## RIGHT $H^{*}$-ALGEBRAS

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A Banach algebra $A$ is a right $H^{*}$-algebra in case $A$ is a Hilbert space and for each $x$ in $A$ there is an $x^{*}$ in $A$ such that $(x y, z)=\left(x, z y^{*}\right)$ for every $y$ and $z$ in $A$, i.e., $R_{y}^{*}=R_{y^{*}}$. Ambrose ${ }^{1}$ [1] determined the structure of $A$ under the additional assumption that $L_{x}^{*}=L_{x}{ }^{*}$. The purpose of this note is to offer modifications of some of the arguments of Ambrose which will yield the structure of right $H^{*}$-algebras which are proper in the sense that $A x=0$ implies that $x=0$. Briefly, our result is that a proper right $H^{*}$-algebra is merely a proper $H^{*}$-algebra in which the norm has been changed to a certain equivalent norm in each of the simple components. As a consequence we observe that a proper right $H^{*}$-algebra is a dual ring in the sense of Kaplansky [2].

We are indebted first to H. T. Muhly whose question on the independence of the assumptions of Ambrose was the starting point of this investigation, and second to Kaplansky who pointed out to us that the continuity of the mapping $x \rightarrow x^{*}$ in a proper right $H^{*}$-algebra (which we had originally assumed) is a consequence of a very interesting result of C. E. Rickart [3, Lemma 5.3].

As an example of a right $H^{*}$-algebra, consider a set $J$, a fixed com-plex-valued function $\alpha(i, j)$ on $J \times J$ which satisfies

$$
\begin{gather*}
\alpha(j, i)=\bar{\alpha}(i, j)  \tag{1}\\
\sum_{i}|x(i)|^{2} \leqq \sum_{i, j} x(i) \alpha(i, j) \bar{x}(j) \leqq M \sum_{i}|x(i)|^{2} \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $M$ is a real number greater than 1 and $x(i)$ is a complexvalued function on $J$. The set $A$ of all complex-valued functions $a(i, j)$ on $J \times J$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i, j, l} a(j, i) \alpha(j, l) \bar{a}(l, i)<+\infty \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

becomes a Hilbert space if we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
(a, b)=\sum_{i, j, l} a(j, i) \alpha(j, l) b(l, i) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We complete the definition of $A$ as in Example 1 of [1]. The inequalities (2) insure that multiplication is continuous and that the mapping $x \rightarrow x^{*}$ is onto $A$. We call this example a matric right $H^{*}$ -

[^0]algebra, and note that $A$ will be an $H^{*}$-algebra if and only if all $\alpha(i, j)$ are equal (and that then our example is Example 1 of [1]). We shall prove that every proper right $H^{*}$-algebra is a direct sum (in the sense of [1]) of matric right $H^{*}$-algebras.

From now on let $A$ be a proper right $H^{*}$-algebra. Then $x \rightarrow x^{*}$ is an involutorial anti-automorphism of $A$ and $x x^{*}=0$ (or $x^{*} x=0$ ) implies that $x=0$. If $R$ is a right ideal of $A$, so is $R^{P}$. In order to establish the same property for two-sided ideals of $A$, we have the following lemmas.

Lemma 1. If $L$ is a left ideal of $A$ and $A x \subseteq L$, then $x \in L$.
Proof. Write $x=x_{1}+x_{2}$ with $x_{1} \in L, x_{2} \in L^{P}$. Then $z x=z x_{1}+z x_{2}$ and $z x_{2} \in L$ for every $z$ in $A$. Then $\left(z x_{2}, x_{2}\right)=0=\left(z, x_{2} x_{2}^{*}\right)$ for every $z$ in $A$, and $x_{2}=0, x=x_{1} \in L$.

Lemma 2. If $I$ is a two-sided ideal of $A$, then $I^{*}=I$.
Proof. We have $x y=0$ for every $x \in I^{P}$ and $y \in I$ because $I^{P}$ is a right ideal. Hence $(x y, z)=\left(x, z y^{*}\right)=0$ for every $z$ in $A$ and $A y^{*} \subseteq I$, $y^{*} \in I$ by Lemma 1. Thus $I^{*} \subseteq I$ and $I=I^{* *} \subseteq I^{*}, I^{*}=I$.

Lemma 3. If $I$ is a two-sided ideal of $A$, so is $I^{P}$.
Proof. We have $\left(A I^{P}, I\right)=\left(A, I\left(I^{P}\right)^{*}\right)=\left(A,\left(I^{P} I^{*}\right)^{*}\right)=(A, 0)=0$, $A I^{P} \subseteq I^{P}$.

The proof of Theorem 3.1 of [1] shows that if $x \neq 0$ in $A$, then the subalgebras generated by $x^{*} x$ and by $x x^{*}$ each contain a nonzero sa idempotent. We shall call an idempotent $e \in A w$-primutive in case $e$ is not the sum of two doubly orthogonal sa idempotents.

Lemma 4. The sa idempotent e of $A$ is $w$-primitive iff $e A$ is a minimal right ideal of $A$.

Proof. Let $R$ be a right ideal of $A$ such that $0 \subset R \subset e A$. Then $R$ contains a sa idempotent $f$ and $e=\lambda f+g$ with $(f, g)=0$ and $\lambda \in C$. Hence $e f=f=\lambda f+g f$ and $(1-\lambda) f=g f$. But $(g f, f)=(g, f)=0$ so that $\lambda=1$ and $g f=0$. Since $g$ is $s a, f g=0$, and $e g=g=g^{2}$. If $g=0$, then $e=f$ and $e A=f A \subseteq R$, a contradiction. We have proved that $e$ is not $w$-primitive if $A e$ is not minimal. The converse is clear.

Lemma 5. Every sa idempotent $e$ in $A$ is a sum of a finite number of doubly orthogonal w-primitive sa idempotents which are in eA $\cap A e$.

Proof. Assume, inductively, that $e=\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{i}$, where $f_{i}$ ( $i=1, \cdots, n$ ) are doubly orthogonal idempotents, and that $f_{1}=g_{1}$ $+h_{1}$, where $g_{1}$ and $h_{1}$ are doubly orthogonal $s a$ idempotents. Then
$f_{1} g_{1}=g_{1} f_{1}=g_{1}$ and $f_{1} h_{1}=h_{1} f_{1}=h_{1}$ so that, for $k \neq 1, f_{k} g_{1}=f_{k} f_{1} g_{1}=0$, and likewise $g_{1} f_{k}=h_{1} f_{k}=f_{k} h_{1}=0$. Then also $\left(g_{1}, f_{k}\right)=\left(g_{1}, f_{k} g_{1}\right)=\left(h_{1}, f_{k}\right)=0$, and $g_{1}, h_{1}, f_{2}, \cdots, f_{n}$ are doubly orthogonal sa idempotents. This process cannot go on forever since the norm of an idempotent is at least one. Since $e f_{i}=f_{i} e=f_{i}$, we see that $f_{i} \in e A \cap A e$.

Now choose (using Zorn's lemma) a maximal set $\left\{e_{j} ; j \in J\right\}$ of doubly orthogonal $w$-primitive sa idempotents of $A$. Let $R$ be the closure of the algebraic union of the right ideals $R_{j}=e_{j} A$ for $j \in J$. Suppose that the left annihilator $L$ of $R$ is nonzero. Then $L$ has a sa idempotent $e$ and hence also a $w$-primitive sa idempotent $g$, by Lemma 5. But then $g e_{j}=0,0=\left(g e_{j}\right)^{*}=e_{j} g$, and $\left(g, e_{j}\right)=\left(g, e_{j} g\right)=0$ for every $j \in J$. This contradicts the maximality of $\left\{e_{j} ; j \in J\right\}$. Hence $L=0$ and this is equivalent to $\left(A R^{*}\right)^{P}=0, A R^{*}=A, R A=A \subseteq R, A=R$. (Cf. [2].)

We can now insert the word "right" before each of the $H^{*}$ 's in the statement of Theorem 4.2 of [1]. We delete the first and third paragraphs of the proof given by Ambrose and add the following remarks: If $I\left(R_{j}\right) \neq I\left(R_{i}\right)$, then $I\left(R_{i}\right) I\left(R_{j}\right)=0,0=\left(I\left(R_{i}\right) I\left(R_{j}\right), A\right)$ $=\left(I\left(R_{i}\right), A I\left(R_{j}\right)\right)$, by Lemma 2. Thus $A I\left(R_{j}\right) \subseteq\left(I\left(R_{i}\right)\right)^{P}$, and Lemma 1 yields $I\left(R_{j}\right) \subseteq\left(I\left(R_{i}\right)\right)^{P}$. It follows that $A$ is the direct sum (in the sense of [1]) of the simple right $H^{*}$-algebras $I\left(R_{j}\right)$.

Now apply the Pierce decomposition in a simple right $H^{*}$-algebra $A$ and define matric units $e_{i j}$ as in [1]. However, we have only that $\left(e_{i j}, e_{k l}\right)=0$ for $j \neq l$ and $\left(e_{j i}, e_{l i}\right)=\left(e_{j k}, e_{l k}\right)=\alpha(j, l)=\bar{\alpha}(l, j)$ for all $i, j, k, l \in J$. To see that $A_{i j}$ span $A$, we first write ${ }^{2} x=\sum_{j} e_{j} x$, then $x_{j}^{*}=\sum_{i} e_{i} u_{i j}, x_{j}=\sum_{i} u_{i j}^{*} e_{j}^{*}, x=\sum_{i j} e_{j} u_{i j}^{*} e_{i}$, where we have used the continuity of multiplication and of the mapping $x \rightarrow x^{*}$. Then, as in [1], $x=\sum_{i j} a_{i j} e_{i j}$, where the $a_{i j}$ are complex numbers uniquely determined by $x$. We easily find that (1), (3), and (4) hold. We then obtain the inequalities (2) from $\|x y\| \leqq\|x\|\|y\|$ and the continuity of the mapping $x \rightarrow x^{*}$. As in [1], it is now clear that $A$ is isomorphic and isometric with a matric right $H^{*}$-algebra.
(Added June 23, 1952.) At the suggestion of the referee, we shall give an indication of our proof of (2). We first show that every finite principal submatrix of $\alpha$ has characteristic values which are greater than or equal to 1 . Let $\sigma=\left(j_{p} ; p=1, \cdots, m\right)$ be a finite subset of $J$

[^1]and let $\alpha_{\sigma}$ be the corresponding principal submatrix of $\alpha$. Then $\beta=u^{*} \alpha_{\sigma} u=\operatorname{diag}\left(\beta_{1}, \cdots, \beta_{m}\right)$ for a suitable unitary matrix $u$. Let $X_{p}$ be the $m$-rowed square matrix with 1 in the ( $p, p$ ) position and zeros elsewhere $(p=1, \cdots, m)$. Then $\bar{u} X_{p} u^{T}$ is idempotent and the corresponding element $f_{p}$ of $A$ is also idempotent. It is also easy to see that $\left\|f_{p}\right\|^{2}=\operatorname{trace}\left(u X_{p} u^{*} \alpha_{o} u X_{p} u^{*}\right)=\beta_{p} \geqq 1(p=1, \cdots, m)$. Now let $\pi_{n}(n=1,2, \cdots)$ be a sequence of finite subsets of $J$ and suppose that the corresponding principal submatrices of $\alpha$ have characteristic values which are not bounded. Then, if we set $\sigma_{n}$ $=\mathrm{U}\left(\pi_{m} ; m=1, \cdots, n\right)$, the principal submatrices $\alpha_{n}$ of $\alpha$ corresponding to $\sigma_{n}$ will also have characteristic values which are not bounded. We then have $\beta_{n}=u_{n}^{*} \alpha_{n} u_{n}=\operatorname{diag}\left(\beta_{1 n}, \cdots, \beta_{k_{n}}\right)$ for suitable unitary matrices $u_{n}$, and by deleting certain of the $\sigma_{n}$, we may assume that $\beta_{k_{n} n} \geqq 2^{2 n}$, while $1 \leqq \beta_{1 n} \leqq s$ for all $n$ and some fixed $s$. Let $X_{n}$ be the $k_{n}$-rowed square matrix with $1 / 2^{n}$ in the ( $1, k_{n}$ ) position and zeros elsewhere, and let $x_{n}$ in $A$ correspond to $\bar{u}_{n} X_{n} u_{n}^{T}$. Then $\left\|x_{n}\right\|^{2}$ $=\operatorname{trace}\left(X_{n}^{T} \beta_{n} X_{n}\right)=\beta_{1 n} / 2^{2 n}$, while $\left\|x_{n}^{*}\right\|^{2}=\operatorname{trace}\left(X_{n} \beta_{n} X_{n}^{T}\right)=\beta_{k_{n} n} / 2^{2 n}$. Thus $x_{n}$ approaches 0 while $x_{n}^{*}$ does not approach zero and this is contrary to the continuity of the involution. Armed with these facts, it is an elementary exercise to complete the proof of (2).

## References

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2. I. Kaplansky, Dual rings, Ann. of Math. (2) vol. 49 (1948) pp. 689-701.
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[^0]:    Presented to the Society, April 26, 1952; received by the editors May 5, 1952.
    ${ }^{1}$ The numbers in brackets denote the references at the end of the paper.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ (June 23, 1952.) The following neat proof of this expression is due to the referee. Since the involution is continuous, it suffices to show that $x=\sum_{j} x e_{j}$. We set $x_{\sigma}$ $=\sum\left(x e_{i} ; j \in \sigma\right)$ for a finite subset $\sigma$ of $J$ and compute $\left.\left\|x_{\sigma}\right\|^{2}=\sum_{i}\left\|x e_{j}\right\|^{2} ; j \in \sigma\right)$ and $\left\|x-x_{o}\right\|^{2}=\|x\|^{2}-\left\|x_{o}\right\|^{2} \geqq 0$. It is an easy consequence that $\sum_{i} x e_{j}$ converges unconditionally to an element $y$ of $A$ for which $(x-y) e_{j}=0$ for every $j \in J$. But then $x-y=0$, as desired.

