# ON A METHOD OF SUMMABILITY EQUIVALENT TO THE CESÀRO METHOD

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### 1. Introduction

Suppose throughout that  $\mu = m + \delta$  where m is a non-negative integer and  $0 \le \delta < 1$ , and let

$$\Pi_{\mu}(x) = m! \binom{x+m}{m} (x+m+1)^{\delta} = (x+1) \dots (x+m) (x+m+1)^{\delta}.$$

We define a new method of summability  $(C^*, \mu)$  as follows:

A series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  is said to be summable  $(C^*, \mu)$  to s if

$$\sigma_n = \frac{1}{\prod_{\mu}(n)} \sum_{r=0}^n \prod_{\mu}(n-r)a_r \rightarrow s \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty;$$

if, in addition,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\sigma_n - \sigma_{n+1}| < \infty,$$

the series is said to be absolutely summable  $(C^*, \mu)$  to s. When  $\mu$  is an integer the method  $(C^*, \mu)$  reduces to the standard Cesàro method  $(C, \mu)$ . The "discontinuous" Riesz method  $(R^*, \alpha)$ , defined as above with  $(x+1)^{\alpha}$   $(\alpha > -1)$  in place of  $\Pi_{\mu}(x)$ , is identical with  $(C^*, \alpha)$  in the range  $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ . It is known that in the range  $-1 < \alpha < 2$  the methods  $(R^*, \alpha)$  and  $(C, \alpha)$  are both equivalent and absolutely equivalent (see §2 for an explanation of the terminology), but that these equivalences break down whenever  $\alpha \ge 2$  (Riesz [9], Peyerimhoff [8], Kuttner [5]).

The object of this note is to prove the following theorem, the known cases of which are  $\mu = 0, 1, \dots$  and  $0 < \mu < 1$ .

THEOREM. The methods  $(C, \mu)$  and  $(C^*, \mu)$  are both equivalent and absolutely equivalent for all  $\mu \geqslant 0$ .

#### 2. Nörlund methods

Let  $\{p_n\}$ ,  $\{q_n\}$  be sequences of non-negative real numbers with  $p_0 > 0$ ,  $q_0 > 0$ , let

$$P_n = \sum_{r=0}^n p_r, \quad Q_n = \sum_{r=0}^n q_r$$

and let

$$P(z) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P_n z^r, \quad Q(z) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} Q_n z^r.$$

When both power series have non-zero radii of convergence, we define

associated sequences  $\{k_n\}$ ,  $\{l_n\}$  and functions k(z), l(z) by the identities

$$\frac{Q(z)}{P(z)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} k_n z^n = k(z), \quad \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} l_n z^n = l(z).$$

The Nörlund method (N, p) is defined in the same way as the method  $(C^*, \mu)$  but with

$$\sigma_n = \frac{1}{P_n} \sum_{r=0}^n P_{n-r} a_r;$$

and (N, q) is similarly defined.

The method (N, p) is said to be regular (absolutely regular) if every convergent (absolutely convergent) series with sum s is summable (absolutely summable) by (N, p) to s. A necessary and sufficient condition for (N, p) to be regular is (see [2; p. 64])

$$\frac{p_n}{P_n} \to 0,\tag{1}$$

in which case the series defining P(z) is convergent for |z| < 1. Necessary and sufficient conditions for (N, p) to be absolutely regular (Mears [6], Knopp and Lorentz [4]) are (1) and

$$\sup_{r\geqslant 1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{P_n}{P_{n+r}} - \frac{P_{n-1}}{P_{n+r-1}} \right| < \infty.$$
 (2)

The methods (N, p) and (N, q) are said to be equivalent (absolutely equivalent) if every series summable (absolutely summable) by either of them to s is summable (absolutely summable) by the other to s.

It is known (Riesz [9], Miesner [7; Cor. 1]; see also [2; p. 67]) that if the methods (N, p) and (N, q) are regular (absolutely regular) and if

$$\sum_{0}^{\infty} |k_n| < \infty \text{ and } \sum_{0}^{\infty} |l_n| < \infty,$$

then the two methods are equivalent (absolutely equivalent). It is also known (see [10; p. 246]) that if  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |r_n| < \infty$  and  $r(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_n z^n$  is not zero for  $|z| \le 1$ , then the Taylor expansion of  $\frac{1}{r(z)}$  is absolutely convergent for |z| = 1.

We combine the above two results in the following lemma.

Lemma 1. If the methods (N, p) and (N, q) are regular (absolutely regular) and if

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |l_n| < \infty$$

and l(z) is not zero for  $|z| \le 1$ , then the methods are equivalent (absolutely equivalent).

ON A METHOD OF SUMMABILITY EQUIVALENT TO THE CESARO METHOD 341

3. The methods  $(C, \mu)$  and  $(C^* \mu)$ 

From now on we shall suppose that

$$0 < \delta < 1$$

and that

$$P_n = \Pi_{\mu}(n) = m! \binom{n+m}{m} (n+m+1)^{\delta}, \quad Q_n = \binom{n+\mu}{n},$$

so that

$$P(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \prod_{\mu}(n) z^n, \quad Q(z) = (1-z)^{-\mu-1}$$

and

$$l(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} l_n z^n = (1-z)^{\mu+1} P(z).$$

The methods  $(C^*, \mu)$  and  $(C, \mu)$  are thus the Nörlund methods (N, p) and (N, q) respectively.

It is familiar that  $(C, \mu)$  is both regular and absolutely regular; and  $(C^*, \mu)$  is regular since

$$\frac{\Pi_{\mu}(n-1)}{\Pi_{\mu}(n)} \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Further, setting

$$\psi(x) = \frac{\Pi_{\mu}(x)}{\Pi_{\mu}(x+r)} ,$$

we see that, for  $x \ge 0$ , r = 1, 2, ...,

$$\frac{\psi'(x)}{\psi(x)} = \frac{1}{x+1} + \dots + \frac{\delta}{x+m+1} - \left(\frac{1}{x+1+r} + \dots + \frac{\delta}{x+m+1+r}\right) > 0,$$

so that, for  $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ ,

$$\frac{\Pi_{\mu}(n)}{\Pi_{\mu}(n+r)} > \frac{\Pi_{\mu}(n-1)}{\Pi_{\mu}(n+r-1)}$$
.

It follows that (2) is satisfied with  $P_n = \prod_{\mu}(n)$  and hence that  $(C^*, \mu)$  is absolutely regular.

LEMMA 2. For x > -m-1,

(i) 
$$\Pi_{\mu}(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^r j_r (x+m+1)^{\mu-r}$$
 where each  $j_r > 0$ ,

(ii) 
$$(-1)^k \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{m+1+k} \Pi_{\mu}(x) > 0, \quad (k=0, 1, \ldots).$$

Proof. Conclusion (i) is immediate. By (i),

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{m+1} \Pi_{\mu}(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^{r} j_{r} (\delta - r) \dots (\delta + m - r) (x + m + 1)^{\delta - 1 - r}$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} b_{r} (x + m + 1)^{\delta - 1 - r},$$

where each  $b_r > 0$  since  $0 < \delta < 1$ ; and conclusion (ii) follows.

LEMMA 3.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |l_n| < \infty.$$

*Proof.* For |z| < 1, by Lemma 2 (i),

$$l(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} l_n z^n = \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^r j_r (1-z)^r l_r(z)$$

where

$$l_r(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} l_{n,r} z^n = (1-z)^{\mu-r+1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+m+1)^{\mu-r} z^n.$$

By a trivial modification of a known result (Miesner [7; Lemma 5])

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |l_{n,r}| < \infty \quad (r=0, 1, ..., m),$$

and the required conclusion follows.

## 4. Proof of the theorem

In view of Lemmas 1 and 3 it suffices to show that l(z) is not zero for  $|z| \le 1$ .

Let

$$F(z) = (1-z)^{-\delta} l(z) = (1-z)^{m+1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Pi_{\mu}(n) z^{n}.$$

Then, for |z| < 1,

$$F(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n,$$

where

$$c_n = (-1)^{m+1} \sum_{r=0}^{m+1} (-1)^r \binom{m+1}{r} \prod_{\mu} (r+n-m-1) \quad (n=0, 1, \ldots),$$

since  $\Pi_{\mu}(-k) = 0$  for k = 1, 2, ..., m + 1.

By a standard result, we have for n = 0, 1, ...,

$$c_n = \left[ \left( \frac{d}{dx} \right)^{m+1} \Pi_{\mu}(x) \right]_{x=x_1} \text{ and } c_n - c_{n+1} = -\left[ \left( \frac{d}{dx} \right)^{m+2} \Pi_{\mu}(x) \right]_{x=x_2},$$

where  $n-m-1 < x_1 < n$  and  $n-m-1 < x_2 < n+1$ .

Hence, by Lemma 2,  $c_n > c_{n+1} > 0$  for n = 0, 1, ..., and consequently, by a theorem of Kakeya [3] (see also [5]),

$$(1-z)^{-\delta} l(z)$$
 is not zero when  $|z| \le 1$ ,  $z \ne 1$ .

It remains only to show that  $l(1) \neq 0$  and this can be done as follows. By a known result (see [1])

$$l(1) = \lim_{x \to 1-} l(x) = \lim_{x \to 1-} (1-x)^{\mu+1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\prod_{\mu}(n)}{\binom{n+\mu}{n}} \binom{n+\mu}{n} x^n$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\prod_{\mu}(n)}{\binom{n+\mu}{n}} = \Gamma(\mu+1) > 0.$$

## ON A METHOD OF SUMMABILITY EQUIVALENT TO THE CESARO METHOD 343

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