# On Intertwining and Quasi-Affine Sets of Operators

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### Abstract

In this paper, we investigate some intertwining sets and quasi-affine sets of some classes of operators in Hilbert spaces. We are interested in the intertwining relation of the form WX = XR, where W, R are some bounded linear operators and X is an arbitrary bounded linear operator which we will endow some special properties. 2010 Mathematics Subject Classification: Primary 47A05,47A11; Secondary 47B20,47A65.

Keywords and phrases: characteristic function, spectral radius, unitary, completely non- unitary.

Date of Submission: 26-08-2024

Date of Acceptance: 05-09-2024

## I. Introduction

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  denote a Hilbert space and  $B(\mathcal{H})$  denote the Banach algebra of bounded linear operators. If  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ , then  $T^*$  denotes the adjoint of T, while Ker(T), Ran(T),  $\overline{\mathcal{M}}$  and  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ stands for the kernel of T, range of T, closure of  $\mathcal{M}$  and orthogonal complement of a closed subspace  $\mathcal{M}$  of  $\mathcal{H}$ , respectively. We denote by  $\sigma(T)$ , ||T|| and W(T), the spectrum, norm and numerical range of T, respectively. Recall that an operator  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is

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normal if  $T^*T = TT^*$ .

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self-adjoint (or hermitian) if  $T^* = T$ .

skew-adjoint if  $T^* = -T$ .

unitary if  $T^*T = TT^* = I$ .

quasinormal if  $T(T^*T) = (T^*T)T$ .

 $binormal \ {\rm if} \ \ (T^*T)(TT^*)=(TT^*)(T^*T).$ 

hyponormal if  $T^*T \ge TT^*$ .

 $\theta\text{-operator}$  if  $T^*T$  and  $T+T^*$  commute.

a projection if  $T^2 = T$  and  $T^* = T$ .

an involution if  $T^2 = I$ .

a symmetry if  $T = T^* = T^{-1}$ . That is, T is self-adjoint unitary.

isometric if  $T^*T = I$ .

a contraction if  $\|T\| \leq 1.$ 

Let  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  and  $B \in B(\mathcal{K})$ . We say that  $X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  intertwines A and B if XA = BX. We denote by  $I(A, B) = \{X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K}) : XA = BX\}$  the intertwining set of A and B. In this case we call X the intertwining operator. If X has dense range, then we say that A and B are densely intertwined by X.

If X intertwines both the pairs (A, B) and (B, A), then we say that X doubly intertwines A and B.

The set  $I[A, B] = \{X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K}) : XA = BX \text{ and } XB = AX\}$  is called the *double intertwining set* of A and B.

The commutator of  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  and  $B \in B(\mathcal{K})$  is defined as C(A, B) = [A, B] = AB - BA. The self-commutator of  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is defined as  $C(A^*, A) = [A^*, A] = A^*A - AA^*$ . Let  $\Omega$  be a class or subset of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ . The commutator set of the class  $\Omega$  is defined as  $C(\Omega) = \{AB - BA : A, B \in \Omega\}$ . Clearly,  $C(\Omega) = \{C(A, B) : A, B \in \Omega\}$ .

The commutant of T denoted by  $\{T\}'$  is the set of all operators that commute with T. That is  $\{T\}' = \{S \in B(\mathcal{H}) : ST = TS\}$ . The bicommutant or double commutant of  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ denoted by  $\{T\}''$  is defined by

$$\{T\}'' = \{A \in B(\mathcal{H}) : AS = SA, \ S \in \{T\}'\} = \{p(T) : T \in B(\mathcal{H}), \ p \ a \ polynomial\} = \bigcap_{S \in \{T\}'} \{S\}'.$$

Note that the lattices Lat(T) and Hyperlat(T) have set-theoretic set inclusion ordering  $(\subseteq)$  of the power set  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  as a partial order  $\leq$  on them. With this partial order each of Lat(T) or Hyperlat(T) is a complete lattice with  $\mathcal{H}$  as the greatest element and zero  $\{0\}$  as the least element. If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are complete lattices, we write  $L_1 \equiv L_2$  to signify that there is a (complete) lattice isomorphism of one onto the other.

A quasiaffinity X is said to have the hereditary property with respect to an operator  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  if  $X \in \{T\}'$  and  $\overline{X(\mathcal{M})} = \mathcal{M}$  for every  $\mathcal{M} \in Hyperlat(T)$ . If  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are quasisimilar and there exists an implementing pair (X,Y) of quasiaffinities such that XY has the hereditary property with respect to  $T_1$  and YX has the hereditary property with respect to  $T_2$ , then we say that  $T_1$  is hyper-quasisimilar to  $T_2$ , and we denote this by  $T_1 \Leftrightarrow T_2$ . The notion of hyper-quasisimilarity was introduced by C. Foias etal[7].

Two operators  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  and  $B \in B(\mathcal{K})$  are said to be similar (denoted  $A \sim B$ ) if there exists an invertible operator  $N \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  such that NA = BN or equivalently  $A = N^{-1}BN$ , and are unitarily equivalent (denoted by  $A \cong B$ ) if there exists a unitary operator  $U \in B_+(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ (Banach algebra of all invertible operators in  $B(\mathcal{H})$ ) such that UA = BU (i.e.  $A = U^*BU$ , equivalently,  $A = U^{-1}BU$ ). Two operators  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  and  $B \in B(\mathcal{K})$  are said to be metrically equivalent (denoted by  $A \sim_m B$ ) if ||Ax|| = ||Bx||, (equivalently,  $|\langle Ax, Ax \rangle|^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\langle Bx, Bx \rangle|^{\frac{1}{2}}$ for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ )(see [10]). Clearly similarity, unitary equivalence and metric equivalence are equivalence relations on  $B(\mathcal{H})$ .

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{K}$  be Hilbert spaces.  $X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  is called a quasiaffinity or quasiinvertible it has trivial kernel and dense range(that is  $Ker(X) = \{0\}$  and  $\overline{Ran(X)} = K$ ). An operator  $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is said to be a quasiaffine transform of  $T \in B(\mathcal{K})$  (denoted by  $S \prec T$ ) if there

exists a quasiaffinity  $X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  such that XS = TX. By

 $\mathcal{Q}_{\dashv}(B) = \{A \in B(\mathcal{K}) : XA = BX, X \ a \ quasiaffinity\}$ 

the set of quasiaffine transforms of B also called the *quasiaffine orbit* of B. If X is invertible, then  $\mathcal{Q}(B)$  coincides with the *similarity orbit* of B. Operators  $S \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $T \in \mathcal{K}$  are said to be quasisimilar if there exists quasiaffinities  $X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  and  $Y \in B(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{H})$  such that XT = SX and TY = YS. The set of all operators quasisimilar to  $B \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is called the quasisimilarity orbit of B and is denoted by

$$\mathcal{Q}_{f}(T) = \{A \in B(\mathcal{K}) : XA = BX, YA = BY, X, Y \ quasiaf finities\}.$$

A subspace (closed linear manifold)  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$  is said to be *invariant* under  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  if  $x \in \mathcal{M}$  implies that  $Tx \in \mathcal{M}$  or  $T\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{M}$ . A subspace (closed linear manifold)  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$  is said to be a *reducing* subspace for  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  or reduces T if it is invariant under both T and  $T^*$ (equivalently, if both  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp}$  are invariant for T). A subspace (closed linear manifold)  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$  is said to be a hyperinvariant subspace for  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  if  $S\mathcal{M} \subset \mathcal{M}$  for each  $S \in \{T\}'$ . That is, it is invariant under every operator commuting with T. By a subspace lattice on  $\mathcal{H}$  we mean a family of subspaces of  $\mathcal{H}$  which is closed under the formation of arbitrary intersections and and arbitrary linear spans and which contains the zero subspace  $\{\overline{0}\}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$ . The subspace lattice of all invariant, reducing and hyperinvariant subspaces of T is denoted by Lat(T), Red(T) and Hyperlat(T), respectively. Note that Red(T) may not be a lattice. The subalgebra of all operators generated by an operator  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ , denoted by  $W^*(T)$  will be called the (unital) weakly closed (von Neumann) algebra generated by T. We use this algebra to investigate the structures of invariant and hyperinvariant lattices for various operators.

#### II. Basic Results

**Theorem 2.1** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then the commutator  $(A, B) \longrightarrow AB - BA$  is a bilinear operation  $\varphi : B(\mathcal{H}) \times B(\mathcal{H}) \longrightarrow B(\mathcal{H})$  with respect to the "variables" A and B.

**Proof.** Let  $\alpha$  be a scalar. Then

$$\varphi(\alpha A,B)=(\alpha A)B-B(\alpha A)=\alpha(AB-BA)=\alpha\varphi(A,B).$$

 $\varphi(A,\alpha B)=A(\alpha B)-(\alpha B)A=\alpha(AB-BA)=\alpha\varphi(A,B).$ 

This shows that  $\varphi$  is linear in the first and second variable and hence bilinear.

**Theorem 2.2** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then I(A, B) is a closed subspace of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ .

**Proof.** Let  $T, T_1, T_2 \in I(A, B)$  and let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $TA = BT, T_1A = BT_1$  and  $T_2A = BT_2$ . Thus

$$(T_1 + T_2)A = T_1A + T_2A = BT_1 + BT_2 = B(T_1 + T_2),$$

$$(T_1T_2)A = T_1(T_2A) = T_1(BT_2) = (T_1B)T_2 = B(T_1T_2)$$

and

 $(\alpha T)A = \alpha(TA) = \alpha(AT) = A(\alpha T).$ 

This proves that I(A, B) is closed with respect to addition, multiplication and scalar multiplication. Trivially, the zero operator  $O \in I(A, B)$ . This proves the claim.

Recall that an algebra over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is a vector space with a bilinear product, that is a set together with operations of multiplication, addition and scalar multiplication by elements of a field, satisfying the axioms implied by a vector space. An algebra is unital if it has an identity element with respect to the multiplication operation. A subalgebra is a subset of an algebra, closed under all its operations, and carrying the induced operations.

**Theorem 2.3** Let  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $\{A\}'$  is a unital subalgebra of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ .

**Proof.** Let  $C, C_1, C_2 \in \{A\}'$  and let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then by definition  $CA = AC, C_1A = AC_1$  and  $C_2A = AC_2$ . Therefore

$$(C_1 + C_2)A = C_1A + C_2A = AC_1 + AC_2 = A(C_1 + C_2)$$

$$(C_1C_2)A = C_1(C_2A) = C_1(AC_2) = (C_1A)C_2 = A(C_1C_2)$$

and

$$(\alpha C)A = \alpha CA = A(\alpha C).$$

This proves that  $C_1 + C_2, C_1C_2$  and  $\alpha C$  all belong to  $\{A\}'$ . That is  $\{A\}'$  is closed under addition, multiplication and scalar multiplication. This proves the claim. Clearly, by definition  $I \in \{A\}'$ . Hence,  $\{A\}'$  is a unital subalgebra of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ .

**Theorem 2.4** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $I[A, B] \subseteq I(A, B)$ .

**Proof.** The proof follows from the definition of I[A, B] and I(A, B).

**Theorem 2.5** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then the solution to the operator equation XA = BX is I(A,B).

**Theorem 2.6** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then the solution to the operator equations XA = BXand XB = AX is I/A.

**Theorem 2.7** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . If I(A, B) contains a unitary operator then A and B are unitarily equivalent.

**Theorem 2.8** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . If I(A, B) contains an invertible operator then A and B are similar.

**Theorem 2.9** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . If I(A, B) contains a quasiaffinity then B is a quasiaffine transform of A.

**Theorem 2.10** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . If I[A, B] contains a quasiaffinity then A and B are quasisimilar.

If  $I[A, B] = \{0\}$ , then A and B are called *disjoint operators*.

**Corollary 2.11** Let  $A, B \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . If I(A, B) and I(B, A) contain quasiaffinities then A and B are quasisimilar.

Note that if A and B are quasisimilar then they need not have equal spectra(see [9]) but  $\sigma(A) \cap \sigma(B) \neq \emptyset$ . However, quasisimilar subnormal operators have equal spectra (see [4]).

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Theorem 2.12} \ \ Let \ A, B \in B(\mathcal{H}) \ and \ A = B \ then \ I(A, A) = I[A, A] = \{A\}' \ and \ \{I(A, A)\}' = \{I[A, A]\}' = \{A\}'\}' = \{A\}'\}. \end{array}$ 

**Proof**. Follows from the definitions.

Let  ${\mathcal S}$  be a subset of  $B({\mathcal H}).$  We define

$$\mathcal{S}' := \{ T \in B(\mathcal{H}) : TS = ST, \ \forall \ S \in \mathcal{S} \}$$

 $\operatorname{and}$ 

$$\mathcal{S}'' := \{ B \in B(\mathcal{H}) : BA = AB, \ \forall \ A \in \mathcal{S}' \}.$$

Note that

$$\mathcal{S}'' = \{\mathcal{S}'\}'.$$

**Theorem 2.13** Let S be a subset of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $S \subseteq S''$ .

**Proof.** By definition, every  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  commutes with every  $T \in \mathcal{S}'$ . Hence  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{S}''$ .

Corollary 2.14 Let S be a subset of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $S' \subseteq S'''$ .

**Proof**. The proof follows from Theorem 2.13.

**Theorem 2.15** Let S and T be subsets of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ . If  $S \subseteq T$  then  $T' \subseteq S'$ .

Corollary 2.16 Let S be a subset of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $S''' \subseteq S'$ .

**Proof**. The proof follows from Theorem 2.15.

**Proposition 2.17** Let S be a subset of  $B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then S' = S'''.

**Proof**. The proof follows from Corollary 2.14 and Corollary 2.16.

**Theorem 2.18** Let S and T be subsets of B(H). Then

- (i).  $(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{T})' = \mathcal{S}' \cap \mathcal{T}'$ .
- (ii).  $(\mathcal{S}' \cup \mathcal{T}')'' = (\mathcal{S}'' \cap \mathcal{T}'')' = (\mathcal{S} \cap \mathcal{T})'$  if we assume that  $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S}''$  and  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}''$ .

Recall that A and B are similar if there exists an invertible operator X such that  $B = XAX^{-1}$ .

**Theorem 2.19** Suppose A and B are similar. Define the mapping

$$\varphi : \{A\}' \longmapsto \{B\}'$$

by

$$\varphi(T) = XTX^{-1}$$

for all  $T \in \{A\}'$ . Then  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism from  $\{A\}'$  onto  $\{B\}'$ .

Proof. It suffices to prove that  $\varphi$  is linear, injective, surjective and  $\varphi^{-1}$  is linear. Let  $T, T_1, T_2 \in \{A\}'$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then

$$\varphi(T_1+T_2) = X(T_1+T_2)X^{-1} = X(T_1X^{-1}+T_2X^{-1}) = XT_1X^{-1} + XT_2X^{-1} = \varphi(T_1) + \varphi(T_2)$$

 $\operatorname{and}$ 

$$\varphi(\alpha T) = X(\alpha T)X^{-1} = \alpha XTX^{-1} = \alpha\varphi(T).$$

This shows that  $\varphi$  is linear.

Now suppose  $T \in \{A\}'$ . Then  $\varphi(T) = 0$  implies that  $XTX^{-1} = 0$  which implies that T = 0. Thus  $\varphi$  is injective.

Now suppose  $B \in \{B\}'$ . We show that there exists a  $T \in \{A\}'$  such that  $B = \varphi(T)$ . But  $B = XAX^{-1} = \varphi(T)$ . This shows that  $\varphi$  in onto.

#### **III.** Main Results

Recall that  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is normal if  $T^*T = TT^*$ . We denote the class of normal operators by  $\mathcal{N}$ , the class of quasinormal operators by  $\mathcal{Q}$ , the class of binormal operators by  $\mathcal{B}$  and the class of  $\theta$ -operators by  $\theta$ . Note that  $\mathcal{Q} = \{T : [T, T^*T] = 0\}, \mathcal{B} = \{T : [T^*T, TT^*] = 0\}$  and  $\theta = \{T : [T^*T, T + T^*] = 0\}.$ 

**Theorem 3.1** The class  $\mathcal{N} = \{T : [T^*, T] = 0\}$ .

**Proof.** 
$$\mathcal{N} = \{T : T^*T = TT^*\} = \{T : [T^*, T] = 0\}.$$

**Theorem 3.2** Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . The class  $\mathcal{N} = \{T : [T^*, T] = 0\}$  is a closed subset of  $B(\mathcal{H})$  under scalar multiplication.

**Proof.** Suppose  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is normal and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $(\alpha T)^*(\alpha T) = \overline{\alpha}\alpha T^*T = \alpha \overline{\alpha}TT^* = (\alpha T)(\alpha T)^*$  which shows that  $\alpha T$  is normal. Next, suppose  $\{T_k\}$  is a sequence of normal operators converging to  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then

$$||T^*T - TT^*|| \le ||T^*T - T_k^*T_k|| + ||T_k^*T_k - TT^*|| \longrightarrow 0$$

as  $k \longrightarrow \infty$ . Hence  $T^*T = TT^*$  and therefore T is normal.

**Theorem 3.3** If  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is normal then  $T^n$  is normal for any  $n \in \mathcal{N}$ .

**Proof.** Since T is normal,  $\mathcal{N} = \{T : [T^*, T] = 0\}$ . By mathematical induction or simple calculation  $(T^*T)^n = T^*T^n = T^nT^{*n}$ .

**Theorem 3.4** Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . If  $T \in \theta \cap \mathcal{B}$ , the  $T \in \mathcal{Q}$ .

**Proof.** See ([3] and [5]).

**Theorem 3.5** If  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is normal and S is unitarily equivalent to T then S is normal.

**Proof.** Normality of T implies that  $[T, T^*] = 0$ . Suppose  $S = U^*TU$ , for some unitary operator  $U \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then

$$[S,S^*] = [U^*TU,U^*T^*U] = U^*[T^*,T]U = 0.$$

Hence S is normal. This proves the claim.

# 4 Quasiaffine Sets of some Operators

An operator  $W: \ell^2(\mathbb{N}) \longrightarrow \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$  is a unilateral weighted shift if there exists an orthonormal basis  $\{e_n : n = 0, 1, 2, ...\}$  and a sequence of scalars  $\{\alpha_n\}$  such that  $We_n = \alpha_n e_{n+1}$ , for all n = 0, 1, 2, ... If  $\alpha_n = 1$  for all n = 0, 1, 2, ... then W is called the unilateral shift or forward shift operator and is usually denoted by S. Clearly,  $S(e_0, e_1, e_2, ...) = (0, e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3, ...)$ . It is known (see [6], Proposition 2.1) that a weighted shift is hyponormal if and only if its weight sequence  $\{\alpha_n\}$  is increasing (that is,  $\alpha_{n+1} \ge \alpha_n$ ). Clearly, the unilateral shift is a hyponormal operator on  $\mathcal{H} = \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$ .

Note that the quasiaffine transform of an operator T may not have exactly the same properties as T. We may have T being a quasiaffine transform of S without T inheriting many of the properties of S.

**Example.** Let  $H = \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$ . Define  $W : \ell^2(\mathbb{N}) \longrightarrow \ell^2(\mathbb{N})$  by

$$We_0 = e_1, We_1 = \sqrt{2}e_2, We_n = e_{n+1},$$

for all  $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$  Then there exists  $X \in B(\mathcal{H})$  such that

$$Xe_0 = e_0, We_1 = e_1, We_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}e_n,$$

for all n = 2, 3, 4, ... With respect to the orthonormal basis  $e_n : n = 0, 1, 2, ...$  of  $\mathcal{H}, X$  has an infinite matrix representation given by  $X = diag(1, 1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, ...)$ . It is clear that  $Ker(X) = \{0\}$  and  $\overline{Ran(X)} = \mathcal{H}$  and hence a quasiaffinity and XW = SX, where S is the unilateral shift on  $\mathcal{H}$ . But the weight sequence for W is  $\{1, \sqrt{2}, 1, 1, 1, ...\}$  which is not increasing. So W is not hyponormal.

**Theorem 4.1** Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  be hyponomal and let  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  be a quasiaffine transform of T. Then  $Ker(A - \lambda I) = Ker(A - \lambda I)^2$  for every  $\in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Proof.** See ([6], Proposition 2.3).

Let  $\mathbb{D} = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| < 1\}$  denote the open unit disc and  $\overline{\mathbb{D}}\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \le 1\}$  its topological closure.

**Proposition 4.2** If  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is a quasiaffine transform of a hyponormal operator L, then  $\sigma(L) \subseteq \sigma(T)$ .

**Proof**. See [4].

Recall that  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is bounded below if there exists a constant  $\alpha > 0$  such that  $||Tx|| \ge \alpha ||x||$ , for all  $x \in \mathcal{H}$ . If  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is bounded below and has dense range, then it is invertible.

**Theorem 4.3** (Bounded Inverse Theorem): Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ . Then  $Ker(T) = \{0\}$  if and only if T is injective if and only if  $T^{-1} : Ran(T) \longrightarrow \mathcal{H}$  exists.

**Corollary 4.4** Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$ . Then the following statements are equivalent, (a). T is bounded below. (b).  $T^{-1}: Ran(T) \longrightarrow \mathcal{H}$  exists and is bounded. (c). Ran(T) = Ran(T).

**Remark.** Note that if  $T \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  is bounded below, then  $Ker(T) = \{0\}$  and so  $T^{-1}$ :  $Ran(T) \longrightarrow \mathcal{H}$  exists. It remains to show that  $T^{-1}$  is bounded. Let  $y \in Ran(T) \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ . Then there exists  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  such that Tx = y. Thus

$$\|T^{-1}y\| = \|T^{-1}Tx\| = \|x\| \le \frac{1}{\alpha}\|Tx\| = \frac{1}{\alpha}\|y\|,$$
(4.1)

for all  $y \in \mathcal{K}$ .

**Proposition 4.5** If  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  is invertible and  $S \in B(\mathcal{K})$  is hyponormal and  $X \in B(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{K})$  has dense range and XT = SX, then S is invertible.

**Proof.** Clearly,  $Ran(X) \subseteq Ran(S)$  and so  $\mathcal{K} = \overline{Ran(X)} \subseteq \overline{Ran(S)}$ , which implies that  $\overline{Ran(S)} = \mathcal{K}$ . Hence Ran(S) is dense in  $\mathcal{K}$ . It remains to show that S is bounded below on Ran(X). Let  $y \in Ran(T)$ . Then there exists  $x \in \mathcal{H}$  such that Tx = y, that is  $x=T^{-1}y$ . Then using(4.1), we deduce that  $\|S(Xx)\| = \|XTx\| \ge \frac{1}{\|T\|} \|Xx\|$ . This proves the claim.

**Remark.** From Proposition 4.5, it follows that if an invertible operator T is densely intertwined by a hyponormal operator S, then S is invertible. Since XT = SX, then either T and S are both invertible

or both non-invertible. A consequence of Proposition 4.5, is that quasisimilar hyponormal operators S and T have equal spectra, since for any  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ , the operators  $S - \lambda I$  and  $T - \lambda I$  are both invertible or both non-invertible, and hence  $\sigma(S) = \sigma(T)$ .

**Theorem 4.6** Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  be a contraction which is a quasiaffine transform of the unilateral shift  $S \in B(\mathcal{H})$ . Then  $\sigma(T) = \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ .

**Proof.** There exists a quasiaffinity X such that XT = SX. Clearly every  $\lambda \in \mathbb{D}$  is an eigenvalue of  $T^*$  (that is,  $\lambda \in \sigma_p(T^*)$ ) with  $dimKer(T^* - \lambda I) \geq dimKer(S^*)$ . Therefore  $\sigma(T) = \overline{\mathbb{D}}$ .

**Theorem 4.7** Let  $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$  be a contraction such that XT = SX where X is a quasiaffinity and S is a unilateral shift. Let  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$  be a T-invariant subspace of  $\mathcal{H}(\text{that is, } \mathcal{M} \in \text{Lat}(T))$ . Then the map

$$\varphi: Lat(T) \longmapsto Lat(S)$$

defined by  $\varphi: M \longmapsto \overline{XM}$  is an isomorphism.

**Theorem 4.8** Let  $A \in B(\mathcal{H})$  and  $B \in B(\mathcal{K})$  are quasisimilar, then  $\mathcal{Q}_s(A) = \mathcal{Q}_s(A)$ .

Remark. Theorem 4.8 says that two quasisimilar operators have equal quasisimilarity orbits.

#### V. Discussion

The notions of intertwining sets, quasiaffine sets or orbits, commutators, commutants and double com- mutants of operators are very useful in solving the classical Carathéodory interpolation problems (see [8]). Intertwining operators also find applications in solving ordinary and partial differential equations (see [1]) and also in the construction of exactly solvable or quantum mechanical systems described by Hamil- tonians (see [2]) and quantification of how well two observables described by operators can be measured simultaneously in the Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle in Quantum mechanics.

#### Acknowledgement

It is our pleasure to thank the referee for his comments and advice during the writing of this paper.

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