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THE RELATIONS BETWEEN A SPECTRAL OPERATOR AND ITS SCALAR PART

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- 1. Introduction. It is shown in Dunford's theory of spectral operators, that every spectral operator T can be decomposed into the sum of a scalar operator S, and a generalized nilpotent N [1]. We study here properties which are inherited by S from T. The main results are:
- 1. If the spectral operator T is compact, weakly compact, or has a closed range, then respectively S is compact, weakly compact, or has a closed range.
- 2. The relations between the point spectra, continuous spectra, and residual spectra of S and T are investigated.
- 3. If the sum of two commuting spectral operators is spectral, then the sum of their scalar parts is scalar.
- 2. Notation. Most of the notation is taken from [1]. Let X be a complex Banach space. A spectral measure is a set function $E(\cdot)$, defined on Borel sets in the complex plane, whose values are projections on X, which satisfy:
- (α) For any two Borel sets σ and $\partial E(\sigma)E(\partial)=E(\sigma \cap \partial)$.
- (β) Let Φ be the void set and p the complex plane. Then

$$E(\Phi) = 0$$
 and $E(p) = I$.

- (γ) There exists a constant M such that $|E(\sigma)| \leq M$, for every Borel set σ .
- (δ) The vector valued set function $E(\cdot)x$ is countable additive for each $x \in X$.

The operator T is a spectral operator, whose resolution of the identity is the spectral measure $E(\cdot)$ if

- (a) for every Borel set σ $E(\sigma)T = TE(\sigma)$.
- (b) Let T_{α} denote the restriction of T to the subspace $E(\alpha)X$, $(T_{\alpha} = T | E(\alpha)X)$ then

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$$\sigma(T_{\alpha})\subset\overline{\alpha}$$

where $\sigma(A)$ is the spectrum of A.

Throughout the paper T denotes a spectral operator, $E(\cdot)$ its resolution of the identity, S its scalar part given by $S = \int_{p} \lambda E(d\lambda)$, N its radical given by N = T - S. The operator N is a generalized nilpotent, and the operators N, S, T, $E(\alpha)$ commute [1]. A spectral operator is of finite type, if for some integer n, $N^{n+1} = 0$. We shall denote $N \cdot E(\langle 0 \rangle)$ by N_0 , hence $N_0 = TE(\langle 0 \rangle) = E(\langle 0 \rangle)T$.

3. Topological properties. In this section, several topological properties will be shown to be valid for S whenever they are valid for T. The following lemma will be used.

LEMMA 1. S is in the uniformly closed operator algebra generated by the projections $E(\alpha)$ with $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$.

Proof. $S = \int_{\sigma(T)} \lambda E(d\lambda)$ and $\sigma(T)$ is bounded, see [1] Theorem 1. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ let $\sigma(T)$ be divided into the disjoint sets $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ with

$$0 \in \alpha_0$$
, $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}_i$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $\operatorname{diam}(\alpha_i) < \varepsilon$ $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Let $\lambda_0 = 0$ and $\lambda_i \in \alpha_i$. Then

$$\left| S - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} E(\alpha_{i}) \right| = \left| \int_{\sigma(T)} \left(\lambda - \sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_{i} \chi_{\alpha_{i}}(\lambda) \right) E(d\lambda) \right|.$$

If $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$ then

$$\left|\lambda - \sum_{i=0}^n \lambda_i \chi_{\alpha_i}(\lambda)\right| \leq \varepsilon$$
.

Now by [1], p. 330, for every bounded measurable function defined on $\sigma(T)$

$$\left| \int_{\sigma(T)} f(\lambda) E(d\lambda) \right| \leq \sup\{ |f(\lambda)| , \qquad \lambda \in \sigma(T) \} \cdot 4M .$$

Hence

$$\left| S - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i E(\alpha_i) \right| \leq 4M \varepsilon$$
.

THEOREM 1. Let $\mathfrak A$ be a uniformly closed right (left) ideal in the algebra of operators on X. If T belongs to $\mathfrak A$ so do S, N, and $E(\alpha)$ with $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$.

Proof. By condition b of §2 T_{α} with $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$ possesses a bounded

everywhere defined inverse T_{α}^{-1} . Let us define P_{α} by $P_{\alpha}x = T_{\alpha}^{-1}E(\alpha)x$, $x \in X$, $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$. P_{α} is a bounded everywhere defined operator. Now

$$TP_{\alpha}x = T(T_{\alpha}^{-1}E(\alpha)x) = (TT_{\alpha}^{-1})(E(\alpha)x) = E(\alpha)x$$
.

Also

$$P_{\alpha}Tx = T_{\alpha}^{-1}E(\alpha)Tx = T_{\alpha}^{-1}TE(\alpha)x = (T_{\alpha}^{-1}T)E(\alpha)x = E(\alpha)x$$
.

Hence if $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$ then $E(\alpha) \in \mathfrak{A}$. Note that this fact remains true even if \mathfrak{A} is not uniformly closed. Now by Lemma 1 $S \in \mathfrak{A}$ and therefore $N \in \mathfrak{A}$ too.

COROLLARY 1. If T is compact then so are S, N and $E(\alpha)$ $(0 \notin \overline{\alpha})$.

COROLLARY 2. If T is weakly compact then so are S, N and $E(\alpha)$ with $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$.

COROLLARY 3. If $TX \subset Y$ where Y is a closed subspace of X, then $SX \subset Y$ and $NX \subset Y$ and $E(\alpha)X \subset Y$, $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$. Hence

$$SX \cup NX \cup \cup (E(\alpha)X \mid 0 \notin \overline{\alpha}) \subset \overline{TX}$$

and if the range of T is separable so are the ranges of S, N and $E(\alpha)$, $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$.

COROLLARY 4. If $A_0T=0$ $(TA_0=0)$ then $A_0S=A_0N=0$ and $A_0E(\alpha)=0$, $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$ $(SA_0=NA_0=E(\alpha)A_0=0)$ if $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$. In particular T is a spectral operator of finite type if and only if some power of N annihilates T.

COROLLARY 5. If Tx=0 then $Nx=Sx=E(\alpha)x=0$ where $\overline{\alpha}$ does not contain 0.

COROLLARY 6. If (x_n) is a bounded sequence of vectors, and the sequence (Tx_n) has a limit then the sequences (Sx_n) , (Nx_n) and $(E(\alpha)x_n)$ with $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$ have limits.

To prove these corollaries one has to note that:

- (a) The classes of compact and weakly compact operators are uniformly closed two-sided ideals. (See [3] Chapter 6).
- (b) The classes of operators A satisfying $AX \subset Y$ or $A_0A = 0$ are uniformly closed right ideals.
- (c) The classes of operators A satisfying Ax=0 or $AA_0=0$ or the limit of Ax_n exists are uniformly closed left ideals.

REMARK TO COROLLARY 6. By the proof of Theorem 1 the sequence $(E(\alpha)x_n)$, $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$, has a limit whenever the sequence (Tx_n) has, even if the sequence (x_n) is not bounded.

THEOREM 2. AT=0 if and only if $AE(p-\langle 0 \rangle)=0$ $(A=AE(\langle 0 \rangle))$ and $AN_0=0$. Similarly TA=0 if and only if $E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)A=N_0A=0$.

Proof. If $AN_0 = AE(p-\langle 0 \rangle) = 0$ then $AE(\alpha) = AE(p-\langle 0 \rangle)E(\alpha) = 0$ if $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$, thus by Lemma 1 AS = 0. Now

$$AN = ANE(\langle 0 \rangle) + ANE(p - \langle 0 \rangle) = AN_0 + (AE(p - \langle 0 \rangle))N = 0$$
.

Thus AT = AS + AN = 0. Conversely if AT = 0 then $AN_0 = ATE(\langle 0 \rangle) = 0$, and $AE(\alpha) = 0$ if $0 \notin \overline{\alpha}$. Now for each $x \in X$

$$AE(p-\langle 0\rangle)x=\lim AE\left\{z\left|\frac{1}{n}\leq |z|\right\}x=0\right\}$$

by countable additivity.

The second half of the theorem is proved in the same way.

Using Corollary 5 one can prove in the same way that Tx=0 if and only if $N_0x=E(p-\langle 0\rangle)x=0$.

COROLLARY 1. If $E(\langle 0 \rangle) = 0$, then AT = 0 or TA = 0 if and only if A = 0.

Proof. By Theorem 2 if AT=0 or TA=0 then $A=AE(\langle 0 \rangle)$ or $A=E(\langle 0 \rangle)A$.

COROLLARY 2. If $E(\langle 0 \rangle) = 0$ then $\overline{TX} = X$.

Proof. If $\overline{TX} \neq X$ then there exists a bounded functional $x^* \neq 0$ such that $x^*(TX) = 0$. Let $Ax = x^*(x)x_1$ where x_1 is any vector different from 0. AT = 0 and $A \neq 0$ which contradicts Corollary 1.

Theorem 3. If T has a closed range so does S.

- 1. *Proof.* Let $E(\langle 0 \rangle) = 0$ then Corollary 2 of Theorem 2 shows that $\overline{TX} = X$. But by assumption $\overline{TX} = TX$, thus TX = X. Also, the operator T is one-to-one by [1] p. 327 and thus T possesses a bounded everywhere defined inverse. Thus $0 \notin \sigma(S) = \sigma(T)$ and SX = X.
- 2. Let $E(\langle 0 \rangle) \neq 0$. The operator $T_{p \to 0}$ is a spectral operator whose resolution of the identity $F(\cdot)$ is given by $F(\alpha) = E(\alpha)E(p \langle 0 \rangle) = E(\alpha \langle 0 \rangle)$, hence $F(\langle 0 \rangle) = 0$. Now if $T_{p \to 0} x_n \to y(y \in E(p \langle 0 \rangle)X)$, then, there exists a vector x in X such that Tx = y, because T has a closed range. Therefore

$$T_{p-\!\triangleleft\!\triangleright}(E(p-\!<\!0>)x)\!=\!TE(p-\!<\!0>)x\!=\!E(p-\!<\!0>)Tx\!=\!E(p-\!<\!0>)y\!=\!y \ .$$

Hence T_{p-4} satisfies the same conditions assumed for T in the first part and therefore $0 \notin \sigma(T_{p-4})$ and

$$S_{p-\triangleleft 0}X = E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)X$$
 , but $S_{p-\triangleleft 0}X = SX$,

so S has a closed range.

By the proof of the last theorem it follows that if T has a closed range then $0 \notin \sigma(T_{p-40})$, hence 0 is an isolated point of the spectrum of T.

THEOREM 4. The operator T has a closed range if and only if

- 1. 0 is an isolated point of $\sigma(T)$.
- 2. The operator N_0 has a closed range.

Proof. We proved that Condition 1 is necessary. Now if $N_0x_n\to y$ then $E(\langle 0\rangle)N_0x_n\to E(\langle 0\rangle)y$ but $E(\langle 0\rangle)N_0=N_0$ thus $E(\langle 0\rangle)y=y$. Also $N_0=TE(\langle 0\rangle)$ and T has a closed range, thus if $T(E(\langle 0\rangle)x_n)\to y$ then for some x, Tx=y. Hence $TE(\langle 0\rangle)x=N_0x=E(\langle 0\rangle)y=y$. Conversely if 1. and 2. are satisfied let $Tx_n\to y$. Then

$$TE(p-\langle 0 \rangle)x_n + TE(\langle 0 \rangle)x_n = TE(p-\langle 0 \rangle)x_n + N_0x_n$$

$$\to y = E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)y + E(\langle 0 \rangle)y.$$

Multiplying this equation by $E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)$ and $E(\langle 0 \rangle)$ one gets the following two equations

$$TE(p-\langle 0 \rangle)x_n \to E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)y$$

$$N_0x_n \to E(\langle 0 \rangle)y$$

By 1. T_{p-0} possesses a bounded everywhere defined inverse. Hence, for some x_1 in $E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)X$, $Tx_1=E(p-\langle 0 \rangle)y$.

By 2. for some vector x_2 , $N_0x_2=E(\langle 0\rangle)y$. Thus

$$T(x_1+E(\langle 0 \rangle)x_2)=Tx_1+N_0x_2=y$$
.

4. Properties of spectral points. Let A be a bounded linear operator on X, define

$$\sigma_p(A) = \{ \lambda \mid \lambda I - A \text{ is not one-to-one} \}$$

 $\sigma_c(A) = \{\lambda \mid \lambda I - A \text{ is one-to-one and } (\lambda I - A)X \text{ is dense in } X, \text{ but not equal to } X\}.$

$$\sigma_r(A) = \{\lambda \mid \lambda I - A \text{ is one-to-one and } (\overline{\lambda I - A})\overline{X} \neq X\}.$$
(See [6] p. 292.)

The sets $\sigma_{p}(A)$, $\sigma_{c}(A)$ and $\sigma_{r}(A)$ are disjoint and

$$\sigma(A) = \sigma_{p}(A) \cup \sigma_{c}(A) \cup \sigma_{r}(A)$$
.

THEOREM 1. If T is a spectral operator of finite type, then $\lambda \in \sigma_v(T)$ if and only if $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) \neq 0$, and $\lambda \in \sigma_c(T)$ if and only if $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) = 0$, and $\lambda \in \sigma(T)$. Thus $\sigma(T) = \sigma_v(T) \cup \sigma_c(T)$.

Proof. If $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) \neq 0$ let $x \in E(\langle \lambda \rangle)X$, $x \notin 0$, then

$$Sx = \int_{\sigma(T)} \mu E(d\mu) x = \int_{\sigma(T)} \mu E(d\mu) E(\langle \lambda \rangle) x = \lambda x$$
.

Let ν be the first integer such that $N^{\nu}x=0$, then

$$TN^{\nu-1}x = SN^{\nu-1}x + N^{\nu}x = N^{\nu-1}Sx = \lambda N^{\nu-1}x$$
,

therefore $\lambda \in \sigma_{\nu}(T)$. If $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) = 0$ then Corollary 2 of Theorem 2, §3, applied to $\lambda I - T$, shows that $(\lambda I - T)X = X$. Also, by [1] Lemma 1, $\lambda I - T$ is one-to-one and thus $\lambda \in \sigma_{c}(T)$.

THEOREM 2. $\sigma_c(S) \subset \sigma_c(T)$ and $\sigma_v(T) \cup \sigma_v(T) \subset \sigma_v(S)$.

Proof. If $\lambda \in \sigma_c(S)$ then $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) = 0$, and by the last part of the proof of Theorem 1, $\lambda \in \sigma_c(T)$. Thus $\sigma_c(S) \subset \sigma_c(T)$ and

$$\sigma_{p}(T) \cup \sigma_{r}(T) = \sigma(T) - \sigma_{c}(T) \subset \sigma(T) - \sigma_{c}(S) = \sigma(S) - \sigma_{c}(S) = \sigma_{p}(S).$$

If $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) = 0$ then $\lambda \in \sigma_c(T)$. Let us examine therefore the case where $E(\langle \lambda \rangle) \neq 0$. To simplify notation assume that $\lambda = 0$.

THEOREM 3. Let $E(\langle 0 \rangle) \neq 0$ then

- 1. $0 \in \sigma_n(T)$ if N_0 is not one-to-one on $E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$.
- 2. $0 \in \sigma_c(T)$ if N_0 is one-to-one on $E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$ and $\overline{N_0(E(\langle 0 \rangle)X)} = E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$.
- 3. $0 \in \sigma_r(T)$ if N_0 is one-to-one on $E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$ and $\overline{N_0(E(\langle 0 \rangle)X} \neq E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$.

Proof.

1. If there exists a vector x such that $x \neq 0$, $x = E(\langle 0 \rangle)x$ and $N_0 x = 0$ then

$$Tx = TE(\langle 0 \rangle)x = N_0x = 0$$

2. The operator $T_{p\to 0}$ is one-to-one on $E(p-\langle 0\rangle)X$ by [1] Lemma 1. Now if N_0 is one-to-one on $E(\langle 0\rangle)X$ then T is one-to-one on X: If Tx=0 then $E(\langle 0\rangle)Tx=N_0x=N_0E(\langle 0\rangle)x=0$ and $TE(p-\langle 0\rangle)x=T_{p\to 0}E(p-\langle 0\rangle)x=0$. Thus $E(\langle 0\rangle)x=0$ and $E(p-\langle 0\rangle)x=0$, but then $x=E(\langle 0\rangle)x+E(p-\langle 0\rangle)x=0$. Now by Corollary 2 of Theorem 2, §3

$$\overline{T_{p-\langle 0\rangle}E(p-\langle 0\rangle)X}=E(p-\langle 0\rangle)X$$

and by assumption

$$\overline{N_0X} = E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$$

but

$$\overline{TX} \supset \overline{T_{n-\langle 0 \rangle} E(p-\langle 0 \rangle) X}$$

and

$$\overline{TX} \supset \overline{N_0X}$$

therefore

$$\overline{TX}\supset X$$
.

3. By Part 2, T is one-to-one. Let x be a vector in $E(\langle 0 \rangle)X$ whose distance from N_0X is greater than some positive number r. Let y be any vector in X. Then

$$|x-Ty| = |x-N_0y-TE(p-\langle 0 \rangle)y|$$
.

Hence

$$egin{aligned} |x-Ty| &\geq rac{1}{M} |E(\langle 0
angle)[x-N_0y-TE(p-\langle 0
angle)y]| \ &= rac{1}{M} |x-N_0E(\langle 0
angle)y| \geq rac{r}{M} \ . \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$x \notin \overline{TX}$$
.

The next theorem is valid for separable spaces only.

THEOREM 4. If X is separable, then $\sigma_{v}(T) \cup \sigma_{r}(T)$ is countable.

Proof. Theorems 1 and 2 show that $\sigma_p(T) \cup \sigma_r(T) \subset \sigma_p(S) = \{\lambda \mid E(\langle \lambda \rangle) \neq 0\}$. For any λ in $\sigma_p(S)$ let x_λ be a vector satisfying $|x_\lambda| = 1$ and $E(\langle \lambda \rangle)x_\lambda = x_\lambda$. Now if $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ then

$$||x_{\lambda_1}\!-\!x_{\lambda_2}|\!\ge\!rac{1}{M}\,|E(\langle\lambda_1
angle)(x_{\lambda_1}\!-\!x_{\lambda_2})|\!=\!rac{|x_{\lambda_1}|}{M}\!=\!rac{1}{M}\;.$$

The set $\{x_{\lambda} | \lambda \in \sigma_p(S)\}$ is separable because X is, hence the set is countable.

We conclude this discussion by studying another subset of the spectrum.

DEFINITION. Let A be a bounded linear operator on X, then $\sigma_0(A)$

= $\{\lambda \mid \text{there exists a sequence } (x_n) \text{ such that } |x_n|=1 \text{ and } (\lambda I - A)x_n \rightarrow 0\}$. See [5] p. 51.

LEMMA 1. $\sigma_{p}(S) \subset \sigma_{0}(T)$.

Proof. Let $x\neq 0$ satisfy $Sx=\lambda x$. If for some n, $N^nx=0$, let us take the first such integer. Then

$$TN^{n-1}x = (S+N)N^{n-1}x = N^{n-1}Sx = \lambda N^{n-1}x$$
.

and thus $\lambda \in \sigma_p(T) \subset \sigma_0(T)$. If for every n, $N^n x \neq 0$ then

$$T\frac{(N^n x)}{|N^n x|} = (S+N)\frac{N^n x}{|N^n x|} = \lambda \frac{N^n x}{|N^n x|} + \frac{N^{n+1} x}{|N^n x|}.$$

It is enough to show that for some subsequence n_i

$$\frac{|N^{n_i+1}x|}{|N^{n_i}x|}\to 0.$$

Let us assume, to the contrary, that for some $\varepsilon>0$ $|N^{n+1}x| \ge \varepsilon |N^nx|$ for all n, then

$$|x| \le \frac{|Nx|}{\varepsilon} \le \frac{|N^2x|}{\varepsilon^2} \le \cdots \le \frac{|N^nx|}{\varepsilon^n}$$
,

but this would imply that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|N^n|} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|N^n|} \sqrt[n]{|x|} \ge \lim_{n\to\infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|N^n x|}$$
$$\ge \lim_{n\to\infty} \sup \varepsilon \sqrt[n]{|x|} = \varepsilon.$$

But N is a generalized nilpotent and thus $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|N^n|} = 0$.

THEOREM 5. $\sigma(T) = \sigma_0(T)$.

Proof. By Theorem 2 and Lemma 1 $\sigma_p(T) \cup \sigma_r(T) \subset \sigma_p(S) \subset \sigma_0(T)$. Thus it is enough to show that $\sigma_c(T) \subset \sigma_0(T)$. Let $\lambda \in \sigma_c(T)$ we may assume that $\lambda = 0$. If $0 \notin \sigma_0(T)$ then $|Tx| \ge \varepsilon |x|$, $x \in X$, for some positive ε . This implies that TX has a closed range, but $\overline{TX} = X$ hence TX = X, which contradicts the assumption that $0 \in \sigma_c(T)$.

Let us conclude this section with a few examples.

1. Define in l_1 the generalized nilpotent operator N by

$$N(x_1, x_2, x_3, \cdots) = (x_2, 0, x_4, 0, \cdots)$$

and let S=0. S is compact while T is not weakly compact.

2. Let X be the space of continuous functions on [0, 1] vanishing

at the point 0. Define N by Nf=g, $g(x)=\int_0^x f(s) ds$, and let S=0. S has a closed range while T does not. $0 \in \sigma_p(S)$ but $0 \in \sigma_c(T)$.

- 3. Let N be defined as in 2, and S=I. T and S have closed ranges but the range of N is not closed.
- 5. Decompositions of spectral operators. Let T_1, \dots, T_n be n commuting operators. There exists a minimal algebra of operators \mathfrak{A} , with the properties:
 - 1. $T_i \in \mathfrak{A}, i=1, 2, \dots, n$.
- 2. If $U \in \mathfrak{A}$ and U^{-1} is a bounded everywhere defined operator then $U^{-1} \in \mathfrak{A}$.
 - 3. The algebra $\mathfrak A$ is uniformly closed.

This algebra will be called the full algebra generated by T_1, \dots, T_n , and it is a commutative algebra. Let $\Delta_{\mathfrak{A}}$ denote the space of homomorphisms from \mathfrak{A} to the algebra of complex numbers. By Condition 2, and the Gelfand theory [4], if $U \in \mathfrak{A}$ then $\sigma(U) = \{\mu(U) | \mu \in \Delta_{\mathfrak{A}}\}$; thus if $\mu(U) = 0$ for each $\mu \in \Delta_{\mathfrak{A}}$ then U is a generalized nilpotent.

LEMMA 1. Every scalar operator S is the sum S_1+iS_2 where S_1 and S_2 are scalar operators and

- 1. $S_1S_2=S_2S_1$.
- 2. $\sigma(S_1)$ and $\sigma(S_2)$ are sets of real numbers.
- 3. The Boolean algebra of projections generated by the resolutions of the identity of S_1 and S_2 is bounded.

Proof. Let $E(\cdot)$ be the resolution of the identity of S; then

$$S = \int zE(dz) = \int (x+iy)E(dz) = \int xE(dz) + i\int yE(dz)$$
$$= \int \lambda E_1(d\lambda) + i\int \lambda E_2(d\lambda)$$

where

$$E_1(\alpha) = E\{z | z = x + iy \text{ and } x \in \alpha\}$$

 $E_2(\alpha) = E\{z | z = x + iy \text{ and } y \in \alpha\}$

Conditions 1, 2, and 3 are readily verified.

Theorem 1. Let T be a spectral operator. Then there exist two operators R and J such that

- 1. T=R+iJ and RJ=JR
- 2. The sets $\sigma(R)$ and $\sigma(J)$ are real sets.
- 3. R is a scalar operator and J is a spectral operator.

4. The Boolean algebra of projections generated by the resolutions of the identity of R and J is bounded.

If R_1 and J_1 satisfy Conditions 1 and 2, then they are spectral operators and there exists a generalized nilpotent M such that

$$R_1 = R + M$$
, $J_1 = J + iM$.

REMARK. By the last assertion and Theorem 8 of [1] Conditions 1, 2, and 3 insure uniqueness. We shall call R the real part of T and J the imaginary part of T.

Proof. Let T=S+N. Using the notation of Lemma 1, put $R=S_1$, $J=S_2-iN$, and Conditions 1., 2., 3., and 4. follow by Lemma 1. Now, if R_1 and J_1 satisfy 1., and 2., then by Theorem 5 of [1], the operators R, J, R_1 , J_1 commute. Let \mathfrak{A} be the full algebra generated by these operators, if $\mu \in \mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak{A}}$ then

$$0 = \mu(T-T) = \mu(R-R_1) + i\mu(J-J_1)$$

but $\mu(R-R_1)$ and $\mu(J-J_1)$ are real numbers by Condition 2. Hence

$$\mu(R-R_1)=\mu(J-J_1)=0$$
.

Thus if $M=R-R_1$ then M is a generalized nilpotent and $J-J_1=iM$.

Lemma 2. Every scalar operator S can be written as the product of two scalar operators T_1 and T_2 which satisfy

- 1. $T_1T_2=T_2T_1=S$.
- 2. $\sigma(T_1)$ is a set of non-negative numbers and $\sigma(T_2)$ is a subset of the unit circle.
- 3. The Boolean algebra of projections generated by the resolutions of the identity of T_1 and T_2 is bounded.

Proof. It follows from the multiplicative property of the spectral measure $E(\cdot)$ of S that

$$S = \int \lambda E(d\lambda) = \int |\lambda| E(d\lambda) \int \operatorname{sgn} \lambda E(d\lambda)$$
.

Thus $S = T_1 T_2$ where

$$T_1 = \int |\lambda| E(d\lambda) = \int \mu E_1(d\mu) \text{ if } E_1(\cdot)$$

is defined by

$$E_1(\alpha) = E\{\lambda \mid |\lambda| \in \alpha\}$$

and

$$T_2 = \int \operatorname{sgn} \lambda E(d\lambda) = \int \mu E_2(d\mu)$$

where

$$E_{i}(\alpha) = E\{\lambda \mid \operatorname{sgn} \lambda \in \alpha\}$$
.

It is easy to verify Conditions 1, 2, and 3.

Theorem 2. Let T be a spectral operator. Then there exist two operators P and U such that

- 1. T=PU=UP.
- 2. $\sigma(P)$ is a set of non-negative numbers and $\sigma(U)$ is a subset of the unit circle.
 - 3. U is a scalar operator and P is spectral.
- 4. The Boolean algebra of projections generated by the resolutions of the identity of P and U is bounded.

If P_1 and U_1 satisfy 1. and 2., then they are spectral operators and $U_1=U+N_1$ $P_1=P+N_2$ where N_1 ond N_2 are generalized nilpotents and

$$N_2 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-N_1 U^{-1})^{n+1} P$$
.

REMARK. By the last assertion Conditions 1, 2, and 3 insure uniqueness. The operator P will be called the absolute value of T and U the argument of T.

Proof. Let T=S+N. Using the notation of Lemma 2 put $P=(T_1+T_2^{-1}N)$ and $U=T_2$, then PU=T because $T_2N=NT_2$ (Theorem 8 of [1]). Now, Conditions 1, 2, 3, and 4 follow by Lemma 2. Let P_1 and U_1 satisfy 1 and 2; then by Theorem 8 of [1], P_1 , U_1 , P, U commute. Let $\mathfrak A$ be the full algebra generated by these operators. If $\mu\in \mathcal A_{\mathfrak A}$ then $\mu(T)=\mu(P)\mu(U)=\mu(P_1)\mu(U_1)$ and by Condition 2 $\mu(P)=\mu(P_1)$ and $\mu(U)=\mu(U_1)$. Thus $N_1=U_1-U$ and $N_2=P_1-P$ are generalized nilpotents. Now

$$T = UP = (U+N_1)(P+N_2) = UP + N_1P + UN_2 + N_1N_2$$

or

$$-PN_1 = (U+N_1)N_2$$

hence

$$egin{aligned} N_2 &= -(U+N_1)^{-1}N_1P \ &= -\Big(\sum\limits_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n(U^{-1})^{n+1}N_1^n\Big)N_1P = \sum\limits_{n=0}^{\infty} (-U^{-1}N_1)^{n+1}P \;. \end{aligned}$$

In order to apply these theorems we need the following result.

THEOREM 3. A spectral operator T is a scalar operator whose spectrum lies on the unit circle if and only if: T^{-1} is a bounded everywhere defined operator, and there exists a constant M such that

$$|T^n| \leq M$$
 $n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$

Proof. If $T = \int_{|\lambda|=1}^{\infty} \lambda E(d\lambda)$ then

$$|T^n| = \left| \int_{|\lambda|=1} \lambda^n E(d\lambda) \right| \le 4 \sup \{|E(\alpha)| | \alpha \text{ a Borel set} \}$$
 ,

by [1], p. 341. Conversely assume that $|T^n| \leq M$ $n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$ then

$$R(\lambda ; T) = egin{cases} \sum\limits_{n=0}^{\infty} rac{T^n}{\lambda^{n+1}}, & |\lambda| > 1 \ -\sum\limits_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^n (T^{-1})^{n+1}, & |\lambda| < 1 \end{cases}$$

because that two series converge. Thus $\sigma(T) \subset \{\lambda \mid |\lambda| = 1\}$ and $|R(\lambda; T)| \leq M/|1-|\lambda||$ if $|\lambda| \neq 1$. By Lemma 3.16 of [2] if T=S+N, where S is scalar and N is a generalized nilpotent, then $N^2=0$. Hence

$$T^n = S^n + nNS^{n-1}$$
.

Therefore $nN = (T^n - S^n)S^{-(n-1)}$.

Thus nN is a bounded sequence of operators and therefore N=0.

LEMMA 3. Let S_1 and S_2 be two commuting scalar operators with real spectra, if S_1+S_2 is spectral then it is scalar.

Proof. Let $S_1+S_2=S+N$ where S is scalar and N is a generalized nilpotent. By Theorem 3 the operator $e^{i(S+N)}=e^{iS_1}\cdot e^{iS_2}$ is a scalar operator, but

$$e^{i(S+N)} = e^{iS}e^{iN} = e^{iS} + iNe^{iS}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(iN)^{n-1}}{n!}$$
 ,

hence

$$iNe^{iS}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}rac{(iN)^{n-1}}{n!}=0$$

but the operator $ie^{iS} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(iN)^{n-1}}{n!}$ possesses an inverse and thus N=0.

Theorem 4. Let S_1 and S_2 be two commuting scalar operators, if S_1+S_2 is spectral then

1. S_1+S_2 is a scalar operator.

2. The real (imaginary) part of S_1+S_2 is the sum of the real (imaginary) parts of S_1 and S_2 .

Proof. Let S_1 , S_2 and S_1+S_2 be decomposed into real and imaginary parts as in Theorem 1. Then

$$S_1 \! = \! R_1 \! + \! i J_1$$
 , $S_2 \! = \! R_2 \! + \! i J_2$, $S_1 \! + \! S_2 \! = \! R \! + \! i J$

where R_1 , J_1 , R_2 , J_2 and R are scalar operators, while J is spectral, and would be scalar if and only if S_1+S_2 is a scalar operator. The operators R_1 , J_1 , R_2 , J_2 commute and thus by the Gelfand theory [4] R_1+R_2 and J_1+J_2 have real spectra. By Theorem 1 $R_1+R_2=R+M$ and $J_1+J_1=J+iM$, where M is a generalized nilpotent. By Lemma 3 the operator R_1+R_2 is a scalar operator, but R is scalar too, thus by Theorem 8 of [1] M=0. Now $J_1+J_2=J$ which is a spectral operator and, again, by Lemma 3, J is scalar. Thus S_1+S_2 is scalar and $R_1+R_2=R$, $J_1+J_2=J$.

THEOREM 5. Let S_1 and S_2 be two commuting scalar operators. If S_1S_2 is spectral then

- 1. S_1S_2 is a scalar operator.
- 2. The absolute value (argument) of S_1S_2 is the product of the absolute values (arguments) of S_1 and S_2 .

Proof. Let S_1 , S_2 and S_1S_2 be decomposed as in Theorem 2.

$$S_1 = P_1 U_1$$
, $S_2 = P_2 U_2$ $S_1 S_2 = PU$.

The operators U_1 , U_2 , U, P_1 and P_2 are scalar, and P is a spectral operator, which is scalar if and only if S_1S_2 is scalar. Using commutativity of the operators in question and Theorem 2 we derive that

$$P_1P_2 = P + N_2$$
, $U_1U_2 = U + N_1$,

where N_1 and N_2 are generalized nilpotents and $N_2 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-N_1 U^{-1})^{n+1} P$. By Theorem 3, $N_1 = 0$ and hence $N_2 = 0$ too, which proves the second assertion. In order to complete the proof it remains to show that $P_1 P_2$ is scalar. Now P is spectral, let $P = P_1 P_2 = S + M$ where S is scalar and M a generalized nilpotent. Let $E(\cdot)$ and $F(\cdot)$ be the resolutions of the identity of P_1 and P_2 respectively. Denote $E\{\lambda|\lambda>\varepsilon_1\}=E_{\varepsilon_1}$ and $F\{\lambda|\lambda>\varepsilon_2\}=F_{\varepsilon_2}$, then the spectrum of $E_{\varepsilon_1}P_1F_{\varepsilon_2}P_2=SE_{\varepsilon_1}F_{\varepsilon_2}+ME_{\varepsilon_1}F_{\varepsilon_2}$ on $E_{\varepsilon_1}F_{\varepsilon_2}X$ is contained in the set $\{\lambda|\lambda\geq\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\}$ by the Gelfand theory. The operator $\log{(E_{\varepsilon_1}P_1E_{\varepsilon_2}P_2)}$ is thus well defined and it is not difficult to show that it is equal to $\log{(E_{\varepsilon_1}P_1)}+\log{(E_{\varepsilon_2}P_2)}$. This sum is spectral by [1], p. 340, and by Theorem 4 it is scalar. Thus $E_{\varepsilon_1}P_1F_{\varepsilon_2}P_2$ is scalar and therefore $ME_{\varepsilon_1}F_{\varepsilon_2}=0$. By countable additivity $ME_0F_0=0$ but $P_1E_0=P_1$ and $P_2F_0=P_2$. Thus

$$P_1P_2 = P_1E_0P_2F_0 = SE_0F_0 + ME_0F_0 = SE_0F_0$$

but $P_1P_2=S+M$, hence $S+M=SE_0F_0$, therefore $S=SE_0F_0$ and M=0 by Theorem 8 of [1]. Hence $P_1P_2=S$ is a scalar operator.

REMARK. From Theorems 4 and 5 it follows that the sum or product of two commuting spectral operators is spectral, if and only if, the sum or product of their scalar parts is scalar.

A decomposition of a non-spectral operator A into real and imaginary parts is possible in some cases.

THEOREM 6. Let A be an operator and $\sigma(A) \subset K$ where K satisfies

- 1. There exists a function f which is analytic and one-to-one in a neighborhood of K.
 - 2. The image of K is a subset of the unit circle.
- 3. The inverse function of f exists and is analytic in a neighborhood of the unit circle, let us denote this function by g.
 - 4. $g(\overline{z}) = \overline{g(z)}$ if |z| = 1.

Then $A=A_1+iA_2$ where $\sigma(A_1)$ and $\sigma(A_2)$ are sets of real numbers and $A_1A_2=A_2A_1$. If $A=B_1+iB_2$ where B_1 and B_2 satisfy the same conditions then $B_1=A_1+N$ and $B_2=A_2+iN$ and N is a generalized nilpotent.

Proof. Let $\varphi(z) = g(1/f(z))$ then φ is analytic in a neighborhood of K and for $z \in K$, $\varphi(z) = \overline{z}$. Define

$$A_1 = \frac{A + \varphi(A)}{2}$$
 and $A_2 = \frac{A - \varphi(A)}{2i}$.

If \mathfrak{A} is the full algebra generated by A and $\mu \in \Delta_{\mathfrak{A}}$,

$$\mu(A_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}) = \frac{\mu(A) + \varphi(\mu(A))}{2}$$

is the real part of $\mu(A)$, and $\mu(A_2)$ is the imaginary part of $\mu(A)$. Thus the first part of the theorem is proved. The second part is proved as in Theorem 1.

We conclude this section by a study of roots of operators. The operator B is said to be an nth root of A if $B^n = A$. The operators A and B commute $AB = BA = B^{n+1}$. Let $\mathfrak A$ be the full algebra generated by B. If $\mu \in \mathcal{A}_{\mathfrak A}$ then $\mu(B)^n = \mu(A)$ thus

$$\sigma(B) \subset (\sigma(A))^{1/n}$$

Thus if $B^n = I$ then $\sigma(B) \subset \{\lambda \mid \lambda^n = 1\}$ and hence is a finite set. By Theorem VII. 3.20 of [3], B is spectral and by Theorem 3, B is a scalar operator. Thus

$$B = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} e^{2k\pi i/n} E_k$$
 where $E_k^2 = E_k$, $E_k E_j = 0$

if $k \neq j$, and $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E_k = I$.

THEOREM 7. Let S be a scalar operator with real spectrum whose resolution of the identity is $E(\cdot)$. Let $S_1 = \int \lambda^{1/n} E(d\lambda)$ where $\arg \lambda^{1/n} = (\arg \lambda)/n$. If S_2 satisfies $S_2^n = S$, then $\sigma(S_2) \subset (\sigma(S))^{1/n}$, and if $\sigma(S_2) \subset \{\lambda^{1/n} | \lambda \in \sigma(S) \text{ and } \arg \lambda^{1/n} = (\arg \lambda)/n\}$ then

$$S_2 = S_1 + N$$
 and $N = NE(\langle 0 \rangle)$ and $N^n = 0$.

Proof. The operators S_1 and S_2 commute by [1] p. 329. Let $\mathfrak A$ be the full algebra generated by them. If $\mu \in \mathcal A_{\mathfrak A}$ then $\mu(S_1) = \mu(S_2)$ and thus $S_2 - S_1 = N$ is a generalized nilpotent. Now

$$(1) \hspace{1cm} S = S_{\frac{n}{2}}^{n} = S_{\frac{n}{1}}^{n} + nNS_{\frac{n-1}{2}}^{n-1} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}N^{2}S_{\frac{n-2}{2}}^{n-2} + \cdots + N^{n} = S_{\frac{n}{1}}^{n}$$

therefore

$$N(nS_1^{n-1} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}NS_1^{n-2} + \cdots + N^{n-1}) = 0$$

but by Corollary 4 of Theorem 1, Section 3, $NS_1^{n-1}=0$. Thus by Theorem 2 of §3, $N=NE(\langle 0 \rangle)$, but then $NS_1^q=0$ for every integer q. Instead of (1) we have, therefore,

$$S=S_1^n+N^n$$
 or $N^n=0$

which completes the proof.

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