# Curves of projections and operator inequalities

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#### Abstract

Given two orthogonal projections P and Q in a complex Hilbert space such that

$$R(P) \cap N(Q) = N(P) \cap R(Q) = \{0\},\$$

there exists a unique selfadjoint operator  $X_{P,Q}$ , which is P-codiagonal, has norm at most  $\pi/2$  and satisfies that the curve

$$\delta(t) = e^{itX_{P,Q}} P e^{-itX_{P,Q}}$$

joins  $\delta(0) = P$  and  $\delta(1) = Q$ , and has minimal length among all piecewise smooth curves of projections joining P and Q. We use this fact to obtain operator inequalities in particular examples. Namely, given projections P, Q as above, and a path P(t),  $t \in [a, b]$ , joining them, then one has

$$\int_{a}^{b} \left\| \frac{d}{dt} P(t) \right\| dt \ge \left\| X_{P,Q} \right\|,$$

where the right hand term is the length of  $\delta$ .

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#### 1 Introduction

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Hilbert space,  $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  the algebra of bounded linear operators in  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  the group of unitary operators and  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  the set of orthogonal projections, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) = \{ P \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : P^2 = P = P^* \}.$$

By identifying a closed subspace  $\mathcal{M}$  of  $\mathcal{H}$  with  $P_{\mathcal{M}}$ , the orthogonal projection onto  $\mathcal{M}$ , sometimes  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  is called the Grassmann manifold of  $\mathcal{H}$ . The set  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  has a rich geometrical structure: each component of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  is a homogeneous space of  $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  and a closed and complemented submanifold of  $\mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) = \{T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : T^* = T\}$ , with a natural connection and explicit geodesics. Moreover, there is a natural length functional  $\ell$  for curves in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ . It turns out that, under precise conditions, the geodesic  $\delta$  joining P and Q is a global minimum for  $\ell$ . Since the geodesics and their lengths can be explicitly characterized, finding another curve  $\gamma$  in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  with endpoints P and Q yields the (operator) inequality  $\ell(\delta) \leq \ell(\gamma)$ . The main goal of this paper is to show, in three different examples, some operator inequalities which follow this scheme. In order

to make the exposition relatively self-contained, we collect in Section 2 several facts concerning sums, differences and products of projections, in Section 3 several results on idempotents  $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  and their relationship with the orthogonal projections onto the range R(E) and the nullspace N(E); in Section 4 we briefly describe the geometry of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  and its connected components; finally, Section 5 contains the inequalities mentioned above, corresponding to the following examples:

- 1. For  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ ,  $I, J \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  Lebesgue measurable sets with finite positive measure and  $P = P_I$ ,  $Q = Q_J$ , where  $P_I f = \chi_I f$  and  $Q_J f = (P_J \hat{f})$ , where  $\chi$  denotes the characteristic function and  $\hat{f}$ , denote the  $L^2$ -Fourier-Plancherel transform and anti-transform.
- 2. For  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\mathbb{T}$  the 1-torus, we consider the closed subspaces  $\mathcal{H}_{\varphi} = \varphi H^2(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\mathcal{H}_{\psi} = \psi H^2(\mathbb{T})$ , where  $\varphi, \psi : \mathbb{T} \to \mathbb{T}$  are continuous maps and  $H^2(\mathbb{T})$  is the Hardy space; we study existence and minimality of geodesics joining  $P = P_{\mathcal{H}_{\varphi}}$ ,  $Q = P_{\mathcal{H}_{\psi}}$ .
- 3. For each idempotent  $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ , i.e.,  $E^2 = E$ , we consider the orthogonal projections  $P_{R(E)}$  and  $P_{R(E^*)} = P_{N(E)^{\perp}}$ , and study the existence and minimality of geodesics joining them.

### 2 On pairs of projections

In this section, we collect several known results about two projections  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , the products sums and differences PQ, P(1-Q), P+Q, P-Q, P+Q-1 and other operations between them. The proofs can be found in the book by Havin and Jöricke [33] (Chapter 3, Section 1), the expository papers by Deutsch [22], Galantai [30] and Böttcher and Spitkovsky [12], and in other papers which will be mentioned. Many of the proofs, if not all, rest on the following three facts:

• Kato's identities [36], [37] (p.33): for any  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  it holds

$$(P-Q)^2 + (P+Q-1)^2 = 1,$$
  
$$\|(P-Q)\xi\|^2 + \|(P+Q-1)\xi\|^2 = \|\xi\|^2,$$

for all  $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$ .

The proof is straightforward.

• Krein, Krasnoselski, Milman identity [45]: for any  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ 

$$||P - Q|| = \max\{||P(1 - Q)||, ||(1 - P)Q||\}.$$

The shortest proof we know is due to S. Izumino and Y. Watatani (see [38], Appendix). First, they notice that if  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  are positive operators such that AB = 0 then  $||A + B|| = \max\{||A||, ||B||\}$ , and, then, they apply this to A = (1 - Q)P(1 - Q), B = Q(1 - P)Q and observe that  $||P - Q||^2 = ||A + B||$ .

• If  $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N}$  are closed subspaces of  $\mathcal{H}$ , then  $\mathcal{M} + \mathcal{N}$  is closed if and only if  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp} + \mathcal{N}^{\perp}$  is closed. This result holds in the more general context of Banach spaces. For a proof, see Kato's book [37] (Theorem 4.8, p.221).

**Proposition 2.1.** If  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , then the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. R(P) + R(Q) is closed.
- 2. There exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that the intersection of the spectrum  $\sigma(PQ)$  with the real interval  $(1 \epsilon, 1)$  is empty.
- 3.  $||PQ P_{R(P) \cap R(Q)}|| < 1$ .
- 4. N(P) + N(Q) is closed.
- 5. R((1-P)Q) is closed.
- 6. R(1-PQ) is closed.
- 7. R(P-Q) is closed.
- 8. R(P+Q) is closed.

If one of these conditions holds, then

$$R(P+Q) = R(P) + R(Q).$$

The proof of these equivalences can be found in [22], [43] and [26]; however, some of them have been known by Krein, Krasnoselski and Milman [45], Dixmier [24], Kato [36] and Ljance [47]. For other equivalent properties, see the papers by Bouldin [13] and Izumino [34].

**Proposition 2.2.** If  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , then the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. ||PQ|| < 1.
- 2.  $c_0(R(P), R(Q)) := \sup\{|\langle \mu, \nu \rangle| : \mu \in R(P), \nu \in R(Q), \|\mu\| = \|\nu\| = 1\} < 1.$
- 3. There exists K > 0 such that  $||(1-P)\nu|| \ge K||\nu||$  for all  $\nu \in R(Q)$ .
- 4. 1 PQ is invertible.
- 5. There exists K > 0 such that  $\|\xi\| \le K(\|(1-P)\xi\| + \|(1-Q)\xi\|)$  for all  $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$ .
- 6.  $R(P) \cap R(Q) = \{0\}$  and R(P) + R(Q) is closed.
- 7.  $R(1-P+1-Q) = \mathcal{H}$ .
- 8. 1 P + 1 Q is invertible.
- 9.  $N(P) + N(Q) = \mathcal{H}$ .

For the proof, see Havin and Jöricke [33] for the equivalences 1.-6.. The other equivalences follow from the equivalence between closedness of  $\mathcal{M} + \mathcal{N}$  and  $\mathcal{M}^{\perp} + \mathcal{N}^{\perp}$  mentioned above, plus the fact that  $R(P) \cap R(Q) = \{0\}$  if and only if N(P) + N(Q) is dense in  $\mathcal{H}$ .

The quantity  $c_0(R(P), R(Q))$  is the cosine of the so called Dixmier angle between R(P) and R(Q); indeed,  $c_0(R(P), R(Q)) = ||PQ||$ . A more subtle notion, due to Friedrichs [29] is

$$c(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N}) := \sup\{|\langle \mu, \nu \rangle| : \mu \in \mathcal{M} \ominus \mathcal{N}, \nu \in \mathcal{N} \ominus \mathcal{M}, \|\mu\| = \|\nu\| = 1\}.$$

It holds that  $c(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N}) = \|P_{\mathcal{M}}P_{\mathcal{N}} - P_{\mathcal{M}\cap\mathcal{N}}\|$ . Of course, Dixmier's angle is much easier to compute than Friedrichs', but the relevant fact that  $c(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N}) = c(\mathcal{M}^{\perp}, \mathcal{N}^{\perp})$  does not hold for  $c_0$ , in general. We refer the reader to Deutsch [22], [23] for a complete discussion on these notions; see also the papers by Galántai [30] and Knyazev, Jujunashvili and Argentati [42] and Jujunashvili's thesis [35].

Corollary 2.3. If  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. P + Q is invertible.
- 2. ||(1-P)(1-Q)|| < 1.
- 3. P + Q PQ = 1 (1 P)(1 Q) is invertible.

For the proof it suffices to apply Proposition 2.2 to 1 - P, 1 - Q.

**Corollary 2.4.** If  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , then the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. P-Q is invertible.
- 2. P + Q and 1 PQ are invertible.
- 3. ||PQ|| < 1 and ||(1-P)(1-Q)|| < 1.
- 4.  $R(P) + R(Q) = \mathcal{H}$ , and the sum is direct.
- 5.  $N(P) + N(Q) = \mathcal{H}$ , and the sum is direct.
- 6.  $P: R(Q) \to R(P)$  is bijective.
- 7. 1 PQ and P + Q PQ are invertible.
- 8. ||P+Q-1|| < 1.

The proof is contained in Buckholtz [15].

The last results of this section are also simple consequences of Kato's identities and the Krein-Krasnoselski-Milman formula.

**Proposition 2.5.** For  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  it holds  $R(P) \cap R(Q) = \{0\}$  and  $N(P) \cap N(Q) = \{0\}$  if and only if  $||(P-Q)\xi|| < ||\xi||$  for all  $\xi \neq 0$ .

This is a result by Maeda [48], related to the so called *position* p, (a.k.a. *generic position*) of two subspaces. In a breakthrough paper, Dixmier [24] defined a pair of subspaces to be in position p if

$$M\cap N=M\cap N^\perp=M^\perp\cap N=M^\perp\cap N^\perp=\{0\}.$$

Maeda's result deals with a weaker assumption called *position* p', meaning

$$M\cap N^\perp=M^\perp\cap N=\{0\}.$$

We also present a result which we shall need later and which is also a consequence of Kato's identities.

**Proposition 2.6.** If  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , then R(P) + R(Q) is dense and  $R(P) \cap R(Q) = \{0\}$  if and only if  $||(P+Q-1)\xi|| < ||\xi||$  for all  $\xi \in \mathcal{H} \setminus \{0\}$ .

*Proof.* According to the mentioned identities,  $\|(P+Q-1)\xi\| < \|\xi\|$  for all  $\xi \neq 0$  if and only if  $\|(P-Q)\xi\| > 0$  for all  $\xi \neq 0$ , i.e. ,  $N(P-Q) = \{0\}$ . But it holds in general that  $N(P-Q) = R(P) \cap R(Q) \oplus N(P) \cap N(Q)$ .

**Proposition 2.7.** For  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , one and only one of the following conditions holds:

- 1. ||PQ|| < 1.
- 2. ||PQ|| = 1 and  $||PQ\xi|| < ||\xi||$  for all  $\xi \neq 0$ .
- 3. There exists  $\xi \neq 0$  such that  $||PQ\xi|| = ||\xi||$ .

This alternative can be equivalently stated as:

- 1. 1 P + 1 Q is invertible.
- 2. 1 P + 1 Q is injective but not invertible.
- 3. 1 P + 1 Q is not injective.

### 3 On idempotents

Let us denote by

$$\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H}) = \{ E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : E^2 = E \}$$

the set of idempotent operators in  $\mathcal{H}$ . In this section we study the map

$$\Upsilon: \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \times \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}), \quad \Upsilon(E) = (P_{R(E)}, P_{N(E)}),$$

its image and its inverse. On one side we show formulas on how to obtain  $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$  from  $P_{R(E)}$  and  $P_{N(E)}$ ; on the other side we show formulas that express  $P_{R(E)}$ ,  $P_{N(E)}$  in terms of E and  $E^*$ . We start with some easy results about idempotents.

**Lemma 3.1.** Given idempotents E, F it holds that

- 1. N(E) = R(1 E).
- 2.  $R(E) \subset R(F)$  if and only if FE = E.
- 3. R(E) = R(F) if and only if FE = E, EF = F.
- 4.  $N(E) \subset N(F)$  if and only if FE = F.
- 5. N(E) = N(F) if and only if FE = F, EF = E.

Corollary 3.2. If  $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$  then

- 1.  $EP_{R(E)} = P_{R(E)}$ ,  $P_{R(E)}E = E$ .
- 2.  $P_{N(E)}E = E + P_{N(E)} 1$ ,  $EP_{N(E)} = 0$ .

3. 
$$E^*P_{R(E)} = E^*$$
,  $P_{R(E)}E^* = P_{R(E)}$ .

4. 
$$E^*P_{N(E)} = E^* + P_{N(E)} - 1$$
,  $P_{N(E)}E^* = 0$ .

*Proof.* Straightforward. For 2., notice that  $P_{N(E)}(1-E)=1-E$ , because R(1-E)=N(E).  $\square$ 

The next result is essentially due to Buckholtz [15].

### Corollary 3.3. If $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$ then

1. 
$$(P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)})(E + E^* - 1) = (E + E^* - 1)(P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)}) = 1$$
.

2. 
$$P_{R(E)} = E(E + E^* - 1)^{-1}$$
.

3. 
$$P_{N(E)} = (E-1)(E+E^*-1)^{-1}$$
.

4. 
$$P_{R(E)} + P_{N(E)} = (2E - 1)(E + E^* - 1)^{-1}$$
.

As a consequence, we get:

#### Corollary 3.4. If $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$ then

1. 
$$E = (1 - P_{N(E)}P_{R(E)})^{-1}(1 - P_{N(E)})$$
 (Greville [31], Ptak [53] p.347).

2. 
$$E = P_{R(E)}(P_{R(E)} + P_{N(E)} - P_{N(E)}P_{R(E)})^{-1}$$
 (Greville [31]).

3. 
$$E = P_{R(E)}(P_{R(E)} + P_{N(E)})^{-1}$$
 (Ando [2]).

4. 
$$E = P_{R(E)}(P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)})^{-1}$$
 (Buckholtz [15]).

5. 
$$E = (1 - P_{R(E)}P_{N(E)})^{-1}P_{R(E)}(1 - P_{R(E)}P_{N(E)})$$
 (Afriat [1]).

6. 
$$E^* = (1 - P_{N(E)})(P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)})^{-1}$$

*Proof.* Straightforward. Observe that the invertibility of  $1 - P_{R(E)}P_{N(E)}$  follows, because  $||P_{R(E)}P_{N(E)}|| < 1$  since  $P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)}$  is invertible (see the Corollary 2.4 in the previous section).

**Remark 3.5.** Concerning the Dixmier angle  $c_0$ , for M = R(E), N = N(E) it holds

$$c_0(M,N) = c_0(M^{\perp}, N^{\perp}) = ||P_M P_N|| = ||P_{M^{\perp}} P_{N^{\perp}}|| = ||P_M + P_N - 1|| = (1 - ||E||^{-2})^{1/2}.$$

We refer the reader to Buckholtz [15] and to a nice paper by Ando [2], which contains many new results and expressions for E in terms of M and N, and of ||E|| and relatives.

**Remark 3.6.** It is worth mentioning that in Arias et al. [10] (Theorem 4.1) some of the formulas in Corollary 3.4 have been extended as follows: if  $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  are positive operators such that R(A) = R(E) and R(B) = N(E) for  $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$ , then

$$E = A(A \pm B)^{-1}.$$

More generally, for  $S, T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  with R(S) = R(E) and R(T) = N(E), it holds

$$E = SS^*(SS^* \pm TT^*)^{-1}.$$

We include here a discussion on the Moore-Penrose inverse of an idempotent E. Recall that the Moore-Penrose inverse of a closed range linear bounded operator T is the unique solution  $X = T^{\dagger}$  of the system

$$\begin{cases} TXT = T \\ XTX = X \\ (XT)^* = XT \\ (TX)^* = TX \end{cases}$$

See [21] for a nice treatment of this subject.

The next formula for the Moore-Penrose inverse of  $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$  is due to Penrose [51]; without noticing his result, Greville [31] found the result again, in both cases for matrices. For operators in Hilbert space, see [18].

**Proposition 3.7.** *If*  $E \in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H})$  *then* 

$$E^{\dagger} = P_{N(E)^{\perp}} P_{R(E)} = (1 - P_{N(E)}) P_{R(E)} = P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)} P_{R(E)} = (1 - P_{N(E)}) P_{R(E)}$$
$$= (P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)}) P_{R(E)}.$$

**Remark 3.8.** The definition of the Moore-Penrose inverse  $\dagger$  can be extended to operators  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  with non-closed range. In particular, it can be shown that for T = PQ,  $T^{\dagger}$  is a (generally unbounded) idempotent  $\tilde{E}$  with dense domain and  $R(\tilde{E}), N(\tilde{E})$  closed subspaces with trivial intersection and  $R(\tilde{E}) + N(\tilde{E})$  dense in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Denoting this set by  $\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathcal{H})$ , it can be seen that

$$\dagger: \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \cdot \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \to \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathcal{H})$$

is a bijection (see [17] for details).

Returning to the beginning of the section, we can resume some information about the map

$$\Upsilon: \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \times \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) , \ \Upsilon(E) = (P_{R(E)}, P_{N(E)}).$$

By Buckholtz' result (Corollary 2.4), the image of  $\Upsilon$  is

$$\{(P,Q) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \times \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) : P - Q \text{ is invertible}\},$$

and on this set the inverse  $\Upsilon^{-1}$  can be expressed according to any of the formulas stated in Corollary 3.4. As a sample

$$\Upsilon^{-1}(P,Q) = P(P \pm Q)^{-1} = (P - Q)^{-1}(1 - Q).$$

The set

$$\mathcal{D} = \{ P - Q : P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \}$$

plays a relevant role in any geometrical study of the space of projections. This set was first characterized by Davis [20]. For a more recent treatment on the geometric relevance of  $\mathcal{D}$ , see [3]. Denote by  $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{H})$  the group of invertible operators in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Buckholtz' results show that  $\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{H})$  is the image of  $\delta \circ \Upsilon$ , where

$$\delta: \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \times \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{D}$$
,  $\delta(P, Q) = P - Q$ .

Notice that  $\delta \circ \Upsilon : \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{H})$  is not bijective, because  $\delta \circ \Upsilon(E^*) = \delta \circ \Upsilon(E)$ . Moreover,  $\delta \circ \Upsilon(E) = \delta \circ \Upsilon(F)$  if and only if  $E + E^* = F + F^*$ , i.e., Re(E) = Re(F).

#### 3.1 On $2 \times 2$ matrix decompositions

This short subsection is devoted to collect several  $2 \times 2$  matrix representations of an idempotent E and its associates  $E^*$ ,  $EE^*$ ,  $|E| = (E^*E)^{1/2}$ ,  $P_{R(E)}$ , and so on. First recall that every  $P \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  induces a representation of  $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  as a  $C^*$ -algebra of  $2 \times 2$  operator matrices. For any  $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  the identity T = PTP + PT(1-P) + (1-P)TP + (1-P)T(1-P) can be seen as a matrix

$$M_T = \left( \begin{array}{cc} T_{11} & T_{12} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} \end{array} \right)$$

where  $T_{11} = PTP \in \mathcal{B}(R(P))$ ,  $T_{12} = PT(1-P) \in \mathcal{B}(N(P), R(P))$ ,  $T_{21} = (1-P)TP \in \mathcal{B}(R(P), N(P))$  and  $T_{22} = (1-P)T(1-P) \in \mathcal{B}(N(P))$ . This is a  $C^*$ -algebra representation so  $M_{T_1T_2} = M_{T_1}M_{T_2}$  and  $M_{T^*} = M_T^*$ . We shall identify  $T = M_T$ . In particular, every idempotent  $E \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  can be represented as

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{1}$$

for some  $B \in \mathcal{B}(R(E)^{\perp}, R(E))$ , if  $P = P_{R(E)}$  and we write  $1 = 1_{R(E)} = P$ , the unit of  $\mathcal{B}(R(P))$ . Observe the E is determined by R(E) and the operator  $B : N(P) \to R(E)$ . So we try to understand properties of E in terms of E.

Notice that we use thoroughly the rule  $\varphi(TT^*)T = T\varphi(T^*T)$  which holds for any Borelian function  $\varphi$  defined in  $\mathbb{R}^+$ .

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, E^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ B^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}, EE^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + BB^* & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, E + E^* - 1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & B \\ B^* & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$(E + E^* - 1)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + BB^* & 0 \\ 0 & 1 + B^*B \end{pmatrix},$$

$$(E + E^* - 1)^{-1} = (E + E^* - 1)^{-2}(E + E^* - 1) = \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{-1} & (1 + BB^*)^{-1}B \\ (1 + B^*B)^{-1}B^* & -(1 + B^*B)^{-1} \end{pmatrix} (2)$$

$$P_{R(E)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$P_{N(E)} = (E - 1)(E + E^* - 1)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{-1}BB^* & (1 + BB^*)^{-1}B \\ (1 + B^*B)^{-1}B^* & (1 + B^*B)^{-1} \end{pmatrix} (3)$$

$$P_{R(E)}P_{N(E)}P_{R(E)} = \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{-1}BB^* & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, |E^*| = (EE^*)^{1/2} = \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{1/2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$|E + E^* - 1| = \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{1/2} & 0 \\ 0 & (1 + B^*B)^{1/2} \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$E^{\dagger} = (E + E^* - 1)^{-1} P_{R(E)} = \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{-1} & 0 \\ B^* (1 + BB^*)^{-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4}$$

## 4 Geometry of $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$

In this section we survey several results which, put together, offer a quite complete description of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  as a discrete union of components, each of one with a structure of differentiable submanifold and of homogeneous space of the unitary group  $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  of  $\mathcal{H}$ . There is a natural linear connection whose geodesics have minimal length with respect to a Finsler metric, which is also natural. Our main references are Porta and Recht [52], Wilkins [55], Brown [14], Chung [16], Corach, Porta and Recht [19] and Andruchow [3], [4].

We start with the action of  $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  on  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , defined by  $U \cdot P = UPU^*$ , for  $U \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$ ,  $P \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ . The action is locally transitive: if P, Q are close, then there exists U such that  $U \cdot P = Q$ . In fact, this was known at least by Sz. Nagy [49]:

**Lemma 4.1.** If  $P,Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  and ||P-Q|| < 1, there exists  $U = U(P,Q) \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  such that  $UPU^* = Q$ .

Corollary 4.2. The orbits of the action coincide with the connected components of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ .

This is a consequence of the fact that the unitary group is connected.

We fix  $P_0 \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  and denote by  $\mathcal{P}_0$  the connected component of  $P_0$ . As in the previous section, we represent every  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$  as a  $2 \times 2$  matrix in terms of  $P_0$ ,

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array}\right),$$

and write

$$A_d = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} , \quad A_c = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $A_d$  will be called the  $P_0$ -diagonal part of A, and  $A_c$  the codiagonal part. Observe that  $A_d$  commutes with  $P_0$ . If  $\mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) = \{A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : A^* = A\}$ , denote

$$\mathcal{D}_{P_0} = \{ A_d : A \in \mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) \}, \quad \mathcal{C}_{P_0} = \{ A_c : A \in \mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) \}.$$

Observe that  $\mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{D}_{P_0} \oplus \mathcal{C}_{P_0}$ . Consider the map

$$\phi: \mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H}) , \quad \phi(X) = X_d + e^{\tilde{X}_c} P_0 e^{-\tilde{X}_c},$$

where

$$\tilde{X}_c = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -x_{12} \\ x_{12}^* & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{if} \quad X_c = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & x_{12} \\ x_{12}^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $\phi$  is well defined, because  $e^{\tilde{X}_c} \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$ , and then  $\phi(X) \in \mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H})$ .

**Lemma 4.3.** The map  $\phi$  is differentiable, and its differential  $d\phi_{P_0}$  at  $P_0$  is the identity.

By the inverse mapping theorem,  $\phi$  is a local diffeomorphism, which maps a neighbourhood of 0 in  $\mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H})$  onto a neighbourhood of  $P_0$  in the same space. When restricted to  $\mathcal{C}_{P_0}$ , it takes values in an open neighbourhood of  $P_0$  in  $\mathcal{P}_0$ . As a consequence:

**Proposition 4.4.**  $\mathcal{P}_0$  is a submanifold of  $\mathcal{B}_h(\mathcal{H})$ . The map

$$\pi_{P_0}: \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H}) \to \mathcal{P}_0 , \quad \pi_{P_0}(U) = U P_0 U^*$$

is a smooth submersion. The tangent space  $(T\mathcal{P}_0)_{P_0}$  of  $\mathcal{P}_0$  is identified with  $\mathcal{C}_{P_0}$ .

There is a natural linear connection in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , which is a particular case of a reductive structure for an homogeneous space. For a smooth curve  $\rho:[0,1]\to\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , a co-diagonal lifting (or horizontal lifting) for  $\rho$  is a smooth curve  $U:[0,1]\to\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$  such that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} U(t)\rho(0)U^*(t) = \rho(t) \\ iU^*(t)\dot{U}(t) \in \mathcal{C}_{\rho(t)} \end{array} \right. ,$$

for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ . It was shown in [19] that the (unique) co-diagonal lifting of  $\rho$  satisfying U(0) = 1 is the solution of the problem

$$\begin{cases} \dot{U} = [\dot{\rho}, \rho]U \\ U(0) = 1 \end{cases}.$$

Given a tangent vector  $X \in \mathcal{C}_{P_0}$  at  $P_0$ , and a smooth curve  $\rho : [0,1] \to \mathcal{P}_0$  with  $\rho(0) = P_0$ , the parallel transport of a tangent field X along  $\rho$  is  $U(t)XU^*(t)$ , where U is the horizontal lifting of  $\rho$  with U(0) = 1. A geodesic of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  is a curve  $\delta$ , such that the field  $\dot{\delta}$  equals the parallel transport of  $\dot{\delta}(0)$  along  $\delta$ . The geodesics can be explicitly computed:

**Proposition 4.5.** If  $P_0 \in \mathcal{P}_0$  and  $X_0 \in \mathcal{C}_{P_0}$ , then the unique geodesic  $\delta : [0,1] \to \mathcal{P}_0$  of the above connection, with  $\delta(0) = P_0$  and initial velocity  $\dot{\delta}(0) = X_0$  is given by

$$\delta(t) = e^{t\tilde{X}_0} P_0 e^{-\tilde{X}_0}.$$

In Riemannian geometry, one expects that, at least locally, geodesics have minimal length. This may not be the case when one deals with non Riemannian manifolds. This is the case of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ . If  $\mathcal{H}$  is finite dimensional,  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  can be endowed with a Riemannian metric, by considering the Frobenius norm at every tangent space:  $|X| = Tr(X^*X)^{1/2}$ . For infinite dimensional  $\mathcal{H}$ , this norm is not available, and the natural choice is the usual operator norm. This norm is highly non-smooth. We define thus the length functional  $\ell$  in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  as

$$\ell(\rho) = \int_0^1 \|\frac{d}{dt}\rho(t)\|dt,$$

for  $\rho:[0,1]\to\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  a smooth curve. Combining results of Porta and Recht [52] and [3] one has

**Theorem 4.6.** Let  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , then the following are equivalent:

- 1. P and Q can be be joined by a geodesic of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ .
- 2. P and Q can be be joined by a geodesic of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , which is a global minimum of  $\ell$ .
- 3. dim  $R(P) \cap N(Q) = \dim R(Q) \cap N(P)$ .

Moreover, there exists a unique geodesic which is a minimum for  $\ell$  if and only if

$$R(P) \cap N(Q) = R(Q) \cap N(P) = \{0\}.$$
 (5)

It is a remarkable fact that some of these results hold for the rectifiable metric in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , which does not take into account the differentiable structure of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ . This theory was developed by Brown [14].

Condition (5) above, implies the existence of a selfadjoint operator  $X_{P,Q}$  (=  $-i\tilde{X}_0$  in the above notation) such that

$$\delta_{P,Q}(t) = e^{itX_{P,Q}} P e^{-itX_{P,Q}},\tag{6}$$

is the unique minimal geodesic joining P and Q. The exponent  $X_{P,Q}$  is a selfadjoint operator, which is P (and Q)-codiagonal, i.e., its matrix in terms of the decomposition  $\mathcal{H} = R(P) \oplus N(P)$  is codiagonal, with  $||X_{P,Q}|| \leq \pi/2$ . This curve  $\delta_{P,Q}$  has minimal length (equal to  $||X_{P,Q}||$ ) among all possible piecewise differentiable curves of projections joining P and Q. The norm of  $X_{P,Q}$  is related to the usual distance between P and Q (see for instance [9]):

$$||P - Q|| = \sin(||X_{P,Q}||),$$

including the case ||P - Q|| = 1, when  $||X_{P,Q}|| = \pi/2$ .

## 5 Operator inequalities from short paths of projections

Let  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  which satisfy condition (5). If P(t),  $t \in [a, b]$  is a piecewise smooth curve in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$ , then its length is not smaller than the length of  $\delta_{P,Q}$ ,

$$\ell(P(t)) = \int_a^b \|\frac{d}{dt}P(t)\|dt \ge \|X_{P,Q}\| = \sin^{-1}(\|P - Q\|).$$

As we shall see in the examples, the integral on the left hand side is often the norm of a commutator, thus the above generic inequality takes the form of the lower bound for the norm of a commutator.

The reader is invited to produce examples of his interest, and try this method to obtain a new inequalities. We shall consider three families of examples, which will be discussed below:

**Example 5.1.** Let  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ ,  $I, J \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  measurable sets of finite Lebesgue measure, and the projections  $P = P_I$  and  $Q = Q_J$  given by

$$P_I f = \chi_I f$$
 and  $Q_J f = \left(\chi_J \hat{f}\right)$ ,

where  $\chi_L$  denotes the characteristic function of the set L, and  $\hat{\ }$ , denote the Fourier-Plancherel transform and anti-transform, respectively. Equivalently, denoting by  $U_{\mathcal{F}}$  the Fourier-Plancherel transformation regarded as a unitary operator acting in  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and by  $M_{\varphi}$  multiplication by  $\varphi$ , then

$$P_I = M_{\chi_I}$$
 and  $Q_J = U_{\mathcal{F}}^* P_J U_{\mathcal{F}}$ .

This pair of projections, and specifically the norm of  $||P_IQ_J||$  are central in mathematical formulation of the uncertainty principle (see [28]).

**Example 5.2.** Let  $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\mathbb{T}$  the 1-torus,  $\varphi, \psi : \mathbb{T} \to \mathbb{T}$  continuous functions, and  $\mathcal{H}_{\varphi} = \varphi H^2(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\mathcal{H}_{\psi} = \psi H^2(\mathbb{T})$ , where  $H^2(\mathbb{T})$  is the Hardy space. Put

$$P = P_{\mathcal{H}_{\varphi}}$$
 and  $Q = P_{\mathcal{H}_{\psi}}$ ,

the orthogonal projections onto  $\mathcal{H}_{\varphi}$  and  $\mathcal{H}_{\psi}$ , respectively. If we denote by  $P_{+}$  the projection onto  $H^{2}(\mathbb{T})$ , then the fact that  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are unimodular means that the multiplication operators  $M_{\varphi}$  and  $M_{\psi}$  are unitary operators in  $\mathcal{H}$ , and thus

$$P = M_{\varphi} P_{+} M_{\bar{\varphi}}$$
 and  $Q = M_{\psi} P_{+} M_{\bar{\psi}}$ .

**Example 5.3.** Let E be an idempotent operator. Consider  $P = P_{R(E)}$  and  $Q = P_{N(E)^{\perp}} = P_{R(E^*)}$ . Note that

$$R(P) \cap N(Q) = R(E) \cap N(E) = \{0\} \text{ and } N(P) \cap R(Q) = N(E^*) \cap R(E^*) = \{0\}.$$

Thus there exists a unique geodesic joining the ranges of E and  $E^*$ .

#### 5.1 The first example.

The facts exposed here are either known in the literature (see the excellent survey article [28] by Folland and Sitaram), or were obtained in the paper [8]. Condition (5) is well established in Examples 5.1:

**Lemma 5.4.** Let P and Q as in example 5.1. Then condition (5) holds.

*Proof.* Lenard proved in [46] (see also [28]) that the only common eigenvectors of  $P_I$  and  $Q_J$  are those of  $N(P_I) \cap N(Q_J)$ , which has infinite dimension.

It is also known that  $P_IQ_J$  is a nuclear operator (thus compact) [28], and that  $||P_I-Q_J||=1$ . This can be derived from the fact that  $P_IQ_J$  is compact: in the Calkin algebra, the classes  $[P_I] \neq 0$  and  $[Q_J] \neq 0$  are projections such that  $[P_IQ_J] = 0$ , thus  $||[P_I] - [Q_J]|| = 1$ . Then

$$1 = ||[P_I - Q_J]|| \le ||P_I - Q_J|| \le 1.$$

Then  $||X_{P_I,Q_J}|| = \pi/2$ 

The co-diagonal exponent  $X_{P_I,Q_J}$  has interesting features when I=J.

If we pick I = J (with  $|I| < \infty$ ), and denote by  $X_I = X_{P_I,Q_I}$ , there are two unitary operators intertwining  $P_I$  and  $Q_I$ . Namely, the Fourier transform  $U_{\mathcal{F}}$  and the exponential  $e^{iX_I}$ ,

$$U_{\mathcal{T}}^* P_I U_{\mathcal{F}} = Q_I = e^{iX_I} P_I e^{-iX_I}.$$

Let  $H = H^*$  be the natural logarithm of the Fourier transform,  $e^{iH} = U_{\mathcal{F}}$ . Namely, denoting by  $E_1$ ,  $E_{-1}$ ,  $E_i$  and  $E_{-i}$  the eigenprojections of  $U_{\mathcal{F}}$ ,

$$H = -\pi E_{-1} + \frac{\pi}{2} E_i - \frac{\pi}{2} E_{-i}.$$

One obtains a smooth path joining  $P_I$  and  $Q_I$ :

$$\varphi(t) = e^{-itH} P_I e^{itH}.$$

Indeed, apparently  $\varphi(1) = Q_I$ .

**Theorem 5.5.** For any Lebesgue measurable set  $I \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $|I| < \infty$ , one has

$$||[H, P_I]|| = ||[H, Q_I]|| \ge \pi/2.$$

*Proof.* The geodesic  $\delta_I$  with exponent  $X_I$  is the shortest curve in  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{H})$  joining  $P_I$  and  $Q_I$ . Its length is  $\pi/2$ . Then

$$\pi/2 \le \ell(\varphi) = \int_0^1 \|\dot{\varphi}(t)\| dt = \int_0^1 \|e^{itH}[H, P_I]e^{-itH}\| dt = \|[H, P_I]\|.$$

Note that

$$U_{\mathcal{F}}^*[H, P_I]U_{\mathcal{F}} = [H, U_{\mathcal{F}}^*P_IU_{\mathcal{F}}] = [H, Q_I]$$

because  $U_{\mathcal{F}}$  and H commute.

**Remark 5.6.** We may write H in terms of  $U_{\mathcal{F}}$  using the formulas

$$E_{-1} = \frac{1}{4}(1 - U_{\mathcal{F}} + U_{\mathcal{F}}^2 - U_{\mathcal{F}}^3), \ E_{i} = \frac{1}{4}(1 - iU_{\mathcal{F}} - U_{\mathcal{F}}^2 + iU_{\mathcal{F}}^3), \ E_{-i} = \frac{1}{4}(1 + iU_{\mathcal{F}} - U_{\mathcal{F}}^2 - iU_{\mathcal{F}}^3),$$

and thus

$$H = \frac{\pi}{4} \{ -1 + (1+i)U_{\mathcal{F}} - U_{\mathcal{F}}^2 + (1+i)U_{\mathcal{F}}^3 \}.$$

Then

$$[H, P_I] = \frac{\pi}{4} \{ (1+i)[U_{\mathcal{F}}, P_I] - [U_{\mathcal{F}}^2, P_I] + (1+i)[U_{\mathcal{F}}^3, P_I] \}.$$

The inequality in Theorem 5.5 can be written

$$||(1+i)[U_{\mathcal{F}}, P_I] - [U_{\mathcal{F}}^2, P_I] + (1+i)[U_{\mathcal{F}}^3, P_I]|| \ge 2.$$

#### 5.2 The second example

The facts presented in this section were obtained in [5]. We begin by analyzing condition (5).

**Lemma 5.7.** Let  $P = P_{\mathcal{H}_{\varphi}}$  and  $Q = P_{\mathcal{H}_{\psi}}$  with  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  as in example 5.2. Then condition (5) holds if and only if

$$w(\varphi) = w(\psi),$$

where w(f) stands for the winding number of f.

*Proof.* We give a sketch of the proof. It relies on basic facts on Toeplitz operators (see for instance [25]). If  $h \in L^{\infty}(\mathbb{T})$ , denote by  $T_h$  the Toeplitz operator with symbol h. First note that the restriction of the multiplication operator

$$M_{\psi}|_{N(T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi})}:N(T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi})\to\mathcal{H}_{\varphi}^{\perp}\cap\mathcal{H}_{\psi}$$

is an isomorphism, and similarly  $N(T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}})$  is isomorphic to  $\mathcal{H}_{\varphi} \cap \mathcal{H}_{\psi}^{\perp}$ . Thus condition (5) is equivalent to both  $T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi}$  and  $T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}$  having trivial nullspace.

Since  $\bar{\varphi}\psi$  is invertible in  $C(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi}$  is a Fredholm operator. Its index is

$$w(\bar{\varphi}\psi) = w(\psi) - w(\varphi).$$

If the winding numbers coincide, the index is zero and thus  $T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi}$  is invertible, and in particular  $N(T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi})$  is trivial. The other nullspace is trivial analogously.

Conversely, if both null spaces are trivial, the index of  $T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi}$  is trivial, and thus  $T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi}$  (being a Toeplitz operator) is in fact invertible.

In what follows, we assume that  $w(\varphi) = w(\psi)$ . Let us denote by  $X_{\varphi,\psi} = X_{P_{\mathcal{H}_{\varphi}},P_{\mathcal{H}_{\psi}}}$ .

In order to compute the norm of  $X_{\varphi,\psi}$ , it will be useful to employ the decomposition of a Hilbert space in the presence of two projections (see Dixmier [24], Halmos [32]). Consider

$$\mathcal{H}_{11} = R(P) \cap R(Q)$$
,  $\mathcal{H}_{00} = N(P) \cap N(Q)$ ,  $\mathcal{H}_{10} = R(P) \cap N(Q)$ ,  $\mathcal{H}_{01} = N(P) \cap R(Q)$ 

and  $\mathcal{H}_0$  the orthogonal complement of the sum of the above. This last subspace is usually called the *generic part* of the pair P, Q. Note also that

$$N(P-Q) = \mathcal{H}_{11} \oplus \mathcal{H}_{00}$$
,  $N(P-Q-1) = \mathcal{H}_{10}$  and  $N(P-Q+1) = \mathcal{H}_{01}$ ,

so that the generic part depends in fact of the difference P-Q.

Halmos [32] proved that there is an isometric isomorphism between  $\mathcal{H}_0$  and a product Hilbert space  $\mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{L}$  such that in the above decomposition (putting  $\mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{L}$  in place of  $\mathcal{H}_0$ ), the projections are

$$P = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$Q = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus \left( \begin{array}{cc} C^2 & CS \\ CS & S^2 \end{array} \right),$$

where C = cos(Z) and S = sin(Z) for some operator  $0 \le Z \le \pi/2$  in  $\mathcal{L}$  with trivial nullspace. Let us denote by  $P_0 = P|_{\mathcal{H}_0}, Q_0 = Q|_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ , and  $X_0 = X_{P,Q}|_{\mathcal{H}_0}$ . Then

$$X_{P,Q} = \left( \begin{array}{cc} 0 & iZ \\ -iZ & 0 \end{array} \right).$$

Recall the definition of the reduced minimum modulus  $\gamma(A)$  of an operator A:

$$\gamma(A) = \inf\{\|Af\| : \|f\| = 1, f \in N(A)^{\perp}\} = \inf\{\sigma(A) \setminus \{0\}\}.$$

**Proposition 5.8.** Let  $\varphi, \psi$  be continuous unimodular functions in  $\mathbb{T}$  with  $w(\varphi) = w(\psi)$ . Then

$$Z = M_{\varphi} \cos^{-1} \left( |T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}| \right) M_{\bar{\varphi}}$$

and, in particular,

$$||X_{\varphi,\psi}|| = \cos^{-1}(\gamma(T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}})).$$

*Proof.* On the non generic part of  $P_{\varphi}$  and  $P_{\psi}$ , the operator  $X = X_{\varphi,\psi}$  is trivial. Then, in order to compute its norm, we restrict to the generic part. In this subspace it can be described by Halmos' model,

$$X_0 = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & iZ \\ -iZ & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

Then

$$Q_0 P_0 Q_0 = \left( \begin{array}{cc} C^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array} \right).$$

Now

$$C^{2} = P_{\varphi}P_{\psi}P_{\varphi} = (M_{\varphi}P_{+}M_{\bar{\varphi}})(M_{\psi}P_{+}M_{\bar{\psi}})(M_{\varphi}P_{+}M_{\bar{\varphi}}) = M_{\varphi}T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}^{*}T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}M_{\bar{\varphi}} = M_{\varphi}|T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}|^{2}M_{\bar{\varphi}}$$

Therefore  $0 \leq C = \cos(Z) = M_{\varphi} |T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}| M_{\bar{\varphi}}$ , and thus,  $Z = M_{\varphi} \cos^{-1} (|T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}|) M_{\bar{\varphi}}$ . From this formula, it follows that

$$||X_{\varphi,\psi}|| = ||\cos^{-1}(|T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}|)|| = \cos^{-1}(\lambda_0),$$

where

$$\lambda_0 = \inf \sigma(|T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}|) = \inf \sigma(|T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}|) \setminus \{0\} = \gamma(T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}).$$

The second equality can be deduced from the assumption that  $T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}$  is injective, which implies that 0 cannot be an isolated point of  $\sigma(|T_{\varphi\bar{\psi}}|)$ .

If  $\varphi$ ,  $\psi$  are continuous unimodular functions with  $w(\varphi) = w(\psi)$ , by Arens-Royden's theorem there exists a unique continuous real function  $\theta$  in  $\mathbb{T}$ , with  $-\pi \leq \theta \leq \pi$  such that

$$e^{i\theta} = \bar{\varphi}\psi.$$

Let us call  $\theta$  the argument of  $\bar{\varphi}\psi$ .

**Theorem 5.9.** Let  $\varphi, \psi$  be continuous unimodular functions in  $\mathbb{T}$  such that  $w(\varphi) = w(\psi)$ . Then

$$||[M_{\theta}, P_{+}]|| \ge \cos^{-1}(\gamma(T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi})),$$

where  $\theta$  is the argument of  $\bar{\varphi}\psi$ .

*Proof.* We have that  $e^{i\theta} = \bar{\varphi}\psi$ . Consider the curve

$$\alpha(t) = M_{e^{it\theta}} P_{\varphi} M_{e^{-it\theta}}.$$

Apparently,  $\alpha(t)$  is a smooth curve in Gr with  $\alpha(0) = P_{\varphi}$  and  $\alpha(1) = M_{\bar{\varphi}\psi}P_{\varphi}M_{\varphi\bar{\psi}} = P_{\psi}$ . Then,  $\alpha(t)$  is longer than the (unique) minimal geodesic which joins  $\varphi H^2$  and  $\psi H^2$ , whose length is  $\|X_{\varphi,\psi}\|$ . Note that

$$\dot{\alpha}(t) = i M_{e^{it\theta}} M_{\theta} P_{\varphi} - i P_{\varphi} M_{\theta} M_{e^{-it\theta}} = i M_{e^{it\theta}} M_{\varphi} (M_{\theta} P_{+} - P_{+} M_{\theta}) M_{\bar{\varphi}} M_{e^{-it\theta}} .$$

Thus, we have that  $\|\dot{\alpha}(t)\| = \|M_{\theta}P_{+} - P_{+}M_{\theta}\|$ , and using Proposition 5.8, we obtain

$$\cos^{-1}(\gamma(T_{\bar{\varphi}\psi})) = ||X_{\varphi,\psi}|| \le L(\alpha) = \int_0^1 ||\dot{\alpha}(t)|| dt = ||M_\theta P_+ - P_+ M_\theta||.$$

**Remark 5.10.** In the above theorem, note that the operator  $M_{\theta}$  is selfadjoint. Therefore the commutator  $[M_{\theta}, P_{+}] = M_{\theta}P_{+} - P_{+}M_{\theta}$  is anti-hermitian. Also elementary computations show that

$$P_{+}[M_{\theta}, P_{+}]P_{+} = P_{-}[M_{\theta}, P_{+}]P_{-} = 0,$$

i.e.  $[M_{\theta}, P_{+}]$  is co-diagonal with respect to  $P_{+}$ . Thus, its norm equals the norm of the 1, 2 entry in the  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $M_{\theta}$ , which is the Hankel operator  $H_{\theta}$  (with symbol  $\theta$ ):

$$||[M_{\theta}, P_{+}]|| = ||P_{-}M_{\theta}P_{+}|| = ||H_{\theta}||.$$

Then, by Nehari's theorem (see for instance [50]),

$$||[M_{\theta}, P_{+}]|| = \inf\{||\theta - f||_{\infty} : f \in H^{\infty}\}.$$

Hence,

$$||X_{(\alpha, \eta)}|| < \inf\{||\theta - f||_{\infty} : f \in H^{\infty}\}.$$

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### 5.3 The third example

The idempotent E can be written as a  $2 \times 2$  matrix in terms of the decomposition  $\mathcal{H} = R(E) \oplus R(E)^{\perp}$ 

$$E = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & B \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right),$$

where  $B: R(E)^{\perp} \to R(E)$ . Consider the operator  $S = E + E^* - 1$ . Note that S is selfadjoint and invertible. Indeed, its square is

$$S^2 = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 + BB^* & 0\\ 0 & 1 + B^*B \end{array}\right).$$

Also it is clear that  $SE = E^*S$ ,  $SE^* = ES$ . Then  $ES^2 = S^2E$  and  $E^*S^2 = S^2E^*$ . It follows that if  $\Sigma$  is the isometric part in the polar decomposition of S,

$$S = \Sigma |E| = |E|\Sigma$$

then  $\Sigma = S|E|^{-1}$  is a selfadjoint unitary operator (i.e., a symmetry). Moreover, since  $E, E^*$  commute with  $S^2$ , they commute also with  $|S| = (S^2)^{1/2}$ , and  $\Sigma$  satisfies

$$\Sigma E = S|S|^{-1}E = SE|S|^{-1} = E^*S|S|^{-1} = E^*\Sigma.$$

Clearly also  $\Sigma E^* = E\Sigma$ . Recall from Corollary 3.3 ([15]),

$$P_{R(E)} = ES^{-1}$$
 and  $P_{R(E^*)} = E^*S^{-1}$ .

Therefore  $\Sigma P_{R(E)}\Sigma = P_{R(E^*)}$ .

**Remark 5.11.** Any other unitary operator conjugating  $P_{R(E)}$  and  $P_{R(E^*)}$  will be of the form  $\Sigma W$ , with W a unitary operator commuting with  $P_{R(E)}$ . Let  $Z^* = Z$  with  $\|Z\| \leq \pi$  such that  $e^{iZ} = \Sigma W$ . Then

$$P(t) = e^{itZ} P_{R(E)} e^{-itZ}, t \in [0, 1].$$

is a curve joining  $P_{R(E)}$  and  $P_{R(E^*)}$  with constant speed (and length) equal to

$$\|\dot{P}(t)\| = \|e^{itZ}[Z, P_{R(E)}]e^{-itZ}\| = \|[Z, P_{R(E)}]\|.$$

For instance one could choose W = 1. Note that since  $\Sigma$  is a symmetry, its spectral decomposition is very simple, namely

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{2}(1+\Sigma) - \frac{1}{2}(1-\Sigma),$$

where  $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \Sigma)$  are the eigenprojections corresponding to the eigenvalues  $\pm 1$ . Then

$$\log(\Sigma) = i\frac{\pi}{2}(1-\Sigma) \text{ and } [\log(\Sigma), P_{R(E)}] = i\frac{\pi}{2}[\Sigma, P_{R(E)}].$$

Then

$$\ell(P(t)) = \frac{\pi}{2} \|\Sigma, P_{R(E)}]\| = \frac{\pi}{2} \|\Sigma P_{R(E)} - P_{R(E)}\Sigma\| = \frac{\pi}{2} \|P_{R(E)} - \Sigma P_{R(E)}\Sigma\| = \frac{\pi}{2} \|P_{R(E)} - P_{R(E^*)}\|.$$

This curve P(t) above is not a geodesic, though it is related to the geodesic which joins  $P_{R(E)}$  and  $P_{R(E^*)}$ .

In [20] Chandler Davis considered for two projections  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  such that  $P_1 + P_2 - 1$  has trivial kernel, the symmetry V obtained as above, by means of the polar decomposition  $P_1 + P_2 - 1 = V|P_1 + P_2 - 1|$ . If we put  $P_1 = P_{R(E)}$  and  $P_2 = P_{R(E^*)}$ , then

$$P_1 + P_2 - 1 = P_{R(E)} + P_{N(E)^{\perp}} - 1 = P_{R(E)} - P_{N(E)}.$$

It follows from Corollary 3.3 that this latter operator is precisely  $S^{-1}$ . Therefore, in this case Davis' symmetry V coincides with  $\Sigma$ : they are, respectively, the unitary parts in the polar decompositions of  $S^{-1}$  and S (the unitary part of a selfadjoint operator A with trivial nullspace is in fact the sign function sign(A); clearly  $sign(S) = sign(S^{-1})$ ).

On the other hand, in [3] it was shown that if there exists a unique geodesic joining P and Q, then it is given by

$$V(2P-1) = e^{iX_{P,Q}}.$$

Thus, in our situation,  $X = X_{P_{R(E)}, P_{R(E^*)}}$  is given by

$$\Sigma(2P_{R(E)}-1)=e^{iX}$$
, i.e.,  $X=\log(\Sigma(2P_{R(E)}-1))$ .

In order to compute the norm of this operator, we shall need the matrix form of  $e^{iX}$ :

$$e^{iX} = S(S^2)^{-1/2} (2P_{R(E)} - 1) =$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & B \\ B^* & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{-1/2} & 0 \\ 0 & (1 + B^*B)^{-1/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} (1 + BB^*)^{-1/2} & -B(1 + B^*B)^{-1/2} \\ B^*(1 + BB^*)^{-1/2} & (1 + B^*B)^{-1/2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $\xi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}$ , let  $\psi \otimes \xi$  denote the rank one operator given by  $\eta \mapsto \langle \eta, \xi \rangle \psi$ . We shall also need the following result:

**Lemma 5.12.** Suppose that  $B: R(E)^{\perp} \to R(E)$  has a singular value decomposition

$$B = \sum_{n>1} r_n \psi_n \otimes \xi_n,$$

where  $\{\psi_n\}$  and  $\{\xi_n\}$  are orthonormal systems in R(E) and  $R(E)^{\perp}$ , respectively. Then X is diagonalizable, with eigenvalues  $\pm \arctan(r_n)$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $B^* = \sum_{n \geq 1} r_n \xi_n \otimes \psi_n$ ,  $BB^* = \sum_{n \geq 1} r_n^2 \psi_n \otimes \psi_n$  and  $B^*B = \sum_{n \geq 1} r_n^2 \xi_n \otimes \xi_n$ . Fix  $n_0 \geq 1$ . Note that  $\xi_{n_0} \in R(E)^{\perp}$  and  $\psi_{n_0} \in R(E)$  are orthogonal, and span an invariant subspace for  $e^{iX}$ :

$$e^{iX}\xi_{n_0} = \begin{pmatrix} (1+BB^*)^{-1/2} & -B(1+B^*B)^{-1/2} \\ B^*(1+BB^*)^{-1/2} & (1+B^*B)^{-1/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \xi_{n_0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -B(1+B^*B)^{-1/2}\xi_{n_0} \\ (1+B^*B)^{-1/2}\xi_{n_0} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -r_{n_0}(1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2}\psi_{n_0} \\ (1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2}\xi_{n_0} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Similarly,

$$e^{iX}\psi_{n_0} = \begin{pmatrix} (1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2}\psi_{n_0} \\ r_{n_0}(1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2}\xi_{n_0} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Moreover, the matrix of  $e^{iX}$  restricted to the subspace spanned by  $\psi_{n_0}, \xi_{n_0}$  (written in this orthonormal basis) is

$$\left( \begin{array}{cc} (1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2} & -r_{n_0}(1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2} \\ r_{n_0}(1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2} & (1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2} \end{array} \right),$$

whose eigenvalues are  $(1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2} \pm ir_{n_0}(1+r_{n_0}^2)^{-1/2}$ . The full operator  $e^{iX}$  is therefore diagonalized as an orthogonal sum of  $2 \times 2$  blocks, each block having these eigenvalues. Elementary computations show that the eigenvalues of X are  $\pm \arctan(r_n)$ .

**Proposition 5.13.** In the general case, for arbitrary  $B: R(E)^{\perp} \to R(E)$ , the norm of X is

$$||X|| = \arctan(||B||).$$

*Proof.* One can approximate B with  $B_k$  having singular values decompositions: for instance, put  $B = V_0|B|$  the polar decomposition of B, and approximate |B| with diagonalizable operators. Then, if we denote by  $X_k$  the exponent induced as above by the operator  $B_k$ , it is clear that  $X_k \to X$  (=the exponent corresponding to B). Then  $||X_k|| \to ||X||$ . On the other hand, denoting by  $\{r_{n,k} : n \ge 1\}$  the singular values of  $B_k$ , from the above Lemma, it is clear that

$$||X_k|| = \sup_{n\geq 1} \arctan(r_{n,k}) = \arctan(\sup_{n\geq 1} r_{n,k}) = \arctan(||B_k||) \rightarrow \arctan(||B||).$$

Corollary 5.14. Let  $Z^* = Z$  such that  $e^{iZ} = \Sigma W$ , where W is a unitary operator that commutes with  $P_{R(E)}$ . Then

$$||[Z, P_{R(E)}]|| \ge \arctan(||B||).$$

**Remark 5.15.** Note that this implies that for any idempotent E,

$$||P_{R(E)} - P_{R(E^*)}|| < 1.$$

**Remark 5.16.** Recall from Section 4, that the geodesic distance is related with the norm by the equation

$$d(P_{R(E)}, P_{N(E)^{\perp}}) = \sin^{-1}(\|P_{R(E)} - P_{R(E^*)}\|).$$

Combining these facts, after elementary computations, one gets that

$$||P_{R(E)} - P_{R(E^*)}|| = \frac{||B||}{(1 + ||B||^2)^{1/2}}.$$

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