



**YOUNG'S INEQUALITY IN COMPACT OPERATORS – THE CASE OF  
EQUALITY**

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ABSTRACT. If  $a$  and  $b$  are compact operators acting on a complex separable Hilbert space, and if  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  satisfy  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , then there exists a partial isometry  $u$  such that the initial space of  $u$  is  $(\ker(|ab^*|))^\perp$  and

$$u|ab^*|u^* \leq \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

Furthermore, if  $|ab^*|$  is injective, then the operator  $u$  in the inequality above can be taken as a unitary. In this paper, we discuss the case of equality of this Young's inequality, and obtain a characterization for compact normal operators.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Operator and matrix versions of classical inequalities are of considerable interest, and there is an extensive body of literature treating this subject; see, for example, [1] – [4], [6] – [11]. In one direction, many of the operator inequalities to have come under study are inequalities between the norms of operators. However, a second line of research is concerned with inequalities arising from the partial order on Hermitian operators acting on a Hilbert space. It is in this latter direction that this paper aims.

A fundamental inequality between positive real numbers is the arithmetic-geometric mean inequality, which is of interest herein, as is its generalisation in the form of Young's inequality.

For the positive real numbers  $a, b$ , the arithmetic-geometric mean inequality says that

$$\sqrt{ab} \leq \frac{1}{2}(a + b).$$

Replacing  $a, b$  by their squares, this could be written in the form

$$ab \leq \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2).$$

R. Bhatia and F. Kittaneh [3] extended the arithmetic-geometric mean inequality to positive (semi-definite) matrices  $a, b$  in the following manner: for any  $n \times n$  positive matrices  $a, b$ , there is an  $n \times n$  unitary matrix  $u$  such that

$$u|ab^*|u^* \leq \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2).$$

(The modulus  $|y|$  is defined by

$$|y| = (y^*y)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

for any  $n \times n$  complex matrix  $y$ .) We note that the product  $ab$  of two positive matrices  $a$  and  $b$  is not necessarily positive.

Young's inequality is a generalisation of the arithmetic-geometric mean inequality: for any positive real numbers  $a, b$ , and any  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  with  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ ,

$$ab \leq \frac{1}{p}a^p + \frac{1}{q}b^q.$$

T. Ando [2] showed Young's inequality admits a matrix-valued version analogous to the Bhatia–Kittaneh theorem: if  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  satisfy  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , then for any pair  $a, b$  of  $n \times n$  complex matrices, there is a unitary matrix  $u$  such that

$$u|ab^*|u^* \leq \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

Although finite-rank operators are norm-dense in the set of all compact operators acting on a fixed Hilbert space, the Ando–Bhatia–Kittaneh inequalities, like most matrix inequalities, do not immediately carry over to compact operators via the usual approximation methods, and consequently only a few of the fundamental matrix inequalities are known to hold in compact operators.

J. Erlijman, D. R. Farenick, and the author [4] developed a technique through which the Ando–Bhatia–Kittaneh results extend to compact operators, and established the following version of Young's inequality.

**Theorem 1.1.** *If  $a$  and  $b$  are compact operators acting on a complex separable Hilbert space, and if  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  satisfy  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , then there is a partial isometry  $u$  such that the initial space of  $u$  is  $(\ker(|ab^*|))^\perp$  and*

$$u|ab^*|u^* \leq \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

*Furthermore, if  $|ab^*|$  is injective, then the operator  $u$  in the inequality above can be taken to be a unitary.*

Theorem 1.1 is made in a special case as a corollary below.

**Corollary 1.2.** *If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive compact operators with trivial kernels, and if  $t \in [0, 1]$ , then there is a unitary  $u$  such that*

$$u|a^t b^{1-t}|u^* \leq ta + (1-t)b.$$

The proof of the following Theorem 1.3 is very straightforward.

**Theorem 1.3.** *If  $A$  is a commutative  $C^*$ -algebra with multiplicative identity, and if  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  satisfy  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , then*

$$|ab^*| \leq \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q$$

for all  $a, b \in A$ . Furthermore, if the equality holds, then

$$|b| = |a|^{p-1}.$$

## 2. AN EXAMPLE

We give an example here for convenience.

We illustrate that, in general, we do not have

$$|ab^*| \leq \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

But, for this example, there exists a unitary  $u$  such that

$$u|ab^*|u^* \leq \frac{1}{2}(|a|^p + |b|^q).$$

**Example 2.1.** If  $a = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $a$  and  $b$  are (semi-definite) positive and

$$\frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$|ab^*| = |ab| = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

However,

$$c = \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2) - |ab| = \begin{pmatrix} 3 - \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} & 1 - \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} \\ 1 - \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} & 3 - \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

is not a (semi-definite) positive matrix, i.e.,  $c = \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2) - |ab| \geq 0$  does not hold. (In fact, the determinant of  $c$  satisfies that  $\det(c) < 0$ ). So, we do not have

$$|ab| \leq \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2).$$

But the spectrum of  $|ab|$  is

$$\sigma(|ab|) = \{\sqrt{10}, 0\},$$

the spectrum of  $\frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2)$  is

$$\sigma\left(\frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2)\right) = \left\{\frac{7}{2}, 1\right\}.$$

Therefore, there exists a unitary matrix  $u$  such that

$$u|ab|u^* \leq \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2).$$

We compute the unitary matrix  $u$  as follows.

Taking unitary matrices

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$w = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

we then have

$$v \left( \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2) \right) v^* = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{7}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$w|ab|w^* = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{10} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore

$$w|ab|w^* \leq v \left( \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2) \right) v^*.$$

By taking a unitary matrix

$$u = v^*w = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{pmatrix} -3 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix},$$

we get

$$u|ab|u^* \leq \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2).$$

### 3. THE CASE OF EQUALITY IN COMMUTING NORMAL OPERATORS

In this section, we discuss the cases of equality in Young's inequality.

Assume that  $H$  denotes a complex, separable Hilbert space of finite or infinite dimension. The inner product of vectors  $\xi, \eta \in H$  is denoted by  $\langle \xi, \eta \rangle$ , and the norm of  $\xi \in H$  is denoted by  $\|\xi\|$ .

If  $x : H \rightarrow H$  is a linear transformation, then  $x$  is called an operator (on  $H$ ) if  $x$  is also continuous with respect to the norm-topology on  $H$ . The complex algebra of all operators on  $H$  is denoted by  $B(H)$ , which is a  $C^*$ -algebra. We use  $x^*$  to denote the adjoint of  $x \in B(H)$ .

An operator  $x$  on  $H$  is said to be Hermitian if  $x^* = x$ . A Hermitian operator  $x$  is positive if  $\sigma(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_0^+$ , where  $\sigma(x)$  is the spectrum of  $x$ , and  $\mathbb{R}_0^+$  is the set of non-negative numbers. Equivalently,  $x \in B(H)$  is positive if and only if  $\langle x\xi, \xi \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\xi \in H$ . If  $a, b \in B(H)$  are Hermitian, then  $a \leq b$  shall henceforth denote that  $b - a$  is positive.

**Lemma 3.1.** *If  $a, b \in B(H)$  are normal and commuting, where  $B(H)$  is the complex algebra of all continuous linear operators on  $H$ , then*

$$|a||b| = |b||a|,$$

and  $|a||b|$  is positive.

*Proof.* We obviously have

$$a^*b^* = b^*a^*.$$

And by the Fuglede theorem [5] we get

$$a^*b = ba^*, \quad ab^* = b^*a.$$

On the other hand, if  $c, d \in B(H)$  with  $c, d$  positive and commuting, then

$$c^{1/2}d^{1/2} \cdot c^{1/2}d^{1/2} = c^{1/2}c^{1/2} \cdot d^{1/2}d^{1/2} = cd.$$

Hence

$$(cd)^{1/2} = c^{1/2}d^{1/2}.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} |a||b| &= (a^*a)^{1/2}(b^*b)^{1/2} \\ &= (a^*ab^*b)^{1/2} \\ &= (b^*b)^{1/2}(a^*a)^{1/2} \\ &= |b||a|. \end{aligned}$$

Which implies that  $|a||b|$  is positive and

$$|a||b| = (|a||b|)^* = |b||a|.$$

(In fact,  $|a||b|$  is the positive square root of the positive operator  $a^*ab^*b$ ). □

**Lemma 3.2.** *If  $a, b \in B(H)$  are normal operators such that  $ab = ba$ , then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (i) *the kernel of  $|ab^*| : \ker(|ab^*|) = \{0\}$ ;*
- (ii)  *$a$  and  $b$  are injective and have dense range.*

*Proof.* (i)  $\rightarrow$  (ii). Let  $b = w|b|$  be the polar decomposition of  $b$ . By observation we have

$$||a||b|| = (|b||a|^2|b|)^{1/2}.$$

Thus, because the closures of the ranges of a positive operator and its square root are equal, the closures of the ranges of  $|b||a|^2|b|$  and  $||a||b||$  are the same. Moreover, as  $w^*w||a||b|| = ||a||b||$ , we have that

$$(3.1) \quad f(w|b||a|^2|b|w^*) = wf(|b||a|^2|b|)w^*,$$

for all polynomials  $f$ . Choose  $\delta > 0$  so that  $\sigma(|b||a|^2|b|) \subseteq [0, \delta]$ . By the Weierstrass approximation theorem, there is a sequence of polynomials  $f_n$  such that  $f_n(t) \rightarrow \sqrt{t}$  ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) uniformly on  $[0, \delta]$ . Thus, from (3.1) and functional calculus,

$$(w|b||a|^2|b|w^*)^{1/2} = w(|b||a|^2|b|)^{1/2}w^* = w||a||b||w^*.$$

Let  $a = v|a|$  be the polar decomposition of  $a$ . Then the left-hand term in the equalities above expands as follows:

$$(w|b||a|^2|b|w^*)^{1/2} = w(|b||a|v^*v|a||b|)^{1/2}w^* = (ba^*ab^*)^{1/2} = |ab^*|.$$

Thus,

$$|ab^*| = w||a||b||w^*.$$

Because  $a$  and  $b$  are commuting normal, from Lemma 3.1  $|a||b| = |b||a|$  and  $|a||b|$  is positive. This implies that

$$|ab^*| = w|a||b|w^*.$$

If  $\xi \in \ker(w^*)$ , then  $\xi \in \ker(|ab^*|)$ . Hence  $\ker(w^*) = \{0\}$ , which means that the range of  $\text{ran}(w) = H$ . Hence,  $w$  is unitary. By the theorem on polar decomposition [5, p. 75],  $b$  is injective and has dense range.

Let  $a = v|a|$  be the polar decomposition of  $a$ . We know that  $ab = ba$  implies that  $ab^* = b^*a$  (again, by Fuglede theorem). Therefore, we can interchange the role of  $a$  and  $b$  in the previous paragraph to obtain:  $a^*$  is injective and has dense range. Thus,  $a$  is injective and has dense range.

(ii)  $\rightarrow$  (i). From the hypothesis we have polar decompositions  $a = v|a|$ ,  $b = w|b|$ , where  $v$  and  $w$  are unitary [5, p. 75]. Therefore,  $\ker(|a|) = \ker(|b|) = \{0\}$ . Because

$$|ab^*| = w|a||b|w^*$$

and  $w$  is unitary, we have

$$\ker(ab^*) = \{0\}.$$

□

**Lemma 3.3.** *If  $x \in B(H)$  is positive, compact, and injective, and if  $x \leq u^*xu$  for some unitary  $u$ , then  $u$  is diagonalisable and commutes with  $x$ .*

*Proof.* Because  $x$  is injective, the Hilbert space  $H$  is the direct sum of the eigenspaces of  $x$ :

$$H = \sum_{\lambda \in \sigma_p(x)}^{\oplus} \ker(x - \lambda 1).$$

Let

$$\sigma_p(x) = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots\},$$

where  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > 0$  are the (distinct) eigenvalues of  $x$ , listed in descending order. Our first goal is to prove that  $\ker(x - \lambda_j 1)$  is invariant under  $u$  and  $u^*$  for every positive integer  $j$ ; we shall do so by induction.

Start with  $\lambda_1$ ; note that  $\lambda_1 = \|x\|$ .

If  $\xi \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$  is a unit vector, then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= \lambda_1 \langle \xi, \xi \rangle \\ &= \langle \lambda_1 \xi, \xi \rangle \\ &= \langle x\xi, \xi \rangle \\ &\leq \langle u^*xu\xi, \xi \rangle \\ &= \langle xu\xi, u\xi \rangle \\ &\leq \|x\| \cdot \|u\xi\|^2 = \lambda_1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\langle xu\xi, u\xi \rangle = \lambda_1 = \max\{\langle x\eta, \eta \rangle : \|\eta\| = 1\}.$$

Which means that  $u\xi$  is an eigenvector of  $x$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$ . Then,

$$u\xi \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1).$$

Because  $\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$  is finite-dimensional and  $u$  is unitary, we have that

$$u : \ker(x - \lambda_1 1) \rightarrow \ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$$

is an isomorphism. Furthermore,  $U|_{\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)}$  is diagonalisable because

$$\dim(\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)) < \infty,$$

where  $U|_{\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)}$  is the restriction of  $U$  in the subspace  $\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$ . Hence,  $\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$  is invariant under  $u^*$  (because  $\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$  has a finite orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of  $u$ ), which means that if

$$\eta \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1),$$

then

$$u\eta \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1).$$

Now choose  $\lambda_2$ , and pick up a unit vector  $\xi \in \ker(x - \lambda_2 1)$ .

Note that

$$\lambda_2 = \max\{\langle x\eta, \eta \rangle : \|\eta\| = 1, \eta \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1)^\perp\}.$$

Using the arguments of the previous paragraph,

$$\lambda_2 \leq \langle x\xi, \xi \rangle \leq \langle xu\xi, u\xi \rangle \leq \lambda_2.$$

(Because  $u\xi$  is a unit vector orthogonal to  $\ker(x - \lambda_1 1)$ ). Hence, by the minimum maximum principle,

$$u\xi \in \ker(x - \lambda_2 1).$$

So

$$u : \ker(x - \lambda_2 1) \rightarrow \ker(x - \lambda_2 1)$$

is an isomorphism,  $\ker(x - \lambda_2 1)$  has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of  $u$ .

And if  $\eta \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1) \oplus \ker(x - \lambda_2 1)$ , then

$$u\eta \in \ker(x - \lambda_1 1) \oplus \ker(x - \lambda_2 1).$$

Inductively, assume that  $u$  leaves  $\ker(x - \lambda_j 1)$  invariant for all  $1 \leq j \leq k$ , and look at  $\lambda_{k+1}$ . By the arguments above,

$$\left( \sum_{1 \leq j \leq k}^{\oplus} \ker(x - \lambda_j 1) \right)^{\perp}$$

is also invariant under  $u$ . Hence, if  $\xi \in \ker(x - \lambda_{k+1} 1)$  is a unit vector, then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{k+1} &= \langle x\xi, \xi \rangle \\ &\leq \langle xu\xi, u\xi \rangle \\ &\leq \max \left\{ \langle x\eta, \eta \rangle : \|\eta\| = 1, \eta \in \left( \sum_{1 \leq j \leq k}^{\oplus} \ker(x - \lambda_j 1) \right)^{\perp} \right\} \\ &= \lambda_{k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

By the minimum-maximum principle,  $u\xi$  is an eigenvector of  $x$  corresponding to  $\lambda_{k+1}$ . Hence,

$$\ker(x - \lambda_{k+1} 1)$$

is invariant under  $u$  and  $u^*$ . This completes the induction process.

What these arguments show is that  $H$  has an orthonormal basis  $\{\phi\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  of eigenvectors of both  $x$  and  $u$ ; hence

$$xu\phi_j = ux\phi_j,$$

for each positive integer  $j$ . Consequently,

$$xu\xi = ux\xi, \forall \xi \in H.$$

meaning that

$$xu = ux.$$

□

Below is a major result of this paper

**Theorem 3.4.** *Assume that  $a, b \in B(H)$  are commuting compact normal operators, each being injective and having dense ranges. If there exists a unitary  $u$  such that:*

$$u|ab^*|u^* = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q,$$

for some  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  with  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , then

$$|b| = |a|^{p-1}.$$

*Proof.* By the hypothesis, if  $b = w|b|$  is the polar decomposition of  $b$ , then  $\ker(|ab^*|) = \{0\}$ , (Lemma 3.2) and  $w$  is unitary ([5, p. 75]). Moreover,

$$|ab^*| = w|a||b|w^*,$$

as  $a$  and  $b$  are commuting normals (noting that  $|a||b|$  is positive from Lemma 3.1). Thus  $u|ab^*|u^* = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q$  becomes

$$(3.2) \quad uw|a||b|w^*u^* = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

By Theorem 1.3, and because  $|a||b| = |b||a|$  (Lemma 3.2), we get

$$\frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q \geq |a||b|.$$

Hence from (3.2)

$$(3.3) \quad uw|a||b|w^*u^* = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q \geq |a||b|.$$

Because  $uw$  is unitary (since  $w$  is unitary from the proof of Lemma 3.2), and because  $|a||b|$  is positive, Lemma 3.3 yields

$$|a||b| = uw|a||b|w^*u^*.$$

Hence, (3.2) becomes

$$(3.4) \quad |a||b| = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

Let

$$\lambda_1(|a|) \geq \lambda_2(|a|) \geq \cdots > 0$$

and

$$\lambda_1(|b|) \geq \lambda_2(|b|) \geq \cdots > 0$$

be the eigenvalues of  $|a|$  and  $|b|$ . Because  $|a|$  and  $|b|$  belong to a commutative  $C^*$ -algebra, the spectra of  $|a||b|$  and  $\frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q$  are determined from the spectra of  $|a|$  and  $|b|$ , i.e., for each positive integer  $k$ ,

$$\lambda_k(|a||b|) = \lambda_k(|a|)\lambda_k(|b|),$$

and

$$\lambda_k\left(\frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q\right) = \frac{1}{p}\lambda_k(|a|)^p + \frac{1}{q}\lambda_k(|b|)^q.$$

Therefore, the equation (3.4) implies that for every  $k$

$$\lambda_k(|a|)\lambda_k(|b|) = \frac{1}{p}\lambda_k(|a|)^p + \frac{1}{q}\lambda_k(|b|)^q.$$

This is equality in the (scalar) Young's inequality, and hence for every  $k$

$$\lambda_k(|b|) = \lambda_k(|a|)^{p-1}$$

which yields (note that  $a$  and  $b$  are normal operators)

$$|b| = |a|^{p-1}.$$

□

From Theorem 3.4 we immediately have



**Corollary 3.5.** *If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive commuting compact operators such that  $|ab|$  is injective, and if there is an isometry  $v \in B(H)$  for which*

$$u|a^t b^{1-t}|u^* = ta + (1 - t)b$$

for some  $t \in [0, 1]$ , then

$$b = a^{t-1}.$$

**Theorem 3.6.** *Assume that  $a, b \in B(H)$  are commuting compact normal operators, each being injective and having dense range. If*

$$|b| = |a|^{p-1},$$

then there exists a unitary  $u$  such that:

$$u|ab^*|u^* = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q,$$

for  $p, q \in (1, \infty)$  with  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ .

*Proof.* By the hypothesis, it is easy to get

$$|a||b| = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q,$$

we note that  $|a||b|$  is positive here.

If  $b = w|b|$  is the polar decomposition of  $b$ , then  $\ker(|ab^*|) = \{0\}$  (Lemma 3.2),  $w$  is unitary ([5, p. 75]), and

$$|ab^*| = w|a||b|w^*.$$

Let  $u = w^*$ . Then

$$u|ab^*|u^* = \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q.$$

□

**Corollary 3.7.** *If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive commuting compact operators such that  $ab$  is injective, and if there exists  $t \in [0, 1]$  such that*

$$b = a^{t-1},$$

then there is an isometry  $v \in B(H)$  for which

$$u|a^t b^{1-t}|u^* = ta + (1 - t)b.$$

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