

## General preliminaries on Banach Algebra

### Algebra:

An algebra is a linear space whose vector can be multiplied in such way that

$$(1) \quad x(yz) = (xy)z$$

$$(2) \quad x(y+z) = xy + xz \quad \text{and} \quad (x+y)z = xz + yz$$

$$(3) \quad \alpha(xy) = (\alpha x)y \quad (\text{or}) \quad x(\alpha y) \quad \forall \text{ scalar } \alpha.$$

Here  $x, y, z$  are points of a linear space. The scalars are real numbers then the algebra is called a real algebra and if the scalars are complex numbers then it is called complex algebra.

### Commutative algebra:

A commutative algebra is an algebra whose multiplication satisfying the following condition  $xy = yx$ .

### Algebra with identity:

An algebra with identity is

algebra which possesses the following property.  
There exist a non zero element  $1$  is called  
the identity element such that  $x \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot x = x \quad \forall x$ .

Banach Algebra:  $\mathbb{C}^m$

A Banach algebra is a complex Banach space which is also an algebra with identity  $1$  in which the multiplicative structure is related with a norm by the following requirements

$$(1) \|xy\| \leq \|x\| \|y\| \quad (2) \|1\| = 1.$$

Banach sub algebra:

A Banach sub algebra of a Banach algebra  $A$  is a closed sub algebra of  $A$  which contains the identity  $1$ .

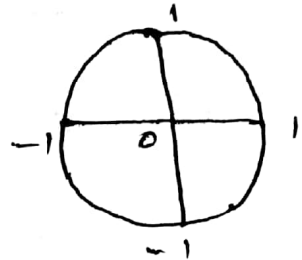
Example for Banach algebra:  $\mathbb{C}^m$

(1) The set  $C(X)$  of all bounded continuous complex functions defined by a topological space  $X$  is a Banach algebra.

(2) Consider the closed unit disc

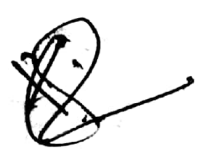
(3)

$D = \{z \mid \|z\| \leq 1\}$  in the complex plane.



The subset of  $C(D)$  which consists of all functions analytic in the interior of the sub algebra which contains the identity.

Theorem  $\circledast$   $\forall x \in D$



Every element  $x$ , for which  $\|x-1\| < 1$  is regular and its inverse is given by the formula

$$x^{-1} = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$$

Proof:

Put  $r = \|x-1\|$ ,  $r < 1$

Now  $\|1-x\| \leq \|1-x\|^n \leq r^n$

$\therefore \|(1-x)^n\| \leq r^n$

$\therefore$  The partial sum of the series

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$  forms a Cauchy sequence in

But  $A$  is complete (Being a Banach space)

$\therefore$  These partial sums converge to an element in  $A$ . Let it be  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$ .

Now we define  $y$  by  $y = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$

Then the joint continuity of multiplication yields

$$\begin{aligned} y - xy &= (1-x)y \\ &= (1-x) \left( 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n \right) \\ &= (1-x) + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (1-x)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n (1-x) \left[ (1-x)^{n-1} + (1-x)^{n-2} + \dots \right] \\ &= y - 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$y - xy = y - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow xy = 1$$

|||  $\Rightarrow$

we can prove  $yx = 1$

This prove that  $y$  is the inverse

of  $x$ .

$$\text{i.e., } y = x^{-1}$$

$$= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$$

Theorem:

$E_1$  is an open set and  $S$  is a closed set.

Proof:

$E_1$  is the set of all regular elements in the Banach algebra  $A$ .

To prove  $E_1$  is open, we have to prove that for any point  $x_0 \in E_1$ ,  $\exists$  an open sphere centered at  $x_0$  and contained in  $E_1$ .

Let  $x_0 \in E_1$  and  $x$  be any other point in  $E_1$ , such that  $\|x - x_0\| < \frac{1}{\|x_0^{-1}\|}$

Now Consider,

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_0^{-1} x^{-1}\| &= \|x_0^{-1} x - x_0^{-1} x_0\| \\ &= \|x_0^{-1} (x - x_0)\| \\ &\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \|x - x_0\| \\ &\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \frac{1}{\|x_0^{-1}\|} \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\|x_0^{-1} x^{-1}\| < 1.$$

$\therefore$  By previous theorem,  $x_0^{-1} x$  is regular.

i.e.,  $x_0^{-1} x \in E_1$

Since  $E_1$  is a group,

$$x_0 \in E_1, x_0^{-1} x \in E_1$$

$$x_0 (x_0^{-1} x) \in G_1$$

$$\Rightarrow (x_0 x_0^{-1}) x \in G_1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 \cdot x \in G_1$$

$$\therefore x \in G_1.$$

Since  $x$  is any arbitrary element in  $A$  such that  $\|x - x_0\| < \frac{1}{\|x_0^{-1}\|}$

ie, An open sphere centered at  $x_0 \in G_1$  is contained in  $G_1$ .

$\therefore G_1$  is an open set.

$\therefore \Delta$  lying the complement of  $G_1$  is closed.

Hence the theorem.

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Theorem:

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The mapping  $x \rightarrow x^{-1}$  of  $G_1$  into  $G_1$  is continuous and therefore a homeomorphism of  $G_1$  onto itself.

Proof:

Let  $x_0 \in G_1$  be any element and  $x$  be any other element in  $A$  such that

$$\|x - x_0\| < \frac{1}{2 \|x_0^{-1}\|}$$

Now  $\|x_0^{-1}x - 1\| = \|x_0^{-1}x - x_0^{-1}x_0\|$  (7)

$$= \|x_0^{-1}(x - x_0)\|$$

$$\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \|x - x_0\|$$

$$\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \frac{1}{2 \|x_0^{-1}\|}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} < 1.$$

$\therefore \|x_0^{-1}x - 1\| < 1.$

$\therefore$  By theorem  $x_0^{-1}x \in C_1$ .

Its inverse is given by

$$(x_0^{-1}x)^{-1} = x^{-1}x_0$$

$$(x_0^{-1}x)^{-1} = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Now consider,

$$\|x^{-1}x_0^{-1}\| = \|(x^{-1}x_0 - 1)x_0^{-1}\|$$

$$\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \|x^{-1}x_0 - 1\|$$

$$\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \left\| 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n - 1 \right\|$$

$$\leq \|x_0^{-1}\| \left\| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n \right\|$$

$$= \|x_0^{-1}\| \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\| \left\| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n \right\|$$

$$= \|x_0^{-1}\| \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\| \frac{1}{1 - \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\|}$$

$\left( \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\| \leq \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\| \right)$

$\left( \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\| \leq \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\| \right)$

[from (1)]

~~$$\left\| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n \right\|$$~~

~~$$= \left\| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n \right\|$$~~

~~$$= \left\| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - x_0^{-1}x)^n \right\|$$~~

~~$$+ \|x_0^{-1}\|$$~~

$$\|x^{-1} - x_0^{-1}\| < \frac{\|x_0^{-1}\| \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\|}{1 - 1/2}$$

$$< 2 \|x_0^{-1}\| \|1 - x_0^{-1}x\|$$

$$= 2 \|x_0^{-1}\| \|x_0^{-1}(x_0 - x)\|$$

$$< 2 \|x_0^{-1}\| \|x_0^{-1}\| \|x_0 - x\|$$

$$\|x^{-1} - x_0^{-1}\| < 2 \|x_0^{-1}\|^2 \|x_0 - x\| \quad \text{----- (2)}$$

Whenever  $x \rightarrow x_0$ ,  $\|x - x_0\| \rightarrow 0$ .

$\therefore$  In the above inequality the R.H.S  $\rightarrow 0$ .

$\therefore$  The L.H.S of equation (2)

$$\|x^{-1} - x_0^{-1}\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\therefore x^{-1} \rightarrow x_0^{-1}$$

$\therefore$  Whenever  $x \rightarrow x_0 \Rightarrow x^{-1} \rightarrow x_0^{-1}$

$\therefore$  The mapping  $x \rightarrow x^{-1}$  is continuous.

||| by The mapping  $x^{-1} \rightarrow (x^{-1})^{-1} = x$ .

$x^{-1} \rightarrow x$  is also continuous

$\therefore$  The mapping  $x \rightarrow x^{-1}$  is a homeomorphism.

Hence the theorem.



## Topological Divisors of zero

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Let  $A$  be a Banach algebra. An element  $z \in A$  is called a topological divisor of zero, if  $\exists$  a sequence  $\{z_n\} \in A$   $\exists$   $\|z_n\| = 1$  and either  $zz_n \rightarrow 0$  (or)  $z_n z \rightarrow 0$ .

The set of all topological divisors of zero is denoted by  $Z$ .

Theorem:

$Z$  is a subset of  $S$ .

Proof:

Let  $z \in Z$ .

Let  $\{z_n\}$  be a sequence in  $Z$  such that  $\|z_n\| = 1$  and  $zz_n \rightarrow 0$  (say)

we have to prove that  $z \in S$  so that  $Z \subset S$ .

On the contrary assume that  $z \in C$ .

$\therefore \exists z^{-1}$ , then by the joint continuity of multiplication,

$$z^{-1}(zz_n) = (z^{-1}z)(z_n)$$

$$= 1 \cdot z_n = z_n \rightarrow 0$$

This contradicts  $\|z_n\| = 1$ .

$\therefore z \notin E_1$

$\therefore z \in S$

$\therefore z \in Z$ .

Hence the theorem.

Theorem: APR-05

The boundary of  $S$  is a subset of  $Z$ .

Proof:

Since  $S$  is closed, its boundary consists of all points in  $S$ , which are limit points of the convergent sequence in  $E_1$ .

We will show that if  $z \in S$  and  $\exists$  a seq  $\{x_n\} \in E_1$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow z$ , then  $z \in Z$ .

$$\text{Now, } \|x_n^{-1}z - 1\| = \|x_n^{-1}z - x_n^{-1}x_n\|$$

$$= \|x_n^{-1}(z - x_n)\|$$

$$\rightarrow 0 \quad [\because x_n \rightarrow z \Rightarrow (x_n - z) \rightarrow 0]$$

Also the sequence  $\{x_n^{-1}\}$  is unbounded.

Otherwise, if it is bounded.

$$\|x_n^{-1}z - 1\| < n, \text{ for some } n.$$

$\therefore \pi_n^{-1} z$  is regular.

$\therefore \gamma = \pi_n(\pi_n^{-1} z)$  is regular.

$\Rightarrow z$  is regular.

which is a contradiction to  $z \in S$ .

$\therefore$  The sequence  $\{\pi_n^{-1}\}$  is unbounded.

$\therefore$  Assume that  $\|\pi_n^{-1}\| \rightarrow \infty$

Now define  $z_n$  by  $z_n = \frac{\pi_n^{-1}}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|}$

$$\|z_n\| = \left\| \frac{\pi_n^{-1}}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|} \right\| = \frac{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|} = 1.$$

Now,

$$z z_n = z \cdot \frac{\pi_n^{-1}}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|}$$

$$= \frac{1 + (z - \pi_n) \pi_n^{-1}}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|} + \frac{(z - \pi_n) \pi_n^{-1}}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|}$$

$$\text{But } \|\pi_n^{-1}\| \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\|\pi_n^{-1}\|} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{and } \pi_n \rightarrow z \Rightarrow (\pi_n - z) \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{ie, } (z - \pi_n) \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{RHS} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\therefore z z_n \rightarrow 0$$

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$\therefore$  We have  $\|z_n\| = 1$  and  $\{z_n\} \rightarrow 0$

$\therefore z \in Z$ .

$\therefore$  The boundary of  $\Delta$  is a subset of  $Z$ .

Hence the theorem.

Spectrum:

Define:

Let  $T$  be a operator on a Hilbert space  $H$ , then the spectrum of  $T$  is defined by

$$\sigma(T) = \{ \lambda / T - \lambda I \text{ is singular} \}$$

Spectrum of an element:

Let  $A$  be a Banach algebra and let  $x \in A$ . The spectrum of  $x$  is the subset of the complex plane

$$\sigma(x) = \{ \lambda / (x - \lambda) \text{ is singular} \}$$

Properties:

(1) Since the set of singular elements in  $A$  is closed,  $\sigma(x)$  is also closed.

(2)  $\sigma(x)$  is the subset of the closed disc  $\{ z / |z| \leq \|x\| \}$ .

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Theorem :



$\sigma(\alpha)$  is non-empty.

Proof :

Let  $f$  be a functional defined on  $A$ .

i.e.,  $f \in A^*$

Define  $f(\lambda) = f(\alpha(\lambda))$

Here  $f(\lambda)$  is a complex function which is defined and continuous on the resolvent set  $\rho$ .

Now from the resolvent equation we have

$$\alpha(\lambda) - \alpha(\mu) = (\lambda - \mu) \cdot \alpha(\lambda) \cdot \alpha(\mu)$$

$$f(\alpha(\lambda) - \alpha(\mu)) = f((\lambda - \mu) \cdot \alpha(\lambda) \cdot \alpha(\mu))$$

$$f(\alpha(\lambda)) - f(\alpha(\mu)) = (\lambda - \mu) [f(\alpha(\lambda) \cdot \alpha(\mu))]$$

$$f(\lambda) - f(\mu) = (\lambda - \mu) f(\alpha(\lambda) \cdot \alpha(\mu))$$

$$\frac{f(\lambda) - f(\mu)}{\lambda - \mu} = f(\alpha(\lambda) \cdot \alpha(\mu))$$

Take  $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \mu}$  on both sides

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \mu} \frac{f(\lambda) - f(\mu)}{\lambda - \mu} = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \mu} f(x(\lambda) \cdot x(\mu))$$

$$= f(x(\mu) \cdot x(\mu))$$

$$= f(x(\mu))^2 \quad \text{----- (1)}$$

$\therefore f(\lambda)$  has derivative at each point of  $P(\alpha)$ .

Further,  $|f(\lambda)| = |f(x(\lambda))|$

$$\leq \|f\| \|x(\lambda)\|$$

Since  $f \in A^*$ ,  $\|f\|$  is bounded.

and  $\|x(\lambda)\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$

$\therefore f(\lambda) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$  ----- (2)

On the contrary, assume that  $\sigma(\alpha)$  is empty.

$P(\alpha) = [\sigma(\alpha)]^c$  is the entire complex plane.

$\therefore f(\lambda)$  is an entire function in the whole complex plane such that  $f(\lambda) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$

$\therefore f(\lambda)$  is bounded entire function. [From (1) & (2)]

$\therefore$  By Liouville's theorem

$$f(\lambda) = 0 \quad \forall \lambda \in P(\alpha)$$

i.e.,  $f(x(\lambda)) = 0 \quad \forall \lambda$ .

But  $f \in A^*$  is an arbitrary function (19)

$$x(\lambda) = 0$$

$$(x - \lambda e)^{-1} = 0.$$

This is impossible, since inverse of an element is never zero.

$\therefore$  Our assumption that  $\sigma(x)$  is empty is wrong.

$\therefore \sigma(x)$  is non-empty.

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⊗ Spectral radius:

$\sigma(x)$  is non-empty and it is a compact subspace of the complex plane, the number of  $r(x)$  defined by

$r(x) = \sup \{ |\lambda| = \lambda \in \sigma(x) \}$  is called the spectral radius of  $x$ .

It is clear that  $0 \leq r(x) \leq \|x\|$ .

Division algebra:

The division algebra is an algebra with identity in which every non-zero element is invertible.

Formula for the spectral radius:  $\rho(x)$

Let  $A$  be a Banach algebra and  $x \in A$ . Then its spectral radius  $\rho(x)$  is defined by

$$\rho(x) = \sup \{ |\lambda| : \lambda \in \sigma_A(x) \}$$

Theorem:  $\rho(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^n\|^{1/n}$

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The spectral radius  $\rho(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^n\|^{1/n}$ .



Proof:

lemma.

Lemma:

$$\sigma(x^n) = [\sigma(x)]^n$$

Proof:

Let  $\lambda$  be a non-zero complex number and  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  be its distinct  $n$  roots so that  $x^n - \lambda 1 = (x - \lambda_1 1)(x - \lambda_2 1) \dots (x - \lambda_n 1)$

$x^n - \lambda 1$  is singular iff  $(x - \lambda_i 1)$  is singular for at least one  $i$ .

i.e.,  $\{ \lambda / (x^n - \lambda 1) \}$  is singular.

$\Leftrightarrow \{ \lambda_i / (x - \lambda_i 1) \}$  is singular for  $i$ .

$$\sigma(x) = \{ \lambda / (x - \lambda 1) \text{ is singular} \}$$

$$\therefore \sigma(x^n) = [\sigma(x)]^n$$



Now let us prove the theorem -

By the lemma  $\sigma(x^n) = [\sigma(x)]^n$ .

i.e.,  $\pi(x^n) = [\pi(x)]^n$ .

But  $\pi(x^n) \leq \|x^n\|$

i.e.,  $[\pi(x)]^n \leq \|x^n\|$ .

Taking  $n^{\text{th}}$  root on both sides

$$\{ [\pi(x)]^n \}^{1/n} = \|x^n\|^{1/n}$$

$$\pi(x) \leq \|x^n\|^{1/n} \quad \forall n.$$

To conclude the proof it suffices to show that if 'a' is any real number, such that  $\pi(x) < a$  then  $\|x^n\|^{1/n} \leq a$  for all but a finite number of n's.

Now if  $\lambda > |\alpha|$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} x(\lambda) &= (x - \lambda e)^{-1} \\ &= \left[ \lambda \left( \frac{x}{\lambda} - 1 \right) \right]^{-1} \\ &= \lambda^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{\lambda} - 1 \right)^{-1} \\ &= -\lambda^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{x}{\lambda} \right)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e., } x(\lambda) = -\lambda^{-1} \left[ 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{\lambda^n} \right] \quad \text{--- ①}$$

If  $f$  is any arbitrary functional in  $A$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f[x(\lambda)] &= f\left[-\lambda^{-1} \left(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{\lambda^n}\right)\right] \\ &= -\lambda^{-1} \left[ f(1) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f\left(\frac{x^n}{\lambda^n}\right) \right] \\ &= -\lambda^{-1} \left[ f(1) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(x^n) \lambda^{-n} \right] \quad \forall \lambda > \|x\| \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Now  $f[x(\lambda)]$  is an analytic function in the region  $\|x\| > r(x)$  and equation (2) is its expansion for  $|\lambda| > \|x\|$ .

Now let  $\alpha$  be any complex number such that  $r(x) < \alpha < a$ , then the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f\left(\frac{x^n}{\alpha^n}\right) \text{ converges.}$$

$\therefore$  Its terms form a bounded sequence.

By a known theorem

$\left\{ \frac{x^n}{\alpha^n} \right\}$  form a bounded sequence in  $A$ .

$$\therefore \left\| \frac{x^n}{\alpha^n} \right\| \leq k.$$

$$\therefore \|x^n\| \leq k \alpha^n.$$

$\|x^n\|^{1/n} \leq k^{1/n} \alpha$  for some positive constant  $k$  and for every  $n$ .

But  $k^{1/n} \leq a$  for sufficiently large  $n$ .

$\therefore \|a_n\|^{1/n} \leq a$  for all but a finite number of  $n$ 's.

$$\therefore r(a) = \lim \|a_n\|^{1/n}.$$

Hence the theorem.

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