# BISHOP'S PROPERTY ( $\beta$ ) AND SPECTRAL INCLUSIONS ON BANACH SPACES 

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#### Abstract

Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ such that $S A=A T, T B=B S, A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then $S$ and $T$ shares the same local spectral properties SVEP, Bishop's property $(\beta)$, property $(\beta)_{\epsilon}$, property $(\delta)$ and and subscalarity. Moreover, the operators $\lambda I-T$ and $\lambda I-S$ have many basic operator properties in common.


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## 1. Introduction

Let $X$ be a complex Banach space, and let $L(X)$ be the Banach algebra of all bounded linear operators on $X$. For an operator $T \in L(X), \sigma(T)$ and $\rho(T)$ denotes the spectrum and resolvent set of $T$ and let $\operatorname{Lat}(T)$ stand for the collection of all $T$-invariant closed linear subspaces of $X$, and for $Y \in \operatorname{Lat}(T)$, $T \mid Y$ denotes the restriction of $T$ on $Y$. For $T \in L(X)$, we denote by

$$
R_{T}: \lambda \in \rho(T) \rightarrow R_{T}(\lambda)=(T-\lambda I)^{-1} \in L(X)
$$

its resolvent map. For an operator $T \in L(X)$ and arbitrary $x \in X$, we define $f: \rho(T) \rightarrow X$ by

$$
f(\lambda):=R_{T}(\lambda) x .
$$

Then $f$ may have analytic extensions, solutions of the equation $(T-\lambda) f(\lambda)=x$. If for every $x \in X$ any two extensions of $R_{T}(\lambda) x$ agree on their common domain, $T \in L(X)$ is said to have the single-valued extension property(abbreviated $S V E P)$. In this case, let $\rho_{T}(x)$ be the maximal domain of such extensions. The

[^0]set $\sigma_{T}(x):=\mathbb{C} \backslash \rho_{T}(x)$ is called the local spectrum of $T$ at $x$. Evidently, $\sigma_{T}(x)$ is closed with $\sigma_{T}(x) \subseteq \sigma(T)$. The resolvent set $\rho(T)$ is always a subset of $\rho_{T}(x)$, so the analytic solutions occurring in the definition of the local resolvent set may be thought of as local extensions of the function $(T-\lambda)^{-1} x$.

An operator $T \in L(X)$ is said to have the single-valued extension property at $\lambda_{0}$, if for every open neighborhood $U$ of $\lambda_{0}$, the only analytic function $f: U \rightarrow X$ which satisfies the equation $(\lambda I-T) f(\lambda)=0$ for all $\lambda \in U$ is the function $f \equiv 0$. In fact, the operator $T$ has the SVEP if and only if $T$ has SVEP at every $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. It is obvious that $T$ has the SVEP if and only if the zero function is the only analytic function that satisfies $(T-\lambda) f(\lambda)=0$. By the Liouville theorem, it is clear that $T$ has the SVEP if and only if for any non-zero $x \in X$, we have $\sigma_{T}(x) \neq \phi$, see [9] and [11] for more details.

Let $\mathcal{E}(U, X)$ be the Fréchet algebra of all infinitely differentiable X-valued functions on $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ endowed with the topology of uniform convergence on compact subsets of $U$ of all derivtives.

The operator $T \in L(X)$ is said to have property $(\beta)_{\epsilon}$ at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ if there exists $U$ a neighborhood of $\lambda$ such that for each open set $O \subseteq U$ and for any sequence $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ of $X$-valued functions in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$ the convergence of $(T-\mu) f_{n}(\mu)$ to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$ yields to the convergence of $f_{n}$ to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$. We define by

$$
\sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(T)=\left\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: T \text { fails to satisfy }(\beta)_{\epsilon} \text { at } \lambda\right\} .
$$

We say that $T$ satisfies property $(\beta)_{\epsilon}$ provided that $\sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(T)=\phi$.
We shall also need some closely related notions. The operator $T$ is said to satisfy Bishop's property $(\beta)$ at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ if there exists $r>0$ such that for every open subset $U \subseteq D(\lambda, r)$ and for any sequence $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n} \subseteq \mathcal{E}(U, X)$, if $\lim _{n \longrightarrow \infty}(T-$ $\mu) f_{n}(\mu)=0$ in $\mathcal{E}(U, X)$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f_{n}(\mu)=0$ in $\mathcal{E}(U, X)$, where $D(\lambda, r)$ is the open disc centred at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ with radius $r>0$.

We define by

$$
\sigma_{\beta}(T)=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: T \text { fails to satisfy }(\beta) \text { at } \lambda\}
$$

An operator $T \in L(X)$ is said to have Bishop's property $(\beta)$ provided that $\sigma_{\beta}(T)=\phi$. Obviously, property $(\beta)$ implies that $T$ has the single valuedextension property. Furthermore, the operator $T$ is said to have the decomposition property $(\delta)$ if its dual $T^{*}$ satisfies Bishop's property $(\beta)$. In [1], Albrecht and Eschmeier proved that thr properties $(\beta)$ and $(\delta)$ are dual to each other in the sense that an operator $T \in L(X)$ satisfies $(\beta)$ if and only if the adjoint operator $T^{*}$ on the dual space $X^{*}$ satisfies $(\delta)$.

In this note, we proved that if $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ such that $S A=A T, T B=B S, A B=S$ and $B A=T$, then $S$ and $T$ shares the same local spectral properties SVEP, Bishop's property ( $\beta$ ),
property $(\beta)_{\epsilon}$, property $(\delta)$ and subscalarity. Moreover, the operators $\lambda I-T$ and $\lambda I-S$ have many basic operator properties in common.

## 2. Local spectral properties of linear operators

For $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y)$ and for positive integer $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we consider the space

$$
\mathcal{I}^{n}(S, T):=\left\{A \in L(X, Y): C(S, T)^{n}(A)=0\right\}
$$

where $C(S, T)$ is the $n$-th composition of the map $C(S, T)(A):=S A-A T$. The interest of the space $\mathcal{I}^{n}(S, T)$ stems from the fact that it contain many significant classes of maps

Example 1. If $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are semi-simple Banach algebras and $\theta: \mathcal{A} \longrightarrow \mathcal{B}$ an algebra homomorphism then $\theta \in I(\theta(a), a)$ for any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ in the sense that $\theta(a) \theta(x)-\theta(a x)=0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{A}$, i.e. $\theta L_{a}=L_{\theta(a)} \theta$ where $L_{a} x:=a x$ for all $x \in \mathcal{A}$.

It is easy to see that if $\mathcal{A}$ is a Banach algebra and $\mathcal{M}$ is a commutatve Banach $\mathcal{A}$-module, that is, $\mathcal{M}$ is an $\mathcal{A}$-bimodule and $m a=a m$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}, m \in \mathcal{M}$ and if $D: \mathcal{A} \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}$ is a module derivation, i.e., $D$ is a linear map obeying the differentiation rule $D(x y)=x D Y+D(x) y$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ then $C(a, a) D \in$ $I(a, a)$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$ as an easy calculation will show.
Example 2. Let $S: X \rightarrow Y$ and $R: Y \rightarrow X$ be bounded linear operators. Then $S \in I(\lambda I-S R, \lambda I-R S)$ and $R \in I(\lambda I-R S, \lambda I-S R)$ for every complex number $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. In particular, $S \in I(S R, R S)$ and $R \in I(R S, S R)$, since $R S \in L(X)$ and $S R \in L(Y)$.
Example 3. Let $T \in L(\mathcal{H})$ be a bounded operator on some Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ and $U|T|$ be its polar decomposition, where $|T|:=\left(T T^{*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $U$ is the approximate partial isometry. The generalized Aluthge transform associated with $T$ and $s, t \geq 0$, is defined by

$$
T(s, t):=|T|^{s} U|T|^{t} .
$$

In the case $s=t=\frac{1}{2}$, the operator

$$
\tilde{T}=|T|^{\frac{1}{2}} U|T|^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

is called the Aluthge transform of $T$ and was first considered by A. Aluthge, see more details [12] and [13]. It is easy to see that for all $0 \leq r \leq t$

$$
\left.\left|T{ }^{s} U\right| T\right|^{t-r} \in I(T(s, t), T(s+r, t-r))
$$

and

$$
|T|^{r} \in I(T(s+r, t-r), T(s, t)) .
$$

Proposition 2.1. Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ for which $A \in \mathcal{I}(S, T)$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}(T, S)$. Assume that $A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then $T$ has the Bishop's property $(\beta)$ at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ if and only if $S$ has the Bishop's property $(\beta)$ at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Moreover, $T$ has the Bishop's property $(\beta)$ if and only if $S$ has the Bishop's property $(\beta)$.
Proof. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \sigma_{\beta}(S)$ and let $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ be a sequence of X-valued analytic functions in a neighborhood of $\lambda$ such that
(1) $\quad \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}(T-\mu) f_{n}(\mu)=0 \quad$ in $\mathcal{E}(V(\lambda), X)$.

Then $0=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(T-\mu) f_{n}(\mu)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}(S-\mu) A f_{n}(\mu)$ in $\mathcal{E}(V(\lambda), Y)$. It follows that
(2) $\quad \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A f_{n}(\mu)=0 \quad$ in $\mathcal{E}(V(\lambda), Y)$,

Since $\lambda \notin \sigma_{\beta}(S)$. From (2), we have

$$
0=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} B A f_{n}(\mu)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} T f_{n}(\mu) \quad \text { in } \mathcal{E}(V(\lambda), X) .
$$

In equation (1), we deduce that $\left(\mu f_{n}(\mu)\right)_{n}$ converges to 0 on compact sets. Now since $f_{n}$ are analytic, the maximum modulus priciple implies $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ converges to 0 on compact sets. Thus $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \sigma_{\beta}(T)$. The reverse implication is obtained by symmetry.

Corollary 2.2. Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ for which $A \in \mathcal{I}(S, T)$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}(T, S)$. Assume that $A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then $T$ has the SVEP at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ if and only if $S$ has the SVEP at $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
Corollary 2.3. Let $S: X \longrightarrow Y$ and $R: Y \longrightarrow X$ be bounded linear operators. Then for every complex numbers $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}, R S-\lambda I$ has the SVEP if and only if $S R-\lambda I$ has $S V E P$. In particular, RS has the SVEP if and only if $S R$ has SVEP.

We denote by $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{C})$ the Fréchet algebra of all infinitely differentiable complex valued functions defined on the complex plane $\mathbb{C}$ with the topology of uniform convergence of every derivative on each compact subset of $\mathbb{C}$. An operator $T \in L(X)$ is called a generalized scalar operator if there exists a continuous algebra homomorphism $\Phi: C^{\infty}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow L(X)$ satisfying $\Phi(1)=I$, the identity operator on $X$, and $\Phi(z)=T$ where $z$ denotes the identity function on $\mathbb{C}$. Such a continuous function $\Phi$ is in fact an operator valued distribution and it is called a spectral distribution for $T$, see [11], for more details.

An operator $T \in L(X)$ is said to be subscalar if $T$ is similar to the restriction of a generalized scalar operator to one of its closed invariant subspaces. It follows from [11, Proposition 2.4.9] that all hyponormal and, more generally, all M-hyponormal operators are subscalar.

The following lemma is need.

Lemma 2.4. Let $O$ be an open set and $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ be a sequence in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$ such that $\left(\mu f_{n}(\mu)\right)_{n}$ converges to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$. Then $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ converges to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$.

Proof. see [3, Lemma 2.1].
The following result generalizes [3, Theorem 2.1].
Theorem 2.5. Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ for which $A \in \mathcal{I}(S, T)$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}(T, S)$. Assume that $A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then $\sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(T)=\sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(S)$. In particular, $T$ is subscalar if and only if $S$ is subscalar.

Proof. Suppose that $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(S)$. Then there exists $O$ a neighborhood of $\lambda$ such that $O \cap \sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(S)=\phi$. If $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ is any sequence in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$ such that $(T-\mu) f_{n}(\mu)$ converges to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$, then

$$
0=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A(T-\mu) f_{n}(\mu)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}(S-\mu) A f_{n}(\mu)
$$

and hence $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} A f_{n}(\mu)=0$ in $\mathcal{E}(O, Y)$. Thus we have

$$
0=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} B A f_{n}(\mu)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} T f_{n}(\mu) .
$$

It follows that $\left(\mu f_{n}(\mu)\right)_{n}$ converges to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$. By Lemma 2.4, we have $\left(f_{n}\right)_{n}$ converges to zero in $\mathcal{E}(O, X)$. Hence $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(T)$. The reverse implication is obtained by symmetry.

The following corollaries are immediate consequences of Theorem 2.5
Corollary 2.6. Let $S: X \longrightarrow Y$ and $R: Y \longrightarrow X$ be bounded linear operators. Then $\sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(R S)=\sigma_{(\beta)_{\epsilon}}(S R)$. In particular, $R S$ is subscalar if and only if $S R$ is subscalar.

Let $T \in L(\mathcal{H})$ be a bounded operator on some Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ and $U|T|$ be its polar decomposition, and $U|T|$ be its polar decomposition, where $|T|:=$ $\left(T T^{*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $U$ is the approximate partial isometry. For $r \leq t$, let $R=|T|^{r}$ and $S=|T|^{s} U|T|^{t-r}$. Then $S R=T(s, t)$ and $R S=T(s+r, t-r)$. It follows that $T(s, t)$ and $T(s+r, t-r)$ and in particular $\tilde{T}$ and $T$ almost have the same local spectral properties.

Corollary 2.7. Let $T \in L(\mathcal{H}), s \geq 0$ and $0 \leq r \leq t$. Then $T(s, t)$ has the property $(\beta)$ (resp. ( $\delta$ ) or subscalar) if and only if $T(s+r, t-r)$ has the property $(\beta)$ (resp. ( $\delta$ ) or subscalar).

The following result generalizes [3, Proposition 3.1].

Proposition 2.8. Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ for which $A \in \mathcal{I}(S, T)$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}(T, S)$. Assume that $A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then
(a) $\sigma_{S}(A x) \subseteq \sigma_{T}(x) \subseteq \sigma_{S}(A x) \cup\{0\}$ for every $x \in X$. In particular, if $A$ is an injective then $\sigma_{T}(x)=\sigma_{S}(A x)$ for every $x \in X$.
(b) $\sigma_{T}(B y) \subseteq \sigma_{S}(y) \subseteq \sigma_{T}(B y) \cup\{0\}$ for every $y \in Y$. In particular, if $B$ is an injective then $\sigma_{S}(y)=\sigma_{T}(B y)$ for every $y \in Y$.

Proof. (a) Let $\lambda \notin \sigma_{T}(x)$ and $x(\mu)$ be an X -valued analytic function in a neighborhood $O$ of $\lambda$ such that $(T-\mu) x(\mu)=x$ for every $\mu \in O$. Then we have

$$
A x=A(T-\mu) x(\mu)=(S-\mu) A x(\mu) \text { for all } x \in O
$$

Since $S A=A T$, and hence $\lambda \notin \sigma_{S}(A x)$. To show the second inclusion, let $\lambda \notin$ $\sigma_{S}(A x) \cup\{0\}$ and $y(\mu)$ be an Y-valued analytic function on an open neighborhood $O(0 \notin O)$ of $\lambda$, such that

$$
(S-\mu) y(\mu)=A x
$$

for all $\mu \in O$. Thus $T x=B A x=B(S-\mu) y(\mu)=(T-\mu) B y(\mu)$, since $B A=T$ and $T B=B S$, and hence $T(B y(\mu)-x)=\mu B y(\mu)$. We define $z: O \rightarrow X$ by

$$
z(\mu):=\frac{1}{\mu}(B y(\mu)-x) .
$$

Then clearly, $x=(T-\mu) z(\mu)$ for every $\mu \in O$, and thus $\lambda \notin \sigma_{T}(x)$.
(b) It suffices to consider the case $\lambda=0$, since $\sigma_{T+\lambda I}(x)=\sigma_{T}(x)+\lambda$ for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and every $x \in X$. Suppose that $0 \in \sigma_{S}(A x)$. Then, by (a) $\sigma_{T}(x)=\sigma_{S}(A x)$ for every $x \in X$. Suppose that $0 \notin \sigma_{S}(A x)$ and let $y(\mu)$ be an $Y$-valued analytic function in a neighborhood $U$ of 0 such that $(S-\mu) y(\mu)=A x$ for every $\mu \in U$. From the injectivity of $A$, it follows that $x=B y(0)$, since $A x=S y(0)=A B y(0)$. Moreover, we have $\mu y(\mu)=S y(\mu)-A x=A(B y(\mu)-x)$ and so

$$
y(\mu)=A\left[\frac{1}{\mu}(B y(\mu)-x)\right]
$$

for every $\mu \in U \backslash\{0\}$. Set $z(\mu):=\frac{1}{\mu}(B y(\mu)-x)$ if $\mu \neq 0$, and $z(\mu):=B y^{\prime}(0)$ if $\mu=0$. It is easily check that $A[x-(T-\mu) z(\mu)]=0$ for every $\mu \in U$. Since $A$ is injective, we get

$$
(T-\mu) z(\mu)=x
$$

for every $\mu \in U$, and hence $0 \notin \sigma_{T}(x)$. The theorem is hence proved.
We need the following elementary lemma.

Lemma 2.9. Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ for which $A \in \mathcal{I}(S, T)$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}(T, S)$. Assume that $A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then
(a) $A(\operatorname{Ker}(I-T))=\operatorname{Ker}(I-S)$ and $B(\operatorname{Ker}(I-S))=\operatorname{Ker}(I-T)$.
(b) $\operatorname{Ker}(A) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(I-T)=\{0\}$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(B) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(I-S)=\{0\}$.

Proof. (a) If $x \in \operatorname{Ker}(I-T)$ then $T x=x$, Thus $A x=A T x=S A x$, and hence $A x \in \operatorname{Ker}(I-S)$. To verify the opposite inclusion, suppose $y \in \operatorname{Ker}(I-S)$. Arguing as above, we have $B(\operatorname{Ker}(I-S)) \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}(I-T)$. Therefore $B y \in$ $\operatorname{Ker}(I-T)$, and thus $y=S y \in S(\operatorname{Ker}(I-T))$. This proves (a).
(b) If $x \in \operatorname{Ker}(A) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(I-T)$, then $A x=0$, and $T x=x$ and hence $x=T x=$ $B A x=0$, since $B A=T$. This proves (b).

As usual, we use $\sigma_{p}, \sigma_{s u r}, \sigma_{c o m}, \sigma_{a p}, \sigma_{r}$ and $\sigma_{c}$ to denote the point, surjectivity, compression, approximate point, residual and continuous spectrum, respectively. Thus
$\sigma_{p}(T):=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: T-\lambda I$ is not injective $\}$,
$\sigma_{\text {sur }}(T):=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}:(T-\lambda I) X \neq X\}$,
$\sigma_{\text {com }}(T):=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}:(T-\lambda I)(X)$ is not dense in $X\}$,
$\sigma_{r}(T):=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: T-\lambda I$ is injective and $(T-\lambda I)(X)$ is not dense in $X\}$,
$\sigma_{c}(T):=\sigma(T) \backslash\left\{\sigma_{p}(T) \cup \sigma_{r}(T)\right\}$.

It is clear that $\sigma_{\text {sur }}(T)$ is compact with

$$
\partial \sigma(T) \subseteq \sigma_{\text {sur }}(T)=\sigma_{a p}\left(T^{*}\right) \subseteq \sigma(T)
$$

Furthermore, it is clear that $\sigma_{\text {com }}(T)=\sigma_{p}\left(T^{*}\right), \sigma_{r}(T)=\sigma_{c o m}(T) \backslash \sigma_{p}(T)$ and $\sigma_{c}(T)=\sigma(T) \backslash\left\{\sigma_{p}(T) \cup \sigma_{\text {com }}(T)\right\}$, see [4] and [11] for more details.

The following result generalizes [2, Theorem 3].
Theorem 2.10. Let $T \in L(X), S \in L(Y), A \in L(X, Y)$ and $B \in L(Y, X)$ for which $A \in \mathcal{I}(S, T)$ and $B \in \mathcal{I}(T, S)$. Assume that $A B=S$ and $B A=T$. Then
(a) $\sigma_{p}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{p}(S) \backslash\{0\}$.
(b) $\sigma_{\text {com }}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{\text {com }}(S) \backslash\{0\}$.
(c) $\sigma_{a p}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{a p}(S) \backslash\{0\}$.
(d) $\sigma_{\text {sur }}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{\text {sur }}(S) \backslash\{0\}$.
(e) $\sigma_{r}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{r}(S) \backslash\{0\}$.
(f) $\sigma(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma(S) \backslash\{0\}$.
(g) $\sigma_{c}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{c}(S) \backslash\{0\}$.

Proof. (a) Since $A B=S$ and $B A=T$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda \notin \sigma_{p}(T) \backslash\{0\} & \Leftrightarrow \lambda \\
& =0 \text { or } \lambda I-T \text { is injective } \\
& \Leftrightarrow \lambda=0 \text { or } I-\lambda^{-1} T \text { is injective } \\
& \Leftrightarrow \lambda=0 \text { or } \operatorname{Ker}\left(I-\lambda^{-1} T\right)=\{0\} \\
& \left.\Leftrightarrow \lambda=0 \text { or } A\left(\operatorname{Ker}\left(I-\lambda^{-1} T\right)\right)=\operatorname{Ker}\left(I-\lambda^{-1} S\right)\right)=\{0\} \\
& \Leftrightarrow \lambda \notin \sigma_{p}(S) \backslash\{0\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) By passing to duals, $\sigma_{p}\left(T^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{p}\left(S^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\}$. Since $\sigma_{\text {com }}(T)=\sigma_{p}\left(T^{*}\right)$, from this and (a), we obtain

$$
\sigma_{\text {com }}(T) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{p}\left(T^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{p}\left(S^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{\text {com }}(S) \backslash\{0\} .
$$

(c) Assume that $\lambda \in \sigma_{a p}(T) \backslash\{0\}$. Then there exists $\left\{x_{n}\right\} \subseteq X,\left\|x_{n}\right\|=1$ for all $n$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|(\lambda I-T) x_{n}\right\|=0$. Since $S A=A T$, we have

$$
\left\|(\lambda I-S) A x_{n}\right\|=\left\|A(\lambda I-T) x_{n}\right\| \leq\|A\|\left\|(\lambda I-T) x_{n}\right\|
$$

and hence $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|(\lambda I-S) A x_{n}\right\|=0$. In fact, $\left\|A x_{n}\right\|$ is bounded away from zero. For if not, $\left\|A x_{n_{k}}\right\| \rightarrow 0$ for some subsequence $\left\{x_{n_{k}}\right\}$ of $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$. Then

$$
|\lambda|=|\lambda|\left\|x_{n_{k}}\right\| \leq\left\|(\lambda I-T) x_{n_{k}}\right\|+\left\|T x_{n_{k}}\right\| \longrightarrow 0
$$

a contradiction. This proves $\lambda \in \sigma_{a p}(S) \backslash\{0\}$. The reverse implication is obtained by symmetry.
(d) It is clear from (c) that $\sigma_{a p}\left(T^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{a p}\left(S^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\}$. Since $\sigma_{\text {sur }}(T)=\sigma_{a p}\left(T^{*}\right)$ for any $T \in L(X)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{\text {sur }}(T) \backslash\{0\} & =\sigma_{a p}\left(T^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\} \\
& =\sigma_{a p}\left(S^{*}\right) \backslash\{0\} \\
& =\sigma_{\text {sur }}(S) \backslash\{0\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(e) It is clear from the definition $\sigma_{r}(T)$ that $\sigma_{r}(T)=\sigma_{c o m}(T) \backslash \sigma_{p}(T)$. From (a) and (b), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{r}(T) \backslash\{0\} & =\sigma_{\text {com }}(T) \backslash\left(\sigma_{p}(T) \cup\{0\}\right) \\
& =\left(\sigma_{\text {com }}(T) \backslash\{0\}\right) \backslash\left(\sigma_{p}(T) \backslash\{0\}\right) \\
& =\left(\sigma_{\text {com }}(S) \backslash\{0\}\right) \backslash\left(\sigma_{p}(S) \backslash\{0\}\right) \\
& =\sigma_{\text {com }}(S) \backslash\left(\sigma_{p}(S) \cup\{0\}\right) \\
& =\sigma_{r}(S) \backslash\{0\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$(f)$ It is clear that $\sigma(T)=\sigma_{p}(T) \cup \sigma_{\text {sur }}(T)$. From (a) and (d), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma(T) \backslash\{0\} & =\left(\sigma_{p}(T) \cup \sigma_{\text {sur }}(T)\right) \backslash\{0\} \\
& =\left(\sigma_{p}(T) \backslash\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\sigma_{\text {sur }}(T) \backslash\{0\}\right) \\
& =\left(\sigma_{p}(S) \backslash\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\sigma_{\text {sur }}(S) \backslash\{0\}\right) \\
& =\left(\sigma_{p}(S) \cup \sigma_{\text {sur }}(S)\right) \backslash\{0\} \\
& =\sigma(S) \backslash\{0\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$(g)$ It is clear from the definition of continuous spectrum that

$$
\sigma_{c}(T)=\sigma(T) \backslash\left(\sigma_{c o m}(T) \cup \sigma_{p}(T)\right)
$$

From (a), (b) and (f), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{c}(T) \backslash\{0\} & =\sigma(T) \backslash\left(\sigma_{\text {com }}(T) \cup \sigma_{p}(T) \cup\{0\}\right) \\
& =(\sigma(T) \backslash\{0\}) \backslash\left(\left(\sigma_{\text {com }}(T) \backslash\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\sigma_{p}(T) \backslash\{0\}\right)\right) \\
& =(\sigma(S) \backslash\{0\}) \backslash\left(\left(\sigma_{\text {com }}(S) \backslash\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\sigma_{p}(S) \backslash\{0\}\right)\right) \\
& =\sigma(S) \backslash\left(\sigma_{\text {com }}(S) \cup \sigma_{p}(S) \cup\{0\}\right) \\
& =\sigma_{c}(S) \backslash\{0\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves theorem.
The following corollaries are immediate consequences of Theorem 2.5
Corollary 2.11. Let $S \in L(X, Y)$ and $R \in L(Y, X)$. Then

$$
\sigma(S R) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma(R S) \backslash\{0\} \quad \text { and } \sigma_{\Omega}(S R) \backslash\{0\}=\sigma_{\Omega}(R S) \backslash\{0\}
$$

where $\sigma_{\Omega}$ denotes each one of $\sigma, \sigma_{p}, \sigma_{\text {com }}, \sigma_{a p}, \sigma_{a p}, \sigma_{s u r}, \sigma_{r}$, and $\sigma_{c}$.

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