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ON THE STRUCTURE OF JORDAN *-DERIVATIONS
MATEJ BREŠAR (MARIBOR) And BORUT ZALAR (LJUBLJANA)

1. Introduction. Let $R$ be a *-ring, i.e., a ring with involution *. An additive mapping $E$ from $R$ to $R$ is called a Jordan *-derivation if

$$
E\left(x^{2}\right)=E(x) x^{*}+x E(x) \quad \text { for all } x \in R
$$

Note that the mapping $x \rightarrow a x^{*}-x a$, where $a$ is a fixed element in $R$, is a Jordan *-derivation; such Jordan *-derivations are said to be inner.

The study of Jordan *-derivations has been motivated by the problem of the representativity of quadratic forms by bilinear forms (for the results concerning this problem we refer to $[8,12,14-16]$ ). It turns out that the question whether each quadratic form can be represented by some bilinear form is intimately connected with the question whether every Jordan *derivation is inner, as shown by Šemrl [14].

In [4] Brešar and Vukman studied some algebraic properties of Jordan *-derivations. As a special case of [4; Theorem 1] we have that every Jordan *-derivation of a complex algebra $A$ with unit element is inner. Clearly, the requirement that $A$ must contain the unit element cannot be omittedfor example, if $A$ is a self-adjoint ideal in an algebra $B$, then the mapping $x \rightarrow b x^{*}-x b$, where $b \in B$, is a Jordan *-derivation of $A$ which is not necessarily inner. In this paper we prove that Jordan *-derivations of a rather wide class of complex *-algebras (in general without unit) can be represented by double centralizers (Theorem 2.1). As an application we obtain a result on automatic continuity of Jordan *-derivations (Corollary 2.3). As another application we determine the structure of Jordan *-derivations on the algebra of all compact linear operators on a complex Hilbert space (Corollary 2.4).

Roughly speaking, it is much more difficult to study Jordan *-derivations on real algebras than on complex algebras. Nevertheless, in [13] Šemrl showed that every Jordan *-derivation of $B(H)$, the algebra of all bounded linear operators on a real Hilbert space $H(\operatorname{dim} H>1)$, is inner. In the present paper, using a completely different approach, we give a new proof of this result. Our proof is based on two well-known results. The first is from algebra (due to Martindale, concerning Jordan derivations of the symmetric
elements of a ${ }^{*}$-ring), while the second is from analysis (due to Chernoff, stating that all derivations on $B(H)$ are inner). In fact, throughout this paper we combine algebraic and analytic methods.
2. Jordan *-derivations of complex *-algebras. Let $A$ be an algebra (resp. a ring). A linear (resp. additive) mapping $T$ from $A$ to $A$ is called a left centralizer of $A$ if $T(x y)=T(x) y$ for all $x, y \in A$. Analogously, a linear (resp. additive) mapping $S$ from $A$ to $A$ satisfying $S(x y)=x S(y)$ for all $x, y \in A$ is called a right centralizer of $A$. For $T$ a left centralizer of $A$ and $S$ a right centralizer of $A$, the pair $(S, T)$ is called a double centralizer of $A$ if $x T(y)=S(x) y$ for all $x, y \in A$.

Let $A$ be a *-ring. Note that every double centralizer $(S, T)$ of $A$ induces a Jordan ${ }^{*}$-derivation $E$, defined by $E(x)=T\left(x^{*}\right)-S(x)$. In the following theorem we show that in certain complex *-algebras all Jordan *-derivations are induced in such a way.

Theorem 2.1. Let $A$ be a complex ${ }^{*}$-algebra such that $A a=0$ or $a=0$ (where $a \in A$ ) implies $a=0$. If $E$ is a Jordan *-derivation of $A$ then there exists a unique double centralizer $(T, S)$ such that $E(x)=T\left(x^{*}\right)-S(x)$ for all $x \in A$.

Obviously, as a special case of Theorem 2.1 we obtain the known result stating that all Jordan *-derivations of a complex *-algebra with unit are inner.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Define an additive mapping $S_{1}$ of $A$ by $S_{1}(x)=2 E(i x)+2 i E(x)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{1}\left(x^{2}\right) & -x S_{1}(x) \\
= & 2 E\left(i x^{2}\right)+2 i E\left(x^{2}\right)-2 x E(i x)-2 i x E(x) \\
= & E\left((1+i)^{2} x^{2}\right)+2 i E(x) x^{*}+2 i x E(x)-2 x E(i x)-2 i x E(x) \\
= & E(x+i x)\left(x^{*}-i x^{*}\right)+(x+i x) E(x+i x)+2 i E(x) x^{*}-2 x E(i x) \\
= & \left\{E(x) x^{*}+x E(x)-i E(i x) x^{*}+i x E(i x)\right\} \\
& \quad+i\left\{E(x) x^{*}+x E(x)-i E(i x) x^{*}+i x E(i x)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Expanding the identity $E\left(x^{2}\right)=-E\left((i x)^{2}\right)$ we obtain

$$
E(x) x^{*}+x E(x)=i E(i x) x^{*}-i x E(i x),
$$

and therefore $S_{1}\left(x^{2}\right)=x S_{1}(x)$. In a similar fashion we see that the mapping $T_{1}$ of $R$, defined by $T_{1}(x)=2 i E\left(x^{*}\right)-2 E\left(i x^{*}\right)$, satisfies $T_{1}\left(x^{2}\right)=T_{1}(x) x$. Now, define $T=-\frac{1}{4} i T_{1}$ and $S=\frac{1}{4} i S_{1}$. Clearly, $E(x)=T\left(x^{*}\right)-S(x)$ for every $x$ in $A$. We claim that $(T, S)$ is a double centralizer of $A$. Let us first
verify that $x T\left(x^{*}\right)=S(x) x^{*}$ for all $x \in A$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
x T\left(x^{*}\right)-S(x) x^{*} & =x E(x)+x S(x)-T\left(x^{* 2}\right)+T\left(x^{*}\right) x^{*}-S(x) x^{*} \\
& =x E(x)-\left(-S\left(x^{2}\right)+T\left(x^{* 2}\right)\right)+\left(T\left(x^{*}\right)-S(x)\right) x^{*} \\
& =x E(x)-E\left(x^{2}\right)+E(x) x^{*}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Linearizing $x T\left(x^{*}\right)=S(x) x^{*}$ (i.e., replacing $x$ by $x+y$ ) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
x T\left(y^{*}\right)+y T\left(x^{*}\right)=S(x) y^{*}+S(y) x^{*} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the definition of $S$ and $T$ we see that $S(i x)=i S(x)$ and $T(i x)=i T(x)$ for all $x \in A$. Therefore, replacing $y$ by $i y$ in (1) we obtain

$$
-i x T\left(y^{*}\right)+i y T\left(x^{*}\right)=-i S(x) y^{*}+i S(y) x^{*}
$$

Comparing this identity with (1) we see that $x T(y)=S(x) y$ for all $x, y \in A$. Consequently,

$$
x T(y z)=S(x) y z=x T(y) z,
$$

that is, $A(T(y z)-T(y) z)=0$. By hypothesis, this implies that $T(y z)=$ $T(y) z$. Similarly we see that $T$ is linear; namely, $x T(\lambda y)=S(x) \lambda y=$ $x \lambda T(y)$. Thus $T$ is a left centralizer of $A$. Analogously one shows that $S$ is a right centralizer of $A$. Thus the pair $(T, S)$ is a double centralizer of $A$.

In order to prove that $T$ and $S$ are uniquely determined we assume that $L\left(x^{*}\right)=R(x)$ where $L$ is a left and $R$ is a right centralizer of $A$. Then

$$
L\left(y^{*}\right) x^{*}=L\left(y^{*} x^{*}\right)=L\left((x y)^{*}\right)=R(x y)
$$

for all $x, y \in R$. Replacing $y$ by $i y$ yields $-i L\left(y^{*}\right) x^{*}=i R(x y)$. But then, comparing the last two relations we obtain $L\left(y^{*}\right) x^{*}=0$ for all $x, y \in A$, that is, $L(A) A=0$, which yields $L=0$, and, therefore, $R=0$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

As an immediate consequence of Theorem 2.1 we obtain the following result which can be compared with [4; Corollary 1].

Corollary 2.2. Let $A$ be a complex ${ }^{*}$-algebra such that $A a=0$ or $a A=0$ implies $a=0$. Then every Jordan ${ }^{*}$-derivation of $A$ is real linear.

Corollary 2.3. Let $A$ be a complex Banach *-algebra such that $A a=0$ or $a A=0$ implies $a=0$. If the involution is continuous then every Jordan *-derivation of $A$ is continuous.

We remark that every semisimple Banach *-algebra satisfies the requirements of Corollary 2.3 (see [1; p. 191]).

Proof of Corollary 2.3. By Theorem 2.1, it suffices to show that every one-sided centralizer of $A$ is continuous. Let $T$ be a left centralizer. Suppose that $x_{n}, y \in A$ with $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n}=0, \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} T\left(x_{n}\right)=y$. By the closed graph theorem, it is enough to prove that $y=0$. Given any $a \in A$,
we have $a y=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a T\left(x_{n}\right)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} S(a) x_{n}=0$. Hence $y=0$. In a similar fashion one shows that every right centralizer of $A$ is continuous.

Combining Theorem 2.1 with [6; Theorem 3.9] we obtain
Corollary 2.4. Let $A$ be the algebra of all compact linear operators on a complex Hilbert space $H$. Then every Jordan *-derivation of $A$ is of the form $x \rightarrow a x^{*}-x a$ for some bounded linear operator $a$ on $H$.

It is an open question whether Corollary 2.4 remains true in the real case.

In the proof of Theorem 2.1, there occur additive mappings $S, T$ satisfying $S\left(x^{2}\right)=x S(x), T\left(x^{2}\right)=T(x) x$. The question arises whether $S$ (resp. $T$ ) is then necessarily a right (resp. left) centralizer. Using a similar approach to $[2,3,5]$, where some Jordan mappings are considered, we now prove

Proposition 2.5. Let $R$ be a prime ring of characteristic not 2. If an additive mapping $T: R \rightarrow R$ satisfies $T\left(x^{2}\right)=T(x) x$ for all $x \in R$, then $T$ is a left centralizer of $R$. Similarly, if an additive mapping $S: R \rightarrow R$ satisfies $S\left(x^{2}\right)=x S(x)$ for all $x \in R$, then $S$ is a right centralizer of $R$.

Recall that a ring $R$ is said to be prime if $a R b=0$ implies $a=0$ or $b=0$.

Proof of Proposition 2.5. Linearizing $T\left(x^{2}\right)=T(x) x$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(x y+y x)=T(x) y+T(y) x \quad \text { for all } x, y \in R \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular,

$$
T(x(x y+y x)+(x y+y x) x)=T(x)(x y+y x)+(T(x) y+T(y) x) x
$$

But on the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T(x(x y+y x)+(x y+y x) x)=T\left(x^{2} y+y x^{2}\right)+2 T(x y x) \\
& \quad=T\left(x^{2}\right) y+T(y) x^{2}+2 T(x y x)=T(x) x y+T(y) x^{2}+2 T(x y x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Comparing the last two relations we arrive at $2 T(x y x)=2 T(x) y x$. Since the characteristic of $R$ is not 2 , it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(x y x)=T(x) y x \quad \text { for all } x, y \in R . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

A linearization of (3) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(x y z+z y x)=T(x) y z+T(z) y x \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in R \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, analogously to [2; Theorem 3], [3; Lemma 2.1] and [5; Proposition 3] we consider $W=T(x y z y x+y x z x y)$. According to (3) we have

$$
W=T(x(y z y) x)+T(y(x z x) y)=T(x) y z y x+T(y) x z x y .
$$

On the other hand, we see from (4) that

$$
W=T((x y) z(y x)+(y x) z(x y))=T(x y) z y x+T(y x) z x y .
$$

Comparing the two expressions for $W$ and applying (2), we then get

$$
\begin{equation*}
(T(x y)-T(x) y) z(x y-y x)=0 \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in R \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $R$ is prime, for any $x, y \in R$ we have either $T(x y)=T(x) y$ or $x y=y x$. In other words, given $x \in R, R$ is the union of its subsets $G_{x}=\{y \in R \mid$ $T(x y)=T(x) y\}$ and $H_{x}=\{y \in R \mid x y=y x\}$. Clearly $G_{x}$ and $H_{x}$ are additive subgroups of $R$. However, a group cannot be the union of two proper subgroups, therefore either $G_{x}=R$ or $H_{x}=R$. Thus we have proved that $R$ is the union of its subsets $G=\{x \in R \mid T(x y)=T(x) y$ for all $y \in R\}$ and $H=\{x \in R \mid x y=y x$ for all $y \in R\}$. Of course, $G$ and $H$ are also additive subgroups of $R$. Hence either $G=R$, i.e., $T$ is a left centralizer, or $H=R$, i.e., $R$ is commutative.

Thus, we may assume that $R$ is commutative. Then, of course, $R$ is a domain. Following the proofs of [9; Lemma 2.2] and [5; Theorem 2] we consider $V=2 T\left(x^{2} y\right)$. By (3) we have $V=2 T(x y x)=2 T(x) y x$. However, from (2) we see that $V=T\left(x^{2} y+y x^{2}\right)=T(x) x y+T(y) x^{2}$. Comparing both expressions we obtain $(T(x) y-T(y) x) x=0$. Since $R$ is a domain it follows that $x=0$ or $T(x) y=T(y) x$; in any case $T(x) y=T(y) x$. Therefore, (2) yields $2 T(x y)=2 T(x) y$. Since the characteristic of $R$ is not 2 , this means that $T$ is a left centralizer.

Similarly one proves that $S$ is a right centralizer.
3. Jordan *-derivations of $B(H)$. Throughout this section, $H$ will be a Hilbert space such that $\operatorname{dim} H>1$. We denote by $B(H)$ the algebra of all bounded linear operators on $H$, and by $S(H)$ the set of all self-adjoint operators in $B(H)$. Our main purpose in this section is to give a new proof of the following theorem of Šemrl [13].

Theorem 3.1. If $H$ is a real Hilbert space then every Jordan *-derivation of $B(H)$ is inner.

Recall that an additive mapping $D$ of a ring $R$ into itself is called a derivation if it satisfies $D(x y)=D(x) y+x D(y)$ for all $x, y \in R$. If $R$ is an algebra and $D$ is a derivation of $R$ which is not necessarily homogeneous, then $D$ will be called an additive derivation; otherwise we call $D$ a linear derivation.

Outline of the proof of Theorem 3.1. Let $E$ be a Jordan *-derivation of $B(H)$. Using the theorem of Martindale quoted below, we show that there exists an additive derivation $D$ of $B(H)$ such that the restrictions of $D$ and $E$ to $S(H)$ coincide. It turns out that $D$ is in fact
linear, therefore, by the well-known theorem of Chernoff [7], $D$ is inner, i.e., $D(A)=T A-A T$ for some $T \in B(H)$. Finally, we show that there is a real number $\mu$ such that $E(A)=(T+\mu I) A^{*}-A(T+\mu I)$ for all $A \in B(H)$.

Let $R$ be a ${ }^{*}$-ring, and let $S$ denote the set of all symmetric elements of $R$. A Jordan derivation $d$ of $S$ into $R$ is an additive mapping of $S$ into $R$ such that $d\left(s^{2}\right)=d(s) s+s d(s)$ for all $s \in S$ (we will only deal with 2 -torsion free rings, i.e., ones where $2 a=0$ implies $a=0$; in such rings our definition of Jordan derivations coincides with the definition in [10]). Our proof of Theorem 3.1 is based on the fact that the restriction of a Jordan *-derivation to the set of symmetric elements is a Jordan derivation.

In [10; Corollary 3, Theorem 4] Martindale proved
Theorem M. Let $R$ be a 2-torsion free ${ }^{*}$-ring with unit element 1. Suppose that either
(i) $R$ contains nonzero orthogonal symmetric idempotents $e_{1}, e_{2}$ and $e_{3}$ such that $e_{1}+e_{2}+e_{3}=1$ and $R e_{i} R=R$ for $i=1,2,3$, or
(ii) $R$ is simple and it contains nonzero orthogonal idempotents $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ such that $e_{1}+e_{2}=1$.

Then every Jordan derivation of $R$ into $S$ can be uniquely extended to a derivation of $R$.

Remark 3.2. Let us show that the algebra $B(H)$ ( $H$ real or complex) satisfies the requirements of Theorem M. First, if $H$ is finite-dimensional, then $B(H)$ satisfies (ii). Now suppose $H$ is infinite-dimensional. Then there exists an orthonormal basis in $H$ of the form $\left\{e_{\alpha}, f_{\alpha}, g_{\alpha} ; \alpha \in A\right\}$. Let $H_{1}$ be the subspace generated by $\left\{e_{\alpha} ; \alpha \in A\right\}$, and let $E_{1}$ be the orthogonal projection with range $H_{1}$. Analogously we define the subspaces $H_{2}, H_{3}$, and projections $E_{2}, E_{3}$. Of course, $E_{1}+E_{2}+E_{3}=I$, the identity on $H$. We claim that $B(H) E_{i} B(H)=B(H), i=1,2,3$. Indeed, there exists a one-to-one bounded linear operator $B$ on $H$ with range contained in $H_{i}$. Note that there is $A \in B(H)$ such that $A E_{i} B=A B=I$. But then $B(H) E_{i} B(H)=B(H)$.

In order to determine the structure of Jordan derivations of $S(H)$ into $B(H)$ we also need the following simple lemma.

Lemma 3.3. If $A, B \in B(H)$ are such that $A S B=0$ for all $S \in S(H)$ then either $A=0$ or $B=0$.

Proof. It suffices to prove that if $a, b$ are nonzero vectors in $H$, then there exists $S \in S(H)$ such that $S b=\lambda a$ for some nonzero scalar $\lambda$. If $a$ and $b$ are not orthogonal then this condition is satisfied by the operator $a \otimes a$ (we denote by $u \otimes v$ the operator $(u \otimes v) x=\langle x, v\rangle u$ where $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ is the inner product); otherwise take $S=a \otimes b+b \otimes a$.

We are now in a position to prove
Theorem 3.4. Let $H$ be a (real or complex) Hilbert space. If a Jordan derivation d of $S(H)$ into $B(H)$ is real linear then there exists $T \in B(H)$ such that $d(S)=T S-S T$ for all $S \in S(H)$.

Proof. By Theorem M (and Remark 3.2) there is an additive derivation $D$ of $B(H)$ such that $D \mid S(H)=d$. Since every linear derivation of $B(H)$ is inner [7], the theorem will be proved by showing that $D$ is linear.

Let us first show that $D$ is real linear. For $A \in B(H)$ we may write $A=$ $W+K$ where $W^{*}=W$ and $K^{*}=-K$. By assumption, $D(\lambda W)=\lambda D(W)$ for every real $\lambda$, therefore it suffices to show that $D(\lambda K)=\lambda D(K)$. Given any $S \in S(H)$, we have $K S K \in S(H)$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(\lambda K S K) & =d(\lambda K S K)=\lambda d(K S K)=\lambda D(K S K) \\
& =\lambda D(K) S K+\lambda K D(S) K+\lambda K S D(K)
\end{aligned}
$$

on the other hand,

$$
D(\lambda K S K)=D((\lambda K) S K)=D(\lambda K) S K+\lambda K D(S) K+\lambda K S D(K)
$$

Comparing the above expressions for $D(\lambda K S K)$, we arrive at $(D(\lambda K)-$ $\lambda D(K)) S K=0$ for all $S \in S(H)$. By Lemma 3.3 we conclude that $D(\lambda K)=\lambda D(K)$.

Now suppose $H$ is a complex space. Since $D$ is real linear it suffices to show that $D(i A)=i D(A)$ for every $A \in B(H)$. We have $D(I)=0$. Hence

$$
0=D\left((i I)^{2}\right)=D(i I) i I+i I D(i I)=2 i D(i I)
$$

Thus $D(i I)=0$. But then for any $A \in B(H)$ we have

$$
D(i A)=D((i I) A)=D(i I) A+i I D(A)=i D(A)
$$

which completes the proof.
For the proof of Theorem 3.1 we also need the following lemma which is similar to [11; Theorem 1].

Lemma 3.5. If $A, B \in B(H)$ are such that $A B S=B S A$ for all $S \in$ $S(H)$, and if $B \neq 0$, then $A=\lambda B$ for some scalar $\lambda$.

Proof. For all $x, y \in H$ we have $A(y \otimes y) B x=B(y \otimes y) A x$; that is, $\langle B x, y\rangle A y=\langle A x, y\rangle B y$. Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle B x, y\rangle\langle B y, z\rangle A z & =\langle B x, y\rangle\langle A y, z\rangle B z=\langle\langle B x, y\rangle A y, z\rangle B z \\
& =\langle\langle A x, y\rangle B y, z\rangle B z=\langle A x, y\rangle\langle B y, z\rangle B z .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\langle B y, z\rangle\{\langle B x, y\rangle A z-\langle A x, y\rangle B z\}=0$ for all $x, y, z \in H$. Hence for any $y, z \in H$ we have either $\langle B y, z\rangle=0$ or $\langle B x, y\rangle A z=\langle A x, y\rangle B z$ for all $x \in H$. Using the fact that a group cannot be the union of two proper subgroups (cf. the proof of Proposition 2.5) one can easily show that either $\langle B y, z\rangle=0$
for all $y, z \in H$ or $\langle B x, y\rangle A z=\langle A x, y\rangle B z$ for all $x, y, z \in H$. Since we have assumed that $B \neq 0$ it follows at once that $A=\lambda B$ for some $\lambda$.

Remark 3.6. It is easy to see [4; Lemma 2] that every Jordan *-derivation $E$ satisfies $E(x y x)=E(x) y^{*} x^{*}+x E(y) x^{*}+x y E(x)$.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Let $E$ be a Jordan ${ }^{*}$-derivation of $B(H)$. By [4; Corollary 1], $E$ is linear. Since the restriction of $E$ to $S(H)$ is a Jordan derivation of $S(H)$ to $B(H)$, it follows from Theorem 3.4 that there exists $T \in B(H)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(S)=T S-S T \quad \text { for all } S \in S(H) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Pick $K \in B(H)$ such that $K^{*}=-K$. For every $S \in S(H)$ we have $K S K \in$ $S(H)$. Therefore,

$$
E(K S K)=T K S K-K S K T
$$

On the other hand, using Remark 3.6 we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
E(K S K) & =-E(K) S K-K E(S) K+K S E(K) \\
& =-E(K) S K-K(T S-S T) K+K S E(K)
\end{aligned}
$$

Comparing both expressions we get

$$
(E(K)+K T+T K) S K=K S(E(K)+K T+T K)
$$

for all $S \in S(H)$. Now Lemma 3.5 yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(K)+K T+T K=\lambda(K) K \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some real $\lambda(K)$. We claim that $\lambda(K)$ is a constant. Pick $K_{1}, K_{2} \in B(H)$ with $K_{1}^{*}=-K_{1}, K_{2}^{*}=-K_{2}$. We claim that $\lambda\left(K_{1}\right)=\lambda\left(K_{2}\right)$. First assume that $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are linearly independent. In view of (2) we have

$$
E\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)=\lambda\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)-T\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)-\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right) T
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right) & =E\left(K_{1}\right)+E\left(K_{2}\right) \\
& =\lambda\left(K_{1}\right) K_{1}-T K_{1}-K_{1} T+\lambda\left(K_{2}\right) K_{2}-T K_{2}-K_{2} T .
\end{aligned}
$$

Comparing we get

$$
\left(\lambda\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)-\lambda\left(K_{1}\right)\right) K_{1}+\left(\lambda\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)-\lambda\left(K_{2}\right)\right) K_{2}=0
$$

Since $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are linearly independent we obtain $\lambda\left(K_{1}\right)=\lambda\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)=$ $\lambda\left(K_{2}\right)$.

If $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are linearly dependent, then for any $K \in B(H)$ with $K^{*}=-K$ which is linearly independent from both $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$, we have $\lambda\left(K_{1}\right)=\lambda(K)$ and $\lambda\left(K_{2}\right)=\lambda(K)$. Thus $\lambda\left(K_{1}\right)$ and $\lambda\left(K_{2}\right)$ are also equal in this case. This means that $\lambda(K)$ is a constant $\lambda$, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(K)=\lambda K-K T-T K \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $K \in B(H)$ with $K^{*}=-K$.
Take $A \in B(H)$. We have $A=S+K$, where $S^{*}=S, K^{*}=-K$. Using (1) and (3) we then get

$$
\begin{aligned}
E(A) & =E(S)+E(K)=T S-S T+\lambda K-K T-T K \\
& =\left(T-\frac{1}{2} \lambda I\right)(S-K)-(S+K)\left(T-\frac{1}{2} \lambda I\right) \\
& =\left(T-\frac{1}{2} \lambda I\right) A^{*}-A\left(T-\frac{1}{2} \lambda I\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $E(A)=T_{1} A^{*}-A T_{1}$ for all $A \in B(H)$, where $T_{1}=T-\frac{1}{2} \lambda I$. This proves the theorem.

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS UNIVERSITY OF MARIBOR UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
PF, KOROŠKA 160 SF, MURNIKOVA 2
62000 MARIBOR, SLOVENIA
61000 LJUBLJANA, SLOVENIA

