

# The Volterra Operator is not Supercyclic

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**Abstract.** It is shown that the classical Volterra operator, which is cyclic, is not supercyclic on any of the spaces  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . This solves a question posed by Héctor Salas. This contrasts with the fact that the derivative operator, the left inverse of the Volterra operator, although unbounded, is hypercyclic on  $L^p[0, 1]$ .

**Mathematics Subject Classification (2000).** Primary 47A10, 30D05.

**Keywords.** Volterra operator, cyclic operator, supercyclic operator, Legendre polynomials, Angle Criterion.

## 1. Introduction

The space  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , will denote the Banach space of complex measurable functions  $f$  on  $[0, 1]$  for which the norm

$$\|f\|_p = \left( \int_0^1 |f(x)|^p dx \right)^{1/p}$$

is finite. For each  $f \in L^p[0, 1]$  the Volterra operator is defined by

$$Vf(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt.$$

Clearly,  $V$  is bounded on each of the  $L^p[0, 1]$  spaces. It is also compact and quasinilpotent, (see [2], for instance). In addition, since the linear span of  $\{V^n 1 = x^n/n!\}$  is dense in  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , the Volterra operator is cyclic with cyclic vector the constant function 1. Actually, the functions that are different from zero almost everywhere in a neighborhood of zero are cyclic vectors for  $V$  and  $V$  is unicellular. Indeed, its only invariant subspaces are  $L^p[\beta, 1]$  with  $0 \leq \beta \leq 1$  (see the paper by Sarason [13] and [7, p. 199-200]). A bounded linear operator  $T$  acting on a Banach space  $\mathcal{B}$  is said to be supercyclic if there is a vector  $f$ , also called

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Partially supported by Plan Nacional I+D grant no. BFM2000-0360, Junta de Andalucía FQM-260 and by the Plan Propio de la Universidad de Cádiz.

supercyclic, such that the scalar multiples of the elements in the orbit  $\{T^n f\}$  are dense in  $\mathcal{B}$ . Salas [12] asked whether the Volterra operator is supercyclic or not. Of course quasinilpotent operators can be supercyclic (see [12], for instance). In this note we prove

**Main Theorem.** *The Volterra operator is not supercyclic on any of the spaces  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ .*

Before proving the theorem above we will prove that the left inverse of the Volterra operator, that is, the derivative operator, which is only defined on a dense subset of  $L^p[0, 1]$ , is hypercyclic. This means that the orbit of some vector under the operator, without the help of scalar multiples, is dense. This fact is in a strong contrast with the situation for invertible bounded operators. It is well known that an invertible operator is supercyclic (or hypercyclic) if and only if  $T^{-1}$  is (see [5]).

## 2. The derivative operator

The derivative operator  $D$  assigns to each function  $f \in \mathcal{C}^1([0, 1]) \subset L^p[0, 1]$  its derivative  $(Df)(x) = f'(x)$ , which is in  $L^p[0, 1]$ . We have the following Theorem

**Theorem 2.1.** *The derivative operator is hypercyclic on  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ .*

*Proof.* By a result of Mclane [8] there is an entire function  $f$  such that  $\{D^n f\}$  is dense in  $\mathcal{H}(\mathbb{C})$ , the space of all entire functions endowed with the topology of uniform convergence on compact subsets. Obviously, for each  $n$ , the restriction of  $D^n f$  to  $[0, 1]$  that we still denote by  $D^n f$  is in  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . Since the polynomials are dense in  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , and each polynomial can be approximated in the norm  $\|g\|_\infty = \max_{[0,1]} |g(x)|$  by  $D^n f$  for some  $n$ , the result follows.  $\square$

*Remark 2.2.* We could have also proved Theorem 2.1 following the lines of the proof of Rolewicz [11] in which he showed that there are hypercyclic scalar multiples of the backward shift on  $\ell^p$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . Indeed, some of the results for bounded hypercyclic or supercyclic operators remain true for unbounded operators. For instance, while for bounded hypercyclic (supercyclic) operators there is a *residual* dense subset of hypercyclic (supercyclic) vectors, unbounded operators may only have just a (non-residual) dense subset of hypercyclic (supercyclic) vectors.

## 3. Proof of the Main Theorem

*Proof of the Main Theorem.* Since the topology of  $L^p[0, 1]$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , is stronger than the topology of  $L^1[0, 1]$  and the former spaces are dense in the latter, we may apply the comparison principle (see [12]) to conclude that it is enough to prove that  $V$  is not supercyclic on  $L^1[0, 1]$ .

In addition, we claim that if  $V$  is supercyclic on  $L^1[0, 1]$ , then so is on  $L^2[0, 1]$ . To show this, suppose that  $f$  is a supercyclic vector for  $V$  acting on  $L^1[0, 1]$ . Then  $Vf$  is a continuous function and, in particular, it is in  $L^2[0, 1]$ . Now, we have

$$\|Vf\|_2 \leq \|Vf\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_1.$$

Therefore,  $V$  is a bounded operator from  $L^1[0, 1]$  into  $L^2[0, 1]$  and it clearly has dense range. Since the image of a dense set under a bounded operator with dense range is itself dense, it follows that  $\{\lambda V^n f : n \geq 1 \text{ and } \lambda \in \mathbb{C}\}$  is dense on  $L^2[0, 1]$ . Thus  $Vf$  is a supercyclic vector for  $V$  on  $L^2[0, 1]$  and the claim follows.

In summary, to obtain the statement of our main result it is enough to prove that  $V$  is not supercyclic on  $L^2[0, 1]$ .

Now, upon performing a change of variables we may consider that the Volterra operator is defined on  $L^2[-1, 1]$ , that is,

$$(Vf)(x) = \int_{-1}^x f(t) dt \quad \text{for each } f \in L^2[-1, 1].$$

The proof will be accomplished by applying the Angle Criterion (see [9] and [3]). Assume that  $f$  is supercyclic for  $V$ . We will find a function  $g \in L^2[-1, 1]$ , with  $\|g\|_2 = 1$ , and a positive integer  $n_0$  such that

$$\sup_{n \geq n_0} \frac{|\langle V^n f, g \rangle|}{\|V^n f\|_2} < 1, \tag{3.1}$$

which would contradict the supercyclicity of  $f$ .

In order to obtain (3.1), we will first obtain a lower estimate for  $\|V^n f\|_2$ . To this end, recall that the adjoint  $V^*$  of the Volterra operator is given by

$$(V^*f)(x) = \int_x^1 f(t) dt.$$

Now, we will use the Legendre polynomials. They are given by

$$P_n(x) = f_n^{(n)}(x) \quad n \geq 0,$$

where

$$f_n(x) = \frac{(x^2 - 1)^n}{2^n n!} \quad n \geq 0,$$

(see [10, p. 162]). We set  $h_n = (-1)^n f_n$ . Since, for  $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$ , the function  $f_n^k$  vanishes at 1, one easily checks that

$$(V^{*n} P_n)(x) = h_n(x) \quad n \geq 0.$$

Thus we have

$$\|V^n f\|_2 \geq |\langle V^n f, P_n \rangle| \|P_n\|_2^{-1} = |\langle f, V^{*n} P_n \rangle| \|P_n\|_2^{-1} = |\langle f, h_n \rangle| \frac{\sqrt{2n+1}}{\sqrt{2}}. \tag{3.2}$$

See [10, p. 175] for the expression of the norm of the Legendre polynomials.

We claim that

$$\frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1} n!} h_n \quad (n \geq 0)$$

is a positive summability kernel, see [6, pp. 9-10]. Therefore, if  $f$  is a continuous function on  $[-1, 1]$ , then

$$\frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \langle f, h_n \rangle = \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \int_{-1}^1 f(x)h_n(x) dt \rightarrow f(0) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (3.3)$$

It is clear that,  $h_n(x) \geq 0$  for each  $x \in [0, 1]$  and for each  $n \geq 0$ . In addition, performing the change of variables  $\varphi(t) = 2t - 1$  in the second equality below the Beta function appears (see [10, p. 18-19]) and we find

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \int_{-1}^1 h_n(x) dx &= \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{2n+1}(n!)^2} \int_{-1}^1 (1-x^2)^n dx \\ &= \frac{(2n+1)!}{(n!)^2} \int_0^1 t^n(1-t)^n dt \\ &= \frac{(2n+1)!}{(n!)^2} \beta(n+1, n+1) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

It remains to prove that outside any interval  $[-\delta, \delta]$ , with  $0 < \delta < 1$ ,

$$\frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \int_{[-1,1] \setminus (-\delta,\delta)} h_n(x) dx \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

We have,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \int_{[-1,1] \setminus (-\delta,\delta)} h_n(x) dx &\leq (1-\delta^2)^n \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \int_{[-1,1] \setminus (-\delta,\delta)} \frac{1}{2^n n!} dx \\ &< (1-\delta^2)^n \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{2^n n!} dx \\ &= (1-\delta^2)^n \frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

Upon applying Stirling's formula one easily sees that

$$\frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2 \sqrt{n}} \rightarrow \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Thus (3.4) tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Now, for fixed  $a$ , with  $-1 < a \leq -1/2$ , we take the normalized characteristic function

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+a}} \chi_{[-1,a]}.$$

We have

$$(V^{*n}g)(x) = \frac{(a-x)^n}{n! \sqrt{1+a}} \chi_{[-1,a]} \quad \text{and} \quad \|V^{*n}g\|_2 = \frac{(1+a)^n}{n! \sqrt{2n+1}}.$$

Finally, upon replacing  $f$  by  $Vf$ , if necessary, we may suppose from the beginning that  $f$  is continuous. In addition, we claim that we can choose  $f(0) \neq 0$ . This follows from the facts that the set of supercyclic vectors is dense in  $L^2[-1, 1]$  and that  $V$  defined from  $L^2[-1, 1]$  into the space of continuous functions on  $[-1, 1]$  that vanish at  $-1$  endowed with the supremum norm has dense range. An alternative argument is that if  $(V^n f)(0) = 0$  for every  $n$ , then  $V^n f$  would be orthogonal to the characteristic function  $\chi_{[-1,0]}$  for every  $n$ , that would contradict the supercyclicity of  $f$ .

Now, we can apply the Angle Criterion. The first inequality bellow follows from (3.2), the second is Cauchy Schwarz inequality.

$$\frac{|\langle V^n f, g \rangle|}{\|V^n f\|_2} \leq \frac{|\langle f, V^{*n} g \rangle|}{|\langle f, g_n \rangle| \frac{\sqrt{2n+1}}{\sqrt{2}}} \leq \frac{\|f\|_2 \|V^{*n} g\|_2}{|\langle f, g_n \rangle| \frac{\sqrt{2n+1}}{\sqrt{2}}} = \frac{\frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} \frac{(1+a)^n}{n! \sqrt{2n+1}} \|f\|_2}{\frac{(2n+1)!}{2^{n+1}n!} |\langle f, g_n \rangle| \frac{\sqrt{2n+1}}{\sqrt{2}}}$$

Applying Stirling's formula and (3.3), we see that the last quantity in the above display is of the same order as

$$\frac{(1+a)^n 2^{n+1/2} \sqrt{n} \|f\|_2}{\sqrt{\pi} |f(0)| (2n+1)}$$

Since  $1+a \leq 1/2$ , the last quantity goes to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore,  $f$  cannot be supercyclic; a contradiction.  $\square$

*Remark 3.1.* It cannot be used a sequence of functions like  $h_n = \sin n\pi x$  to obtain a lower estimate for  $\|V^n f\|_2$ . Although  $c_n V^{*n} \sin n\pi x$  is again a summability kernel for an appropriate sequence  $\{c_n\}$ , it reproduces the value of  $f$  at  $-1$ . Thus we would have  $(Vf)(-1) = 0$  for any  $f \in L^2$ , which makes impossible to control  $\|V^n f\|_2$ . The Legendre polynomials do not play any crucial role in the proof and it could be used other functions. But these polynomials come across in a natural way. Observe that  $V^{*n} 1 = (1-x)^n$ , that attains its maximum at  $-1$ . If we multiply by  $(1+x)^n$ , we obtain  $(1-x^2)^n$  that attains its maximum at  $0$ . Then one looks for the preimage of  $(1-x^2)^n$  under  $V^{*n}$ . The proof can, of course, be carried out directly on  $L^1$ .

*Remark 3.2.* Since  $V$  and  $V^*$  are similar, the adjoint  $V^*$  is not supercyclic either.

*Remark 3.3.* Bourdon [1] proved that no hyponormal operator can be supercyclic. The Volterra operator is a perturbation by a one rank operator of a hyponormal operator (see Halmos Problem book [4]). The general question, posed by Salas [12], that remains unsolved, is whether a finite rank perturbation of a hyponormal operator can be supercyclic or not.

**Acknowledgment.** The authors would like to thank the referee for very helpful comments and suggestions.

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Submitted: September 23, 2002

Revised: February 15, 2003