

Heat Diffusion on Homogeneous Trees

MAURO PAGLIACCI*

*Facoltà di Economia, Università della Calabria,
87036 Arcavacata di Rende (CS), Italy*

AND

MASSIMO A. PICARDELLO†

*Dipartimento di Matematica, Università di Roma "Tor Vergata,"
Via della Ricerca Scientifica, 00133 Rome, Italy; and
University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742*

Let X be a homogeneous tree. We study the heat diffusion process associated with the nearest neighbour isotropic Markov operator on X . In particular it is shown that the heat maximal operator is weak type $(1, 1)$ and strong type (p, p) , for every $1 < p < \infty$. We estimate the asymptotic behaviour of the heat maximal function. Moreover, we introduce a family of H^p spaces on X . It is proved that $H^p = l^p(X)$ for $1 < p < \infty$ and is conjectured that H^p , for p less than 1, is trivial.

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1. HEAT MAXIMAL OPERATOR ON TREES

This paper deals with the following question. We are given a homogeneous tree whose edges have the same thermal conductivity. Suppose that one vertex is at a positive temperature at time zero, whereas the others are at temperature zero. What is the highest temperature that the generic vertex x attains?

The asymptotic behaviour, for $n \rightarrow \infty$, of the temperature distribution $\varphi(x, n)$ at time n is given by the local limit theorem, extensively studied in the literature [Sa, Pi, Ge]. These asymptotic estimates are not sufficient to yield bounds for the highest temperature $\Phi(x) = \sup_{n \geq 0} \varphi(x, n)$. Explicit

* Partially supported by "Gruppo Nazionale di Analisi Funzionale"; e-mail: map@ipguniv.bitnet, map@ccusc1.unical.it.

† Partially supported by "Gruppo Nazionale di Analisi Funzionale" and CNR-Nato Senior Fellowship 117/25; e-mail: picard@irmtvm51.bitnet, picard@vax.mat.utovrm51.bitnet.

formulas for $\varphi(x, n)$ are given in [Gr, LM, Pa] but these formulas seem inadequate to answer our question. This paper gives an estimate for $\Phi(x)$ and investigates its role as a maximal operator on trees, which can be of interest to introduce and study suitable Hardy spaces.

More precisely, X is a homogeneous tree, that is, a graph without loops, and with the same number of edges joining each vertex. We denote this number by $q + 1$, with $q \geq 1$. The case $q = 1$ corresponds to a linear tree, isomorphic to the integers. The case $q > 1$ gives rise to a nontrivial tree (which is a transitive and simply transitive homogeneous space under groups of type $*_{i=1}^{q+1} \mathbb{Z}_2$ and other free products and free groups: see [BP]). We write $x \sim y$ if two vertices x and y are *neighbours*, i.e., if they are joined by an edge of X .

Let us equip X with the isotropic nearest neighbour transition operator P , defined by $p(x, y) = 1/(q + 1)$, if $x \sim y$, $p(x, y) = 0$ otherwise. We often regard P as an operator acting on functions defined on the vertices of X , by the rule $Pf(x) = \sum_y p(x, y) f(y)$. By iteration, P gives rise to a semigroup. Regarding P as the generator of a *Brownian motion on X with discrete time*, i.e., a random walk, it is natural to think of its associated semigroups as a heat diffusion semigroup. In other words, we may identify the semigroup with the countable diffusion process where all the heat is concentrated at a reference vertex o at time 0 and, at time n , the temperature of a vertex x is exactly $p^{(n)}(o, x)$ (here $P^{(n)}$ denotes the n th iterate of P). In other words, the map $(n, x) \mapsto p^{(n)}(o, x)$ is the fundamental solution of the heat equation with singularity in $x = 0$ for $n = 0$. The reader is referred to [Pa] for more details on the heat equation on homogeneous trees, and for an explicit formula for its fundamental solution; see also [LM].

It is now natural to introduce a *heat maximal operator*. For $f \in l^1(X)$ (the space of summable functions defined on the vertices of X), define

$$\mathcal{M}f(x) = \sup_{n \geq 0} (P^{(n)}f(x)) = \sup_{n \geq 0} \left(\sum_{y \in X} p^{(n)}(x, y) f(y) \right).$$

It is not easy to obtain explicit formulas for this nonlinear operator. But we can estimate \mathcal{M} by introducing another linear operator M which dominates it,

$$Mf(x) = \sum_{y \in X} \left(\sup_{n \geq 0} p^{(n)}(x, y) \right) f(y).$$

The operator M is linear. Recall that X is a simply transitive homogeneous space under a suitable countable group Γ and P is a group invariant

transition operator. Then M is naturally identified with the left convolution operator (under the group Γ) by the *heat maximal function*

$$\Phi(x) = \sup_{n \geq 0} p^{(n)}(o, x).$$

Obviously,

$$|\mathcal{M}f(x)| \leq M(|f|)(x) = (\Phi * |f|)(x).$$

Therefore any l^p or weak l^p estimate that we may be able to prove for M will also hold for \mathcal{M} . Actually, with abuse of terminology, from now on we refer to M as the heat maximal operator on X .

Some preliminary estimates on M are essentially known.

PROPOSITION 1.1. *The operator M is of weak type $(1, 1)$, and it is bounded on $l^p(X)$, for every $1 < p < \infty$.*

COROLLARY 1.2. *\mathcal{M} is weak type $(1, 1)$ and strong type (p, p) , for every $1 < p < \infty$.*

Proof of Proposition 1.1. Let us denote by $G(x, y)$ the Green function with singularity at $x = 0$. That is, $G(x, y) = \sum_{n \geq 0} p^{(n)}(x, y)$ (the expected number of visits to the vertex x of the random walk generated by P , starting at x) is the fundamental solution of the ‘‘Laplace operator’’ $P - \mathbb{1}$ (here $\mathbb{1}$ denotes the identity operator):

$$(P - \mathbb{1})Gf = -f, \quad \text{for every } f \in l^1(X).$$

By Theorem 21 of [RT], the operator G is weak type $(1, 1)$ and bounded in $l^p(X)$ for $1 < p < \infty$. On the other hand,

$$\Phi(x) = \sup_n p^{(n)}(o, x) \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p^{(n)}(o, x) = G(o, x).$$

Hence G dominates M and also M is bounded in l^p , $1 < p < \infty$, and weak type $(1, 1)$. ■

By its definition, the heat maximal function has a natural interpretation in the heat diffusion model introduced above: $\Phi(x)$ represents the maximum temperature reached at the vertex x if heat is concentrated in the vertex o . By the local limit theorem (see [Sa, Pi]), the temperature of the vertex x decays, when the time n grows, as $C(x)(2\sqrt{q/(q+1)})n^{-3/2}$, where $C(x)$ is independent of n . But this does not say anything about the *maximum* temperature attained by x .

In Section 2 we determine exactly the asymptotic behaviour of $\Phi(x)$. In particular, we show that $\Phi \in l^p$, for every $p > 1$, but $\Phi \notin l^1$. Here is a sketch

of our approach towards an estimate for Φ . We reduce the diffusion process to an analogous process on \mathbb{N} with transition rules $r(n, n-1) = (1/(q+1))$, $r(n, n+1) = q/(q+1)$ for $n \geq 1$, and $r(0, 1) = 1$. This process, in turn, is approximated with the shift invariant process on \mathbb{Z} given by $r(n, n-1) = 1/(q+1)$, $r(n, n+1) = q/(q+1)$, for every n . The latter process can be studied explicitly, and by a careful control of the approximation errors, we are able to determine how much time elapses before x reaches its maximum temperature, after being reached by the "heat wave" generated at the vertex o at time 0. The exponential growth of X might suggest that heat disperses very quickly, and therefore this time delay should be small, much smaller than the time needed for the heat to reach x (which is exactly $|x| = \text{dist}(o, x)$, of course). But, surprisingly, this is not so: the time delay is of the order of $|x|/(q-1)$, linear in $|x|$. Because of this fact, Φ is not so small as to belong to $l^1(X)$, although it does belong to l^p , for every $1 < p < \infty$.

A potential application of this estimate is a new theory of H^p spaces on X . H^p spaces associated to a large class of transitive operators on general (not necessarily homogeneous) trees were studied in [KPT, DP], as spaces of harmonic functions on the vertices of the tree. The boundary values of these functions may be regarded either as functions or as "distributions" on the boundary Ω of the tree. Our maximal operator gives rise to a different notion of H^p , whose functions are defined on the vertices of X but are not harmonic. In a natural sense they may be extended to "harmonic" functions on the "half-space" $X \times \mathbb{N}$. In other words, H^p -functions on X now play the role of boundary values of a suitable class of harmonic function defined on a larger space, whose boundary is X .

We say that a function $f \in l^1(X)$ belongs to H^p if Mf belongs to $l^1(X)$.

Since $\Phi \in l^p(X)$, for every $p > 1$, the Dirac masses all belong to H^p , for $p > 1$, hence $H^p = l^p(X)$, for $p > 1$. But $\Phi \notin l^1(X)$ and a function f may belong to H^1 only if it has enough cancellation to allow $\Phi * f$ to decay at infinity at a sufficiently fast rate. By analogy with some symmetric spaces, one may expect H^p to be trivial (that is, $H^p = \{0\}$), for $p < 1$. In Section 3 we gather some computational evidence in support of this conjecture, by producing a large class of typical test functions in $l^p(X)$ that do not belong to H^p .

2. AN ESTIMATE FOR THE HEAT MAXIMAL FUNCTION

For two functions f and g of a variable x we use the notation $f \approx g$ if there exist constants C_1, C_2 with $0 < C_1 < C_2$ such that

$$C_1 g(x) \leq f(x) \leq C_2 g(x), \quad \text{for every } x.$$

THEOREM 2.1 (An estimate for the Heat Maximal Function). *There exists a sequence $\{h_j\}$, with $h_j \approx j^{-1/2}q^{-j}$ such that, if $|x| = j$, we have*

$$\Phi(x) = h_j + O(j^{-3/2}q^{-j}).$$

Proof. We split the proof into several lemmas. The basic idea of the proof is that, because of the isotropy, the random walk generated by μ_1 can be considered as a random walk on \mathbb{N} with one-step transition probabilities given by

$$r(0, 1) = 1, \quad r(n, n+1) = \frac{q}{q+1}, \quad r(n, n-1) = \frac{1}{q+1} \quad (\text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Let $r_+ = r(n, n+1)$ and $r_- = r(n, n-1)$. Let R be the operator on \mathbb{N} given by the above transition probabilities. Then $P^{(n)}(x)$, the n th convolution power of P , is given by

$$p^{(n)}(o, x) = \frac{r^{(n)}(0, |x|)}{w_n},$$

where $w_n = (q+1)q^{n-1}$ is the cardinality of the set W_n of vertices at distance n from the origin of X . The random walk on \mathbb{N} generated by R was studied in [Gr].

We consider the transition invariant operator \tilde{R} on \mathbb{Z} given by $\tilde{r}(n, n+1) = r_+$, $\tilde{r}(n, n-1) = r_-$ and we compare the probabilities of getting from 0 to j under the operators R and \tilde{R} , both regarded as operators on \mathbb{Z} . Observe that all paths from 0 to j in n steps, with $n \geq j$, must include loops. That is, there are k edges in \mathbb{Z} that are crossed at least twice in opposite directions. Note that there are exactly $\binom{n}{k}$ such paths and $n = j + 2k$. Each such path yields the same contribution to the probability $\tilde{r}^{(n)}(0, j)$: namely $r_+^{j+k}r_-^k$. Therefore

$$\tilde{r}^{(j+2k)}(j) = \binom{j+2k}{k} r_+^{j+k} r_-^k = \binom{j+2k}{k} \frac{q^{j+k}}{(q+1)^{j+2k}}.$$

LEMMA 2.2. *For each x , with $|x| = j$, one has*

$$\sup_{n \geq 0} r^{(n)}(j) \approx \sup_{n \geq 0} \tilde{r}^{(n)}(j).$$

Proof. To prove the lemma we make use of an explicit formula for $r^{(n)}(j)$ given in [Gr, Lemma 4.1]. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
r^{(j+2k)}(j) &= (r_+ r_-)^{j/2+k} \left(\frac{r_+}{r_-}\right)^{j/2} \\
&\quad \times \left\{ \binom{j+2k}{k} + \frac{r_+}{r_-} \binom{j+2k}{j+k} - \frac{r_+ - r_-}{r_+ r_-} \sum_{t=1}^k \left(\frac{r_+}{r_-}\right)^t \binom{j+2k}{j+k+t} \right\} \\
&= \frac{q^{j+k}}{(q+1)^{j+2k}} \left\{ \frac{q+1}{q} \binom{j+2k}{k} - \frac{q^2-1}{q} \sum_{t=1}^k q^{-t} \binom{j+2k}{j+k+t} \right\} \\
&\leq \frac{q+1}{q} \tilde{r}^{(j+2k)}(j).
\end{aligned}$$

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned}
r^{(j+2k)}(j) &= \frac{q^{j+k}}{(q+1)^{j+2k}} \left\{ \binom{j+2k}{k} + \frac{1}{q} \binom{j+2k}{k} - \frac{q^2-1}{q} \sum_{t=1}^k q^{-t} \binom{j+2k}{j+k+t} \right\} \\
&\geq \frac{q^{j+k}}{(q+1)^{j+2k}} \left\{ \binom{j+2k}{k} - \frac{q^2-1}{q} \sum_{t=1}^k q^{-t} \binom{j+2k}{j+k+t} \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

But, since $t \geq 1$ and $j+k > n/2 = (j+2k)/2$, we have

$$\binom{j+2k}{j+k+t} < \binom{j+2k}{j+k} = \binom{j+2k}{k}.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
r^{(j+2k)}(j) &\geq \frac{q^{j+k}}{(q+1)^{j+2k}} \binom{j+2k}{k} \left\{ 1 - \frac{q^2-1}{q} \sum_{t=1}^k q^{-t} \right\} \\
&= \tilde{r}^{(j+2k)}(j) \left\{ 1 - \frac{q+1}{q} (1-q^{-k}) \right\} \\
&\geq \frac{1}{q} \tilde{r}^{(j+2k)}(j). \quad \blacksquare
\end{aligned}$$

To prove the theorem we must find the value of $n = n(j)$ for which $\bar{r}^{(n)}(j)$ attains the maximum, i.e., we must find the maximum point, denoted by k_0 , for the function

$$k \mapsto \binom{n}{k} r_+^{j+k} r_-^k.$$

For such k_0 we must have

$$\binom{n+2}{k+1} r_+^{j+k+1} r_-^{k+1} < \binom{n}{k} r_+^{j+k} r_-^k, \quad (1)$$

but

$$\binom{n}{k} r_+^{j+k} r_-^k > \binom{n-2}{k-1} r_+^{j+k-1} r_-^{k-1}.$$

Set

$$B(j, k) = \binom{n}{k} / \binom{n+2}{k+1} = \frac{(k+1)(j+k+1)}{(j+2k+2)(j+2k+1)}.$$

Then (1) is equivalent to

$$\frac{q}{(q+1)^2} = r_- r_+ < B(j, k). \quad (2)$$

LEMMA 2.3. For $j \geq 2$, the function

$$k \mapsto B(j, k), \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{N}$$

has a unique extreme point.

Proof. For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\frac{d}{dk} B(j, k) = \frac{-2k^2 + 2(j^2 - j + 2)k + j^3 + j^2 - 2j - 2}{(j+2k+2)^2 (j+2k+1)^2}.$$

Therefore, for $k = 0$,

$$\operatorname{sgn} \left(\frac{d}{dk} B(j, k) \right) = \operatorname{sgn}(j^3 + j^2 - 2j - 2)$$

and this is positive if $j \geq 2$. Moreover, if $k \rightarrow \pm\infty$, the numerator in $(d/dk) B(j, k)$ tends to $-\infty$. Therefore $(d/dk) B(j, k) = 0$ has exactly two real solutions, only one of which is positive. ■

Let $c = q/(q + 1)^2$.

COROLLARY 2.4. For each $j \geq 2$, the equation

$$B(j, k) = c \tag{3}$$

has only one positive (real) solution.

Proof. For every $q \geq 1$,

$$c < \frac{1}{4} = \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} B(j, k).$$

In the proof of Lemma 2.3 we showed that for $j \geq 2$, $B(j, k)$ is monotonically decreasing for large k . Therefore, if $B(j, k_0) = c$, then $B(j, k)$ must have a maximum point for some $k > k_0$. Now, if there were two solutions k_1, k_2 of the equation in the statement, then $(d/dk) B(j, k) = 0$ for some $k' \in [k_1, k_2]$ and for some other $k'' > k_2$. ■

This proves that there exists exactly one value k_0 of k such that (2) is true for k_0 but not for $k_0 - 1$.

Let us denote by $\tilde{k}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+$ the positive solution of (3), which is given by

$$\tilde{k}_0 = \tilde{k}_0(j) = -\frac{1}{2\beta} (\alpha + \beta j - \sqrt{\gamma + \beta j^2}),$$

where $\alpha = 2(1 - 3c)$, $\beta = 1 - 4c$, and $\gamma = 4c^2$.

Now we ask the following question: How long does it take for a vertex of the tree to reach the maximum temperature, after having been hit by a “heat wave” originating at the reference vertex o ? The next lemma gives an approximate answer (the expected delay computed in its statement is real, but not necessarily integer).

LEMMA 2.5. $\tilde{k}_0 = \tilde{k}_0(j) = j/(q - 1) + K_q + O(j^{-1})$, where

$$K_q = \frac{(q^2 - q + 1)}{(q - 1)^2}.$$

Proof. Observe first that

$$\frac{j}{q - 1} = -\frac{1}{2\beta} (\beta j - \sqrt{\beta j^2}).$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{k}_0(j) - \frac{j}{q - 1} &= \tilde{k}_0(j) - \left(-\frac{1}{2\beta} (\beta j - \sqrt{\beta j^2}) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\beta} (\sqrt{\beta} j (\sqrt{1 + \gamma/(\beta j^2)} - 1) - \alpha) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= -\frac{\alpha}{2\beta} + \frac{1}{2\beta} \left(\sqrt{\beta} j \left(\frac{\gamma}{2\beta j^2} \right) \right) + O(j^{-4}) \\
&= -\frac{\alpha}{2\beta} + O(j^{-1}) = \frac{q^2 - q + 1}{(q-1)^2} + O(j^{-1}). \quad \blacksquare
\end{aligned}$$

We want to estimate $\Phi(x) = \sup_{n \geq 0} p^{(n)}(o, x)$. By Lemma 2.2, if $|x| = j$,

$$\Phi(x) = p^{(j+2k_0)}(o, x) \approx \frac{\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j)}{w_n} = \frac{\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j)}{(q+1)q^{j-1}}.$$

But

$$\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j) = \binom{j+2k_0}{k_0} \frac{q^{j+k_0}}{(q+1)^{j+2k_0}}. \quad (4)$$

Let $\vartheta_j = \lfloor j/(q-1) \rfloor$. Then

$$\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j) = \binom{j+2\vartheta_j}{\vartheta_j} \frac{q^{j+\vartheta_j}}{(q+1)^{j+2\vartheta_j}}.$$

With notation as in (4), it is easy to check that

$$\frac{\tilde{r}^{(j+2(k_0+1))}(j)}{\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j)} = \frac{1}{B(j, k_0)} \frac{q}{(q+1)^2},$$

and

$$\frac{\tilde{r}^{(j+2(k_0-1))}(j)}{\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j)} = B(j, k_0-1) \frac{(q+1)^2}{q}.$$

Therefore, by Lemma 2.3, $\tilde{r}^{(j+2(k_0(j) \pm 1))}(j)/\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0(j))}(j)$ is bounded above and below with respect to j . By Lemma 2.5, $k_0 = \vartheta_j + K_q + O(j^{-1})$. Iterating the above argument we see that

$$\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j) \approx \tilde{r}^{(j+\vartheta_j)}(j).$$

Now it is enough to give an estimate of the binomial coefficient $\binom{j+2\vartheta_j}{\vartheta_j}$. We achieve this by making use of the Stirling formula

$$\sqrt{2\pi n} n^n e^{-n} < n! < \sqrt{2\pi n} n^n e^{-n} e^{1/4n}.$$

Let

$$\lambda(j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\sqrt{j+2\vartheta_j}}{\sqrt{(j+\vartheta_j)\vartheta_j}} \frac{(1+2\vartheta_j)^{1+2\vartheta_j}}{(1+\vartheta_j)^{1+\vartheta_j} \vartheta_j^{\vartheta_j}}. \quad (5)$$

The Stirling formula yields

$$\lambda(j) \exp\left(\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{1}{j+\vartheta_j} + \frac{1}{\vartheta_j}\right)\right) < \binom{j+2\vartheta_j}{\vartheta_j} < \lambda(j) \exp\left(\frac{1}{4(j+2\vartheta_j)}\right). \quad (6)$$

LEMMA 2.6. *Let*

$$A(s) = \frac{(1+2s)^{1+2s}}{(1+s)^{1+s} s^s}.$$

Then $A(s) \approx A[s]$, if $0 < s < K$, with constants depending only on K .

Proof. It is enough to show that, for every $s > 0$, $(1+s)^{1+s} \approx (1+[s])^{1+[s]}$, and $s^s \approx [s]^{[s]}$. On the other hand, $(1+s)^{1+s}$ is monotone increasing for $s > 0$, and s^s is bounded if $0 \leq s \leq 1$. Therefore it suffices to show that, for $s > 0$,

$$(1+s)^{1+s} \approx (1+(s+1))^{1+(s+1)} = (2+s)^{2+s}.$$

But

$$\frac{(2+s)^{2+s}}{(1+s)^{1+s}} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{1+s}\right)^{1+s} (2+s),$$

and the lemma follows by the fact that $(1+1/(1+s))^{1+s}$ is bounded with respect to s . ■

For j large enough, Lemma 2.6 allows one to replace ϑ_j with $j/(q-1)$ in (5) and (6). Therefore we obtain the following corollary.

COROLLARY 2.7.

$$\lambda(j) = C_q \frac{1}{\sqrt{j}} \frac{(q+1)^{j(q+1)/(q-1)}}{q^{jq/(q-1)}},$$

where $C_q = (1/\sqrt{2\pi}) \sqrt{(q^2-1)/q}$ and

$$\lambda(j) \exp\left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q-1}{q+1}\right) < \binom{1+2\vartheta_j}{\vartheta_j} < \lambda(j) \exp\left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q^2-1}{q}\right).$$

End of the proof of the Theorem. We show that

$$\lambda(j)(1-\varepsilon(j)) < \binom{1+2\vartheta_j}{\vartheta_j} < \lambda(j)(1+\varepsilon(j)),$$

where $\varepsilon(j) = O(j^{-1})$. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned}\exp\left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q^2-1}{q}\right) &= 1 + \frac{1}{4j} \frac{q^2-1}{q} + O(j^{-2}), \\ \exp\left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q-1}{q+1}\right) &= 1 + \frac{1}{4j} \frac{q-1}{q+1} + O(j^{-2}),\end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \binom{1+2\vartheta_j}{\vartheta_j} - \lambda(j) \right| &\leq \lambda(j) \left(\exp\left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q^2-1}{q}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q-1}{q+1}\right) \right) \\ &= \lambda(j) \left(\frac{1}{4j} \frac{q^2-1}{q(q+1)} + O(j^{-2}) \right).\end{aligned}$$

For j large enough, these estimates imply that

$$\lambda(j) \frac{q^{j+k_0}}{(q+1)^{j+2k_0}} (1 - \varepsilon(j)) < \tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j) < \lambda(j) \frac{q^{j+k_0}}{(q+1)^{j+2k_0}} (1 + \varepsilon(j)),$$

with $\varepsilon(j) = O(j^{-1})$. In other words,

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j) &= \lambda(j) \frac{q^{j+k_0}}{(q+1)^{j+2k_0}} + O\left(\frac{\lambda(j)}{j} \frac{q^{j+k_0}}{(q+1)^{j+2k_0}}\right) \\ &= C_q \frac{1}{\sqrt{j}} \frac{(q+1)^{j(q+1)/(q-1)}}{q^{jq/(q-1)}} + O(C_q j^{-3/2}) \\ &= \frac{C_q}{\sqrt{j}} + O(j^{-3/2}).\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\Phi(x) \approx \frac{\tilde{r}^{(j+2k_0)}(j)}{q^j} = \frac{C_q}{j^{1/2} q^j} + O(j^{-3/2} q^{-j}),$$

and the theorem is proved. ■

COROLLARY 2.8 (l^p -behaviour). $\Phi \in l^p$, for every $p > 1$, but $\Phi \notin l^1$.

3. A CONJECTURE ON THE RADIAL H^p SPACE ASSOCIATED WITH THE HEAT MAXIMAL FUNCTION

Let

$$H_h^p(X) = \{f \in l^p(X) : \Phi * f \in l^p(X)\}.$$

Equipped with the l^p -norm, H_h^p is a closed subspace of l^p . Note that this is not the H^p space of [KPT].

For $p > 1$, $\Phi \in l^p(X)$, so $\delta_x \in H_h^p(X)$, for every $x \in X$. Hence H_h^p contains all finitely supported functions, for $p > 1$. Therefore $H_h^p = l^p$, for every $p > 1$.

But $\Phi \notin l^1$. What is H_h^1 ? More generally, what is $H_h^p(X)$, for $0 < p \leq 1$?

We conjecture that, at least for $p < 1$, the only radial function in $H_h^p(X)$ is the zero function. Here is some evidence.

Let f be a radial function in l^p . If $|x| = n$, write

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{q^n} h_n.$$

Therefore $h = \{h_n\}$ is a sequence in l^p . Now, by writing f_n instead of $f(x)$ when $|x| = n$, a direct computation shows that, for $|x| = n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi * f(x) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \left(f_{n-j} + \frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} q^l f_{n-j+2l} + q^j f_{n+j} \right) \Phi(j) \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \left(q^{k-n} f_k + \frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{l=1}^{k-n} q^l f_{k-n+2l} + q^k f_{n+k} \right) \Phi(k). \end{aligned}$$

By Theorem 2.1 this amounts to

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi * f(n) &\approx f_n + \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{j}} \left(h_{n-j} + \frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} q^l h_{n-j+2l} + q^j h_{n+j} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} q^k} \left(h_{k-n} + \frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{l=1}^{k-n} q^l h_{k-n+2l} + q^k h_{n+k} \right) \\ &= f_n + I_1(n) + I_2(n). \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\Phi * f \in l^p \Leftrightarrow \sum_{n \geq 0} q^n |I_1(n) + I_2(n)|^p < \infty.$$

For the sake of concreteness, the sequence h is in l^p . We confine ourselves to the case where $|h|$ is non-increasing. Then

$$\left| \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} q^l h_{n-j+2l} \right| \approx h_{n-j}.$$

By the same token,

$$q^{-j}h_{n+j} \approx h_{n-j}.$$

Hence,

$$I_1(n) \approx \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{j}} h_{n-j}. \tag{7}$$

Now, h_n must vanish at infinity faster than $1/n$. Suppose, to begin with, that h_n decays slowly, that is,

$$|h_n| = n^{-(1/p+\beta)} \ (\beta > 0), \quad \text{or} \quad |h_n| = n^{-1/p}(\log n)^{-(1/p+\beta)} \ (\beta > 0),$$

or something similar. Then in the former case,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{j}} h_{n-j} \right| &\leq \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} j^{-1/2} (n-j)^{-1/p-\beta} \\ &= n^{-1/2-1/p-\beta} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \left(\frac{j}{n}\right)^{-1/2} \left(1-\frac{j}{n}\right)^{-1/p-\beta} \\ &\leq n^{-3/2-1/p-\beta} \int_0^{(n-1)/n} x^{-1/2} (1-x)^{-1/p-\beta} dx \\ &\leq n^{-3/2-1/p-\beta} \left(C_1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{1/2}^{1-1/n} (1-x)^{-1/p-\beta} dx \right) \\ &= n^{-3/2-1/p-\beta} (C_1 - C_2 n^{-1/p-\beta-1}) \\ &\approx n^{-3/2-1/p-\beta}, \end{aligned}$$

where C_1 and C_2 are constants.

Therefore,

$$|q^n I_1^p(n)| \approx q^{n(1-p)} n^{-(\beta+3/2)p-1},$$

where C is a constant. The other cases yield the same estimate.

On the other hand, by the same argument, we see that

$$I_2(n) \approx \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} q^{k-n} h_{k-n}. \tag{8}$$

As we are assuming that h_n decays polynomially, it follows from (8) that

$$I_2(n) \approx n^{-1/2} q^{-n}.$$

Therefore $I_1(n)/I_2(n) \rightarrow 0$ when $n \rightarrow \infty$, and

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} q^n |I_1(n) + I_2(n)|^p \approx \sum_{n \geq 0} q^n |I_2(n)|^p = \infty,$$

for every $p \leq 1$.

Hence $\Phi * f \notin l^p$, for $p \leq 1$, if $h_n = q^n f_n$ decays polynomially.

Now let us assume that h_n decays faster, say

$$|h_n| = \frac{1}{q^{2n}} \frac{1}{n^\beta}, \quad \text{for some } \alpha > 0, \beta > 0.$$

Actually, since α is arbitrary, it is enough to look at the case $|h_n| = 1/q^{2n}$. Then, by (7),

$$\begin{aligned} |I_1(n)| &\approx \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{q^{\alpha(j-n)}}{\sqrt{j}} \left(1 + \frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} q^{-(1+2x)l} + q^{-(1+2x)j} \right) \\ &\approx \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{q^{\alpha(j-n)}}{\sqrt{j}} \approx \frac{1}{q^{(1+x)n}} \frac{q^{2n}}{\sqrt{n}} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n} q^n}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} q^n I_1(n) = \infty.$$

On the other hand, (8) yields

$$I_2(n) \approx \frac{1}{q^n} \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} q^{(1+x)(k-n)}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n} q^n}.$$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{h_{k-n}}{\sqrt{k} q^{k-n}} \right| &= \left| \frac{h_0}{\sqrt{n}} + \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{h_{k-n}}{\sqrt{k} q^{k-n}} \right| \\ &\geq \frac{|h_0|}{\sqrt{n}} - \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{|h_{k-n}|}{\sqrt{k} q^{k-n}}. \end{aligned}$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{|h_{k-n}|}{\sqrt{k} q^{k-n}} &\leq |h_1| \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} q^{k-n}} \\ &= |h_1| \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-j} q^j} \\ &\leq \frac{|h_1|}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} q^{-j} \leq C \frac{|h_0|}{\sqrt{n}}, \end{aligned}$$

where C is a constant independent of n . Therefore,

$$\left| \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{h_{k-n}}{\sqrt{k} q^{k-n}} \right| \geq \frac{C}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Now $q^n I_2^p(n) \geq C q^{n(1-p)} n^{-p/2}$, hence $I_1(n)$ and $I_2(n)$ are of the same order of magnitude. It does not seem to be possible, however, to construct a sequence h such that the dominant terms in $I_1(n)$ and $I_2(n)$ cancel out for each n . At least, it appears that this cannot happen in the case $p < 1$, where both $I_1(n)$ and $I_2(n)$ diverge, and there does not seem to be a way to find a function f such that $I_1(n) + I_2(n)$ decays sufficiently fast. This motivates our conjecture. (Of course, such a system of cancellations, if available, should necessarily arise from oscillating terms in h_n , for instance, alternating signs, because $\Phi * f \notin l^p$, if $f \geq 0$).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is a pleasure to acknowledge many valuable suggestions by Michael Cowling, Vadim Kaimanovich and Mitchell H. Taibleson. A part of this research was completed while both authors were visiting the Department of Mathematics of Washington University in St. Louis. The second-named author was supported by a CNR-Nato Senior Fellowship.

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