SPECTRAL THEORY

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Contents

1.	Introduction	1
2.	Banach and C^* -algebra	2
3.	Borel Functional Calculus	3
4.	Spectral Theory	5
4.1	. Spectrums	5
4.2	. Gelfand Transform	6
4.3	. Holomorphic Functional Calculus	10
4.4.	. Spectral Theorems	14

Familiarity with basic topics in functional analysis is expected: Banach spaces, Hilbert spaces, bounded linear operators, algebraic inverse vs topological inverse, dual spaces, Hahn-Banach theorem and its consequences. Chapter 1, 2, 4.2, 6, 7.2 of lecture note of Oxford course B4.1 Functional Analysis I will be enough. Please see https://courses.maths.ox.ac.uk/pluginfile.php/105425/mod_resource/content/ 22/B4.1LectureNotes.pdf.

We will basically follow the material from the last bit of Cambridge Part III course Functional Analysis, for details see https://minterscompactness.wordpress.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/functional-analysis-part-iii-notes.pdf.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let *H* be a Hilbert space and *T* be a compact, self-adjoint operator on *H*. Then we have a spectrum decomposition of *T*. As *T* is compact, $\sigma(T) \setminus \{0\} = \sigma_P(T)$ is countable and $0 \in \overline{\sigma_P(T)}$. Let $\sigma_P(T) = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \cdots\}$ and E_k be the associated eigenspace of λ_k . Then

$$Tx = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k P_{E_k} x$$

where P_{E_k} is the orthogonal projection on E_k , and the convergence is in the sense of operator norm. Being slightly crazy, if P_{E_k} can be thought as some "measure" on some "sets", i.e., $P_{E_k} = m(F_k)$ for some F_k inside a single, say, compact Hausdorff topological space, then we can write

$$T = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k P_{E_k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k m(F_k) = \int \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \mathbf{1}_{F_k} \, \mathrm{d}m.$$

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This is where *Boerl Functional Calculus* comes from. Indeed we can use this intuition to define a more general version of spectral theories, which we will give an introduction in this note.

2. Banach and C^* -Algebra

Let $\mathcal{B}(H)$ denotes the space of bounded linear operators on H. Then by Riesz representation theorem, for each $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ there exists a unique $T^* \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ such that $\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle$. Now we have some simple properties of T and T^* :

- (1) $(\lambda T + \mu S)^* = \overline{\lambda} T^* + \overline{\mu} S^*;$
- (2) $(TS)^* = S^*T^*;$
- (3) $T^{**} = T;$
- (4) $||T^*T|| = ||T||^2$.

We also survey some general properties for $\mathcal{B}(H)$: For $T, S \in \mathcal{B}(H)$, we have $TS \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ and $||TS|| \leq ||T|| ||S||$. Now we abstract everything out, get rid of H and arrive at the definitions:

Definition 2.1. An algebra A over a field \mathbb{F} is a vector space equipped with addition +, vector multiplication \times and scalar multiplication \cdot such that

- (1) $\forall a, b, c \in A$, we have $a \times (b \times c) = (a \times b) \times c$;
- (2) $\forall a, b \in A, \lambda \in \mathbb{F}$, we have $\lambda \cdot (a \times b) = (\lambda \cdot a) \times b = a \times (\lambda \cdot b)$;
- (3) $\forall a, b, c \in A$, we have $a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$.

We also notice that there is an identity in $\mathcal{B}(H)$, so we should separate those algebras with identity out.

Definition 2.2. An unital algebra is an algebra A with an element $1 \neq 0$ in A such that $\forall a \in A$, we have $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$.

We always want a norm to study infinite dimensional spaces.

Definition 2.3. An algebra norm on an algebra A is a vector space norm $\|\cdot\|$: $A \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\|ab\| \leq \|a\| \|b\| \, \forall a, b \in A$. The pair $(A, \|\cdot\|)$ is called a normed algebra. In particular this ensures vector multiplication is continuous.

An unital normed algebra is a normed algebra A which is also a unital algebra and satisfies ||1|| = 1.

A Banach Algebra is a complete, normed algebra. We will abbreviate it as BA.

We finally arrive at the definition of a C^* -algebra.

Definition 2.4. An involution is a map $* : A \to A$, sending $x \mapsto x^*$, such that:

- (1) $(\lambda x + \mu y)^* = \bar{\lambda} x^* + \bar{\mu} y^*;$
- (2) $(xy)^* = y^*x^*;$
- (3) $x^{**} = x$.

for all $x, y \in A, \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$.

Definition 2.5. A C^* -algebra is a Banach algebra with an involution * such that the C^* -equation holds:

 $\|x^*x\| = \|x\|^2 \quad \forall x \in A.$

We have the abstract versions of different operators:

Definition 2.6. We say:

(1) x is self-adjoint (Hermitian) if $x^* = x$;

- (2) x is unitary if A is unital, and $x^*x = xx^* = 1$;
- (3) x is normal if $x^*x = xx^*$.

Definition 2.7. A homomorphism θ between two algebras A and B is a linear map such that $\theta(xy) = \theta(x)\theta(y)$. If A, B are unital with units 1_A and 1_B respectively, then θ is a unital homomorphism if $\theta(1_A) = 1_B$ as well.

Definition 2.8. A *-homomorphism between C^* -algebras A, B is a homomorphism $\theta : A \to B$ such that $\theta(x^*) = (\theta(x))^*$. A *-isomorphism is a bijective *-homomorphism.

3. Borel Functional Calculus

Let K be a compact, Hausdorff topological space and \mathcal{B}_K be the Borel sigma algebra on K. we define our vector-valued measure on \mathcal{B}_K .

Definition 3.1. A resolution of the identity of H over K is a map $P : \mathcal{B}_K \to \mathcal{B}(H)$ such that:

- (1) $P(\emptyset) = 0$ and $P(K) = I_H$;
- (2) P(E) is an orthogonal projection $E \in \mathcal{B}_K$;
- (3) $P(E \cap F) = P(E)P(F)$ for any $E, F \in \mathcal{B}_K$;
- (4) If $E \cap F = \emptyset$, then $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F)$ (not necessarily countably additive);
- (5) $\forall x, y \in H$, the map $P_{x,y} : \mathcal{B}_K \to \mathbb{C}$ given by:

$$P_{x,y}(E) := \langle (P(E))(x), y \rangle$$

is a regular Borel measure on K.

When doing integration, we consider an analogous of L^{∞} spaces:

Definition 3.2. A Borel function $f : K \to \mathbb{C}$ is P-essentially bounded if there exists a Borel set E with P(E) = 0 such that f is bounded on $K \setminus E$. We define

 $L^{\infty}(P) := \{f : f : K \to \mathbb{C} \text{ is Borel and } P \text{-essentially bounded}\}$

equipped with norm

$$||f||_{\infty} := \inf \left\{ ||f||_{K \setminus E} := \sup_{K \setminus E} |f| : E \in \mathcal{B}_K \text{ such that } P(E) = 0 \right\}.$$

Let $L^{\infty}_{s}(P)$ be the subspace of simple functions in $L^{\infty}(P)$.

We firstly consider the integral on simple functions: Let s be a simple function. WLOG we can suppose $(E_i)_{1 \le i \le m}$ is a Borel partition of K and $s = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i}$ (why?). Define

$$\int_{K} s \, \mathrm{d}P = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} P(E_{i}).$$

We have to check that it is well-defined. Let $s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \mathbf{1}_{F_i}$ be another representation of s, where $(F_i)_{1 \le i \le n}$ is another Borel partition of K. As they both agree we have, by considering $E_i \cap F_j$, that either $a_i = b_j$ or $P(E_i \cap F_j) = 0$. Hence

$$a_i P(E_i \cap F_j) = b_j P(E_i \cap F_j).$$

By using the identity

$$P(E_i) = P(E_i \cap K) = P\left(E_i \cap \bigcup_{j=1}^n F_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^n P(E_i \cap F_j),$$

we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i P(E_i) = \sum_{i,j} a_i P(E_i \cap F_j) = \sum_{i,j} b_j P(E_i \cap F_j) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j P(F_j).$$

We have some useful facts about such integral

Proposition 3.3. The map

$$\Phi: L^{\infty}_{s}(P) \to \mathcal{B}(H), \quad L^{\infty}_{s}(P) \ni s \to \int_{K} s \, \mathrm{d}P$$

is an isometric *-homomorphism such that

 $\begin{array}{ll} (1) \ \, \Phi(\mathbf{1}_k) = I_H; \\ (2) \ \, \langle \Phi(s)(x), y \rangle = \int_K s \ \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,y}; \\ (3) \ \, \|\Phi(s)(x)\|^2 = \int_K |s|^2 \ \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,x}. \end{array}$

Proof. (1) is trivial. We check it is an isometric injective *-homeomorphism first. Linearity could be check with some careful arguments like above. Now as $P(E_i)$ are orthogonal projections we have $P(E_i)^* = P(E_i)$ (why?), so

$$(\Phi(s))^* = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m a_i P(E_i)\right)^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{a_i} P(E_i) = \Phi(\overline{s}).$$

We also notice that if $s = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i}$ and $t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \mathbf{1}_{F_i}$ we have $st = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j \mathbf{1}_{E_i \cap F_j}$ and hence

$$\Phi(st) = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j P(E_i \cap F_j) = \Phi(st) = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j P(E_i) P(F_j) = \Phi(s) \Phi(t).$$

Thus indeed Φ is a *-homeomorphism. Now simply calculate

$$\langle \Phi(s)x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \langle P(E_i) x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i P_{x,y}(E_i) = \int_K s \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,y},$$

so (2) holds. For (3) set $y = \Phi(s)(x)$ we have

$$P_{x,\Phi(s)(x)}(E_i) = \left\langle P(E_i) x, \sum_{i=1}^m a_i P(E_i)(x) \right\rangle = \overline{a_i} \left\langle P(E_i) x, P(E_i) x \right\rangle = \overline{a_i} P_{x,x}(E_i)$$

where we have used the fact that $P(E_i)$ are self-adjoint and $P(E_i \cap E_j) = 0$. Now we check the isometry. By (3) we see that

$$\|\Phi(s)(x)\|^2 = \int_K |s|^2 \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,x} = \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|^2 \langle P(E_i)x, x \rangle \le \sup_i |a_i|^2 \|x\|^2.$$

Hence, $\|\Phi(s)\| \leq \|s\|_{\infty} = \sup_{i} |a_{i}|$. As $i = 1, 2, \cdots, m$ is finite, $\sup_{i} |a_{i}|$ is attended by sum a_{j} where E_{j} is non-null. Take $x \in \operatorname{Im}(P(E_{j}))$ we have $\|\Phi(s)(x)\| = |a_{j}|\|x\|$ so $\|\Phi(s)\| = \|s\|_{\infty}$.

As $L_s^{\infty}(P)$ is dense in $L^{\infty}(p)$, by isomstry property we can extend Φ to $L^{\infty}(P)$:

4

Proposition 3.4. (Borel Functional Calculus) There exists a unique map

$$\Phi: L^{\infty}(P) \to \mathcal{B}(H), \quad L^{\infty}(P) \ni f \to \int_{K} f \, \mathrm{d}P$$

is an isometric *-homomorphism such that

- (1) $\Phi(\mathbf{1}_k) = I_H;$
- $\begin{array}{l} \overbrace{(2)}^{(2)} & \langle \Phi(f)(x), y \rangle = \int_{K} f \, \mathrm{d} P_{x,y}; \\ (3) & \|\Phi(f)(x)\|^{2} = \int_{K} |f|^{2} \, \mathrm{d} P_{x,x}; \end{array}$
- (4) $S \in B(H)$ commutes with every $\Phi(f)$ if and only if S commutes with P(E)for every $E \in \mathcal{B}_K$.

Proof. We only need to check uniqueness and (4). For (4), If S commutes with every P(E) then by taking approximation by simple functions, we have S commutes with every $\Phi(f)$. The other direction is trivial. For uniqueness, let Ψ be another such map, then

$$\langle \Phi(f)(x), y \rangle = \int_{K} f \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,y} = \langle \Psi(f)(x), y \rangle$$

for any $x, y \in H$, By taking $y = \Phi(f)(x) - \Psi(f)(x)$ we are done.

4. Spectral Theory

4.1. Spectrums. Now we would like to talk about invertibility of some elements in a Banach algebra or C^* -algebra A. In particular we can define the spectrum of any element $x \in A$ be exactly the same as how we define it for bounded linear operators.

Definition 4.1. For an unital algebra A and $x \in A$ we define the spectrum $\sigma(x)$ as

$$\sigma(x) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : x - \lambda \text{ is not invertible}\}.$$

In here we are going to develop a very general notion of spectrum and prove the corresponding spectral theories under these notions. In the following, unless specifically noted, A denotes a unital Banach algebra.

Lemma 4.2. If ||1 - a|| < 1, then a is invertible and $||a^{-1}|| \le \frac{1}{1 - ||1 - a||}$.

Proof. Let x = 1 - a, then $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x^i$ is the explicit inverse of a, which converges as it converges absolutely.

From this we can easily show that if G(A) denotes the invertible elements of A, then G(A) is open.

Theorem 4.3. Let $x \in A$, then $\sigma(x)$ is a non-empty, compact and is contained in $B_{\parallel x \parallel}(0) = \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{C} : |\lambda| \le \|x\| \}.$

Proof. By Lemma 4.2 we have $x - \lambda$ is invertible if $\lambda > ||x||$, so the last part is proven. If $x - \lambda$ is invertible, then for any μ such that $|\mu - \lambda| < ||x - \lambda||, |\mu - x|$ is invertible. So $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma(x)$ is open and hence $\sigma(x)$ is closed and bounded, hence compact.

The only non-trivial part is the non-emptiness. Suppose that $\sigma(x)$ is empty. Then for any bounded linear functional f on A, $g_f: \lambda \to f((x-\lambda)^{-1})$ is a holomorphic function on \mathbb{C} (why?). Since for $\lambda > 2||x||$,

$$||(x-\lambda)^{-1}|| \le \frac{1}{|\lambda|} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left\|\frac{x}{\lambda}\right\|^i \le \frac{1}{||x||},$$

we have g_f is bounded, and hence constant by Louville's theorem. This implies that $(x - \lambda)^{-1}$ is constant over all λ , which is impossible.

We also have the spectrum radius

Definition 4.4. The spectrum radius of $x \in A$, r(x), is defined as

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

We note a formula for spectrum radius that we do not prove here:

Theorem 4.5. (Gelfand's formula)

$$r(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \|x^n\|^{1/n} = \inf_n \|x^n\|^{1/n}$$

for any $x \in A$.

4.2. **Gelfand Transform.** We notice that it is possible to define the "dual" space on a Banach algebra:

Definition 4.6. A character on an algebra A is a non-zero homomorphism $A \to \mathbb{C}$. Let Φ_A denotes the set of all characters on A.

Proposition 4.7. Let $\varphi \in \Phi_A$. Then φ is continuous and $\|\varphi\| = 1$.

Proof. Given $x \in A$, suppose $|\varphi(x)| > ||x||$. Then we have $||x/\varphi(x)|| < 1$, and so by Lemma 4.2, we have $1 - x/\varphi(x) \in G(A)$. Let $z \in A$ be the inverse of $1 - x/\varphi(x)$. Then apply φ to this expression, we have

$$1 = \varphi(1) = \varphi(z) \cdot \underbrace{\varphi(1 - x/\varphi(x))}_{=0},$$

contradiction. Hence $|\varphi(x)| \leq ||x||$. Take x = 1 we have $||\varphi|| = 1$.

Lemma 4.8. Let I be a proper ideal of A. Then \overline{I} is a proper ideal of A.

Proof. As I is proper, $I \cap G(A) = \emptyset$. As G(A) is open, $\overline{I} \cap G(A) = \emptyset$. By continuity of multiplication and addition, \overline{I} is an ideal hence proper.

Let \mathcal{M}_A be the collection of all maximal ideals of A.

Proposition 4.9. Let A be commutative, then its maximal ideals are exactly the kernel of its characters.

Proof. For each φ , ker(φ) is a maximal ideal. Since $\varphi \neq 0$, ker(φ) has co-dimension 1. So it follows that ker(φ) is maximal.

Assume that $\ker(\varphi) = \ker(\psi)$, for some $\varphi, \psi \in \Phi_A$. Then given $x \in A$, we have: $x - \varphi(x) \in \ker(\varphi) = \ker(\psi)$. Hence $\psi(x - \varphi(x)) = \psi(x) - \varphi(x) = 0$. Hence $\psi = \varphi$.

Let M be a maximal ideal, then A/M is a field and it is isomorphic to \mathbb{C} (topologically, check why) and the quotient map $A \to A/M$ defines a character. \Box

Theorem 4.10. Let A be commutative and let $x \in A$. Then:

- (1) $x \in G(A) \Leftrightarrow x \notin \ker(\varphi)$ for any character φ ;
- (2) $\sigma(x) = \{\varphi(x) : \varphi \in \Phi_A\};$
- (3) $r(x) = \sup \{ |\varphi(x)| : \varphi \in \Phi_A \}.$

 $\mathbf{6}$

Proof. (1) follows from proposition 4.9.

For (2), let $\lambda \in \sigma(x)$ and then by (1) there exists character φ such that $\lambda - x \in \ker(\varphi)$, so $\lambda = \varphi(x)$. If $\lambda = \varphi(x)$ for some $\varphi \in \Phi_A$ then $\lambda - x \in \ker(\varphi)$ so it is not invertible by (1).

(3) follows immediately from (2).

7

Exercise 4.11. Prove the following formulas: Suppose A is not necessarily commutative but x, y commutes, then we have

$$r(x+y) \le r(x) + r(y)$$
 and $r(xy) \le r(x)r(y)$.

Equip Φ_A with the topology that, $\Phi_A \ni f_n \to f$ if and only if $f_n(x) \to f(x)$ for any $x \in A$. This is called the *weak* * topology (w^*) of Φ_A , which makes (Φ_A, w^*) into a compact, Hausdorff space (Banach-Alaoglu Theorem). Then we see as spectrum can be represented by characters, we have the natural identification:

Definition 4.12. (Φ_A, w^*) is called the spectrum of A. The map $\hat{x} : \Phi_A \to \mathbb{C}$ defined by $\hat{x}(\varphi) = \varphi(x)$ is called the Gelfand transform of x. The map $x \to \hat{x}$ is called the Gelfand map.

By Theorem 4.10 we see that the image of \hat{x} is $\sigma(x)$, and \hat{x} is a continuous map on Φ_A . We note that $C(\Phi_A)$ can be identified as a Banach algebra equipped with the supremum norm $\|f\|_{\infty} = \sup_{x \in \Phi_A} |f(x)|$.

Theorem 4.13. (Gelfand Representation Theorem) The Gelfand map is a continuous unital homomorphism, and:

- (1) $\|\hat{x}\|_{\infty} = r(x);$ (2) $\sigma(\hat{x}) = \sigma(x);$
- (3) $\hat{x} \in G(C(\Phi_A)) \Leftrightarrow x \in G(A).$

Proof. To check homomorphism is easy, and (1) follows immediately from Theorem 4.10 (3), and boundness follows.

For (2), we note that the spectrum of a continuous function on a compact set is just the image of it (why?), so $\sigma(\hat{x}) = \text{Im}(\hat{x}) = \sigma(x)$.

For (3), $\hat{x} \in G(C(\Phi_A))$ if and only if $0 \notin \sigma(\hat{x})$, if and only if $0 \notin \sigma(x)$, if and only if x is invertible.

For the case of a C^* -algebra, their characters behave better:

Theorem 4.14. (Commutative Gelfand-Naimark Theorem). Let A be a commutative, unital C^{*}-algebra. Then, the Gelfand map $x \mapsto \hat{x}$, is an isometric *isomorphism between A and $C(\Phi_A)$. This means all C^{*}-algebras are C(K) for some compact, Hausdorff space K.

Proof. We proof an intuitive lemma first

Lemma 4.15. Let A be an unital C^* -algebra. Then characters on A are *-homomorphisms.

Proof. We check $\varphi(x^*) = \varphi(x)$. Suppose x is self-adjoint, and $\varphi(x) = \alpha + i\beta$ with $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then for $t \in \mathbb{R}$, let $z_t = x + it$. Then:

$$|\varphi(z_t)|^2 = |\alpha + i(\beta + t)|^2 = \alpha^2 + (\beta + t)^2$$

But we also have

$$\left|\varphi\left(z_{t}\right)\right|^{2} \leq \left\|z_{t}\right\|^{2} = \left\|z_{t}^{*}z_{t}\right\| = \left\|(x-it)(x+it)\right\| = \left\|x^{2}+t^{2}\right\| \leq \left\|x\right\|^{2}+t^{2}$$

So hence we see

$$\alpha + 2\beta t + \beta^2 \le \|x\|^2$$

and this is true for all t. Hence we must have $\beta = 0$ and that $\varphi(x) \in \mathbb{R}$.

Now assume x is arbitrary. Then we can write x = h + ik, where h, k are self-adjoint (why?). Then $x^* = h - ik$ and

$$\varphi\left(x^*\right) = \varphi(h) - i\varphi(k) = \overline{\left(\varphi(h) + i\varphi(k)\right)} = \overline{\varphi(x)}$$

where we used $\varphi(h), \varphi(k) \in \mathbb{R}$ by the self-adjoint case above.

We check that the Gelfand map is a isometric surjective *-homomorphism. Notice that $\hat{x^*}(\varphi) = \varphi(x^*) = \overline{\varphi(x)} = \hat{x}(\varphi)^*$, so indeed it is a *-homomorphism.

For isometric we see immediately as $\|\hat{x}\|_{\infty} = r(x) = \|x\|$. The last equality follows, as A is commutative and hence x is always normal, and for normal element we have $\|x\| = r(x)$ by using Gelfand formula.

For surjective, we see that the image of Gelfand map is a closed unital *subalgebra that separate points. Hence by Stone-Weiestrass theorem (A unital *-subalgebra of C(K) that separates point is dense in C(K), for any compact Hausdorff space K) we see that it is $C(\Phi_A)$.

Corollary 4.16. Let A be a unital C^* -algebra. Let $x \in A$ and $\varphi \in \Phi_A$.

$$\begin{array}{l} x \ self\text{-}adjoint \ \Rightarrow \varphi(x) \in \mathbb{R} \\ x \ unitary \ \Rightarrow \varphi(x) \in S^1. \end{array}$$

We can now define the spectrum properties of self-adjoint and unitary elements. In the following, if $x \in A$ and $x \in B \subset A$ be a subalgebra of A, then we define $\sigma_B(x)$ to be the spectrum of x only consider B.

Proposition 4.17. Let A be a unital C^* -algebra, and let $x \in A$. Then we have:

- (1) x Self-adjoint $\Rightarrow \sigma_A(x) \subset \mathbb{R};$
- (2) x unitary $\Rightarrow \sigma_A(x) \subset S^1$.
- (3) If B is a unital C^* -subalgebra of A and $x \in B$ is normal, then $\sigma_A(x) = \sigma_B(x)$.

Proof. Assume that $x \in A$ is normal. Then let:

$$A(x) := \{ p(x, x^*) : p \text{ is a polynomial over } \mathbb{C} \text{ in } 2\text{-variables } \}$$

where we take norm closure in A. This is called the C^* -subalgebra generated by x, in particular A(x) is a commutative, unital, C^* -subalgebra of A. Then we have by Theorem 4.10, $\sigma_{A(x)}(x) = \{\varphi(x) : \varphi \in \Phi_{A(x)}\}$. As $A(x) \subseteq A$ we have $\sigma_A(x) \subseteq \sigma_{A(x)}(x)$. By Corollary 4.16 we have that

$$\left\{\varphi(x):\varphi\in\Phi_{A(x)}\right\}\subset \begin{cases} \mathbb{R} & \text{ if } x \text{ is self-adjoint}\\ S^1 & \text{ if } x \text{ is unitary.} \end{cases}$$

Hence (1) and (2) is proven.

For (3), we firstly assume that x is self-adjoint. Then as $\sigma(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, we have $\sigma(x) = \partial \sigma(x)$. We also have $\partial_B(x) \subseteq \partial_A(x)$ (why?) so

$$\sigma_B(x) = \partial \sigma_B(x) \subseteq \partial \sigma_A(x) \subseteq \sigma_A(x) \subseteq \sigma_B(x).$$

$$\square$$

Hence we have $\sigma_A(x) = \sigma_B(x)$. Now suppose x is normal, we have for any $y \in A$, $y \in G(A)$ if and only if $y^* \in G(A)$. As a result

$$\begin{split} \lambda - x &\in G(A) \Leftrightarrow \lambda - x, \bar{\lambda} - x^* \in G(A) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \eta := \left(\bar{\lambda} - x^*\right) (\lambda - x) \in G(A) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \eta \in G(B) \quad (\text{as } \eta \text{ is self-adjoint}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \lambda - x, \bar{\lambda} - x^* \in G(B) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \lambda - x \in G(B) \end{split}$$

where we have used the fact that, two commutative elements x, y is invertible if and only if xy is invertible (why?).

We also have the square root of a positive element of A:

Definition 4.18. $x \in A$ is positive if x is self-adjoint with non-negative spectrums. In this case we write $x \ge 0$.

Proposition 4.19. Let A be an unital C^{*}-algebra (not necessarily commutative). If x is positive, then there exists a unique positive $y \in A$ such that $y^2 = x$, which is called the positive square root of x. We write $y = x^{1/2}$.

Proof. For existence, let B be any commutative, unital C^* -subalgebra of A such that $x \in B$. By the Commutative Gelfand-Naimark Theorem, there exists a compact Hausdorff space K and $\theta : C(K) \to B$ which is an isometric *-isomorphism. Let $f = \theta^{-1}(x)$, which is a function on K. Then since x is self-adjoint so is f, and we have

$$f(K) = \sigma_{C(K)}(f) = \sigma_B(x) = \sigma_A(x) \subset [0, \infty),$$

hence f has an unique positive square root $\sqrt{f} := g$. Let $y = \theta(g)$. Then since g is \mathbb{R} -valued, it is self-adjoint and so is y. Moreover again we have:

$$\sigma_A(y) = \sigma_{C(K)}(g) = \sqrt{f(K)} \subset [0, \infty).$$

So y is positive. Also, $y^2 = \theta(g^2) = \theta(f) = x$, we have existence.

For the uniqueness, if $z \in B$, $z \ge 0$ such that $z^2 = x$, let $h = \theta^{-1}(z)$. Then $h \ge 0$ and $h^2 = f = g^2$. So by uniqueness of positive square root in \mathbb{R} , h = g. Hence y = z, and the uniqueness in B is obtained.

Consider the general case in A. If $y, z \in A$ are positive and $y^2 = z^2 = x$, then $yx = y^3 = xy$ and $zx = z^3 = xz$. Set

$$B_1 = \overline{\{p(x, x^*, y, y^*) : p \text{ is a polynomial in 4 variables}\}},$$

and

$$B_2 = \overline{\{p(x, x^*, z, z^*) : p \text{ is a polynomial in 4 variables}\}}$$

which is the C^* -subalgebra of A generated by x, y and the C^* -subalgebra of A generated by x, z, respectively. B_1 and B_2 are both unital and commutative.

Let $B = B_1 \cap B_2$, which is a commutative, unital C^* -subalgebra that contains x. Hence there exists an unique square root k of x in B. By uniqueness in B_1 and B_2 we get y = k = z. So we have uniqueness in A.

Theorem 4.20. (Polar Decomposition of Invertible Operators) Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ be invertible. Then there exist an unique unitary operator U and an unique positive operator R such that T = RU.

YUCHEN FAN

Proof. Notice that TT^* is always positive and we define $R = \sqrt{TT^*}$. As T is invertible, $R^2 = TT^*$ is invertible so R is invertible. Set $U = R^{-1}T$, then we have

$$U^*U = T^*R^{-1}R^{-1}T = T^*(T^*)^{-1}T^{-1}T^* = I.$$

So existence follows. For uniqueness, let T = RU, then $TT^* = R^2$ so by uniqueness of square root, R is unique and hence U.

4.3. Holomorphic Functional Calculus. Let p(x) be a polynomial on \mathbb{C} . It is known when $A = \mathcal{B}(X)$ for some Banach space X, we have the spectrum mapping theorem:

Theorem 4.21. (Spectrum Mapping Theorem) For every $T \in \mathcal{B}(X)$ we have $\sigma(p(T)) = p(\sigma(T))$. More generally, for any unital Banach algebra A and $x \in A$, we have $\sigma(p(x)) = p(\sigma(x))$.

Proof. See Oxford Functional Analysis II note at https://courses.maths.ox.ac.uk/course/view.php?id=5548, Theorem 5.7.

This theorem seems intuitive in every sense and we can seek its generalization. For example, we already know that

$$\exp(T) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{T^k}{k!}$$

converges for every $T \in \mathcal{B}(X)$. Is it necessarily true that, $\exp(\sigma(T)) = \sigma(\exp(T))$? Can we define f(T) for other, say, holomorphic functions f? Is it necessarily true that, $f(\sigma(T)) = \sigma(f(T))$ then?

Let U be an open subset, we notice from Cauchy Integral formula, for any f holomorphic on U, we have

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} \, \mathrm{d}w$$

where γ lies in U and z lies in the inside of γ . It is intuitive that, if we change z into T we can define f(T) via such "operator-valued" Cauchy integral formulas. But we need some formal setup here.

Proposition 4.22. Let X be a Banach space and $f : [a, b] \to X$ be a continuous function. Take any sequence of partition $\pi^n = \{t_i^n : a = t_0^n < t_1^n < \cdots < t_{N(\pi^n)}^n = b\}$ with vanishing mesh. Then the limit of Riemann sum

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{N(\pi^n)} f(t_{k-1}^n)(t_k^n - t_{k-1}^n) =: \int_a^b f(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \in X$$

is independent of $(\pi^n)_{n\geq 1}$. We call it the integral of f on [a, b].

It is routine to check this proposition.

Lemma 4.23. For any $\phi \in X^*$, we have

$$\phi\left(\int_{a}^{b} f(t) \, \mathrm{d}t\right) = \int_{a}^{b} (\phi \circ f)(t) \, \mathrm{d}t.$$

Exercise 4.24. Prove that

$$\left\| \int_{a}^{b} f(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \right\| \leq \int_{a}^{b} \|f(t)\| \, \mathrm{d}t.$$

We need to give the notion of holomorphic function taking values inside Banach spaces.

Definition 4.25. Let $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a domain, X be a normed space, and $f : U \to X$ be a function. f is said to be holomorphic if the limit

$$\lim_{w \to z} \frac{f(w) - f(z)}{w - z}$$

exists in X for any $z \in U$.

We immediately have

Lemma 4.26. Let f be holomorphic on U, then for any $\phi \in X^*$, $\phi \circ f : U \to \mathbb{C}$ is a holomorphic function in usual sense.

Proof. By continuity of ϕ we have

$$\lim_{w \to z} \frac{(\phi \circ f)(w) - (\phi \circ f)(z)}{w - z} = \lim_{w \to z} \phi\left(\frac{f(w) - f(z)}{w - z}\right) = \phi\left(\lim_{w \to z} \frac{f(w) - f(z)}{w - z}\right)$$

exists in \mathbb{C} .

Lemma 4.27. Let f be a bounded holomorphic function on \mathbb{C} (i.e. an entire function). Then f is constant

Proof. For any $\phi \in X^*$ we must have $\phi \circ f$ is bounded entire and hence constant. Take any $z \in \mathbb{C}$, we have $\phi(f(z)) = \phi(f(0))$ for any $\phi \in X^*$. By a consequence of Hahn-Banach theorem we see that f(z) = f(0).

Definition 4.28. Let $\gamma : [a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$ be a path (i.e. continuously differentiable map). For any continuous function $f : \operatorname{Im}(\gamma) \to \mathbb{C}$, we define

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \, \mathrm{d}z := \int_{a}^{b} f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) \, \mathrm{d}t.$$

We have similar properties as in complex integrations, in particular the Cauchy theorem holds.

Theorem 4.29. (Cauchy Theorem) Let U be a domain of \mathbb{C} and γ be a closed path in U such that the inside of γ all lies in U. Then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \, \mathrm{d}z = 0.$$

Proof. For any $\phi \in X^*$ we have

$$\phi\left(\int_{\gamma} f(z) \, \mathrm{d}z\right) = \int_{\gamma} \phi(f(z)) \, \mathrm{d}z = 0$$

by the usual Cauchy theorem. By Hahn-Banach $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$.

For any rational function r = p/q for polynomials p and q and $x \in A$ we define $r(x) = p(x)(q(x))^{-1}$ whenever q(x) is invertible. We now apply the Cauchy's integral formula:

YUCHEN FAN

Proposition 4.30. Let A be a commutative, unital Banach algebra, $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a domain and $x \in A$. Let $\mathcal{O}(U)$ be the space of holomorphic functions on U. Suppose $K = \sigma(x) \subset U$. Let γ be a closed path in $U \setminus K$ such that:

$$I(\Gamma, \omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin U\\ 1 & \text{if } \omega \in K \end{cases}$$

where I is the winding number. Define $\Theta_x : \mathscr{O}(U) \to A$ by

$$\Theta_x(f) := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z)(z-x)^{-1} \, \mathrm{d}z$$

Then:

- (1) Θ_x is well-defined, linear and continuous, where $\mathcal{O}(U)$ is equipped with the supremum norm $\|f\|_{\gamma} = \sup_{z \in \gamma} |f(z)|;$
- (2) $\Theta_x(r) = r(x)$ for a rational function r without poles in U;
- (3) For any $\varphi \in \Phi_A$, we have $\varphi(\Theta_x(f)) = f(\varphi(x))$, and

$$\sigma\left(\Theta_x(f)\right) = f\left(\sigma(x)\right) = \left\{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma(x)\right\}$$

Proof. (1) As z - x is invertible for any $z \in \gamma$, $z \to (z - x)^{-1}$ is continuous, we see Θ_x is well-defined. Linearity follows easily. As $z \to ||(z - x)^{-1}||$ is also continuous we see that it is bounded (say by C_{γ}) on γ , and hence

$$\|\Theta_x(f)\| \le \frac{C_{\gamma}}{2\pi} \|f\|_{\gamma} \ell(\gamma),$$

continuity follows.

For (2), we check that $\Theta_x(\mathbf{1}_U) = 1 = \mathbf{1}_U(x)$ first:

$$\Theta_x(\mathbf{1}_U) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{1}_{z \in U} (z - x)^{-1} \, \mathrm{d}z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} (z - x)^{-1} \, \mathrm{d}z.$$

By Cauchy theorem and decomposing contour, the integral on γ agrees with the integral on |z| = R for some R > ||x||, so we have

$$\Theta_x(\mathbf{1}_U) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=R} (z-x)^{-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=R} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{z^{k+1}} dz$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k \int_{|z|=R} \frac{1}{z^{k+1}} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2\pi i \delta_{0,k} x^k = x^0 = 1.$$

Then for rational functions $r \in \mathcal{O}(U)$, we can write r(z) = p(z)/q(z), where p, q are polynomials with q having no zeros in U. Hence we have: $0 \notin \{q(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma(x)\} = q(\sigma(x)) = \sigma(q(x))$ by the classical spectrum mapping theorem.

As $0 \notin \sigma(q(x))$, q(x) is invertible for all $x \in A$, we can define $r(x) = p(x)q(x)^{-1}$. We only need to check $r(x) = \Theta_x(r)$. Notice that:

$$r(z) - r(x) = (p(z)q(x) - q(z)p(x))q(z)^{-1}q(x)^{-1} = (z - x)\underbrace{s(z, x)q(z)^{-1}q(x)^{-1}}_{\text{analytic in } z \text{ on } U}$$

The factorization holds as p(z)q(x) - q(z)p(x) = 0 for x = z. Hence

$$\Theta_x(r) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} (r(z) - r(x) + r(x))(z - x)^{-1} dz$$

= $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} s(z, x)q(z)^{-1}q(x)^{-1} dz + r(x) \times \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} (z - x)^{-1} dz$
= $r(x)$.

The first integral is 0 by Cauchy theorem and the second one is 1 as $\Theta_x(\mathbf{1}_U) = 1$.

For (3) we firstly notice that for any $\varphi \in \Phi_A$ we have $\varphi((z-x)^{-1}) = (z-\varphi(x))^{-1}$. By the usual Cauchy integral formula we have

$$\varphi\left(\Theta_x(f)\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z)(z - \varphi(x))^{-1} \, \mathrm{d}z = f(\varphi(x)).$$

Hence we have

$$\sigma \left(\Theta_x(f)\right) = \left\{\varphi \left(\Theta_x(f)\right) : \varphi \in \Phi_A\right\} = \left\{f(\varphi(x)) : \varphi \in \Phi_A\right\}$$
$$= \left\{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma(x)\right\} = f(\sigma(x)).$$

Now we can state the holomorphic functional calculus:

Theorem 4.31. (Holomorphic Functional Calculus) Let A be a commutative, unital Banach algebra. Let $x \in A$ and let $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a domain with $\sigma_A(x) \subset U$. There exists an unique unital, continuous homomorphism $\Theta_x : \mathcal{O}(U) \to A$ such that $\Theta_x(\mathrm{id}_U) = x$. Moreover, $\varphi(\Theta_x(f)) = f(\varphi(x))$ for all $\varphi \in \Phi_A$ and $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$, and we have:

$$\sigma\left(\Theta_x(f)\right) = \left\{f(\lambda) : \lambda \in \sigma(x)\right\} = f\left(\sigma(x)\right).$$

Proof. We take the following lemma as granted:

Lemma 4.32. (Runge's Approximation Theorem). Let $K \subset \mathbb{C}$ with $K \neq \emptyset$ be compact. Then for any f analytic on some open neighbourhood of K, and $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a rational function r without poles in K such that $||f - r||_K := \sup_{z \in K} |f(z) - r(z)| < \varepsilon$.

Consider all setups in Proposition 4.30. We just check Θ_x is a homomorphism: $\Theta_x(fg) = fg(x) = f(x)g(x) = \Theta_x(f)\Theta_x(g)$ for any rational functions f, g without pole in U. For general f, g we approximate f and g by rational functions and by continuity of Θ_x we are done.

We now check the uniqueness. Suppose there is another Φ_x satisfies all properties of Θ_x . Then $\Phi_x(p) = p(x)$ for all polynomials p, since if $p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k$ we have

$$\Phi_x(p) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \Phi_x(z^k) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k (\Phi_x(z))^k = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k = p(x).$$

If p has no roots in U, then $0 \notin \sigma(p(x)) = \{p(\lambda) : \lambda \in K\}$, and so

$$p\Phi_x(1/p) = \Phi_x(p)\Phi_x(1/p) = \Phi_x(p \cdot (1/p)) = \Phi_x(1) = 1,$$

thus $\Phi_x(1/p) = p(x)^{-1}$. Therefore, we have $\Phi_x(r) = r(x)$ for any rational function r without pole in U. Hence by continuity and Runge's approximation theorem, we have that $\Phi_x = \Theta_x$. Other properties hold by approximate using Runge's approximation theorem.

4.4. Spectral Theorems. Now we are about to prove some spectral theorems. Firstly we consider the C^* -algebra case:

Theorem 4.33. (Spectral Theorem for Commutative, Unital C^{*}-algebra). Let A be a commutative, unital, C^{*}-subalgebra of $\mathcal{B}(H)$. Let $K = \Phi_A$, equipped with the weak^{*} topology. Then, there exists a unique resolution of the identity P of H over K, such that

$$\int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}P = T \text{ for any } T \in A$$

where \hat{T} is the Gelfand transform of T. More over, we have $S \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ commutes with every $T \in A$ if and only if S commutes with every P(E) for $E \in \mathcal{B}_K$.

Proof. We take the following theorem as granted:

Lemma 4.34. (Riesz representation theorem RRT) Let K be a compact, Hausdorff space. Then the dual space of C(K) is the space of complex Borel measure over K, equipped with the total variation norm

$$\|\mu\|_{1} = \sup\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{n} |\mu(A_{k})| : K = \bigcup_{k=1}^{n} A_{k} \text{ and } A_{1}, A_{2}, \cdots, A_{n} \text{ are measurable}\right\}.$$

The identification map is

$$\mu \to \left(f \to \int_K f \, \mathrm{d}\mu \right) \in X^*.$$

By Theorem 4.14 we see that $T \to \hat{T}$ is a isometric *-isomorphism. In particular consider the map $m_{x,y} : C(\Phi_A) \ni \hat{T} \to \langle Tx, y \rangle$ for fixed $x, y \in H$. Clearly $m_{x,y}$ is in dual of $C(\Phi_A)$ and hence we have

$$m_{x,y}(\hat{T}) = \int_K \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y}$$

for some complex Borel measure $\mu_{x,y}$, by RRT. By considering the self-adjoint element of A and then decompose everything in A into h+ik for self-adjoint element h and k, we can deduce that $\mu_{x,y} = \overline{\mu_{y,x}}$, compare the proof of the first lemma in the proof of Theorem 4.14. Also, we have by linearity,

$$\int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{\lambda x+y,z} = \langle T(\lambda x+y), z \rangle = \lambda \langle Tx, z \rangle + \langle Ty, z \rangle = \lambda \int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,z} + \int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{y,z}$$

So we have $\mu_{\lambda x+y,z} = \lambda \mu_{x,z} + \mu_{y,z}$. Similarly we have $\mu_{x,\lambda y+z} = \lambda \mu_{x,y} + \mu_{x,z}$. Hence, by Riesz representation theorem for Hilbert space, we have that there exists a map $\Psi : L^{\infty}(K) \to B(H)$ such that for any $f \in L^{\infty}(K)$,

$$\int_{K} f \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y} = \langle \Psi(f)(x), y \rangle.$$

Notice that Φ is bounded with $\|\Phi(f)\| \leq \|f\|_{\infty}$. Notice that

$$\langle x, \Psi(\overline{f})(y) \rangle = \overline{\langle \Psi(\overline{f})(y), x \rangle} = \int_{K} \overline{f} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{y,x} = \int_{K} f \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y} = \langle \Psi(f)(x), y \rangle$$

so we have $\Psi(f)^* = \Psi(\bar{f})$. Also we have

$$\langle \Psi(\hat{T})x,y\rangle = \int_{K} \hat{T} d_{x,y} = \langle Tx,y\rangle$$

for $T \in A$ and hence $\Psi(\hat{T}) = T$. For $S, T \in A$, we have

$$\int_{K} \hat{S}\hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y} = \int_{K} \widehat{ST} \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y} = \langle S(Tx), y \rangle = \int_{K} \hat{S} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{Tx,y}$$

and by the uniqueness in the RRT, we have $T d\mu_{x,y} = d\mu_{T(x),\mu}$. For $f \in L^{\infty}(K)$,

$$\int_{K} f\hat{T} d\mu_{x,y} = \int_{K} f d\mu_{T(x),y} = \langle \Psi(f)(T(x)), y \rangle = \langle T(x), \Psi(f)^{*}(y) \rangle$$
$$= \langle T(x), \Psi(\bar{f})(y) \rangle = \int_{K} \hat{T} d\mu_{x,\Psi(\bar{f})(y)}.$$

So by the uniqueness of the RRT again, we have $f d\mu_{x,y} = d\mu_{x,\Psi(\bar{f})(y)}$. Thus, for $f, g \in L^{\infty}(K)$, we have:

$$\begin{split} \langle \Psi(fg)(x), y \rangle &= \int_{K} fg \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y} = \int_{K} g \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,\Psi(\bar{f})(y)} \\ &= \langle \Psi(g)(x), \Psi(\bar{f})(y) \rangle = \langle \Psi(f)\Psi(g)(x), y \rangle \end{split}$$

Hence we have $\Psi(fg) = \Psi(f) \circ \Psi(g)$.

Above all, Ψ is a continuous, unital, *-homomorphism. Set $P(E) = \Psi(\mathbf{1}_E)$ for any $E \in \mathcal{B}_K$. It is easy to check that P is a resolution of the identity of H over K. We finally check that, for $T \in A$, we have:

$$\int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,y} = \int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}\mu_{x,y} = \langle Tx, y \rangle.$$

By (2) of Proposition 3.4 we see that

$$\int_{K} \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}P = T$$

So we have the existence.

For the uniqueness, suppose $\int_K \hat{T} dQ = T$. Then $\int_K \hat{T} dQ_{x,y} = \langle Tx, y \rangle$, and then $Q_{x,y} = P_{x,y}$ by uniqueness of RRT. As $\langle Q(E)x, y \rangle = Q_{x,y}(E) = P_{x,y}(E)$ the uniqueness follows.

For the last part we have we have

$$\begin{split} \langle (ST)x, y \rangle &= \langle T(x), S^*y \rangle = \int_K \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}P_{x,S^*y} \\ \langle (TS)x, y \rangle &= \int_K \hat{T} \, \mathrm{d}P_{Sx,y} \\ \langle (S \circ P(E))x, y \rangle &= \langle P(E)x, S^*(y) \rangle = P_{x,S^*y}(E) \\ \langle (P(E) \circ S)x, y \rangle &= P_{Sx,y}(E). \end{split}$$

So we have ST = TS for all $T \in A$ if and only if $P_{x,S^*y} = P_{Sx,y}$ for all $x, y \in H$, if and only if $P_{Sx,y}(E) = P_{x,S^*y}(E)$ for any $E \in \mathcal{B}_K$, if and only if $S \circ P(E) = P(E) \circ S$.

We also have the one for normal operators.

Theorem 4.35. (Spectral Theorem for Normal Operators). Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ be normal. Then, there exists an unique resolution of the identity P of H over $K := \sigma(T)$ such that

$$T = \int_{\sigma(T)} \lambda \, \mathrm{d}P.$$

Moreover, for $S \in \mathcal{B}(H)$, ST = TS for any $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ if and only if $S \circ P(E) = P(E) \circ S$ for any $E \in \mathcal{B}_K$.

Proof. Consider A(T) := A be the C*-subalgebra generated by T. As T is normal we have, by Proposition 4.17 (3), that $\sigma(T) = \sigma_A(T)$. Then for $\varphi \in \Phi_A$ we have

$$\varphi\left(p\left(T,T^*\right)\right) = p\left(\varphi(T),\varphi\left(T^*\right)\right) = p(\varphi(T),\varphi(T))$$

So φ is uniquely determined by $\varphi(T)$ on A. Hence the Gelfand transform $\hat{T} : \Phi_A \to \sigma_A(T)$ is injective. By Theorem 4.10 the map is surjective and continuous, and hence a homeomorphism (A continuous bijection between compact Hausdorff spaces is a homeomorphism). Hence we may apply Theorem 4.33 with $K = \sigma_A(T) = \sigma(T)$ to get the existence.

For uniqueness, assume that we have $T = \int_{\sigma(T)} \lambda \, dQ$, then for any polynomial p,

$$p(T, T^*) = \int_K p(\lambda, \bar{\lambda}) \mathrm{d}Q$$

and hence $\int_K p(\lambda, \bar{\lambda}) dQ_{x,y}$ is uniquely determined by Proposition 3.4. Now by Stone Weiestrass we approximate everything by p and arrive at the uniqueness of $\int_K f(\lambda) dQ_{x,y}$ for any $f \in C(K)$. As a result, $Q_{x,y} = P_{x,y}$ so uniqueness follows. The moreover part is clear.

We can now define a very useful version of Borel functional calculus.

Proposition 4.36. (Borel Functional Calculus for Normal Operators) Let $T \in B(H)$ be a normal operator on H, and let $K = \sigma(T)$ be the spectrum of T, and let P be as in Theorem 4.35. Define:

$$L^{\infty}(K) \to B(H)$$
 by $f \mapsto f(T) \equiv \int_{K} f \, \mathrm{d}P$

Then this map has the following properties:

- (1) It is a unital, *-homomorphism, and id(T) = T, where id is the identity map on \mathbb{C} (i.e. $\int_{K} id \, dP = id$ is the identity on H);
- (2) $||f(T)|| \leq ||f||_K$ for all $f \in L^{\infty}(K)$, with equality if $f \in C(K)$;
- (3) For $S \in B(H)$, we have ST = TS if and only if $S \circ f(T) = f(T) \circ S$ for all $f \in L^{\infty}(K)$;
- (4) $\sigma(f(T)) \subseteq \overline{f(K)}$.

We have essentially already proven this proposition. We now look at a few consequences:

Theorem 4.37. (Polar Decomposition of Normal Operator) Suppose $T \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ is normal. Then there exists a unitary operator U and a positive operator R such that T = RU.

Proof. Let $K = \sigma(T)$ and set

$$u(\lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda/|\lambda| & \text{if } \lambda \in K \setminus \{0\}\\ 1 & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \in K. \end{cases}$$

Let $r(\lambda) = |\lambda|$. Then let U = u(T) and R = r(T). Then as $ru = id_K$, we see that RU = T.

Theorem 4.38. (Representation of Unitary Operators) Let $U \in \mathcal{B}(H)$ be a unitary operator. Then, there exists a Hermitian operator Q such that $U = e^{iQ}$.

Proof. Note that since U is unitary, we have $K := \sigma(U) \subset S^1$. By taking a suitable choice of logarithm, there exists $f : S^1 \to \mathbb{R}$ measurable and bounded such that $e^{if(t)} = t$ for any $t \in S^1$. Let Q = f(U). Since $\sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{(if(t))^n}{n!} \to t$ uniformly on S^1 we have

$$e^{iQ} := \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{(iQ)^n}{n!} = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{(if(U))^n}{n!} = U$$

Thus $U = e^{iQ}$.