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RELATIONS BETWEEN DISTRIBUTION COSINE FUNCTIONS AND ALMOST-DISTRIBUTION COSINE FUNCTIONS

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Abstract. In this paper, we give connections between distribution cosine functions (defined in [10]) and almost-distribution cosine functions (introduced in [13]). We prove several equalities involving trigonometric convolution products and distribution cosine functions as well as some relations between distribution cosine functions and ultradistribution semigroups.

1. INTRODUCTION AND PRELIMINARIES

The class of distribution cosine functions is introduced in [10] as a unification of the concept of (local) α -times integrated cosine functions, $\alpha \ge 0$. By applying fractional integration and derivation, several results on equivalence between almostdistribution cosine functions and global α -times integrated cosine functions with corresponding growth order are proved in [13]. In this paper, we obtain necessary and sufficient conditions under a closed linear operator A generates an almostdistribution cosine function in terms of distribution cosine functions. In order to do that, we employ our results from [13] and [10]. In the last section, we relate distribution cosine functions to ultradistribution semigroups and prove an extension of [6, Theorem 3.1] obtained by V. Keyantuo. The paper is illustrated by some examples and can be viewed as a continuation of [13] and [10].

Let us introduce the terminology of distribution spaces used in the paper and the basic definitions from [13] and [10].

The space of all compactly supported C^{∞} -functions from \mathbb{R} into \mathbb{C} is denoted by \mathcal{D} . It is equipped with the usual inductive limit topology. Its dual is \mathcal{D}' . We assume that \mathcal{D}' is supplied with strong topology; \mathcal{D}_0 is the subspace of \mathcal{D} which

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consists of the elements supported by $[0, \infty)$. In the sequel, we assume that E is a complex Banach space in this paper. Further on, $\mathcal{D}'(L(E)) = L(\mathcal{D}, L(E))$ is the space of continuous linear functions from \mathcal{D} into L(E) equipped with the topology of uniform convergence on bounded subsets of \mathcal{D} ; $\mathcal{D}'_0(L(E))$ is the subspace of $\mathcal{D}'(L(E))$ consisted of elements supported by $[0, \infty)$.

Let $K \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{D}_K := \{\varphi \in \mathcal{D} : \operatorname{supp} \varphi \subset K\}$. Recall, if $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$, then the distribution $\delta^{(k)}$ is defined by $\delta^{(k)}(\varphi) = (-1)^k \varphi^{(k)}(0), \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}$.

Let $\mathcal{D}_+ := \{f \in C^{\infty}([0,\infty)) : f \text{ is compactly supported}\}$. Define $\mathcal{K} : \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{D}_+$ by $\mathcal{K}(\varphi)(t) = \varphi(t), t \ge 0, \varphi \in \mathcal{D}$. We know that \mathcal{D}_+ is an (LF) space and due to the theorem of R. T. Seeley [15], there exists a linear continuous operator $\Lambda : \mathcal{D}_+ \to \mathcal{D}$ satisfying $\mathcal{K}\Lambda = I_{\mathcal{D}_+}$.

We use the convolution product $*_0$ of measurable complex valued functions fand $g: f *_0 g(t) =: \int_0^t f(t-s)g(s)ds$. If $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$, put $f \circ g(t) := \int_t^\infty f(s-t)g(s)ds$, $t \ge 0$. Clearly, $f \circ g \in \mathcal{D}_+$. The cosine convolution product $f *_c g$ is defined by $f *_c g := \frac{1}{2}(f *_0 g + f \circ g + g \circ f)$; the sine convolution product by $f *_s g := \frac{1}{2}(f *_0 g - f \circ g - g \circ f)$ and the sine-cosine convolution product by $f *_{sc} g := \frac{1}{2}(f *_0 g - f \circ g + g \circ f)$. Notice, $f *_c g, f *_s g, f *_{sc} g \in \mathcal{D}_+$, see for example [16].

Hereafter we assume that A is a closed linear operator. Its domain, range and null space are denoted by D(A), R(A) and Ker(A), respectively; [D(A)] denotes the Banach space D(A) equipped with the graph norm.

We need the next short review from [10]. Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{D}_{[-2,-1]}$ be a fixed test function with $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha(x) dx = 1$. Then, with α chosen in this way, for every fixed $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}$ we define $I(\varphi) \in \mathcal{D}$ by

$$I(\varphi)(x) := \int_{-\infty}^{x} [\varphi(t) - \alpha(t) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi(u) du] dt, \ x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Recall, $I(\varphi) \in \mathcal{D}$, $I(\varphi') = \varphi$ and $\frac{d}{dx}I(\varphi)(x) = \varphi(x) - \alpha(x) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi(u)du$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Next, we define a primitive of $G \in \mathcal{D}'(L(E))$, G^{-1} , by $G^{-1}(\varphi) := -G(I(\varphi))$, $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}$. We have $G^{-1} \in \mathcal{D}'(L(E))$ and $(G^{-1})' = G$; more precisely, $-G^{-1}(\varphi') = G(I(\varphi')) = G(\varphi)$, $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}$. We know that $\operatorname{supp} G \subset [0, \infty)$ implies $\operatorname{supp} G^{-1} \subset [0, \infty)$.

Now we repeat the definition of a distribution cosine function, (DCF) in short, and its generator ([10]). An element $G \in \mathcal{D}'_0(L(E))$ is called a pre-(DCF) if it satisfies

$$(DCF_1): \qquad G^{-1}(\varphi *_0 \psi) = G^{-1}(\varphi)G(\psi) + G(\varphi)G^{-1}(\psi), \ \varphi, \ \psi \in \mathcal{D},$$

and it is called a distribution cosine function, in short (DCF), if it additionally satisfies

$$(DCF_2)$$
: $x = y = 0$ if and only if $G(\varphi)x + G^{-1}(\varphi)y = 0$ for all $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0$.

If G is a (DCF), then its generator (A, D(A)) is defined by

(1)
$$\{(x,y) \in E^2: \ G^{-1}(\varphi'')x = G^{-1}(\varphi)y \text{ for all } \varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0\},\$$

where $x \in D(A)$ and Ax := y. Because of (DCF_2) , A is a function and it is easy to see that A is a closed linear operator in E. Moreover, if $\psi \in D$ and $x \in E$, then $G(\psi)A \subset AG(\psi)$, $G(\psi)x \in D(A)$, $G^{-1}(\psi)x \in D(A)$ and the next equalities are valid: $AG(\psi)x = G(\psi'')x + \psi'(0)x$, $AG^{-1}(\psi)x = -G(\psi')x - \psi(0)x$, see [10, Proposition 2.7]. The exponential region $E(\alpha, \beta) := \{\eta + i\xi : \eta \ge \beta, |\xi| \le e^{\alpha\eta}\}$ is introduced in [1]. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then we define $E^n(\alpha, \beta)$ by $E^n(\alpha, \beta) := \{z^n : z \in E(\alpha, \beta)\}$. Recall [10], a closed linear operator A generates a (DCF) iff there are constants α , β , M > 0 and $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ so that

$$E^2(\alpha,\beta) \subset \rho(A) \text{ and } ||R(\lambda:A)|| \leq M(1+|\lambda|)^n, \ \lambda \in E^2(\alpha,\beta).$$

If G is a (DCF), then we know that $\varphi(t) = \psi(t), t \ge 0$, for some $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}$, implies $G(\varphi) = G(\psi)$.

Operator cosine functions in any Banach space define distribution cosine functions. Differential operators in Euclidean spaces generate (global) α -times integrated cosine functions which define distribution cosine functions, see examples in [5]. More elaborate examples appear in [10, Section 6] and in the forth section of this paper.

2. CONVOLUTION PRODUCTS AND DISTRIBUTION COSINE FUNCTIONS

We starts proving an analogue of a formula $\cos(t + s) = \cos(t)\cos(s) - \sin(t)\sin(s)$ for distribution cosine functions.

Proposition 2.1. Let G be a distribution cosine function generated by (A, D(A)). Then

$$G(\varphi *_0 \psi)x = G(\varphi)G(\psi)x + AG^{-1}(\varphi)G^{-1}(\psi)x, \qquad \varphi, \ \psi \in \mathcal{D}, \ x \in E.$$

Proof. Notice, if φ , $\psi \in \mathcal{D}$, then $(\varphi *_0 \psi)'(t) = \varphi' *_0 \psi(t) + \varphi(0)\psi(t), t \in \mathbb{R}$. Since A generates the distribution cosine function G and $G(\varphi) = -G^{-1}(\varphi'), \varphi \in \mathcal{D}$, we have

$$G(\varphi *_0 \psi)x = -\varphi(0)G^{-1}(\psi)x - G^{-1}(\varphi' *_0 \psi)x$$
$$= G(\varphi)G(\psi)x + (-\varphi(0) - G(\varphi'))G^{-1}(\psi)x$$
$$= G(\varphi)G(\psi)x + AG^{-1}(\varphi)G^{-1}(\psi)x,$$

for any $x \in E$.

In the next theorem we characterize pre-distribution cosine functions by convolution products.

Theorem 2.2. Let $G \in \mathcal{D}'_0(L(E))$ satisfy $G(\varphi)G(\psi) = G(\psi)G(\varphi), \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (i) G is a pre-(DCF) and $G^{-1}(\Lambda(f \circ g g \circ f)) = G(\Lambda(f))G^{-1}(\Lambda(g)) G^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G(\Lambda(g))$, for all $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$.
- (ii) $G^{-1}(\Lambda(f *_{sc} g)) = G^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G(\Lambda(g)), \text{ for all } f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+.$

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii). Note, $f *_0 g(t) = (g *_{sc} f + f *_{sc} g)(t)$, $(f \circ g - g \circ f)(t) = (g *_{sc} f - f *_{sc} g)(t)$ and $\Lambda(f *_0 g)(t) = \Lambda(f) *_0 \Lambda(g)(t)$, for $t \ge 0$ and $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$. Moreover, $G^{-1}(\varphi) = 0$ if $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_{(-\infty,0]}$ and we obtain

$$G^{-1}(\Lambda(g *_{sc} f + f *_{sc} g)) = G^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G(\Lambda(g)) + G(\Lambda(f))G^{-1}(\Lambda(g)),$$

$$G^{-1}(\Lambda(g *_{sc} f - f *_{sc} g)) = G(\Lambda(f))G^{-1}(\Lambda(g)) - G^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G(\Lambda(g)).$$

It, in turn, implies $G^{-1}(\Lambda(f *_{sc} g)) = G^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G(\Lambda(g))$ for all $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$. (In this direction, we do not use $G(\varphi)G(\psi) = G(\psi)G(\varphi), \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}$).

(ii) \Rightarrow (i). Fix φ , $\psi \in \mathcal{D}$. Since $G(\varphi)G(\psi) = G(\psi)G(\varphi)$, we have $G^{-1}(\varphi)G(\psi) = G(\psi)G^{-1}(\varphi)$. As $\mathcal{K}(\varphi)*_0\mathcal{K}(\psi)(t) = (\mathcal{K}(\psi)*_{sc}\mathcal{K}(\varphi) + \mathcal{K}(\varphi)*_{sc}\mathcal{K}(\psi))(t)$ for $t \ge 0$, then

$$\begin{split} G^{-1}(\varphi *_{0}\psi) &= G^{-1}(\Lambda(\mathcal{K}(\varphi) *_{0}\mathcal{K}(\psi))) = G^{-1}(\Lambda(\mathcal{K}(\psi) *_{sc}\mathcal{K}(\varphi) + \mathcal{K}(\varphi) *_{sc}\mathcal{K}(\psi))) \\ &= G^{-1}(\Lambda\mathcal{K}(\varphi))G(\Lambda\mathcal{K}(\psi)) + G^{-1}(\Lambda\mathcal{K}(\psi))G(\Lambda\mathcal{K}(\varphi)) = G^{-1}(\varphi)G(\psi) + G^{-1}(\psi)G(\varphi) \\ &= G^{-1}(\varphi)G(\psi) + G(\varphi)G^{-1}(\psi). \end{split}$$

Hence, G is a pre-(DCF). Since $G(\varphi)G(\psi) = G(\psi)G(\varphi), \ \varphi, \ \psi \in \mathcal{D}$, the second equality follows from the assumption (ii):

$$G^{-1}(\Lambda(f \circ g - g \circ f)) = G^{-1}(\Lambda(g \ast_{sc} f - f \ast_{sc} g))$$
$$= G(\Lambda(f))G^{-1}(\Lambda(g)) - G^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G(\Lambda(g)),$$

for all $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$.

3. DISTRIBUTION COSINE FUNCTIONS AND ALMOST-DISTRIBUTION COSINE FUNCTIONS

We need the definition of an almost-distribution cosine function and its generator, see [13]. An element $G \in L(\mathcal{D}_+, L(E))$ is called an *almost-distribution cosine function* if it satisfies

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(i)
$$G(f *_c g) = G(f)G(g), f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$$
, and
(ii) $\bigcap_{f \in \mathcal{D}_+} \operatorname{Ker}(G(f)) = \{0\}.$

The generator A of G is defined by $A := \{(x, y) \in E^2 : G(f)y = G(f'')x + f'(0)x$, for all $f \in \mathcal{D}_+\}$. It is known that A is a closed linear operator. Further on, $G(f)A \subset AG(f)$, $G(f)x \in D(A)$ and AG(f)x = G(f'')x + f'(0)x, $f \in \mathcal{D}_+$. Recall, a global *n*-times integrated cosine function $(C_n(t))_{t\geq 0}$ defines an almost-distribution cosine functions G (cf. [13]) by

$$G(f)x = (-1)^n \int_0^\infty f^{(n)}(t)C_n(t)xdt, \qquad x \in E, \quad f \in \mathcal{D}_+.$$

Theorem 3.1. Let G be a (DCF) generated by A. Then $G\Lambda$ is an almostdistribution cosine function generated by A.

Proof. First of all, we have $G\Lambda \in L(\mathcal{D}_+, L(E))$. Since G is a (DCF) generated by A, it follows $\bigcap_{\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0} \operatorname{Ker}(G(\varphi)) = \{0\}$ ([10]). Hence, the condition (ii) in the definition of an almost-distribution cosine function is fulfilled. In order to prove (i), let us fix $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$. Suppose

(2)
$$\operatorname{supp} f \cup \operatorname{supp} g \cup (\operatorname{supp} f + \operatorname{supp} g) \cup \operatorname{supp} (f \circ g) \cup \operatorname{supp} (g \circ f) \subset [0, a],$$

for some $a \in (0, \infty)$. This implies $\operatorname{supp}(f *_c g) \subset [0, a]$ and $\operatorname{supp}(\Lambda(f *_c g)) \subset (-\infty, a]$. Due to [10, Theorem 3.6], there exists an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that A is the generator of an *n*-times integrated cosine function $(C_n(t))_{t \in [0,2a)}$. Then the proof of [10, Theorem 3.2] and [10, Corollary 3.11] imply

$$G(\varphi)x = (-1)^n \int_0^\infty \varphi^{(n)}(t)C_n(t)xdt, \ x \in E, \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}_{(-\infty,2a)}.$$

Therefore,

$$G\Lambda(f*_{c}g) = (-1)^{n} \int_{0}^{\infty} (\Lambda(f*_{c}g))^{(n)}(t)C_{n}(t)xdt = (-1)^{n} \int_{0}^{\infty} (f*_{c}g)^{(n)}(t)C_{n}(t)xdt$$

Clearly, $G\Lambda(f) = (-1)^n \int_0^\infty f^{(n)}(t) C_n(t) x dt$. Hence, we have to prove

(3)
$$(-1)^n \int_{0}^{\infty} (f *_c g)^{(n)}(t) C_n(t) x dt = (-1)^n \int_{0}^{\infty} f^{(n)}(t) C_n(t) \int_{0}^{\infty} g^{(n)}(s) C_n(s) x ds dt.$$

This can be obtained as in the proof of [13, Theorem 4] with $\alpha = n \in \mathbb{N}$. We want only to notice that (2) implies that Fubini theorem can be applied in the proofs of [14, Proposition 1.1] and [13, Theorem 4]. Let B be the generator of $G\Lambda$. We will prove A = B. Suppose $(x, y) \in A$. Then $G^{-1}(\varphi'')x = G^{-1}(\varphi)y$, for all $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0$. We will show

(4)
$$G\Lambda(f)y = G\Lambda(f'')x + f'(0)x, \text{ for all } f \in \mathcal{D}_+.$$

which implies $(x, y) \in B$ and $A \subset B$. Fix an $f \in \mathcal{D}_+$. Taking into account [10, Proposition 2.7], we have

$$G\Lambda(f)y = G\Lambda(f)Ax = AG(\Lambda(f))x = G((\Lambda(f))'')x + (\Lambda(f))'(0)x.$$

Since $(\Lambda(f))''(t) = \Lambda(f'')(t), t \ge 0$, one can continue as follows

$$= G(\Lambda(f''))x + f'(0)x,$$

and (4) holds. Suppose now $(x, y) \in B$. Then we know

(5)
$$G\Lambda(f)y = G\Lambda(f'')x + f'(0)x, \ \forall f \in \mathcal{D}_+.$$

One must prove that $G^{-1}(\varphi'')x = G^{-1}(\varphi)y, \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0$. Suppose $\operatorname{supp}\varphi \subset [0, b]$, for some b > 0. An analysis made in Introduction of [10] gives that $\operatorname{supp} I(\varphi) \subset [-2, b]$. Note, $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}I(\varphi)(t) = \varphi'(t) - \alpha'(t)\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\varphi(u)du, \ t \in \mathbb{R}$, and consequently, $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}I(\varphi)(t) = \varphi'(t), \ t \ge 0$. Then $I(\varphi)(t) = \Lambda(\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi)))(t), \ t \ge 0, \ (\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi)))'(0) = \varphi(0) - \alpha(0)\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\varphi(u)du = \varphi(0) = 0$ and $\Lambda((\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi)))''(t)) = (I(\varphi))''(t) = \varphi'(t), \ t \ge 0$. Now one obtains from (5):

$$G^{-1}(\varphi)y = -G(I(\varphi))y = -G(\Lambda(\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi))))y$$
$$= -(G\Lambda((\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi)))'')x + (\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi)))'(0)x)$$
$$= -G\Lambda((\mathcal{K}(I(\varphi)))'')x = -G(\varphi')x = G^{-1}(\varphi'')x,$$

which gives $(x, y) \in A$ and ends the proof.

Corollary 3.2. Let G be a (DCF) generated by A. Then

$$G(\Lambda(f *_s g)) = AG^{-1}(\Lambda(f))G^{-1}(\Lambda(g)), \qquad f, \ g \in \mathcal{D}_+.$$

Proof. Take $f, g \in \mathcal{D}_+$. Since $f *_0 g = f *_c g + f *_s g$, we apply Proposition

2.1 and Theorem 3.1 to obtain the equality.

Relations between distribution cosine functions and equations of convolution type are analyzed in [10]. The use of [10, Theorem 3.10] enables one to briefly prove the following and to show directly some other results (see for example [10, Proposition 4.10]):

Theorem 3.3. Let G_1 be an almost-distribution cosine function generated by A. Then A is the generator of a (DCF) G given by $G(\varphi) = G_1(\mathcal{K}(\varphi)), \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}$.

Proof. Note, if $\operatorname{supp} \varphi \subset (-\infty, 0)$, then $\mathcal{K}(\varphi) = 0$ in \mathcal{D}_+ , which clearly implies $\operatorname{supp} G \subset [0, \infty)$ and $G \in \mathcal{D}'_0(L(E))$. Recall, $G(f)A \subset AG(f)$, $G(f)x \in D(A)$, and AG(f)x = G(f'')x + f'(0)x, $f \in \mathcal{D}_+$; see [13, p. 178]. We want to prove that

(6)
$$AG(\varphi)x = G(\varphi'')x + \varphi'(0)x, \ x \in E, \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}, \text{ and} \\ G(\varphi)Ax = G(\varphi'')x + \varphi'(0)x, \ x \in D(A), \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}.$$

Let $x \in E$ and $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}$. Then $AG(\varphi)x = AG_1(\mathcal{K}(\varphi))x = G_1((\mathcal{K}(\varphi))'')x + \varphi'(0)x = G_1(\mathcal{K}(\varphi''))x + \varphi'(0)x = G(\varphi'')x + \varphi'(0)x$. Since $G_1A \subset AG_1$, the second equality in (6) can be proved similarly. It is evident that (6) implies $G \in \mathcal{D}'_0(L(E, [D(A)]))$. Moreover,

$$G * P = \delta' \otimes Id_{[D(A)]}$$
 and $P * G = \delta' \otimes Id_E$,

where we use the terminology given in [10, Section 3]: $P = \delta'' \otimes I - \delta \otimes A \in \mathcal{D}'_0(L([D(A)], E)), Id_{[D(A)]}$ denotes the inclusion $D(A) \to E$ and $(\delta^{(k)} \otimes Id_{[D(A)]})(\varphi)x = (-1)^k \varphi^{(k)}(0)x, (\delta^{(k)} \otimes I)(\varphi)x = (-1)^k \varphi^{(k)}(0)x, (\delta \otimes A)(\varphi)x = \varphi(0)Ax, \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}, \ x \in D(A), \ k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \text{ and } (\delta' \otimes Id_E)(\varphi)x = -\varphi'(0)x, \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}, \ x \in E.$ An application of [10, Theorem 3.10] gives that G is a (DCF) generated by A.

Corollary 3.4. Every almost-distribution cosine function is uniquely determined by its generator.

Proof. Suppose G_1 and G_2 are almost-distribution cosine functions generated by a closed linear operator A. Put $\mathcal{G}_i(\varphi) := G_i(\mathcal{K}(\varphi)), \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}, \ i = 1, 2$. Due to Theorem 3.3, \mathcal{G}_1 and \mathcal{G}_2 are distribution cosine functions generated by A and one can use [10, Corollary 3.11] in order to obtain that $\mathcal{G}_1 = \mathcal{G}_2$, i.e., $G_1(\mathcal{K}(\varphi)) =$ $G_2(\mathcal{K}(\varphi)), \ \varphi \in \mathcal{D}$. Since $\mathcal{K} : \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{D}_+$ is a surjective mapping, we have $G_1 = G_2$. This ends the proof. We note that the definition of a (local) α -times integrated cosine function $(C_{\alpha}(t))_{t\in[0,\tau)}, 0 < \tau \leq \infty$, is taken in the sense of [10, Definition 1.1]. The next result follows from [10, Theorem 3.6, Proposition 3.12], Theorem 3.1 and Theorem 3.3:

Theorem 3.5. Let A be a closed linear operator. Then the next assertions are equivalent:

- (i) A is the generator of a (DCF).
- (ii) A is the generator of an almost-distribution cosine function.
- (iii) There exist $\tau > 0$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that A is the generator of an n-times integrated cosine function on $[0, \tau)$.
- (iv) For every $\tau > 0$ there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that A is the generator of an n-times integrated cosine function on $[0, \tau)$.
- (v) $\rho(A) \neq \emptyset$ and there exist $\lambda \in \rho(A)$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\tau \in (0, \infty]$ such that A is the generator of an $R(\lambda : A)^n$ -cosine function on $[0, \tau)$.
- (vi) There are constants α , β , M > 0 and $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ so that

$$E^2(\alpha,\beta) \subset \rho(A) \text{ and } ||R(\lambda:A)|| \leq M(1+|\lambda|)^n, \ \lambda \in E^2(\alpha,\beta).$$

Some other equivalent conditions can be found in [10].

4. AN APPLICATION

The main aim of this section is to present some new relations between distribution cosine functions and ultradistribution semigroups of [2, 3] and [9]. We recall the basic notions and notations from the theory of ultradistribution spaces and ultradistribution semigroups. In this section, we always assume that $(M_p)_p$ is a sequence of positive numbers, $M_0 = 1$, such that the following conditions are fulfilled:

- (M.1) $M_p^2 \le M_{p+1}M_{p-1}, \ p \in \mathbb{N},$
- (M.2) $M_p \leq AH^p \min_{0 \leq i \leq p} M_i M_{p-i}, \ p \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ for some } A, \ H > 0,$
- (M.3') $\sum_{p=1}^{\infty} \frac{M_{p-1}}{M_p} < \infty.$

Let s > 1. The Gevrey sequences $(p!^s)$, (p^{ps}) or $(\Gamma(1+ps))$ satisfy the above conditions. The associated function of (M_p) is defined by $M(\rho) := \sup_{p \in \mathbb{N}_0} \ln \frac{\rho^p}{M_p}$, $\rho > 0$; M(0) := 0. We know that there exists a sufficiently small $\varepsilon > 0$ so that $M(\rho) = 0$ if $\rho \in [0, \varepsilon]$. Furthermore, $M : [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ is increasing, $\lim_{\rho \to \infty} \frac{M(\rho)}{\rho^k} = 0$, $\lim_{\rho \to \infty} \frac{(\ln \rho)^k}{M(\rho)} = 0$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and, for every Gevrey sequence, there exists a constant $C_s > 0$ such that the associated function satisfies $\lim_{\rho \to \infty} \frac{M(\rho)}{C_s \rho^{\frac{1}{s}}} = 1$. We refer to [7] for the fundamental facts concerning projective and inductive limits of locally convex spaces. Let us introduce now the basic ultradistribution type spaces used in this paper. For more details, see [7-9]. Let K be a compact subset of \mathbb{R} and h > 0. The space $\mathcal{D}_{K}^{M_{p},h}$ is consisted of all functions $\phi \in C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ with $\operatorname{supp} \phi \subset K$ and $||\phi||_{M_{p},h} := \sup\{\frac{h^{p}|\phi^{(p)}(t)|}{M_{p}}: t \in K, p \in \mathbb{N}_{0}\} < \infty$. Recall, $(\mathcal{D}_{K}^{M_{p},h}, ||\phi||_{M_{p},h})$ is a Banach space and the spaces $\mathcal{D}_{K}^{(M_{p})}$ and $\mathcal{D}_{K}^{\{M_{p}\}}$ are defined as follows: $\mathcal{D}_{K}^{(M_{p})} := \operatorname{proj} \lim_{h\to\infty} \mathcal{D}_{K}^{M_{p},h}$ and $\mathcal{D}_{K}^{\{M_{p}\}} := \operatorname{ind} \lim_{h\to0} \mathcal{D}_{K}^{M_{p},h}$. Let (K_{n}) be a sequence of compact subsets of \mathbb{R} with smooth boundary such that $\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} K_{n} = \mathbb{R}$ and that $K_{n} \subset (K_{n+1})^{\circ}$. Then we define the space of Beurling ultradifferentiable functions $\mathcal{D}^{(M_{p})} = \mathcal{D}^{(M_{p})}(\mathbb{R}) := \operatorname{ind} \lim_{n\to\infty} \mathcal{D}_{K_{n}}^{(M_{p})}$ and the space of Roumieu ultradifferentiable functions $\mathcal{D}^{\{M_{p}\}} = \mathcal{D}^{\{M_{p}\}}(\mathbb{R}) := \operatorname{ind} \lim_{n\to\infty} \mathcal{D}_{K_{n}}^{\{M_{p}\}}$. Note only that these definitions do not depend on the choice of a sequence (K_{n}) . With the notation * for both cases of brackets, we denote by $\mathcal{D}'^{*}(E) := L(\mathcal{D}^{*}(\mathbb{R}), E)$ the space of continuous linear functions from $\mathcal{D}^{*}(\mathbb{R})$ into $E; \mathcal{D}_{0}^{*}(E)$ denotes the space of elements in $\mathcal{D}'^{*}(E)$ which are supported by $[0,\infty)$. We refer to [8] for the definition of convolution of vector valued ultradifferentiable functions and vector valued ultradistributions. The next definition of an ultradistribution semigroup of *-class and its generator was employed by H. Komatsu in [9].

Definition 4.1. Let A be a closed linear operator. An element $G \in \mathcal{D}_0^{'*}(L(E))$ is an ultradistribution semigroup of *-class generated by A if $G \in \mathcal{D}_0^{'*}(L(E, [D(A)]))$ satisfies

$$G * P = \delta' \otimes Id_{[D(A)]}$$
 and $P * G = \delta' \otimes Id_E$.

If k > 0 and C > 0, put $\Omega_{k,C} := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re}(\lambda) \ge M(k|\lambda|) + C\}.$

Lemma 4.2. ([9]) A closed linear operator A is the generator of an ultradistribution class of the Beurling class (Roumieu class) if and only if there exist k > 0 and C > 0 (for every k > 0 there exists a suitable $C_k > 0$) such that $\Omega_{k,C} \subset \rho(A)$ ($\Omega_{k,C_k} \subset \rho(A)$) and that $||R(\lambda : A)|| \leq Ce^{M(k|\lambda|)}$, $\lambda \in \Omega_{k,C}$ ($||R(\lambda : A)|| \leq C_k e^{M(k|\lambda|)}$, $\lambda \in \Omega_{k,C_k}$).

Let (N_p) and (R_p) be sequences of positive numbers which satisfy (M.1). Following Z. Chou (cf. for example [7, Definition 3.9, p. 53]), we write $N_p \prec R_p$ if and only if, for every $\delta \in (0, \infty)$, $\sup_{p \in \mathbb{N}_0} \frac{N_p \delta^p}{R_p} < \infty$.

Now we are able to state the main result of this section. It is a generalization of [6, Theorem 3.1] where the corresponding result is proved for the class of dense exponential distribution cosine functions (see [10]). Furthermore, we want to give more precise information concerning a corresponding sequence (M_p) and to clarify

some differences between the Beurling case and the Roumieu case (see Example 4.4 given below).

Theorem 4.3. Suppose that a closed linear operator A generates a distribution cosine function. If (M_p) additionally satisfies $M_p \prec p!^s$, for some $s \in (1, 2)$, then $\pm iA$ generate (M_p) -ultradistribution semigroups of *-class.

Proof. We will prove the assertion only for iA since the same arguments work for -iA. Due to Theorem 3.5, there exist α , β , M > 0 and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $E^2(\alpha, \beta) \subset \rho(A)$ and that $||R(\lambda : A)|| \leq M(1 + |\lambda|)^n$, $\lambda \in E^2(\alpha, \beta)$. Put $\Gamma' := \partial E^2(\alpha, \beta)$ and $\Gamma := i\Gamma'$. Then it can be easily seen that $\Gamma' = \Gamma'_1 \cup \Gamma'_2 \cup \Gamma'_3$, where:

- (1) Γ'_1 is a part of the parabola $\{x + iy : x = \beta^2 \frac{y^2}{4\beta^2}\}$; further on, Γ'_1 is contained in some compact subset of \mathbb{C} ,
- (2) $\Gamma'_2 = \{t^2 e^{2\alpha t} + 2te^{\alpha t}i : t \ge \beta\}$ and $\Gamma'_3 = \{t^2 e^{2\alpha t} 2te^{\alpha t}i : t \ge \beta\}.$

This implies that, for every $c \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$, we have

(7)
$$\lim_{\lambda\in\Gamma,\ |\lambda|\to\infty}\frac{|\mathrm{Im}(\lambda)|^c}{|\mathrm{Re}(\lambda)|}=\infty.$$

It is clear that the curve Γ divides the complex plane into two disjunct open sets. Denote by Ω one of such two sets which contains a ray (ω, ∞) , for some $\omega > 0$. Fix a k > 0. Since $\Omega \subset \rho(iA)$ and $||R(\cdot : iA)||$ is polynomially bounded on Ω , the proof will be completed if one shows that there exists a suitable $C_k > 0$ with

(8)
$$\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re}(\lambda) \ge M(k|\lambda|) + C_k\} \subset \Omega.$$

Note, (7) implies that, for every $c \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$, there exists a sufficiently large $K_c > 0$ satisfying

(9)
$$\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re}(\lambda) \ge |\operatorname{Im}(\lambda)|^c + K_c\} \subset \Omega.$$

Choose an $s \in (1,2)$ with $M_p \prec p!^s$. Then an application of [7, Lemma 3.10] gives that there exists a constant $C_{k,s} > 0$ with $\rho^{\frac{1}{s}} \leq M(k\rho) + \ln C_{k,s}, \ \rho \geq 0$. Moreover, there exists a suitable $K_{\frac{1}{s}} > 0$ such that (9) holds with $c = \frac{1}{s}$. Now it is straightforward to see that (8) is valid with $C_k = \ln C_{k,s} + K_{\frac{1}{s}}$. Indeed, if $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) \geq M(k|\lambda|) + \ln C_{k,s} + K_{\frac{1}{s}}$, then $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) \geq |\lambda|^{\frac{1}{s}} + K_{\frac{1}{s}}$, and due to (9), $\lambda \in \Omega$.

Since

(10)
$$\lim_{\xi \to +\infty} \frac{\Gamma(\xi)}{\xi^{\xi - \frac{1}{2}} e^{-\xi}} = \sqrt{2\pi},$$

a Gevrey type sequence (M_p) fulfills the assumption of Theorem 4.3 if and only if $s \in (1, 2)$. The next illustrative example shows that Theorem 4.3 does not hold in the case of a general sequence (M_p) .

Example 4.4. Let $E := L^{p}(\mathbb{R})$, $1 \le p < \infty$ and $m(x) = (1 - \frac{x^{2}}{4}) + ix$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Define a closed linear operator A on E by: Af(x) = m(x)f(x), $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $D(A) := \{f \in E : mf \in E\}$. As a matter of routine, one can check that A generates a dense exponential (DCF) (cf. [10]) and that $\sigma(iA) = \{x + (1 - \frac{x^{2}}{4})i : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Suppose now $M_{p} = p!^{2}$. We will show that iA generates an ultradistribution semigroup of the Beurling class and that iA is not the generator of an ultradistribution semigroup of the Roumieu class. First of all, we know that there exist constants $\omega > 0$, a > 0 and b > 0 with $a\rho^{1/2} \le M(\rho)$, $\rho \ge \omega$ and $M(\rho) \le b\rho^{1/2}$, $\rho \ge 0$. The consideration is over if one shows that

(11)
$$\partial\Omega_{k,C} \cap \sigma(iA) = \emptyset, \text{ for every } k \in (\frac{4}{a^2}, \infty)$$
and a sufficiently large $C > 0$, and that

(12)
$$\partial \Omega_{k,C} \cap \sigma(iA) \neq \emptyset$$
, for every $k \in (0, \frac{4}{b^2})$ and $C > 0$.

Let $k \in (\frac{4}{a^2}, \infty)$. Choose a $C \geq \frac{\omega}{k}$. In order to obtain (11), note that, if $x + iy \in \partial\Omega_{k,C}$, then $x \geq C$, $k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \geq kx \geq kC \geq \omega$. Thus, $x = M(k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) + C \geq a\sqrt{k}\sqrt[4]{x^2 + y^2} + C$. This estimate ensures one to see that for a sufficiently large C > 0, the curve $\partial\Omega_{k,C}$ lies above the graph of the function $f(x) = -\sqrt{\frac{(x-C)^4}{a^4k^2} - x^2}$; moreover, $f(x) \sim -\frac{x^2}{a^2k}$, $x \to +\infty$. Therefore, the choice of k implies that there exists a suitable $\beta > 0$ such that a part of the parabola $y = -\frac{x^2}{a^2k}$, $x \geq \beta$ has the empty intersection with $\sigma(iA)$. It immediately implies (11) while (12) follows similarly from the facts that, for every $k \in (0, \frac{4}{b^2})$ and C > 0, the interior of the parabola $y = -\frac{x^2}{b^2k}$ is strictly contained in that of $y = -\frac{x^2}{4}$ and that, for $x + iy \in \partial\Omega_{k,C}$, we have $x = M(k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) + C \leq b\sqrt{k}\sqrt[4]{x^2 + y^2} + C$. At the end of this analysis, we point out that the implication: G is an ultradistribution semigroup of *-class $\Rightarrow \bigcap_{\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0^*} \operatorname{Kern}(G(\varphi)) = \{0\}$, is not true in general (see [3]

and [11]). In the case of densely defined operators, the concept of regular ultradistribution semigroups of Beurling class was introduced by I. Cioranescu in [3] for this purpose. An application of [3, Proposition 2.6] gives that the operator iA, considered above, generates a regular ultradistribution semigroup of (p^{2p}) -class G (cf. [3] for the notion), i.e., $\bigcap_{\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0^*} \operatorname{Kern}(G(\varphi)) = \{0\}$ and $\bigcup_{\varphi \in \mathcal{D}_0^*} \operatorname{Im}(G(\varphi))$ is dense in E. Similarly, if $M_p = p!^s$, s > 2, then it can be proved that iA does not generate an ultradistribution semigroup of the Beurling, resp., Roumieu class. Evidently, the same assertions are valid for -iA.

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