

## THE $SC_nP$ -INTEGRAL AND THE $P^{n+1}$ -INTEGRAL

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**Introduction.** In [2], we have briefly described, as examples of the general theory developed there, a scale of symmetric Cesaro-Perron integrals, namely  $SC_nP$ -integral for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . The purpose of this paper is to consider the integrals in a greater detail.

As a preliminary, we prove some lemmas, which are also interesting for their own sake, concerning the de la Vallée Poussin derivatives in Section 1, and we also state two deep theorems concerning the  $n$ -convex functions in Section 2. Our main effort is to establish Theorem 3 in Section 3, which is essential to the theory of the  $SC_nP$ -integral. In Section 4, the definition of the  $SC_nP$ -integral is given, while its usual properties are only briefly indicated since they follow from the general theory in [2]. The last section is devoted to the connection between the  $SC_nP$ -integral and the symmetric  $P^{n+1}$ -integral of James [9].

**1. The symmetric de la Vallée Poussin derivatives.** Let  $F$  be a function defined on a bounded closed interval  $[a, b]$ , and let  $x$  be a point in the open interval  $]a, b[$ . If there are constants  $\beta_0, \beta_2, \beta_4, \dots, \beta_{2r}$  ( $r \geq 0$ ), depending on  $x$  but not on  $h$  such that

$$(1) \quad \frac{1}{2}\{F(x+h) + F(x-h)\} - \sum_{k=0}^r \beta_{2k} \frac{h^{2k}}{(2k)!} = o(h^{2r})$$

as  $h \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\beta_{2r}$  is called the symmetric de la Vallée Poussin (s.d.I.V.P.) derivative of order  $2r$  of  $F$  at  $x$ , and we write  $\beta_{2r} = D_{2r}F(x)$ . It is clear that if  $D_{2r}F(x)$  exists, so does  $D_{2k}F(x)$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, r-1$ , and  $D_{2k}F(x) = \beta_{2k}$ .

If  $D_{2k}F(x)$  exists for  $0 \leq k \leq m-1$ , ( $m \geq 1$ ), define  $\theta_{2m}(x, h) = \theta_{2m}(F; x, h)$  by

$$(2) \quad \frac{h^{2m}}{(2m)!} \theta_{2m}(x, h) = \frac{1}{2}\{F(x+h) + F(x-h)\} - \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{h^{2k}}{(2k)!} D_{2k}F(x),$$

and let

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{D}_{2m}F(x) &= \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \theta_{2m}(x, h), \\ \underline{D}_{2m}F(x) &= \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \theta_{2m}(x, h). \end{aligned}$$

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Then a finite common value for  $-D_{2m}F(x)$  and  $-D_{2m}F(x)$  implies that  $D_{2m}F(x)$  exists and equals this common value.

In a similar way, the odd-ordered s.d.l.V.P. derivative is defined by replacing (1) by

$$(1') \quad \frac{1}{2}\{F(x+h) - F(x-h)\} - \sum_{k=1}^r \beta_{2k+1} \frac{h^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} = o(h^{2r+1}).$$

Similar changes can be made in (2), (3).

The following lemma is an extension and generalization of Lemma 4, (i) in [13]. For a partial converse in the non-symmetric case, see Lemma 10 in [12].

**LEMMA 1.** *Let  $H$  be a function and  $H'(x) = G(x)$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0$ . If for some  $n$ ,  $D_nG(x_0)$  exists, then  $D_{n+1}H(x_0)$  exists and is equal to  $D_nG(x_0)$ .*

*Proof.* The proof is by induction on  $n$ . To see that it is true for  $n = 1$ , consider, for sufficiently small  $h > 0$ ,

$$\theta_2(H; x_0, h) = \frac{2!}{h^2} \left\{ \frac{1}{2}[H(x_0+h) + H(x_0-h)] - H(x_0) \right\}.$$

Letting  $f(h) = 1/2 \{H(x_0+h) + H(x_0-h)\} - H(x_0)$ , and  $g(h) = h^2/2!$ , one has  $f(h) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$  since  $H$  is clearly continuous in a neighborhood of  $x_0$ , and also  $g(h) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ , and  $g'(h) = h \neq 0$ . Furthermore

$$\frac{f'(h)}{g'(h)} = \frac{H'(x_0+h) - H'(x_0-h)}{2h} = \frac{G(x_0+h) - G(x_0-h)}{2h},$$

which approaches to  $D_1G(x_0)$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$  if  $D_1G(x_0)$  exists. Hence by l'Hôpital's rule,  $D_2H(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \theta_2(H; x_0, h) = D_1G(x_0)$  if  $D_1G(x_0)$  exists, completing the proof for  $n = 1$ .

Now, suppose that the conclusion of the lemma is true for  $n < r$ , where  $r \geq 2$ . We prove that it is also true for  $n = r$  as follows. For  $r$  even,  $r = 2m$ , say, suppose that  $D_{2m}G(x_0)$  exists. Then  $D_{2k}G(x_0)$  exists for  $0 \leq k \leq m - 1$ , and hence by induction hypotheses,  $D_{2k+1}H(x_0)$  exists and equals  $D_{2k}G(x_0)$  for  $0 \leq k \leq m - 1$ . Consider

$$\theta_{2m+1}(H; x_0, h) = \frac{(2m+1)!}{h^{2m+1}} \times \left\{ \frac{1}{2}[H(x_0+h) - H(x_0-h)] - \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{h^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} D_{2k+1}H(x_0) \right\}.$$

Applying l'Hôpital's rule, one gets  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \theta_{2m+1}(H; x_0, h) = D_{2m}G(x_0)$ , completing the proof for even  $r$ . A similar argument will give the case for  $r$  odd.

Following James [9], we say that a function  $F$  is  $n$ -smooth at  $x$  if  $D_{n-2}F(x)$  exists and  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(F; x, h) = 0$ . By an argument similar to that in the proof of Lemma 1, one has

**LEMMA 2.** *Let  $H$  be a function and  $H'(x) = G(x)$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0$ . Then  $H$  is  $(n+1)$ -smooth at  $x_0$  if  $G$  is  $n$ -smooth at  $x_0$ .*

LEMMA 3. Let  $H$  be a function and  $H'(x) = G(x)$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0$ . Then for  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$(4) \quad -D_n G(x_0) \geq -D_{n+1} H(x_0) \geq -D_{n+1} H(x_0) \geq -D_n G(x_0)$$

whenever  $\theta_n(G; x_0, h)$  makes sense.

*Proof.* By Lemma 1, if  $\theta_n(G; x_0, h)$  makes sense, so does  $\theta_{n+1}(H; x_0, h)$ . The inequalities (4) then follow from the inequalities [8, p. 359]

$$\limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(h)}{g'(h)} \geq \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h)}{g(h)} \geq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h)}{g(h)} \geq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(h)}{g'(h)}$$

for suitable choices of  $f$  and  $g$ .

**2. Some properties of  $n$ -convex functions.** For the definition of  $n$ -convex function, we refer to [1] and [9]. To state two deep results concerning  $n$ -convex functions, we recall some concepts first.

A function  $F$  defined on  $[a, b]$  is said to satisfy the condition  $(C_{2r})$  in  $[a, b]$  if

- (a)  $F$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$ ;
- (b)  $D_{2k}F$  exists, is finite and has no simple discontinuities in  $]a, b[$  for  $0 \leq k \leq r - 1$ ;
- (c)  $F$  is  $2r$ -smooth at all points in  $]a, b[$  except perhaps for points of a countable set.

Similarly, the condition  $(C_{2r+1})$  is defined, so that the condition  $(C_n)$  makes sense for all integer  $n \geq 2$ .

If it is true that

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

then  $\alpha_k$  ( $1 < k < r$ ) is called the Peano derivative of order  $k$  of  $F$  at  $x$ , written  $\alpha_k = F_{(k)}(x)$ , where  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$  are constants depending on  $x$  only, not on  $h$ . It is clear that if  $F_{(k)}(x)$  exists, so does  $D_k F(x)$  and the two are equal. But the converse is not true in general.

If  $F$  possesses Peano derivatives  $F_{(k)}(x)$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq r - 1$ , write

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

Then define

$${}^-F_{(r),+}(x) = \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \gamma(F; x, h).$$

${}^-F_{(r),+}$ ,  ${}^-F_{(r),-}$ ,  ${}^-F_{(r),-}$  are similarly defined, and then  $F_{(r),+}$ ,  $F_{(r),-}$  are defined in the usual way. It is easy to show that  $F_{(r)}(x)$  exists if and only if  $F_{(r),+}$ ,  $F_{(r),-}$  exist and are equal and in this case,  $F_{(r)}(x) = F_{(r),+}(x) = F_{(r),-}(x)$ .

A linear set is called a scattered set if it contains no subset that is dense-in-itself. For properties of scattered sets, we refer to [11].

**THEOREM 1.** *Let  $F$  satisfy the condition  $(C_n)$  in  $[a, b]$ , and*

- (i)  $-D_nF(x) \geq 0$  almost everywhere in  $]a, b[$ ;
- (ii)  $-D_nF(x) > -\infty$  for  $x \in ]a, b[ \sim S$ ,  $S$  a scattered set;
- (iii)  $\limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(F; x, h) \geq 0 \geq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} h\theta_n(F; x, h)$  for  $x \in S$ .

*Then  $F$  is  $n$ -convex in  $[a, b]$ .*

Note that for  $n = 2m$ , even, this is just [1, Theorem 16], of which the similar argument gives the case  $n = 2m + 1$  (odd), too.

**THEOREM 2** [1, Theorem 7]. *Let  $F$  be  $n$ -convex in  $[a, b]$ . Then*

- (i)  $F^{(r)}$  exists and is continuous in  $[a, b]$  for  $1 \leq r \leq n - 2$ , where  $F^{(r)}(x)$  denotes the ordinary  $r$ th derivative of  $F$  at  $x$ ;
- (ii) both  $F_{(n-1),-}$ ,  $F_{(n-1),+}$  are monotone increasing in  $[a, b]$ ;
- (iii)  $F_{(n-1),+} = (F^{(n-2)})'_+$  and  $F_{(n-1),-} = (F^{(n-2)})'_-$ ;
- (iv)  $F^{(n-1)}(x)$  exists at all except a countable set of points.

**3. The  $SC_r$ -derivative and the  $SC_r$ -continuity.** We assume the theory of  $C_nP$ -integral in [4]. For  $r \geq 1$ , and for a  $C_{r-1}P$ -integrable function  $F$  on  $[a, b]$ , let

$$\Delta_r(F; x, h) = \frac{r + 1}{2h} \{C_r(F; x, x + h) - C_r(F; x, x - h)\},$$

$$SC_rD_*F(x) = \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \Delta_r(F; x, h),$$

where  $x \in ]a, b[$  and  $C_r(F; x, x + h)$  is as defined in [4]. The notations  $SC_rD^*$  and  $SC_rD$  then have the obvious meanings. We call  $SC_rDF(x)$ , if exists, the symmetric Cesàro derivative of order  $r$  of  $F$  at  $x$ , or simply  $SC_r$ -derivative of  $F$  at  $x$ . If  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h\Delta_r(F; x, h) = 0$ ,  $F$  is said to be  $SC_r$ -continuous at  $x$ . It is clear that  $F$  is  $SC_r$ -continuous at  $x$  whenever it is  $C_r$ -continuous at  $x$ , and  $SC_rDF(x)$  exists and equals  $C_rDF(x)$  whenever  $C_rDF(x)$  exists. But neither of the converses is true. It is also easy to check that the  $SC_r$ -derivates and derivatives are measurable.

**LEMMA 4.** *For  $r \geq 0$ , let  $F$  be  $C_r$ -continuous in  $[a, b]$ . Then  $F$  has no simple discontinuities in  $[a, b]$ . In particular, every  $C_rP$ -integral of a function has no simple discontinuities.*

*Proof.* For  $r = 0$ , the result is immediate since  $C_0$ -continuity is just the ordinary continuity. For  $r \geq 1$ , suppose that  $x_0 \in ]a, b[$ , and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0-} F(x) = B$ . Then for  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$B - \epsilon < F(x) < B + \epsilon \quad \text{for } x_0 - \delta < x < x_0,$$

or

$$B - \epsilon < F(x) < B + \epsilon \quad \text{for } x_0 - h \leq x < x_0,$$

where  $h$  is such that  $0 < h < \delta$ . Hence.

$$(B - \epsilon)(x - x_0 + h)^{r-1} \leq (x - x_0 + h)^{r-1}F(x) \leq (B + \epsilon)(x - x_0 + h)^{r-1}$$

for  $x_0 - h \leq x < x_0$ , which implies that

$$B - \epsilon \leq \frac{r}{h^r} (C_{r-1}P) - \int_{x_0-h}^{x_0} (x - x_0 + h)^{r-1}F(x)dx \leq B + \epsilon$$

for  $0 < h < \delta$ , so that  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0+} C_r(F; x_0, x_0 - h) = B$ . But

$$F(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} C_r(F; x_0, x_0 - h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0+} C_r(F; x_0, x_0 - h).$$

Hence  $F(x_0) = B$ .

Similarly, if  $x_0 \in [a, b[$ , and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0+} F(x) = B'$ , then  $F(x_0) = B'$ . Hence  $F$  has no simple discontinuities in  $[a, b]$ .

The last statement of the lemma is now immediate since it is well-known that each  $C_rP$ -integral is  $C_r$ -continuous.

LEMMA 5. For  $n \geq 0$ , let  $F$  be  $C_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and for  $x \in [a, b]$ , let

$$G_n(x) = (C_nP) - \int_a^x F(t)dt,$$

$$G_k(x) = (C_kP) - \int_a^x G_{k+1}(t)dt, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n - 1,$$

$$G(x) = G_0(x).$$

Then

- (i)  $G$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$ ;
- (ii) if  $F$  is  $SC_{n+1}$ -continuous at  $x$ , then  $D_nG$  exists and  $D_{n-2k}G(x) = G_{n-2k}(x)$  for  $0 \leq k \leq [n/2]$ , and  $G$  is  $(n + 2)$ -smooth at  $x$ , and  $\theta_{n+2}(G; x, x + h) = \Delta_{n+1}(F; x, h)$ ;
- (iii) if  $F$  is  $C_{n+1}$ -continuous at  $x$ , then  $G_{(n+1)}(x)$  exists and  $G_{(k)}(x) = G_k(x)$  for  $0 \leq k \leq n + 1$ , where  $G_{n+1} = F$ .

*Proof.* (i) is immediate since  $G$  is just a  $C_0P$ -integral. For (ii) and (iii), note that by integration by parts,

$$(5) \quad C_{n+1}(F; x, x + h) = \frac{(n + 1)!}{h^{n+1}} \left\{ G(x + h) - G(x) - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{h^k}{k!} G_k(x) \right\},$$

and

$$C_{n+1}(F; x, x - h) = \frac{(n + 1)!}{(-h)^{n+1}} \left\{ G(x - h) - G(x) - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-h)^k}{k!} G_k(x) \right\}$$

for  $h \neq 0$  with  $x + h \in [a, b]$ . Hence for  $n$  even, say  $n = 2m$ ,

$$(5e) \quad C_{n+1}(F; x, x + h) - C_{n+1}(F; x, x - h) = \frac{(2m + 1)!}{h^{2m+1}} \times \left\{ G(x + h) + G(x - h) - 2 \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{h^{2k}}{(2k)!} G_{2k}(x) \right\};$$

and for  $n$  odd, say  $n = 2m + 1$ ,

$$(5o) \quad C_{n+1}(F; x, x + h) - C_{n+1}(F; x, x - h) = \frac{(2m + 2)!}{h^{2m+2}} \times \left\{ G(x + h) - G(x - h) - 2 \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{h^{2k+1}}{(2k + 1)!} G_{2k+1}(x) \right\}.$$

For both cases, if  $F$  is  $SC_{n+1}$ -continuous at  $x$ , then  $D_nG(x)$  exists and  $D_{n-2k}G(x) = G_{n-2k}(x)$  for  $0 \leq k \leq [n/2]$ , and  $G$  is  $(n + 2)$ -smooth at  $x$ , where  $[n/2] =$  the greatest integer less than  $n/2 + 1$ . Furthermore,  $\theta_{n+2}(G; x, h) = \Delta_{n+1}(F; x, h)$ , proving (ii). (iii) follows from the equality (5).

*Remark.* If  $D_{n-2k}G(x) = G_{n-2k}(x)$  for  $0 \leq k \leq [n/2]$ , and  $G$  is  $(n + 2)$ -smooth at  $x$ , then  $F$  is  $SC_{n+1}$ -continuous at  $x$ . This is clear since replacing  $G_{n-2k}(x)$  by  $D_{n-2k}G(x)$  in (5e) and (5o) one has that

$$C_{n+1}(F; x, x + h) - C_{n+1}(F; x, x - h) = \frac{2}{n + 2} h \theta_{n+2}(G; x, h).$$

LEMMA 6. For  $n \geq 0$ , let  $F$  be  $C_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $SC_{n+1}$ -continuous in  $]a, b[$ , and  $G$  be defined as in Lemma 5. If

- (a)  $SC_{n+1}D^*F(x) \geq 0$  almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ , and
- (b)  $SC_{n+1}D^*F(x) > -\infty$  for  $x \in ]a, b[ \sim S$ ,  $S$  a scattered set,

then  $G$  is  $(n + 2)$ -convex in  $[a, b]$ .

*Proof.* This is immediate since by Lemma 5, (ii), and Lemma 4,  $G$  satisfies all the conditions in Theorem 1 with  $n + 2$  replacing  $n$ .

THEOREM 3. For  $n \geq 0$ , let  $F$  be  $C_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $SC_{n+1}$ -continuous in  $]a, b[$ . If

- (a)  $SC_{n+1}D^*F(x) \geq 0$  almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ ,
- (b)  $SC_{n+1}D^*F(x) > -\infty$  for  $x \in ]a, b[ \sim S$ ,  $S$  scattered, and
- (c)  $F$  is  $C_{n+1}$ -continuous in a set  $B \subset [a, b]$ , then  $F$  is monotone increasing in  $B$ .

*Proof.* Let  $G$  be defined as in Lemma 5. Then by Lemma 6,  $G$  is  $(n + 2)$ -convex in  $[a, b]$ , so that by Theorem 2, (iv),  $G^{(n+1)}$  and hence  $G_{(n+1)}$  exists at all except a countable set of points. By Theorem 2, (ii),  $G_{(n+1)}$  is monotone increasing where it exists. Thus the condition (c) and Lemma 5, (iii) imply that  $F$  is monotone increasing in  $B$ .

THEOREM 4. For  $n \geq 0$ , let  $F$  be  $C_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $x_0 \in ]a, b[$ . If  $F$  is  $SC_{n+1}$ -continuous at  $x_0$ , then  $F$  is  $SC_{n+2}$ -continuous at  $x_0$ , and

$$(6) \quad SC_{n+1}D^*F(x_0) \geq SC_{n+2}D^*F(x_0) \geq SC_{n+2}D_*F(x_0) \geq SC_{n+1}D_*F(x_0).$$

*Proof.* Note first that  $F$  is  $C_{n+1}P$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  by the consistency of the  $CP$ -scale. For  $x \in [a, b]$ , let

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_n(x) &= (C_nP) - \int_a^x F(t)dt, \\
 G_k(x) &= (C_kP) - \int_a^x G_{k+1}(t)dt \quad \text{for } 0 \leq k \leq n - 1, \\
 H_{n+1}(x) &= (C_{n+1}P) - \int_a^x F(t)dt, \\
 H_k(x) &= (C_kP) - \int_a^x H_{k+1}(t)dt \quad \text{for } 0 \leq k \leq n.
 \end{aligned}$$

Then  $H_{k+1} = G_k$  for  $0 \leq k \leq n$  and

$$H_0(x) = (L) - \int_a^x G_0(t)dt.$$

By Lemma 5, (ii),  $G_0$  is  $(n + 2)$ -smooth at  $x_0$ , so that  $H_0$  is  $(n + 3)$ -smooth at  $x_0$  by Lemma 2. Hence by the remark following Lemma 5,  $F$  is  $SC_{n+2}$ -continuous at  $x_0$ . The inequalities (6) follow from Lemma 5 and Lemma 3, completing the proof.

**THEOREM 5.** *Let  $\{M_k\}$  be a sequence of  $SC_n$ -continuous functions in  $]a, b[$ , and each  $M_k$  is  $C_n$ -continuous in a set  $B \subset [a, b]$  with  $a, b \in B$  and the measure of  $B$  being  $b - a$ . Suppose that  $M_k(x) \rightarrow M(x)$  as  $k \rightarrow +\infty$  uniformly in  $B$ . Then  $M$  is  $SC_n$ -continuous in  $]a, b[$  and  $C_n$ -continuous in  $B$ .*

*Proof.* Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , choose  $k$  such that for all  $x \in B$ ,  $|M(x) - M_k(x)| < \frac{1}{3} \epsilon$ . For each  $c \in B$ , choose  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|C_n(M_k; c, c + h) - M_k(c)| < \frac{1}{3} \epsilon$  whenever  $|h| < \delta$  with  $x + h \in [a, b]$ . Then

$$|C_n(M; c, c + h) - C_n(M_k; c, c + h)| < \frac{1}{3} \epsilon,$$

so that  $|C_n(M; c, c + h) - M(c)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|h| < \delta$  with  $x + h \in [a, b]$ , proving that  $M$  is  $C_n$ -continuous at  $c$ .

That  $M$  is  $SC_n$ -continuous at each point  $c \in ]a, b[$  is proved in a similar way, only replacing  $M_k(c)$ ,  $M(c)$  in the above argument by  $C_n(M_k; c - h, c)$  and  $C_n(M; c - h, c)$ ,  $h$  now being restricted to  $c \pm h \in [a, b]$ .

**4. The  $SC_nP$ -Integral.** We have defined in [2] a system  $SC_nP = (SM^n, SC_nD, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{N}, -I_n)$ ,  $SC_nD$  being the  $SC_nD_*$  here. By Theorem 3 and Theorem 5, it is easy to check that  $SC_nP$  is in fact a derivate system as defined in [2], and hence one obtains a  $SC_nP$ -integral and its usual properties follow from the general theory in [2]. For completeness, we give the direct definition of the  $SC_nP$ -integral here,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Suppose that  $f$  is a function defined and finite almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ ,

and  $B$  a subset of  $[a, b]$  of measure  $b - a$ , and  $a, b \in B$ . A  $C_{n-1}P$ -integrable function  $M$  will be called an  $SC_nP$ -major function of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  with base  $B$  if

- (a)  $M$  is  $SC_n$ -continuous in  $]a, b[$  and  $C_n$ -continuous in  $B$ ;
- (b)  $SC_nD_*M(x) \geq f(x)$  almost everywhere in  $]a, b[$ ;
- (c)  $SC_nD_*M(x) > -\infty$  except perhaps in a scattered set;
- (d)  $M(a) = 0$ .

An  $SC_nP$ -minor function is similarly defined. If  $f$  has  $SC_nP$ -major and -minor functions and if

$$\inf M(b) = \sup m(b) \neq \pm \infty,$$

then  $f$  is said to be  $SC_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  with base  $B$ , and the common value, denoted by

$$(SC_nP) - \int_{[a,b]}^B f(t)dt,$$

is called the  $SC_nP$ -integral of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  with base  $B$ . As remarked in [2], we can often without ambiguity leave the base unspecified.

Except for those properties obtainable from the general theory in [2], it is easy to see that the  $SC_nP$ -integral is more general than the  $C_nP$ -integral [4] since  $SC_nD_*M(x) \geq C_nD_*M(x)$ . Furthermore, we have the consistency theorem for the scale:

**THEOREM 6.** *If  $f$  is  $SC_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  with base  $B$ , then  $f$  is  $SC_{n+1}P$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  with base  $B$  and the two integrals are equal.*

*Proof.* This is immediate from Theorem 4 and the general comparison theorem in [2].

*Remarks.* (i) Note that the  $SC_1P$ -integral is equivalent to Burkill's  $SCP$ -integral [5] as we have remarked in [2].

(ii) Burkill in [5] listed an integration by parts formula for his  $SCP$ -integral and stated that the proof followed from that given for the  $CP$ -integral in [3]. This is not true since the proof in [3] used essentially the following inequality

$$CD_*(MG)(x) \geq M(x)G'(x) + [CD_*M(x)]G(x),$$

but we do not have a similar inequality for the  $SC_1D$ -derivate. For example, let

$$\begin{aligned} M(x) &= x^{-1/2}, && \text{for } x > 0, \\ &= (-x)^{-1/2}, && \text{for } x < 0, \\ &= k, && \text{for } x = 0, \text{ where } k \text{ is any} \\ &&& \text{constant,} \end{aligned}$$

and let  $G(x) = -x$ . Then

$$SC_1D(MG)(0) = -\infty \not\geq -k = M(0)G'(0) + [SC_1DM(0)]G(0).$$

Thus, whether the formula for  $SCP$ -integral in [5] is true remains an open question.

If such an integration by parts formula exists for the  $SC_1P$ -integral, then one can use this to define the  $SC_2P$ -integral instead of using  $C_1P$ -integral. Then a more general scale would be obtained by induction.

**5. The  $SC_nP$ -integral and the  $P^{n+1}$ -integral.** As we mentioned in the introduction, in this section we are going to investigate the relation of the  $P^{n+1}$ -integral and the  $SC_nP$ -integral.

By  $P^{n+1}$ -integral, we mean the modified symmetric one as in [10]. For convenience, we give the definition of its major functions here.

Let  $f$  be a function defined almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ , and let  $a_i, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n + 1$ , be fixed points such that  $a = a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_{n+1} = b$ . A function  $Q$  is called a  $J_{n+1}$ -major function of  $f$  over  $(a_i)$  if

- (a)  $Q$  satisfies the condition  $(C_{n+1})$  in  $[a, b]$  (cf. Section 2);
- (b)  $-D_{n+1}Q(x) \geq f(x)$  almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ ;
- (c)  $-D_{n+1}Q(x) > -\infty, x \in ]a, b[ \sim S, S$  a scattered set;
- (d)  $Q(a_i) = 0$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n + 1$ .

**THEOREM 7.** *Let  $f$  be  $SC_nP$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  with base  $B$ . Then  $f$  is  $P^{n+1}$ -integrable over  $(a_i; c)$ , where  $a = a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_n < a_{n+1} = b$ , and  $c \in [a, b]$ . Moreover, letting*

$$F_n(x) = (SC_nP) - \int_a^x f(t)dt, \quad x \in B,$$

$$F_k(x) = (C_kP) - \int_a^x F_{k+1}(t)dt, \quad x \in [a, b], \quad 0 \leq k \leq n - 1,$$

$$F = F_0,$$

one has for  $a_s \leq c < a_{s+1}$ ,

$$(7) \quad (-1)^s \int_{(a_i)}^c f(t)d_{n+1}t = F(c) - \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda(c; a_i)F(a_i),$$

where  $\lambda(c; a_i) = \prod_{j \neq i} (c - a_j) / (a_i - a_j)$  is a polynomial in  $c$  of degree at most  $n$ .

*Proof.* Let  $M$  be an  $SC_nP$ -major function and let

$$G(x) = (C_0P) - \int_a^x (C_1P) - \int_a^{t_1} (C_2P) - \int_a^{t_2} \dots (C_{n-1}P) - \int_a^{t_{n-1}} M(t_n)dt_n dt_{n-1} \dots dt_2 dt_1.$$

Then by Lemma 4 and Lemma 5,  $G$  satisfies conditions (a), (b), (c) in the above definition. Hence setting

$$Q(x) = G(x) - \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda(x; a_i)G(a_i),$$

we see that  $Q$  is a  $J_{n+1}$ -major function of  $f$  over  $(a_i)$ . Similarly, an  $SC_nP$ -minor

function  $m$  yields a  $J_{n+1}$ -minor function

$$q(x) = g(x) - \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda(x; a_i)g(a_i),$$

where  $g$  is defined similar to  $G$ .

For  $\epsilon > 0$ , if we choose  $M, m$  such that

$$M(b) - m(b) < \epsilon / \left[ 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda(c; a_i) \right] (b - a)^n,$$

then the corresponding  $Q, q$  have

$$|Q(c) - q(c)| \leq |G(c) - g(c)| + \sum |\lambda(c; a_i)| |G(a_i) - g(a_i)| \leq \epsilon.$$

Hence, the  $P^{n+1}$ -integrability of  $f$  follows.

The equality (7) follows as above by using the property that  $F_n$  can be uniformly approximated in  $B$  by a sequence of  $SC_n$ -major or minor functions.

**COROLLARY 1.**  $F_{(n)}(x)$  exists for each  $x$  in  $B$  and  $D_{n-1}F(x)$  exists for each  $x \in ]a, b[$ . Furthermore,  $F_{(n)} = F_n$  on  $B$ , and  $D_kF = F_k$  on  $]a, b[$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ , where  $F, F_k$  are those in Theorem 7.

*Proof.* As  $F_n$  can be proved to be  $C_n$ -continuous in  $B$  and  $SC_n$ -continuous in  $]a, b[$  (see property (F) in [2]), the required results follow from Lemma 5.

**COROLLARY 2.** There exists a function which is  $P^{n+1}$ -integrable on  $[a, b]$  but not  $SC_n$ -P-integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

*Proof.* This is similar to that of Cross in [7] for  $n = 1$ . In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } n \text{ is odd, let } F(x) &= x \cos 1/x, \text{ for } x \neq 0, \\ &0, \text{ for } x = 0, \\ \text{if } n \text{ is even, let } F(x) &= x \sin 1/x, \text{ for } x \neq 0, \\ &0, \text{ for } x = 0. \end{aligned}$$

In either case, let

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= F^{(n+1)}(x), \text{ for } x \neq 0, \\ &= 0, \text{ for } x = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Then  $D_{n+1}F(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$ , including  $x = 0$ , and as shown in [9],  $f$  is  $P^{n+1}$ -integrable over any interval containing 0. However,  $f$  is not  $SC_nP$ -integrable over  $[0, b]$  for any  $b > 0$ . For otherwise, it would follow from Corollary 1 that  $F_{(n)}(0)$  exists. But not even  $F_{(1)}(0)$  exists.

**COROLLARY 3.** Let  $f$  be periodic of period  $2b, b > 0$ . For  $n \geq 1$ , let  $m = [n - 1/2]$ . Then if  $f$  is  $SC_nP$ -integrable on  $[-2(m + 1)b, 2(n - m)b]$  with a base  $B$ , one has

$$\frac{1}{(2b)^n} \binom{n + 1}{m + 1} \int_{(a_i)}^0 f(t) d_{n+1}t = (SC_nP) - \int_{[-b, b]} f(t) dt,$$

where  $(a_i) = (-2(m + 1)b, -2mb, -2(m - 1)b, \dots, -2b, 2b, 4b, \dots, 2(n - m)b)$ .

The proof, exactly similar to that of Cross in [6] for the unsymmetric case, is omitted.

*Remarks.* (i) Although  $P^{n+1}$ -integral is more general than the  $SC_nP$ -integral, the  $SC_nP$ -integral has the nice "additive" property that a function  $SC_nP$ -integral over two abutting intervals is  $SC_nP$ -integrable over their union, (see property (C) in [2]), while  $P^{n+1}$ -integral has no such property. For example, let  $F$  be as defined in the proof of Corollary 2. Consider the function  $f$  defined by

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= F^{(n+1)}(x), \text{ for } x \in ]0, i/\pi], \\ &= 0, \quad \text{for } x \in [-i/\pi, 0], \end{aligned}$$

where  $i = 2$  if  $n$  is odd and 1 if  $n$  is even. Then  $f$  is  $P^{n+1}$ -integrable over each of the intervals  $[-i/\pi, 0]$  and  $[0, i/\pi]$ , but not over  $[-i/\pi, i/\pi]$ . Note that this has been pointed out by Skvorcov in [14] for the case  $n = 1$ , i.e. for the  $P^2$ -integral.

(ii) As mentioned in [2], the  $SC_1P$ -integral solves the coefficient problem of convergent trigonometric series. Whether the  $SC_nP$ -integral (for  $n \geq 2$ ) solves the coefficient problem of  $(C, n - 1)$  summable trigonometric series, considered by James in [10], is under consideration.

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