

# ON THE LOGARITHM OF A UNIFORMLY BOUNDED OPERATOR<sup>(1)</sup>

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**1. Introduction.** Let  $Y$  be a bounded operator on a complex Banach space, and denote by  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  the set of all bounded operators  $B$  such that  $\exp B = Y$ . If  $\mathfrak{s}$  is an arbitrary subset of the plane, we shall say that  $N_{\mathfrak{s}}(Y) = 1$  if there exists a unique member  $A$  of  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  satisfying the following two conditions:

- (i) The spectrum of  $A$  is included in the closure of  $\mathfrak{s}$ .
- (ii) Any bounded operator which commutes with  $Y$  commutes then also with  $A$ .

Suppose  $N_{\mathfrak{s}}(Y) = 1$ ; we can then define  $\log_{\mathfrak{s}}(Y)$  as the unique such  $A$ . It is readily seen (Theorem IV, §3) that any  $B$  in  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  determines<sup>(2)</sup> a member  $Q$  of  $\mathfrak{L}(I)$  such that  $B = \log_{\mathfrak{s}}(Y) + Q$ . Of special interest is the case  $\mathfrak{s} = \mathfrak{e} = \{\lambda \mid |\operatorname{Im} \lambda| < \pi\}$  corresponding to the principal value of the logarithm.

If  $0$  is in the principal component  $\rho_1(Y)$  of the resolvent set of  $Y$ , there exist sets  $\mathfrak{s}$  such that  $N_{\mathfrak{s}}(Y) = 1$ ; this is shown in §3 to be a consequence of the Dunford operational calculus. Conversely, this calculus is inapplicable [2, p. 125] if  $0 \notin \rho_1(Y)$ ; in fact, it is beyond its power to exhibit one single member of  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  for such operators  $Y$ . In 1.1 we give an example of an operator  $Y$  such that  $0 \notin \rho_1(Y)$  and  $\mathfrak{L}(Y) \neq 0$ . The condition  $0 \in \rho_1(Y)$  is therefore not necessary<sup>(3)</sup> for  $\mathfrak{L}(Y) \neq 0$ , and will be omitted, in certain cases considered here.

In particular, if  $Y$  is a unitary operator on a Hilbert space, then  $N_{\mathfrak{e}}(Y) = 1$  when neither  $1$  nor  $-1$  are eigenvalues of  $Y$  (see §9). Attempts at extending this property lead naturally to the class  $\mathfrak{U}$  of all operators  $Y$  defined on a reflexive space and satisfying  $\sup \{\|Y^n\| \mid n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\} < \infty$ . Members of  $\mathfrak{U}$  were called "uniformly bounded transformations" by E. R. Lorch<sup>(4)</sup>, who first studied their properties.

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<sup>(2)</sup> The operator  $I$  is the identity; the elements of  $\mathfrak{L}(I)$  are characterized in Theorem III, §3.

<sup>(3)</sup> See [2, p. 452]. Another example is given by Lorch [5], who treated related questions in the commutative case; for instance, his Theorem 10 corresponds to our Theorem III.

<sup>(4)</sup> See [3; 4]. Sz.-Nagy [10] has shown that, in the special case where a member  $Y$  of  $\mathfrak{U}$  is defined on a Hilbert space, then  $Y = HUH^{-1}$  for some operators  $H$  and  $U$ , respectively self-adjoint and unitary.

Suppose that  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ , and that neither 1 nor  $-1$  are eigenvalues of  $Y$ . Our main result (Theorem VI) states that there exists at most one bounded operator  $A$  with  $\exp(iA) = Y$  whose spectrum lies on the closed interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ; moreover,  $N_e(Y) = 1$  if and only if such an  $A$  exists. Our proofs depend largely on the spectral resolution constructed by Lorch for such operators [3], which enables us, in a sense, to "split" (in §7) the spectrum of  $Y$ .

A fundamental role is performed here by the relation defined by (ii) for arbitrary bounded operators  $Y$  and  $A$ . It follows from Theorem I that this relation holds whenever  $A$  is a function of  $Y$  (in the sense of Dunford's operational calculus), provided the spectrum of  $Y$  does not separate the plane. We note that  $\mathfrak{U}$  and  $\mathfrak{A} = \{iA \mid A \in \mathfrak{L}(Y), Y \in \mathfrak{U}\}$  include the class of unitary and bounded self-adjoint operators, respectively. If  $X$  belongs to either  $\mathfrak{U}$  or  $\mathfrak{A}$ , then all isolated points of the spectrum of  $X$  are eigenvalues of  $X$ . Moreover, the residual spectrum of  $X$  is empty when  $X \in \mathfrak{A}$ , or in case  $X \in \mathfrak{U}$  and  $\mathfrak{L}(X) \neq 0$  (Theorem V, 6.5).

1.1. APPLICATION. Let  $\langle a \rangle$  denote the infinite matrix  $(a_{n-\nu})$ ,  $-\infty < n, \nu < +\infty$ . Let  $b_n = 0$  if  $n \neq -1$ ,  $b_{-1} = 1$ , and  $c_n = i(-1)^n/n$ ,  $c_0 = 0$ . The matrices  $\langle b \rangle$  and  $\langle c \rangle$  represent two transformations  $E_*^1$  and  $I_*$  on any one of the reflexive spaces  $l_p$ ,  $p > 1$ . It has been established<sup>(6)</sup> that these are bounded operators whose spectra are, respectively, the whole circumference of the unit-circle, and the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ; moreover  $\exp(-iI_*) = E_*^1$ .

We thus have an illustration of the case  $0 \notin \rho_1(E_*^1)$ ,  $\mathfrak{L}(E_*^1) \neq 0$ . Note that  $E_*^1$  has no eigenvalues<sup>(6)</sup> and  $E_*^1 x = \{x_{n+1} \mid n\}$ ,  $x \in l_p$ . Therefore  $E_*^1 \in \mathfrak{U}$ , and the conclusion  $N_e(E_*^1) = 1$ ,  $-iI_* = \log_e(E_*^1)$  now follows from Theorem VI.

## 2. Preliminaries.

2.1. NOTATION. Linear transformations which map a fixed Banach space into itself will be called operators; these we denote by  $A, B, X, Y, Z, I$  (the identity), and  $0$  (the zero). The values of  $\lambda$  for which  $\lambda I - Y$  has a bounded inverse operator  $\tilde{Y}_\lambda$  form the *resolvent set*  $\rho(Y)$  of  $Y$ . The component of  $\rho(Y)$  containing the point at infinity will be symbolized by  $\rho_1(Y)$ .

We shall write  $Y < B$  if any bounded operator commuting with  $Y$  commutes then also with  $B$ . The following properties are easily verified:

- (a)  $X < Y$  implies  $XY = YX$ ,
- (b)  $X < Y$  and  $Y < A$  implies  $X < A$ ,
- (c)  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda_n Y^n = X$  implies<sup>(6)</sup>  $Y < X$ .

2.2. LEMMA<sup>(7)</sup>. Suppose  $A \in \mathfrak{L}(Y)$  and  $Y < A$ ; then any  $B$  in  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  deter-

<sup>(6)</sup> See G. L. Krabbe, *Abelian rings and spectra of operators on  $l_p$* , to appear in Proc. Amer. Math. Soc.

<sup>(6)</sup> The  $\lambda_n$  are complex, and convergence is assumed; see 7.1.

<sup>(7)</sup> We recall that  $A \in \mathfrak{L}(Y)$  if  $\exp A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n!)^{-1} A^n = Y$ . This definition of  $\exp(A) = f(A)$  agrees with the interpretation of  $f(A)$  which will be adopted in 3.3 [1, Theorem 2.8].

mines a member  $Q$  of  $\mathfrak{R}(I)$  such that  $B = A + Q$ . Moreover  $B < Y$ ,  $B < A$ , and  $B < Q$ .

**Proof.** We derive  $B < Y$  from (c) and the hypothesis  $\exp B = Y$ ; but  $Y < A$ , so that  $B < A$  and  $BA = AB$  follow from (b) and (a) respectively. Therefore [2, p. 124]

$$\exp(B - A) = (\exp B)(\exp - A) = YY^{-1} = I.$$

If we now call  $Q = B - A$ , then  $\exp Q = I$  and  $B = A + Q$ . The proof is concluded by noting that  $B < Q$  follows from  $B < A$  and  $A = B - Q$ .

2.3. LEMMA. If  $\alpha \in \rho_1(Y)$ , then  $Y < \tilde{Y}_\alpha$ .

**Proof.** If  $\lambda \in \mathfrak{s} = \{\lambda \mid |\lambda| > \|Y\|\}$ , then [2, p. 98]  $\tilde{Y}_\lambda = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Y^n \lambda^{-n-1}$  and we can infer from (c) that  $Y < \tilde{Y}_\lambda$ . This means that if  $ZY = YZ$ , then the functions  $Z \cdot \tilde{Y}_\lambda$  and  $\tilde{Y}_\lambda \cdot Z$  coincide on the subregion  $\mathfrak{s}$  of the region  $\rho_1(Y)$ ; these two functions of  $\lambda$  are both analytic of  $\lambda$  on  $\rho_1(Y)$ , and the uniqueness theorem [2, p. 57] now shows that these functions coincide throughout  $\rho_1(Y)$ . This concludes the proof.

3. The logarithm of a bounded operator. The relation  $Y < X$  generalizes a relation  $X \smile Y$  introduced by Nagy [6, p. 302]. When  $Y$  is self-adjoint and  $f(Y) = X$ , then  $X \smile Y$  holds, provided  $f(Y)$  is interpreted in the sense of the functional calculus for such operators [6, p. 341]. We shall prove in 3.3 an analogous result for bounded operators  $Y$ .

3.1. NOTATION. The letters  $\mathfrak{a}$ ,  $\mathfrak{b}$ ,  $\mathfrak{s}$  will be reserved for sets in the plane;  $\sim \mathfrak{b}$  denotes the complement of  $\mathfrak{b}$ . Thus  $\sigma(Y) = \sim \rho(Y)$  is the spectrum of  $Y$ .

3.2. REMARK. If  $\sigma$  is a bounded and closed set, we shall write  $\mathfrak{a} \in \mathcal{A}(\sigma)$  when  $\mathfrak{a}$  is a bounded and open set containing  $\sigma$ , whose boundary  $\partial \mathfrak{a}$  consists of a finite family of (suitably oriented) contours in  $\sim \sigma$ . A simple argument of the Heine-Borel type [6, p. 420; 7, p. 193] shows that if  $\mathfrak{b}$  is an open set with  $\mathfrak{b} \supset \sigma$ , then  $\mathfrak{b}$  contains the closure of some  $\mathfrak{a}$  in  $\mathcal{A}(\sigma)$ .

3.3. THEOREM I. Suppose  $f$  is holomorphic<sup>(8)</sup> on some open set  $\mathfrak{b} \supset \sigma_1 = \sim \rho_1(Y)$ . If  $f(Y) = X$ , then  $Y < X$ .

**Proof.** As in 3.2, we can infer that  $\mathfrak{b}$  contains the closure of some  $\mathfrak{a}$  in  $\mathcal{A}(\sigma_1)$ . Observe that  $\mathfrak{a} \supset \sigma_1 \supset \sigma(Y)$ , and  $\partial \mathfrak{a} \subset \sim \sigma_1 \subset \rho(Y)$ ;  $\mathfrak{a}$  is therefore “ $Y$ -admissible” [6, p. 420], and consequently  $\int_{\partial \mathfrak{a}} f(\lambda) \tilde{Y}_\lambda d\lambda$  ( $k = \partial \mathfrak{a}$ ) is independent of the choice of  $\mathfrak{a}$  (satisfying the above conditions), and defines a bounded operator customarily written  $f(Y)$ .

In order to show that  $Y < f(Y)$ , we suppose  $ZY = YZ$  and note that  $Z \tilde{Y}_\lambda = \tilde{Y}_\lambda Z$ ,  $\lambda \in \rho_1(Y)$ , follows from 2.3; this holds “a fortiori” for  $\lambda \in k = \partial \mathfrak{a} \subset \rho_1(Y)$ , and therefore

<sup>(8)</sup> We say that  $f$  is holomorphic on  $\mathfrak{b}$  whenever  $f$  is a one-valued function, defined and analytic on  $\mathfrak{b}$ .

$$Z \cdot f(Y) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_k f(\lambda) Z \cdot \tilde{Y}_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_k f(\lambda) \tilde{Y}_\lambda \cdot Z d\lambda = f(Y) \cdot Z.$$

This concludes the proof.

3.4. DEFINITIONS. We say with Saks [8, pp. 74–75] that  $f$  is a *branch of the logarithm in*  $\mathfrak{b}$  if  $f$  is holomorphic in  $\mathfrak{b}$ , if  $f \neq \infty$  in  $\mathfrak{b}$ , and  $\exp(f(\alpha)) = \alpha$  when  $\alpha \in \mathfrak{b}^{(9)}$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}(Y)$  be the family of all open sets  $\mathfrak{b}$  with  $\{0, \infty\} \subset \sim \mathfrak{b}$ , and such that  $\sim \mathfrak{b}$  is a connected subset of  $\rho_1(Y)$ .

3.5. THEOREM. *If  $\mathfrak{b} \in \mathcal{B}(Y)$ , there exists a branch  $f$  of the logarithm in  $\mathfrak{b}$ . Moreover,  $f$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$  are related as in 3.3, and  $A = f(Y)$  is the only member of  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  such that  $\sigma(A) \subset f(\mathfrak{b})$ .*

**Proof.** The existence of  $f$  follows from [8, p. 180]. Since  $f$  is holomorphic on  $\mathfrak{b} \supset \sim \rho_1(Y) \supset \sigma(Y)$ , we can deduce from the Dunford mapping theorem<sup>(10)</sup> that  $\sigma(f(Y)) = f(\sigma(Y)) \subset f(\mathfrak{b})$ ; the conclusion  $\sigma(A) \subset f(\mathfrak{b})$  now follows from  $A = f(Y)$ . The property  $\exp A = Y$  is a consequence of the relation  $\exp(f(\alpha)) = \alpha$  holding for  $\alpha \in \mathfrak{b} \supset \sigma(Y)$ , and a certain theorem by Dunford<sup>(11)</sup> which yields  $\exp(f(Y)) = Y$ . Suppose  $B \in \mathfrak{L}(Y)$ ,  $\sigma(B) \subset f(\mathfrak{b})$ ; it remains only to show that  $B = A$ . To that effect, note<sup>(9)</sup> that  $f(\exp \lambda) = \lambda$  for  $\lambda \in f(\mathfrak{b}) \supset \sigma(B)$  and thus<sup>(11)</sup>  $f(\exp B) = B$ . Consequently  $f(Y) = B$ , and  $B = A$ .

3.6. REMARK. It is easily checked that

$$\mathcal{B}(Y) \neq 0 \text{ if and only if } 0 \in \rho_1(Y).$$

The hypothesis  $\mathcal{B}(Y) \neq 0$  of 3.5 is therefore [2, p. 125] the most general condition on  $Y$  which is compatible with the Dunford operational calculus.

3.7. THEOREM II. *For any set  $\mathfrak{s}$  such that  $\exp(\mathfrak{s}) \in \mathcal{B}(Y)$ , there exists a unique  $A$  in  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  satisfying  $\sigma(A) \subset \mathfrak{s}$ . Moreover  $Y < A$  for such an  $A$ .*

This is an immediate consequence of 3.5 and 3.3, in view of the fact that<sup>(9)</sup>  $f(\exp \mathfrak{s}) = \mathfrak{s}$ .

3.8. REMARK. Suppose  $\alpha$  is a real number. If  $\mathfrak{s}_\alpha$  denotes the horizontal strip  $\{\lambda \mid |\operatorname{Im} \lambda - \alpha| < \pi\}$ , then  $\sim \exp(\mathfrak{s}_\alpha)$  is the half-line  $I_\alpha = \{pe^{i\alpha} \mid p \leq 0\}$ . The following corollary of 3.7 will be needed: for any  $I_\alpha \subset \rho(Y)$  there exists a unique member  $A$  of  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  such that  $\sigma(A) \subset \mathfrak{s}_\alpha$ ; furthermore (in view of 3.5),  $A = f(Y)$ , where  $f$  is one-to-one<sup>(9)</sup> and holomorphic on  $\mathfrak{b} = \sim I_\alpha \supset \sigma(Y)$ . In the particular case  $I_0 = (-\infty, 0]$ , call  $\mathfrak{s}_0 = \mathfrak{e}$ ; then<sup>(12)</sup>  $N_\mathfrak{e}(Y) = 1$ , provided  $\sigma(Y)$  is included in the cut-plane  $\sim(-\infty, 0]$ . Note that  $\log_\mathfrak{e}(Y) = f(Y)$ , where  $f$  is now the principal value of the logarithm.

<sup>(9)</sup> Therefore  $f$  is one-to-one on  $\mathfrak{b}$ , and  $f(\exp \lambda) = \lambda$  for  $\lambda$  in  $f(\mathfrak{b})$ .

<sup>(10)</sup> See 6.2, also [6, p. 421, (28)].

<sup>(11)</sup> See [6, p. 422], also [1, p. 196, 2.10].

<sup>(12)</sup> The notation used here is defined in the introduction.

3.9. THEOREM III. *The operator  $Q$  is in  $\mathfrak{L}(I)$  if and only if there exists a finite family  $\{P_n\}$  of operators satisfying*

$$Q = 2\pi i \sum_n n P_n, \quad \sum_n P_n = I, \quad \text{and} \quad P_n P_\nu = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad n \neq \nu.$$

**Proof.** Since  $P_n = (P_n)^2$ , it is quickly verified that the condition is sufficient [2, Theorem 5.18.2]. On the other hand, if  $\exp Q = I$ , then<sup>(10)</sup>  $\exp(\sigma(Q)) = \sigma(\exp Q) = \sigma(I) = \{1\}$ ; hence  $\sigma(Q) \subset \{2\pi i n \mid n=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\}$ . To every  $n$  corresponds [2, p. 105] an operator  $P_n$  with  $\sum_n P_n = I$  and  $P_n P_\nu = 0$  for  $n \neq \nu$ . If  $Q_n$  and  $I_n$  denote the restriction of  $Q$  and  $I$ , respectively, to the range of  $P_n$ , then (see 7.2)  $Q_n \in \mathfrak{L}(I_n)$ ; moreover [6, p. 410]  $\sigma(Q_n) \subset \{2\pi i n\} \subset \mathfrak{B}_\alpha$  ( $\alpha = 2\pi n$ ). But the operator  $2\pi n i I_n$  also has these properties; we therefore deduce from 3.8 that  $Q_n = 2\pi n i I_n$ . The conclusion follows from  $Q = Q \sum_n P_n = \sum_n Q_n P_n = \sum_n 2\pi n i P_n$ .

3.10. THEOREM IV. *If  $N_\delta(Y) = 1$ , then  $B = \log_\delta(Y) + Q$  for any  $B$  in  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  and some  $Q$  in  $\mathfrak{L}(I)$ . Moreover  $B < Y < \log_\delta(Y) < Y$  and  $B < Q$ . The hypothesis  $N_\delta(Y) = 1$  is satisfied for some set  $\delta$ , in case  $0 \in \rho_1(Y)$ ; we then have  $\log_\delta(Y) = f(Y)$ , where  $f$  is a branch of the logarithm in  $\exp(\delta)$ .*

**Proof.** This is an obvious consequence of 2.2, 3.6, 3.7, and 3.5. (The symbolism was defined in the introduction.)

3.11. ORIENTATION. We shall henceforth investigate operators  $Y$  such that  $\sigma(Y) \subset \Gamma_0 = \{\lambda \mid |\lambda| = 1\}$ ; the Dunford functional calculus is not applicable when  $\sigma(Y) = \Gamma_0$  (since  $0 \notin \rho_1(Y)$ ). Our aim will be to establish  $N_\epsilon(Y) = 1$  under conditions which allow the possibility  $\sigma(Y) = \Gamma_0$ .

#### 4. Some results of Lorch.

4.1. NOTATION. Let  $\mathcal{D}(Y)$  denote the domain of  $Y$ . We shall write  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$  if  $\mathcal{D}(Y)$  is a reflexive Banach space, and if moreover  $\mathcal{D}(Y) = \mathcal{D}(Y^{-1})$  and  $\sup \{\|Y^n\| \mid n=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\} < \infty$ . Let  $p(Y)$  denote the point-spectrum of  $Y$ . The set  $\{x \mid x \in \mathcal{D}(Y), Yx = 0\}$  will be called the *null-space* of  $Y$ .

4.2. LEMMA. *Suppose  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ . Let  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda'_n Y^n$  and  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda''_n Y^n$  denote the series (6) and (7) in [3, p. 24]; these series converge (see 7.1) and define two bounded operators  $[Y]^1$  and  $[Y]^2$ , respectively. Furthermore*

- (1)  $[Y]^1 [Y]^2 = 0 = [Y]^2 [Y]^1,$
- (2)  $[Y]^1 + [Y]^2 = (2i)^{-1}(Y - Y^{-1}).$

*These results are found in [3].*

4.3. THEOREM. *If  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ , then to every real  $\lambda$  corresponds a pair of subspaces  $\{Y\}_\lambda^1$  and  $\{Y\}_\lambda^2$  of  $\mathcal{D}(Y)$  satisfying:*

- (a)  $\{Y\}_\mu^2 \supset \{Y\}_\lambda^2$  and  $\{Y\}_\mu^1 \subset \{Y\}_\lambda^1$  if  $\mu \leq \lambda$ .
- (b)  $\{Y\}_{-\pi}^2 = \mathcal{D}(Y)$  and  $\{Y\}_\pi^2 = \{0\}$ .

(c)  $\{Y\}_\lambda^\kappa = \mathcal{D}(Y) \Leftrightarrow \{Y\}_\lambda^\kappa = \{0\}$  (when  $\nu \neq \kappa$ ,  $\nu = 1, 2$ ).

(d) If  $1 \notin p(Y)$  and  $-1 \notin p(Y)$ , then  $\{Y\}_0^\kappa$  is the null-space of  $[Y]^\kappa$ .

The statements (a) and (b) are found in [3, Theorem 7]; the notation used there is  $\mathfrak{E}_\lambda = \{Y\}_\lambda^1$  and  $\mathfrak{F}_\lambda = \{Y\}_\lambda^2$ . The proposition (c) follows immediately from [loc. cit.]. To prove (d) we note [3, pp. 30, 29, and 28]

$$(3) \quad \mathfrak{E}_0 = \mathfrak{M}_0 = \{x \mid x \in \mathcal{D}(Y), A_0x = 0, g'_0 = 0\}, \quad A_\lambda = [e^{-i\lambda}Y]^1,$$

$$(4) \quad \mathfrak{F}_0 = \mathfrak{N}_0 = \{x \mid x \in \mathcal{D}(Y), B_0x = 0, g'_0 = 0\}, \quad B_\lambda = [e^{-i\lambda}Y]^2.$$

Furthermore, for any  $x$  in  $\mathcal{D}(Y)$ ;  $Yg_0 = g_0$  and  $Yg'_0 = -g'_0$  [3, p. 28]. Hence  $g_0 = 0$  and  $g'_0 = 0$ , since otherwise either  $1 \in p(Y)$  or  $-1 \in p(Y)$ . The conclusion follows.

4.4. LEMMA. If  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$  and  $\alpha \in (0, \pi)$ , then

$$\bigcap_{\lambda > \alpha} \{Y\}_\lambda^1 \text{ is a subset of } \{Y\}_\alpha^1.$$

**Proof.** Suppose that  $\lambda \in (\alpha, \pi)$ ; now  $\{Y\}_\lambda^1 = \mathfrak{E}_\lambda$  in Lorch's notation, and [3, p. 30]

$$(5) \quad x \in \{Y\}_\lambda^1 \Leftrightarrow AB_{\lambda-\pi}x = -AA_\lambda x = 0, \quad g'_0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x \in \mathcal{D}(Y).$$

From (3), (4), and 4.2 we see that  $A_\lambda$  and  $B_{\lambda-\pi}$  are defined by uniformly convergent series, and both are therefore continuous functions of  $\lambda$ . The proof will be completed when we show that (5) holds for  $\lambda = \alpha$  if it holds for all  $\lambda$  in  $(\alpha, \pi)$ . This, however, follows from the continuity of  $A_\lambda$  and  $B_{\lambda-\pi}$  (that  $g'_0$  is independent of  $\lambda$  is seen by referring to the definition [3, p. 28] of that symbol).

4.5 REMARK. Lemma 4.4 shows that  $\{Y\}_{\alpha+0}^1 = \{Y\}_\alpha^1$ , where  $\{Y\}_{\alpha+0}^1$  is the set-theoretic limit of the monotonic sequence  $\{Y\}_\lambda^1$ . The proof of 4.4 can be elaborated to establish the right-continuity of  $\{Y\}_\lambda^1$ , from which the corresponding property of  $\{Y\}_\lambda^2$  follows in some cases.

### 5. Lorch's spectral analysis in $\mathfrak{U}$ .

5.1. DEFINITIONS. Lorch calls  $\lambda$  a *point of constancy* if there exists numbers  $p$  and  $q$  such that  $\lambda \in [p, q]$  and  $\{Y\}_p^\kappa = \{Y\}_q^\kappa$  for  $\kappa = 1, 2$ . Let us call  $\mathcal{R}(Y)$  the totality of all points of constancy, and define

$$\{Y\}_{\alpha-0}^2 = \bigcap_{\lambda < \alpha} \{Y\}_\lambda^2.$$

5.2. LEMMA. If  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ ,  $\alpha \in (0, \pi)$  and  $(\alpha, \pi) \subset \mathcal{R}(Y)$ , then  $\{Y\}_\alpha^2 = \{0\} = \{Y\}_\pi^2$ .

**Proof.** From 4.3(a) and our hypothesis that every point on  $(\alpha, \pi]$  is a point of constancy, follows easily that  $\{Y\}_\lambda^2$  must be the same for all  $\lambda$  on

$(\alpha, \pi]$ ; in fact  $\{Y\}_\lambda^2 = \{0\} = \{Y\}_\pi^2$ , and we can infer from 4.3(c) that  $\{Y\}_\lambda^1 = \mathcal{D}(Y)$  for  $\lambda \in (\alpha, \pi]$ . Applying now 4.4 and 4.3(c) in succession, we obtain  $\{Y\}_\alpha^1 = \mathcal{D}(Y)$  and  $\{Y\}_\alpha^2 = \{0\}$ .

**5.3. THEOREM.** *Suppose  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ . The residual spectrum of  $Y$  is void, and  $\sigma(Y) \subset \Gamma_0 = \{\zeta \mid |\zeta| = 1\}$ . Moreover, if  $|\lambda| < \pi$ , then*

- (i)  $\phi(\lambda) \notin \sigma(Y) \Leftrightarrow \lambda \in \mathfrak{R}(Y) \quad (\phi(\lambda) = e^{i\lambda}),$   
 (ii)  $\phi(\lambda) \in p(Y) \Leftrightarrow \{Y\}_{\lambda=0}^2 \neq \{Y\}_\lambda^2.$

These results form part of Lorch's Theorem 9 [3, p. 36]; as in the preceding section, we have extracted from the context the only facts needed in this paper.

## 6. Punctuality.

**6.1. DEFINITION.** Let  $r(X)$  and  $\sigma_0(X)$  denote, respectively, the residual spectrum of  $X$ , and the set of isolated points of  $\sigma(X)$ ; we say that  $X$  is *punctual* if  $\sigma_0(X) \subset p(X)$ .

**6.2. LEMMA.** *If  $f$  is holomorphic on some open set  $\mathfrak{b} \supset \sigma(X)$ , then  $f(\Lambda(X)) = \Lambda(f(X))$ , where  $\Lambda = \sigma, p$ . In particular, if  $f$  is one-to-one on  $\mathfrak{b}$ , and  $\alpha \in \mathfrak{b}$ , then*

$$(6) \quad \alpha \in \Lambda(X) \Leftrightarrow f(\alpha) \in \Lambda(f(X)) \quad (\Lambda = \sigma, p, r).$$

The proof is given in 9.6.

**6.3. LEMMA.** *If  $V \in \mathfrak{U}$ , then any bounded operator  $A'$  with  $\exp(iA') = V$  is punctual,  $r(A') = 0$ , and  $\sigma(A') \subset (-\infty, \infty)$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $\phi(\lambda) = \exp(i\lambda)$ , and note that  $\phi(\sigma(A')) = \sigma(\phi(A')) = \sigma(V) \subset \Gamma_0$  (from 6.2 and 5.3), so that  $\sigma(A')$  is included in some open interval  $\mathfrak{J}' \subset (-\infty, \infty)$ . Consider a point  $\alpha'_0$  and an interval  $\mathfrak{J}'_0$ , both arbitrary except for the requirement  $\alpha'_0 \in \mathfrak{J}'_0 \subset \mathfrak{J}'$ ; we can find a positive integer  $m$  and a real number  $\tau$  such that the function  $g(\lambda) = \tau + (m^{-1})\lambda$  satisfies  $g(\mathfrak{J}'_0) \supset \pi$ ,  $g(\alpha'_0) \in (0, \pi)$  and maps  $\mathfrak{J}'$  into an interval  $\mathfrak{J}$  of diameter less than  $\pi$ .

Call  $A = g(A')$ . The function  $\phi$  is one-to-one on  $\mathfrak{J} \supset \sigma(A)$ , and  $\phi(A) = Y = \exp\{i\tau I + i(m^{-1})A\}$  is easily checked to be a member of  $\mathfrak{U}$ . By 5.3 we have  $r(\phi(A)) = 0$ ; a repeated application of (6) now yields

$$\phi\{g(r(A'))\} = \phi\{r(g(A'))\} = \phi\{r(A)\} = r\{\phi(A)\} = 0,$$

therefore  $r(A') = 0$ .

It remains to show  $\sigma_0(A') \subset p(A')$ . To that effect, suppose  $\alpha'_0 \in \sigma_0(A')$ , in fact, let  $\alpha'_0$  be the only point of  $\sigma(A')$  in  $\mathfrak{J}'_0$ ; if we call  $\alpha = g(\alpha'_0)$  and  $(p, q) = g(\mathfrak{J}'_0)$ , then  $\alpha > 0$  and

$$(7) \quad \alpha \text{ is the only point of } \sigma(A) \text{ in } [p, \pi].$$

Hence  $\lambda \in [p, \pi]$ ,  $\lambda \neq \alpha$ , implies  $\lambda \notin \sigma(A)$ , which in turn necessitates  $\lambda \in \mathfrak{R}(Y)$  (since  $\phi(\lambda) \notin \sigma(Y)$  by (6), and 5.3(i)). Thus  $(\alpha, \pi] \subset \mathfrak{R}(Y)$ , and  $\{Y\}_\lambda^2$  must

be the same for any  $\lambda$  in the interval of constancy  $[p, \alpha]$ ; consequently  $\{Y\}_p^2 = \{Y\}_{\alpha-0}^2$ . In view of 5.2, our results can be gathered as follows:

$$(8) \quad \{Y\}_p^2 = \{Y\}_{\alpha-0}^2, \quad \{Y\}_\alpha^2 = \{0\} = \{Y\}_\pi^2.$$

The conclusion  $\sigma_0(A') \subset p(A')$  is now at hand. We supposed  $\alpha'_0 \in \sigma_0(A')$ ; if  $\alpha'_0 \notin p(A')$ , then (applying (6) twice)  $\alpha \notin p(A)$ ,  $\phi(\alpha) \notin p(\phi(A)) = p(Y)$ , whence  $\{Y\}_{\alpha-0}^2 = \{Y\}_\alpha^2$  (by 5.3(ii)). This implies  $\{Y\}_p^2 = \{0\} = \{Y\}_\pi^2$  by (8), and  $\{Y\}_p^\kappa = \{Y\}_\pi^\kappa$  ( $\kappa=1, 2$ ) by 4.3(c). But  $\alpha \in [p, \pi]$ , and 5.3(i) now shows that  $\phi(\alpha) \notin \sigma(Y)$ , which yields the contradiction  $\alpha \notin \sigma(A)$  of (7).

6.4. THEOREM V. *If  $\mathfrak{B} = \{B \mid \alpha B \in \mathfrak{L}(V), V \in \mathfrak{U}, \alpha \text{ complex}\}$ , then any member of  $\mathfrak{B} \cup \mathfrak{U}$  is punctual.*

**Proof.** If  $\alpha B \in \mathfrak{L}(V)$ ,  $V \in \mathfrak{U}$ , then  $\exp\{i\{-\alpha B\}\} = V$ , and 6.3 shows that  $-\alpha B$  is punctual; therefore  $B$  is punctual (by (6)) whenever  $B \in \mathfrak{B}$ . If  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$  and  $\lambda \in \sigma_0(Y)$ , then  $\mathfrak{I}_\alpha \subset \rho(Y)$  for some  $\alpha$ ; we see from 3.8 that this implies the existence of a member  $A$  of  $\mathfrak{L}(Y)$  with  $A = f(Y)$ ,  $f$  being one-to-one on  $\mathfrak{h} = \sim \mathfrak{I}_\alpha \supset \sigma(Y)$ . Hence  $A \in \mathfrak{B}$ ,  $A$  is punctual, and  $Y$  is punctual by (6).

6.5. REMARK. If  $B$  is bounded and self-adjoint, then  $B \in \mathfrak{B}$ ; if  $Y$  is unitary, then  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$  and  $\mathfrak{L}(Y) \neq 0$  (see 9.1). It is apparent from 6.2 and the proofs of 6.3 and 6.4 that  $r(X) = 0$  when  $X \in \mathfrak{B}$ , or when  $X \in \mathfrak{U}$  and  $\mathfrak{L}(X) \neq 0$ . We shall make no use of these properties. Examples of nonpunctual operators can be found in [2, p. 441].

## 7. Two halving theorems.

7.1. DEFINITION.  $\|X\| = \sup \{\|Xx\| \mid x \in \mathcal{D}(X), \|x\| \leq 1\}$ . The statement  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda_n X^n = Y$  will mean that

$$\lim_{m, n \rightarrow \infty} \left\| \sum_{r=-m}^n \lambda_r X^r - Y \right\| = 0, \quad \mathcal{D}(Y) = \mathcal{D}(X),$$

and will carry the assumption that  $\|X^{-1}\| < \infty$ ,  $\mathcal{D}(X^{-1}) = \mathcal{D}(X)$  in case  $\lambda_n \neq 0$  for some  $n < 0$ .

7.2. LEMMA. *Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be the null-space of  $X$ . The restriction of  $Z$  to  $\mathcal{N}$  is an operator  $\blacktriangle Z$  such that  $\mathcal{D}(\blacktriangle Z) = \mathcal{N}$  and  $(\blacktriangle Z)x = Zx$  for  $x$  in  $\mathcal{N}$ . If  $ZX = XZ$  (or if  $Z \prec X$ ), then  $\blacktriangle Z$  maps  $\mathcal{N}$  into itself,  $\|\blacktriangle Z\| \leq \|Z\|$ ,  $p(\blacktriangle Z) \subset p(Z)$ , and*

$$(iii) \quad \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda_n Z^n = f(Z) \text{ implies } f(\blacktriangle Z) = \blacktriangle f(Z),$$

$$(iv) \quad r(\blacktriangle Z) = 0 \text{ implies } \sigma(\blacktriangle Z) \subset \sigma(Z).$$

The proof is omitted, (iv) is an immediate consequence of [2, Theorem 2.14.4].

7.3. NOTATION. In this section,  $\kappa$  will be a fixed member of  $\{1, 2\}$ . If  $Z$  is an arbitrary operator, then  $Z_\kappa$  and  $\blacktriangle Z$  will both denote the restriction of  $Z$  to the null-space  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $[Y]^\kappa$ .



7.4. THEOREM. Suppose  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ ,  $-1 \notin p(Y)$ , and  $1 \in p(Y)$ . Then  $Y < [Y]^\kappa$ ,  $Y_\kappa \in \mathfrak{U}$ , and

$$\sigma(Y_\kappa) \subset \Gamma_\kappa = \{ \zeta \mid |\zeta| = 1, \quad (-1)^\kappa \operatorname{Im} \zeta \geq 0 \}.$$

REMARK. The upper (lower) half of the unit-circumference contains thus  $\sigma(Y_\kappa)$ , depending on the choice of  $\kappa$ . From 7.1 and 4.2 we have  $\mathcal{D}([Y]^\kappa) = \mathcal{D}(Y)$ ; hence

$$(1) \quad \mathcal{N} = \{ x \mid x \in \mathcal{D}(Y), [Y]^\kappa x = 0 \}.$$

**Proof.** From 4.2 and 2.1(c) follows  $Y < [Y]^\kappa$ . But  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ , and a repeated application of 7.2 therefore yields  $\| (Y_\kappa)^n \| = \| (\blacktriangle Y)^n \| = \| \blacktriangle (Y^n) \| \leq \| Y^n \| \leq m_0$  ( $n=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$ ). This shows that  $Y_\kappa \in \mathfrak{U}$ , since  $\mathcal{D}(Y_\kappa) = \mathcal{N}$  is a reflexive space [2, Theorem 2.10.3]. Let  $\mathcal{N}_\kappa$  be the null-space of  $[Y_\kappa]^\kappa$ ; we now prove that  $\mathcal{D}(Y_\kappa) = \mathcal{N}_\kappa$ . It is enough to show that  $\mathcal{N} \subset \mathcal{N}_\kappa$ , since we note (as in (1)) that  $\mathcal{N}_\kappa = \{ x \mid x \in \mathcal{D}(Y_\kappa), [Y_\kappa]^\kappa x = 0 \} \subset \mathcal{D}(Y_\kappa) = \mathcal{N}$ . Suppose  $x \in \mathcal{N}$ ; if we write  $f(Y) = [Y]^\kappa$  and apply successively (1) and (iii), then

$$0 = f(Y)x = (\blacktriangle f(Y))x = f(\blacktriangle Y)x = f(Y_\kappa)x = [Y_\kappa]^\kappa x,$$

consequently  $x \in \mathcal{N}_\kappa$ , and  $\mathcal{N} \subset \mathcal{N}_\kappa$ . We have thus proved that  $\mathcal{D}(Y_\kappa) = \mathcal{N}_\kappa$ .

On the other hand, we see from  $\pm 1 \notin p(Y) \supset p(Y_\kappa)$  and 4.3(d) that  $\mathcal{N}_\kappa = \{ Y_\kappa \}_0^\kappa$ ; hence  $\mathcal{D}(Y_\kappa) = \{ Y_\kappa \}_0^\kappa$ . In particular,  $\mathcal{D}(Y_2) = \{ Y_2 \}_0^2 \subset \{ Y_2 \}_{-\pi}^2 = \mathcal{D}(Y_2)$  (see 4.3); using 4.3(c), we obtain  $\{ Y_2 \}_{-\pi}^2 = \{ Y_2 \}_0^2$  for  $\kappa=1$  and  $\kappa=2$ . In the notation of 5.1, this means that  $(-\pi, 0) \subset \mathcal{R}(Y_2)$ .

If  $\zeta \in \sigma(Y_2)$ , then  $|\zeta| = 1$  (since  $\sigma(Y_2) \subset \Gamma_0$ , by 5.3); writing now  $\zeta = e^{i\lambda}$ ,  $|\lambda| \leq \pi$ , we see that  $\zeta \in \Gamma_2$ , for otherwise  $\lambda \in (-\pi, 0)$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathcal{R}(Y_2)$ , and  $\zeta = \phi(\lambda) \notin \sigma(Y_2)$  by 5.3(i). This contradiction proves  $\sigma(Y_2) \subset \Gamma_2$ ; an identical argument establishes  $\sigma(Y_1) \subset \Gamma_1$ .

7.5. THEOREM. Let  $Y$  be as in 7.4, and suppose  $A$  is a bounded operator with  $\exp(iA) = Y$  and  $\sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ ; then  $\exp(iA_\kappa) = Y_\kappa$  and

$$\sigma(A_\kappa) \subset \mathfrak{I}_\kappa, \quad \text{where } \mathfrak{I}_1 = [-\pi, 0] \quad \text{and} \quad \mathfrak{I}_2 = [0, \pi].$$

**Proof.** Set  $\phi(\lambda) = e^{i\lambda}$ . From  $\phi(A) = Y$  and 2.1(c) we have  $A < Y$ ; this implies  $A < [Y]^\kappa$  (since  $Y < [Y]^\kappa$  and 2.1). From (iii) follows  $\phi(A_\kappa) = \blacktriangle(\phi(A)) = \blacktriangle Y = Y_\kappa$ . Note<sup>(13)</sup> that  $\sigma(A_\kappa) \subset \sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ . In order to show that  $\sigma(A_\kappa) \subset \mathfrak{I}_\kappa$ , suppose  $\lambda \in \sigma(A_\kappa)$ . Then  $|\lambda| \leq \pi$  and<sup>(10)</sup>  $\phi(\lambda) \in \sigma(\phi(A_\kappa)) = \sigma(Y_\kappa)$ , which implies, by 7.4, that  $(-1)^\kappa \operatorname{Im} \phi(\lambda) = (-1)^\kappa \operatorname{Im} e^{i\lambda} \geq 0$ ; thus  $(-1)^\kappa \lambda \in (\{-\pi\} \cup [0, \pi])$ . To complete the proof it now suffices to establish  $\alpha_\kappa = -(-1)^\kappa \cdot \pi \notin \sigma(A_\kappa)$ . Suppose otherwise; then  $\alpha_\kappa \in \sigma_0(A_\kappa)$ , and this necessitates<sup>(13)</sup> that  $\alpha_\kappa \in p(A_\kappa)$ . In view of 6.2 and 7.2, we have  $\phi(\alpha_\kappa) \in p(\phi(A_\kappa)) = p(Y_\kappa) \subset p(Y)$ , whence the contradiction  $-1 = \phi(\alpha_\kappa) \in p(Y)$ .

<sup>(13)</sup> From  $\phi(A_\kappa) = Y_\kappa \in \mathfrak{U}$  and 6.3 follows that  $\sigma_0(A_\kappa) \subset p(A_\kappa)$  and  $r(A_\kappa) = 0$ ; therefore,  $\sigma(A_\kappa) \subset \sigma(A)$  is a consequence of (iv).

7.6. LEMMA. Let  $Y$  be as in 7.4, and write  $S = [Y]^1 + [Y]^2$ ; then  $Y < S$  and  $SX = SZ$  implies  $X = Z$ .

**Proof.** That  $Y < S$  follows from  $Y < [Y]^*$  (see 7.4). In view of 4.2(2), we have  $YS = (2i)^{-1}(Y^2 - I)$ ; the hypothesis  $SX = SZ$  implies therefore  $(Y + I) \cdot (Y - I)x_0 = 0$ ,  $x_0 = (X - Z)x$  for any  $x$  in  $\mathcal{D}(Y)$ . It will be enough to show  $x_0 = 0$ ; if  $x_0 \neq 0$ , then  $(Y \pm I)z = 0$  for some  $z \neq 0$ , which contradicts the assumption  $\pm 1 \notin p(Y)$ .

### 8. Uniqueness.

8.1. THEOREM VI. If  $Y \in \mathcal{U}$  and neither 1 nor  $-1$  belong to  $p(Y)$ , then there exists at most one bounded operator  $A$  with  $\exp(iA) = Y$  satisfying  $\sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ . Moreover,  $Y < A$  for such an  $A$ .

**Proof.** The notation will be the one specified in 7.3. Set  $\kappa' \neq \kappa$ ,  $\kappa' = 1, 2$  throughout; we first gather a few obvious facts (see 7.2).

$$(2) \quad Z_\kappa X = ZX \quad \text{if } Xx \in \mathcal{N} \quad \text{when } x \in \mathcal{D}(X),$$

$$(3) \quad ZY = YZ \quad \text{implies} \quad Z_\kappa Y_\kappa = Y_\kappa Z_\kappa \quad \text{and} \quad Z_\kappa [Y]^{\kappa'} = [Y]^{\kappa'} Z_\kappa.$$

To justify the last equality, we begin by observing that  $Z[Y]^{\kappa'} = [Y]^{\kappa'} Z$ , since  $Y < [Y]^{\kappa'}$  (see 7.4 and 2.1). In view of (2), it suffices to note next that  $y = [Y]^{\kappa'} x \in \mathcal{N}$ , since  $[Y]^{\kappa'} y = 0$  (by 4.2(1)).

We are now ready to prove the theorem. Set  $\alpha = (-1)^{\kappa} \pi/2$ . From 7.4 we see that  $-e^{i\alpha} \notin \sigma(Y_\kappa)$ ; thus  $\{pe^{i\alpha} \mid p \leq 0\} = I_\alpha \subset \rho(Y_\kappa)$ , and there exists, by 3.8, a unique  $B^{(\kappa)}$  in  $\mathfrak{L}(Y_\kappa)$  with  $\sigma(B^{(\kappa)}) \subset \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ . Note in passing that

$$(4) \quad Y_\kappa < B^{(\kappa)}.$$

Let  $A$  be a bounded operator with  $\exp(iA) = Y$  and  $\sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ . From 7.5 we have  $iA_\kappa \in \mathfrak{L}(Y_\kappa)$ , and  $\sigma(A_\kappa) \subset \mathfrak{J}_\kappa$ ; hence<sup>(10)</sup>  $\sigma(iA_\kappa) \subset \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ . Since  $iA_\kappa$  thus shares these properties with  $B^{(\kappa)}$ , we must have  $-iB^{(\kappa)} = A_\kappa$ . But  $\exp(iA) = Y$  implies  $AY = YA$  (by 2.1); it therefore results from (3) that

$$-\sum_{\kappa} iB^{(\kappa)}[Y]^{\kappa'} = \sum_{\kappa} A_\kappa[Y]^{\kappa'} = \sum_{\kappa} [Y]^{\kappa'} A = SA.$$

This holds for any bounded operator  $A'$  with  $\exp(iA') = Y$  and  $\sigma(A') \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ ;

$$(5) \quad -\sum_{\kappa} iB^{(\kappa)}[Y]^{\kappa'} = SA = SA'.$$

The conclusion  $A = A'$  now follows from 7.6.

It only remains to prove  $Y < A$ . To that effect, suppose  $ZY = YZ$ ; then  $Z_\kappa B^{(\kappa)} = B^{(\kappa)} Z_\kappa$  (from (3) and (4)). This enables us to derive successively from (5), (3), (2), and (5)

$$(SA)Z = -\sum_{\kappa} iB^{(\kappa)} Z_\kappa [Y]^{\kappa'} = -\sum_{\kappa} Z_\kappa iB^{(\kappa)} [Y]^{\kappa'} = Z(SA).$$

Now  $Y < S$  (see 7.6) and therefore  $ZS = SZ$ , whence  $Z(SA) = S(ZA) = S(AZ)$ , which yields  $ZA = AZ$  by 7.6. This concludes the proof.

**9. Conclusion.** Let us suppose that  $Y \in \mathfrak{U}$ , and that neither 1 nor  $-1$  are eigenvalues of  $Y$ . If a bounded operator  $A$  can be found with  $\exp(iA) = Y$  and  $\sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ , then it is (by Theorem VI) the only such operator, and  $Y < A$ . Using the notation defined in §1, we can then write  $iA \in \mathfrak{L}(Y)$ ,  $\sigma(iA) \subset \mathfrak{e}$ ,  $Y < iA$ ; accordingly,  $N_e(Y) = 1$  and  $\log_e(Y) = iA$ . The existence of such an  $A$  is guaranteed when  $A$  is a unitary operator in Hilbert space (see 9.1). From 3.10 and 3.9 follows that any bounded operator  $B$  with  $\exp(iB) = Y$  determines a finite family  $\{P_n | n\}$  of idempotents such that  $B = A + 2\pi iN$ ,  $N = \sum_n nP_n$ ; moreover,  $B < Y < A < Y$ .

**9.1. THEOREM.** *If  $Y$  is a unitary operator, then there exists a bounded operator  $A$  with  $\exp(iA) = Y$  and  $\sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $-Y$  is also unitary, we can infer from Stone's Theorem [9, p. 307] the existence of an operator  $B$  with  $-Y = \exp(i2\pi B)$  and  $\sigma(B) \subset [0, 1]$ . Set  $A = 2\pi B - \pi I$ ; then  $-Y = -\exp(iA)$  and  $\sigma(A) \subset [-\pi, \pi]$ . This concludes the proof.

**9.2. REMARK.** Lemma 6.2 follows directly from certain results of Hille [2, p. 123 and p. 313]. The relevant part of this material (reproduced below) is unaltered by our removal of the additional condition  $T \in \mathfrak{D}(\Delta)$  found in [2]<sup>(14)</sup>.

**9.3. DEFINITIONS.** We write  $Z \in \mathfrak{P}_1$  whenever  $Zx = 0$  for some  $x \neq 0$  in  $\mathfrak{D}(Z)$ . The statement  $Z \in \mathfrak{P}_2$  will indicate that the range of  $Z$  is nondense in  $\mathfrak{D}(Z)$ . Suppose  $\kappa = 1, 2$  throughout. The following properties are immediately verified:

(v) If  $Z \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa$  and  $AZ = ZA$ , then  $AZ \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa$ .

(w) If  $\prod_{n=1}^m Z_n \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa$ , then  $Z_n \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa$  for some  $n \leq m$ .

Finally, set  $p_\kappa(Z) = \{\alpha | Z[\alpha] \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa\}$ , where  $Z[\alpha] = \alpha I - Z$ .

**9.4. LEMMA.** *Suppose  $f$  is holomorphic on some open set  $\mathfrak{b} \supset \sigma(X)$ , so that  $Y = f(X)$  can be defined as in 3.3. If  $\alpha \in p_\kappa(X)$ , then  $f(\alpha) \in p_\kappa(Y)$ .*

**Proof.** Note that  $\alpha \in \sigma(X)$ . The function  $g(\lambda) = [f(\alpha) - f(\lambda)]/(\alpha - \lambda)$  is holomorphic on  $\mathfrak{b}$ , and  $(\alpha - \lambda) \cdot g(\lambda) = f(\alpha) - f(\lambda)$ . Therefore

$$X[\alpha] \cdot g(X) = Y[\beta] = g(X) \cdot X[\alpha], \quad \beta = f(\alpha).$$

But  $X[\alpha] \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa$ , and we conclude from (v) that  $Y[\beta] \in \mathfrak{P}_\kappa$ .

<sup>(14)</sup> Hille defines  $f(T)$  only when  $T \in \mathfrak{D}(\Delta)$ , in contrast to our broader definition, which is Dunford's [1; 6]. Hille proves that  $f(T)$  is holomorphic on the connected subregion  $\mathfrak{D}(\Delta)$  of  $\mathfrak{J} = \{T | f \text{ is holomorphic on } \sigma(T)\}$ ; it is easily inferred from his proof that  $f(T)$  is locally holomorphic on  $\mathfrak{J}$ .

9.5. LEMMA. *The conditions of 9.4 imply that  $p_*(Y) = f(p_*(X))$ .*

**Proof.** Suppose  $\mu \in p_*(Y)$ . By 9.4, it suffices to show that  $\mu = f(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha \in p_*(X)$ . We can find an open set  $a \supset \sigma(X)$  with  $a \subset b$ , and such that  $k(\lambda) = \mu - f(\lambda)$  has only a finite number of zeros  $\mathfrak{s} = \{\alpha_n | n\}$  in  $a$ , and none on  $\partial a$ . Note that  $\mathfrak{s} \neq \emptyset$  by the Dunford mapping theorem<sup>(10)</sup>. If we set  $\psi(\lambda) = \prod_n (\alpha_n - \lambda)$ , then the function  $h(\lambda) = \psi(\lambda) \cdot \{k(\lambda)\}^{-1}$  is holomorphic on  $a$ ; the relation  $(\mu - f(\lambda)) \cdot h(\lambda) = \psi(\lambda)$  implies therefore

$$(1) \quad Y[\mu] \cdot h(X) = \prod_n X[\alpha_n] = h(X) \cdot Y[\mu].$$

But  $Y[\mu] \in \mathfrak{P}_*$  (since  $\mu \in p_*(Y)$ ), and  $\prod_n X[\alpha_n] \in \mathfrak{P}_*$  is now a consequence of (1) and (v). From (w) we accordingly infer that  $X[\alpha_n] \in \mathfrak{P}_*$  for some  $n$ , whence  $\alpha_n \in p_*(T)$ . This concludes the proof, since  $\mu = f(\alpha_n)$ .

9.6. **Proof of 6.2.** Note that  $p_1(Z) = p(Z)$ , so that  $f(\Lambda(X)) = \Lambda(f(X))$  holds for  $\Lambda = \sigma, p$  (by 9.5 and the Dunford mapping theorem<sup>(10)</sup>). If  $f$  is one-to-one on  $b$ , then  $f(\Lambda(X)) = \Lambda(f(X))$  implies

$$(u) \quad \alpha \in \Lambda(X) \Leftrightarrow f(\alpha) \in \Lambda(f(X)).$$

Consequently (u) holds for  $\Lambda = \sigma, p_1, p_2$ . That (u) holds also for  $\Lambda = r$  is now seen to be a consequence of the definition  $r(Z) = \{\alpha | \alpha \in p_2(Z) \text{ and } \alpha \notin p_1(Z)\}$ .

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