



On n th Roots of Normal Operators

B.P. Duggal^a, I.H. Kim^b

^a8 Redwood Grove, London W5 4SZ, England (U.K.)

^bDepartment of Mathematics, Incheon National University, Incheon, 22012, Korea

Abstract. For n -normal operators A [2, 4, 5], equivalently n -th roots A of normal Hilbert space operators, both A and A^* satisfy the Bishop–Eschmeier–Putinar property $(\beta)_\epsilon$, A is decomposable and the quasi-nilpotent part $H_0(A - \lambda)$ of A satisfies $H_0(A - \lambda)^{-1}(0) = (A - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$ for every non-zero complex λ . A satisfies every Weyl and Browder type theorem, and a sufficient condition for A to be normal is that either A is dominant or A is a class $\mathcal{A}(1, 1)$ operator.

1. Introduction

Let $B(\mathcal{H})$ denote the algebra of operators, equivalently bounded linear transformations, on a complex infinite dimensional Hilbert space \mathcal{H} into itself. Every normal operator $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$, i.e., $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$ such that $[A^*, A] = A^*A - AA^* = 0$, has an n th root for every positive integer $n > 1$. Thus given a normal $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$, there exists $B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ such that $B^n = A$ (and then $\sigma(B^n) = \sigma(B)^n = \sigma(A)$). A straight forward application of the Putnam-Fuglede commutativity theorem ([14, Page 103]) applied to $[B, B^n] = 0$ then implies $[B^*, B^n] = 0$. (Conversely, $[B^*, B^n] = 0$ implies B^n is normal). Operators $B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ satisfying $[B^*, B^n] = 0$ have been called n -normal, and a study of the spectral structure of n -normal operators, with emphasis on the properties which B inherits from its normal avatar B^n , has been carried out in ([2], [4], [5]).

Given $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$, let $\sigma(A) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$ denote that $\sigma(A)$ is contained in an angle \angle , with vertex at the origin, of width less than $\frac{2\pi}{n}$. Assuming $\sigma(B) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$ for an n -normal operator $B \in B(\mathcal{H})$, the authors of ([2], [4], [5]) prove that B inherits a number of properties from B^n , amongst them that B satisfies Bishop–Eschmeier–Putinar property $(\beta)_\epsilon$, B is polaroid (hence also isoloid) and $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_m, y_m \rangle = 0$ for sequences $\{x_m\}, \{y_m\} \subset \mathcal{H}$ of unit vectors such that $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|(B - \lambda)x_m\| = 0 = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|(B - \mu)y_m\|$ for distinct scalars $\lambda, \mu \in \sigma_a(B)$. (All our notation is explained in the following section.) That B inherits a property from B^n in many a case has little to do with the normality of B^n , but is instead a consequence of the fact that B^n has the property. Thus, if the approximate point spectrum $\sigma_a(B^n) = \sigma_a(B)^n$ of B^n is normal (recall: $\lambda \in \sigma_a(B^n)$ is normal if $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|(B^n - \lambda)x_m\| = 0$ for a sequence $\{x_m\} \subset \mathcal{H}$ of unit vectors implies $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|(B^n - \lambda)^*x_m\| = 0$; hyponormal operators, indeed dominant operators, satisfy this property), $\sigma(B) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$, and $\{x_m\}, \{y_m\}$

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Email addresses: bpduggal@yahoo.co.uk (B.P. Duggal), ihkim@inu.ac.kr (I.H. Kim)

are sequences of unit vectors in \mathcal{H} such that $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|(B^n - \lambda^n)x_m\| = 0 = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|(B^n - \mu^n)y_m\|$ for some distinct $\lambda, \mu \in \sigma_a(B)$, then

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lambda^n \langle x_m, y_m \rangle = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \langle B^n x_m, y_m \rangle = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_m, B^{*n} y_m \rangle = \mu^n \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_m, y_m \rangle$$

implies

$$(\lambda - \mu) \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_m, y_m \rangle = 0 \iff \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_m, y_m \rangle = 0$$

(cf. [4, Theorem 2.4]). It is well known that w -hyponormal operators satisfy property $(\beta)_\epsilon$ ([3]). If $B^n \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ (i.e., B^n satisfies property $(\beta)_\epsilon$) and $\sigma(B) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$, then [7, Theorem 2.9 and Corollary 2.10] imply that $B + N \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ for every nilpotent operator N which commutes with B (cf. [5, Theorem 3.1]). Again, if B^n is polaroid and $\sigma(B) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$, then B is polaroid (hence also, isoloid) ([9, Theorem 4.1]). Observe that paranormal operators are polaroid. n th roots of normal operators have been studied by a large number of authors (see [18], [17], [6], [11], [13]) and there is a rich body of text available in the literature. Our starting point in this note is that an n -normal operator B considered as an n th root of a normal operator has a well defined structure ([13, Theorem 3.1]). The problem then is that of determining the “normal like” properties which B inherits. We prove in the following that the condition $\sigma(B) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$ may be dispensed with in many a case (though not always). Just like normal operators, n th roots B have SVEP (the single-valued extension property) everywhere, $\sigma(B) = \sigma_a(B)$, B is polaroid (hence also, isoloid). $B \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ (as also does B^*) and (the quasinilpotent part) $H_0(B - \lambda) = (B - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$ at every $\lambda \in \sigma_p(B)$ except for $\lambda = 0$ when we have $H_0(B) = B^{-n}(0)$. Again, just as for normal operators, B satisfies various variants of the classical Weyl’s theorem $\sigma(B) \setminus \sigma_w(B) = E_0(B)$ (resp., Browder’s theorem $\sigma(B) \setminus \sigma_w(B) = \Pi_0(B)$). It is proved that dominant and class $\mathcal{A}(1, 1)$ operators B are normal.

2. Notation and terminology

Given an operator $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$, the point spectrum, the approximate point spectrum, the surjectivity spectrum and the spectrum of S will be denoted by $\sigma_p(S)$, $\sigma_a(S)$, $\sigma_{su}(S)$ and $\sigma(S)$, respectively. The isolated points of a subset K of \mathbb{C} , the set of complex numbers, will be denoted by $\text{iso}(K)$. An operator $X \in B(\mathcal{H})$ is a quasi-affinity if it is injective and has a dense range, and operators $S, T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ are quasi-similar if there exist quasi-affinities $X, Y \in B(\mathcal{H})$ such that $SX = XT$ and $YS = TY$.

$S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ has SVEP, the single-valued extension property, at a point $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ if for every open disc \mathcal{D} centered at λ_0 the only analytic function $f : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ satisfying $(S - \lambda)f(\lambda) = 0$ is the function $f \equiv 0$; S has SVEP if it has SVEP everywhere in \mathbb{C} . (Here and in the sequel, we write $S - \lambda$ for $S - \lambda I$.) Let, for an open subset \mathcal{U} of \mathbb{C} , $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H})$ (resp., $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H})$) denote the Fréchet space of all infinitely differentiable (resp., analytic) \mathcal{H} -valued functions on \mathcal{U} endowed with the topology of uniform convergence of all derivatives (resp., topology of uniform convergence) on compact subsets of \mathcal{U} . $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ satisfies property $(\beta)_\epsilon$, $S \in (\beta)_\epsilon$, at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ if there exists a neighborhood \mathcal{N} of λ such that for each subset \mathcal{U} of \mathcal{N} and sequence $\{f_n\}$ of \mathcal{H} -valued functions in $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H})$,

$$(S - z)f_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}) \implies f_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H})$$

(resp., S satisfies property (β) , $S \in (\beta)$, at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ if there exists an $r > 0$ such that, for every open subset \mathcal{U} of the open disc $\mathcal{D}(\lambda; r)$ of radius r centered at λ and sequence $\{f_n\}$ of \mathcal{H} -valued functions in $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H})$,

$$(S - z)f_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}) \implies f_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}).$$

The following implications are well known ([12], [16]):

$$S \in (\beta)_\epsilon \implies S \in (\beta) \implies S \text{ has SVEP}; S, S^* \in (\beta) \implies S \text{ decomposable.}$$

The ascent $\text{asc}(S - \lambda)$ (resp., descent $\text{dsc}(S - \lambda)$) of S at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is the least non-negative integer p such that $(S - \lambda)^{-p}(0) = (S - \lambda)^{-(p+1)}(0)$ (resp., $(S - \lambda)^p(\mathcal{H}) = (S - \lambda)^{(p+1)}(\mathcal{H})$). A point $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(S)$ (resp., $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma_a(S)$)

is a pole (resp., left pole) of the resolvent of S if $0 < \text{asc}(S - \lambda) = \text{dsc}(S - \lambda) < \infty$ (resp., there exists a positive integer p such that $\text{asc}(S - \lambda) = p$ and $(S - \lambda)^{p+1}(\mathcal{H})$ is closed) ([1]). Let

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi(S) &= \{\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(S) : \lambda \text{ is a pole (of the resolvent) of } S\}; \\ \Pi^a(S) &= \{\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma_a(S) : \lambda \text{ is a left pole (of the resolvent) of } S\}. \end{aligned}$$

Then $\Pi(S) \subseteq \Pi^a(S)$, and $\Pi^a(S) = \Pi(S)$ if (and only if) S^* has SVEP at points $\lambda \in \Pi^a(S)$. We say in the following that the operator S is polaroid if $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(S)\} \subseteq \Pi(S)$. Polaroid operators are isoloid (where S is isoloid if $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(S)\} \subseteq \sigma_p(S)$). Let $\sigma_x = \sigma$ or σ_a . The sets $E^x(S) = E(S)$ or $E^a(S)$ and $E_0^x(S) = E_0(S)$ or $E_0^a(S)$ are then defined by

$$\begin{aligned} E^x(S) &= \{\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma_x(S) : \lambda \in \sigma_p(S)\}, \text{ and} \\ E_0^x(S) &= \{\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma_x(S) : \lambda \in \sigma_p(S), \dim(S - \lambda)^{-1}(0) < \infty\}. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that

$$\Pi^x(S) \subseteq E^x(S) \text{ and } \Pi_0^x(S) \subseteq E_0^x(S)$$

(where $\Pi_0^x(S) = \{\lambda \in \Pi^x(S) : \dim(S - \lambda)^{-p}(0) < \infty\}$).

The quasi-nilpotent part $H_0(S)$ and the analytic core $K(S)$ of $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ are the sets

$$\begin{aligned} H_0(S) &= \left\{x \in \mathcal{H} : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|S^n x\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = 0\right\}, \text{ and} \\ K(S) &= \{x \in \mathcal{H} : \text{there exists a sequence } \{x_n\} \subset \mathcal{H} \text{ and } \delta > 0 \text{ for} \\ &\quad \text{which } x = x_0, Sx_{n+1} = x_n \text{ and } \|x_n\| \leq \delta^n \|x\| \text{ for all } n = 1, 2, \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

([1]). If $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(S)$, then \mathcal{H} has a direct sum decomposition $\mathcal{H} = H_0(S - \lambda) \oplus K(S - \lambda)$, $S - \lambda|_{H_0(S - \lambda)}$ is quasinilpotent and $S - \lambda|_{K(S - \lambda)}$ is invertible. A necessary and sufficient condition for a point $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(S)$ to be a pole of S is that there exist a positive integer p such that $H_0(S - \lambda) = (S - \lambda)^{-p}(0)$.

In the following we shall denote the upper semi-Fredholm, the lower semi-Fredholm and the Fredholm spectrum of S by $\sigma_{usf}(S), \sigma_{lsf}(S)$ and $\sigma_f(S)$; $\sigma_{uw}(S), \sigma_{lw}(S)$ and $\sigma_w(S)$ (resp., $\sigma_{ub}(S), \sigma_{lb}(S)$ and $\sigma_b(S)$) shall denote the upper Weyl, the lower Weyl and the Weyl (resp., the upper Browder, the lower Browder and the Browder) spectrum of S . Additionally, we shall denote the upper B -Weyl, the lower B -Weyl and the B -Weyl (resp., the upper B -Browder, the lower B -Browder and the B -Browder) spectrum of S by $\sigma_{ubw}(S), \sigma_{lbw}(S)$ and $\sigma_{bw}(S)$ (resp., $\sigma_{ubb}(S), \sigma_{lbb}(S)$ and $\sigma_{bb}(S)$). We refer the interested reader to the monograph ([1]) for definition, and other relevant information, on these distinguished parts of the spectrum; our interest here in these spectra is at best peripheral.

3. Results

Throughout the following, $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$ shall denote an n -normal operator. Considered as an n th root of the normal operator A^n , A has a direct sum representation

$$A = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} A \Big|_{\mathcal{H}_i} = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i, \quad \mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_i,$$

where A_0 is n -nilpotent and A_i , for all $i = 1, 2, \dots$, is similar to a normal operator $N_i \in B(\mathcal{H}_i)$. Equivalently,

$$A = B_1 \oplus B_0, \quad B_0 = A_0 \text{ and } B_1 = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i,$$

where $B_0^n = 0$ and B_1 is quasi-similar to a normal operator $N = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} N_i \in B\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_i\right)$. Quasi-similar operators preserve SVEP; hence, since the direct sum of operators has SVEP at a point if and only if the summands have SVEP at the point, A and A^* have SVEP (everywhere). Consequently ([1]):

$$\sigma(A) = \sigma(B_1) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(N) \cup \{0\} = \sigma_a(A) = \sigma_{su}(A),$$

$$E^a(A) = E(A), E_0^a(A) = E_0(A), \Pi^a(A) = \Pi(A), \Pi_0^a(A) = \Pi_0(A);$$

furthermore:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_f(A) &= \sigma_{usf}(A) = \sigma_{lsf}(A) = \sigma_w(A) = \sigma_{uw}(A) = \sigma_{lw}(A) = \sigma_b(A) = \sigma_{ub}(A) = \sigma_{lb}(A), \\ \sigma_{bf}(A) &= \sigma_{bw}(A) = \sigma_{ubw}(A) = \sigma_{lbw}(A) = \sigma_{bb}(A) = \sigma_{ubb}(A) = \sigma_{lbb}(A). \end{aligned}$$

The point spectrum of a normal operator consists of normal eigenvalues (i.e., the corresponding eigenspaces are reducing): This fails for the operator A ([4, Remark 2.17]), and a sufficient condition is that $\sigma(A) \subseteq \mathcal{L} < \frac{2\pi}{n}$ (for then $(A - \lambda)x = 0 \implies (A^n - \lambda^n)x = 0 \implies (A^{*n} - \bar{\lambda}^n)x = 0 \iff (A^* - \bar{\lambda})x = 0$).

The polaroid property travels from A^n to A , no restriction on $\sigma(A)$. (This would then imply that $E^a(A) = E(A) = \Pi(A) = \Pi^a(A)$ and $E_0^a(A) = E_0(A) = \Pi_0(A) = \Pi_0^a(A)$.) We start by proving that the quasi-similarity of B_1 and N transfers to the Riesz projections $P_{B_1}(\lambda)$ and $P_N(\lambda)$ corresponding to points $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(B_1) = \text{iso}\sigma(N)$. Let Γ be a positively oriented path separating λ from $\sigma(B_1)$ and let X, Y be quasi-affinities such that $B_1X = XN$ and $YB_1 = NY$. Then, for all $\mu \notin \sigma(B_1)$,

$$\begin{aligned} P_{B_1}(\lambda) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\mu - B_1)^{-1} d\mu \iff YP_{B_1}(\lambda) = Y \left\{ \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\mu - B_1)^{-1} d\mu \right\} \\ &\iff YP_{B_1}(\lambda) = \left\{ \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} (\mu - N)^{-1} d\mu \right\} Y = P_N(\lambda)Y. \end{aligned}$$

A similar argument proves

$$P_{B_1}(\lambda)X = XP_N(\lambda).$$

Theorem 3.1. *A is polaroid.*

Proof. Continuing with the argument above, the normality of N implies that the range $H_0(N - \lambda)$ of $P_N(\lambda)$ coincides with $(N - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$. Hence $(N - \lambda)P_N(\lambda) = 0$, and

$$\begin{aligned} Y(B_1 - \lambda)P_{B_1}(\lambda) &= (N - \lambda)YP_{B_1}(\lambda) = (N - \lambda)P_N(\lambda)Y = 0 \\ \implies (B_1 - \lambda)P_{B_1}(\lambda) &= 0 \iff H_0(B_1 - \lambda) = (B_1 - \lambda)^{-1}(0). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(B_1)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_i &= H_0(B_1 - \lambda) \oplus K(B_1 - \lambda) = (B_1 - \lambda)^{-1}(0) \oplus K(B_1 - \lambda) \\ \implies \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_i &= (B_1 - \lambda)^{-1}(0) \oplus (B_1 - \lambda) \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_i, \end{aligned}$$

i.e., λ is a (simple) pole. The n -nilpotent operator B_0 being polaroid, the direct sum $B_0 \oplus B_1$ is polaroid (since $\text{asc}(A - \lambda) \leq \text{asc}(B_0 - \lambda) \oplus \text{asc}(B_1 - \lambda)$ and $\text{dsc}(A - \lambda) \leq \text{dsc}(B_0 - \lambda) \oplus \text{dsc}(B_1 - \lambda)$ for all λ ([20, Exercise 7, Page 293])). \square

Theorem 3.1 implies:

Corollary 3.2. *A is isoloid (i.e., points $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(A)$ are eigenvalues of A).*

More is true and, indeed, Theorem 3.1 is a consequence of the following result which shows that $H_0(A - \lambda) = (A - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$ for all non-zero $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$.

Theorem 3.3. *$H_0(A - \lambda) = (A - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$ for all non-zero $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$ and $H_0(A) = A^{-n}(0)$. In particular, A is polaroid.*

Proof. Following the same notation as above, the normality of N implies $H_0(N - \lambda) = (N - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$ for all $\lambda \in \sigma(N)$ ($= \sigma(B_1)$). Since

$$NY = YB_1 \iff (N - \lambda)Y = Y(B_1 - \lambda), \text{ all } \lambda,$$

it follows that

$$\|(N - \lambda)^n Yx\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \|Y(B_1 - \lambda)^n x\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \|Y\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \|(B_1 - \lambda)^n x\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

for all $x \in H_0(B_1 - \lambda)$. Consequently,

$$Yx \in H_0(N - \lambda) = (N - \lambda)^{-1}(0) \implies Y(B_1 - \lambda)x = (N - \lambda)Yx = 0 \iff x \in (B_1 - \lambda)^{-1}(0),$$

and hence

$$H_0(B_1 - \lambda) = (B_1 - \lambda)^{-1}(0)$$

for all $\lambda \in \sigma(B_1)$. Evidently,

$$H_0(A) = H_0(B_1 \oplus B_0) = B_1^{-1}(0) \oplus B_0^{-n}(0) \subseteq A^{-n}(0).$$

Argue now as in the proof of Theorem 3.1 to prove that A is polaroid. \square

The Riesz projection $P_A(\lambda)$ corresponding to points $(0 \neq) \lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(A)$ are, in general, not self-adjoint. Since $\sigma(A) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$ ensures $(A - \lambda)^{-1}(0) \subseteq (A^* - \bar{\lambda})^{-1}(0)$ for all $0 \neq \lambda \in \sigma_p(A)$, $\sigma(A) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$ forces $P_A(\lambda) = P_{A^*}(\lambda)^*$ for all $\lambda \neq 0$.

Corollary 3.4. *If $\sigma(A) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$, then the Riesz projection corresponding to non-zero $\lambda \in \text{iso}\sigma(A)$ is self-adjoint.*

Remark 3.5. *Theorems 3.1 and 3.3 generalize corresponding results from [2], [4], [5] by removing the hypothesis that $\sigma(A) \subseteq \angle < \frac{2\pi}{n}$, and, in the case of Theorem 3.3, the hypothesis on the points λ being isolated in $\sigma(A)$. Recall from [1, Page 336] that an operator $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ is said to have property Q if $H_0(S_\lambda)$ is closed for all λ : Theorem 3.3 says that the n th roots A have property Q. Another proof of Theorem 3.3, hence also of the fact that the operators A satisfy property Q, follows from the argument below proving the subscalarity of A .*

Property $(\beta)_\epsilon$ (similarly (β)) does not travel well under quasi-affinities. Thus $CX = XB$ and $B \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ does not imply $C \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ (see [7, Remark 2.7] for an example). However, $C \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ implies $B \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ holds, as the following argument proves. If $\{f_n\}$ is a sequence in $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H})$ such that

$$(B - z)f_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}),$$

then

$$X(B - z)f_n(z) = (C - z)Xf_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}).$$

Since $C \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ and X is a quasi-affinity,

$$Xf_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}) \implies f_n(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{H}).$$

Thus $B \in (\beta)_\epsilon$.

Theorem 3.6. *A and A^* satisfy property $(\beta)_\epsilon$.*

Proof. Recall from [7, Lemma 2.2] that a direct sum of operators satisfies $(\beta)_\epsilon$ if and only if the individual operators satisfy $(\beta)_\epsilon$. The operator A being the direct sum $B_1 \oplus B_0$, where B_0, B_0^* being nilpotent satisfy $(\beta)_\epsilon$, to prove the theorem it will suffice to prove $B_1, B_1^* \in (\beta)_\epsilon$. But this is immediate from the argument above, since normal operators N satisfy $N, N^* \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ and since there exist quasi-affinities X and Y in $B\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^\infty \mathcal{H}_i\right)$ such that $N^*X^* = X^*B_1^*$ and $NY = YB_1$. \square

$A \in (\beta)_\epsilon$ implies $A \in (\beta)$, and $A, A^* \in (\beta)$ implies A is decomposable ([16]). Hence:

Corollary 3.7. *A is decomposable.*

We consider next a sufficient condition for the operator A to be normal. However, before that we point out that the operator A satisfies almost all Weyl and Browder type theorems ([1]) satisfied by normal operators.

Weyl’s theorem An operator $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ satisfies

- generalized Weyl’s theorem, $S \in \text{gWt}$, if $\sigma(S) \setminus \sigma_{Bw}(S) = E(S)$;
- a – generalized Weyl’s theorem, $S \in a\text{-gWt}$, if $\sigma_a(S) \setminus \sigma_{aBw}(S) = E^a(S)$

(see [1, Definitions 6.59, 6.81]). Let $S \in \text{Wt}, S \in a\text{-Wt}, S \in \text{gBt}, S \in a\text{-gBt}, S \in \text{Bt}$ and $S \in a\text{-Bt}$ denote, respectively, that

- S satisfies Weyl’s theorem : $\sigma(S) \setminus \sigma_w(S) = E_0(S)$,
- S satisfies a – Weyl’s theorem : $\sigma_a(S) \setminus \sigma_{aw}(S) = E_0^a(S)$,
- S satisfies generalized Browder’s theorem : $\sigma(S) \setminus \sigma_{Bw}(S) = \Pi(S)$,
- S satisfies generalized a – Browder’s theorem : $\sigma_a(S) \setminus \sigma_{aBw}(S) = \Pi^a(S)$,
- S satisfies Browder’s theorem : $\sigma(S) \setminus \sigma_w(S) = \Pi_0(S)$,
- S satisfies a – Browder’s theorem : $\sigma_a(S) \setminus \sigma_{aw}(S) = \Pi_0^a(S)$,

(see [1, Chapter 6]). The following implications are well known ([1, Chapters 5, 6]):

$$S \in a\text{-gWt} \implies \begin{cases} S \in a\text{-Wt} \\ S \in \text{gWt} \end{cases} \implies S \in \text{Wt} \implies S \in \text{Bt},$$

$$S \in a\text{-gWt} \implies \begin{cases} S \in a\text{-Wt} \\ S \in a\text{-gBt} \end{cases} \implies S \in a\text{-Bt} \implies S \in \text{Bt},$$

$$S \in a\text{-gBt} \iff S \in a\text{-Bt}, S \in \text{gBt} \iff S \in \text{Bt}.$$

A has SVEP (guarantees $A \in a\text{-gBt}$ ([1, Thorem 5.37])) and $\sigma(A) = \sigma_a(A)$ guarantee the equivalence of $a\text{-gBt}$ and gBt (hence also of $a\text{-gBt}$ with $a\text{-Bt}$ and Bt) for A . The fact that A is polaroid and $\sigma(A) = \sigma_a(A)$ guarantees also that $E(A) = E^a(A) = \Pi^a(A) = \Pi(a)$ (and $E_0(A) = E_0^a(A) = \Pi_0^a(A) = \Pi_0(a)$). Hence all Weyl’s theorems (listed above) are equivalent for A and :

Theorem 3.8. $A \in a\text{-gWt}$

Normal A . For the operator $A = B_1 \oplus B_0$ to have any chance of being a normal operator, it is necessary that (either B_0 is missing, or) $B_0 = 0$. The hypothesis (B_0 is missing, or) $B_0 = 0$ is, however, in no way sufficient to ensure the normality of A . Additional hypotheses are required. An operator $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ is said to be *dominant* (resp., *class $\mathcal{A}(1, 1)$*) if to every complex λ there corresponds a real number $M_\lambda > 0$ such that $\|(S - \lambda)^*x\| \leq M_\lambda \|(S - \lambda)x\|$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$ (resp., $|S|^2 \leq |S^2|$) ([19], [15]). Recall from [10, Lemma 2.1] that if a dominant or class $\mathcal{A}(1, 1)$ operator $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$ is a square root of a normal operator, then A is normal. The following theorem, which uses an argument different from that used in [10], proves that this result extends to n th roots A .

Theorem 3.9. *Dominant or $\mathcal{A}(1, 1)$ n th roots of a normal operator in $B(\mathcal{H})$ are normal.*

Proof. Recall that the eigenvalues of a dominant operator are normal (i.e., they are simple and the corresponding eigenspace is reducing). Hence if our n th root of $A = B_1 \oplus B_0$ is dominant, then $A = B_1 \oplus 0$ is a dominant operator which satisfies

$$A(Y \oplus I|_{\mathcal{H}_0}) = (Y \oplus I|_{\mathcal{H}_0})(N \oplus 0).$$

The operator $N \oplus 0$ being normal and the operator $Y \oplus I|_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ being a quasi-affinity it follows from [19], [8] that A is normal (and unitarily equivalent to $N \oplus 0$). We consider next $A \in \mathcal{A}(1, 1)$.

It is well known that $\mathcal{A}(1, 1)$ operators have ascent less than or equal to one. (Indeed, operators $S \in \mathcal{A}(1, 1)$ are *paranormal*: $\|Sx\|^2 \leq \|S^2x\| \|x\|$ for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$, hence $\text{asc}(S) \leq 1$.) Hence if $A = B_1 \oplus B_0 \in \mathcal{A}(1, 1)$, then $B_0 = 0$ and $A \in B(A^{-1}(0) \oplus A^{-1}(0)^\perp)$ has an upper triangular matrix representation

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let $N_1 = N \oplus 0|_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ have the representation

$$N_1 = 0 \oplus N_{22} \in B(N_1^{-1}(0) \oplus N_1^{-1}(0)^\perp),$$

and let $Y_1 = Y \oplus I|_{\mathcal{H}_0} \in B(N_1^{-1}(0) \oplus N_1^{-1}(0)^\perp, A^{-1}(0) \oplus A^{-1}(0)^\perp)$ have the corresponding matrix representation

$$Y_1 = [Y_{ij}]_{i,j=1}^2.$$

Then, given that Y is a quasi-affinity satisfying $B_1Y = YN$, Y_1 is a quasi-affinity such that $AY_1 = Y_1N_1$. Consequently, $A_{22}Y_{21} = 0$. The operator A_{22} being injective, we must have $Y_{21} = 0$ (and then Y_{11} is injective and Y_{22} has a dense range). The operator A being an n th root of a normal operator, A^n is normal. Applying the Putnam-Fuglede commutativity theorem to $(AY_1 = Y_1N_1 \implies) A^nY_1 = Y_1N_1^n$, it follows that $A^{*n}Y_1 = Y_1N_1^{*n}$, and hence $Y_{12}N_{22}^{*n} = 0$. Since the normal operator N_{22}^{*n} has a dense range, $Y_{12} = 0$ (which then implies that Y_{11} and Y_{22} are quasi-affinities). But then $A_{22}^*Y_{22} = Y_{22}N_{22}^*$ and $A_{22}Y_{22} = Y_{22}N_{22}$ imply that A_{22} is quasi-affinity. Hence, since $(A^nY_1 = Y_1N_1^n)$ implies also that $A_{12}A_{22}^{n-1}Y_{11} = 0$, $A_{12} = 0$. Thus $A = 0 \oplus A_{22}$, where $A_{22} \in \mathcal{A}(1, 1)$, $A_{22}^{-1}(0) = \{0\}$ and $A_{22}Y_{22} = Y_{22}N_{22}$. Applying Proposition 2.5 and Lemma 2.2 of [10], it follows that A_{22} and N_{22} are (unitarily equivalent) normal operators. Conclusion: $A = 0 \oplus A_{22}$ is a normal n th root. \square

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