## ON POLYNOMIALS IN SELF-ADJOINT OPERATORS IN SPACES WITH AN INDEFINITE METRIC(1)

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1. **Introduction.** Let H be a Hilbert space( $^2$ ) with the usual inner product  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  and norm( $^3$ ) and with an indefinite inner product  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  which, for some orthogonal decomposition  $H = H_1 \oplus H_2$  in H, is defined by

$$(x, y) = [x_1, y_1] - [x_2, y_2]$$
 for all  $x, y \in H$ ,

where

$$x = x_1 + x_2,$$
  $y = y_1 + y_2,$   
 $x_1, y_1 \in H_1,$   $x_2, y_2 \in H_2,$ 

and dim  $H_1 = \kappa$ , a positive integer. Such a space H will be called a space  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  with an indefinite metric. Another, axiomatic definition of the space  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  was given by I. S. Iohvidov and M. G. Krein in [1]; we follow here their terminology, unless otherwise stated, and use the results of their paper.

A linear operator A in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  is called symmetric if it maps a dense domain  $D(A)(^4)$  in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  into  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  and has the property,

$$(Ax, y) = (x, Ay)$$
 for all  $x, y \in D(A)$ .

A linear operator  $A^*$  defined in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  is called the adjoint operator of a linear operator A with a dense domain D(A) in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  if  $A^*$  is the maximum operator such that

$$(Ax, y) = (x, A^*y)$$
 for all  $x \in D(A)$  and all  $y \in D(A^*)$ .

A symmetric operator is said to be maximal if it has no proper symmetric extension.

A symmetric operator is said to be self-adjoint if  $A = A^*$ .

It is well known in the theory of operators in Hilbert spaces that any two complex conjugate polynomials in a self-adjoint operator are adjoint to each other. We find that the same property holds for polynomials in a self-adjoint operator in the space  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  with an indefinite metric. Moreover, if there exists a pair of complex conjugate

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<sup>(2)</sup> H is not necessarily separable.

<sup>(3)</sup> The topology in this paper is the norm topology.

<sup>(4)</sup> We shall always denote the domain of an operator A by D(A).

polynomials in a symmetric operator one of which is adjoint to the other, then this operator is self-adjoint. We shall prove these assertions in this paper.

2. Closed isometric operators. We shall prove here a theorem on isometric operators for later use. Isometric operators in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  are, in general, not continuous. However, a closed isometric operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ , as we shall show, is continuous.

DEFINITION 2.1. A linear operator V is said to be isometric if

$$(Vx, Vx) = (x, x)$$
 for all  $x \in D(V)$ .

DEFINITION 2.2. Let  $\Pi_{\kappa} = P \oplus N$ , where P is a positive  $\kappa$ -dimensional subspace and N is the orthogonal complement of P. An operator J is called a *metric operator* if it is defined by the relation,

$$J(x) = x_P - x_N$$
 for all  $x \in \Pi_\kappa$ 

where  $x = x_P + x_N$ ,  $x_P \in P$  and  $x_N \in N$ . The new scalar product  $[x, y]_J = (x, Jy)$  is called a *J-metric* and the new norm  $|x|_J = ([x, x]_J)^{1/2}$  is called a *J-norm*. By Theorem 1.2 in  $[1, \S 2]$  all the *J*-norms are topologically equivalent.

NOTATION. For any two linear manifolds L, M the notation  $L \oplus M$  represents that (x, y) = 0 for all  $x \in L$  and all  $y \in M$ . The notation  $L \oplus_J M$  represents that  $L \oplus M$  and  $[x, y]_J = 0$  for all  $x \in L$  and all  $y \in M$  for some metric operator J.

THEOREM 2.3. If V is a closed isometric operator, then V is a continuous operator with a closed domain D(V) and a closed range R(V).

**Proof.** Let  $D_+(V)$  be a positive subspace of D(V) with the greatest possible dimension and  $R_+(V) = VD_+(V)$ . Since V is an isometric operator, the subspace  $R_+(V)$  is a maximal positive subspace of R(V), having the same dimension as  $D_+(V)$ . We can have the resolutions

$$D(V) = D_{+}(V) \oplus_{I} D_{-}^{0}(V)$$
 and  $R(V) = R_{+}(V) \oplus_{I'} R_{-}^{0}(V)$ 

where  $D_{-}^{0}(V)$  and  $R_{-}^{0}(V)$  are nonpositive orthogonal complements of  $D_{+}(V)$  and  $R_{+}(V)$  in D(V) and R(V) respectively. If the scalar product degenerates on  $D_{-}^{0}(V)$ , then by Theorem 1.7 in [1, §3] we have

$$D_{-}^{0}(V) = D_{0}(V) \oplus_{I} D_{-}(V),$$

where  $D_0(V)$  is the isotropic subspace of the linear manifold  $D_-^0(V)$  and  $D_-(V)$  is a negative linear manifold. Clearly  $R_0(V) = VD_0(V)$  is the isotropic subspace of the linear manifold  $R_-^0(V)$  and  $R_-(V) = VD_-(V)$  is a negative linear manifold. Obviously we have

$$R_{-}^{0}(V) = VD_{0}(V) \oplus VD_{-}(V).$$

Thus we have the resolutions,

$$(2.1) D(V) = D_{+}(V) \oplus_{J} D_{0}(V) \oplus_{J} D_{-}(V)$$

and

(2.2) 
$$R(V) = R_{+}(V) \oplus_{I'} R_{0}(V) \oplus R_{-}(V).$$

If cl  $(R_{-}(V))$ , the closure of  $R_{-}(V)$ , is a negative subspace then the theorem is a direct consequence of Theorem 4.3 in [1, §15]. Thus it remains to prove that cl  $(R_{-}(V))$  is a negative subspace.

Assuming that the nonpositive subspace  $cl(R_{-}(V))$  is a degenerate subspace, by Theorem 1.7 in [1, §3] we have the decomposition

$$\operatorname{cl}(R_{-}(V)) = N \oplus_{J'} R'_{-}$$

where N is the isotropic subspace of  $\operatorname{cl}(R_{-}(V))$  and  $R'_{-}$  is a negative subspace. Similarly we have the decomposition

$$\operatorname{cl}(D_{-}(V)) = M \oplus_{J} D'_{-},$$

where M is the isotropic subspace of cl  $(D_{-}(V))$  and  $D'_{-}$  is a negative subspace.

Now let  $z_0 \in N$ . Then there exists a sequence  $\{x_n\}_0^{\infty}$  in  $D_-(V)$  such that  $\{y_n = Vx_n\}_0^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $R_-(V)$ , having  $z_0$  as its limit. From (2.3) and (2.4) we have

$$x_n = x_{0n} + x'_n, y_n = y_{0n} + y'_n,$$

where  $x_{0n} \in M$ ,  $x'_n \in D'_-$ ,  $y_{0n} \in N$  and  $y'_n \in R'$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$  Clearly we have

$$(2.5) (x_n', x_n') = (x_n, x_n) = (y_n, y_n) = (y_n', y_n')$$

for  $n=0, 1, 2, \ldots$  Since the scalar product (., .) is continuous in both arguments we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (y_n, y_n) = (z_0, z_0) = 0.$$

It follows from (2.5) that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} [x'_n, x'_n]_J = -\lim_{n \to \infty} (x'_n, x'_n) = -\lim_{n \to \infty} (y'_n, y'_n)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} [y'_n, y'_n]_{J'} = -\lim_{n \to \infty} (y_n, y_n) = 0.$$

In other words, each of the sequences  $\{x'_n\}_0^{\infty}$  and  $\{y'_n\}_0^{\infty}$  converges to the zero vector  $\theta$ . Hence the sequence  $\{y_{0n}\}_0^{\infty}$  converges to  $z_0$ .

If the sequence  $\{x_{0n}\}_0^{\infty}$  has a Cauchy subsequence with a limit  $x \in M$ , then  $z_0 = Vx$  and  $x \in D_-(V)$  since V is a closed operator. It follows that  $z_0 \in N \cap R_-(V)$ , that is  $z_0 = \theta$ .

If the sequence  $\{x_{0n}\}_0^{\infty}$  had no Cauchy subsequence, then it would have an unbounded subsequence  $\{x_{0k}\}_0^{\infty}$  such that  $|x_{0k}|_J = d_k > k+1$  for  $k=0, 1, 2, \ldots$ , since M is a finite dimensional subspace by Lemma 1.2 in [1, §1].

We define a sequence

$$w_k = x_k/d_k = x_{0k}/d_k + x_k'/d_k$$
 for  $k = 0,1,2,...$ 

The sequence  $\{w_k\}_0^{\infty}$  is clearly in  $D_-(V)$  and the sequence  $\{V(w_k) = y_k/d_k\}$  is clearly a Cauchy sequence in  $R_-(V)$  with the limit  $\theta$ . The sequence  $\{x'_k/d_k\}_0^{\infty}$  converges to  $\theta$  and the sequence  $\{x_{0k}/d_k\}_0^{\infty}$  is bounded in M with  $|x_{0k}/d_k|_J = 1$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ 

Let  $\{x_{0m}/d_m\}_0^{\infty}$  be a Cauchy subsequence of  $\{x_{0k}/d_k\}_0^{\infty}$ , with limit  $w_0 \in M$ . It follows that the corresponding subsequence  $\{w_m\}_0^{\infty}$  is also a Cauchy sequence with limit  $w_0$ . Since V is a closed operator, we have  $V(w_0) = \theta$  and  $w_0 \in D_-(V)$ , that is  $w_0 = \theta$ . But  $|w_0|_J = 1$  since  $w_0$  is the limit of the sequence  $\{x_{0m}/d_m\}_0^{\infty}$ . This contradiction implies that the sequence  $\{x_{0n}\}_0^{\infty}$  is bounded and hence  $z_0 = \theta$ . In other words  $N = \{\theta\}$ . Now it is easy to show that D(V) and R(V) are closed. The theorem is proven.

3. Polynomials in self-adjoint operators in the space  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ . Having proven Theorem 2.3 we are now able to investigate some properties of a symmetric operator by using Cayley-von Neumann transformation. Since every symmetric operator has a closed symmetric extension (see §6 in [1]), we center our attention on closed symmetric operators.

Let A be a closed symmetric operator with a dense domain D(A). There exists a nonreal number  $\zeta$  which is not a proper value of A since a symmetric operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  can have at most  $2\kappa$  nonreal proper values (see 1 of §8 in [1]). We define an operator V by the following formulae:

$$y = (Ax - \zeta x),$$
  $Vy = (Ax - \zeta x)$  for  $x \in D(A)$ ,

where  $\zeta$  is the complex conjugate of  $\zeta$  or symbolically,

$$V = (A - \zeta I)(A - \zeta I)^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad D(V) = (A - \zeta I)D(A).$$

The operator V is clearly a closed isometric operator. It follows from Theorem 2.3 that V is a continuous operator with a closed domain  $D(V) = (A - \zeta I)D(A)$ . Now it is easy to see that the operator  $(A - \zeta I)^{-1}$  is continuous. Thus we have proven the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.1. Let A be a closed symmetric operator with a dense domain D(A). If  $\zeta$  is a nonreal number which is not a proper value of A, then the operator  $(A - \zeta I)^{-1}$  is continuous with a closed domain  $(A - \zeta I)D(A)$ .

Before we prove our main theorem, we need to establish a few lemmas for later use.

LEMMA 3.2. Let A be a linear operator in a linear space  $\Pi$  and let  $\zeta$  be a complex number. If  $(A - \zeta I)D(A^m) \supset D(A^m)$  for some positive integer m, then  $(A - \zeta I)D(A^n) = D(A^{n-1})$  for all natural numbers n > m.

**Proof.** We shall prove this lemma by induction. Let n=m+1. It is obvious that  $(A-\zeta I)D(A^{m+1}) \subset D(A^m)$ . We need to prove only the reverse inclusion. For any  $x \in D(A^m)$  by assumption there exists  $y \in D(A^m)$  such that  $(A-\zeta I)y=x$ . It follows that  $Ay \in D(A^m)$ , that is  $y \in D(A^{m+1})$ . Hence  $(A-\zeta I)D(A^{m+1}) \supset D(A^m)$  and we have proved our lemma for n=m+1. Using the same kind of arguments we can prove the lemma for the case n=k+1 by assuming it is true for n=k. The lemma is proven.

LEMMA 3.3. Let A be a self-adjoint operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  and let  $P(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (\lambda - \zeta_i)$  be a polynomial with nonreal roots. If no root of  $P(\lambda)$  is a proper value of A, then(5)  $P(A)D(A^m) = D(A^{m-n})$  for m > n, where m, n are natural numbers.

**Proof.** By Theorem 2.9 in [1, §9] we have  $(A - \zeta_i I)D(A) = \Pi_{\kappa}$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n. Thus this lemma follows Lemma 3.2 immediately.

LEMMA 3.4. Let A be a maximal symmetric operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ . Then  $D(A^n)$  is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  for any natural number n.

**Proof.** We shall prove this lemma by induction. For n=1 the lemma is true by the definition of a maximal symmetric operator.

Now we assume this lemma is true for n=m. By Theorem 2.9 in [1, §9] we have a pair of complex numbers  $(\zeta, \bar{\zeta})$  such that

$$(3.1) (A-\zeta)D(A) = \Pi_{\kappa} \text{ and } (A-\zeta)D(A) = M,$$

where M is a nondegenerate subspace, containing a  $\kappa$ -dimensional positive subspace. Thus by Theorem 1.5 in [1, §3] we have the resolution

$$\Pi_{\kappa} = M \oplus_{J} N,$$

where N is the orthogonal complement of M. By Lemma 3.2 we have

$$(3.3) (A - \zeta)D(A^{m+1}) = D(A^m)$$

from relation (3.1).

Now for any  $x \in \Pi_{\kappa}$  we have  $y \in D(A)$  such that  $x = (A - \zeta)y = (A^* - \zeta)y$  by relation (3.1). From relation (3.2) we have  $y = y_M + y_N$ , when  $y_M \in M$  and  $y_N \in N$ . It follows from (3.1) there exists  $z \in D(A)$  such that  $y_M = (A - \overline{\zeta})z$ . Since  $(A^* - \zeta)y_N = \theta$ , we have

$$(3.4) x = (A^* - \zeta)(A - \overline{\zeta})z$$

for some  $z \in D(A)$ . If  $x \in \Pi_{\kappa}$  and  $(x, D(A^{m+1})) = 0$  then

$$0 = (x, D(A^{m+1})) = ((A^* - \zeta)(A - \overline{\zeta})z, D(A^{m+1}))$$
  
=  $((A - \overline{\zeta})z, (A - \overline{\zeta})D(A^{m+1}))$   
=  $((A - \zeta)z, (A - \zeta)D(A^{m+1})).$ 

It follows from (3.3) that  $0 = ((A - \zeta)z, D(A^m))$ . Hence we have  $(A - \zeta)z = \theta$  by assumption. Since  $\zeta$  is not a proper value of A we must have  $z = \theta$ . Thus from (3.4) we conclude that  $x = \theta$ . It thus follows that  $D(A^{m+1})$  is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ . The lemma is proved.

LEMMA 3.5. Let  $P(\lambda)$  be a polynomial of degree n and let F be a finite set of m complex numbers. Then we can always find a nonreal number  $\zeta_0$  such that all the roots of the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta_0$  are nonreal and these roots are not in the set F.

<sup>(5)</sup> We agree that for any operator A,  $A^0 = I$  where I is the identity operator.

**Proof.** It is easy to see that if  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta'$  are different numbers, then the polynomials  $P(\lambda) - \zeta$  and  $P(\lambda) - \zeta'$  have no common factors. Hence for only a finite number of complex numbers  $\zeta_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m'  $(m' \le m)$  does the corresponding polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta_i$  have roots in the set F. It thus follows that for any complex number  $\zeta$  such that  $\text{Re } \zeta > \text{Re } \zeta_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., m' the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta$  has no roots in F.

Let  $P(\lambda) = P^{(1)}(\lambda) + iP^{(2)}(\lambda)$ , where  $P^{(1)}(\lambda)$  and  $P^{(2)}(\lambda)$  are real polynomials of degree at most n. Let  $\zeta = c + id$ , where  $c \neq 0$  and d are real numbers such that  $c > \text{Re } (\zeta_i), i = 1, 2, \ldots, m'$ . If  $\lambda_0$  is a real root of the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta$ , then we have

$$(3.5) P^{(1)}(\lambda_0) - c = 0$$

and

$$(3.6) P^{(2)}(\lambda_0) - d = 0.$$

It is clear that for a fixed real number c, there exist at most  $n \lambda_0$ 's satisfying the relation (3.5). It thus follows that we can find a real number  $d_0 \neq 0$  such that the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - (c + id_0)$  has no real roots. Hence the number  $\zeta_0 = c + id_0$  is the desired nonreal number. The lemma is proved.

LEMMA 3.6. If A is a closed linear operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  then the adjoint of the adjoint of A is A.

**Proof.** Let J be a metric operator. Clearly JA is also a closed linear operator since J is a bicontinuous linear operator by Theorem 1.2 in [1, §2]. Let us denote the adjoint of JA with respect to the J-metric by  $(JA)^J$ . Since the space  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  together with a J-metric is a Hilbert space, we have  $(JA)^{JJ} = JA$ . It is obvious that for any linear operator B with a dense domain  $(JB)^J = JB^*$ . It thus follows that  $JA = (JA^*)^J = JA^{**}$ . Since J is bijective, we have  $A = A^{**}$ . The lemma is proved.

THEOREM 3.7. Let A be a symmetric operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  and let  $P(\lambda)$  and  $\bar{P}(\lambda)$  be complex conjugate polynomials of degree n. Then the operator  $\bar{P}(A)$  is adjoint to P(A) if and only if A is a self-adjoint operator.

**Proof.** (1). Let A be a self-adjoint operator. Since A can have only a finite number of nonreal proper values, it follows that by Lemma 3.5 we can find a nonreal number  $\zeta$  such that the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta$  has no root which is a proper value of A or its complex conjugate. Hence  $\overline{P}(\lambda) - \zeta$  also has no root which is a proper value of A. It follows that  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$  are not proper values of P(A) and  $\overline{P}(A)$  respectively.

It is clear that  $D(P(A)) = D(A^n) = \overline{D}(P(A))$ . Since  $D(A^n)$  is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  by Lemma 3.4, the adjoint operator  $P(A)^*$  of P(A) exists. Obviously we have  $P(A)^* \supset P(A)$ . Therefore it is sufficient to prove  $D(A^n) \supset D(P(A)^*)$  in order to prove  $\overline{P}(A) = P(A)^*$ .

By Lemma 3.3 we have

$$(3.7) (P(A)-\zeta I)D(A^n) = \Pi_{\kappa} = (\overline{P}(A)-\zeta I)D(A^n).$$

For any  $x \in D(P(A)^*)$  there exists  $z \in D(A^n)$  such that

$$(P(A)^* - \bar{\zeta}I)x = (\bar{P}(A) - \bar{\zeta}I)z$$

by relation (3.7). In other words, we have  $(P(A)^* - \zeta I)(x-z) = \theta$ . It thus follows that for all  $y \in D(A^n)$  we have

$$0 = ((P(A)^* - \zeta I)(x - z), y) = ((x - z), (P(A) - \zeta I)y).$$

Since  $(P(A) - \zeta I)D(A^n) = \Pi_{\kappa}$ , we have  $x - z = \theta$ , that is  $x = z \in D(A^n)$ . Similarly we can prove  $\bar{P}(A)^* = P(A)$ . The first part of the theorem is proved.

(2) Now let P(A) and  $\overline{P}(A)$  be adjoint to each other. We choose  $\zeta$  such that the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (\lambda - \zeta_i)$  has no root which is a proper value or its complex conjugate of the operator  $\overline{A}$ , the closed extension of A. It thus follows  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$  are not proper values of P(A) and  $\overline{P}(A)$  respectively.

We shall show that  $(P(A) - \zeta I)D(A^n)$  is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ . Let  $\kappa \in \Pi_{\kappa}$  be such that  $(\kappa, (P(A) - \zeta I)\gamma) = 0$  for all  $\gamma \in D(A^n)$ . It follows that for all  $\gamma \in D(A^n)$  we have

$$0 = ((P(A)^* - \zeta I)x, y) = ((\overline{P}(A) - \zeta I)x, y).$$

Since  $D(A^n)$  is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  by Lemma 3.4, we have  $(\bar{P}(A) - \zeta I)x = \theta$ , the zero vector. As  $\zeta$  is not a proper value of  $\bar{P}(A)$ , x must be the zero vector  $\theta$ . Therefore  $(P(A) - \zeta I)D(A^n)$  is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ .

We shall show  $(P(A) - \zeta I)D(A^n) = \Pi_{\kappa}$ . Let us define an operator U in the  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  by the formulae:

$$y = (P(A) - \zeta I)x, \qquad Uy = (\bar{P}(A) - \zeta I)x$$

for all  $x \in D(A^n)$ . Clearly U is an isometric operator with dense domain in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ . The operator U is bicontinuous by Theorem 4.3 in [1, §15]. Since the operators  $(A - \zeta_i)^{-1}$ ,  $i=1,2,\ldots,n$  are continuous by Theorem 3.1, the operator  $(P(A)-\zeta I)^{-1}=\prod_{i=1}^n (A-\zeta_i)^{-1}$  is also continuous. As  $\bar{P}(A)=P(A)^*$  is a closed operator, it follows that U and  $P(A)-\zeta I$  are also closed operators. Applying Theorem 2.3 we conclude that  $(P(A)-\zeta I)D(A^n)=D(U)$  is a subspace. Since it is dense in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ , it can only be the whole space  $\Pi_{\kappa}$ . As  $P(A)-\zeta I$  is a closed operator, the operator P(A) must be a closed operator. It thus follows from Lemma 3.6 that  $P(A)=P(A)^{**}$ . Hence by similar arguments we have  $(\bar{P}(A)-\zeta I)D(A^n)=\Pi_{\kappa}$ .

We shall show that  $(A-\zeta_1)D(A)=\Pi_{\kappa}=(A-\zeta_1)D(A)$ . It is sufficient to prove  $\prod_{i=2}^n (A-\zeta_i)D(A^n)\supset D(A)$ . Since  $\prod_{i=1}^n (A-\zeta_i)D(A^n)=\Pi_{\kappa}$ , for any  $\kappa\in D(A)$  there exists  $\kappa'\in\prod_{i=2}^n (A-\zeta_i)D(A^n)$  such that  $(A-\zeta_i)\kappa'=(A-\zeta_1)\kappa$ , that is  $(A-\zeta_1)(\kappa'-\kappa)=\theta$ . Since  $\zeta_1$  is not a proper value of A, we must have  $\kappa=\kappa'$ .

We shall show that  $A = A^*$ . Since  $D(A) \supset D(A^n)$  and  $\operatorname{cl}(D(A^n)) = \Pi_{\kappa}$ ,  $A^*$  exists. It is obvious  $A^* \supset A$ ; therefore it is sufficient to prove  $D(A^*) \subset D(A)$ . Since

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 $(A-\zeta_1)D(A)=\Pi_{\kappa}$ , for any  $x\in D(A^*)$  there exists  $y\in D(A)$  such that  $(A^*-\zeta_1)x=(A-\zeta_1)y$ , that is  $(A^*-\zeta_1)(x-y)=\theta$ . It follows that  $((A^*-\zeta_1)(x-y),z)=0$  for all  $z\in D(A)$ . Hence  $((x-y),(A-\zeta_1)z)=0$  for all  $z\in D(A)$ . As  $(A-\zeta)D(A)=\Pi_{\kappa}$ , we have  $x-y=\theta$ , that is x=y. So we have  $D(A^*)=D(A)$  and  $A=A^*$ . The theorem is completely proven.

THEOREM 3.8. Let A be a symmetric operator in  $\Pi_{\kappa}$  and let  $P(\lambda)$  be a real polynomial of degree greater than one. Then P(A) is a maximal symmetric operator if and only if A is self-adjoint.

**Proof.** If A is self-adjoint, the operator P(A) must be self-adjoint, that is maximal, by Theorem 3.7. Now let P(A) be maximal and let  $\widetilde{A}$  be a maximal symmetric extension of the operator A. Then  $P(A) = P(\widetilde{A})$  must hold. If  $\widetilde{A}$  is self-adjoint, then P(A) is self-adjoint and consequently A is self-adjoint by Theorem 3.7. If  $\widetilde{A}$  is not self-adjoint, we shall show  $P(A) = P(\widetilde{A})$  can not be maximal. If  $P(\widetilde{A})$  were maximal there exists a nonreal number  $\zeta$  which is not a proper value of  $P(\widetilde{A})$  such that

$$(P(\tilde{A})-\zeta)D(\tilde{A}^n)=\Pi_\kappa=\prod_{i=1}^n(\tilde{A}-\zeta_i)D(\tilde{A}^n).$$

It follows that the roots of  $P(\lambda) - \zeta$  are not proper values of A. Since  $P(\lambda)$  is a real polynomial of degree at least two and since  $\zeta$  is a nonreal number, there exists at least one root of the polynomial  $P(\lambda) - \zeta$  in both the upper and the lower half of the complex plane. It thus follows that there exists a root  $\zeta_{i0}$  such that  $(\tilde{A} - \zeta_{i0})D(A) \neq \Pi_{\kappa}$ . Hence we have

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} (\tilde{A} - \zeta_{i}) D(\tilde{A}^{n}) \subset (\tilde{A} - \zeta_{i0}) D(\tilde{A}) \neq \Pi_{\kappa}.$$

This contradiction implies that A must be a self-adjoint operator. The theorem is proven.

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## REFERENCE

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