

RANGES OF NORMAL AND SUBNORMAL OPERATORS

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1. Let T be a bounded operator on a Hilbert space H , and denote its spectrum by $\text{sp}(T)$ and its range by $R(T)$. (Only bounded operators will be considered.) For each set E of complex numbers, let $S(T; E)$ be the subset of H defined by

$$(1.1) \quad S(T; E) = \bigcap_{t \in E} R(T - tI), \quad S(T; \text{empty set}) = H.$$

Denote the interior of E by $\text{int}(E)$ and the complement of E by $C(E)$. Clearly, S is a decreasing function of E in the sense that $S(T; E_1) \subset S(T; E_2)$ if $E_1 \supset E_2$. Also, since $R(T - tI) = H$ whenever t does not belong to $\text{sp}(T)$,

$$(1.2) \quad S(T; \text{sp}(T)) \subset S(T; E) \quad \text{for each } E.$$

If T is normal and has the spectral resolution

$$(1.3) \quad T = \int z dK_z,$$

let $K(E)$ denote the associated projection measure defined on the Borel sets E of the plane. We shall prove the following result.

THEOREM 1. *If T is normal and has the spectral resolution (1.3), and if E is any Borel set of the plane, then*

$$(1.4) \quad S(T; C(E)) \subset R(K(E)) \subset S(T; \text{int}(C(E))).$$

Consequently,

$$(1.5) \quad S(T; \text{sp}(T) - E) = R(K(E)) \text{ if } E \text{ is a closed subset of } \text{sp}(T),$$

and, in particular,

$$(1.6) \quad S(T; \text{sp}(T)) = 0.$$

To obtain (1.5) from (1.4), note that now $C(E) = \text{int}(E)$ and hence, by (1.4), $R(K(E)) = S(T; C(E)) = S(T; \text{sp}(T) \cap C(E)) = S(T; \text{sp}(T) - E)$.

We see that if T is normal, then $S(T; \text{sp}(T)) = 0$ but $S(T; E) \neq 0$ whenever E is small relative to $\text{sp}(T)$, more precisely, whenever the closure of E is a proper subset of $\text{sp}(T)$. In case T is not normal, simple examples show that even (1.6) can be false. We need only consider an operator $T \neq 0$ for which $\text{sp}(T)$ is the single point 0 .

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Recall that T is *subnormal* if it has an extension T_1 that is normal on a Hilbert space $H_1 \supset H$, and if moreover T_1 leaves H invariant and $T_1 = T$ on H . (See P. R. Halmos [3, pp. 100 ff.] for properties of such operators.) It is known that if T_1 is the minimal extension of T , then $\text{sp}(T_1) \subset \text{sp}(T)$ (Halmos [2]) and, in fact, that $\text{sp}(T)$ is obtained from $\text{sp}(T_1)$ by filling in some of the holes of the latter set (J. Bram [1]). Further, by (1.6),

$$(1.7) \quad S(T; \text{sp}(T)) \subset S(T; \text{sp}(T_1)) \subset S(T_1; \text{sp}(T_1)) = 0.$$

For example, let A denote the unilateral shift defined on the Hilbert space of sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ satisfying the condition $\sum |x_n|^2 < \infty$. Then A has the matrix representation $A = (a_{ij})$ ($i, j = 1, 2, \dots$), where $a_{i+1,i} = 1$ and $a_{ij} = 0$ ($j \neq i - 1$). It is known that A is subnormal and that $\text{sp}(A)$ is the closed unit disk. Further, the minimal normal extension of A is the unitary operator $B = (b_{ij})$ ($i, j = 0, \pm 1, \dots$) on the Hilbert space of sequences $\{y_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ satisfying $\sum |y_n|^2 < \infty$, where the elements b_{ij} are defined by $b_{i+1,i} = 1$ and $b_{ij} = 0$ ($j \neq i - 1$). The spectrum of B is the circle

$$(1.8) \quad C = \{z: |z| = 1\}.$$

It is clear from (1.7) that if T is subnormal, in contrast to the situation where T is normal, then it is possible that $S(T; E) = 0$ when E is small relative to $\text{sp}(T)$. Thus, when $T = A$, $S(A; C) = 0$, where C is the circle of (1.8). In fact, we shall prove the following proposition.

THEOREM 2. *Let A be the unilateral shift defined above. Then*

$$(1.9) \quad S(A; E) = 0$$

if either

$$(1.10) \quad E \text{ is an infinite set having a limit point inside } C,$$

or

$$(1.11) \quad m(E \cap C) > 0,$$

where m denotes ordinary Lebesgue measure on C .

2. Proof of Theorem 1. Let E denote any Borel set of the plane, and let $f \in S(T; C(E))$, so that whenever c belongs to $C(E)$, $f = (T - cI)g$ for some $g = g_c$. Let $c = a + ib$ (a, b real), and let D_s denote the disk $0 \leq |z - c| \leq s$ for $s > 0$. It follows from (1.3) that

$$s^{-2} \|K(D_s)f\|^2 = s^{-2} \int_{D_s} [(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2] d \|K_z g\|^2 \leq \int_{D_s - \{0\}} d \|K_z g\|^2 \rightarrow 0,$$

as $s \rightarrow 0$. Thus, the symmetric derivate of the set function $\|K(X)f\|^2$ (S. Saks [4, p. 149]) is 0 at all points of $C(E)$, and hence [4, p. 155] $K(C(E))f = 0$. Thus, if $f \in S(T; C(E))$, then $f \in R(K(E))$, so that the first relation of (1.4) is proved.

If $c \in \text{int}(C(E))$, then, for each f in H , $K(E)f = (T - cI)g_c$, where

$$g_c = \int_E (z - c)^{-1} dK_z f.$$

This establishes the second part of (1.4), and the proof of Theorem 1 is complete.

3. *Proof of Theorem 2.* We see that each vector $u(z) = \{1, z, z^2, \dots\}$ ($|z| < 1$) is in the eigenspace of A^* belonging to z . If $f = \{f_1, f_2, \dots\}$ belongs to $S(A; E)$, where E satisfies (1.10), then $f = (A - zI)g_z$ for each z in E and some vector g_z , and therefore

$$(f, u(\bar{z})) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k z^k = 0 \quad \text{for each } z \text{ in } E.$$

It follows from (1.10), by a basic property of power series, that $f_k = 0$ for all k , that is, $f = 0$, and so (1.9) is proved.

It remains to prove (1.9) under the assumption (1.11). Suppose then that $f = (A - zI)g$, where $g = g_z$ for z in $E \cap C$, where C is defined by (1.8). It is easily verified that if $g = \{g_1, g_2, \dots\}$, then

$$(3.1) \quad g_n = -(1/z)^{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n f_k z^k.$$

Note that $g_n = g_n(z)$, and let $z = e^{i\theta}$ ($0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$). For each fixed z in E , $|g_n| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^n f_k e^{ik\theta} \right|$, and since $\sum |g_n|^2 < \infty$, $g_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Let $F(\theta)$ denote the function in $L^2(0, 2\pi)$ defined by

$$(3.2) \quad F(\theta) \sim \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k e^{ik\theta}.$$

If $F_n(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k e^{ik\theta}$, then $F_n(\theta) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, for each θ in the set $Q = \{\theta: 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi, e^{i\theta} \in E\}$. Clearly,

$$(3.3) \quad \int_0^{2\pi} |F(\theta) - F_n(\theta)|^2 d\theta \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

In view of (1.11), Q has positive one-dimensional Lebesgue measure. By Egoroff's theorem, there exists a subset Q_1 of Q such that Q_1 has positive measure and such that $F_n(\theta) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, uniformly for θ in Q_1 . Since $|F - F_n|^2 \leq (|F| + \text{const.})^2$ on Q_1 and $(|F| + \text{const.})^2 \in L(0, 2\pi)$, it follows from (3.3) and Lebesgue's dominated-convergence theorem that, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$(3.4) \quad \int_{Q_1} |F(\theta) - F_n(\theta)|^2 d\theta \rightarrow \int_{Q_1} |F(\theta)|^2 d\theta = 0.$$

Thus, $F(\theta) = 0$ almost everywhere on Q_1 , and hence, by the theorem of F. and M. Riesz (see Halmos [3, p. 82] for example), $F(\theta) = 0$ almost everywhere on $L^2(0, 2\pi)$. Hence $f_k = 0$ for all k , and again (1.9) holds.

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