# HOLOMORPHIC FOCK SPACES FOR POSITIVE LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS 

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#### Abstract

Suppose $A$ is a positive real linear transformation on a finite dimensional complex inner product space $V$. The reproducing kernel for the Fock space of square integrable holomorphic functions on $V$ relative to the Gaussian measure $d \mu_{A}(z)=\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det} A}}{\pi^{n}} e^{-\operatorname{Re}(A z, z)} d z$ is described in terms of the linear and antilinear decomposition of the linear operator $A$. Moreover, if $A$ commutes with a conjugation on $V$, then a restriction mapping to the real vectors in $V$ is polarized to obtain a Segal-Bargmann transform, which we also study in the Gaussian-measure setting.


## Introduction

The classical Segal-Bargmann transform is an integral transform which defines a unitary isomorphism of $L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$ onto the space $\mathrm{F}\left(\mathrm{C}^{n}\right)$ of entire functions on $\mathrm{C}^{n}$ which are square integrable with respect to the Gaussian measure $\mu=\pi^{-n} e^{-\|z\|^{2}} d x d y$, where $d x d y$ stands for the Lebesgue measure on $\mathrm{R}^{2 n} \simeq \mathrm{C}^{n}$, see [1], [3], [4], [5], [11], [12]. There have been several generalizations of this transform, based on the heat equation or the representation theory of Lie groups [6], [10], [13]. In particular, it was shown in [10] that the Segal-Bargmann transform is a special case of the restriction principle, i.e., construction of unitary isomorphisms based on the polarization of a restriction map. This principle was first introduced in [10], see also [9], where several examples were explained from that point of view. In short the restriction principle can be explained in the following way. Let $M_{\mathrm{C}}$ be a complex manifold and let $M \subset M_{\mathrm{C}}$ be a totally real submanifold. Let $\mathrm{F}=\mathrm{F}\left(M_{\mathrm{C}}\right)$ be a Hilbert space of holomorphic functions on $M_{\mathrm{C}}$ such that the evaluation maps $\mathrm{F} \ni F \mapsto F(z) \in \mathrm{C}$ are continuous for all $z \in M_{\mathrm{C}}$, i.e., F is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space. There exists a function $K: M_{\mathrm{C}} \times M_{\mathrm{C}} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ holomorphic in the first variable, anti-holomorphic in the second variable, and such that the following hold:
(a) $K(z, w)=\overline{K(w, z)}$ for all $z, w \in M_{\mathrm{C}}$;

[^0](b) If $K_{w}(z):=K(z, w)$ then $K_{w} \in \mathrm{~F}$ and
$$
F(w)=\left\langle F, K_{w}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{F}}, \quad \forall F \in \mathrm{~F}, z \in M_{\mathrm{C}}
$$

The function $K$ is the reproducing kernel for the Hilbert space $F$. Let $D$ : $M \rightarrow \mathrm{C}^{*}$ be measurable. Then the restriction map $R: F \mapsto R F:=\left.D F\right|_{M}$ is injective. Assume that there is a measure $\mu$ on $M$ such that $R F \in L^{2}(M, \mu)$ for all $F$ in a dense subset of F . Assuming that $R$ is closeable, $\operatorname{Im}(R)$ is dense in $L^{2}(M, \mu)$, and by polarizing $R^{*}$, we can write

$$
R^{*}=U\left|R^{*}\right|
$$

where $U: L^{2}(M, \mu) \rightarrow \mathrm{F}$ is a unitary isomorphism and $\left|R^{*}\right|=\sqrt{R R^{*}}$. Using the fact that F is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space we get

$$
U f(z)=\left\langle U f, K_{z}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{F}}=\left\langle f, U^{*} K_{z}\right\rangle_{L^{2}}=\int_{M} f(m) \overline{\left(U^{*} K_{z}\right)(m)} d \mu(m)
$$

Thus $U$ is always an integral operator. We notice also that the formula for $U$ shows that the important object in this analysis is the reproducing kernel $K(z, w)$.

We will use the following notation through this article: Let $\langle z, w\rangle=z_{1} \overline{w_{1}}+$ $\cdots+z_{n} \overline{w_{n}}$ be the standard inner product on $\mathrm{C}^{n}$ and let $(z, w)=\operatorname{Re}(\langle z, w\rangle)$ be the corresponding inner product on $\mathrm{C}^{n}$ viewed as a $2 n$-dimensional real vector spaces. Notice that $(x, y)=\langle x, y\rangle=x_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+x_{n} y_{n}$ for $x, y \in \mathrm{R}^{n}$. We write $z^{2}=z_{1}^{2}+\cdots+z_{n}^{2}$ for $z \in \mathbf{C}^{n}$.

The reproducing kernel for the classical Fock space is given by $K(z, w)=$ $e^{\langle z, w\rangle}$, where $z, w \in \mathrm{C}^{n}$. By taking $D(x):=(2 \pi)^{-n / 4} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$, for $x \in \mathrm{R}^{n}$, which is closely related to the heat kernel, we arrive at the classical Segal-Bargmann transform, given as the holomorphic continuation of

$$
U g(x)=(2 / \pi)^{n / 4} e^{x^{2} / 2} \int_{\mathrm{R}^{n}} g(y) e^{-(x-y)^{2}} d y
$$

Notice that $\mathrm{R}^{n} \ni x \mapsto U g(x) \in \mathrm{C}$ has a unique holomorphic extension to $\mathrm{C}^{n}$.
The same principle can be used to construct the Hall-transform for compact Lie groups, [6]. In [2], Driver and Hall, motivated by application to quantum Yang-Mills theory, introduced a Fock space and Segal-Bargmann transform depending on two parameters $r, s>0$, giving different weights to the $x$ and $y$ directions, where $z=x+i y \in \mathrm{C}^{n}$ (this was also studied in [13]). Thus F is now the space of holomorphic functions $F(z)$ on $\mathrm{C}^{n}$ which are square-integrable with respect to the Gaussian measure $d M_{r, s}(z)=\frac{1}{(\pi r)^{n / 2}(\pi s)^{n / 2}} e^{-\frac{x^{2}}{r}-\frac{v^{2}}{s}} d x d y$. A Segal-Bargmann transform for this Fock space is given in [13] and in Theorem 3
of [7]. We show this is a very special case of a larger family of Fock spaces and associated Segal-Bargmann tranforms. Indeed, if $A$ is a real linear positive definite matrix $A$ on a complex inner product space $V$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \mu_{A}(z)=\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(A)}}{\pi^{n}} e^{-(A z, z)}|d z| \tag{0.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

gives rise to a Fock space $F_{A}$. We find an expression for the reproducing kernel $K_{A}(z, w)$. We use the restriction principle to construct a natural generalization of the Segal-Bargmann transform for this space, with a certain natural restriction on $A$. We study this also in the Gaussian setting, and indicate a generalization to infinite dimensions.

We will fix the following notation for the types of bilinear pairings that we shall be using in this paper:
(i) $\langle z, w\rangle$ denotes a Hermitian inner product on a complex vector space $V$, i.e., a pairing which is complex-linear in $z$, complex-conjugate-linear in $w$, and $\langle z, z\rangle>0$ if $z \neq 0$. We denote by $\|z\|=\sqrt{\langle z, z\rangle}$ the corresponding norm;
(ii) $(x, y)$ denotes an inner product on $V$ viewed as a real vector space. The standard choice is $(x, y)=\operatorname{Re}\langle x, y\rangle$;
(iii) $z \cdot w$ denotes a complex-bilinear pairing. In the standard situation we have $z \cdot w=\langle z, \bar{w}\rangle$. We set $z^{2}=z \cdot z$.

## 1. The Fock space and the restriction principle

In this section we recall some standard facts about the classical Fock space of holomorphic functions on $\mathrm{C}^{n}$. We refer to [5] for details and further information. Let $\mu$ be the measure $d \mu(z)=\pi^{-n} e^{-\|z\|^{2}} d x d y$ and let F be the classical Fock-space of holomorphic functions $F: \mathrm{C}^{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ such that

$$
\|F\|_{\mathrm{F}}^{2}:=\int_{\mathrm{C}^{n}}|F(z)|^{2} d \mu(z)<\infty
$$

The space $F$ is a reproducing Hilbert space with inner product

$$
\langle F, G\rangle_{\mathrm{F}}=\int_{\mathrm{C}^{n}} F(z) \overline{G(z)} d \mu(z)
$$

and reproducing kernel $K(z, w)=e^{\langle z, w\rangle}$.
Thus

$$
F(w)=\int_{\mathrm{C}^{n}} F(z) \overline{K(z, w)} d \mu(z)=\left\langle F, K_{w}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{F}}
$$

where $K_{w}(z)=K(z, w)$. The function $K(z, w)$ is holomorphic in the first variable, anti-holomorphic in the second variable, and $K(z, w)=\overline{K(w, z)}$. Notice that $K(z, z)=\left\langle K_{z}, K_{z}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{F}}$. Hence $\left\|K_{z}\right\|_{\mathrm{F}}=e^{\|z\|^{2} / 2}$. Finally the linear space of finite linear combinations $\sum c_{j} K_{z_{j}}, z_{j} \in \mathrm{C}^{n}, c_{j} \in \mathrm{C}$, is dense in F . An orthonormal system in F is given by the monomials $e_{\alpha}(z)=z_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots z_{n}^{\alpha_{n}} / \sqrt{\alpha_{1}!\cdots \alpha_{n}!}$, $\alpha \in \mathbf{N}_{0}^{n}$. If the reference to the Fock space is clear, then we simply write $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ instead of $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_{\mathrm{F}}$, and similarly for the corresponding norm.

View $\mathrm{R}^{n} \subset \mathrm{C}^{n}$ as a totally real submanifold of $\mathrm{C}^{n}$. We will now recall the construction of the classical Segal-Bargmann transform using the restriction principle, see [9], [10]. For constructing a restriction map as explained in the introduction we need to choose the function $D(x)$. One motivation for the choice of $D$ is the heat kernel, but another one, more closely related to representation theory, is that the restriction map should commute with the action of $\mathrm{R}^{n}$ on the Fock space and $L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$. Indeed, take

$$
T(x) F(z)=m(x, z) F(z-x)
$$

for $F$ in F where $m(x, z)$ has properties sufficient to make $x \mapsto T(x)$ a unitary representation of $\mathrm{R}^{n}$ on F . Namely, we need a multiplier $m$ satisfying

$$
|m(x, z)|=\left(\frac{d \mu(z-x)}{d \mu(z)}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}=e^{\left(\operatorname{Re}(z, x\rangle-x^{2} / 2\right)}
$$

We take $m(x, z):=e^{\langle z, x\rangle-x^{2} / 2}$. Set

$$
D(x)=(2 \pi)^{-n / 4} m(0, x)=(2 \pi)^{-n / 4} e^{-x^{2} / 2}
$$

and define $R: \mathrm{F} \rightarrow C^{\infty}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$ by

$$
R F(x):=D(x) F(x)=(2 \pi)^{-n / 4} e^{-x^{2} / 2} F(x)
$$

Then

$$
R T(y) F(x)=R F(x-y) .
$$

Since $F$ is holomorphic, the map $R$ is injective. Furthermore, the holomorphic polynomials $p(z)=\sum a_{\alpha} z^{\alpha}$ are dense in F and obviously $R p \in L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$. Thus, we may and will consider $R$ as a densely defined operator from F into $L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$. The Hermite functions $h_{\alpha}(x)=(-1)^{|\alpha|}\left(D^{\alpha} e^{-\|x\|^{2}}\right) e^{x^{2} / 2}$ are images under $R$ of polynomials and thus are in the image of the operator $R$. Hence, $\operatorname{Im}(R)$ is dense in $L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$. Using continuity of the evaluation maps $F \mapsto F(z)$, it can be checked that $R$ is a closed operator. Hence, $R$ has a densely-defined adjoint
$R^{*}: L^{2}\left(\mathbf{R}^{n}\right) \rightarrow$ F. For $z, w \in \mathbf{C}^{n}$, recall that $z \cdot w=\sum z_{j} w_{j}$. Then, for any $g$ in the domain of $R^{*}$, we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{*} g(z)=\left\langle R^{*} g, K_{z}\right\rangle=\left\langle g, R K_{z}\right\rangle & =(2 \pi)^{-n / 4} \int_{\mathrm{R}^{n}} g(y) e^{-\|y\|^{2} / 2} e^{z \cdot y} d y \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-n / 4} e^{z^{2} / 2} \int_{\mathrm{R}^{n}} g(y) e^{-(z-y)^{2} / 2} d y \\
& =(2 \pi)^{n / 4} e^{z^{2} / 2} g * p(z)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $p(z)=(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} e^{-z^{2} / 2}$ is holomorphic. Applying the map $R: \mathrm{F} \rightarrow$ $C^{\infty}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
R R^{*} g(x)=g * p(x) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $p \in L^{1}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$ and $g \in L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$, it follows that $g * p \in L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$, and so the preceding equation shows that $R^{*} g$ is in the domain of the operator $R$, and so $g$ is in the domain of the operator composite $R R^{*}$. This argument also shows that $R R^{*}$ is a bounded operator, on its domain, with operator norm $\left\|R R^{*}\right\|\|p\|_{1}$. Moreover, for every $g$ in the domain of $R^{*}$, we have

$$
\left\langle R^{*} g, R^{*} g\right\rangle=\left\langle R R^{*} g, g\right\rangle \leq\left\|R R^{*}\right\|\|g\|_{2} .
$$

Thus $R^{*}$ is a bounded operator. Being an adjoint, it is also closed. Therefore, the domain of $R^{*}$ is in fact the full space $L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right)$. So for any $f \in D(R)$, we have

$$
\langle R f, R f\rangle=\left\langle R^{*}(R f), f\right\rangle \leq\left\|R^{*}\right\|\|R f\|_{2}\|f\|_{2}
$$

which implies that the operator $R$ is bounded. Again, being a closed, denselydefined bounded operator, $R$ is, in fact, defined on all of F . In summary,

Lemma 1.1. The linear operators $R$ and $R^{*}$ are everywhere defined and continuous.

Let $p_{t}(x)=(2 \pi t)^{-n / 2} e^{-x^{2} / 2 t}$ be the heat kernel on $\mathrm{R}^{n}$. Then $\left(p_{t}\right)_{t>0}$ is a convolution semigroup and $p=p_{1}$. Hence $\sqrt{R R^{*}}=p_{1 / 2} *$ or

$$
R U g(x)=\left|R^{*}\right| g(x)=p_{1 / 2} * g(x)=\pi^{-n / 2} \int_{\mathrm{R}^{n}} g(y) e^{-(x-y)^{2}} d y .
$$

It follows that

$$
U g(x)=(2 / \pi)^{n / 4} e^{x^{2} / 2} \int_{\mathrm{R}^{n}} g(y) e^{-(x-y)^{2}} d y
$$

for $x \in \mathrm{R}^{n}$. But the function on the right hand side is holomorphic in $x$. Analytic continuation gives the following classical Segal-Bargmann tranform.

Theorem 1.2. The map $U: L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{F}$ given by

$$
U g(z)=(2 / \pi)^{n / 4} \int_{\mathrm{R}^{n}} g(y) \exp \left(-y^{2}+2\langle z, y\rangle-z^{2} / 2\right) d y
$$

is a unitary isomorphism.

## 2. Twisted Fock spaces

Let $V \simeq \mathrm{C}^{n}$ be a finite dimensional complex vector space of complex dimension $n$ and let $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ be a complex Hermitian inner-product.

We will also consider $V$ as a real vector space with real inner product defined by $(z, w)=\operatorname{Re}\langle z, w\rangle$. Notice that $(z, z)=\langle z, z\rangle$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$. Let $J$ be the real linear transformation of $V$ given by $J z=i z$. Note that $J^{*}=-J=J^{-1}$ and thus $J$ is a skew symmetric real linear transformation. Fix a real linear transformation $A$. Then $A=H+K$ where

$$
H:=\frac{A+J^{-1} A J}{2} \quad \text { and } \quad K:=\frac{A-J^{-1} A J}{2} .
$$

We have $H J=\frac{1}{2}\left(A J-J^{-1} A\right)=\frac{1}{2} J\left(J^{-1} A J+A\right)=J H$ and $K J=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left(A J+J^{-1} A\right)=\frac{1}{2} J\left(J^{-1} A J-A\right)=-J K$. Thus $H$ is complex linear and $K$ is conjugate linear.

We now assume that $A$ is symmetric and positive definite relative to the real inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)$.

Lemma 2.1. The complex linear transformation $H$ is self adjoint, positive with respect to the inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$, and invertible.

Proof. Since $A$ is positive and invertible as a real linear transformation, we have $(A z, z)>0$ for all $z \neq 0$. But $J$ is real linear and skew symmetric. Hence $\left(J A J^{-1} z, z\right)>0$ for all $z \neq 0$. In particular $H=\frac{1}{2}\left(A+J A J^{-1}\right)$ is complex linear, symmetric with respect to the real inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)$, and positive. Consequently $\operatorname{Re}\langle H i v, w\rangle=\operatorname{Re}\langle i v, H w\rangle$. This implies $\operatorname{Im}\langle H v, w\rangle=$ $\operatorname{Im}\langle v, H w\rangle$ and hence $\langle H v, w\rangle=\langle v, H w\rangle$. Thus $H$ is complex self adjoint and $\langle H z, z\rangle>0$ for $z \neq 0$.

Lemma 2.2. Let $w \in V$. Then $\langle A w, w\rangle=(A w, w)+i \operatorname{Im}\langle K w, w\rangle$ and $(A w, w)=(H w, w)+(K w, w)$.

Proof. The first statement follows from

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle A w, w\rangle=\langle H w, w\rangle+\langle K w, w\rangle & =(H w, w)+(K w, w)+i \operatorname{Im}\langle K w, w\rangle \\
& =(A w, w)+i \operatorname{Im}\langle K w, w\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Taking the real part in the second line gives the second claim, which also follows directly from bilinearity of $(\cdot, \cdot)$.

Denote by $\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}}(\cdot)$ the determinant of a R-linear map on $V \simeq \mathrm{C}^{n} \simeq \mathrm{R}^{2 n}$ and by $\operatorname{det}(\cdot)$ the determinant of a complex linear map of $V$. Let $\mu_{A}$ be the measure defined by $d \mu_{A}(z)=\pi^{-n} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}_{R} A} e^{-(A z, z)} d x d y$ and let $\mathrm{F}_{A}$ be the space of holomorphic functions $F: \mathrm{C}^{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|F\|_{A}^{2}:=\int|F(z)|^{2} d \mu_{A}(z)<\infty \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Our normalization of $\mu$ is chosen so that $\|1\|_{A}=1$. Just as in the classical case one can show that $F_{A}$ is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space, but this will also follow from the following Lemma. We notice that all the holomorphic polynomials $p(z)$ are in F . To simplify the notation, we let $T_{1}=H^{-1 / 2}$. Then $T_{1}$ is symmetric, positive definite and complex linear. Let $c_{A}=\sqrt{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}}\left(A^{1 / 2} T_{1}\right)}=$ $\left(\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}}(A) / \operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}}(H)\right)^{1 / 4}$.

Lemma 2.3. Let $F: V \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be holomorphic. Then $F \in \mathrm{~F}_{A}$ if and only if $F \circ T_{1} \in \mathrm{~F}$. Moreover, the map $\Psi: \mathrm{F}_{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{~F}$ given by

$$
\Psi(F)(w):=c_{A} \exp \left(-\overline{\left\langle K T_{1} w, T_{1} w\right\rangle} / 2\right) F\left(T_{1} w\right)
$$

is a unitary isomorphism. In particular

$$
\Psi^{*} F(w)=\Psi^{-1} F(w)=c_{A}^{-1} \exp (\overline{\langle K w, w\rangle} / 2) F(\sqrt{H} w)
$$

Proof. Note $F$ is holomorphic if and only if $F \circ T_{1}$ is holomorphic as $T_{1}$ is complex linear and invertible. Moreover, unitarity follows from

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|\Psi F\|^{2} & =\pi^{-n} \int_{V}|\Psi F(w)|^{2} e^{-\langle w, w\rangle} d w \\
& =\pi^{-n} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A} \int_{V}|F(w)|^{2} e^{-(K w, w)} e^{-\langle\sqrt{H} w, \sqrt{H} w\rangle} d w \\
& =\pi^{-n} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A} \int_{V}|F(w)|^{2} e^{-(K w, w)} e^{-\langle H w, w\rangle} d w \\
& =\pi^{-n} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A} \int_{V}|F(w)|^{2} e^{-((H+K) w, w)} d w \\
& =\pi^{-n} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A} \int_{V}|F(w)|^{2} e^{-(A w, w)} d w \\
& =\|F\|_{A}^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 2.4. The space $\mathrm{F}_{A}$ is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space with reproducing kernel

$$
K_{A}(z, w)=c_{A}^{-2} e^{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\langle K z, z\rangle}} e^{\langle H z, w\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K w, w\rangle} .
$$

Proof. By Lemma 2.3 we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{A} \exp \left(-\overline{\left\langle K T_{1} w, T_{1} w\right\rangle} / 2\right) F\left(T_{1} w\right) & =\Psi(F)(w) \\
& =\left(\Psi(F), K_{w}\right)_{\mathrm{F}} \\
& =\left(F, \Psi^{*}\left(K_{w}\right)\right)_{\mathrm{F}_{A}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
K_{A}(z, w)=c_{A}^{-1} \exp (\overline{\langle K w, w\rangle} / 2) \Psi^{*}\left(K_{\sqrt{H} w}\right)=c_{A}^{-2} e^{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\langle K z, z\rangle}} e^{\langle H z, w\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K w, w\rangle} .
$$

## 3. The Restriction Map

We continue to assume $A>0$. We notice that Lemma 2.3 gives a unitary isomorphism $\Psi^{*} U: L^{2}\left(\mathrm{R}^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{F}_{A}$, where $U$ is the classical Segal-Bargmann transform. But this is not the natural transform that we are looking for. As $H$ is positive definite there is an orthonormal basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ of $V$ and positive numbers $\lambda_{j}>0$ such that $H e_{j}=\lambda_{j} e_{j}$. Let $V_{\mathrm{R}}:=\sum \mathrm{R} e_{k}$. Set $\sigma\left(\sum a_{i} e_{i}\right)=$ $\sum \bar{a}_{i} e_{i}$. Then $\sigma$ is a conjugation with $V_{\mathrm{R}}=\{z: \sigma z=z\}$. For $z \in V$ we will when convenient write $\bar{z}$ for $\sigma(z)$. We say that a vector is real if it belongs to $V_{\mathrm{R}}$. As $H e_{j}=\lambda_{j} e_{j}$ with $\lambda_{j} \in \mathrm{R}$ it follows that $H V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$. We note that for the complex linear mapping $H$ that $\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} H=(\operatorname{det} H)^{2}$ and that $\operatorname{det} H$ is equal to the determinant of the real linear transformation $\left.H\right|_{V_{\mathrm{R}}}$.

Lemma 3.1. $\langle K z, w\rangle=\langle K w, z\rangle$.
Proof. Note that $\sigma K$ is complex linear. Since $J^{*}=-J, K=\frac{1}{2}(A-$ $\left.J A J^{-1}\right)$ is real symmetric. Thus $(K w, z)=(w, K z)=(K z, w)$. Also note

$$
(i K z, w)=(J K z, w)=-(K J z, w)=-(J z, K w)=-(i z, K w)
$$

Hence $\operatorname{Re}\langle i K z, w\rangle=-\operatorname{Re}\langle i z, K w\rangle$. So $-\operatorname{Im}\langle K z, w\rangle=\operatorname{Im}\langle z, K w\rangle$. This gives $\operatorname{Im}\langle K w, z\rangle=\operatorname{Im}\langle K z, w\rangle$. Hence $\langle K z, w\rangle=\langle K w, z\rangle$.

Lemma 3.2. $(\sigma K)^{*}=K \sigma$.
Proof. We have $\langle\sigma z, \sigma w\rangle=\langle w, z\rangle$. Hence

$$
\langle\sigma K z, w\rangle=\left\langle\sigma w, \sigma^{2} K z\right\rangle=\langle\sigma w, K z\rangle=\langle z, K \sigma w\rangle
$$

Corollary 3.3. If $x, y \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$, then $\langle H x, y\rangle$ is real and $\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle A y, x\rangle$.
Proof. Clearly $\langle\cdot, \cdot \cdot\rangle$ is real on $V_{\mathrm{R}} \times V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Since $H V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$, we see $\langle H x, y\rangle$ is real. Next, $\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle H x, y\rangle+\langle K x, y\rangle$. The term $\langle H x, y\rangle$ equals $\langle H y, x\rangle$ because $\langle H x, y\rangle$ is real and $H$ is self-adjoint. On the other hand, $\langle K x, y\rangle=$ $\langle K y, x\rangle$ by Lemma 3.1. So $\langle A x, y\rangle=\langle A y, x\rangle$.

As before we would like to have a multiplier $m: V_{\mathrm{R}} \times V \rightarrow \mathrm{C}^{*}$ such that

$$
T(x) F(z)=m(x, z) F(z-x)
$$

is a unitary representation of $\mathrm{F}_{A}$ that commutes with translation on $L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$. It turns out the multipliers we construct are co-boundaries under translation by elements of $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ on $V$.

Definition 3.4. A function $m$ is a co-boundary on $V \cong \mathrm{C}^{n}$ under translation by $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ if there is a nonzero complex valued function $b$ on $V$ with

$$
m(x, z)=b(z-x) b(z)^{-1} \quad \text { for } x \in V_{\mathrm{R}} \text { and } z \in V
$$

It is well known and easy to verify that every co-boundary $m$ on $V$ under translation by $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ is a multiplier.

Lemma 3.5. The function

$$
m(x, z)=e^{\langle H z, x\rangle} e^{\langle K \bar{z}, x\rangle} e^{-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2}=e^{\langle A x, \bar{z}\rangle-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2}
$$

is a co-boundary.
Proof. Define $b(z)=e^{-\langle H z+K \bar{z}, \bar{z}\rangle / 2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
b(z-x) b(z)^{-1} & =e^{-\langle H(z-x)+K(\bar{z}-x), \bar{z}-x\rangle / 2} e^{\langle H z+K \bar{z}, \bar{z}\rangle / 2} \\
& =e^{(\langle H x+K x, \bar{z}\rangle+\langle H z+K \bar{z}, x\rangle) / 2} e^{-\langle H x+K x, x\rangle / 2} \\
& =e^{\langle H z, x\rangle} e^{\langle K \bar{z}, x\rangle} e^{-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2} \\
& =e^{\langle H x, \bar{z}\rangle+\langle K x, \bar{z}\rangle} e^{-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2} \\
& =e^{\langle A x, \bar{z}\rangle-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

since $A=H+K,\langle H x, \bar{z}\rangle=\langle z, \sigma H x\rangle=\langle z, H x\rangle=\langle H z, x\rangle$, and $\langle K x, \bar{z}\rangle=$ $\langle\sigma \bar{z}, \sigma K x\rangle=\langle K \sigma z, x\rangle=\langle K \bar{z}, x\rangle$.

Corollary 3.6. Let $m(x, z)=e^{\langle A x, \bar{z}\rangle-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2}$. Set $T_{x} F(z):=m(x, z) F(z$ $-x)$ for $x \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Then $x \mapsto T_{x}$ is a representation of the abelian group $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ on $\mathrm{F}_{A}$. It is unitary if and only if $K V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$, or equivalently $A V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$.

Proof. Since $m$ is a multiplier, we have $T_{x} T_{y}=T_{x+y}$. For each $T_{x}$ to be unitary, we need $|m(x, z)|=e^{(A z, x)-(A x, x) / 2}$. But

$$
|m(x, z)|=e^{(H z, x)} e^{(K \bar{z}, x)} e^{-(A x, x) / 2}=e^{(A z, x)-(A x, x) / 2} e^{(K \bar{z}-K z, x)}
$$

Thus $T_{x}$ is unitary for all $x$ if and only if the real part of every vector $K \bar{z}-K z$ is 0 . Since $\bar{z}-z$ runs over $i V_{\mathrm{R}}$ as $z$ runs over $V, T_{x}$ is unitary for all $x$ if and only if $K\left(i V_{\mathrm{R}}\right) \subset i V_{\mathrm{R}}$, which is equivalent to $K\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right) \subset V_{\mathrm{R}}$. But since $A=H+K$ and $H$ leaves $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ invariant, this is equivalent to $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ being invariant under $A$.

Remark. There is no uniqueness in the choice of a real vector space $V_{R}$ such that $H V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$ and $V=V_{\mathrm{R}} \oplus i V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Indeed, any orthonormal basis $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}$ of eigenvectors for $H$ gives such a subspace. But since $A$ is only real linear on $V$, an interesting question is when one can choose $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ with $A V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$, and in this case how unique is the choice of $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ ? This probably depends on the degree of non complex linearity of the tranformation $A$.

Recall that $\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} H=(\operatorname{det} H)^{2}$. To simplify some calculations later on we define $c:=(2 \pi)^{-n / 4}\left(\frac{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A}{\operatorname{det} H}\right)^{1 / 4}$. We remark for further reference:

Lemma 3.7. $c_{A}^{-2} c^{2}=\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det} H}}{(2 \pi)^{n / 2}}$ and $c^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)}}{\pi^{n / 2}}=\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{n / 4} \frac{(\operatorname{det} H)^{3 / 4}}{(\operatorname{det} A)^{1 / 4}}$.
Let $D(x)=c m(x, 0)=c e^{-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2}$ and define $R: \mathrm{F}_{A} \rightarrow C^{\infty}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$ by

$$
R F(x):=D(x) F(x) .
$$

Since $m$ is holomorphic on $V^{2}, D$ has a holomorphic extension to $V$.
Lemma 3.8. The restriction map $R$ intertwines the action of $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ on $\mathrm{F}_{A}$ and the left regular action $L$ on functions on $V_{R}$.

Proof. For all $x, y \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R\left(T_{y} F\right)(x) & =c m(x, 0) T_{y} F(x) \\
& =\operatorname{cm}(x, 0) m(y, x) F(x-y) \\
& =c m(x, 0) m(-y,-x) F(x-y) \\
& =c m(x-y, 0) F(x-y) \\
& =L_{y} R F(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 4. The Generalized Segal-Bargmann Transform

As for the classical space, $R$ specifies a densely defined closed operator $\mathrm{F}_{A} \rightarrow$ $L^{2}\left(V_{R}\right)$. It also has dense image in $L^{2}\left(V_{R}\right)$. To see this, let $\left\{h_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha}$ be the orthonormal basis of $L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$ given by the Hermite functions. Then $\left\{\operatorname{det}(A)^{\frac{1}{4}} h_{\alpha}(\sqrt{A} x)\right\}_{\alpha}$
is an orthonormal basis of $L^{2}\left(V_{R}\right)$ which is contained in the image of the set of polynomial functions under $R$. It follows again that $R$ has a densely defined adjoint and

$$
R^{*} h(z)=\left\langle R^{*} h, K_{A, z}\right\rangle=\left\langle h, R K_{A, z}\right\rangle
$$

where $K_{A, z}(w)=K_{A}(w, z)=c_{A}^{-2} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle\overline{\langle x, w\rangle}} e^{\langle H w, z\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K z, z\rangle}$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{*} h(z) & =c \int h(x) e^{-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2} \overline{K_{A}(x, z)} d x \\
& =c_{A}^{-2} c \int h(x) e^{-\langle A x, x\rangle / 2} e^{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\langle K z, z\rangle}} e^{\langle z, H x\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K x, x\rangle} d x \\
& =c_{A}^{-2} c e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K z, z\rangle} \int h(x) e^{-\langle H x, x\rangle / 2} e^{-\langle K x, x\rangle / 2} e^{\langle z, H x\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K x, x\rangle} d x \\
& =c_{A}^{-1} c e^{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\langle K z, z\rangle}} \int h(x) e^{-\langle x, H x\rangle / 2} e^{\langle z, H x\rangle} d x \\
& =c_{A}^{-2} c e^{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\langle K z, z\rangle}} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle z, H \bar{z}\rangle} \int h(x) e^{-(\langle z, H \bar{z}\rangle-\langle z, H x\rangle-\langle x, H \bar{z}\rangle+\langle x, H x\rangle) / 2} d x \\
& =c_{A}^{-2} c e^{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\langle K z, z\rangle}} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle z, H \bar{z}\rangle} \int h(x) e^{-\langle z-x, H(\bar{z}-\bar{x})\rangle / 2} d x
\end{aligned}
$$

for $\langle z, H x\rangle=\langle\overline{H x}, \bar{z}\rangle=\langle H x, \bar{z}\rangle=\langle x, H \bar{z}\rangle$ and $\langle z, H x\rangle=\langle z, H \bar{x}\rangle$. Thus we finally arrive at

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{*} h(z)=c_{A}^{-2} c e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle z, H \bar{z}+K z\rangle} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle x, H \bar{x}\rangle} * h(z) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $P: V_{\mathrm{R}} \rightarrow V_{\mathrm{R}}$ be positive. Define $\phi_{P}(x)=\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(P)}(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} e^{-\|\sqrt{P} x\|^{2} / 2}$. For $t>0$, let $P(t)=\frac{1}{t} P$.

Lemma 4.1. Let the notation be as above. Then $0<t \mapsto \phi_{P(t)}$ is a convolution semigroup, i.e., $\phi_{P(t+s)}=\phi_{P(t)} * \phi_{P(s)}$.

Proof. This follows by change of parameters $y=\sqrt{P} x$ from the fact that $\phi_{\mathrm{Id}(t)}(x)=(2 \pi t)^{-n / 2} e^{-x^{2} / 2 t}$ is a convolution semigroup.

Define a unitary operator $W$ on $L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
W f(x)=e^{i \operatorname{Im}\langle x, K x\rangle} f(x)=e^{i \operatorname{Im}\langle x, A x\rangle} f(x) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We see $W=I$ if $A V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$ which is equivalent to the translation operators $T(x)$ being unitary.

Lemma 4.2. Let $h$ be in the domain of definition of $R^{*}$. Then

$$
R R^{*} h=W\left(\phi_{H} * h\right)
$$

Proof. We notice first that $c_{A}^{-2} c^{2}=(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \sqrt{\operatorname{det} H}$ by Lemma 3.7. From (4.1) we then have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R R^{*} h(x) & =c e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle A x, x\rangle} R^{*} h(x) \\
& =c_{A}^{-2} c^{2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle A x, x\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle x, H \bar{x}+K x\rangle} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle y, H \bar{y}\rangle} * h(x) \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle A x, x\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle x, A x\rangle} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle y, H \bar{y}\rangle} * h(x) \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)} e^{i \operatorname{Im}\langle x, A x\rangle} \int e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y, H y)} h(x-y) d y . \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)} e^{i \operatorname{Im}\langle x, A x\rangle} \int e^{-\frac{\|\sqrt{H} y\| \|^{2}}{2}} h(x-y) d y \\
& =W\left(\phi_{H} * h\right)(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In the last step, we used the fact that $\phi_{H} * h \in L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$, which follows from $\phi_{H}$ being in $L^{1}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$ and $h \in L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right)$.

Arguing as in the classical case, we see that $R$ and $R^{*}$ are everywhere defined and continuous.

Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2 leads to the following corollary:
Corollary 4.3. Suppose $A V_{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Then

$$
\left|R^{*}\right| h(x)=\phi_{H(1 / 2)} * h(x)=\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)}}{\pi^{n / 2}} \int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} e^{-\|\sqrt{H} y\|^{2}} h(x-y) d y .
$$

Theorem 4.4 (The Segal-Bargmann Transform). Suppose A leaves $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ invariant. Then the operator $U_{A}: L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{F}_{A}$ defined by

$$
U_{A} f(z)=\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{n / 4} \frac{(\operatorname{det} H)^{3 / 4}}{\left(\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A\right)^{1 / 4}} e^{\frac{1}{2}(\langle H z, \bar{z}\rangle+\langle z, K z\rangle)} \int e^{(H(z-y)) \cdot(z-y)} f(y) d y
$$

is a unitary isomorphism. We call the map $U_{A}$ the generalized Segal-Bargmann transform.

Proof. By polar decomposition, we can write $R^{*}=U\left|R^{*}\right|$ where $U$ : $L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{F}_{A}$ is a unitary isomorphism. Taking adjoints gives $\left|R^{*}\right| U^{*}=R$. Hence $R U=\left|R^{*}\right|$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cm}(x) U h(x) & =R U h(x)=\left(\left|R^{*}\right| h\right)(x) \\
& =\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)}}{\pi^{n / 2}} \int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} e^{-\|\sqrt{H} y\|^{2}} h(x-y) d y .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $m(x)=e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\langle x, H x\rangle+\langle x, K x\rangle)}$, we have using Lemma 3.7:

$$
U f(x)=\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{n / 4} \frac{(\operatorname{det} H)^{3 / 4}}{\left(\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}} A\right)^{1 / 4}} e^{\frac{1}{2}(\langle x, H x\rangle+\langle x, K x\rangle)} \int e^{(x-y, H(x-y))} f(y) d y
$$

Holomorphicity of $U f$ now implies $U f=U_{A} f$.

## 5. The Gaussian Formulation

In infinite dimensions there is no useful notion of Lebesgue measure but Gaussian measure does make sense. So, with a view to extension to infinite dimensions, we will recast our generalized Segal-Bargmann transform using Gaussian measure instead of Lebesgue measure as the background measure on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Of course, we have already defined the Fock space $F_{A}$ using Gaussian measure.

As before, $V$ is a finite-dimensional complex vector space with Hermitian inner-product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$, and $A: V \rightarrow V$ is a real-linear map which is symmetric, positive-definite with respect to the real inner-product $(\cdot, \cdot)=\operatorname{Re}\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$, i.e. $(A z, z)>0$ for all $z \in V$ except $z=0$. We assume, furthermore, that there is a real subspace $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ for which $V=V_{\mathrm{R}}+i V_{\mathrm{R}}$, the inner-product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ is real-valued on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$, and $A\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}\right) \subset V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Denote the linear map $v \mapsto i v$ by $J$. As usual, $A$ is the sum

$$
A=H+K
$$

where $H=(A-J A J) / 2$ is complex-linear on $V$ and $K=(A+J A J) / 2$ is complex-conjugate-linear. The real subspaces $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ and $J V_{\mathrm{R}}$ are $(\cdot, \cdot)$-orthogonal because for any $x, y \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$ we have $(x, J y)=\operatorname{Re}\langle x, J y\rangle=-\operatorname{Re}(J\langle x, y\rangle)$, since $\langle x, y\rangle$ is real, by hypothesis. Since $A$ preserves $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ and is symmetric, it also preserves the orthogonal complement $J V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Thus $A$ has the block diagonal form:

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
R & 0 \\
0 & T
\end{array}\right]=d(R, T)
$$

Here, and henceforth, we use the notation $d(X, Y)$ to mean the real-linear map $V \rightarrow V$ given by $a \mapsto X a$ and $J a \mapsto J Y a$ for all $a \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$, where $X, Y$ are real-linear operators on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Note that $d(X, Y)$ is complex-linear if and only if $X=Y$ and is complex-conjugate-linear if and only if $Y=-X$. The operator $d(X, X)$ is the unique complex-linear map $V \rightarrow V$ which restricts to $X$ on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$, and we denote it:

$$
X_{V}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
X & 0 \\
0 & X
\end{array}\right]
$$

The hypothesis that $A$ is symmetric and positive-definite means that $R$ and $T$ are symmetric, positive definite on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Consequently, the real-linear operator $S$ on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ given by

$$
S=2\left(R^{-1}+T^{-1}\right)^{-1}
$$

is also symmetric, positive-definite.
The operators $H$ and $K$ on $V$ are given by

$$
H=\frac{1}{2}\left(R_{V}+T_{V}\right), \quad K=d\left(\frac{1}{2}(R-T), \frac{1}{2}(T-R)\right) .
$$

Using the conjugation map

$$
\sigma: V \rightarrow V: a+i b \mapsto a-i b \quad \text { for } \quad a, b \in V_{\mathrm{R}}
$$

we can also write $K$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=\frac{1}{2}\left(R_{V}-T_{V}\right) \sigma \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now consider the holomorphic functions $\rho_{T}$ and $\rho_{S}$ on $V$ given by

$$
\rho_{T}(z)=\frac{(\operatorname{det} T)^{1 / 2}}{(2 \pi)^{n / 2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(T_{V} z\right) \cdot z} \quad \rho_{S}(z)=\frac{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}}{(2 \pi)^{n / 2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(S_{V} z\right) \cdot z}
$$

where $n=\operatorname{dim} V_{\mathrm{R}}$. Restricted to $V_{\mathrm{R}}$, these are density functions for Gaussian probability measures.

The Segal-Bargmann transform in this setting is given by the map

$$
S_{A}: L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}, \rho_{S}(x) d x\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{F}_{A}: f \mapsto S_{A} f
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{A} f(z)=\int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} f(x) \rho_{T}(z-x) d x=\int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} f(x) c(x, z) \rho_{S}(x) d x \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $c(x, z)$ given, for $x \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$ and $z \in V$, by

$$
c(x, z)=\frac{\rho_{T}(x-z)}{\rho_{S}(x)} .
$$

It is possible to take (5.2) as the starting point, with $f \in L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}, \rho_{S}(x) d x\right)$ and prove that: (i) $S_{A} f(z)$ is well-defined, (ii) $S_{A} f$ is in $\mathrm{F}_{A}$, (iii) $S_{A}$ is a unitary isomorphism onto $\mathrm{F}_{A}$. However, we shall not work out everything in this approach since we have essentially proven all this in the preceding sections. Full details of a direct approach would be obtained by generalizing the procedure used in [13]. In the present discussion we shall work out only some of the properties of $S_{A}$.

Lemma 5.1. Let $w, z \in V$. Then:
(i) The function $x \mapsto c(x, z)$ belongs to $L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}, \rho_{S}(x) d x\right)$, thereby ensuring that the integral (5.2) defining $S_{A} f(z)$ is well-defined;
(ii) The $S_{A}$-transform of $c(\cdot, w)$ is $K_{A}(\cdot, \bar{w})$ :

$$
\left[S_{A} c(\cdot, w)\right](z)=K_{A}(z, \bar{w})
$$

and so, in particular:

$$
K_{A}(z, w)=\int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} \frac{\rho_{T}(x-z) \rho_{T}(x-\bar{w})}{\rho_{S}(x)} d x
$$

(iii) The transform $S_{A}$ preserves inner-products on the linear span of the functions $c(\cdot, w)$ :

$$
\langle c(\cdot, w), c(\cdot, z)\rangle_{L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}, \rho_{S}(x) d x\right)}=K_{A}(w, z)=\left\langle K_{A}(\cdot, \bar{w}), K_{A}(\cdot, \bar{z})\right\rangle_{\mathrm{F}_{A}}
$$

Proof. (i) is equivalent to finiteness of $\int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} \frac{\left|\rho_{T}(x-z)\right|^{2}}{\rho_{S}(x)} d x$, which is equivalent to positivity of the operator $2 T-S$. To see that $2 T-S$ is positive observe that

$$
\begin{align*}
2 T-S & =2 T\left[\left(R^{-1}+T^{-1}\right)-T^{-1}\right]\left(R^{-1}+T^{-1}\right)^{-1} \\
& =2 T R^{-1}\left(R^{-1}+T^{-1}\right)^{-1}=T R^{-1} S  \tag{5.3}\\
& =2\left(T^{-1}+T^{-1} R T^{-1}\right)^{-1} \tag{5.4}
\end{align*}
$$

and in this last line $T^{-1}>0$ (since $\left.T>0\right)$ and $\left(T^{-1} R T^{-1} x, x\right)=\left(R T^{-1} x\right.$, $\left.T^{-1} x\right) \geq 0$ by positivity of $R$. Thus $2 T-S$ is positive, being twice the inverse of the positive operator $T^{-1}+T^{-1} R T^{-1}$.
(ii) Recall $v \cdot w$ for $v, w \in V$ is the symmetric complex bilinear pairing given by $v \cdot w=\langle v, \bar{w}\rangle$, and we write $v^{2}$ for $v \cdot v$. We shall denote the complexlinear operator $T_{V}$ which restricts to $T$ on $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ simply by $T$. It is readily checked that $T$ continues to be symmetric in the sense that $T v \cdot w=v \cdot T w$ for all $v, w \in V$. We start with

$$
\begin{aligned}
a & \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left[S_{A} c(\cdot, w)\right](z) \\
& =\int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} \frac{\rho_{T}(x-w)}{\rho_{S}(x)} \rho_{T}(z-x) d x \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}} \int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[T(x-w) \cdot(x-w)+T(x-z) \cdot(x-z)-S x \cdot x]} d x \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}} \int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[(2 T-S) x \cdot x-2 T x \cdot(w+z)+T w \cdot w+T z \cdot z]} d x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Recall from the proof of (i) that $2 T-S>0$. For notational simplicity let $L=(2 T-S)^{1 / 2}$ and $M=L^{-1} T$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a & =(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} \frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}} \int_{V_{\mathrm{R}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(L x-M(w+z))^{2}} d x e^{-\frac{1}{2}[T w \cdot w+T z \cdot z-M(w+z) \cdot M(w+z)]} \\
& =\frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}(\operatorname{det} L)} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[T w \cdot w+T z \cdot z-M(w+z) \cdot M(w+z)]}
\end{aligned}
$$

To simplify the last exponent observe that by (5.4) and (5.1) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
T w \cdot w-M w \cdot M w & =T w \cdot w-T w \cdot L^{-2} T w \\
& =T w \cdot w-T w \cdot(2 T-S)^{-1} T w \\
& =T w \cdot w-\frac{1}{2} T w \cdot\left(T^{-1}+T^{-1} R T^{-1}\right) T w \\
& =T w \cdot w-\frac{1}{2} T w \cdot\left(w+T^{-1} R w\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}(T w \cdot w-R w \cdot w) \\
& =-\langle K \bar{w}, \bar{w}\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

The same holds with $z$ in place of $w$. For the "cross term" we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
M w \cdot M z & =T w \cdot L^{-2} T z \\
& =T w \cdot(2 T-S)^{-1} T z \\
& =\frac{1}{2} T w \cdot\left(T^{-1}+T^{-1} R T^{-1}\right) T z \\
& =\frac{1}{2}(T w \cdot z+w \cdot R z) \\
& =2 w \cdot H z
\end{aligned}
$$

Putting everything together gives

$$
\left[S_{A} c(\cdot, w)\right](z)=\frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}(\operatorname{det} L)} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K \bar{w}, \bar{w}\rangle} e^{\langle H w, \bar{z}\rangle} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle K \bar{z}, \bar{z}\rangle}
$$

In Lemma 6.2 below we prove that

$$
\frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2}(\operatorname{det} L)}=\left(\frac{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}}(A)}{\operatorname{det}_{\mathrm{R}}(H)}\right)^{-1 / 2}=c_{A}^{-2} .
$$

So

$$
\left[S_{A} c(\cdot, w)\right](z)=K_{A}(w, \bar{z})
$$

For (iii), we have first:

$$
\langle c(\cdot, w), c(\cdot, z)\rangle_{L^{2}\left(\rho_{S}(x) d x\right)}=\left[S_{A} c(\cdot, w)\right](\bar{z})=K_{A}(\bar{z}, \bar{w})=K_{A}(w, z)
$$

The second equality in (iii) follows since $K_{A}$ is a reproducing kernel.

## 6. The evaluation map and determinant relations

Recall

$$
K_{A}(z, w)=c_{A}^{-2} e^{\frac{1}{2}\langle z, K z\rangle+\frac{1}{2}\langle K w, w\rangle+\langle H z, w\rangle}
$$

where

$$
c_{A}^{-2}=\left(\frac{\operatorname{det}_{V} H}{\operatorname{det}_{V} A}\right)^{2}
$$

is a reproducing kernel for $F_{A}$. Thus

$$
f(w)=\left\langle f, K_{A}(\cdot, w)\right\rangle=\pi^{-n} \int_{V} f(z) K_{A}(w, z)|d z|
$$

where $|d z|=d x d y$ signifies integration with respect to Lebesgue measure on the real inner-product space $V$. Thus we have

Proposition 6.1. For any $z \in V$, the evaluation map

$$
\delta_{z}: \mathbf{F}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}: f \mapsto f(z)
$$

is a bounded linear functional with norm

$$
\left\|\delta_{z}\right\|=K_{A}(z, z)^{1 / 2}=c_{A}^{-1} e^{(A z, z)}
$$

Proof. Note

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\delta_{z} f\right|=|f(z)|=\left|\left\langle f, K_{A}(\cdot, z)\right\rangle\right| \leq\|f\|_{\mathrm{F}_{A}} K_{A}(z, z)^{1 / 2} \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

follows from the reproducing kernel property

$$
\left\|K_{A}(\cdot, z)\right\|_{\mathrm{F}_{A}}^{2}=\left\langle K_{A}(\cdot, z), K_{A}(\cdot, z)\right\rangle_{\mathrm{F}_{A}}=K_{A}(z, z)
$$

This last calculation also shows that the inequality in (6.1) is an equality if $f=K_{A}(\cdot, z)$ and thereby shows that $\left\|\delta_{z}\right\|$ is actually equal to $K_{A}(z, z)^{1 / 2}$. The latter is readily checked to be equal to $c_{A}^{-1} e^{(A z, z)}$.

We have already used the first of the following two facts about $c_{A}$.

Lemma 6.2. For the constant $c_{A}$ we have

$$
c_{A}^{-2}=\left(\frac{\operatorname{det}_{V} H}{\operatorname{det}_{V} A}\right)^{2}=\frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2} \operatorname{det} L}
$$

where, as before, $L=(2 T-S)^{1 / 2}$ and $S=2\left(R^{-1}+T^{-1}\right)^{-1}$.
Proof. Recall from (5.3) that $2 T-S=T R^{-1} S$. Note also that

$$
S^{-1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(R^{-1}+T^{-1}\right)=R^{-1} \frac{R+T}{2} T^{-1}=R^{-1}\left(H \mid V_{\mathrm{R}}\right) T^{-1}
$$

So

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{\operatorname{det}_{V} A}{\operatorname{det}_{V} H}\right)^{1 / 2} \frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2} \operatorname{det} L} \\
& \quad=\frac{(\operatorname{det} R)^{1 / 2}(\operatorname{det} T)^{1 / 2}}{\operatorname{det} S^{-1} \operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det} T} \frac{\operatorname{det} T}{(\operatorname{det} S)^{1 / 2} \operatorname{det} T^{1 / 2} \operatorname{det} R^{-1 / 2} \operatorname{det} S^{1 / 2}} \\
& \quad=1
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies the desired result.
Next we prove a determinant relation which implies $c_{A} \geq 1$. (This "determinant AM-GM inequality" could be obtained by reference to standard matrix inequalities, but we include a complete proof.)

Lemma 6.3. If $R$ and $T$ are positive definite $n \times n$ matrices (symmetric if real) then

$$
\sqrt{\operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det} T} \leq \operatorname{det}\left(\frac{R+T}{2}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $R=T$.
Proof. Noting that $R^{-1 / 2} T R^{-1 / 2} \geq 0$ we have, with $D=\left(R^{-1 / 2} T R^{-1 / 2}\right)^{1 / 4}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det} T}{\left(\operatorname{det} \frac{R+T}{2}\right)^{2}} & =\frac{\operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det}\left(R^{1 / 2} D^{4} R^{1 / 2}\right)}{\left[\operatorname{det} R^{1 / 2}\left(\frac{1+D^{4}}{2}\right) R^{1 / 2}\right]^{2}} \\
& =\left[\operatorname{det}\left(\frac{D^{2}+D^{-2}}{2}\right)\right]^{-2} \\
& =\left[\operatorname{det}\left\{I+\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} D-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} D^{-1}\right)^{2}\right\}\right]^{-2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Diagonalizing $D$, it is clear that this last term is less or equal to 1 with equality if and only if $D=D^{-1}$. This is equivalent to $D^{4}=I$ which holds if and only if $R=T$.

As consequence, we have for $c_{A}$ :

$$
c_{A}=\left(\frac{\operatorname{det}_{V} A}{\operatorname{det}_{V} H}\right)^{1 / 4}=\left(\frac{\operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det} T}{\left(\operatorname{det} \frac{R+T}{2}\right)^{2}}\right)^{1 / 4}=\left(\frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det} T}}{\operatorname{det} \frac{R+T}{2}}\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{A}^{-2}=\frac{\operatorname{det} \frac{R+T}{2}}{\sqrt{\operatorname{det} R \operatorname{det} T}} \geq 1 \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $R=T$.
In extending this theory to infinite dimensions, to retain a meaningful notion of evaluation $\delta_{z}: f \mapsto f(z)$, the constant $c_{A}^{-1}$, which appears in the norm $\left\|\delta_{z}\right\|$, must be finite. The expression for $c_{A}^{-2}$ in (6.2) gives a more explicit condition on $R$ and $T$ for this finiteness to hold.

If $R=r I$ and $T=t I$ then, by (6.2), $c_{A}^{-1}=[(r+t) /(2 \sqrt{r t})]^{n / 2}$ which is bounded as $n \nearrow \infty$ if and only if $r=t$ (this was noted in [13]).

## 7. Remarks on extension to infinite dimensions

The Gaussian formulation permits extension to infinite dimensions with some conditions placed on $A$. Suppose then that $V$ is an infinite-dimensional separable complex Hilbert space, $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ a real subspace on which the inner-product is real-valued and for which $V=V_{\mathrm{R}}+i V_{\mathrm{R}}$, and $A: V \rightarrow V$ a bounded symmetric, positive-definite real-linear operator carrying $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ into itself. The operators $R, T, S, H$ and $K$ are defined as before. Assume that $R$ and $T$ commute and that there is an orthonormal basis $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots$ of $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ consisting of simultaneous eigenvectors of $R$ and $T$ (greater generality may be possible but we discuss only this case). Let $V_{n}$ be the complex linear span of $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$, and $V_{n, \mathrm{R}}$ the real linear span of $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$. Then $A$ restricts to an operator $A_{n}$ on $V_{n}$, and we have similarly restrictions $H_{n}, K_{n}$ on $V_{n}$ and $R_{n}, T_{n}, S_{n}$ on $V_{n, \mathrm{R}}$. The unitary transform $S_{A}$ may be obtained as a limit of the finite-dimensional transforms $S_{A_{n}}$.

The Gaussian kernels $\rho_{S}$ and $\rho_{T}$ do not make sense anymore, and nor does the coherent state $c$, but the Gaussian measures $d \gamma_{S}(x)=\rho_{S}(x) d x$ and $\mu_{A}$ do have meaningful analogs. There is a probability space $V_{\mathrm{R}}^{\prime}$, with a $\sigma-$ algebra $\mathscr{F}$ on which there is a measure $\gamma_{S}$, and there is a linear map $V_{\mathrm{R}} \rightarrow$ $L^{2}\left(V_{\mathrm{R}}^{\prime}, \gamma_{A}\right): x \mapsto G(x)=(x, \cdot)$, such that the $\sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{F}$ is generated
by the random variables $G(x)$, and each $G(x)$ is real Gaussian with mean 0 and variance $\left(S^{-1} x, x\right)$. Similarly, there is probability space $V^{\prime}$, with a $\sigma-$ algebra $\mathscr{F}_{1}$ on which there is a measure $\mu_{A}$, and there is a real-linear map $V \rightarrow L^{2}\left(V^{\prime}, \mu_{A}\right): z \mapsto G_{1}(z)=(z, \cdot)$, such that the $\sigma$-algebra $\mathscr{F}_{1}$ is generated by the random variables $G_{1}(z)$, and each $G_{1}(z)$ is (real) Gaussian with mean 0 and variance $\frac{1}{2}\left(A^{-1} z, z\right)$. Then for each $z \in V$, written as $z=$ $a+i b$ with $a, b \in V_{\mathrm{R}}$, we have the complex-valued random variable on $V^{\prime}$ given by $\tilde{z}=G_{1}(a)+i G_{1}(b)$. Suppose $g$ is a holomorphic function of $n$ complex variables such that $\int_{V}\left|g\left(\tilde{e}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{e}_{n}\right)\right|^{2} d \mu_{A}<\infty$. Define $\mathrm{F}_{A}$ to be the closed linear span of all functions of the type $g\left(\tilde{e}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{e}_{n}\right)$ in $L^{2}\left(\mu_{A}\right)$ for all $n \geq 1$. We may then define $S_{A}$ of a function $f\left(G\left(e_{1}\right), \ldots, G\left(e_{n}\right)\right)$ to be $\left(S_{A_{n}} f\right)\left(\tilde{e}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{e}_{n}\right)$, and then extend $S_{A}$ by continuity to all of $L^{2}\left(\gamma_{S}\right)$. In writing $S_{A_{n}} f$ we have identified $V_{n}$ with $\mathrm{C}^{n}$ and $V_{n, \mathrm{R}}$ with $\mathrm{R}^{n}$ using the basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$.

A potentially significant application of the infinite-dimensional case would be to situations where $V_{\mathrm{R}}$ is a path space and $A$ arises from a suitable differential operator. For the "classical case" where $R=T=t I$ for some $t>0$, this leads to the Hall transform [6] for Lie groups as well as the path-space version on Lie groups considered in [8].

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