

Functional Analysis

Author: Hui Sun

Date: August 31, 2023

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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.

Multiplication is continuous in Banach algebras.

Proof Multiplication $\cdot: A \times A \to A$, 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.

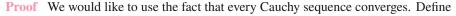
An element $a \in A$ is called invertible if there exists an element $a^{-1} \in A$ such that

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

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.



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

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 $X = \bigcup_{j=1}^n O_{x_j}$, 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 $(\widehat{\mathcal{A}})$

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, $||\varphi|| = 1$.