# On L. Schwartz's Boundedness Condition for Kernels 

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#### Abstract

In previous works we analysed conditions for linearization of Hermitian kernels. The conditions on the kernel turned out to be of a type considered previously by L. Schwartz in the related matter of characterizing the real linear space generated by positive definite kernels. The aim of the present note is to find more concrete expressions of the Schwartz type conditions: in the Hamburger moment problem for Hankel type kernels on the free semigroup, in dilation theory (Stinespring type dilations and Haagerup decomposability), as well as in multi-variable holomorphy.


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## 1. Introduction

We analysed in [7] conditions under which the linearization functor produces a Krĕn space from a Hermitian kernel, in the spirit of Kolmogorov type decompositions, and subsequently in [8] we generalised this construction to kernels invariant under the action of a semigroup with involution. We also related these constructions with the GNS representations of $*$-algebras, an issue of some recent interest in quantum field theory with indefinite metric ( $[2,13,14,19]$ ). The conditions on the kernel turned out to be of a type considered previously by L. Schwartz in [18] in the related matter of characterizing those hermitian kernels that are in the real linear space generated by positive definite kernels. These boundedness conditions are rather difficult to be verified, see [2, 13], and their nature is quite obscure, see [19].
$\dagger$ Prof. Tiberius Constantinescu died unexpectly on 29th of July 2005.

The aim of the present note is to find more concrete expressions of the L. Schwartz type conditions. We first note that the invariant Kolmogorov decomposition has a counterpart in the representation theory of semigroups with involution on reproducing kernel Kreĭn spaces. Then, it is explained that the type of invariance that is considered in [8] can be viewed as a Hankel type condition and we apply this remark to a Hamburger moment problem for the free semigroup on $N$ generators. This is used in order to show how the Schwartz condition is somewhat simplified when it is written for generators of a $*$-algebra.

In Section 4 we first show that the Stinespring dilation of Hermitian linear maps fits into the general scheme of invariant Kolmogorov decompositions and we make explicit the connection with completely bounded maps and Wittstock's Theorem [20]. This opens the possibility of defining a class of non-Hermitian decomposable kernels, that may successfully replace the missing class of completely bounded kernels, by using a generalization of Haagerup's decomposable linear mappings on $C^{*}$-algebras, cf. [12]. An analog of Paulsen's Dilation Theorem for decomposable kernels is obtained in Theorem 4.4.

In Section 5 we show that scalar-valued holomorphic kernels in several variables have Kolmogorov decompositions and hence, that they automatically satisfy the L. Schwartz's boundedness condition. In view of the transcription between Kolmogorov decompositions and reproducing kernel spaces, e.g. see Theorem 2.4, this result is an extension of the result of D. Alpay in [3] that was proved for one variable holomorphic Hermitian kernels.

## 2. Preliminaries

We briefly review the structure of the Kolmogorov decomposition of invariant Hermitian kernels. As it was shown in [18], the natural framework for studying Hermitian kernels is given by Kreĭn spaces and for this reason we briefly discuss the necessary terminology.

### 2.1. Kreйn Spaces

An indefinite inner product space $\left(\mathcal{H},[\cdot, \cdot]_{\mathcal{H}}\right)$ is called Kreĭn space provided that there exists a positive inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ turning $(\mathcal{H},\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle)$ into a Hilbert space and such that $[\xi, \eta]=\langle J \xi, \eta\rangle, \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{H}$, for some symmetry $J\left(J^{*}=J^{-1}=J\right.$ with respect to the Hilbert space structure) on $\mathcal{H}$. Such a symmetry $J$ is called a fundamental symmetry and we will frequently indicate by a lower index the space on which it acts. For two Kreĭn spaces $\mathcal{H}$ and $\mathcal{K}$ we denote by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ the set of linear bounded operators from $\mathcal{H}$ to $\mathcal{K}$. For $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ we denote by $T^{\sharp} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{H})$ the adjoint of $T$ with respect to the indefinite inner product $[\cdot, \cdot]$. The Hilbert space adjoint of $T$ with respect to the positive inner products $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ is denoted by $T^{*}$. It is important to note that, if $J_{\mathcal{H}}$ and $J_{\mathcal{K}}$ are fundamental symmetries on $\mathcal{H}$ and, respectively, $\mathcal{K}$ then

$$
T^{\sharp}=J_{\mathcal{H}} T^{*} J_{\mathcal{K}} .
$$

We say that $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is a selfadjoint operator if $A^{\sharp}=A$. For example, in terms of fundamental symmetries, this means $J_{\mathcal{H}} A=A^{*} J_{\mathcal{H}}$. Also, we say that the operator $U \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ is unitary if $U U^{\sharp}=I_{\mathcal{K}}$ and $U^{\sharp} U=I_{\mathcal{H}}$, where $I_{\mathcal{H}}$ denotes the identity operator on $\mathcal{H}$. Equivalently, this means that $U$ is boundedly invertible and $J_{\mathcal{H}} U^{-1}=U^{*} J_{\mathcal{K}}$. In terms of inner products, this means that $U$ is isometric and surjective.

A special situation occurs for a unitary operator $U$ with domain and range the same Kreı̆n space $\mathcal{H}$ if it commutes with some fundamental symmetry $J_{\mathcal{H}}$. Such a unitary operator is called fundamentally reducible and it can be characterized in other different ways. For instance, $U$ is fundamentally reducible if and only if it is power bounded.

Most of the difficulties in dealing with operators on Kreĭn spaces are caused by the lack of a well-behaved factorization theory. The concept of induced space turned out to be quite useful in order to deal with this issue. Thus, let $\mathcal{H}$ be a Hilbert space and, for a selfadjoint operator $A$ in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, we define a new inner product $[\cdot, \cdot]_{A}$ on $\mathcal{H}$ by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
[\xi, \eta]_{A}=\langle A \xi, \eta\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}, \quad \xi, \eta \in \mathcal{H} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

A pair $(\mathcal{K}, \Pi)$ consisting of a Kreĭn space $\mathcal{K}$ and a bounded operator $\Pi \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ is called a Kreĭn space induced by $A$ provided that $\Pi$ has dense range and the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
[\Pi \xi, \Pi \eta]_{\mathcal{K}}=\langle\xi, \eta\rangle_{A} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for all $\xi, \eta \in \mathcal{H}$. There are many known examples of induced spaces. A more delicate question is the uniqueness of the induced Kreĭn spaces (see [7]).

### 2.2. Hermitian Kernels

We can use the concept of induced space in order to describe the Kolmogorov decomposition of a Hermitian kernel. Let $X$ be an arbitrary set. From now on we assume $\mathcal{H}$ is a Hilbert space with inner product denoted by $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$. A kernel on $X$ is a mapping $K$ defined on $X \times X$ with values in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$. The adjoint $K^{*}$ of $K$ is defined by the formula $K^{*}(x, y)=K(y, x)^{*}$. The kernel $K$ is called Hermitian on $X$ if $K^{*}=K$.

Let $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$ denote the vector space of all functions on $X$ with values in $\mathcal{H}$ which vanish except on a finite number of points. We associate to $K$ an inner product on $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$ by the formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
[f, g]_{K}=\sum_{x, y \in X}\langle K(x, y) f(y), g(x)\rangle, \quad f, g \in \mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H}) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

A Hermitian kernel $L: X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is positive definite if the inner product $[\cdot, \cdot]_{L}$ associated to $L$ by the formula (2.3) is positive. One can introduce a natural partial order on the set of Hermitian kernels on $X$ with values in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ as follows: if $A, B$ are Hermitian kernels, then $A \leq B$ means $[f, f]_{A} \leq[f, f]_{B}$ for all $f \in \mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$.

A Kolmogorov decomposition of the Hermitian kernel $K$ is a pair $(V ; \mathcal{K})$ with the following properties:
KD1 $\mathcal{K}$ is a Kreĭn space with fundamental symmetry $J$;
KD2 $V=\{V(x)\}_{x \in X} \subset \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ such that $K(x, y)=V(x)^{*} J V(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$;
KD3 $\{V(x) \mathcal{H} \mid x \in X\}$ is total in $\mathcal{K}$.
The next result, obtained in [7], settles the question concerning the existence of a Kolmogorov decomposition for a given Hermitian kernel.

Theorem 2.1. Let $K: X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a Hermitian kernel. The following assertions are equivalent:
(1) There exists a positive definite kernel $L: X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ such that $-L \leq$ $K \leq L$.
(2) K has a Kolmogorov decomposition.

The condition in assertion (1) of the previous result appeared earlier in the work of L. Schwartz [18] concerning the structure of Hermitian kernels. It is easy to see that (1) is also equivalent to the representation of $K$ as a difference of two positive definite kernels. Thus, Theorem 2.1 says that the class of Hermitian kernels admitting Kolmogorov decompositions is the same with the class of Hermitian kernels in the linear span of the cone of positive definite kernels.

It is convenient for our purpose to review a construction of Kolmogorov decompositions. We assume that there exists a positive definite kernel $L: X \times$ $X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ such that $-L \leq K \leq L$. Let $\mathcal{H}_{L}$ be the Hilbert space obtained by the completion of the quotient space $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H}) / \mathcal{N}_{L}$ with respect to $[\cdot, \cdot]_{L}$, where $\mathcal{N}_{L}=\left\{f \in \mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H}) \mid[f, f]_{L}=0\right\}$ is the isotropic subspace of the inner product space $\left(\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H}),[\cdot, \cdot]_{L}\right)$. Since (1) in Theorem 2.1 is equivalent to

$$
\left|[f, g]_{K}\right| \leq[f, f]_{L}^{1 / 2}[g, g]_{L}^{1 / 2}
$$

for all $f, g \in \mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$ (see Proposition 38, [18]), it follows that $\mathcal{N}_{L}$ is a subset of the isotropic subspace $\mathcal{N}_{K}$ of the inner product space $\left(\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H}),[\cdot, \cdot]_{K}\right)$. Therefore, $[\cdot, \cdot]_{K}$ uniquely induces an inner product on $\mathcal{H}_{L}$, still denoted by $[\cdot, \cdot]_{K}$, such that (2.4) holds for $f, g \in \mathcal{H}_{L}$. By the Riesz representation theorem we obtain a selfadjoint contractive operator $A_{L} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}_{L}\right)$, referred to as the Gram operator of $K$ with respect to $L$, such that

$$
[f, g]_{K}=\left[A_{L} f, g\right]_{L}, \quad f, g \in \mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})
$$

Let $(\mathcal{K}, \Pi)$ be a Kreı̆n space induced by $A_{L}$. For $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$ and $x \in X$, we define the element $\xi_{x}=\delta_{x} \xi \in \mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$ (here $\delta_{x}$ is the Kronecker function delta), that is,

$$
\xi_{x}(y)= \begin{cases}\xi, & y=x  \tag{2.4}\\ 0, & y \neq x\end{cases}
$$

Then we define

$$
V(x) \xi=\Pi\left[\xi_{x}\right], \quad x \in X, \quad \xi \in \mathcal{H}
$$

where $\left[\xi_{x}\right]=\xi_{x}+\mathcal{N}_{L}$ denotes the class of $\xi_{x}$ in $\mathcal{H}_{L}$ and it can be verified that $(V ; \mathcal{K})$ is a Kolmogorov decomposition of the kernel $K$.

We finally review the uniqueness property of the Kolmogorov decomposition. Two Kolmogorov decompositions $\left(V_{1}, \mathcal{K}_{1}\right)$ and $\left(V_{2}, \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$ of the same Hermitian kernel $K$ are unitarily equivalent if there exists a unitary operator $\Phi \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{K}_{1}, \mathcal{K}_{2}\right)$ such that for all $x \in X$ we have $V_{2}(x)=\Phi V_{1}(x)$. The following result was obtained in [7]. We denote by $\rho(T)$ the resolvent set of the operator $T$.

Theorem 2.2. Let $K$ be a Hermitian kernel which has Kolmogorov decompositions. The following assertions are equivalent:
(1) All Kolmogorov decompositions of $K$ are unitarily equivalent.
(2) For each positive definite kernel $L$ such that $-L \leq K \leq L$, there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that either $(0, \epsilon) \subset \rho\left(A_{L}\right)$ or $(-\epsilon, 0) \subset \rho\left(A_{L}\right)$, where $A_{L}$ is the Gram operator of $K$ with respect to $L$.

### 2.3. Invariant Hermitian Kernels

We now review some results on the Kolmogorov decomposition of Hermitian kernels with additional symmetries. Let $\phi$ be an action of a unital semigroup $S$ on $X$. Assume that the $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$-valued Hermitian kernel $K$ has a Kolmogorov decomposition $(V, \mathcal{K})$. The action $\phi$ is linearized by the following mapping: for any $a \in S$, $x \in X$ and $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
U(a) V(x) \xi=V(\phi(a, x)) \xi \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We notice that for $a, b \in S, x \in X$ and $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
U(a) U(b) V(x) \xi & =U(a) V(\phi(b, x)) \xi=V(\phi(a, \phi(b, x))) \xi \\
& =V(\phi(a b, x)) \xi=U(a b) V(x) \xi
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, the family $\{U(a)\}_{a \in S}$ is a semigroup of linear operators with a common dense domain $\bigvee_{x \in X} V(x) \mathcal{H}$ (throughout this paper $\bigvee$ denotes the linear space generated by some set, without taking any closure). If $K$ is a positive definite kernel then the previous construction is well-known (see, for instance, [17]). The remaining question, especially in case $K$ is not positive definite, is: what additional conditions on the kernel $K$ should be imposed in order to ensure the boundedness of the operators $U(a), a \in S$ ? We gave a possible answer in [8], by considering an additional symmetry of the kernel.

Consider the set $B=\left\{\xi_{x} \mid \xi \in \mathcal{H}, x \in X\right\}$ which is a system of generators $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$. Define for $a \in S$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi_{a}\left(\xi_{x}\right)=\xi_{\phi(a, x)} \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and this mapping can be extended by linearity to a linear mapping, also denoted by $\psi_{a}$, from $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$ into $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$. We say that a positive definite kernel $L$ is $\phi$-bounded provided that for all $a \in S, \psi_{a}$ is bounded with respect to the seminorm $[\cdot, \cdot]_{L}^{1 / 2}$ induced by $L$ on $\mathcal{F}_{0}(X, \mathcal{H})$. We denote by $\mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{+}(X, \mathcal{H})$ the set of positive definite $\phi$-bounded kernels on $X$ with values in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$.

From now on we assume that $S$ is a unital semigroup with involution, that is, there exists a mapping $\mathfrak{I}: S \rightarrow S$ such that $\mathfrak{I}^{2}=$ the identity on $S$, and $\mathfrak{I}(a b)=\Im(b) \mathfrak{I}(a)$ for all $a, b \in S$. The following result was obtained in [8].

Theorem 2.3. Let $\phi$ be an action of the unital semigroup $S$ with involution $\mathfrak{I}$ on the set $X$ and let $K$ be an $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$-valued Hermitian kernel on $X$ with the property that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(x, \phi(a, y))=K(\phi(\Im(a), x), y) \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y \in X$ and $a \in S$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(1) There exists $L \in \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{+}(X, \mathcal{H})$ such that $-L \leq K \leq L$.
(2) $K$ has a Kolmogorov decomposition $(V ; \mathcal{K})$ with the property that there exists a representation $U$ of $S$ on $\mathcal{K}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(\phi(a, x))=U(a) V(x) \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in X, a \in S$. In addition, $U(\Im(a))=U(a)^{\sharp}$ for all $a \in S$.
(3) $K=K_{1}-K_{2}$ for two positive definite kernels such that $K_{1}+K_{2} \in \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{+}(X, \mathcal{H})$.

### 2.4. Reproducing Kernel Spaces

We now describe another construction, closely related to the Kolmogorov decomposition of a Hermitian kernel. Let $K$ be a Hermitian kernel satisfying (2.7) with a Kolmogorov decomposition $(V ; \mathcal{K})$ as in Theorem 2.3. Define

$$
\mathcal{R}=\left\{g_{f}: X \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \mid g_{f}(x)=V^{\sharp}(x) f, f \in \mathcal{K}\right\}
$$

Then $\mathcal{R}$ is a vector subspace of $\mathcal{F}(X, \mathcal{H})$, the class of functions defined on $X$ with values in $\mathcal{H}$. We define a map $\Phi: \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ by

$$
\Phi f=g_{f}, \quad f \in \mathcal{K} .
$$

This map is linear and bijective, so that we can define on $\mathcal{R}$ the inner product

$$
\left[g_{f}, g_{h}\right]_{\mathcal{R}}=[f, h]_{\mathcal{K}}, \quad f, h \in \mathcal{K} .
$$

One checks that $\mathcal{R}$ is a Krein space with respect to this inner product. Also, $\Phi$ is a bounded operator between the Kreĭn spaces $\mathcal{K}$ and $\mathcal{R}$, since it is closed and everywhere defined on $\mathcal{K}$, hence it is unitary. Moreover, $\mathcal{R}$ is the closure of the linear space generated by the functions $g_{V(y) \xi}, y \in X$ and $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$. These functions are related to the kernel $K$ as follows:

$$
g_{V(y) \xi}(x)=V^{\sharp}(x) V(y) \xi=K(x, y) \xi, \quad x, y \in X, \xi \in \mathcal{H}
$$

We will write $g_{y, \xi}$ instead of $g_{V(y) \xi}$, and since $g_{y, \xi}(x)=K(x, y) \xi$, these functions can be defined without using $V$. Therefore, the space $\mathcal{R}$ has the following reproducing property:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[g_{f}(x), \xi\right]_{\mathcal{H}}=\left[g_{f}, g_{x, \xi}\right]_{\mathcal{R}}, \quad x \in X, \quad f \in \mathcal{K}, \xi \in \mathcal{H} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We also note that property (2.7) of the kernel $K$ is reflected into a certain symmetry of the elements of $\mathcal{R}$. Thus, we define an operator $\bar{U}(a) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{R})$ by

$$
\bar{U}(a)=\Phi U(a) \Phi^{\sharp}, \quad a \in X,
$$

where $U$ is the representation of $S$ given by Theorem 2.3. We have

$$
\bar{U}(a) g_{f}=\Phi U(a) \Phi^{\sharp} g_{f}=\Phi U(a) f=g_{U(a) f}, \quad a \in X, f \in \mathcal{K} .
$$

On the other hand, for any $a, x \in X$ and $f \in \mathcal{K}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{f}(\phi(\Im(a), x)) & =V^{\sharp}(\phi(\Im(a), x)) f=V(x)^{\sharp} U(\Im(a))^{\sharp} f \\
& =g_{U(a)^{\sharp} f}(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

and we deduce that the elements of $\mathcal{R}$ satisfy the relation

$$
\left(\bar{U}(a) g_{f}\right)(x)=g_{f}(\phi(\Im(a), x)) .
$$

Based on this relation we obtain the following result.
Theorem 2.4. Let $\phi$ be an action of the unital semigroup $S$ with involution $\mathfrak{I}$ on the set $X$ and let $K$ be an $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$-valued Hermitian kernel on $X$ with the property that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(x, \phi(a, y))=K(\phi(\Im(a), x), y) \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y \in X$ and $a \in S$. The following assertions are equivalent:
(1) There exists $L \in \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{+}(X, \mathcal{H})$ such that $-L \leq K \leq L$.
(2) K has a Kolmogorov decomposition $(V ; \mathcal{K})$ with the property that there exists a representation $U$ of $S$ on $\mathcal{K}$ such that for all $x \in X, a \in S, V(\phi(a, x))=$ $U(a) V(x)$.
(3) There exists a Krein space $\mathcal{R}$ such that
(a) $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathcal{F}(X, \mathcal{H})$.
(b) There exists a total set $\left\{g_{x, \xi} \mid x \in X, \xi \in \mathcal{H}\right\}$ in $\mathcal{R}$ such that

$$
[f(x), \xi]_{\mathcal{H}}=\left[f, g_{x, \xi}\right]_{\mathcal{R}}, \quad f \in \mathcal{R}, \quad \xi \in \mathcal{H}, x \in X
$$

(c) There exists a representation $\bar{U}$ of $S$ on $\mathcal{R}$ such that

$$
(\bar{U}(a) f)(x)=f(\phi(\Im(a), x)), \quad a \in S, x \in X, f \in \mathcal{R}
$$

Proof. The implication $(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ was already proved above. In order to prove $(3) \Rightarrow(2)$ we define the linear mapping $\bar{V}(x)$ from $\mathcal{H}$ into $\mathcal{R}$ by the formula:

$$
\bar{V}(x) \xi=g_{x, \xi}, \quad x \in X, \xi \in \mathcal{H}
$$

The property (c) shows that $\bar{V}(x)$ is a closed operator and by the closed graph theorem we deduce that $\bar{V}(x) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{R})$. From (b) and (c) we deduce that $(\bar{V} ; \mathcal{R})$ is a Kolmogorov decomposition of $K$. Finally,

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\bar{V}(\phi(a, x)) \xi)(y) & =g_{\phi(a, x), \xi}(y)=K(y, \phi(a, x)) \xi \\
& =K(\phi(\mathfrak{I}(a), y), x) \xi \\
& =g_{x, \xi}(\phi(\mathfrak{I}(a), y)) \\
& =(\bar{U}(a) \bar{V}(x) \xi)(y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof.

## 3. Hankel Type Kernels

In this section we interpret the invariance property (2.7) as a Hankel condition. To see this, let $S=\mathbb{N}$ be the additive semigroup of natural numbers (including 0 ) and the action $\phi$ is given by right translation. If $K$ satisfies (2.7), then $K(n, p+m)=K(p+n, m)$ for $m, n, p \in \mathbb{N}$ and $K$ is a so-called Hankel kernel. We can extend this example to a noncommutative setting as follows. Let $S=\mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$be the unital free semigroup on $N$ generators $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{N}$ with lexicographic order $\prec$. The empty word is the identity element and the length of the word $\sigma$ is denoted by $|\sigma|$. The length of the empty word is 0 . There is a natural involution on $\mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$ given by $\mathfrak{I}\left(g_{j_{1}} \ldots g_{j_{k}}\right)=g_{j_{k}} \ldots g_{j_{1}}$ as well as a natural action of $\mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$on itself by juxtaposition, $\phi(\sigma, \tau)=\sigma \tau, \sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$. The condition (2.7) means in this case that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(\sigma, \beta \tau)=K(\Im(\beta) \sigma, \tau) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\beta, \sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$. It was noticed in $[6]$ that kernels as above appear in connection with orthogonal polynomials in $N$ indeterminates satisfying the relations $Y_{k}^{*}=Y_{k}$, $k=1, \ldots, N$.

Let $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ be the algebra of polynomials in $N$ non-commuting indeterminates $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{N}$ with complex coefficients. For any $\sigma=g_{j_{1}} g_{j_{2}} \cdots g_{j_{l}} \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$, where $j_{p} \in$ $\{1,2, \ldots, N\}$ for all $p=1, \ldots, l, l=|\sigma|$, we denote $Y_{\sigma}=Y_{g_{j_{1}}} Y_{g_{j_{2}}} \cdots Y_{g_{j_{l}}}$. With this notation, each element $P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ can be uniquely written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\sum_{\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}} c_{\sigma} Y_{\sigma} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left(c_{\sigma}\right)_{\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}} \subset \mathbb{C}$ has finite support.
An involution $*$ on $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ can be introduced as follows: $Y_{k}^{*}=Y_{k}, k=1, \ldots, N$; on monomials, $\left(Y_{\sigma}\right)^{*}=Y_{\mathfrak{J}(\sigma)}$; and, in general, if $P$ has the representation as in (3.2) then

$$
P^{*}=\sum_{\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}} \bar{c}_{\sigma} Y_{\sigma}^{*}
$$

Thus, $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ is a unital, associative, $*$-algebra over $\mathbb{C}$. A linear functional $Z$ on $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ is called Hermitian if $Z\left(P^{*}\right)=\overline{Z(P)}$ for $P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$.

A convenient subclass of Hermitian functionals, called GNS functionals, is given by those functionals admitting GNS data. A triplet $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, \Omega)$ is called a $G N S$ data associated to $Z$ if $\pi$ is a Hermitian closable representation of $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ on a Krĕ̆n space $\mathcal{K}$ and $\Omega \in \mathcal{D}(\pi)$, the domain of $\pi$, such that $Z(P)=[\pi(P) \Omega, \Omega]_{\mathcal{K}}$ for $P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$, and $\bigvee_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}} \pi(P) \Omega=\mathcal{D}(\pi)$ (see [2, 13]). The numbers $s_{\sigma}=Z\left(Y_{\sigma}\right)$, $\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$, are called the moments of $Z$.

Conversely, to any family of complex numbers $\Sigma=\left(s_{\sigma}\right)_{\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}}$, we can associate the kernel

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\Sigma}(\sigma, \tau)=s_{\mathfrak{J}(\sigma) \tau}, \quad \sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and it is easy to see that this kernel satisfies (3.1).

The following is a Hamburger type description of moments.
Theorem 3.1. The complex numbers $s_{\sigma}, \sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$, are the moments of a GNS functional on $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ if and only if there exists a positive definite kernel $L$ on $\mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$such that $-L \leq K \leq L$, where $K(\sigma, \tau)=s_{\mathfrak{J}(\sigma) \tau}, \sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$.

Proof. This result is just another facet of Theorem 2.1. Assume first that the numbers $s_{\sigma}, \sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$, are the moments of a GNS functional on $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$. Let $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, \Omega)$ be a GNS data associated to $Z$. Define $V: \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C}, \mathcal{K})$ by the formula:

$$
V(\sigma) \lambda=\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right)(\lambda \Omega), \quad \sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}
$$

We deduce that for $\sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$and $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
V(\sigma)^{\sharp} V(\tau) \lambda \bar{\nu} & =[V(\tau) \lambda, V(\sigma) \nu]_{\mathcal{K}}=\left[\pi\left(Y_{\tau}\right)(\lambda \Omega), \pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right)(\nu \Omega)\right]_{\mathcal{K}} \\
& =\lambda \bar{\nu}\left[\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}^{*} Y_{\tau}\right) \Omega, \Omega\right]_{\mathcal{K}}=\lambda \bar{\nu} Z\left(Y_{\mathfrak{J}(\sigma) \tau}\right)=\lambda \bar{\nu} K(\sigma, \tau) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, the set $\left\{V(\sigma) \lambda \mid \sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}\right\}$ is total in $\mathcal{K}$, so that $(V, \mathcal{K})$ is a Kolmogorov decomposition of $K$. By Theorem 2.1, there exists a positive definite kernel $L$ on $\mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$such that $-L \leq K \leq L$.

Conversely, let $(V, \mathcal{K})$ be a Kolmogorov decomposition of $K$. Define $\Omega=V(\emptyset)$ and

$$
\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right) \Omega=V(\sigma), \quad \sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}
$$

We notice that $\bigvee_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}} \pi(P) \Omega=\bigvee_{\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}} V(\sigma) \mathbb{C}$, we define $\mathcal{D}(\pi)=\bigvee_{\sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}} V(\sigma) \mathbb{C}$, and we can extend $\pi$ to $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ by linearity. Clearly, $\mathcal{D}(\pi)$ is invariant under $\pi(P)$, $P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$, and $\pi(P) \pi(Q)=\pi(P Q)$. Also, for $k, k^{\prime} \in \mathcal{D}(\pi)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right) k, k^{\prime}\right]_{\mathcal{K}} } & =\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_{k} \pi\left(Y_{\tau_{k}}\right) \Omega, & \left.\sum_{j=1}^{m} d_{j} \pi\left(Y_{\tau_{j}^{\prime}}\right) \Omega\right]_{\mathcal{K}} \\
& =\sum_{k, j=1}^{n, m} c_{k} \bar{d}_{j}\left[\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right) \pi\left(Y_{\tau_{k}}\right) \Omega, \pi\left(Y_{\tau_{j}^{\prime}}\right) \Omega\right]_{\mathcal{K}} \\
& =\sum_{k, j=1}^{n, m} c_{k} \bar{d}_{j}\left[V\left(\sigma \tau_{k}\right) 1, V\left(\tau_{j}^{\prime}\right) 1\right]_{\mathcal{K}}=\sum_{k, j=1}^{n, m} c_{k} \bar{d}_{j} V\left(\tau_{j}^{\prime}\right)^{\sharp} V\left(\sigma \tau_{k}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k, j=1}^{n, m} c_{k} \bar{d}_{j} K\left(\tau_{j}^{\prime}, \sigma \tau_{k}\right)=\sum_{k, j=1}^{n, m} c_{k} \bar{d}_{j} K\left(\Im(\sigma) \tau_{j}^{\prime}, \tau_{k}\right) \\
& =\left[k, \pi\left(Y_{\mathfrak{J}(\sigma)}\right) k^{\prime}\right]_{\mathcal{K}},
\end{array}\right. \text {, }
\end{aligned}
$$

which shows that the domain of $\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right)^{\sharp}$ contains $\mathcal{D}(\pi)$ and

$$
\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right)^{\sharp} \mid \mathcal{D}(\pi)=\pi\left(Y_{\mathfrak{J}(\sigma)}\right)=\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}^{*}\right) .
$$

We can extend this argument and show that the same is true for any $P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$, so that $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, \Omega)$ is a GNS data for $Z(P)=[\pi(P) \Omega, \Omega]_{\mathcal{K}}, P \in \mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$. The moments of $Z$ are

$$
\begin{aligned}
Z\left(Y_{\sigma}\right) & =\left[\pi\left(Y_{\sigma}\right) \Omega, \Omega\right]_{\mathcal{K}}=[V(\sigma) 1, V(\emptyset) 1]_{\mathcal{K}} \\
& =V(\emptyset)^{\sharp} V(\sigma)=K(\emptyset, \sigma)=s_{\mathfrak{J}(\emptyset) \sigma}=s_{\sigma} .
\end{aligned}
$$

As a consequence of the previous result and Theorem 2.2, we deduce a uniqueness condition for the solvability of the Hamburger moment problem for GNS functionals.

Theorem 3.2. Let $s_{\sigma}, \sigma \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$, be the moments of some $G N S$ functional on $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$, and consider the kernel $K(\sigma, \tau)=s_{\mathfrak{I}(\sigma) \tau}, \sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$. Then, there exists a unique GNS functional on $\mathcal{P}_{N}^{0}$ with moments $s_{\sigma}$, if and only if for each positive definite kernel $L$ on $\mathbb{F}_{N}^{+}$such that $-L \leq K \leq L$, there exists $\epsilon>0$ such that either $(0, \epsilon) \subset \rho\left(A_{L}\right)$ or $(-\epsilon, 0) \subset \rho\left(A_{L}\right)$, where $A_{L}$ is the Gram operator of $K$ with respect to $L$.

## 4. Dilations and Decomposition of Kernels

In this section we show that Theorem 2.3 provides a general framework for a version of the Stinespring theorem and for decompositions of Hermitian linear maps. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a unital $*$-algebra, $\mathcal{H}$ a Hilbert space, and let $T: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a linear Hermitian map. A Stinespring dilation of $T$ is, by definition, a triplet $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, B)$ such that:

SD1 $\mathcal{K}$ is a Kreĭn space with a fundamental symmetry $J$, and $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$;
SD2 $\pi: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K})$ is a selfadjoint (that is, $\pi\left(a^{*}\right)=\pi(a)^{\sharp}=J \pi(a)^{*} J$ for all $\left.a \in \mathcal{A}\right)$ representation, such that $T(a)=B^{*} J \pi(a) B$, for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.
If, in addition,
SD3 $\{\pi(a) B \mathcal{H} \mid a \in \mathcal{A}\}$ is total in $\mathcal{K}$,
then the Stinespring dilation $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, B)$ is called minimal.
We consider the action $\phi$ of $\mathcal{A}$ on itself defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(a, x)=x a^{*}, \quad x, a \in \mathcal{A}, \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and a Hermitian kernel is associated to $T$ by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{T}(x, y)=T\left(x y^{*}\right), \quad x, y \in \mathcal{A} . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

It readily follows that $K_{T}$ is $\phi$-invariant, that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{T}(x, \phi(a, y))=T\left(x a y^{*}\right)=K_{T}\left(\phi\left(a^{*}, x\right), y\right), \quad a, x, y \in \mathcal{A} . \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 4.1. Given a minimal Stinespring dilation $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, B)$ of the Hermitian linear map $T: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(x)=\pi\left(x^{*}\right) J B, \quad x \in \mathcal{A}, \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $J$ is a fundamental symmetry of $\mathcal{K}$. Then $(V, \mathcal{K})$ is an invariant Kolmogorov decomposition of the Hermitian kernel $K_{T}$.

In addition, (4.4) establishes a bijective correspondence between the set of minimal Stinespring dilations of $T$ and the set of invariant Kolmogorov decompositions of $K_{T}$.

Proof. Let $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, B)$ be a minimal Stinespring dilation of $T$ and define $(V, \mathcal{K})$ as in (4.4). Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
V(x)^{*} J V(y) & =B^{*} J \pi\left(x^{*}\right)^{*} J \pi\left(y^{*}\right) J B=B^{*} J \pi\left(x y^{*}\right) J B=T\left(x y^{*}\right) \\
& =K_{T}(x, y), \quad x, y \in \mathcal{A} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a) B \mathcal{H}=\bigvee_{x \in \mathcal{A}} V(x) \mathcal{H}$ it follows that $(V, \mathcal{K})$ is a Kolmogorov decomposition of $T$. Let us note that, by the definition of $V$,

$$
\pi(a) V(x)=\pi(a) \pi\left(x^{*}\right) J B=\pi\left(a x^{*}\right) J B=V\left(x a^{*}\right) \quad a, x \in \mathcal{A},
$$

and hence, letting $U=\pi$, it follows that the Kolmogorov decomposition $(V, \mathcal{K})$ is $\phi$-invariant.

Conversely, let $(V, \mathcal{K})$ be an invariant Kolmogorov decomposition of the Hermitian kernel $K_{T}$, that is, there exists a Hermitian representation $U: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K})$ of the multiplicative semigroup $\mathcal{A}$ with involution $*$, such that

$$
U(a) V(x)=V\left(x a^{*}\right), \quad a, x \in \mathcal{A} .
$$

Define $\pi=U$ and $B=J V(1)$. Since $T$ is linear it follows easily that $\pi$ is also linear, hence a selfadjoint representation of the $*$-algebra $\mathcal{A}$ on the Kreĭn space $\mathcal{K}$. Then, taking into account that $V(a)=U\left(a^{*}\right) B$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$, it follows

$$
T(a)=V(a)^{*} J V(1)=B^{*} U\left(a^{*}\right)^{*} J B=B^{*} J U(a) B, \quad a \in \mathcal{A},
$$

and since $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a) B \mathcal{H}=\bigvee_{x \in \mathcal{A}} V(x) \mathcal{H}$ we thus proved that $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, B)$ is a minimal Stinespring dilation of $T$. One easily check that the mapping defined in (4.4) is the inverse of the mapping associating to each invariant Kolmogorov decomposition $(V, \mathcal{K})$ the minimal Stinespring dilation $(\pi, \mathcal{K}, B)$ as above.

Proposition 4.1 reduces the existence of Stinespring dilations of Hermitian maps $T$ to the existence of invariant Kolmogorov decompositions for the Hermitian kernel $K_{T}$ defined as in (4.2). Now the following result is just an application of Theorem 2.3.

Theorem 4.2. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a unital $*$-algebra and let $T: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a linear Hermitian map. The following assertions are equivalent:
(1) There exists a positive definite kernel $L \in \mathcal{B}_{\phi}^{+}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{H})$, $\phi$ given by (4.1), such that $-L \leq K_{T} \leq L$.
(2) $T$ has a minimal Stinespring dilation.

We show now that Wittstock's Decomposition Theorem [20] and Paulsen's Dilation Theorem [16] fit into the framework of invariant Kolmogorov decompositions, more precisely, the following result shows that in case $\mathcal{A}$ is a $C^{*}$-algebra,

Schwartz's boundedness condition for Hermitian kernels represents an extension of the concept of completely bounded map. We use standard terminology from the theory of operator spaces, e.g. see [16] and [10].
Theorem 4.3. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a unital $C^{*}$-algebra and let $T: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ be a linear Hermitian map. The following assertions are equivalent:
(1) $T$ is completely bounded.
(2) There exists a completely positive map $S: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ such that $-S \leq T \leq S$.
(3) There exists a Hilbert space $\mathcal{K}$ with a symmetry $J$, $a$ *-representation $\pi$ : $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{K})$ commuting with $J$, and a bounded operator $B \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ such that

$$
T(a)=B^{*} J \pi(a) B, \quad a \in \mathcal{A}
$$

and $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a) B \mathcal{H}$ is dense in $\mathcal{K}$.
(4) $T=T_{+}-T_{-}$for two completely positive maps $T_{+}$and $T_{-}$.

Proof. In the following we let $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ be the unitary group of $\mathcal{A}$. Then $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ has the involution $\Im(a)=a^{-1}=a^{*}$ and acts on $\mathcal{A}$ by $\phi(a, x)=x a^{*}=x a^{-1}$.
$(1) \Rightarrow(2)$ We use Paulsen's off-diagonal technique. Briefly, assume that $T$ is completely bounded. By Theorem 7.3 in [16], there exist completely positive maps $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ such that the map

$$
F\left(\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right]\right)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\phi_{1}(a) & T(b) \\
T\left(c^{*}\right)^{*} & \phi_{2}(d)
\end{array}\right]
$$

is completely positive. Define $S(a)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\phi_{1}(a)+\phi_{2}(a)\right)$, which is a completely positive map. We can check that $-S \leq T \leq S$. First, let $a \geq 0, a \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $\left[\begin{array}{cc}a & \pm a \\ \pm a & a\end{array}\right] \geq 0$, so that $\left[\begin{array}{cc}\phi_{1}(a) & \pm T(a) \\ \pm T(a) & \phi_{2}(a)\end{array}\right] \geq 0$. In particular, for $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$
\left\langle\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\phi_{1}(a) & \pm T(a) \\
\pm T(a) & \phi_{2}(a)
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
\xi \\
\xi
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{l}
\xi \\
\xi
\end{array}\right]\right\rangle \geq 0
$$

equivalently, $\left\langle\left(\phi_{1}(a) \pm 2 T(a)+\phi_{2}(a)\right) \xi, \xi\right\rangle \geq 0$. Therefore, $S \pm T$ are positive maps. The argument can be extended in a straightforward manner (using the so-called canonical shuffle as in [16]) to show that $S \pm T$ are completely positive maps.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ Since $S$ is completely positive, the kernel $K_{S}$ is positive definite and satisfies $-K_{S} \leq K_{T} \leq K_{S}$. Also,

$$
K_{S}(x, \phi(a, y))=K_{S}\left(\phi\left(a^{-1}, x\right), y\right), \quad a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}), x, y \in \mathcal{A}
$$

By Theorem 4.3 in [8], there exists a Kolmogorov decomposition $(V, \mathcal{K})$ of $K_{T}$ and a fundamentally reducible representation $U$ of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ on $\mathcal{K}$ such that

$$
U(a) V(x)=V\left(x a^{-1}\right), \quad a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}), x \in \mathcal{A}
$$

Let $J$ be a fundamental symmetry on $\mathcal{K}$ such that $U(a) J=J U(a)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$. Then $U$ is also a representation of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ on the Hilbert space $\left(\mathcal{K},\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_{J}\right)$. Also, for $a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$,

$$
T(a)=K_{T}(a, 1)=V(a)^{*} J V(1)=V(1)^{*} J U(a) V(1)
$$

Since $\mathcal{A}$ is the linear span of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ and $T$ is linear, $U$ can be extended by linearity to a representation $\pi$ of $\mathcal{A}$ on $\mathcal{K}$ commuting with $J$ and such that

$$
T(a)=V(1)^{*} J \pi(a) V(1)
$$

holds for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Also, we have $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})} U(a) V(1) \mathcal{H}=\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})} V\left(a^{-1}\right) \mathcal{H}=$ $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})} V(a) \mathcal{H}$ and using once again the fact that $\mathcal{A}$ is the linear span of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$, we deduce that $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{A}} U(a) V(1) \mathcal{H}$ is dense in $\mathcal{K}$.
$(3) \Rightarrow(4)$ We define for $a \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$
V(a)=\pi\left(a^{*}\right) B .
$$

Then $V(a)$ is in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ and $\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{A}} V(a) \mathcal{H}=\bigvee_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a) B \mathcal{H}$. $\mathcal{K}$ becomes a Krĕ̆n space by setting $[x, y]_{\mathcal{K}}=\langle J x, y\rangle, x, y \in \mathcal{K}$. Also, for $\xi, \eta \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle V(x)^{*} J V(y) \xi, \eta\right\rangle & =\langle J V(y) \xi, V(x) \eta\rangle=\left\langle J \pi\left(y^{*}\right) B \xi, \pi\left(x^{*}\right) B \eta\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle J \pi\left(x y^{*}\right) B \xi, B \eta\right\rangle=\left\langle T\left(x y^{*}\right) \xi, \eta\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle K_{T}(x, y) \xi, \eta\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

so that $(V, \mathcal{K})$ is a Kolmogorov decomposition of $K_{T}$. Let $J=J_{+}-J_{-}$be the Jordan decomposition of $J$ and define the Hermitian kernels

$$
K_{ \pm}(x, y)=V(x)^{*} J_{ \pm} V(y)
$$

One can check that

$$
K_{ \pm}(x, \phi(a, y))=K_{ \pm}\left(\phi\left(a^{-1}, x\right), y\right)
$$

for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ and $a \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$. For $x \in \mathcal{A}$ define

$$
T_{ \pm}(x)=K_{ \pm}(x, 1)
$$

Then $T_{ \pm}(x)=B J \pi\left(x^{*}\right)^{*} J_{ \pm} V(1)$ are linear maps on $\mathcal{A}$ and for $x \in \mathcal{A}, y \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
K_{T_{ \pm}}(x, y) & =T_{ \pm}\left(x y^{-1}\right)=K_{ \pm}\left(x y^{-1}, 1\right) \\
& =K_{ \pm}(\phi(y, x), 1)=K_{ \pm}\left(x, \phi\left(y^{-1}, 1\right)\right) \\
& =K_{ \pm}(x, y)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $K_{T_{ \pm}}$and $K_{ \pm}$are antilinear in the second variable and $\mathcal{A}$ is the linear span of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$, it follows that

$$
K_{T_{ \pm}}(x, y)=K_{ \pm}(x, y)
$$

for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$. This implies that $T_{ \pm}$are disjoint completely positive maps such that $T=T_{+}-T_{-}$. The implication $(4) \Rightarrow(1)$ is clear.

Theorem 4.3 suggests how to extend the concept of decomposition to arbitrary kernels. In the following we repeatedly use the following observation: if $L$ is a positive definite kernel on $X$ and with values in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, and $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, then the kernel $T^{*} L T$ is positive definite. Thus, if $K$ is a Hermitian kernel, $L$ is a positive
definite kernel, both on a set $X$ and with entries in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, for some Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$, then for any $x, y \in X$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]^{*}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
L(x, y) & K(x, y) \\
K(x, y) & L(x, y)
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]} \\
& =2\left[\begin{array}{cc}
L(x, y)+K(x, y) & 0 \\
0 & L(x, y)-K(x, y)
\end{array}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\left[\begin{array}{cc}L & K \\ K & L\end{array}\right]$ is positive definite if and only if both $L+K$ and $L-K$ are positive definite, that is, if and only if the Schwartz condition $-L \leq K \leq L$ holds.

Following U. Haagerup [12], this observation and Theorem 4.3 suggest the following definition: a kernel $K: X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ is called decomposable if there exist two positive definite kernels $L_{1}, L_{2}: X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ such that the kernel $\left[\begin{array}{cc}L_{1} & K \\ K^{*} & L_{2}\end{array}\right]$ is positive definite. Clearly, a kernel $K$ is decomposable if and only if it is a linear combination of positive definite kernels. Actually, it is easy to see that any decomposable kernel can be written as linear combination of at most four positive definite kernels. The next result can be viewed as an analog of V. Paulsen dilation theorem [16].

Theorem 4.4. The kernel $K$ is decomposable if and only if there is a Hilbert space $\mathcal{K}$, a mapping $V: X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$, and a contraction $U$ on $\mathcal{K}$ such that $K(x, y)=$ $V(x)^{*} U V(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$, and the set $\{V(x) h \mid x \in X, h \in \mathcal{H}\}$ is total in $\mathcal{K}$.

Proof. If $K(x, y)=V(x)^{*} U V(y)$ for $x, y \in X$ and some contraction $U$, then consider the positive definite kernels $L_{1}(x, y)=L_{2}(x, y)=V(x)^{*} V(y)$. We deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\begin{array}{cc}
L_{1}(x, y) & K(x, y) \\
K^{*}(x, y) & L_{2}(x, y)
\end{array}\right] } & =\left[\begin{array}{cc}
V(x)^{*} V(y) & V(x)^{*} U V(y) \\
V(x)^{*} U^{*} V(y) & V(x)^{*} V(y)
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{cc}
V(x)^{*} & 0 \\
0 & V(x)^{*}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & U \\
U^{*} & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
V(y) & 0 \\
0 & V(y)
\end{array}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $U$ is a contraction, the matrix $\left[\begin{array}{cc}I & U \\ U^{*} & I\end{array}\right]$ is positive. Next, take $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in$ $X$ and after reshuffling, the matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
L_{1}\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) & K\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \\
K^{*}\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) & L_{2}\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)
\end{array}\right]_{i, j=1}^{n}
$$

can be written in the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n}\left(V\left(x_{i}\right)^{*} \oplus V\left(x_{i}\right)^{*}\right)\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & U \\
U^{*} & I
\end{array}\right] \otimes\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
I & I & \ldots & I \\
I & I & \ldots & I \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\
I & I & & I
\end{array}\right]\right)\right. \\
& \quad \times\left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^{n}\left(V\left(x_{j}\right) \oplus V\left(x_{j}\right)\right)\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

which shows that the kernel $\left[\begin{array}{ll}L_{1}(x, y) & K(x, y) \\ K^{*}(x, y) & L_{2}(x, y)\end{array}\right]$ is positive definite.
Conversely, assume that $K$ is decomposable. We consider the real and imaginary parts of $K$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& K_{1}(x, y)=\frac{1}{2}\left(K(x, y)+K^{*}(x, y)\right),  \tag{4.5}\\
& K_{2}(x, y)=\frac{1}{2 \mathrm{i}}\left(K(x, y)-K^{*}(x, y)\right), \tag{4.6}
\end{align*}
$$

therefore $K_{1}, K_{2}$ are Hermitian kernels and $K=K_{1}+\mathrm{i} K_{2}$. Since $K$ is decomposable, there exist positive definite kernels $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ such that the kernel $\left[\begin{array}{ll}L_{1} & K \\ K^{*} & L_{2}\end{array}\right]$ is positive definite. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]^{*}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
L_{1} & K \\
K^{*} & L_{2}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]} \\
& \quad=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
L_{1}+K^{*}+K+L_{2} & L_{1}+K-K^{*}-L_{2} \\
L_{1}+K^{*}-K-L_{2} & L_{1}-K^{*}-K+L_{2}
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

is also a positive definite kernel, which implies that $-\frac{1}{2}\left(L_{1}+L_{2}\right) \leq K_{1} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(L_{1}+\right.$ $L_{2}$ ). Similarly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \mathrm{i} \\
-\mathrm{i} & -1
\end{array}\right]^{*}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
L_{1} & K \\
K^{*} & L_{2}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \mathrm{i} \\
-\mathrm{i} & -1
\end{array}\right]} \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{cc}
L_{1}+\mathrm{i} K^{*}-\mathrm{i} K+L_{2} & \mathrm{i} L_{1}-K^{*}+K-\mathrm{i} L_{2} \\
-\mathrm{i} L_{1}-K+K^{*}+\mathrm{i} L_{2} & L_{1}-\mathrm{i} K^{*}+\mathrm{i} K+L_{2}
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

is a positive definite kernel, which gives that $-\frac{1}{2}\left(L_{1}+L_{2}\right) \leq K_{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(L_{1}+L_{2}\right)$. Since $\frac{1}{2}\left(L_{1}+L_{2}\right)$ is a positive definite kernel, we deduce from Theorem 2.1 that both $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ have Kolmogorov decompositions, say

$$
K_{i}(x, y)=V_{i}(x)^{*} J_{1} V_{i}(y), \quad i=1,2,
$$

where $V_{i}: X \rightarrow \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K}_{i}\right)$ and $J_{i}$ are fundamental symmetries on $\mathcal{K}_{i}, i=1,2$. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
K(x, y) & =V_{1}(x)^{*} J_{1} V_{1}(y)+\mathrm{i} V_{2}(x)^{*} J_{2} V_{2}(y) \\
& =\left[\begin{array}{l}
V_{1}(x) \\
V_{2}(x)
\end{array}\right]^{*}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
J_{1} & 0 \\
0 & \mathrm{i} J_{2}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
V_{1}(y) \\
V_{2}(y)
\end{array}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $V^{\prime}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{l}V_{1}(x) \\ V_{2}(x)\end{array}\right]: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{1} \oplus \mathcal{K}_{2}$ and let $\mathcal{K}$ be the closure in $\mathcal{K}_{1} \oplus \mathcal{K}_{2}$ of the linear space generated by the elements of the form $V^{\prime}(x) h, x \in X$ and $h \in \mathcal{H}$. Finally, define $V(x)=P_{\mathcal{K}} V^{\prime}(x)$, where $P_{\mathcal{K}}$ denotes the orthogonal projection of $\mathcal{K}_{1} \oplus \mathcal{K}_{2}$ onto $\mathcal{K}$. Then the set $\{V(x) h \mid x \in X, h \in \mathcal{H}\}$ is total in $\mathcal{K}$ and $K(x, y)=V(x)^{*} P_{\mathcal{K}}\left[\begin{array}{cc}J_{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathrm{i} J_{2}\end{array}\right] P_{\mathcal{K}} V(y)$. The operator $U=P_{\mathcal{K}}\left[\begin{array}{cc}J_{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathrm{i} J_{2}\end{array}\right] P_{\mathcal{K}}$ is a contraction and the proof is concluded.

## 5. Holomorphic Kernels

There are many examples of Hermitian kernels which are holomorphic on some domain in the complex plane, see for instance [5]. In all these cases it is known that the kernels are associated with reproducing kernel Krein (Hilbert) spaces, and $D$. Alpay in [3] proved a general result in this direction. Our goal is to extend the result in [3] to the multi-variable case. In view of the transcription between Kolmogorov decompositions and reproducing kernel spaces, e.g. see the invariant version in Theorem 2.4, we actually show that the original idea of the proof in [3], which goes back to [18], can be adapted to this multi-variable setting.

We first review the well-known example of the Szegö kernel (see [4]). Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a Hilbert space and denote by $B_{r}(\xi)$ the open ball of radius $r$ and center $\xi$, $B_{r}(\xi)=\{\eta \in \mathcal{G} \mid\|\eta-\xi\|<r\}$. We write $B_{r}$ instead of $B_{r}(0)$. For $\xi, \eta \in B_{1}$, define

$$
\begin{equation*}
S(\xi, \eta)=\frac{1}{1-\langle\eta, \xi\rangle}, \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and note that $S$ is a positive definite kernel on $B_{1}$. We now describe its Kolmogorov decomposition. Let

$$
F(\mathcal{G})=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{G}^{\otimes n}
$$

be the Fock space associated to $\mathcal{G}$, where $\mathcal{G}^{\otimes 0}=\mathbb{C}$ and $\mathcal{G}^{\otimes n}$ is the $n$-fold tensor product of $\mathcal{G}$ with itself. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}=\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in S_{n}} \hat{\pi} \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the orthogonal projection of $\mathcal{G}^{\otimes n}$ onto its symmetric part, where

$$
\hat{\pi}\left(\xi_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \xi_{n}\right)=\xi_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes \xi_{\pi^{-1}(n)}
$$

and $\pi$ is an element of the permutation group $S_{n}$ on $n$ symbols. The symmetric Fock space is $F^{s}(\mathcal{G})=\left(\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{n}\right) F(\mathcal{G})$. For $\xi \in B_{1}$ set $\xi^{\otimes 0}=1$ and let $\xi^{\otimes n}$ denote the $n$-fold tensor product $\xi \otimes \cdots \otimes \xi, n \geq 1$. Note that

$$
\left\|\bigoplus_{n \geq 0} \xi^{\otimes n}\right\|^{2}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\left\|\xi^{\otimes n}\right\|^{2}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\|\xi\|^{2 n}=\frac{1}{1-\|\xi\|^{2}}
$$

Hence $\bigoplus_{n \geq 0} \xi^{\otimes n} \in F^{s}(\mathcal{G})$ and we can define the mapping $V_{S}$ from $B_{1}$ into $F^{s}(\mathcal{G})$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{S}(\xi)=\bigoplus_{n \geq 0} \xi^{\otimes n}, \quad \xi \in B_{1} \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 5.1. The pair $\left(V_{S}, F^{s}(\mathcal{G})\right)$ is the Kolmogorov decomposition of the kernel $S$.
Proof. $V_{S}(\xi)$ is also viewed as a bounded linear operator from $\mathbb{C}$ into $F^{s}(\mathcal{G})$ by $V_{S}(\xi) \lambda=\lambda V_{S}(\xi), \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, so that, for $\xi, \eta \in B_{1}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{S}(\xi)^{*} V_{S}(\eta) & =\left\langle V_{S}(\eta), V_{S}(\xi)\right\rangle \\
& =\sum_{n \geq 0}\left\langle\eta^{\otimes n}, \xi^{\otimes n}\right\rangle \\
& =\sum_{n \geq 0}\langle\eta, \xi\rangle^{n}=\frac{1}{1-\langle\eta, \xi\rangle}=S(\xi, \eta)
\end{aligned}
$$

The set $\left\{V_{S}(\xi) \mid \xi \in B_{1}\right\}$ is total in $F^{s}(\mathcal{G})$ since for $n \geq 1$ and $\xi \in \mathcal{G}$ we have $\left.\frac{d^{n}}{d t^{n}} V(t \xi)\right|_{t=0}=n!\xi^{\otimes n}$.

The reproducing kernel Hilbert space associated to the Szegö kernel $S$, see (5.1), is given by the completion of the linear space generated by the functions $s_{\eta}=S(\cdot, \eta), \eta \in B_{1}$, with respect to the inner product defined by

$$
\left\langle s_{\eta}, s_{\xi}\right\rangle=S(\xi, \eta)
$$

Note that there exists a unitary operator $\mathcal{F}$ from the reproducing kernel Hilbert space associated to the Szegö kernel $S$ onto $F^{s}(\mathcal{G})$ such that $\mathcal{F} s_{\xi}=V_{S}(\xi), \xi \in B_{1}$.

We now explore the fact that $S$ is a holomorphic kernel. We use the terminology and results from $[9,15]$ for holomorphic functions in infinite dimensions. Thus, we say that a scalar-valued function $f$ defined on the open subset $\mathcal{O}$ of $\mathcal{G}$ is holomorphic if $f$ is continuous on $\mathcal{O}$ and for all $\eta \in \mathcal{O}, \xi \in \mathcal{G}$, the mapping $\lambda \rightarrow f(\eta+\lambda \xi)$ is holomorphic on the open set $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \eta+\lambda \xi \in \mathcal{O}\}$. One easily check that $S(\xi, \cdot)$ is holomorphic on $B_{1}$ for each fixed $\xi \in B_{1}$. We also notice that the reproducing kernel Hilbert space associated to $S$ consists of anti-holomorphic functions on $B_{1}$. It is somewhat more convenient to replace this space by a Hilbert space of holomorphic functions on $B_{1}$. Thus, define the holomorphic function $a_{\xi}=S(\xi, \cdot)$ on $B_{1}$ for each $\xi \in B_{1}$, and let $H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$ denote the completion of the
linear space generated by the functions $a_{\xi}, \xi \in B_{1}$, with respect to the inner product defined by

$$
\left\langle a_{\xi}, a_{\eta}\right\rangle=S(\xi, \eta), \quad \xi, \eta \in B_{1}
$$

We notice that $H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$ is an anti-unitary copy of the reproducing kernel Hilbert space of $S$.

We say that a scalar-valued Hermitian kernel $K$, defined on an open subset $\mathcal{O}$ of $\mathcal{G}$, is holomorphic on $\mathcal{O}$ if $K(\xi, \cdot)$ is holomorphic on $\mathcal{O}$ for each fixed $\xi \in \mathcal{O}$.

Theorem 5.2. Any scalar-valued Hermitian holomorphic kernel on $B_{r}, r>0$ has a Kolmogorov decomposition on some $B_{r^{\prime}}, 0<r^{\prime} \leq r$.

Proof. Let $K$ be a scalar-valued Hermitian holomorphic kernel on $B_{r}, r>0$. Since $K$ is Hermitian, it follows that $K(\cdot, \eta)$ is anti-holomorphic on $B_{r}$ for each $\eta \in B_{r}$. It is convenient to reformulate this fact as follows. Let $\left\{e_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in A}$ be an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{G}$. We define the mapping

$$
\xi=\sum_{\alpha \in A}\left\langle\xi, e_{\alpha}\right\rangle e_{\alpha} \rightarrow \sum_{\alpha \in A} \overline{\left\langle\xi, e_{\alpha}\right\rangle} e_{\alpha}=\xi^{*}
$$

so that the function $f(\xi, \eta)=K\left(\xi^{*}, \eta\right)$ is separately holomorphic on $B_{r} \times B_{r}$. By Hartogs' Theorem ([15], Theorem 36.8), $f$ is holomorphic on $B_{r} \times B_{r}$. By ([15], Proposition 8.6), $f$ is locally bounded. We first suppose that $r>1$. Hence there exist $1<\rho<r$ and $C>0$ such that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
|K(\xi, \eta)| \leq C \quad \text { for } \quad \xi, \eta \in B_{\rho} \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
K\left(\xi^{*}, \eta\right)=\sum_{m \geq 0} p_{m}(\xi, \eta) \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

uniformly on $B_{\rho}$, where each $p_{m}, m \geq 0$, is an $m$-homogeneous continuous polynomial on $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G}$. That is (see [15] or [9], Chapter 1), there exists a continuous linear mapping $A_{m}$ on $P_{m}\left((\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G})^{\otimes m}\right)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{m}(\xi, \eta)=A_{m}\left((\xi, \eta)^{\otimes m}\right) \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $\xi, \eta \in \mathcal{G}$.
Using Cauchy Inequalities, [9], Proposition 3.2, for $B_{\rho}$, we deduce

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|A_{m}\right\| \leq\left\|p_{m}\right\| \leq C \frac{1}{\rho^{m}} \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{m \geq 0}\left\|A_{m}\right\|^{2} \leq C \sum_{m \geq 0} \frac{1}{\rho^{2 m}}=C \frac{1}{1-1 / \rho^{2}}=C^{\prime}<\infty \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The previous facts are valid with respect to the norm $\|(\xi, \eta)\|=\max \{\|\xi\|,\|\eta\|\}$.
Since this norm is equivalent to the Hilbert norm $\|(\xi, \eta)\|=\sqrt{\|\xi\|^{2}+\|\eta\|^{2}}$, we deduce that each $A_{m}$ is also continuous with respect to this Hilbert norm on
$\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G}$. By Riesz representation theorem, there exist $a_{m} \in P_{m}(\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G})^{\otimes m}, m \geq 0$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{m}\left((\xi, \eta)^{\otimes m}\right)=\left\langle(\xi, \eta)^{\otimes m}, a_{m}\right\rangle \tag{5.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|a_{m}\right\|=\left\|A_{m}\right\| \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

(with $a_{0}=A_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$ ). Taking into account that $P_{m}(\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G})^{\otimes m}$ is isometrically isomorphic to $\left(P_{m} \mathcal{G}^{\otimes m}\right)^{\oplus(m+1)}$, we deduce that there exist $a_{m}^{k} \in P_{m} \mathcal{G}^{\otimes m}, k=0, \ldots, m$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle(\xi, \eta)^{\otimes m}, a_{m}\right\rangle=\sum_{k=0}^{m}\left\langle b_{m}^{k}(\xi, \eta), a_{m}^{k}\right\rangle \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{m}\left\|a_{m}^{k}\right\|^{2}=\left\|a_{m}\right\|^{2} \tag{5.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $b_{0}^{0}=1$ and $b_{m}^{k}(\xi, \eta)=\xi^{\otimes(m-k)} \otimes \eta^{\otimes k}, m \geq 1, k=0, \ldots, m$.
We now show that for each fixed $\xi \in B_{1}, g_{\xi}(\eta)=K(\xi, \eta)$ belongs to $H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$. By (5.5), (5.6), (5.9), and (5.11),

$$
K(\xi, \eta)=\sum_{m \geq 0} \sum_{k=0}^{m}\left\langle b_{m}^{k}\left(\xi^{*}, \eta\right), a_{m}^{k}\right\rangle,
$$

and the series converges absolutely on $\eta$ by (5.7). Reordering to $m$-homogeneous terms in $\eta$,

$$
K(\xi, \eta)=\sum_{k \geq 0} \sum_{m \geq k}\left\langle b_{m}^{k}\left(\xi^{*}, \eta\right), a_{m}^{k}\right\rangle .
$$

For fixed $\xi$ define $F_{k}(\eta)=\sum_{m \geq k}\left\langle b_{m}^{k}\left(\xi^{*}, \eta\right), a_{m}^{k}\right\rangle$. By Schwarz inequality,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|F_{k}(\eta)\right\|^{2} & \leq\left(\sum_{m \geq k}\left\|b_{m}^{k}\left(\xi^{*}, \eta\right)\right\|^{2}\right)\left(\sum_{m \geq k}\left\|a_{m}^{k}\right\|^{2}\right) \\
& =\|\eta\|^{2 k}\left(\sum_{m \geq k}\|\xi\|^{2(m-k)}\right)\left(\sum_{m \geq k}\left\|a_{m}^{k}\right\|^{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{\|\eta\|^{2 k}}{1-\|\xi\|^{2}} \sum_{m \geq k}\left\|a_{m}^{k}\right\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies

$$
\left\|F_{k}\right\| \leq \frac{1}{1-\|\xi\|^{2}} \sum_{m \geq k}\left\|a_{m}^{k}\right\|^{2}
$$

Finally,

$$
\left\|g_{\xi}\right\|_{H^{2}(\mathcal{G})}^{2}=\sum_{k \geq 0}\left\|F_{k}\right\|^{2} \leq \frac{1}{1-\|\xi\|^{2}} \sum_{k \geq 0} \sum_{m \geq k}\left\|a_{m}^{k}\right\|^{2} .
$$

By (5.8), (5.10), and (5.12), we deduce that

$$
\left\|g_{\xi}\right\|_{H^{2}(\mathcal{G})}^{2} \leq \frac{1}{1-\|\xi\|^{2}} \sum_{m \geq 0}\left\|A_{m}\right\|^{2} \leq C^{\prime} \frac{1}{1-\|\xi\|^{2}}
$$

This shows that $g_{\xi} \in H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$ and, more than that, the formula

$$
\mathcal{P} a_{\xi}=g_{\xi}
$$

gives a bounded linear operator $\mathcal{P}$ on $H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$, such that

$$
K(\xi, \eta)=g_{\xi}(\eta)=\left(\mathcal{P} a_{\xi}\right)(\eta)=\left\langle\mathcal{P} a_{\xi}, a_{\eta}\right\rangle_{H^{2}(\mathcal{G})}
$$

This implies that $\mathcal{P}$ is selfadjoint and let $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{P}_{+}-\mathcal{P}_{-}$be its Jordan decomposition, where $\mathcal{P}_{ \pm}$are positive operators on $H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$. Then $K$ can be written as the difference of two positive definite kernels. By [18] and Theorem 2.3, $K$ has a Kolmogorov decomposition. In case $r \leq 1$, a scalling argument as in [3] concludes the proof.

As mentioned, the above proof is based on the same idea as in [3], which goes back to [18]. An interesting aspect of this idea is that once again the Szegö kernel $S$ has a certain universality property, that is, any holomorphic kernel on $B_{r}, r>1$, is the image of $S$ through a bounded selfadjoint operator on $H^{2}(\mathcal{G})$. A different kind of universality property of $S$, related to the solution of the Nevanlinna-Pick interpolation problem, was established in [1].

Finally we apply Theorem 5.2 to show that non-Hermitian holomorphic kernels are decomposable. A kernel $K: \mathcal{O} \times \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, where $\mathcal{O}$ is an open subset of some Hilbert space $\mathcal{G}$, is holomorphic on $\mathcal{O}$ if, for any fixed $\xi \in \mathcal{O}$, the function $K(\xi, \cdot): \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is holomorphic and, for any fixed $\eta \in \mathcal{O}$, the function $K(\cdot, \eta): \mathcal{O} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{C}$ is anti-holomorphic.
Corollary 5.3. Any scalar-valued holomorphic kernel $K$ on $B_{r}, r>0$, is decomposable on some $B_{r^{\prime}}, 0<r^{\prime} \leq r$.

Proof. We consider the real part $K_{1}(4.5)$ and, respectively, the imaginary part $K_{2}$ (4.6) of $K$ and note that both are holomorphic Hermitian kernels. Then we apply Theorem 5.2 to produce Kolmogorov decompositions of $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ on a possibly smaller, but nontrivial, ball $B_{r^{\prime}}$ in $\mathcal{G}$ and, proceeding as in the proof of Theorem 4.4, we obtain the decomposition of $K$ as required.

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