

## INFINITE QUASI-NORMAL MATRICES

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**1. Introduction.** If  $A$  is a finite matrix with complex elements, and if  $A = A^T$  (where  $A^T$  denotes the transpose of  $A$ ), it is known (see [8]) that there exists a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $UAU^T = D$  is a real diagonal matrix with non-negative elements which is a canonical form for  $A$  relative to the given  $U, U^T$  transformation. If  $A$  is a quasi-normal matrix, i.e. a complex matrix such that  $AA^{cT} = A^T A^c$  (where  $A^c$  denotes the complex conjugate of  $A$  and  $A^{cT}$  denotes the complex conjugate transpose), it is known by [6; 10] that a necessary and sufficient condition for this to occur is that there exist a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $UAU^T$  is a direct sum of non-negative real numbers and of matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are non-negative real numbers. If  $A = -A^T$ , the  $a$ 's are 0 and a special case of this form results (see [9], also). Here the analogous normal forms are obtained for the case of infinite matrices which represent completely continuous operators in Hilbert space  $l^2$ . The point of view involves operator theory to some extent, but ultimately the matrix point of view since the results are concerned essentially with normal forms of matrices.

**2. The transpose operator.** First, the following facts are recalled relating to a completely continuous operator  $\mathcal{A}$  in complex Hilbert space  $l^2$ . Let  $A = (a_{ij})$  be an infinite matrix which represents  $\mathcal{A}$  relative to a given orthonormal basis. It is known that  $\mathcal{A}$  has a polar decomposition  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{P}$  where  $\mathcal{P}$  is a positive Hermitian operator,  $\mathcal{U}$  is a partially isometric operator whose initial set is the closure of the range of  $\mathcal{P}$  and whose final set is the closure of the range of  $\mathcal{A}$ , and where  $\mathcal{U}$  is unique. (See [7; 3], or [4].) It is also true that  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{A}$  (where  $\mathcal{U}^*$  denotes the adjoint of  $\mathcal{U}$ ) is completely continuous, that  $\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{U}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}$  (see [4, p. 264, solution 105] or [7, p. 5]), and that  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Q}\mathcal{U}$  where  $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{U}^* = \mathcal{Q}$  is positive Hermitian. Relative to the given basis let  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Q}\mathcal{U}$  have the matrix representation  $A = UP = QU$  where  $A = (a_{ij}), U = (u_{ij}), P = (p_{ij}),$  and  $Q = (q_{ij})$ . This is true since to the product of operators there corresponds the product of corresponding matrices relative to the same basis.  $U = (u_{ij})$  is not necessarily unitary.

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The transpose of  $\mathcal{A}$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{A}^T$ , is a linear transformation on the conjugate space with a matrix representation which is the transpose of  $A$ , relative to the appropriate basis. For purposes here, a transpose of  $\mathcal{A}$  is defined which is an operator on the same space  $l^2$  but also has a matrix representation which is the transpose of  $A$ . This is done as follows and the author is indebted to William L. Armacost who supplied the details in the following four paragraphs when the question of defining such a transpose arose in this work.

Let  $\{e_i\}$  be the usual orthonormal basis of  $l^2$  and let  $x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i e_i \in l^2$ . Define a transformation  $\mathcal{C}$  as follows:

$$\mathcal{C}x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \bar{x}_i e_i,$$

which is in  $l^2$ . This is a conjugate-linear (or “semilinear”) transformation from  $l^2$  onto  $l^2$  which is one-to-one and has the following properties (see [5, p. 357]):  $\mathcal{C}^2 = \mathcal{I}$  so  $\mathcal{C}^{-1} = \mathcal{C}$ ;  $\mathcal{C}(x + y) = \mathcal{C}x + \mathcal{C}y$ ;  $\mathcal{C}(ax) = \bar{a}\mathcal{C}(x)$  for any complex scalar  $a$  where  $\bar{a}$  denotes the conjugate of  $a$ . Also if  $(x, y)$  denotes scalar or inner product, then  $(\mathcal{C}x, y) = (x, \mathcal{C}y)$  and  $(\mathcal{C}x, \mathcal{C}y) = \overline{(x, y)} = (y, x)$ ; the latter implies  $(\mathcal{C}x, \mathcal{C}x) = \|\mathcal{C}x\|^2 = \|x\|^2$  so  $\|\mathcal{C}x\| = \|x\|$  (where  $\|x\|$  denotes the norm of  $x$ ) for any  $x$  in  $l^2$ . This means  $\mathcal{C}$  is an isometric mapping.

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a bounded linear operator mapping  $l^2$  into  $l^2$  with  $(\mathcal{A}e_j, e_i) = a_{ij}$  relative to a basis  $\{e_i\}$ . Let  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  be the operator defined by  $\bar{\mathcal{A}} = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$ . Then  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  is a linear operator mapping  $l^2$  into  $l^2$  (since  $\mathcal{A}(x + y) = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}(x + y) = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x) + (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}y)$  and since

$$\bar{\mathcal{A}}(ax) = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})(ax) = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A})(\bar{a}\mathcal{C}x) = \mathcal{C}(\bar{a}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x) = \bar{a}\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x = a\bar{\mathcal{A}}x).$$

$\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  is bounded. (For

$$\|\bar{\mathcal{A}}\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\bar{\mathcal{A}}x\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x\|$$

since  $\mathcal{C}$  is an isometry. The latter, since  $\mathcal{C}$  is a one-to-one onto isometry, is equal to

$$\sup_{\|e_j\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}e_j\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}x\| = \|A\| < \infty$$

so  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  is bounded.) And, finally,  $(\bar{\mathcal{A}}e_j, e_i) = \bar{a}_{ij}$  since

$$(\bar{\mathcal{A}}e_j, e_i) = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}e_j, e_i) = \overline{(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}e_j, \mathcal{C}e_i)} = \overline{(\mathcal{A}e_j, e_i)} = \bar{a}_{ij}.$$

Next, define the **T**-transpose of  $\mathcal{A}$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{A}^T$ , to be the linear transformation  $\mathcal{A}^T = \bar{\mathcal{A}}^* = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}$  where  $\mathcal{A}^*$  is the adjoint of  $\mathcal{A}$ .  $\mathcal{A}^T$  is a linear transformation on  $l^2$  into  $l^2$  for which the usual transpose properties hold:

$$(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B})^T = \mathcal{B}^T\mathcal{A}^T, (\mathcal{A} + \mathcal{B})^T = \mathcal{A}^T + \mathcal{B}^T$$

and  $(\mathcal{A}^T)^T = \mathcal{A}$ . Also,

$$(\mathcal{A}^T e_j, e_i) = (\bar{\mathcal{A}}^* e_j, e_i) = \overline{(e_j, \bar{\mathcal{A}} e_i)} = (\mathcal{A} e_i, e_j) = a_{ji}$$

so the matrix of  $\mathcal{A}^T$  is the transpose of the matrix of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Other properties of  $\mathcal{A}^T$  are as follows:  $(\mathcal{A}^*)^T = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} = \bar{\mathcal{A}}$ .  $\mathcal{A}^T = \bar{\mathcal{A}}^* = (\bar{\mathcal{A}})^*$  since  $(\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})^* = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}$  because

$$((\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})x, y) = \overline{(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x, \mathcal{C}y)} = \overline{(\mathcal{C}x, \mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}y)} = \overline{\overline{(x, \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}y)}} = (x, \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}y)$$

for all  $x$  and  $y$  in  $l^2$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  is Hermitian, so is  $\mathcal{A}^T$  since  $(\mathcal{A}^T)^* = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C})^* = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})^* = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A}^T$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  is unitary, so is  $\mathcal{A}^T$ , since if  $\mathcal{A}$  is unitary,  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^* = \mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{I}$  and so

$$(\mathcal{A}^T)^*\mathcal{A}^T = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C})^*(\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}) = (\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})(\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{I}$$

and similarly  $\mathcal{A}^T(\mathcal{A}^T)^* = \mathcal{I}$ . Similarly, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a partial isometry, then so is  $\mathcal{A}^T$ . (It is also evident that if  $\mathcal{A}$  is unitary so is  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ , and if  $\mathcal{A}$  is Hermitian, so is  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ .) Also,  $(\mathcal{A}^T)^* = (\mathcal{A}^*)^T$ .

Furthermore, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is completely continuous, so is  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ , and therefore so is  $\mathcal{A}^T = (\bar{\mathcal{A}})^*$ . It is to be shown that if  $x_n \rightharpoonup x$ , i.e., if  $x_n$  converges to  $x$  weakly, then  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}x_n \rightarrow \bar{\mathcal{A}}x$ , i.e.,  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}x_n$  converges to  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}x$  strongly. This will follow if it is shown that  $x_n \rightarrow x$  implies  $\mathcal{C}x_n \rightarrow \mathcal{C}x$  which in turn implies  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}x_n \rightarrow \bar{\mathcal{A}}x$ . If  $x_n \rightarrow x$ ,  $|(\mathcal{C}x_n - \mathcal{C}x, y)| = |(\mathcal{C}x_n - \mathcal{C}x, \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{C}y))| = |(\mathcal{C}(x_n - x), \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{C}y))| = |(x_n - x, \mathcal{C}y)| = |(x_n - x, \mathcal{C}y)| \rightarrow 0$  for each  $y$  in  $l^2$  since  $z_n \rightarrow z$  if and only if  $(z_n, y) \rightarrow (z, y)$  for each  $y$  in  $l^2$ . So  $\mathcal{C}x_n \rightarrow \mathcal{C}x$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is completely continuous,  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x_n \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x$ . Therefore,

$$\|\bar{\mathcal{A}}x_n - \bar{\mathcal{A}}x\| = \|\mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x_n - \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x\| = \|\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x_n - \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x)\| = \|\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x_n - \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}x\| \rightarrow 0$$

so  $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$  is completely continuous.

Let  $\mathcal{A}^T$  denote the transpose of  $\mathcal{A}$ , as above, and let  $A^T$  denote the transpose of matrix  $A$  relative to a given basis. Since  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Q}\mathcal{U}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}^T = \mathcal{P}^T\mathcal{U}^T = \mathcal{U}^T\mathcal{Q}^T$ , and so  $A^T = P^T U^T = U^T Q^T$ , where  $\mathcal{U}^T$  and  $U^T$  are partial isometries,  $\mathcal{P}^T$ ,  $\mathcal{Q}^T$ ,  $P^T$  and  $Q^T$  Hermitian.

**3. The T-symmetric case.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a completely continuous operator in  $l^2$  such that relative to some orthonormal basis  $\{e_i\}$ ,  $(\mathcal{A}e_j, e_i) = (\mathcal{A}^T e_j, e_i)$ , i.e.,  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$  for  $A$  determined by  $\mathcal{A}$  relative to this basis. (That such operators and matrices do exist and non-trivially is evident if one takes a completely continuous operator  $\mathcal{B}$ , and forms  $\mathcal{B} + \mathcal{B}^T$  which is in  $l^2$  and completely continuous, since  $\mathcal{B}^T$  is such.) Such an operator  $\mathcal{A}$  for which the above is true will be called **T-symmetric** and denoted by  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}^T$ .

The following analog for the finite case will be shown:

**THEOREM 1.** *If  $A$  is the matrix, relative to an orthonormal basis, of a completely continuous operator  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}^T$ , i.e. such that  $A = A^T$ , there is a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $UAU^T = D$  is a real diagonal matrix.*

If  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}^T$ , then from the above it follows that  $A = UP = A^T = U^TQ^T$  where  $P = P^{cT}$  (where the latter denotes the complex conjugate-transpose of  $P$ ) and  $Q^T = (Q^T)^{cT} = Q^c$ . This means that  $P = Q^T$ ; for  $\mathcal{P}^2 = \mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}^*)^T\mathcal{A}^T = (\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^*)^T = (\mathcal{Q}^2)^T = (\mathcal{Q}^T)^2$  and since  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $Q^T$  are positive operators, it follows that  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Q}^T$  and  $P = Q^T$ .

Therefore  $A = UP = QU = P^TU$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is completely continuous,  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{Q}$  are completely continuous Hermitian operators so there exist (infinite) unitary matrices  $W$  and  $V$  such that  $WPW^{cT} = D$  and  $VQV^{cT} = D_1$  are real diagonal matrices. In particular assume  $D$  is diagonal with real diagonal elements  $\lambda_i$  where  $\lim \lambda_i = 0$  as  $i$  becomes infinite. Then it follows that  $W^cAW^{cT} = W^cUW^{cT}WPW^{cT} = W^cP^TW^TW^cUW^{cT}$  or, if  $X = W^cUW^{cT}$ ,  $XD = DX$  and  $X$  is such that  $U$  is the matrix of a partial isometry and  $W^c$  and  $W^{cT}$  are unitary. Since  $\mathcal{U}$  is a partial isometry,  $\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{U} = K$  is such that  $\mathcal{K}^2 = \mathcal{K}$  is Hermitian (see [2, p. 153], for example) which means that  $U^{cT}U = (U^{cT}U)^2$  so that

$$(WU^{cT}W^T)(W^cUW^{cT}) = (WU^{cT}W^T)(W^cUW^{cT})(WU^{cT}W^T)(W^cUW^{cT}) = (WU^{cT}W^TW^cUW^{cT})^2$$

or  $X^{cT}X = (X^{cT}X)^2$ . There are two possible cases. (a) If no  $\lambda_i = 0$  in  $D$ , then since  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_i = 0$ , there can be only a finite number  $l$  of the  $x_i$  such that  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_l$  is the  $\lambda_i$  of largest value. Since  $X$  commutes with  $D$ ,  $X = X_1 \dot{+} X'$  where  $X_1$  is of finite dimension  $l$ . Then  $X^{cT}X = (X^{cT}X)^2$  which is Hermitian. (It follows that the roots of  $X_1^{cT}X_1$  are either 1, 0 or both.) From  $U^{cT}UP = P$  follows  $WU^{cT}W^TW^cUW^{cT}WPW^{cT} = W^cP^TW$  or  $X^{cT}XD = D$ . This means that  $X_1^{cT}X_1\lambda_1 = \lambda_1I_1$  where  $\lambda_1 \neq 0$  and so  $X_1^{cT}X_1 = I_1$ , where  $I_1$  is a suitably finite-dimensional identity matrix, so that  $X_1$  is unitary.  $X'$  can now be treated in the same way and by such successive steps involving  $\lambda_i$  of like value,  $X = X_1 \dot{+} X_2 \dot{+} X_3 \dot{+} \dots$  where the latter is a direct sum of the  $X_i$  and conformable to the blocks of like diagonal elements in  $D$  and where each such  $X_i$  has the properties of  $X_1$  above. (b) If some  $\lambda_i = 0$  (either finite or infinite in number) by following the stepwise process described above  $D$  can become a direct sum of such  $\lambda_i I_i$  blocks,  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ , interspersed with direct sums of 0's. If  $X = (x_{st})$  and if 0 appears in the  $i$ - $i$  and  $j$ - $j$  positions of  $D$  for  $i \neq j$  then  $x_{ii}$ ,  $x_{ij}$ ,  $x_{ji}$ , and  $x_{jj}$  are not necessarily 0. (The matrix composed of all such  $x_{ij}$  is the matrix of a partial isometry.) But  $X$  is such that  $W^cAW^{cT} = DX$  is a direct sum of  $\lambda_i X_i$ ,  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ , interspersed with 0's along the diagonal. If for some  $k$  all  $\lambda_i = 0$  for  $i > k$ , then  $D$  may be taken to be in the form  $\lambda_1 I_1 \dot{+} \lambda_2 I_2 \dot{+} \dots \dot{+} \lambda_{l-1} I_{l-1} \dot{+} 0$  (where 0 is an infinite matrix of 0's) with the  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ . In this case  $W^cAW^{cT} = W^cUPW^{cT} = W^cUW^{cT}WPW^{cT} = XD = \lambda_1 X_1 \dot{+} \lambda_2 X_2 \dot{+} \dots \dot{+} \lambda_{l-1} X_{l-1} \dot{+} 0$  where the latter is an infinite matrix of zeros.

From  $A = UP = QU = A^T = U^TQ^T = U^TP$  or  $A = UP = U^TP$  follows  $W^cAW^{cT} = W^cUW^{cT}WPW^{cT} = W^cU^TW^{cT}WPW^{cT} = XD = X^TD$ . This means that each  $X_i$  corresponding to  $\lambda_i \neq 0$  is such that  $\lambda_i X_i = \lambda_i X_i^T$  or that

$X_i = X_i^T$  where  $X_i$  is unitary. So for each  $X_i$ , for which  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ , there exists a real orthogonal matrix  $W_i$  such that  $W_i X_i W_i^T$  is complex diagonal and unitary. (For if  $M = M_1 + iM_2$ ,  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  real, is unitary and symmetric,  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are commutative real symmetric matrices which can be diagonalized by the same real orthogonal matrix.) So there is a complex unitary matrix  $T$  (a direct sum of  $W_i$  and 1's corresponding to 0's in  $D$ ) such that  $TAT^T$  is a diagonal matrix with diagonal elements of the form  $\lambda\mu$ ,  $\lambda$  real (including 0) and approaching 0 as one moves along the diagonal and  $|\mu| = 1$ . If  $S$  is the diagonal matrix with diagonal elements  $\mu^{-1/2}$  in corresponding position, when  $\lambda \neq 0$  and 1 when  $\lambda = 0$ ,  $S$  is unitary and  $STAT^T S^T$  is a real diagonal matrix with diagonal elements  $\lambda_i$  where  $\lambda_i \rightarrow 0$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ .

**4. The T-skew symmetric case.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a completely continuous operator in  $l^2$  such that relative to some orthonormal basis  $\{e_i\}$ ,  $(\mathcal{A}e_j, e_i) = -(\mathcal{A}^T e_j, e_i)$ , i.e.,  $a_{ij} = -a_{ji}$  for  $A = (a_{ij})$  determined by  $\mathcal{A}$  relative to this basis. (That such operators and matrices do exist is evident if one takes a completely continuous operator  $\mathcal{B}$  as before and forms  $\mathcal{B} - \mathcal{B}^T$  which is in  $l^2$  and completely continuous.) Such an operator will be called **T-skew-symmetric** and denoted by  $\mathcal{A}^T = -\mathcal{A}$ .

The following analog for the finite case is to be shown:

**THEOREM 2.** *If  $A$  is the matrix, relative to an orthonormal basis, of a completely continuous operator  $\mathcal{A} = -\mathcal{A}^T$ , i.e. such that  $A = -A^T$ , there is a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $UAU^T$  is a direct sum of 0's and of matrices of the form*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \lambda_i \\ -\lambda_i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_i$  is real and  $\lim \lambda_i = 0$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ .

The proof parallels that as found in the reference [9] given above. If  $\mathcal{A} = -\mathcal{A}^T$ , then  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Q}\mathcal{U} = -\mathcal{A}^T = -\mathcal{P}^T\mathcal{U}^T = -\mathcal{U}^T\mathcal{Q}^T$  which means  $A = UP = QU = -P^T U^T = -U^T Q^T$ . As before,  $P^2 = (Q^T)^2$  from which  $P = Q^T$ . ( $P = -Q^T$  would not be possible since  $Q^T$  is positive and  $P$  must also be positive.) The proof proceeds, in the reference given, by considering the non-singular and singular case. Here the proof is along lines similar to the **T-symmetric** case as follows. Let  $WPW^{cT} = D$  be real diagonal with diagonal elements  $\lambda_i$  where  $W$  is unitary. From  $A = UP = QU = P^T U$  it follows, as above, that  $X = W^c U W^{cT}$  is such that  $XD = DX$ , and if no  $\lambda_i = 0$ ,  $X$  is a direct sum of  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , each finite dimensional; and if some  $\lambda_i = 0$  then  $DX$  is a direct sum of finite dimensional  $\lambda_i X_i$  interspersed with direct sums of 0's. As before, the finite-dimensional  $X_i$  are unitary and from  $A = UP = -U^T P$ , it follows that  $XD = -X^T D$  and so each finite dimensional  $X_i = -X_i^T$ . By [9, Lemma 1, p. 438], if  $X$  is a (finite-dimensional) complex, unitary, skew-symmetric matrix, there exists a complex unitary  $V$  such that

$VXV^T = E$  is a direct sum of  $2 \times 2$  matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

An inspection of the proof of that lemma reveals that the  $V$  described is actually a product of matrices  $ST$  where  $T$  is real orthogonal such that  $TXT^T$  is a direct sum of  $2 \times 2$  blocks of the form

(i) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha \\ -\alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\alpha$  is non-zero complex and  $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = 1$ . In the present case if  $T_i$  is the real orthogonal matrix which performs this on the  $X_i$ , then if  $T$  is the corresponding direct sum of 1's (corresponding to 0's in the diagonal of  $D$ ) and of these  $T_i$ ,  $TW^cAW^cT^T$  is a direct sum of 0's and of  $\lambda_i A_i$ ,  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ , where each  $A_i$  is a direct sum of  $2 \times 2$  matrices of the form (i). If  $\alpha = e^{i\theta}$  and  $S$  is an appropriate direct sum of 1's and of  $2 \times 2$  matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-i\theta/2} \\ -e^{-i\theta/2} & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

then  $STW^cAW^cT^TS^T$  is a direct sum of matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \lambda_i \\ -\lambda_i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda_i \rightarrow 0$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ .

**5. The quasi-normal case.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a completely continuous operator. Then so are  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^*$ ,  $\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{A}$  and  $(\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{A})^T = \mathcal{A}^T(\mathcal{A}^*)^T = \mathcal{A}^T(\mathcal{A}^T)^*$ . By definition, an operator  $\mathcal{A}$  will be said to be quasi-normal if  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^* = (\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{A})^T = \mathcal{A}^T(\mathcal{A}^*)^T = \mathcal{A}^T\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ . (That such operators do exist may be seen as follows. Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be an operator which, relative to some orthonormal basis, has an infinite matrix which is a direct sum of matrices of the form

(ii) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_i & b_i \\ -b_i & a_i \end{bmatrix}$$

where the  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are non-negative real numbers and  $\sum_{i=1}^\infty (a_i^2 + b_i^2) < \infty$ . Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is a completely continuous operator (see [2, Exercise 1, p. 177]). Let  $\mathcal{U}$  be a unitary operator, and so  $\mathcal{U}^T$  is also unitary. Then  $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{B}\mathcal{U}^T$  is completely continuous and meets, non-trivially, the above definition, as can be directly verified.)

The following theorem results:

**THEOREM 3.** *If  $A$  is the matrix, relative to an orthonormal basis, of a completely continuous quasi-normal operator  $\mathcal{A}$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^* = \mathcal{A}^T(\mathcal{A}^*)^T$ , there is a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $UAU^T$  is a direct sum of matrices of the form (ii) above,*

where  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are real and  $a_i \rightarrow 0$  and  $b_i \rightarrow 0$  as  $i$  becomes infinite, and of  $1 \times 1$  real  $c_i$  where  $c_i \rightarrow 0$  as  $i$  becomes infinite.

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be quasi-normal and completely continuous and let  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{S} + \mathcal{T}$  where  $\mathcal{S} = 1/2(\mathcal{A} + \mathcal{A}^T)$  and  $\mathcal{T} = 1/2(\mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}^T)$  so that  $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S}^T$  and  $\mathcal{T} = -\mathcal{T}^T$ . The proof proceeds as in the finite case as follows. Since  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^* = \mathcal{A}^T(\mathcal{A}^*)^T$ , it follows that  $(\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{T})(\mathcal{S}^* + \mathcal{T}^*) = (\mathcal{S}^T + \mathcal{T}^T)(\mathcal{S}^* + \mathcal{T}^*)^T$  or

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{S} + \mathcal{T})(\mathcal{S}^* + \mathcal{T}^*) &= (\mathcal{S} - \mathcal{T})([\mathcal{S}^T]^* + [\mathcal{T}^T]^*) \\ &= (\mathcal{S} - \mathcal{T})(\mathcal{S}^* - \mathcal{T}^*) \end{aligned}$$

so  $\mathcal{S}\mathcal{S}^* + \mathcal{S}\mathcal{T}^* + \mathcal{T}\mathcal{S}^* + \mathcal{T}\mathcal{T}^* = \mathcal{S}\mathcal{S}^* - \mathcal{S}\mathcal{T}^* - \mathcal{T}\mathcal{S}^* + \mathcal{T}\mathcal{T}^*$  so  $\mathcal{S}\mathcal{T}^* = -\mathcal{T}\mathcal{S}^*$ . Relative to the given basis, the corresponding matrix product becomes  $ST^c = -TS^c$  or  $-ST^c = -TS^c$  or  $ST^c = TS^c$ . By Theorem 1 there exists a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $USU^T = D$  is a real diagonal matrix of the form described there. If  $UTU^T = M$ , then  $MD = DM^c$ . If the diagonal elements of  $D$  are  $d_i$ , and if  $M = (t_{ij})$ , then  $t_{ij}d_j = d_i \bar{t}_{ij}$  where  $t_{ji} = -t_{ij}$ . Three possibilities may occur: if  $d_j = d_i \neq 0$ , then  $t_{ij}$  is real; if  $d_j = d_i = 0$ ,  $t_{ij}$  is arbitrary (though  $M = -M^T$  still holds); and if  $d_j \neq d_i$ , then  $t_{ij} = 0$ , for if  $t_{ij} = a + ib$ , then  $(a + ib)d_j = d_i(a - ib)$  and  $a(d_j - d_i) = 0$  implies  $a = 0$  and  $b(d_i + d_j) = 0$  implies  $d_i = -d_j$  (which is not possible since the  $d_i$  are real and non-negative and  $d_j \neq d_i$ ) or  $b = 0$  so  $t_{ij} = 0$ .

So if  $USU^T = D$  then the following two cases arise: (a) If no  $d_i = 0$ , the  $d_i$  may be arranged so  $d_i \geq d_{i+1}$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  and relabelled  $d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots$  with  $d_i \neq d_j$  when  $i \neq j$ . Then  $UTU^T = T_1 \dot{+} T_2 \dot{+} \dots$  is a direct sum conformable to  $D$  where the  $T_i$  are real, finite dimensional, and infinite in number and  $T_i = -T_i^T$ ; for each such  $T_i$  there exists a real orthogonal  $V_i$  such that  $V_i T_i V_i^T$  is a direct sum of 0's and of matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \\ -b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $b$  is real (see [1, p. 65] for the real even dimension skew-symmetric matrix case). (b) If some  $d_i = 0$  (either finite or infinite in number) and if  $UTU^T = (t_{ij})$ , when 0 is in the  $i$ - $i$  and  $j$ - $j$  position for  $i \neq j$ , then  $t_{ii}, t_{ij}, t_{ji}$ , and  $t_{jj}$  are not necessarily 0 but the matrix  $T'$  composed of all such  $t_{rs}$  taken in order (which could be finite or infinite and distributed throughout  $UTU^T$ ) is complex skew-symmetric. For such a  $T'$ , finite or infinite, there exists a complex unitary  $W$  such that  $WT'W^T$  is the direct sum described in Theorem 1 of [9] if  $T'$  is finite, or such that  $WT'W^T$  is the direct sum described in Theorem 2 above if  $T'$  is infinite.

To examine each of these cases consider the following representative sample as a guide in which  $UAU^T = USU^T + UTU^T =$



In the case of a finite  $n \times n$  matrix with complex elements it is true that every matrix is similar to its transpose. Here, since  $\mathcal{A}^T = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{A}^*\mathcal{C}$ , it is true if  $A$  has a polar form  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{P}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}^T = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{U}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{A}\mathcal{U}^*\mathcal{C}$  but this provides no matrix connection between  $A^T$  and  $A$ . For the case in which  $\mathcal{A}$  is quasi-normal, the following observation holds. Let  $UAU^T = F$  be the direct sum as described in the preceding theorem. Then  $UA^T U^T = F^T$ . If  $W$  is an appropriate direct sum of  $2 \times 2$  matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and 1's,  $WFW^T = F^T$  from which  $U^{cT}WUAU^TW^T U^c = A^T$  or  $VAV^T = A^T$  where  $V = U^{cT}WU$  is unitary. Therefore, a linear operator  $\mathcal{V}$  on  $l^2$  does exist so that  $\mathcal{V}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{V}^T = \mathcal{A}^T$ .

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