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## 1 1-21

### 1.1 Motivation

Before starting the development of the general theory of  $C^*$ -algebras we consider a few motivating examples.

**Example 1.1.** Consider the Hilbert spaces  $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$ ,  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  and define unitary operators  $U, V$  by  $(U\xi)(r) = \xi(r-1)$  and  $(V\xi)(r) = e^{2\pi i \theta r} \xi(r)$  for  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Consider the algebra generated by these two operators.  $VU = e^{2\pi i \theta} UV$  so the linear span of  $U^m V^n$  is an algebra. Denote its operator norm closure by  $\mathcal{A}_\theta$ . The algebras generated by  $U$  and  $V$  individually are both isomorphic to  $C(\mathbb{S}^1)$  and if  $\theta \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $U$  and  $V$  commute so  $\mathcal{A}_\theta \cong C(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1)$ . Otherwise, we call  $\mathcal{A}_\theta$  a noncommutative 2-torus.

Consider the self adjoint operator, called an almost Matthieu operator

$$H = (U + U^*) + \lambda(V + V^*)$$

Q: What is the spectrum of  $H$ ?

- For rational  $\theta$ , it is a disjoint union of intervals
- 1976: Hofstader plotted the spectra for rational  $\theta$  to produce a fractal like pattern – the Hofstader Butterfly. This led to the conjecture that the spectrum of  $H$  for irrational  $\theta$  was a Cantor set.
- 1981: Mark Kat offered 10 martinis for an answer to this conjecture.
- Barry Simon popularized this and it became known as the 10 martini problem

- 2005: Jitomirskaya, Avila gave an affirmative answer

Much of the partial progress on this problem came from the theory of  $C^*$ -algebras but the final proof used completely different techniques.

**Example 1.2.** Let  $G$  be a group. A (Hilbert Space) unitary representation of  $G$  is a group homomorphism  $\pi : G \rightarrow \mathcal{U}(H)$ . Consider the algebra of operators generated by  $\{\pi(x) : x \in G\}$ , ie. elements of the form  $\pi_f = \sum_{x \in G} f(x)\pi(x)$  for  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  finnitely supported. We define a product on this set by

$$(\sum f(x)\pi(x))(\sum g(y)\pi(y)) = \sum_{x,y} f(x)g(y)\pi(xy) = \sum_{x,y} f(x)g(x^{-1}y)\pi(y) = \sum_y (\sum_x f(x)g(x^{-1}y))\pi(y)$$

Defining the convolution  $*$  by

$$(f * g)(y) = \sum_x f(x)g(x^{-1}y)$$

we have the  $\pi_f \cdot \pi_g = \pi_{f*g}$  and this gives an algebra structure on  $C_c(G)$  and an algebra homomorphism  $\pi : (C_c(G), *) \rightarrow B(H)$ . The convolution also gives  $\ell^1(G)$  an algebra structure since  $\|f*g\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1\|g\|_1$ .

For any  $f \in C_c(G)$ , let  $\|f\|_{C^*(G)} = \sup\{\pi_f : \pi \text{ unitary rep of } G\}$ . Observe that

$$\|\pi_f\| \leq \sum |f(x)|\|\pi(x)\| = \sum |f(x)| = \|f\|_1$$

and so  $\|f\|_{C^*(G)} \leq \|f\|_1$ . Let  $C^*(G)$  denote the completion of  $C_c(G)$  with respect to this norm. We can represent this algebra as an algebra bounded operators on some Hilbert space.

Note: for any group  $G$  we have at least two unitary representations – the trivial representation and the left regular representation on  $\ell^2(G)$  by translation.

## 2 1-23

**Example 2.1.** Using the left regular representation:  $H = \ell^2(G)$  with  $\mathcal{U}_x(\xi)(y) = \xi(x^{-1}y)$ , we can define a norm on  $C_c(G)$  by  $\|f\|_r = \|U_f\|$ . Note that the involution is given by  $f^*(x) = f(-x)$ . The closure of  $C_c(G)$  under this norm is called the reduced  $C^*$ -algebra for  $G$ . Since  $\|f\|_r \leq \|f\|_{C^*}$ , we only have that  $C_r^*(G)$  is a quotient of  $C^*(G)$  in general. In fact, the discrepancy between the two encodes information about the group  $G$ :

**Theorem 2.2.**  $C^*(G) = C_r^*(G)$  if and only if  $G$  is amenable.

**Example 2.3.** For  $X$  a compact Hausdorff space, we can consider a homomorphism  $\alpha : G \rightarrow \text{Homeo}(x)$  (eg. a dynamical system). This induces a map  $\alpha : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(C(X))$ . We can often use this map to give insight into the behavior of the dynamical system as passing to the level of algebras gives more structure to leverage.

More generally, for a  $C^*$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , we call a map  $\alpha : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\mathcal{A})$  a “noncommutative dynamical system”. We will look at representations of these systems:  $U : G \rightarrow \mathcal{U}(H)$ ,  $\pi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow B(H)$  satisfying  $\pi(\alpha_x(a)) = U_x\pi(a)U_x^{-1}$  (the covariance relation). The algebra generated by  $(U_x, \pi(a))$  is called the crossproduct algebra.

**Example 2.4.** Let  $X = \mathbb{S}^1$  and  $a^\theta$  be rotation by  $\theta$ .

Ex:  $X = \mathbb{S}^1$ ,  $a^\theta$  = rotation by  $\theta$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}$  acts by  $(a^\theta)^n$  and the crossproduct algebra is  $\mathcal{A}_\theta$ .

**Remark 2.5.** The construction of  $C^*(G)$  also works for groupoids

If  $X, Y$  are compact Hausdroff spaces, how are  $C(X \times Y)$  and  $C(X), C(Y)$  related. Consider functions of the form  $(f \otimes g)(x, y) = f(x)g(y)$ . The algebra generated by these functions is dense in  $C(X \times Y)$  by Stone Weierstrass.

**Example 2.6.** Can from algebra  $\mathcal{A} \oplus \mathcal{A} \oplus \dots$

Consider direct limit of algebras  $M_2 \hookrightarrow M_4 \hookrightarrow M_8 \dots$  with isometric embeddings  $T \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} T & 0 \\ 0 & T \end{pmatrix}$ .

Called the CAR-algebra (canonical anticommutative relation).

Q: for different  $n$ , are the  $C^*$ -algebras generated by  $M_n \rightarrow M_{n^2} \dots$  nonisomorphic?

Yes (the proof uses methods from noncommutative geometry)

However, the Von-Neumann algebras generated by different  $n$  are all isomorphic.

**Definition 2.7.** A concrete C\*-algebra is a subalgebra of  $B(H)$ , for  $H$  a Hilbert space, which is norm closed and closed under  $*$ .

An abstract C\*-algebra is a Banach algebra with a conjugate linear involution  $*$  satisfying  $\|A^*A\| = \|A\|^2$ .

By the Gelfand-Naimark theorem (1943), every abstract C\*-algebra is isomorphic to a concrete C\*-algebra.

Little Gelfand-Naimark: If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a commutative C\*-algebra then  $\mathcal{A} \cong C_0(X)$  for  $X$  LCH.

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a commutative unital C\*-algebra over  $\mathbb{C}$ , define  $\hat{\mathcal{A}} = \{\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \text{ unital hom}\}$ . For each  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , define  $\hat{a}$  on  $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$  by  $\hat{a}(\varphi) = \varphi(a)$ . The map  $a \mapsto \hat{a}$  is a unital algebra homomorphism from  $\mathcal{A}$  to functions on  $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ .

**Definition 2.8.** For  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , define the spectrum of  $a$ ,  $\sigma(a) = \{\lambda : a - \lambda 1_{\mathcal{A}} \text{ is not invertible}\}$ .

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Banach algebra, then  $(1 - a)^{-1} = \sum a^n$  if  $\|a\| < 1$  and so if  $\lambda \in \sigma(a)$  then  $|\lambda| < \|a\|$ .

Observe that if  $\varphi \in \hat{\mathcal{A}}$  then  $\varphi(a) \in \sigma(a)$  since  $\varphi(a - \varphi(a)1) = 0$  and so  $a - \varphi(a)1$  is not invertible.

For  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\hat{a} \in C(\hat{\mathcal{A}})$ ,  $a \mapsto \hat{a}$  called the Gelfand transform.

Gelfand spectral radius formula:  $\sup\{|\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma(a)\} = \lim \|a^n\|^{1/n}$ .

So, if  $\|a^2\| = \|a\|^2$ , then Gelfand transform is isometric.

## 3 1-26

### 3.1 The GNS Construction

**Definition 3.1.** An algebra involution  $*$  is a conjugate linear map so that  $(ab)^* = b^*a^*$  and  $(a^*)^* = a$ .

Given  $C(X)$  a unital C\*-algebra, how do we realize it as bounded operators on a Hilbert space  $H$ ?

Suppose  $\mu$  is a positive measure, viewed as a linear functional. Define a pre-inner product by  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int f\bar{g}d\mu = \mu(f\bar{g})$ . Quotienting out by norm zero elements, gives a Hilbert space on which  $C(X)$  acts by pointwise multiplication.

**Example 3.2.** Consider  $\delta_x(f) = f(x)$ . Then  $C(X) \subseteq \ell^\infty(X_{\text{disc}})$  acts on  $\ell^2(X_{\text{disc}})$ . This is called the atomic representation.

We would like to this construction on a general unital  $*$ -algebra.

**Definition 3.3.** Let  $\mu$  be a linear functional on  $\mathcal{A}$  a unital  $*$ -algebra. Say that  $\mu$  is positive if  $\mu(a^*a) \geq 0$  for  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

The positive linear functionals are closed under addition and multiplication by nonnegative scalars (ie. they form a cone)

Let  $\mu$  be a positive linear function on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Define a pre-inner product on  $\mathcal{A}$  by  $\langle a, b \rangle_\mu = \mu(b^*a)$ . To see that this is a pre-inner product observe that

$$\langle a, a \rangle_\mu = \mu(a^*a) \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \langle a+b, a+b \rangle_\mu = \langle a, a \rangle_\mu + \langle a, b \rangle_\mu + \langle b, a \rangle_\mu + \langle b, b \rangle_\mu \geq 0$$

so  $0 = \text{Im}(\langle a, b \rangle_\mu) + \text{Im}(\langle b, a \rangle_\mu)$  and, replacing  $b$  with  $ib$ , gives  $\text{Re}(\langle a, b \rangle_\mu) = \text{Re}(\langle b, a \rangle_\mu)$ .

Let  $N_\mu = \{a \in \mathcal{A} : \langle a, a \rangle_\mu = 0\}$ . If  $a \in N_\mu$ , then  $|\langle a, b \rangle_\mu|^2 \leq \langle a, a \rangle_\mu \langle b, b \rangle_\mu = 0$  so  $N_\mu = \{a \in \mathcal{A} : \langle a, b \rangle_\mu = 0 \ \forall b\}$ . It follows that  $N_\mu$  is a left ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$ . On  $\mathcal{A}/N_\mu$  the pre-inner product becomes an inner product. Denote its completion by  $L^2(\mathcal{A}, \mu)$ .

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  act on itself on the left via  $\pi_a b = ab$ . This is a  $*$ -algebra homomorphism since

$$\langle \pi_a b, c \rangle_\mu = \langle ab, c \rangle_\mu = \mu(c^*ab) = \mu((a^*c)^*b) = \langle b, a^*c \rangle_\mu = \langle b, \pi_{a^*}c \rangle$$

Call this the left regular representation. Since  $N_\mu$  is a left ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$ , this gives an action of  $\mathcal{A}$  on  $\mathcal{A}/N_\mu$  as well. It remains to check that the  $\pi_a$ 's are continuous. This may fail without a complete norm as the next example shows.

**Example 3.4.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be the algebra of  $\mathbb{C}$ -valued polynomials on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and let  $\mu(p) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(t)e^{-t^2} dt$ . On  $L^2(\mathcal{A}, \mu)$ , multiplying by polynomials in an unbounded operator.

The above is called the GNS (Gelfand-Naimark-Segal) construction

**Theorem 3.5.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a unital normed  $*$ -algebra,  $\mu$  a positive linear functional on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

- (1) If  $\mathcal{A}$  is complete, then  $\mu$  is continuous and  $\|\mu\| = \mu(1)$
- (2) If  $\mathcal{A}$  is not necessarily complete but  $\mu$  is continuous then  $\|\mu\| = \mu(1)$ .

## 4 1-28

### 4.1 Automatic Continuity

**Lemma 4.1.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a unital \*-Banach algebra over  $\mathbb{C}$ . If  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $a^* = a$ , and  $\|a\| < 1$ , then there is  $b \in \mathcal{A}$  with  $b^*b$  and  $1 - a = b^2$ .

*Proof.* The function  $f(z) = \sqrt{1-z}$ , has a power series expansion  $f(z) = \sum r_n z^n$ ,  $r_n \in \mathbb{R}$  which converges for  $|z| < 1$ . Setting  $b = \sum r_n a^n$ , it follows that  $b^2 = (f(a))^2 = (f^2)(a) = 1 - a$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 4.2.** If  $\mu$  is a positive linear function on  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mu$  is continuous and  $\|\mu\| = \mu(1)$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  with  $a^* = a$  and  $\|a\| < 1$ . Then for  $b$  so that  $1 - a = b^*b$ , we have that

$$\mu(b^*b) = \mu(1) - \mu(a) \geq 0$$

and so  $\mu(1) \geq \mu(a)$ . It follows that if  $a^* = a$ ,  $\mu(a) \leq \|a\|\mu(1)$ . For general  $a$ ,

$$|\mu(a)|^2 = |\mu(a1)|^2 = |\langle 1, a \rangle_\mu|^2 \leq \mu(1)\mu(a^*a) \leq \mu(1)^2\|a^*a\| \leq \mu(1)^2\|a\|^2$$

$\square$

If  $(H, \pi)$  is a \*-representation of  $\mathcal{A}$ , then for any  $\xi \in H$ , set  $\mu_\xi(a) = \langle \pi(a)\xi, \xi \rangle$ . This defines a positive linear functional with  $\|\mu_\xi\| = \|\xi\|^2$ . We also have that

$$\|\pi(a)\xi\|^2 = \langle \pi(a)\xi, \pi(a)\xi \rangle = \langle \pi(a^*a)\xi, \xi \rangle \leq \|a^*a\| \|\xi\|^2 \leq \|a\|^2 \|\xi\|^2$$

and so  $\|\pi(a)\| \leq \|a\|_{\mathcal{A}}$ .

**Theorem 4.3.** If  $\mu$  is a positive linear functional on  $\mathcal{A}$ , then the left regular representation on  $L^2(\mathcal{A}, \mu)$  defines a \*-representation, ie. each  $\pi_a$  is a bounded linear operator (and  $\|\pi_a\| \leq \|a\|$ ).

*Proof.* For any  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ ,

$$\|\pi_a(b)\|^2 = \langle \pi_a(b), \pi_a(b) \rangle_\mu \langle ab, ab \rangle_\mu = \mu(b^*a^*ab) \leq \|b^*a^*ab\| \leq \|b^*\| \|a^*a\| \|b\| \mu(1) \leq \|a\|^2 \|b\|^2 \mu(1)$$

$\square$

### 4.2 Cyclic Representations

**Definition 4.4.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a unital \*-Banach algebra and  $(H, \pi)$  a continuous \*-representation. Then  $\xi \in H$  is said to be (topologically) cyclic if  $\{\pi_a\xi : a \in \mathcal{A}\}$  is dense in  $H$ .

**Proposition 4.5.** Let  $(H, \pi)$  be a \*-representation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $K \subseteq H$  is a closed  $\pi$ -invariant subspace then  $K^\perp$  is also  $\pi$ -invariant

*Proof.* For any  $\eta \in K^\perp$ ,  $\xi \in K$ ,  $\langle \xi, \pi_a\eta \rangle = \langle \pi_a^*\xi, \eta \rangle = 0$ .  $\square$

Given  $(H, \pi)$  a \*-representation, for any nonzero  $\xi \in H$ ,  $K = \overline{\{\pi_a : a \in \mathcal{A}\}}$  is a closed cyclic subspace and we can write  $H$  as the sum of closed  $\pi$ -invariant subspaces  $H = K \oplus K^\perp$ . Iterating this (possibly a transfinite number of times) shows that any \*-representation  $(H, \pi)$  can be decomposed into cyclic invariant subspaces.

## 5 1-30

### 5.1 Integrated Forms

Let  $G$  be a group and  $U$  a unitary representation of  $G$ . Given  $f \in C_c(G)$ , define  $U_f = \sum f(x)U_x$ . Then,  $U_f U_g = U_{f*g}$  and  $\|U_f\| \leq \|f\|_1$  so  $f \mapsto U_f$  is a continuous \*-representation of  $\ell^1(G)$ . The assignment  $f \mapsto U_f$  is called the integrated form corresponding to  $U$ . Conversely, if  $(H, \pi)$  is a \*-representation of  $\ell^1(G)$ , then  $x \mapsto \pi_{\delta_x}$  gives a unitary representation of  $G$ . So, there is a bijection between unitary representations of  $G$  and continuous \*-representations of  $C_c(G)$  or  $\ell^1(G)$ .

If  $\varphi$  is a continuous positive linear functional on  $\ell^1(G)$ , then  $\varphi \in \ell^\infty(G)$ . So to any positive linear functional  $\mu$ , there is an associated  $\mu_f \in \ell^\infty(G)$ . We call such a  $\mu_f$  a function of positive type.

**Example 5.1.** Let  $(H, \pi)$  be the trivial representation of  $G$  on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Its integrated from is  $f \mapsto \sum f(x)$  and so the corresponding function of positive type is  $\varphi(x) = 1$  for all  $x$ .

**Claim:**  $\delta_e \in \ell^\infty(G)$  is of positive type.

$$\langle f^* * f, \delta_e \rangle = (f^* * f)(e) = \sum \overline{f(y^{-1})} f(y^{-1}e) = \sum |f(y^{-1})|^2 \geq 0$$

What does the GNS construction give?

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{\delta_e} = \sum \overline{g(y)} f(y) = \langle f, g \rangle_{\ell^2(G)}$$

So we recover the left regular representation of  $G$ .

## 5.2 Traces

**Definition 5.2.** A positive linear functional on a normed  $*$ -algebra is tracial (is a trace) if  $\mu(ab) = \mu(ba)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ .

**Claim:**  $\delta_e$  is a trace on  $\ell^1(G)$

$$\langle f * g, \delta_e \rangle = \sum f(y) g(y^{-1}) = \sum f(y^{-1}) g(y) = \langle g * f, \delta_e \rangle$$

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a unital Banach  $*$ -algebra,  $\mu$  a tracial positive linear functional. Let  $N_\mu = \{a: \langle a, b \rangle_\mu = 0 \ \forall b\}$ . Then  $N_\mu$  is a two sided ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}/N_\mu$  is an  $A, A$ -bimodule. So  $L^2(A, \mu)$  admits both left and right regular representations.

The representation  $L^2(A, \mu)$  is cyclic vector with cyclic vector 1. Any vector  $\xi$  gives a positive linear functional via  $a \mapsto \langle a\xi, \xi \rangle$  and the positive linear function corresponding to 1 gives back  $\mu$ . So, any positive linear functional on  $\mathcal{A}$  comes from a cyclic vector in some  $*$ -representation.

**Example 5.3.** For the regular representations of  $\ell^1(G)$  or  $\ell^\infty(G)$  on  $\ell^2(G)$ , the vector  $\delta_e$  is cyclic for the representation. It defines a trace on the image of  $\ell^1(G)$ . Let  $C_r(G)$  denote the norm closure of the image of  $\ell^1(G)$  in  $B(\ell^2(G))$ .  $\delta_e$  defines a trace on this sub C\*-algebra,  $\|\delta_e\| = 1$ .

It is not possible to extend this to a trace on  $B(H)$  in general since iff  $H$  is infinite dimensional, then  $B(H)$  admits no bounded trace.

## 6 2-2

### 6.1 Direct Sums of Hilbert Spaces

Given a collection of Hilbert spaces  $\{H_j\}_{j \in J}$ , we can form the algebraic direct sum as

$$\bigoplus_{\text{alg}} H_j = \{\xi \in \prod H_j : \xi_j = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } j\}$$

This is an inner product space with

$$\langle \xi, \eta \rangle = \sum_j \langle x_j, \eta_j \rangle$$

Taking the completion with respect to this inner product gives the direct sum (coproduct) of the  $H_j$ 's as Hilbert spaces. One can check that

$$\bigoplus H_j = \{\xi \in \prod H_j : \sum \|x_i\|_j^2 < \infty\}$$

Given  $(T_j)_{j \in J}$  with  $T_j \in B(H_j)$ , can define  $T\xi = (T_j \xi_j)$ . If  $\{\|T_j\| : j \in J\}$  is bounded then  $T \in B(H)$  with  $\|T\| = \sup_j \|T_j\|$ . Similarly, if  $(H_j, \pi_j)$  is a family of unitary representations of  $G$  ( $*$ -representations of a Banach algebra), we can define a  $*$ -representation on  $\bigoplus H_j$  by  $U_x \xi = (U_x^j, \xi_j)$ ,  $(\pi_a \xi = (\pi_a^j \xi_j))$ . Note that these are bounded representations since  $\|U_x^j\| = 1$  and  $\|\pi_a^j\| \leq \|a\|$  for each  $j$ .

If  $(H, \pi)$  is a  $*$ -representation, then it decomposes into a direct sum  $\bigoplus (H_j, \pi_j)$  with each  $(H_j, \pi_j)$  a cyclic representation.

## 6.2 Intertwining Operators

**Definition 6.1.** Suppose  $(H, \pi)$ ,  $(K, \rho)$  are  $*$ -representations of  $\mathcal{A}$  (unitary reps of  $G$ ). A morphism of representations is an  $\mathcal{A}$  module homomorphism  $T : H \rightarrow K$ , ie. a bounded linear operator  $T : H \rightarrow K$  so that for each  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $T\pi_a = \rho_a T$ . We call such a map an intertwining operator.

**Definition 6.2.** An isomorphism of representations is an intertwining unitary operator  $U : H \rightarrow K$ .

**Definition 6.3.** A pointed cyclic representation  $(H, \pi, \xi_*)$  is a cyclic representation with a specified cyclic vector  $\xi_*$ .

**Proposition 6.4.** Let  $(H, \pi, \xi_*)$  and  $(K, \rho, \eta_*)$  be pointed cyclic representations. If  $\mu_{\xi_*} = \mu_{\eta_*}$  there is a unitary intertwining operator  $U$  from  $H$  to  $K$  so that  $U\xi_* = \eta_*$ .

*Proof.* Define  $U$  on the dense subspace  $\{\pi_a \xi_* : a \in \mathcal{A}\}$  by  $U(\pi_a \xi_*) = \rho_a \eta_*$ .  $U$  then extends uniquely to a continuous map  $H \rightarrow K$ . It is clear that  $U$  is intertwining. Further, for any  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ ,

$$\langle U\pi_a \xi_*, U\pi_b \xi_* \rangle = \langle \rho_a \eta_*, \rho_b \eta_* \rangle = \langle \rho_b^* \rho_a \eta_*, \eta_* \rangle = \mu_{\eta_*}(b^* a) = \mu_{\xi_*}(b^* a) = \langle \pi_b^* \pi_a \xi_*, \xi_* \rangle = \langle \pi_a \xi_*, \pi_b \xi_* \rangle$$

So  $U$  is unitary as well.  $\square$

It follows that there is a bijection between positive linear functions on  $\mathcal{A}$  and isomorphism classes of pointed cyclic representations.

**Definition 6.5.** A  $*$ -representation  $(H, \pi)$  irreducible if it has no proper closed  $\pi$ -invariant subspaces.

Given a finite dimensional representation, it can be decomposed into a sum of irreducible representations.

## 7 2-4

### 7.1 Schur's Lemma

**Definition 7.1.** Let  $H$  be a Hilbert space and  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq B(H)$ . The commutant of  $\mathcal{C}$  is defined to be

$$\mathcal{C}' = \{T \in B(H) : TC = CT \forall C \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

The commutant is closed with respect to the strong operator topology and so is a Von Neumann algebra (and hence a  $C^*$ -algebra). For any  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $(\mathcal{C}')'$  is the strong closed  $*$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{C}$ . The double commutant theorem was proved by Von Neumann in the first paper on operator algebras.

If  $(H, \pi)$  is a representation of  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $\text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H)$  is the commutant of  $\{\pi_a\}_{a \in \mathcal{A}}$ .

**Lemma 7.2** (Schur's Lemma). A representation  $(H, \pi)$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  is irreducible if and only if  $\text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H) = \mathbb{C}$ .

*Proof.* If  $(H, \pi)$  is not irreducible then there is a proper closed invariant subspace  $K \subseteq H$ . Taking  $P$  to be the orthogonal projection onto  $K$ , we have that  $K \in \text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H)$  but  $K$  is not a scalar multiple of the identity. Conversely, if  $\text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H) \neq \mathbb{C}$  then let  $T$  be an operator which is not a scalar multiple of the identity. Since either the real or imaginary part of  $T$  is also not a scalar multiple of the identity we may assume that  $T$  is self adjoint without loss of generality. There are  $s \neq t \in \sigma(T)$  and so let  $f, g$  be functions so that  $f(s) = g(t) = 1$  and  $fg = 0$ . This  $F, G \in C^*(I, T)$  so that  $F, G \neq 0$  and  $FG = 0$ . Now,  $\langle FH, GH \rangle = 0$  and  $GH \neq 0$  so, since  $F \in \text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H)$ ,  $\overline{FH}$  is a proper invariant subspace.  $\square$

**Corollary 7.3.** If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a commutative unital normed  $*$ -algebra, then every irreducible representation of  $\mathcal{A}$  is one dimensional.

*Proof.* If  $\mathcal{A}$  is commutative, then for representation  $(H, \pi)$ ,  $\pi_a \in \text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H)$  for  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . So if the representation is irreducible it follows that  $\pi_a \in \mathbb{C}I$  for each  $A$  and so every subspace is invariant. Thus,  $H$  must be one dimensional.  $\square$

**Example 7.4.** If  $X$  is a compact Hausdorff space, then the irreducible representations of  $X$  are precisely evaluations at points in  $x$ . More generally, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a commutative  $*$ -Banach algebra, then its irreducible representations are exactly the characters on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

**Example 7.5.** Consider the algebra  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathcal{C}$  with  $(\alpha, \beta)^* = (\bar{\beta}, \bar{\alpha})$ . There are no nonzero  $*$ -algebra homomorphisms from  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$  since  $(1, 0)$  generates it as a  $*$ -algebra but  $(1, 0)(1, 0)^* = 0$  and so  $\mu(1, 0) = 0$  for any  $\mu : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

## 7.2 Radon-Nikodym for Positive Linear Functionals

**Definition 7.6.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a unital \*-algebra and let  $\mu, \nu$  be positive linear functionals on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Say that  $\mu$  dominates  $\nu$ ,  $\mu \geq \nu$  if  $\mu - \nu \geq 0$ .

How do we get such a  $\nu$ ? Given  $\mu$ , consider the pointed representation  $(H_\mu, \pi_\mu, \xi_\mu)$ . For any  $T \in \text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H)$  with  $0 \leq T \leq I$ , define

$$\nu(a) = \langle \pi_a T \xi_\mu, \xi_\mu \rangle$$

We have that

$$\nu(a^* a) = \langle T \pi_a \xi_\mu, \pi_a \xi_\mu \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad (\mu - \nu)(a^* a) = \langle (I - T) \pi_a \xi_\mu, \xi_\mu \rangle$$

and so  $0 \leq \nu \leq \mu$ . Here  $T$  is the “Radon-Nikodym derivative” of  $\nu$ .

We will show that all such  $\nu$  arise in this way.

**Theorem 7.7.** If  $\mu \geq \nu \geq 0$ , then  $\exists T \in \text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H_\mu)$ ,  $0 \leq T \leq I$  such that  $\nu(a) = \langle T \pi_\mu(a) \xi_\mu, \xi_\mu \rangle$ .

**Fact:** Let  $H$  be a Hilbert Space,  $K$  a dense subspace, and  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_K$  a pre-inner product on  $K$  so that  $\langle \eta, \eta \rangle_K \leq \langle \eta, \eta \rangle_H$  for  $\eta \in K$ . Then, there is an operator  $T \in B(H)$  with  $0 \leq T \leq I$  and so that  $\langle \xi, \eta \rangle_K = \langle T\xi, \eta \rangle$  for  $\xi, \eta \in K$ .

*Proof.* Given  $\eta \in K$ , consider the conjugate-linear functional given by  $\varphi_\eta(\xi) = \langle \eta, \xi \rangle_K$ .  $\varphi_\eta$  extends uniquely to  $H$  and so there is some  $\xi_\eta$  so that  $\varphi_\eta(\xi) = \langle \xi_\eta, \xi \rangle$  for all  $\xi \in K$ . Consider the linear map defined on  $K$  by  $T\eta = \xi_\eta$ . Note that  $T$  is continuous since  $\|\xi_\eta\| = \|\eta\|_K \leq \|\eta\|_H$  and so extends uniquely to an element in  $B(H)$  satisfying the desired conditions.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem.* Define an inner product on  $H$  by  $\langle \pi_\mu(a)\xi_\mu, \pi_\mu(b)\xi_\mu \rangle_\nu = \nu(b^*a)$  then take  $T$  to be as above. It remains to check that  $T \in \text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H)$ . For any  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ , we compute that

$$\langle T\pi_\mu(b)\pi_\mu(a)\xi_\mu, \xi_\mu \rangle = \langle T\pi_\mu(ba)\xi_\mu, \xi_\mu \rangle = \nu(ba) = \langle T\pi_\mu(a)\xi_\mu, \pi_\mu(b^*)\xi_\mu \rangle = \langle \pi_\mu(b)T\pi_\mu(a)\xi_\mu, \xi_\mu \rangle$$

$\square$

## 8 2-6

### 8.1 Pure States

**Definition 8.1.** A positive linear functional  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{A}$  is pure if whenever  $\mu \geq \nu \geq 0$ ,  $\mu = r\nu$  for some  $r \in [0, 1]$ .

**Proposition 8.2.** A positive linear functional  $\mu$  is pure if and only if the corresponding representation  $(H_\mu, \pi_\mu)$  is irreducible.

*Proof.* If  $(H_\mu, \pi_\mu)$  is irreducible, then by Schur's lemma  $\text{End}_{\mathcal{A}}(H) = \mathbb{C}$ . So, whenever  $0 \leq \nu \leq \mu$ , the derivative of  $\nu$  is equal to  $rI$  for some  $r \in [0, 1]$  and so  $\nu = r\mu$ . Conversely, If  $(H_\mu, \pi_\mu)$  has a closed proper invariant subspace, let  $P$  be the projection onto this subspace. Then  $0 \leq P \leq I$  and so, taking  $\nu$  to be the corresponding positive linear functional, it follows that  $0 \leq \nu \leq \mu$  but  $\nu \neq r\mu$ .  $\square$

**Definition 8.3.** A state on  $\mathcal{A}$  is a positive linear functional  $\mu$  with  $\mu(1) = \|1\| = \|\mu\|$ .

Let  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A})$  denote the collection of states on  $\mathcal{A}$ , called the state space.  $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq B_1(\mathcal{A}')$  and is convex. It is also closed for the weak \*-topology and so is compact.

**Remark 8.4.** Physicists call states “mixed states” and use “states” to refer to pure states.

**Proposition 8.5.** A state  $\mu \in \mathcal{S}(A)$  is pure if and only if it is an extreme point of  $\mathcal{S}(A)$ .

*Proof.* If  $\mu$  is not an extreme point then there are  $\nu_1, \nu_2 \neq \mu$ ,  $t \in (0, 1)$  so that  $\mu = t\nu_1 + (1 - t)\nu_2$ . So  $\mu \geq t\nu_1$  but  $t\nu_1 \neq r\mu_1$ . So  $\mu$  is not pure. Conversely, if  $\mu$  is an extreme point and  $0 \leq \nu \leq \mu$ , then

$$\mu = \|\nu\| \left( \frac{\nu}{\|\nu\|} \right) + \|\mu - \nu\| \left( \frac{\mu - \nu}{\|\mu - \nu\|} \right)$$

is a convex combination of states and so  $\|\nu\|\mu = \nu$ . Hence,  $\mu$  is pure.  $\square$

**Corollary 8.6.** For  $\mu \in \mathcal{S}(A)$ ,  $(H_\mu, \pi_\mu)$  is irreducible if and only if  $\mu$  is an extreme point of  $\mathcal{S}(A)$ .

**Theorem 8.7** (Krein-Milman). Every compact, convex subset of a Banach space is equal to the closed convex hull of its extreme points.

For any representation  $(H, \pi)$  and  $\xi \in H$  with  $\|\xi\| = 1$  state, we can define a state by  $\mu_\xi(a) = \langle \pi(a)\xi, \xi \rangle$ . Call such a state a vector state.

**Example 8.8.** Let  $G$  be a discrete group, and consider the left regular representation of  $\ell^1(G)$  on  $\ell^2(G)$ . There is  $\xi \in \ell^2(G)$  so that if  $x \neq e$ ,  $\lambda_x \xi \neq \xi$ . There are lots of vector states in  $\mathcal{S}(A)$  so it follows that there are lots of irreducible representations. In particular, for any  $x \in G$  there is an irreducible representation  $(H, U)$  so that  $U_x \neq I_H$  (Gelfand-Raikov Theorem). For  $f \in \ell^1(G)$ , let  $\|f\| = \sup\{\|\pi_\mu(f)\| : \mu \text{ pure state}\}$ . Then  $\|f\| = \|\lambda_f\|$  as an operator on  $\ell^2(G)$ .

## 9 2-9

### 9.1 Constructing Positive Linear Functionals

Given a positive linear functional on a unital  $C^*$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have seen how to construct a representation. Our next goal is to answer the following question:

**Q:** If  $\mathcal{A}$  is an abstract unital  $C^*$ -algebra, why does it have any positive linear functionals?

Using the Riesz-representation theorem, we can produce many such functionals for commutative  $C^*$ -algebras. More generally, suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $C^*$ -algebra and  $\mathcal{B}$  a unital commutative sub  $C^*$ -algebra. Then  $\mathcal{B} \cong C(X)$  for some compact Hausdorff space  $X$ , and so if  $\mu_0$  is a probability measure on  $X$ , it defines a linear functional on  $C(X)$  with  $\mu(1) = 1 = \|\mu_0\|$ . Using Hahn-Banach,  $\mu_0$  can be extended to  $\mu$  a linear functional on  $\mathcal{A}$ . However, how do we know that such an extension is a state?

First, we may assume that the extension is a \*-algebra homomorphism by replacing  $\mu$  with

$$\tilde{\mu}(a) = \frac{\mu(a) + \mu(a^*)}{2} + i \frac{\mu(a) - \mu(a^*)}{2}$$

Then  $\tilde{\mu}(a^*) = \overline{\tilde{\mu}(a)}$ ,  $\tilde{\mu}|_{\mathcal{B}} = \mu_0|_{\mathcal{B}}$ , and  $\|\tilde{\mu}\| = \tilde{\mu}(1) = 1$ . So it remains to check that  $\mu$  is positive.

If  $\mathcal{C}$  is a commutative unital  $C^*$ -algebra,  $\mathcal{C} \cong C(Y)$  and so  $\mu|_{\mathcal{C}}$  arises from a Radon measure on  $Y$ . Taking the Jordan decomposition gives  $\mu|_{\mathcal{C}} = (\mu|_{\mathcal{C}})^+ - (\mu|_{\mathcal{C}})^-$ . Since

$$1 = \mu(1) = \|\mu|_{\mathcal{C}}\| = \|(\mu|_{\mathcal{C}})^+\| + \|(\mu|_{\mathcal{C}})^-\|$$

it follows that  $(\mu|_{\mathcal{C}})^- = 0$ . So, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a unital  $C^*$ -algebra, it has lots of linear functionals whose restriction to every commutative unital subalgebra is a state of that subalgebra.

In particular, for normal elements, we have that  $\mu(a^*a) \geq 0$  but why is this true for general  $a$ ?

**Definition 9.1.** For any  $C^*$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , we say that  $a$  is positive if  $a^* = a$  and  $\sigma(a) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ .

If  $a \geq 0$  then, restricting to the commutative  $C^*$ -algebra generated by  $a$ , it follows that  $\mu(a) \geq 0$ . So to show that  $\mu(a^*a) \geq 0$  for any  $a$ , it suffices to show that  $a^*a$  is positive.

**Proposition 9.2.** If  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  a unital  $C^*$ -algebra, then  $a^*a \geq 0$ .

*Proof.* We have  $C^*(a^*a, 1) \cong C(\sigma(a^*a))$ . Note that we are taking for granted that the spectrum of an element is invariant when passing to a sub  $C^*$ -algebra, but this will be shown later.

Suppose towards a contradiction that  $\sigma(a^*a) \not\subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , then there is some  $c \in C(\sigma(a^*a))$  with  $c \geq 0$  and so that  $\sigma(ca^*a) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$ . Let  $d = (ca)$  so that  $\sigma(d^*d) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$ .

Write  $d = h + ik$  with  $h, k$  self adjoint. Then

$$d^*d + dd^* = (h - ik)(h + ik) + (h + ik)(h - ik) = 2(h^2 + k^2)$$

so that  $dd^* = 2(h^2 + k^2) - d^*d$ .

To complete the proof, we will need two facts: that the sum of two positive elements is positive, and that  $\sigma(ab) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(ba) \cup \{0\}$  for any  $a, b$ . Since both  $2(h^2 + k^2)$  and  $-d^*d$  are positive, this would imply  $dd^*$  is positive. However  $\sigma(dd^*) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(d^*d) \cup \{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

**Proposition 9.3.** If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a unital  $C^*$ -algebra and if  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$  are so that  $a, b \geq 0$ , then  $a + b \geq 0$ .

For any C\*-algebra, its norm is completely determined by its \*-algebraic structure:

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

The next claim shows that the order structure on  $\mathcal{A}^{sa}$  is completely determined by norm.

**Claim:** For  $a^* = a$ ,  $a \geq 0$  if and only if  $\exists t \geq \|a\|$  with  $\|a - t1\| \leq t$  if and only if  $\forall t \geq \|a\|$   $\|a - t1\| \leq t$ .

*Proof.* It suffices to show this for  $\mathcal{A} = C(X)$ . Given  $f \in C_{\mathbb{R}}(X)$  and  $t \geq \|f\|$ ,  $\|f - t1\| \leq t$  iff  $|f(x) - t| \leq t$  for all  $x$  iff  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ .  $\square$

*Proof of Proposition (Kelley-Vaught, 1953).*

Suppose  $a, b \geq 0$  and let  $s = \|a\|$ ,  $t = \|b\|$ . Then  $\|a - s1\| \leq s$  and  $\|b - t1\| \leq t$ , so

$$\|(a + b) - (t + s)1\| \leq \|a - s1\| + \|b - t1\| \leq s + t$$

Since,  $\|a + b\| \leq s + t$ , it follows that  $a + b \geq 0$ .  $\square$

## 10 2-11

### 10.1 The Gelfand-Naimark Theorem

**Theorem 10.1.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be any unital algebra over any field. Then for  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\sigma(ab) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(ba) \cup \{0\}$ .

*Proof.* For  $\lambda \neq 0$ ,  $(ab - \lambda 1) = \lambda(\lambda^{-1}ab - 1)$  so it suffices to show that  $1 - ab$  is invertible whenever  $1 - ba$  is. Writing

$$(1 - ab)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (ab)^n = 1 + a \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (ba)^n \right) b = 1 + a(1 - ba^{-1})b$$

Hence, if  $1 - ba$  is invertible, it should be that  $(1 - ab)^{-1} = 1 + a(1 - ba)^{-1}b$ . An easy computation shows that this is true.  $\square$

**Remark 10.2.** We give a brief historical account of connections to physics:

- Heisenberg, Schrodinger (1926): Gave the first way to model quantum physics
- Heisenberg: Observables should be modeled by self adjoint operators on a Hilbert Space.

Let  $P$  model momentum and  $Q$  model position. Then

$$PQ - QP = i\hbar I_H$$

where  $\hbar$  is Planck's constant.

- Schrodinger: Let  $H = L^2(\mathbb{R})$  and define

$$P(\xi)(t) = t\xi(t) \quad Q(\xi)(t) = i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \xi(t)$$

so that we again have  $PQ - QP = i\hbar I_H$ .

Note that the operators  $P$  and  $Q$  above are not bounded so we must restrict their domain.

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a unital Banach algebra, then there are no  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$  so that  $ab - ba = \lambda 1$  as this would imply  $\sigma(ba + \lambda I) = \sigma(ba) + \lambda$  while  $\sigma(ab) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(ba) \cup \{0\}$ , which is impossible. This shows that using unbounded operators is necessary to model the above situation.

**Example 10.3.** Consider  $\ell^2(\mathbb{N})$ . Define  $S$  via  $(S\xi)_n = x_{n+1}$ . Then  $(S^*\xi)_n = \xi_{n-1}$  for  $n > 0$  and 0 otherwise. We have that  $S^*S = I$  but  $SS^* = I - \pi_0$  and so  $\sigma(S^*S) \neq \sigma(SS^*)$ .

A unital C\*-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is called finite if there is no  $a$  so that  $a^*a = 1$  and  $aa^* \neq 1$ .

We are finally ready to complete the proof of the Gelfand-Naimark theorem.

**Theorem 10.4.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an abstract unital C\*-algebra. Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is isometrically isomorphic to a C\*-subalgebra of bounded operators on some Hilbert space  $H$ .

*Proof.* For each  $\mu \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A})$ , form  $(H_\mu, \pi_\mu)$  and let  $H = \bigoplus_{\mu \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A})} (H_\mu, \pi_\mu)$ . We show this representation of  $\mathcal{A}$  is isometric. For each  $a$ ,  $\|\pi(a)\| = \sup_\mu \|\pi_\mu(a)\| \leq \|a\|$ . This supremum is achieved since for any  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , there is a state  $\mu_0$  on  $C^*(a^*a, 1)$  so that  $\mu_0(a^*a) = \|a^*a\|$ . We can then extend  $\mu_0$  to a state  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{A}$  and for this  $\mu$  we will have

$$\|\pi_\mu(a)\|^2 = \|\pi_\mu(a^*a)\| = \mu(a^*a) = \|a^*a\| = \|a\|^2$$

□