

THE REPRESENTATION OF (C, k) SUMMABLE SERIES IN FOURIER FORM

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1. Introduction. Several non-absolutely convergent integrals have been defined which generalize the Perron integral. The most significant of these integrals from the point of view of application to trigonometric series are the P^n - and \mathcal{P}^n -integrals of R. D. James [10] and [11]. The theorems relating the P^n -integral to trigonometric series state essentially that if the series

$$(1.1) \quad a_0/2 + \sum (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx) \equiv \sum a_n(x)$$

is summable $(C, n-2)$ on $[0, 2\pi]$ to a finite function $f(x)$ and if a slightly weaker condition than $(C, n-2)$ summability holds on the conjugate series

$$(1.2) \quad \sum (a_n \sin nx - b_n \cos nx) \equiv -\sum b_n(x)$$

then $f(x)$, $f(x)\cos nx$, $f(x)\sin nx$ are P^n -integrable on $[0, 2\pi]$ and the coefficients can be written in Fourier form using the integral.

In the case of the \mathcal{P}^n -integral, as in the case of the $C_{n-1}P$ -integral of Burkill [4], it is necessary to posit summability $(C, n-2)$ of both series (1.1) and (1.2) [6].

In the original formulation of the P^n -integral there was an error which has now been corrected in two different ways ([7] and [12]) so that the original theorems by James on trigonometrical series remain valid in terms of the revised integral.

The definition of the P^n - and \mathcal{P}^n -major and minor functions and the proof of uniqueness of the integrals on an interval $[a, b]$ involve in an essential way the idea of a set of n points including the end points of the interval (we shall call it a "basis") at each point of which it is posited that the major and minor functions vanish.

One of the main theorems in the development of the theory of the P^n - and \mathcal{P}^n -integrals states that if a function is integrable with respect to a basis $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^n$ on an interval $[a, b]$, then it is integrable with respect to any other basis $\{\beta_i\}_{i=1}^n$ in $[a, b]$. Thus if a function f is \mathcal{P}^n - or P^n -integrable on $[a, b]$ it is integrable with respect to a basis which includes a and b but the other $(n-2)$ points of which are taken arbitrarily close to a or b . Thus the property of integrability does not depend intrinsically on the basis.

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Bullen [3] has simplified James' definition by eliminating the concept of a basis from the theory. He replaced the $2n$ conditions $Q(a_i) = q(a_i) = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, on the major and minor functions by the $2n$ conditions $Q_{(k)}(a_1) = q_{(k)}(a_1) = 0, 0 \leq k \leq n - 1$. The resulting integral is less general than the unsymmetric \mathcal{P}^n -integral ([3], Theorem 12(b)) and like the \mathcal{P}^n -integral does not give a satisfactory representation theorem for trigonometrical series.

The present paper combines the approaches of [3] and [7] to obtain a symmetric P_n^* -integral, simpler and more natural than the original P^n -integral, in terms of which a strong representation theorem for trigonometrical series still holds. The result is similar to that which holds for convergent series in terms of the SCP -integral [5] and for (C, n) summable series in terms of the $SC_{n+1}P$ -integral [9] in the sense that the definite integral in the representation takes the form $\int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+2\pi}$ where α belongs to a set of full measure in $[0, 2\pi]$.

2. Definitions and Preliminaries. Let $F(x)$ be a real valued function defined on the bounded interval $[a, b]$. If there exist constants $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r$ which depend on x_0 only and not on h , such that

$$(2.1) \quad F(x_0 + h) - F(x_0) = \sum_{k=1}^r \alpha_k \frac{h^k}{k!} + o(h^r), \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0,$$

then $\alpha_k, 1 \leq k \leq r$, is called the *Peano derivative of order k* of F at x_0 and is denoted by $F_{(k)}(x_0)$. If F possesses derivatives $F_{(k)}(x_0), 1 \leq k \leq r - 1$, we write

$$(2.2) \quad \frac{h^r}{r!} \gamma_r(F; x_0, h) = F(x_0 + h) - F(x_0) = \sum_{k=1}^{r-1} \frac{h^k}{k!} F_{(k)}(x_0).$$

We define

$$\bar{F}_{(r)}(x_0) = \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \gamma_r(F; x_0, h),$$

$$\underline{F}_{(r)}(x_0) = \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \gamma_r(F; x_0, h)$$

By restricting h to be positive (or negative) in (2.1) we can define one-sided Peano derivatives, which we write as $F_{(k)+}(x_0)$ (or $F_{(k)-}(x_0)$).

If there exist constants $\beta_0, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_{2r}$ which depend on x_0 only, and not on h , such that

$$\frac{F(x_0 + h) + F(x_0 - h)}{2} = \sum_{k=0}^r \beta_{2k} \frac{h^{2k}}{(2k)!} + o(h^{2r}), \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0,$$

then $\beta_{2k}, 0 \leq k \leq r$ is called the *de la Vallee Poussin derivative of order $2k$* of F at x_0 and is denoted by $D_{2k}F(x_0)$.

If F has derivatives $D_{2k}F(x_0), 0 \leq k \leq r - 1$, we write

$$\frac{h^{2r}}{(2r)!} \theta_{2r}(F; x_0, h) = \frac{F(x_0 + h) + F(x_0 - h)}{2} - \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} \frac{h^{2k}}{(2k)!} D_{2k}F(x_0),$$

and define

$$\bar{D}^{2r}F(x_0) = \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \theta_{2r}(F; x_0, h)$$

$$\underline{D}^{2r}F(x_0) = \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \theta_{2r}(F; x_0, h).$$

All the above symbols are defined similarly for odd-numbered indices (see, for example, [10], pp. 163–164).

If $F_{(r)}(x_0)$ exists, so does $D^{(r)}F(x_0)$ and $F_{(r)}(x_0) = D^{(r)}F(x_0)$.

We denote the ordinary derivative of $F(x)$ at x_0 of order k by $F^{(k)}(x_0)$.

The function F will be said to satisfy condition $A_n^*(n \geq 2)$ in $[a, b]$ if it is continuous in $[a, b]$, if, for $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$, each $F_{(k)}(x)$ exists and is finite in (a, b) and if

$$(2.3) \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(f; x, h) = 0$$

for all $x \in (a, b) - E$, where E is countable.

When a function F satisfies condition (2.3) at a point x , F is said to be n -smooth at x .

THEOREM 2.1. *If F satisfies condition $A_{2m}^*(A_{2m+1}^*)$ in $[a, b]$, then $F_{(2k)}(x) = D_{2k}F(x)(F_{(2k+1)}(x) = D_{(2k+1)}(x))$ does not have an ordinary discontinuity in (a, b) for $0 \leq k \leq m - 1$.*

Proof. This is Lemma 8.1 [10].

NOTE: Condition A_{2m}^* is a stronger form of James' condition A_{2m} , [10], in that it replaces the requirement that $D_{2k}F(x)$ exist and be finite for $1 \leq k \leq m - 1$ by the same condition on the Peano derivatives. Theorem 2.1 then shows that A_{2m}^* also implies James' condition B_{2m-2} , [10].

We shall make extensive use of the theory of n -convex functions in the following. For the definition and properties of n -convex functions we refer the reader to [2].

THEOREM 2.2. *If F satisfies condition A_n^* , ($n \geq 2$), in $[a, b]$ and*

- (a) $\bar{D}^n F(x) \geq 0, x \in (a, b) - E, |E| = 0,$
- (b) $\bar{D}^n F(x) > -\infty, x \in (a, b) - S, S$ a scattered set,
- (c) $\limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(F; x, h) \geq 0 \geq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(F; x, h), \quad x \in S,$

then F is n -convex.

Proof. In [2], Theorem 16, Bullen proves a similar result which implies this theorem. In place of condition A_n^* he uses a condition C_n which is just A_n together with B_{n-2} , but as was noted above these are implied by A_n^* .

3. The \mathcal{P}_n^* -integral. The \mathcal{P}_n -integral, as originally defined [10] and as revised [3], does not give as strong a theorem on trigonometrical series as the \mathcal{P}^n -integral because the \mathcal{P}_n -major and minor functions are required to possess $(n - 1)$ st Peano derivatives *everywhere* on (a, b) or $[a, b]$, the interval of integration, while it is known only that the sum function of the series obtained by formally integrating a $(C, n - 2)$ summable series term-by-term n times possesses an $(n - 1)$ st Peano derivative almost everywhere. We are thus led to a definition of an n th order integral which relaxes the condition on the $(n - 1)$ st derivative. It was the same motivation in the case of convergence that led Burkill [5] to modify the definition of the CP -integral to obtain the SCP -integral.

DEFINITION 3.1. The functions $Q(x)$ and $q(x)$ are called \mathcal{P}_n^* -major and minor functions, respectively, of $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$ if

$$(3.1) \quad Q(x) \text{ and } q(x) \text{ satisfy condition } A_n^* \text{ on } [a, b];$$

$$(3.2) \quad Q_{(k)}(a+) = q_{(k)}(a+) = 0; \quad 0 \leq k \leq n - 1;$$

$$(3.3) \quad \underline{D}^n Q(x) \geq f(x) \geq \bar{D}^n q(x), \text{ in } [a, b] - E, \quad |E| = 0;$$

$$(3.4) \quad \underline{D}^n Q(\bar{x}) > -\infty, \quad \bar{D}^n q(x) < +\infty, \quad x \in [a, b] - S, \text{ } S \text{ a scattered set};$$

$$(3.5) \quad \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(Q; x, h) \geq 0 \geq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(Q; x, h)$$

$$\limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(q; x, h) \geq 0 \geq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(q; x, h) \text{ for } x \in S.$$

THEOREM 3.1. For every pair $Q(x) - q(x)$, satisfying (3.1)–(3.5) the difference $Q(x) - q(x)$ is n -convex in $[a, b]$.

Proof. This is the Lemma of [7].

THEOREM 3.2. For every pair $Q(x), q(x)$ satisfying (3.1)–(3.5) the functions $Q_{(r)}(x) - q_{(r)}(x), 0 \leq r \leq n - 2, \{Q(x) - q(x)\}_{(n-1)+}$ and $\{Q(x) - q(x)\}_{(n-1)-}$ are monotonic increasing on $[a, b]$. In particular $Q(x) - q(x) \geq 0$.

Proof. Since $M(x) \equiv Q(x) - q(x)$ is n -convex in $[a, b]$ it follows that $M^{(r)}(x)$ exists and is continuous on $[a, b], 1 \leq r \leq n - 2, M_{(n-1)-}(x), M_{(n-1)+}(x)$ exist and are monotonic increasing on $[a, b]$, and $M_{(n-1)-}(x) = (M^{n-2}(x))'_-, M_{(n-1)+}(x) = (M^{n-2}(x))'_+$ (Theorem 7, [2]). We have then $M_{(n-1)+}(x) = (M^{n-2}(x))'_+ \geq (M^{n-2}(a))'_+ = M_{(n-1)+}(a) = 0, x \in [a, b]$, and so $M^{n-2}(x)$ is monotonic increasing in $[a, b]$ (see, e.g. [13], p. 354, Example IV). But then $(M^{(n-3)}(x))' = M^{(n-2)}(x) \geq M^{(n-2)}(a+) = 0$, on $[a, b]$ which shows that $M^{(n-3)}(x)$ is monotonic increasing on $[a, b]$, i.e. $M^{(n-3)}(x) \geq 0$. Continuing in this way we show that the derivatives of $M(x) = Q(x) - q(x)$ have the properties stated in the theorem.

DEFINITION 3.2. If corresponding to $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a pair $Q(x)$, $q(x)$ satisfying the conditions (3.1)–(3.5) and such that

$$Q(b-) - q(b-) < \varepsilon,$$

then f is said to be P_n^* -integrable over $[a, b]$.

THEOREM 3.3. If f is P_n^* -integrable over $[a, b]$ then it is P_n^* -integrable over $[a, x]$ for each $x \in [a, b]$.

Proof. Obvious.

THEOREM 3.4. If f is P_n^* -integrable over $[a, b]$ there is a function $F(x)$ which is the inf of all major functions of $f(x)$ and the sup of all minor functions.

Proof. This follows in the usual way.

DEFINITION 3.3. If $f(x)$ is P_n^* -integrable over $[a, b]$ the P_n^* -integral of $f(x)$ over $[a, x]$, $x \in [a, b]$, is defined to be $F(x)$ where $F(x)$ is the function of Theorem 3.4. We write

$$F(x) = P_n^* \int_a^x f(t) dt, \quad x \in [a, b].$$

The proof of the following theorem is straightforward, (see [3], [7], and [10]).

THEOREM 3.5. If $f(x)$ is P_n^* -integrable and $F(x)$ is the function of Definition 3.3, then

- (i) $F(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$;
- (ii) For every major and minor function $Q(x)$ and $q(x)$ the differences $Q(x) - F(x)$ and $F(x) - q(x)$ are n -convex in $[a, b]$;
- (iii) $F(x)$ possesses derivatives $F_{(k)}(x)$, $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$;
- (iv) $F(x)$ is n smooth in (a, b) .

We do not have the power of proving integrability on sub-intervals and additivity of the integral on abutting intervals but this is not surprising since additivity on abutting intervals is closely connected with the existence of the $(n - 1)$ st one-sided derivatives of $F(x)$ and $Q(x)$ (see [8]).

It is easy to prove that the unsymmetric P^n -integral of [3] is included in the P_n^* -integral.

The relationship between the P_n^* -integral and the symmetric P^n -integral of [7] is described in the following theorem:

THEOREM 3.6. If $f(x)$ is P_n^* -integrable on $[a, b]$ then $f(x)$ is P^n -integrable on $[a, b]$ with respect to any basis $a = \alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_n = b$. Moreover, if

$$F(x) = P_n^* \int_a^x f(t) dt,$$

then, for $\alpha_s \leq x < \alpha_{s+1}$, we have

$$(3.6) \quad (-1)^s \int_{(\alpha_i)}^x f(t) d_n t = F(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda(x; \alpha_i) F(\alpha_i),$$

where

$$\lambda(x; \alpha_i) = \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{(x - \alpha_j)}{(\alpha_i - \alpha_j)}.$$

Proof. Let $Q(x)$, $q(x)$ be P_n^* -major and minor functions, respectively, of $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$. Then

$$(3.7) \quad \bar{Q}(x) = Q(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda(x; \alpha_i) Q(\alpha_i)$$

$$(3.8) \quad \bar{q}(x) = q(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda(x; \alpha_i) q(\alpha_i)$$

are P^n -major and minor functions, respectively, of $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$. Moreover given $\varepsilon > 0$, $Q(x)$ and $q(x)$ may be chosen so that $\bar{Q}(x) - \bar{q}(x) < \varepsilon$, $x \in [a, b]$ and then (3.6) follows from (3.7) and (3.8).

In [3] Bullen proves the equivalence of the $C_{n-1}P$ -integral [4] and his unsymmetric P^n -integral:

THEOREM 3.7. (Theorem 16, [3]): *f is P^n -integrable on $[a, b]$ if and only if it is $C_{n-1}P$ -integrable in $[a, b]$. If F is the P^n -integral of f then*

$$F_{(n-1)}(x) = C_{n-1}P \int_a^x f(t) dt,$$

and

$$F(x) = P \int_a^x C_1P \int_a^{x_1} C_2P \int_a^{x_2} \cdots C_{n-1}P \int_a^{x_{n-1}} f(t) dt dx_{n-1} \cdots dx_1.$$

The unsymmetric integral of [3] thus is an n -fold iterated integral while the symmetric integral of [7] differs from the P_n^* -integral by a polynomial of degree $(n - 1)$. The relationship between the integrals in Theorem. 3.6 may be described in a manner which is more relevant to our investigation by rewriting (3.6) in the form

$$(3.9) \quad (-1)^s \int_{(\alpha_i)}^x f(t) d_n t = V_n(F; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n, x) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \alpha_i),$$

where $V_n(F; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n, x)$ is the divided difference of order n of F over the points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n, x$. Thus the definite symmetric P^n -integral is, except for a multiplicative constant, the n th divided difference of the P_n^* -integral which may be thought of as an n -fold integral.

This explains why our Theorem 4.3 gives the representation of the coefficients of a trigonometrical series in terms of a divided difference of the P_n^* -integral.

4. Trigonometric Series. Following the notation of James [11] we identify the following conditions which may be imposed on series (1.1):

$$(4.1) \quad a_n = o(n^k), \quad b_n = o(n^k),$$

$$(4.2) \quad A_n^{k-1}(x_0) = o(n^k),$$

$$(4.3) \quad a_0/2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x_0) = f(x_0), \quad (C, k).$$

We integrate series (1.1) formally term-by-term to obtain:

$$(4.4) \quad \frac{a_0x}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n \sin nx - b_n \cos nx}{n} \equiv \frac{1}{2}a_0x - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n(x)}{n} \equiv \frac{1}{2}a_0x - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n(x).$$

We shall make use of the following theorem:

THEOREM 4.1. (Theorem 3.1, [11]). *If condition (4.1) is satisfied, then the series obtained by integrating (1.1) formally term-by-term $k + 2$ times converges to a continuous function $F(x)$. If conditions (4.1) and (4.2) are both satisfied, then $D^{k+2-2r}F(x_0)$ exists for $1 \leq r \leq (k + 1)/2$ and F is $(k + 2)$ -smooth at x_0 . If conditions (4.1) and (4.3) both hold, then F is $(k + 2)$ -smooth at x_0 and*

$$(4.5) \quad \frac{a_0x_0^{2r}}{2(2r)!} + (-1)^r \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n(x_0)}{n^{2r}} = D^{k+2-2r}F(x_0), \quad (C, k - 2r),$$

for $0 \leq r \leq (k + 1)/2$.

THEOREM 4.2. *Suppose the series (1.1) is summable (C, k) to a finite function $f(x)$ for all $x \in [0, 2\pi] - E$, where E is at most countable, and let $f(x) = 0, x \in E$. If $A_n^{(k-1)}(x) = o(n^k)$ for $x \in E$ and $B_n^{k-1}(x) = o(n^k)$ for $x \in [0, 2\pi]$ then there exists a set $F \subset [0, 2\pi], |F| = 2\pi$, such that $f(x), f(x)\cos px, f(x)\sin px$ are each P_n^* -integrable on $[\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi], \alpha \in F$.*

Proof. The series obtained by integrating (1.1) formally $(k + 2)$ times converges uniformly to a continuous function $F(x)$. It follows from Theorem 4.1 and the proof of Theorem 3.2 [11] that $F_{(r)}(x), 0 \leq r \leq k$, exists in $[0, 2\pi], D^{(k+2)}F(x)$ exists and equals $f(x)$ in $[0, 2\pi] - E$, and $F(x)$ is n -smooth at each point of $(0, 2\pi)$. Moreover the set of points where either $\underline{D}^n F(x) = -\infty$ or $\bar{D}^n F(x) = +\infty$ is a scattered set ([11], Theorem 5.1).

It is well known that the series (4.4) is summable $(C, k - 1)$ almost everywhere in $[0, 2\pi]$. Let α be a point of the set A_0 of summability of (4.4). Since the function $F(x)$ is also the function obtained by integrating (4.4) formally $k + 1$ times, it follows from Theorem 4.1 that $D^{(k+1)}F(\alpha)$ exists. We

have, for k even, for $\alpha \in A_0 \cap ([0, 2\pi] - E)$,

$$(4.6) \quad \frac{F(\alpha + h) - F(\alpha - h)}{2} = \sum_{r=0}^{k/2} D_{2r+1}F(\alpha) \frac{h^{2r+1}}{(2r+1)!} + o(h^{k+1})$$

and, since $D^{k+2}F(\alpha)$ exists,

$$(4.7) \quad \frac{F(\alpha + h) + F(\alpha - h)}{2} = \sum_{r=0}^{k+2/2} D_{2r}F(\alpha) \frac{h^{2r}}{(2r)!} + o(h^{k+2}),$$

and similar equalities hold when k is odd. Together, (4.6) and (4.7) show that $F_{(k+1)}(\alpha)$ exists which, of course, equals $D^{k+1}F(\alpha)$. Now it is clear that the function defined by

$$Q(x) = F(x) - \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} F_{(r)}(\alpha) \frac{(x - \alpha)^r}{r!}$$

is both a P_{k+2}^* -major and minor function for $f(x)$ on $[\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi]$. Moreover for $x \in [\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi]$,

$$P_{k+2}^* \int_{\alpha}^x f(t) dt = F(x) - \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} F_{(r)}(\alpha) \frac{(x - \alpha)^r}{r!} \equiv G_0(x).$$

As in [11] we can write for $x \in [0, 2\pi] - E$

$$(4.8) \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n(x) = f(x) \cos px, \quad (C, k),$$

where $u_n = o(n^k)$, $U_n^{k-1}(x) = o(n^k)$ for all x , $u_n(x)$ is the n th term of the series which is the formal product of series (1.1) and $\cos px$, and $U_n^{k-1}(x)$ is the $(k - 1)$ st Cesàro mean of the same series.

An application of Theorem 4.1 shows that the series obtained by integrating (4.8) formally term-by-term $k + 2$ times converges uniformly to a continuous function $G(x)$ such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_{k+2}(G; x, h) = 0,$$

for all x , and,

$$\frac{u_0 x^{2r}}{2(2r)!} + (-1)^r \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{u_n(x)}{n^{2r}} = D_{k+2-2r}G(x), \quad (C, k - 2r),$$

for $0 \leq r \leq (k + 1)/2$ and $x \in [0, 2\pi] - E$.

Moreover it was shown in [7] that $G_{(k)}(x)$ exists everywhere in $[0, 2\pi]$, and it follows, as before, that $G_{(k+1)}(x)$ exists in a set A_P of full measure in $[0, 2\pi]$. We have then, since condition (3.4) of Definition 3.1 is obviously satisfied for $G(x)$,

$$(4.9) \quad P_{k+2}^* \int_{\beta_P}^x f(t) \cos pt dt = G(x) - \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} G_{(r)}(\beta_P) \frac{(x - \beta_P)^r}{r!} \equiv G_P(x),$$

for $x \in [\beta_P, \beta_P + 2\pi]$, $\beta_P \in A_P$. Similarly, if the series

$$(4.10) \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n(x) (= f(x) \sin px)$$

is the formal product of series (4.1) with $\sin px$ and $H(x)$ is the sum of the series obtained by integrating (4.10) formally $(k + 2)$ times we have

$$(4.11) \quad P_{k+2}^* \int_{\gamma_P}^x f(t) \sin pt \, dt = H(x) - \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} H_{(r)}(\gamma_P) \frac{(x - \gamma_P)^r}{r!} \equiv H_P(x),$$

for $x \in [\gamma_P, \gamma_P + 2\pi]$, $\gamma_P \in B_P$, where B_P is a set full measure on $[0, 2\pi]$. The theorem follows by choosing $F = \bigcap_{P=0}^{\infty} (B_{P+1} \cap A_P)$.

THEOREM 4.3. *Under the hypothesis of Theorem 4.2 the coefficients of series (1.1) are given by*

$$(4.12) \quad a_P = 2(k + 2)! V_{k+2}(G_P), \quad P = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

$$(4.13) \quad b_P = 2(k + 2)! V_{k+2}(H_P), \quad P = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where $V_{k+2}(G_P) = V_{k+2}(G_P; x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+2}, x_{k+3})$ is the divided difference of G_P of order $k + 2$ at the $k + 3$ points

$$B_1 \equiv (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+2}, x_{k+3}), \\ \equiv (\alpha - (k + 2)\pi, \alpha - k\pi, \dots, \alpha - 2\pi, \alpha + 2\pi, \dots, \alpha + k\pi, \alpha + (k + 2)\pi, \alpha),$$

or

$$B_2 = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k+2}, x_{k+3}) \equiv (\alpha - (k + 1)\pi, \alpha - (k - 1)\pi, \dots, \\ \alpha - 2\pi, \alpha + 2\pi, \dots, \alpha + (k + 1)\pi, \alpha + (k + 3)\pi, \alpha)$$

depending on whether k is even or odd.

Proof. In order to verify (4.12) for $P = 0$ we note first that

$$V_{k+2}(G_0) = V_{k+2}(F)$$

since any $(k + 2)$ divided difference of a polynomial of degree $(k + 1)$ is 0. Next we write

$$F(x) \equiv G_1(x) + \frac{a_0 x^{k+2}}{2(k + 2)!}$$

where $G_1(x)$ is periodic of period 2π . The divided difference of order $(k + 2)$ of the function $G_1(x)$ at the $(k + 3)$ points of B is just the divided difference of the constant $G_1(\alpha)$ which is 0. Since the divided difference of the function x^{k+2} is equal to 1, we have

$$V_{k+2}(G_0) = \frac{a_0}{2(k + 2)!}$$

Formula (4.12) for $P = 1, 2, \dots$ may be verified in exactly the same way since the constant term in (4.8) is $a_p/2$. A similar remark applies to formula (4.13).

Because of Theorem 3.6, the formulae (4.12) and (4.13) may be written in terms of the P^n -integral. For example, (4.12) becomes

$$a_p = 2(k+2)! V_{k+2} \left(P^{k+2} \int_{(\alpha_i)}^x f(t) \cos pt \, dt \right), \quad P = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

where (α_i) is any basis in $[\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi]$. This follows from (3.6) using the fact again that a divided difference of order $k+2$ of a polynomial of degree $k+1$ is 0.

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