

# PROPERTIES OF HARMONIC FUNCTIONS OF THREE REAL VARIABLES GIVEN BY BERGMAN-WHITTAKER OPERATORS

JOSEPHINE MITCHELL

**1. Introduction.** Let  $\mathfrak{R}$  be a closed rectifiable curve, not going through the origin, which bounds a domain  $\Omega$  in the complex  $\zeta$ -plane. Let  $X = (x, y, z)$  be a point in three-dimensional euclidean space  $E^3$  and set

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} v(X, \zeta) &= Z\zeta^2 + x\zeta + Z^*, \\ Z &= \frac{1}{2}(iy + z), \quad Z^* = \frac{1}{2}(iy - z). \end{aligned}$$

The Bergman-Whittaker operator defined by

$$(2) \quad H(X) = B(g) \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mathfrak{R}} g(v, \zeta) \frac{d\zeta}{\zeta},$$

transforms analytic functions of two complex variables  $v$  and  $\zeta$  into harmonic functions  $H$  of three variables defined in a certain domain of  $E^3$  (the domain of association);  $H$  can be continued analytically and thus we obtain a mapping of the analytic function  $g$  into a harmonic function  $\mathfrak{S}$  defined (in general) in a domain which multiply covers  $E^3$ . Thus we have the following steps in mapping by this method

$$g(v, \zeta) \rightarrow B(g) \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}(X),$$

the first step being obtained by an integral formula and the second by analytic continuation. Different classes of functions  $g$  such as rational or algebraic, the integral of an algebraic function or  $g = f\zeta^m$  where  $f$  is a meromorphic function of one complex variable and  $m$  a non-negative integer have been shown by Bergman and others to lead to different classes of harmonic functions (**1**; **2**; **3**; **4**; **7**).

An important problem in the theory of integral operators consists in the study of various properties of the function  $\mathfrak{S}$  such as the location and type of its singularities. In this paper we consider the problem when

$$(3) \quad g(v, \zeta) = f(v, \zeta)p(v),$$

where  $p$  is a meromorphic function of  $v$  with an infinity of poles, none of which is the origin, and  $f/\zeta$  is an entire function of the complex variables  $v$  and  $\zeta$ . In §2 the properties of (2) with  $g$  given by (3) are discussed, including a study of the number of algebraic singular lines of  $H$  as  $X \rightarrow \infty$  in different directions. It is found that (2) represents a multiple-valued harmonic function  $H$  in the

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domain of association of the integral operator (2);  $H$  can be extended analytically except for an exceptional set of lower dimension over a Riemann domain (the domain of existence of  $\mathfrak{S}$ ), which multiply covers  $E^3$ .  $\mathfrak{S}$  branches along a denumerable set of circles of increasing radii and all passing through the origin, where it has algebraic singularities of a pole-like type and an essential singularity on the negative (or positive)  $x$ -axis. Using known results on the minimum modulus of entire functions the growth properties of (2) are studied in §3 when the denominator of  $p$  is an entire function of finite order and  $\mathfrak{U}$  is the unit circle. In §4 a representation is obtained for  $H$  when  $p$  in (3) is represented as the limit of a series summable in a star domain by the Mittag-Leffler method.

Suppose  $p$  has poles at  $e_k$  and

$$(4) \quad 0 < |e_1| < |e_2| < \dots$$

Set

$$(5) \quad \begin{aligned} E(v, r) &= (1 - v)e^{pr(v)} \\ p_r(v) &= v + \frac{1}{2}v^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{r}v^r. \end{aligned}$$

By the Weierstrass factor theorem it is known that

$$(6) \quad p(v) = h(v) / \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} E(v/e_k, r_k - 1),$$

where  $h$  is an entire function and  $\{r_k\}$  is a set of positive integers such that the infinite series

$$\sum \left| \frac{v}{e_k} \right|^{r_k}$$

converges for all  $v$ . We set

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(v, \zeta) &= f(v, \zeta)h(v) \\ p_1(v) &= 1 / \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} E(v/e_k, r_k - 1) \end{aligned}$$

so that  $g = f_1 p_1$  and use the normalized function  $p_1$  in place of  $p$ , dropping the subscripts.

**2. Properties of (2).**

1. *Explicit representation for  $H$ .* If  $v$  in  $p$  is replaced by its value in (1), a function  $P(X, \zeta)$  is obtained which has poles in the  $\zeta$ -plane for  $Z \neq 0$  at

$$(1a) \quad \begin{aligned} \zeta_1^{(k)} &= \frac{-x + R_k(X)}{2Z} \\ \zeta_2^{(k)} &= \frac{-x - R_k(X)}{2Z}, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$(1b) \quad \begin{aligned} R_k^2(X) &= R^2 + 4Ze_k, \\ R^2 &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2. \end{aligned}$$

If  $R_k(X) = 0$  and  $Z \neq 0$ , then

$$(1c) \quad \zeta_1^{(k)} = \zeta_2^{(k)} \equiv \zeta_0 = -x/2Z.$$

If  $Z = 0$ , ( $x \neq 0$ ),  $P$  has poles at

$$(1d) \quad \zeta^{(k)} = e_k/x$$

and, if  $X = 0$ ,  $v(0, \zeta) = 0$  for all  $\zeta$ , so that  $P(0, \zeta) = 1$ .

Let

$$(2) \quad \begin{aligned} b_k^1 &= [X | R_k(X) = 0, \quad X \neq 0]^* \\ b^1 &= \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k^1, \end{aligned}$$

and  $c^1$  be the  $x$ -axis. Separated into real and imaginary parts  $R^2(X) = 0$  becomes

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + (y - b_k)^2 + (z + a_k)^2 &= |e_k|^2 \\ a_k y + b_k z &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_k = \text{Re } e_k$ ,  $b_k = \text{Im } e_k$ , so that  $b_k^1$  is a circle lying on the plane  $a_k y + b_k z = 0$  with the point  $X = 0$  omitted. The sets  $b_k^1 \cap c^1$  and  $b_k^1 \cap b_j^1$  ( $j \neq k$ ) are empty.

We remark that  $v$  in (1.1) may be replaced by  $v - \alpha\zeta$ ,  $\alpha$  a complex number, in which case  $R_k^2(X) = 0$  becomes

$$(x - \alpha)^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2e_k(iy + z) = 0$$

and analogous results are obtained.

It is seen from formulae (1) by a computation that for fixed  $X \neq 0$   $|\zeta_{\mu}^{(k)}| \rightarrow \infty$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  ( $\mu = 1, 2$ ), so that only a finite number of poles of  $P$  lie inside  $\mathfrak{Q}$ . Also, if  $f$  is an entire function of  $v$  and  $\zeta$ , then  $F(X, \zeta) = f(v(X, \zeta), \zeta)$  is an entire function of  $X$  and  $\zeta$ . It is also convenient to assume that  $f$  has a factor  $\zeta$  so that the integrand has no singularity at  $\zeta = 0$ . Assuming that no pole lies on  $\mathfrak{Q}$  we get by the residue theorem

$$H(X) = \sum \text{residue at } \zeta_{\mu}^{(k)}$$

summed over all  $\zeta_{\mu}^{(k)}$  in  $\Omega$ . Since we have assumed that all  $e_k$  are distinct, the value of the residue at  $\zeta_1^{(k)}$  for  $X \notin b_k^1 \cup c^1$  is

$$(3) \quad A_k(X, \zeta_1^{(k)}) \equiv -e_k A_k F(X, \zeta_1^{(k)}) / \zeta_1^{(k)} R_k(x),$$

where  $A_k$  is a non-zero constant equal to

$$Q(X, \zeta) = p[v(X, \zeta)][1 - v(X, \zeta)e_k^{-1}]$$

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\*The superscript on  $b_k^1$  refers to the dimension of the set in  $E^3$ .

when  $\zeta = \zeta_1^{(k)}$ ,  $v(X, \zeta_1^{(k)})$  being equal to  $e_k$ . Similarly the residue at  $\zeta_2^{(k)}$  is  $-A_k(X, \zeta_2^{(k)})$ . Thus for  $X \notin b_k^1 \cup c^1$  for all  $k$  for which  $\zeta_\mu^{(k)} \in \Omega$

$$(4) \quad H(X) = \sum_{\zeta_\mu^{(k)} \in \Omega} \pm A_k(X, \zeta_\mu^{(k)}).$$

Since  $f/\zeta$  is an entire function of  $v$  and  $\zeta$ ,

$$f_0(v, \zeta) \equiv \frac{f(v, \zeta)}{\zeta} = \sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} a_{mn} v^m \zeta^n$$

for  $|v| < \infty$ ,  $|\zeta| < \infty$ . For any  $X \in E^3$  and  $|\zeta| < \infty$ ,  $v$  is finite, hence for all  $X \in E^3$

$$F_0(X, \zeta) \equiv \frac{F(X, \zeta)}{\zeta} = \sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} a_{mn} v^m(X, \zeta) \zeta^n.$$

Since  $v(X, \zeta_1^{(k)}) = e_k$ ,  $F_0(X, \zeta_1^{(k)}) = F_0(\zeta_1^{(k)})$  is a function of  $\zeta_1^{(k)}$  only and has the series representation

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (\zeta_1^{(k)})^n$$

for  $Z \neq 0$  from which it is seen that  $F_0(\zeta_1^{(k)})$  has a singularity of an essential type on the negative  $x$ -axis;  $F_0(\zeta_2^{(k)})$  has an analogous singularity on the positive  $x$ -axis. Thus the function represented by formula (4) is a multiple-valued function of  $X$  which has algebraic singularities of a pole-like type along the curves  $b_k^1$ , which are analogous to singularities obtained by Bergman (3), essential-type singularities on the positive or negative  $x$ -axis (or both) and is undefined at  $X = 0$ .\*

2. *Exceptional cases to formulae (3) and (4).* Exceptional cases arise when (i) the roots of  $v(X, \zeta) = e_k$  coincide, (ii)  $Z = 0$ , (iii)  $X = 0$ , and (iv) the integrand is undefined.

(i) If  $\zeta_\mu^{(k)} \in \Omega$  and  $X \in b_k^1$  the integral operator (1.2) gives a different function. In this case  $v(X, \zeta) = e_k$  has coincident roots  $\zeta_0$  given by (1c) and the residue at  $\zeta_0$  is

$$B_k(X, \zeta_0) = -e_k [F_{0\zeta}(\zeta_0)Q(X, \zeta_0) + F_0(\zeta_0)Q_\zeta(X, \zeta_0)]/Z.$$

As we have seen  $Q(X, \zeta_0)$  equals the constant  $A_k$  and similarly  $Q_\zeta(X, \zeta_0)$  equals a constant  $B_k$ . Thus  $B_k(X, \zeta_0)$  is a single-valued function with a singularity on the  $x$ -axis ( $x \neq 0$ ) and

$$(5) \quad H(X) = \sum_{\substack{\zeta_\mu^{(j)} \in \Omega \\ j \neq k}} \pm A_j(X, \zeta_\mu^{(j)}) + B_k(X, \zeta_0).$$

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\*If  $f$  does not have a common factor  $\zeta$  and  $0 \in \Omega$ , then the function represented by (4) also has algebraic singularities along the half-lines  $y = 2b_k, z = -2a_k$  ( $x > 0$ ) given by  $\zeta_1^{(k)} = 0$ . Also,  $H$  is increased by a function with a simple pole on each line  $y = 2b_k, z = -2a_k$ .

(ii) If  $Z = 0$  and  $x \neq 0$ ,  $v(X, \zeta) = x\zeta$  so that the residue at  $\zeta = \zeta^{(k)}$  is  $-e_k A_k x^{-1} F(e_k x^{-1})$  and on  $c^1$

$$H(X) = -x^{-1} \sum_{\zeta^{(k)} \in \Omega} e_k A_k F(e_k x^{-1})$$

which is a single-valued function of  $X$  with an essential singularity at  $x = 0$ .

(iii) If  $X = 0$ ,  $v(X, \zeta) \equiv 0$ ,  $p(v) \equiv 1$  and  $H(0) = 0$ .

(iv) The set of points in  $E^3$ , where the associate  $g$  is undefined. For fixed  $\zeta$  the equation  $v(X, \zeta) = e_k$  or

$$(6a) \quad \begin{aligned} 2x\text{Re}\zeta - y\text{Im}\zeta^2 + z(\text{Re}\zeta^2 - 1) &= 2a_k \\ 2x\text{Im}\zeta + y(\text{Re}\zeta^2 + 1) + z\text{Im}\zeta^2 &= 2b_k \end{aligned}$$

represents a line  $l_k^1(\zeta)$  in  $E^3$ . Hence

$$(6b) \quad B_k^2(\mathfrak{R}) = \bigcup_{\zeta \in \mathfrak{R}} l_k^1(\zeta)$$

is a ruled surface and

$$(6c) \quad B^2(\mathfrak{R}) = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k^2(\mathfrak{R})$$

a family of ruled surfaces. Now  $X \in B^2(\mathfrak{R})$  implies that there exists  $k$  and  $\zeta_1 \in \mathfrak{R}$  such that  $X \in l_k^1(\zeta_1)$ , which implies that equation  $v(X, \zeta_1) = e_k$  is satisfied. But then  $\zeta_1$  is one of the poles  $\zeta_\mu^{(k)}$  of the function  $p(v)$ . Consequently the surfaces  $B_k^2(\mathfrak{R})$ , which are referred to as surfaces of separation (3), subdivide  $E^3$  into a denumerable number of cells (called domains of association) in each of which the number of singularities inside  $\mathfrak{R}$  remains constant. Call these cells  $D_p^3$  ( $p = 1, 2, \dots$ ). As  $X$  crosses from one cell to another it meets a surface  $B_k^2(\mathfrak{R})$  and for this  $X$  the integral operator (1.2) is undefined. Thus for  $X \in D_p^3 - b^1 \cup c^1$ , (1.2) defines a branch of a complex harmonic function given by (3) and (4), which we shall call  $H^{(p)}$ .

We summarize these results in

**THEOREM 1.** *Let the function  $g$  in the integral operator (1.2) be given by (1.3). For  $X$  in the set  $D_p^3 - b^1 \cup c^1$  ( $p = 1, 2, \dots$ ) (1.2) represents a branch,  $H^{(p)}$ , of a complex harmonic function given by formulae (3) and (4). For  $X \in b_k^1$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots$ ) it represents the function (5) and on  $c^1$  it represents a single-valued harmonic function with an essential singularity at  $x = 0$ . The integral operator is undefined on  $B^2(\mathfrak{R})$ .*

*Remark.* Since in general  $H^{(p)}$  cannot be continued into the function represented by (1.2) when  $X \in b^1 \cup c^1$ , in order to get a general harmonic function  $\mathfrak{H}$  by analytic extension we consider only the set of functions

$$(7) \quad \mathfrak{H} = \{H^{(p)}\} \quad (p = 1, 2, \dots);$$

$H^{(p)}$  being represented by (1.2) when  $X \in D_p^3 - b^1 \cup c^1$ .  $H$  refers to the harmonic function represented by (1.2) when  $X \in E^3 - B^2(\mathfrak{R})$ .

3. *The Riemann domain  $R^3$  on which  $\mathfrak{S}$  is single-valued.*

If  $g$  is a rational function of  $u = \zeta^{-1}v$  and  $\zeta$  and hence of  $\zeta$  and  $X$ :

$$G(X, \zeta) = P(X, \zeta)/Q(X, \zeta),$$

where  $P$  and  $Q$  are polynomials in  $\zeta$  and  $X$ , we know that the Riemann domain on which the corresponding harmonic function is defined and single-valued has the equation

$$Q(X, \zeta)/A_{2N} = 0$$

( $A_{2N}$  the leading coefficient of  $Q$ ) (2). Similarly the Riemann domain  $R^3$  on which  $\mathfrak{S}$  is single-valued has the equation

$$(8) \quad S(X, \zeta) = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} E[v(X, \zeta)/e_k, r_k - 1] = 0.$$

In order to study this domain we consider at first the equation

$$(9) \quad S_p(X, \zeta) = \prod_{k=1}^p E[v(X, \zeta)/e_k, r_k - 1] = 0.$$

The Riemann domain  $R_p^3$  defined by (9) has  $2p$  sheets given by

$$S_{2k}: \zeta = \zeta_1^{(k)}(X), S_{2k+1}: \zeta = \zeta_2^{(k)}(X) \quad (X \neq 0) \quad (k = 1, \dots, p),$$

where  $\zeta_j^{(k)}$  are given by (1).  $S_{2k}$  and  $S_{2k+1}$  are connected at the branch curves  $b_k^1$  (see (1) and (2)) and the  $x$ -axis  $c^1$ . The Riemann domain  $R^3$  given by (8) is the limiting case of  $R_p^3$  as  $p \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence  $R^3$  has an infinite number of sheets  $\{S_n\}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ), the sheets being connected in pairs  $S_{2k}, S_{2k+1}$  along the branch curves  $b_k^1$  and  $c^1$ . If  $i$  and  $j$  are not consecutive integers of the form  $2k, 2k + 1$  the sheets  $S_i$  and  $S_j$  are not connected. As  $k$  increases the spheres on which  $b_k^1$  lie are of increasing radii  $|e_k|$  and all passing through the origin. Infinity is a singularity of higher order which is not assumed to lie on  $R^3$ . We state as a corollary to Theorem 1:

COROLLARY. *Under the hypothesis of Theorem 1 the function*

$$\mathfrak{S} = \{H^{(p)}\} \quad (p = 1, 2, \dots),$$

*represented by (1.2) when  $X \in E^3 - B^2(\mathfrak{R}) \cup b^1 \cup c^1$ , is a complex harmonic function which is single-valued on the Riemann domain  $R^3$ .  $H^{(p)}$  has a finite number of algebraic singularities of a pole-like type on  $b^1$  and a singularity on the positive or negative  $x$ -axis (or both) of an essential type.*

4. *The number of algebraic singular lines possessed by  $H$ .*

Disregarding the essential type singularity of  $H$  on the positive or negative  $x$ -axis, let  $n(x, y, z)$  be the number of algebraic singular lines possessed by  $H$  for  $\mathfrak{R}$  a given closed curve. As we have seen by (3) and (4)  $H$  has a finite number of algebraic singular lines  $\subset b^1$ . Furthermore for  $X \in D_p^3$   $n(x, y, z)$  is a non-

negative integer. However, the number of singularities may become infinite as  $X \rightarrow \infty$  in certain directions, thus giving a different type of singularity for  $X$  infinite in this direction. For example, let  $X \rightarrow \infty$  along the negative  $z$ -axis,  $\mathfrak{Q}$  be the unit circle, and  $e_k$  real and positive. If  $x = y = 0, z \neq 0$  in (1), then

$$\zeta_\mu^{(k)} = \pm [z^2 + 2ze_k]^{1/2}/z.$$

If  $z > 0$ , then  $|\zeta_\mu^{(k)}| > 1$  and there are no algebraic singularities inside  $\mathfrak{Q}$  so that  $n(0, 0, z) = 0$ . If  $z < 0$  and also  $|z| > e_k$ , then  $|\zeta_\mu^{(k)}| < 1$  and all such singularities lie inside  $\mathfrak{Q}$ ; for fixed  $z$  the number  $n(0, 0, z)$  is finite but increasing monotonically as  $|z|$  increases since  $e_k$  is a monotone non-decreasing sequence. Hence  $\lim_{z \rightarrow -\infty} n(0, 0, z) = \infty$ , whereas  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} n(0, 0, z) = 0$ .

**3. Growth properties of H.** Using certain results on the minimum modulus of an entire function of finite order  $\rho$  in the theory of functions of one complex variable (8) we have

**THEOREM 2.** *Let the function  $g$  in (1.2) be given by (1.3), where  $p^{-1}$  is an entire function of finite order  $\rho$  and  $f$  entire of finite order  $\rho$  with respect to  $v$  on  $|\zeta| = 1$ . Let  $\mathfrak{Q}$  be the unit circle  $|\zeta| = 1$ . If  $\sigma > \rho$  and  $\epsilon$  are arbitrary positive numbers then for all  $X$  on the sphere  $S_R^2: x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2, R = R(\sigma, \epsilon)$ , provided  $X$  does not belong to a certain set  $C^3(\mathfrak{Q})$  (see (5)),*

$$(1) \quad |H(X)| \leq M e^{R^{\rho+\epsilon_1}},$$

$M$  a positive constant and  $\epsilon_1 > \epsilon$ .

*Proof.* From the theory of entire functions of one complex variable it is known that for a canonical product of order  $\rho$ , if  $\sigma (> \rho)$  and  $\epsilon$  are positive numbers, then for all sufficiently large  $r = r(\sigma, \epsilon)$

$$(2) \quad \log |p^{-1}(v)| > -r^{\rho+\epsilon},$$

where  $|v| = r$ , provided  $v$  lies outside circles of centre  $e_k$  and radius  $|e_k|^{-\sigma}$  (8). Consequently

$$(3) \quad |p(v)| < e^{r^{\rho+\epsilon}}.$$

Also

$$(4) \quad |f(v, \zeta)| = O(e^{r^{\rho+\epsilon}})$$

on  $|\zeta| = 1$ .

Now for  $X \in S_R^2$  and  $\zeta = e^{i\theta}$

$$|v|^2 = |\zeta|^2 |Z\zeta + x + Z^* \zeta^{-1}|^2 = x^2 + r_0^2 \cos^2(\theta - \phi),$$

where  $y = r_0 \cos \phi, z = r_0 \sin \phi$ . Hence

$$|v|^2 \leq x^2 + r_0^2 = R^2.$$

Thus for such  $X$  and  $\zeta$  (3) and (4) hold with  $r$  replaced by  $R$  from which (1) follows.

The hypothesis

$$|v - e_k| > |e_k|^{-\sigma}$$

for each  $\zeta \in \mathfrak{Q}$  implies that  $X$  must satisfy the condition

$$|\zeta| |Z\zeta + x + (Z^* - e_k)\zeta^{-1}| > |e_k|^{-\sigma},$$

that is

$$[x - a_k \cos \theta - b_k \sin \theta]^2 + [(y - b_k) \cos \theta + (z + a_k) \sin \theta]^2 > |e_k|^{-2\sigma}.$$

Now

$$y_k = y_k(\theta) \equiv (y - b_k) \cos \theta + (z + a_k) \sin \theta$$

is one of the equations of rotation by  $\theta$  in the  $yz$ -plane about the point  $(b_k, -a_k)$ . Thus the set of excluded points

$$(5a) \quad C_k^3(\theta, \mathfrak{Q}) = [X|(x - a_k \cos \theta - b_k \sin \theta)^2 + y_k^2 \leq |e_k|^{-2\sigma}]$$

is an infinite right cylinder with circular cross-section of radius  $|e_k|^{-\sigma}$  and centre

$$x = A_k = A_k(\theta) \equiv a_k \cos \theta + b_k \sin \theta, y_k = 0.$$

Its axis is the line perpendicular to the  $y_k$ -axis and  $x$ -axis and going through the point  $(A_k, b_k, -a_k)$ . For  $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$  the excluded set is the one parameter family of cylinders

$$(5b) \quad C_k^3(\mathfrak{Q}) = \bigcup_{0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi} C_k^3(\theta, \mathfrak{Q}).$$

Also set

$$(5c) \quad C^3(\mathfrak{Q}) = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} C_k^3(\mathfrak{Q}).$$

The surface  $C_k^3(\mathfrak{Q})$  consists of one infinite right cylinder of circular cross-section and radius  $|e_k|^{-\sigma}$  in each direction  $\theta$ , measured from the line  $z = -a_k$  about the point  $(b_k, -a_k)$  and lying in the plane  $x = A_k$ .

Now fix  $y = y_0, z = z_0$ . For each  $k$  there exists  $\theta = \theta_0$  such that  $(y_0, z_0)$  lies on the line  $y_k(\theta_0)$ , since these lines cover the whole  $yz$ -plane. For this value of  $\theta, x \in C_k^3(\theta_0, \mathfrak{Q})$  satisfies the inequality

$$A_k(\theta_0) - |e_k|^{-\sigma} \leq x \leq A_k(\theta_0) + |e_k|^{-\sigma}.$$

Hence on any line  $y = y_0, z = z_0$  the set of points  $x$  removed is contained in a set whose total length is

$$2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |e_k|^{-\sigma}.$$



But for  $\sigma > \rho$  this series is convergent and hence the set of excluded points is contained in a segment of finite length and the remaining points lie outside the excluded region  $C^3(\mathfrak{L})$ . This remark is valid for every line perpendicular to the  $yz$ -plane. Hence  $E^3 - C^3(\mathfrak{L})$  is a three-dimensional set of points.

We must also consider the set of points  $B^2(\mathfrak{L})$  where (1.2) is undefined;  $X \in B^2(\mathfrak{L})$  implies there exist  $k$  and  $\zeta$  such that the equation  $v(X, \zeta) = e_k$  is satisfied. (See (2.6).) Hence  $X \in C_k^3(\mathfrak{L})$  and  $B_k^2(\mathfrak{L}) \subset C_k^3(\mathfrak{L}), B^2(\mathfrak{L}) \subset C^3(\mathfrak{L})$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

Similarly other known results on the minimum modulus of entire functions (5) may be used to obtain inequalities for the function  $H(X)$  represented by (1.2).

*Remark.* The envelope  $E_k^2$  of the family  $\{B_k^2(\theta)\} (0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi)$ , where  $B_k^2(\theta)$  is the boundary of the surface  $C_k^3(\theta, \mathfrak{L})$  is found by eliminating  $\theta$  between the equation of  $B_k^2(\theta)$  and of its partial derivative with respect to  $\theta$ . For fixed  $(y, z)$  the distance between the top and bottom sheets of the envelope is  $2|e_k|^{-\sigma}$ , which is less than 1 for  $k$  sufficiently large. The excluded surfaces  $C_k^3(\theta)$  lie between the top and bottom sheets of the envelope.

**4. Mittag-Leffler summability for H.**

1. *Representation for H obtained by using Mittag-Leffler summability method for p.* In this section it is convenient to replace  $v$  in (1.1) by

$$(1) \quad u = \zeta^{-1}v$$

and take  $\mathfrak{L}$  as the unit circle. We also assume that  $p$  in (1.3) is an analytic function of  $u$  in a star domain with centre at the origin and  $f$  has the series representation

$$(2) \quad f(u, \zeta) = \sum_{p,q=0}^{\infty} c_{pq} u^p \zeta^q,$$

where for  $u$  and  $\zeta$  independent variables the convergence is uniform in any closed domain such that  $|u| < \infty, |\zeta| < \infty$ .

Bergman has shown that there exists a set of homogeneous polynomials  $\{\Gamma_{p\kappa}\} (p = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \kappa = 0, 1, \dots, 2p)$ ,  $\Gamma_{p\kappa}$  being given by the integral operator (1.2) when the associate is  $u^p \zeta^{-p+\kappa}$  (3).

**THEOREM 3.** *Let the associate  $g$  in the operator (1.2) equal  $f p$  where  $f$  has the series representation (2) and  $p$  is an analytic function of  $u$  in a star domain with centre at the origin whose function element is  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n u^n$ . From the representation*

$$(3) \quad p(u) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n u^n / n^{\sigma n}$$

*follows the representation*

$$(4) \quad H(X) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n / n^{\sigma n}) H_n(X),$$

where

$$H_n(X) = \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} \sum_{q=0}^{n+p} c_{pq} \Gamma_{n+p, n+p+q}(X).$$

If  $a$  is a singularity of  $p$  with  $\text{Re } a \neq 0$ , then (4) is not valid when  $X$  belongs to the set

$$(5) \quad D_a^3 = [X|y^2 + z^2 \geq A^2x^2, x \geq \text{Re } a \text{ if } \text{Re } a > 0, x \leq \text{Re } a \text{ if } \text{Re } a < 0] \\ (A = \text{Im } a/\text{Re } a). \text{ (For the case } \text{Re } a = 0 \text{ see paragraph 2.)}$$

*Proof.* From the theory for one complex variable it is known that if  $p$  satisfies the hypothesis of the theorem, then the series

$$(6) \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n u^n / n^{\sigma n}$$

represents an entire function and converges uniformly to the function  $p$  in every finite domain inside the star domain as  $\sigma \rightarrow 0$  through positive values (6). If  $u$  is replaced by (1) in series (2) the series will converge uniformly in any closed set in the  $\zeta$ -plane not containing the origin; for series (6) we show in paragraph 2 that the convergence is uniform on  $|\zeta| = 1$  for any fixed  $X$ , not belonging to the set  $D_a^3$  given by (5). Hence replacing  $f$  and  $p$  by their representations (2) and (3) in the integral operator (1.2), we can interchange the order of integration and the limiting operation to obtain

$$H(X) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n / n^{\sigma n} \sum_{p,q=0}^{\infty} c_{pq} (1/2\pi i) \int_{|\zeta|=1} u^{n+p} \zeta^{-q} \frac{d\zeta}{\zeta}.$$

By the residue theorem the integral on the right which equals

$$(1/2\pi i) \int_{|\zeta|=1} (Z\zeta^2 + x\zeta + Z^*)^{n+p} \zeta^{q-1-n-p} d\zeta$$

has the value 0 unless  $q \leq n + p$ . If  $q \leq n + p$ , its value is  $\Gamma_{n+p, n+p+q}(X)$ . Thus  $H$  has the representation (4).

2. *Excluded sets.* From the theory for one complex variable if  $a$  is a singularity of  $p$ , then on the half-line  $\arg u = \arg a$  the set  $|u| \geq |a|$  is excluded. (Note that  $a \neq 0$  by hypothesis.) Now  $\arg u = \arg a$  implies that

$$(7) \quad y'(\theta)\text{Re } a \equiv (y \cos \theta + z \sin \theta)\text{Re } a = x \text{Im } a, \\ x > 0 \text{ if } \text{Re } a > 0, x < 0 \text{ if } \text{Re } a < 0,$$

which is the equation of a half-plane  $\Pi^2(\theta)$ . As  $\theta$  traces the unit circle the surface

$$(8) \quad \Pi^3 = \bigcup_{0 \leq \theta < 2\pi} \Pi^2(\theta)$$

is obtained.

*Remark.* If  $\text{Re } a = 0$ ,  $\arg a = \pi/2$  or  $3\pi/2$  and  $\Pi^2(\theta)$  is one-half the  $yz$ -plane so that  $\Pi^3$  degenerates into a two-dimensional surface (the  $yz$ -plane).

The surface  $\Pi^3$  does not cover all of  $E^3$  since the points satisfying  $y^2 + z^2 < A^2x^2$  do not lie on it.

*Proof.*  $X \in \Pi^3$  implies that there exists  $\theta$  such that (7) is satisfied. Expressing  $\cos \theta$  in terms of  $\sin \theta$ , squaring and solving for  $\sin \theta$ , we get

$$(9) \quad \sin \theta = (Axz \pm |y|[y^2 + z^2 - A^2x^2]^{\frac{1}{2}})/(y^2 + z^2),$$

from which the conclusion follows. The cone  $y^2 + z^2 = A^2x^2$  is the envelope of the family of planes (7) ( $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ ).

The excluded set in the  $u$ -plane on the half-line  $\arg u = \arg a$  is the set for which  $|u| \geq |a|$ . In  $E^3$  for  $\zeta$  on the unit circle  $|u| \geq |a|$  becomes the surface and exterior of the cylinder  $C^2(\theta)$  whose equation is

$$x^2 + y'^2(\theta) = |a|^2.$$

The half-plane  $\Pi^2(\theta)$  intersects  $C^2(\theta)$  in a line  $l^1(\theta)$  parallel to the  $z'(\theta)$ -axis (the axis perpendicular to the  $x$ - and  $y'(\theta)$ -axes) and through the point ( $x = \operatorname{Re} a, y'(\theta) = \operatorname{Im} a, z'(\theta) = 0$ ). It intersects the exterior of the cone given by  $x^2 + y'^2(\theta) = k^2|a|^2, k^2 > 1$  for fixed  $k$  in a line parallel to the  $z'(\theta)$ -axis and on the opposite side of  $l^1(\theta)$ . Thus for fixed  $\theta$  the excluded area is that part of  $\Pi^2(\theta)$  which lies on the opposite side of  $l^1(\theta)$  to the  $z'(\theta)$ -axis. Call this piece of plane plus the line  $l^1(\theta), \Pi_1^2(\theta)$ . The complete set of excluded points is

$$\Pi_1^3 = \bigcup_{0 \leq \theta < 2\pi} \Pi_1^2(\theta).$$

Now show that if  $\operatorname{Re} a \neq 0, D_a^3 = \Pi_1^3$ . If  $X \in D_a^3$  show there exists  $\theta$  such that  $X \in \Pi_1^2(\theta)$ . This means that equation (9) must be satisfied, that is, at least one of the values of  $\sin \theta$  in (9) must not exceed one in absolute value.  $X \in D_a^3$  implies that the equation  $y^2 + z^2 = A^2k^2x^2$  is satisfied for some  $k^2 \geq 1$  and hence we must show that

$$-1 \leq (z \mp |y|[k^2 - 1]^{\frac{1}{2}})/Ak^2x \leq 1.$$

But this follows by a careful analysis of all possible cases. Thus  $D_a^3 \subset \Pi_1^3$ . Conversely  $X \in \Pi_1^3$  implies that  $X$  satisfies (7) for some value of  $\theta$  and hence  $\sin \theta$  is given by (9), whence  $y^2 + z^2 - A^2x^2 \geq 0$  so that  $X \in D_a^3$ . Thus  $D_a^3 = \Pi_1^3$ .

The total set of excluded points is

$$D^3 = \bigcup_{\{a\}} D_a^3$$

plus the exterior of the circle  $y^2 + z^2 = |a|^2$  in the  $yz$ -plane if  $\operatorname{Re} a = 0$  for any  $a$ . Consequently the set where Mittag-Leffler summability holds is the complement of  $D^3$ , namely

$$I^3 = \bigcap_{\{a\}} [X|y^2 + z^2 < A^2x^2] \cup [X|y^2 + z^2 \geq A^2x^2, \\ x < \operatorname{Re} a \text{ if } \operatorname{Re} a > 0, x > \operatorname{Re} a \text{ if } \operatorname{Re} a < 0]$$

plus the disk  $y^2 + z^2 \leq |a|^2$  in the  $yz$ -plane (or the intersection of such disks) if  $\operatorname{Re} a = 0$  for any  $a$ .  $I^3$  is not empty since by hypothesis the function element of  $p(u)$  has a positive radius of convergence  $R_0$  so that  $|a| \geq R_0$  for all  $a$ . Any point  $X$  in the interior of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R_0^2$  belongs to  $I^3$ , since if we set  $y = r_0 \cos \phi$ ,  $z = r_0 \sin \phi$ , then  $X$  satisfies the inequality  $x^2 + r_0^2 < R_0^2$ . If  $X$  is such that  $r_0^2 < A^2 x^2$  for all  $a$  there is nothing to prove but if  $r_0^2 \geq A^2 x^2$  for some  $a$ 's, then  $|a|^2 - x^2 \geq R_0^2 - x^2 > r_0^2 \geq A^2 x^2$  or  $|a|^2 > |a|^2 x^2 / \operatorname{Re}^2 a$  or  $\operatorname{Re}^2 a > x^2$  and again  $X \in I^3$ .

3. In order to complete the proof of Theorem 3 we must show that for any fixed  $X \in I^3$  the convergence of (6) as  $\sigma \rightarrow 0$  is uniform on  $|\zeta| = 1$ , that is, for such  $X$  and  $\zeta$  on  $|\zeta| = 1$  the values of  $u$  which lie on the half-line  $\arg u = \arg a$  are in absolute value less than  $|a|$ . There are two cases: (i) If  $X$  is such that  $y^2 + z^2 < A^2 x^2$ , the equation  $y'(\theta) = Ax$  has no solution for  $\theta$  which means that for any  $\zeta$  on the unit circle  $u$  does not lie on the half-line  $\arg u = \arg a$ . (ii) If  $X$  is such that  $y^2 + z^2 \geq A^2 x^2$ , as we have seen the equation  $y'(\theta) = Ax$  always has a solution for  $u$  on the half-line  $\arg u = \arg a$  and

$$|u|^2 = x^2 + y'^2(\theta) = x^2(1 + A^2) = x^2|a|^2/\operatorname{Re}^2 a$$

so that  $|u|^2 < |a|^2$  if  $x^2 < \operatorname{Re}^2 a$ .

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*Pennsylvania State University*