## $N$ SUBSPACES

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Introduction. It is a well-known fact (cf., for instance Lemma 7.3.1 of [8], and also [2] and [4]) that if $M$ and $N$ are closed subspaces of a finite-dimensional Hilbert space, and if $M$ and $N$ are in 'generic' position (i.e., any two of the four subspaces $M, M^{\perp}, N, N^{\perp}$ have trivial intersection), then $N$ is the graph of a linear isomorphism of $M$ onto $M^{\perp}$. To be sure, there exist infinite-dimensional versions of this, where one must allow for unbounded operators in case the 'gap' between $M$ and $N$ is zero, in the sense of Kato [7]. (There is an extensive literature on pairs of subspaces, [2], [3], [4], [6] and [7], to cite a few; for a fairly extensive bibliography, see [3].)

This paper addresses itself to the case of $n(2 \leqq n<\infty)$ subspaces. Theorem 1 generalises the assertion of the preceding paragraph as follows: if $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ are closed subspaces of a Hilbert space $H$ such that $H$ is the algebraic direct sum of the $M_{i}$ 's, then there exists an orthogonal direct sum decomposition

$$
H=L_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{n}
$$

such that $M_{k}$ looks like the graph of a bounded linear transformation from $L_{k}$ into $L_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{k-1}$ for $1 \leqq k \leqq n$.

The orthogonal projection onto $M_{k}$ is explicitly computed in terms of the above operator, and this description is used to attack the problem of unitary equivalence for $n$-tuples of closed subspaces. In a certain 'generic' case (see Definition 1), the above problem reduces to the unitary equivalence problem for single operators. As a by-product of the above computations, one has a concrete description of the commutant $\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}^{\prime}$ (where $P_{i}=$ projection on $M_{i}$ ), which leads easily to examples of sets $\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$ of $n$ projections, with $n \geqq 3$, such that $\mathscr{B}(H)$ is generated as a von Neumann algebra by $\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$ but by no proper subset. (For a specific example with $n=3$, see [1].)

The final section of the paper applies the machinery developed earlier to solve the statistical problem of computing the canonical partial correlation coefficients between three sets of random variables (cf. [9]).

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Notation. Throughout this paper, the symbols $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ will denote closed subspaces of a (real or complex) Hilbert space $H$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=M_{1}+\ldots+M_{n} \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
M_{i} \cap \sum_{j \neq i} M_{j}=\{0\}
$$

(As a matter of convention, we shall employ the symbol

$$
H=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\oplus} L_{i}
$$

only when the subspaces $L_{i}$ are mutually orthogonal and together span. To distinguish from such an orthogonal direct sum, we shall say that

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}
$$

is an algebraic direct sum if the closed subspaces $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ satisfy condition (*)). For $1 \leqq k \leqq n$, define

$$
S_{k}=\sum_{j=1}^{k} M_{j}, \quad L_{k}=S_{k} \cap S_{k-1}^{\perp}
$$

with the understanding that $S_{0}=\{0\}$, so that $L_{1}=S_{1}$. It is clear that the $L_{k}$ 's are pairwise orthogonal subspaces of $H$ such that

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k} M_{j}=\stackrel{\oplus_{j=1}^{k}}{L_{j}}
$$

in particular,

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{k=1} L_{k} .
$$

(The passage from the $M_{k}$ 's to the $L_{k}$ 's may be viewed as a Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation process for subspaces.)

The orthogonal projections onto $M_{k}$ and $L_{j}$ will be denoted by $P_{k}$ and $E_{j}$ respectively. For $1 \leqq j \leqq k \leqq n$, define

$$
A_{j k}: M_{k} \rightarrow L_{j}
$$

by

$$
A_{j k} x=E_{j} x .
$$

Thus, $A_{j k}$ is just the operator $E_{j}$, but viewed as operating between the Hilbert spaces $M_{k}$ and $L_{j}$.

Finally, with respect to the decomposition

$$
H=\oplus_{j=1}^{\oplus} L_{j},
$$

let $P_{k}$ be represented by the operator matrix $P_{k}=\left(\left(C_{k, i j}\right)\right.$, where of course, $C_{k, i j}$ is the unique operator from $L_{j}$ to $L_{i}$ satisfying

$$
\left\langle C_{k, i j} x, y\right\rangle=\left\langle P_{k} x, y\right\rangle \quad \text { for all } x \text { in } L_{j}, y \text { in } L_{i} .
$$

## The main result.

Lemma 1. Fix $k \leqq n$. Then,

$$
C_{k, i j}= \begin{cases}A_{i k} A_{j k}^{*} & \text { if } 1 \leqq i, j \leqq k \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Since $M_{k} \subseteq L_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{k}$, it is clear that $C_{k, i j}=0$ if $i>k$ or $j>k$. So, fix $i, j \leqq k$. Note first that $A_{i k} A_{j k}^{*}$ is an operator from $L_{j}$ to $L_{i}$; for arbitrary $x \in L_{j}$ and $y \in L_{i}$, note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle A_{i k} A_{j k}^{*} x, y\right\rangle & =\left\langle E_{i} A_{j k}^{*} x, y\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle A_{j k}^{*} x, y\right\rangle \quad\left(\text { since } y \in L_{i}\right) \\
& =\left\langle A_{j k}^{*} x, P_{k} y\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle x, A_{j k} P_{k} y\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle x, E_{j} P_{k} y\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle x, P_{k} y\right\rangle \quad\left(\text { since }\left(x \in L_{j}\right)\right. \\
& =\left\langle P_{k} x, y\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2. For $1 \leqq k \leqq n, A_{k k}$ is an invertible operator from $M_{k}$ to $L_{k}$. Proof. Since

$$
L_{k} \subseteq \sum_{j=1}^{k} M_{j}
$$

it follows that $E_{k}$ maps $\sum_{j=1}^{k} M_{j}$ onto $L_{k}$. However,
and hence $E_{k}$ annihilates $\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} M_{j}$. It follows that $E_{k}$ maps $M_{k}$ onto $L_{k}$; i.e., $A_{k k}$ is onto.

Next, if $x \in M_{k}$ is such that $E_{k} x=0$, it follows that

$$
x \in M_{k} \cap L_{k}^{\perp}=M_{k} \cap \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} M_{j}
$$

which contradicts the standing assumption that $H$ is the algebraic direct sum of the $M_{j}$ 's, unless $x=0$; i.e., $A_{k k}$ is one-to-one.

Theorem 1. Let $M_{i}, L_{i}$ be as above. Then, there exist bounded operators $B_{j k}: L_{k} \rightarrow L_{j}$ for $1 \leqq j \leqq k \leqq n$ such that, with respect to the decomposition

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{j=1}{ }_{j} L_{j},
$$

one has, for $1 \leqq k \leqq n$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{k}=\left\{\left(B_{1 k} x, B_{2 k} x, \ldots, B_{k-1, k} x, x, 0, \ldots, 0\right): x \in L_{k}\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. With the notation already established, define

$$
B_{j k}=A_{j k} \circ A_{k k}^{-1}, \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq j \leqq k \leqq n
$$

The boundedness of $B_{j k}$ follows from Lemma 2 and the open mapping theorem. Observe also that, by the definition of the $A_{j k}$ 's and the $B_{j k}$ 's,

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{k} & =\left\{\left(A_{1 k} x, \ldots, A_{k-1, k} x, A_{k k} x, 0,0, \ldots, 0\right): x \in M_{k}\right\} \\
& =\left\{\left(B_{1 k} x, \ldots, B_{k-1, k} x, x, 0, \ldots, 0\right): x \in L_{k}\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

again by Lemma 2.
Remark 1. (a) Note that $B_{k k}=I_{L_{k}}$.
(b) In the converse direction to Theorem 1, note that if

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{j=1} L_{j}
$$

is an orthogonal direct sum decomposition of $H$, if $B_{j k}: L_{k} \rightarrow L_{j}$ are arbitrary bound operators, for $1 \leqq j<k \leqq n$, and if $M_{k}$ is defined by (1), then $H$ is the algebraic direct sum of the $M_{k}$ 's and the above process applied to the $M_{k}$ 's will yield the given $L_{j}$ 's and $B_{j k}$ 's.

Lemma 3. With respect to the decomposition

$$
H=\bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} L_{j},
$$

the projection $P_{k}$ onto $M_{k}$ is given by the operator matrix $\left(C_{k, i j}\right)$, where

$$
C_{k, i j}= \begin{cases}B_{i k}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1} B_{j k}^{*} & \text { for } 1 \leqq i, j \leqq k \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Note first that $B_{k k}=I_{L_{k}}$ and hence the operator

$$
\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}
$$

is invertible.
For $j \leqq k$, we have $A_{j k}=B_{j k} \circ A_{k k}$, by definition. So Lemma 1 shows that

$$
C_{k, i j}=B_{i k} \circ A_{k k} \circ A_{k k}^{*} \circ B_{j k}^{*} \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i, j \leqq k,
$$

and $C_{k, i j}=0$ if $i>k$ or $j>k$. Hence, to prove the lemma, it suffices to establish that

$$
A_{k k} \circ A_{k k}^{*}=\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1}
$$

To see this, start from the obvious equality

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k} A_{j k}^{*} \circ A_{j k}=I_{M_{k}}
$$

and substitute $A_{j k}=B_{j k} \circ A_{k k}$ to conclude

$$
I_{M_{k}}=\sum_{j=1}^{k} A_{k k}^{*} \circ B_{j k}^{*} \circ B_{j k} \circ A_{k k}=A_{k k}^{*}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{k} B_{j k}^{*} B_{j k}\right) A_{k k},
$$

whence

$$
A_{k k}^{*-1} \cdot A_{k k}^{-1}=\sum_{j=1}^{k} B_{j k}^{*} B_{j k},
$$

i.e.,

$$
\left(A_{k k} A_{k k}^{*}\right)^{-1}=\sum_{j=1}^{k} B_{j k}^{*} B_{j k},
$$

as desired.

## 2. The unitary equivalence problem.

Theorem 2. Let $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ (resp., $M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{n}^{\prime}$ ) be closed subspaces of $H$ such that $H$ is the algebraic direct sum of the $M_{i}$ 's (resp., $M_{i}^{\prime \prime} s$ ). Let

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{j=1}{ }_{j=1} L_{j} \quad\left(\text { resp., } H=\stackrel{n}{j=1}{ }_{j=1}^{L_{j}^{\prime}}\right)
$$

be the associated orthogonal decomposition, and let $B_{j k}: L_{k} \rightarrow L_{j}$ (resp., $\left.B_{j k}^{\prime}: L_{k}^{\prime} \rightarrow L_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ be the operators given by Theorem 1.
(a) If $U$ is a unitary operator on $H$ such that $U\left(M_{i}\right)=M_{i}^{\prime}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq n$, then $U\left(L_{i}\right)=L_{i}^{\prime}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq n$. If $U_{i}: L_{i} \rightarrow L_{i}^{\prime}$ is the restriction of $U$ to $L_{i}$, then

$$
U_{i} B_{i k}=B_{i k}^{\prime} U_{k} \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i<k \leqq n .
$$

(b) Conversely, if $U_{i}: L_{i} \rightarrow L_{i}^{\prime}$ are unitary operators such that

$$
U_{i} B_{i k}=B_{i k}^{\prime} U_{k} \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i<k \leqq n,
$$

then, there exists a unitary operator $U$ on $H$ such that

$$
U \mid L_{i}=U_{i} \text { and } U\left(M_{i}\right)=M_{i}^{\prime} \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i \leqq n .
$$

Proof. (a) If $U$ is a unitary operator on $H$ such that $U\left(M_{i}\right)=M_{i}^{\prime}$ for each $i$, it is easy to see that $U\left(L_{i}\right)=L_{i}^{\prime}$ for each $i$. The hypothesis $U\left(M_{k}\right)=M_{k}^{\prime}$ is clearly equivalent to $U P_{k}=P_{k}^{\prime} U$ (where, of course $P_{k}^{\prime}$ is the projection onto $M_{k}^{\prime}$ ). It follows now from Lemma 3, that, for $1 \leqq i, j \leqq k$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{i} B_{i k}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1} B_{j k}^{*}=B_{i k}^{\prime}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{\prime *} B_{l k}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} B_{j k}^{\prime *} U_{k} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $B_{k k}=I_{L_{k}}$ and $B_{k k}^{\prime}=I_{L_{k}^{\prime}}$, setting $i=j=k$ in (2) yields
(3) $U_{k}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1}=\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{\prime *} B_{l k}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} U_{k}$.

Setting $j=k$ in (2) and applying (3), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{i} B_{i k}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1} & =B_{i k}^{\prime}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{\prime *} B_{l k}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} U_{k} \\
& =B_{i k}^{\prime} U_{k}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

and consequently
(4) $U_{i} B_{i k}=B_{i k}^{\prime} U_{k}$.
(b) Since

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{\oplus} \stackrel{n}{\oplus} L_{i}=\stackrel{n}{\oplus}{ }_{i=1}^{\oplus} L_{i}^{\prime},
$$

it is clear that if $U_{i}: L_{i} \rightarrow L_{i}^{\prime}$ are unitary operators, then there exists a unique unitary operator $U$ on $H$ whose restriction to $L_{i}$ is $U_{i}$. Suppose, further, that the $U_{i}$ 's satisfy (4). Taking adjoints yields

$$
B_{i k}^{*} U_{i}^{*}=U_{k}^{*} B_{i k}^{*} ;
$$

multiplying this equation on the left and right by $U_{k}$ and $U_{i}$, respectively, we get
(5) $U_{k} B_{i k}^{*}=B_{i k}^{*} U_{i}$.

Hence,

$$
U_{k} B_{i k}^{*} B_{i k}=B_{i k}^{* *} U_{i} B_{i k}=B_{i k}^{\prime *} B_{i k}^{\prime} U_{k},
$$

for each $i$, whence,

$$
U_{k}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)=\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{\prime *} B_{l k}^{\prime}\right) U_{k} ;
$$

inversion now gives

$$
\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{*} B_{l k}\right)^{-1} U_{k}^{*}=U_{k}^{*}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{k} B_{l k}^{\prime *} B_{l k}^{\prime}\right)^{-1}
$$

pre and post multiplying this last equation by $U_{k}$ yields equation (3). A successive application of equations (4), (3) and (5) to the left side of equation (2) shows that equation (2) is valid. Hence, we have shown that

$$
U_{i} C_{k, i j}=C_{k, i j}^{\prime} U_{j},
$$

where, of course, $\left(C_{k, i j}^{\prime}\right)$ the matrix of $P_{k}^{\prime}$ in the decomposition

$$
H=\oplus_{i=1}^{\oplus} L_{i}^{\prime} .
$$

It follows at once that $U P_{k}=P_{k}^{\prime} U$, or, equivalently, that $U\left(M_{k}\right)=M_{k}^{\prime}$ for each $k$.

Notation. If $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}, L_{1}, \ldots, L_{n}$ and the $B_{j k}$ 's are as in Theorem 1, let $B$ be the operator on $H$ given, with respect to the decomposition

$$
H=\oplus_{j=1}^{n} L_{j},
$$

by the upper-triangular operator matrix

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & B_{12} & B_{13} \ldots & B_{1 n}  \tag{6}\\
0 & 0 & B_{23} & \ldots & B_{2 n} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & B_{3 n} \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
. & \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
. & \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Theorem 2 has the following obvious reformulation: If $\left\{M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{n}^{\prime}\right.$ ) are two $n$-tuples of subspaces, both yielding algebraic direct sum decomposition of $H$, if $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are the operator matrices associated to the two $n$-tuples via (6), then the $n$-tuples ( $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ ) and $\left(M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ are unitarily equivalent if and only if the matrices $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are unitarily equivalent via a 'block-diagonal' unitary matrix.

Since it would be desirable, if possible, to identify the unitary equivalence problem for the $n$-tuple ( $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ ) with the unitary equivalence problem for the associated $B$-operator, we shall now investigate the condition of block-diagonality of a unitary operator intertwining two $B$-operators.

Lemma 4. Let $B$ be the operator matrix given by (6). Suppose $B_{k-1, k}$ is one-to-one, for $1<k \leqq n$. Then,

$$
\operatorname{ker} B^{k}=L_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{k}, \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq k \leqq n
$$

Proof. First consider ker $B$. Let $B x=0$, where $x$ is given by the column vector $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{\prime}$ (the prime denoting transpose). Then, for $1 \leqq j \leqq n-1$,

$$
\sum_{k=j+1}^{n} B_{j k} x_{k}=0
$$

For $j=n-1$, this is $B_{n-1, n} x_{n}=0$, which implies $x_{n}=0$, by the assumed injectivity. If, inductively, it has been shown that $x_{n}=\ldots=x_{j+2}=0$, the above equation becomes

$$
B_{j, j+1} x_{j+1}=0
$$

which again forces $x_{j+1}=0$. Thus, we conclude that $x_{2}=\ldots=x_{n}=0$, or in other words, that ker $B=L_{1}$.

To discuss the case $k>1$, the following bit of terminology will help; for any $n \times n$ matrix $\left(A_{i j}\right)$ and $1 \leqq j \leqq n$, let us call $\left(A_{1 j}, A_{2, j+1}, \ldots\right.$, $A_{n-j+1, n}$ ) the $j$-th diagonal of the matrix. Thus, for instance, the matrix

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
4 & 5 & 6 \\
7 & 8 & 9
\end{array}\right]
$$

has $(1,5,9),(2,6)$ and (3) as its first, second and third diagonals.
Coming back to the proof, fix a $k$, with $1 \leqq k \leqq n$. It is not hard to show (by induction, for instance) that (a) the first $k$ diagonals of $B^{k}$ are identically zero; and (b) the $(k+1)$-st diagonal of $B^{k}$ is $\left(B_{12} B_{23} \ldots B_{k, k+1}, B_{23} \ldots B_{k+1, k+2}, \ldots, B_{n-k+1, n-k+2} \ldots B_{n-1, n}\right)$. The hypothesis ensures now that every entry in this diagonal is an injective operator. Now, arguing exactly as in the case $k=1$, it may be shown that

$$
\operatorname{ker} B^{k}=L_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{k}
$$

The relationship between the $M_{k}$ 's and the $B_{k j}$ 's reveals that injectivity of $B_{k-1, k}$ is equivalent to the condition

$$
\left(M_{1}+\ldots+M_{k-2}+M_{k}\right) \cap\left(M_{1}+\ldots+M_{k-1}\right)^{\perp}=\{0\} .
$$

This prompts the following definition.
Definition 1. The ordered $n$-tuple $\left(M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}\right)$ of closed subspaces of $H$ is said to be generic if, for $1<k \leqq n$,

$$
\left(M_{1}+\ldots+M_{k-2}+M_{k}\right) \cap\left(M_{1}+\ldots+M_{k-1}\right)^{\perp}=(0) .
$$

Remark 2. (a) For $n=2$, this gives only one condition:

$$
M_{1}^{\perp} \cap M_{2}=\{0\}
$$

This is a weaker condition than the one defined by Halmos (cf. [4] ]; he calls a pair ( $M_{1}, M_{2}$ ) of subspaces to be in generic position if

$$
M_{1} \cap M_{2}=M_{1}^{\perp} \cap M_{2}=M_{1} \cap M_{2}^{\perp}=M_{1}^{\perp} \cap M_{2}^{\perp}=\{0\} .
$$

For one thing, his notion is a symmetric one; i.e., the order in the pair ( $M_{1}, M_{2}$ ) is irrelevant. It is not hard to see that, for finite dimensional $H$, a pair of subspaces ( $M_{1}, M_{2}$ ) is in generic position in the sense of Halmos if and only if (i) $H$ is the algebraic direct sum of $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$, and (ii) both the ordered pairs ( $M_{1}, M_{2}$ ) and ( $M_{2}, M_{1}$ ) are generic in the sense of Definition 1 above.
(b) If

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}
$$

is an algebraic direct sum, and if the operators $B_{j k}$ are constructed as in Theorem 1, then, genericity of $\left(M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}\right)$ is equivalent to injectivity of
each $B_{k-1, k}$. In particular, if $\operatorname{dim} H<\infty$, then $\operatorname{dim} M_{i}=\operatorname{dim} M_{j}$ for all $j$, and $\operatorname{dim} H=n \operatorname{dim} M_{1}$.
(c) The term 'generic' is apt, in the following sense: if

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}
$$

is an algebraic direct sum, if $\operatorname{dim} H<\infty$ and $\operatorname{dim} M_{i}=\operatorname{dim} M_{j}$ for all $i, j$, then, for any $\epsilon>0$, there exists an algebraic direct sum decomposition

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}^{\prime}
$$

such that $\left(M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ is generic and

$$
\left\|P_{i}-P_{i}^{\prime}\right\|<\epsilon \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i \leqq n,
$$

where $P_{i}$ and $P_{i}^{\prime}$ are the orthogonal projections onto $M_{i}$ and $M_{i}^{\prime}$ respectively. (Reason: if

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{\oplus}{ }_{i=1} L_{i}
$$

is the orthogonal direct sum decomposition associated with

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}
$$

and if $\left\{B_{j k}: 1 \leqq j<k \leqq n\right\}$ are the operators given by Theorem 1 , let ( $M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{n}^{\prime}$ ) be the $n$-tuple determined by the orthogonal decomposition

$$
H=\stackrel{n}{\oplus}{ }_{i=1} L_{i}
$$

and the operators $\left\{B_{j k}^{\prime}: 1 \leqq j<k \leqq n\right\}$, where $B_{j k}^{\prime}=B_{j k}$ if $j<k-1$, and $B_{k-1, k}^{\prime}$ is an invertible operator from $L_{k}$ to $L_{k-1}$ such that

$$
\left\|B_{k-1, k}-B_{k-1, k}^{\prime}\right\|<\delta \quad \text { for all } k
$$

where $\delta$ is chosen small enough to ensure

$$
\left\|P_{k}-P_{k}^{\prime}\right\|<\epsilon
$$

this is possible by the representations of $P_{k}$ and $P_{k}^{\prime}$ given by Lemma 3).
(d) The observation in (c) above can be strengthened to the following more symmetric assertion (the proof being identical): with the notation of (c), one can choose the $M_{i}^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\left\|P_{i}-P_{i}^{\prime}\right\|<\epsilon \text { for all } i
$$

and such that

$$
\left\{M_{\sigma(1)}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{\sigma(n)}^{\prime}\right\}
$$

is 'generic', for each permutation $\sigma$. Thus, the remark (c) is not meant as a justification for the asymmetry of Definition 1; that justification and, in fact, the raison d'être of Definition 1 lies in the next proposition, where the reader may observe that genericity plays a crucial role, and is in fact, quite close to being a necessary condition (though not quite) for the validity of the assertion.

Theorem 3. Let

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}^{\prime}
$$

be two algebraic direct sum decompositions of $H$. Suppose both the $n$-tuples $\left(M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}\right)$ and $\left(M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{n}\right)$ are generic. Let $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ be the operators associated to these n-tuples via equation (6). For a unitary operator $U$ on $H$, the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $U\left(M_{i}\right)=M_{i}^{\prime}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq n$;
(ii) $U B U^{*}=B^{\prime}$.

Proof. The implication (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) is a direct consequence of Theorem 2. For the converse implication, it suffices (again, by Theorem 2) to prove that any $U$ as in (ii) must be in 'block-diagonal' form, i.e.; we must show that if $U B U^{*}=B^{\prime}$, then $U$ must necessarily map $L_{k}$ onto $L_{k}^{\prime}$ for $1 \leqq k \leqq n$. However, if $U B U^{*}=B^{\prime}$, then it is clear that

$$
U\left(\operatorname{ker} B^{k}\right)=\operatorname{ker} B^{\prime k}
$$

By Lemma 4, this says that

$$
U\left(L_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{k}\right)=L^{\prime} \oplus \ldots \oplus L_{k}^{\prime}
$$

for each $k$. Since the $L_{i}^{\prime}$ 's (respectively, the $L_{i}^{\prime}$ 's) are mutually orthogonal subspaces, this ensures that $U\left(L_{k}\right)=L_{k}^{\prime}$ for all $k$, as desired.
3. Generators of $\mathscr{B}(H)$. For any subset $S$ of $\mathscr{B}(H)$, let us write $W^{*}(S)$ for the von-Neumann algebra generated by $S$. In [1], Davis shows that (a) if $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are orthogonal projections on a Hilbert space $H$ with $\operatorname{dim} H>2$, then

$$
W^{*}\left(\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}\right\}\right) \subsetneq \mathscr{B}(H)
$$

while (b) if $H$ is a separable infinite-dimensional Hilbert space, there exist three orthogonal projections $P_{1}, P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ on $H$ such that

$$
W^{*}\left(\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, P_{3}\right\}\right)=\mathscr{B}(H)
$$

It will be shown below, using the results of the preceding sections, that if $n \geqq 3$, and if $H$ is a separable Hilbert space which is either infinite dimensional or finite-dimensional with dimension a multiple of $n$, there exist $n$ orthogonal projections $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}$ on $H$ such that
(i) $W^{*}\left(\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}\right)=\mathscr{B}(H)$ and
(ii) $W^{*}(S) \neq \mathscr{B}(H) \quad$ whenever $S \subsetneq\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$.

Theorem 4. Let L be a separable Hilbert space and let H be the Hilbert space direct sum of $n$ copies of $L$. Let

$$
\left\{B_{j k}: 1 \leqq j<k \leqq n\right\} \subseteq \mathscr{B}(L)
$$

satisfy (a) $B_{\text {in }}$ has dense range, for $1 \leqq i<n$; and
(b) $W^{*}\left(\left\{B_{i n}^{*} B_{i n}: 1 \leqq i<n\right\}\right)=\mathscr{B}(L)$.
(If $n \geqq 3$, these conditions can be met by an appropriate choice of the $B_{j k}$ 's). Then, if $P_{k}$ denotes the orthogonal projection onto the subspaces $M_{k}$ of $H$ defined by

$$
M_{k}=\left\{\left(B_{1 k} x, \ldots, B_{k-1, k} x, x, 0, \ldots, 0\right): x \in L\right\}
$$

the following assertions hold:
(i) $W^{*}\left(\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}\right)=\mathscr{B}(H)$;
(ii) $W^{*}(S) \subsetneq \mathscr{B}(H)$, whenever $S \subsetneq\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$.

Proof. First, let us prove the parenthetical statement which ensures that the above theorem is not a vacuous statement. To see this, note first that since $L$ is separable, there exists $C \in \mathscr{B}(L)$ such that $W^{*}(\{C\})=\mathscr{B}(L)$. (For example, if $\operatorname{dim} L=\boldsymbol{\aleph}_{0}$, so that $L$ may be taken as $l^{2}$, we may take $C$ to be the unilateral shift; if $\operatorname{dim} L=m$, and if $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m}\right\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $L$, let $C$ be the operator defined by $C e_{m}=0, C e_{i}=e_{i+1}$, for $1 \leqq i<m$.) Let $C=A_{1}+i A_{2}$ be the cartesian decomposition of $C$. Define $B_{j k}=I$, if $1 \leqq j<k<n$, or if $2<j<n$ (this is where $n>2$ is required), and define

$$
B_{j n}=\left[A_{j}+2\left\|A_{j}\right\| I\right]^{1 / 2} \quad \text { for } j=1,2 .
$$

This choice of $B_{j k}$ 's satisfies conditions (a) and (b).
For the proof of the theorem, if $M_{k}$ is defined via the $B_{j k}$ 's as above, then

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}
$$

is an algebraic direct sum (cf. Remark 1 (b) ). It is clear that if

$$
S \subsetneq\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}
$$

then $\sum\left\{M_{i}: P_{i} \in S\right\}$ is a non-trivial invariant subspace for each $P_{i}$ in $S$, so that, by the double commutant theorem, $W^{*}(S)$ must be properly contained in $\mathscr{B}(E)$; thus (ii) is established.

In order to establish (i), since each $P_{i}$ is self-adjoint, it suffices, in view of the double commutant theorem and the fact that any $C^{*}$-algebra (in this case, the commutant of $W^{*}\left(\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}\right)$ ) is linearly spanned by its unitary elements, to show that if $U$ is a unitary operator on $H$ such that $U P_{k}=P_{k} U$ for all $k$, then $U=\omega I$ for some complex number $\omega$ of unit modulus. So, suppose $U$ is a unitary operator on $H$ such that $U P_{k}=P_{k} U$ for all $k$. Clearly then, $U\left(M_{k}\right)=M_{k}$ for all $k$. It follows from Theorem 2 (choosing $M_{i}^{\prime}=M_{i}$ ) that with respect to the decomposition $H=L \oplus \ldots \oplus L, U$ has a block-diagonal matrix $U=\operatorname{diag}\left(U_{i}\right)$. Theorem 2 then asserts that

$$
U_{i} B_{i k}=B_{i k} U_{k} \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i<k \leqq n .
$$

Exactly as in the proof of Theorem 2, it may now be deduced that

$$
U_{n} B_{i n}^{*} B_{i n}=B_{i n}^{*} B_{i n} U_{n} \quad \text { for } 1 \leqq i<n
$$

i.e.,

$$
U_{n} \in\left\{B_{i n}^{*} B_{i n}: 1 \leqq i<n\right\}^{\prime}
$$

It follows from hypothesis (b) and the double commutant theorem that $U_{n}=\omega I_{L}$ for some complex number $\omega$ of unit modulus. Then, the equation

$$
U_{i} B_{i n}=B_{i n} U_{n}=\omega B_{\text {in }}
$$

and the hypothesis (a) guarantees that $U_{i}=\omega I_{L}$ for each $i$; in other words $U=\omega I_{H}$, as desired.
4. Canonical (partial) correlation coefficients. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}$ and $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{q}$ be two sets of random variables on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathscr{B}, P)$, each with finite variance and mean zero. Hotelling proposed (in [5] ) the 'canonical correlation coefficients' as a measure of the strength of linear association between the two sets of random variables, as follows:

Let $M$ (respectively, $N$ ) be the space of linear combinations of the $X_{i}^{\prime}$ 's (respectively, the $Y_{i}$ 's). (Then, of course, by the assumed existence of finite variances, the spaces $M$ and $N$ are linear subspaces of $L^{2}(\Omega, \mathscr{B}, P)$. In the sequel, the inner product and norm used will be the ones on $L^{2}(P)$; thus, $\langle X, Y\rangle=E(X \bar{Y})$. (In the real case, of course, there is no need for complex conjugation).) Define

$$
\rho_{1}=\sup \{|\langle X, Y\rangle|: X \in M, Y \in N,\|X\|=1=\|Y\|\}
$$

Pick $X_{1}^{\prime}$ in $M$ and $Y_{1}^{\prime}$ in $N$ such that

$$
\left\|X_{1}^{\prime}\right\|=\left\|Y_{1}^{\prime}\right\|=1 \quad \text { and } \quad\left\langle X_{1}^{\prime}, Y_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle=\rho_{1}
$$

Next, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{1}=\left\{X \in M:\left\langle X, X_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0\right\} \quad \text { and } \\
& N_{1}=\left\{Y \in N:\left\langle Y, Y_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and define

$$
\rho_{2}=\sup \left\{|\langle X, Y\rangle|: X \in M_{1}, Y \in N_{1},\|X\|=1=\|Y\|\right\}
$$

Pick $X_{2}^{\prime}$ in $M_{1}$ and $Y_{2}^{\prime}$ in $N_{1}$ such that

$$
\left\|X_{2}^{\prime}\right\|=\left\|Y_{2}^{\prime}\right\|=1 \quad \text { and } \quad\left\langle X_{2}^{\prime}, Y_{2}^{\prime}\right\rangle=\rho_{2}
$$

Then, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{2}=\left\{X \in M:\left\langle X, X_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0 \text { for } 1 \leqq i \leqq 2\right\} \text { and } \\
& N_{2}=\left\{Y \in N:\left\langle Y, Y_{i}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0 \text { for } 1 \leqq i \leqq 2\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and pick $X_{3}^{\prime}$ in $M_{2}$ and $Y_{3}^{\prime}$ in $N_{2}$ such that

$$
\left\|X_{3}^{\prime}\right\|=1=\left\|Y_{3}^{\prime}\right\| \quad \text { and } \quad\left\langle X_{3}^{\prime}, Y_{3}^{\prime}\right\rangle=\rho_{3}
$$

where

$$
\rho_{3}=\sup \left\{|\langle X, Y\rangle|: X \in M_{3}, Y \in N_{3},\|X\|=1=\|Y\|\right\}
$$

Continuing this process to its logical conclusion results in sequences $\left\{\rho_{1}, \ldots, \rho_{k}\right\},\left\{X_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, X_{k}^{\prime}\right\}$ and $\left\{Y_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, Y_{k}^{\prime}\right\}$, where $k$ is the minimum of $\operatorname{dim} M$ and $\operatorname{dim} N$. The non-zero $\rho_{i}$ 's are called the canonical correlation coefficients (they do not depend on the choice of the $X_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ 's and $Y_{i}^{\prime \prime} s$ ) and the $X_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ s and $Y_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ s are called the canonical variables.

This notation was extended by Roy (in [9]) to three sets of random variables as follows: Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p} ; Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{q} ; Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{r}$ be three sets of random variables of finite variance and mean zero. Let $M_{1}$, $M_{2}, M_{3}$ denote the linear spaces spanned by these sets, respectively. Roy defined the canonical partial correlation coefficients between $\left\{Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{q}\right\}$ and $\left\{Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{r}\right\}$ as the canonical correlation coefficients between $\left\{\widetilde{Y}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{Y}_{q}\right\}$ and $\left\{\widetilde{Z}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{Z}_{r}\right\}$, where

$$
Y_{i}=Y_{i}-P_{1}\left(Y_{i}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \widetilde{Z}_{i}=Z_{i}-P_{1}\left(Z_{i}\right)
$$

the symbol $P_{1}$ denoting the orthogonal projection (in $L^{2}$ ) onto $M_{1}$.
In this section, we shall apply Theorem 1 to the problem of determining these correlation coefficients.
(a) Canonical correlation coefficients. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p}$ and $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{q}$ be two collections of random variables of finite variance and mean zero. Let $M$ and $N$ denote the linear spaces spanned by them, respectively, and let $H=M+N$ (equipped with the inner product coming from $L^{2}$ ).

Case (i). $M \cap N=(0)$. In this case, $H=M+N$ is an algebraic direct sum decomposition, and so, by Theorem 1, there exists a linear operator $B: M^{\perp} \rightarrow M$ (in case $n=2$ ), we have $L_{1}=M, L_{2}=M^{\perp}$ ) such that

$$
N=\left\{(B y, y): y \in M^{\perp}\right\}
$$

with respect to the decomposition $H=M \oplus M^{\perp}$. Then, by definition,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho_{1} & =\sup \left\{\mid\langle(x, 0),(B y, y)\rangle: x \in M, y \in M^{\perp},\|x\|^{2}=1\right. \\
& =\|B y\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2} \\
& =\sup \left\{\mid\langle(x, B y\rangle|: x \in M, y \in M^{\perp},\|x\|^{2}=1\right. \\
& \left.=\|B y\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2}\right\} \\
& =\sup \left\{\|B y\|: y \in M^{\perp},\|y\|^{2}+\|B y\|^{2}=1\right\} \\
& =\sup \left\{\|B y\|: y \in M^{\perp},\left\langle\left(I+B^{*} B\right) y, y\right\rangle=1\right\} \\
& =\sup \left\{\|B y\|: y \in M^{\perp},\left\|\left(I+B^{*} B\right)^{1 / 2} y\right\|=1\right\} \\
& =\sup \left\{\left\|B\left(I+B^{*} B\right)^{-1 / 2} z\right\|: z \in M^{\perp},\|z\|=1\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows, by a successive application of arguments similar to the ones used in obtaining the above string of equalities, that if $\left\{Y_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, Y_{l}^{\prime}\right\}$ is an orthonormal basis for $M^{\perp}$ such that

$$
B^{*} B y_{i}^{\prime}=\alpha_{i}^{2} y_{i}^{\prime}
$$

with $\alpha_{1} \geqq \ldots \geqq \alpha_{l} \geqq 0$, then the canonical variables are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{\frac{1}{\alpha_{i}}\left(B y_{i}^{\prime}, 0\right): i=1,2, \ldots, k\right\} \text { and } \\
& \left\{\frac{1}{\left(1+\alpha_{i}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}}\left(B y_{i}^{\prime}, y_{i}^{\prime}\right): i=1,2, \ldots, k\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

while the canonical correlation coefficients are given by

$$
\rho_{i}=\alpha_{i}\left(1+\alpha_{i}^{2}\right)^{-1 / 2}, \quad \text { for } i=1, \ldots, k,
$$

where $k$ is the rank of $B$.
Case (ii). $M \cap N \neq$ (0). Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M^{\prime}=M \cap(M \cap N)^{\perp}, N^{\prime}=N \cap(M \cap N)^{\perp} \text { and } \\
& H^{\prime}=M^{\prime}+N^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $H^{\prime}=M^{\prime}+N^{\prime}$ is an algebraic direct sum; let

$$
B^{\prime}: M^{\prime \perp} \rightarrow M^{\prime}
$$

(here, the orthogonal complement is taken relative to $H^{\prime}$ ) such that, in the decomposition $H^{\prime}=M^{\prime} \oplus M^{\perp}$ the subspace $N^{\prime}$ is described by

$$
N^{\prime}=\left\{\left(B^{\prime} y, y\right): y \in M^{\perp}\right\}
$$

If the singular values of $B^{\prime}$ are $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{l}$ (written in decreasing order), and if $k^{\prime}$ is the rank of $B^{\prime}$, it is not hard to see, using case (i), that the canonical correlation coefficients are given by

$$
\left\{1,1, \ldots, 1, \alpha_{i}\left(1+\alpha_{i}^{2}\right)^{-1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k^{\prime}}\left(1+\alpha_{k^{\prime}}^{2}\right)^{-1}\right\}
$$

where the length of the initial string of l's is equal to $\operatorname{dim}(M \cap N)$.
(b) Canonical partial correlation coefficients. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{p} ; Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{q}$; $Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{r}$ be three sets of random variables of finite variance and mean zero. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}$ be the linear spaces spanned by the three sets, respectively. We shall compute the canonical partial correlation coefficients between the $Y$ and $Z$ sets. Let $H=M_{1}+M_{2}+M_{3}$.

Case (i): $H=\sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{i}$ is an algebraic direct sum. Let the spaces $L_{1}$, $L_{2}, L_{3}$ and the operators $B_{j k}(1 \leqq j<k \leqq 3)$ be constructed as in Theorem 1. Since the projection onto $M_{1}^{\perp}$ sends $M_{2}$ and $M_{3}$ to the subspaces $\widetilde{M}_{2}$ and $\widetilde{M}_{3}$ of $L_{2} \oplus L_{3}$ given by

$$
\widetilde{M}_{2}=\left\{(y, 0): y \in L_{2}\right\} \quad \text { and } \quad \widetilde{M}_{3}=\left\{\left(B_{23} z, z\right): z \in L_{3}\right\}
$$

it can be shown, exactly as in Case (i) of (a), that the canonical partial correlation coefficients between the $Y_{i}^{\prime}$ 's and the $Z_{i}$ 's are given by

$$
\rho_{i}=\alpha_{i}\left(1+\alpha_{i}^{2}\right)^{-1}, \quad 1 \leqq i \leqq k,
$$

where $k$ is the rank of $B_{23}$ and $\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{l}\right)$ is an enumeration, in decreasing order, of the singular values of $B_{23}$.

Case (ii). $H=\sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{i}$ is not an algebraic direct sum. It is easy to see that

$$
H=\sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{i}
$$

is an algebraic direct sum if and only if

$$
M_{1} \cap M_{2}=\{0\}=\left(M_{1}+M_{2}\right) \cap M_{3} .
$$

It is, hence, natural in this case to define the subspaces

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{2}^{\prime}=M_{2} \cap\left(M_{2} \cap M_{1}\right)^{\perp} \quad \text { and } \\
& M_{3}^{\prime}=M_{3} \cap\left(M_{3} \cap\left(M_{1}+M_{2}\right)\right)^{\perp} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is clear that $M_{1}+M_{2}=M_{1}+M_{2}^{\prime}$ and that $H=M_{1}+M_{2}^{\prime}+M_{3}^{\prime}$ is an algebraic direct sum decomposition. Apply Theorem 1 to the subspaces $M_{1}, M_{2}^{\prime}, M_{3}^{\prime}$ to get an orthogonal decomposition

$$
H=L_{1} \oplus L_{2} \oplus L_{3}
$$

and the operators

$$
B_{j k}: L_{k} \rightarrow L_{j} \text { for } 1 \leqq j<k \leqq 3
$$

It is not too hard then to show that if $\alpha_{1} \geqq \ldots \geqq \alpha_{l} \geqq 0$ are the singular values of $B_{23}$, then the canonical partial correlation coefficients of $\left\{Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{q}\right\}$ and $\left\{Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{r}\right\}$ are given by

$$
1,1, \ldots, 1, \alpha_{1}\left(1+\alpha_{1}^{2}\right)^{-1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\left(1+\alpha_{m}^{2}\right)^{-1}
$$

where the length of the initial string of 1's is equal to

$$
\operatorname{dim}\left(\left(M_{1}+M_{2}\right) \cap\left(M_{1}+M_{3}\right) \cap M_{1}^{\perp}\right)
$$

and $m$ is the rank of $B_{23}$.
It may be advisable to point out that replacing $B_{23}$ by $B_{12}$ (for instance) in the above discussion would not lead to the canonical partial correlation coefficients between the $X_{i}^{\prime}$ 's and the $Y_{i}$ 's. To apply the above procedure, the span of the set of random variables, whose linear effect is to be ignored, must be taken as $M_{1}$, while the second and third subspaces must be taken as the spans of the sets of random variables whose canonical partial correlation coefficients are to be computed.

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