

SOME APPLICATIONS OF THE Co-HYPONORMAL OPERATOR *

MOHAMMAD RASHID

BASEM MASAEDAH

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is to establish new characterizations of the co-hyponormal operator and some applications of the Fuglede-Putnam Theorem related to the co-hyponormal operator.

1. INTRODUCTION

The concept of co-hyponormal operator was introduced by P.R.Halmos [7]. In this paper we study some properties of such concept.

Our study takes advantage of the work of J.G.Stampfli [7,8], S.K.Berberian [9], R.J.Whitley [10], and P.R.Halmos [7] on the hyponormal.

Our work is a generalization of their work by changing some conditions on their theorems; such changes strengthen our results because the conditions that we discussed are weaker than their conditions.

2. Preliminary Results

The next definitions and lemmas give a brief description for the background on which the paper will build on. Let H be a separable infinite dimensional complex Hilbert space, and let $B(H)$ denote the algebra of all bounded operators from H into H .

Definition 2.1. A mapping $A : H \rightarrow H$ is called a linear operator if for all $x, y \in H$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

$$(1) A(x + y) = A(x) + A(y) \quad (2) A(\alpha x) = \alpha A(x), [7].$$

Note that we write Ax instead of $A(x)$.

Definition 2.2. The linear operator $A : H \rightarrow H$ is said to be bounded if $\sup_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|Ax\| < \infty$, [7].

Definition 2.3. Let $A \in B(H)$. The spectrum of A , denoted by $\sigma(A)$, is $\sigma(A) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : A - \lambda I \text{ is not invertible}\}$, [6].

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Definition 2.4. Let $A \in B(H)$. The point spectrum of A , $\sigma_p(A)$, is

$$\sigma_p(A) = \{\lambda \in C : \text{Ker}(A - \lambda I) \neq 0\}, [6].$$

Definition 2.5. Let $A \in B(H)$. The approximate point spectrum of A , $\sigma_{ap}(A)$, is

$$\sigma_{ap}(A) = \{\lambda \in C : \text{there is a sequence } \{x_n\} \text{ in } H \text{ with } \|x_n\| = 1 \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|(A - \lambda I)x_n\| = 0\}, [6].$$

Note that $\sigma_p(A) \subseteq \sigma_{ap}(A) \subseteq \sigma(A)$.

Lemma 2.6. If $A \in B(H)$ and $\lambda \in C$, then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) $\lambda \notin \sigma_{ap}(A)$.
- (b) $\text{Ker}(A - \lambda I) = \{0\}$ and $\text{ran}(A - \lambda I)$ is closed.
- (c) There is a constant $c > 0$ such that $\|(A - \lambda I)x\| \geq c \|x\|$ for all x , [6].

Definition 2.7. Let $A \in B(H)$. The spectrum radius of A is the number

$$r(A) = \sup\{|\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma(A)\}, [6]$$

Note that $0 \leq r(A) \leq \|A\|$.

Suppose $A \in B(H_1, H_2)$, where H_1, H_2 are separable infinite dimensional complex Hilbert spaces. For each $y \in H_2$, the functional $f_y(x) = \langle Ax, y \rangle$ is a bounded linear functional on H_1 . By the Riesz representation theorem, there exists a unique y^* in H_1 such that for all $x \in H_1$

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle = f_y(x) = \langle x, y^* \rangle.$$

This gives rise to an operator $A^* : H_2 \rightarrow H_1$ defined by: $A^*y = y^*$.

$$\text{Thus, for all } x \in H_1, \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle y, A^*x \rangle.$$

Definition 2.8. The operator A^* is called the adjoint of A , [6].

Note that $A^* \in B(H_2, H_1)$ and $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$.

Definition 2.9. An operator $A \in B(H)$ is said to be subnormal if it has a normal extension i.e. $A \in B(H)$ is a subnormal if there exists a normal operator N on a Hilbert space K such that H is a subspace of K , the subspace H is invariant under N and the restriction of N to H coincides with A , [7].

3. Main Results

If $A \in B(H)$ is subnormal and $N \in B(K)$ is a normal extension of A , then with respect to the decomposition $K = H \oplus H^\perp$, N can be written as

$$N = \begin{pmatrix} A^* & 0 \\ R^* & S^* \end{pmatrix}, \text{ so } N^* = \begin{pmatrix} A & R \\ 0 & S \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since N is normal, it follows that

$$0 = N^*N - NN^* = \begin{pmatrix} AA^* + RR^* & RS^* \\ SR^* & SS^* \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} A^*A & A^*R \\ R^*A & R^*R + S^*S \end{pmatrix}.$$

This implies that $AA^* - A^*A = -RR^*$ and hence $AA^* - A^*A \geq 0$.

To achieve the aim of this article, we need the following definition and lemma.

Definition 3.1. An operator $A \in B(H)$ is called co-subnormal if its dual is subnormal.

Definition 3.2. An operator $A \in B(H)$ is called co-hyponormal if $AA^* - A^*A \geq 0$.

It follows that every co-subnormal is co-hyponormal. The converse is not necessarily true. To see this, we need the following characterization of subnormal operator.

Lemma 3.3. Let $A \in B(H)$ then the following are equivalent:

- a) A is subnormal.
- b) There is a sequence $\{A_n\}$ of normal operators such that $A_n \rightarrow A$ strongly.
- c) For any integer $n \geq 0$ and every choice of vectors x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n in H , the matrix

$$[\langle A^i x_j, A^j x_i \rangle] \text{ is positive definite, [7].}$$

Example 3.4. There exists a co-hyponormal operator that is not co-subnormal.

Let e_0, e_1, \dots be the standard basis of $\ell_2(N \cup \{0\})$ and $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ a bounded increasing sequence in $\ell_2(N \cup \{0\})$. Now define the weighted shift operator S on $\ell_2(N \cup \{0\})$ by : $Se_0 = 0$, $Se_1 = \alpha e_0$, $Se_n = \overline{\alpha_{n-1}} e_{n-1}$, $n \geq 2$,

then $S^* e_n = \alpha_n e_{n+1}$.

So

$$SS^* = \text{diag}(|\alpha_0|^2, |\alpha_1|^2, \dots),$$

$$S^*S = \text{diag}(0, |\alpha_0|^2, |\alpha_1|^2, \dots)$$

Then

$$SS^* - S^*S = \text{diag}(|\alpha_0|^2, |\alpha_1|^2 - |\alpha_0|^2, \dots) > 0. \text{ Hence } S \text{ is co-hyponormal.}$$

To prove that S is not co-subnormal, it suffices to show that S^* is not subnormal.

Note that the matrix $[\langle S^{*i}e_j, S^{*j}e_i \rangle] \quad i, j = 0, 1, 2$ is not positive definite. In fact the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \overline{\alpha_0} & \overline{\alpha_0\alpha_1} \\ \alpha_0 & |\alpha_1|^2 & \overline{\alpha_1}\alpha_2 \\ \alpha_0\alpha_1 & \alpha_1|\alpha_2|^2 & |\alpha_3|^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= |\alpha_0|^2 |\alpha_1|^2 [|\alpha_1|^2 - |\alpha_3|^2] + |\alpha_0|^2 |\alpha_1|^2 [|\alpha_2|^2 - |\alpha_1|^2] + |\alpha_1|^2 |\alpha_2|^2 [|\alpha_3|^2 - |\alpha_2|^2] \\ &< [|\alpha_2|^2 - |\alpha_3|^2] |\alpha_0|^2 |\alpha_2|^2 + |\alpha_1|^2 |\alpha_2|^2 < 0. \end{aligned}$$

So S^* is not subnormal, hence S is not co-subnormal.

The following result gives some properties of co-hyponormal.

Theorem 3.5. Let $A \in B(H)$ be co-hyponormal, then

- a) If A is invertible then so is A^{-1} .
- b) If $\lambda \in C$ then $A - \lambda$ is co-hyponormal.
- c) For all $x \in H$, $\|Ax\|^2 \leq \|A^*x\|^2$.
- d) If $\lambda \in \sigma_p(A^*)$ and $x \in H$ such that $A^*x = \overline{\lambda}x$ then $Ax = \lambda x$.
- e) If $Ax = \lambda x$, $A^*y = \overline{\mu}y$ and $\lambda \neq \mu$ then $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Proof:

a) The proof uses the fact that if Q is positive invertible and $Q \geq I$, then $Q^{-1} \leq I$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Since } AA^* &\geq A^*A \Rightarrow (A^*)^{-1}AA^*A^{-1} \geq I \\ \Rightarrow ((A^*)^{-1}AA^*A^{-1})^{-1} &\leq I \\ \Rightarrow A(A^*)^{-1}A^{-1}A^* &\leq I \\ \Rightarrow (A^*)^{-1}A^{-1} &\leq A^{-1}(A^*)^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

That is, A^{-1} is co-hyponormal.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{b) } (A^* - \overline{\lambda})(A - \lambda) &= A^*A - \lambda A^* - \overline{\lambda}A + |\lambda|^2 \\ &\leq AA^* - \lambda A^* - \overline{\lambda}A + |\lambda|^2 \\ &= (A - \lambda)(A^* - \overline{\lambda}). \end{aligned}$$

So A is co-hyponormal.

c) For all $x \in H$, we have $\langle (AA^* - A^*A)x, x \rangle \leq 0$

$$\Rightarrow \langle AA^*x, x \rangle \leq \langle A^*Ax, x \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \|Ax\|^2 \leq \|A^*x\|^2.$$

d) Since $\|Ax - \lambda x\| \leq \|A^*x - \bar{\lambda}x\| = 0$, $Ax = \lambda x$.

e) Now $\lambda \langle x, y \rangle = \langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^*y \rangle = \mu \langle x, y \rangle$. But $\lambda \neq \mu$ hence $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Theorem 3.6. If $A \in B(H)$ is co-hyponormal, then $\|A^n\| = \|A\|^n$, and so $r(A) = \|A\|$.

Proof: If $x \in H$ and $n \geq 1$, then for $B = A^*$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|B^n x\|^2 &= \langle B^n x, B^n x \rangle = \langle B^* B^n x, B^{n-1} x \rangle \\ &\leq \|B^* B^n x\| \|B^{n-1} x\| \\ &\leq \|B^* B^{*n} x\| \|B^{n-1} x\|. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\|B^n x\|^2 \leq \|(B^*)^{n+1}\| \|B^{n-1}\|$.

Now, suppose $\|B^k\| = \|B\|^k$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Then $\|B\|^{2n} = \|B^n\|^2 \leq \|B^{*n+1}\| \|B^{n-1}\| \Rightarrow \|B\|^{n+1} \leq \|B^{n+1}\|$

But $\|B^{n+1}\| \leq \|B\|^{n+1}$, therefore $\|B^n\| = \|B\|^n$, for all n .

Now $r(B) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|B^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$, so we have $r(B) = \|B\|$. But $\|A\| = \|A^*\|$, and so $r(A) = r(A^*)$.

Theorem 3.7. Let $T = A + iB$ be the Cartesian decomposition of T with AB co-hyponormal. If A or B is positive, then T is normal.

Proof: First assume that $A \geq 0$ and let $Q = AB$, then $QA = AQ^*$. Now by Fuglede-Putnam Theorem for co-hyponormal, we have $Q^*A = AQ$, i.e., $BA^2 = A^2B$.

But A is positive, so $AB = BA$ (i.e., T is normal).

Now, if B is positive, then apply the same arguments to $-iT = B - iA$.

Theorem 3.8. Let $A, B, X \in B(H)$ such that A, B^* are co-hyponormal and X is invertible. If $AX = XB$, then there exists a unitary U such that $AU = UB$ and hence A, B are normal.

Proof: Since $AX = XB$, it follows by Fuglede-Putnam Theorem that $A^*X = XB^*$, and so $X^*A = BX^*$. Hence $BX^*X = X^*AX = X^*XB$.

Let $X = UP$ be the polar decomposition of X . Since X is invertible, it follows that P is invertible and U is unitary.

Since $BP^2 = P^2B$ and $P \geq 0$, it follows that $BP = PB$. Thus $AUP = UPB$ implies $AUP = UBP$, since P is invertible, we have $AU = UB$.

Now, A and B are unitarily equivalent. So A^*, B are co-hyponormal. Hence A, B are normal.

Theorem 3.9. Let $T = A + iB$ be the Cartesian decomposition of T with AB co-hyponormal. If T is co-hyponormal, then T is normal.

Proof: If $Q = AB$ then $QA = AQ^*$, so by Fuglede-Putnam Theorem for co-hyponormal we have $Q^*A = AQ$ (i.e. $BA^2 = A^2B$).

Now $TT^* - T^*T = 2i(AB - BA) \geq 0$. Let $Y = 2i(AB - BA)$. Then $YA = 2i(A^2B - ABA) = -AY$. Thus, $YA^2 = (YA)A = -AYA = A^2Y$. But Y is positive so $YA = AY = 0$, and so $A(AB - BA) = (AB - BA)A = 0$.

Hence

$$\sigma(AB - BA) = 0.$$

But $AB - BA$ is skew-Hermitian, so it is normal.

Thus,

$$AB = BA \text{ (i.e., } T \text{ is normal).}$$

Theorem 3.10. Let $T = A + iB \in B(H)$ be the Cartesian decomposition of T . If T is co-hyponormal and $\operatorname{Re} T$ or $\operatorname{Im} T$ is compact, then T is normal. Consequently, a compact co-hyponormal operator must be normal.

Proof: Assume $\operatorname{Re} T = A$ is compact. Since A is compact and self-adjoint then there exists an orthonormal basis $\{\varphi_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ for H consisting of eigen-vectors of B , say $B\varphi_j = b_j\varphi_j$, where b_j 's are the eigen-values of B .

Now, $TT^* - T^*T = 2i(BA - AB) \geq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle (TT^* - T^*T)\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle &= 2i \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle (BA - AB)\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle \\ &= 2i \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\langle BA\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle - \langle AB\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle] \\ &= 2i \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [b_n \langle A\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle - b_n \langle \varphi_n, A\varphi_n \rangle] = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\langle (TT^* - T^*T)\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle \geq 0$, $\forall n$, it follows that $\langle (TT^* - T^*T)\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle = 0$.

Let $Q = TT^* - T^*T$. Then $\langle Q\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \langle Q^{\frac{1}{2}}\varphi_n, Q^{\frac{1}{2}}\varphi_n \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow Q^{\frac{1}{2}}\varphi_n = 0$
 $\Rightarrow Q\varphi_n = 0$, $\forall n$.

But

$$\left| \langle Q\varphi_j, \varphi_i \rangle \right|^2 \leq \langle Q\varphi_i, \varphi_i \rangle \langle Q\varphi_j, \varphi_j \rangle = 0. \text{ Hence } \langle (TT^* - T^*T)\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } n.$$

n.

So $T^*T = TT^*$ as required.

Note that every power of a normal operator is normal. For co-hyponormal operators the fact is different. The following theorem shows that if A is co-hyponormal then A^2 may be not.

Theorem 3.11. If U is the unilateral shift and $A = U + 3U^*$, then A is co-hyponormal but A^2 is not.

Proof: The proof that A is co-hyponormal can be done in (at least) two ways, each of which is illuminating. Algebraically:

$$AA^* = (U + 3U^*)(U^* + 3U) = UU^* + 3U^2 + 3U^{*2} + 9I$$

$$A^*A = (U^* + 3U)(U + 3U^*) = I + 3U^{*2} + 3U^2 + 9UU^*.$$

Therefore

$$AA^* - A^*A = 9(I - UU^*) \geq 0.$$

Numerically: since

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } A^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

it follows that if $x = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots)$

$$Ax = (3\alpha_1, \alpha_0 + 3\alpha_2, \alpha_1 + 3\alpha_3, \dots)$$

and

$$A^*x = (\alpha_1, 3\alpha_0 + \alpha_2, 3\alpha_1 + \alpha_3, \dots).$$

Then $\|Ax\| \leq \|A^*x\|$. Hence A is co-hyponormal.

Next, we show that A^2 is not co-hyponormal. If $x = e_0 - 3e_2 = (1, 0, -3, 0, \dots)$,

$$\Rightarrow Ax = (U + 3U^*)(e_0 - 3e_2) = -8e_1 - 3e_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \|Ax\|^2 = 73$$

$$A^2x = (U + 3U^*)(-8e_2 - 3e_4) = -24e_0 - 17e_2 - 3e_4$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A^2x\|^2 = 874$$

$$A^*x = -9e_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A^*x\|^2 = 81$$

$$A^{*2}x = -9e_2 - 27e_4$$

$$\Rightarrow \|A^{*2}x\|^2 = 810.$$

But $\|A^2x\|^2 \geq \|A^{*2}x\|^2$. Therefore, A^2 is not co-hyponormal.

Theorem 3.12. If A is co-hyponormal and right invertible, and then A need not be invertible. Moreover, if A is left invertible, then its invertible.

Proof: Consider $A = S_l$, where S_l is the left shift operator then A is co-hyponormal and $AA^{-1} = I$ but $AA^{-1} \neq I$.

Now, assume A is co-hyponormal and $BA=I$ for some $B \in B(H)$ then

$A^*B^*A^* = A^*$ so $A^*(B^*A^* - I) = 0$. Since A is co-hyponormal, we have

$$A(B^*A^* - I) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{So } AB - I &= BA(A^*B^* - I) \\
&= B(A(A^*B^* - I)) \\
&= B0 = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence $AB = I$.

Theorem 3.13. If $A \in B(H)$ is co-hyponormal, then $\sigma_{ap}(A) = \sigma(A)$.

Proof: If $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$, then $A - \lambda I$ is invertible, so $\text{ran}(A - \lambda I)$ is dense in H . Hence $A - \lambda I$ is bounded below, i.e. there exists an α such that $\|(A - \lambda I)x\| \geq \alpha\|x\|$ for all $x \in H$. Therefore, $\lambda \notin \sigma_{ap}(A)$ i.e. $\sigma_{ap}(A) \subset \sigma(A)$.

Conversely, assume that $\lambda \notin \sigma_{ap}(A)$, then there is an $\alpha > 0$ such that $\|(A - \lambda I)x\| \geq \alpha\|x\|$ for all $x \in H$.

Since $A - \lambda I$ is co-hyponormal, we also have

$$\|(A - \lambda I)^*x\| = \|(A^* - \bar{\lambda}I)x\| \geq \|(A - \lambda I)x\| \geq \alpha\|x\| \quad \text{for all } x \in H, \text{ and hence } \ker(A^* - \bar{\lambda}I) = \{0\}.$$

Consequently,

$$cl(\text{ran}(A - \lambda I)) = [\ker(A^* - \bar{\lambda}I)]^\perp = \{0\}^\perp = H.$$

Thus $A - \lambda I$ is bounded below, hence $A - \lambda I$ is invertible, i.e. $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$.

Therefore, $\sigma(A) \subset \sigma_{ap}(A)$. This completes the proof.

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Department of Mathematics, Mu'tah University, Al-Karak, Jordan.

E-mail address: mohammadokasha@yahoo.com , bmasaede@hoo.com