

OPERATOR ALGEBRAS

Aniruddha Nadiga

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0 Introduction

0.1 Notation

In this course all spaces that we consider will be normed linear spaces over \mathbb{C} .

1 Background

Definition 1.0.1

A norm on a space X is a function $\|\cdot\| : X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that for all $x, y \in X$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$

1. $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$,
2. $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \cdot \|x\|$
3. $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$.

Definition 1.0.2

A normed space X is a Banach space if it is complete with respect to its norm (meaning that every sequence that is Cauchy with respect to the norm converges with respect to the norm to some value in X).

Example 1.0.3

The following are Banach spaces:

1. Any finite dimensional normed linear space.
2. $\ell^\infty = \{(a_n) \in \mathbb{C}^\mathbb{N} \mid (a_n) \text{ bounded}\}$ with norm $\|(a_n)\| = \sup\{|a_i| \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$.
3. $C(\Omega) = \{f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}$, with the norm $\|f\|_\infty = \sup\{|f(t)| \mid t \in \Omega\}$, where Ω is a compact topological space.
4. For X and Y , consider $B(X, Y) = \{T : X \rightarrow Y \mid \|T\| < \infty\}$ where $\|T\| = \sup\{\|Tx\| \mid x \in X, \|x\| < 1\}$. This is called the set of bounded linear operators from X to Y .
5. $B(X, \mathbb{C})$ is called the dual of X .

Definition 1.0.4

Inner product spaces carry the norm $\|x\| = \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2}$. Any inner product space that is complete with respect to this norm is called a *Hilbert space*.

Clearly all Hilbert spaces are Banach spaces as well.

Example 1.0.5

The following are Hilbert spaces:

1. \mathbb{C}^n with the standard inner product.
2. $\ell^2 = \{(a_n) \in \mathbb{C}^\mathbb{N} \mid \sum |a_i|^2 < \infty\}$.

Definition 1.0.6

An *algebra* is a linear space X with an associative bilinear multiplication, meaning that:

1. $(x + \lambda y)z = xz + \lambda yz$,
 2. $x(y + \lambda z) = xy + \lambda xz$, and
 3. $(xy)z = x(yz)$
- for all $x, y, z \in X$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

An algebra is a normed algebra if X is normed, and is a Banach algebra if X is a Banach space.

Definition 1.0.7

A *unit* in an algebra A is a unique element, denoted 1_A such that $1_A x = x 1_A = x$ for all $x \in A$. If A has a unit then A is a *unital algebra*.

Example 1.0.8

The following are algebras:

1. $C(\Omega)$ with pointwise multiplication is a unital commutative algebra (when Ω is compact).
2. $B(X) = B(X, X)$ with multiplication given by composition is a unital normed algebra. $B(X)$ is a Banach algebra if and only if X is a Banach space. $B(X)$ is not commutative if and only if $\text{Dim}(X) > 1$. Every Banach Algebra is contained in some $B(X)$.
3. $(\mathcal{K}(X))$ when X is a Hilbert space.

Examples (1) and (2) also carry an involution.

Definition 1.0.9

An involution on an algebra A is a map $*$: $A \rightarrow A$ such that for all $x, y \in A$ and $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$,

1. $*$ is antilinear: $(\lambda x + \mu y)^* = \overline{\lambda} x^* + \overline{\mu} y^*$,
2. $*$ is antimultiplicative: $(xy)^* = y^* x^*$, and
3. $*$ is involutive: $(x^*)^* = x$.

On $C(\Omega)$ the involution is given by $f^*(t) = \overline{f(t)}$. On $B(H)$ the involution of T is the adjoint of T , which is the unique operator satisfying that $\langle T^* x, y \rangle = \langle x, Ty \rangle$ for all $x, y \in H$.

Definition 1.0.10

A Banach algebra is a C^* -algebra if it carries an involution $*$ such that $\|xx^*\| = \|x\|^2$.

Both $C(\Omega)$ and $B(H)$ are C^* -algebras.

2 Banach Algebras

Example 2.0.1

Given a Banach algebra A , define the Banach Algebra $\overline{A} = A \oplus \mathbb{C}$ with addition being component wise, multiplication such that $(a, \lambda)(b, \mu) = (ab + \lambda b + \mu a, \lambda\mu)$, and the norm $\|(a, \lambda)\| = \|a\| + |\lambda|$. Then \overline{A} is a unital Banach algebra with unit $(0, 1)$. An involution on A extends to \overline{A} through $(a, \lambda)^* = (a^*, \overline{\lambda})$.

Example 2.0.2

Let G be a discrete group. Then $\ell^1(G) = \{f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \sum_{g \in G} |f(g)| < \infty\}$ with norm $\|f\|_1 = \sum_{g \in G} |f(g)|$ is a Banach space. Then if we defined multiplication through $(fg)(s) = \sum_{g \in G} f(t)g(t^{-1}s)$ we have a Banach Algebra.

Proposition 2.0.3

Let A be a Banach algebra with unit 1_A . Then the following are true.

1. For $x \in A$ such that $\|x\| < 1$, $1 - x$ is invertible. More generally if $\|x\| < \lambda$ then $\lambda - x$ is invertible.
2. $G(A)$ is open and the inverse map is continuous.
3. $G(A)$ is a topological group, meaning that the inverse and multiplication functions are continuous.

Proof. 1. We can construct the inverse of $1 - x$, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$. Then $(1 - x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1_A$.

2. Let $x \in G(A)$ to show that $G(A)$ is open, we will show that the open ball of radius $\|x^{-1}\|^{-1}$ is contained in $G(A)$. So suppose that $y \in A$ such that $\|x - y\| < \|x^{-1}\|^{-1}$. Then we can write $y = x - (x - y) = x(1 - x^{-1}(x - y))$. Then since $\|x^{-1}(x - y)\| \leq \|x^{-1}\| \cdot \|x - y\| < 1$, the element $1 - x^{-1}(x - y)$ is invertible. Since x is also invertible $y = x(1 - x^{-1}(x - y))$ is invertible. By applying the formula for the inverse from part (1), to $1 - x^{-1}(x - y)$ we can show continuity.
3. We already know that multiplication is continuous in A , and we have shown that inverses are continuous.

□

Definition 2.0.4

A continuous path in a topological space Ω connecting $\omega_0 \in \Omega$ to $\omega_1 \in \Omega$ is a continuous mapping $p : [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$ such that $p(0) = \omega_0$ and $p(1) = \omega_1$. A topological space Ω is path connected if any two point can be joined by a continuous path.

Definition 2.0.5

$G_0(A)$ is the set of elements in $G(A)$ that can be connected to 1_A by a path in $G(A)$. More formally, for all $x \in G_0(A)$, there is a continuous $p : [0, 1] \rightarrow G(A)$ such that $p(0) = x$ and $p(1) = 1_A$.

Proposition 2.0.6

$G_0(A)$ is

1. connected,
2. open, and
3. normal in $G(A)$.

Proof. 1. Since every element of $G_0(A)$ is path connected to 1_A , we can construct a path between any two points.
 2. We will show that for any $x \in G_0(A)$, the open ball of radius $\|x^{-1}\|^{-1}$ about x is contained in $G_0(A)$. Let $p(t) = x + th$. This is a path connecting x to $x + h$. Since $G_0(A)$ is path connected, it will suffice to show that this entire path is contained in $G(A)$, because then we can construct a path from $x + h$ to 1_A that stays in $G(A)$. Note that for any t , $p(t) = x + th = x(1 - (-tx^{-1}h))$. $\| -tx^{-1}h \| \leq |t| \cdot \|x^{-1}\| \cdot \|h\| < 1 \cdot \|x^{-1}\| \cdot \|x^{-1}\|^{-1} = 1$. Thus by the previous proposition, $p(t)$ is invertible.
 3. Let $x \in G_0(A)$. We want to show that for any $a \in G(A)$, $axa^{-1} \in G_0(A)$. $x \in G_0(A)$ implies that there is some path p connecting x to 1_A . Then $ap(t)a^{-1}$ is a path connecting axa^{-1} to 1_A that stays in $G(A)$, meaning that $axa^{-1} \in G_0(A)$. \square

Proposition 2.0.7

An open subgroup of a topological group is closed.

Proof. Let G be a topological group and let $H < G$ be an open subgroup. Then if the (possibly finite) set $\{g_0 = 1_G, g_1, \dots\}$ is a set of unique coset representatives of H in G , then we have that $G = \cup g_i H$. We also know that since multiplication is continuous in a topological group, H open implies that $g_i H$ is open as well. Thus $G \setminus H = \cup_{i \neq 0} g_i H$ is open, meaning that H is closed. \square

This proposition implies that $G(A)/G_0(A)$ is always a discrete group.

Definition 2.0.8

Let A be an algebra with unit 1. Then for each $x \in A$ we defined the *spectrum* of x as

$$\sigma(x) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda - x \notin G(A)\}.$$

Proposition 2.0.9

Let A be a Banach algebra then for any $x \in B$ $\sigma(x) \neq \emptyset$

Proof. This has something to do with holomorphic functions and stuff. I really cant work with that. \square

Proposition 2.0.10

Let A be a Banach algebra with a unit element. Then for every $x \in A$, the following are true:

1. $\sigma(x)$ is closed, and

2. $\sigma(x) \subseteq \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid |\lambda| < \|x\|\}$.

Proof. 1. The complement of $\sigma(x)$, $C \setminus \sigma(x)$ is the preimage of $G(A)$ under the map $\lambda \mapsto \lambda - x$. This map is continuous and $G(A)$ is open so this preimage is open. This $\sigma(x)$ is closed.
2. Let $\lambda \in \sigma(x)$, and suppose for contradiction that $|\lambda| > \|x\|$. Then we know that $\lambda - x$ is invertible which contradicts the assumption that $\lambda \in \sigma(x)$ □

Proposition 2.0.11

Let A be a unital algebra. If $x, y \in A$, then $\sigma(xy) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(yx) \cup \{0\}$.

Proof. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\lambda \neq 0$. We want to show that $\lambda - xy \in G(A) \iff \lambda - yx \in G(A)$. By symmetry we only need to prove one direction. We can also assume without loss of generality that $\lambda = 1$ because if it is not we can scale everything that follows appropriately.

$\lambda - xy \in G(A)$ means that $1 - xy$ is invertible. This means that $-(1 - xy) = (xy - 1)$ is invertible, so there exists some $u \in A$ such that $u(xy - 1) = (xy - 1)u = 1_A$. Let $w = 1 - yux$. Then we have that

$$(1 - yx)w = 1 - yx - yux + yxyux = 1 - yx - y(1 - xy)ux = 1 - yx - (-y1_Ax) = 1_A$$

and

$$w(1 - yx) = 1 - yx - yux + yuxyx = 1 - yx - yu(1 - xy)x = 1 - yx - (-y1_Ax) = 1_A$$

. Thus w is the inverse of $(1 - yx)$; $1 - yx \in G(A)$. □

Proposition 2.0.12

Let B be a Banach algebra with unit 1_B , and let $A \subset B$ be a closed subalgebra such that $1_B \in A$. Then for all $x \in A$, the following are true:

1. $\sigma_B(x) \subseteq \sigma_A(x)$, and
2. $\delta(\sigma_A(x)) \subseteq \delta(\sigma_B(x))$.

Proof. 1. Since $G(A) \subseteq G(B)$, there may be inverses in B that are not in A . Thus there may be values of λ that are in $\sigma_A(x)$ that may not be in $\sigma_B(x)$. On the other hand if an element is not invertible in B then it is not in A either.
2. Let $\lambda \in \delta(\sigma_A(x))$. We want to show that $\lambda \in \delta(\sigma_B(x))$. Since λ is a boundary point there is a sequence (λ_n) in $\sigma_A(x)^C$ that converges to λ . Now assume for contradiction that $\lambda \notin \delta(\sigma_B(x))$. Then $\lambda \notin \sigma_B(x)$, meaning that $(\lambda - x)^{-1}$ exists in B . Since addition and inverses are continuous, the sequence $(\lambda_n 1_B - x)^{-1}$ converges to $(\lambda 1_B - x)^{-1}$. Since $\lambda_n \notin \sigma_A(x)$ for every n , the element $(\lambda_n - x)^{-1}$ exists in A for every n . Since A is closed, the limit of this sequence, $(\lambda - x)^{-1}$ is in A . This contradicts the assumption that $\lambda \in \sigma_A(x)$. □

This means that in the situation described above, if $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, then $\sigma_A(x) = \sigma_B(x)$.

Definition 2.0.13

Let A be a Banach algebra with unit 1_A . Then for $x \in A$, the *spectral radius* of x is defined as

$$r(x) := \max\{|\lambda| \mid \lambda \in \sigma(x)\}.$$

Since $\sigma(x)$ is closed and bounded, $\{|\lambda| \mid \lambda \in \sigma(x)\}$ is closed and bounded in \mathbb{R} , meaning that the maximum of this set is well defined.

Theorem 2.0.14

Let A be a Banach algebra with unit 1_A , then for all $x \in A$, $r(x) = \lim_n \|x^n\|^{1/n}$.

| Proof. This also has to do with holomorphic functions and I don't understand it. □

Theorem 2.0.15

Let A be a Banach algebra in which every non zero element is invertible. Then $A \approx \mathbb{C}$.

| Proof. Let $x \in A$, we know that $\sigma(x) \neq \emptyset$, so let $\lambda \in \sigma(x)$, meaning that $\lambda - x$ is not invertible. Since all of the non-zero elements of A are invertible, $\lambda - x = 0$, which means that every $x \in A$ is a scalar multiple of the identity element, which gives an obvious isomorphism to \mathbb{C} . □

3 Ideals and Quotients

Definition 3.0.1

Given a Banach algebra A , a subalgebra (closed under addition and multiplication) I is an ideal if $AI \subseteq I$ and $IA \subseteq I$.

An algebra is *simple* if the only ideals are the full algebra and the empty set.

We can also note that if A is a unital algebra then any non-trivial ideal can not contain 1_A (because then $A \subseteq AI$). More generally, any non-trivial ideal can not contain any invertible elements.

Definition 3.0.2

If A is an algebra with I an ideal, then we can form the *quotient algebra* $A/I = \{a + I \mid a \in A\}$. The operations are as follows: $(a + I) + (b + I) = (a + b) + I$, and $(a + I)(b + I) = ab + I$.

Proposition 3.0.3

If A is a Banach algebra and $I \trianglelefteq A$ is an ideal then the following are true.

1. The closure of I , \bar{I} is also an ideal.
2. $\|1_A + z\| \geq 1$ for all $z \in I$ (unless $A = I$).
3. Further suppose that A is unital. If I is a proper ideal of A , then \bar{I} is a proper ideal of A .

Proof. Let A be a unital Banach algebra, and let $I \trianglelefteq A$.

1. Let $x \in \bar{I}$. Then there is some sequence (x_n) in I that converges to x . Since I is an ideal, for any $a \in A$, the sequence (ax_n) is in I , and by the continuity of multiplication, this sequence converges to ax . Thus $ax \in I$ for any $x \in \bar{I}$ and $a \in A$.
2. Suppose that for some $z \in I$, $\|1_A + z\| < 1$. Then we know that $q - (1_A + z) = -z$ is invertible in A , which means that z is invertible as well. This means that $I = A$.
3. Suppose that $I \neq A$, but $\bar{I} = A$. Then we know that $-1_A \in \bar{I}$, so there is a sequence (x_n) in I that converges to -1_A . This means that the sequence $(1 + x_n)$ converges to 0_A . By (2), we know that $\|1_A + x_n\| \geq 1$, but this makes it impossible for $(1_A + x_n)$ to converge to 0_A . Thus we conclude that $\bar{I} \neq A$.

□

3.1 Maximal Ideals

Definition 3.1.1

Given an algebra A and an ideal $I \trianglelefteq A$, we say that I is a *maximal ideal* if $J \trianglelefteq A$ is proper ideal that contains I implies that $J = I$

Proposition 3.1.2

Any maximal ideal of a Banach algebra is closed.

Proof. Let A be a Banach algebra and $I \trianglelefteq A$ be a maximal ideal. Then we know that \bar{I} is also a proper ideal, and it contains I . Thus $\bar{I} = I$. □

Proposition 3.1.3

If A is a Banach algebra, then $I \trianglelefteq A$ is a maximal ideal if and only if A/I is simple.

Proof. We will show a correspondence between ideals of A and ideals of A/I , which will be used to prove the proposition. First start with an ideal of A , J , then we can construct the ideal of A/I , $K = \{j + I \mid j \in J\}$. Similarly, given an ideal of A/I , K , we can construct the ideal $J = \cup_{a+I \in K} a + I$. (see correspondence theorem for rings). Now suppose that I is a maximal ideal in A . Then suppose that K is an ideal in A/I . Then the corresponding ideal J clearly contains I . This means that J is either I or A . If $J = I$ then K is the empty ideal, and if $J = A$, then $K = A/I$. Thus A/I is simple. Now suppose that A/I is simple. Then let J be any ideal that contains I . The corresponding ideal K in A/I must be either the empty ideal or all of A/I . This would imply that J is either I or A , which means that I is maximal. □

Proposition 3.1.4

If A is an algebra then every proper ideal of A is contained in a maximal subideal of A .

Proof. The set of proper ideals is a partially ordered set with comparison given by inclusion. We also know that for any fully ordered subset, there is a maximal element. Thus we can apply Zorn's lemma to prove the proposition. □

Proposition 3.1.5

Let A be a unital Banach algebra. Then if $I \trianglelefteq A$ is a maximal ideal, $A/I \approx \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. Suppose that A is a unital Banach algebra with $I \trianglelefteq A$ a maximal ideal. Then A/I is a simple unital Banach algebra (the proof of this actually comes later). Now let $b \in A/I$ be some non-invertible element. Then clearly $(A/I)b$ is an ideal, and since $1_{A/I} \notin (A/I)b$, it is a proper ideal. This means that $(A/I)b$ is the trivial ideal, which means that $b = 0_{A/I}$. Thus all non-zero elements of A/I are invertible. We have seen that this means that $A/I \approx \mathbb{C}$ \square

3.2 Quotients

Proposition 3.2.1

If A is a Banach space (or algebra) and $I \trianglelefteq A$ is a closed ideal, then we can equip A/I with the *quotient norm*

$$\|a + I\| = \inf_{z \in I} \|a + z\|.$$

This norm makes A/I into a Banach space (or algebra).

Proof. FINISH ME \square

We can note that $\pi : A \rightarrow A/I$ is a contraction as $\|\pi(a)\| \leq \|a\|$.

Proposition 3.2.2 (Factorization Lemma)

Let $\phi : A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism of Banach algebras. Then there is a factorization of $\phi = \dot{\phi} \circ \pi$, where $\pi : A \rightarrow A/\text{Ker}(\phi)$ is the usual quotient map and $\dot{\phi} : A/\text{Ker}(\phi) \rightarrow B$. Further, we have that $\|\dot{\phi}\| = \|\phi\|$.

Proof. First we need to show that there exists some $\dot{\phi}$ that satisfies the proposition, then we will show that it is unique. Finally, we will show that $\|\dot{\phi}\| = \|\phi\|$.

Let $\dot{\phi}_1(a + \text{Ker}(\phi)) = \phi(a)$. To show that this is well defined note that if $a + I = b + I$, then $a = b + x$ for some $x \in \text{Ker}(\phi)$. Thus $\dot{\phi}_1(a + I) = \phi(a) = \phi(a) + \phi(x) = \phi(a + x) = \phi(b) = \dot{\phi}_1(b + \text{Ker}(\phi))$. Clearly $\dot{\phi}_1 \circ \pi = \phi$.

Now suppose that there is another function $\dot{\phi} : A/I \rightarrow B$ such that $\dot{\phi} \circ \pi = \phi$. Then since π is surjective, $\dot{\phi}_1$ and $\dot{\phi}$ are equal on all values of A/I , meaning that they are equal.

Further, $\|\phi\| = \|\dot{\phi} \circ \pi\| \leq \|\dot{\phi}\| \cdot \|\pi\| \leq \|\dot{\phi}\|$ since π is a contraction. On the other hand $\|\dot{\phi}(x + \text{Ker}(\phi))\| = \|\phi(x)\| = \|\phi(x + z)\| \leq \|\phi\| \cdot \|x + z\|$ for all $z \in \text{Ker}(\phi)$. Thus $\|\dot{\phi}(x + I)\| \leq \|\phi\| \inf_{z \in \text{Ker}(\phi)} \|x + z\| = \|\phi\| \cdot \|x + \text{Ker}(\phi)\|$. Now use $x + I$ (maybe technically some $(x_n + I)$ approaching $x + I$) such that $\|\dot{\phi}(x + I)\| = \|\dot{\phi}\| \cdot \|x + I\|$. This shows that $\|\dot{\phi}\| \leq \|\phi\|$. Thus $\|\dot{\phi}\| = \|\phi\|$. \square

4 Characters and the Gelfand Transformation

Definition 4.0.1

A *character* on a Banach algebra A is a non-zero homomorphism $\omega : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

Definition 4.0.2

The set of all characters on a Banach algebra A is called *the Gelfand Spectrum*, denoted $sp(A)$.

Lemma 4.0.3

Every character ω on a Banach algebra A is continuous. In fact, $\|\omega\| \leq 1$, and if A is unital $\|\omega\| = 1$, with $\omega(1_A) = 1$.

Proof. In order to show that ω is continuous we need to show that its norm is bounded. The in fact part of the lemma implies this so we will just prove that part.

Suppose for contradiction that for some character ω on a Banach algebra A , $\|\omega\| > 1$ (possibly infinite). Then choose some $x \in A$ such that $\|x\| \leq 1$ and $\omega(x) = 1$. We can find such an x , because since the norm of ω is greater than 1, we can find some x' such that $\|x'\| < 1$ and $\|\omega(x')\| > 1$. We can scale x' by the appropriate amount to get x . Then we define $y = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n$ (this series converges because the sequence of norms converges by the assumption that $\|x\| < 1$). Then $y = x + xy$. So $\omega(y) = \omega(x) + \omega(x)\omega(y) = 1 + \omega(y)$. This gives the contradiction that $0 = 1$.

Now suppose that A is unital. Then find and $x \in A$ such that $\omega(x) \neq 0$. Then we get that $\omega(x) = \omega(1_A x) = \omega(1_A)\omega(x)$, so $\omega(1_A) = 1$. This gives that $\|\omega\| \geq 1$, which means that they are equal by the previous part of the lemma. \square

Example 4.0.4 (L)

t $A = C(\Omega)$ for some compact Ω . For any $t \in \Omega$, define $\omega_t : C(\Omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by $\omega_t(f) = f(t)$. Actually, it turns out that all characters on $C(\Omega)$ are of this form (proof to come later in course).

Here if Gelfand's idea:

Assume that A is a unital Banach algebra, and the note that

$$\begin{aligned} sp(A) &= \{\omega : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \omega \text{ is a non-zero homomorphism}\} \\ &\subseteq \{f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is a linear functional and } \|f\| \leq 1\} \\ &= \text{the closed unit ball in the dual of } A, A^* \end{aligned}$$

A^* carries the weak *-topology, which is the topology generated by $U_{a_1, \dots, a_n, \epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n}(f) = \{f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \|g\| \leq \infty \text{ and } |g(a_i) - f(a_i)| < \epsilon_i\}$

This topology corresponds to a topology of point wise convergence, where $((f_n) \rightarrow f_n$ if and only if $(f_n(x)) \rightarrow f(x)$ for all $x \in A$. With this in mind, we define the Gelfand Transform.

Definition 4.0.5 (The Gelfand Transform)

The Gelfand Transform of a Banach algebra A is the function $\hat{\cdot} : A \rightarrow C(sp(A))$ given by $x \mapsto \hat{x}$ such that $\hat{x}(\omega) = \omega(x)$

Theorem 4.0.6: The Gelfand Representation Theorem

Let A be a unital commutative Banach algebra. Then the following are true:

1. The Gelfand transformation is a continuous homomorphic function, and $\hat{1}_A(\omega) = 1$ and $\|\hat{x}\|_\infty = r(x) \leq \|x\|$.
2. The image of $\hat{\cdot} : A \rightarrow \hat{A}$, separates points in $sp(A)$, meaning that if $\omega_1, \omega_2 \in sp(A)$ are not equal, then there is some $x \in A$ such that $\hat{x}(\omega_1) \neq \hat{x}(\omega_2)$.
3. For any $x \in A$ $\text{Im}(\hat{x}) = \{\hat{x}(\omega) = \omega(x) \mid \omega \in sp(A)\} = \sigma(x)$