

## Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces and the Associated Integral Equations

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**Abstract.** In this paper we consider various reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces and the classes of integral equations associated with them. We find solutions of these integral equations in the respective spaces.

**Key Words and Phrases:** Hardy space, Bergman space, Paley-Wiener space, symmetric measure, integral equations

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### 1. Reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces

Ahern, Flores and Rudin [1], Axler, Cuckovic [4] and Yi [16] studied the class of integral equations

$$g(x) = (1-x)^{n+1} \int_0^1 \frac{n+tx}{(1-tx)^{n+2}} g(t) t^{n-1} dt, n \geq 1 \quad (1)$$

associated with the invariant mean value property (see [1],[11], [2],[3]) of  $\mathcal{M}$ -harmonic functions. They proved that constants are the only solutions of these integral equations if  $n \leq 11$  and this is not true if  $n \geq 12$ . Let  $\mathbb{B}_n$  be the open unit ball of  $\mathbb{C}^n$  [13],  $n \geq 1, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , with respect to the Euclidean metric. The group of all one-to-one holomorphic maps of  $\mathbb{B}_n$  onto  $\mathbb{B}_n$  (the automorphisms of  $\mathbb{B}_n$ ) will be denoted by  $Aut(\mathbb{B}_n)$ . It is generated by the unitary operators on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  and the involutions  $\phi_a$  of the form

$$\phi_a(z) = \frac{a - \mathcal{P}z - (1 - |a|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} Qz}{1 - \langle z, a \rangle}, \quad (2)$$

where  $a \in \mathbb{B}_n$ ,  $\mathcal{P}$  is the orthogonal projection onto the space spanned by  $a$ ,  $Qz = z - \mathcal{P}z$ ,

$$\langle z, a \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \bar{a}_i, \text{ and } |a|^2 = \langle a, a \rangle.$$

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The letter  $\nu$  denotes the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , normalized so that  $\nu(\mathbb{B}_n) = 1$  and for  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , the space  $L^p(\mathbb{B}_n)$  refers to the usual Lebesgue spaces and the integration is with respect to the measure  $\nu$ . For  $n = 1$ ,  $d\nu$  is equal to  $dA$ , the normalized area measure on the open unit disk  $\mathbb{D}$  in the complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $L_a^p(\mathbb{B}_n)$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , denote the corresponding Bergman spaces of analytic functions in  $\mathbb{B}_n$  that are also in  $L^p(\mathbb{B}_n, d\nu)$ . We now consider the Bergman space  $L_a^2(\mathbb{B}_n)$  of holomorphic functions in  $L^2(\mathbb{B}_n, d\nu)$ . The reproducing kernel  $K_{\mathbb{B}_n}(z, w)$  of  $L_a^2(\mathbb{B}_n, d\nu)$  is holomorphic in  $z$  and antiholomorphic in  $w$  and

$$\int_{\mathbb{B}_n} |K_{\mathbb{B}_n}(z, w)|^2 d\nu(w) = K_{\mathbb{B}_n}(z, z) > 0 \quad (3)$$

for all  $z \in \mathbb{B}_n$ . Thus we define for each  $\lambda \in \mathbb{B}_n$ , a unit vector  $k_\lambda$  in  $L_a^2(\mathbb{B}_n)$  by

$$k_\lambda(z) = \frac{K_{\mathbb{B}_n}(z, \lambda)}{\sqrt{K_{\mathbb{B}_n}(\lambda, \lambda)}}. \quad (4)$$

For  $z, \lambda \in \mathbb{B}_n$ ,

$$K_{\mathbb{B}_n}(z, \lambda) = \frac{n!}{(1 - z \cdot \bar{\lambda})^{n+1}}, \quad (5)$$

where  $z \cdot \bar{\lambda} = z_1 \bar{\lambda}_1 + z_2 \bar{\lambda}_2 + \dots + z_n \bar{\lambda}_n$ . For more details see [11]. If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{B}_n, d\nu)$ , the Berezin transform of  $f$  is defined by

$$(Bf)(w) = \int_{\mathbb{B}_n} f(z) |k_w(z)|^2 d\nu(z). \quad (6)$$

Suppose  $f$  is radial and there is a function  $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = g(|z|^2)$ . It is not difficult to prove [1] that  $Bf = f$  if and only if

$$g(x) = (1-x)^{n+1} \int_0^1 \frac{n+tx}{(1-tx)^{n+2}} g(t) t^{n-1} dt. \quad (7)$$

In 2003, Jevtic [10] studied the class of integral equations

$$g(x) = (1-x)^\gamma \frac{\gamma}{2} \int_0^1 \frac{1+tx}{(1-tx)^{\gamma+1}} g(t) t^{\frac{\gamma}{2}-1} dt, \gamma \geq 2 \quad (8)$$

that arise naturally in the study of the invariant mean value properties of hyperbolically-harmonic functions and showed that the constants are the only solutions of the equation (8) if  $2 \leq \gamma \leq 12$  but this is not true if  $\gamma \geq 13$ . The approach to the problem considered in [10] comes from Yi's work [16].

In this work we focus on various reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces like Hardy space, Bergman space, Paley-Wiener space  $PW[-1, 1]$ , the space  $E^2(\mu_0)$ , etc. In these spaces, solutions of integral equations similar to (1) are discussed. Characteristics of the nonconstant solutions of the integral equations (1), which are in  $PW[-1, 1] \cap L^2[0, 1]$ , are also discussed.

In section 2 we consider integral equations of the type

$$\int_0^1 \frac{g(t)}{1-tz} dt = \lambda g(z); \quad (9)$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{h(t)}{1-tz} dt = \lambda h(z) + 1, \quad (10)$$

where  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \pi$ ,  $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n z^n$ ,  $h(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h_n z^n$ ,  $|z| \leq 1$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n^2 < \infty$ ,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h_n^2 < \infty$ ,  $g_n, h_n \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . We showed that if  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \pi$ , then neither of the integral equations (9) and (10) has a solution, except for the solution  $g(z) \equiv 0$  of (9). In section 3 we introduce the reproducing kernel Hilbert space  $E^2(\mu_0)$  and show that the integral equation

$$F(z) = 2(1-z)^2 \int_{\mathbb{D}} \frac{1+\bar{z}w}{(1-\bar{z}w)^3} F(w) \log \frac{1}{|w|} dA(w), \quad z \in \mathbb{D},$$

has no non-zero solution in the space  $E^2(\mu_0)$ . In section 4 we introduce the Paley-Wiener space  $PW[-1, 1]$  which is also a reproducing kernel Hilbert space and show that if there exists a nonconstant solution  $f$  of the integral equation (1) in  $PW[-1, 1] \cap L^2[0, 1]$ , then there exists no sequence  $(t_k)_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \subset [0, 1]$  that is uniformly discrete and

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t_k) - f(t_{k-1})| = \infty.$$

## 2. Hilbert matrix and the associated integral equations

In this section we focus on the Hardy space of the open unit disk  $\mathbb{D}$  and consider integral equations (9) and (10). Wilhelm Magnus [9] arrived at these integral equations while looking at the spectrum of the Hilbert matrix. Magnus [9] showed that the spectrum of Hilbert's matrix is purely continuous and every real value  $\lambda$  for which  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \pi$  belongs to the spectrum. In this section we simplified the proof of Magnus and showed that if  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \pi$ , then neither of the integral equations has a solution, except for the solution  $g(z) \equiv 0$  of (9). We also showed that the spectrum of the Hilbert matrix contains the closed interval  $[0, \pi]$ .

Let  $\mathbb{T}$  denote the unit circle in  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $d\theta$  be the arc-length measure on  $\mathbb{T}$ . For  $1 \leq p \leq +\infty$ ,  $L^p(\mathbb{T})$  will denote the Lebesgue space of  $\mathbb{T}$  induced by  $\frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$ . Given  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ , the Fourier coefficients of  $f$  are

$$a_n(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} d\theta, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad (11)$$

where  $\mathbb{Z}$  is the set of all integers. Let  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  denote the set of nonnegative integers. For  $1 \leq p \leq +\infty$ , the Hardy space of  $\mathbb{T}$  denoted by  $\mathbb{H}^p$ , is the subspace of  $L^p(\mathbb{T})$  consisting

of functions  $f$  with  $a_n(f) = 0$  for all negative integers  $n$ . We shall let  $\mathbb{H}^p(\mathbb{D})$  denote the space of analytic functions on  $\mathbb{D}$  which are harmonic extensions of functions in  $\mathbb{H}^p$ . The Hardy space  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$  is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space and the reproducing kernel (called the Cauchy or Szego kernel)  $K_w(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \bar{w}z}$ , for  $z, w \in \mathbb{D}$ . It is not so important to distinguish  $\mathbb{H}^p(\mathbb{D})$  from  $\mathbb{H}^p$ . Let  $\mathbb{P}$  denote the orthogonal projection from  $L^2(\mathbb{T})$  onto  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{T})$ . The sequence of functions  $\{e^{in\theta}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+}$  forms an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{T})$ .

It is well known [7] that the Hilbert matrix  $H = \left( \frac{1}{i+j+1} \right)$ ,  $i, j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  acting by multiplication on sequences, induces a bounded linear operator  $Ha = b$ ,  $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{n+k+1}$ , on the  $l^2$  space with norm  $\|H\|_{l^2 \rightarrow l^2} = \pi$ . It also induces an operator  $\mathcal{H}$  on the Hardy space  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$ . To study the effect of the Hilbert matrix on Hardy spaces, let  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  and assume  $f \in \mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{D})$ . Hardy's inequality [7] says  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|a_n|}{n+1} \leq \pi \|f\|_1$  and it follows that the power series

$$F(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{n+k+1} \right) z^n$$

has bounded coefficients, hence its radius of convergence is  $\geq 1$ . In this way we obtain a well defined analytic function  $F = \mathcal{H}(f)$  on the disk for each  $f \in \mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{D})$ . A calculation shows that we can write

$$\mathcal{H}(f)(z) = \int_0^1 \frac{f(t)}{1-tz} dt, \quad (12)$$

where the convergence of the integral is guaranteed by Fejer-Riesz inequality [7] and the fact that  $\frac{1}{1-tz}$  is bounded in  $t$  for each  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ .

The correspondence  $f \rightarrow \mathcal{H}(f)$  is clearly linear and we consider the restriction of this mapping to the space  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$ . The isometric identification of  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$  with  $l^2$  gives  $\|\mathcal{H}\|_{\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D}) \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})} = \pi$ . Let  $g(z) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} g_m z^m$  and  $h(z) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} h_m z^m$  belong to  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$  where  $|z| < 1$ . This implies  $(g_m) \in l^2$  and  $(h_m) \in l^2$ . Now  $Hg = \lambda g$  implies

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \langle Hg, z^n \rangle z^n = \lambda \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n z^n. \quad (13)$$

Hence

$$\sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} g_m \langle H z^m, z^n \rangle z^n = \lambda \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n z^n.$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g_m}{m+n+1} z^n = \lambda \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n z^n. \quad (14)$$

Since

$$\int_0^1 g(t)t^n dt = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{g_m}{m+n+1},$$

we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \int_0^1 g(t)t^n dt \right) z^n = \lambda \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n z^n. \quad (15)$$

Hence

$$\int_0^1 \frac{g(t)}{1-tz} dt = \lambda g(z). \quad (16)$$

Thus, if for  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \pi$  the above integral equation has only the trivial solution  $g(z) \equiv 0$ , then  $\lambda$  cannot be an eigenvalue of the Hilbert matrix  $H$ . The equation

$$\int_0^1 \frac{h(t)}{1-tz} dt = \lambda h(z) + 1$$

also follows from similar considerations. That is, if we define

$$(Vh)(z) = \int_0^1 \frac{h(t)}{1-tz} dt, \quad (17)$$

our question is whether the constant 1 belongs to the image of  $V - \lambda$ . Notice that if  $1 \notin \text{Ran}(V - \lambda)$ , then constants do not belong to the range of  $V - \lambda$ . If (10) has no solution and (9) has only the trivial solution, then it will mean that  $\lambda$  belongs to the spectrum of the Hilbert matrix  $H$ .

Suppose the real numbers  $g_n, h_n, n = 0, 1, 2 \dots$  satisfy

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n^2 = M < \infty, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h_n^2 = N < \infty. \quad (18)$$

Hence the power series  $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n z^n, h(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h_n z^n$  converges for  $|z| < 1$ . The following holds:

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose  $\lambda$  is a real number such that  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \pi$ . Then neither of the following integral equations*

$$\int_0^1 \frac{g(t)}{1-tz} dt = \lambda g(z), \quad (19)$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{h(t)}{1-tz} dt = \lambda h(z) + 1 \quad (20)$$

*has a solution, except for the solution  $g(z) \equiv 0$  of (19).*

*Proof.* From Cauchy-Schwarz inequality it follows that for  $|z| < 1$ ,

$$|g(z)| \leq \frac{\sqrt{M}}{\sqrt{|1-|z|^2|}}, |h(z)| \leq \frac{\sqrt{N}}{\sqrt{|1-|z|^2|}}.$$

We can iterate (19) and (20) to get

$$\int_0^1 \frac{g(t)}{t-z} \log \left( \frac{1-z}{1-t} \right) dt = \lambda^2 g(z);$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{h(t)}{t-z} \log \left( \frac{1-z}{1-t} \right) dt = \lambda^2 h(z) + \lambda - \frac{1}{2} \log(1-z).$$

For  $f \in \mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{D})$ , the Fejer-Riesz theorem [7], which guarantees convergence along with analyticity, shows that the integral in (12) is independent of the path of integration. For  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ , we can choose the path

$$\zeta(t) = \zeta_z(t) = \frac{t}{(t-1)z+1}, 0 \leq t \leq 1,$$

i.e., a circular arc in  $\mathbb{D}$  joining 0 to 1. A change of variable in (12) gives

$$\mathcal{H}(f)(z) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(t-1)z+1} f \left( \frac{t}{(t-1)z+1} \right) dt = \int_0^1 (T_t f)(z) dt, \quad (21)$$

where  $T_t(f)(z) = w_t(z)f(\varphi_t(z))$ ,  $w_t(z) = \frac{1}{(t-1)z+1}$  and  $\varphi_t(z) = \frac{t}{(t-1)z+1}$ . It is easy to see that  $\varphi_t$  is a self map of the disk, hence  $f \mapsto f \circ \varphi_t$  is bounded on  $\mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$  (see [17]) and for each  $0 < t < 1$ ,  $w_t(z)$  is a bounded analytic function. Thus  $T_t : \mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D}) \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^2(\mathbb{D})$  is bounded for  $0 < t < 1$ . More information about these operators can be found in [6].

If  $0 < \lambda < \pi$  and  $Hg = \lambda g$ , then  $(Hg)(1) = \lambda g(1)$ . But  $(Hg)(1) = \int_0^1 (T_t g)(1) dt = \int_0^1 w_t(1)g(\varphi_t(1)) dt = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{t} g(1) dt = g(1) \int_0^1 \frac{1}{t} dt$ . Thus  $g(1) = 0$ . Further

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda g'(z) &= \int_0^1 (T_t g)'(z) dt \\ &= \frac{-(t-1)}{[(t-1)z+1]^2} g(\varphi_t(z)) + g'(\varphi_t(z)) \frac{1}{(t-1)z+1} \frac{1-(t-1)(t-z)}{[(t-1)z+1]^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\lambda g'(1) = g'(1) \left[ \frac{2-t}{t^3} \right]$ . Thus  $g'(1) = 0$ . Similarly one can show that  $h(1) = h'(1) = 0$ .

Thus we have shown that if  $0 < \lambda < \pi$ , then

$$g(1) = g'(1) = 0, |g'(z)| \leq M', \quad (22)$$

where  $M'$  is a constant and  $0 \leq z \leq 1$ . Similarly, one can verify that

$$h(1) = h'(1) = 0, |h'(z)| \leq N'. \quad (23)$$

Differentiating (19), (20) with respect to  $z$ , we obtain from (22) and (23) that

$$\lambda g'(z) = \int_0^1 \frac{tg(t)}{(1-tz)^2} dt = -\frac{1}{z} \int_0^1 \frac{tg'(t) + g(t)}{1-tz} dt \quad (24)$$

and (24) is also valid if we substitute  $h(z)$  for  $g(z)$ .

If we combine (24) and (19), we obtain

$$\lambda\{zg'(z) + g(z)\} = \int_0^1 \frac{tg'(t)}{1-tz} dt.$$

Since  $|g'(t)| \leq M'$ , this gives  $\lambda(n+1)|g_n| \leq M' \int_0^1 t^{n+1} dt$ , which also shows that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)^2 g_n^2 < \infty. \quad (25)$$

Expanding  $\frac{1}{1-tz}$  in a series of ascending powers of  $tz$  in the equation

$$\lambda g'(z) = -\frac{1}{z} \int_0^1 \frac{tg'(t) + g(t)}{1-tz} dt,$$

we obtain the infinite system of linear equations

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(m+1)g_m}{n+m+1} = -\lambda n g_n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (26)$$

Putting  $(m+1)g_m = x_m$ , we find

$$\sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x_n x_m}{n+m+1} = -\lambda \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} x_n^2. \quad (27)$$

Since (25) holds, using Hilbert inequality [7] we obtain a contradiction unless  $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = 0$ . One can also obtain from (27) that  $x_0 = 0$  and therefore  $g(z) \equiv 0$ . The proof for  $h(z) \equiv 0$  (i.e., for the non-existence of  $h(z)$ ) is precisely the same. Thus, if  $0 < \lambda < \pi$ , then the equations (19) and (20) has only trivial solution.

To complete the proof, it will be sufficient to show that  $g(z) \equiv 0$  if  $\lambda = 0$  or  $\lambda = \pi$ .

Let  $G(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g_n}{n+1} z^{n+1}$ . This is a continuous function of  $z$  for  $0 \leq z \leq 1$  and from (19)

we have in the case  $\lambda = 0$ ,

$$\int_0^1 g(t)t^n dt = G(1) - n \int_0^1 G(t)t^{n-1} dt = 0$$

for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . For  $n = 0$ , this gives  $G(1) = 0$ , and for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , we find that all the moments of  $G(t)$  vanish, i.e.,  $G(t) \equiv 0$ . Since the norm of the operator  $H$  is equal to  $\pi$  and the spectrum of  $H$  is a closed set, the equation (19) has only trivial solution if  $\lambda = \pi$ .

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### 3. The spaces $E^2(\mu)$

In this section we introduce the reproducing kernel Hilbert space  $E^2(\mu_0)$  and show that the integral equation

$$F(z) = 2(1-z)^2 \int_{\mathbb{D}} \frac{1+\bar{z}w}{(1-\bar{z}w)^3} F(w) \log \frac{1}{|w|} dA(w),$$

$z \in \mathbb{D}$ , has no non-zero solution in the space  $E^2(\mu_0)$ . Let  $\nu$  be a finite positive Borel measure defined on the closed unit interval  $[0,1]$  such that  $\nu(\{0\}) = 0$  and  $\nu([a,1]) > 0$  for every  $0 \leq a < 1$ . Then by the Riesz representation theorem [5], [15] there is a finite positive Borel measure  $\mu$  supported on the closed unit disk  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$  such that

$$\int_{\bar{\mathbb{D}}} f(z) d\mu(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^1 f(re^{i\theta}) d\nu(r) \quad (28)$$

holds for all continuous functions  $f(z)$  on  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$ . Notice that the condition  $\nu(\{0\}) = 0$  is needed to insure that (28) is always meaningful. Symbolically we write  $d\mu(r, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} d\nu(r) d\theta$ . Any measure  $\mu$  defined in this way is said to be a symmetric measure on  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$ . The measure  $\nu$  is called the radial component of  $\mu$ . In case  $\nu$  is a probability measure, we say that  $\mu$  is normalized.

Let  $\mu$  be a symmetric measure on  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$ . For any  $0 < p < \infty$  and any  $F$  in  $L^p(\mu)$  we write

$$\|F\|_{p,\mu} = \left( \int_{\bar{\mathbb{D}}} |F(w)|^p d\mu(w) \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}. \quad (29)$$

If  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\mathbb{D}$ , we put

$$M_p(r, f, \mu) = \left( \int_{\bar{\mathbb{D}}} |f(rw)|^p d\mu(w) \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad (30)$$

for  $0 \leq r < 1$ . If  $\nu$  has no mass at 1, (30) is also meaningful for  $r = 1$ ,  $M_p(1, f, \mu)$  possibly being equal to  $+\infty$ . If  $\nu$  is a single unit point mass at 1, the means  $M_p(r, f, \mu)$  reduce to the standard  $\mathbb{H}^p$  means

$$M_p(r, f) = \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(re^{i\theta})|^p d\theta \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}. \quad (31)$$

If  $\mu$  is a symmetric measure on  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$  and  $f(z)$  is an analytic function in  $\mathbb{D}$ , then for any  $0 < p < \infty$  it is not so difficult to verify [7] that  $M_p(r, f, \mu)$  is a nondecreasing function of  $r$ .

For  $0 < p < \infty$ , we denote by  $E^p(\mu)$  the linear space of all functions  $f(z)$  analytic in  $\mathbb{D}$  such that

$$\|f\|_{p,\mu} = \sup_{r < 1} M_p(r, f, \mu) < \infty. \quad (32)$$



Relation (32) determines a metric on  $E^p(\mu)$  for all  $0 < p < \infty$ . For  $p \geq 1$ ,  $E^p(\mu)$  becomes a normed linear space with the above norm. Fix some  $0 < p < \infty$ . For any  $z$  in  $\mathbb{D}$ , we define the evaluation functional  $\epsilon_z$  on  $E^p(\mu)$  by

$$\epsilon_z : f \longrightarrow f(z) \quad (33)$$

for all  $f$  in  $E^p(\mu)$ . If  $\mu$  is a symmetric measure on  $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ , and  $0 < p < \infty$ , then  $E^p(\mu)$  is complete and if  $K$  is a compact subset of  $\mathbb{D}$ , then  $\{\epsilon_z : z \in K\}$  is a uniformly bounded set of linear functionals on  $E^p(\mu)$ . For proof see [8]. If  $\nu(\{1\}) = 0$ , we denote by  $L_a^p(\mu, \mathbb{D})$  the Bergman space of functions analytic in  $\mathbb{D}$  that are  $L^p(\mu)$ -integrable. It is known [8] that if  $\nu(\{1\}) > 0$ , then  $E^p(\mu) = \mathbb{H}^p$  with an equivalent metric and if  $\nu(\{1\}) = 0$ , then  $E^p(\mu) = L_a^p(\mu, \mathbb{D})$ . Let  $\mathbb{H}^p(\mu)$  be the  $L^p(\mu)$ -closure of the polynomials. It is shown in [8] that  $\mathbb{H}^p(\mu)$  is isometrically isomorphic to  $E^p(\mu)$  for all  $0 < p < \infty$ . We shall now focus our attention on the case  $p = 2$ . For  $\alpha \geq 0$ , we write

$$w(\alpha) = \int_0^1 t^\alpha d\nu(t). \quad (34)$$

The function  $w(\alpha)$  is obviously a nonincreasing function of  $\alpha$ . Since point evaluation is a bounded linear functional on the space  $E^2(\mu)$ , it is a functional Hilbert space. The sequence  $e_n(z) = w(2n)^{-\frac{1}{2}} z^n$ ,  $n \geq 0$  is easily seen to be a complete orthonormal set in  $E^2(\mu)$ . If  $f \in E^2(\mu)$ , it is not difficult to verify that  $\langle f, e_n \rangle = a_n w(2n)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , where  $a_n$  is the  $n$ th Taylor coefficient of  $f(z)$ . The reproducing kernel of  $E^2(\mu)$  is given by

$$K(w, z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e_n(z) \overline{e_n(w)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} w(2n)^{-1} (\overline{w}z)^n. \quad (35)$$

Consider the measure  $\mu_0$  defined on  $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$  by

$$d\mu_0(r, \theta) = \frac{2}{\pi} r \log \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) dr d\theta. \quad (36)$$

**Theorem 2.** (a) *There exists no nonzero  $F \in E^2(\mu_0)$  such that for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ ,*

$$F(z) = 2(1-z)^2 \int_{\mathbb{D}} \frac{1 + \bar{z}w}{(1 - \bar{z}w)^3} F(w) \log \frac{1}{|w|} dA(w). \quad (37)$$

(b) *Radial functions in  $E^2(\mu_0)$  are constants.*

*Proof.* (a) In the space  $E^2(\mu_0)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} w(2n) &= \int_0^1 r^{2n} \left( 4r \log \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) \right) dr \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} 4te^{-(2n+2)t} dt \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n+1)^2}.$$

It then follows from Parseval's identity that  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  belongs to  $E^2(\mu_0)$  if and only

if  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)^{-2} |a_n|^2 < \infty$  and

$$\|f\|_{2, \mu_0}^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|a_n|^2}{(n+1)^2}.$$

The reproducing kernel of  $E^2(\mu_0)$  is given by

$$K(w, z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)^2 (\bar{w}z)^n = \frac{1 + \bar{w}z}{(1 - \bar{w}z)^3}.$$

Suppose there exists a function  $F \in E^2(\mu_0)$  such that for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ ,

$$F(z) = 2(1-z)^2 \int_{\mathbb{D}} \frac{1 + \bar{z}w}{(1 - \bar{z}w)^3} F(w) \log \frac{1}{|w|} dA(w). \quad (38)$$

Then for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ ,  $F(z) = (1-z)^2 F(z)$  as  $\frac{1 + \bar{z}w}{(1 - \bar{z}w)^3}$  is the reproducing kernel for the space  $E^2(\mu_0)$ . Thus  $F \equiv 0$ .

(b) The function  $F(w) \in E^2(\mu_0)$  where  $w = se^{i\theta}$  if and only if

$$\int_{\mathbb{D}} |F(w)|^2 d\mu_0(w) < \infty.$$

That is, if and only if

$$\int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^1 |F(se^{i\theta})|^2 \frac{2}{\pi} s \log \frac{1}{s} ds < \infty. \quad (39)$$

This is true if and only if

$$4 \int_0^1 |F(se^{i\theta})|^2 s \log \frac{1}{s} ds < \infty.$$

Let  $f(s) = f(|w|) = F(se^{i\theta}) = F(w)$ . Then  $4 \int_0^1 |f(s)|^2 s \log \frac{1}{s} ds < \infty$ . Thus, if  $f(|w|) = F(w)$ , then  $F \in E^2(\mu_0)$  if and only if  $f \in L^2([0, 1], 4s \log \frac{1}{s} ds)$ . To prove (b), let  $F$  be a radial function in  $E^2(\mu_0)$  and assume  $f(|z|) = F(z)$ . Then  $f \in L^2([0, 1], 4s \log \frac{1}{s} ds)$ . Let  $t = |z|$ . Hence

$$f(t) = f(|z|) = F(z) = \int_{\mathbb{D}} K(z, w) F(w) d\mu_0(w)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^1 \frac{1 + tse^{i\theta}}{(1 - tse^{i\theta})^3} f(s) \frac{2}{\pi} s \log \frac{1}{s} ds \\
&= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} K(t, se^{i\theta}) d\theta \int_0^1 f(s) s \log \frac{1}{s} ds \\
&= 4 \int_0^1 f(s) s \log \frac{1}{s} ds.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $F$  is a constant. ◀

Notice that  $f \in E^2(\mu_0)$  if and only if  $f(z) = g'(z)$  for some  $g \in \mathbb{H}^2$ . Moreover,  $\frac{d}{dz}$  is an isometric isomorphism from  $\mathbb{H}_0^2$  onto  $E^2(\mu_0)$ , where  $\mathbb{H}_0^2$  is the collection of all  $\mathbb{H}^2$  functions that vanish at 0. This is immediate, since  $\frac{d}{dz}$  carries the orthonormal basis  $\{z^n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  for  $\mathbb{H}_0^2$  onto the orthonormal basis  $\{(n+1)z^n\}_{n=0}^\infty$  for  $E^2(\mu_0)$ . One of the measure that is equivalent to the measure  $\mu_0$  is given by

$$d\mu_1(r, \theta) = r(1-r)drd\theta.$$

#### 4. The Paley-Wiener spaces

Let  $K$  be a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . The Paley-Wiener space  $PW(K)$  is the space of functions  $f$  whose Fourier transforms  $\check{f}$  are supported on  $K$ . That is,

$$PW(K) = \left\{ f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) : f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_K \check{f}(x) e^{ixt} dx, \text{ where } \check{f}(x) \in L^2(K) \right\}.$$

Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}
f(s) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \check{f}(x) e^{ixs} \chi_K(x) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{2\pi} \langle \check{f}(x), e^{-ixs} \chi_K(x) \rangle \\
&= \langle f, K_s \rangle,
\end{aligned}$$

where the reproducing kernel  $K_s$  satisfies  $\check{K}_s(x) = e^{-ixs} \chi_K(x)$  or  $K_s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_K e^{ix(t-s)} dx$ .

In this section we show that if there exists a nonconstant solution  $f$  of the integral equation (1) in  $PW[-1, 1] \cap L^2[0, 1]$ , then there exists no sequence  $(t_k)_{k=-\infty}^\infty \subset [0, 1]$  that is uniformly discrete and

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t_k) - f(t_{k-1})| = \infty.$$

The reproducing kernel of  $PW[-b, b]$  is given by  $K_s(t) = K(t-s)$ , where

$$K(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin bt}{\pi t}, & \text{if } t \neq 0; \\ \frac{b}{\pi}, & \text{if } t = 0. \end{cases}$$

It is known [12] that if  $f \in PW[-b, b]$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f\left(\frac{n\pi}{b}\right) \frac{\sin b\left(t - \frac{n\pi}{b}\right)}{\pi\left(t - \frac{n\pi}{b}\right)} \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\pi}{b} \langle f, K_{\frac{n\pi}{b}} \rangle K_{\frac{n\pi}{b}}(t) \end{aligned}$$

converges uniformly and in the  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  norm. That is,  $f$  can be reconstructed from samples spaced at equal intervals  $\frac{\pi}{b}$ . Thus we see that the normalized reproducing kernel functions  $k_{\frac{n\pi}{b}}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{b}} K_{\frac{n\pi}{b}}(t)$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  form an orthonormal basis for  $PW[-b, b]$ .

**Theorem 3.** *Suppose  $V \in L^2[0, 1] \cap PW([-1, 1])$ ,  $V$  is an absolutely continuous function such that  $V'$  is in  $L^2[0, 1]$ . Suppose  $V$  is a solution of the integral equation (1) and  $\int_0^1 V(s)s^{n-1}ds = 0$ . Then*

$$\|V\|_2 \leq \|V'\|_2 \leq \|V\|_{\infty}.$$

*Proof.* From Bernstein's inequality [12],[14] it follows that  $\|V'\|_{\infty} \leq \|V\|_{\infty}$ . Thus  $\|V'\|_2 \leq \|V\|_{\infty}$ . Now suppose  $V$  is a solution of the integral equation (1). Hence

$$V(t) = (1-t)^{n+1} \int_0^1 \frac{n+ts}{(1-st)^{n+2}} V(s)s^{n-1}ds. \quad (40)$$

Therefore  $V(0) = n \int_0^1 V(s)s^{n-1}ds = 0$ . Suppose  $f, f' \in L^2[0, 2\pi]$ ,  $f(t) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} a_m e^{imt}$ ,  $f'(t) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} im a_m e^{imt}$  are the corresponding Fourier series converging in  $L^2$  norm. Suppose  $a_0 = 0$ . Then

$$\|f\|_2^2 = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} |a_m|^2 \leq \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} m^2 |a_m|^2 = \|f'\|_2^2.$$

Now for  $g, g' \in L^2(0, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , with  $g(0) = 0$ , we can extend  $g$  to a function  $f$  satisfying the hypotheses above by setting

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} g(\pi - t), & \text{for } \frac{\pi}{2} \leq t \leq \pi; \\ -g(t - \pi), & \text{for } \pi \leq t \leq 2\pi. \end{cases}$$

It is then clear that  $f$  and  $f'$  lie in  $L^2[0, 2\pi]$  and that  $\int_0^{2\pi} f(t)dt = 0$ . Consequently,  $\|f\|_2 \leq \|f'\|_2$  and hence  $\|g\|_2 \leq \|g'\|_2$ . The inequality for the interval  $[0, 1]$  is obtained by a change of variable  $u = \frac{\pi}{2}t$ . ◀

**Definition 1.** A set  $(t_k) \subset [0, 1]$  is said to be uniformly discrete if there is a constant  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|t_j - t_k| \geq \delta$  whenever  $j \neq k$ .

**Theorem 4.** Suppose  $f \in PW([-1, 1]) \cap L^2[0, 1]$  and suppose  $f$  is a nonconstant solution of the integral equation (1). Then there exists no sequence  $(t_k)_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \subset [0, 1]$  that is uniformly discrete and

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t_k) - f(t_{k-1})| = \infty. \quad (41)$$

*Proof.* We shall first show that if  $f$  is a nonconstant fixed point of the integral operator

$$TV(t) = (1-t)^{n+1} \int_0^1 \frac{n+ts}{(1-ts)^{n+2}} V(s) s^{n-1} ds,$$

then  $f$  is a function of unbounded variation not attaining its supremum and infimum anywhere, but approaching both at 1. The points to note are:

- (a) Constant functions are fixed points.
- (b) If  $u \geq 0$  on  $[0, 1]$ ,  $u \in C([0, 1])$  and  $u$  is not identically zero, then  $Tu > 0$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

These statements can be verified easily (see [1] and [16]). Thus it follows that if  $u \in L^\infty$ , then  $Tu \in L^\infty$  and  $\|Tu\|_\infty \leq \|u\|_\infty$ . Therefore  $\|T\| \leq 1$ . When  $u$  is a constant function, we have  $\|Tu\|_\infty = \|u\|_\infty$ . Hence  $\|T\| = 1$  and the spectral radius of  $T$  is 1. From these, it also follows that if  $u$  is a nonconstant fixed point in  $C([0, 1])$ , then

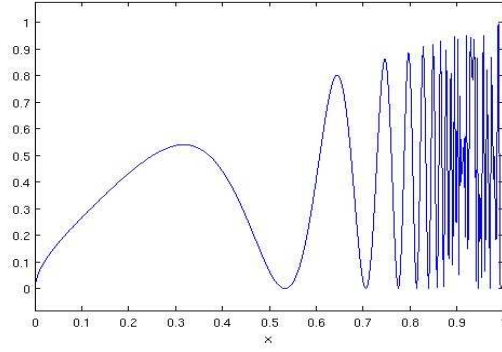
- (i)  $\inf_{t \in [0, 1]} u < u(t)$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ .
- (ii)  $\sup_{t \in [0, 1]} u > u(t)$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ .
- (iii)  $\liminf_{t \rightarrow 1} u(t) = \inf_{t \in [0, 1]} u$ .
- (iv)  $\limsup_{t \rightarrow 1} u(t) = \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} u$ .

If  $u$  is unbounded below, then (i) and (iii) are trivial. If  $u$  is bounded below, let  $\alpha = \inf_{t \in [0, 1]} u$ .

Now,  $u(t) - \alpha \geq 0$  and is not identically zero since  $u$  is not constant. By (a) and (b),  $u - \alpha = T(u - \alpha) > 0$  on  $[0, 1]$ , proving (i). Again (iii) is now immediate by continuity. If  $u$  is unbounded above, then (ii) and (iv) are trivial. If  $u$  is bounded above, the same argument as above applied to  $\sup u - u$  shows (ii) and (iv). What (i)-(iv) show is that nonconstant  $C([0, 1])$  fixed points of  $T$  look something like the plot in Figure 1 where either the infimum or supremum may be infinite. They oscillate infinitely many times, thus having unbounded variation on  $[0, 1]$ , not attaining their supremum or infimum anywhere, but approaching both at 1.

Now let  $h \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $h$  is supported on  $[-\frac{\delta}{2}, \frac{\delta}{2}]$  and  $|\check{h}(x)| \geq 1$  for  $x \in [-1, 1]$ . For example, we could take

$$\check{h}(x) = \frac{2 \sin \epsilon x}{\epsilon x}$$

Figure 1: Unbounded variation of the fixed points of  $T$ 

for sufficiently small  $\epsilon > 0$ . We write  $\check{\mathbf{g}} = \frac{\check{\mathbf{f}}}{\mathbf{h}}$  so that  $g \in PW([-1, 1])$  as well and since  $\check{\mathbf{f}} = \check{\mathbf{g}}\mathbf{h}$  we see that

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= \int_0^1 g(u)h(t-u)du \\ &= \int_{|t-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t-u)du. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $(t_k)_{k=-\infty}^{\infty}$  is a sequence in  $[0, 1]$  which is uniformly discrete and

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t_k) - f(t_{k-1})| = \infty.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(t_k) &= \int_{|t_k-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t_k-u)du, \\ f(t_{k-1}) &= \int_{|t_{k-1}-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t_{k-1}-u)du. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} |f(t_k) - f(t_{k-1})| &= \left| \int_{|t_k-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t_k-u)du - \int_{|t_{k-1}-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t_{k-1}-u)du \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_{|t_k-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t_k-u)du \right| + \left| \int_{|t_{k-1}-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} g(u)h(t_{k-1}-u)du \right| \\ &\leq \|h\|_2 \left( \int_{|t_k-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} |g(u)|^2 du \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \|h\|_2 \left( \int_{|t_{k-1}-u| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}} |g(u)|^2 du \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\infty = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t_k) - f(t_{k-1})| \leq 2\|h\|_2\|g\|_2.$$

But this is not possible as  $g, h \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . ◀

It is known [12] that if  $f \in PW[-b, b]$  and  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ , then the value of the derivative  $f'(s)$  is given by

$$f'(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)h_s(t)dt,$$

where  $h_s(t) = h(t - s)$  with

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin bt}{\pi t^2} - \frac{b \cos bt}{\pi t}, & \text{if } t \neq 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } t = 0. \end{cases}$$

Now suppose  $n \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \leq n \leq 11$  and  $V \in PW([-1, 1]) \cap L^2[0, 1]$  is a solution of the integral equation (1). Then by [12], it follows that

$$V'(s) = \int_0^1 V(t)h_s(t)dt = 0$$

for all  $s \in [0, 1]$  as constants are the only solutions of (1).

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