# MAT 520: Problem Set 4

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Prove that any norm-closed convex bounded subset of a reflexive Banach space is weakly compact.

#### Solution

**Proof.** Let X be a reflexive Banach space, and let  $K \subseteq X$  be norm-closed, convex, and norm-bounded. We start with the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.** Let  $C \subseteq X$  be a norm-closed and convex subset of a normed vector space X. Then, C is weakly-closed (closed in the weak topology on X).

**Proof of Lemma 1.** Note that norm-open balls are clearly convex by the triangle inequality. Since the norm topology on X is generated by norm-open balls, it follows that X with the norm topology is locally-convex. By Theorem 3.12 in Rudin, since C is convex we know that the norm-closure of C equals its weak-closure. Norm-closure of C then guarantees that C is also weakly-closed, as desired.

Certainly, Lemma 1 gives that K is weakly-closed. Now, norm-boundedness gives some  $M < \infty$  such that  $||x|| \leq M$  for all  $x \in K$ . Write

$$B_r := \{x \in X : \|x\| \le r\}$$

to be the norm-closed ball of radius r in X (and so  $K \subseteq B_M$ ), and

$$B_r^{**} := \{ \Lambda \in X^{**} : \|\Lambda\| \le r \}$$

to be the norm-closed ball of radius r in  $X^{**}$ . Recall the definition of the weak-\* topology on  $X^{**}$  to be the initial topology generated by  $J^*(X^*)$ , where  $J^* : X^* \to X^{***}$  is the canonical point evaluation map. Also, the weak topology on  $X^{**}$  is the initial topology generated by  $X^{***}$ . Since X is reflexive, we know by Problem 2 on the Problem Set 3 that  $X^*$  is reflexive, and so  $J^*(X^*) = X^{***}$ . What this means is that the weak and weak-\* topologies on  $X^{**}$  must be equivalent.

Now, the Banach-Alaoglu theorem tells us that  $B_1^{**}$  is compact in the weak-\* topology on  $X^{**}$ . Since  $X^{**}$  equipped with the weak-\* topology is a TVS and so scaling is a weak-\* homeomorphism, we find that  $B_M^{**}$  is also weak-\* compact. By the previous discussion, reflexivity guarantees that  $B_M^{**}$  is also compact in the weak topology on  $X^{**}$ . Now, let  $J: X \to X^{**}$  be the canonical point evaluation map. Since it is linear and isometric (and therefore bounded), we know that J is continuous with respect to the norms on X and  $X^{**}$ . Therefore, for all  $\lambda \in X^{***}$  we have that  $\lambda \circ J: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is continuous w.r.t. the norm topology on X, and so  $\lambda \circ J \in X^*$ . Since bounded linear functionals are continuous in the weak topology, this means that  $\lambda \circ J$  is continuous w.r.t. the weak topology on X. Since this holds for all  $\lambda \in X^{***}$ , we see that  $J: X \to X^{**}$  is continuous w.r.t. the weak topologies on both X and  $X^{**}$ . Since  $B_M^{**}$  is weakly-compact in  $X^{***}$ , its preimage  $J^{-1}(B_M^{**}) = B_M$ . Thus,  $B_M$  is compact in the weak topology on X.

So, we have seen that K is weakly-closed,  $B_M$  is weakly-compact, and  $K \subseteq B_M$ . Since closed subsets of compact sets are compact, this reveals that K is weakly-compact, and the proof is complete.

Let X be an infinite-dimensional Banach space, and define

$$S := \{ x \in X \mid ||x|| = 1 \}.$$

Show that the weak-closure of S is

$$B := \{ x \in X \mid ||x|| \le 1 \}.$$

#### Solution

**Proof.** ( $\subseteq$ ) We first show that  $B \subseteq cl_w(S)$ . Let  $x \in B$  be arbitrary. Let  $U \in Nbhd_w(x)$  (i.e. U is a weak neighborhood of x). Then, for some  $\epsilon > 0$  and some  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \in X^*$  we know that

$$x \subseteq x + \bigcap_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_j^{-1}(B_{\epsilon}(0_{\mathbb{C}})) \subseteq U$$

since the sets  $\{\lambda^{-1}(B_{\delta}(0_{\mathbb{C}}))\}_{\substack{\lambda \in X^*, \\ \delta > 0}}$  form a local subbasis at  $0_X$  for the weak topology. Define

$$V:=\bigcap_{j=1}^m\lambda_j^{-1}(B_\epsilon(0_{\mathbb C}))$$

Certainly, V is open in the weak topology on X, as it is an intersection of continuous, linear preimages of open sets in  $\mathbb{C}$ ; therefore, x + V is also weakly-open. Since x + V is a nonempty, weakly-open subset of an infinite-dimensional Banach space, it is not bounded in norm; in particular, there exists some  $y \in x + V$  such that ||y|| > 1.

Next, we claim that V is convex. To this end, let  $a, b \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|\alpha| + |\beta| \leq 1$ . Then, for all j = 1, ..., m we know that

$$\begin{aligned} |\lambda_j(\alpha a + \beta b)| &= |\alpha \lambda_j(a) + \beta \lambda_j(b)| \le |\alpha| \cdot |\lambda_j(a)| + |\beta| \cdot |\lambda_j(b)| \\ &< |\alpha|\epsilon + |\beta|\epsilon = \epsilon(|\alpha| + |\beta|)) \le \epsilon, \end{aligned}$$

where we used the triangle inequality and the fact that  $a, b \in V \implies |\lambda_j(a)|, |\lambda_j(b)| < \epsilon$  by construction. So,  $|\lambda_j(\alpha a + \beta b)| < \epsilon$  for all j, and so  $\alpha a + \beta b \in V$ . Since this holds for all such selections of  $a, b, \alpha$ , and  $\beta$ , we see that V is convex. Certainly, this also means that x + V is convex.

So, we have that  $x, y \in x + V \subseteq U$ , where  $||x|| \leq 1$ , ||y|| > 1, and x + V is convex. So, the line segment connecting x and y must pass through S (the segment is a connected set originating in B and ending outside the norm-closure of B, and so it must intersect the norm-boundary of B, which is S). By convexity we know that this line lies in the set x + V. So, there must exists some  $w \in (x + V) \cap S \subseteq U \cap S$ . In particular,  $U \cap S$  is nonempty. Since this holds for all  $U \in Nbhd_w(x)$  for all  $x \in B$ , we find that  $B \subseteq cl_w(S)$ .

 $(\supseteq)$  We now wish to show that  $cl_w(S) \subseteq B$ . Note that B is clearly convex by the triangle inequality. By Lemma 1, norm-closure of B implies that B is weakly-closed. Since  $B \supseteq S$  is weakly-closed, we know by the topological definition of a closure as the smallest closed superset that

$$\operatorname{cl}_w(S) \subseteq B$$

This proves the reverse direction.  $\blacksquare$ 

Use  $(xy)^n = x(yx)^{n-1}y$  to show that r(xy) = r(yx).

#### Solution

**Proof.** We will simply show that  $r(xy) \leq r(yx)$ , as the reverse direction will then follow from a symmetric argument. We apply Gelfand's formula and submultiplicativity of the norm to see that

$$r(xy) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \|(xy)^n\|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \|x(yx)^{n-1}y\|^{1/n} \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \|x\|^{1/n} \cdot \|y\|^{1/n} \cdot \|(yx)^{n-1}\|^{1/n} \right),$$

Now, the limits  $\lim_{n\to\infty} ||x||^{1/n}$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} ||y||^{1/n}$  both exist and equal 1, and so we can use multiplicativity of the limit to see that

$$\begin{split} \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \|x\|^{1/n} \cdot \|y\|^{1/n} \cdot \|(yx)^{n-1}\|^{1/n} \right) &= \lim_{n \to \infty} (\|x\|^{1/n}) \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} (\|y\|^{1/n}) \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \|(yx)^{n-1}\|^{1/n} \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \|(yx)^{n-1}\|^{1/n} \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \left( \|(yx)^{n-1}\|^{1/(n-1)} \right)^{(n-1)/n} \right) \end{split}$$

We know that the limit of a composition of functions is the composition of limits when the outer function is continuous at the inner limit. Since  $(\cdot)^{(n-1)/n}$  is continuous for all n, we see that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \left( \| (yx)^{n-1} \|^{1/(n-1)} \right)^{(n-1)/n} \right) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \left( \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \| (yx)^{n-1} \|^{1/(n-1)} \right)^{(k-1)/k} \right)$$
$$= \lim_{k \to \infty} (r(yx))^{(k-1)/k}$$
$$= r(yx),$$

where we used Gelfand's formula again to get to the second line. So,  $r(xy) \leq r(yx)$  and, symmetrically,  $r(yx) \leq r(xy)$ . This proves the desired result.

Show that if  $x, xy \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ , then  $y \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ .

#### Solution

**Proof.** We know by definition of an inverse and the associative identity that

$$(xy)^{-1}(xy) = \mathbb{1} \implies \left( (xy)^{-1}x \right) y = \mathbb{1},$$

and so y has a left inverse (namely,  $(xy)^{-1}x$ ). Next, we may see that

$$(xy)(xy)^{-1}x = x \implies x^{-1}xy(xy)^{-1}x = \mathbb{1} \implies y(xy)^{-1}x = \mathbb{1},$$

where we used the invertibility of x. So, y has a right inverse (namely,  $(xy)^{-1}x$  again). Thus, y is invertible.

Show that if  $xy, yx \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  then  $x, y \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ .

#### Solution

**Proof.** We need only show that  $x \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ , since then we would be able to use Problem 8 to see that  $y \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  as well. To this end, observe that

$$(xy)(xy)^{-1} = \mathbb{1} \implies x(y(xy)^{-1}) = \mathbb{1}$$

So,  $y(xy)^{-1}$  is a right inverse for x. Similarly,

$$(yx)^{-1}(yx) = \mathbb{1} \implies ((yx)^{-1}y)x = \mathbb{1},$$

and so  $(yx)^{-1}y$  is a left inverse for x. Therefore, x is invertible, and the proof is complete.

On the Banach space  $X := \ell^2(\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{C})$ , define the right shift operator  $R \in \mathcal{B}(X)$  by

$$(Ra)_n := \begin{cases} a_{n-1} & n \ge 2\\ 0 & n = 1 \end{cases}$$

and the left shift operator  $L \in \mathcal{B}(X)$  by

$$(La)_n = a_{n+1} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Calculate RL and LR. Conclude that one may have xy = 1 but  $yx \neq 1$  in a Banach algebra.

#### Solution

**Proof.** Let  $a \in X$  be arbitrary. Then, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have that

$$((RL)a)_n = (R(La))_n = \begin{cases} a_n & n \ge 2\\ 0 & n = 1 \end{cases}$$

since for all  $n \ge 2$  we have that  $(La)_n = a_{n+1}$ , and so  $((RL)a)_n = a_n$ . However, we find that  $((RL)a)_1 = 0$  by definition of R, leading to the above calculation.

By contrast, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have that

$$((LR)a)_n = (L(Ra))_n = (Ra)_{n+1} = a_n,$$

since for all n it holds that  $(Ra)_{n+1} = a_n$ . So, LR is the identity map, but RL is not.

Viewing  $\mathcal{B}(X)$  as a Banach algebra and letting x = L and y = R, we see that xy = 1 but  $yx \neq 1$ .

Show that if  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $z \in \sigma(xy)$  if and only if  $z \in \sigma(yx)$ . i.e.,

 $\sigma(xy) \cup \{0\} = \sigma(yx) \cup \{0\}.$ 

Find an example where  $\sigma(xy) \neq \sigma(yx)$ .

### Solution

**Proof.** Suppose that  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $z \in \sigma(xy)$ . Then,  $xy - z\mathbb{1} \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  by definition of the spectrum. Clearly, this also means that  $\mathbb{1} - \frac{x}{z}y \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  since  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  is closed under nonzero scalar multiplication. The result from Problem 11 tells us that  $\mathbb{1} - y\frac{x}{z} \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ , and so  $yx - z \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Thus,  $z \in \sigma(yx)$ . We may apply symmetric with x and y switched to prove the converse, and so we see that for  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  we have that  $z \in \sigma(xy) \iff z \in \sigma(yx)$ .

To find an example where  $\sigma(xy) \neq \sigma(yx)$ , let x = L and y = R be the left and right shift elements of the Banach algebra  $\mathcal{A} := \mathcal{B}(\ell^2(\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{C}))$  from Problem 10. The result of that problem shows that  $LR = \mathbb{1} \implies LR \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ , yet  $RL \neq \mathbb{1}$ . In fact, the computations we made there revealed that  $RL \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ since it is not injective (it sends both  $(0, 0, \ldots)$  and  $(1, 0, \ldots)$  to the zero element). Thus,  $0 \in \sigma(RL)$  but  $0 \notin \sigma(LR)$ . The spectra of LR and RL are therefore not equal.

Define  $\mathcal{A} := C^2([0,1] \to \mathbb{C})$ , the space of functions with continuous second derivative. Define, for a, b > 0,

$$||f|| := ||f||_{\infty} + a||f'||_{\infty} + b||f''||_{\infty}.$$

Show that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Banach space. Show that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Banach algebra (with pointwise multiplication) iff  $a^2 \ge 2b$ . You may consider the functions  $x \mapsto x$  and  $x \mapsto x^2$ .

#### Solution

**Proof.** Clearly,  $\mathcal{A}$  is a vector space. We verify that the defined norm is indeed a norm.

- 1. We note that  $||f|| \ge ||f||_{\infty}$  since the other terms are nonnegative, and so if ||f|| = 0 then  $||f||_{\infty} = 0 \implies f = 0$ . Thus,  $||\cdot||$  is positive definite.
- 2. Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then, for all  $f \in \mathcal{A}$ ,

by linearity of the derivative and homogeneity of  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ , and so  $\|\cdot\|$  is homogeneous.

3. For all  $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ ,

$$\begin{split} \|f + g\| &= \|f + g\|_{\infty} + a\|(f + g)'\|_{\infty} + b\|(f + g)''\|_{\infty} \\ &= \|f + g\|_{\infty} + a\|f' + g'\|_{\infty} + b\|f'' + g''\|_{\infty} \\ &\leq \|f\|_{\infty} + \|g\|_{\infty} + a\|f'\|_{\infty} + a\|g'\|_{\infty} + b\|f''\|_{\infty} + b\|g''\|_{\infty} \\ &= \|f\| + \|g\| \end{split}$$

by the linearity of the derivative and the triangle inequality on  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ , and so  $\|\cdot\|$  satisfies the triangle inequality.

Now, we wish to show that  $\mathcal{A}$  is complete in the  $\|\cdot\|$  norm. To this end, let  $\{f_n\}_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  be Cauchy in this norm. Since  $\|g\| \ge \|g\|_{\infty}$ ,  $\|g\| \ge a\|g'\|_{\infty}$ , and  $\|g\| \ge b\|g''\|_{\infty}$  for all  $g \in \mathcal{A}$ , we see that the sequences  $\{f_n\}_n, \{f'_n\}_n$ , and  $\{f''_n\}_n$  are also Cauchy in the  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$  norm when viewed as elements of  $C^0([0,1] \to \mathbb{C})$ . We know that  $C^0([0,1] \to \mathbb{C})$  is complete in the  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$  norm, and so we find that  $f_n \to f$ ,  $f'_n \to g$ , and  $f''_n \to h$  for some  $f, g, h \in C^0([0,1] \to \mathbb{C})$ , where the aforementioned convergences are with respect to the  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$  norm. Since  $f_n \to f$  uniformly and  $f'_n \to g$  uniformly, we see that f' = g by a well-known result about uniform convergence of derivatives. Similarly, f'' = g' = h. So, for any  $\epsilon > 0$  we may find a  $N_0$  large enough that  $\|f_n - f\|_{\infty} < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \forall n > N_0$ , a  $N_1$  large enough that  $\|f'_n - f'\|_{\infty} < \frac{\epsilon}{3a} \forall n > N_1$ , and a  $N_2$  large enough that  $\|f''_n - f''\|_{\infty} < \frac{\epsilon}{3b} \forall n > N_2$ . Letting  $N := \max\{N_0, N_1, N_2\}$ , we see that for all n > N,

$$||f_n - f|| = ||f_n - f||_{\infty} + a||f'_n - f'||_{\infty} + b||f''_n - f''||_{\infty} < \epsilon$$

Therefore,  $f_n \to f$  in the  $\|\cdot\|$  norm for some f with continuous second derivative, and the space with this norm is therefore complete.

Now, the only extra property necessary for  $\mathcal{A}$  with pointwise multiplication to be a Banach algebra is for submultiplicativity of the norm. We show that  $\mathcal{A}$  has this property iff  $a^2 \geq 2b$ .

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  Suppose that  $a^2 < 2b$ . Then, letting f(x) = x be an element of  $\mathcal{A}$ , we see that

$$||f|| = ||(x \mapsto x)|| = ||(x \mapsto x)||_{\infty} + a||(x \mapsto 1)||_{\infty} + b||(x \mapsto 0)||_{\infty} = 1 + a$$

and

$$||f^2|| = ||(x \mapsto x^2)|| = ||(x \mapsto x^2)||_{\infty} + a||(x \mapsto 2x)||_{\infty} + b||(x \mapsto 2)||_{\infty} = 1 + 2a + 2b$$

 $\operatorname{So},$ 

$$\|f\|^2 = (1+a)^2 = 1 + 2a + a^2 < 1 + 2a + 2b = \|f^2\|$$

If submultiplicativity of the norm had held, we would have had  $||f^2|| \le ||f||^2$ ; so,  $\mathcal{A}$  is not a Banach algebra in the case that  $a^2 < 2b$ .

(  $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose now that  $a^2 \ge 2b$ . Then, for all  $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ , the product rule grants that

$$||fg|| = ||fg||_{\infty} + a||fg' + f'g||_{\infty} + b||fg'' + 2f'g' + f''g||_{\infty}$$

We note that the  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$  norm is submultiplicative, since for  $h_1, h_2 \in \mathcal{A}$  we have  $\|h_1h_2\|_{\infty} = \sup_{[0,1]}\{|h_1|\cdot|h_2|\} \le \sup_{[0,1]}\{|h_1|\} \cdot \sup_{[0,1]}\{|h_2|\} = \|h_1\|_{\infty} \cdot \|h_2\|_{\infty}$ . For notation, let  $F_j := \|f^{(j)}\|_{\infty}$  and  $G_j := \|g^{(j)}\|_{\infty}$  for j = 0, 1, 2. Then,

$$\begin{split} \|fg\| &\leq F_0G_0 + aF_0G_1 + aF_1G_0 + bF_0G_2 + 2bF_1G_1 + bF_2G_0 \\ &\leq F_0G_0 + aF_0G_1 + aF_1G_0 + bF_0G_2 + a^2F_1G_1 + bF_2G_0 \\ &\leq F_0G_0 + aF_0G_1 + aF_1G_0 + bF_0G_2 + a^2F_1G_1 + bF_2G_0 + abF_1G_2 + abF_2G_1 + b^2F_2G_2 \\ &= (F_0 + aF_1 + bF_2)(G_0 + aG_1 + bG_2) \\ &= \|f\| \cdot \|g\|, \end{split}$$

where the first line applies submultiplicativity of  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ , the second line comes from the  $2b \leq a^2$  assumption, and the third line follows because we added nonnegative terms, and the last lines are algebraic manipulation. Since this holds for all  $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ , the norm is submultiplicative and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a Banach algebra.

Show that if  $z \in \partial \sigma(x)$  then  $x - z \mathbb{1} \in \partial \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ .

#### Solution

**Proof.** Suppose that  $z \in \partial \sigma(x)$ , and so  $z \in \partial \rho(x)$  since  $\rho(x) = \sigma(x)^C$  is open. Then, there exists  $\{z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \subseteq \rho(x)$  such that  $z_n \to z$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  define

 $y_n := x - z_n \mathbb{1}$ 

Since  $z_n \in \rho(x)$ , we know that  $y_n \in \mathcal{G}_A$  for each n. Since  $\sigma(x)$  is closed and contains its boundary,  $z \in \sigma(x)$  and so  $y := x - z \mathbb{1} \notin \mathcal{G}_A$ . However, we have that

$$||y - y_n|| = ||(x - z\mathbb{1}) - (x - z_n\mathbb{1})|| = ||(z_n - z)\mathbb{1}|| = |z_n - z|,$$

which goes to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ . Thus,  $y_n \to y$  in norm. So, any open neighborhood of y must intersect both  $\mathcal{G}^C_{\mathcal{A}}$  (since  $y \in \mathcal{G}^C_{\mathcal{A}}$ ) and  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  (since a sequence of elements of  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  converges to y). Thus,  $y \in \partial \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  as we wanted to show.

Let  $x \in \partial \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Show there exists some  $\{y_n\}_n \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  with  $||y_n|| = 1$  and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x y_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n x = 0.$$

Try to characterize the type of Banach algebras in which there are such elements x (which are called topological divisors of zero).

#### Solution

**Proof.** Let  $x \in \partial \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Then, there exists a sequence  $\{x_n\}_n \subseteq \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  such that  $x_n \to x$  in the norm. For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define

$$y_n := \frac{x_n^{-1}}{\|x_n^{-1}\|}$$

Clearly, each  $y_n$  is unit norm. Furthermore, we know that for all n

$$||xy_n|| = ||x_ny_n + (x - x_n)y_n|| = \left\| \frac{1}{||x_n^{-1}||} \mathbb{1} + (x - x_n)y_n \right\|$$
  
$$\leq \frac{1}{||x_n^{-1}||} + ||(x - x_n)y_n||$$
  
$$\leq \frac{1}{||x_n^{-1}||} + ||x - x_n||,$$

where for the first line we used the definition of  $y_n$ , for the second line we used the triangle inequality, and for the third line we used submultiplicativity of the norm and the fact that  $||y_n|| = 1$ . By Lemma 10.17 in Rudin, we know that  $||x_n^{-1}|| \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ . By the fact that  $x_n \to x$  in the norm, we know that  $||x - x_n|| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Together, these and the above reveal that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \|xy_n\| = 0 \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} xy_n = 0$$

Similar logic shows that

$$||y_n x|| = ||y_n x_n + y_n (x - x_n)|| = \left\| \frac{1}{||x_n^{-1}||} \mathbb{1} + y_n (x - x_n) \right\|$$
  
$$\leq \frac{1}{||x_n^{-1}||} + ||x - x_n|| \to 0,$$

and so

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x y_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n x = 0$$

In the general case, any divisor of 0 is automatically a topological divisor of 0. The only way for there to be no more topological divisors of 0 is if  $\partial \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}} \setminus \{ \text{divisors of } 0 \}$  is empty. This happens if and only iff all elements that don't divide 0 are invertible, or equivalently if  $\mathcal{A} \setminus \{ \text{divisors of } 0 \} \subseteq \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . However, the Gelfand-Mazur theorem tells us that such Banach algebras are isometrically isomorphic to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Show that if  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  is nilpotent (i.e.,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $x^n = 0$ ) then  $\sigma(x) = \{0\}$ .

#### Solution

**Proof.** Let  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  be nilpotent with exponent *n*. We first show that *x* cannot be invertible. To this end, suppose by way of contradiction that  $x \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Then,  $x^{-1}x = xx^{-1} = \mathbb{1}$ . We will prove by induction that this means that  $x^k \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . The base case holds for k = 1; so, suppose by way of induction that  $x^k \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  and let  $y = (x^k)^{-1}$  be its inverse. Then,

$$x^{k+1}(x^{-1}y) = x^k(xx^{-1})y = x^ky = \mathbb{1}$$

and

$$(yx^{-1})x^{k+1} = y(x^{-1}x)x^k = yx^k = \mathbb{1}$$

So,  $x^{k+1}$  has a left and right inverse, and so  $x^{k+1} \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . By induction, we see that  $x^k \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , which in particular means that  $x^n \in \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . However, we know  $x^n = 0 \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$  since 0 cannot be invertible. This yields a contradiction, and so we find that  $x \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Therefore,  $x - 01 \notin \mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{A}} \implies 0 \in \sigma(x)$ .

Now, note that Gelfand's formula gives that

$$r(x) = \inf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^k\|^{1/k}$$

Since  $||x^k|| = 0$  for  $k \ge n$  and  $||x^k|| \ge 0$  for all k in general, we see that this infimum must equal 0. So,

$$r(x) = \sup_{z \in \sigma(x)} |z| = 0,$$

by definition of the spectral radius, which necessarily means that there are no nonzero elements in the spectrum of x. Thus,  $\sigma(x) = \{0\}$ .

Show that r is upper semicontinuous.

#### Solution

**Proof.** Let  $x_0 \in \mathcal{A}$  be arbitrary, and let  $p \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $p > r(x_0)$ . We want to show that there is a  $U \in \text{Nbhd}(x_0)$  such that r(x) < p for all  $x \in U$ , as that will show that r is upper semicontinuous at  $x_0$ .

Let  $q \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $r(x_0) < q < p$ . Define  $B_q(0_{\mathbb{C}}) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  to be the open ball of radius q in the complex plane; then,  $\sigma(x_0) \subseteq B_q(0_{\mathbb{C}})$  since  $r(x_0) = \sup_{z \in \sigma(x_0)} |z| < q$ . Define

$$L := \sup_{z \notin B_q(0_{\mathbb{C}})} \| (x_0 - z \mathbb{1})^{-1} \|$$

and

$$U := B_L(x_0) \equiv \{ x \in \mathcal{A} : \| x - x_0 \| < L \} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$$

to be the open ball of radius L around  $x_0$  (in particular, it is open in the norm topology on  $\mathcal{A}$ ). By Theorem 10.20 in Rudin (with  $\Omega = B_q(0_{\mathbb{C}})$ ) we see that  $\sigma(x) \subseteq B_q(0_{\mathbb{C}})$  for all  $x \in U$ . Thus, for all  $x \in U$  we know that  $r(x) \leq q < p$ . To reiterate, there is a neighborhood U of  $x_0$  such that r(x) < p for all  $x \in U$ , and so r. Since this can be done for all  $p > r(x_0)$ , we find that r is upper semicontinuous at  $x_0$ . Since this holds for an arbitrary  $x_0 \in \mathcal{A}$ , the result is proven.