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ISOMETRIES OF HILBERT C*-MODULES

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ABSTRACT. Let X and Y be right, full, Hilbert C^* -modules over the algebras A and B respectively and let $T: X \to Y$ be a linear surjective isometry. Then T can be extended to an isometry of the linking algebras. T then is a sum of two maps: a (bi-)module map (which is completely isometric and preserves the inner product) and a map that reverses the (bi-)module actions. If A (or B) is a factor von Neumann algebra, then every isometry $T: X \to Y$ is either a (bi-)module map or reverses the (bi-)module actions.

1. INTRODUCTION

Given a right Hilbert C^* -module X over a C^* -algebra A it is a module over A and has an A-valued inner product. One then defines the norm of X using the inner product and it makes X a Banach space. It is known that once the module structure and Banach space structure are given (for a C^* -module X) the A-valued inner product is uniquely defined. This was proved by Lance in [L1, Theorem] and, shortly afterwards, by Blecher in [B1, Theorems 3.1 and 3.2]. In fact, as Blecher showed, the inner product can be recovered from the module and Banach space structures. The results of Lance and Blecher can be stated as follows.

Theorem 1.1 ([B2], [L1]). Let X_1 and X_2 be right Hilbert C^* -modules over a C^* algebra A and let $S : X_1 \to X_2$ be a surjective isometry which is an A-module map. Then S preserves the inner product, i.e. $\langle Sx, Sy \rangle_2 = \langle x, y \rangle_1$ (where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_j$ is the inner product in X_j). Moreover, the inner product of a right Hilbert C^* -module Xover A can be recovered from the norm and the module structure by

$$\langle x, x \rangle = \sup\{r(x)^* r(x) : r \text{ is an } A \text{-module map: } X \to A, ||r|| \le 1\}$$

and

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=0}^{3} i^k \left\langle x + i^k y, \ x + i^k y \right\rangle \quad (i = \sqrt{-1}).$$

Another proof can be found in [F, Theorem 5]. One can modify the first part of the theorem for the case where X_1 is a C^* -module over A and X_2 is a C^* -module over B and S is a module map in the sense that there is a *-isomorphism $\alpha : A \to B$ such that $S(xa) = (Sx)\alpha(a)$. In this case S satisfies $\langle Sx, Sy \rangle_2 = \alpha(\langle x, y \rangle_1)$. (See [MS, Lemma 5.10].)

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In the present paper we study to what extent it is possible to recover the C^* module structure from the Banach space structure alone. In other words, given an isometry T (linear and surjective) of a C^* -module X over A onto a C^* -module Y over B, is it a module map? i.e. can we find a *-isomorphism α of A onto B with $T(xa) = T(x)\alpha(a)$? If we can, then, as we mentioned above, we have $\langle Tx, Ty \rangle = \alpha(\langle x, y \rangle)$. Also, denoting by $y \otimes z^*$ (for $y, z \in X$) the operator on Xdefined by $(y \otimes z^*)(x) = y \langle z, x \rangle$, we have

$$T((y \otimes z^*)(x)) = T(y \langle z, x \rangle) = T(y)\alpha(\langle z, x \rangle)$$

= $T(y) \langle T(z), T(x) \rangle = (T(y) \otimes T(z)^*)(T(x)).$

The operators of the form $y \otimes z^*$, $y, z \in X$, generate a C^* -algebra denoted by $\mathbb{K}(X)$. It is possible to show that, for T as above, $\beta(y \otimes z^*) = Ty \otimes (Tz)^*$ defines a *-isomorphism $\beta : \mathbb{K}(X) \to \mathbb{K}(Y)$. The computation above shows that $T(Kx) = \beta(K)Tx$ for $x \in X$, $K \in \mathbb{K}(X)$. The relationship we have now between T, α on β can be summarized by considering the *-algebra $\mathcal{L}(X)$ defined by

$$\mathcal{L}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K}(X) & X\\ \bar{X} & A \end{pmatrix}$$

(where \overline{X} and the product and involution on $\mathcal{L}(X)$ will be defined shortly) and noting that the map $\psi : \mathcal{L}(X) \to \mathcal{L}(Y)$ defined by

$$\psi \begin{pmatrix} K & x \\ \bar{y} & a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta(K) & Tx \\ \overline{Ty} & \alpha(a) \end{pmatrix}$$

is a *-isomorphism.

Hence to say that T preserves the C^* -module structure amounts to saying that T can be extended to a *-isomorphism of $\mathcal{L}(X)$ onto $\mathcal{L}(Y)$.

By considering the transpose map that maps the Hilbert column space H^c (a right C^* -module over \mathbb{C} , isometric to a Hilbert space H) onto the Hilbert row space H^r (a right Hilbert C^* -module over K(H)) it is clear that we don't always have such a *-isomorphism.

Our main result, Theorem 3.2, shows that, if X and Y are full, T can always be extended to an isometry of $\mathcal{L}(X)$ onto $\mathcal{L}(Y)$.

The celebrated result of Kadison [K, Theorem 7] states that every unital isometry of unital C^* -algebras is a selfadjoint Jordan map. For von Neumann algebras we can, in fact, decompose the algebras as a direct sum of two summands. On one summand the map is a *-isomorphism and on the other it is a *-anti-isomorphism ([K, Theorem 10]). A similar result was proved also for isometries of some nonselfadjoint operator algebras ([S]). For an isometry T of self-dual C^* -modules over von Neumann algebras we find that T can be written as a sum of an isometry which is a module map (and preserves the inner product) and an isometry that is, in some sense, an anti-module-map. (For a precise statement see Corollary 2.25.) The case of (not necessarily self-dual) Hilbert C^* -modules over general C^* -algebras is similar except that the decomposition of X is done by a projection in the enveloping von Neumann algebra of $\mathcal{L}(X)$ (Theorem 3.2).

As a corollary we show that, if we assume that the isometry T is in fact a 2isometry (i.e., the map $I \otimes T : M_2 \otimes X \to M_2 \otimes Y$ is an isometry), then T preserves the C^* -module structure (Corollary 3.4). In particular, a 2-isometry of Hilbert C^* -modules is necessarily a complete isometry.

After this work was completed it was pointed out to us by D. Blecher that M. Hamana had previously proved this last fact using different methods [Ha].

Also we show that, for a given Hilbert space H, H^c and H^r are the only Hilbert C^* -modules that are isometric to H (Corollary 3.6).

Now we turn to set some notation and recall the definitions that we need.

Definitions. (1) A right pre-Hilbert C^* -module over a C^* -algebra A is a right-module X equipped with a map $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : X \times X \to A$ satisfying:

(i) $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0, x \in X$, and $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$ only if x = 0.

- (ii) $\langle x, y \rangle^* = \langle y, x \rangle, \quad y, x \in X.$
- (iii) $y \mapsto \langle x, y \rangle$ is a linear map for all $x \in X$.
- (iv) $\langle x, ya \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle a, x, y \in X, a \in A.$

(2) The norm on a pre-Hilbert C^* -module X over A is defined by $||x|| = ||\langle x, x \rangle||^{\frac{1}{2}}$. If X is complete with respect to this norm, then X is said to be a (right) <u>Hilbert C^*-module</u> over A.

(3) A Hilbert C^* -module X over A is said to be <u>full</u> if

$$A = \overline{\operatorname{span}}\{\langle x, y \rangle : x, y \in X\}$$

One can define left Hilbert C^* -module similarly. X is then a left A-module and the inner product is assumed to be linear in the first entry. Also $\langle ax, y \rangle = a \langle x, y \rangle$.

Given a right Hilbert C^{*}-module X over A we define \bar{X} , the conjugate module, as follows. As a set we write $\bar{X} = \{\bar{x} : x \in X\}$. The linear structure is defined by $\overline{\lambda x + y} = \bar{\lambda} \bar{x} + \bar{y}$. \bar{X} becomes a left A-module when we set

$$a \cdot \bar{x} = \overline{xa^*}$$

and the A-valued inner product is

$$\langle \bar{x}, \bar{y} \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$$

This makes \overline{X} a left Hilbert C^* -module over A.

From now on, unless we say otherwise, all Hilbert C^* -modules are assumed to be right modules and full.

A bounded module map $T: X \to X$ (where X is a Hilbert C^* -module) is said to be adjointable if there exists a map $T^*: X \to X$ with $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$ for all x, y in X. The set of all adjointable maps on X is a C^* -algebra (with respect to the operator norm) and is denoted $\mathbb{B}(X)$.

Given X and Y in X we can define an adjointable operator $x \otimes y^* \in \mathbb{B}(X)$ by

$$x \otimes y^*(z) = x \langle y, z \rangle$$

(Another notation frequently used for this operator is $\theta_{x,y}$.) The C^* -subalgebra generated by these operators will be written $\mathbb{K}(X)$. Elements of $\mathbb{K}(X)$ are sometimes referred to as "compact operators". If H is a Hilbert space, viewed as a C^* -module over \mathbb{C} , then $\mathbb{K}(X) = K(H)$, the algebra of compact operators on H. In general $\mathbb{K}(X) \neq \mathbb{B}(X)$.

Given a Hilbert C^* -module X over A one can form

$$\mathcal{L}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K}(X) & X \\ \bar{X} & A \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $\mathcal{L}(X)$ is a *-algebra with product and involution defined by

$$\begin{pmatrix} K_1 & x_1 \\ \bar{y}_1 & a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} K_2 & x_2 \\ \bar{y}_2 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} K_1 K_2 + x_1 \otimes y_2^* & K_1 x_2 + x_1 a_2 \\ \overline{K_2^* y_1} + a_1 \cdot \bar{y}_2 & \langle y_1, x_2 \rangle + a_1 a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

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$$\begin{pmatrix} K & x \\ \bar{y} & a \end{pmatrix}^* = \begin{pmatrix} K^* & y \\ \bar{x} & a^* \end{pmatrix}.$$

There is also a natural action of $\mathcal{L}(X)$ on $X \oplus A$ which defines a norm on $\mathcal{L}(X)$ making it a C^* -algebra. We shall refer to $\mathcal{L}(X)$ as the *linking algebra* of X.

A (right) Hilbert C^* -module X over A is said to be *self-dual* if for every A-module map

$$f: X \to A$$

there is some $y \in X$ such that $f(x) = \langle y, x \rangle$. Suppose now that X is a self-dual Hilbert C^* -module over a von Neumann algebra M. Then X is a dual Banach space (i.e. there is a Banach space X_* such that $X = (X_*)^*$) and $\mathbb{B}(X)$ is a von Neumann algebra. (See [P, Proposition 3.8 and Proposition 3.10].) In this case we set

$$\mathcal{L}_w(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{B} \begin{pmatrix} X \end{pmatrix} & X \\ \bar{X} & M \end{pmatrix}.$$

This is then a von Neumann algebra which we call the *linking von Neumann algebra* of X. (See [B2].)

For more about Hilbert C^* -modules see [L2], [RW] and [P].

2. Isometries of self-dual modules

The main theorem in this section is the following.

Theorem 2.1. Let M, N be von Neumann algebras and $p \in N$, $q \in N$ be projections such that each of the projections p, I-p, q and I-q has central support equal to I. Let $T: pM(I-p) \rightarrow qN(I-q)$ be a surjective linear isometry. Then there are central projections e_1, e_2 in M, f_1, f_2 in N with $e_1 + e_2 = I$ and $f_1 + f_2 = I$ and there are maps

$$\Psi: e_1 M e_1 \to f_1 N f_1,$$

$$\Phi: e_2 M e_2 \to f_2 N f_2$$

satisfying

- (1) Ψ is a (surjective) *-isomorphism,
 - Φ is a (surjective) *-antiisomorphism.
- (2) For $x \in pM(I-p)$,

$$T(x) = \Psi(e_1 x e_1) + \Phi(e_2 x e_2).$$

(3) $\Psi(e_1p) = f_1q$ and $\Phi(e_2p) = f_2(I-q)$.

The proof will be divided into several lemmas and propositions. The final arguments can be found following Corollary 2.23.

Note first that both pM(I-p) and qN(I-q) have a structure of a JB^* -triple with $\{x, y, z\} = \frac{1}{2}(xy^*z + zy^*x)$.

Since linear isometries preserve the triple product we have the following result which is well known (see [Ka, Proposition 5.5] or [H, Theorem 4]).

Lemma 2.2. For $x, y, z \in pM(I - p)$,

$$T(xy^*z + zy^*x) = T(x)T(y)^*T(z) + T(z)T(y)^*T(x)$$

and, in particular,

$$T(xy^*x) = T(x)T(y)^*T(x).$$

Note that an element $u \in pM(I - p)$ is a partial isometry if and only if it is a tripotent (i.e. $\{u, u, u\} = u$); hence T(u) is also a partial isometry.

From now on we assume that M, N, p, q and T are as in assumptions of Theorem 2.1.

Lemma 2.3. Suppose $\{z_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ is an orthogonal family of central projections in M with $\sum z_{\alpha} = I$. Then there is an orthogonal family $\{c_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ of central projections in N with $\sum c_{\alpha} = I$ and such that, for every $\alpha \in \Lambda$,

$$\Gamma(z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha}) = c_{\alpha}qN(I-q)c_{\alpha}.$$

Т

Proof. Suppose $M \subseteq B(H)$ and $N \subseteq B(K)$ for Hilbert spaces H, K. For each $\alpha \in \Lambda$ write

$$c_{\alpha}^{1} = \left[T\left(z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha}\right)K\right],\\c_{\alpha}^{2} = \left[T\left(z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha}\right)^{*}K\right]$$

(where [S] for a subspace $S \subseteq K$ is the projection onto the closure of S). Clearly $c_{\alpha}^{1}, c_{\alpha}^{2} \in N$. Also $c_{\alpha}^{1} \leq q, c_{\alpha}^{2} \leq I - q$ (in particular $c_{\alpha}^{1}c_{\alpha}^{2} = 0$). If $u \in T(z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha})$ and $v \in T(z_{\beta}pM(I-p)z_{\beta})$ are partial isometries and

If $u \in T(z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha})$ and $v \in T(z_{\beta}pM(I-p)z_{\beta})$ are partial isometries and $\alpha \neq \beta$ in Λ then $T^{-1}(u), T^{-1}(v)$ are orthogonal; hence u and v are orthogonal. Since pM(I-p) is spanned by its partial isometries we find that

$$T(z_{\beta}pM(I-p)z_{\beta})^{*}T(z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha}) = 0.$$

It follows that

$$c^1_{\alpha}c^1_{\beta} = 0, \quad \alpha \neq \beta,$$

and similarly

$$c_{\alpha}^2 c_{\beta}^2 = 0, \quad \alpha \neq \beta.$$

We now set $c_{\alpha} = c_{\alpha}^1 + c_{\alpha}^2 \in N$ and we find that $\{c_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ is an orthogonal family of projections in N. Now suppose $y \in qN(I-q)$ satisfies $c_{\alpha}^1 y = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Lambda$. Then $T(z_{\alpha}x)^*y = 0$ for all $x \in pM(1-p)$. In particular

$$yT(z_{\alpha}T^{-1}(y))^*y = 0.$$

Applying T^{-1} we get

$$T^{-1}(y) \left(z_{\alpha} T^{-1}(y) \right)^* T^{-1}(y) = 0.$$

Hence $z_{\alpha}T^{-1}(y)(z_{\alpha}T^{-1}(y))^*z_{\alpha}T^{-1}(y) = 0$; thus $z_{\alpha}T^{-1}(y) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Lambda$. As $\sum z_{\alpha} = I$, $T^{-1}(y) = 0$ and, consequently, y = 0.

This proves that $\sum c_{\alpha}^{1} = q$ (recall that the central support of I - q is I). Similarly $\sum c_{\alpha}^{2} = I - q$. Hence $\sum c_{\alpha} = I$. To show that each c_{α} is in the center of N it suffices to show that, for $\alpha \neq \beta$

$$c_{\alpha}Nc_{\beta} = 0$$

To show that $c_{\alpha}^2 N c_{\beta}^1 = 0$ we fix $y \in M$, and $x_2, x_1 \in pM(1-p)$ and compute

$$T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})y^{*}T(z_{\beta}x_{2}) + T(z_{\beta}x_{2})y^{*}T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})$$

= $T\left(z_{\alpha}x_{1}T^{-1}((qy(I-q)))^{*}z_{\beta}x_{2} + z_{\beta}x_{2}T^{-1}((qy(I-q)))^{*}z_{\alpha}x_{1}\right)$
= $T(0+0)$ (as $z_{\alpha}z_{\beta} = 0$).

Since $c_{\alpha}^{1}T(z_{\alpha}x_{1}) = T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})$ while $c_{\alpha}^{1}T(z_{\beta}x_{2}) = 0$, we get $T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})y^{*}T(z_{\beta}x_{2}) = 0$

for all $y \in N$, $x_1, x_2 \in pM(I-p)$. Hence

 $c_{\alpha}^2 N c_{\beta}^1 = 0.$

Now we turn to the proof of $c_{\alpha}^1 N c_{\beta}^1 = 0$. We have to show that $c_{\alpha}^1 q N q c_{\beta}^1 = 0$ and, since qNq is the σ -weak closure of span of $\{ab^* : a, b \in qN(I-q)\}$, we need to show $c_{\alpha}^1 ab^* c_{\beta}^1 = 0$ for all such a, b.

Write a = T(d) and b = T(g) and then compute, for $x_1, x_2 \in pM(I-p)$,

$$T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})^{*}T(d)T(g)^{*}T(z_{\beta}x_{2})$$

= $T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})^{*}[T(d)T(g)^{*}T(z_{\beta}x_{2}) + T(z_{\beta}x_{2})T(g)^{*}T(d)]$
= $T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})^{*}T(dg^{*}z_{\beta}x_{2} + z_{\beta}x_{2}g^{*}d)$
= $T(z_{\alpha}x_{1})^{*}c_{\alpha}^{1}c_{\beta}^{1}T(z_{\beta}dg^{*}x_{2} + z_{\beta}x_{2}g^{*}d) = 0.$

Hence $c^1_{\alpha} N c^1_{\beta} = 0.$

Thus $c_{\alpha}Nc_{\beta} = 0$ for all $\alpha \neq \beta$; i.e., $c_{\alpha} \in Z(N)$.

Lemma 2.4. Let $\{z_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be an orthogonal family of central projections of M with $\sum z_{\alpha} = I$. Let $\{c_{\alpha}\}$ be as Lemma 2.3. Suppose that, for every $\alpha \in \Lambda$, Theorem 2.1 holds for $z_{\alpha}M, c_{\alpha}N$ and the restriction of T to $z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha}$, in place of M, N and T. Then it holds for M, N, T.

Proof. From the conclusion of Theorem 2.1, applied to $z_{\alpha}M$ and $c_{\alpha}N$, we get projections $e_{1,\alpha}$, $e_{2,\alpha}$, $f_{1,\alpha}$, $f_{2,\alpha}$ and maps Ψ_{α} , Φ_{α} . Setting $e_i = \sum e_{i,\alpha}$, $f_i = \sum f_{i,\alpha}$, $\Psi = \sum \bigoplus \Psi_{\alpha}$ and $\Phi = \sum \bigoplus \Psi_{\alpha}$ we obtain the conclusion of the theorem for M, N.

Lemma 2.5. There is an orthogonal family of central projections $\{z_{\alpha} : \alpha \in \Lambda\}$ in M with $\sum z_{\alpha} = I$ such that, for each $\alpha \in \Lambda$, either

- (1) $z_{\alpha}p$ and $z_{\alpha}(I-p)$ are abelian projections in M or
- (2) There is a family $\{u_i : i \in I\}$, of cardinality $|I| \ge 2$, of partial isometries in $z_{\alpha}pM(I-p)z_{\alpha}$ satisfying
- (i) $u_i^* u_i = u_j^* u_j$ for all $i, j \in I$,
- (ii) $u_i u_i^* u_j u_j^* = 0$ for all $i \neq j$ in I,

(iii)
$$\sum u_i u_i^* = p z_\alpha$$

or

- (3) There is a family $\{u_i : i \in I\}$, of cardinality $|I| \ge 2$, of partial isometries in $z_{\alpha}pM(1-p)z_{\alpha}$ satisfying
- (i') $u_i u_i^* = u_j u_j^*$ for all $i, j \in I$,
- (ii') $u_i^* u_i u_i^* u_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$ in I,

(iii')
$$\sum u_i^* u_i = z_\alpha (I - p).$$

Proof. Since M can be written as a direct sum of algebras of different types we can deal with each type separately. Recall that for a projection g, c(g) is its central support.

<u>Case 1:</u> M is of type III.

Then we can write $p = p_1 + p_2$ with $p_1 \sim p_2$. Since $c(p_1) = c(p_2) = c(p) = I = c(I-p)$ and $p_1, I-p$ are both properly infinite, $p_1 \sim I-p$, i = 1, 2. Hence there are u_1, u_2 in M such that $u_i u_i^* = p_i$, $u_i^* u_i = I-p$, i = 1, 2, and we are done.

<u>Case 2:</u> M is of type I.

In this case there is an abelian projection $e_1 \in M$ with $c(e_1) = I$. Since $c(e_1) \leq c(I-p) \ (= I)$, we have $e_1 \preceq I - p$ ([KR, Proposition 6.4.6]) and, thus, there is an abelian projection $e \leq I - p$ with c(e) = I. It now follows [KR, Corollary 6.5.5] that there is a family $\{q_j : 1 \leq j \leq \infty\}$ of central projections with $\sum q_j = I$ and such that q_jp is the sum of j equivalent abelian projections $q_jp = \sum_{i=1}^{j} q_jp_i$. As $c(q_jp_i) = c(q_jp) = q_j = c(q_je)$ we have $q_jp_i \sim q_je$ for all $i \leq j$. Hence for each algebra q_jMq_j with $j \geq 2$ statement (2) holds. We are left to deal with the case q_1 . So we assume now that p is abelian. If I - p is not abelian we can use a similar argument to the one above (interchanging the roles of p and I - p) and get statement (3). We are left with the case where both p and I - p are abelian projections and this is (1). Case 3: M is of type II.

By splitting M using central projections we can assume that each of the projections p and I - p are either finite or properly infinite.

If I-p is properly infinite we can argue as in the type III case: $p = p_1 + p_2, p_1 \sim p_2 \preceq I-p$ and, thus, there are u_1, u_2 with $p_i = u_i u_i^*$, $u_1^* u_1 = u_2^* u_2 \leq I-p$; hence statement (2) holds. If p is properly infinite we reverse the roles of p and I-p and get statement (3). So we assume that both p and I-p are finite (thus we are in the type II₁ case). In this case we let Δ be the center-valued dimension function, defined on the projections of M with range equal to the set of all positive operators in the unit ball of the center (see [KR, § 8.4]).

For every $j \ge 2$ we can let q_j be the maximal central projection satisfying $\frac{1}{i}q_j\Delta(p) \le q_j\Delta(I-p)$, and $q_0 = I - \bigvee q_j$. But, for every $j \ge 2$,

$$q_0\Delta(I-p) \le q_0 \frac{1}{j} \Delta(p) \le \frac{1}{j} q_o.$$

Hence $q_0\Delta(I-p) = 0$ and $\Delta(q_0(I-p)) = 0$ implying that $q_0(I-p) = 0$. But $c(q_0(I-p)) = q_0c(I-p) = q_0$; hence $q_0 = 0$ and $I = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} (q_j - q_{j-1})$ (setting $q_1 = 0$). Given $j \ge 2$,

$$\frac{1}{j}(q_j - q_{j-1})\Delta(p) \le (q_j - q_{j-1})\Delta(I - p).$$

Restricting our attention to the algebra $(q_j - q_{j-1})M(q_j - q_{j-1})$ we can write $\frac{1}{j}\Delta(p) \leq (I-p)$. Thus we can write p as a sum of j equivalent subprojections $p = \sum p_i$ with $p_i \preceq I - p$; hence $p_i \sim e \leq I - p$ for all $i \leq j$. This shows that, in this case, (2) holds.

Lemma 2.6. If M, N, T are as in Theorem 2.1 and, in addition, p and I - p are abelian projections in M, then Theorem 2.1 holds.

Proof. Since p and I - p are abelian projections, M is *-isomorphic to $M_2 \otimes \mathcal{A}$ where \mathcal{A} is an abelian von Neumann algebra and M_2 is the algebra of 2×2 complex matrices. We assume now that $M = M_2 \otimes \mathcal{A}$. Write $u = e_{12} \otimes I$ (where $\{e_{ij}\}$ are the matrix units in M_2) and v = T(u). Given $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we have

$$T(e_{12} \otimes a) = T((e_{12} \otimes I)(e_{12} \otimes a^*)^*(e_{12} \otimes I)) = vT(e_{12} \otimes a^*)^*v.$$

Then $qN(1-q) = T(e_{12} \otimes \mathcal{A}) = vT(e_{12} \otimes \mathcal{A})^* v$. Hence $q \leq vv^*$ and $I - q \leq v^* v$. But $v \in qN(1-q)$ so that $q = vv^*$, $I - q = v^* v$.

Now write

$$\psi_{1,1}(a) = T(e_{12} \otimes a)v^* \in qN(1-q)v^* = qNq, \ a \in \mathcal{A}.$$

 $\psi_{1,1}$ maps I into $vv^* = q$ and it is an isometry onto the von Neumann algebra qNq. By [K, Theorem 10] this map is a *-isomorphism (using the fact that \mathcal{A} is abelian). Hence qNq is abelian. Similarly one sees that I - q is also an abelian projection. We now have, for $a, b, c \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$T(e_{12} \otimes a)v^*T(e_{12} \otimes b) = T(e_{12} \otimes a)v^*T(e_{12} \otimes b)v^*v = \psi_{11}(a)\psi_{11}(b)v = \psi_{11}(ab)v = T(e_{12} \otimes ab),$$

$$T(e_{12} \otimes b)T(e_{12} \otimes c^*)^* = \psi_{11}(b)v[\psi_{11}(c^*)v]^* = \psi_{11}(b)vv^*\psi_{11}(c^*)^*$$

= $\psi_{11}(b)\psi_{11}(c) = T(e_{12} \otimes bc)v^*,$

and, using similar identities we see that the map

$$\psi: M \to N$$

defined by

$$\psi \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T(e_{12} \otimes a)v^* & T(e_{12} \otimes b) \\ T(e_{12} \otimes c^*)^* & v^*T(e_{12} \otimes d) \end{pmatrix}$$

is a *-isomorphism of M onto N extending T. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.1 in this case. (Here $e_1 = I$, $e_2 = 0$.)

From now on, in this section, we assume that condition (2) of Lemma 2.5 holds (with $z_{\alpha} = I$).

We fix the family $\{u_i\}$ as in Lemma 2.5 and write v_i for $T(u_i) \in qN(1-q)$. Then v_i is a partial isometry and we write

$$r_i = v_i v_i^* (\leq q), \ d_i = v_i^* v_i (\leq I - q)$$

Now fix $i \neq j$. We wish to study the relative position of v_i and v_j . We have

$$v_i = T(u_i u_i^* u_i) = T(u_i u_j^* u_j) = T(u_i u_j^* u_j + u_j u_j^* u_i)$$

= $v_i v_i^* v_j + v_j v_i^* v_i = v_i d_j + r_j v_i.$

It then follows that $r_i v_i d_j = 0$. Since we can interchange *i* and *j* we get

$$\begin{aligned} v_i &= v_i d_j + r_j v_i \quad \text{and} \quad r_j v_i d_j = 0, \\ v_j &= v_j d_i + r_i v_j \quad \text{and} \quad r_i v_j d_i = 0, \end{aligned}$$

and, thus,

$$r_i = v_i v_i^* = (v_i d_j + r_j v_i)(d_j v_i^* + v_i^* r_j) = v_i d_j v_i^* + r_j r_i r_j.$$

But then $r_j r_i r_j \leq r_i$ and, consequently $(I - r_i) r_j r_i r_j (I - r_i) = 0$ which implies that $r_i r_j = r_i r_j r_i$ and $r_i r_j = r_j r_i$. Similar analysis works for d_i, d_j and we find that

$$r_i r_j = r_j r_i, \ d_i d_j = d_j d_i$$

The computation above now shows that

$$r_i = v_i d_j v_i^* + r_i r_j$$

and similarly

$$d_i = v_i^* r_j v_i + d_i d_j.$$

We summarize as follows.

Lemma 2.7. With the notation and assumptions above, for $i \neq j$,

(1) $v_i = v_i d_j + r_j v_i = (I - r_j) v_i d_j + r_j v_i (I - d_j),$ (2) $v_j = v_j d_i + r_i v_j = (I - r_i) v_j d_i + r_i v_j (I - d_i),$ (3) $r_j v_i d_j = r_i v_j d_i = 0,$ (4) $r_i r_j = r_j r_i, \ d_i d_j = d_j d_i,$ (5) $v_i d_j v_i^* = r_i (I - r_j)$ and (6) $v_i^* r_j v_i = d_i (I - d_j).$

Lemma 2.8. With the notation and assumption above we have for every triple $\{i, j, k\}$ of different indices,

(1) $d_i d_j (I - d_k) = 0,$ and (2) $r_i r_j (I - r_k) = 0.$

Consequently, if we write r for $\bigvee \{r_i : i \in I\}$ and r_0 for $\bigwedge \{r_i : i \in I\}$, then $\{r_i - r_0 : i \in I\}$ is an orthogonal family of projections with sum equal to $r - r_0$. Similar statement holds for $\{d_i - d_0\}$.

Proof. For every $a \in u_i M u_i^*$ we have

$$au_iu_j^*u_k + u_ku_j^*au_i = 0$$
 (as $u_j^*u_k = 0 = u_j^*u_i$).

Thus

(*)
$$T(au_i)v_j^*v_k + v_kv_j^*T(au_i) = 0.$$

Now set

$$a = u_i u_i^* T^{-1} (r_j (I - r_k) v_i) u_i^* \in u_i M u_i^*.$$

Then

$$T(au_i) = T(u_i u_i^* T^{-1}(r_j (I - r_k) v_i) u_i^* u_i)$$

= $v_i T(u_i T^{-1}(r_j (I - r_k) v_i)^* u_i)^* v_i$
= $v_i [v_i (v_i^* r_j (I - r_k)) v_i]^* v_i$
= $r_i r_j (I - r_k) v_i.$

Using (*) we have

$$r_{i}r_{j}(I - r_{k})v_{i}v_{j}^{*}v_{k} + v_{k}v_{j}^{*}r_{i}r_{j}(I - r_{k})v_{i} = 0.$$

Multiplying on the left by $v_j v_k^*$ we get

$$v_j v_k^* r_i r_j (I - r_k) v_i v_j^* v_k + v_j d_k v_j^* r_i r_j (I - r_k) v_i = 0.$$

As $v_k^*(I-r_k) = 0$, the first term vanishes. From Lemma 2.7 we know that $v_j d_k v_j^* = r_j(I-r_k)$; hence $r_j(I-r_k)r_ir_j(1-r_k)v_i = 0$.

It follows that $r_i r_j (I - r_k) = 0$. Statement (1) is proved similarly and the final statement of the lemma follows immediately.

Lemma 2.9. (1) For $a \in pM(I-p)$ and a partial isometry $u \in pM(I-p)$, $T(uu^*au^*u) = vv^*T(a)v^*v$

where v = T(u).

(2) For a partial isometry $u \in pM(I-p)$ with T(u) = v,

$$T(u^*Mu^*u) = vv^*Nv^*v.$$

(3) If
$$x, y \in pM(I-p)$$
 and $x^*y = yx^* = 0$, then
 $T(x)^*T(y) = 0 = T(y)T(x)^*.$

Proof. (1) $T(uu^*au^*u) = vT(ua^*u)^*v = v[vT(a)^*v]^*v = vv^*T(a)v^*v.$ (2) From (1) it follows that

 $T(uu^*Mu^*u) \subseteq vv^*Nv^*v.$

Applying the same argument to T^{-1} we get equality.

(3) Let $x, y \in pM(I-p)$ satisfy $x^*y = yx^* = 0$. Let $x = u_1|x|$ be the polar decomposition of x and $y = u_2|y|$ be the one for y. Then $u_1^*u_2 = u_2u_1^* = 0$. If we write $v_i = T(u_i)$ then

$$0 = T(u_1u_1^*u_2 + u_2u_1^*u_1) = v_1v_1^*v_2 + v_2v_1^*v_1$$

and

$$0 = T(u_1 u_2^* u_1) = v_1 v_2^* v_1.$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} v_1^* v_2 &= v_1^* v_1 v_1^* v_2 + (v_1^* v_2 v_1^*) v_1 \\ &= v_1^* (v_1 v_1^* v_2 + v_2 v_1^* v_1) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly $v_2 v_1^* = 0$.

Since $x \in u_1 u_1^* M u_1^* u_1$, $y \in u_2 u_2^* M u_2^* u_2$, part (1) shows that

$$T(x) \in v_1 v_1^* N v_1^* v_1, \ T(y) \in v_2 v_2^* N v_2^* v_2$$

As $v_2 v_1^* = v_1^* v_2 = 0$,

$$T(x)^*T(y) = 0 = T(y)T(x)^*.$$

Lemma 2.10. If u is a partial isometry in pM(I - p), v = T(u) and e is a projection satisfying $e \leq vv^*$, then there is a projection $e_0 \leq uu^*$ with $T^{-1}(ev) = e_0u$.

Proof. Write $v' = ev, v'' = (vv^* - e)v$. Both are partial isometries and they satisfy $v'v''^* = v''v'^* = 0$. Hence (Lemma 2.9), the partial isometries $u' = T^{-1}(v')$ and $u'' = T^{-1}(v'')$ satisfy $0 = u'u''^* = u''u'^*$. Since $u' + u'' = T^{-1}(v' + v'') = T^{-1}(v) = u$ the conclusion follows.

Lemma 2.11. For all $i, j \in I$, r_j commutes with the elements in $r_i N r_i$.

Proof. For i = j it is clear, so assume $i \neq j$. Since $r_i N d_i = T(u_i u_i^* M u_i^* u_i)$ (Lemma 2.9 (2)),

$$r_i N r_i = r_i N d_i v_i^* = T(u_i u_i^* M u_i^* u_i) v_i^*.$$

So fix $x = u_i u_i^* x u_i^* u_i$ and compute (using the fact that $u_j u_j^* u_i u_i^* = 0$ and $u_j^* u_j = u_i^* u_i$).

$$T(x) = T(xu_i^*u_i) = T(xu_j^*u_j + u_ju_j^*x) = T(x)v_j^*v_j + v_jv_j^*T(x)$$

= $T(x)d_j + r_jT(x).$

Hence

$$T(x) = (I - r_j)T(x)d_j + r_jT(x)(I - d_j).$$

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$$T(x)v_i^*r_j = T(x)v_i^*r_jv_iv_i^* = T(x)d_i(I-d_j)v_i^*$$

= $r_jT(x)d_i(1-d_j)v_i^*.$

Hence, for every $y \in r_i N r_i$, $yr_j = r_j yr_j$ and the claim follows.

Our next objective is to show that, for $i \neq j$ and for x, y, z in $u_i M u_i$, $r_i(I - r_j)T(xy^*z) = r_i(I - r_j)T(x)T(y)^*T(z)$. This will be proved in Proposition 2.13.

We first consider the map

$$\varphi: u_i u_i^* M u_i u_i^* \to v_i v_i^* N v_i v_i^*$$

defined by

$$\varphi(u_i u_i^* x u_i u_i^*) = T(u_i u_i^* x u_i) v_i^*.$$

Since $T(u_i u_i^* M u_i) = r_i N d_i$ (Lemma 2.9), the map φ is a surjective isometry from the von Neumann algebra $u_i u_i^* M u_i u_i^*$ onto the von Neumann algebra $r_i N r_i$ that is unital ($\varphi(u_i u_i^*) = r_i$). By [K, Theorem 10] there are central projections g, h in $r_i N r_i$ and central projections g_0, h_0 in $u_i u_i^* M u_i u_i^*$ with $g + h = r_i, g_0 + h_0 = u_i u_i^*$ and such that φ , restricted to $g_0 M g_0$, is a *-isomorphism onto gNg and φ , restricted to $h_0 M h_0$, is a *-anti-isomorphism of $h_0 M h_0$ onto hNh.

Lemma 2.12. With the notation above, $h(I-r_j)$ is an abelian projection in r_iNr_i .

Proof. Since $h \in r_i N r_i$ it follows from Lemma 2.11 that $h(I - r_j)$ is a projection in $r_i N r_i$. Write $c = h(I - r_j)$. To show that cNc is abelian it suffices to show that one cannot find in cNc projections e_1, e_2 that are equivalent (in cNc) and orthogonal (i.e. $e_1e_2 = 0$). Assume, by negation, that there are such projections. Then there is a partial isometry $w \in cNc$ with

$$ww^* = e_2, \quad w^*w = e_1.$$

Write

$$t_1 = e_1 v_i, \ t_2 = v_i v_i^* e_1 v_i, \ t_3 = w v_i$$

and set $s_i = T^{-1}(t_i)$. Then t_i and s_i are partial isometries. We have $t_1^*t_1 = v_i^*e_1v_1$, $t_2^*t_2 = v_i^*e_1v_iv_i^*v_jv_i^*e_1v_i$ and $t_3^*t_3 = v_i^*w^*wv_i = v_i^*e_1v_i$. Since

$$v_i^* e_1 v_i \le v_i^* c v_i \le v_i^* (I - r_j) v_i = d_i d_j \le d_j,$$

(using Lemma 2.7), we have

$$t_i^* t_i = v_i^* e_1 v_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3.$$

Also, $t_1t_1^* = e_1$, $t_2t_2^* = v_jv_i^*e_1v_iv_j^* \le r_j$ and $t_3t_3^* = wv_iv_i^*w^* = e_2 \le I - r_j$. Hence $\{t_it_i^* : i = 1, 2, 3\}$ is an orthogonal set.

By Lemma 2.10, there are projections $c_1 \leq u_i u_i^*$ and $c_2 \leq u_j u_j^*$ with

$$s_1 = c_1 u_i, \ s_2 = c_2 u_j.$$

Now, by the definition of h, the map

$$\varphi(x) = T(xu_i)v_i^*, \qquad x \in h_0 M h_0,$$

is a *-anti-isomorphism. Hence

$$T(s_{3}s_{1}^{*}s_{1}) = \varphi(s_{3}s_{1}^{*}s_{1}u_{i}^{*})v_{i} = \varphi((s_{3}u_{i}^{*})(u_{i}s_{1}^{*})(s_{1}u_{i}^{*}))v_{i}$$

$$= \varphi(s_{1}u_{i}^{*})\varphi(s_{1}u_{i}^{*})^{*}\varphi(s_{3}u_{i}^{*})v_{i}$$

$$= \varphi(s_{1}u_{i}^{*})v_{i}v_{i}^{*}\varphi(s_{1}u_{i}^{*})^{*}\varphi(s_{3}u_{i}^{*})v_{i}$$

$$= T(s_{1})T(s_{1})^{*}T(s_{3}) = t_{1}t_{1}^{*}t_{3} = 0.$$

Hence $s_3 s_1^* = 0$.

We can use Lemma 2.8 and Lemma 2.7 for $\{t_1, t_2, t_3\}$ and T^{-1} in place of $\{v_i, v_j, v_k\}$ and T (since they also have pairwise orthogonal ranges and the same initial space). Since $s_3^*s_3s_1^*s_1 = 0$ (by the computation above) it follows from Lemma 2.8 (1) that $s_2^*s_2s_1^*s_1 = s_2^*s_2s_3^*s_3s_1^*s_1 = 0$ and, similarly, $s_2^*s_2s_3^*s_3 = 0$. So that $\{s_i^*s_i\}$ is an orthogonal family. By Lemma 2.7 (5) (applied to the situation here) we get for $i \neq j$ in $\{1, 2, 3\}$, $s_is_i^*(I - s_js_j^*) = s_is_j^*s_js_i^* = 0$.

We conclude that $s_i s_i^* = s_j s_j^*$ for all i, j in $\{1, 2, 3\}$. But $s_1 s_1^* \le u_i u_i^*$ (as $s_1 = c_1 u_i$) and $s_2 s_2^* \le u_j u_j^* \le I - u_i u_i^*$.

This is a contradiction and it completes the proof.

Proposition 2.13. For x, y, z in $u_i M u_i$ and $j \neq i$,

$$r_i(I - r_j)T(xy^*z) = r_i(I - r_j)T(x)T(y)^*T(z).$$

Proof. Fix x, y, z in $u_i M u_i$ and write

$$r_i(I - r_j)T(xy^*z) = r_i(I - r_j)hT(xy^*z) + r_i(I - r_j)gT(xy^*z)$$

where g, h are defined above. With φ as above we have

$$(I - r_i)hT(xy^*z) = (I - r_i)h\varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)v_i.$$

Since $\varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)$ lies in r_iNr_i , we can use Lemma 2.11 and Lemma 2.7 to get $(I - r_j)\varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)v_i = \varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)(I - r_j)v_i = \varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)v_iv_i^*(I - r_j)v_i$. Hence, by the definition of h, $(I - r_j)hT(xy^*z) = (I - r_j)h\varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)hr_i(I - r_j)v_i = (I - r_j)h\varphi(zu_i^*)\varphi(yu_i^*)^*\varphi(xu_i^*)hr_i(I - r_j)v_i$. But since $(I - r_j)h$ is an abelian projection in r_iNr_i (Lemma 2.12) we have

$$\begin{aligned} (I - r_j)hT(xy^*z) &= (I - r_j)h\varphi(xu_i^*)\varphi(yu_i^*)^*\varphi(zu_i^*)hr_i(I - r_j)v_i \\ &= (I - r_j)hT(x)v_i^*v_iT(y)^*T(z)v_i^*hr_i(I - r_j)v_i \\ &= (I - r_j)hT(x)T(y)^*T(z). \end{aligned}$$

Also, from the definition of g,

$$(I - r_j)gT(xy^*z) = (I - r_j)g\varphi(xy^*zu_i^*)v_i$$

= $(I - r_j)g\varphi(xu_i^*)\varphi(yu_i^*)^*\varphi(zu_i^*)v_i$
= $(I - r_j)gT(x)T(y)^*T(z).$

This completes the proof.

We now turn to define a map

$$\theta: pMp \to N.$$

For if we note first that $p = \sum u_i u_i^*$ and every $x \in pMp$, $x = \sum_{i,j} u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*$ (σ -weakly). For every $i, j \in I$ we set

$$\theta_{ij}: u_i u_i^* M u_j u_j^* \longrightarrow N$$

by

$$\theta_{ij}(u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*) = (r_i - r_0) T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) v_j^* + v_j^* T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) (d_i - d_0),$$

where $r_0 = \bigwedge r_i$, $d_0 = \bigwedge d_i$.

To study the map θ defined by $\{\theta_{ij}\}$ we first write

$$\alpha_{ij}(u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*) = (r_i - r_0) T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) v_j^*$$

and

$$\beta_{ij}(u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*) = v_j^* T(u_i u_i^* x u_j)(d_i - d_0).$$

Also write, for every finite subset $F \subseteq I$, $p_F = \sum_{i \in F} u_i u_i^*$, $r_F = \sum_{i \in F} r_i$, $d_F = \sum_{i \in F} d_i$ and

$$x(F) = p_F x p_F \quad (\text{for } x \in pMp)$$

and $\alpha_F: p_F M p_F \to N$ is defined by

$$\alpha_F(p_F x p_F) = \sum_{i,j \in F} \alpha_{ij}(u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*).$$

(Similarly, β_F can be defined.) We have $\alpha_F(p_F M p_F) \subseteq (r_F - r_0)N(r_F - r_0)$ and if $F_1 \subseteq F_2, x \in N$,

$$\alpha_{F_1}(p_{F_1}xp_{F_1}) = (r_{F_1} - r_0)\alpha_{F_2}(p_{F_2}xp_{F_2})(r_{F_1} - r_0).$$

Lemma 2.14. Given a finite subset $F \subseteq I$, α_F is a *-homomorphism of $p_F M p_F$ onto $(r_F - r_0)N(r_F - r_0)$ and β_F is a *-antihomomorphism of $p_F M p_F$ onto $(d_F - d_0)N(d_F - d_0)$.

Proof. We prove the properties of α_F . The proof for β_F is similar.

For $i, j \in I$, $u_i u_i^* M u_j = u_i u_i^* M u_j u_i^* u_i \subseteq u_i u_i^* M u_i^* u_i = u_i u_i^* M u_j^* u_j \subseteq u_i u_i^* M u_j$. Hence $u_i u_i^* M u_j = u_i u_i^* M u_i^* u_i$ and $T(u_i u_i^* M u_j) = r_i N d_i$. Hence $T(u_i u_i^* M u_j) v_j^* = r_i N d_i v_j^*$. For i = j this is $r_i N r_i$ and, thus, $\alpha_{ii}(u_i u_i^* M u_i u_i^*) = (r_i - r_0) N r_i = (r_i - r_0) N(r_i - r_0)$ (as $I - r_0$ commutes with $r_i N r_i$ by Lemma 2.11). For $i \neq j$

$$\alpha_{ij}(u_i u_i^* M u_j u_j^*) = (r_i - r_0) N d_i v_j^* = (r_i - r_0) N v_j^* (v_j d_i v_j^*) = (r_i - r_0) N v_j^* (I - r_i).$$

As $r_j(I - r_i) = r_j - r_0$ (Lemma 2.8) we see that α_{ij} is onto $(r_i - r_0)N(r_j - r_0)$. This shows that α_F maps $p_F M p_F$ onto $(r_F - r_0)N(r_F - r_0)$.

We now show that α_F is a *-map. For that, fix $x = u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*$ and consider

$$\alpha_{ij}(x) = (r_i - r_0)T(xu_j)v_j^* = (r_i - r_0)T(xu_j)v_j^*(r_j - r_0).$$

If i = j we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{ii}(x) &= (r_i - r_0) T(u_i u_i^* x u_i) v_i^* (r_i - r_0) \\ &= (r_i - r_0) v_i T(x^* u_i)^* v_i v_i^* (r_i - r_0) \\ &= \left[(r_i - r_0) T(x^* u_i) v_i^* (r_i - r_0) \right]^* \\ &= \alpha_{ii}(x^*)^*. \end{aligned}$$

If $i \neq j$ we have $T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) = T(u_i u_i^* x u_j + u_j u_i^* x u_i) = v_i T(x^* u_i)^* v_j + v_j T(x^* u_i)^* v_i$. Hence

$$\alpha_{ij}(x) = (r_i - r_0) \left[v_i T(x^* u_i)^* v_j + v_j T(x^* u_i)^* v_i \right] v_j^* (r_j - r_0).$$

Since $(r_i - r_0)v_j = 0$ we have

$$\alpha_{ij}(x) = (r_i - r_0)v_i T(x^* u_i)^* (r_j - r_0) = \alpha_{ji}(x^*)^*.$$

This shows that α_F is a *-map.

Finally, we shall show that α_F is a homomorphism. For that we fix

$$x = u_i u_i^* x u_k u_k^*, \ y = u_j u_j^* y u_m u_m^*$$

If $k \neq j$, then xy = 0. In this case $r_k(r_j - r_0) = 0$ and $\alpha_F(x)\alpha_F(y) = (r_i - r_0)T(xu_k)v_k^*(r_j - r_0)T(yu_m)v_m^* = 0$. So we suppose now that k = j and then $xy = u_iu_i^*xu_ju_j^*yu_mu_m^*$. Hence $\alpha_F(xy) = (r_i - r_0)T(xyu_m)v_m^*$. If $i \neq j$ this is equal to

$$(r_i - r_0)T((xu_j)u_j^*(yu_m))v_m^* = (r_i - r_0)T[(xu_j)u_j^*(yu_m) + yu_mu_j^*xu_j]v_m^*$$

= $(r_i - r_0)[T(xu_j)v_j^*T(yu_m) + T(yu_m)v_j^*T(xu_j)]v_m^*.$

Now $T(yu_m) = T(yu_m u_i^* u_j) \in r_j Nd_j$ and $(r_i - r_0)T(yu_m) = 0$. Hence

$$\alpha_F(xy) = (r_i - r_0)T(xy_j)v_j^*T(yu_m)v_m^* = \alpha_F(x)\alpha_F(y).$$

Now consider the case i = j. Then

$$\alpha_F(xy) = (r_i - r_0)T((xu_i)u_i^*(yu_m))v_m^*$$

Since $yu_m = u_i u_i^* yu_m u_i^* u_i \in u_i M u_i$ and xu_i, u_i also lie in $u_i M u_i$, we can apply Proposition 2.13 and get

$$\alpha_F(xy) = (r_i - r_0)T(xu_i)v_i^*T(yu_m)v_m^* = \alpha_F(x)\alpha_F(y). \quad \blacksquare$$

It follows from Lemma 2.14 that for each finite subset $F \subseteq I$ and each $x \in pMp$

$$\|\alpha_F(x)\| \le \|x\|.$$

Hence, for a fixed $x \in pMp$ the net $\{\alpha_F(x) : F \subseteq I\}$ is bounded and we can find a σ -weakly convergent subset $\alpha_{F'}(x) \longrightarrow \alpha(x)$.

For every finite subset $F \subseteq I$ there is some F'_0 in the subnet with $F'_0 \supseteq F$. But then, for every $F' \supseteq F'_0$, $r_F \alpha_{F'}(x)r_F = \alpha_F(x)$; hence

$$r_F \alpha(x) r_F = \alpha_F(x)$$

and, consequently.

$$\alpha(x) = \sigma \operatorname{-weak} \lim_{F} \alpha_F(x).$$

We can now conclude from Lemma 2.14 the following. (The statement for β is proved similarly.)

Corollary 2.15. There is a surjective *-homomorphism

$$\alpha: pMp \to (r - r_0)N(r - r_0)$$

and a surjective *-antihomomorphism

$$\beta: pMp \to (d-d_0)N(d-d_0)$$

such that, for all i, j,

$$r_i \alpha(x) r_j = \alpha_{ij}(x), \quad d_j \beta(x) d_i = \beta_{ij}(x).$$

Lemma 2.16. For $x \in pM(I-p)$ and $i, j \in I$ we have $r_i(I-r_j)T(u_ju_j^*x) = 0$.

Proof. We can assume $i \neq j$ and $x = u_j u_j^* x$. Write $x = x_1 + x_2$ where $x_1 = x u_j^* u_j$ and $x_2 = x(I - u_j^* u_j)$. Then $x_1 \in u_j A u_j$ and, thus, $T(x_1) \in v_j N v_j = r_j N d_j$. Hence $(I - r_j)T(u_j u_j^* x_1) = 0$. For x_2 we have $u_i u_i^* x_2 = x_2 u_i^* u_i = 0$ (as $u_i^* u_i = u_j^* u_j$). Hence $0 = T(u_i u_i^* x_2 + x_2 u_i^* u_i) = v_i v_i^* T(x_2) + T(x_2) v_i^* v_i = r_i T(x_2) + T(x_2) d_i$. We also have $u_i x_2^* u_i = 0$; hence $v_i T(x_2)^* v_i = 0$. Therefore

$$r_i T(x_2) = r_i T(x_2) d_i + r_i T(x_2) (I - d_i)$$

= $r_i T(x_2) d_i + [r_i T(x_2) + T(x_2) d_i] (I - d_i) = 0.$

Note that a similar argument shows that

 $T(x_2)d_i = 0.$

Lemma 2.17. For $x \in u_j u_j^* M(I-p)$, $y \in u_i u_i^* M u_i$,

$$r_i(I - r_0)T(y)v_j^*T(x) = r_i(I - r_0)T(yu_j^*x)$$

Proof. Assume first that $i \neq j$. Then it follows from Lemma 2.16 that $r_i(I - r_0)T(x) = 0$. Also we have $xu_i^*y = 0$. Hence

$$r_i(I - r_0)T(yu_j^*x) = r_i(I - r_j)T(yu_j^*x + xu_j^*y)$$

= $r_i(I - r_j)[T(y)v_j^*T(x) + T(x)v_j^*T(y)]$
= $r_i(I - r_j)T(y)v_i^*T(x).$

Now consider the case i = j. if $x \in u_i u_i^* M u_i^* u_i$ the result follows from Proposition 2.13. So assume now that $x = u_i u_i^* x (I - u_i^* u_i)$. Then $x u_i^* y = 0$ and $r_i T(x) v_i^* = r_i T(x) d_i v_i^* = T(u_i u_i^* x u_i^* u_i) v_i^* = 0$ (where we used Lemma 2.9). Hence

$$\begin{array}{lll} r_i T(yu_i^*x) &=& r_i T(yu_i^*x + xu_i^*y) \\ &=& r_i \big[T(y)v_i^*T(x) + T(x)v_i^*T(y) \big] \\ &=& r_i T(y)v_i^*T(x). \end{array}$$

Corollary 2.18. For every i, j, k if $a = u_i u_i^* a u_j u_j^*$ and $x = u_k u_k^* x(I-p)$, then

$$(r - r_0)T(ax) = \alpha_{ij}(a)T(x)$$

Proof. Assume first that $j \neq k$. Then ax = 0. Also $\alpha_{ij}(a) \in (r_i - r_0)N(r_j - r_0)$ (see the proof of Lemma 2.14) and $(r_j - r_0)T(x) = r_j(I - r_k)T(x) = 0$ by Lemma 2.16. Hence $\alpha_{ij}(a)T(x) = 0$. We now consider the case j = k. In this case $\alpha_{ij}(a)T(x) = (r_i - r_0)T(au_j)v_j^*T(x)$ and Lemma 2.17 (with $y = au_j \in u_iu_i^*Mu_j^*u_j = u_iu_i^*Mu_i^*u_i$) applies to give

$$\alpha_{ij}(a)T(x) = r_i(I - r_0)T(au_ju_j^*x) = r_i(I - r_0)T(ax).$$

As $(r - r_i)T(ax) = 0$ (Lemma 2.16), we are done.

Before we conclude from the last corollary that T is a module map we need the following.

Lemma 2.19.

- (1) $\theta(=\alpha + \beta)$ is an injective map.
- (2) α and β are σ -weakly continuous maps on pMp.
- (3) There are projections g_1, g_2 in Z(pMp) such that
 - (i) $g_1 + g_2 = p$,
 - (ii) ker $\alpha = g_2 M g_2$ and ker $\beta = g_1 M g_1$,
 - (iii) if $c(g_i)$ is the central support of g_i in M, then $c(g_1) + c(g_2) = I$.

Proof. (1) Recall that for every $i, j \in I$,

$$\begin{aligned} \theta(u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*) &= (r_i - r_0) T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) v_j^* (r_j - r_0) \\ &+ (d_j - d_0) v_i^* T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) (d_i - d_0). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\{r_i - r_0\}$ and $\{d_i - d_0\}$ are orthogonal families, it will suffice to show the injectivity of θ_{ij} $(= \theta | u_i u_i^* M u_j u_j^*)$ for all $i, j \in I$.

So fix $i, j \in I$ and $x = u_i u_i^* x u_j u_j^*$ such that

$$(r_i - r_0)T(u_iu_i^*xu_j)v_j^*(r_j - r_0) = 0 = (d_j - d_0)v_j^*T(u_iu_i^*xu_j)(d_i - d_0).$$

From Lemma 2.7 we get $v_j(d_j - d_0)v_j^* = r_0$ and $v_j^*(r_j - r_0)v_j = d_0$ and we have

$$(r_i - r_0)T(u_i u_i^* x u_j)d_0 = 0 = r_0 T(u_i u_i^* x u_j)(d_i - d_0)$$

Also, fix $k \neq i$, and compute

$$r_0 T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) d_0 = r_k T(u_i u_i^* x u_j) d_k = T(u_k u_k^* u_i u_i^* x u_j u_k^* u_k) = 0$$

(using Lemma 2.9).

Now we will show that $(r_i - r_0)T(u_iu_i^*xu_j)(d_i - d_0) = 0$. It will then follow that $T(u_iu_i^*xu_j) = 0$ (as it lies in r_iNd_i by Lemma 2.9) and consequently, $u_iu_i^*xu_j = 0$ implying x = 0.

Fix $k \neq i$ and note that

$$(r_i - r_0)T(u_iu_i^*xu_j)(d_i - d_0) = (r_i - r_0)T(u_iu_i^*xu_j)v_ir_kv_i^* \in (r_i - r_0)Nr_ir_kv_i^*.$$

But the last set is $\{0\}$ since r_k commutes with $r_i N r_i$ (Lemma 2.11) and $r_k(r_i - r_0) = 0$.

(2) β is a map onto $(d - d_0)N(d - d_0)$ and α is onto $(r - r_0)N(r - r_0)$. Since $d - d_0$ and $r - r_0$ are orthogonal projections, we can view N as acting on a Hilbert space H with two orthogonal subspaces $H_1 = (d - d_0)(H)$ and $H_2 = (r - r_0)(H)$. Let $\tau : B(H_1) \to B(H_1)$ be a transpose map, then $\alpha \oplus \tau \circ \beta$ is a *-isomorphism of pMp into B(H). Thus it is σ -weakly continuous and so are its compressions to H_1 and H_2 ; i.e. α and β are σ -weakly continuous.

(3) Since α, β are σ -weakly continuous their kernels are σ -weakly closed ideals in pMp and the existence of projections g_1, g_2 in the center of pMp and satisfying (ii) follows. We now turn to proving (i). Since $\theta = \alpha + \beta$ is injective, $g_1g_2 = 0$. So we write $h = p - (g_1 + g_2)$ and claim that h = 0. Write, for $i \in I$, $\tilde{u}_i = hu_i$ and $\tilde{v}_i = T(\tilde{u}_i)$ and note that Lemma 2.7 and Lemma 2.8 apply to \tilde{u}_i, \tilde{v}_i in place of u_i, v_i (since $\{\tilde{u}_i \tilde{u}_i^*\}$ is an orthogonal family and $\tilde{u}_i^* \tilde{u}_i = \tilde{u}_j^* \tilde{u}_j$ for all i, j). We also write $\tilde{r}_i = \tilde{v}_i \tilde{v}_i^*, \ d_i = \tilde{v}_i^* \tilde{v}_i$. Using Lemma 2.10 applied to T^{-1} , we find that $\tilde{v}_i = cv_i$ for some projection $c \leq v_i v_i^* = r_i$ and thus $\tilde{r}_i \in r_i N r_i$ and, by Lemma 2.11, \tilde{r}_i commutes with all r_j . In particular $\tilde{r}_i r_0 = r_0 \tilde{r}_i, \ i \in I$.

Now $r_0 \tilde{v}_i = \tilde{v}_i \tilde{v}_i r_0 \tilde{v}_i \in \tilde{r}_i N d_i = T(hu_i u_i^* M u_i^* u_i)$ and we can find $a = u_i u_i^* a u_i^* u_i$ such that $r_0 \tilde{v}_i = T(ha)$. Hence

$$\alpha(hau_i^*) = (r_i - r_0)T(ha)v_i^* = (r_i - r_0)r_0\tilde{v}_i\tilde{v}_i^* = 0.$$

But α , restricted to hMh is injective. Hence $hau_i^* = 0$ and also ha = 0 and $r_0\tilde{v}_i = T(ha) = 0$. But then $r_0\tilde{r}_i = 0$ for all i; i.e. $\tilde{r}_i \leq r_i - r_0$ and it follows that $\tilde{r}_i\tilde{r}_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$. Similar argument shows that $\tilde{d}_i\tilde{d}_j = 0$, $i \neq j$. For a given $i \in I$ and $j \neq i$,

$$\tilde{r}_i = \tilde{r}_i (I - \tilde{r}_j) = \tilde{v}_i \tilde{d}_j \tilde{v}_i^* = \tilde{v}_i \tilde{d}_j \tilde{d}_i \tilde{v}_i^* = 0.$$

But then $\tilde{v}_i = 0$ and, thus, $hu_i = 0$ for all $i \in I$. This shows that h = 0 and we are done.

It is now left to prove (iii): $c(g_1) + c(g_2) = I$. But since $g_1 + g_2 = p$ and c(p) = Iand $g_i \in Z(pMp)$ it is obvious.

Because of Lemma 2.4 it will suffice now, in order to prove Theorem 2.1 to restrict our attention to the cases $c(g_1) = I$ and $c(g_2) = I$. Since the proof is similar in these cases we now assume $c(g_1) = I$ (i.e. $g_2 = c(g_2) = 0$).

Lemma 2.20. When $c(g_1) = I$ (with g_1 as in Lemma 2.19) we have, for all $a \in pMp$ and $x \in pM(I-p)$,

$$T(ax) = \alpha(a)T(x).$$

Moreover, we have now $r_0 = 0$, α is a *-isomorphism of pMp onto rNr and T maps pM(I-p) onto rN(I-r) (i.e. r = q).

Proof. Now, that $g_2 = 0$, α is injective and, thus, a *-isomorphism onto $(r-r_0)N(r-r_0)$. But then we can repeat the argument of the proof of Lemma 2.19(3)(ii) (with p replacing h) to show that $r_0v_i = 0$ for all i. hence $r_0 = 0$ and α maps onto rNr. Now fix $x \in pM(I-p)$ with $x = u_iu_i^*x$. Write $x = x_1 + x_2$ with $x_1 = u_iu_i^*xu_i^*u_i$ and $x_2 = u_iu_i^*x(I-u_i^*u_i)$. We have $T(x_1) \in T(u_iu_i^*Mu_i^*u_i) = r_iNd_i$ (Lemma 2.9) and $T(x_2) = T(u_iu_i^*x_2 + x_2u_i^*u_i) = r_iT(x_2) + T(x_2)d_i$. However, for all $j \neq i$, $x_2u_j^* = 0$ (as $u_j^*u_j = u_i^*u_i$) and $u_j^*x_2 = 0$ (as $u_ju_j^*u_iu_i^* = 0$); hence (Lemma 2.9(3)) $T(x_2)v_j^* = 0$ and also $T(x_2)d_j = T(x_2)v_j^*v_j = 0$. But $d_j = d_i$ (as $d_j(I-d_i) = v_j^*r_iv_j = v_j^*r_0v_j = 0$) and we conclude that

$$T(x_2) = r_i T(x_2) \subseteq rN.$$

Hence $T(pM(I-p)) \subseteq rN$. But T(pM(I-p)) = qN(I-q); hence $qN(I-q) \subseteq rN$ while $r \leq q$. If $r \neq q$ then it follows from the fact that c(I-q) = I that $(q-r)N(I-q) \neq 0$ but this contradicts $qN(I-q) \subseteq rN$ and we get q = r.

We then conclude, from Corollary 2.18, that, given i, j, k in $I, a \in u_i u_i^* M u_j u_j^*$ and $x \in u_k u_k^* M (I - p)$, we have

$$T(ax) = \alpha(a)T(x).$$

This equality then holds for finite sums of such a, x. Since T is σ -weakly continuous by [Ho, Corollary 3.22] and α is σ -weakly continuous the equality holds for all $a \in pMp$ and $x \in pM(I-p)$.

Corollary 2.21. Assume
$$c(g_1) = I$$
. For all $x, y \in pM(I - p)$

$$T(x)T(y)^* = \alpha(xy^*).$$

Proof. This is [MS, Lemma 5.10] (which generalizes the result of Lance [L2, Theorem 3.5]).

Proposition 2.22. Assume $c(g_1) = I$ as above. Then there is a *-isomorphism

$$\gamma: (I-p)M(I-p) \longrightarrow (I-q)N(I-q)$$

with

- (i) γ is surjective.
- (ii) For $a \in (I-p)M(I-p)$ and $x \in pM(I-p)$,

$$T(xa) = T(x)\gamma(a).$$

(iii) For $x, y \in pM(I-p)$,

$$T(x)^*T(y) = \gamma(x^*y).$$

Proof. Suppose $N \subseteq B(H)$ (and the unit of N is I_H) and write $H_0 = \overline{\text{span}}\{T(x)^*h : x \in pM(I-p), h \in H\}$. Since T(pM(I-p)) = qN(I-q) and c(q) = I, it follows that $H_0 = (I-q)(H)$.

For $a \in (I-p)M(I-p)$ we define $\gamma(a)$ as an operator in $B(H_0)$ and assume that it is defined to be zero on $H \ominus H_0$. We define

$$\gamma(a)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} T(x_i)^* h_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(x_i a^*)^* h_i$$

where $x_i \in pM(I-p), h_i \in H$.

Note the following

$$\begin{split} \left\langle \sum T(x_i a^*)^* h_i, \sum T(x_i a^*)^* h_i \right\rangle &= \sum_{i,j} \left\langle T(x_j a^*) T(x_i a^*)^* h_i, h_j \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \left\langle \alpha(x_j a^* a x_i^*) h_i, h_j \right\rangle. \end{split}$$

Since the matrix $(x_j a^* a x_i^*) \in M_n(pMp)$ is majorized by the matrix $||a||^2 (x_j x_i^*)$ and α is a *-isomorphism,

$$\left(\alpha(x_j a^* a x_i^*)\right) \le \|a\|^2 \left(\alpha(x_j x_i^*)\right).$$

Hence

$$\begin{split} \left\|\sum T(x_i a^*)^* h_i\right\|^2 &\leq \|a\|^2 \sum \langle \alpha(x_j x_i^*) h_i, h_j \rangle \\ &= \left\|\sum T(x_i)^* h_i\right\|^2 \|a\|^2. \end{split}$$

It follows that $\gamma(a)$ is well defined and can be extended to an operator in B(H) with $\|\gamma(a)\| \leq \|a\|$. For $x_i \in pM(I-p)$, $h_i \in H$, i = 1, 2, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \gamma(a)T(x_{i})^{*}h_{1}, \ T(x_{2})^{*}h_{2} \rangle &= \langle T(x_{1}a^{*})^{*}h_{1}, \ T(x_{2})^{*}h_{2} \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha(x_{2}ax_{1}^{*})h_{1}, h_{2} \rangle = \langle T(x_{1})^{*}h_{1}, T(x_{2}a)^{*}h_{2} \rangle \\ &= \langle T(x_{1})^{*}h_{1}, \gamma(a^{*})T(x_{2})^{*}h_{2} \rangle \,. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\gamma(a^*) = \gamma(a)^*$. It is easy to check that γ is multiplicative and injective. Now suppose $b \in N'$ then for every $x \in pM(I-p), h \in H$,

$$\gamma(a)bT(x)^{*}h = \gamma(a)T(x)^{*}bh = T(xa^{*})^{*}bh = bT(xa^{*})^{*}h = b\gamma(a)T(x)^{*}h$$

Hence $\gamma(a) \in N$. Since $\gamma(a)$ is zero on $H \ominus H_0$, $\gamma(a) \in (I-q)N(I-q)$.

It follows from the definition that, for $a \in (I - p)M(I - p)$ and $x \in pM(I - p), \gamma(a)T(x)^* = T(xa^*)^*$; hence

$$T(x)\gamma(a) = T(xa).$$

This proves part (ii).

Now choose $z, t \in qN(I-q)$ and write $a = T^{-1}(z)^*T^{-1}(t) \in (I-p)M(I-p)$. Compute, for $x \in pM(I-p)$ and $h \in H$,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(a)T(x)^*h &= T\left(xT^{-1}(t)^*T^{-1}(z)\right)^*h = [\alpha(xT^{-1}(t)^*)z]^*h \\ &= [T(x)t^*z]^*h = z^*tT(x)^*h = z^*tT(x)^*h. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $z^*t \in \gamma((I-p)M(I-p))$. Since products of this form generate (I-q)N(I-q) as a von Neumann algebra and the image of γ is a von Neumann algebra, γ is surjective. This proves (i). We can now apply [MS, Lemma 5.10] to get (iii).

Remark. Note that γ is in fact equivalent to the representation on the internal tensor product $(I - p)Mp \otimes_{\alpha} H$.

Corollary 2.23. Assume $c(g_1) = I$. Then there is a *-isomorphism

$$\Psi: M \longrightarrow N$$

such that, for $a \in M$,

- (i) $\Psi(pap) = \alpha(pap) \in qNq$, (ii) $\Psi(pa(I-p)) = T(pa(I-p)) \in qN(I-q)$,
- (iii) $\Psi((I-p)a(I-p)) = \gamma((I-p)a(I-p)) \in (I-q)N(I-q),$
- (iv) $\Psi((I-p)ap) = T(pa^*(I-p))^* \in (I-q)Nq.$

Proof. The equations (i)-(iv) define Ψ and the properties of α and γ (see Lemma 2.20, Corollary 2.21 and Proposition 2.22) show that Ψ is indeed a *-isomorphism of M onto N.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. It was shown in Lemma 2.4 that, to prove Theorem 2.1, it will suffice to write the algebra as a direct sum (using central projections) of algebras for which Theorem 2.1 holds. In Lemma 2.5 we saw that we can assume that the algebra M and the projections p and I - p satisfy one of the conditions ((1), (2) or (3)) stated in that lemma. If condition (1) is satisfied then Theorem 2.1 follows from Lemma 2.6. So we can assume that either condition (2) or condition (3) is satisfied. Condition (3) is, in fact, condition (2) for p, I - p interchanged. It will suffice, therefore, to assume condition (2). We then find, in Lemma 2.19, two central projections, $c(g_1)$ and $c(g_2)$, with $c(g_1) + c(g_2) = I$ and (again, by referring to Lemma 2.4) we can assume that either $c(g_1) = I$ or $c(g_2) = I$. For the first case the theorem is proved in Corollary 2.23. In this case we get, in fact, that $e_2 = 0$ and the map, extending T, is a *-isomorphism. The proof of the other case, when $c(g_2) = I$, is similar and is omitted. In that case the map turns out to be a *-anti-isomorphism.

Remark 2.24. The map $\Phi + \Psi$ of Theorem 2.1 is an isometry of M onto N that extends T and maps pMp + (I - p)M(I - p) onto qNq + (I - q)N(I - q) and pM(I - p) onto qN(I - q). We write Λ for $\Phi + \Psi$.

Recall from the introduction that given a right self-dual Hilbert C^* -module X over a von Neumann algebra A, we can form the von Neumann linking algebra which can be written

$$\mathcal{L}_w(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{B} \begin{pmatrix} X \end{pmatrix} & X \\ \bar{X} & A \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\mathbb{B}(X)$ is the algebra of all bounded, adjointable A-linear maps on X and \overline{X} is the conjugate module (which is a left Hilbert C^* -module over A). It is known that this algebra is indeed a von Neumann algebra. We assume that our C^* -modules are full and this implies that we can write X as $p\mathcal{L}_w(X)(I-p)$ for a projection p with c(p) = c(I-p) = I. The following corollary then follows immediately from the theorem. **Corollary 2.25.** If X and Y are right selfdual C^* -modules over (possibly different) von Neumann algebras A, B and if $\mathcal{L}_w(X)$ and $\mathcal{L}_w(Y)$ are the von Neumann linking algebras of X and Y respectively, then every linear surjective isometry to a linear surjective isometry $\Lambda : \mathcal{L}_w(X) \to \mathcal{L}_w(Y)$.

Moreover, there is a central projection $z \in \mathcal{L}_w(X)$ such that if we write $\Psi = \Lambda | z \mathcal{L}_w(X)$ and $\Phi = \Lambda | (I - z) \mathcal{L}_w(X)$ then

(1) Ψ is a *-isomorphism onto $\Lambda(z)\mathcal{L}_w(Y)$. It defines a *-isomorphism Ψ_{11} : $z\mathbb{B}(X) \to \Lambda(z)\mathbb{B}(Y)$ and a *-isomorphism Ψ_{22} : $zA \to \Lambda(z)B$ such that, for $L \in \mathbb{B}(X)z$, $a \in Az$ and $x \in zX$, $y \in zX$,

$$T(Lxa) = \Psi_{11}(L)T(x)\Psi_{22}(a),$$

$$T(x)T(y)^* = \Psi_{11}(x \otimes y^*),$$

$$T(x)^*T(y) = \Psi_{22}(\langle x, y \rangle_A)$$

and

(2) Φ is a *-anti-isomorphism onto $\Lambda(I-z)\mathcal{L}_w(Y)$. It defines *-anti-isomorphisms $\Phi_{11}: (I-z)\mathbb{B}(X) \to \Lambda(I-z)B$ and $\Phi_{22}: (I-z)A \to \Lambda(I-z)\mathbb{B}(Y)$ such that, for $L \in \mathbb{B}(X)(I-z), x, y \in (I-z)X, a \in (I-z)A$,

$$T(Lxa) = \Phi_{22}(a)T(x)\Phi_{11}(L),$$

$$T(x)T(y)^* = \Phi_{22}(\langle x, y \rangle),$$

$$T(x)^*T(y) = \Phi_{11}(y \otimes x^*).$$

Corollary 2.26. If X, Y, A, B are as in Corollary 2.24 but we assume also that A is a factor then the surjective linear isometry $T : X \to Y$ can be extended to a map

$$\Lambda: \mathcal{L}_w(X) \to \mathcal{L}_w(Y)$$

which is either a *-isomorphism of or a *-anti-isomorphism.

Moreover, if X^t is any C^* -module that is isometric to X and such that the induced isometry from $\mathcal{L}_w(X^t)$ to $\mathcal{L}_w(X)$ is a *-anti-isomorphism, then Y is completely isometric to either X or X^t .

3. Isometries of Hilbert C^* -modules

Now let X and Y be right (full) Hilbert C^* -modules over the C^* -algebras A and B respectively and let $T: X \to Y$ be a surjective linear isometry. Write $\mathcal{L}(X)$ (and $\mathcal{L}(Y)$) for the linking algebra of X (and Y); i.e.

$$\mathcal{L}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K}(X) & X \\ \bar{X} & A \end{pmatrix}; \ \mathcal{L}(Y) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K}(Y) & Y \\ \bar{Y} & B \end{pmatrix}$$

where \bar{X} and \bar{Y} are the conjugate modules. \bar{X} is a left Hilbert C^* -module over A and \bar{Y} is over B. (See Section 1 for the definitions.) It is known that $\mathcal{L}(X)$ and $\mathcal{L}(Y)$ are C^* -algebras. Now the isometry $T : X \to Y$ induces an isometry $T^{**} : X^{**} \to Y^{**}$ (where X^{**} is the second dual of X) extending T. Write

$$M = \mathcal{L}(X)^{**}, \ N = \mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}$$

Then M (respectively N) is a von Neumann algebra. In fact it can be identified with the universal enveloping algebra of $\mathcal{L}(X)$ (respectively $\mathcal{L}(Y)$). To continue we note the following. **Lemma 3.1.** There is a projection $p \in \mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$ such that $p\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}(I-p)$ is the w^* -closure of $X \subseteq \mathcal{L}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$. Similarly, the w^* -closure of Y in $\mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}$ is $q\mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}(I-p)$ for some projection $q \in \mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}$. Moreover, c(p) = c(I-p) = I and similarly for q.

Proof. We can identify $\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$ with the σ -weak closure of $\pi_u(\mathcal{L}(X))$ where (π_u, H_u) is the universal representation of $\mathcal{L}(X)$. The w^* -topology of $\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$ is then the σ -weak topology of $\pi_u(\mathcal{L}(X))$. Write

$$\mathcal{I}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K}(X) & X \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \subseteq \mathcal{L}(X); \quad \mathcal{I}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \bar{X} & A \end{pmatrix} \subseteq \mathcal{L}(X).$$

Write M for the σ -weak closure of $\pi_u(\mathcal{L}(X))$. \mathcal{I}_1 and \mathcal{I}_2 are right ideals in $\mathcal{L}(X)$ and the σ -weak closures of \mathcal{I}_1 and \mathcal{I}_2 are of the form p_1M and p_2M respectively. In fact, $p_1 = \bigvee\{r(y) : y \in \pi_u(\mathcal{I}_1)\}$ and $p_2 = \bigvee\{r(z) : z \in \pi_u(\mathcal{I}_2)\}$ where r(y) is the range projection (in M) of y. The σ -weak closure of $\pi_u(X)$ is then $p_1M \cap (p_2M)^* =$ p_1Mp_2 . But it is clear that $p_1 + p_2 = I$ and, thus, writing $p = p_1$ we find that the σ -weak closure of $\pi_u(X)$ is pM(I - p). A similar argument works for Y. Finally note that MpM contains $\pi_u(\mathcal{L}(X)\mathcal{I}_1) = \pi_u(\mathcal{L}(X))$; hence is σ -weakly dense in Mand it follows that c(p) = I. The argument for $I - p(=p_2)$ is similar.

Since it follows from Banach space theory that X^{**} is isometrically isomorphic to the w^* -closure of X in $\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$ we conclude that T^{**} induces a surjective linear isometry

$$S: p\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}(I-p) \to q\mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}(I-q)$$

and S extends T (when we view X, Y as subspaces of $\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$ and $\mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}$ respectively). In particular, S maps X onto Y. Applying Theorem 2.1 to S we obtain the following.

Theorem 3.2. Let X be a right full Hilbert C^* -module over the C^* -algebra A and Y be a right full Hilbert C^* -module over B. Let $T : X \to Y$ be a surjective linear isometry. Then

(1) There is a surjective linear isometry

$$\Lambda_0: \mathcal{L}(X) \to \mathcal{L}(Y)$$

extending T and mapping $\mathbb{K}(X) \oplus A$ onto $\mathbb{K}(Y) \oplus B$.

(2) There is a projection f in the center of $\mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}$ such that the map

$$\Psi_0(a) = \Lambda_0(a)f, \quad a \in \mathcal{L}(X),$$

is a *-homomorphism and the map

$$\Phi_0(a) = \Lambda_0(a)(I - f), \quad a \in \mathcal{L}(X),$$

is a *-antihomomorphism.

Proof. Part (2) follows from Theorem 2.1 but in fact it is known whenever Λ_0 is an isometry of C^* -algebras (see [K] and [T, p. 188]). For part (1) we need only to notice that the isometry $\Lambda = \Psi + \Phi$, given by Theorem 2.1 and Remark 2.24 (mapping $\mathcal{L}(X)^{**}$ onto $\mathcal{L}(Y)^{**}$) maps $\mathcal{L}(X)$ onto $\mathcal{L}(Y)$. But we know from Corollary 2.25 that Ψ maps $\mathbb{K}(X)$ onto $\mathbb{K}(Y)$ since

$$\Psi(x \otimes y^*) = S(x) \otimes S(y)^* = T(x) \otimes T(y)^* \in \mathbb{K}(Y)$$

and similarly Ψ maps A onto B, X onto Y and \overline{X} onto \overline{Y} . The statements for Φ are similar (although here $\Phi(\mathbb{K}(X)) = B$, $\Phi(A) = \mathbb{K}(Y)$).

Remark 3.3. If we have X, Y and T as in Theorem 3.2 and we let Ψ_{11} define the restriction of Ψ_0 to $\mathbb{K}(X)$ and Ψ_{22} be the restriction of Ψ_0 to A, then it follows from the properties of Ψ_0 that both Ψ_{11} and Ψ_{22} are *-homomorphisms and

$$T(Kxa)f = \Psi_{11}(K)T(x)\Psi_{22}(a), \quad a \in A, \ K \in \mathbb{K}(X), \ x \in X.$$

Similarly, we get *-antihomomorphisms Φ_{11} and Φ_{22} with

$$T(Kxa)(I-f) = \Phi_{22}(a)T(x)\Phi_{11}(K), \quad a \in A, \ K \in \mathbb{K}(X), \ x \in X.$$

Corollary 3.4. Suppose X and Y are as in Theorem 3.2 and $T: X \to Y$ is a 2isometry (i.e. the map $I \otimes T$ that maps $M_2 \otimes X$ onto $M_2 \otimes Y$ is an isometry). Then the map Λ_0 of Theorem 3.2 is a *-isomorphism (i.e. $\Lambda_0 = \Psi_0$, f = I) and if we let Ψ_{11} and Ψ_{22} be the maps induced by $\Lambda_0 = \Psi_0$ on $\mathbb{K}(X)$ and on A respectively (so that $\Psi_{11}: \mathbb{K}(X) \to \mathbb{K}(Y)$ and $\Psi_{22}: A \to B$), then Ψ_{11} and Ψ_{22} are *-isomorphisms and

- (i) $T(Lxa) = \Psi_{11}(L)T(x)\Psi_{22}(a), \quad L \in \mathbb{K}(X), \ a \in A, \ x \in X,$
- (ii) $T(x)^*T(y) = \Psi_{22}(\langle x, y \rangle), \quad x, y \in X,$
- (iii) $T(x)T(y)^* = \Psi_{11}(x \otimes y^*), \quad x, y \in X.$

Proof. Write T_2 for the isometry $T_2: M_2 \otimes X \to M_2 \otimes Y$. Fix

$$x = e_{12} \otimes x_0, \ y = e_{11} \otimes y_0, \ z = e_{21} \otimes z_0$$
 in $M_2 \otimes X$.

Since T_2 satisfies Lemma 2.2,

$$T_2(xy^*z + zy^*x) = T_2(x)T_2(y)^*T_2(z) + T_2(z)T_2(y)^*T_2(x).$$

But $xy^*z = 0$ and $T_2(x)T_2(y)^*T_2(z) = 0$. This implies that $T_2(e_{22} \otimes z_0y_0^*x_0) = T_2(zy^*x) = T_2(z)T_2(y)^*T_2(x) = e_{22} \otimes T(z_0)T(y_0)^*T(x_0)$. Hence $T(z_0y_0^*x_0) = T(z_0)T(y_0)^*T(x_0)$ for all x_0, y_0, z_0 in X. We again write X^{**} as pM(I-p) $(M = \mathcal{L}(X)^{**})$ and Y^{**} as qN(I-q) $(N = \mathcal{L}(Y)^{**})$. We get an isometry $S: pM(I-p) \to qN(I-q)$ extending T. Clearly this extension still satisfies

$$S(zy^*x) = S(z)S(y)^*S(x), \quad x, y, z \in pM(I-p).$$

We can now apply the results of the previous section to S. As in Lemma 2.5, M can be decomposed into a direct sum of von Neumann algebras each satisfying one of the conditions stated in Lemma 2.5. If condition (1) holds then, using the proof of Lemma 2.6 we see that the map induced on the linking algebra is a *-isomorphism. Suppose now that condition (2) holds. Let $\{u_i\}$ be as in this condition and write $v_i = S(u_i), r_i = S(u_i)S(u_i)^*$ and $d_i = S(u_i)^*S(u_i)$. We have, for $i \neq j$,

$$0 = S(u_i u_i^* u_j) = S(u_i) S(u_i)^* S(u_j).$$

Hence $r_i r_j = 0$. It follows form Lemma 2.7 that $d_i = d_j$ for all i, j. It then follows that the map β , defined in the discussion following Lemma 2.13, vanishes; i.e. $\theta = \alpha$. Hence the map induced on the linking algebra M is a *-isomorphism. A similar argument works if condition (3) (of Lemma 2.5) holds. Statements (i)-(iii) now follow.

Remark 3.5. Corollary 3.4 shows that a (surjective) 2-isometry from one C^* -Hilbert module to another is necessarily completely isometric. I do not know to what extent it holds for larger classes of operator spaces. The argument above (combined with Corollary 2.10 of [AS]) can be used to show that unital 2-isometries of operator algebras are multiplicative and for some classes of operator algebras this would imply that they are complete isometries.

Given a Hilbert space H there is more than one way to represent it as an operator space; i.e. one can find different operator spaces that are all isometric to H but they are pairwise non-completely-isometric. One representation of H as an operator space is when you fix an orthonormal basis $\{e_i\}$ for H and consider the space of all bounded operators in B(H) whose matrix with respect to this basis has non-zero entries only in the first column. This subspace of B(H) is isometric to H and is called the Hilbert column space, written H^c . One can write $H^c = B(\mathbb{C} e_1, H)$. Replacing the word "column" by the word "row" we get the Hilbert row space H^r (or $B(H, \mathbb{C} e_1)$). It is known that these two operator spaces are isometric but not completely isometric. Both operator spaces have a natural Hilbert C^* -module structure. H^c is a C^* -module over the algebra \mathbb{C} and H^r is a C^* -module over the algebra K(H), the compact operators on H. But in addition to H^c and H^r there are many other different (i.e. not completely isometric) representations of H as an operator space (see [Pi]). The following corollary shows that none of these is a Hilbert C^* -module.

Corollary 3.6. Let H be a fixed Hilbert space and X be a Hilbert C^* -module over a C^* -algebra A that is isometric (as a Banach space) to H. Then either A is isomorphic to \mathbb{C} and X is completely isometrically isomorphic to H^c or A is *isomorphic to K(H) and X is completely isometrically isomorphic to H^r .

Proof. Assume, for simplicity, that H is infinite dimensional. Write $T : H^c \to X$ for the linear surjective isometry of H^c onto X. From Theorem 3.2 it follows that we can extend T to an isometry

$$\Lambda_0: \mathcal{L}(H^c) = \begin{pmatrix} K(H) & H^c \\ \overline{H^c} & \mathbb{C} \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K}(X) & X \\ \overline{X} & A \end{pmatrix}.$$

But $\mathcal{L}(H^c)$ is *-isomorphic to K(H) and thus $\mathcal{L}(H^c)^{**}$ is a factor. Hence Λ_0 is either a *-isomorphism or a *-anti-isomorphism. In the former case Λ_0 maps \mathbb{C} onto A and H^c onto X and is a complete isometry. In the latter case we consider the map τ

$$\tau: \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{C} & H^r \\ \overline{H^r} & K(H) \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} K(H) & H^c \\ \overline{H^c} & \mathbb{C} \end{pmatrix}$$

defined by

$$\tau \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & y \\ \bar{z} & K \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} K^t & y^t \\ \overline{z^t} & \lambda \end{pmatrix}, \quad y, z \in H^r, \ K \in K(H), \ \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$$

(where K^t is the transpose of K and y^t is the transpose of y). Then τ is a *-antiisomorphism and $\Lambda_0 \circ \tau$ is then a *-isomorphism that maps, completely isometrically, K(H) onto A and H^r onto X.

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