Todo list

An Introduction to States and Representations of C*-Algebras

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Abstract

This paper provides an introduction to the theory of states and representations of C*-algebras. Beginning with basic definitions and examples, we explore the structure of state spaces and illustrate the Gelfand-Naimark-Segal (GNS) construction. Connections to quantum mechanics and noncommutative geometry are also discussed.

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1 Introduction

C*-algebras are a generalization of function algebras and play a crucial role in functional analysis, quantum mechanics, and noncommutative geometry. This paper aims to provide an accessible introduction to the concepts of states and their representations.

1.1 Motivation

Discuss the motivation for studying states and their representations. Include their relevance to various mathematical and physical theories.

1.2 Structure of the Paper

Outline the sections of the paper.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Definition of an Algebra

Definition 2.1. An **algebra** is a vector space A with a multiplication operator $A \times A \to A$ and $(x, y) \mapsto xy$ such that

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

We say A is **unital** if it has an identity element $e \in A$ such that ex = xe = x for all $x \in A$. We will assume every algebra is unital unless stated otherwise. Further, A is **abelian** or (**commutative**) if xy = yx for all $x, y \in A$.

2.2 Definition of a Banach Algebra

Definition 2.2. A **Banach algebra** is an algebra A which is norm complete, thus a Banach space, such that

$$||xy|| \le ||x|| ||y|| \quad \forall x, y \in A$$

If A is unital then we assume ||e|| = 1. Further, we usually write 1 := e for the unital element. We won't work much with Banach algebras exclusively but rather to motivate the definition of a C*-algebra. However, it is important to note an example.

Example 2.3. Let $f, g \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ and define the multiplication operation as the convolution $f * g \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ by

$$(f * g)(t) := \int_{\mathbb{D}} f(t - s)g(s)ds$$

Under the convolution, $L^1(\mathbb{R})$ is a commutative Banach algebra but it is not unital.

2.3 Definition of a C*-Algebra

Definition 2.4. A C*-algebra is a Banach algebra A equipped with an involution $a \mapsto a^*$ satisfying the C*-identity:

$$||a^*a|| = ||a||^2 \quad \text{for all } a \in A.$$

Note that the involution operator is unique. For some concrete examples and nonexamples, consider a compact Hausdorff space X. We define C(X) to be all continuous functions $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$. It is crucial that X be compact for our purposes. The involution on C(X) is defined as complex conjugation denoted $f^* = \overline{f}$. Lets look at some simple examples.

Example 2.5. Let X = [0, 1], then C(X) is a C*-algebra.

Example 2.6. Let $X = S^1$, the unit circle. Then C(X) is a C*-algebra.

Example 2.7. Let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. Then C(X) is a C*-algebra.

Example 2.8. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. Then C(X) is not a C*-algebra because X is not compact.

These are very basic concrete examples of subsets of \mathbb{C} , but we also want to consider some much more important examples for our purposes. One that shows up a lot in physics is the C*-algebra of complex-valued $n \times n$ matrices, denoted $M_n(\mathbb{C})$. Another C*-algebra of particular interest is the bounded linear operators from a Hilbert space onto itself, we denote this B(H) for a Hilbert space H. One may also explore the C*-algebras of continuous compactly supported functions and continuous functions vanishing at infinity. Should these arise in any examples we will give a rigorous definition.

In summary, and with some abuse of notation, we can see how much more structure C*-algebras have as compared to typical vector spaces.

vector space \supseteq algebra \supseteq Banach algebra \supseteq C*-algebra

2.4 States on C*-Algebras

Definition 2.9. A state on a C*-algebra A is a linear functional $\phi: A \to \mathbb{C}$ such that:

$$\phi(a^*a) \ge 0$$
 for all $a \in A$, and $\phi(1) = 1$.

We require the positive semidefinite condition for ϕ to preserve the positive structure of A. We define the set of all the states on A as the **state space** $\Phi(A)$. It can be shown that S(A) is compact, non-empty, and convex (state spaces are "nice"). There are some types of states that are of particular interest. We say a state $\phi \in S(A)$ is **pure** if it is an extreme point of S(A). Note this definition is well-defined because the Krein-Milman theorem guarantess the existence of extreme points of S(A). States that are not pure are **mixed**.

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States of course have the typical properties that we'd expect from a linear functional but they also admit some other properties that may not be so apparent.

Definition 2.10. The kernel of a state ϕ is defined as

$$\ker(\phi) = \{a : \phi(a^*a) = 0\}$$

for $a \in A$, a C*-algebra. Furthermore, a state ϕ on a C*-algebra is **faithful** if $\phi(a^*a) = 0$ implies a = 0 for all $a \in A$.

This, in a sense, tells us that faithful states "detect" non-zero elements. As we will see later, a state is faithful iff its GNS representation is injective. States have many other properties of interest, particularly

- The set of states S(A) is compact in the weak-* topology
- A state is **tracial** if $\phi(ab) = \phi(ba)$ for all $a, b \in A$
- Pure states correspond to rank-1 projections onto a unit vector $\psi \in H$. Specifically, $\phi(A) = \langle \psi, A\psi \rangle$
- A mixed state is a convex combination of pure states

3 Concrete Examples of States

3.1 States on C(X)

Recall that for compact space X, we denote the C*-algebra of continuous functions on X by C(X). Fix some point $x_0 \in X$. We define the **Dirac state** as $\phi(f) = f(x_0)$. One can easily see that the Dirac state is pure and faithful. Now, consider the C*-algebra $C^*(G)$ which is the algebra generated by the unitary representations of a compact group G (we will talk about representations some more in the next section). Then we define the **Haar state** as

 $\phi(f) = \int_{G} f(g) d\mu(g)$

for the Haar measure μ . This state is faithful if G is simple, and tracial if G is abelian. There are of course many other states on C(X) (and $C^*(X)$) but these are of particular interest in quantam mechanics and noncommutative geometry. States on commutative algebras have a very familiar analogue. In fact, for C(X), states are exactly probability measures. To see this, we define the state

$$\phi(f) = \int_X f(x)d\mu(x)$$

with $\mu(X) = 1$. So under the hood, probability measures on commutative algebras are states. Now what about the noncommutative case? Consider a, not necessarily commutative, C*-algebra A. If A is noncommutative, then unfortunately we can't make a generalization to traditional probability measures. If A is commutative, and thus isomporhic to C(X) (by Gelfand duality), then the Riesz Representation Theorem guarantees that ϕ corresponds to a probability measure μ on X.

3.2 States on $M_2(\mathbb{C})$

In quantum mechanics, a density matrix is a postivie semidefinite operator ρ with operator norm 1. The state corresponding to a given density matrix is

$$\phi(A) = \text{Tr}(\rho A)$$

Recall that is ρ is a rank-1 projection, then we can recover the pure state exactly by taking the inner-product $\phi(A) = \langle \psi, A\psi \rangle$ for a unit vector $\psi \in H$. If ρ is not rank-1, then it is a mixed state. These mixed states have a special correspondence to the probability of quantam states which we will discuss later.

3.3 States on B(H)

For noncommutative C*-algebras, the theory changes but there is still a relationship to probability. Consider the C*-algebra of bounded linear operators on a Hilbert space B(H). Recall that the involution on B(H) is the adjoint operator. For a quantum state ϕ on B(H), we can define a probability distribution for each observable. In this context, observables are self-adjoint elements of B(H) ($A = A^*$). Suppose we have an observable A with the given spectral decomposition

$$A = \sum_{i} \lambda_i P_i$$

where the P_i are projections onto the eigenspaces of A. Then we can find the probability of a given λ_i by $\mathbb{P}(A = \lambda_i) = \phi(P_i)$. So the quantum state doesn't assign a probability distribution to the whole space, but rather assigns a probability distribution to each observable in B(H). If we have two observables A and B that do not commute, then there does not exist a single probability distribution that describes both simultaneously.

In summary, states on commutative C*-algebras correspond to probability measures either directly or by the Riesz Representation Theorem. States on noncommutative C*-algebras cannot assign a global probability measure, but rather each observable is assigned a probability measure. So the commutative case lets us make a global generalization while the noncommutative case only allows local consistency. We have only just scratched the surface of states here but hopefully the reader can start to understand the importance they have in quantum mechanics and noncommutative geometry.

4 The Gelfand-Naimark-Segal (GNS) Construction

4.1 Overview of the Construction

The Gelfand-Naimark-Segal (GNS) Construction is a very important method in the theory of operator algebras and related fields. On a high level, the idea is to take a state ϕ on a C*-algebra and turn it into a representation of the whole algebra over a Hilbert space. First, we define representations (technically these are *-representations).

Definition 4.1. A representation of a C*-algebra A over a Hilbert space H is a map $\pi: A \to B(H)$ such that

- π is a ring homomorphism and carries the involution from A into the involution on operators in B(H)
- π is nondegenerate and thus unit-preserving $(\pi(1) = 1)$

Definition 4.2. Let π be a representation of a C*-algebra A on a Hilbert space H. An element ξ is called a **cyclic vector** if the set of vectors

$$\{\pi(x) \cdot \xi : x \in A\}$$

is norm dense in H. Specifically, the range of the representation $\pi(x)\xi$ is dense in H with respect to the induced norm. When this is the case, π is called a **cyclic representation**.

The ultimate goal of the GNS construction is to take an abstract state and realize it as a representation on a Hilbert space. Lets do this step by step.

- 1. We take the algebra A and define a pre-Hilbert space on it where the vectors in the pre-Hilbert space are equivalence classes of elements of A with inner-product $\langle a,b\rangle_{\phi}=\phi(b^*a)$ for a state ϕ on A.
- 2. Now the algebra A can act on this pre-Hilbert space by operators. For each $a \in A$ we define the operator (representation) $\pi_{\varphi}(a)$ as acting on the Hilbert space H (the completion of the pre-Hilbert space). This representation is explicitly realized as $\pi_{\varphi}(a) \cdot x = a \cdot x$ for some x in the Hilbert space H.
- 3. The construction of H gives us a cyclic vector $\xi \in H$ generated by the identity of A. This vector is crucial because all of H is generated by the action of A onto this vector. Particularly, all vectors in H can be written $\pi_{\phi}(a) \cdot \xi$ for some $a \in A$.
- 4. The state ϕ corresponds to the expectation of the representations $\pi_{\phi}(a)$ acting on ξ . Specifically, $\phi(a) = \langle \pi_{\phi}(a) \cdot \xi, \xi \rangle$.

Thus our state ϕ , which started life as a linear functional, can now be realized as a real-valued expectation on H. Now we have all the ingredients we need to explicitly define the GNS construction.

Theorem 4.3 (Gelfand-Naimark-Segal (GNS) Construction). Given a state ϕ of A, there is a *-representation π of A acting on a Hilbert space H with a cyclic vector ξ such that

$$\phi(a) = \langle \pi(a)\xi, \xi \rangle$$

for every $a \in A$.

4.2 Examples

Example 4.4. GNS construction for C([0,1]) with a specific state.

Example 4.5. GNS construction for $M_2(\mathbb{C})$.

5 Applications and Connections

5.1 Quantum Mechanics

Discuss how states correspond to physical states and observables.

5.2 Noncommutative Geometry

Briefly describe the role of states in measuring noncommutative spaces.

6 Conclusion and Future Directions

Summarize the main points and suggest further topics for exploration.

A Proofs of Key Results

Provide detailed proofs for any key theorems mentioned in the paper.

References

- [1] William Arveson, An Invitation to C^* -Algebras.
- [2] Gerald J. Murphy, C^* -Algebras and Operator Theory.