

Introduction to Operator Algebras

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Contents

The set of all linear bounded operators $\mathcal{L}(H) = \mathcal{B}(H)$ on a given Banach space H is a (Banach) algebra with $S \cdot T = S \circ T$. $M \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ is a Subalgebra such that $M^* \subseteq M$ where T^* is the adjoint of T . This is also a closed subspace with respect to the strong topology. This is equivalent to $M = M''$ (when $X \subseteq \mathcal{B}(H)$, $X' = \{T \in \mathcal{B}(H) \mid TS = ST \ \forall S \in X\}$)

Some topological basics

Definition 0.1

- *Topology, Open*
- *Hausdorff, locally Hausdorff*
- *compact*

Definition 0.2 A topological space X is **locally Hausdorff** if every $x \in X$ admits a compact neighborhood basis, that is for every $x \in X$ and every open set $U \ni x$ there exists an open set $V \ni x$ with \bar{V} is compact.

Corollary 0.3 If a set V is compact in any subset $U \subseteq X$, it is also compact in X .

Example 0.4 (Snake with two heads) Consider $I = [0, 1]$ with the standard topology and extend the set with an element 1^+ such that $I \cup 1^+ \setminus 1$ is isomorphic to I . Then $I \cup 1^+$ is locally Hausdorff and compact, but not Hausdorff.

Some results about locally compact Hausdorff spaces

Lemma 0.5 (Uryson's Lemma) Let X be locally compact and Hausdorff. For all $F \subseteq X$ closed and $K \subseteq X$ compact with $F \cap K = \emptyset$, there exists an $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ continuous such that $f|_K \equiv 1$ and $f|_F \equiv 0$.

Theorem 0.6 (Tietze's extension theorem) Let X be locally compact, $K \subseteq X$ compact and $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ continuous. Then there exists a continuous $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $\tilde{f}|_K = f$.

Theorem 0.7 (Alexandroff's compactification) If X is locally compact and Hausdorff, then $\tilde{X} \sqcup \{\infty\}$ is a compact Hausdorff space $\mathcal{O}(\tilde{X}) = \mathcal{O}(X) \cup \{K^c \cup \{\infty\} \mid K \text{ compact}\}$.

Example 0.8 Compacting the real line \mathbb{R} yields the space $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}$, which is isomorphic to the unit circle $\Pi = \mathbb{S}^1$.

Theorem 0.9 Conversely, if Y is a compact Hausdorff space, then for all $y_0 \in Y$, $X := Y \setminus \{y_0\}$ is locally compact (in respect to the subspace topology).

More generally, if Y is locally compact and Hausdorff, and $Z \subseteq Y$ is a difference of open and closed subsets, of Y (i.e. $Z = U \setminus F$, where U is open in Y and F is closed in Y), then Z is locally compact.

1 Algebras

Definition 1.1 An **algebra** is a (complex) vector space \mathcal{A} endowed with a bilinear and associative multiplication: $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}, (a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$. So

$$(i) \quad (a + \alpha b) \cdot (c + \beta d) = ac + \alpha bc + \beta ad + \alpha \beta bd$$

$$(ii) \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$$

for all $a, b, c \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$. We say that \mathcal{A} is

(i) **commutative**, if $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ and

(ii) **unital**, if there exists $1 = 1_{\mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

Example 1.2

- (i) \mathbb{C} , or more generally $\mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{C} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{C}$, is an algebra.
- (ii) Say X is any set; let $\mathbb{C}^X = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\}$ with point wise multiplication $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$. These are commutative unital algebras (with $1(x) = 1 \in \mathbb{C}$).
- (iii) Consider the polynomials $\mathbb{C}[X] = \{\sum_{i=0}^n \lambda_i x^i \mid \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ with the usual operations. This is a commutative unital algebra.
- (iv) Let X be a topological space and $C(X) = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^X$ the set of continuous functions on X . This is a commutative unital (sub)algebra (of \mathbb{C}^X).
- (v) Take any vector space A define a (trivial) multiplication $a \cdot b := 0$. This is a commutative Algebra (that is not unital unless $A = 0$).
- (vi) $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ (the complex $n \times n$ matrices) with the usual multiplication are a non-commutative (unless $n = 1$) unital algebra.
- (vii) Let V be any (complex) vector space. The set of all linear operators $L(V) := \{T : V \rightarrow V \mid T \text{ linear operator}\}$ is a unital (non-commutative for $\dim V > 1$). We observe $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C}^n) \simeq M_n(\mathbb{C})$.
- (viii) Let S be a semigroup (i.e. a set with an associative operation $S \times S \rightarrow S$, e.g. $(\mathbb{N}, +)$). Then $\mathbb{C}[S] = \{\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_s s \mid \lambda_s \in \mathbb{C}, |\{s : \lambda_s \neq 0\}| < \infty\}$ (the finite formal sums of elements of S) with the following product

$$\left(\sum_{s \in S'} \lambda_s s \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{t \in S} \lambda'_t t \right) := \sum_{s, t \in S} (\lambda_s \cdot \lambda'_t)(s \cdot t) \in S$$

Observe: As a vector space: $\mathbb{C}[S] \subseteq \mathbb{C}^S$. In general, this is neither commutative nor unital.

2 Normed algebras

Definition 2.1 An algebra \mathcal{A} is **normed**, if it is endowed with a (vector space) norm $\|\cdot\|: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ satisfying $\|a \cdot b\| \leq \|a\| \cdot \|b\|$. If \mathcal{A} is unital with unit $1_{\mathcal{A}}$, we usually assume $\|1_{\mathcal{A}}\| = 1$ except for $\mathcal{A} = 0$.

Definition 2.2 A **Banach algebra** is a normed algebra that is also complete (as a metric space with respect to the distance $d(a, b) := \|a - b\|$), i.e. every Cauchy sequence converges.

Example 2.3 (i) If X is a compact space then $C(X)$ is a commutative unital Banach algebra with respect to the norm $\|f\|_{\infty} := \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)| < \infty$ (since X is compact).

(ii) If V is a normed (respectively Banach) vector space, e.g. \mathbb{C}^n or $\ell^p(\mathbb{N})$, then $\mathcal{L}(V) = \{T \in L(V) \mid T \text{ is bounded/continuous}\}$ with $\|T\| := \sup_{\|v\| \leq 1} \|T(v)\| < \infty$ is a normed Banach algebra.

(iii) If X is a topological space, then $C_b(X) = \{f \in C(X) \mid \|f\|_{\infty} < \infty\}$ (bounded continuous functions) is a Banach space.

(iv) Let X again be a topological space. Then the set of all functions **vanishing at ∞** ,

$$\begin{aligned} C_0(X) &= \{f \in C(X) \mid \forall_{\varepsilon > 0} \exists K \subseteq X, K \text{ compact } \forall_{x \notin K} |f(x)| < \varepsilon\} \\ &= \{f \in C(X) \mid \forall_{\varepsilon > 0} \{x \in X \mid |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\} \text{ is compact}\} \subseteq C_b(X), \end{aligned}$$

is also a Banach algebra.

Exercise 2.1 Assume X is locally compact and Hausdorff. Prove the following are equivalent:

- (1) X is compact.
- (2) $C(X) = C_0(X)$
- (3) $C_0(X)$ is unital.
- (4) The unit function $1 \in C_b(X)$ belongs to $C_0(X)$.

PROOF: • (1) \Rightarrow (2): Recall the definition of $C_0(X)$. If X is compact, every closed subset (especially every $\{x \mid |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}$) is compact, so the condition of $C_0(X)$ is trivial.

• (2) \Rightarrow (3): Since $C(X)$ is unital, $C_0(X)$ is as well.

• (3) \Rightarrow (4): Suppose C_0 is unital, and let $f \in C_0(X)$ be the unit. Then $f \cdot g = g$ for all $g \in C_0(X)$, i.e. $f(x)g(x) = g(x) \forall_{x \in X} \forall_{g \in C_0(X)}$. By Uryson's lemma, given any $x_0 \in X$, there exists $g \in C_0(X)$ with $g(x_0) = 1$ (by looking at $K = \{x_0\}$ and taking F as the complement of any relatively compact environment of x_0). Then $f(x_0) = f(x_0)g(x_0) = g(x_0) = 1$. Doing this for every $x_0 \in X$ yields $f \equiv 1$.

• (4) \Rightarrow (1): Since $1 \in C_0(X)$, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ the set $\{x \mid |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}$ is compact. Choose $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$. Then, $\{x \mid |f(x)| = |1| \geq \frac{1}{2}\} = X$ is compact.

Exercise 2.2 Let X be a locally compact Hausdorff space. Prove that $C_0(X) \cong \{f \in C(X) \mid f(\infty) = 0\}$

3 Algebras

Definition 3.1 A **-algebra* is a complex algebra \mathcal{A} with an *involution* $*$: $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ satisfying

- (i) $(a + \lambda b)^* = a^* + \bar{\lambda}b^*$
- (ii) $(a^*)^* = a$
- (iii) $(ab)^* = b^*a^*$

for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ and all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

Definition 3.2 A *normed *-algebra* is a normed algebra \mathcal{A} with an involution (such that \mathcal{A} is a *-algebra) also satisfying $\|a^*\| = \|a\|$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

A *Banach*-algebra* is a complete normed *-algebra.

Definition 3.3 A *C*-algebra* is a Banach*-algebra satisfying $\|a^* \cdot a\| = \|a\|^2$.

Observation: Recall that $\|a \cdot b\| \leq \|a\| \cdot \|b\|$ in all normed algebras. Applying this to a C*-algebra we get $\|a \cdot a^*\| \leq \|a^*\| \cdot \|a\|$. If \mathcal{A} is a C*-algebra, then $\|a\|^2 = \|a \cdot a^*\| \leq \|a^*\| \cdot \|a\|$, so $\|a\| = \|a^*\|$.

Example 3.4

- (i) If X is a set, then \mathbb{C}^X is a *-algebra with $f^* = \bar{f}$ and $\mathcal{C}^\infty(X)$ is a C*-algebra.
- (ii) If X is a topological space, then $C(X) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^X$ is also a *-subalgebra and for $\{f \in C(X) \mid \text{supp}(f) = \overline{\{x \in X \mid |f(x)| \neq 0\}} \text{ compact}\}$ we have

$$C_c(X) \subseteq C_0(X) \subseteq C_b(X) \subseteq C(X) \subseteq C^\infty(X)$$

and C^∞ is a C*-algebra. C_c is a *-algebra, but not Banach in general.

If X is compact, it follows $C_c(X) = C_0(X) = C_b(X)$.

Observation: If X is locally compact and Hausdorff, then $\overline{C_c(X)} = C_0(X)$.

- (iii) Let X be a measured space (X is endowed with a σ -algebra). Then $B_\infty(X) = \{f \in C^\infty \mid f \text{ is measurable}\}$ is a C*-algebra. If μ is a measure on X (e.g. $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ and μ the Lebesgue measure) then $L^\infty(X, \mu)$ are the essentially bounded functions and

$$L^\infty(X) = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \|f\| := \inf\{c \geq 0 \mid \mu(\{x \mid |f(x)| > c\}) = 0\}\}$$

is also a C*-algebra.

Observation: $L^2(X, \mu) = \text{"}\mu\text{-separable function"}$, $L^\infty(X, \mu) \xrightarrow{\mu} B(L^2(X, \mu)), f \mapsto \mu_f = \{g \mapsto f \cdot g\}$

- (iv) A non-example: Let \mathbb{D} be the unit disk and $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D}) = \{f \in C(\mathbb{D}) \mid \text{analytic in } \mathbb{D}^\circ\}$

Morera's Theorem from complex analysis states that $f \in C(\mathbb{D})$ is analytic if and only if $\int_\gamma f(z)dz = 0$ for all closed and piece wise smooth paths in \mathbb{D}° . From this, it follows that $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D})$ is closed in $C(\mathbb{D})$, therefore a Banach algebra. It is also a Banach*-algebra with, but $f^* = \bar{f}$ (point wise) is not possible, as $z \mapsto \bar{z}$ is not analytic. Thus, we have to choose $f^*(z) = f(\bar{z})$. But $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D})$ is not a C*-algebra, as $\|f^*f\|_\infty \neq \|f\|_\infty^2$ for some $f \in \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D})$.

- (v) A non-commutative example: Let H be a Hilbert space and $B(H) = \mathcal{L}(H) = \{T : H \rightarrow H \mid T \text{ bounded, continuous, linear}\}$ and $\|H\| := \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \|T(z)\| < \infty$. This is a C^* -algebra where T^* is the adjoint of T , that is $\langle T^*z, w \rangle = \langle z, Tw \rangle$ for all $z, w \in H$.

C^* -axiom: $\|T^* \cdot T\| \leq \|T\|^2$ since $\mathcal{L}(H)$ is a Banach algebra, and we also have

$$\begin{aligned} \|T\|^2 &= \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \|T(z)\|^2 = \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \langle Tz, Tz \rangle = \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \langle z, T^*Tz \rangle \\ &\leq \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \|z\| \|T^*Tz\| \leq \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \|z\| \|T^*T\| \leq \|T^*T\| \end{aligned}$$

In particular, $M_n(\mathbb{C}) \simeq \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C}^n)$ is a unital C^* -algebra.

- (vi) To produce more examples, take any subset $S \subseteq \mathcal{L}(H)$ and take $C^*(S) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(H) = \overline{\text{span}\{S_i \mid S_i \in S \cup S^*, i \leq n \in \mathbb{N}\}}$.

Example 3.5 Let $s \in \mathcal{L}(\ell^2(\mathbb{N}))$. The shift s , defined by $s(e_i) = e_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ (where $\{e_i\}$ is the canonical basis of the sequence space), is an isometry, that is $s^* \cdot s = \text{id}$. Since $s \cdot s^* \neq \text{id}$, it is not surjective and not a proper isometry. We define

$$T = C^*(s) = \overline{\text{span}\{s^n(s^*)^m \mid m, n \in \mathbb{N}_0\}} \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\ell^2(\mathbb{N}))$$

as the **Toeplitz algebra**.

Example 3.6 Let H be a Hilbert space and S the set of all finite rank operators on H .

Example 3.7

- (i) **Commutative:** $C_0(X)$ for a locally Hausdorff space X .
- (ii) **Non-commutative:** $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H}) = \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{H})$ for any Hilbert space \mathfrak{H} (with dimension greater 1).
- (iii) **More generally:** Take any subset $S \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$ and construct $C^*(S) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(H)$ as

$$\overline{\text{span}\{S_1, \dots, S_n \mid S_i \in S \cap S^*\}}$$

Example 3.8 (Cuntz algebras) Take again $\mathfrak{H} = \ell^2\mathbb{N} = \{(\lambda_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \mid \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\lambda_n|^2 < \infty\}$ where $\langle \lambda, \lambda' \rangle = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0} \overline{\lambda_i} \lambda'_i$ and which has the orthonormal base $(e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $(e_n) = (\delta_{in})_{i \in \mathbb{N}_0}$.

On this algebra, define

- $S_1(e_n) = e_{2n}$.
- $S_2(e_n) = e_{2n+1}$.

We have partitioned the natural numbers into evens and odds. This defines two (proper) isometries $S_1, S_2 \in \mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$, that is $S_i^* S_i = \text{id}_{\mathfrak{H}}$, to subspaces of \mathfrak{H} . Notice: $S_i^* S_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$ as well as $S_1 S_1^* + S_2 S_2^* = \text{id}_{\mathfrak{H}}$. Define $\mathcal{O}_2 = C^*(S_1, S_2) = \overline{\text{span}\{S_\alpha S_\beta^* \mid \alpha, \beta \text{ finite words in } \{1, 2\}\}}$. For example, for $\alpha = 121211$ we have $S_\alpha = S_1 S_2 S_1 S_2 S_1^2$. \mathcal{O}_2 is called the **Cuntz algebra**. More generally, one can define $\mathcal{O}_3, \mathcal{O}_4, \dots$ Cuntz algebras. Joachim Cuntz proved that these are simple C^* -algebras with additional interesting properties we will see later.

Example 3.9 (Rotation algebras) Let $\mathfrak{H} = \ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$ (bi-infinite sequences) with basis $(e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$. Define:

- $U(e_n) := e_{n+1}$ (bilateral shift)

- $V(e_n) := \lambda^n e_n$ where $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is some fixed number $|\lambda| = 1$.

This defines two *unitary* operators: $UU^* = 1 = U^*U$ and $V^*V = 1 = V^*V$. If $\exp(2\pi i\theta), \theta \in \mathbb{R}$ define $A_\theta := C^*(U, V) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\ell^2\mathbb{N})$.

There is a special relation between U and V where $UV = \lambda VU = \exp(2\pi i\theta)VU$. From this relation, we can describe $A_\theta = \overline{\text{span}}\{\sum_{n,m \in \mathbb{Z}}^{\text{finite}} a_{n,m} U^n V^m \mid a_{n,m} \in \mathbb{C}\}$.

Furthermore, if $\theta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, A_θ is simple.

Example 3.10 (C^* -algebras of groups) Let G be a (discrete) group. Look at $\mathfrak{H} = \ell^2(G) = \{(a_g)_{g \in G} \mid \sum_{g \in G} |a_g|^2 < \infty\}$ (Note: This limit will only converge if there are countably (or finitely) many non-zero parts) with ONB $(\delta_g)_{g \in G}$ where $\delta_g(h) = \delta_{gh}$. Define for each $g \in G$ an operator $\lambda_g \in \mathcal{L}(\ell^2 G)$ by $\lambda_g(\delta_h) = \delta_{gh}$. Notice that $h \mapsto gh$ is a bijection, and thus λ_g is a unitary operator with $\lambda_g^* = \lambda_{g^{-1}}$. We can now define the **reduced C^* -algebra** of the group:

$$C_R^*(G) := C_\lambda^*(G) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(\ell^2 G) = C^*(\lambda_g \mid g \in G)$$

Here, we have the relation $\lambda_g \cdot \lambda_h = \lambda_{gh}$ and thus $C_R^*(G) = \{\sum a_g \lambda_g \mid a_g \in \mathbb{C}\}$.

In general, take $U : G \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H), g \mapsto U_g$ a **unitary representation of G** with $U_g U_h = U_{gh}$ and $U_1 = \text{id}$ as well as $U_g^{-1} = U_{g^{-1}}$. Then $C_U^*(G) := \{\sum_{g \in G} a_g U_g \mid a_g \in \mathbb{C}\} \subseteq \mathcal{L}(H)$. There exists a **universal unitary representation** $C_{\max}^*(G)$, a full C^* -algebra of G .

Remark 3.11

- (i) If G is Abelian, then $C_U^*(G)$ is also abelian (commutative). In particular, C_λ^* is abelian. Later, we will prove $C_\lambda^*(G) \simeq C(\hat{G})$ where \hat{G} is the dual of G , i.e. $\{X : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \text{ characters}\}$.
- (ii) For many groups, like $G = \mathbb{F}_n$ (the free groups) the reduced C^* -algebra $C_\lambda^*(G)$ is simple.

4 Homomorphisms of algebras

Definition 4.1 If \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are algebras, a **homomorphism** from \mathcal{A} to \mathcal{B} is a linear map $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ such that $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$ for any $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$.

If \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are $*$ -algebras, a **$*$ -homomorphism** is a homomorphism $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ such that $\varphi(a^*) = \varphi(a)^*$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

If \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are Banach algebras, then usually we want to have **continuous** homomorphisms. Even more, we usually ask for **contractive** homomorphisms $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$, (that is $\|\varphi\| \leq 1$).

We will be especially interested in **characters**:

Definition 4.2 A **character** of an algebra \mathcal{A} is a non-zero homomorphism $\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

Example 4.3 Take any subalgebra $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^X$. Take $x_0 \in X$ and set $\chi_{x_0} := \text{ev}_{x_0} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, f \mapsto f(x_0)$. This is not necessarily a character, but it is for example, if $\mathcal{A} = C(X)$ or $C_b(X)$ or $C_0(X)$ (if X is “nice”, like Hausdorff).

Definition 4.4 A $(*)$ -isomorphism between two $(*)$ -algebras \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} is a bijective $(*)$ -homomorphism $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathcal{B}$.

Definition 4.5 A $(*)$ -ideal of a $*$ -algebra \mathcal{A} is a subspace $I \subset \mathcal{A}$ such that $I \cdot \mathcal{A} \subseteq I, \mathcal{A} \cdot I \subseteq I$ (if only one condition applies, we call this a **left ideal** or **right ideal**). For $*$ -ideals, we also want $I^* = I$. We notate this as $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$.

Example 4.6 If $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a $(*)$ -homomorphism, then $\ker \varphi \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$.

Example 4.7 If $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ for \mathcal{A} a $(*)$ -algebra

$$\mathcal{A}/I = \{a + I \mid a \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

with $(a + I) \cdot (b + I) := ab + I$ and $(a + I)^* = a^* + I$ is a $(*)$ -algebra.

Theorem 4.8 If \mathcal{A} is a Banach- $*$ -algebra, then $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ is a closed ideal, then the quotient I/\mathcal{A} is also a Banach- $*$ -algebra.

PROOF: Later. □

5 Spectral theory

Notation 5.1 If \mathcal{A} is a unital algebra, we write

$$\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid a \text{ is invertible in } \mathcal{A}\} = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid \exists a^{-1} \in \mathcal{A} \, aa^{-1} = 1 = a^{-1}a\}$$

This is a group. Sometimes we also write $GL(\mathcal{A})$.

Definition 5.2 Given a unital algebra \mathcal{A} and $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we define its **spectrum** (in \mathcal{A}) as

$$\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \sigma(a) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda \cdot 1 - a \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})\}$$

and the resolvent of a (in \mathcal{A}) as

$$\rho_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \rho(a) = \mathcal{A} \setminus \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda - a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})\}$$

Example 5.3 (Linear Algebra) Let $\mathcal{A} = M_m(\mathbb{C})$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Then we have

$$\sigma(a) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda - a \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})\} = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \det(\lambda - a) = 0\}$$

and these are the roots of the characteristic polynomial $\det(\lambda - a)$. This is exactly the usual spectrum from linear algebra.

Example 5.4 (Functional Analysis) Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$ – where \mathfrak{H} is any Hilbert- or Banach space – and $T \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(T)$ is exactly the spectrum as defined in functional analysis.

If S is the shift in $\mathcal{L}(\ell^2\mathbb{N})$, then we have $\sigma(S) = \mathbb{D}$.

Example 5.5 Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C}[X]$. Here we have $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \{a_0 X^0 \mid a_0 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}\}$ the constant non-zero polynomials. If $a = \sum_{k=0}^N a_k x^k \in \mathcal{A}$, then we have two cases:

$$\sigma(a) = \begin{cases} \{a_0\} & a = a_0 \text{ (constant)} \\ \mathbb{C} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example 5.6 Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C}(X) = \{p/q \mid p, q \in \mathbb{C}[X], q \neq 0\}$. Now we have $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A} \setminus \{0\}$. If $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then

$$\sigma(a) = \begin{cases} \{a_0\} & a = a_0 \text{ (constant)} \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example 5.7 Let $\mathcal{A} = C(X)$ for any topological space X . Then

$$\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \{f \in C(X) \mid \forall_{x \in X} f(x) \neq 0\}$$

and

$$\sigma(f) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda - f \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})\} = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \exists_{x \in X} f(x) = \lambda\} = \text{im}(f) = f(X).$$

Example 5.8 Let X be any topological space and consider $\mathcal{A} = C_b(X)$. Then

$$\text{inv}(C_b(X)) = \{f \in C_b(X) \mid \exists_{\varepsilon > 0} \forall_{x \in X} |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}$$

and

$$\sigma(f) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda - f \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})\} = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \exists_{(x_n)} f(x_n) \rightarrow \lambda\} = \overline{\text{im}(f)} = \overline{f(X)}.$$

This is a compact subset of \mathbb{C} .

Theorem 5.9 (Algebraic spectral mapping theorem) *Let \mathcal{A} be an algebra, $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $p \in \mathbb{C}[X]$, $p(X) = \sum_{k=0}^n \lambda_k X^k$ and define $p(a) = \sum_{k=0}^n \lambda_k a^k$. Recall that the mapping $\mathbb{C}[X] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, $p \mapsto p(a)$ is a unital homomorphism.*

Then $\sigma(p(a)) = p(\sigma(a))$ assuming $\sigma(a) \neq \emptyset$.

PROOF: If $p(X) = \lambda_0$ constant, this is clear (the spectrum is exactly λ_0 on both sides). Assume $p(x)$ is not constant. Fix $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$ and write

$$\mu - p(x) = \lambda_0(x - \lambda_1) \cdots (x - \lambda_n)$$

as per the fundamental theorem of algebra (note that these are not the same λ as before) with $\lambda_0 \neq 0$. Then $\mu - p(a) = \lambda_0(a - \lambda_1) \cdots (a - \lambda_n)$. Since these expressions commute, this product is invertible if and only if $(a - \lambda_i)$ is invertible for every i . So $\mu \in \sigma(p(a)) \Leftrightarrow \mu - p(a)$ is not invertible if and only if there exists an i for which $\lambda_i - a$ is not invertible, so $\lambda_i \in \sigma(a)$. But the λ_i are exactly the numbers satisfying $p(\lambda) = \mu$. Thus, μ is in $\sigma(p(a))$ if it is in the image of $\sigma(a)$ under p . Therefore, we conclude $\sigma(p(a)) = p(\sigma(a))$. \square

We now focus on invertible elements in **Banach algebras**.

Theorem 5.10 *If \mathcal{A} is a unital Banach algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\|a\| < 1$ then $1 - a$ is invertible and $(1 - a)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n$.*

PROOF: Observe that, since $\|a\| < 1$, we have $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|a\|^n = \frac{1}{1 - \|a\|} < \infty$. This implies the (absolute) convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n$ by the characteristic property of Banach spaces. Hence, $b := \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N a^n \in \mathcal{A}$. No, if $N \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$(1 - a) \left(\sum_{n=0}^N a^n \right) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^N a^n \right) - \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N+1} a^n \right) = 1 - a^{N+1} \rightarrow 1$$

because of $\|a\| < 1$. This yields $(1 - a)b = 1$. \square

Theorem 5.11 *Let \mathcal{A} be a non-empty, non-zero unital Banach algebra. Then $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ is an open subset of \mathcal{A} and the function $f : \text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, $a \mapsto a^{-1}$ is Frechet-differentiable and in particular continuous as well as $f'(a)b = -a^{-1}ba^{-1}$.*

Recall from calculus that $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$. Also recall that $f : U \xrightarrow{\text{open}} X \rightarrow Y$ with X, Y Banach spaces is **differentiable** at $x_0 \in U$ there exists an operator $D_{x_0} = f'(x_0) \in \mathcal{L}(X, Y)$ such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) - D_{x_0}(h)\|}{\|h\|} = 0$$

PROOF: Take $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$. If $b \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\|a - b\| < \|a^{-1}\|^{-1}$. From this, we have $\|ba^{-1} - 1\| = \|ba^{-1} - aa^{-1}\| = \|(b - a)a^{-1}\| \leq \|b - a\| \cdot \|a^{-1}\| < 1$. Per the previous theorem, $ba^{-1} \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$. This implies that b is also invertible. This shows that $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ is open.

Furthermore, if $\|b\| < 1$, then also $\| -b \| < 1$. Thus, $1 + b \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and $(1 + b)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b^n$. Thus,

$$\|(1 + b)^{-1} - 1 + b\| = \left\| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b^n - 1 + b \right\| \leq \left\| \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^n b^n \right\| \leq \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \|b^n\| \leq \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \|b\|^n = \frac{\|b\|^2}{1 - \|b\|}$$

Now let $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and $c \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\|c\| < \frac{1}{2} \|a^{-1}\|^{-1}$. Then $\|a^{-1}c\| \leq \|a^{-1}\| \|c\| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. So if $b = a^{-1}c$, then

$$\|(1 + a^{-1}c)^{-1} - 1 + a^{-1}c\| \leq \frac{\|a^{-1}c\|^2}{1 - \|a^{-1}c\|} < 2\|a^{-1}c\|^2$$

Now, define $U : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}, b \mapsto -a^{-1}ba^{-1}$. Then this is a linear odd operation with $\|U\| \leq \|a^{-1}\|^2$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|(a + c)^{-1} - a^{-1} - U(c)\| &= \|(a + c)^{-1} - a^{-1} + a^{-1}ca^{-1}\| \\ &= \|(1 + a^{-1}c)^{-1}a^{-1} - a^{-1} + a^{-1}ca^{-1}\| \\ &\leq \|(1 + a^{-1}c)^{-1} - 1 + a^{-1}c\| \cdot \|a^{-1}\| \\ &\leq 2\|a^{-1}c\|^2 \|a^{-1}\| \leq 2\|a^{-1}\|^3 \|c\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

and thus

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|(a + c)^{-1} - a^{-1} - U(c)\|}{\|c\|} = 0$$

Example 5.12 If we choose $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C}[X]$ and the norm $\|p\| = \sup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} |p(\lambda)|$. Then $(\mathcal{A}, \|\cdot\|)$ is a normed (but not Banach) algebra. For example, we see that $\lim_{m \rightarrow 0} 1 + X/m = 1 \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$, but $1 + X/m \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and thus $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ is not open (because the complement is not closed).

Theorem 5.13 *If \mathcal{A} is a Banach algebra with unit 1, then for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ the spectrum $\sigma(a) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is closed and $\sigma(a) \subseteq \overline{B(0, \|a\|)} = D(0, \|a\|) := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid |\lambda| \leq \|a\|\}$. Therefore, $\sigma(a)$ is compact by the Heine-Borell theorem.*

PROOF: By definition

$$\sigma(a) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda - a \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})\}$$

is the inverse image of the closed subset $\mathcal{A} \setminus \text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ by the continuous function $\lambda \mapsto \lambda - a$. Therefore, $\sigma(a)$ is closed.

Now if $|\lambda| \leq \|a\|$ then $\|\lambda^{-1}a\| < 1$. Then $1 - \lambda^{-1}a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Multiplying by λ yields $\lambda - a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Thus, $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid |\lambda| > \|a\|\} \subseteq \rho(a)$ and thus $\sigma(a) \subseteq D(0, \|a\|)$. \square

Lemma 5.14 *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital Banach algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Then, the map $R_a : \rho(a) \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}, \lambda \mapsto (a - \lambda)^{-1}$ is Frechet-differentiable.*

PROOF: This follows from the following general result:

If $g : U \xrightarrow{\text{open}} X \rightarrow Y$ and $f : V \xrightarrow{\text{open}} Y \rightarrow Z$ for Banach spaces X, Y, Z with $g(U) \subseteq V$ are differentiable at $x_0 \in U$ or respectively $y_0 = g(x_0) \in V$, then $f \circ g$ is differentiable and $(f \circ g)'(x_0) = f'(g(x_0))g'(x_0)$. \square

Observation: For $R_a(\lambda) = (a - \lambda)^{-1}$ we get $R'_a(\lambda) = (a - \lambda)^{-2}$. We have $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C}, \mathcal{A}) \simeq \mathcal{A}$ by $T \mapsto T(1)$. Recall that if $f(a) = a^{-1}$ yields $f'(a)b = -a^{-1}ba^{-1}$.

Theorem 5.15 (Gelfand) *If $\mathcal{A} \neq 0$ is a unital Banach algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ then $\sigma(a) \neq \emptyset$.*

PROOF: Suppose $\sigma(a) = \emptyset$. Idea: Show that $R_a : \rho(a) \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}, \lambda \mapsto (a - \lambda)^{-1} = \frac{1}{a - \lambda}$ is bounded and differentiable and achieve a contradiction by Liouville's theorem.

Claim: $\|(a - \lambda)^{-1}\| < \|a\|^{-1}$ if $|\lambda| > 2\|a\|$. Indeed, if $|\lambda| > 2\|a\|$ then $\|\lambda^{-1}a\| < \frac{1}{2}$, and in particular $1 - \lambda^{-1}a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and

$$\|(1 - \lambda^{-1}a)^{-1} - 1\| = \left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\lambda^{-1}a)^{-1} \right\| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|\lambda^{-1}a\|^n = \frac{\|\lambda^{-1}a\|}{1 - \|\lambda^{-1}a\|} \leq 2\|\lambda^{-1}a\| < 1.$$

From here we deduce that $\|(1 - \lambda^{-1}a)^{-1}\| < 2$ and thus

$$\|(a - \lambda)^{-1}\| < \|\lambda^{-1}(\lambda^{-1}a - 1)^{-1}\| = \frac{\|(1 - \lambda^{-1}a)^{-1}\|}{|\lambda|} < \frac{2}{\lambda} < \frac{1}{\|\lambda\|}.$$

So $R_a : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is bounded outside $\overline{B(0, 2\|a\|)}$. Since R_a is continuous, it is bounded on $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$. Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$ be a bounded linear functional in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{C})$. Thus, φ is differentiable with $\varphi'(a) = \varphi$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $\varphi \circ R_a$ is differentiable and bounded, so it is an “integer” function. By Liouville's theorem, $\varphi \circ R_a$ is constant. Therefore, $\varphi \circ R_a(x) = \varphi \circ R_a(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$. Especially, we have $\varphi((a - \lambda)^{-1}) = \varphi(a^{-1})$ for all φ . Hahn-Banach shows $(a - \lambda)^{-1} = a^{-1}$ for all λ , proving $a - \lambda = a$ for all a, λ . This is a contradiction. \square

Theorem 5.16 (Gelfand-Mazur) *If \mathcal{A} is a unital Banach algebra and every $a \neq 0$ admits an inverse (\mathcal{A} is a field), then $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C} \cdot 1$.*

PROOF: By the assumption, $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A} \setminus \{0\}$. By the previous theorem, if $a \in \mathcal{A}$ there exists some $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$, so $a - \lambda \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$, so $a - \lambda = 0$ and thus $a = \lambda \cdot 1$. \square

Corollary 5.17 *Let $\mathbb{C}(X) = \left\{ \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \mid p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[X] \right\}$ is a field, but it cannot be turned into a Banach algebra.*

Theorem 5.18 (Adjoining units - unitization of algebras) *Let \mathcal{A} be any algebra. Consider $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} = \mathcal{A} \oplus \mathbb{C}$ as a vector space. We write elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ as $a + \lambda \cdot 1 := (a, \lambda)$. Think of $a = (a, 0)$ and $\lambda = (0, \lambda)$. Define*

$$(a + \lambda 1)(b + \lambda' 1) = (ab + \lambda'a + \lambda b) + \lambda \cdot \lambda'.$$

Ten (exercise $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$) becomes a unital algebra with $1_{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}} = 1 = (0, 1)$.

Notice that \mathcal{A} is an ideal in $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$.

Moreover, we get a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \hookrightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \rightarrow 0$$

so $1 + \lambda \mapsto \lambda$.

If \mathcal{A} is a normed algebra, then $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ is normed by $\|a + \lambda \cdot 1\| := \|a\| + |\lambda|$

If \mathcal{A} is Banach and closed, then so is $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$.

If \mathcal{A} is a $*$ -algebra, then so is $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ with $(a + \lambda 1)^*$.

If \mathcal{A} is a (Banach) normed $*$ -algebra, then so is $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$.

If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra, in general the norm given above is not a Norm on \mathcal{A} , but $\|a + \lambda \cdot 1\| := \sup_{b \in \mathcal{A}, b \in \mathcal{B}, b \leq 1} \|ab + \lambda b\|$ is.

Exercise 5.1 If \mathcal{A} is already unital, then $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \simeq \mathcal{A} \oplus \mathbb{C}$ as algebras by $a + \lambda \cdot 1 \mapsto (a + \lambda 1_{\mathcal{A}}, -\lambda)$.

Definition 5.19 *Re-Definition:* If \mathcal{A} is non-unital, then $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} + \mathbb{C} \cdot 1$ is a $(*-)$ Banach algebra, and we define $\sigma_A(a) := \sigma_{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}}(a)$.

Observation: If \mathcal{A} is already unital, then for $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \simeq \mathcal{A} \oplus \mathbb{C}$ we have $\sigma_{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}}(a) = \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \cup \{0\}$.

Remark 5.20 If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra, then $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ is a C^* -algebra.

- (i) If \mathcal{A} is unital, then $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \simeq \mathcal{A} \oplus \mathbb{C}$ and $\|a + \lambda \cdot 1\| = \max\{\|a + \lambda \cdot 1\|, |\lambda|\}$.
- (ii) If \mathcal{A} is not unital, then $\|a + \lambda \cdot 1\| = \sup_{\|b\| \leq 1} \|ab + \lambda b\|$.

6 Spectral Radius

Definition 6.1 Let \mathcal{A} be an algebra. Given $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we define:

$$r(a) := \sup\{|\lambda| \mid \lambda \in \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\}$$

as the **spectral radius** of a if $\emptyset \neq \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$ is bounded (e.g. if \mathcal{A} is Banach).

Observation: In a Banach algebra, we have $0 \leq r(a) \leq \|a\|$.

Example 6.2

- (i) Let $f \in \mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ using $\sigma_A(f) = \overline{f(X)}$. Thus,

$$r(f) = \sup\{|\lambda| \mid \lambda \in \overline{f(X)}\} = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)| = \|f\|_{C_0(X)}$$

- (ii) Let $\mathcal{A} = M_2(\mathbb{C})$ and $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}} = \{0\}$ and $r(a) = 0$, but $\|a\| = 1 \neq 0$.

Theorem 6.3 (Beurling-Gelfand) Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra, then

$$r(a) = \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

PROOF: We may assume \mathcal{A} is unital (otherwise we consider $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$). If $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$, then

$$\lambda^n \in \sigma(a^n) \Rightarrow |\lambda^n| \leq \|a^n\| \Rightarrow |\lambda| \leq \|a\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

and therefore

$$r(a) \leq \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

We prove now that $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq r(a)$. Set $\Delta := B\left(0, \frac{1}{r(a)}\right)$. Where per convention we set $\frac{1}{r(a)} = \infty$ if $r(a) = 0$. If $\lambda \in \Delta$, then $1 - \lambda a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ (because $|\lambda| < \frac{1}{r(a)}$ implies $|\lambda^{-1}| > r(a)$) and therefore $\lambda^{-1} \notin \sigma(a) \Rightarrow \lambda^{-1} - a \in \text{inv } A \Rightarrow 1 - \lambda a \in \text{inv}(A)$.

Now fix $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$. Then $f : \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \lambda \mapsto \varphi((1 - \lambda a)^{-1})$ is analytic, so it can be written as

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \lambda^n, a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} \in \mathbb{C}, \lambda \in \Delta.$$

On the other hand, if

$$|\lambda| < \frac{1}{\|a\|} \leq \frac{1}{r(a)}$$

then $\|\lambda a\| < 1$, so

$$(1 - \lambda a)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^n a^n \Rightarrow f(\lambda) = \varphi((1 - \lambda a)^{-1}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \varphi(a^k) \lambda^k$$

for $|\lambda| < \frac{1}{\|a\|}$.

By uniqueness of the Taylor series expansion, it follows that

$$a_n = \varphi(a^n) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

In particular, $(\varphi(a^n) \lambda^n)$ converges to zero for all $\lambda \in \Delta$ and thus $(\varphi(a^n) \lambda^n)$ is bounded for all $\lambda \in \Delta$.

From the principle of uniform convergence, it follows that $(a^n \lambda^n)$ is bounded. So there exists an $M = M_\lambda$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\lambda^n a^n\| &\leq M \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \\ \Rightarrow \|\lambda^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} &\leq \frac{M^{\frac{1}{n}}}{|\lambda|} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall \lambda \in \Delta, \lambda \neq 0 \\ \Rightarrow \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} &\leq \frac{1}{\lambda} \forall \lambda \in \Delta \text{ i.e. } |\lambda| < \frac{1}{r(a)} \end{aligned}$$

Letting $\lambda < \frac{1}{r(a)}$ yields $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq r(a)$. □

Example 6.4 Let $A = C^1([0, 1]) = \{f \in C[0, 1] \mid \exists f'(t) \forall t \in [0, 1], t \mapsto f'(t) \text{ continuous}\}$ with $\|f\| = \|f\|_\infty + \|f'\|_\infty$.

Then \mathcal{A} is unital, commutative and a Banach algebra. Consider $x \in \mathcal{A}, x(t) = t$. We have $x^n(t) = t^n$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \|x^n\| &= \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |t^n| + \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |nt^{n-1}| = 1 + n \\ r(x) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + n)^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1 \\ \|x\| &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

Observation: $\sigma(x) = \text{im}(x) = [0, 1]$.

Theorem 6.5 Let $\mathcal{B} \not\subseteq \mathcal{A}$ be an inclusion of unital Banach algebras with $1 = 1_{\mathcal{A}} = 1_{\mathcal{B}}$. Then $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(b) \subseteq \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}(b)$ for all $b \in \mathcal{B}$ and the inclusion may be proper. If $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(b)$ is simply connected (not holes), then $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(b) = \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}(b)$.

The holes of a compact subset $K \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ are the bounded connected components of $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$. So saying that K has no holes means that $\mathbb{C} \setminus K$ is connected.

PROOF: See Murphy, 1.2.8. □

Example 6.6 Let $\mathcal{B} := A(\mathbb{D}) = \{f \in C(\mathbb{D}) \mid f \text{ analytic on } \mathbb{D}^\circ\}$ and $\mathcal{A} = C(\mathbb{S}^1)$. Then we have an embedding by $\iota : \mathcal{B} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{A}, f \mapsto f|_{\mathbb{S}^1}$.

By the principle of maximum modules, ι is an embedding of (unital) Banach algebras. Consider: $f(z) = z$ for $z \in \mathbb{D}$. (Observation: $\overline{Alg}(1, z) = A(\mathbb{D})$) Then:

$$\sigma_{A(\mathbb{D})}(f) = f(\mathbb{D}) = \mathbb{D}$$

and $\sigma_{C(\mathbb{S}^1)}(f|_{\mathbb{S}^1}) = \mathbb{S}^1$.

Definition 6.7 (Exponentials) Let \mathcal{A} be a unital Banach algebra, given $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we define

$$e^a = \exp(a) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n!}$$

Note $\left\| \frac{a^n}{n!} \right\| \leq \frac{\|a\|^n}{n!}$, so the series converges and $\|\exp(a)\| \leq \exp(\|a\|)$.

Theorem 6.8

(i) Let \mathcal{A} be a unital Banach algebra. If $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}, t \mapsto \exp(ta)$ is the unique solution of

$$\begin{cases} f'(t) &= af(t) \\ f(0) &= 1 \end{cases}$$

(ii) $e^a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and $(e^a)^{-1} = e^{-a}$.

(iii) If $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ then $e^{a+b} = e^a \cdot e^b$ (here some commutativity is necessary).

PROOF: See Murphy, 1.2.9. □

7 Gelfand Representation for commutative Banach algebras

Idea: Given a commutative algebra \mathcal{A} , we want to represent \mathcal{A} by a homomorphism $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C_0(X)$ for X some locally compact Hausdorff space. We hope that φ is injective, or even isometric, or an isomorphism. But what is X , and what is φ ?

Notice that, if $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ already, then for each $x \in X$ we get a character $\text{ev}_x : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, f \mapsto f(x)$.

Definition 7.1 Given an algebra \mathcal{A} , we define

$$\hat{\mathcal{A}} = \Omega(\mathcal{A}) := \{\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \chi \text{ non-zero homomorphism}\}.$$

Example 7.2

(i) For $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ we get a map

$$X \rightarrow \Omega(\mathcal{A}), x \mapsto \text{ev}_x$$

that is a bijection. After we give $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$ an appropriate topology, it will also be a homomorphism.

- (ii) Let $\mathcal{A} = M_2(\mathbb{C})$ (or any $M_n(\mathbb{C})$). This is a simple algebra, so non-zero homomorphisms $\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ do not exist (same for any \mathcal{A} with dimension > 1).

So in this case we have $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \emptyset$. This can also happen in commutative algebras.

- (iii) Consider

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \lambda \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

Then for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $a^2 = 0$, so if $\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is an homomorphism, then $\chi(a)^2 = \chi(a^2) = 0$, so $\chi(a) = 0$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. So again, $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \emptyset$ (and \mathcal{A} is commutative with $\dim \mathcal{A} = 1$).

Question: Given an abstract algebra \mathcal{A} how do we possibly find its characters?

Idea: Assume that $\mathfrak{l} \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ is a maximal ideal and \mathcal{A} is a unital Banach algebra. Then $\mathcal{A}/\mathfrak{l} \simeq \mathbb{C}$ and $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$.

Theorem 7.3 *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital non-zero Banach algebra. If $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ then $\|\chi\| = \sup_{\|a\|=1} |\chi(a)| = 1$ and $\ker(\chi) \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$. So $\chi \in \mathcal{A}^*$ (the topological dual of $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq D_{\mathcal{A}^*}(0, 1)$).*

Moreover, if \mathcal{A} is a unital Banach commutative algebra, then $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \ni \chi \mapsto \ker(\chi) \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ is a bijection between of characters of \mathcal{A} and maximal ideals of \mathcal{A} .

PROOF: If $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and χ a character, then $\chi(a) \in \sigma(\mathcal{A})$, because $\chi(a - \chi(a) \cdot 1) = \chi(a) - \chi(a) \cdot \chi(1) = 0$, so $a - \chi(a) \cdot 1 \in \ker(\chi) \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ and thus $a - \chi(a) \cdot 1 \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$.

Therefore: $|\chi(a)| \leq r(a) \leq \|a\|$. So $\|\chi\| \leq 1$. Since $\chi(1) = 1$ and $\|1\| = 1$ we have $\|\chi\| = 1$.

Now, apply linear algebra. Then $\ker(\chi)$ is a maximal proper subspace, in particular a maximal ideal. And $\ker(\chi)$ is closed, because χ is continuous. Now assume that \mathcal{A} is commutative (in addition to unital and Banach). Then we have the mapping

$$\varphi : \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \text{MaxIdeals}(\mathcal{A}), \chi \mapsto \ker(\chi).$$

- φ is injective. If $\ker(\chi_1) = \ker(\chi_2)$ for $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$, then for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $a - \chi_1(a) \cdot 1 \in \ker(\chi_1) = \ker(\chi_2)$. Thus, $\chi_2(a - \chi_1(a) \cdot 1) = 0$ and therefore $\chi_2(a) = \chi_1(a)$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$.
- φ is surjective. Take $\mathfrak{l} \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ a maximal ideal. Then $\mathfrak{l} = \bar{\mathfrak{l}}$ because $\bar{\mathfrak{l}} \neq \mathcal{A}$, otherwise $1 \in \bar{\mathfrak{l}}$ and since $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ is open in \mathcal{A} , we get $\mathfrak{l} \cap \text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) \neq \emptyset$. But then we have an invertible element in the ideal \mathfrak{l} already, but this implies the contradiction $\mathfrak{l} = \mathcal{A}$. Therefore, \mathcal{A}/\mathfrak{l} is a commutative, unital Banach algebra which is simple (\mathfrak{l} is maximal).

Exercise: If $\mathfrak{l} \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$, then \mathcal{A}/\mathfrak{l} is field if and only if there exists no $\mathfrak{j} \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ such that $\mathfrak{l} \triangleleft \mathfrak{j}$.

Thus, \mathcal{A}/\mathfrak{l} is a field and $\mathcal{A}/\mathfrak{l} \simeq \mathbb{C}$. Then the composition

$$\mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{q} \mathcal{A}/\mathfrak{l} \simeq \mathbb{C}$$

is a character with $\ker(\chi) = \mathfrak{l}$.

Exercise 7.1 An application of Zorn's Lemma. Show that every ideal $I \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ in a unital algebra \mathcal{A} is contained in a maximal ideal.

In particular, we can apply this to $\mathfrak{l} = 0$ in $\mathcal{A} \neq 0$ (with \mathcal{A} is unital and commutative) and thus $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \neq \emptyset$.

Topology on $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$

We have for \mathcal{A} a Banach algebra. We can add a unit to receive $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$, which is a Banach algebra.

Observe: If $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$, then there exists a unique $\tilde{\chi} \in \Omega(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})$ via $\tilde{\chi}(a + \lambda \cdot 1) = \chi(a) + \lambda$. Thus, $\|\chi\| \leq \|\tilde{\chi}\| = 1$ (Note that it may still be smaller than 1. See exercises 2023-05-09).

In any case,

$$\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq D_{\mathcal{A}^*}(0, 1) = \{\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^* \mid \|\varphi\| \leq 1\}$$

and \mathcal{A}^* carries the weak *-topology (the smallest topology to make all point-evaluations continuous, that is for a net $(\varphi_i) \subset \mathcal{A}^*$ weakly converging to $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$ if and only if $\varphi_i(a) \rightarrow \varphi(a)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$).

Definition 7.4 Given a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} , we endow $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$ with the weak *-topology and call this the **Gelfand spectrum** of \mathcal{A} .

Proposition 7.5 $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$ is a locally compact Hausdorff space. If \mathcal{A} is unital, then $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$ is compact.

PROOF: By Banach-Alaoglu-Theorem, $D_{\mathcal{A}^*}(0, 1)$ is compact and Hausdorff with the weak *-topology. Let

$$\begin{aligned} S &:= \{\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \chi \text{ hom.}\} \\ &= \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \cup \{0\} \end{aligned}$$

Then $S \subseteq D_{\mathcal{A}^*}(0, 1)$. So $\chi(ab) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} K_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \chi_i(a)\chi_i(b) = \chi(a)\chi(b)$ and therefore $x \in S$. Thus, S is a compact Hausdorff space and $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = S \setminus \{0\}$ is relatively compact.

If \mathcal{A} is unital, then $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq D_{\mathcal{A}^*}(0, 1)$ is closed. Then we have $(X_i) \subseteq \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ and $X_i \rightarrow X \in \mathcal{A}^*$ and thus $X \in S = \text{hom}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{C})$. \square

Observation: Given a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} , we have an isomorphism

$$\Omega(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}) \rightarrow \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \sqcup \{\chi_\infty\}, \varphi \mapsto \begin{cases} \varphi|_{\mathcal{A}} & \varphi|_{\mathcal{A}} \neq 0 \\ \chi_\infty & \varphi|_{\mathcal{A}} = 0 \end{cases},$$

where $\chi_\infty(a + \lambda \cdot 1) = \lambda$. Thus, $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \sqcup \{\chi_\infty\}$ is already the unitization of $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$.

Theorem 7.6 Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra. Then for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

$$\{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \subseteq \sigma(a)$$

If \mathcal{A} is commutative, then

- $\{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} = \sigma(a)$ in case \mathcal{A} is unital.
- $\{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \cup \{0\} = \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$.

PROOF:

- \mathcal{A} is unital and $a \in \mathcal{A}$. $\chi(a - \chi(a) \cdot 1) = 0$, so $\chi(a) \in \sigma(a)$, so $\{\chi(a) \mid x \in \Omega(a)\} \subseteq \sigma(a)$.

Now if $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$, consider $\mathfrak{l} := (a - \lambda \cdot 1)\mathcal{A} \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ if \mathcal{A} is commutative. By Zorns Lemma, we get $I \subseteq J \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$ with $J = \ker(\chi)$ for some $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$. Thus we have $a - \lambda \cdot 1 \in \mathfrak{l} \subseteq J = \ker(\chi)$ so $\chi(a) = \lambda$.

- \mathcal{A} is not unital. Consider $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$. By the first part,

$$\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \sigma_{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}}(a) \supseteq \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})\} = \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \cup \{0\}$$

If \mathcal{A} is commutative, by the first part again:

$$\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \sigma_{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}}(a) = \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})\} = \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \cup \{0\}$$

7.1 Gelfand-Transformation

Definition 7.7 Given a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} and $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we define $\hat{a} : \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \chi \mapsto \chi(a)$.

Observe that $\hat{a} \in C(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$, because if $\chi_i \rightarrow \chi$ then we have $\hat{a}(\chi_i) = \chi_i(a) \rightarrow \chi(a) = \hat{a}(\chi)$. So we have a map $\Gamma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$. This map is called the **Gelfand transform** of \mathcal{A} .

Theorem 7.8 (Gelfand Representation) $\text{im}(\Gamma) \subseteq C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$ and $\Gamma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$ is a contractive homomorphism, i.e. $\|\Gamma(a)\| \leq r(a) \leq \|a\|$ for every Banach algebra \mathcal{A} . If moreover \mathcal{A} is commutative, then $\|\Gamma(a)\| = r(a)$. Also, for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

$$\sigma(a) = \begin{cases} \text{im}(\hat{a}) & \mathcal{A} \text{ unital} \\ \text{im}(\hat{a}) \cup \{0\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

PROOF: If \mathcal{A} is unital, then $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$ is compact so $\text{im}(\Gamma) \subseteq C(\Omega(\mathcal{A})) = C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$. If \mathcal{A} is not unital, we use observation ???. Then we have $\Omega(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}) \simeq \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \cup \{\chi_\infty\}$ so that

$$C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A})) \simeq \{f \in C(\Omega(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})) \mid f(\chi_\infty) = 0\}.$$

Now if $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\hat{a}(\chi_\infty) = \chi_\infty(a) = 0$.

Γ is a homomorphism: The linearity is obvious, as is the homomorphism property:

$$(\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b))(\chi) = (\hat{a} \cdot \hat{b})(\chi) = \hat{a}(\chi)\hat{b}(\chi) = \chi(a)\chi(b) = \chi(ab) = \hat{ab}(\chi) = \Gamma(ab)(\chi).$$

Γ is contractive: Given $a \in \mathcal{A}$, $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$, we have $\hat{a}(\chi) = \chi(a) \in \sigma(a)$, so $\|\hat{a}(\chi)\| \leq r(a)$ yielding $\|\Gamma(a)\|_\infty = \|\hat{a}\|_\infty \leq r(a) \leq \|a\|$. If \mathcal{A} is commutative, we have

$$\sigma(a) = \begin{cases} \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} & 1 \in \mathcal{A} \\ \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \cup \{0\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \{\hat{a}(\chi) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} & 1 \in \mathcal{A} \\ \{\hat{a}(\chi) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \cup \{0\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and thus

$$\|\Gamma(a)\| = \|\hat{a}\|_\infty = \sup_{\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})} |\chi(a)| = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(a)} |\lambda| = r(a)$$

As a convention, if $\Gamma(\mathcal{A}) = \{0\}$, then $C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A})) = \{0\}$ and thus $\hat{a} = 0$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

Example 7.9

- (i) If $\mathcal{A} = M_n(\mathbb{C})$ with $n > 1$ or \mathcal{A} is any unital simple Banach algebra with $\dim \mathcal{A} > 1$, then $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \emptyset$ so $\Gamma \equiv 0$.

(ii) Take the commutative subalgebra

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \lambda \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \right\} \subseteq M_2(\mathbb{C})$$

then \mathcal{A} is not unital, commutative, Banach and $\dim \mathcal{A} = 1$. Once again, $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \emptyset$ and thus $\Gamma \equiv 0$.

(iii) Take

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \alpha \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \mid \lambda, \alpha \in \mathbb{C} \right\} \subseteq M_2(\mathbb{C})$$

is a unital, commutative Banach algebra with $\dim \mathcal{A} = 2$. We have

$$\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \{\chi_\infty\} \quad \chi_\infty : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \alpha \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \lambda$$

and thus

$$\Gamma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A})) = C_0(\{\chi_\infty\}) \simeq \mathbb{C}, a = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \alpha \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \hat{a} \equiv \lambda$$

This shows that Γ is not injective, as $\dim \mathcal{A} = 2$ but $\dim \Gamma(\mathcal{A}) = 1$.

Definition 7.10 Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra. We say that $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is *quasi-nilpotent* if $r(a) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = 0$. Sometimes, you will read

$$\text{Rad}(\mathcal{A}) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid a \text{ quasi-nilpotent}\}$$

If $\text{Rad}(\mathcal{A}) = 0$, we say that \mathcal{A} is **semi-simple**. Notice that if $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is quasi-nilpotent, then $\Gamma(a) = \hat{a} = 0$ because $\Gamma(a) \leq r(a) = 0$. If \mathcal{A} is commutative, then $\ker(\Gamma) = \text{Rad}(\mathcal{A})$.

Example 7.11

(iv) $\mathcal{A} = \ell^1(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mid \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |a_n| < \infty\}$.

Recall from exercises, that $\Omega(\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})) \simeq \mathbb{D}$ with $\mathbb{D} \rightarrow \Omega(\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})), z \mapsto \chi_z$ defined as $\chi_z(a) = \hat{a}(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$.

We define a multiplication $\delta_m \cdot \delta_n = \delta_{n+m}$. Then δ_0 is the unit and δ_1 is a generator of $\mathcal{A} = \ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$.

The elements $\delta_m - (\dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$ form a basis for \mathcal{A} . We have $a = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n \delta_n$ and for $\chi \in \mathcal{A}^*$ it follows $\chi(a) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n \chi(\delta_n)$.

We now want to calculate the spectrum. We have seen that $\chi(\delta_0) = \chi(1_{\mathcal{A}}) = 1$ and $\chi(\delta_n) = \chi(\delta_1^n) \chi(\delta_1)^n$. Therefore, χ is determined by $z = \chi(\delta_1) \in \mathbb{C}$. We know at least that $|z| = |\chi(\delta_1)| \leq \|\delta_1\| = 1$, so $z \in \mathbb{D}$. Claim: $z \in \Pi = \mathbb{S}^1$.

General fact: If $a \in \text{inv } \mathcal{A}$ for \mathcal{A} a unital Banach algebra, then $\sigma(a^{-1}) = \sigma(a)^{-1} = \{\lambda^{-1} \mid \lambda \in \sigma(a)\}$.

Observe that $\mathbb{S}^1 = \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ with $\delta_1^{-1} = \delta_{-1}$. So $\sigma(\delta) \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ and $\sigma(\delta_1)^{-1} = \sigma(\delta_{-1}) \subseteq \mathbb{D}$, so $\sigma(\delta_1) \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$. So $z = \chi(\delta_1) \in \sigma(\delta_1) \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$. Conversely, if $z \in \mathbb{S}^1$, then $\chi_z : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \chi_z(a) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n z^n \in \mathbb{C}$ is well-defined (as the sum converges) and is a character, as

$$\chi_z(\delta_n \cdot \delta_m) = \chi(\delta_{n+m}) = z^{n+m} = z^n z^m = \chi_z(\delta_n) \cdot \chi_z(\delta_m)$$

and checking in the basis also proves the homomorphism property for all of \mathcal{A} . Notice that $z = \chi_z(\delta_1)$. This shows the injectivity of

$$\Pi \simeq \Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \Omega(\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})), z \mapsto \chi_z, \chi(\delta_1) \leftarrow \chi$$

which is continuous and therefore a homeomorphism (isomorphism), as both spaces are compact. Notice

$$\sigma(\delta_1) = \{\chi(\delta_1) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} = \{\chi_z(\delta_1) \mid z \in \mathbb{S}^1\} = \mathbb{S}^1$$

The Gelfand transformation is now

$$\Gamma : \mathcal{A} = \ell^1(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C(\Omega(\mathcal{A})) \simeq C(\mathbb{S}^1), a \mapsto \left(\hat{a} : z \mapsto \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n z^n \right)$$

Γ is always a contractive algebra homomorphism, as $\|\hat{a}\|_\infty \leq \|a\|_1$. Γ is a $*$ -homomorphism where $\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$ carries the involution $a^* = (\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n \delta_n)^* = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \bar{a}_n \delta_{-n}$ because of $\delta_n^* = \delta_{-n}$. The involution of $C(\mathbb{S}^1)$ is complex conjugation. But on the unit circle, $\bar{z} = z^{-1}$, so we have a $*$ -homomorphism.

Γ is injective. If $f \in C(\mathbb{S}^1)$, we can define its “inverse Fourier-Transform”

$$\check{f}(n) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^1} f(z) z^{-n} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\exp(it)) \exp(-int) dt$$

This is **not** the line integral from functional analysis, as the derivative of the path is not included. You can now check that $(\hat{a})^\sim(n) = a_n$. $g \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{S}^1} g$ is a continuous function on $C(\mathbb{S}^1)$ and we have

$$\hat{a}(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n z^n = \lim_{F \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \text{ finite}} \sum_{n \in F} a_n z^n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=-N}^N a_n z^n$$

so

$$(\hat{a})^\sim(n) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} a_m (\hat{\delta}_m)^\sim(n)$$

Because of $\int_{\mathbb{S}^1} z^k = \delta_{k,0}$, we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{S}^1} z^m z^n dz = \delta_{n,m}$$

and using $\hat{\delta}_m(z) = z^m$ we can show $(\hat{\delta}_m)^\sim(n) = \delta_{n,m}$ and thus

$$(\hat{a})^\sim(n) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} a_m (\hat{\delta}_m)^\sim(n) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} a_m \delta_{m,n} = a_n$$

This shows that we can re-gain the elements of the sequence from \hat{a} , so $\Gamma : (a_n) \mapsto \hat{a}$ must be injective.

Γ has dense range because the polynomials are dense in $C(\mathbb{S}^1)$ because of Stone-Weierstraß theorem.

Γ is not isometric. If Γ was isometric, then Γ were an isometric $*$ -homomorphism with dense range. Since isometric homomorphisms have closed image, Γ were surjective and thus an isometric $*$ -isomorphism $\ell^1(\mathbb{Z}) = C(\mathbb{S}^1)$. Then $\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$ would be a C^* -algebra with the $\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$ -norm, and thus $\|a^*a\|_1 = \|a\|_1^2$ (with the involution as described above). Then, using the C^* -property of $C(\mathbb{S}^1)$ and isometry of Γ , we have

$$\|a^*a\|_1 = \|\Gamma(a^*a)\|_\infty = \|\Gamma(a)^*\Gamma(a)\|_\infty = \|\Gamma(a)\|_\infty^2 = \|a\|_1^2.$$

Now we only need to find $a \in \ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$ with $\|a^*a\|_1 \neq \|a\|_1^2$. Choose $a = \alpha\delta_0 + \beta\delta_1 + \gamma\delta_{-1} = \alpha + \beta\delta_1 + \gamma\delta_{-1}$ (not writing δ_0 as it is the unit).

$$a^*a = (\bar{\alpha} + \bar{\beta}\delta_{-1} + \bar{\gamma}\delta_1)(\alpha + \beta\delta_1 + \gamma\delta_{-1}) = \dots$$

and thus

$$\|a^*a\|_1 = |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 + |\gamma|^2 + 2|\bar{\alpha}\beta + \alpha\bar{\gamma}| + 2|\gamma\beta|$$

while

$$\|a\|_1^2 = (|\alpha| + |\beta| + |\gamma|)^2.$$

Now choosing $\alpha = i$ and $\beta = \gamma = 1$ yields $\|a^*a\|_1 = 5$ and $\|a\|_1^2 = 9$. This shows that $\ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$ does not fulfil the $*$ -property and cannot be a C^* -algebra. This is a contradiction, so Γ cannot be isometric.

This is also a valid counterexample for the isometry directly, because a has Norm 3, but $\Gamma(a) = (z \mapsto \frac{1}{z} + i + z = 2\Re(z) + i)$ has maximum $2 + i$ with Norm $\sqrt{5} < 3$ on the unit circle. Γ is not surjective. This is complicated.

Recall: For \mathcal{A} a Banach algebra, we have a Gelfand representation

$$\Gamma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A})), a \mapsto (\hat{a} : \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \chi \mapsto \chi(a))$$

where $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \{\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \text{non-zero hom}\} \subseteq D_{\mathcal{A}^*}(0, 1)$ with the weak $*$ -topology. Γ is a contractive homomorphism, and if \mathcal{A} is commutative $\|\Gamma(a)\| = r(a) \leq \|a\|$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

We now want to consider commutative C^* -algebras.

Theorem 7.12 (Gelfand) *If \mathcal{A} is a commutative C^* -algebra, then $\Gamma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$ is an isometric $*$ -isomorphism.*

For this proof we require a set of lemmas.

Lemma 7.13 *If $a \in \mathcal{A}$, \mathcal{A} a C^* -algebra, with $a = a^*$ then $r(a) = \|a\|$.*

PROOF: Use $r(a) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}$. Notice $\|a^2\| = \|a^*a\| = \|a\|^2$ and $\|a^4\| = \|(a^2)^*a^2\| = \|a^2\|^2 = \|a\|^4$ and likewise for all powers that are powers of 2 we have $\|a^{2^n}\| = \|a\|^{2^n}$. So $r(a) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a^{2^n}\|^{\frac{1}{2^n}} = \|a\|$ is the limit of the subsequence and therefore the limit of the sequence. \square

Remark 7.14 In general, $\|a\| \neq r(a)$ if $a \neq a^*$ in a C^* -algebra, e.g. $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{C})$.

But if $a^*a = aa^*$ (a is normal), then $\|a\| = r(a)$.

PROOF: Exercise. □

Corollary 7.15 *There exists at most one norm that makes a $*$ -algebra \mathcal{A} into a C^* -algebra.*

PROOF: If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra with norm $\|\cdot\|$, then for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $\|a\| = \|aa^*\|^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Note that a^*a is self-adjoint, so by the previous lemma we have

$$\|a\| = \|aa^*\|^{\frac{1}{2}} = r(a^*a)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(a^*a)} |\lambda|^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

and this only depends on the algebra structure, not its norm. □

Corollary 7.16 *If $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a $*$ -homomorphism from a Banach- $*$ -algebra \mathcal{A} into a C^* -algebra \mathcal{B} then φ is contractive, i.e. $\|\varphi(a)\|_{\mathcal{B}} \leq \|a\|_{\mathcal{A}}$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$*

PROOF: Replacing \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} by their unitizations $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}$ and extending φ to $\tilde{\varphi} : \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{B}}, a + \lambda 1_{\mathcal{B}} \mapsto \varphi(a) + \lambda 1_{\mathcal{B}}$ shows that we can just assume $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \varphi$ to be unital.

Now, if $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$, then $\varphi(a) \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{B})$, so it follows

$$\lambda \in \rho_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \Leftrightarrow a - \lambda \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) \Leftrightarrow \varphi(a) - \lambda \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{B}) \Leftrightarrow \lambda \in \rho_{\mathcal{B}}(\varphi(a))$$

so $\rho_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \subseteq \rho_{\mathcal{B}}(\varphi(a))$ and $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \supseteq \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}(\varphi(a))$. It follows for the spectral radius: $r(\varphi(a)) \leq r(a)$. As \mathcal{B} is a C^* -algebra, this implies

$$\begin{aligned} \|\varphi(a)\|_{\mathcal{B}}^2 &= \|\varphi(a)^* \varphi(a)\|_{\mathcal{B}} = \|\varphi(a^*a)\|_{\mathcal{B}} = r(\varphi(a^*a)) \\ &\leq r(a^*a) \leq \|a^*a\|_{\mathcal{A}} \leq \|a^*\|_{\mathcal{A}} \cdot \|a\|_{\mathcal{A}} = \|a\|_{\mathcal{A}}^2 \end{aligned}$$

and therefore $\|\varphi(a)\|_{\mathcal{B}} \leq \|a\|_{\mathcal{A}}$. □

Lemma 7.17 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then*

- (i) *If a is self-adjoint, $\sigma(a) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.*
- (ii) *If \mathcal{A} is unital and $u \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ is unitary (that is, $u^*u = uu^* = 1$) then $\sigma(u) \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$.*
- (iii) *If $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$, then $\sigma(a^{-1}) = \sigma(a)^{-1} = \{z^{-1} \mid z \in \sigma(a)\}$.*
- (iv) *$\sigma(a^*) = \overline{\sigma(a)}$.*

PROOF: (iii) If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}, \lambda \neq 0$ and $\lambda - a \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Because $\lambda - a$ is not invertible, $\lambda^{-1}(\lambda - a) = 1 - \lambda^{-1}a$ and $a^{-1}(1 - \lambda^{-1}a) = a^{-1} - \lambda^{-1}$ is also not invertible. So we have $\lambda^{-1} - a^{-1} \notin \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and therefore $\sigma(a^{-1}) \subseteq \sigma(a)^{-1}$. The result follows by symmetry.

(iv) Similarly, you can prove (iv).

(ii) If $u \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$, then $\sigma(u) \subseteq \mathbb{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| \leq 1\}$ because

$$\|u\| = \|u^*u\|^{\frac{1}{2}} = \|1\|^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1.$$

So, since $u \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$, $u^{-1} = u^* \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ and therefore $\sigma(u)^{-1} = \sigma(u^{-1}) \subseteq \mathbb{D}$. This implies $\|\lambda\| = 1$ for all $\lambda \in \sigma(u)$ and thus $\sigma(u) \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$.

- (i) Assume that \mathcal{A} is unital, otherwise work in $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$. If a is self-adjoint then $u = \exp(ia) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{i^n a^n}{n!} \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A})$ because $\exp(ia)^* = \exp(-ia)$ and therefore $u^*u = \exp(-ia)\exp(ia) = \exp(0) = 1 = uu^*$. Because of (i) we know $\sigma(u) \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$. Now, let $\lambda \in \sigma(u)$ and define $b = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^n (a-\lambda)^n}{n!} = \exp(i(a-\lambda)) - 1$ as well as $c = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^n (a-\lambda)^{n-1}}{n!} \in \mathcal{A}$. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(ia) - \exp(i\lambda 1) &= (\exp(i(a-\lambda)) - 1) \exp(i\lambda) = b \exp(i\lambda) \\ &= \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^n (a-\lambda)^n}{n!} \right) \exp(i\lambda) \\ &= (a-\lambda) \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^n (a-\lambda)^{n-1}}{n!} \right) \exp(i\lambda) \\ &= (a-\lambda) c \exp(i\lambda). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$ and $c, (a-\lambda)$ commute, $\exp(ia) - \exp(i\lambda)$ is not invertible (or $a-\lambda$ would also be invertible) and we have $\exp(i\lambda) \in \sigma(u) \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$. But for this to happen, we require $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

Corollary 7.18 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra and $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$, then $\chi(a^*) = \overline{\chi(a)}$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. So χ is a $*$ -homomorphism.*

PROOF: If $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is self-adjoint, then $\chi(a) \in \sigma(a) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ so $\overline{\chi(a)} = \chi(a) = \chi(a^*)$.

Now, if $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is any element we can write it as $a = b + ic$ where $b = \frac{a+a^*}{2}$ and $c = \frac{a-a^*}{2i}$ so that b, c are self-adjoint. Now $\chi(b), \chi(c) \in \mathbb{R}$ so

$$\chi(a^*) = \chi(b - ic) = \chi(b) - i \cdot \chi(c) = \overline{\chi(b) + i\chi(c)} = \overline{\chi(b + ic)} = \overline{\chi(a)}$$

Corollary 7.19 *If \mathcal{A} is a commutative C^* -algebra and $\mathcal{A} \neq 0$, then $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \neq \emptyset$.*

PROOF: If $\mathcal{A} \neq 0$ there is some self-adjoint non-zero element $a \in \mathcal{A}$ so that $r(a) = \|a\| \neq 0$. But $\sigma(a) \subseteq \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})\} \cup \{0\}$. But for this to be true there must exist a character $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$, so $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \neq \emptyset$. \square

PROOF (GELFAND):

- **Γ is a $*$ -homomorphism:** Consider

$$\Gamma(a)^*(\chi) = \hat{a}^*(\chi) = \overline{\hat{a}(\chi)} = \overline{\chi(a)} = \chi(a^*) = \hat{a}^*(\chi) = \Gamma(a^*)(\chi)$$

so $\Gamma(a)^* = \Gamma(a^*)$.

- **Γ is isometric:** We have

$$\|\Gamma(a)\|^2 = \|\Gamma(a)^*\Gamma(a)\| = \|\Gamma(a^*a)\| = r(a^*a) = \|a^*a\| = \|a\|^2$$

using our lemmas and the C^* -property.

- **Γ is surjective:** Let $\mathcal{B} := \text{im}(\Gamma) \subseteq C_0(\mathcal{A})$. Then \mathcal{B} is a C^* -subalgebra of $C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$. Then

- \mathcal{B} does not vanish at any point, i.e. for every point $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ there is a $b \in \mathcal{B}$ with $\chi(b) \neq 0$.

As $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ means $\chi \neq 0$, there exists an $a \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\chi(a) \neq 0$. But we can rewrite this as $b(\chi) = \hat{a}(\chi) = \chi(a) \neq 0$ for $b = \hat{a}$.

- \mathcal{B} separates points in $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$, i.e. for every $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ in $\Omega(\mathcal{A})$ there exists $b \in \mathcal{B}$ with $b(\chi_1) \neq b(\chi_2)$.

If $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ there exists $a \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\chi_1(a) \neq \chi_2(a)$. Taking $b = \hat{a}$ yields the result.

The result $\mathcal{B} = C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$ follows from the Stone-Weierstraß-theorem:

If X is a locally compact Hausdorff space and $B \subseteq C_0(X)$ is a $*$ -subalgebra satisfying

- B does not vanish on any point of X
- B separates points of \mathcal{A}

then B is dense in $C_0(X)$.

So $\text{im}(\Gamma)$ is dense and closed in $C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$, so Γ is surjective.

Proposition 7.20 *Conclusion: Every commutative C^* -algebra is (up to $*$ -isomorphism) of the form $C_0(X)$ for a locally compact Hausdorff space X . Let $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ for a locally compact Hausdorff space X . Then $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \simeq X$ with isomorphism*

$$\varphi : X \rightarrow \Omega(C_0(X)), x \mapsto (\text{ev}_x : C_0(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, f \mapsto f(x)).$$

PROOF:

- φ is **well-defined**, because characters are never zero.
- φ is **continuous**. Take $x_i \rightarrow x$ in X . Then, for all $f \in C_0(X)$ we have $\text{ev}_{x_i}(f) \rightarrow \text{ev}_x(f)$ because f is continuous and therefore $f(x_i) \rightarrow f(x)$. This shows $\text{ev}_{x_i} \rightarrow \text{ev}_x$ in the weak $*$ -topology.
- φ is **injective**. If $x_1 \neq x_2$ there exists a function $f \in C_0(X)$ that separates them, but then $\text{ev}_{x_1}(f) \neq \text{ev}_{x_2}(f)$, so $\text{ev}_{x_1} \neq \text{ev}_{x_2}$.
- φ is **surjective**. Prove that every $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ is $\chi = \text{ev}_x$ for some $x \in X$.

We know that the characters of \mathcal{A} are equivalent to the ideals in $C_0(X)$, so this is equivalent to: Every maximal ideal $I \triangleleft C_0(X)$ is of the form $I = C_0(X \setminus \{x_0\}) = \{f \in C_0(X) \mid f(x_0) = 0\}$.

In Exercise 01-08 we have proven that every closed (2-sided) ideal $I \triangleleft C_0(X)$ has the form $I = C_0(U) := \{f \in C_0(X) \mid f|_{X \setminus U} \equiv 0\}$ for some open $U \subseteq X$.

See 01-08 for more details.

Take any $f \in I \triangleleft C_0(X)$. First, prove $I^* = I$. Consider $f \in I$ and

$$f_n := \sqrt[n]{f^* f} = (\overline{f} f)^{\frac{1}{n}} = |f|^{\frac{2}{n}}.$$

We have $f_n \in I$ for all n , because $g := f^* f \in I$ and $t \mapsto \sqrt[n]{t}$ is a continuous function that can be uniformly approximated by polynomials on the compact sets. It follows that $f_n = \lim g_n$ where g_n is a polynomial in $g \in I$, so $f_n \in I$. So $f^* f_n \in I$ for all n . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|f^* = f_n f^*\|_\infty^2 &= \|(f^* - f_n f^*)(f^* - f_n f^*)\|_\infty = \|(f = f_n f)(f^* - f_n f^*)\|_\infty \\ &= \|f^* f - 2f^* f f_n + f_n^2 f^* f\|_\infty \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq \|g - g \sqrt[n]{g}\| + \|g - g \sqrt[n]{g}\| \|f_n\| \rightarrow 0,$$

because $|g(x) - g(x) \sqrt[n]{g(x)}| \rightarrow 0$ pointwise (as the n -th square root converges to the 1 on the support and 0 elsewhere) and $|g(x)| \leq \varepsilon$ everywhere except a compact set K , and on that K we have $\sup_{x \in K} |g(x)| |1 - \sqrt[n]{g(x)}| = |g(x_0)| |1 - \sqrt[n]{g(x_0)}| < \varepsilon$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We therefore have $f^* = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^* f_n \in I$ and thus $f^* = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n f^*$. Now let $I \triangleleft C_0(X)$ closed, so $I^* = I$ and I is a C^* -subalgebra of X .

Define $U^c := \{x \in X \mid f(x) = 0 \forall f \in I\}$. This is closed (because for $x_i \rightarrow x$ in X , $x_i \in U^c$, we have $0 = f(x_i) \rightarrow f(x)$), so U is open. We claim $I = C_0(U)$.

If $f \in I$, $f|_{U^c} \equiv 0$ per Definition, so $f \in C_0(U)$. Therefore, I is a closed subideal of $C_0(U)$.

I does not vanish on U , because if there was an $x \in U$ with $f(x) = 0$ for all $f \in I$, we would have $x \in U^c$.

I separates the points of U . Take $x_1 \neq x_2$. We can choose $h \in C_0(X)$ with $h(x_1) = 1$ and $h(x_2) = 0$ (Uryson) as well as $g \in I$ with $g(x_1) \neq 0$, then $f = g \cdot h \in I$ separates x_1 from x_2 .

Stone-Weierstraß now proves $I = C_0(U)$.

Notice $U \subseteq V \subseteq X$ (open) iff $C_0(U) \subseteq C_0(V) \trianglelefteq C_0(X)$ (see exercise 08-01). So we have a bijection between the opens of X and the ideals of $C_0(X)$. Especially, the maximal ideals of $C_0(X)$ correspond to the maximal open sets, that is the sets of form $X \setminus \{x_0\}$ for some x_0 , of X .

Therefore, if $\chi \in \Omega(C_0(X))$ we have $\ker \chi = C_0(X \setminus \{x_0\})$, so χ maps a function to 0 if and only if f is zero on x . This proves and $\chi = \text{ev}_x$.

- φ is **open**. If X is compact, this is clear because $C_0(X) = C(X)$ and unital, so $\Omega(C_0(X))$ is compact and we have a bijection between two compact sets. In general, consider \tilde{X} (the compactification) and use $\widetilde{C_0(\tilde{X})} \simeq C(\tilde{X})$. So we have a homeomorphism

$$\tilde{X} \rightarrow \Omega(C(\tilde{x})) = \Omega(\widetilde{C_0(\tilde{X})}) \simeq \Omega(C_0(X)) \sqcup \{\chi_\infty\}$$

where $\infty \mapsto \chi_\infty$, so we can restrict the homeomorphism to X and are done.

Theorem 7.21 (Spectral inclusion for C^* -algebras) *Let $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ be an inclusion of unital C^* -algebras with $1 = 1_{\mathcal{A}} = 1_{\mathcal{B}}$. Then for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}(a)$, so $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \text{inv}(\mathcal{B}) \cap \mathcal{A}$.*

PROOF: If a is self-adjoint, that is $a^* = a$, then $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, so $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}$ has no holes, i.e. the complement $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$ is connected in \mathbb{C} . By the general result on Banach algebras $\sigma_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}(a)$. In particular, this implies $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) \Leftrightarrow a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{B})$ for all self-adjoint $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

We now prove that this holds for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Of course, $\text{inv}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \text{inv}(\mathcal{B}) \cap \mathcal{A}$. Let $a \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{B})$. Then there exists $b \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $ab = ba = 1$ and $b^* a^* = a^* b^* = 1 \Leftrightarrow bb^* a^* a = 1 = a^* a b b^*$. Therefore, $a^* a \in \text{inv} \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A} \subseteq \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ because $a^* a$ is self adjoint. So there exists $c \in \text{algebra } \mathcal{A}$ with $ca^* a = 1 = a^* a c$ and thus $ca^* a b = ca^* = b$, so $b \in \mathcal{A}$ as it is the product of two elements $a^*, c \in \mathcal{A}$. This concludes the proof, as a is now invertible in \mathcal{A} . \square

Definition 7.22 *We say $a \in \mathcal{A}$ (for \mathcal{A} a C^* -algebra) is **normal** if $a^* a = a a^*$. This means $C^*(a)$ (the C^* -subalgebra of \mathcal{A} generated by a) is commutative. Then $C^*(a) \simeq C_0(X)$.*

Lemma 7.23 Let $a \in \mathcal{A}$ (C^* -algebra) be a normal element. Assume that $1 \in \mathcal{A}$ (unital). Then $\Omega(C^*(a, 1)) \simeq \sigma(a)$ by homeomorphism $\chi \mapsto \chi(a)$. In general, if \mathcal{A} is possibly not unital, then $\Omega(C^*(a)) \simeq \sigma(a) \setminus \{0\}$. In particular, $\chi(a) = 0$ only if $a = 0$ but then $C^*(a)$ is just the zero space.

PROOF: It is enough to consider the unital case.

Consider $\varphi : \Omega(C^*(a, 1)) \rightarrow \sigma(a), \chi \mapsto \chi(a)$ which is well-defined because $\chi(a) \in \sigma(a)$.

- φ is **continuous**. If $\chi_i \rightarrow \chi$ in $\Omega(C^*(a, 1))$ then this also converges point wise, so $\chi_i(a) \rightarrow \chi(a)$.
- φ is **injective**. Take $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in \Omega(C^*(a, 1))$ with $\chi_1(a) = \chi_2(a)$. Since $\chi_1(1) = 1 = \chi_2(1)$, so the two characters coincide on the generators and are thus equal by linearity and continuity.
- φ is **surjective**. We know that $\sigma(a) = \{\chi(a) \mid \chi \in \Omega(B)\}$ for all commutative unital Banach algebras B , in particular for $B = C^*(a, 1)$.

Because both spaces are compact this concludes the proof. \square

Theorem 7.24 (Fundamental theorem of continuous functional calculus)

Let \mathcal{A} be a unital C^* -algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ normal. Then there exists a unique unital $*$ -homomorphism $\varphi : C(\sigma(a)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ such that $\text{id}_{\sigma(a)} \mapsto a$.

In general, if \mathcal{A} is possibly not unital, there exists a unique $*$ -homomorphism $\varphi : C_0(\sigma(a)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ where $C_0(\sigma(a)) := \{f \in C(\sigma(a)) \mid f(0) = 0\}$.

Both of these morphisms are also isometric.

Notation: If $f \in C(\sigma(a))$ we write $f(a) := \varphi(a)$. Notice: If f is a polynomial in z, \bar{z} then $f(a) = \varphi(a)$ as usual.

PROOF: Consider $1 \in \mathcal{A}$ and let $\mathcal{B} = C^*(a, 1) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. Then \mathcal{B} is commutative because a is normal (i.e. commutes with its adjoint). By Gelfand, we get an isometric $*$ -isomorphism $T : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow C(\Omega(\mathcal{B})), b \mapsto \hat{b}$. By the Lemma, $\Omega(\mathcal{B}) \equiv \sigma(a), \chi \mapsto \chi(a)$. Via this identification (homeomorphism), we have $\hat{b}(\chi) = \chi(b)$ and $\hat{a}(\chi) = \chi(a)$. So \hat{a} corresponds to $z \in C(\sigma(a)) \simeq C(\Omega(\mathcal{B}))$. Therefore, considering the inverse of T and identifying $\Omega(\mathcal{B}) \simeq \sigma(a)$ we get an isometric

$$C(\sigma(a)) \simeq C(\Omega(C^*(a, 1))) \simeq C^*(a, 1) \simeq \mathcal{A}.$$

This gives φ as defined.

The **non-unital case**: Just consider $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$. \square

Example 7.25 Let $f(z) = \exp(z) = e^z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}$. f is a continuous function on the whole plane. If $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is normal, then $f(a) = \exp(a) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n!}$. In general, $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n z^n$ (or $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n (z - z_0)^n$), so $f(a) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n!}$ if $\sigma(a) \subseteq \text{Domain}(f)$.

Theorem 7.26 Let \mathcal{A} be unital C^* -algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ be normal. If $f \in C(\sigma(a))$, then $\sigma(f(a)) = f(\sigma(a)) = \{f(\lambda) \mid \lambda \in \sigma(a)\}$.

Moreover, if $g \in C(\sigma(f(a)))$, then $g(f(a)) = (g \circ f)(a)$.

PROOF: Let $\mathcal{B} = C^*(a, 1) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. \mathcal{B} is commutative and unital. Then $f(a) \in \mathcal{B}$ and $\sigma(f(a)) = \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}(f(a))$. Now notice $\chi(f(a)) = f(\chi(a))$ since both maps

$$f \mapsto \chi(f(a))$$

$$f \mapsto f(\chi(a))$$

are unital $*$ -homomorphisms that coincide on z . Therefore,

$$\sigma(f(a)) = \{\chi(f(a)) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B})\} = \{f(\chi(a)) \mid \chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B})\} = f(\sigma(a)).$$

Now to prove $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a))$. Let $C = C^*(1, f(a)) \subseteq \mathcal{B} = C^*(1, a) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. Let $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B})$. Then $\chi_C := \chi|_C \in \Omega(C)$. So $(g \circ f)(a)$ is sensibly defined and an element of \mathcal{B} , so we can apply a character:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi((g \circ f)(a)) &= (g \circ f)(\chi(a)) = g(f(\chi(a))) = g(\chi(f(a))) = g(\chi_C(f(a))) \\ &= \chi_C(g(f(a))) = \chi(\underbrace{g(f(a))}_{\in \mathcal{B}}) \end{aligned}$$

Because the Gelfand-transform is injective, this implies $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a))$. \square

Proposition 7.27 *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital C^* -algebra and $u \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}) = \{u \in \mathcal{A} \mid u^*u = 1 = uu^*\}$. If $\sigma(u) \neq \mathbb{S}^1$ there exists a self-adjoint $a \in \mathcal{A}$ with $u = \exp(ia)$.*

PROOF: The idea is to take $\log \approx \exp^{-1}$. Problem: \exp is not invertible as a complex function, because it is $2\pi i$ -periodic. We will need to restrict it. Consider the principal branch of the logarithm, $\log(z) = \log|z| + i \arg(z)$.

Given that $\sigma(u) \neq \mathbb{S}^1$, there exists an $\lambda \in \mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \sigma(u)$ and therefore also an $f_\lambda \in C(\mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \{\lambda\})$ (so some form of argument-mapping of z) such that $\exp(if_\lambda(z)) = z$. This f_λ is real-valued, continuous and analytical. Now use functional calculus: Let $a := f_\lambda(u) \in \mathcal{A}$. Since f_λ is real-valued, it is self-adjoint in the algebra, so a is also self-adjoint. By the previous theorem $\exp(ia) = \exp(if_\lambda(u)) = (\exp \circ if_\lambda)(u) = u$.

Multiplier Algebras

This is another kind of unitization. We will consider $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow M(\mathcal{A}) \ni \mu$ such that $\mu \cdot a \in \mathcal{A} \ni a \cdot \mu$ so $\mathcal{A} \trianglelefteq M(\mathcal{A})$. Remember that this was the case for the usual unitization, with Quotient \mathbb{C} . Here, the multiplier is usually much bigger, so the quotient is as well. In fact, $\mathcal{A} \times \mathbb{C}$ is the 'smallest' unitization while $M(\mathcal{A})$ is the 'largest' one.

Definition 7.28 (Multiplier, see Murphy) *Let \mathcal{A} be an algebra. A **multiplier** of \mathcal{A} is a pair $\mu = (L, R)$ where $L, R : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ are linear maps such that*

- (i) $L(ab) = L(a) \cdot b$ or $\mu(ab) = (\mu a)b$
- (ii) $R(ab) = a \cdot R(b)$ or $(ab)\mu = a(b\mu)$
- (iii) $a \cdot L(b) = R(a) \cdot b$ or $a(\mu b) = (a\mu)b$.

To simplify this, use the notation $\mu \cdot a := L(a)$ and $a \cdot \mu := R(a)$.

For the space of all multipliers we write $M(\mathcal{A}) = \{\mu = (L, R) \mid \mu \text{ multiplier}\}$. This is a \mathbb{C} -vector space with

$$(L_1, R_1) + (L_2, R_2) = (L_1 + L_2, R_1 + R_2) \quad \lambda(L_1, R_1) = (\lambda L_1, \lambda R_2)$$

and an algebra with

$$(L_1, R_1) \cdot (L_2, R_2) = (L_1 \cdot L_2, R_2 \cdot R_1).$$

If \mathcal{A} is a $*$ -algebra, we further define

$$(L, R)^* = (R^*, L^*) \text{ where } L^*(a) := L(a^*)^* \text{ and } R^*(a) := R(a^*)^*$$

Moreover, we have a canonical $(*)$ -homomorphism $\iota : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow M(\mathcal{A}), a \mapsto (L_a, R_a)$ where $L_a(b) = ab$ and $R_a(b) = ba$. Note: ι is always a $(*)$ -homomorphism but injective if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} \forall_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \quad a \cdot b = 0 \quad \forall_b \Rightarrow a = 0 \\ b \cdot a = 0 \quad \forall_b \Rightarrow a = 0 \end{aligned}$$

i.e. \mathcal{A} is an essential ideal of itself. This is not always true for a general algebra, consider the algebra with the 0-product $a \cdot b = 0$, but it always holds for C^* -algebras or if \mathcal{A} is unital already.

More generally this holds if \mathcal{A} is a Banach algebra with an **approximate unit**, a net $e_i \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ such that $e_i a \rightarrow a$ and $a \cdot e_i \rightarrow a$ for any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ as well as $\|e_i\|$. This is always the case for unital and C^* -algebras.

Assume ι is injective. Then \mathcal{A} is identified with an essential $(*)$ -ideal of $M(\mathcal{A})$.

Remark 7.29 (Norms on the multiplier) If \mathcal{A} is a Banach algebra with an approximate unit, we define for $\mu = (L, R) \in M(\mathcal{A})$ the norm

$$\|\mu\| := \|L\| = \|R\| < \infty.$$

PROOF: To show $\|L\|, \|R\| < \infty$ we use the Closed Graph Theorem. Say we have $(a_n) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ with $a_n \rightarrow a$ and $L(a_n) \rightarrow b$. Take $c \in \mathcal{A}$ and consider

$$c \cdot L(a) = R(c) \cdot a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R(c) \cdot a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c \cdot L(a_n) = c \cdot b.$$

Because of the approximate unit (or ι injective) we have $L(a) = b$. This shows that L (and, analogously, R) are bounded. Now to prove $\|L\| = \|R\|$. Take any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and consider

$$\|L(a)\| \stackrel{\text{approx. unit}}{=} \sup_{\|b\| \leq 1} \|bL(a)\| = \sup_{\|b\| \leq 1} \|R(b)a\| \leq \sup_{\|b\| \leq 1} \|R(b)\| \|a\| \leq \|R\| \cdot \|a\|$$

which implies $\|L\| \leq \|R\|$. By symmetry of the situation, we have $\|L\| = \|R\|$. \square

With the norm above, $M(\mathcal{A})$ becomes a Banach algebra.

Proposition 7.30 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra then $M(\mathcal{A})$ is too.*

PROOF: Write $\mu = (L, R)$. We compute $\mu^* \mu = (R^*, L^*) \cdot (L, R) = (R^* L, R L^*)$. So $\|\mu \mu^*\| = \|R^* L\|$. Take $a \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\|a\| \leq 1$. Then

$$\|L(a)\|^2 = \|L(a)L(a)^*\| = \|L(a)L^*(a^*)\| = \|R^*(L(a))a^*\| \leq \|R^*(L(a))\| \leq \|R^* L\|$$

This shows $\|L\|^2 \leq \|R^* L\|$ and therefore $\|\mu\|^2 = \|L\|^2 \leq \|R^* L\| = \|\mu^* \mu\|$. Because $\|\mu\|^2 \geq \|\mu \mu^*\|$ is clear by submultiplicativity, the C^* -property follows. \square

Compare now $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ and $M(\mathcal{A})$. We have $\mathcal{A} \trianglelefteq \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\mathcal{A} \trianglelefteq M(\mathcal{A})$. When are these ideals essential?

Lemma 7.31 *Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra or Banach algebra with approximate unit. $\mathcal{A} \trianglelefteq \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ if and only if \mathcal{A} is not unital.*

PROOF: Suppose that \mathcal{A} is unital with $1_{\mathcal{A}}$ as the unit. In this case, take $p = 1 - 1_{\mathcal{A}} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ (where $1 = (0, 1)$ is the unit in $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$). Notice that $p \cdot \mathcal{A} = 0$, but $p \neq 0$. So \mathcal{A} is not essential in $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$.

Suppose that \mathcal{A} is not unital. To prove: For $a + \lambda \cdot 1 \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ and $(a + \lambda \cdot 1)\mathcal{A} = 0$ we have $a = 0$, $\lambda = 0$. So take any $(a + \lambda \cdot 1) \cdot b = 0$ for all $b \in \mathcal{A}$, that is $ab + \lambda b = 0$. This means $L_a(b) = -\lambda b$, that is $L_a = -\lambda \text{id}_{\mathcal{A}}$. Notice $L : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$, a unital algebra with unit $\text{id}_{\mathcal{A}}$, is an injective (because ι is injective) algebra homomorphism. If $\lambda \neq 0$, then division by λ implies $\text{id}_{\mathcal{A}} \in \text{im}(L) \simeq \mathcal{A}$. But then \mathcal{A} has a unit, a contradiction. So $\lambda = 0$. Then $a \cdot b = 0$ for every b , so $a = 0$ as well. This shows that \mathcal{A} is an essential ideal of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$. \square

Remark 7.32 Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra or Banach algebra with approximate unit. Then \mathcal{A} is unital if and only if $M(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A}$.

PROOF: One direction is simple: $M(\mathcal{A})$ is always unital, so $\mathcal{A} \simeq M(\mathcal{A})$ implies that \mathcal{A} is unital.

Let now \mathcal{A} be unital and prove that every multiplier is of the form (L_a, R_a) . Let $\mu = (L, R) \in M(\mathcal{A})$ and define $a := L(1_{\mathcal{A}})$. Then $L_a(b) = ab = L(1_{\mathcal{A}})b = L(b)$, so $L = L_a$. Analogously we can prove $R = R_a$. This shows that ι is surjective, and since it is already injective (because \mathcal{A} is either C^* or has an approximate unit) it is an isomorphism. \square

Say \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra (or a Banach algebra with an approximate unit) and not unital. Then $\iota : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow M(\mathcal{A}), a \mapsto \mu_a = (L_a, R_a)$ extends to a $(*)$ -embedding

$$\tilde{\iota} : \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow M(\mathcal{A}), a + \lambda \cdot 1 \mapsto \iota(a) + \lambda \cdot \underbrace{(\text{id}, \text{id})}_{=\text{id}_{M(\mathcal{A})}}.$$

More generally: If \mathcal{B} is any C^* -algebra that contains \mathcal{A} as an essential ideal (closed), then \mathcal{B} embeds in the multiplier algebra via the following map:

$$\lambda : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow M(\mathcal{A}), b \mapsto (L_b, R_b)$$

where L_b, R_b are the usual left and right multiplication. We have $L_b(a), R_b(a) \in \mathcal{A}$ for any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ because \mathcal{A} is an ideal. The above is a universal property of the multiplier algebra. $M(\mathcal{A})$ is the largest unital C^* -algebra that contains \mathcal{A} as an essential ideal.

Example 7.33 Take $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ (for a locally compact Hausdorff-space, so a commutative C^* -algebra). Then $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} = C(\tilde{X})$ where $\tilde{X} = X \sqcup \{\infty\}$. One can now show $M(\mathcal{A}) \simeq C(\beta X)$ where βX is the Stone-Cech-compactification of X . This can be proven using the universal property and the universal property of βX : βX is a compact Hausdorff space such that $X \hookrightarrow \beta X$ as a dense open topological subspace and for every other compact Hausdorff space K such that $X \rightarrow K$ via a continuous function f there exists a unique continuous extension $\beta f : \beta X \rightarrow K$.

First: Prove that $M(\mathcal{A})$ is even commutative. Then it is the continuous functions on some space, use the spectrum and compare the universal properties. For commutativity, one can show $M(C_0(X)) \simeq C_b(X)$ via the universal property.

7.2 Positive Elements of C^* -algebras

Definition 7.34 Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra. We say that $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is positive (and write $a \geq 0$) if $a = a^*$ and $\sigma(a) \subseteq [0, \infty)$.

The set of all positive elements of a given algebra we notate as \mathcal{A}_+ .

Example 7.35 Let $A = C_0(X)$ (commutative) and $f \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $f = f^*$ iff f is real (that is $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$). Since $\sigma(f) = \overline{\text{im}(f)}$ we see that $f \geq 0$ iff $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in X$.

Theorem 7.36 *If $a \in \mathcal{A}$ for \mathcal{A} a C^* -algebra and $a \geq 0$ then there exists a unique $b \in \mathcal{A}_+$ such that $b^2 = a$. We sometimes notate this as $b = \sqrt{a} = a^{\frac{1}{2}}$.*

PROOF: Since a is positive, it is self-adjoint and therefore normal. Continuous functional calculus:

$$\varphi : C_0(\sigma(a)) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}, f \mapsto f(a)$$

Apply this to $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$. Notice that $f \in C_0(\sigma(a))$ because $\sigma(a) \subseteq [0, \infty)$. Now simply choose $b = f(a) = \sqrt{a}$. Since φ is a $*$ -homomorphism, we have $b^2 = \varphi(f)^2 = \varphi(f^2) = \varphi(\text{id}) = a$.

Reminder: Writing ' $f(a)$ ' does not mean to imply that $a \in \mathcal{A}$ can simply be plugged into the function $f : \sigma(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ but is simply a different way of writing $\varphi(f) \in \mathcal{A}$.

Uniqueness: Suppose $c \in \mathcal{A}_+$ such that $c^2 = a$. Then c commutes with $c^2 = a$ and therefore c commutes with $b = \sqrt{a}$ since $b = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(a)$ (polynomial approximation). Then $B := C^*(b, c) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is a commutative C^* -algebra so $B \simeq C_0(X)$ for some locally compact Hausdorff space X . Since $a, b, c \in B = C_0(X)$ we have $a \simeq f, b \simeq g, c \simeq h \in C_0(X)$ with $f = g^2 = h^2$ where all these functions are positive. But then $f(x) = g(x)^2 = h(x)^2$ for all x . Because $g(x), h(x) \geq 0$ for all x , this shows $g(x) = h(x)$ for all x and therefore $g = h$ and $b = c$. \square

Remark 7.37 Given any self-adjoint element $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ($a^* = a$) we can write it as $a^+ - a^-$ where $a^+, a^- \geq 0$ and $a^+ \cdot a^- = 0$. Just define $f(x) = \frac{|x|+x}{2}$ and $g(x) = \frac{|x|-x}{2}$. Both are positive functions with $f \cdot g = 0$. Define $a^+ = f(a)$ and $a^- = g(a)$ (once again per continuous functional calculus), transferring the necessary properties:

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) - g(a) &= \varphi(f) - \varphi(g) = \varphi(f - g) = \varphi(\text{id}) = a \\ f(a) \cdot g(a) &= \varphi(f) \cdot \varphi(g) = \varphi(f \cdot g) = \varphi(0) = 0 \\ \sigma(f(a)) &= \sigma(\varphi(f)) \subseteq \sigma(f) = \overline{\text{im}(f)} = [0, \infty) \end{aligned}$$

Remark 7.38 If \mathcal{A} is unital C^* -algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is self-adjoint with $\|a\| \leq 1$, so $\sigma(a) \subseteq [-1, 1]$. Define

$$f(x) = x + i\sqrt{1-x^2} \quad g(x) = x - i\sqrt{1-x^2}$$

This means that $f, g \in \mathcal{UC}(\sigma(a))$ (Recall that unitaries of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}) = \{u \in \mathcal{A} \mid u^*u = 1 = uu^*\}$) and $\frac{f+g}{2} = \text{id}_{\sigma(a)}$. So if we now define $u := f(a), v := g(a) \in C^*(a, 1) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ we have $\frac{u+v}{2} = a$. In particular $\mathcal{A} = \text{span}(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{A}))$.

Lemma 7.39 *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital C^* -algebra, $a \in \mathcal{A}$ self-adjoint and $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$.*

- (i) *If $a \geq 0$ and $\|a\| \leq t$ then $\|a - t\| \leq t$.*
- (ii) *Conversely, if $\|a - t\| \leq t$ then $a \geq 0$.*

PROOF: Replace \mathcal{A} by $C^*(a, 1)$ we may assume that $\mathcal{A} = C(X)$ is commutative and X compact. Let $a = f \in C(X)$ be a self-adjoint, real function and $t \geq 0$ a real number.

- (i) $f \geq 0$ and $\|f\|_\infty \leq t$ and thus $f(x) - t \in [-t, 0]$ for all $x \in X$, so $\|f - t\| \leq t$.
- (ii) Let $f \in C(X)$ be a self-adjoint real function with $\|f - t\| \leq t$, so $|f(x) - t| \leq t$ for every x . But if $f(x) < 0$ for any $x \in X$ we have $f(x) - t < -t$ and thus $|f(x) - t| > t$, a contradiction. So f must be positive.

Corollary 7.40 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra, then \mathcal{A}_+ is a closed subset (but not subspace!) of \mathcal{A} .*

PROOF: Taking unitization, we may assume that \mathcal{A} is unital. Let $(a_n) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_+$ and $a_n \rightarrow a \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $a_n^* = a_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and therefore a is also self-adjoint. There also exists $t \geq 0$ with $\|a_n\| \leq t$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and by the Lemma $\|a_n - t\| \leq t$ and therefore $\|a - t\| \leq t$. Again by the Lemma $a \geq 0$. \square

Corollary 7.41 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra and $a, b \in \mathcal{A}_+$ then $a + b \in \mathcal{A}_+$.*

PROOF: Taking unitization, we may assume that \mathcal{A} is unital. Since $a, b \geq 0$ by $t = \|a\|, \|b\|$ we have $\|a - \|a\|\| \leq \|a\|$ and $\|b - \|b\|\| \leq \|b\|$. Then

$$\|(a + b) - (\|a\| + \|b\|)\| = \|(a - \|a\|) + (b - \|b\|)\| \leq \|(a - \|a\|)\| + \|(b - \|b\|)\| \leq \|a\| + \|b\|$$

and $a + b$ is positive by the lemma. \square

Theorem 7.42 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ then $a^*a \geq 0$.*

PROOF: First, we prove that if $-a^*a \geq 0$ then $a = 0$. For this we use the following observation $\sigma(bc) \setminus \{0\} = \sigma(cb) \setminus \{0\}$ (the two sets are equal except for the zero, which may be contained in one but not the other) because for b, c in a unital algebra and $1 - bc \in \text{inv } \mathcal{A}$ iff $1 - cb \in \text{inv } (\mathcal{A})$ and if $d := (1 - bc)^{-1}$ then $(1 - cb)^{-1} = 1 + cdb$.

Therefore, if $-a^*a \in \mathcal{A}_+$ then also $-a^*a \in \mathcal{A}_+$ (notice that a, a^* are self-adjoint). Then write $a = b + c$ with $b, c \in \mathcal{A}$ self-adjoint. Then

$$a^*a + aa^* = (b - ic)(b + ic) + (b + ic)(b - ic) = b^2 + c^2 + ibc - icb + b^2 + c^2 + icb - icb = 2b^2 + 2c^2.$$

and we can write $a^*a = 2b^2 + 2c^2 - aa^*$. The squares are certainly positive and we have assumed $-aa^* \geq 0$, but then $a^*a \geq 0$. We see that $aa^* \geq 0$ as well, so the spectrum has to be zero.

Now suppose that $a \in \mathcal{A}$ arbitrarily. We show that $a^*a \geq 0$. Let $b := a^*a$. Then $b \in \mathcal{A}$ is self-adjoint with $b = b^+ - b^-$ where $b^+, b^- \geq 0$. Let $c := ab^-$. Then

$$-c^*c = -b^-a^*ab^- = -b^-(b^+ - b^-)b^- = (b^-)^3 \geq 0$$

and c must be 0 by our first result. This implies $(b^-)^3 = 0$ so $b^- = 0$. It follows that $b = b^+ \geq 0$. \square

Definition 7.43 *Let \mathcal{A} be a self-adjoint algebra and $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$. We write $a \leq b$ if $b - a \geq 0$. This turns \mathcal{A} into a poset. Because A_+ is a cone, that is $A_+ + A_+ \subseteq A_+$ and $\mathbb{R}_+ \cdot A_+ \subseteq A_+$ as well as $A_{\text{self-adjoint}} = A_+ - A_+$ and $A_+ \cap -A_+ = \{0\}$.*

Theorem 7.44 *Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra.*

- (i) $A_+ = \{a^*a \mid a \in \mathcal{A}\}$
- (ii) a, b self-adjoint and $c \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $a \leq b$ implies $c^*ac \leq c^*bc$.
- (iii) $0 \leq a \leq b$ implies $\|a\| \leq \|b\|$
- (iv) If \mathcal{A} is unital and $a, b \geq 0$ with $a \leq b$ and $a, b \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ then $b^{-1} \leq a^{-1}$.

PROOF:

- (i) It follows from the previous theorem. The fact that $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$ has a square root $a = b^2 = b^*b$ with $b \geq 0$.
- (ii) $c^*bc - c^*ac = c^*(b - a)c$ and if we set $b - a = d^*d$ for a $d \in \mathcal{A}$ we receive $c^*(b - a)c = c^*d^*dc = (dc)^*dc \geq 0$.

(iii) We may assume $1 \in \mathcal{A}$. Notice that $b \leq \|b\| \cdot 1$ (consider the commutative case). So we have $a \leq b \leq \|b\| \cdot 1$ and therefore $a \leq \|b\| \cdot 1$ so $\|a\| \leq \|b\|$.

(iv) Let $a, b \in \text{inv } \mathcal{A}$, $a, b \geq 0$ and $a \leq b$. We know that $\sigma(b^{-1}) = \sigma(b)^{-1} \subseteq \mathbb{R}_+$ and thus $b^{-1} \geq 0$ and Similarly $a^{-1} \geq 0$. Notice that if $c \geq 1$ (in \mathcal{A}) then $c \in \text{inv } \mathcal{A}$ (as $\sigma(c - 1) \subseteq [0, \infty)$ and thus $\sigma(c) \subseteq [1, \infty)$) and $c^{-1} \leq 1$ (think once again commutative).

Now we have $a \leq b$. Then $1 = a^{-\frac{1}{2}} a a^{-\frac{1}{2}} \leq a^{-\frac{1}{2}} b a^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Then $(a^{-\frac{1}{2}} b a^{-\frac{1}{2}})^{-1} = (a^{\frac{1}{2}} b^{-1} a^{\frac{1}{2}})^{-1} \leq 1$ by the above, so conjugation yields $b^{-1} \leq a^{-1}$.

7.3 Approximate units

Definition 7.45 Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra. An **approximate unit** for \mathcal{A} is a net $(e_i)_{i \in I} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ such that $\|e_i\| \leq 1$ and $e_i a \rightarrow a, a e_i \rightarrow a$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra, then we (usually) also assume that $e_i \geq 0$ and (e_i) is increasing.

Example 7.46 Let $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ be a commutative C^* -algebra (X locally compact and Hausdorff). Then a net $(f_i)_{i \in I}$ is an approximate unit if and only if $1 \geq f_i(x) \geq f_j(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in X$ and $j \leq i$ and $f_i g \rightarrow g$ for all $g \in C_0(X)$, that is $f_i(x)g(x) \rightarrow g(x)$ uniformly on X . This is equivalent to $f_i(x) \rightarrow 1$ uniformly on compacts.

Example 7.47 Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{K}(H)$, the span of the compact operators on a Hilbert space H , and use physics notation: $|\xi\rangle\langle\eta|(\zeta) = \xi\langle\eta, \zeta\rangle$. Let $(\xi_i)_{i \in I} \subseteq H$ be an orthonormal basis. For each $F \subseteq I$ finite we define

$$e_F := \sum_{i \in F} |\xi_i\rangle\langle\xi_i| \in \mathcal{K}(H)$$

In particular, $0 \leq e_F \leq 1$ (because $\|e_F\| \leq 1$) and $e_F \leq e_G$ if $F \subseteq G$. Then $(e_F)_{F \subseteq I \text{ finite}}$, if ordered by size, is an approximate unit of for \mathcal{K} .

If H is separable, we could also take $e_n = \sum_{i=1}^n |\xi_i\rangle\langle\xi_i|$. Just check that $e_F(\zeta) = \sum_{i \in F} \xi_i \langle \xi_i, \zeta \rangle \rightarrow \zeta$, so $e_F \rightarrow 1$ strongly in $B(H)$ (the bounded operators). Then it follows $e_F a \rightarrow a$ for all $a \in \mathcal{K}(H)$ and $a e_F \rightarrow a$ likewise.

Remark 7.48 If \mathcal{A} already has a unit $1 \in \mathcal{A}$, then $(e_i) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an approximate unit iff $e_i \rightarrow 1$ (by the norm) and $0 \leq e_i \leq e_j \leq 1$ for $i \leq j$.

In particular, the constant net (1) is an approximate unit in any unital Banach algebra.

Theorem 7.49 Every C^* -algebra has an approximate unit. Moreover if \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra and

$$\Lambda := \{a \in \mathcal{A}_+ \mid \|a\| < 1\}$$

then Λ is directed with the canonical order of $\mathcal{A}_+ \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{\text{self-adjoint}}$ and the canonical net

$$(e_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} e_\lambda = \lambda$$

is an approximate unit.

PROOF: Λ is directed. To prove: For every $a, b \in \Lambda$ there is a $c \in \Lambda$ such that $a, b \leq c$. Indeed, if $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$, then $1 + a \geq 1$ in $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} = \mathcal{A} + \mathbb{C} \cdot 1$. Here, we work in the unitization for a moment, but do not assume we have a unit in \mathcal{A} ! In particular, $1 + a \in \text{inv}(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})$ and $a \cdot (1 + a)^{-1} \in \mathcal{A}$ as $\mathcal{A} \trianglelefteq \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$.

Notice: $a(1 + a)^{-1} = (a + 1 - 1)(1 + a)^{-1} = 1 - (1 + a)^{-1}$ in the unitization.

Claim: For $a, b \in \mathcal{A}_+$ and $a \leq b$ we have $a(1+a)^{-1} \leq b(1+b)^{-1}$. This should be true because $a(1+a)^{-1} = f(a)$ where $f : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, 1)$, $x \mapsto \frac{x}{x+1} = x(1+x)^{-1}$ is increasing. f is a homeomorphism with $g = f^{-1} : [0, 1) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ given by $g(x) = \frac{x}{x-1}$.

Indeed, take $0 \leq a \leq b$ then $1+a \leq 1+b$ so $(1+b)^{-1} \leq (1+a)^{-1}$ and therefore $a(1+a)^{-1} = 1 - (1+a)^{-1} \leq 1 - (1+b)^{-1} = b(1+b)^{-1}$. Now observe that if $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$ then $f(a) = a(1+a)^{-1} \in \Lambda$ because $\|f\|_{\sigma(a) \subseteq [0, \infty)} < 1$ and thus $0 \leq f < 1$. So we get an increasing map $\mathcal{A}_+ \rightarrow \Lambda$, $a \mapsto a(1+a)^{-1}$. Now suppose $a, b \in \Lambda$, consider $g = f^{-1} : [0, 1) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$, $x \mapsto \frac{x}{x-1}$. Define $a' := g(a)$, $b' := g(b)$ and let $c := (a' + b')(1 + a' + b')^{-1} = f(a' + b')$. Then $c \in \Lambda$ and since $a' \leq a' + b'$ we have $a = f(a') \leq f(a' + b') = c$ and likewise $b \leq c$. This shows that Λ is a directed set.

Now we have to check that $(e_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ with $e_\lambda = \lambda$ is an approximate unit for \mathcal{A} . Notice that (e_λ) is increasing and $e_\lambda = \lambda \geq 0$ and $\|e_\lambda\| < 1$ for all λ . So we need only prove $e_\lambda \cdot a \rightarrow a \leftarrow a \cdot e_\lambda$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. But using the involution, these two are equivalent:

$$(e_\lambda a) \rightarrow a \Leftrightarrow (e_\lambda a)^* \rightarrow a^* \Leftrightarrow a^* e_\lambda \rightarrow a \Leftrightarrow a^* e_\lambda \rightarrow a^*$$

It is even enough to prove $ae_\lambda \rightarrow a$ for only $a \in \Lambda$ because $\text{span } \Lambda = \text{span}(\mathcal{A}_+) = \mathcal{A}$. Let $a \in \Lambda$, in particular $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$. Consider 'its' Gelfand representation $\varphi : C^*(a) \rightarrow C_0(X)$ and let $f = \varphi(a) \in C_0(X)$. This function fulfils $0 \leq f(x) < 1$ for all $x \in X$ because it comes from $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$.

Let furthermore $\varepsilon > 0$ and $K := \{x \in X \mid |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\} \subseteq X$ compact. By Uryson's Lemma, we have a $g \in C_0(X)$, $g : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $g(x) = 1$ for all $x \in K$. Next, choose $\delta > 0$ with $\delta < 1$ and $1 - \delta < \varepsilon$. Then $g_\delta = \delta \cdot g \leq \delta$ and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \|f - g_\delta \cdot f\| &= \|f - \delta g f\| = \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\| \cdot \|1 - \delta g(x)\| \\ &\leq \max\left\{\sup_{x \in K} \|f(x)\| \cdot \|1 - \delta g(x)\|, \sup_{x \notin K} \|f(x)\| \cdot \|1 - \delta g(x)\|\right\} \\ &\leq \max\{\varepsilon, 1 - \delta\} \leq \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Now let $b := \varphi^{-1}(g_\delta) \in \mathcal{A}_+$ with $\|b\| < 1$ and $\|a - ba\| < \varepsilon$.

This shows that for any $a \in \Lambda$ we can find $\lambda_0 = b \in \Lambda$ such that $\|a - e_{\lambda_0} a\| < \varepsilon$. If now $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $\lambda \geq \lambda_0$ we have $e_{\lambda_0} \leq e_\lambda$, so $1 - e_\lambda \leq 1 - e_{\lambda_0}$ (in $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$) and therefore $a(1 - e_\lambda)a \leq a(1 - e_{\lambda_0})a$ (*) (by conjugation property and because a is self-adjoint). But then

$$\begin{aligned} \|a - e_\lambda a\|^2 \|(1 - e_\lambda a)\|^2 &= \left\| \overbrace{(1 - e_\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (1 - e_\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} a}^{\substack{\in \mathcal{A} \triangleleft \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \\ \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}}} \right\|^2 \leq \|(1 - e_\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} a\|^2 \\ &\stackrel{(*)}{\leq} \|a(1 - e_\lambda)a\| \leq \|a(1 - e_{\lambda_0})a\| \stackrel{\|a\| \leq 1}{\leq} \|(1 - e_{\lambda_0})a\| \\ &= \|a - e_{\lambda_0} a\| < \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

so $e_\lambda a \rightarrow a$. □

Definition 7.50 In general, C^* -algebras do not admit a sequential approximate unit.

We say that a C^* -algebra \mathcal{A} is σ -unital if there exists such a sequential approximate unit $(e_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Example 7.51 $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$ is σ -unital if and only if X is σ -compact: $X = \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty K_n$ where $K_n \subseteq X$ are compact spaces.

8 Ideals in C^* -algebras

Theorem 8.1 *Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra and $L \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ a left closed ideal. Then there exists a net $(u_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \subseteq A_{+,1} \cap L$ (that is, elements with $0 \leq u_\lambda$ and $\|u_\lambda\| \leq 1$) such that $a = \lim_\lambda au_\lambda$ for all $a \in L$.*

PROOF: Set $B = L \cap L^*$. This is clearly a C^* -subalgebra. There is now an approximate unit $(u_\lambda) \subseteq B_{+,1} \subseteq A_{+,1}$ for B . Let $a \in L$. Then $a^*a \in L \cap L^* \in B$ and we have $\lim_\lambda a^*au_\lambda = a^*a = \lim_\lambda u_\lambda a$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_\lambda \|a - au_\lambda\|^2 &= \lim_\lambda \|(a - au_\lambda)^*(a - au_\lambda)\| = \lim_\lambda \|a^*a - a^*au_\lambda - u_\lambda a^*a - u_\lambda a^*au_\lambda\| \\ &\leq \lim_\lambda \|a^*a - a^*au_\lambda\| + \lim_\lambda \|u_\lambda\| \cdot \|a^*a - a^*au_\lambda\| = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Let $L \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ be a closed left ideal and $(u_\lambda) \subseteq B = L \cap L^* \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. Then $\lim_\lambda au_\lambda = a$ for all $a \in L$. As a consequence:

Theorem 8.2 *Every closed two-sided ideal $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ of a C^* -algebra satisfies $I^* = I$, so it is a $*$ -ideal and in particular a C^* -algebra.*

PROOF: By the lemma above, we find a net $(u_\lambda) \subseteq I$, $u_\lambda \geq 0$, such that $a = \lim_\lambda au_\lambda$. Then $a^* = \lim_\lambda u_\lambda a^* \in I$ (because $u_\lambda \in I$). \square

Corollary 8.3 *Let $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ be a closed two-sided ideal of a C^* -algebra \mathcal{A} . Then for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$, $\|a + I\| = \lim_\lambda \|a - u_\lambda a\| = \lim_\lambda \|a - au_\lambda\|$ where (u_λ) is an approximate unit for I .*

PROOF: Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and take $b \in I$ such that $\|a + b\| \leq \|a + I\| + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Recall that $\|a + I\| = \text{dist}(a, I) = \inf_{b \in I} \|a + b\|$.

Since $\lim_\lambda u_\lambda b = b$. Then there exists λ_0 such that $\|b - u_\lambda b\| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ for all $\lambda \geq \lambda_0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|a - u_\lambda a\| &\leq \|(1 - u_\lambda)(a + b)\| + \|b - u_\lambda b\| \\ &\leq \|a + b\| + \|b - u_\lambda b\| \\ &< \|a + I\| + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \|a + I\| + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, $\|a - u_\lambda a\| \geq \|a + I\|$ for all λ and $\|a + I\| = \lim_\lambda \|a + u_\lambda a\| = \inf_\lambda \|a - u_\lambda a\|$. This shows the existence of the limit and therefore that the norm equals the distance. \square

Theorem 8.4 *If $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ is a closed $*$ -ideal in a C^* -algebra \mathcal{A} , then \mathcal{A}/I is itself a C^* -algebra.*

PROOF: We already know that \mathcal{A}/I is a Banach $*$ -algebra. We only need to show that $\|a + I\| = \|(a + I)^*(a + I)\|$.

Let $(u_\lambda) \subseteq I$ be an approximate unit and take $b \in I$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|a + I\|^2 &= \lim_\lambda \|a - au_\lambda\|_A^2 \stackrel{*}{=} \lim_\lambda \|(1 - u_\lambda)a^*a(1 - u_\lambda)\| \\ &\leq \sup_\lambda \|(1 - u_\lambda)(a^*a + b)(1 - u_\lambda)\| + \lim_\lambda \|(1 - u_\lambda)b(1 - u_\lambda)\| \\ &\leq \|a^*a + b\| \end{aligned}$$

Where $*$ is because we can use the C^* -property of \mathcal{A} and $(1 - u_\lambda)$ is self-adjoint. The last inequality follows because the latter limit tends to 0.

Since b was arbitrary, we get

$$\|a + I\|^2 \leq \inf_{b \in I} \|a^*a + b\|_{\mathcal{A}} = \|a^*a + I\| = \|(a + I)^*(a + I)\|$$

Theorem 8.5 *If $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ (where \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are C^* algebras) is an injective $*$ -homomorphism, then φ is isometric, i.e. $\|\varphi(a)\| = \|a\|$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.*

PROOF: It suffices to show that $\|\varphi(a)\|^2 = \|a\|^2$ or $\|\varphi(a^*a)\| = \|a^*a\|$.

Replacing \mathcal{A} by the C^* -algebra $C^*(a^*a)$ and \mathcal{B} by $C^*(\varphi(a^*a)) \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ (with $a^*a, \varphi(a^*a) = \varphi(a)^*\varphi(a) \geq 0$) we may assume that \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are commutative. Also by adding units and extending φ to the unitization $\tilde{\varphi} : \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{B}}$ we may assume that $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \varphi$ are unital. Now given $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B})$ notice that $\chi \circ \varphi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$. So we get a map $\varphi_* : \Omega(\mathcal{B}) \rightarrow \Omega(\mathcal{A}), \chi \mapsto \chi \circ \varphi$. This is clearly continuous. Since $\Omega(\mathcal{B})$ is compact, $K := \varphi_*(\Omega(\mathcal{B}))$ is compact (in particular closed). By Uryson's Lemma, we find some continuous function $f \in C(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$ such that $f|_K \equiv 0$ and $f \neq 0$ (if we assume $K \neq \Omega(\mathcal{A})$). By Gelfand-Representation we find $(\mathcal{A} \simeq C(\Omega(\mathcal{A})))$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\hat{a} = f$. Then for each $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B})$,

$$\chi(\varphi(a)) = \hat{a}(\chi \circ \varphi) = \underbrace{\hat{a}}_f(\underbrace{\varphi_*(\chi)}_{\in K}) = 0 \Rightarrow \varphi(a) = 0$$

and if $f \neq 0$, then $a \neq 0$. But we have $\varphi(a) = 0$ for all a , a contradiction. Therefore, φ_* is surjective. Now

$$\|a\|_{\mathcal{A}} = \|\hat{a}\|_{\infty} = \sup_{\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})} |\chi(a)| = \sup_{\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B})} |(\chi \circ \varphi)(a)| = \|\widehat{\varphi(a)}\|_{\infty} = \|\varphi(a)\|_{\mathcal{B}}$$

Corollary 8.6 *If $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is any $*$ -homomorphism (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} C^* -algebras) then $\varphi(\mathcal{A})$ is closed, hence a C^* -subalgebra of \mathcal{B} .*

PROOF: Consider $\psi : \mathcal{A}/\ker \varphi \rightarrow \mathcal{B}, a + \ker \varphi \mapsto \varphi(a)$. Then ψ is a well-defined $*$ -homomorphism and ψ is injective and therefore isometric. This shows that $\psi(\mathcal{A}/\ker \varphi) = \varphi(\mathcal{A})$ is closed. \square

Remark 8.7 For some other related consequences, see Murphy's book.

- (i) If $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ are C^* -algebras and $I \trianglelefteq \mathcal{B}$ is a closed 2-sided ideal then $\mathcal{A} + I$ is a C^* -subalgebra of \mathcal{B} . In particular, the sum of ideals in C^* -algebras are ideals: For any $I, J \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ have that $I + J \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ as well.
- (ii) If $I, J \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$ then $I \cdot J = I \cap J$. The product here is defined as the linear span of products $(I \cdot J = \overline{\text{span}}\{i \cdot j \mid i \in I, j \in J\})$ but is actually just the products.

PROOF (IDEAS):

- (i) To prove that $\mathcal{A} + I$ is closed, check that $(\mathcal{A} + I)/I$ is Banach by identifying it with

$$(\mathcal{A} + I)/I \simeq \mathcal{A}/(\mathcal{A} \cap I), a + I \leftarrow a + \mathcal{A} \cap I$$

Can also build arbitrary families of ideals and the sum will be an ideal, also the intersection and product of ideals exist.

- (ii) $I \cdot J \subseteq I \cap J$ is clear. To prove the converse, use the approximate unit. $I \cap J$ is clearly a C^* -algebra, take an approximate unit $(u_{\lambda}) \subseteq I \cap J$ and $x \in I \cap J$. Then $x = \lim_{\lambda} x u_{\lambda}$ where $x u_{\lambda}$ is in $I \cdot J$ at all times.

9 Gelfand-Neymark representation

We know for commutative \mathcal{A} that $\mathcal{A} = C_0(\Omega(\mathcal{A}))$. But if \mathcal{A} is not commutative, $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) = \emptyset$ and this is useless. So we want to look at non-homomorphism functionals (the elements of the spectrum are homomorphism functionals) and hope that this is not empty. Hence we want to study positive linear functionals.

Definition 9.1 Let \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} C^* -algebras. A linear map $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is called **positive** if $\varphi(\mathcal{A}_+) = \mathcal{B}_+$. We write $\varphi \geq 0$ for this.

Remark 9.2 Let \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} C^* -algebras and $\varphi \geq 0$.

- (i) $\varphi \geq 0$ implies that $\varphi(\mathcal{A}_{sa}) = \mathcal{B}_{sa}$ (self-adjoint to self-adjoint). This follows because for any $a \in \mathcal{A}_{sa}$, we have $a = a^+ = a^-$ and $\varphi(a) = \varphi(a^+) - \varphi(a^-) \in \mathcal{B}_{sa}$.
- (ii) $a_1 \leq a_2$ in \mathcal{A} yields $\varphi(a_1) \leq \varphi(a_2)$. This is because every $*$ -homomorphism is primitive because $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ a $*$ -homomorphism and $a \geq 0$ in \mathcal{A} imply $a = x^*x$ for some $x \in \mathcal{A}$ and thus $\varphi(a) = \varphi(x)^*\varphi(x) \geq 0$.

Example 9.3 Let $\varphi : M_m(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow M_m(\mathbb{C}), a \mapsto a^T$ is positive but not a homomorphism.

For this, consider $(a^*)^T = (a^T)^*$ and therefore $(a^*a)^T = (a^T)(a^T)^* \geq 0$, but not $(a^*a)^T = (a^T)^*(a^T)$.

Example 9.4 $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$. If $B(X)$ are the Borell-subsets of X $\mu : B(X) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ is a positive bounded measure, then

$$\varphi_\mu : C_0(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, f \mapsto \int_X f(x) d\mu(x)$$

is clearly positive, linear but (usually) not a homomorphism. If μ is a Dirac-measure this is a homomorphism and a character.

10 Positive linear maps and functionals

Definition 10.1 Let \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} be C^* -algebras, a linear map $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is called **positive** if $\varphi(\mathcal{A}_+) \subseteq \mathcal{B}_+$, that is $a \geq 0 \Rightarrow \varphi(a) \geq 0$. We write this as $\varphi \geq 0$.

Remark 10.2 Observe that $\varphi \geq 0$ implies $\varphi(a^*) = \varphi(a)^*$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\varphi(\mathcal{A}_{sa}) \subseteq \mathcal{B}_{sa}$.

Also, φ respects inequality.

PROOF: Just write $a \in \mathcal{A}_{sa}$ as $a = a_+ - a_-$ with $a_+, a_- \in \mathcal{A}_+$. □

Example 10.3 (i) Let $\mathcal{A} = M_n(\mathbb{C})$ the usual trace $\text{tr} : M_n(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, A \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$ is a positive linear functional. In general a **trace** in a C^* -algebra is any positive linear map $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(ba)$.

Proposition 10.4 If $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a positive linear map, then φ is bounded (i.e. continuous).

PROOF: Let $M = \sup_{a \in \mathcal{A}_+} \|\varphi(a)\|$. If we had $M = \infty$ there exists $(a_n) \in \mathcal{A}_{+,1}$ where $\|\varphi(a_n)\| \geq 2^n$ for all n . Define $a := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{2^n} \in \mathcal{A}_{+,1}$. Since $\varphi \geq 0$ and $\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{a_n}{2^n} \leq a$, we have $\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\varphi(a_n)}{2^n} \leq \varphi(a)$. Notice that $\varphi(a_n) \geq 2^n$ in \mathcal{B} because whenever $b \in \mathcal{B}_+$ and $\|b\| \geq c \geq 0$ so $b \geq c \cdot 1$. So in conclusion $\varphi(a) \geq \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\varphi(a_n)}{2^n} \geq N \cdot 1$ (in \mathcal{B}), implying $\|\varphi(a)\| \geq N$ for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$, a contradiction.

Now given any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ write it as $a = b + ic$ where $b, c \in \mathcal{A}_{sa}$ where $b = \frac{a+a^*}{2}$ and $c = \frac{a-a^*}{2i}$. If $\|a\| \leq 1$ then $\|b\|, \|c\| \leq 1$ and $b = b_+ - b_-$, $c = c_+ - c_-$ so $b_+ = \frac{b+|b|}{2}$, $b_- = \frac{b-|b|}{2}$, $c_+ = \frac{c+|c|}{2i}$ and $c_- = \frac{c-|c|}{2i}$ where $|b| = \sqrt{bb^*}$ so $\|b_+\|^2, \|b_-\|^2 \leq 1$. Then

$$\|\varphi(a)\| = \|\varphi(b) + i\varphi(c)\| = \|\varphi(b_+) + \varphi(b_-) + i\varphi(c_+) + i\varphi(c_-)\| \leq 4M$$

We concentrate from now on positive linear functionals $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. The main point is the following observation:

Remark 10.5 If $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a positive linear functional, then $\langle a, b \rangle_\varphi := \varphi(a^*b)$ is a semi-inner product on the vector space (fulfilling all requirements of an inner product except for $\langle a, a \rangle_\varphi = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$). So Cauchy-Schwarz-inequality holds: $|\langle a, b \rangle_\varphi| \leq \|a\|_\varphi \cdot \|b\|_\varphi$ where $\|a\|_\varphi := \langle a, a \rangle_\varphi^{\frac{1}{2}} = \varphi(a^*a)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is the semi-norm implied by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_\varphi$. Therefore, $|\varphi(a^*b)|^2 \leq \varphi(a^*a) \cdot \varphi(b^*b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$.

Proposition 10.6 Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra and $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}_+^* = \{\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \text{positive linear}\}$. Then $|\varphi(a)|^2 \leq \|\varphi\| \varphi(a^*a)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

PROOF: Let $(e_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{+,1}$ be an approximate unit. Using CS, we get

$$|\varphi(e_\lambda a)|^2 \leq \varphi(e_\lambda^2) \cdot \varphi(a^*a) \leq \|\varphi\| \varphi(a^*a)$$

and taking the limit yields the statement. \square

Theorem 10.7 Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^* = \{\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \text{bounded linear}\}$. Then the following are equivalent

- (i) $\varphi \geq 0$
- (ii) For each approximate unit $(e_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{+,1}$ we have $\|\varphi\| = \lim_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda) = \sup_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda)$.
- (iii) For some approximate unit $(e_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{+,1}$ we have $\|\varphi\| = \lim_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda) = \sup_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda)$.

PROOF:

(i) \Rightarrow (ii): By the previous proposition, $|\varphi(a)|^2 \leq \|\varphi\| \varphi(a^*a)$. Applying this for $a = e_\lambda$, we get $|\varphi(e_\lambda)|^2 \leq \|\varphi\| \varphi(e_\lambda)$. Notice $e_\lambda^2 = e_\lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} e_\lambda e_\lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq e_\lambda$. Since φ preserves inequality, we have $|\varphi(e_\lambda)|^2 \leq \|\varphi\| \varphi(e_\lambda)$, so $\varphi(e_\lambda) \leq \|\varphi\|$ and therefore $\limsup_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda) \leq \sup_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda) \leq \|\varphi\|$. We apply CS again: $|\varphi(e_\lambda a)|^2 \leq \varphi(e_\lambda)^2 \varphi(a^*a) \leq \varphi(e_\lambda) \varphi(a^*a)$ and hence $|\varphi(a)|^2 = \liminf_\lambda |\varphi(e_\lambda a)|^2 \leq \liminf_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda) \|a\|^2 \|\varphi\|$, as $\varphi(a^*a) \leq \|a\|^2 \|\varphi\|$.

Now taking sup over $\|a\| \leq 1$ yields

$$\|\varphi\|^2 \leq \liminf_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda) \|\varphi\| \Rightarrow \|\varphi\| \leq \liminf_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda)$$

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii): This is clear, as some linear morphisms always exist.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i): Let $a \in \mathcal{A}_{sa}$ and $\|a\| \leq 1$. Write $\varphi(a) = \alpha + i\beta$ with $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. We prove that $\beta = 0$, that is $\varphi(a) \in \mathbb{R}$. We may assume $\beta \leq 0$ (or just take $-a$ instead). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\|a - ine_\lambda\|^2 = \|(a + ine_\lambda)(a - ine_\lambda)\| = \|a^2 n^2 e_\lambda^2 - 2n(ae_\lambda - e_\lambda a)\| \leq 1 + n^2 + n\|ae_\lambda - e_\lambda a\|$$

Then we have and we have

$$\|\varphi(a - ine_\lambda)\|^2 \leq \|a - ine_\lambda\|^2 \leq 1 + n^2 + n \underbrace{\|ae_\lambda - e_\lambda a\|}_{\rightarrow 0}$$

Taking $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, we get $\varphi(e_\lambda) \leq 1 + n^2$. Using $\varphi(a) = \alpha + i\beta$ and we get

$$\|\alpha + i\beta - in\|^2 \leq 1 + n^2 \Rightarrow \alpha^2 + \beta^2 - 2n\beta + in^2 \leq 1 + n^2 \Rightarrow -2n\beta \leq 1 - \alpha^2 - \beta^2$$

. Because $\beta \leq 0$, we have to take $\beta = 0$.

Now to prove $\varphi \geq 0$: Take $a \in \mathcal{A}_+$ with $\|a\| \leq 1$. Then $e_\lambda - a \in \mathcal{A}_{sa}$ and

$$-1 \leq -a \leq e_\lambda \leq e_\lambda \leq$$

So $\|e_\lambda\| \leq 1$.

$$\underbrace{\varphi(e_\lambda - a)}_{\in \mathbb{R}} \leq |\varphi(e_\lambda)| \leq 1$$

Letting $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, then $1 - \varphi(a) \leq 1$ so $\varphi(a) \geq 0$.

Corollary 10.8 *If \mathcal{A} is unital and $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^+$ then $\varphi \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \varphi(1) = \|\varphi\|$.*

Corollary 10.9 *If \mathcal{A} is a unital C^* -algebra and $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$, then $\varphi \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \varphi(1) = \|\varphi\|$.*

Definition 10.10 A **state** on a C^* -algebra \mathcal{A} is a positive linear functional $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}_+^*$ with $\|\varphi\| = 1$.

We denote the set of all states by $S(\mathcal{A})$.

Example 10.11 If $\mathcal{A} = B(H)$ or $\mathcal{A} = K(H)$ (bounded/compact operators on a hilbert space \mathcal{A}) or \mathcal{A} a subalgebra of any of these sets with non-degenerate $e_\lambda \rightarrow 1$. Let $\zeta, \eta \in H$ and define $\varphi_{\zeta, \eta}(a) := \langle \zeta, a\eta \rangle$. Then $\varphi_{\zeta, \eta} \in \mathcal{A}^*$ with $\|\varphi_{\zeta, \eta}\| \leq \|\zeta\| \cdot \|\eta\|$. If $(e_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{+,1}$ is an approximate unit, then, using $e_\lambda \rightarrow 1$ (strictly) shows $\varphi_{\zeta, \eta}(e_\lambda) \rightarrow \langle \zeta, \eta \rangle$. If $\zeta = \eta$, then $\varphi_\zeta := \varphi_{\zeta, \zeta}$ is positive and so $\varphi_\zeta(a^*a) = \langle a\zeta, a\zeta \rangle = \|a\zeta\|^2 \geq 0$. By the previous theorem, $\|\varphi_\zeta\| = \lim_\lambda \varphi_\zeta(e_\lambda) = \|\zeta\|^2$. So φ_ζ is a state if and only if $\|\zeta\| = 1$.

Note that there are states that are not of this form at all! The ones presented here are the so-called **pure states**.

Theorem 10.12 *If \mathcal{A} is a C^* -algebra and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is normal with $\mathcal{A} \neq 0$ there exists a state $\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})$ with $|\varphi(a)| = \|a\|$*

PROOF: We may assume $a \neq 0$ (we would only need to prove that any state exists, but this follows from the construction). Let $\mathcal{B} = C^*(a, 1) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. \mathcal{B} is abelian, $\hat{a} \in C(X)$ and $X = \Omega(\mathcal{B})$ (compact). Then there exists a $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{B}) = X$ (compact) such that $|\hat{a}(\chi)| = |\chi(a)| = \|\hat{a}\|_\infty = \|a\|$. By Hahn-Banach, extend $\chi : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ to $\psi \in (\mathcal{A})^*$ with $\|\psi\| = \|\varphi\| = 1$. So $|\psi(a)| = |\chi(a)| = \|a\|$ and also $|\psi(1)| = |\chi(1)| = 1$. By the corollary, $\psi \geq 0$ and $\psi \in S(\mathcal{A})$. Taking $\varphi := \psi|_{\mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{A}_+^*$ shows $\|\varphi\| \leq \|\psi\| = 1$ and $|\varphi(a)| = |\psi(a)| = \|a\|$, so $\|\varphi\| \geq 1$, so $\|\varphi\| = 1$ and φ is also a state. \square

Theorem 10.13 (Extension of positive linear functionals) *Let $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ be an inclusion of C^* -algebras and $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}_+^*$. Then, there exists $\tilde{\varphi} \in \mathcal{B}_+^*$ with $\tilde{\varphi}|_{\mathcal{A}} = \varphi$ and $\|\tilde{\varphi}\| = \|\varphi\|$.*

PROOF: First consider the case $\mathcal{B} = \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$. In this case, define $\tilde{\varphi} : \tilde{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, a + \lambda \cdot 1 \mapsto \varphi(a) + \lambda \|\varphi\|$. Of course, $\tilde{\varphi}$ is linear and $\tilde{\varphi}|_{\mathcal{A}} = \varphi$. To prove that $\tilde{\varphi}$ is bounded, let $(e_i) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ be an approximate unit. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |\tilde{\varphi}(a + \lambda \cdot 1)| &= |\varphi(a) + \lambda \|\varphi\|| = |\lim_i \varphi(ae_i) + \lambda \lim_i \varphi(e_i)| = \lim_i |\varphi(ae_i + \lambda e_i)| \\ &= \lim_i |\varphi((a + \lambda 1)e_i)| \leq \|\varphi\| \|a + \lambda 1\| \|e_i\| \leq \|\varphi\| \|a + \lambda 1\| \end{aligned}$$

because φ is bounded. So $\tilde{\varphi}$ is also bounded and $\|\tilde{\varphi}\| \leq \|\varphi\|$. But $\tilde{\varphi}(1) = \|\varphi\|$, so $\|\tilde{\varphi}\| = \|\varphi\|$ and $\tilde{\varphi}$ is therefore also positive.

Now the general case: Passing to the unitizations, we have an embedding $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{B}}$ and may assume that both \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are unital with the same unit. By the unital case above, φ extends to $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ and then also to \mathcal{A} by Hahn-Banach. So there exists $\tilde{\varphi} \in \mathcal{B}^*$ with $\tilde{\varphi}|_{\mathcal{A}} = \varphi$. Since $\varphi \geq 0$, we know that $\tilde{\varphi}(1) = \varphi(1) = \|\varphi\| = \|\tilde{\varphi}\|$, so $\tilde{\varphi} \geq 0$. \square

Remark 10.14

- (i) In certain cases the extension φ to $\tilde{\varphi}$ is unique. This is true if $\mathcal{A} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{B}$ or more generally if $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ is a hereditary C^* -subalgebra (see Murphy: $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{B}$ or $\mathcal{A} = L \cap L^*$ for some left-handed ideal L). In this case, $\tilde{\varphi}(b) = \lim \varphi(u_\lambda a u_\lambda)$ where $(u_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ where (u_λ) is an approximate unit.
- (ii) Say $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$ is self-adjoint. If $\varphi^* = \varphi$ where $\varphi^*(a) = \overline{\varphi(a^*)}$ (involution on \mathcal{A}^*). We can write $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$ as $\varphi = \Re(\varphi) + i\Im(\varphi)$ where $\Re(\varphi) = \frac{\varphi + \varphi^*}{2}$ and $\Im(\varphi) = \frac{\varphi - \varphi^*}{2i}$ are self-adjoint, contained in \mathcal{A}_{sa}^* . Observe that $\mathcal{A}_{sa}^* = (\mathcal{A}_{sa})'$, the topological dual of \mathcal{A}_{sa} as an \mathbb{R} -vector space.
- (iii) Any $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}_{sa}^*$ can be uniquely written as $\varphi = \varphi_+ - \varphi_-$ where $\varphi_+, \varphi_- \in \mathcal{A}_+^*$ and $\|\varphi\| = \|\varphi_+\| + \|\varphi_-\|$.

11 The Gelfand-Naimark-Theorem

Definition 11.1 Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra. A **representation** of \mathcal{A} is a $*$ -homomorphism $\pi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H)$ for some Hilbert space H .

We say that π is

- (i) **faithful** if π is injective (and therefore isometric).
- (ii) **non-degenerate** if $\text{span } \pi(\mathcal{A})H = H$.
- (iii) **irreducible** if for all closed subspaces $K \subseteq H$ with $\pi(\mathcal{A})K \subseteq K$ (K is π -invariant) we have $K = 0$ or $K = H$.

Remark 11.2 The exercises show that π non-degenerate is equivalent to $\pi(e_\lambda) \rightarrow 1$ (strongly) for an approximate unit $(e_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$

We want to show that there is always a faithful homomorphism.

Definition 11.3 Let $\pi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H), \rho : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(K)$ two representations. We say that π, ρ are (unitarily) equivalent if there exists a surjective isometry $u : H \rightarrow K$ such that $u^* \rho(a) u = \pi(a)$, i.e. $\rho = \text{Ad}_u \pi$.

Definition 11.4 (Spectrum) We define

$$\hat{\mathcal{A}} = \{[\pi] \mid \pi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H), \pi \neq 0\}$$

Also define $\text{Prim}(\mathcal{A}) = \{\ker(\pi) \mid [\pi] \in \hat{\mathcal{A}}\}$ and $\hat{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \text{Prim}(\mathcal{A}), [\pi] \mapsto \ker \pi$ (primitive ideals). Let $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ be a character $\chi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{C})$. Then $[\chi] \in \hat{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\ker \chi \in \text{Prim}(\mathcal{A})$.

How do we get representations of \mathcal{A} ?

Gelfand-Naimark-Siegel-Construction (GNS)

Theorem 11.5 Let $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}_+^*$ be any positive linear functional. We know that $\langle a, b \rangle_\varphi := \varphi(a^*b)$ defines a semi-inner-product and $\|a\|_\varphi = \varphi(a^*a)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is a semi-norm.

Let $N_\varphi := \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid \|a\|_\varphi = 0\}$.

Remark 11.6 Notice: $N_\varphi \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is a closed left ideal.

PROOF: From Cauchy-Schwarz:

$$|\varphi(a^*b)|^2 \leq \varphi(a^*a)\varphi(b^*b)$$

and therefore

$$N_\varphi = \{b \in \mathcal{A} \mid \varphi(ab) = 0\}$$

Let $H_\varphi^\circ := \mathcal{A}/N_\varphi$ the quotient vector space. Then $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_\varphi$ factors through an inner product of H_φ° and

$$\langle a + N_\varphi, b + N_\varphi \rangle = \langle a, b \rangle = \varphi(a^*b)$$

By completion we get a Hilbert space $H_\varphi = \overline{H_\varphi^\circ}^{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle}$.

Now we define (with L the linear operators)

$$\pi_\varphi^\circ : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow L(H_\varphi^\circ)$$

and thus

$$\pi_\varphi^\circ(a)(b + N_\varphi) := ab + N_\varphi$$

meaning that $\pi_\varphi^\circ(a) \cdot \pi_\varphi^\circ(b) = \pi_\varphi^\circ(ab)$ and $\pi_\varphi^\circ(a^*) = (\pi_\varphi^\circ(a))^*$. Then

$$\varphi(b^*ac) = \langle \varphi_\varphi^\circ(a^*)(b + N_\varphi), c + N_\varphi \rangle = \langle b + N_\varphi, \pi_\varphi^\circ(a)(c + N_\varphi) \rangle. \quad (11.1)$$

We claim now that π_φ° is bounded for $\|\cdot\|_\varphi$ and therefore show that $\pi_\varphi^\circ(a)$ extends to $\pi_\varphi(a) \in \mathcal{L}(H_\varphi)$.

Take

$$\|\pi_\varphi^\circ(a)(b + N_\varphi)\|_\varphi^2 = \|ab + N_\varphi\|_\varphi^2 = \varphi((ab)^*ab) = \varphi(b^*a^*ab) \leq \|a\|^2 \varphi(b^*b) \leq \|a\|^2 \|b + N_\varphi\|_\varphi^2$$

Therefore we get a representation: The GNS-Representation associated to φ .

$$\pi_\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H_\varphi), a \mapsto \pi_\varphi(a) = [b + N_\varphi \mapsto ab + N_\varphi]$$

If $(\pi_i)_{i \in I}$ is a family of representations $\pi_i : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow H_i$. We define the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} \pi_i : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\bigoplus_{i \in I} H_i), a \mapsto (\pi_i(a))_{i \in I}$ where $(\pi_i(a))_{i \in I} : \zeta \mapsto (\pi_i(a)\zeta)$.

Theorem 11.7 (Gelfand-Naimar-Representation) Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra and define $\pi_U := \bigoplus_{\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})} \pi_\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H_U)$ with $H_U = \bigoplus_{\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})} H_\varphi$ for $H_\varphi = \mathcal{A}/N_\varphi$ with the semi-inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_\varphi$ and $\pi_\varphi(a)(b + N_\varphi) = ab + N_\varphi$. Then (π_U, H_U) is **faithful**.

PROOF: Suppose $0 \neq a \in \mathcal{A}$, $\pi_U(a) = 0$ and $\pi_U(a) = 0$. Then there exists $\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})$ such that $\varphi(a^*a) = \|a^*a\| = \|a\|^2$. We know $\langle a, a \rangle_\varphi = \|a\|_\varphi$. Then $\pi_U(a) = 0$, so $\pi_\varphi(a) = 0$, so $\pi_\varphi(a^*a) = 0$ and therefore $\pi_\varphi(a)(b + N_\varphi) = ab + N_\varphi = 0$. This shows

$$i0 = \langle \pi_\varphi(a)(b + N_\varphi), \pi_\varphi(a)(b + N_\varphi) \rangle = \varphi(b^*a^*ab)$$

for all $b \in \mathcal{A}$, so $b = e_\lambda$ (for $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$). But then $\varphi(a^*a) = 0$ and thus $a = 0$. \square

Observe that (π_U, H_U) is called the universal representation of \mathcal{A} . This is always non-degenerate. Indeed, each (π_φ, H_φ) is non-degenerate. Moreover, these are **cyclic representations**:

Definition 11.8 A representation $\rho : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow L(H)$ is **cyclic** if there is a $\zeta \in H$, $\|\zeta\| = 1$ such that $\rho(\mathcal{A})\zeta = H$. ζ is called a **cyclic vector** for (ρ, H) .

Observe: Every non-degenerate representation is a sum of cyclic representations (proof via Zorn's Lemma omitted).

Proposition 11.9 Every GNS-representation (π_U, H_U) is cyclic.

PROOF: If \mathcal{A} is unital, then $\zeta_\varphi := 1 + N_\varphi \in H_\varphi$ is a cyclic vector for π_φ . Then $\pi_\varphi(a)(\zeta_\varphi) = a + N_\varphi$ and thus $\pi_\varphi(\mathcal{A})\zeta_\varphi = \mathcal{A}/N_\varphi \subseteq H_\varphi$ (dense). Therefore ζ_φ is cyclic and

$$\|\zeta_\varphi\|^2 = \langle 1 + N_\varphi, 1 + N_\varphi \rangle = \varphi(1) = \|\varphi\| = 1$$

so $\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})$. Moreover: $\langle \zeta_\varphi, \pi_\varphi(a)\zeta_\varphi \rangle = \langle 1 + N_\varphi, 1 + N_\varphi \rangle = \varphi(a)$.

Let us now look at the general case. Consider the linear map $\varphi_0 : \mathcal{A}/N_\varphi \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, a + N_\varphi \mapsto \varphi(a)$. This is well-defined and bounded:

$$\|\varphi(a)\|^2 \leq \|\varphi\| \varphi(a^*a) = \varphi(a^*a)$$

as φ is a state (and thus $\|\varphi\| = 1$). So $\|\varphi\| \leq 1$. So φ_0 extends to a bounded linear factorial map on $\tilde{\varphi}_0 H_\varphi \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. By Riesz-Representation theorem, we have a $\zeta_\varphi \in \varphi$ such that $\tilde{\varphi}_0(\eta) = \langle \zeta_\varphi, \eta \rangle$ and $\|\zeta_\varphi\| = \|\varphi_0\| = 1$. In particular $\varphi(a) = \varphi_0(a + N_\varphi) = \langle \zeta_\varphi, a + N_\varphi \rangle$. Now for $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ we have

$$\langle \pi_\varphi(a), b + N_\varphi \rangle = \langle \zeta_\varphi, \pi_\varphi(a^*)(b + N_\varphi) \rangle = \langle \zeta_\varphi, a^*b \rangle = \varphi(a^*b) = \langle a + N_\varphi, b + N_\varphi \rangle$$

Therefor $\pi_\varphi(a)\zeta_\varphi = a + N_\varphi$ (*) as well as $\overline{\pi_\varphi(\mathcal{A})\zeta_\varphi} = H_\varphi$ and $\varphi(a) = \langle \zeta_U, \pi_\varphi(a)\zeta_\varphi \rangle$.

If $(e_\lambda) \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an approximate unit so $\pi_\varphi(a^\lambda) \rightarrow 1$ strong as $a \rightarrow \infty$. Then $\|\varphi\| \leftarrow \varphi(e_\lambda) = \langle \zeta_\varphi, \pi_\varphi(e_\lambda)\zeta_\varphi \rangle \rightarrow \|\zeta_\varphi\|^2$, so $\|\zeta_\varphi\| = 1$ and it is a cyclic representation.

Also, from (*) we know $\zeta_\varphi = \lim_\lambda \pi_\varphi(e_\lambda)\zeta_\varphi = \lim_\lambda e_\lambda + N_\varphi$.

So the GNS-construction gives a triple $(\pi_\varphi, H_\varphi, \zeta_\varphi)$ satisfying our conditions. \square

Conversely, if (π, H, ζ) is a cyclic representation of \mathcal{A} , then $\varphi(a) := \langle \zeta, \pi(a)\zeta \rangle$ defines a state $\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})$.

Remark 11.10 (irreducible representations and pure states) Notice: $\Omega(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq S(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1^*$. In particular, we can endow this with the weak $*$ -topology.

This is closed and therefore compact: Take $\varphi_i \in S(\mathcal{A})$ with $\pi_i \rightarrow \varphi \in \mathcal{A}_1^*$ ($\|\varphi\|_{leq1}$). Then

$$1 \xleftarrow{\lambda} \varphi_i(e_\lambda) \xrightarrow{i} \varphi(e_\lambda)$$

with $\|\varphi\| = 1 = \lim_\lambda \varphi(e_\lambda)$.

Moreover, $S(\mathcal{A})$ is convex, so for $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n \in S(\mathcal{A})$ and $t_1, \dots, t_n \in \mathbb{R}_+$ with $\sum_{i=1}^n t_i = 1$ we have $\sum_{i=1}^n t_i \varphi_i \in S(\mathcal{A})$.

Recall the Kreim-Milman-Theorem: If K is a compact convex subset of \mathcal{A}_1^* , then $K = \text{conv}(\text{Ext}(K))$ where conv is the convex hull and Ext are the extremal points, that is all points in K that cannot be reached as linear combinations of other points (e.g. the corners of a closed triangle). In particular, any compact convex set must have extremal points (unless it is empty).

We will apply this to the states $K = S(\mathcal{A})$.

Definition 11.11 Call $PS(\mathcal{A}) := \text{Ext}(S(\mathcal{A}))$ the **pure states** of \mathcal{A} .

Theorem 11.12 A state $\varphi \in S(\mathcal{A})$ is pure if and only if $\pi_\varphi \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(H_\varphi)$ is irreducible if and only iff $\pi_\varphi(\mathcal{A})' := \{T \in \mathcal{B}(H_\varphi) \mid T\pi_\varphi(a) = \pi_\varphi(a)T\} = \mathbb{C} \cdot 1$ by Schur's lemma.

PROOF: See Murphy. □

Example 11.13 Let $\mathcal{A} = C_0(X)$. Take $\varphi \in C_0(X)^* \simeq$ Complex bounded Radon measure of X . If $\mu : \text{Borells}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, E \rightarrow \mu(E)$ has $\mu = \Re\mu + i\Im\mu$. $\Re\mu = \Re(\mu)_+ - \Re(\mu)_-$ is a complex (Radon) measure, then the associated $\varphi = \varphi_\mu \in C_0(X)^*$ is $\varphi_\mu(f) = \int_X f(x)d\mu(x)$.

Moreover, $\varphi_\mu \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \mu \geq 0$, so $C_0(X)_+^*$ consists of the positive Radon measures on X .

Note: Characters correspond to Dirac measures: $\mu_{x_0}(E) = 1$ if $x_0 \in E$ and 0 otherwise. The real measures correspond to the self-adjoint elements and the states correspond to those measures with $\mu(X) = 1$, that is the probability (positive Radon) measures on X .

Remark 11.14 Look at the GNS construction for $\varphi = \varphi_\mu$. Define

$$\langle f, g \rangle_\varphi = \varphi(f^* \cdot g) = \varphi(\overline{f} \cdot g) = \int_X \overline{f(x)}g(x)d\mu(x)$$

Then

$$N_\varphi = \left\{ f \in C_0(X) \mid \varphi(\overline{f}f) = \int_X |f(x)|^2 d\mu(x) = 0 \right\} \trianglelefteq C_0(X)$$

Indeed, N_φ corresponds to the support of μ : $\text{supp}(\mu) = \{x \in X \mid \forall U \subseteq X \text{ open } x \in U \Rightarrow \mu(U) > 0\}$ (this is always closed). Now we want to show for $U = \text{supp}(\mu)^c$:

$$N_\varphi = C_0(U) = \{f \in C_0(X) \mid f|_U \equiv 0\}$$

" \supseteq ": If $f \in C_0(U)$, $f|_{\text{supp}(\mu)} \equiv 0$ then $\int_X |f(x)|^2 d\mu(x) = 0$. TODO

Then $H_\varphi = L^2(X, \mu) = \overline{C_0(X)}$ (with closure in respect to $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{2, \mu}$) and $\pi_\varphi(f)(\zeta + N_\varphi) = f \cdot \zeta + N_\varphi$ (where the added class N_φ represents that the functions are equal μ -almost everywhere). These correspond to $M_f(\zeta) = f \cdot \zeta$.

12 Inverse Semigroups

Our main results so far:

- Every commutative C^* -algebra \mathcal{A} is $\mathcal{A} \simeq C_0(X)$ where X is a locally compact Hausdorff space.
- Every C^* -algebra can be embedded into $\mathcal{B}(H)$ for some Hilbert space H .

How to now model C^* -algebras in general? We look for general constructions of C^* -algebras and hope that many C^* -algebras in practice are 'part' of this construction. We are going to look at the class of C^* -algebras associated to (inverse) semigroups and groupoids. These include, in particular, groups. One of the motivating examples:

Example 12.1 Recall that the Cuntz- C^* -algebra is the (universal, unital) C^* -algebra \mathcal{O}_n generated by n isometries $S_1, \dots, S_n \in \mathcal{O}_n$ satisfying the relations $S_i^* S_j = \delta_{ij} \cdot 1$ and $S_1 S_1^* + \dots + S_n S_n^* = 1$. Then we can look at the set

$$S := \{S_\alpha S_\beta^* \mid \alpha, \beta \text{ finite words in } \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\} \cup \{0\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_n$$

where for $\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_k$ with $\alpha_i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ we have $S_\alpha = S_{\alpha_1} \dots S_{\alpha_k}$ and we convention that for the empty word ε we have $S_\varepsilon = 1$.

Note that $\mathcal{O}_n = C^*(S)$ and each non-zero element $s \in S$ is an isometry, and every element is a partial isometry, that is $ss^*s = s$. Also, S is closed under multiplication (of \mathcal{O}_n). So, this means that S is a sub semigroup of the multiplicative semigroup of \mathcal{O}_n . So S is a $*$ -semigroup of partial isometries. We now consider only C^* -algebras that thusly arise.

Definition 12.2 An *inverse semigroup* is a semigroup S (it is endowed with an associative multiplication $S \times S \rightarrow S$) which is also a $*$ -semigroup (it is endowed with an involution $*$: $S \rightarrow S$ sometimes also called a 'pseudo-inverse') satisfying:

- $(s^*)^* = s$ (involution)
- $(st)^* = t^* s^*$ (antimultiplicative)
- $ss^*s = s$
- The elements of $E(S) = \{s^*s \mid s \in S\}$ should commute. These elements are called **idempotents** and $E(S) = \{e \in S \mid e = e^2\}$.

Remark 12.3

- Where the first two properties makes it a $*$ -semigroup and the last makes it a $*$ -semigroup of partial isometries.
- $E(S)$ is a commutative (inverse) subsemigroup of S and $e^* = e$ for all $e \in E(S)$.
- Given $s \in S$, $t = s^* \in S$ is the unique element of S satisfying $sts = s$ and $tst = t$.

Example 12.4

- Groups are always inverse semigroups with exactly 1 idempotent, that is $E(S) = \{e\}$. Furthermore, we have $E(S) = \{s^*s \mid s \in S\} = \{ss^* \mid s \in S\}$.
If s^*sess^* for all s then $ss^*s = s = ss^*s$.

- (ii) **Commutative Inverse:** Semigroups that are exactly the $()$ semilattices, that is partially order set (E, \leq) for which every $e, f \in E$ has $e \wedge f = e \cdot f = f \cdot e$.
- (iii) If S is an inverse semigroup which is commutative, then $S = E(S)$ is the set of idempotents and this is a semilattice with $e \leq f \Leftrightarrow e \cdot f = e$.
- (iv) Let X be any set (with the natural order) and \mathcal{X} the powerset of X , then $A \cdot B = A \cap B$ is a commutative ISG.
- (v) Consider $(\mathbb{N}_0, +)$. This can be viewed multiplicatively or additively. We will look at the addition. Certainly, this is a semigroup. Can it be an inverse semigroup? No, because we would need an element $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n + m + n = 0$ but that would imply $n = 0$. For (\mathbb{N}, \cdot) , we have the same problem.
 Lets look at (\mathbb{N}, \min) with multiplication $n \cdot m = \min(n, m)$ in compliance with the lattice. This is commutative and therefore an Inverse Semigroup.
- (vi) Take now $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ with basis $(e_{ij})^n$, then $e_{ij}e_{kl} = \delta_{j,k}e_{i,l}$ and $e_{ij}^* = e_{ji}$. Then $e_{ij} : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, e_j \rightarrow e_i$ and partial isometries $e_{ij}e_{ij}^*e_{ij} = e_{ij}$. So $S = \{e_{ij} \mid i, j = 1, \dots, n\} \cup \{0\} \subseteq M_n(\mathbb{C})$ is a $*$ -semigroup of partial isometries, so it is an inverse semigroup. The C^* -algebra of this inverse semigroup is $M_n(\mathbb{C})$.
- (vii) Let X be any set. Then

$$I(X) = \{f \mid f \text{ is partial bijection between subsets of } X\}$$

i.e. $f : U \rightarrow V$ is a bijection where $U, V \subseteq X$ (note that these may be any set, even the empty set and need not be open, as X does not even have a topology). We must still find a suitable product.

Take $f : U \rightarrow V, g : U' \rightarrow V'$. Take $\tilde{U} = f^{-1}(U' \cap V)$ and define $f \cdot g : \tilde{U} \rightarrow g(V \cap U'), x \mapsto f(g(x))$.

So $I(X)$ is an inverse semigroup with $f^* = f^{-1}$ and $f(f^{-1}f) = \text{id}_{D(f)} \cdot f = f$.

Additionally, we get $E(I(X)) = \{\text{id}_U \mid U \subseteq X\} = 2^X$.

Example 12.5 (About $I(X)$) Take $X = \{1, 2\}$. Then

$$I(X) = \{0 = \emptyset, \text{id}_{\{1\}}, \text{id}_{\{2\}}, \text{id}_X = 1, \{1\} \rightarrow \{2\}, \{2\} \rightarrow \{1\}, (\{1\} \rightarrow \{2\}, \{2\} \rightarrow \{1\}) = (12)\}$$

whereas $\text{Bij}(X) = S_2 = \{\text{id}_X, (12)\}$.

One can also consider $I(\mathcal{A})$

- $\supseteq \text{Aut}(\mathcal{A}) = \{f : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} : f \text{ }^*\text{-automorphism}\}$
- $\supseteq \text{pAut}(\mathcal{A}) = \{f : I \rightarrow J \mid I, J \leq \mathcal{A}, f \text{ }^*\text{-automorphism}\}$

Theorem 12.6 (Vagner-Preston-Theorem) Every inverse semigroup S can be embedded (as an inverse sub semigroup) into $I(X)$ for some X .

This is somewhat of a generalization of Caley's theorem.

PROOF (IDEA): Take $s \in S$ and $\bar{X} = S$ defines a partial bijection. $f_s(x) = sx$. Take $D_s = \{x \in X \mid s^*sx = x\} \subseteq X$, so $f_s : D_s \rightarrow R_s, f_s^{-1} = f_{s^*}$ where $R_s = \{x \mid ss^*x = x\} = D_{s^*}$ is the partial inverse.. \square

Definition 12.7 Let S be an inverse semigroup (that is, S is a semigroup and for all $s \in S$ we have $s^* \in S$ and $ss^*s = s$). Then $C^*(S)$ is the universal C^* -algebra generated by (a 'copy' of) S as a $*$ -semigroup.

More precisely: $C^*(S)$ is a C^* -algebra endowed with a $*$ -homomorphism $\iota : S \rightarrow C^*(S)$ such that for every other C^* -algebra \mathcal{B} with a $*$ -homomorphism $\pi : S \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ there exists a unique $*$ -homomorphism $\tilde{\pi} : C^*(S) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ such that $\tilde{\pi} \circ \iota = \pi$.

Remark 12.8

- (i) We are going to prove that the C^* -algebra $C^*(S)$ exists.
- (ii) An inverse semigroup S might have a unit $1 \in S$ (i.e. $1s = s = s1$). If this is the case, $C^*(S)$ and $\iota : S \rightarrow C^*(S)$ will be unital, and in the universal property we may assume \mathcal{B} and π to be unital.
Also, you can always formally add such a unit (and only this unit) to any inverse semigroup. Therefore, we will most of the time only consider such unital semigroups.
- (iii) An inverse semigroup S might have a zero 0 (i.e. $0s = 0 = s0$). If this is the case, we would like that $0 \in S$ "is" also $0 \in C^*(S)$, that is the embedding ι is zero-preserving: $\iota(0) = 0$. This is not automatic, but we can change the definition and force this to be true. Formally, we define another C^* -algebra $C_0^*(S)$ in a similar way by asking ι, \mathcal{B}, π to be zero-preserving.
- (iv) We will proof that $C_0^*(S)$ exists. It is actually $C_0^*(S) = C^*(S)/\langle \iota(0) \rangle$.

Example 12.9 Let $S = \{s\}$ be a single-element semigroup (with $s = s^* = s^2$). In this case $s = 0 = 1$. Then $C^*(S)$ is the universal C^* -algebra generated by a projection. We claim $C^*(S) = \mathbb{C}$. Indeed, $p = 1 \in \mathbb{C}$ is a projection with $\mathbb{C} = C^*(1) = \mathbb{C} \cdot 1$. So this means we have $\iota : S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, s \mapsto 1$. If \mathcal{B} is any algebra with $*$ -homomorphism $\pi : S \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$, this just means that $p = \pi(s) \in \mathcal{B}$ is a projection. Then $\tilde{\pi} : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}, \lambda \mapsto \lambda \cdot p$.

If, however, we treat $s \in S$ as the zero, then $C_0^*s = 0$.

Example 12.10 Set $S = \{p, q\}$ the inverse semigroup with two elements $qq = q$, and $pp = qq = qp = p$. $C^*(S)$ is the universal C^* -algebra generated. So there are two projections P, Q mit $P = P$ ($P \leq Q$). Then the C^* -algebra is Commutative!. Claim: $C^*(S) \simeq C^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. This is indeed that case as $P(1, 0) = Q(1, 1)$. So we have $C_0^*(S) \simeq \mathbb{C}$.

Example 12.11 Let $S = \{1, g\}$ and $g = g^* = g^{-1}$ (and $g^2 = 1$). This is a full group. Then $C^*(S)$ is the universal unital C^* -algebra generated by a self-adjoint unit, so $C^*(S) = C_{univ}^*(1, u)$ for some self-adjoint with $u^2 = 1$ and $u^* = u$. Then $C_0^*(S) = \mathbb{C}^2$.

Take $\iota : S \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C}$ where $1 \mapsto (1, 1)$ and $g \mapsto u = (\alpha, \beta)$ with $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\alpha^2 = 1 = \beta^2$. Then $\mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C}$

PROOF (EXISTENCE OF $C^*(S)$): First, consider the $*$ -algebra of S . Take

$$\mathbb{C}[S] = \left\{ \sum_{s \in S}^{\text{fin}} a_s S_s \mid a_s \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

then $\delta_s \cdot \delta_t = \delta(st)$ and $\delta_s^* = \delta_{s^*}$.

The idea is now to complete this to a C^* -algebra. To get $C^*(S)$, take $C^*(S) = \overline{\mathbb{C}[S]}^{\|\cdot\|}$. For C^* to be 'universal', it must be the largest and its norm must be the largest $\|\cdot\|$ C^* -algebra

norm. As a $*$ -homomorphism between C^* -algebras is automatically contractive, we can define for $a \in \mathbb{C}[S]$. Then $\|a\|_{\max} = \sup\{p(a) \mid p : \mathbb{C}[S] \rightarrow [0, \infty), C^* \text{ seminorm}\}$. This set is non-empty, but it could be unbounded. We prove that, in the current case of a semigroup construction, this is not the case, and the supremum thus itself defines a C^* -seminorm. Write $a = \sum_{s \in S}^{\text{fin}} a_s \delta_s = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{s_i}$. Take $p \in \mathbb{C}[S] \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ a C^* -seminorm. Idea:

$$p(a) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{s_i}| p(\delta_{s_i})$$

if $s \in S$, $p(\delta_s)^2 = p(\delta_s^* \delta_s) = \dots$

Let \mathcal{A} be a C^* -algebra, $p : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ with a C^* -seminorm and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ a partial isometry. Then $p(a) < 1$.

Proof: Omitted.

Define $N_p = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid p(a) = 0\} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{A}$. Then

$$\mathcal{A}/N_p \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|_p} [0, \infty), \|a + N_p\|_p := p(a)$$

is a C^* -norm and $C_p^*(\mathcal{A}) = \overline{\mathcal{A}/N_p}^{\|\cdot\|_p}$. Then $\pi : \mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{q} \mathcal{A}$ is a $*$ -homomorphism. Furthermore, $p(a)^2 = \|a + N_p\|^2 = \|\pi(a)\|^2 = \|\pi(a^* a)\| \leq 1$. Then $\pi(a)$ is a partial isometry of a C^* -algebra.

So $\|\cdot\|_{\max}$ defined by the supremum is a C^* -seminorm. As in the lemma, define $C^*(S) = \overline{\mathbb{C}[S]/N_{\|\cdot\|_{\max}}}^{\|\cdot\|_{\max}}$. Then $C^*(S)$ is a C^* -algebra and we have a $*$ -homomorphism $q : \mathbb{C}[S] \rightarrow C^*(S)$ as a quotient map (in completion plus embedding). Concatenating this with $s \mapsto \delta_s$ yields the final $*$ -homomorphism.

Universal property: Take \mathcal{B} any C^* -algebra with $*$ -homomorphism $\pi : S \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$. This induces a $*$ -homomorphism $\rho : \mathbb{C}[S] \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ by $\rho(\sum a_s \delta_s) = \sum a_s \pi(s)$ and then $\|a\|_\rho := \|\rho(a)\|_{\mathcal{B}}$ defines a C^* -seminorm. So $\rho(a) = \|a\|_\rho \leq \|a\|_{\max}$. This means that ρ is contractive and continuous (for the max norm). In particular, ρ vanishes on $N_{\|\cdot\|_{\max}}$ and therefore induces a $*$ -homomorphism $\tilde{\pi} : C^*(S) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$.

This also shows the existence of $C_0^*(S)$. □

Theorem 12.12 (Wordingham's Theorem) *Let S be an inverse semigroup, then $\lambda : S \rightarrow \mathbb{B}(\ell^2(S))$ defined by*

$$\lambda_s(\delta_t) := \begin{cases} \delta_{st} & | s * st = t \\ 0 & | \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $(\delta_t)_{t \in S} \in \ell^2(S)$ is the orthonormal basis, is a representation, i.e. a $*$ -homomorphism, of S . Additionally, it extends to a faithful representation $\tilde{\lambda} : \mathbb{C}[S] \rightarrow \mathbb{B}(\ell^2(S))$ given by $\tilde{\lambda}(\sum a_s \delta_s) = \sum a_s \tilde{\lambda}(\delta_s)$.

Indeed, λ extends faithfully to $\tilde{\lambda} : \ell^1(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{B}(\ell^2(S))$. In particular, there exists a C^* -norm on $\mathbb{C}[S]$, also on $\ell^1(S)$ namely $\|a\|_\lambda := \|\tilde{\lambda}(a)\|_{\mathbb{B}(\ell^2(S))}$ and therefore $\mathbb{C}[S] \subseteq \ell^1(S) \hookrightarrow C^*(S)$ and $\ell^1(S) \hookrightarrow C_n^*(S) = C_\lambda^*(S) = \overline{\mathbb{C}[S]}^{\|\cdot\|_\lambda}$.

PROOF: See Patterson's Book "Groupoid and inverse Semigroups in C^* -algebras".

Maybe at least see that $\lambda : S \rightarrow \mathbb{B}(\ell^2(S))$ is injective.

Let $\lambda_s = \lambda_t$ for $s, t \in S$. Then $\lambda_s(\delta_n) = \lambda_t(\delta_n)$ for all $n \in S$. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} \delta_{sn} & | & s^* sn = n \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \delta_{tn} & | & t^* tn = n \\ 0 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

Take $n = s^*$, then $s^*ss^* = s^*$, then $t^*ts^* = s^*$ (as their images are equal an the left side is non-zero), so $ss^* = tt^*$. This shows $s = ss^*s = ts^*s$. We need that $s^*s = t^*t$. But it follows that $t^*ts^*s = (s^*s)$ and similarly $s^*st^*t = t^*t$. \square

Corollary 12.13 *The image S in $C^*(S)$ is linearly independent, that is $\sum_{s \in S}^{\text{fin}} a_s \iota(s) = 0$, where $\iota : S \rightarrow C^*(S)$.*

Corollary 12.14 *If S is finite then $C^*(S) = \mathbb{C}[S] = C_\lambda^*(S) =$*

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Example 12.15 Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $S = \{kke_{i,j} \mid i, j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}\} \subseteq M_n(\mathbb{C})$ is an ISA. and we have $\|S\| = n^2 + 1$ and $C_0^*(S)$ is a finite dimensional C^* -algebra with dimension n^2 .

Take $C_0^*(S)$ is the universal C^* -algebra genreated by $\{\tilde{e}_{ij} \mid i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$ satisfying $\tilde{e}_{ij}\tilde{e}_{kl} = \delta_{jk}\tilde{e}_{il}$ and $\tilde{e}_{ij}^* = \tilde{e}_{ij}$ and is therefore isomorphic to M^* .

Observation: With some extreme work one can also analyse to "infinite" on any cardinal. So $C_0^*(S) \simeq N(\ell^2(S^*))$ and thus $\tilde{e}_{ij} = |\delta_i X_\delta|$.

Example 12.16 Let $S = \{s_i \mid i \in \{1, \dots, n\} \cup \{0\} \cup \{1\}\}$ (for fixed $n \in \mathbb{N}$) be the "Cuntz"-semigroup. Then $s^*is_j = \delta_{ij}$.

Recall that U_n , the universal C^* -algebra generatd by \tilde{S}_1 and \tilde{S}_n satisfying $\tilde{S}_i^*\tilde{S}_j = \delta_{ij}1$ and therefore $\sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{S}_i\tilde{S}_i^* = 1$.

So we get a quotient homomorphism

$$C_0^*(S) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_n,$$

but this is not a C^* -homomorphism.

$C_0^*(S)$ is a universal C^* -algebra generated by s_1, \dots, s_n satisfying $s_i^*s_j = \delta_{ij}1$.

Observe: $C_0^*(S)$ is sometimes called **Toerly**-Cuntz. We have C^* -algebra and \mathcal{T}_n and $K \hookrightarrow \mathcal{T}_n \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_n$.

Example 12.17 Let $n = 1$. Then S is an invertible semigroup generated by s with with $\gamma + 1$ and $s^*s = 1j$. This is ...

... isomorphic to an inverse semigroup generated by the left-shift $s \in \mathcal{B}(\ell^2)$.

... isomorphic $\{s^n t^n \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Also $C(S) \simeq T$ (Toeplitz C^* -algebra) $= C^*(s) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\ell^2\mathbb{N})$. with s the Shift.

Observe \mathcal{O}_1 as the universal C^* -algebra generated by u satisfying $u^*u = zuu^* = 1$, so this is the universal C^* -algebra gerated by a normal element, so it is abelian and isomorphic to $C^*(Z) \simeq C(\mathbb{S}^1)$. So we get $K \hookrightarrow T \rightarrow C(\mathbb{S}^1)$.

Example 12.18 (Graph algebras) Let $E = (E^1 \xrightarrow[\pi]{s} E^0)$ with vertices E^0 and edges E^1 , where the starting point of edge $e \in E^1$ is $s(e) \in E^0$ and its endpoint is $\pi(e)$.

Then $C^*(E)$ is a universal C^* -algebra generated by pairwise orthogonal projections $(p_v)_{v \in E^0}$, so $p_v \cdot p_w = \delta_{v,w}p_v$ and $p_v^* = p_v$, and partial isometries $(S_e)_{e \in E^1}$, so $S_e S_e^* S_e = S_e$, satisfying

$$(i) \quad s_e^* s_f = \delta_{e,f} p_{\pi(e)}.$$

$$(ii) \quad p_{s(e)} S_e = S_e.$$

$$(iii) \quad \sum_{s(e)=v} S_e S_e^* = p_v \text{ whenever this makes sense, so } 0 < |\{s \in C^*(E) \mid s^{-1}\}| < \infty.$$

Mini-Example: We have 1 vertex and n self-edges ("petals"). Then $C^*(E_n)$, the universal C^* -algebra is generated by the single projections p_v and partial isometries s_1, \dots, s_n satisfying $s_i^* s_j = \delta_{ij} p_v$, $p_v \cdot s_i = s_i$ and $\sum s_i s_i^* = p_v$.

So p_v acts as a unit on the s_i , and (i) and (ii) imply that p_v is already the unit of $C^*(E_n)$.

Also $C^*(E_n)$ is the universal unital C^* -algebra satisfying $s_i^* s_j = \delta_{ij} 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n s_i s_i^* = 1$, so it is the Cuntz-algebra.

In general: $C^*(E)$ is a quotient of the inverse semigroup C^* -algebra $C^*(S_E)$, where S_E is a $*$ -semigroup of $C^*(E)$ generated by p_v, s_e for $v \in E^0$ and $e \in E^1$.

Observe: $S_E = \{s_\alpha s_\beta^* \mid \alpha, \beta \text{ paths in } E, \pi(\alpha) = \pi(\beta)\} \cup \{0\}$.

12.1 C^* -algebras of semilattices

Definition 12.19 A *semilattice* is a commutative inverse semigroup E with $e^2 = e$ for all $e \in E$.

Proposition 12.20 Let E be a semilattice. Then $C^*(E) \simeq C_0(\hat{E})$ where $\hat{E} = \{\chi : E \rightarrow \{0, 1\}\}$ endowed with the pointwise convergence topology.

PROOF: Since E is commutative, so is $C^*(E)$. Therefore, $C^*(E) \simeq C_0(X)$ where $X := \Omega(C^*(E)) = \{\chi : C^*(E) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\}$ with the pointwise convergence topology. So we only need to show $X \simeq \hat{E}$. But this follows from the universal property of $C^*(E)$, as applying it to \mathbb{C} gives a bijection $\{\chi : E \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \chi \text{ non-negative homomorphism}\} \rightarrow \Omega(C^*(E))$ where χ is mapped to $\tilde{\chi}(\sum a_e \delta_e) = \sum a_e \chi(e)$. Now, since $e = e^* = e^2$ for all $e \in E$, $\chi(e) = \chi(e^*) = \overline{\chi(e)} = \chi(e)^2$, so $\chi(e) \in \{0, 1\}$, as 0, 1 are the projections in \mathbb{C} . This shows $\Omega(C^*(E)) \simeq \hat{E}$.

Topology: $\tilde{X}_i \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with the weak- $*$ -topology iff $\tilde{\chi}_i(a) \rightarrow \tilde{\chi}(a)$ for all $a \in C^*(E)$ iff $\tilde{\chi}_i(a) \rightarrow \tilde{\chi}(a)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{C}[E] \subseteq C^*(E)$ iff $\chi_i(e) \rightarrow \chi(e)$ for all $e \in E$. \square

Example 12.21 Take (\mathbb{N}, \min) , that is $e \cdot f = \min\{e, f\}$. This is a semilattice. We want to find its C^* -algebra $C^*(\mathbb{N}, \min) \simeq C_0(\widehat{(\mathbb{N}, \min)})$. Let $\chi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be a character of (\mathbb{N}, \min) (a non-zero homomorphism). If there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\chi(n_0) = 1$, then $\chi(n) = 1$ for all $n \geq n_0$, otherwise $1 = \chi(n_0) = \chi(nn_0) = \chi(n) \cdot \chi(n_0) = 0 \cdot 1$. So any character χ of (\mathbb{N}, \min) can be uniquely identified as χ_n where $n = \min\{n_0 \mid \chi(n_0) = 1\}$ and therefore $\widehat{(\mathbb{N}, \min)} = \{\chi_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \simeq \mathbb{N}$.

To see the topology, observe that given $e \in E$ the sets $U_e = \{\chi \in \hat{E} \mid \chi(e) = 1\}$ and $U_e^c = \{\chi \in \hat{E} \mid \chi(e) = 0\}$ are both open and closed in \hat{E} (indeed, U_e is even compact). Moreover, as $U_e \cap U_f = U_{ef}$ and $U_{e, f_1, \dots, f_n} := U \cap U_{f_1}^c \cap \dots \cap U_{f_n}^c$ for $e, f_1, \dots, f_n \in E$ forms a basis for the topology on \hat{E} .

So, if we view $\hat{E} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^E \simeq \mathcal{P}(E)$. The topology is the product topology from $\{0, 1\}^E$ (for $\{0, 1\}$ with the discrete topology).

We call spaces that have a basis of open compact subsets totally disconnected (f.e. discrete spaces).

Back to the example: We have $U_n = \{\chi \mid \chi(n) = 1\} = \{\chi_0, \dots, \chi_n\} \simeq [0, n] \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and $U_n^c = \{\chi_{n+1}, \dots\} \simeq [n+1, \infty] \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Then $U_n \cap U_{n-1}^c = \{\chi_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.

So $(\mathbb{N}, \min) \simeq \mathcal{N}$ with the discrete topology and $C^*(\mathbb{N}, \min) \simeq C_0(\mathbb{N}) = c_0$.

Example 12.22 Take $E = (\mathbb{N}, \max)$. Here $\hat{E} = \{\chi_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ also, but with $\chi_n(m) = 1$ if $m \leq n$. Then $U_n = \{\chi_n, \chi_{n+1}, \dots\} \simeq [n, \infty) \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and $U_n^c = \{\chi_0, \dots, \chi_{n-1}\} = [0, n-1] \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.

Additionally, there exists a character $\chi_\infty \equiv 1$ in \hat{E} . The topology is the discrete topology on $\{\chi_0, \dots, \chi_n, \dots\} \simeq \mathbb{N}$ with the added one-point-compactification of $\chi_\infty \simeq \{\infty\}$. So $\hat{E} \simeq \tilde{\mathbb{N}} = \mathbb{N} \sqcup \{\infty\}$. Therefore, $C^*(\mathbb{N}, \max) \simeq C(\tilde{\mathbb{N}}) \simeq c$, the converging sequences.

Exercise 12.1 Take $E = \{e_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \sqcup \{0\} \simeq \mathbb{N}_0$ with $e_n \cdot e_m = \delta_{n,m} e_n$, so $e_n \perp e_m$ for all $n \neq m$. So $\hat{E} \simeq \mathbb{N}$ discrete.

Oberserve that if $0 \in E$, then we can also look at

$$\hat{E}_0 := \{\chi \in \hat{E} \mid \chi(0) = 0\}$$

and thus $C_0^*(E) \simeq C_0(\hat{E}_0)$.

Remark 12.23 For semilattices the reduced C^* -algebra $C_n^*(E) \simeq C^*(E) \simeq C_0(\hat{E})$ and $C_{n,0}^*(E) \simeq C_0^*(E) \simeq C_0(\hat{E}_0)$.

kk

Remark 12.24 If S is any inverse semigroup we can look at $E = E(S) = \{e \in S \mid e^2 = e\}$ and this is an inverse subgroup of S . One can show that there is a unique embedding $C^*(E) \rightarrow C^*(S)$. For some inverse semigroups, this, together with some group attached to S : The so-called maximum homomorphic group image of S : $G_{\max}(S) = S / \sim$ for $s \sim t \Leftrightarrow \exists e \in E se = te$.

Example 12.25 Take S the Toeplitz inverse semigroup, the ISG generated by the shift operators on $\mathcal{B}(\ell^2 \mathbb{N}) = \{s^n t^m \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ with $t^* = s$. Then $E = E(S) = \{s^n t^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \simeq (\mathbb{N}, \max)$.

Furthermore, $C^*(S) = \tilde{I}$

Remark 12.26 S is called e -unitary if for any $e \in E = E(S)$ and $s \in S$ we have $e \leq s \Rightarrow s \in E$ (observe that $s \leq t$ in S if by definition $ts^*s = s \Leftrightarrow ss^*t = s \Leftrightarrow \exists e \in E te = s$).

For an E -unitary inverse semigroup we get an exact sequence $E \rightarrow S \rightarrow G_{\max}(S) =: G$. Moreover, $S \simeq E \rtimes_{\Theta} G$.

Semidirect product via a canonical "partial" action of G on E .

13 Groupoid- C^* -Algebras

Definition 13.1 A **groupoid** is a (small) category where all morphisms (arrows) are invertible. Hence a groupoid consists of a set G^0 (objects / units) and a set G^1 (morphisms / arrows), sometimes just called G , and functions $s, r : G^1 \rightarrow G^0$ (source / range) as well as $\text{id} : G^0 \rightarrow G^1, x \mapsto \text{id}_x$, a multiplication $m : G^2 \rightarrow G^1, (g, h) \mapsto g \cdot h$ where $G^2 = \{(g, h) \mid s(g) = r(h)\} \subseteq G^1 \times G^1$ and an inversion map $G^1 \rightarrow G^1, g \mapsto g^{-1}$ where g, g^{-1} can be multiplied from both sides and $g^{-1}g = 1_{s(g)}$ and $gg^{-1} = 1_{r(g)}$. Furthermore, we demand

- $s(g \cdot h) = s(h)$ and $r(g \cdot h) = r(g)$.
- **Associativity:** $(g \cdot h) \cdot k = g \cdot (h \cdot k)$ for $(g, h), (h, k) \in G^2$.
- $g \cdot 1_{s(g)} = g$ and $1_{r(g)} \cdot g = g$.

Remark 13.2 Notice $gg^{-1}g = g$.

Usually, we just write G for G^1 and we identify $G^0 \hookrightarrow G^1 = G$ via $x \mapsto \text{id}_x$, so $G^0 \subseteq G$.

Definition 13.3 A topological Groupoid is a groupoid where G^0, G^1 are topological spaces and all maps $s, r, \text{id}, \text{inv}, m$ are continuous. We say that G is a etale (or r -discrete), if s, r are local homeomorphisms. E.g., $s : G^1 \rightarrow G^0$ a local homeomorphism means that for all $g \in G^1$ there is an open $U \subseteq G^1$, $g \in U$ such that $s(U)$ is open in G^0 and $s|_U : U \rightarrow s(U)$ is a homeomorphism on its image.

Remark 13.4 If a groupoid is etale, $G_x := \{g \in G = G^1 \mid s(g) = x\}$ and also $G^x = \{g \in G \mid r(g) = x\}$ are discrete.

Example 13.5 (i) Let Γ be a discrete group. Then Γ can be viewed as an etale groupoid with only one unit (object): $G^1 = \Gamma$, $G^0 = \{1_\Gamma\}$. We consider the group elements as arrows on this unit. This is etale because it is discrete.

(ii) Let X be a topological space. Then X can be viewed as an etale groupoid with units $G^0 = X$ and $G^1 = \{1_x \mid x \in X\}$ (a topological copy of X) with $1_x \cdot 1_y = 1_x$ if and only if $x = y$, otherwise x, y are not multiplicative. We also have $s(1_x) = r(1_x) = x$ and $1_x^{-1} = 1_x$.

In this case, the source and range maps $s, r : G^1 \rightarrow G^0$ are already homeomorphisms.

(iii) Let X be a topological space and $R \subseteq X \times X$ an equivalence relation. Then we can view R as a topological groupoid: $G^1 = R$, $G^0 = X$. Define: $s : G^1 \rightarrow G^0 = X$, $(x, y) \mapsto y$ and $p(x, y) = x$. Also $\text{id} : X \rightarrow R$, $x \mapsto (x, x)$ as well as $(x, y) \cdot (y, z) = (x, z)$ and $(x, y)^{-1} = (y, x)$.

So R is a topological.

(iv) Consider Gropu actions. Let $\Theta \in P \in \text{Homeo}(X)$. Then $G(x, g, y) \in X \times_p P$ and $y = \Theta_g(x) = g \cdot x$ and $\frac{1}{g}$, so $G^1 = \{(x, g, y) \in X \times \hat{I} \mid g \circ \text{com}\}$. Also, $(x, g_1, y) \cdot (x, g_2, y) = (x, g_1 g_2, y)$.

With the topology incuded from the product Topology we have $X \times T \times X$. G is an etale groupoid and $U_g := \{(x, y, y) \in\}$ with local homeomorphism $(x, y, y) \mapsto (x, y)$.

13.1 Relation to inverse semigroups

Theorem 13.6 Let G be an etale groupoid. Then

$$\text{Bis}(G) := \{U \subseteq G \mid U \text{ open, } s|_U \text{ homöo}\}$$

Define $U, V \in B_x(G)$ with $U \cdot V = \{g \cdot h \mid g \in U, h \in V\}$ and $U^{-1} = \{g^{-1} \mid g \in U\}$.

Then $\text{Bis}(G)$ is an inverse semigroup with operators $U^* = U^{-1}$ and

$$UU^*U = U = \{gh^{-1}k \mid g, h, k \in U\} = \{gg^{-1} \mid g, k \in U\} = \{k \mid k \in U\} = U$$

where $s(g) = s(h)$. So we can identify etale groupoids with ISGs by $G \mapsto \text{Bis}(G)$ (f.e. by taking a semidirect product.)

Now to C^* -algebras.

Theorem 13.7 Let G be an etale, locally compact Hausdorff groupoid and $C^*(G) = \overline{C_c(G)}^{\|\cdot\|_{C^*}}$. Consider the vector space $C_c(G) = \{f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \equiv c, \text{supp}(f) \text{ compact}\}$. Then $\delta_h \cdot \delta_k = \delta_{hk}$ if $s(h) = r(k)$, or 0 otherwise, and $\delta_g^* = \delta_{g^{-1}}$. But his only works if G is discrete, otherwise $\delta_x \notin C_c(G)$. Furthermore; $\delta_g(h) = 1$ if $g = h$ and 0 otherwise.

For $\xi, \eta \in C_c(G)$ define

$$i(\xi \cdot \eta)(g) = \sum_{g=h \cdot k} \xi(h)\eta(k) = \sum_{r(h)=\pi(g)} \xi(h) \cdot \eta(h^{-1}g) = \sum_{h \in G^{r(g)}} \xi(h)\eta(h^{-1}g)$$

and $\eta^*(g) = \overline{\xi(g^{-1})}$.

We need to check: $\xi \cdot \eta$ is well defined and this sum is finite. The sum is finite as $G^{r(g)}$ is discrete and $\text{supp}(\xi)$ is compact, so the intersection (= all non-zero summands) is finite. To see $\xi \cdot \eta \in C_c(G)$:

(i) For every $\xi \in C_c(G)$ $\text{supp}(\xi)$ is a compact subset of $\bigcup_{U \in \text{Bis}(G)} U$, so $\text{supp}(\xi) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_i$ for some $U_i \in \text{Bis}(G)$. By partition and Uryson, we have $\eta = \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$ and $\text{supp}(\xi_i) \subseteq U_i$.

(ii) If $\xi, \eta \in C_c(G)$, then $\text{supp}(\xi) \subseteq U \in \text{Bis}(G)$ and $\text{supp}(\eta) \subseteq V \in (\text{Bis})(G)$, then

$$(\xi \cdot \eta)(g) = \begin{cases} \xi(h)\eta(k) & h \in U, k \in V, hk = g \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

so $\xi \cdot \eta \in C_c(G)$ (it is continuous and has compact support), and $\text{supp}(\xi \cdot \eta) \subseteq U \cdot V$.

Theorem 13.8 There is a largest C^* -Norm on $C_c(G)$. Define $C^*(G) = \overline{C_c(G)}^{\|\cdot\|}$.

Example 13.9

(i) Γ a group, then $C^*(\Gamma) = \overline{\mathbb{C}(\Gamma)}^{\|\cdot\|}$.

(ii) X locally compact Hausdorff. Take $G = X = G^0$ (only units). For $C_c(X) \ni \xi, \eta$ we have $yz = x$ only for $y = z = x$, so

$$\xi \cdot \eta(x) = \sum_{xy=z} \xi(y)\eta(z) = \xi(x)\eta(x)$$

so $C^*(X) = C_0(X)$ and $C_K(X) = \{\eta \in C_c(X) \mid \text{supp}(\eta) \subseteq K\} \subseteq C_c(X)$.

(iii) Take $R \subseteq X \times X$ and the full equivalence relation on a discrete X , so $x \sim y$ for all $x, y \in X$. Then $C_c(R) = \{\delta_{x,y} \mid (x, y) \in R\}$ and

$$\delta_{(x,y)} \cdot \delta_{(z,w)} = \begin{cases} \delta_{x,w} & y = z \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $\delta_{(x,y)}^* = \delta_{(y,x)}$. Illegible...

(iv) Take a group action. There are many cases!