

# Coposinormality of the Cesàro matrices

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**Abstract.** It is already known that the Cesàro matrices of orders one and two are coposinormal operators on  $\ell^2$ . Here it is shown that the Cesàro matrices of all orders are coposinormal; the proof employs positivity, achieved by means of a diagonal interrupter, and makes use of the Zeilberger's algorithm and computational assistance by Maple™.

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## 1. Introduction

Let  $a := \{a(n)\}_{n \geq 0}$  be a sequence of nonnegative numbers with  $a(0) > 0$ . Put  $S(n) = \sum_{j=0}^n a(j)$ . The Nörlund matrix  $M = [m(i, j)]_{i, j \geq 0}$  is an infinite lower triangular matrix defined by

$$m(i, j) = \begin{cases} a(i-j)/S(i) & \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq i \\ 0 & \text{for } j > i. \end{cases}$$

For a real number  $\alpha \geq 1$ , the Cesàro matrix of order  $\alpha$ , denoted by  $C(\alpha)$ , is generated by  $a_\alpha(n) = \binom{n+\alpha-1}{\alpha-1}$ . (See [10, p. 442].) In this case,

$$S_\alpha(n) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{j+\alpha-1}{\alpha-1} = \binom{n+\alpha}{\alpha}.$$

For  $j \leq i$ , the  $(i, j)^{th}$  entry of  $C(\alpha)$  is given by

$$m_\alpha(i, j) = \frac{\binom{i-j+\alpha-1}{\alpha-1}}{\binom{i+\alpha}{\alpha}} = \frac{\alpha \Gamma(i-j+\alpha) \Gamma(i+1)}{\Gamma(i-j+1) \Gamma(i+\alpha+1)}. \quad (1.1)$$

We shall consider  $C(\alpha)$  as an operator on  $\ell^2$ . Stirling's approximation of the Gamma function shows the existence of a constant  $K_\alpha$  independent of  $i$  and  $j$  such that

$$m_\alpha(i, j) \leq K_\alpha \frac{(i-j+1)^{\alpha-1}}{(i+1)^\alpha} \leq \frac{K_\alpha}{i+1} = K_\alpha m_1(i, j).$$

Here  $m_1(i, j)$  is the  $(i, j)^{th}$  entry of the Cesàro matrix of order one,  $C(1)$ . It is well known that  $C(1)$  gives rise to a bounded operator on  $\ell^2$ . As a consequence, for all  $\alpha \geq 1$ , the operator  $C(\alpha)$  is bounded on  $\ell^2$  and  $\|C(\alpha)\| \leq K_\alpha \|C(1)\|$ .

If  $\mathcal{B}(H)$  denotes the space of all bounded linear operators on a Hilbert space  $H$ , then the operator  $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$  is *hyponormal* if

$$\langle (A^*A - AA^*)f, f \rangle \geq 0$$

for all  $f \in H$ . The operator  $A \in \mathcal{B}(H)$  is said to be *posinormal* (see [2, 6]) if

$$AA^* = A^*PA$$

for some positive operator  $P \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ , called the *interrupter*. The operator  $A$  is *coposinormal* if  $A^*$  is posinormal. Hyponormal operators are necessarily posinormal, but they need not be coposinormal, as the unilateral shift illustrates.

First, consider  $C(1)$ , whose entries  $m_{ij}$  are given by

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{i+1} & \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq i \\ 0 & \text{for } j > i. \end{cases}$$

In [6] it was observed that  $C(1)$  satisfies

$$C(1)C(1)^* = C(1)^*P_1C(1)$$

where

$$P_1 \equiv \text{diag} \left\{ \frac{n+1}{n+2} : n \geq 0 \right\};$$

therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle (C(1)^*C(1) - C(1)C(1)^*)f, f \rangle &= \langle (C(1)^*C(1) - C(1)^*P_1C(1))f, f \rangle \\ &= \langle (I - P_1)C(1)f, C(1)f \rangle \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

for all  $f \in \ell^2$ , so  $C(1)$  is a hyponormal operator on  $\ell^2$ . In this manner posinormality was used to give a proof of hyponormality for  $C(1)$  that is different from an earlier one found in [1]. The coposinormality of  $C(1)$  was demonstrated in [6].

Next, consider  $C(2)$ , the Cesàro matrix of order 2, whose entries  $m_{ij}$  given by

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{2(i+1-j)}{(i+1)(i+2)} & \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq i \\ 0 & \text{for } j > i. \end{cases}$$

It was recently discovered in [8] that  $C(2)$  satisfies

$$C(2)C(2)^* = C(2)^*P_2C(2)$$

where

$$P_2 \equiv \text{diag} \left\{ \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{(n+3)(n+4)} : n \geq 0 \right\}$$

with

$$I - P_2 \geq 0,$$

so  $C(2)$  is also hyponormal on  $\ell^2$ . The computations in [8] centered on coposinormality, and the diagonal form of  $P_2$  emerged somewhat serendipitously from those computations.

These observations led the second author to conjecture in [9] that for all integer values of  $\alpha \geq 1$  it holds true that

$$C(\alpha)C(\alpha)^* = C^*(\alpha)P_\alpha C(\alpha) \quad (1.2)$$

where

$$P_\alpha := \text{diag} \left\{ \frac{(n+1) \cdots (n+\alpha)}{(n+\alpha+1) \cdots (n+2\alpha)} : n \geq 0 \right\}. \quad (1.3)$$

The first author then set out to prove that conjecture, and this paper is the result.

It follows from (1.1) that  $m_\alpha(i, j)$  is well defined whenever  $\alpha$  is a complex number which is neither zero nor a negative integer. We may then define  $C(\alpha)$  for all such  $\alpha$ . With the help of Zeilberger's Algorithm [5, Chapter 6] and Maple™ [4], we are able to show in this note that, for a suitably defined diagonal operator  $P_\alpha$ ,

$$C(\alpha)C(\alpha)^* = C(\alpha)^*P_\alpha C(\alpha)$$

holds for all complex numbers  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, -1, -2, \dots\}$ .

## 2. Main Results

First the definition of  $P_\alpha$  must be modified appropriately when  $\alpha$  is not a positive integer. We define  $P_\alpha = \text{diag}\{d_\alpha(n) : n \geq 0\}$ , where

$$d_\alpha(n) = \frac{|\Gamma(n+\alpha+1)|^2}{\Gamma(n+1)\Gamma(n+\alpha+\bar{\alpha}+1)}. \quad (2.1)$$

In the case  $\alpha = 1$  (respectively,  $\alpha = 2$ ), our matrix  $P_\alpha$  coincides with  $P_1$  (respectively,  $P_2$ ) as specified in the introduction.

For any complex number  $\alpha$  with a positive real part, we have  $d_\alpha(n) > 0$ , and an application of Cauchy-Schwarz's inequality shows that  $d_\alpha(n) \leq 1$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(n+1)\Gamma(n+\alpha+\bar{\alpha}+1) &= \left( \int_0^\infty t^n e^{-t} dt \right) \left( \int_0^\infty t^{n+\alpha+\bar{\alpha}} e^{-t} dt \right) \\ &\geq \left( \int_0^\infty t^{n+(\alpha+\bar{\alpha})/2} e^{-t} dt \right)^2 \\ &= \left( \int_0^\infty |t^{n+\alpha}| e^{-t} dt \right)^2 \\ &\geq \left| \int_0^\infty t^{n+\alpha} e^{-t} dt \right|^2 = |\Gamma(n+\alpha+1)|^2. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $P_\alpha$  is a positive contractive operator on  $\ell^2$ . Furthermore, the well-known asymptotic behavior of the Gamma function shows that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_\alpha(n) = 1$ . As a result,  $P_\alpha$  is an invertible operator.

Our main result in this note is the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** *For any complex number  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, -1, -2, \dots\}$ , we have*

$$C(\alpha)C(\alpha)^* = C(\alpha)^*P_\alpha C(\alpha). \quad (2.2)$$

*Proof.* Since both sides of (2.2) are self-adjoint matrices, it suffices to show that for any integers  $v, i \geq 0$ , the  $(i, i+v)^{th}$  entries of both sides are equal. To this end, we shall fix  $v$ . For  $i \geq 0$ , let  $A(i)$  (respectively,  $B(i)$ ) be the  $(i, i+v)^{th}$  entry of  $C(\alpha)C(\alpha)^*$  (respectively,  $C(\alpha)^*P_\alpha C(\alpha)$ ). Clearly,  $A(i)$  and  $B(i)$  depend on  $v$  and  $\alpha$  as well but since only  $i$  changes in our argument below, we have dropped  $v$  and  $\alpha$  for the sake of simplifying the notation.

We compute, using the fact that  $\bar{\Gamma}(z) = \Gamma(\bar{z})$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, -1, -2, \dots\}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} A(i) &= \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} m_\alpha(i, \ell) \cdot \bar{m}_\alpha(i+v, \ell) \\ &= \sum_{\ell=0}^i \frac{\alpha \Gamma(i-\ell+\alpha) \Gamma(i+1)}{\Gamma(i-\ell+1) \Gamma(i+\alpha+1)} \cdot \frac{\bar{\alpha} \Gamma(i+v-\ell+\bar{\alpha}) \Gamma(i+v+1)}{\Gamma(i+v-\ell+1) \Gamma(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)} \\ &= \frac{|\alpha|^2 \Gamma(i+1) \Gamma(i+v+1)}{\Gamma(i+\alpha+1) \Gamma(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)} \sum_{\ell=0}^i \frac{\Gamma(i-\ell+\alpha) \Gamma(i+v-\ell+\bar{\alpha})}{\Gamma(i-\ell+1) \Gamma(i+v-\ell+1)} \\ &= \frac{|\alpha|^2 \Gamma(i+1) \Gamma(i+v+1)}{\Gamma(i+\alpha+1) \Gamma(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)} \sum_{k=0}^i \frac{\Gamma(k+\alpha) \Gamma(k+v+\bar{\alpha})}{\Gamma(k+1) \Gamma(k+v+1)}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

The last equality follows from the change of indices  $k = i - \ell$ . Note that  $A(0) = \frac{\bar{\alpha}}{v+\bar{\alpha}}$ . Using the **ZeilbergerRecurrence** command in Maple™, we find that  $A(i)$  satisfies the recurrence relation

$$(i+\alpha+1)(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)A(i+1) - (i+1)(i+v+1)A(i) = |\alpha|^2. \quad (2.4)$$

To prove this, we use (2.3) with  $i+1$  in place of  $i$  and properties of the Gamma function to write

$$\begin{aligned} &(i+\alpha+1)(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)A(i+1) \\ &= \frac{|\alpha|^2 \Gamma(i+2) \Gamma(i+v+2)}{\Gamma(i+\alpha+1) \Gamma(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)} \sum_{k=0}^{i+1} \frac{\Gamma(k+\alpha) \Gamma(k+v+\bar{\alpha})}{\Gamma(k+1) \Gamma(k+v+1)} \\ &= |\alpha|^2 + \frac{|\alpha|^2 \Gamma(i+2) \Gamma(i+v+2)}{\Gamma(i+\alpha+1) \Gamma(i+v+\bar{\alpha}+1)} \sum_{k=0}^i \frac{\Gamma(k+\alpha) \Gamma(k+v+\bar{\alpha})}{\Gamma(k+1) \Gamma(k+v+1)} \\ &= |\alpha|^2 + (i+1)(i+v+1)A(i). \end{aligned}$$

The recurrence relation (2.4) then follows.

Let us now compute the  $(i, i+v)^{th}$  entry of the matrix  $C(\alpha)^*P_\alpha C(\alpha)$ , using the formulas (1.1) and (2.1),

$$B(i) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \bar{m}_\alpha(\ell, i) \cdot d_\alpha(\ell) \cdot m_\alpha(\ell, i+v) = \sum_{\ell=i+v}^{\infty} \bar{m}_\alpha(\ell, i) \cdot d_\alpha(\ell) \cdot m_\alpha(\ell, i+v)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{\ell=i+v}^{\infty} \frac{|\alpha|^2 \Gamma(\ell - i + \bar{\alpha}) \Gamma(\ell + 1) \Gamma(\ell - i - v + \alpha)}{\Gamma(\ell - i + 1) \Gamma(\ell - i - v + 1) \Gamma(\ell + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1)} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{|\alpha|^2 \Gamma(k + v + \bar{\alpha}) \Gamma(k + i + v + 1) \Gamma(k + \alpha)}{\Gamma(k + v + 1) \Gamma(k + 1) \Gamma(k + i + v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1)},
\end{aligned}$$

by the change of indices  $\ell = k + i + v$ . The **ZeilbergerRecurrence** command again shows that  $B(i)$  satisfies the same recurrence relation as  $A(i)$  does. That is,

$$(i + \alpha + 1)(i + v + \bar{\alpha} + 1)B(i + 1) - (i + 1)(i + v + 1)B(i) = |\alpha|^2. \quad (2.5)$$

This time, verifying (2.5) by a direct calculation does not seem easy. However, by following the Zeilberger's telescoping method and assistance by Maple™, we shall demonstrate that the above recurrence equation indeed holds. To do that, let  $F(i, k)$  be the summands in the series of  $B(i)$ . The command **Zeilberger** in Maple™ provides the following identity

$$\begin{aligned}
&(i + \alpha + 1)(i + v + \bar{\alpha} + 1)F(i + 1, k) - (i + 1)(i + v + 1)F(i, k) \\
&= (k + 1)(k + v + 1)F(i, k + 1) - k(k + v)F(i, k). \quad (2.6)
\end{aligned}$$

Divided by  $F(i + 1, k)$ , equation (2.6) boils down to

$$\begin{aligned}
&(i + \alpha + 1)(i + v + \bar{\alpha} + 1) - (i + 1)(i + v + 1) \frac{k + i + v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1}{k + i + v + 1} \\
&= (k + 1)(k + v + 1) \frac{(k + v + \bar{\alpha})(k + \alpha)}{(k + v + 1)(k + 1)} - k(k + v) \frac{k + i + v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1}{k + i + v + 1},
\end{aligned}$$

which can now be verified by a direct calculation, or by any symbolic calculator. From (2.6), summing in  $k = 0$  to  $\infty$  and noticing that the right hand side is telescoping, together with the fact that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} k(k + v)F(i, k) = |\alpha|^2,$$

we obtain (2.5). Now for  $i = 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
B(0) &= |\alpha|^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(k + v + \bar{\alpha}) \Gamma(k + \alpha)}{\Gamma(k + 1) \Gamma(k + v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1)} \\
&= |\alpha|^2 \frac{\Gamma(v + \bar{\alpha}) \Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1)} {}_2F_1(v + \bar{\alpha}, \alpha; v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1; 1) \\
&= |\alpha|^2 \frac{\Gamma(v + \bar{\alpha}) \Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(v + \alpha + \bar{\alpha} + 1)}{\Gamma(\alpha + 1) \Gamma(v + \bar{\alpha} + 1)} \\
&\quad \text{(by Gauss's Hypergeometric Theorem)} \\
&= \frac{\bar{\alpha}}{v + \bar{\alpha}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Here  ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; 1)$  denotes the hypergeometric series with upper parameters  $a, b$  and lower parameter  $c$ , evaluated at 1. Gauss's Hypergeometric Theorem

says that

$${}_2F_1(a, b; c; 1) = \frac{\Gamma(c)\Gamma(c-a-b)}{\Gamma(c-a)\Gamma(c-b)},$$

whenever  $c - a - b$  has a positive real part. We would like to mention that the proof of Gauss's Theorem and other identities involving hypergeometric series can be done using the WZ method. See [5] for more details.

Since  $A(0) = B(0)$ , and  $A(i)$  and  $B(i)$  satisfy the same recurrence relation, we conclude that  $A(i) = B(i)$  for all non-negative integers  $i$ , which completes the proof of the theorem.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.2.** *For all  $\alpha \geq 1$ ,  $C(\alpha)$  is a posinormal and hyponormal operator on  $\ell^2$ .*

We thank B. E. Rhoades for pointing out that the corollary above also follows from [11, Theorem 2].

**Corollary 2.3.** *For all  $\alpha \geq 1$ ,  $C(\alpha)$  is a coposinormal operator on  $\ell^2$ .*

*Proof.* Apply [7, Theorem 1(d)], using the fact that the interrupter  $P_\alpha$  in the proof of the theorem above is invertible.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.4.** *For all  $\alpha \geq 1$ , both  $C(\alpha)$  and  $C(\alpha)^*$  are injective and have dense range with*

$$\text{Ran}(C(\alpha)) = \text{Ran}(C(\alpha)^*).$$

*Proof.* Since  $C(\alpha)$  is posinormal, it follows from [6, Theorem 2.1 and Corollary 2.3] that

$$\text{Ran}(C(\alpha)) \subseteq \text{Ran}(C(\alpha)^*)$$

and

$$\text{Ker}(C(\alpha)) \subseteq \text{Ker}(C(\alpha)^*).$$

Since  $C(\alpha)^*$  is also known to be posinormal (by Corollary 2.3), the reverse inclusions must also hold; therefore,

$$\text{Ker}(C(\alpha)) = \text{Ker}(C(\alpha)^*)$$

and

$$\text{Ran}(C(\alpha)) = \text{Ran}(C(\alpha)^*).$$

It is easy to see that  $\text{Ker}(C(\alpha)) = \{0\}$ . Consequently, both  $C(\alpha)$  and  $C(\alpha)^*$  are one-to-one, and both have dense range.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.5.** *For all  $\alpha \geq 1$ ,  $C(\alpha)^k$  is both posinormal and coposinormal for each positive integer  $k$ .*

*Proof.* This follows from [3, Corollary 1(b)].  $\square$

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