

Functional Analysis

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Chapter 1 Prep work

We will start from the beginning and take baby steps. It's going to be okay.

An algebra is a vector space (with addition and scalar multiplication, usually over \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}), with an extra multiplication operation such that it is associative, and distributive. Then a normed algebra is an algebra with a sub-multiplicative norm, such that for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

$$||ab|| \le ||a|| ||b||$$

A Banach algebra is a normed algebra that is complete under the metric induced by the norm. And we can form a Banach algebra by starting with a normed algebra and form its completion and by uniform continuity of addition and multiplication extend to the completion of the algebra to form a Banach algebra.

We will begin with some important examples of Banach algebras. Let X be a compact topological space, and let C(X) be the space of continuous functions, equip it with $\|\cdot\|_{L^{\infty}}$ norm, then $(C(X), \|\cdot\|_{L^{\infty}})$ is a Banach algebra. Similarly, if X is only locally compact, then $C_b(X)$, the space of bounded continuous functions under the $\|\cdot\|_{L^{\infty}}$ norm is also a Banach algebra.

1.0.1 Some Banach algebra examples

Another important example is that let X be a Banach space, and the space of all bounded/continuous operators on X, denoted by $\mathcal{B}(X)$ is a Banach algebra with the operator norm. Any closed subalgebra of B(X) is also Banach.

If X is a Hilbert space, then we also have the operation of taking adjoints, namely $||T|| = ||T^*||$.

Definition 1.

A C^* algebra is a closed subalgebra of the space of bounded (equivalently) functions defined on a Hilbert space, $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$.

Remark The space of continuous/bdd operators on a Hilbert space, under the operator norm, then closed under the norm topology and taking adjoints of the operators. On wikipedia, C* algebra is defined to be a Banach algebra equipped with an involution that acts like a adjoint.

One of the goals of this course is to develop the following theorem.

Theorem 1.1

Let A be a commutative C^* -algebra of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$, then A is isometrically and * -algebraically isomorphic to some C(X), where X is some locally compact space.

Proposition 1.1

Multiplication is continuous in Banach algebras.

Proof Multiplication $\cdot: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$, hence if we have x_n, y_n such that $x_n \to x, y_n \to y$, then we have

$$||x_n y_n - xy|| \le ||x_n - x|| ||y_n|| + ||x|| ||y_n - y|| < \epsilon$$

Hence multiplication is continuous.

Definition 1.2 (Unital Banach algebra and invertibility)

A Banach algebra (let's repeat, a complete vector space with addition, scalar multiplicatin, and multiplication such that the norm is sub-multiplicative) is called unital if there exists a multiplicative inverse.

An element $a \in A$ is called invertible if there exists an element $a^{-1} \in A$ such that

$$aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e$$

Regarding invertibility, we can determine whether an element is invertible by knowing a related element's norm.

Proposition 1.2

Let A be a unital Banach algebra, and if ||a|| < 1, then (1 - a) is invertible.

Proof We would like to use the fact that every Cauchy sequence converges. Define

$$(1-a)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n$$

where $a^0 = 1$ by definition. We first show that this geometric series converges to an element in A, and we will show that the quantity defined above is indeed the inverse of (1 - a).

Note that we define the partial sum $S_N = \sum_{n=0}^N a^n$, then

$$||S_N - S_M|| \le \sum_{M+1}^N ||a||^n < \epsilon$$

Hence $\{S_N\}$ is a cauchy sequence, hence converges to some element which we denoted as $(1-a)^{-1} \in A$. Now

$$(1-a)\cdot(1-a)^{-1} = (1-a)\cdot\lim_{N\to\infty} S_N = (1-a)\cdot\frac{1}{1-a} = 1$$

Likewise for the other side. Notice our $(1-a)^{-1}$ is a defined quantity, while $\frac{1}{1-a}$ is the sum of geometric series.

Corollary 1.1

Let A be a unital Banach algebra, then if ||(1-a)|| < 1, then we have, a is invertible.

The implication of this corollary is interesting.

Corollary 1.2

The open ball of radius 1 around the identity element 1_A consists of invertible elements.

$$||1 - a|| < 1 \Rightarrow a \in B_1(1_{\mathcal{A}})$$

And we know a is invertible.

Proposition 1.3

The set of invertible elements of a unital Banach algebra is an open subset.

Proof We use the fact that $B_1(1_A)$ is an open set. Note that for any invertible element d, we define the map, for all $a \in A$,

$$L_d(a) = da$$

We observe this map is continuous, and by d be invertible, the inverse is also continuous, hence a homeomorphism. Bijectivity follows from $da = db \Rightarrow a = b$, and for every $c \in \mathcal{A}$, we can find $a = d^{-1}c$ such that $L_d(a) = c$.

Hence for every d invertible, we have $d \cdot O$ an open ball of invertible elements, and taking all union of these open balls give us the set of invertible elements, which is an open set.

Proposition 1.4

For $f \in C(X)$, we have α is in the range of f if and only if $(f - 1 \cdot \alpha)$ is invertible.

Proof Refer to the lecture notes. In function spaces, the word **invertible** means having trivial kernel, i.e. f(x) = 0 implies x = 0.

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1.0.2 Algebra homomorphisms on C(X)

Definition 1.3 (Algebra homomorphism)

An algebra homomorphism is a homomorphism between two algebras. For example, consider X a compact space, and C(X) the space of continuous functions, hence if we define the evaluation map as follows:

$$\varphi_x(f) = f(x)$$

This is an algebra homomorphism between C(X) and (\mathbb{C}) . Namely, the homomorphism property is justified as: (under both addition and multiplication)

$$\varphi_x(f+g) = f + g(x) = f(x) + g(x) = \varphi_x(f) + \varphi_x(g)$$
$$\varphi_x(fg) = (fg)(x) = f(x)g(x) = \varphi_x(f)\varphi_x(g)$$

And of course, same thing follows for scalar multiplication.

Remark We need to check all three conditions to make sure such φ preserves the structures between the algebras.

An algebra homomorphism is called unital if if maps the (multiplicative identity) unity to unity. In the above example, a unital homomorphism would be $\varphi(1)=1$, where the left 1 is the constant 1 function, and the right 1 is the number.

Now we will introduce the proposition that every multiplicative linear functional on C(X). Note we can use algebra homomorphism and multiplicative linear functional synonomously on C(X), hence they entail the same information.

Proposition 1.5

Let φ be a multiplicative linear functional on C(X), i.e. a nontrivial algebra homomorphism, then $\varphi(f) = f(x_0)$ for some $x_0 \in X$. In other words, a multiplicative linear functional always takes this form.

Proof It suffices to show the following lemma:

Lemma 1.1

There exists x_0 such that if $\varphi(f) = 0$, then we have $f(x_0) = 0$.

We will first show how the lemma implies $\varphi(f) = f(x_0)$. Consider the function $f - \varphi(f) \cdot 1$, then we know

$$\varphi(f - \varphi(f) \cdot 1) = 0$$

Then there exists x_0 such that $f(x_0) - \varphi(f) = 0$, this gives $\varphi(f) = f(x_0)$.

Now we prove the lemma.

Proof Our claim is that there exists x_0 such that if $\varphi(f)=0$, then we have $f(x_0)=0$. Assume the contrary, which states for all x, there exists an f_x such that $\varphi(f_x)=0$, but $f(x)\neq 0$. We define a nonnegative function $g_x=f_x\overline{f_x}$. And by multiplicativity, we have $\varphi(g_x)=0$. We now note that because g is continuous, in a small nbd of x, denoted by O_x , we have g(y)>0 for all $y\in O_x$.

Now using compactness, we can write X as a finite union of small neighborhoods $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^n O_{x_i}$, and define

$$g = g_{x_1} + \ldots + g_{x_n}$$

Then for each $y \in X$, $y \in O_{x_j}$ for some j, hence g(y) > 0 for all $y \in X$. This implies that g is invertible hence we have

$$\varphi(g \cdot 1/g) = 1$$

This contradicts with the fact that $\varphi(g) = 0$. And we are done.

Hence we have the following corollary.

Corollary 1.3

Let X be compact, and C(X) the space of continuous functions, then φ is a multiplicative linear functional (i.e. a algebra homomorphism with \mathbb{C}) if and only if it is a point evaluation.

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Definition 1.4 (\widehat{A})

Given a unital commutative (or Banach) algebra, for example, C(X) with $\|\cdot\|_{L^{\infty}}$, we define the set of unital homomorphisms, i.e., nonzero unital multiplicative linear functionals on A as \widehat{A} .

Proposition 1.6

If A is a unital algebra, then for $\varphi \in \widehat{A}$, we have $\|\varphi\| = 1$

Proof We have

$$\|\varphi\| = \sup\{|\varphi(f)| : \|f\|_{L^{\infty}} = 1\}$$

Because $|\varphi(f)| = |f(x_0)|$ for some x_0 , we always have $||\varphi|| \le 1$, but with the unity, we have $||\varphi(e)|| = 1$, and taking the sup we have $||\varphi|| = 1$.

1.0.3 Spectrum

We now define the spectrum of an element in a Banach algebra.

Definition 1.5 (spectrum)

Let A be a Banach algebra, fix $a \in A$, we define the following set to be the spectrum of a, denoted by $\sigma(a)$.

$$\sigma(a) = \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{F} : a - \lambda \cdot 1_{\mathcal{A}} \text{ is not invertible } \}$$

We have a bound on the size of λ given ||a||.

Proposition 1.7

For $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$, we have

$$|\lambda| \le ||a||$$

Proof Assume the contrary, we have $|\lambda| > ||a||$, then a/λ has norm $||a/\lambda|| < 1$. Thus, $(1 - a/\lambda)$ is invertible.

$$a - \lambda \cdot 1 = -\lambda(1 - a/\lambda)$$

Because the product of two invertible elements is again, invertible, we get that $\lambda \notin \sigma(a)$. Hence a contradiction.

Proposition 1.8

Let A be a unital Banach algebra, and let $\varphi \in \widehat{A}$, then we have

$$\varphi(a) \in \sigma(a)$$

Proof It suffices to show that $a - \varphi(a) \cdot 1$ is not invertible. Assuming that it is, denote its inverse by $(a - \varphi(a))^{-1}$, then

$$\varphi\left((a-\varphi(a)1)\frac{1}{a-\varphi(a)}\right)=1$$

However, $\varphi(a-\varphi(a)\cdot 1)=0$. Hence a contradiction.

Remark To prove an element $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is not invertible, it suffices to prove $\varphi(a) = 0$.

Corollary 1.4

For the above, $|\varphi(a)| \leq ||a||$, and again, $||\varphi|| = 1$.

Remark This is to say, every unital homomorphism $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}$ is continuous.

We now show that the spectrum of an element is always closed.

Proposition 1.9

Let $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\sigma(a)$ is closed.

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Proof We define a map $\phi : \mathbb{F} \to \mathcal{A}$ as

$$\phi(\lambda) = a - \lambda \cdot 1$$

The map is continuous, and we notice that the $\sigma(a)$ is the complement of the preimage of invertible elements under ϕ , i.e.

$$\sigma(a) = (\phi^{-1}(\text{ invertible }))^c$$

Using the fact that the set of invertible elements is open, we get $\sigma(a)$ is closed.

1.0.4 Weak-* topology

We now do some topology. Fix A, Recall the weak-* topology is defined on A' and it is the weakest topology such that the map $\psi \in A'$,

$$\psi \mapsto \psi(a)$$
 continuous

We first note that if $\varphi \in \widehat{\mathcal{A}}$, then $\|\varphi\| = 1$. Hence $\widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ is a subset of the closed unit ball in \mathcal{A}' . Now with respect to the weak-* topology, we have some nice properties.

Theorem 1.2

 \widehat{A} is closed with respect to the weak-* topology.

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Proof Let $\{\varphi_{\lambda}\}$ be a net that converges to some φ in the weak-* topology, which is a linear functional, i.e. $\varphi \in \mathcal{A}'$. Weak-* convergence implies for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

$$\varphi_{\lambda}(a) \to \varphi(a)$$

We show that φ is multiplicative.

$$\varphi(ab) = \lim \varphi_{\lambda}(ab) = \lim \varphi_{\lambda}(a) \lim \varphi_{\lambda}(b) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$$

Now it remains to show that $\|\varphi\|=1$ to show that it is closed. It suffices to show φ is unital.

$$\varphi(1) = \lim \varphi_{\lambda}(1) = 1$$

Hence $|\varphi(1)| \leq ||\varphi||$, hence $||\varphi|| = 1$.

Now we recall Alaoglu's theorem.

Theorem 1.3 (Alaoglu's)

The closed unit ball is compact in the weak-* topology.

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Hence as an immediate corollary,

Corollary 1.5

A is compact with respect to the weak-* topology.

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Proof \widehat{A} is a closed subset of a compact set, hence is also compact.

Let S be a semiroup with unity e, and $l^1(S)$ with convolution is a Banach algebra, hence we denote $\mathcal{A} = l^1(S)$. **Example 1.1** Let the positive integers including 0 be the semigroup S, then we have $f = \sum_{n \in S} f(n) \delta_n$.

Now we try to find out what $\widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ looks like. Recall $\widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ is the space of nonzero unital homomorphisms, $\varphi: S \to \mathbb{C}$. For any $a \in \mathcal{A} = l^1(S)$, we know that

$$\varphi(a) \in \sigma(a)$$

and we have $|\varphi(a)| \leq ||a||$, hence we have $||\varphi|| \leq 1$. If we view φ as an element in l^{∞} , then we have

$$\|\varphi\|_{l^{\infty}} \le 1$$

Hence this is a unit disk in the space of homomorphisms from $l^1(S)$ to C.

We now extend to the double dual of A, which is A''. For any $a \in A$. we define

$$\widehat{a}(\varphi) = \varphi(a)$$

Now we attempt to define a Banach algebra of functions on a semigroup. A semigroup is with associative product, but not necessarily an inverse.

Example 1.2 For example, the set of natural numbers with 0, under addition is a semigroup. We will define $\mathbb{N}_{\geq 0} = S$.

We let $l^{(\mathbb{N}_{\geq 0})}$ denote the set of functions defined on $\mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ such that if $f \in C_c(S)$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n \in S} f(n)\delta_n$$

We define $\delta_x \delta_y = \delta_{xy}$, and we thus have

$$\left(\sum_{n} f(n)\delta_{n}\right)\left(\sum_{y} g(y)\delta_{y}\right) = \sum_{z} \left(\sum_{xy=z} f(x)g(y)\right)\delta_{z}$$

Example 1.3 If we consider polynomials of the form $\sum f(n)x^n$, then we note that

$$\left(\sum f(m)x^m\right)\left(\sum g(n)x^n\right) = \sum_p \left(\sum_{mn=p} f(m)g(n)x^p\right)$$

Hence naturally we have $\delta_m \delta_n = \delta_{mn}$, which agrees with $x^m x^n = x^{m+n}$.

It is also easy to check $||f * g||_{L^1} \le ||f||_1 ||g||_1$.

And we define $f \in l^1(S)$ if we have $\sum_{n \in S} |f(n)| < \infty$.

Then we note that $l^1(S)$ is a Banach algebra under the convolution defined as follows: let

$$f = \sum_{n \in S} f(n)\delta_n, g = \sum_{n \in S} g(n)\delta_n$$

Definition 1.6 (Convolution)

We will define a convlution between two functiosn of the above form as

$$f*g(x) = \sum_{x=yz} f(y)g(z)$$

Then we have δ_e as our identity function, in this case δ_1 .

$$f * \delta_e(x) = \sum_{x=yz} f(y)\delta_1(z) = f(x)$$

Let's now discuss a specific example. Let $\mathcal{A}=l^1(S)$, and $\widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ is the set of unital homomorphisms from $\mathcal{A}\to\mathbb{C}$. Hence $\widehat{\mathcal{A}}\subset\mathcal{A}'$. And from previous knowledge, we know

$$\mathcal{A}' = l^{\infty}(S)$$

Hence let $\varphi \in \widehat{\mathcal{A}}$, and we view it as an element in $l^{\infty}(S)$, then we define a pairing between φ and the $f \in l^1(S)$ that it acts on. We have

$$\langle f, \varphi \rangle = \varphi(f) = \sum_{x \in S} f(x)\varphi(x)$$

1.0.5 On semigroups

Let S be a discrete commutative semigroup.

Proposition 1.10

We have

$$\widehat{\mathcal{A}}$$
 "=" $Hom(S, \mathbb{D})$

where \mathbb{D} denotes the unit disk in the complex plane.

Proof In other words, a unital homomorphism acting on $l^1(S)$ can be viewed as a unital homomorphism that acts directly on the semigroup and mapping into \mathbb{D} .

We note that $\varphi \in \widehat{\mathcal{A}}$, then $\varphi \in l^{\infty}(S)$, and we also have $\|\varphi\|_{l^{\infty}} = 1$, hence $\|\varphi(s)\| \leq 1, s \in S$. For φ being multiplicative, we have $\varphi(\delta_{xy})\varphi(\delta_x\delta_y) = \varphi(\delta_x)\varphi(\delta_y)$, hence

$$\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$$

We also have

$$\varphi(x+y) = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y)$$

And

$$\varphi(e) = 1$$

Remark We are simply using the fact that every $\varphi \in \widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ can be viewed as an element of $l^{\infty}(S)$.

Proposition 1.11

For $S = \mathbb{N}$, There is a natural identification between $\widehat{l^1(S)}$ with the unit disk \mathbb{D} .

Proof We note that \mathbb{N} is generated by 1, so $l^1(S)$ is generated by δ_1 , hence $\varphi \in \widehat{l^1(S)}$ is determined by $\varphi(\delta_1)$. Alternatively, if we view $\varphi \in l^\infty(S)$, then φ is determined by its value on $\varphi(1)$. Let $\varphi(1) = z_0$. Note $z_0 \in \mathbb{D}$, Then we we have, given φ is multiplicative,

$$\varphi(m) = z_0^m$$

Hence there is a natural identification from \mathbb{D} to $\widehat{l^1(\mathbb{N})}$, taking an element in $z \in \mathbb{D}$, to a map $\varphi : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{C}$, $\varphi \in l^\infty(\mathbb{N})$, by the map

$$z \mapsto \varphi(n) = z^n$$

The map is bijective and continuous.

Proposition 1.12

The unit disk $\mathbb D$ under the standard topology, coincides with the weak-* topology on $\mathbb D$ that is determined in the sense of $\widehat{l^1(S)}$. In other words,

$$\mathbb{D}_{std} \cong \mathbb{D}_{weak-*}$$

Proof We would like to show the map

$$z \mapsto \varphi(f) = \sum_{n \in S} f(n)\varphi(n)$$

is continuous. We have noted the natural corespondence from $z \mapsto \varphi(n) = z^n$. And by definition of the pairing between $\varphi \in l^1(S)$, $f \in l^1(S)$, we have

$$z\mapsto \varphi(z)=z^m\mapsto \sum_{n\in S}f(n)z^n$$

The first map is continuous, and the second is also continuous, hence we have a continuous, bijective map between \mathbb{D} , which is a compact space, to $\widehat{l^1(S)}$, a Hausdorff space, hence

$$\mathbb{D}_{std} \cong \mathbb{D}_{weak-*}$$

1.0.6 On groups

Let G be a discrete commutative group. Everything above applies, however, we note that in this case $\varphi \in \widehat{l^1(G)}$ implies $|\varphi(x)| = 1$ for all $x \in G$. This is because $||x|| = 1, \forall x \in G$. This implies $|\varphi(x)| \le 1$. Hence,

$$\|\varphi(e)\| = \|\varphi(x)\varphi(x^{-1})\| = 1$$

This means $|\varphi(x)| = 1, \forall x \in G$.

Previously, we had $l^1(S)$ "=" \mathbb{D} , since $|\varphi(s)| \leq 1$, and now we have

Proposition 1.13

For G a commutative discrete group, we have

$$\widehat{l^1(G)} \cong \mathbb{T}$$

where $\mathbb{T} = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : |x| = 1\}.$

Just like \mathbb{D} , we have \mathbb{T} as a compact topological group. Hence the standard topology on \mathbb{T} coincides with the weak-topology on \mathbb{T} , by the map $z \in \mathbb{T}$,

$$z\mapsto \sum_{n\in G}f(n)z^n$$

If we denote $z \in T$ as $z = e^{2\pi it}$, then we would have

$$\sum_{n \in G} f(n)e^{2\pi i nt}$$

And this is the Fourier series!

Definition 1.7 (Self-adjoint Algebras)

A Banach algebra is called self-adjoint if for every $a \in A$, we have $a^* \in A$ as well.

Proposition 1.14

The Gelfand transformation is onto for A Banach algebras that are self-adjoint. It is also an isometry.

Our goal for the following few propositions is to establish the relationship between the spectral radius, Gelfand transform, and maximal ideals.

Let A be a commutative Banach algebra.

Proposition 1.15

There is a natural correspondance between the multiplication functionals φ on A and the set of maximal ideals in A.

Namely, for every maximal ideal \mathcal{M} in \mathcal{A} , we can find a $\varphi \in \widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ such that $\ker(\varphi) = \mathcal{M}$.

The proof uses algebra, and we did it in class, so we do not illustrate here. The important thing is the following result.

Corollary 1.6

 $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is invertible if and only if \widehat{a} is invertible, where $\widehat{a} = \Gamma(a)$ is the Gelfand transform.

Proof We know if a is invertible, then

$$\Gamma(aa^{-1}) = \Gamma(a)\Gamma(a^{-1}) = 1$$

Hence $\Gamma(a^{-1})$ is the inverse of $\Gamma(a) = \widehat{a}$, hence is invertible.

Now we want to show if \widehat{a} is invertible, then a is invertible. Suppose a is not invertible, we show \widehat{a} is not invertible. In other words, there exists φ such that

$$\widehat{a}(\varphi) = \varphi(a) = 0$$

Using the previous proposition, we notice that the set

$$\{ab:b\in\mathcal{A}\}$$
 is a proper ideal of \mathcal{A}

This is due to a be not invertible, hence does not contain 1_A . And every proper ideal is contained in some maximal ideal \mathcal{M} , hence there exists $\varphi \in \widehat{\mathcal{A}}$ such that $\varphi(a) = 0$, and we are therefore done.

Now we connect the spectral radius with the Gelfand transform. Recall the definition of the spectral radius.

Definition 1.8 (spectral radius)

Let $a \in A$, then we define

$$r(a) = \sup\{|\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma(a)\}$$

We now have the following claim.

Proposition 1.16

We have

$$r(a) = \|\widehat{a}\|_{\infty}$$

Proof We already know that for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$, $\widehat{a}(\varphi) = \varphi(a) \in \sigma(a)$, hence $\|\widehat{a}\|_{\infty} \leq r(a)$.

Lemma 1.2

For $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

$$\sigma(a) \subset Range(\widehat{a})$$

Proof Suppose λ is not in the range of \widehat{a} , then $\widehat{a} - \lambda(\varphi) \neq 0$ for all φ , hence

 $\hat{a} - \lambda$ is invertible $\Rightarrow a - \lambda$ is invertible

Hence $\lambda \notin \sigma(a)$. Hence this implies $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$ implies $\lambda = \varphi(a)$ for some a.

Hence $r(a) \leq \|\widehat{a}\|_{\infty}$. Hence $r(a) = \|\widehat{a}\|$.

In class we saw if $||a^2|| = ||a||^2$, then

$$r(a) = ||a||$$

Now we connect this with the Gelfand transform.

Proposition 1.17

The Gelfand transform is an isometry i.e. $\|\widehat{a}\| = \|a\|$ if and only if

$$||a^2|| = ||a||^2$$

Proof We have $\|\widehat{a}\| = r(a)$, and by the previous remark, we already have one direction. Now we want to show if $r(a) = \|a\|$, then $\|a^2\| = \|a\|^2$.

Lemma 1.3 (Spectral mapping theorem)

For $a \in A$, we have

$$\varphi(\sigma(a)) = \sigma(\varphi(a))$$

what Hence we have $r(a^2) = (r(a))^2$, then we have

$$||a^2|| = r(a^2) = (r(a))^2 = ||a||^2$$

Now we enter the realm of Hilbert spaces.

Theorem 1.4

For $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ if $\langle T\xi, \xi \rangle = 0$ for all $\xi \in \mathcal{H}$, then we have T = 0

 \Diamond

Remark This is proved by polarization.

Proposition 1.18

By the same reasoning, if $\langle T\xi, \xi \rangle$ is real for all ξ , then $T = T^*$.

Proof

$$\langle T\xi, \xi \rangle = \langle \xi, T^*\xi \rangle = \langle T^*\xi, \xi \rangle$$

By the previous theorem, we know $T = T^*$.

Proposition 1.19

If we have $||T\xi|| \ge a||\xi||$, and similarly $||T^*\xi|| \ge b||\xi||$, then we have T is invertible.

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Proof For $T\xi = 0$, we have $\xi = 0$, hence T is injective. And similarly, T^* is injective, and we have

$$\ker T^* = (Range(T))^{\perp} = \{0\}$$

Hence we have Range(T) is dense in \mathcal{H} . Thus, by T is injective, we can define T^{-1} on Range(T). It now suffices to show that T^{-1} is bounded on Range(T), then it will extend. Let $\xi \in Range(T)$, we have

$$\|\xi\| = \|TT^{-1}\xi\| \ge a\|T^{-1}\xi\|$$

Hence T^{-1} is bounded on a dense subset of \mathcal{H} .