notation  $t^*(n)$  as alternative to  $t_n^*$ . Then it is easy to see that  $t^*(2^{2^i}) \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}$ , while  $t^*(2^{2^{i+1}}) \rightarrow \frac{2}{3}$ , so that  $\{\alpha_k^*\}$  is not summable- $(C, 1)$ .

On the other hand, we can show that  $\{\alpha_k^*\}$  is summable- $(\mathfrak{R}, f^*, \delta)$  to the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . For let  $n$  be given and determine the unique integer  $i = i(n)$  such that either (a)  $2^{2^{i-1}} < n \leq 2^{2^i}$ , or (b)  $2^{2^i} < n \leq 2^{2^{i+1}}$ . Then in case (a) we find that

$$\begin{aligned} T_n^* &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f^*(x_k^n) \alpha_k^* \\ &= \frac{3}{2n} \sum_{k=1}^{2^{2^i-2}} \alpha_k^* + \frac{3}{2n} \sum_{k=2^{2^i-2}+1}^{[\frac{1}{2}n]} \alpha_k^* + \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{k=[\frac{1}{2}n]+1}^{2^{2^i-1}} \alpha_k^* \\ &= \frac{3}{2n} \sum_{j=1}^{i-2} 2^{2^j} + \frac{3}{2n} ([\frac{1}{2}n] - 2^{2^{i-2}}) + \frac{1}{2n} (2^{2^{i-1}} - [\frac{1}{2}n]) \\ &= \frac{[\frac{1}{2}n]}{n} - \frac{2}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

The choice of  $\delta$  is obviously immaterial here except in one interval, and this interval yields a term  $o(1)$  for either functional value. A similar calculation in case (b) shows that  $T_n^* = \frac{1}{2} - (2/n)$ . Consequently, the sequence  $\{\alpha_k^*\}$  is summable- $(\mathfrak{R}, f^*, \delta)$  to the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

In so far as the pattern integral is concerned, this example shows that the latter may exist without the pattern  $\{\alpha_k\}$  having a  $(C, 1)$ -density. This question was left open in [2].

In connection with Theorem 7 and the fact that the condition  $f(1) > \frac{1}{2}$  cannot be weakened, the following example is of interest.

*Example 2.* For any  $\alpha > 1$  the function  $f_\alpha(x) \equiv \alpha(1 - x)^{\alpha-1}$  is admissible and strictly decreasing, with  $f_\alpha(1) = 0$ . Moreover, it can be shown that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f_\alpha, \delta)$  is equivalent to  $(C, 1)$  for bounded sequences. In view of Theorem 1 we can make any convenient choice of  $\delta$ , and we select  $\delta^-$  defined by

$$x_k^n = (k - 1)/n \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

Then the matrix of  $(\mathfrak{R}, f_\alpha, \delta^-)$  reduces to  $(\alpha(n - k + 1)^{\alpha-1}/n^\alpha)$ , which is equivalent to the Norlund matrix corresponding to the defining sequence  $\{k^{\alpha-1}\}$ . Therefore, any bounded sequence summable- $(\mathfrak{R}, f_\alpha, \delta^-)$ , say to  $s$ , is summable to  $s$  by the classical Abel method [7, p. 426], and hence summable- $(C, 1)$  to  $s$  [4, p. 37].

**4. Some further remarks.** One observes that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f_2, \delta^-)$  of the preceding Example 2 is equivalent to  $(C, 2)$ , and this raises the question of the relationship between  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  and  $(C, \alpha)$  in general. In this regard we state without proof the following facts.

(4.1) *If there exists a Riemann integrable function  $f_\alpha^*(x)$  and a set of subdivision points  $\delta_\alpha$  such that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f_\alpha^*, \delta_\alpha)$  coincides with  $(C, \alpha)$  for  $\alpha \geq 1$ , then  $f_\alpha^*(x)$  is equal to  $f_\alpha(x) = \alpha(1 - x)^{\alpha-1}$  almost everywhere.*

(4.2) *In order that there exist a set of subdivision points  $\delta_\alpha$  such that  $(\mathfrak{R}, f_\alpha, \delta_\alpha)$  coincides with  $(C, \alpha)$ , it is necessary and sufficient that  $1 \leq \alpha \leq 2$ .*

(4.3) *The sequence  $\{(-1)^{k-1} k^3\}$ , which is not summable- $(C, 3)$ , is summable- $(\mathfrak{R}, f_3, \delta^-)$  to zero.*

A connection between general triangular methods  $(a_{nk})$  and the methods  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  may be established as follows.

(4.4) *Let  $(a_{nk})$  be triangular and regular and let  $\phi_n(x) \equiv na_{nk}$  for  $(k - 1)/n \leq x < k/n$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ). Suppose that  $|\phi_n(x)| \leq \phi(x)$  a.e. for all  $n \geq N$ , where  $\phi(x)$  is positive and Lebesgue integrable; and that there exists a Riemann integrable function  $f(x)$  such that  $\phi_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  a.e. Then, for all  $\delta$ ,  $(\mathfrak{R}, f, \delta)$  is absolutely equivalent to  $(a_{nk})$  for bounded sequences.*

The conclusion in (4.4) cannot in general be strengthened to *equivalence*. To see this we choose for  $(a_{nk})$  the matrix of  $(C, 3)$ , so that  $f(x)$  in (4.4) can be taken as  $f_3(x)$  in (4.1). The assertion then follows from (4.3).

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