# ON THE ORDER ISOMORPHISM OF A PARTIALLY ORDERED LINEAR SPACE AND ITS ORDER DUAL 

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By considering various examples, the author has come to the conclusion that the following conjecture is probably true.

Conjecture. If a partially ordered linear space $X$ is order isomorphic to its order dual $X^{\prime}$, then it is possible to define an inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)$ on $X \times X$ in such a way that $X$ becomes a real Hilbert space with this inner product. Furthermore, the inner product can be defined so that it has the following two properties:
(a) if $x \in X$ and $x \geq 0$, then $(x, \cdot)$ is a positive linear functional; hence, $(x, \cdot) \in X^{\prime}$;
(b) if $f \in X^{\prime}$ and $f \geq 0$, then there exists $x \in X$ with $x \geq 0$ such that $(x, \cdot)=f$.

Although we are not able to prove or disprove this conjecture, we can prove it in a non-trivial special case. This is the main result of our paper, but we shall also discuss other results related to the order isomorphism of $X$ and $X^{\prime}$. Finally, we shall show that every real Hilbert space can be partially ordered so that it is order isomorphic to its order dual.

For the basic definitions of a partially ordered linear space and its order dual the reader may refer to Namioka [7, pp. 3-8]. Other references on this subject can be found in Birkhoff [1], Kantorovich [4], Nakano [6], and Vulikh [8].

Definition 1. Let $X$ be a partially ordered linear space and let $X^{\prime}$ be its order dual. Then $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are said to be order isomorphic to each other if there exist positive linear transformations $A: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ and $B: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ such that $B(A(x))=x$ for all $x \in X$ and $A(B(f))=f$ for all $f \in X^{\prime}$.

Assumption 2. In this paper we assume that $X, X^{\prime}, A$, and $B$ have the meanings given in Definition 1 and that $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other. We use $K$ and $K^{\prime}$ to denote the positive cones in $X$ and $X^{\prime}$, respectively.

Lemma 3. $\quad X=K-K$.
Proof. By definition $X^{\prime}=K^{\prime}-K^{\prime}$. Since $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other, it follows that $X=K-K$.

[^0]Since Namioka does not assume that a partial ordering is anti-symmetric (i.e., that $x \leqq y$ and $y \leqq x$ imply $x=y$ ), we shall prove the following lemma.

Lemma 4. The partial orderings in $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are anti-symmetric.
Proof. We need only prove that if $0 \leq x$ and $x \leq 0$, where $x \in X$, then $x=0$. Define $f=A(x)$; hence, $0 \leq f$ and $f \leq 0$, where the symbol 0 here refers to the zero functional in $X^{\prime}$. By definition $0 \leq f(y)$ and $f(y) \leq 0$ for all $y \in K$. Since $X=K-K$, it follows that $f(z)=0$ for all $z \epsilon X$; hence, $f=0$. Therefore, $x=B(f)=0$. In the course of the preceding remarks it was shown that if $0 \leq f$ and $f \leq 0$, where $f \in X^{\prime}$, then $f=0$. Thus, the lemma is proved.

Definition 5. For each $x, y \in X$ we define $E(x, y)=A(x)(y)$, where the right-hand expression denotes the value of the functional $A(x)$ at $y$. It is clear that $E$ is a bilinear functional defined on $X \times X$ such that $E(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $x, y \in K$. For each $x \in X$ we define $F(x)=E(\cdot, x)$. It is easy to verify that $F$ is a positive linear transformation mapping $X$ into $X^{\prime}$.

Lemma 6. If $x \in X$ and $x \neq 0$, then there exists $f \in K^{\prime}$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$.
Proof. Define $g=A(x)$. Since $x \neq 0$, it follows that $g \neq 0$, which means there exists $y \in K$ such that $g(y) \neq 0$. Define $f=F(y) \in K^{\prime}$. Now

$$
f(x)=F(y)(x)=E(x, y)=A(x)(y)=g(y) \neq 0 .
$$

Lemma 7. The mapping $F$ is one-to-one.
Proof. If $x \in X$ and $x \neq 0$, then by Lemma 6 there exists $f \in K^{\prime}$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$. If we define $y=B(f)$, then $F(x)(y)=A(y)(x)=f(x) \neq 0$. Hence, $F(x) \neq 0$.

Definition 8. A non-empty subset $M$ of any partially ordered set is said to be down-directed if for every $x, y \in M$ there exists $z \epsilon M$ such that $z \leq x$ and $z \leq y$. The term up-directed is defined by reversing the inequalities in the preceding statement. A non-empty subset $M$ of $K$ is said to be directed to 0 if $M$ is down-directed and if $\inf M=0$. (More detail on these matters may be found in Definition 1 of [2] or [3].)

Lemma 9. $X$ is Dedekind complete. This means that if $M$ is a downdirected subset of $K$, then $\inf M$ exists.

Proof. Since $X^{\prime}$ is always Dedekind complete and $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other, $X$ must also be Dedekind complete.

The term "Dedekind complete" is due to McShane [5, pp. 9-11].
Lemma 10. The mapping $A$ is o-continuous. This means that if $M$, where $M \subset K$, is directed to 0 , then $\inf \{A(x): x \in M\}=0$. The proof below can be modified to show that $B$ is also o-continuous.

Proof. Let M be any subset of $K$ which is directed to 0 . If we define $M^{\prime}=\{A(x): x \in M\}$, then $M^{\prime} \subset K^{\prime}$ and $M^{\prime}$ is down-directed. Since $X^{\prime}$ is Dedekind complete, $g=\inf M^{\prime}$ exists. It is clear that $0 \leq g$. Now for every $x \in M$ we have $g \leq A(x)$ and, hence, $B(g) \leq x$ for all $x \in M$. Therefore, $B(g) \leq 0$ and, hence, $g \leq 0$. By Lemma $4, g=0$, which proves that $A$ is $o$-continuous.

Lemma 11. For each $z \in K$ the positive linear functional $F(z)$ is o-continuous.
Proof. Let $M$ be any subset of $K$ which is directed to 0 . Putting $f=F(z)$, we want to show that

$$
\inf \{f(x): x \in M\}=0
$$

Now for each $x \in M$ we have $f(x)=A(x)(z)$. Since inf $\{A(x): x \in M\}=0$ and $M$ is down-directed, it follows that

$$
\inf \{A(x)(y): x \in M\}=0
$$

for all $y \in K$. Since $z \in K$, it follows that

$$
\inf \{f(x): x \in M\}=0
$$

which proves that $F(z)$ is $o$-continuous.
We now make a few comments in preparation for the main theorem. In the main theorem we will assume that $X$ is a complete vector lattice (i.e., that every non-empty subset of $K$ has an infimum). However, it is not necessary to make exactly this assumption about $X$. For example, we could assume that $X$ has the decomposition property in which case $X^{\prime}$ is a complete vector lattice [7, p. 27]. Since $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other, it follows that $X$ is also a complete vector lattice.

If $X$ is a vector lattice, then we write $x^{+}=x \vee 0, x^{-}=(-x)^{+},|x|=$ $x^{+}+x^{-}$. Note that $x=x^{+}-x^{-}$; this differs from Birkhoff [1, p. 219].

We now point out by means of an example that even if $X$ is a complete vector lattice, the bilinear functional $E$ (see Definition 5) may not be an inner product. Let $X$ be the real linear space of all triples of real numbers which is partially ordered componentwise; hence, $X$ is a complete vector lattice. It is easy to show that $X^{\prime}$ is exactly the same as $X$ in the sense that if

$$
x=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right) \in X \quad \text { and } \quad f=\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \beta_{3}\right) \in X^{\prime}
$$

then

$$
f(x)=\alpha_{1} \beta_{1}+\alpha_{2} \beta_{2}+\alpha_{3} \beta_{3} .
$$

Now let us define $A: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ and $B: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A(x)=\left(\alpha_{3}, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right) \text { for } x=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right) \\
& B(f)=\left(\beta_{2}, \beta_{3}, \beta_{1}\right) \\
& \text { for } f=\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \beta_{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Putting $x=(1,0,0)$ and $y=(1,0,1)$, it is easily seen that $E(x, y) \neq E(y, x)$ and $E(x, x)=0$.

Lemma 12. Let $X$ be a complete vector lattice. For any $w \in K$ there exists a positive linear transformation $P: X \rightarrow X$ which has the property that

$$
P(x)=\sup \{(n w) \wedge x: n=1,2,3, \cdots\} \quad \text { for all } x \in K
$$

Proof. See Nakano [6, pp. 41-43].
The positive linear transformation $P$ defined above is called a projector by Nakano. The essential properties of projectors are intuitively obvious and, therefore, we will use them without comment. Detailed proofs of these properties can be found in Nakano [6, pp. 41-54].

Theorem 13. Let $X$ be a complete vector lattice. If $E(x, y)=0$ whenever $x \wedge y=0$, then the above-stated conjecture is true with $\cdot E(\cdot, \cdot)$ as the inner product.

Proof. First let us note that if $w \in K$ and $P$ is the projector determined by $w$ as in Lemma 12, then

$$
E(P(x), w)=E(x, w) \quad \text { and } \quad E(w, P(x))=E(w, x)
$$

for all $x \epsilon X$. This follows from the fact that $(x-P(x)) \wedge w=0$ forall $x \in K$; hence,

$$
E(x-P(x), w)=0=E(w, x-P(x))
$$

for all $x \in K$. Since $X=K-K$, the desired equalities are obtained.
Let us now take any $w \in K$ with $w \neq 0$. Since $F: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ (see Definition 5) is one-to-one by Lemma $7, F(w)=f \in K^{\prime}$ and $f \neq 0$. Consequently, there exists $z \geq w$ such that $f(z)>0$. Now $f(z)=E(z, w)=E(P(z), w)=$ $f(P(z))$, where $P$ is the projector determined by $w$ as in Lemma 12. Defining $z_{n}=(n w) \wedge z$ for all $n=1,2,3, \cdots$, we see that $z_{1} \leq z_{2} \cdots$ and $\sup \left\{z_{n}\right\}=P(z)$ by Lemma 12. By Lemma $11 f$ is $o$-continuous so that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f\left(z_{n}\right)=f(P(z))=f(z)$. However, $z_{n} \leqq n w$ for all $n$ and since $f(z)>0$, there must be an integer $m$ such that $0<f\left(z_{m}\right) \leq m f(w)$. Hence, $f(w)=E(w, w)>0$. If we take any $x \in X$, then

$$
E(x, x)=E\left(x^{+}, x^{+}\right)+E\left(x^{-}, x^{-}\right) \geqq 0 ;
$$

if $x \neq 0$, then $x^{+} \neq 0$ or $x^{-} \neq 0$ so that $E(x, x)>0$. Note also that we have shown here that if $E(|x|,|y|)=0$, then $|x| \wedge|y|=0$.

Now take any $v \in K$ and define $u=B(F(v))$. Hence, $E(u, x)=E(x, v)$ for all $x \in X$. Now define $w=(u-v)^{+}$and let $P$ be the projector determined by $w$ as in Lemma 12. Since $P\left((u-v)^{-}\right)=0$, we have $w=P(w)=$ $P(u-v)=u_{1}-v_{1}$, where we put $u_{1}=P(u)$ and $v_{1}=P(v)$. Now we must have $E\left(u, u_{1}\right)=E\left(u_{1}, u_{1}\right)$ because $\left(u-u_{1}\right) \wedge u_{1}=0$ and $E\left(u_{1}, v\right)$ $=E\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ because $u_{1} \wedge\left(v-v_{1}\right)=0$. Therefore, $E\left(u_{1}, u_{1}\right)=E\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ which means that $E\left(u_{1}, u_{1}-v_{1}\right)=E\left(u_{1}, w\right)=0$; hence, $u_{1} \wedge w=0$. Since $u \geq 0$ and $v \geq 0$, it follows that $u \geq(u-v)^{+}=w$; hence, $u_{1}=P(u) \geq w$ so that $0=u_{1} \wedge w=w$. Since $w=0$, it follows that $u \leq v$. Now $E(u, v)=$ $E(v, v)$ which means that $E(v-u, v)=0$; hence, $0=(v-u) \wedge v=v-u$.

Since $u=v$, we have $E(v, x)=E(x, v)$ for all $x \epsilon X$. Since $v$ is any element of $K$ and $X=K-K$, it follows that $E(x, y)=E(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$.

Thus, we have shown that $E(\cdot, \cdot)$ is an inner product for $X$. It is obvious that $E(\cdot, \cdot)$ has property (a) of the conjecture. If $f \in K^{\prime}$, define $x=B(f) \in K$. Hence, $f=A(x)=E(x, \cdot)$, so that $E(\cdot, \cdot)$ has property (b).

We must now show that $X$ is norm complete with respect to the norm $\|\cdot\|$ determined by the inner product $E(x, y)$. Let $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ be a Cauchy sequence of elements from $X$. Using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we see that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} E\left(x_{n}, y\right)=f(y)$ for all $y \in X$. By Nakano's theorem [6, p. 251] it follows that $f \in X^{\prime}$. Let us define $x=B(f)$ so that $f=E(x, \cdot)$. Putting $\alpha=\sup \left\{\left\|x_{n}-x\right\|: n=1,2,3, \cdots\right\} \quad$ and $\quad \beta_{m}=\sup \left\{\left\|x_{n}-x_{m}\right\|: n \geq m\right\}$, we obtain by elementary computations that

$$
\left\|x_{n}-x\right\|^{2} \leqq \alpha \beta_{m}+\left|E\left(x_{n}-x, x_{m}-x\right)\right| \quad \text { for } n \geq m
$$

Therefore, for each fixed $m$ we have $\lim \sup _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|x_{n}-x\right\|^{2} \leqq \alpha \beta_{m}$. Since $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, it follows that $\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty} \beta_{m}=0$; hence, $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|x_{n}-x\right\|=0$. This proves that $X$ is norm complete and completes the proof of the theorem.

There are at least two essentially different ways of partially ordering a real Hilbert space $Y$ so that $Y$ and $Y^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other. We assume that $Y \neq\{0\}$.
I. If $Y$ is a real Hilbert space, then $Y$ is isomorphic to the space $Y_{0}$ of all real-valued functions $x(\cdot)$ defined on some set $\Omega$ such that

$$
\sum\left\{|x(\sigma)|^{2}: \sigma \in \Omega\right\}<\infty .
$$

Taking the pointwise partial ordering of functions in $Y_{0}$ and carrying this back to $Y$ by the isomorphism, it is easily shown that $Y$ is a complete vector lattice. (We are implicitly assuming that $Y_{0}$ has the usual Hilbert space norm and that the mappings effecting the isomorphism are actually isometries). Since $Y$ is a Banach lattice, we must have $Y^{\prime}=Y^{*}$; see [7, p. 44]. But $Y$ is naturally isomorphic to $Y^{*}$ with one mapping $A: Y \rightarrow Y^{*}$ effecting the isomorphism being defined as follows: $A(x)=(x, \cdot)$ for all $x \in Y$. It then follows by routine calculations that $Y$ and $Y^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other.
II. Let $Y$ be a real Hilbert space and take any $u \in Y$ with $\|u\|=1$. Now define $K=\{x: \sqrt{ } 2(x, u) \geq\|x\|\}$. It is easily shown that $K$ is a closed, generating cone with $u$ as an interior point. We may then partially order $Y$ by defining $x \leq y$ to mean that $y-x \in K$. We will show later that $\|x\|+\|y\| \leqq 2\|x+y\|$ for all $x, y \in K$; hence, $K$ is normal [7, p. 30]. Referring to Corollary 5.5, p. 24, and Theorem 6.7, p. 31, of [7], we see that $Y^{\prime}=Y^{*}$. As in the preceding example $Y$ is naturally isomorphic to $Y^{*}$ with the mapping A defined as it is there. To show that $Y$ and $Y^{\prime}$ are order isomorphic to each other, we need only show that $A(x) \geq 0$ if and only if $x \geq 0$.

Let us take any $x_{0}, y_{0} \in Y$ such that $x_{0}>0$ and $y_{0}>0$. Since

$$
0<\left\|x_{0}\right\| \leq \sqrt{ } 2\left(x_{0}, u\right)
$$

there must exist a real number $\alpha>0$ such that $\alpha\left(x_{0}, u\right)=1$. Similarly, there exists a real number $\beta>0$ such that $\beta\left(y_{0}, u\right)=1$. Define $x_{1}=\alpha x_{0}$ and $y_{1}=\beta y_{0}$. Since $x_{1}, y_{1} \in K$, we must have

$$
\left\|x_{1}\right\| \leq \sqrt{ } 2\left(x_{1}, u\right)=\sqrt{ } 2 \quad \text { and } \quad\left\|y_{1}\right\| \leq \sqrt{ } 2
$$

Since $\left(x_{1}-u, u\right)=\left(y_{1}-u, u\right)=0$, it follows that

$$
\|u\|^{2}+\left\|x_{1}-u\right\|^{2}=\left\|x_{1}\right\|^{2} \text { and }\|u\|^{2}+\left\|y_{1}-u\right\|^{2}=\left\|y_{1}\right\|^{2}
$$

Therefore, $\left\|x_{1}-u\right\| \leq 1$ and $\left\|y_{1}-u\right\| \leq 1$. Consequently, $-1 \leq\left(x_{1}-u, y_{1}-u\right)=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)-\left(x_{1}, u\right)-\left(y_{1}, u\right)+(u, u)$

$$
=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)-1 ;
$$

hence, $0 \leq\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=\alpha \beta\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. Since $\alpha \beta>0$, we have $0 \leq\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. Thus, we have $0 \leq(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in K$. From this it follows that if $x \geq 0$, then $A(x)=(x, \cdot) \geq 0$. For any $x, y \in K$ we have

$$
(x+y, x+y)=(x, x)+2(x, y)+(y, y) \geq(x, x)
$$

hence, $\|x+y\| \geq\|x\|$. From this it follows that

$$
\|x\|+\|y\| \leq 2\|x+y\| \quad \text { for all } x, y \in K
$$

Let us now take any $x \in X$ such that $x \neq 0$ and $(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $y \epsilon K$. We first show that $(x, u)>0$. Assume the contrary; i.e., $(x, u)=0$. Now define $\alpha=\|x\|^{-1}$ and put $x_{1}=\alpha x$. If we define $y_{1}=u-x_{1}$, then $\left\|y_{1}\right\|=\sqrt{ } 2$ and $\left(y_{1}, u\right)=1$, which means that $y_{1} \in K$. But

$$
\left(x, y_{1}\right)=(x, u)-\alpha(x, x)=-\|x\|<0
$$

which contradicts the fact that $\left(x, y_{1}\right) \geq 0$. Hence, we must have $(x, u)>0$. Now take $\beta>0$ so that $\beta(x, u)=1$ and then put $z=\beta x$. We will now show that $\|z-u\| \leq 1$. Assume the contrary; i.e., $\|z-u\|>1$. Putting

$$
\gamma=\|z-u\|^{-1} \quad \text { and } \quad w=u+\gamma(u-z)
$$

we have

$$
\|w\|^{2}=\|u\|^{2}+\gamma^{2}\|u-z\|^{2}=2
$$

and

$$
(w, u)=(1+\gamma)(u, u)-\gamma(z, u)=1
$$

which means that $w \in K$. But

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta(x, w) & =(z, w)=(1+\gamma)(z, u)-\gamma(z, z) \\
& =1+\gamma-\gamma\left[\|u\|^{2}+\|z-u\|^{2}\right] \\
& =1+\gamma-\gamma\left(1+\gamma^{-2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=1-\gamma^{-1}<0
$$

which contradicts the fact that $(x, w) \geq 0$. Hence, we must have

$$
\|z-u\| \leq 1
$$

Since $\|z\|^{2}=\|u\|^{2}+\|z-u\|^{2} \leq 2$ and $(z, u)=1$, it follows that $\beta x=$ $z \geq 0$; hence, $x \geq 0$. This means that if $A(x)=(x, \cdot) \geq 0$, then $x \geq 0$.

The second example does not give a partial ordering cquivalent to that in the first example except in the case that $Y$ is one- or two-dimensional. If $Y$ is at least three-dimensional and is partially ordered as in the second example, then $Y$ is not a vector lattice. We leave it to the reader to verify this.

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