

Spaces of harmonic functions and evolution equations in them

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SPACES OF HARMONIC FUNCTIONS AND EVOLUTION EQUATIONS IN THEM

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1. Some properties of harmonic functions

Definition. A complex valued function on an open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^q$ is said to be harmonic on Ω if $f \in C^\infty(\Omega)$ and $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} + \dots + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_q^2} = \Delta f = 0$ at each point $\underline{x} \in \Omega$.

Theorem. Let f be harmonic on $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^q$. The following functions are all harmonic on suitable open sets:

$$\begin{aligned} (T_{\underline{a}} f)(\underline{x}) &= f(\underline{x} + \underline{a}) & , & \quad \underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^q \\ (L_A f)(\underline{x}) &= f(A\underline{x}) & , & \quad A \in O(q) \\ (Z_\lambda f)(\underline{x}) &= f(\lambda\underline{x}) & , & \quad \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \\ (Kf)(\underline{x}) &= |x|^{2-q} f\left(\frac{\underline{x}}{|x|^2}\right) & , & \quad q > 2 \\ (\mathcal{P}_i f)(\underline{x}) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\underline{x}) \\ (\mathcal{L}_B f)(\underline{x}) &= (B\underline{x}, \nabla f(\underline{x})) & , & \quad B^T = -B \\ (Nf)(\underline{x}) &= (\underline{x}^T \nabla f)(\underline{x}) = x_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} + \dots + x_q \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_q} . \end{aligned}$$

Proof. All straightforward calculations. Note that for general $A \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$ one has

$$\Delta f(A\underline{x}) = \text{trace } AD^2 f A^T , \quad \text{evaluated at } A\underline{x} .$$

(In index notation $\partial_j, \partial_i, f = A_i^j, A_i^j, \partial_j \partial_i f$.)

Notation. The complex vector space of all harmonic functions on Ω is denoted by $HA(\Omega)$.

Mean Value Theorem. Let $B \subset \Omega$ be a ball with centre \underline{a} and radius R . If $u \in HA(\Omega)$ then

$$u(\underline{a}) = \frac{1}{\omega_q R^{q-1}} \int_{\partial B} u(\underline{x}) d\sigma$$

or, equivalently,

$$u(\underline{a}) = \frac{q}{\omega_q R^q} \int_B u(\underline{x}) d\underline{x} .$$

Here $\omega_q R^{q-1}$ denotes the total surface measure of the boundary ∂B of B ($\omega_q = \frac{2\pi^{q/2}}{\Gamma(q/2)}$).

Proof. Let $B_0 < B$ be a ball with centre \underline{a} and radius $R_0 < R$. Then with Green II

$$\int_{\partial(B \setminus B_0)} \left(u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} - v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \right) d\sigma = \int_{B \setminus B_0} (u \Delta v - v \Delta u) d\underline{x} .$$

We take $u \in HA(\Omega)$ and

$$v(\underline{x}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \log \frac{1}{|\underline{x} - \underline{a}|} & , \quad q = 2 \\ \frac{1}{\omega_q (q-2) |\underline{x} - \underline{a}|^{q-2}} & , \quad q > 2 . \end{cases}$$

Since $v \in HA(\Omega \setminus \{\underline{a}\})$, we find

$$\frac{1}{\omega_q R^{q-1}} \int_{\partial B} u d\sigma = \frac{1}{\omega_q R_0^{q-1}} \int_{\partial B_0} u d\sigma .$$

Now let $R_0 \rightarrow 0$. This yields the first formula. The second one follows by integrating over spheres. \square

Theorem (Maximum-Minimum-Principle). If $f \in HA(\Omega)$, Ω open, attains its maximum at $\underline{a} \in \Omega$, then f is a constant.

If, in addition, $f \in C(\bar{\Omega})$ and Ω bounded then f takes its extreme values on $\partial\Omega$.

Proof. Let M denote the set of maximum points in Ω . Then

- M is closed in Ω because f is continuous.
- M is open in Ω . To see this, let $\underline{a} \in \Omega$ and $B \subset \Omega$ a ball, centered at \underline{a} . Then, because of the continuity of f , the mean-value theorem and \underline{a} being a maximum point, f must be constant on B . So $M = \Omega$.¹ \square

Theorem (Uniqueness Dirichlet problem). The boundary value problem

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Delta u = 0 \text{ in } \Omega, \text{ bdd.} \\ u \in C(\bar{\Omega}) \\ u(x) = \varphi(x) \text{ on } \partial\Omega \end{array} \right\}$$

has, at most, one solution.

Proof. Let v be a second solution, then $w = u - v$ satisfies $\Delta w = 0$, $w \in C(\bar{\Omega})$, $w = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$. According to the max-min-principle w must be zero all over Ω . \square

¹Note that we only used the continuity and the mean value property in the proof!!

Theorem (Solution Dirichlet problem on the ball). The boundary value problem

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta u &= 0 \text{ in } B_R = \{\underline{x} \mid |\underline{x}| < R\} \\ u &\in C(\bar{B}_R) \\ u(\underline{x}) &= \varphi(\underline{x}), \quad \varphi \in C(\partial\bar{B}_R)\end{aligned}$$

is solved by

$$u(\underline{x}) = \frac{R^2 - |\underline{x}|^2}{\omega_q R} \int_{\partial\bar{B}_R} \frac{\varphi(\underline{y})}{|\underline{x} - \underline{y}|^q} d\sigma.$$

Sketch of the proof. The harmonicity of u in B_R follows by straightforward differentiation. The proof of the continuity up to the boundary involves more subtle ε/δ arguments. See [A]. \square

Next we show that harmonic functions are characterised by the mean value property.

Theorem. Let $u \in C(\Omega)$, $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, Ω open and suppose that for each $\underline{a} \in \Omega$ and each ball $B(R; \underline{a}) = \{\underline{x} \mid |\underline{x} - \underline{a}| < R\}$ such that $N(R; \underline{a}) \subset \Omega$, $u(\underline{a}) = \frac{q}{\omega_q R^q} \int_{B(R; \underline{a})} u(\underline{x}) d\underline{x}$, then

$$u \in HA(\Omega).$$

Proof. Consider an arbitrary ball $B \subset \Omega$. Let w denote the solution of the Dirichlet problem inside of B with $w|_{\partial B} = u|_{\partial B}$. Then $w - u$ has the mean value property in B and $w - u = 0$ on ∂B . Therefore $w - u = 0$ on the whole of B . \square

Remark. The condition $u \in C(\Omega)$ can be weakened to $u \in L_{1,loc}(\Omega)$.

Harnack's Theorem. Let $\{u_n\}$ be a sequence of harmonic functions in $HA(\Omega)$. Suppose that $u_n(\underline{x}) \rightarrow u(\underline{x})$ uniformly on compact sets in Ω . Then also $u \in HA(\Omega)$.

Proof. The equality $u_n(\underline{a}) = \frac{q}{\omega_q R^q} \int_B u_n(\underline{x}) d\underline{x}$ persists if $n \rightarrow \infty$. \square

Remark. It is not difficult to show that also the sequence $\left\{ \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_i} \right\}$ converges uniformly on compact sets in Ω to $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i}$.

2. Some properties of harmonic polynomials

In the space $P(\mathbb{R}^q)$ of all polynomials on \mathbb{R}^q we introduce the inner product

$$(p, q) = p(\nabla) q(\underline{x})|_{\underline{x}=\underline{0}} .$$

Note that the monomials $x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_q^{\alpha_q} = \underline{x}^\alpha$ and \underline{x}^β are orthogonal if $\alpha \neq \beta$ and

$$(\underline{x}^\alpha, \underline{x}^\alpha) = \alpha! = \alpha_1! \alpha_2! \cdot \dots \cdot \alpha_q! .$$

Let $P_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$ denote the subspace of all homogeneous polynomials of degree m . The harmonic polynomials or, spherical harmonics, are denoted by $HP(\mathbb{R}^q)$ and $HP_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$.

Note that $\dim P_m(\mathbb{R}^q) = \binom{q+m-1}{m}$.

Theorem.

- In $P_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$ we have $HP_m(\mathbb{R}^q)^\perp = |\underline{x}|^2 \cdot P_{m-2}(\mathbb{R}^q)$.
- $\dim HP_m(\mathbb{R}^q) = \binom{q+m-1}{m} - \binom{q+m-3}{m-2} = d_m^q \leq K_q m^{q-2}$.

Proof. Define the polynomial $s(\underline{x}) = |\underline{x}|^2$.

If $f \in HP_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$ then for all $q \in P_{m-2}(\mathbb{R}^q)$

$$(qs, f) = q(\nabla) s(\nabla) f = q(\nabla) \Delta f = 0 .$$

Conversely, let $f \perp s \cdot P_{m-2}(\mathbb{R}^q)$. This means $\forall q \in P_{m-2}(\mathbb{R}^q) \quad q(\nabla) s(\nabla) r = 0$. Take $q = s(\nabla) r = \Delta r$ then $(\Delta r, \Delta r) = 0$ so $\Delta r = 0$. \square

Next we consider restrictions of harmonic polynomials to the spheres $S_R^{q-1} = \{\underline{x} \mid \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^q, |\underline{x}| = R > 0\}$. If $R = 1$ we write $S_1^{q-1} = S^{q-1}$.

Theorem. Consider $f \in P_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$ and $g \in HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$.

(a) If $k > m$, then

$$\int_{|\underline{x}|=R} fg \, d\sigma = 0 .$$

(b) If $m = k$, then

$$\int_{|\underline{x}|=R} fg \, d\sigma = \frac{\omega_n R^{2k+q-1}}{q \cdot (q+2) \cdot \dots \cdot (q+2k-2)} (f(\nabla)g)(\underline{0}) .$$

Proof.

(a) According to the preceding theorem f can be splitted

$$f = f_m + |\underline{x}|^2 f_{m-2} + |\underline{x}|^4 f_{m-4} + \dots ,$$

with all $f_j \in HP_j(\mathbb{R}^q)$. So it suffices to prove the result for $f \in HP_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$, $m < k$.
By Green II we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_{|\underline{x}| \leq R} (f \nabla g - g \nabla f) d\underline{x} = \int_{|\underline{x}|=R} \left(f \frac{\partial g}{\partial n} - g \frac{\partial f}{\partial n} \right) d\sigma = \\ &= (k-m) \int_{|\underline{x}|=R} fg \, d\sigma . \end{aligned}$$

(b) See [B]. □

Theorem.

(a) Let $f \in HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$. For each $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^q$ and each ε , $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, we have the estimation

$$|f(\underline{a})|^2 \leq \left[\frac{q}{w_q(2k+q)} \left(1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right)^q \right] (1+\varepsilon)^{2k} |\underline{a}|^{2k} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma .$$

(b) And even, more subtle,

$$|f(\underline{a})|^2 \leq \frac{d_k^q}{w_q} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma , \quad \text{if } |\underline{a}| = 1 .$$

Proof. First note that

$$\int_{|\underline{x}| \leq R} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\underline{x} = \frac{R^{2k+q}}{2k+q} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma .$$

(a) Since f is homogeneous it suffices to prove the result for $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^q$ with $|\underline{a}| = 1$.
From the mean-value-theorem

$$f(\underline{a}) = \frac{q}{\omega_q \varepsilon^q} \int_{|\underline{x}-\underline{a}|<\varepsilon} f(\underline{x}) dx$$

we find, applying Cauchy-Schwarz,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(\underline{a})|^2 &\leq \frac{q}{\omega_q \varepsilon^2} \int_{|\underline{x}-\underline{a}|<\varepsilon} |f(\underline{x})|^2 dx \leq \\ &< \frac{q}{\omega_q \varepsilon^2} \int_{|\underline{x}|\leq 1+\varepsilon} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\underline{x} = \frac{q}{\omega_q \varepsilon^q} \frac{(1+\varepsilon)^{2k+q}}{2k+q} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma . \end{aligned}$$

(b) See e.g. [M]. □

Because of the Stone-Weierstrass theorem any continuous function on the sphere. $S_R^{q-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^q$ can be uniformly approximated by a sequence of (restrictions to S_R^{q-1} of) polynomials. From the foregoing it is clear that such an approximating sequence can be replaced by a sequence of *harmonic* polynomials. As a consequence, the restrictions of the elements of $HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$ to S_R^{q-1} establish a dense linear subspace of $L_2(S_R^{q-1})$. From now on we suppose that $HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$ carries the $L_2(S^{q-1})$ -inner product $(f, g) = \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} f(\underline{x}) \overline{g(\underline{x})} d\sigma$. Gathering

our results we find part (a) of the following

Theorem.

(a) $L_2(S^{q-1}) = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$.

(b) The projection Π_k of $L_2(S^{q-1})$ on $HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$ is realised by

$$(\Pi_k f)(\underline{\xi}) = \int_{S^{q-1}} k(\underline{\xi}, \underline{\eta}) f(\underline{\eta}) d\sigma ,$$

with

$$k(\underline{\xi}, \underline{\eta}) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{q}{2}\right) d_k^q}{2^k \Gamma\left(k + \frac{q}{2}\right)} P_k^q\left(\langle \underline{\xi}, \underline{\eta} \rangle\right) .$$

The P_k^q are Gegenbauer polynomials.

For the proof of (b) see [M].

We now come to a central expansion result for harmonic functions.

Theorem. Let $f \in HA(B_R)$, $R > 0$. Then there is a unique expansion

$$f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k \quad \text{with } f_k \in HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$$

which converges uniformly on compact sets in B_R .
The $L_2(S^{q-1})$ -norms $\|f_k\|$ of f_k satisfy

$$\forall r < R \quad \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^{2k} \|f_k\|^2 < \infty$$

or, equivalently

$$\forall r < R \quad \sup_k r^k \|f_k\| < \infty .$$

Conversely, if a sequence $\{f_k\}$ of spherical harmonics satisfies this condition then the sum $g(\underline{x}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(\underline{x})$ exists at each $\underline{x} \in B_R$ and $g \in HA(B_R)$.

Proof. Because of the scaling properties of harmonic functions and spherical harmonics it is sufficient to show that, given $f \in HA(B_R)$, $R > 1$, the expansion result is valid on the closed unit ball \bar{B} .

First, note that $f|_{S^{q-1}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k|_{S^{q-1}}$ in $L_2(S^{q-1})$ -sense; with $f_k \in HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$.

Further, take R_1 , $1 < R_1 < R$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} R_1^{q-1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} R_1^{2k} \|f_k\|^2 &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} R_1^{q+2k-1} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} |f_k(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma = \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_{|\underline{x}|=R_1} |f_k(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma = \int_{|\underline{x}|=R_1} |f(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma < \infty . \end{aligned}$$

Then, from our point evaluation result for spherical harmonics, take $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}(R_1 - 1)$, it follows that $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(\underline{x})$ converges in $L_{\infty}(S^q)$ -sense to $f(\underline{x})$ on S^{q-1} . But then, because of

the maximum principle $\left[f(\underline{x}) - \sum_{k=0}^N f_k(\underline{x}) \right] \rightarrow 0$, uniformly on B , as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Conversely, $\sum_{k=0}^N f_k$ is a Cauchy sequence in $L_{\infty}(B_{R_1})$ on each ball B_{R_1} with $R_1 < R$. The estimation is as follows, take $R_1 < R_2 < R$;

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{k=N+1}^M f_k(\underline{x}) \right| &\leq C_{q,\varepsilon} \sum_{k=N+1}^M (1 + \varepsilon)^k R_1^k \|f_k\| = \\ &= C_{q,\varepsilon} \sum_{k=N+1}^M \frac{((1 + \varepsilon) R_1)^k}{R_2^k} R_2^k \|f_k\| \leq \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq C_{q,\varepsilon} \left\{ \sum_{k=N+1}^M \frac{((1+\varepsilon)R_1)^{2k}}{R_2^{2k}} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} R_2^{2k} \|f_k\|^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

If ε is such that $\frac{(1+\varepsilon)R_1}{R_2} < 1$, the wanted result follows. □

3. Spaces of harmonic functions. Duality

We start with the introduction of a pairing between two spaces of harmonic functions on open balls.

Theorem. Let $R > r > 0$ and $Rr > 1$. Let $f \in HA(B_R)$ and $g \in HA(B_r)$. We define

$$\langle f, g \rangle_\alpha = \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} f(\alpha \underline{x}) \overline{g\left(\frac{1}{\alpha} \underline{x}\right)} d\sigma, \quad \alpha \text{ such that } \alpha r > 1, \quad \frac{R}{\alpha} > 1.$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle_\rho = \frac{1}{\rho} \int_{|\underline{x}|=\rho} f(\underline{x}) \overline{(Kg)(\underline{x})} d\sigma, \quad \rho \text{ such that } \frac{1}{r} < \rho < R.$$

These pairings do not depend on the choice of α and ρ . In the sequel we omit those indices.

Proof. Follows easily from expansion in homogeneous harmonic polynomials $f = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$.

Note that $f(\alpha \underline{x}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(\alpha \underline{x}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha^k f_k(\underline{x})$. Note also that $(Kg_m)(\underline{x}) = |\underline{x}|^{2-q} g_m\left(\frac{\underline{x}}{|\underline{x}|^2}\right) = |\underline{x}|^{2-q-2m} g_m(\underline{x})$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\rho} \int_{|\underline{x}|=\rho} f(\underline{x}) \overline{(Kg)(\underline{x})} d\sigma &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\rho} \int_{|\underline{x}|=\rho} \rho^{2-q-2m} f_m(\underline{x}) \overline{g_m(\underline{x})} d\sigma = \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\rho} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} \rho^{2-q-2m} f_m(\rho \underline{\xi}) \overline{g_m(\rho \underline{\xi})} \rho^{q-1} d\sigma = \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} b_m(\underline{\xi}) \overline{g_m(\underline{\xi})} d\sigma. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Remark. Let $HA(\bar{B})$ denote the space of functions which are harmonic on a neighbourhood of the *closed* unit ball, i.e. $HA(\bar{B}) = \bigcup_{R>1} HA(B_R)$.

The spaces $HA(B)$ and $HA(\bar{B})$ are in duality by means of the pairing $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$.

Next we introduce weighted L_2 -spaces of harmonic functions. We always consider radial weight functions μ which satisfy the conditions: $\mu \geq 0$, and

$$\begin{aligned} (r \mapsto \mu(r)) \in L_1(0, R) &\quad \text{if } R < \infty \\ \forall m \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} (r \mapsto r^m \mu(r)) \in L_1(0, \infty) &\quad \text{if } R = \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Definition.

$$HA(B_R; \mu) = \{f \mid f \in L_2(B_R; \mu), f \in HA(B_R)\}, \quad 0 < R < \infty$$

$$HA_2(\mathbb{R}^q; \mu) = \{f \mid f \in L_2(\mathbb{R}^q; \mu), f \in HA(\mathbb{R}^q)\}.$$

As a consequence of the mean value theorem both these subspaces are closed. Hence they are Hilbert spaces themselves. The inner products are given by

$$(f, g) = \int_{|\underline{x}| \leq R} f(\underline{x}) \overline{g(\underline{x})} \mu(|\underline{x}|) d\underline{x}.$$

Further, because of the conditions on the weight function, the spaces $HP_m(B_R)$ are mutually orthogonal subspaces in $HA_2(B_R; \mu)$ for all $R, 0 < R \leq \infty$, and all weights μ .

Theorem.

- $HA_2(B_R; \mu) = \bigoplus_{m=0}^{\infty} HP_m(B_R)$.
- Let $f = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} f_m \in HA(B_R)$, $f_m \in HP_m$, then

$$f \in HA_2(B_R; \mu) \quad \text{iff} \quad (\alpha_m \|f_m\|)_{m=0}^{\infty} \subset l_2.$$

Here $\|f_m\| = \left\{ \int_{|\underline{x}|=1} |f_m(\underline{x})|^2 d\sigma \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and the sequence $(\alpha_m)_{m=0}^{\infty}$ is defined by

$$\alpha_m = \left\{ \int_0^R r^{2m+q-1} \mu(r) dr \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Proof. Any $f \in HA(B_R)$ can be written $f = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} f_m$ with convergence uniformly on compact sets in B_R . The remaining statements follow from

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{|\underline{x}| \leq R} |f(\underline{x})|^2 \mu(|\underline{x}|) d\underline{x} &= \int_0^R r^{q-1} \mu(r) dr \int_{|\underline{\xi}|=1} |f(r\underline{\xi})|^2 d\sigma = \\ &= \int_0^R r^{q-1} \mu(r) dr \cdot \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \int_{|\underline{\xi}|=1} |b_m(r\underline{\xi})|^2 d\sigma = \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \int_0^R r^{2m+q-1} \mu(r) dr \cdot \|f_m\|_{L_2(S^{q-1})}^2 = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \|f_m\|_{HA_2(B_R; \mu)}^2. \quad \square$$

We introduce a special two-parameter class of Hilbert spaces on the open unit ball $B = B_1$. The two parameters are $\beta > 0$ and $r \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

Definition. $HA_2(B; r, \beta) = \{f \mid f \in HA(B), \|f\|_{r, \beta} < \infty\}$ with

$$(\|f\|_{r, \beta})^2 = \int_{|\underline{x}| \leq 1} (f(\underline{x})|^2 + |(N^r f)(\underline{x})|^2) (1 - |\underline{x}|)^{2\beta-1} d\underline{x}$$

and

$$\beta > 0, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Theorem.

• If $f \in HP_m$ then

$$\|f_m\|_{r, \beta}^2 = (1 + m^{2r}) \cdot \frac{\Gamma(2m + q) \Gamma(2\beta)}{\Gamma(2m + q + 2\beta)} \|f_m\|_{L_2(S^{q-1})}^2.$$

• $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} [(1 + m^2)^{r-\beta}]^{-1} (1 + m)^{2r} \frac{\Gamma(2m + q) \Gamma(2\beta)}{\Gamma(2m + q + 2\beta)} = 2^{-2\beta} \Gamma(2\beta) > 0$.

• $F = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} F_m \in HA_2(B; r, \beta)$ iff

$$\left((1 + m^2)^{\frac{r-\beta}{2}} \|F_m\| \right)_{m=0}^{\infty} \subset l_2.$$

• As topological vector spaces the $HA_2(B; r, \beta)$ only depend on the difference $s = r - \beta$. Abusing the notation we write $HA_2(B; s)$ instead.

Proof. Calculate $\|f_m\|_{r, \beta}^2 = (1 + m^{2r}) \cdot \int_0^1 r^{2m+q-1} (1-r)^{2\beta-1} dr \cdot \|f_m\|_{L_2(S^{q-1})}^2$. Introduction of the Beta-function and of some asymptotics for the Gamma-function leads to the remaining results. \square

Theorem. For each $s \geq 0$ the Hilbert spaces $HA_2(B; -s)$ and $HA_2(B; s)$ are each others strong dual. For $F = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} F_m \in HA(B; -s)$ and $f = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} f_m \in HA_2(B; -s)$ the duality is given by

$$\langle F, f \rangle = \lim_{r \uparrow 1} \int_{|\underline{x}|=r} \overline{F(\underline{x})} g(\underline{x}) d\sigma = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (f_m, F_m)_{L_2(S^{q-1})},$$

where the sum is absolutely convergent.

Proof. Consider $\int_{|\underline{x}|=r} \overline{F(\underline{x})} g(\underline{x}) d\sigma = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} r^{2m+q-1} (f_m, F_m)_{L_2(S^{q-1})}$. Since $(m^{-s} \|F_m\|)$ and $(m^s \|f_m\|)$ are l_2 -sequences, the sum is absolutely convergent for all $r \leq 1$. The remaining part of the proof follows by standard reflections on the Gel'fand Triple

$$\begin{aligned} HA_2(B; s) &\hookrightarrow HA_2(B; 0) \hookrightarrow HA_2(B; -s) . \\ &\cong \\ &L_2(S^{q-1}) \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Remark. The Schwartz space of test functions $C^\infty(S^{q-1})$ on the unit sphere S^{q-1} consists precisely of the restrictions to S^{q-1} of the harmonic functions in the projective limit

$$HA_2(B; \infty) = \bigcap_{s \in \mathbb{R}} HA_2(B; s) .$$

The Schwartz space $(C^\infty(S^{q-1}))'$ of distributions on the unit sphere consists precisely of the “boundary values” on S^{q-1} of the harmonic functions in the inductive limit

$$HA_2(B; -\infty) = \bigcup_{s \in \mathbb{R}} HA_2(B; s) .$$

All classical properties of Schwartz' distributions on the unit sphere can easily be derived from the above representation.

Remark. The harmonic function $\underline{x} \mapsto \frac{1 - |\underline{x}|^2}{\omega_q} \frac{1}{|\underline{x} - \underline{a}|^q}$, $|\underline{a}| = 1$, belongs to $HA_2(B; -\beta)$ for each $\beta > \frac{1}{2}q$ because

$$\left(\frac{1 - |\underline{x}|}{|\underline{x} - \underline{a}|^q} \right)^2 (a - |x|)^{2\beta-1} \leq \frac{1}{|\underline{x} - \underline{a}|^{2q-\beta-1}} .$$

The latter function belongs to $L_{1,\text{loc}}(\mathbb{R}^q)$ if $2q - 2\beta - 1 < q - 1$.

This means that the point evaluation $f \mapsto f(\underline{a})$, $|\underline{a}| = 1$, is a continuous linear functional on $HA_2(B; \beta)$ for each $\beta > \frac{1}{2}q$. In other words

$$|f(\underline{a})| \leq c \|f\|_{HA_2(B;\beta)} .$$

Specializing to $f = f_m \in HP_m$ yields

$$|f_m(\underline{a})| \leq c_\beta M^\beta \|f_m\|_{L_2(S^{q-1})} \quad \text{for any } \beta > \frac{1}{2}q .$$

Question. Why don't I get the best estimate for point-evaluations of harmonic polynomials in this way?

4. Operators in $L_2(S^{q-1})$ which are also operators on $HA(B_R)$

The Laplace operator $\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} + \dots + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_q^2}$ satisfies

$$|\underline{x}|^2 \Delta u = N^2 u + (q-2)Nu - \Delta_{LB}u$$

with

$$(Nu)(\underline{x}) = (\underline{x}, \nabla u(\underline{x}))$$

$$\Delta_{LB} = - \sum_{1 \leq j < k \leq q} \left(x; \frac{\partial}{\partial x^k} - x_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right)^2 .$$

(The Laplace Beltrami operator Δ_{LB} is the same as the moment of momentum operator \vec{L}^2 in quantum mechanics.)

If we take $g \in HP_k(\mathbb{R}^q)$ then

$$Ng = kg \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta_{LB}g = k(k+q-2)g .$$

In $L_2(S^{q-1})$ the operators N and Δ_{LB} are essentially self adjoint on the (dense) subspace of spherical harmonics.

Theorem.

- $HA(\bar{B}) = S_{L_2(S^{q-1}), N} = S_{L_2(S^{q-1}), \Delta_{LB}^{1/2}}$
(with $S_{X,A} = \bigcup_{t>0} e^{-tA}(X)$).
- $HA(\mathbb{R}^q) = \tau(L_2(S^{q-1}), N) = \tau(L_2(S^{q-1}), \Delta_{LB}^{1/2})$
(with $\tau(X, A) = \bigcap_{t>0} e^{-tA}(X)$).

Remark. For the general theory of those topological vector spaces, the operator algebras on them and applications, see [EG1], [EG2].

Note that

$$\forall t > 0 \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-tk}}{e^{-t\sqrt{k(k+q-2)}}} = e^{-\frac{1}{2}t(q-2)} > 0 .$$

Problems. Show that

$$e^{-tN} (L_2(S^{q-1})) \hookrightarrow HA(B_R) \quad \text{with } R = e^t .$$

Find a suitable weight function μ such that

$$e^{-tN} (L_2(S^{q-1})) = HA(B_R; \mu) , \quad \text{with } R = e^t$$

as sets and as topological vector spaces.

We now turn to the resolvent of the operator N .

Theorem.

- (i) For all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, $\operatorname{Re} \alpha > 0$, and all $R > 0$ the operator $N + \alpha I$ is a bijection on $C^\infty(B_R)$ and also on $HA(B_R)$.
- (ii) For all $R > 0$ and all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, $\alpha \notin \{0, -1, -2, \dots\}$, $N + \alpha$ is a bijection on $HA(B_R)$.

Proof.

- (i) Straightforward calculation shows that the operator M_α defined by $(M_\alpha u)(\underline{x}) = \int_0^1 s^{\alpha-1} u(s\underline{x}) ds$ is both a left and a right inverse of $(N + \alpha)$.
Moreover, M_α and $N + \alpha$ save harmonicity.
- (ii) Expand in spherical harmonics and apply the characterization theorem on page 6. \square

Remark. The null space of $(N + \alpha)$ contains singular functions of the form

$$|\underline{x}|^{-\alpha} \psi\left(\frac{\underline{x}}{|\underline{x}|}\right) , \quad \psi \text{ arbitrary .}$$

Theorem (harmonic multiplication). Let $f \in HA(B_R)$, $g \in HA(B_R)$ with $R > 1$. Define for $\underline{\xi} \in S^{q-1}$ $(f \cdot g)(\underline{\xi}) = f(\underline{\xi}) \cdot g(\underline{\xi})$. Then fg can be extended to $(fg)_e \in HA(B_R)$. In this way $HA(B_R)$ becomes a commutative algebra (with no zero divisors).

Proof. Write $f = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n$, $g = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} g_m$, $f_n, g_n \in HP_n(\mathbb{R}^q)$. In case of absolute convergence we can write

$$f(\underline{\xi}) g(\underline{\xi}) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m+n=l} f_n(\underline{\xi}) g_m(\underline{\xi}) . \quad (*)$$

Let $1 < R_1 < R$. Uniform convergence of $(*)$ on S^{q-1} follows from the estimate

$$\begin{aligned} & |f_0(\underline{\xi}) g_l(\underline{\xi})| + |f_1(\underline{\xi}) g_{l-1}(\underline{\xi})| + \dots + |f_l(\underline{\xi}) g_0(\underline{\xi})| \leq \\ & \leq C_q l^q R_1^{-l} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^l R_1^{2k} \|f_k\|^2 + \sum_{k=0}^l R_1^{2k} \|g_k\|^2 \right\} \leq C_{fg} l^q R_1^{-l} . \end{aligned}$$

Here C_{fg} is a constant which only depends on f and g . From the last inequality it also follows that

$$\left\| \sum_{m+n=l} f_n(\underline{x}) g_m(\underline{x}) \right\| \leq \omega_q^{\frac{1}{2}} C_{fg} l^q R_1^{-l} .$$

Next we estimate the norm of the $L_2(S^{q-1})$ -projection $(f \cdot g)_k$ of $f \cdot g$ on HP_k . In $L_2(S^{q-1})$ we write

$$(f \cdot g)_k = \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} \sum_{m+n=l} f_n g_m .$$

(Note: there is no contribution for $l < k$!)

$$\begin{aligned} \|(f \cdot g)_k\| &\leq \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} \left\| \sum_{m+n=l} f_n g_m \right\| \leq \\ &\leq \omega_q^{\frac{1}{2}} C_{fg} \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} R_1^{-l} l^q \leq R_1^{-k} \omega_q^{\frac{1}{2}} C_{fg} \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} R_1^{-(l-k)} l^q \leq C_1 R_1^{-k} . \end{aligned}$$

Finally, for all R_2 , $1 < R_2 < R_1 < R$,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} R_2^{2k} \|(f \cdot g)_k\|^2 < \infty . \quad \square$$

Corollary. The space $HA(\bar{B})$ becomes a commutative algebra by harmonic multiplication. The elements in $HA(\bar{B})$ are *multipliers* for the hyperfunctions on S^{q-1} . This means that the operator M_φ , $\varphi \in HA(\bar{B})$, defined by $M_\varphi f = (\varphi f)_e$, extends to hyperfunctions by $\langle M_\varphi F, f \rangle = \langle F, \bar{\varphi} f \rangle$.

Further remarks. It is an interesting problem to find an explicit expression for the harmonic multiplication. One could proceed in the following way: Let $f, g \in HA(B_R)$, $R > 0$ (!). Try to find $h \in C^\infty(B_R)$ such that

$$fg + (1 - |\underline{x}|^2) h \in HA(B_R) .$$

Calculation of the Laplacian leads to the condition

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2}(1 - |\underline{x}|^2) \Delta h + (2N + q) h &= \\ = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta \{(1 - |x|^2) h\} + Nh &= (\nabla f)^T \nabla g . \end{aligned}$$

Perhaps there is a C^∞ solution to this equation on B_R !?

- If $(\nabla f)^T \nabla g$ happens to be harmonic, then $h = (2N+q)^{-1} (\nabla f)^T \nabla g$ solves the problem.
- This is true if $f(\underline{x}) = x_k$, then $(\nabla f)^T \nabla g = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}$. So $x_k g + (1 - |\underline{x}|^2)(2N+q)^{-1} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_k} \in HA(B_R)$.
- In particular if $g \in HP_m(\mathbb{R}^q)$, this leads to

$$x_k g = \underbrace{x_k g - \frac{1}{2k-2+q} |\underline{x}|^2 \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_k}}_{\in HP_{m+1}(\mathbb{R}^q)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2k-2+q} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_k}}_{\in HP_{m-1}(\mathbb{R}^q)}.$$

- If we take $R = 1$ the above procedure leads to a product for special pairs of hyperfunctions on S^{q-1} , viz. F and G with $(\nabla F)^T (\nabla G) \in HA(B)$.
- Looking at the expression for $x_k g$ it seems reasonable that there exists a relation between the harmonic product and a product of type $f \bullet g = f(\nabla) g$.

The operators $T_{\underline{a}}$, $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^q$; L_A , $A \in O(\mathbb{R}, q)$; Z_λ , $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$; \mathcal{P}_i ; \mathcal{L}_B , $B \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$, $B^T = -B$ and N of Chapter 1 can all be considered as densely defined linear operators in $L_2(S^{q-1})$. Their domains are restrictions of functions which are harmonic on a sufficiently large neighbourhood of the closed unit ball. Of course, lots of questions on the closed extendibility in $L_2(S^{q-1})$ arise!

We now present a wider class of operators for which the relation to harmonic functions is not so obvious.

Theorem. Let $f \in HA(B_R)$, $R > 1$. let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$. Suppose $\|A\| = R_1 < R$. Define $g \in L_2(S^{q-1})$ by $g(\underline{\xi}) = f(A\underline{\xi})$, $|\underline{\xi}| = 1$. Then: g can be extended to $g_e \in HA(B_{R_2})$ with $R_2 = \frac{R}{R_1}$.

Proof. Again, write $f = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} f_m$, $g(\underline{\xi}) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} f_m(A\underline{\xi})$, $f_m(A\underline{x})$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree m . We estimate

$$|f_m(A\underline{\xi})| \leq C_q m^q \|A\|^m \|f_m\|.$$

Hence, in $L_2(S^{q-1})$,

$$\|f_m(A \cdot)\| \leq D_q m^q \|A\|^m \|f_m\|.$$

Next we estimate the norm of the $L_2(S^{q-1})$ -projection g_k of g on HP_k . We have

$$g_k(\underline{\xi}) = \sum_{m=k}^{\infty} f_m(A\underline{\xi}).$$

So,

$$\|g_k\| \leq D_q \sum_{m=k}^{\infty} m^q R_1^m \|f_m\|.$$

Let $R_1 < R_2 < R$. Let $1 \leq L < \frac{R_2}{R_1}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} L^{2k} \|g_k\|^2 &\leq D_q^2 \left(\sum_{m=k}^{\infty} L^k m^q R_1^m \|f_m\| \right)^2 \leq \\ &\leq D_q^2 \left(\sum_{m=k}^{\infty} \left(\frac{L R_1}{R_2} \right)^m m^q R_2^m \|f_m\| \right)^2 \leq \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} D_q^2 \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{L R_1}{R_2} \right)^{2m} m^{2q} + \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} R_2^{2m} \|f_m\|^2 \right) < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Since this is true for all $L < \frac{R_2}{R_1} < \frac{R}{R_1}$ we conclude

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} L^{2k} \|g_k\|^2 < \infty \quad \text{for all } L < \frac{R}{R_1}. \quad \square$$

Corollary.

- In $HA(\bar{B})$ the operators L_A , $A \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$, $\|A\| \leq 1$, defined by $(L_A f)(\underline{\xi}) = f(A\underline{\xi})$, $|\underline{\xi}| = 1$, and then followed harmonic extension, make sense.
- In $HA(\mathbb{R}^q)$, all operators L_A , $A \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$, defined by $(L_A f)(\underline{\xi}) = f(A\underline{\xi})$, $|\underline{\xi}| = 1$, and then followed by harmonic extension, make sense.

Some remarks.

- In case $A \in O(\mathbb{R}, q)$, L_A coincides with the earlier definition.
- Related operators corresponding to matrices A have been introduced by Van Eijndhoven and Martens. The latter has also investigated their mutual relations and their extendibility properties.

The following is quite remarkable.

Theorem [Ma]. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$ with $|\det A| = 1$. Define $\varphi_A : L_2(S^{q-1}) \rightarrow L_2(S^{q-1})$ by

$$(\varphi_A f)(\underline{\xi}) = |A^T \underline{\xi}|^{-\frac{q}{2}} f\left(\frac{A^t \underline{\xi}}{|A^T \underline{\xi}|}\right).$$

- (i) All φ_A are unitary operators.
- (ii) $A \mapsto \varphi_A$ is a faithful unitary representation of $SL(\mathbb{R}, q)$.
- (iii) The representation ($A \mapsto \varphi_A$) is irreducible on the odd subspace and on the even subspace in $L_2(S^{q-1})$.
- (iv) The Lie algebra $sl(\mathbb{R}, q) = \{B \mid B \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}, \text{tr} B = 0\}$ is represented by the skew adjoint operators B :

$$(Bf)(\underline{\xi}) = (B\underline{\xi})^T \nabla f - (B\underline{\xi})^T \underline{\xi} \underline{\xi}^T \nabla f - q(B\underline{\xi})^T \underline{\xi} f .$$

(Note that the first two terms constitute a tangent vector field on S^{q-1} .)

Remarks.

- If $A \in O(\mathbb{R}, q)$, which is a compact subgroup of $SL(\mathbb{R}, q)$, then $\varphi_A = L_A$ (again).
- The mapping $\underline{\xi} \mapsto |A\underline{\xi}|^{-1} A \underline{\xi}$ carries subspheres of radius 1 into subspheres of radius 1. So this mapping corresponds to projective mappings in the $(q - 1)$ -dimensional projective space $P\mathbb{R}^{q-1}$.
- The representation on the even subspaces is an irreducible representation of the projective group.

Questions.

- The analytic vectors of the representation $A \mapsto \varphi_A$ with $A \in O(\mathbb{R}, q)$ are precisely the harmonic functions in $HA(\bar{B})$. Is it easy to see that $HA(\bar{B})$ contains precisely the analytic vectors of the whole of $SL(\mathbb{R}, q)$?
- Can the Gevrey spaces for the generators of $O(\mathbb{R}, q)$ and $SL(\mathbb{R}, q)$ be characterized by means of harmonic functions?
- What is the relation between the “odd representation” and the projective group?
- The whole linear group $GL(\mathbb{R}, q)$ can be represented unitarily on $L_2(S^q)$ by means of

$$L_{\bar{A}} \quad \text{with } \text{diag} [A, (\det A)^{-1}] .$$

What about the irreducibility properties for these operators?

Theorem. Consider the diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\Delta_{LB} u \text{ on } S^{q-1} \quad (\Delta_{LB} > 0)$$

with initial condition

$$u(\cdot, 0) = f \in L_2(S^{q-1}) .$$

The solution $u(\cdot, t)$ at time t can be extended to an entire harmonic function in $HA_2(\mathbb{R}^q, \mu_t)$ with

$$\mu_t(r) = \frac{1}{r^2} e^{-\frac{(\log r)^2}{4t}} .$$

In fact there is a continuous bijection between the Hilbert spaces $w^{-t\Delta_{LB}}(L_2(S^{q-1}))$, with graph norm, and $HA_2(\mathbb{R}^q, \mu_t)$.

Sketch of the proof. The theorem on page 10 is applied. We have to guess a measure μ_t such that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} e^{-2tm(m+q-2)} \int_0^\infty r^{2m+q-1} \mu_t(r) dr = c > 0 .$$

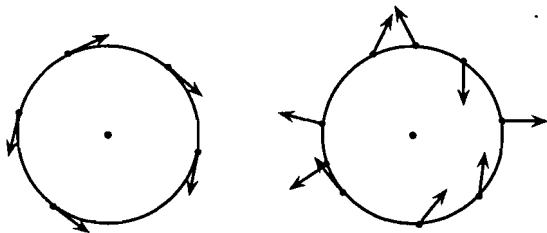
The trick is to calculate the asymptotic behaviour of the integral with

$$\mu(r) = (1 + |\log r|)^\gamma r^\beta e^{-\frac{1}{\Omega} |\log r|^\alpha}$$

and then to “adjust” the parameters $\gamma, \beta, \alpha, \Omega$. The same trick works well for Δ_{LB} replaced by $(\Delta_{LB})^\nu$ with $\frac{1}{2} < \nu \leq 1$. For greater ν creative suggestions are needed.

Corollary. $e^{t\Delta_{LB}}$ acts as a one-parameter group on the space of harmonic functions $\bigcap_{t>0} HA_2(\mathbb{R}^q, \mu_t)$.

5. Lie-algebras of vector fields on S^{q-1} and their skew-adjoint representations



In this section the emphasis is on algebra. Therefore, sometimes, we will be sloppy about the distinction between the concepts 'skew-symmetric' and 'skew-adjoint'.

In $L_2(S^{q-1})$ on the domain $HA(\bar{B})$ we introduce the operators $\mathcal{P}_j, \mathcal{N}, Q_j, R_j, 1 \leq j \leq q$, by

$$\mathcal{P}_j u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j},$$

$$\mathcal{N} u = \sum_{j=1}^q x_j \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j},$$

$$Q_j u = x_j u \text{ on } S^{q-1} \text{ (with harmonic extension if necessary),}$$

$$R_j = \mathcal{P}_j - Q_j \mathcal{N}.$$

Note that the differential operators R_j correspond to the tangent vector fields

$$\underline{r}_j(\underline{x}) = \underline{e}_j - x_j \underline{x} = \underline{e}_j - x_j \underline{n}, \quad \text{on } S^{q-1}.$$

As a set, our Lie algebra of tangent vector fields will be (a submodule of) a module over $HA(\bar{B})$ generated by the $\underline{r}_j(\underline{x}), 1 \leq j \leq q$. First, we calculate the adjoint \mathcal{P}_j^* of \mathcal{P}_j in $L_2(S^{q-1})$.

Lemma (Martens). Let f and g be continuously differentiable on a neighbourhood of the unit ball \bar{B} . Then, we have the identity

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{S^{q-1}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \bar{g} \, d\sigma &= - \int_{S^{q-1}} f \frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial x_j} \, d\sigma + \int_{S^{q-1}} x_j \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial n} \bar{g} + f \frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial n} \right] \, d\sigma + \\ &+ (q-1) \int_{S^{q-1}} x_j f \bar{g} \, d\sigma. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Define M by

$$M = \int_{S^{q-1}} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \right] (\underline{\xi}) \overline{g(\underline{\xi})} d\sigma + \int_{S^{q-1}} f(\underline{\xi}) \overline{\left[\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j} \right] (\underline{\xi})} d\sigma .$$

Straightforward calculation yields

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \int_{S^{q-1}} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (f\bar{g}) \right] d\sigma = \sum_{k=1}^q \int_{S^{q-1}} \frac{\partial f\bar{g}}{\partial x_j} \xi_k^2 d\sigma = \quad (\text{Gauss}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^q \int_B \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (f\bar{g}) \right] x_k d\underline{x} + q \int_B \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (f\bar{g}) d\underline{x} = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^q \int_B \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[\frac{\partial f\bar{g}}{\partial x_k} x_k \right] d\underline{x} + (q-1) \int_B \frac{\partial f\bar{g}}{\partial x_j} d\underline{x} = \\ &= \int_{S^{q-1}} x_j \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial n} \bar{g} + f \frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial n} \right] d\sigma + (q-1) \int_{S^{q-1}} x_j f\bar{g} d\sigma . \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Corollary.

$$\left(\left(\mathcal{P}_j - Q_j \mathcal{N} - \frac{q-1}{2} Q_j \right) f, g \right) = - \left(f, \left(\mathcal{P}_j - Q_j \mathcal{N} - \frac{q-1}{2} Q_j \right) g \right) .$$

So, the operators

$$R_j + \alpha Q_j , \quad \alpha = - \frac{q-1}{2} , \quad 1 \leq j \leq q ,$$

are skew symmetric.

Theorem. We have the following algebraic relations between the mentioned operators on $HA(\bar{B})$:

- $\mathcal{P}_k Q_l = \delta_{kl} J + Q_l \mathcal{P}_k - 2Q_k(2\mathcal{N} + q)^{-1} \mathcal{P}_l + (1 - |x|)^2 \dots$
- $\mathcal{P}_k \mathcal{N} = \mathcal{P}_k + \mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}_k .$
- $\mathcal{N} Q_k = Q_k + Q_k \mathcal{N} - 2(2\mathcal{N} + q)^{-1} \mathcal{P}_k + (1 - |x|^2) \dots$
- $R_k R_l = R_l R_k = Q_k \mathcal{P}_l - Q_l \mathcal{P}_k = Q_k R_l - Q_l R_k .$

Proof. The proof is tedious, but straightforward, calculation using the explicit expression for harmonic multiplication by x_k

$$Q_k f = x_k f + (1 - |\underline{x}|^2)(2\mathcal{N} + q)^{-1} \delta_k f . \quad \square$$

If we put a non-constant coefficient a in front of R_k , the operator $a R_k$ will no longer be skew symmetric. However,

Theorem. Let $a \in HA(\bar{B})$. The operator $a R_k + \alpha a Q_k + \frac{1}{2}(R_k a)$ with $1 \leq k \leq q$, $\alpha = -\frac{q-1}{2}$ and $(R_k a) = \frac{\partial a}{\partial x_k} + x_k \frac{\partial a}{\partial n}$ is skew-symmetric. The domain $HA(\bar{B})$ is invariant. Further, for the commutator of two such operators, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & [a R_k + \alpha a Q_k + \frac{1}{2}(R_k a), b R_l + \alpha b Q_l - \frac{1}{2}(R_l b)] = \\ & = -\left(c R_k + \alpha c Q_k + \frac{1}{2}(R_k c)\right) + \left(d R_l + \alpha d Q_l - \frac{1}{2}(R_l d)\right) \end{aligned}$$

with $c = b(R_l a) + x_l a$ and $d = a(R_k c - x_k b)$. \square

Proof. For the first part of the theorem we apply the general trick: Let \mathcal{A} , B and \mathcal{S} be operators in a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} with common invariant domain W , and suppose $\mathcal{A}^* = \mathcal{A}$, $B^* = -B$, $\mathcal{S}^* = \mathcal{S}$, $\mathcal{A}B = \mathcal{S} + B\mathcal{A}$, then

$$(\mathcal{A}B - \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{S})^* + (\mathcal{A}B - \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{S}) = 0 .$$

In our case, take $\mathcal{A} =$ multiplication by a in $L_2(S^{q-1})$, $B = R_k + \alpha Q_k$. Let $u \in HA(\bar{B}) \subset L_2(S^{q-1})$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & a(\mathcal{P}_k - Q_k \mathcal{N} + \alpha Q_k) u - (\mathcal{P}_k - Q_k \mathcal{N} + \alpha Q_k) a u = \\ & = -(\mathcal{P}_k a - Q_k \mathcal{N} a) = -(R_k a) . \end{aligned}$$

By taking $\mathcal{S} =$ multiplication by $-(R_k a)$, the first result follows.

Since $a \in HA(\bar{B})$ and $HA(\bar{B})$ is an invariant domain for all occurring operators, it is also an invariant domain for the operator as a whole. Finally, calculating the commutator is a matter of bookkeeping. \square

The general type of operator that we want to consider is the following:

Let $\underline{a} = a^k \underline{e}_k$, $a^k \in HA(\bar{B})$, be a vector field (not necessarily tangent) on S^{q-1} . With \underline{a} we associate the operator ($\alpha = -\frac{q-1}{2}$)

$$G(\underline{a}) = a^k R_k + \alpha a^k Q_k + \frac{1}{2}(R_k a^k) = \underline{a}^T \underline{R} + \alpha \underline{a}^T \underline{x} + \frac{1}{2}(\underline{R}^T \underline{a}) .$$

The commutator of $G(\underline{a})$ and $G(\underline{b})$ is $G(\underline{c})$ with $\underline{c} = (R \underline{b}^T)^T \underline{a} - (R \underline{a}^T)^T \underline{b} + (\underline{b} \underline{a}^T - \underline{a} \underline{b}^T) \underline{x}$. Note that $\underline{a}^T \underline{R}$ corresponds to the vector field

$$a^k (e_k - x_k \underline{x}) = \underline{a} - (\underline{a}^T \underline{n}) \underline{n}$$

which is tangent to S^{q-1} . So, $G(\underline{a})$ is the same operator as $G(\underline{a} - (\underline{a}, \underline{n}) \underline{n})$.

Let us look at some special cases:

- I. $\underline{a} = K \underline{x}$, $\underline{b} = L \underline{x}$, $K, L \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$, $K^T = -K$, $L^T = -L$.
 Substitution leads to $G(\underline{a}) = \underline{x}^T K \underline{R} = \underline{x}^T K^T \underline{P}$ which is a “moment of momentum” operator. (We used $R \underline{x}^T = \underline{T} - \underline{x} \underline{x}^T$ and $\underline{x}^T K \underline{x} = 0$.)
 For the commutator of $G(\underline{a})$ and $G(\underline{b})$ we find $G(\underline{c})$ with $\underline{c} = (KL - LK) \underline{x}$.
 Operators of this type establish a Lie-algebra which corresponds to $so(\mathbb{R}, q)$.

- II. $\underline{a} = \text{constant}$, $\underline{b} = \text{constant}$.

$$[G(\underline{a}), G(\underline{b})] = G(\underline{c}) \quad \text{with } \underline{c} = (\underline{b} \underline{a}^T - \underline{a} \underline{b}^T) \underline{x}.$$

Note that $(\underline{b} \underline{a}^T - \underline{a} \underline{b}^T) \in so(\mathbb{R}, q)$.

Operators of the form $G(\underline{a} + K \underline{x})$, $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^q$, $K \in so(\mathbb{R}, q)$ establish a Lie algebra.

A $(q+1) \times (q+1)$ -matrix representation is $\begin{bmatrix} K & \underline{a} \\ \underline{a}^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

This is an extension of $so(\mathbb{R}, q)$. Cf. also III.

- III. $\underline{a} = K \underline{x}$ $\underline{b} = L \underline{x}$ $K, L \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$

$$\begin{aligned} G(\underline{a}) &= \underline{x}^T K^T (\nabla - \underline{x} \underline{x}^T \nabla) + \alpha \underline{x}^T K^T \underline{x} + \frac{1}{2} (\nabla - \underline{x} \underline{x}^T \nabla)^T K \underline{x} = \\ &= \underline{x}^T K^T (I - \underline{x} \underline{x}^T) \nabla + \frac{q-1}{2} \underline{x}^T K \underline{x} - \frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^T K \underline{x} \end{aligned}$$

$$G(\underline{a}) = \underline{x}^T K^T \nabla u - (\underline{x}^T K \underline{x}) \underline{x}^T \nabla u - \frac{q}{2} (\underline{x}^T K \underline{x}) + \frac{1}{2} \text{tr } K.$$

So, we have another extension of $so(\mathbb{R}, q)$ which corresponds both to $sl(\mathbb{R}, q)$ and to Martens' representation.

The extensions of II and III cannot be combined into one single small Lie-algebra in a *simple* way. Note that the matrices $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & \underline{a} \\ \underline{a}^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ establish a Lie algebra only if $A^T = -A$.

Note also that, taking $\underline{a} = \text{constant}$ and $\underline{b} = L \underline{x}$ we find a commutator with

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{c} &= \left((\nabla - \underline{x} \underline{x}^T \nabla) \underline{x}^T L^T \right)^T \underline{a} + L \underline{x} \underline{a}^T \underline{x} - \underline{a} \underline{x}^T L^T \underline{x} = \\ &= L \underline{a} - \underbrace{\underline{x}^T \underline{a} L \underline{x} + \underline{x}^T \underline{a} L \underline{x}}_{= 0} - \underline{a} \underline{x}^T L^T \underline{x}. \end{aligned}$$

Only if $L^T = -L$ this reduces to $L \underline{a}$.

- IV. $\underline{a} = f(\underline{x}) \underline{x}$. Then $G(\underline{a}) = 0$.

For more details, see [G].

Appendix A

Some spectral properties of $(\mathcal{P}_j - Q_j \mathcal{N} - \frac{1}{2}(q-1)Q_j)$

Take $j = 1$. After a change of variables

$$x_1 = \cos \vartheta \quad x_\alpha = \sin \vartheta y_\alpha, \quad 2 \leq \alpha \leq q, \quad 0 \leq \vartheta \leq \pi,$$

the operator becomes

$$-\sin \vartheta \frac{\partial}{\partial \vartheta} - \frac{1}{2}(q-1) \cos \vartheta$$

(skew hermitean in $L_2([0, \pi], (\sin \vartheta)^{q-2} d\vartheta)$).

The improper eigenfunctions are

$$u = \left(\frac{1 + \cos \vartheta}{\sin \vartheta} \right)^{i\lambda} (\sin \vartheta)^{-\frac{1}{2}(q-1)} \cdot \psi(\underline{y})$$

with eigenvalue $i\lambda$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. The function ψ can be taken arbitrarily.

Note that

$$L_2(S^{q-1}) = L_2(S^{q-2}) \otimes L_2([0, \pi], (\sin \vartheta)^{q-2} d\vartheta).$$

With the transformation

$$\xi = \ln \tan \frac{\vartheta}{2}, \quad \vartheta = 2 \arctan e^\xi$$

the differential operation becomes

$$-\frac{d}{d\xi} + \frac{1}{2}(q-1) \tanh \xi$$

with eigenfunctions $e^{-i\lambda\xi} (\cosh \xi)^{\frac{1}{2}(q-1)}$.

Using the natural unitary bijection

$$L_2(\mathbb{R}, (\cosh \xi)^{-(q-1)} d\xi) \rightarrow L_2(\mathbb{R}, d\xi)$$

we conclude that our operator, acting in the subspace of rotation symmetric functions in $L_2(S^{q-1})$ is unitarily equivalent to

$$\frac{d}{dx} \text{ in } L_2(\mathbb{R}, dx).$$

Solution of the evolution equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\sin \vartheta \frac{\partial u}{\partial \vartheta} - \frac{1}{2}(q-1) \cos \vartheta u$$

$$u(0; \vartheta, \underline{y}) = \psi(\vartheta, \underline{y}), \quad \underline{y} = y_2, \dots, y_q$$

$$u(t; \vartheta, \underline{y}) = \psi\left(2 \arctan\left(e^{-t} \tan \frac{\vartheta}{2}\right), \underline{y}\right) \cdot (\cosh t + \cos \vartheta \sinh t)^{-\frac{1}{2}(q-1)}.$$

Note that the, unitarily equivalent, solution of

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}(q-1) \cdot \tanh x \cdot w, \quad w(t, 0) = \varphi(x)$$

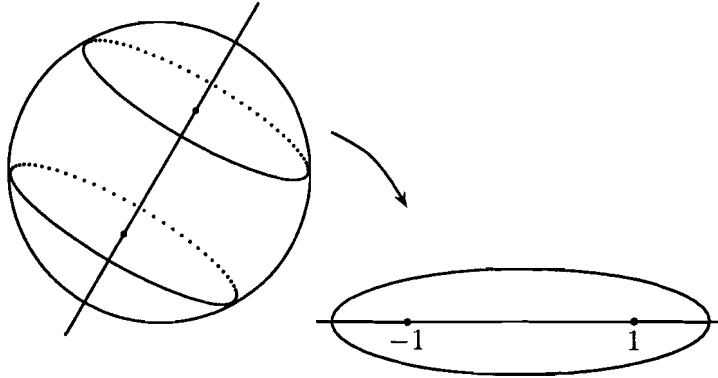
is easily found to be

$$w(x, t) = \varphi(x-t) \left(\frac{\cosh x}{\cosh(x-t)}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(q-1)}.$$

If we start with $\psi(\vartheta, \underline{y}) = \psi(\vartheta)$, then $\psi \in HA(\mathbb{R}^q)$ iff ψ is even, 2π -periodic and entire analytic.

For $t > 0$ $u(t; \cdot) \notin HA(\mathbb{R}^q)$

$$u(t; \cdot) \in HA(\bar{B}).$$



$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = (1-z^2) \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{2}(q-1) z u$$

$$u(z, t) = \varphi\left(\frac{z + \tanh t}{1 + z \tanh t}\right) (\cosh t + z \sinh t)^{-\frac{1}{2}(q-1)}.$$

Appendix B

(Harmonic) Polynomials in q variables

Some notations.

- $\underline{x} = \text{col}(x_1, \dots, x_q) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_q \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^q.$
- $\underline{a} = \text{col}(a_1, \dots, a_1) \in \mathbb{C}^q.$
 $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^q, \Omega$ open.
- $f \in C^\infty(\Omega), \text{grad } f = \nabla f = \text{col}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^q}\right).$
- $v_j \in C^\infty(\Omega), 1 \leq j \leq q, \text{div } \underline{v} = \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial x_2} + \dots + \frac{\partial v_q}{\partial x_q}.$
- $\Delta f = \text{div grad } f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} + \dots + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_q^2}.$
- $\mathcal{N}f = \underline{x}^T \nabla f = x_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} + x_2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} + \dots + x_q \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_q}.$

Exercise.

- Calculate $[\Delta, \mathcal{N}] = \Delta \mathcal{N} - \mathcal{N} \Delta.$
- Prove that $\Delta(f \cdot g) = f \cdot \Delta g + g \cdot \Delta f + 2(\nabla f)^T \nabla g.$

Definition. $f \in C^\infty(\Omega)$ is called *Harmonic*, $f \in \text{Harm}(\Omega)$, if $\Delta f = 0$, i.e. if $f \in \text{Null}(\Delta).$

Case $q = 2$ Notation: $x_1 = x, x_2 = y.$

Notations.

- Pol_2 : Vector space of all polynomials in x and y with complex coefficients.
- $\text{Pol}_2(m) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{polynomials of} \\ \text{degree at most } m \end{array} \right\} \subset \text{Pol}_2.$
- $\text{Hom Pol}_2(m) = \{a_m x^m + a_{m-1} x^{m-1} y + \dots + a_1 x y^{m-1} + a_0 y^m \mid$
with $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{C}\}.$

Note that

- $\text{Hom Pol}_2(m) \subset \text{Pol}_2(m).$

- $\dim \text{Hom Pol}_2(m) = m + 1$.
- $\text{Pol}_2(m) = \text{Hom Pol}_2(0) \oplus \text{Hom Pol}_2(1) \oplus \dots \oplus \text{Hom Pol}_2(m)$.
- $\dim \text{Pol}_2(m) = 1 + 2 + \dots + (m + 1) = \frac{1}{2}(m + 1)(m + 2) = \binom{m + 2}{2}$.
- $\text{Harm Hom Pol}_2(m) = \{f \mid f \in \text{Hom Pol}_2(m), \Delta f = 0\}$.

Observation.

$$\Delta : \text{Hom Pol}_2(m) \rightarrow \text{Hom Pol}_2(m - 2), \quad m \geq 2$$

$$\mathcal{N} : \text{Hom Pol}_2(m) \rightarrow \text{Hom Pol}_2(m)$$

$$L_z : \text{Hom Pol}_2(m) \rightarrow \text{Hom Pol}_2(m)$$

$$\text{Here } L_z f = x \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} - y \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} .$$

Theorem. The set of polynomials

$$\{(x + iy)^m, (x + iy)^{m-1}(x - iy), \dots, (x + iy)(x - iy)^{m-1}, (x - iy)^m\}$$

is a basis for $\text{Hom Pol}_2(m)$.

Proof. Because there are $(m + 1)$ of them we only have to show the independency. Put $x = r \cos \varphi$, $y = r \sin \varphi$ and assume constants $\alpha_m, \alpha_{m-2}, \dots, \alpha_{-m} \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\alpha_m r^m e^{im\varphi} + \alpha_{m-2} r^m e^{i(m-2)\varphi} + \dots + \alpha_{-m} r^m e^{-im\varphi} = 0 .$$

Multiply by $e^{-ik\varphi}$ and integrate over φ , $0 \leq \varphi \leq 2\pi$. Taking $k = m, m - 2, \dots, -m$ successively we get that all α_j must be 0. \square

Exercise.

- Show that $L_z(x + iy)^k(x - iy)^l = i(k - l)(x + iy)^k(x - iy)^l$.
- Show that $\Delta(x + iy)^k(x - iy)^l = 4kl(x + iy)^k(x - iy)^l$.

Theorem.

$$\Delta(\text{Hom Pol}_2(m)) = \text{Hom Pol}_2(m - 2) .$$

Proof. Calculate

$$\Delta \frac{(x + iy)^{m-(l+1)}(x - iy)^{l+1}}{4(m - (l + 1))(l + 1)} = (x + iy)^{(m-2)-l}(x - iy)^l ,$$

$$m \geq 2, \quad 0 \leq l \leq m - 2 .$$

Together with the complex conjugate of this all the elements of a basis in $\text{Hom Pol}_2(m-2)$ can be reached. \square

Theorem. Let $m \geq 1$. Then $\dim \text{Harm Hom Pol}_2(m) = 2$. A basis in $\text{Harm Hom Pol}_2(m)$ is given by

$$\{(x + iy)^m, (x - iy)^m\} .$$

Proof. According to the ‘Main Theorem of Linear Algebra’

$$\begin{aligned} \dim \text{Null}(\Delta) + \dim \text{Range}(\Delta) &= \dim \text{Hom Pol}_2(m) . \\ &= (m-2) + 1 \qquad \qquad \qquad = m + 1 \end{aligned}$$

So $\dim \text{Null}(\Delta) = 2$. Therefore

$\text{Harm Hom Pol}_2(m)$ is 2-dimensional. \square

Note that in Polar Coordinates $\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \varphi \\ y &= r \sin \varphi \end{aligned}$

$$(x \pm iy)^m = r^m e^{\pm im\varphi} .$$

A basis of real valued polynomials is given by $\{r^m \cos m\varphi, r^m \sin m\varphi\}$.

Exercise.

- Show that $(\underline{a}^T \underline{x})^m \in \text{Harm Hom Pol}_2(m)$ iff $\underline{a}^T \underline{a} = 0$. $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{C}^2$.
- Show that for $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{C}^2$, $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^q$ that

$$\Delta(\underline{a}^T \underline{x})^m = 0 \Leftrightarrow \underline{a}^T \underline{a} = 0 .$$

Case $q = 3$

Notations.

- $x_1 = x, x_2 = y, x_3 = z$.
- Pol_3 : Vector space of all polynomials in x, y, z with complex coefficients.
- $\text{Pol}_3(m) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{polynomials of degree} \\ \text{at most } m \end{array} \right\} \subset \text{Pol}_3$.

- $\text{Hom Pol}_3(m) = \{p_0(x, y) + p_1(x, y)z + p_2(x, y)z^2 + \dots + p_{m-1}(x, y)z^{m-1} + p_m(x, y)z^m \mid p_j \in \text{Hom Pol}_2(m-j)\}$.

Note that

- $\text{Hom Pol}_3(m) \subset \text{Pol}_3(m)$.
- $\dim \text{Hom Pol}_3(m) = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (m+1) = \binom{m+2}{2}$.
- $\text{Pol}_3(m) = \text{Hom Pol}_3(0) \oplus \text{Hom Pol}_3(1) \oplus \dots \oplus \text{Hom Pol}_3(m)$.
- $\dim \text{Pol}_3(m) = \binom{2}{2} + \binom{3}{2} + \dots + \binom{m+2}{2} = \binom{m+3}{3}$.
- $\text{Harm Hom Pol}_3(m) = \{f \mid f \in \text{Hom Pol}_3(m), \Delta f = 0\}$.

Theorem.

- Let $p_0 \in \text{Hom Pol}_2(m)$, then the polynomial

$$p_0(x, y) - \frac{z^2}{2!} \Delta p_0(x, y) + \frac{z^4}{4!} \Delta^2 p_0(x, y) - \dots + (-1)^k \frac{z^{2k}}{(2k)!} \Delta^k p_0(x, y)$$

with $m \leq 2k \leq m+1$ is harmonic.

- Let $p_1 \in \text{Hom Pol}_2(m-1)$, then the polynomial

$$z p_1(x, y) - \frac{z^3}{3!} \Delta p_1(x, y) + \frac{z^5}{5!} \Delta^2 p_1(x, y) - \dots + (-1)^k \frac{z^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \Delta^k p_1(x, y)$$

with $m-1 \leq 2k \leq m$ is harmonic.

Remark. We could write, respectively

$$\cos(z \Delta^{\frac{1}{2}}) p_0(x, y), \quad \frac{\sin z \Delta^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\Delta^{\frac{1}{2}}} p_1(x, y)$$

as ‘formal’ definitions.

Note that $\Delta^k p_0(x, y) = 0$ and $\Delta^k p_1(x, y) = 0$ in any case if $2k > m$.

Proof. Let $p \in \text{Hom Pol}_3(m)$. Then

$$\Delta p = \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial z^2} = 0 ,$$

means

$$\Delta p_0 + z \Delta p_1 + z^2 \Delta p_2 + \dots + z^{m-2} \Delta p_{m-2} + \\ + 2.1.p_2 + 3.2z.p_3 + 4.3.z^2.p_4 + \dots + m(m-1)z^{m-2}p_m = 0 .$$

Equating equal powers of z leads to the recursive relations

$$p_2 = -\frac{1}{2!} \Delta p_0 \\ p_4 = -\frac{1}{4.3} \Delta p_2 = \frac{1}{4!} \Delta^2 p_0 , \quad \text{etc.} \\ p_3 = -\frac{1}{3.2} \Delta p_1 \\ p_5 = -\frac{1}{5.4} \Delta p_3 = \frac{1}{5!} \Delta^2 p_1 .$$

So a harmonic polynomial is completely determined by prescribing $p_0(x, y)$ and $p_1(x, y)$. Just apply Δ to the formulae of the theorem and find them to be 0. \square

Theorem.

$$\dim \text{Harm Hom Pol}_3(m) = 2m + 1 .$$

Proof. p_0 can be chosen freely out of $\text{Hom Pol}_2(m)$ which is $m + 1$ dimensional. p_1 can be chosen freely out of $\text{Hom Pol}_2(m - 1)$ which is m dimensional. That adds up to $2m + 1$. \square

In the next definition we construct a basis for $\text{Harm Hom Pol}_3(m)$ by taking for p_0 and p_1 respectively the elements of the bases $\{(x + iy)^k (x - iy)^l\}$.

Definition of $Q_{m,k}$, $-m \leq k \leq m$. A special basis for $\text{Harm Hom Pol}_3(m)$, “Spherical Harmonics”.

- $Q_{m,m}(x, y, z) = (x + iy)^m$
- $Q_{m,m-2}(x, y, z) = (x + iy)^{m-1} (x - iy) - \frac{4.(m-1).1}{2!} z^2 (x + iy)^{m-2}$
- $Q_{m,m-4}(x, y, z) = (x + iy)^{m-2} (x - iy)^2 - \frac{4.(m-2).2}{2!} z^2 (x + iy)^{m-3} (x - iy) + \frac{4^2(m-2)(m-3).2.1}{4!} z^4 (x + iy)^{m-4}$
- \vdots
- $Q_{m,-m+2}(x, y, z) = \overline{Q_{m,m-2}(x, y, z)}$
- $Q_{m,-m}(x, y, z) = (x - iy)^m = \overline{Q_{m,m}(x, y, z)}$

-
- $Q_{m,m-1}(x, y, z) = z(x + iy)^{m-1}$
 - $Q_{m,m-3}(x, y, z) = z(x + iy)^{m-2}(x - iy) - \frac{4 \cdot (m-2) \cdot 1}{3!} z^3(x + iy)^{m-3}$
 - $Q_{m,m-5}(x, y, z) = z(x + iy)^{m-3}(x - iy)^2 - \frac{4 \cdot (m-3) \cdot 2}{3!} z^3(x + iy)^{m-4}(x - iy) + \frac{4^2(m-3)(m-4) \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{5!} z^5(x + iy)^{m-5}$
 - ⋮
 - $Q_{m,-m+3}(x, y, z) = \overline{Q_{m,m-3}(x, y, z)}$
 - $Q_{m,-m+1}(x, y, z) = z(x - iy)^{m-1}$.

Remark.

$$Q_{m,k}(\rho \sin \vartheta \cos \varphi, \rho \sin \vartheta \sin \varphi, \rho \cos \vartheta) = c_{m,k} \rho^m Y_{m,k}(\vartheta, \varphi).$$

normalization
 ↓ constant
 ↑ surface harmonic,
 function on S^2

Verify

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N} Q_{m,k} &= m Q_{m,k} \\ -i L_z Q_{m,k} &= k Q_{m,k} \\ L_z \mathcal{N} &= \mathcal{N} L_z \end{aligned}$$

The proper values m, k determine the ‘state’ $Q_{m,k}$ uniquely up to a constant. The $Q_{m,k}$ are common eigenvectors of the commuting ‘observables’ \mathcal{N} and L_z . The integers m and k are ‘good quantum numbers’.

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