## **Contents**

Contents			i
1	Vec	tor Spaces, Algebras, and Normed Spaces	1
	1.1	Vector Spaces	1
	1.2	Algebras	9

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### Chapter 1

# Vector Spaces, Algebras, and Normed Spaces

For the entirety of this chapter assume F to be  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ .

### § 1.1. Vector Spaces

**Definition 1.1.1.** A vector space (or linear space) over F is a nonempty set V equipped with two operations:

$$V \times V \xrightarrow{+} V$$
 defined by  $(v, w) \mapsto v + w$   
 $F \times V \to V$  defined by  $(\alpha, v) \mapsto \alpha v$ 

satisfying:

- (1) (V, +) is an abelian group:
  - (i) u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w for all  $u, v, w \in V$ ;
  - (ii) there exists  $0_V$  such that  $v + 0_V = 0_V + v = v$  for all  $v \in V$ ;
  - (iii) for all  $v \in V$ , there exists  $w \in V$  satisfying  $v + w = w + v = 0_V$ ;
  - (iv) v + w = w + v for all  $v, w \in V$ ;
- (2)  $\alpha(v + w) = \alpha v + \alpha w$  for all  $\alpha \in F$ ,  $v, w \in V$ ;
- (3)  $\alpha(\beta \nu) = (\alpha \beta) \nu$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in F, \nu \in V$ ;
- (4)  $1_{\mathsf{F}} \mathsf{v} = \mathsf{v}$  for all  $\mathsf{v} \in \mathsf{V}$ .

It can be shown that the vector  $0_V$  is unique, the additive inverse in (iii) is unique (which we denote as  $-\nu$ ), that  $0\nu = 0_V$ , and  $(-1)\nu = -\nu$ .

Exercise 1.1.1. Show (iv) follows from the other axioms.

**Exercise 1.1.2.** Show 
$$nv = \underbrace{v + v + ... + v}_{n \text{ times}}$$
 for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ .

It can be shown that a subspace is a vector space in its own right.

**Example 1.1.1.** Let  $\{W_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of vector spaces. Then  $\bigcap_{i\in I} W_i$  is also a vector space.

**Example 1.1.2.** Planes and lines through the origin are subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Definition 1.1.2.** Let V be a vector space and  $S \subseteq V$  a subset.

- (1) A linear combination from S is a finite sum  $\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \nu_j$  with  $\alpha_j \in F$ ,  $\nu_j \in S$ .
- (2) The linear span of S is:

$$\operatorname{span}(S) := \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \nu_{j} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, \alpha_{j} \in F, \nu_{j} \in S \right\}.$$

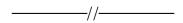
**Exercise 1.1.3.** Show that  $span(S) \subseteq V$  is a subspace and:

$$\mathrm{span}(S) = \bigcap \{ W \mid S \subseteq W, W \text{ is a subspace} \},\$$

that is, span(S) is the smallest subspace of V containing S.

**Definition 1.1.3.** Let V be a vector space and  $S \subseteq V$  a subset.

- (1) S is spanning for V if span(S) = V.
- (2) S is independent if, given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in F$ ,  $\nu_1, ..., \nu_n \in S$ , then  $\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \nu_j = 0$  implies  $\alpha_j = 0$  for all j.



Our goal is to show that every vector space admits a basis. As such, recall the following definitions from a standard course in Real Analysis.

**Definition 1.1.4.** An *ordering* on a set X is a relation  $R \subseteq X \times X$  on X that is reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric. We write xRy as  $x \leq_R y$ . The pair  $(X, \leq_R)$  is called an *ordered set*. An ordering  $\leq$  on X is called *total* (or *linear*) if for all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ .

Note that if  $(X, \leq)$  is an ordered set and  $Y \subseteq X$  is a subset, then  $(Y, \leq)$  is an ordered set as well.

**Definition 1.1.5.** Let  $(X, \leq)$  be an ordered set and  $Y \subseteq X$ . An *upper bound* for Y is an element  $u \in X$  with  $u \geq y$  for all  $y \in Y$ . An element  $m \in X$  is called *maximal* if  $x \in X$ ,  $x \geq m$  implies x = m.

**Lemma 1.1.1** (Zorn's Lemma). Let  $(X, \leq_X)$  be an ordered set. Suppose every subset  $Y \subseteq X$  for which  $(Y, \leq_X)$  is totally ordered has an upper bound in X. Then X admits a maximal element.

The proof of Zorn's Lemma is outside the interest of this text.

**Theorem 1.1.2.** Every vector space admits a basis. Moreover, every independent set is contained in a basis.

*Proof.* Let  $S \subseteq V$  be linearly independent. Define:

$$\mathfrak{T}(S) = \{ T \subseteq V \mid S \subseteq T, T \text{ linearly independent } \}.$$

Let  $\mathfrak{C} \subseteq \mathfrak{T}(S)$  be a totally ordered subset. Set  $R = \bigcup_{T \in \mathfrak{C}} T$ . Clearly  $R \supseteq S$ . Assume  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} \nu_{j} = 0$ , where  $\alpha_{j} \in F$  and  $\nu_{j} \in R$ . Since  $\mathfrak{C}$  is totally ordered, there exists  $T_{0} \in \mathfrak{C}$  with  $\nu_{j} \in T_{0}$  for all j = 1, ..., n. Since  $T_{0}$  is independent,  $\alpha_{j} = 0$  for all j = 1, ..., n. Thus R is independent as well. Whence R is an upper bound for  $\mathfrak{C}$ . By Zorn's Lemma,  $\mathfrak{T}(S)$  admits a maximal element, call it R.

Claim: B is a basis for V. Suppose towards contradiction it's not, then there exists  $v_0 \in V \setminus \text{span}(B)$ . Consider  $B \cup \{v_0\}$  and let  $\alpha_0 v_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j v_j = 0_V$ . If  $\alpha_0 \neq 0$ , then  $\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j v_j = -\alpha_0 v_0$ , giving  $v_0 \in \text{span}(B)$  which is a contradiction. If  $\alpha_0 = 0$ , then  $\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j v_j = 0_V$ . Since B is independent,  $\alpha_j = 0$  for all j = 1, ..., n. Thus  $B \cup \{v_0\}$  is independent, contradicting the maximality of B. Whence B is a basis for V.

**Theorem 1.1.3.** If  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are bases for V, then  $card(B_1) = card(B_2)$ .

**Definition 1.1.6.** If V is a vector space, its *dimension* is the cardinality of any of its bases.

**Corollary 1.1.4.** If B is a basis for V, then every  $v \in V$  can be written  $v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_k \beta_k$ ,  $\alpha_k \in F$ ,  $b_k \in B$  in a unique way.

**Theorem 1.1.5.** Let V be a linear space and  $B \subseteq V$  a subset. The following are equivalent:

- (1) B is a basis for V;
- (2) B is a maximal element in  $\mathfrak{T} = \{T \subseteq V \mid T \text{ independent}\};$
- (3) B is a minimal element in  $\mathfrak{S} = \{S \subseteq V \mid S \text{ spans } V\};$

**Definition 1.1.7.** Let  $\{V_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of vector spaces over a field F.

(1) The product of  $\{V_i\}_{i\in I}$  is denoted:

$$\prod_{i \in I} V_i := \{(v_i)_{i \in I} \mid v_i \in V_i\}.$$

(2) The co-product (or sum) is denoted

$$\bigoplus_{i\in I} V_i := \left\{ (\nu_i)_{i\in I} \mid \nu_i \in V_i, \, \mathrm{supp}\big((\nu_i)_{i\in I}\big) < \infty \right\}.$$

#### Exercise 1.1.4.

(1) Show that  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$  equipped with pointwise operations:

$$(v_i)_{i \in I} + (w_i)_{i \in I} = (v_i + w_i)_{i \in I}$$
  
 $\alpha(v_i)_{i \in I} = (\alpha v_i)_{i \in I}$ 

is a linear space.

(2) Show that  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$  is a subspace of  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ .

**Proposition 1.1.6.** Let V be a vector space over F and W  $\subseteq$  V. The (additive, abelian) quotient group V/W can be made into a vector space by defining multiplication by scalars as  $\alpha(v + W) = \alpha v + W$  for all  $\alpha \in F$ ,  $v + W \in V/W$ .

#### Example 1.1.3.

- (1) The set  $F^n = \{(x_1, ..., x_n) \mid x_j \in F\}$  with component-wise operations is a vector space.
- (2) The set  $M_{n,m}(F) = \{(a_{ij}) \mid a_{ij} \in F\}$  with linear operations is a vector space.
- (3) Let  $\Omega$  be a nonempty set. Then  $\mathcal{F}(\Omega, F) = \{f \mid f : \Omega \to F\}$  with pointwise operations is a vector space.
- (4) The set  $\ell_{\infty}(\Omega, F) = \{ f \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega, F) \mid ||f||_{\mathfrak{u}} < \infty \}$  with pointwise operations is a vector space.

**Exercise 1.1.5.** Show  $\ell_{\infty}(\Omega, F) \subseteq \mathcal{F}(\Omega, F)$  is a subspace.

(5) Let  $K \subseteq V$  be a convex subset of a vector space V, that is, for all  $v, w \in K$  and  $t \in [0,1]$ , then  $(1-t)v + tw \in K$ . A function  $f: K \to F$  is said to be *affine* if  $x,y \in K$  and  $t \in [0,1]$  implies f((1-t)x + ty) = (1-t)f(x) + tf(y). The set  $Aff(K,F) = \{f \in \mathcal{F}(\Omega,F) \mid f \text{ affine}\}$  with pointwise operations is a vector space.

**Exercise 1.1.6.** Show  $Aff(\Omega, F) \subseteq \mathcal{F}(\Omega, F)$  is a subspace.

(6) The set  $C([a,b],F) = \{f : [a,b] \to F \mid f \text{ continuous}\}$  with pointwise operations is a vector space.

**Exercise 1.1.7.** Explain why  $C([a,b],F) \subseteq \ell_{\infty}([a,b],F)$  is a subspace.

- (7) Consider the following sequence spaces:
  - $s = \{(a_k)_k \mid a_k \in F\} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{N}, F);$
  - $\ell_{\infty} = \ell_{\infty}(\mathbb{N}, F) = \{(\alpha_k)_k \mid \sup_{k \ge 1} |\alpha_k| < \infty\};$
  - $c = \{(a_k)_k \mid (a_k)_k \text{ converges }\};$
  - $c_0 = \{(a_k)_k \mid (a_k)_k \to 0\};$

- $c_{00} = \{(a_k)_k \mid \text{supp}(a_k)_k < \infty\};$
- $\ell_1 = \{(\alpha_k)_k \mid \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_k| \text{ converges } \}.$

These are all vector spaces with pointwise operations. In fact,  $c_{00} \subseteq c_0 \subseteq c \subseteq$  $\ell_{\infty} \subseteq s$  are all subspaces.

**Exercise 1.1.8.** Show that  $\ell_1 \subseteq c_0$  is a subspace.

- (8) Consider the following continuous function spaces on  $\mathbb{R}$ :
  - $C(\mathbb{R}) = \{f : \mathbb{R} \to F \mid f \text{ continuous } \};$
  - $C_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbb{R}) = C(\mathbb{R}) \cap \ell_{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ :
  - $C_0(\mathbb{R}) = \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \mid \lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = 0 \};$
  - Recall that a function is *compactly supported* if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\alpha > 0$  such that  $|x| \ge \alpha$  implies f(x) = 0. The set of compactly supported functions is denoted  $C_c(\mathbb{R}) = \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \mid f \text{ compactly supported } \}.$

These are all vector spaces with pointwise operations, and  $C_c(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C_0(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq$  $C_b(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C(\mathbb{R})$  are all subspace inclusion.

**Definition 1.1.8.** If V and W are linear spaces over a common field F, a map  $T: V \to W$  is called *linear* if  $T(v_1 + \alpha v_2) = T(v_1) + \alpha T(v_2)$  for all  $v_1, v_2 \in V$  and  $\alpha \in F$ .

**Example 1.1.4.** Let  $A \in M_{m,n}(F)$ . Then  $T_A : F^n \to F^m$  defined by  $T_A(\nu) = A\nu$  is linear. Let  $\{e_1, ..., e_n\}$  be a basis for  $F^n$ . If  $T : F^n \to F^m$  is linear, set:

$$[\mathsf{T}] = \Big(\mathsf{T}(e_1) \ \Big| \ \mathsf{T}(e_2) \ \Big| \ \dots \ \Big| \ \mathsf{T}(e_n)\Big).$$

This gives T(v) = [T]v for all  $v \in F^n$ . In fact, we also have  $[T_A] = A$  and  $T_{[T]} = T$ .

**Example 1.1.5.** The canonical projection is linear:

$$\pi_j: \prod_{i\in I} V_i \to V_j \ \ \text{defined by} \ \ \pi_j\big((\nu_i)_i\big) = \nu_i.$$

We also have that the *coordinate exclusions* are linear:

$$\iota_j: V_j \hookrightarrow \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \ \text{ defined by } \ \iota_j(\nu) = (\nu_i)_i \,, \ \text{where } \ \nu_i = \begin{cases} 0_{\nu}, & i \neq j \\ \nu_j, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The evaluation map is linear as well. For  $s \in S$ , consider:

$$e_s : \mathcal{F}(S, F) \to F$$
 defined by  $e_s(f) = f(s)$ .

**Proposition 1.1.7.** \* Let V be a vector space with basis B. Let W be a vector space and suppose  $\varphi: B \to W$  is a map. Then there exists a unique linear map  $T_{\varphi}: V \to W$  with  $T_{\varphi}(b) = \varphi(b)$  for all  $b \in B$ .

Proof.

**Proposition 1.1.8.** \* Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be linear.

- (1)  $\ker(T) = \{ v \in V \mid T(v) = 0_W \}$  is a linear subspace of V.
- (2)  $\operatorname{im}(T) = \{T(v) \mid v \in V\}$  is a linear subspace of W.
- (3)  $ker(T) = \{0_V\}$  if and only if T is injective.
- (4) im(T) = W if and only if W is surjective.

*Proof.* (1) Let  $v_1, v_2 \in \ker(T)$  and  $\alpha \in F$ . Observe that:

$$T(v_1 + cv_2) = T(v_1) + cT(v_2)$$
  
= 0.

Thus  $v_1 + cv_2 \in \ker(T)$ , giving  $\ker(T)$  as a linear subspace of V.

(2) Let  $w_1, w_2 \in \text{im}(T)$ . Then there exists  $v_1.v_2 \in V$  with  $T(v_1) = w_1$  and  $T(v_2) = w_2$ . We have:

$$w_1 + cw_2 = T(v_1) + cT(v_2)$$
  
=  $T(v_1 + cv_2)$ .

Whence  $w_1 + cw_2 \in \text{im}(T)$ , giving im(T) as a linear subspace of W.

(3) Let  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$ . Suppose  $T(\nu_1) = T(\nu_2)$ . Then  $T(\nu_1) - T(\nu_2) = T(\nu_1 - \nu_2) = 0_W$ . It must be that  $\nu_1 - \nu_2 = 0_W$ , giving  $\nu_1 = \nu_2$ . Thus T is injective. Conversely, suppose T is injective and let  $\nu \in \ker(T)$ . Then  $T(\nu) = 0_W = T(0_V)$ . Hence  $\nu = 0_V$ , establishing  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$ .

$$\square$$

**Proposition 1.1.9.** If  $T: V \to W$  is linear and bijective, then the inverse map  $T^{-1}: W \to V$  is linear.

*Proof.* We have that:

$$\mathsf{T}(\mathsf{T}^{-1}(w_1) + \alpha \mathsf{T}^{-1}(w_2)) = w_1 + \alpha w_2 = \mathsf{T} \circ \mathsf{T}^{-1}(w_1 + \alpha w_2).$$

Applying  $T^{-1}$  to both sides gives the desired result.

**Proposition 1.1.10** (Vector Spaces are Injective). \* Let U, V, W be vector spaces and  $0 \to U \xrightarrow{j} V$  be exact (that is, j is injective). Let  $\phi: U \to W$  be linear. There exists a linear map  $\psi: V \to W$  such that  $\phi = \psi \circ j$ ; i.e., the following diagram commutes:

$$0 \longrightarrow U \xrightarrow{j} V$$

$$\psi \downarrow \psi$$

$$W$$

*Proof.* Let  $\{u_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a basis for U. Claim:  $\{j(u_i)\}_{i\in I}$  is linearly independent. Observe that:

$$0 = \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i j(u_i)$$
$$= j \left( \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i u_i \right).$$

By the injectivity of j, we have that  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i u_i = 0$ , giving  $\alpha_i = 0$  for all  $i \in I$ . Thus  $\{j(u_i)\}_{i \in I}$  is linearly independent. We can extend this set to a basis of V as follows: let

**Proposition 1.1.11** (Vector Spaces are Projective). \* Let U, V, W be vector spaces and  $V \xrightarrow{\pi} U \to 0$  be exact (that is,  $\pi$  is onto). Let  $\phi : W \to U$  be linear. There exists a linear map  $\phi : V \to W$  such that  $\phi = \pi \circ \psi$ ; i.e., the following diagram commutes:

$$V \xrightarrow{\psi} V \xrightarrow{\pi} U \longrightarrow 0$$

Proof.

**Definition 1.1.9.** Let V and W be vector spaces over F. A linear isomorphism between V and W is a bijective linear map  $T: V \to W$ . If such a T exists, we say V and W are linearly isomorphic, and write  $V \cong W$ .

Finite dimensional vector spaces are boring. This is illustrated through the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.1.12.** Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over F. Then  $V \cong W$  if and only if  $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $V \cong W$ . Then there is an isomorphism taking basis of V to a basis of W. Therefore they have the same dimension.

Conversely, if  $\dim(V) = \dim(W) = n$ , then they are each isomorphic to  $F^n$ , giving that they are isomorphic to each other.

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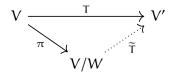
**Example 1.1.6.** Let V be a vector space,  $W \subseteq V$  a subspace. The *natural projection*:

$$\pi: V \to V/W$$
 defined by  $\pi(v) = v + W$ 

is a linear surjective map.

**Theorem 1.1.13** (First Isomorphism Theorem for Vector Spaces). \* Let  $T: V \to V'$  be a linear map and  $W \subseteq V$  a subspace.

(1) If T "kills" W (that is,  $W \subseteq \ker(T)$ ), then there exists a linear map  $\widetilde{T} : V/W \to V'$  with  $\widetilde{T} \circ \pi = T$ ; i.e., the following diagram commutes.



- (2) If ker(T) = W, then  $\widetilde{T}$  is injective.
- (3) If ker(T) = W and im(T) = V', then  $V/W \cong V'$ .

*Proof.* (1) As stipulated, define  $\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}(v+W)=\mathsf{T}(v)$ . We must show that  $\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}$  is well-defined: suppose  $v_1+W=v_2+W$  for some  $v_1,v_2\in\mathsf{V}$ . Then  $v_1=v_2+w$  for some  $w\in\mathsf{W}$ . This gives:

$$\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}(\nu_1 + W) = \widetilde{\mathsf{T}}(\nu_2 + w + W)$$
$$= \widetilde{\mathsf{T}}(\nu_2 + W).$$

Whence  $\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}$  is well-defined. Now given  $v_1 + W, v_2 + W \in V/W$  and  $\alpha \in \mathsf{F}$ , observe that:

$$\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}\big((\nu_1+W)+c(\nu_2+W)\big) = \widetilde{\mathsf{T}}\big((\nu_1+c\nu_2)+W\big)$$

$$= \mathsf{T}(\nu_1+c\nu_2)$$

$$= \mathsf{T}(\nu_1)+c\mathsf{T}(\nu_2)$$

$$= \widetilde{\mathsf{T}}(\nu_1+W)+c\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}(\nu_2+W).$$

Thus  $\widetilde{\mathsf{T}}$  is linear.

**Definition 1.1.10.** Let S be a nonempty set. The free vector space of S is:

$$\mathbb{F}(S) = \{f : S \to F \mid \text{supp}(f) < \infty\}.$$

**Exercise 1.1.9.** Show  $\mathbb{F}(S) \subseteq \mathcal{F}(S, F)$  is a subspace.

**Proposition 1.1.14.** The set  $\{\delta_s \mid s \in S\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{F}(S)$ , where  $\delta_s : S \to F$  is defined by:

$$\delta_s(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t = 0 \\ 0, & \textit{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* If 
$$f \in \mathbb{F}(S)$$
 with  $supp(f) = \{s_1, ..., s_n\}$ , then  $f = \sum_{k=1}^n f(s_k) \delta_{s_k}$ . If  $\sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \delta_{s_k} = 0$ , then for  $j = 1, ..., n$  we have  $0 = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \delta_{s_k}\right)(s_j) = \alpha_j$ .

**Theorem 1.1.15.** \* Given any vector space V and a map (of sets)  $\phi : S \to V$ , there exists a unique linear map  $T_{\phi} : \mathbb{F}(S) \to V$  with  $T_{\phi} \circ \iota = \phi$ , where  $\iota : S \to \mathbb{F}(S)$  is defined by  $\iota(s) = \delta_s$  for all  $s \in S$ . In other words, the following diagram commutes:

Proof.

**Definition 1.1.11.** Let V and W be vector spaces. The set of linear transformations between V and W is  $\mathcal{L}(V, W) = \{T \mid T : V \to W \text{ linear } \}$ . The set of linear functionals is  $V' := \mathcal{L}(V, F)$ .

**Exercise 1.1.10.** Show  $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$  is a vector space.

**Exercise 1.1.11.** Show  $M_{m,n}(F) \cong \mathcal{L}(F^m, F^n)$  by  $a \mapsto T_a : (v \mapsto av)$ .

## § 1.2. Algebras

**Definition 1.2.1.** An *algebra* over F is a linear space A over F equipped with a multiplication operation:

$$A \times A \rightarrow A$$
 defined by  $(a, b) \mapsto ab$ 

satisfying:

- (1) (ab)c = a(bc) for all  $a, b, c \in A$ ;
- (2)  $(\alpha a)b = \alpha(ab) = \alpha(\alpha b)$  for all  $a, b \in A, \alpha \in F$ ;
- (3) a(b+c) = ab + ac for all  $a, b, c \in A$ ;
- (4) (a + b)c = ac + bc for all  $a, b, c \in A$ .

If ab = ba for all  $a, b \in A$  we say that A is *commutative*. If there exists  $1_A \in A$  with  $1_A a = a1_A = a$  for all  $a \in A$  we say A is *unital*.

#### Example 1.2.1.

- (1)  $M_n(F)$  is a noncommutative unital algebra over F under the usual matrix multiplication.
- (2) If V is a vector space over F,  $\mathcal{L}(V)$  is a unital algebra over F. It is noncommutative provided  $\dim(V) > 1$ .
- (3)  $\mathcal{F}(S, F)$  is a unital commutative algebra over F.

#### **Definition 1.2.2.** Let B be a (unital) algebra over F.

- (1) A (unital) *subalgebra* of B is a subspace  $A \subseteq B$  ( $1_B \in A$ ) satisfying the property that if  $\alpha, \alpha' \in A$ , then  $\alpha\alpha' \in A$ .
- (2) An *ideal* of B is a subspace  $I \subseteq B$  with  $b \in B$ ,  $a \in I$  implying  $ba, ab \in I$ .

#### Example 1.2.2.

- (1)  $\ell_{\infty}(\Omega, F) \subseteq \mathcal{F}(\Omega, F)$  is a unital subalgebra.
- (2)  $c_{00} \subseteq c_0 \subseteq c \subseteq \ell_{\infty} \subseteq s$  are all subalgebras. In particular,  $c_0 \subseteq \ell_{\infty}$  and  $c_{00} \subseteq s$  are ideals.
- (3)  $C([a,b]) \subseteq \ell_{\infty}([a,b])$  is a unital subalgebra.
- (4)  $C_c(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C_0(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C_b(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq \ell_\infty(\mathbb{R})$  are all subalgebras. In fact,  $C_b(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C(\mathbb{R})$  and  $C_b(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq \ell_\infty(\mathbb{R})$  are unital, whereas  $C_0(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C_b(\mathbb{R})$  and  $C_c(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq C(\mathbb{R})$  are ideals.
- (5) The set  $T_n(F) = \{(a_{ij}) \in M_n(F) \mid a_{ij} = 0, i > j\}$  is a unital subalgebra of  $M_n(F)$ .

**Example 1.2.3** (Group Algebra). Let  $\Gamma$  denote a group (not necessarily abelian). Take the free vector space  $\mathbb{F}(\Gamma)$  and define multiplication as *convolution*: given  $f, g \in \mathbb{F}(\Gamma)$  let:

$$(f*g)(r) = \sum_{\substack{\{(s,t) \mid \\ s \in \text{supp}(f), \\ t \in \text{supp}(g), \\ st = r\}}} f(s)g(t).$$

Since  $\operatorname{supp}(f)$  and  $\operatorname{supp}(g)$  are finite, this is a finite sum. We often suppress this notation and write  $(f*g)(r) = \sum_{st=r} f(s)g(t)$ .

We can also make substitutions:

$$\begin{split} (f*g)(r) &= \sum_{st=r} f(s)g(t) \\ &= \sum_{t \in \Gamma} f(rt^{-1})g(t) \\ &= \sum_{s \in \Gamma} f(s)g(s^{-1}r). \end{split}$$

It is clear that:

$$(f+g)*h = f*h+g*h$$
  
 $g*(g+h) = f*g+f*h$   
 $\alpha(f*g) = (\alpha f)*g = f*(\alpha g)$ 

for  $f,g,h\in\mathbb{F}(\Gamma)$ ,  $\alpha\in F$ . Associativity can be similarly shown using the above definition. Rather, we will prove associativity by first show that  $\delta_s*\delta_t=\delta_{st}$ . Given:

$$(\delta_s * \delta_t)(r) = \sum_{q \in \Gamma} \delta_s(rq^{-1})\delta_t(q),$$

notice that:

$$\delta_s(\mathsf{rt}^{-1}) = \begin{cases} 1, & s = \mathsf{rt}^{-1} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1, & r = st \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \delta_{s\,t}(r).$$

Since  $\{\delta_t \mid t \in \Gamma\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{F}(\Gamma)$ , every  $f \in \mathbb{F}(\Gamma)$  looks like:

$$f = \sum_{t \in J} \alpha_t \delta_t, \ J \subseteq T \ finite.$$

Using distributivity we get:

$$\begin{split} \delta_{r} * (\delta_{s} * \delta_{t}) &= \delta_{r} * \delta_{st} \\ &= \delta_{rst} \\ &= \delta_{rs} * \delta_{t} \\ &= (\delta_{r} * \delta_{s}) * \delta_{t}. \end{split}$$

Whence convolution is associative.

**Proposition 1.2.1.** \* Let  $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a family of algebras over F.

- (1)  $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$  is an algebra under  $(a_i)_i(b_i)_i = (a_ib_i)_i.$
- (2)  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} A_i$  is an ideal.

**Proposition 1.2.2.** \* Let A be an algebra over F and  $I \subseteq A$  an ideal. Then A/I is an algebra under (a + I)(b + I) = ab + I.