# Introduction to Operator Algebras

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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  $\overline{V}$  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  $f : X \to [0,1]$  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  $f: K \to \mathbb{C}$  continuous. Then there exists a continuous  $\tilde{f}: X \to \mathbb{C}$  such that  $\tilde{f}|_K = f$ .

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

**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:  $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$ ,  $(a,b) \mapsto a \cdot b$ . So

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

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  $1 = 1_{\mathscr{A}} \in \mathscr{A}$  such that  $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$  for all  $a \in \mathscr{A}$ .

#### Example 1.2

- (i)  $\mathbb{C}$ , or more generally  $\mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{C} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{C}$ , is an algebra.
- (ii) Say X is any set; let  $\mathbb{C}^X = \{f : X \to \mathbb{C}\}$  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  $C(X) = \{f : X \to \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^X$  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  $L(V) := \{T : V \to VT \text{ linear operator}\}$  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  $S \times S \to S$ , 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  $\|\cdot\|$ :  $\mathcal{A} \to [0,\infty)$  satisfying  $\|a \cdot b\| \le \|a\| \cdot \|b\|$ . 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  $\mathcal{L}(V) = \{T \in L(V) \mid T \text{ is bounded/continouus}\}$  with  $\|T\| := \sup_{\|v\| \le 1} \|T(v)\| < \infty$  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  $\infty$ ,

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

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  $\{x : |f(x)| \geq \varepsilon\}$ ) 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  $\{x \mid |f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\}$  is compact. Choose  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ . Then,  $\{x \mid |f(x)| = |1| \ge \frac{1}{2}\} = X$  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  $\mathscr A$  with an involution \* :  $\mathscr A \to \mathscr A$  satisfying

- $(i) (a + \lambda b)^* = a^* + \overline{\lambda}b^*$
- (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  $\|a \cdot b\| \le \|a\| \cdot \|b\|$  in all normed algebras. Applying this to a  $C^*$ -algebra we get  $\|a \cdot a^*\| \le \|a^*\| \cdot \|a\|$ . If  $\mathscr A$  is a  $C^*$ -algebra, then  $\|a\|^2 = \|a \cdot a^*\| \le \|a^*\| \cdot \|a\|$ , so  $\|a\| = \|a^*\|$ .

#### Example 3.4

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

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

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

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

is also a  $C^*$ -algebra.

Observation:  $L^2(X,\mu) = \mu$ -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  $\mathcal{A}(d) = \{ f \in \mathbb{C}(\mathbb{D}) \mid \text{ analytic in } \mathbb{D}^{\circ} \}$ 

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  $\mathbb{D}^{\circ}$ . From this, it follows that  $\mathscr{A}(\mathbb{D})$  is closed in  $C(\mathbb{D})$ , therefore a Banach algebra. It is also a Banach-\*-algebra with, but  $f^* = \overline{f}$  (point wise) is not possible, as  $z \mapsto \overline{z}$  is not analytic. Thus, we have to choose  $f^*(z) = f(\overline{z})$ . But  $\mathscr{A}(\mathbb{D})$  is not a  $C^*$ -algebra, as  $\|f^*f\|_{\infty} \neq \|f\|_{\infty}^2$  for some  $f \in \mathscr{A}(\mathbb{D})$ .

(v) A non-commutative example: Let H be a Hilbert space and  $B(H) = \mathcal{L}(H) = \{T : H \to H \mid T \text{bounded, continuous, linear}\}$  and  $\|H\| \coloneqq \sup_{\|z\| < 1} \|T(z)\| < \infty$ . 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

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

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  $C^*(S) \subseteq \mathcal{L}(H) = \operatorname{span}\{S_i \mid S_i \in S \cup S^*, i \leq n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

**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

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

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

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

**Example 3.8 (Cuntz algebras)** Take again  $\mathfrak{H} = \{(\lambda_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}_0} \mid \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\lambda_n|^2 < \infty\}$  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  $S_i^*S_i = \mathrm{id}_{\mathfrak{H}}$ , to subspaces of  $\mathfrak{H}$ . Notice:  $S_i^*S_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$  as well as  $S_1S_1^* + S_2S_2^* = \mathrm{id}_{\mathfrak{H}}$ . Define  $\mathcal{O}_2 = C^*(S_1, S_2) = \overline{\mathrm{span}}\{S_{\alpha}S_{\beta}^* \mid \alpha, \beta \text{ finite words in } \{1, 2\}\}$ . For example, for  $\alpha = 121211$  we have  $S_{\alpha} = S_1S_2S_1S_2S_1^2$ .  $\mathcal{O}_2$  is called the **Cuntz algebra**. More generally, one can define  $\mathcal{O}_3, \mathcal{O}_4, \ldots$  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  $A_{\theta} = \overline{\operatorname{span}} \{ \sum_{n,m \in \mathbb{Z}}^{\text{finite}} a_{n,m} U^n V^m \mid a_{n,m} \in \mathbb{C} \}.$ 

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

**Example 3.10** ( $C^*$ -algebras of groups) Let G be a (discrete) group. Look at  $\mathfrak{H} = \ell^2(G) = \ell^2(G)$  $\{(a_g)_{g\in G}\mid \sum_{g\in G}|a_g|^2<\infty\}$  (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  $\lambda_g$  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  $U: G \to \mathcal{L}(H), g \mapsto U_g$  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**  $C_{\text{max}}^*(G)$ , a full  $C^*$ -algebra of G.

#### Remark 3.11

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

## 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  $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$ such that  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$  for any  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ .

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

If  $A, \mathcal{B}$  are Banach algebras, then usually we want to have **continuous** homomorphisms. Even more, we usually ask for **contractive** homomorphisms  $\varphi: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$ , (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  $\chi:\mathcal{A}\to\mathbb{C}$ .

**Example 4.3** Take any subalgebra  $\mathscr{A} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^X$ . Take  $x_0 \in X$  and set  $\chi_{x_0} := \operatorname{ev}_{x_0} : \mathscr{A} \to \mathbb{C}, f \mapsto$  $f(x_0)$ . 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 A and 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  $I \subset A$  such that  $I \cdot A \subseteq I$ ,  $A \cdot I \subseteq I$ (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  $I \leq A$ .

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

**Example 4.7** If  $I \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  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  $I \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  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

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

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

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

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  $\operatorname{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \{a_0 X^0 \mid a_0 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}\}$  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  $\operatorname{inv}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A} \setminus \{0\}$ . 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

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

and

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

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

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

and

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

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  $\mathbb{C}[X] \to \mathcal{A}, p \mapsto p(a)$  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  $\lambda_0$  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  $\lambda$  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  $\lambda_i$  are exactly the numbers satisfying  $p(\lambda) = \mu$ . Thus,  $\mu$  is in  $\sigma(p(a))$  if it is in the image of  $\sigma(a)$  under p. Therefore, we conclude  $\sigma(p(a)) = p(\sigma(a))$ .

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  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}$  by the characteristic property of Banach spaces. Hence,  $b := \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{N} a^n \in \mathcal{A}$ . No, if  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

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

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

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

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Recall from calculus that  $\frac{d}{dx}\frac{1}{x}=-\frac{1}{x^2}$ . Also recall that  $f:U\overset{\text{open}}{\subseteq}X\to Y$  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

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

PROOF: Take  $a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ . If  $b \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $||a-b|| < ||a^{-1}||^{-1}$ . From this, we have  $||ba^{-1}-1|| = ||ba^{-1} - aa^{-1}|| = ||(b-a)a^{-1}|| \le ||b-a|| \cdot ||a^{-1}|| < 1$ . 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,

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

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

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

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

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

and thus

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

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

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

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  $\lambda$  yields  $\lambda - a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ . Thus,  $\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid |\lambda| > ||a||\} \subseteq \rho(a)$  and thus  $\sigma(a) \subseteq D(0, ||a||)$ .

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

PROOF: This follows from the following general result: If  $g: U \subseteq X \to Y$  and  $f: V \subseteq Y \to Z$  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  $(f \circ g)'(x_0) = f'(g(x_0))g'(x_0).$ 

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  $R_a : \rho(a) \subseteq \mathbb{C} \to \mathcal{A}, \lambda \mapsto (a - \lambda)^{-1} = \frac{1}{a - \lambda}$  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

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

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  $R_a:\mathbb{C}\to\mathscr{A}$  is bounded outside  $\overline{B(0,2\|a\|}$ . Since  $R_a$  is continuous, it is bounded on  $\mathbb{C} \to \mathcal{A}$ . Let  $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}^*$  be a bounded linear functional in  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{C})$ . Thus,  $\varphi$  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  $\varphi$ . Hahn-Banach shows  $(a-\lambda)^{-1} = a^{-1}$  for all  $\lambda$ , proving  $a - \lambda = a$  for all  $a, \lambda$ . This is a contradiction.

**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,  $inv(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{A} \setminus \{0\}$ . 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  $a = \lambda \cdot 1$ .

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

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

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

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

Moreover, we get a short exact sequence

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 6 Spectral Radius

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

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

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  $0 \le \pi(a) \le ||a||$ .

#### Example 6.2

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

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

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

Theorem 6.3 (Beurling-Gelfand) Let A be a Banach algebra, then

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

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

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

and therefore

$$\pi(a) \le \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

We prove now that  $\limsup_{n\to\infty}\|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}}\leq \pi(a)$ . Set  $\Delta:=B\Big(0,\frac{1}{\pi(a)}\Big)$ . Where per convention we set  $\frac{1}{\pi(a)} = \infty$  if  $\pi(a) = 0$ . If  $\lambda \in \Delta$ , then  $1 - \lambda a \in \text{inv}(\mathcal{A})$  (because  $|\lambda| < \frac{1}{\pi(a)}$  implies  $|\lambda^{-1}| > \pi(a)$ 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  $\varphi \in \mathscr{A}^*$ . Then  $f : \Delta \to \mathbb{C}, \lambda \mapsto \varphi((1 - \lambda a)^{-1})$  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

$$|\lambda| < \frac{1}{\|a\|} \le \frac{1}{\pi(a)}$$

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

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

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

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

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

Letting  $\lambda < \frac{1}{\pi(a)}$  yields  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} \|a^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} \le \pi(a)$ .

**Example 6.4** Let  $A = C^1([0,1]) = \{I \in C[0,1] \mid \exists_{f'(t)} \forall_{t \in [0,1]}, t \mapsto f'(t) \text{ continuous} \}$  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

$$||x^n|| = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |t^n| + \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |nt^{n-1}| = 1 + n$$
$$\pi(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} (1+n)^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$$
$$||x|| = 2$$

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

**Theorem 6.5** Let  $\mathscr{B} \nsubseteq \mathscr{A}$  be an inclusion of unital Banach algebras with  $1 = 1_{\mathscr{A}} = 1_{\mathscr{B}}$ . Then  $\sigma_{\mathscr{A}}(b) \subseteq \sigma_{\mathscr{B}}(b)$  for all  $b \in \mathscr{B}$  and the inclusion may be proper. If  $\sigma_{\mathscr{A}}(b)$  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,  $\iota$  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  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathcal{A}, t \mapsto \exp(ta)$  is the unique solution of

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### Example 7.2

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

$$X \to \Omega(\mathcal{A}), x \mapsto \operatorname{ev}_x$$

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  $\chi : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{C}$  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  $\chi : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{C}$  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  $I \triangleleft \mathcal{A}$  is a maximal ideal and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a unital Banach algebra. Then  $\mathcal{A}/I \simeq \mathbb{C}$  and  $\chi \in \Omega(\mathcal{A})$ .

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

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  $\chi$  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  $a - \chi(a) \cdot 1 \notin \operatorname{inv}(\mathcal{A})$ .

Therefore:  $|\chi(a)| \le \pi(a) \le ||a||$ . So  $||\chi|| \le 1$ . 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  $\chi$  is continuous. Now assume that  $\mathscr A$  is commutative (in addition to unital and Banach). Then we have the mapping

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

- $\varphi$  is injective. If  $\ker(\chi_1) = \ker(\chi_2)$  for  $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in \mathcal{A}$ , 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  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- $\varphi$  is surjective. Take  $I \triangleleft \mathscr{A}$  a maximal ideal. Then  $I = \overline{I}$  because  $\overline{I} \neq \mathscr{A}$ , otherwise  $1 \in \overline{I}$  and since  $\operatorname{inv}(\mathscr{A})$  is open in  $\mathscr{A}$ , we get  $I \cap \operatorname{inv}(\mathscr{A}) \neq \emptyset$ . But then we have an invertible element in the ideal I already, but this implies the contradiction  $I = \mathscr{A}$ . Therefore,  $\mathscr{A}/I$  is a commutative, unital Banach algebra which is simple (I is maximal).

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

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

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

is a character with  $ker(\chi) = I$ .

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

In particular, we can apply this to I = 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  $\mathscr{A}$  a Banach algebra. We can add a unit to receive  $\tilde{\mathscr{A}}$ , which is a Banach algebra. Observe: If  $\chi \in \Omega(\mathscr{A})$ , then there exists a unique  $\tilde{X} \in \Omega(\tilde{\mathscr{A}})$  via  $\tilde{X}(a+\lambda \cdot 1)=\chi(a)+\lambda$ . Thus,  $\|\chi\| \leq \|\tilde{X}\|=1$  (Note that it may still be smaller than 1. See exercises 2023-05-09). In any case,

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

and  $\mathcal{A}^*$  carries the weak \*-topology.  $\varphi_i \to \varphi$  in \*.

**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

$$S := \{ \chi : A \to \mathbb{C} \mid \chi \text{ hom.} \}$$
$$= \Omega(\mathcal{A}) \cup \{0\}$$

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

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

Observation: Given a Banach algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have a homeomorphism

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

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:

- $\mathscr{A}$  is unital and  $a \in \mathscr{A}$ .  $\chi(a \chi(a) \cdot 1) = 0$ , so  $\chi(a) \in \sigma(a)$ , so  $\{\chi(a) \mid x \in \Omega(a)\} \subseteq \sigma(a)$ . Now if  $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$ , consider  $\mathsf{I} := (a - \lambda \cdot 1) \mathscr{A} \triangleleft \mathscr{A}$  if  $\mathscr{A}$  is commutative. By Zorns Lemma, we get  $I \subseteq J \triangleleft \mathscr{A}$  with  $J = \ker(\chi)$  for some  $\chi \in \Omega(\mathscr{A})$ . Thus we have  $a - \lambda \cdot 1 \in \mathsf{I} \subseteq J = \ker(\chi)$  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:

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