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SIMILARITY ORBITS OF COMPLEX SYMMETRIC OPERATORS

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ABSTRACT. An operator T on a complex Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is said to be *complex symmetric* if T can be represented as a symmetric matrix relative to some orthonormal basis for \mathcal{H} . In this article we explore the stability of complex symmetry under the condition of similarity. It is proved that the similarity orbit of an operator T is included in the class of complex symmetric operators if and only if T is an algebraic operator of degree at most 2.

1. INTRODUCTION AND PRELIMINARIES

Throughout this paper, \mathcal{H} will always denote a complex separable Hilbert space. We let $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ denote the algebra of all bounded linear operators on \mathcal{H} . An operator $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is said to be *complex symmetric* if there exists a conjugation C on \mathcal{H} such that $CTC = T^*$; in this case, T is said to be *C -symmetric*. Recall that a conjugate-linear map C on \mathcal{H} is called a *conjugation* if C is invertible, $C^{-1} = C$, and $\langle Cx, Cy \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$. Note that T is complex symmetric if and only if there is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} with respect to which T has a complex symmetric (i.e., self-transpose) matrix representation (see [4, Lemma 2.16]).

The general study of complex symmetric operators was initiated by García, Putinar and Wogen in [5]–[8], and has recently received much attention (see [3], [9], [11]). The class of complex symmetric operators is surprisingly large and

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includes many important special operators such as normal operators, Hankel operators, binormal operators, truncated Toeplitz operators, and many integral operators. The reader is referred to [4] for more historical comments about complex symmetric operators.

The aim of this paper is to study the stability of complex symmetry under the condition of *similarity*. Recall that two operators $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ are said to be *similar*, denoted by $A_1 \sim A_2$, if there exists some invertible $X \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ such that $A_1 X = X A_2$. In general, the complex symmetry is not invariant under similarity; that is, an operator similar to some complex symmetric operator is possibly not complex symmetric. In fact, each operator of finite rank is similar to a complex symmetric operator, and there exist many finite-rank operators that are not complex symmetric (see [5, Example 4]). The reader is also referred to [4, Example 2.21] for more concrete examples.

Then it is natural to ask the following question.

Question 1.1. When does an operator T satisfy that every operator similar to T is complex symmetric?

Given $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, denote by $\mathcal{S}(T)$ the *similarity orbit* of T ; that is,

$$\mathcal{S}(T) = \{A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : A \sim T\}.$$

A subset \mathcal{E} of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is said to be *similarity-invariant* if $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset \mathcal{E}$ for all $T \in \mathcal{E}$. In the following, we let CSO denote the set of all complex symmetric operators on \mathcal{H} . Thus Question 1.1 is equivalent to the question of when T satisfies $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset CSO$.

The main result of this paper is the following theorem which gives a complete answer to Question 1.1.

Theorem 1.2. *For $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, the following are equivalent:*

- (i) $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset CSO$,
- (ii) $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset \overline{CSO}$,
- (iii) $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)} \subset CSO$,
- (iv) T is an algebraic operator of degree at most 2.

Recall that an operator T is *algebraic* if $p(T) = 0$ for some nonzero polynomial $p(z)$. The *degree* of an algebraic operator is defined to be the degree of the nonzero polynomial $p(z)$ of least degree for which $p(T) = 0$. By the spectral mapping theorem, the spectrum of an algebraic operator is finite. By Theorem 1.2, if T does not satisfy any polynomial of degree 2, then T is always similar to an operator that is not complex symmetric.

Statement (iv) of Theorem 1.2 means that T satisfies a polynomial of degree 2. Garcia and Wogen proved that such operators are always complex symmetric (see [8, Theorem 2]). Since these operators constitute a norm-closed, similarity-invariant subset of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, the following two results are immediate consequences of Theorem 1.2.

Corollary 1.3. *If \mathcal{E} is a nonempty subset of CSO , then \mathcal{E} is similarity-invariant if and only if \mathcal{E} consists of the similarity orbits of some algebraic operators of degree at most 2.*

Corollary 1.4. *The set of all algebraic operators of degree at most 2 is the largest similarity-invariant subset of CSO.*

2. PROOF OF THE MAIN RESULT

First, we offer some preparation.

A nonempty bounded open subset Ω of the complex plane \mathbb{C} is a *Cauchy domain* if the following conditions are satisfied: (i) Ω has finitely many components, the closures of any two of which are disjoint, and (ii) the boundary of Ω is composed of a finite number of closed rectifiable Jordan curves, no two of which intersect. If, in addition, all curves of $\partial\Omega$ are regular analytic Jordan curves, we say that Ω is an *analytic Cauchy domain*.

Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$. If σ is a clopen subset of $\sigma(T)$, then there exists an analytic Cauchy domain Ω such that $\sigma \subseteq \Omega$ and $[\sigma(T) \setminus \sigma] \cap \bar{\Omega} = \emptyset$. We let $E(\sigma; T)$ denote the *Riesz idempotent* of T corresponding to σ ; that is,

$$E(\sigma; T) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\lambda - T)^{-1} d\lambda,$$

where $\Gamma = \partial\Omega$ is positively oriented with respect to Ω in the sense of complex variable theory. In this case, we denote by $\mathcal{H}(\sigma; T)$ the range of $E(\sigma; T)$. Since $E(\sigma; T)T = TE(\sigma; T)$, one can see $T(\mathcal{H}(\sigma; T)) \subseteq \mathcal{H}(\sigma; T)$. Note that $E(\sigma; T)$ is the Riesz–Dunford functional calculus of T with respect to the following function:

$$f(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & z \in \Omega, \\ 0, & z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \bar{\Omega}, \end{cases}$$

which is analytic on a neighborhood of $\sigma(T)$. If λ_0 is an isolated point of $\sigma(T)$ and $\dim \mathcal{H}(\{\lambda_0\}; T) < \infty$, then λ_0 is called a *normal eigenvalue* of T . Denote by $\sigma_0(T)$ the set of all normal eigenvalues of T . The reader is referred to Chapter 1 of [10] for more details about Riesz idempotents.

Lemma 2.1 ([14, Lemma 2.2]). *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ and σ be a clopen subset of $\sigma(T)$. Then T can be written as*

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} A & F \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}(\sigma; T) \\ \mathcal{H}(\sigma; T)^\perp \end{matrix},$$

where $\sigma(A) = \sigma$ and $\sigma(B) = \sigma(T) \setminus \sigma$.

Lemma 2.2 ([10, Corollary 3.22]). *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, and let $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \oplus \mathcal{H}_2$. If T can be written as*

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} A & F \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2 \end{matrix}$$

and $\sigma(A) \cap \sigma(B) = \emptyset$, then $T \sim A \oplus B$.

Given a subset Δ of \mathbb{C} , we let Δ^* denote the set $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \bar{z} \in \Delta\}$.

Lemma 2.3. *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ and σ be a clopen subset of $\sigma(T)$. If C is a conjugation on \mathcal{H} and $CTC = T^*$, then $CE(\sigma; T)C = E(\sigma; T)^*$.*

Proof. Since T is C -symmetric, one can easily verify that $r(T)$ is C -symmetric for any rational function $r(z)$ with poles off $\sigma(T)$. If f is a function analytic on a neighborhood Ω of $\sigma(T)$, then, by Runge's theorem, there exist rational functions $\{r_n(z)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ with poles off $\sigma(T)$ such that $f(T) = \lim_n r_n(T)$. It follows that $Cf(T)C = f(T)^*$. Therefore, $CE(\sigma; T)C = E(\sigma; T)^*$. \square

Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$. Denote by $\ker T$ and $\text{ran } T$ the kernel of T and the range of T , respectively. T is called a *semi-Fredholm* operator if $\text{ran } T$ is closed and either $\dim \ker T$ or $\dim \ker T^*$ is finite; in this case, $\text{ind } T := \dim \ker T - \dim \ker T^*$ is called the *index* of T . In particular, if $-\infty < \text{ind } T < \infty$, then T is called a *Fredholm operator*. The *Wolf spectrum* $\sigma_{lre}(T)$ and the *essential spectrum* $\sigma_e(T)$ are defined by

$$\sigma_{lre}(T) := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : T - \lambda \text{ is not semi-Fredholm}\}$$

and

$$\sigma_e(T) := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : T - \lambda \text{ is not Fredholm}\},$$

respectively.

Lemma 2.4 ([2, Chapter XI, Theorem 6.8, Proposition 6.9]). *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, then $\partial\sigma(T) \subset \sigma_{lre}(T) \cup \sigma_0(T)$.*

An operator $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is said to be *polynomially compact* if $p(T)$ is compact for some nonzero polynomial $p(z)$. Olsen [12] proved that each polynomially compact operator is the sum of an algebraic operator and a compact one, and so, if T is polynomially compact, then $\sigma_e(T)$ is finite. Given a subset Δ of \mathbb{C} , we let $\text{iso } \Delta$ denote the set of all isolated points of Δ .

Lemma 2.5 ([1, Theorem 9.2]). *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is not polynomially compact, then $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains all operators $R \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ satisfying*

$$\text{iso } \sigma(R) = \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma(T) \subset \sigma(R) = \sigma_{lre}(R).$$

For $e, f \in \mathcal{H}$, define $e \otimes f \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ as $(e \otimes f)(x) = \langle x, f \rangle e$ for $x \in \mathcal{H}$.

Lemma 2.6. *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ be quasinilpotent; that is, $\sigma(T) = \{0\}$. If $T^2 \neq 0$, then $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains $0, e_1 \otimes e_2$ and $e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_3$ for any orthonormal triple $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ in \mathcal{H} .*

Proof. If $T^n \neq 0$ for all $n \geq 1$, then, by Lemma 8.1 in [10], $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains all compact nilpotent operators.

Now we assume that $T^k = 0$ and $T^{k-1} \neq 0$ for some integer k with $2 < k < \infty$. Then $\dim \mathcal{H} \geq k$. For any orthonormal subset $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^k$ of \mathcal{H} , by the discussion on page 221 of [10], we have $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} e_i \otimes e_{i+1} \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$. In view of Theorem 2.1 in [10], we deduce that $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains $0, e_1 \otimes e_2$ and $e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_3$. \square

Using a similar argument as in Lemma 2.6, one can prove the following result.

Lemma 2.7. *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ be quasinilpotent. Then*

- (i) *If $T \neq 0$, then $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains 0 and $e_1 \otimes e_2$ for any orthonormal pair $\{e_1, e_2\}$ in \mathcal{H} ;*
- (ii) $0 \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$.

Recall that an operator T is said to be *essentially normal* if $T^*T - TT^*$ is compact.

Lemma 2.8. *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is polynomially compact, then $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains an essentially normal operator $R \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with $\sigma(T) = \sigma(R)$.*

Proof. By Lemma 7.1 in [10], we need only prove the case that T is essentially nilpotent; that is, there exists $1 \leq k < \infty$ such that T^k is compact. Then $\sigma(T) = \{0\} \cup \sigma_0(T)$ and $\sigma_e(T) = \sigma_{lre}(T) = \{0\}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that T^{k-1} is not compact.

We need only consider the case that $T^{k-1} + T^*$ is not a Fredholm operator. In fact, if $T^{k-1} + T^*$ is a Fredholm operator, then, by the discussion at the beginning of Section 8.3.1 of [10], $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains an operator $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ similar to $T \oplus 0$ on $\mathcal{H} \oplus \mathcal{H}$. Thus A is essentially nilpotent of order k , and $A^{k-1} + A^*$ is not a Fredholm operator. It suffices to prove that $\overline{\mathcal{S}(A)}$ contains an essentially normal operator $R \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with $\sigma(A) = \sigma(R)$.

Now we assume that $T^{k-1} + T^*$ is not a Fredholm operator.

Case 1. $\sigma_0(T) = \emptyset$.

This implies that T is quasinilpotent. By Proposition 8.5 in [10], we obtain $0 \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$.

Case 2. $\sigma_0(T)$ is nonempty and finite.

Assume that $\sigma_0(T) = \{\lambda_n : 1 \leq n \leq m\}$. Then, by Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2, $T \sim T_0 \oplus F$, where F acts on a finite-dimensional space and T_0 is quasinilpotent. One can check that T_0 is essentially nilpotent of order k and $T_0^{k-1} + T_0^*$ is not a Fredholm operator. By the proof in Case 1, $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T_0)}$ contains an essentially normal operator R_0 with $\sigma(R_0) = \{0\} = \sigma(T_0)$. Then $R := R_0 \oplus F$ is essentially normal lying in $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ and $\sigma(R) = \sigma(T)$.

Case 3. $\sigma_0(T)$ is infinite.

Assume that $\sigma_0(T) = \{\lambda_n : n \geq 1\}$, where $\lambda_n \neq \lambda_m$ whenever $n \neq m$. Since T is essentially nilpotent and $\sigma_e(T) = \{0\}$, it follows that $\lambda_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Denote by J_n the Jordan form of $(T - \lambda_n)|_{\mathcal{H}(\{\lambda_n\}; T)}$ for $n \geq 1$. Set $R = \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} (\lambda_n + \lambda_n J_n)$. Then R is compact, and $\sigma(R) = \sigma(T)$. By Proposition 8.6 in [10], we obtain $R \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$. \square

Corollary 2.9. *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ and $\sigma(T)$ is contained in a Cauchy domain Ω , then $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$ contains an essentially normal operator R with $\sigma(R) \subset \Omega$.*

Proof. Assume that $\{\Omega_i\}_{i=1}^m$ are all components of Ω . Then $\{\Omega_i\}_{i=1}^m$ is an open cover of $\sigma(T)$. Since $\sigma(T)$ is compact, there exists a finite subcover $\{\Omega_{n_i}\}_{i=1}^k$ such that $\sigma(T) \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^k \Omega_{n_i}$ and $\sigma(T) \cap \Omega_{n_i} \neq \emptyset$ for each i with $1 \leq i \leq k$. Set $\sigma_i = \sigma(T) \cap \Omega_{n_i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Then σ_i 's are pairwise disjoint clopen subsets of $\sigma(T)$ and $\sigma(T) = \bigcup_{i=1}^k \sigma_i$. Then, by Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2, T is similar to an operator A of the form $A = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k T_i$, where T_i satisfies $\sigma(T_i) = \sigma_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Fix an i with $1 \leq i \leq k$. It suffices to show that there exists an essentially normal R_i in $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T_i)}$ with $\sigma(R_i) \subset \Omega_{n_i}$. If T_i is polynomially compact, then, by Lemma 2.8, there exists an essentially normal operator R_i with $\sigma(R_i) = \sigma(T_i) \subset \Omega_{n_i}$. Now assume that T_i is not polynomially compact. Since Ω_i is connected and

$\sigma_i \subset \Omega_i$, we can choose a connected Cauchy domain G satisfying $\sigma_i \subset G \subset \overline{G} \subset \Omega_i$. Obviously we can construct a normal operator R_i on the underlying space of T_i with $\sigma(R_i) = \overline{G}$. Since G is a domain, we deduce that $\sigma(R_i) = \sigma_{lre}(R_i)$ and $\text{iso } \sigma(R_i) = \emptyset$. Noting that $\sigma(T_i) \subset \sigma(R_i)$, it follows from Lemma 2.5 that $R_i \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T_i)}$. This ends the proof. \square

Let $\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2$ be two complex Hilbert spaces. Denote by $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2)$ the set of all bounded linear operators from \mathcal{H}_1 to \mathcal{H}_2 . Assume that $A_i \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_i)$, $i = 1, 2$. The Rosenblum operator τ_{A_2, A_1} induced by A_2 and A_1 is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{A_2, A_1} : \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2) &\longrightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2), \\ X &\longmapsto A_2 X - X A_1. \end{aligned}$$

Then it is easy to see that τ_{A_2, A_1} is a bounded linear operator on $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2)$.

Lemma 2.10 ([10, Corollary 3.20]). *Let A_1, A_2 be as above. If $\sigma(A_1) \cap \sigma(A_2) = \emptyset$, then τ_{A_2, A_1} is invertible.*

Lemma 2.11. *Let $R \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$. Assume that $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^3 \mathcal{H}_i$ with respect to which R admits the following matrix representation:*

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & X & Y \\ 0 & A_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If $\sigma_i = \sigma(A_i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ and $\sigma_i \cap \sigma_j = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq j$, then

$$E(\sigma_2; R) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\tau_{A_1, A_2}^{-1}(X) & 0 \\ 0 & I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad E(\sigma_3; R) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -\tau_{A_1, A_3}^{-1}(Y) \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

where I_i is the identity on \mathcal{H}_i , $i = 2, 3$.

Proof. For $\lambda \notin \sigma(R)$, since

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda - R)^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - A_1 & -X & -Y \\ 0 & \lambda - A_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda - A_3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (\lambda - A_1)^{-1} & (\lambda - A_1)^{-1}X(\lambda - A_2)^{-1} & (\lambda - A_1)^{-1}Y(\lambda - A_3)^{-1} \\ 0 & (\lambda - A_2)^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (\lambda - A_3)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

it follows that $E(\sigma_2; R)$ and $E(\sigma_3; R)$ can be written respectively as

$$E(\sigma_2; R) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & U & 0 \\ 0 & I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad E(\sigma_3; R) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & V \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Noting that $E(\sigma_i; R)R = RE(\sigma_i; R)$ for $i = 2, 3$, a direct matricial calculation shows that

$$A_1 U + X = U A_2 \quad \text{and} \quad A_1 V + Y = V A_3.$$

Since $\sigma(A_1) \cap \sigma(A_2) = \emptyset = \sigma(A_1) \cap \sigma(A_3)$, it follows from Lemma 2.10 that $\tau_{A_1, A_2}, \tau_{A_1, A_3}$ are both invertible. Then $U = -\tau_{A_1, A_2}^{-1}(X)$ and $V = -\tau_{A_1, A_3}^{-1}(Y)$. \square

Lemma 2.12. *Let $A_i \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_i), i = 1, 2, 3$. If $\sigma(A_1), \sigma(A_2)$, and $\sigma(A_3)$ are pairwise disjoint, then there exist rank-one operators $X \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_2, \mathcal{H}_1)$ and $Y \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_3, \mathcal{H}_1)$ such that the operator R defined by*

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & X & Y \\ 0 & A_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2 \\ \mathcal{H}_3 \end{matrix}$$

is not complex symmetric.

Proof. For $1 \leq i \leq 3$, take a unit vector $e_i \in \mathcal{H}_i$. Define $F_1 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_2, \mathcal{H}_1)$ and $F_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_3, \mathcal{H}_1)$ as

$$F_1 = e_1 \otimes e_2, \quad F_2 = e_1 \otimes e_3.$$

One can see that $\text{ran } F_1 = \text{ran } F_2 = \mathbb{C}e_1$. Define $X = F_1 A_2 - A_1 F_1$ and $Y = F_2 A_3 - A_1 F_2$. Since $\sigma(A_1) \cap \sigma(A_2) = \emptyset = \sigma(A_1) \cap \sigma(A_3)$, it follows from Lemma 2.10 that τ_{A_1, A_2} and τ_{A_1, A_3} are both invertible,

$$F_1 = -\tau_{A_1, A_2}^{-1}(X) \quad \text{and} \quad F_2 = -\tau_{A_1, A_3}^{-1}(Y). \quad (2.1)$$

Set

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & X & Y \\ 0 & A_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In view of Lemma 2.11 and (2.1), we have

$$E(\sigma_2; R) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & F_1 & 0 \\ 0 & I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad E(\sigma_3; R) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & F_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we obtain

$$E(\sigma_2; R)^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ F_1^* & I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad E(\sigma_3; R)^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ F_2^* & 0 & I_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$\langle E(\sigma_2; R)^* x, E(\sigma_3; R)^* y \rangle = 0, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{H}. \quad (2.2)$$

Now it suffices to prove that R is not complex symmetric. In fact, if not, then there exists a conjugation C such that $CRC = R^*$. By Lemma 2.3, $CE(\sigma_i; R)C = E(\sigma_i; R)^*$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$. Then, by (2.2), we have

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle = \langle E(\sigma_2; R)e_2, E(\sigma_3; R)e_3 \rangle \\ &= \langle CE(\sigma_2; R)^*Ce_2, CE(\sigma_3; R)^*Ce_3 \rangle \\ &= \langle E(\sigma_3; R)^*Ce_3, E(\sigma_2; R)^*Ce_2 \rangle = 0, \end{aligned}$$

which is absurd. This ends the proof. \square

Corollary 2.13. *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ and $\sigma(T)$ consists of at least three components, then T is similar to an operator that is not complex symmetric.*

Proof. Since $\sigma(T)$ consists of at least three components, we can find nonempty clopen subsets $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$, which are pairwise disjoint so that $\sigma(T) = \bigcup_{i=1}^3 \sigma_i$. Using Lemma 2.1 twice, we can write T as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & * & * \\ 0 & A_2 & * \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2, \\ \mathcal{H}_3 \end{matrix}$$

where $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^3 \mathcal{H}_i$ and $\sigma(A_i) = \sigma_i$, $i = 1, 2, 3$. By Lemma 2.12, there exist rank-one operators $X : \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ and $Y : \mathcal{H}_3 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ such that the operator R defined by

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & X & Y \\ 0 & A_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2 \\ \mathcal{H}_3 \end{matrix}$$

is not complex symmetric. By Lemma 2.2, one can see that

$$T \sim \bigoplus_{i=1}^3 A_i \sim R.$$

This ends the proof. \square

Lemma 2.14 ([9, Theorem 7.3]). *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is essentially normal, then $T \in \overline{CSO}$ if and only if $T \in CSO$.*

Proposition 2.15. *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ and $\sigma(T)$ consists of at least three components, then $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$.*

Proof. Since $\sigma(T)$ consists of at least three components, we can find nonempty clopen subsets $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$, which are pairwise disjoint so that $\sigma(T) = \bigcup_{i=1}^3 \sigma_i$. Using Lemma 2.1 twice, we can write T as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & * & * \\ 0 & A_2 & * \\ 0 & 0 & A_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2, \\ \mathcal{H}_3 \end{matrix}$$

where $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^3 \mathcal{H}_i$ and $\sigma(A_i) = \sigma_i$, $i = 1, 2, 3$.

Choose analytic Cauchy domains Ω_1, Ω_2 , and Ω_3 such that $\sigma_i \subset \Omega_i$ and $\Omega_i \cap \Omega_j = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq j$. By Corollary 2.9, we can choose essentially normal $B_i \in \mathcal{S}(A_i)$ with $\sigma(B_i) \subset \Omega_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$, and so $\bigoplus_{i=1}^3 B_i$ lies in the closure of the similarity orbit of $\bigoplus_{i=1}^3 A_i$.

By Lemma 2.12, there exists rank-one operators $X : \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ and $Y : \mathcal{H}_3 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$ such that the operator R defined by

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & X & Y \\ 0 & B_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & B_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2 \\ \mathcal{H}_3 \end{matrix}$$

is not complex symmetric. Since R is essentially normal, it follows from Lemma 2.14 that $R \notin \overline{CSO}$. Since $\sigma(A_i)$'s are pairwise disjoint, it follows from Lemma 2.2 that

$$R \sim \bigoplus_{i=1}^3 B_i \quad \text{and} \quad T \sim \bigoplus_{i=1}^3 A_i.$$

Thus $R \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$. This means that $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)} \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$ or, equivalently, $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$. \square

Lemma 2.16. *Let $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ be an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^3 , and let $T = e_1 \otimes e_2 + \lambda e_3 \otimes e_3$, where $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is nonzero. Then T is similar to an operator that is not complex symmetric.*

Proof. Obviously, T can be written as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{matrix}.$$

By Lemma 2.2, T is similar to the following operator:

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{matrix}.$$

Now it remains to show that R is not complex symmetric.

For a proof by contradiction, we assume that C is a conjugation on \mathbb{C}^3 and $CRC = R^*$. Compute to see that

$$\ker R = \{\alpha e_1 : \alpha \in \mathbb{C}\}, \quad \ker R^* = \{\alpha e_2 : \alpha \in \mathbb{C}\},$$

and

$$\ker(R - \lambda) = \{\alpha(e_1 + \lambda e_3) : \alpha \in \mathbb{C}\}, \quad \ker(R - \lambda)^* = \{\alpha e_3 : \alpha \in \mathbb{C}\}.$$

From $CRC = R^*$ one can see that $C(\ker R^*) = \ker R$. Then there exists nonzero α_1 such that $Ce_2 = \alpha_1 e_1$. On the other hand, since $CRC = R^*$, we deduce that $C(R - \lambda)C = (R - \lambda)^*$ and $C(\ker(R - \lambda)^*) = \ker(R - \lambda)$. Then there exists nonzero α_2 such that $Ce_3 = \alpha_2(e_1 + \lambda e_3)$. Hence

$$0 = \langle e_2, e_3 \rangle = \langle Ce_3, Ce_2 \rangle = \langle \alpha_2(e_1 + \lambda e_3), \alpha_1 e_1 \rangle = \bar{\alpha}_1 \alpha_2 \neq 0,$$

a contradiction. Thus R is not complex symmetric. This ends the proof. \square

Lemma 2.17 ([9, Lemma 3.2]). *If $T = A \oplus N$, where N is normal, then T is complex symmetric if and only if A is complex symmetric.*

Lemma 2.18. *If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is not polynomially compact, then $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$.*

Proof. Choose a real number $\delta > \|T\|$. Choose two infinite-dimensional subspaces $\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2$ of \mathcal{H} such that $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \oplus \mathcal{H}_2$. Choose a normal operator $N \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1)$ with $\sigma(N) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| \leq \delta\}$. Assume that $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H}_2 . Define $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_2)$ as

$$Ae_i = \delta e_{i+1}, \quad \forall i \geq 1.$$

Set $R = N \oplus A$. It is easy to see that R is essentially normal with $\sigma(R) = \sigma_{lre}(R) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| \leq \delta\}$. By Lemma 2.5, we obtain $R \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$.

On the other hand, noting that $\dim \ker A = 0 \neq 1 = \dim \ker A^*$, we deduce that A is not complex symmetric. In view of Lemma 2.17, R is not complex symmetric. Since R is essentially normal, it follows from Lemma 2.14 $R \notin \overline{CSO}$. This shows that $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)} \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$ or, equivalently, $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$. \square

Proposition 2.19. *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, and assume that $\sigma(T)$ consists of two components. If $\mathcal{S}(T) \subseteq \overline{CSO}$, then there exist distinct complex numbers λ_1, λ_2 such that $(T - \lambda_1)(T - \lambda_2) = 0$.*

Proof. Assume that $\sigma(T) = \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_2$, where σ_1 and σ_2 are components of $\sigma(T)$. Clearly, σ_1 and σ_2 are connected clopen subsets of $\sigma(T)$. Then T can be written as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & * \\ 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \mathcal{H}_1 \\ \mathcal{H}_2 \end{matrix},$$

where $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \oplus \mathcal{H}_2$ and $\sigma(A_i) = \sigma_i, i = 1, 2$. Then, by Lemma 2.2, $T \sim A_1 \oplus A_2$.

We claim that each of σ_1, σ_2 is a singleton. In fact, if not, then we may assume that σ_1 is not a singleton. Since σ_1 is connected, it follows that $\partial\sigma_1$ is infinite and, by Lemma 2.4, $\sigma_e(T) \supset \sigma_e(A_1) \supset \partial\sigma_1$ is infinite. Then T is not polynomially compact and, by Lemma 2.18, we obtain $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$, a contradiction.

Assume that $\sigma(A_i) = \{\lambda_i\}$ for $i = 1, 2$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\lambda_1 = 0$. Otherwise, noting that $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset \overline{CSO}$ implies $\mathcal{S}(T - \lambda_1) \subset \overline{CSO}$, we need only deal with $T - \lambda_1$.

Now it suffices to prove that $A_1 = 0$ and $A_2 = \lambda_2 I_2$, where I_2 is the identity operator on \mathcal{H}_2 . For a proof by contradiction, we may directly assume that $A_1 \neq 0$. Choose two unit vectors $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{H}_1$ with $\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle = 0$. Then, by Lemma 2.7, $e_1 \otimes e_2 \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(A_1)}$ and $\lambda_2 I_2 \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(A_2)}$. Hence $R = (e_1 \otimes e_2) \oplus \lambda_2 I_2 \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(A_1 \oplus A_2)} = \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$.

Choose a unit vector $e_3 \in \mathcal{H}_2$. Set $\mathcal{H}_3 = \vee\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$, and set $\mathcal{H}_4 = \mathcal{H} \ominus \mathcal{H}_3$, where \vee denotes closed linear span. Then \mathcal{H}_3 reduces R , $N := R|_{\mathcal{H}_4}$ is normal, and

$$R|_{\mathcal{H}_3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{matrix}.$$

By Lemma 2.16, $R|_{\mathcal{H}_3}$ is similar to an operator F on \mathcal{H}_3 that is not complex symmetric. By Lemma 2.17, $N \oplus F$ is not complex symmetric. Since $N \oplus F$ is essentially normal, it follows from Lemma 2.14 that $N \oplus F \notin \overline{CSO}$. Noting that $R \sim N \oplus F$ and $R \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$, we obtain $N \oplus F \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$. Hence $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)} \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$. Equivalently, we obtain $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$, a contradiction. This ends the proof. \square

Proposition 2.20. *Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, and assume that $\sigma(T)$ is connected. If $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset \overline{CSO}$, then there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $(T - \lambda)^2 = 0$.*

Proof. First we claim that $\sigma(T)$ is a singleton. In fact, if not, then $\sigma(T)$ is an infinite, connected set. It follows that $\partial\sigma(T)$ is infinite and, by Lemma 2.4, $\sigma_e(T) \supset$

$\partial\sigma(T)$ is infinite. Then T is not polynomially compact and, by Lemma 2.18, we have $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$, a contradiction.

Assume that $\sigma(T) = \{\lambda\}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. It remains to prove that $(T - \lambda)^2 = 0$. For a proof by contradiction, we assume that $(T - \lambda)^2 \neq 0$. Choose an orthonormal triple $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\} \subset \mathcal{H}$. Then, by Lemma 2.6, $S = e_1 \otimes e_2 + \frac{e_2}{2} \otimes e_3 \sim e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_3 \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T - \lambda)}$. Hence $S + \lambda \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$.

Denote $\mathcal{H}_1 = \vee\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$, and denote $\mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{H} \ominus \mathcal{H}_1$. Then \mathcal{H}_1 reduces S , $S|_{\mathcal{H}_2} = 0$, and

$$S|_{\mathcal{H}_1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{matrix}.$$

By Lemma 2.17 and [13, Proposition 5.6], S is not complex symmetric. Since S is essentially normal, it follows from Lemma 2.14 that $S \notin \overline{CSO}$. This implies $S + \lambda \notin \overline{CSO}$. Thus $\overline{\mathcal{S}(T)} \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$ or, equivalently, $\mathcal{S}(T) \not\subseteq \overline{CSO}$, a contradiction. This ends the proof. \square

Now we are going to give the proof of Theorem 1.2.

Proof of Theorem 1.2. The implications (iii) \implies (i) \implies (ii) are clear.

(iv) \implies (iii). Assume that $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $(T - \lambda_1)(T - \lambda_2) = 0$. If $R \in \overline{\mathcal{S}(T)}$, then there exist invertible operators $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$ so that $X_n T X_n^{-1} \rightarrow R$. It follows that $(X_n T X_n^{-1} - \lambda_1)(X_n T X_n^{-1} - \lambda_2) \rightarrow (R - \lambda_1)(R - \lambda_2)$. Noting that

$$(X_n T X_n^{-1} - \lambda_1)(X_n T X_n^{-1} - \lambda_2) = X_n(T - \lambda_1)(T - \lambda_2)X_n^{-1} = 0,$$

we obtain $(R - \lambda_1)(R - \lambda_2) = 0$. Then, in view of [8, Theorem 2], R is complex symmetric.

(ii) \implies (iv). Since $\mathcal{S}(T) \subset \overline{CSO}$, by Proposition 2.15, $\sigma(T)$ consists of at most two components. In view of Propositions 2.19 and 2.20, we deduce that T is an algebraic operator of degree at most 2. \square

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