MULTIPLIERS AND H* ALGEBRAS

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Let A be a normed algebra and B(A) the algebra of all bounded linear operators from A into itself, with operator norm. An element $T \in B(A)$ is called a multiplier of A if (Tx)y = x(Ty) for all $x, y \in A$. The set of all multipliers of A is denoted by M(A). In the present paper, it is first shown that M(A) is a maximal commutative subalgebra of B(A) if and only if A is commutative. Next, M(A) in case A is an H^* -algebra will be represented as the algebra of all complex an application of the representation theorem of M(A), the set of all compact multipliers of compact H^* -algebras is characterized.

In case A is commutative, the general notion of multipliers was first studied by Helgason [7], followed by Wang [12] and Birtel [2], [3], [4]. In the special case when $A = L_1(G)$, the group algebra over an arbitrary locally compact abelian group, the problem of multipliers has also been studied by Helson [8] and Edwards [5]. (Cf. also Rudin [11].) Helgason [7] called a function g on the maximal ideal space \mathcal{M} of A a multiplier if $g\hat{A} \subseteq \hat{A}$ where \hat{A} is the Gelfand transform of A. Later Wang [12] and Birtel [2] carried out more systematic studies on multipliers. In case A is semi-simple, Wang [12] proved that there exists a norm-decreasing isomorphism between M(A) and $C^{\infty}(\mathcal{M})$, the algebra of bounded continuous functions of \mathcal{M} . In particular if $A = L_1(G)$, then M(A) = M(G), the algebra of all bounded regular Borel measures on G. In the noncommutative case, Wendel [13] first studied multipliers for noncommutative group algebras, followed by Kellogg [9] for H^* -algebras. However, since Kellogg's proofs rely heavily on the representation theorem of Wang [12] for multipliers on general commutative semi-simple Banach algebras, revelent results on multipliers of H^* -algebras were obtained only for the commutative case.

2. Multiplier algebras. Let A be a normed algebra. A is said to without order if either $xA = \{0\}$ or $Ax = \{0\}$ implies x = 0. Clearly, if A is semi-simple or A has a unit, then A is without order. In the sequal, we assume all normed algebras under consideration are without order. An element $T \in B(A)$ is called a right (left) multiplier

¹ Both Kellogg [9] and Wendel [13] used the terminology "centralizers" instead of "multipliers".

of A if T(xy) = (Tx)y(T(xy) = x(Ty)). We denote the set of all right (left) multipliers of A by R(A)(L(A)). We first observe the following:

Proposition 1. $R(A) \cap L(A) = M(A)$.

Proof. Clearly, we have $R(A) \cap L(A) \subseteq M(A)$. Let $T \in M(A)$. Note that (T(xy))z = (xy)Tz = x(y(Tz)) = x((Ty)z) for all $x, y, z \in A$. Since A is without order, T(xy) = x(Ty), i.e. $T \in R(A)$. Similarly, one easily shows that $T \in L(A)$, completing the proof.

A commutative subalgebra Y of an algebra X is called maximal commutative subalgebra of X if Y is not properly contained in any proper commutative subalgebra of X. If X has an identity element e, e belongs to any maximal commutative subalgebra of X. Using an argument based upon Zorn's lemma, one easily shows that M(A) is contained in some maximal commutative subalgebra of B(A), say MC(A).

For an arbitrary normed algebra X, we denote its centre by Z(X). One can easily verify the following inclusions:

$$Z(B(A)) \subseteq Z(M(A)) \subseteq M(A) \subseteq MC(A) \subseteq B(A)$$
.

Kellogg [9] proved that M(A) is a closed commutative subalgebra of B(A), consequently we always have M(A) = Z(M(A)). More precisely, we can prove the following:

PROPOSITION 2. Let A be a normed algebra. Then the algebra M(A) of all multipliers of A is a closed commutative sub-algebra of B(A), the algebra of all bounded linear operators in A with operator norm.

Proof. Let $T_n \in M(A)$ and $||T_n - T|| \to 0$, for $n = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$. We note that for any $x, y \in A$,

$$||x(Ty) - (Tx)y|| \le ||x(Ty) - x(T_ny)|| + ||(T_nx)y - (Tx)y||$$

$$\le 2 ||x|| ||y|| ||T_n - T||.$$

Letting n tend to infinity, we have x(Ty) = (Tx)y. Thus $T \in M(A)$, and M(A) is closed. These remarks together with the result of Kellogg complete the proof of the assertion.

From Proposition 2, we may easily deduce that all subalgebras of B(A) occurring (*) are closed in B(A).

PROPOSITION 3. Let $\mathscr{S}_{P_A}(x)$ denote the spectrum of an element $x \in A$. Then $\mathscr{S}_{P_B(A)}(T) = \mathscr{S}_{P_M(A)}(T)$.

Proof. Since both B(A) and M(A) contain the identity, we need only to prove that for $T \in M(A)$ if T^{-1} exists and is in B(A), then $T^{-1} \in M(A)$. For any $x, y \in A$, we observe that

$$(T^{-1}x)y = (T^{-1}x)(TT^{-1}y) = (TT^{-1}x)(T^{-1}y) = x(T^{-1}y)$$

THEOREM 1. M(A) is maximal commutative subalgebra of B(A) if and only if A is commutative.

Proof. Let A be commutative, and for each $x \in A$, we write T_x , $_xT$ the left and right regular representations of x in B(A). Since A is commutative, $[A] = \{T_x \colon x \in A\} = \{_xT \colon x \in A\} \subseteq M(A)$. Suppose A is not maximal, and let MC(A) be some maximal commutative subalgebra containing A. Since A is not maximal, we may pick $T \in MC(A) \setminus M(A)$. On the other hand, $T \in MC(A)$ implies that T commutes with all elements of [A], i.e., for all $x, y \in A$ $(Tx)y = (TT_x)y = (T_xT)y = x(Ty)$, proving that $T \in M(A)$. This contradiction establishes that A is maximal. Conversely let M(A) be a maximal commutative algebra. Thus $T \in B(A)$, and ST = TS for all $S \in M(A)$ imply $T \in M(A)$. In particular, $(T_xS)y = x(Sy) = (Sx)y = (ST_x)y$ and hence $T_x \in M(A)$ for all $x \in A$. Thus $(xy)z = T_x(yz) = y(T_xz) = (yx)z$ for all $x, y, z \in A$. Since A is without order, xy = yx for all $x, y \in A$, i.e., A is commutative.

We will see from § 3 and § 4 that in case A is a simple H^* -algebra, then M(A) = Z(B(A)).

REMARK 1. If A is in addition complete, then M(A) is also a Banach algebra. In this case, we may define $T \in M(A)$ as any mapping of A into itself satisfying the condition that (Tx)y = x(Ty) for all $x, y \in A$. From the fact that A is without order, it is easily seen that T is linear. As a consequence of closed graph theorem, we may also show that T is bounded (see Wang [12]). The way we choose to define multipliers is just a matter of convenience. Note that throughout all of our discusson, we do not assume A to be complete.

3. Lemmata on matrix algebras. Let X_s be the algebra of all matrices $(x_{\alpha\beta})$, α , $\beta \in S$, where S is a fixed set of indices and $x_{\alpha\beta}$'s are complex numbers satisfying the condition $\sum_{\alpha,\beta} |x_{\alpha\beta}|^2 < \infty$. The multiplication is defined by

$$z = (z_{\alpha\beta}) = x \cdot y = (x_{\alpha\beta})(y_{\gamma\delta})$$
,

where

$$z_{lphaeta} = \sum_{\gamma \in S} x_{lpha\gamma} y_{\gammaeta}$$
 .

This multiplication is well defined since

$$\sum_{lpha,\,eta} |\, Z_{lphaeta}\,|^{\,2} = \sum_{lpha,\,eta} igg|_{\,\gamma} x_{lpha\gamma} y_{\gammaeta} igg|^{\,2} \leqq igg(\sum_{lpha,\,eta} |\, x_{lphaeta}\,|^{\,2} igg) igg(\sum_{\gamma,\,\delta} |\, y_{\gamma\delta}\,|^{\,2} igg) < \, \infty \,$$
 .

We define an inner product on X_s by $(x, y) = w \sum_{\alpha, \beta} x_{\alpha\beta} \overline{y}_{\alpha\beta}$, where w is a fixed constant ≥ 1 . X_s becomes a Banach algebra if the norm is induced by the inner product in the usual manner, i.e. $||x||^2 = (x, x)$. In this cases, $B(X_s)$ can be identified with a subalgebra of all matrices $T = (t_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta})$ over $S \times S$ such that Tx = y is defined by

$$y_{lphaeta} = \sum\limits_{(\gamma.\delta)} t_{lphaeta\gamma\delta} x_{\gamma\delta}$$

with $\sum_{\alpha,\beta} |y_{\alpha\beta}|^2 < \infty$. (We refer to Naimark [10] for more detailed discussion of X_s .)

LEMMA 1. $T \in M(X_s)$ if and only if T is a scalar multiple of the identity operator.

Proof. Let $T=(t_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta})\in M(X_S)$, so (Tx)y=T(xy) for all $x,y\in X_S$. For any fixed pair of indices $(\sigma,\tau)\in S\times S$, let $x_{\sigma\tau}=1$, $x_{\alpha\beta}=0$ if $(\alpha,\beta)\neq (\sigma,\tau)$ and $y_{\sigma\sigma}=1$, $y_{\tau\tau}=-1$, $y_{\alpha\beta}=0$ otherwise. Denote $z=(z_{\alpha\beta})=(Tx)y=T(xy)$. Observe from z=(Tx)y that

$$\sum_{arepsilon} \left(\sum_{(au,\,\delta)} t_{lpha arepsilon \gamma \delta} x_{\gamma \delta}
ight) (y_{arepsilon eta}) = \sum_{arepsilon} t_{lpha arepsilon \sigma au} y_{arepsilon eta} \; ,$$

and hence $z_{\alpha\sigma}=t_{\alpha\sigma\sigma\tau}, z_{\alpha\tau}=-t_{\alpha\tau\sigma\tau}, z_{\alpha\beta}=0$ otherwise. On the other hand, from z=T(xy) we have

$$\sum_{(\gamma,\,\delta)} t_{lphaeta\gamma\delta} \Bigl(\sum_{arepsilon} x_{\gammaarepsilon} y_{arepsilon\delta}\Bigr) = \sum_{\sigma} t_{lphaeta\sigma\delta} y_{ au\delta} = -t_{lphaeta\sigma au}$$
 .

From these computation, we obtain that $t_{\alpha\beta\sigma\tau}=0$ if $\beta\neq\sigma$ and $\beta\neq\tau$. In case $\beta=\sigma$, we have $t_{\alpha\sigma\sigma\tau}=-t_{\alpha\sigma\sigma\tau}$ and so again $z_{\alpha\beta}=0$. Hence we conclude that $t_{\alpha\beta\sigma\tau}=0$ unless $\beta=\tau$. Similarly, from x(Ty)=T(xy) we obtain $t_{\alpha\beta\sigma\tau}=0$ unless $\alpha=\sigma$. Since σ,τ are arbitrary, we have $t_{\alpha\beta\sigma\tau}\neq0$ only if $(\alpha,\beta)=(\sigma,\tau)$. Next we choose $x_{\sigma\tau}=1,x_{\alpha\beta}=0$ if $(\alpha,\beta)\neq(\sigma,\tau)$ and $y_{\mu\nu}=1,y_{\alpha\beta}=0$ if $(\alpha,\beta)\neq(\mu,\nu)$ in the equation (Tx)y=x(Ty). It is readily seen from a similar computation that $t_{\alpha\beta\alpha\beta}=t_{\gamma\delta\gamma\delta}$ for all $\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta\in S$. Thus if $T\in M(X_S)$, then T must be a scalar multiple of the identity operator.

LEMMA 2. $M(X_s) = Z(B(X_s))$.

Proof. In view of the inclusion relation (*), we need only to show that if $T \in Z(B(X_s))$, then $T \in M(X_s)$. Let $T = (t_{ij}), i, j \in S \times S$,

such that for two fixed distinct indices $k, h \in S \times S$, $t_{kk} = a \neq t_{kh} = b$ and $t_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. From Lemma 1, we clearly have $T \notin M(A)$. Define $T_1 \in B(A)$, $T_1 = (t'_{ij})$, by $t'_{kh} = 1$, and $t'_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. It is readily seen by a direct computation that $TT_1 \neq T_1T$, hence $T \notin Z(B(X_S))$, proving the assertion.

4. H^* -algebras. An H^* -algebra A is a Banach *-algebra (a Banach algebra with involution) and a Hilbert space, where the Banach algebra norm coincides with the Hilbert space norm, with the the crucial connecting property $(xy,z)=(y,x^*y)$. It is assumed that for each $x\in A$, $||x^*||=||x||$ and $x^*x\neq 0$ if $x\neq 0$. A simple example of an H^* -algebra is the matrix algebra X_s introduced in § 3. In fact, X_s is a simple H^* -algebra, and indeed every simple H^* -algebra is isometric and *-isomorphic to some matrix algebra X_s . In general, Ambrose [1] proved that every H^* -algebra is the direct, and at the same time orthogonal, sum of its closed minimal two-sided ideals which are simple H^* -algebras. (Naimark [10], p. 331).

LEMMA 3. Let A be a normed algebra which is the direct sum of closed two-sided ideals $\{I_{\alpha}: \alpha \in \mathcal{E}\}\$ in A. If $T \in M(A)$, then T maps each I_{α} into itself.

Proof. Let $x \in I_{\alpha}$ for some fixed $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$. Suppose that $(Tx)_{\beta} \neq 0$, i.e. The projection of Tx into I_{β} , for some $\beta \neq \alpha, \beta \in \mathscr{C}$. We may choose $y \in I_{\beta}, y \neq 0$, such that $(Tx)y = (Tx)_{\beta}y = 0$. (For otherwise, if $(Tx)_{\beta}I_{\beta} = 0$, then

$$(\mathit{Tx})_{eta}A=(\mathit{Tx})_{eta}\Big(igoplus_{lpha\in\mathscr{K}}\mathit{I}_{lpha}\Big)=(\mathit{Tx})_{eta}\mathit{I}_{eta}=0$$
 ,

contradicting the fact that A is without order.) But on the other hand, $T(xy) = T \cdot 0 = 0$, violating the multiplier condition. Thus, $(Tx)_{\beta} = 0$, i.e. T maps each I_{α} into itself.

Denote by T_{α} the restriction of T to I_{α} . It is clear that if $T \in M(A)$, then $T_{\alpha} \in M(I_{\alpha})$ for each $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$. Hence we may write

$$TA = T\Big(igoplus_{lpha \in \mathscr{C}} I_lpha\Big) = igoplus_{lpha \in \mathscr{C}} TI_lpha = igoplus_{lpha \in \mathscr{C}} T_lpha I_lpha$$
 .

We note that for each $T \in M(A)$, there corresponds a unique set $\{T_{\alpha}\}$ where $T_{\alpha} \in M(I_{\alpha})$.

THEOREM 2. Let A be an H^* -algebra, and $\{I_\alpha: \alpha \in \mathscr{C}\}$ the set of all minimal closed two-sided ideals in A. Denote by E the topological space of the set of all minimal closed two-sided ideals in A with the

discrete topology. Then there exists a *-isomorphism which is at the same time an isometry of M(A) onto $C^{\infty}(E)$, the space of all bounded continuous complex functions on E.

Proof. From the structure theorem of H^* -algebras, we know that $A=\bigoplus \sum_{\alpha} I_{\alpha}$ of all its closed minimal ideals which are simple H^* -algebras, *-isomorphic and isometric to some matrix algebras $X_{s_{\alpha}}$. For each $T\in M(A)$, let $\{T_{\alpha}\colon \alpha\in \mathscr{C}\}$ be the corresponding set of multipliers of I_{α} . By Lemma 1, I_{α} must be a scalar multiple of the identity operator P_{α} , say $I_{\alpha}=t(\alpha)P_{\alpha}$, for some complex number $t(\alpha)$ depending on T. Define $\Phi\colon M(A)\to C(E)$, the space of all complex-valued functions on E by $\Phi(T)(\alpha)=t(\alpha)$ for each $\alpha\in E$. Clearly Φ is linear, multiplicative and preserves involution. (i.e., * operations for elements in A, complex conjugation for elements in $C^{\infty}(E)$ and operator adjoint for elements in M(A).) To show that Φ is isometric, we observe

$$||Tx||^2 = \left\| T\Big(igoplus \sum_lpha x_lpha \Big)
ight\|^2 = \left\| igoplus \sum_lpha T_lpha x_lpha
ight\|^2 \ = \sum_lpha ||T_lpha x_lpha||^2 = \sum_lpha ||t(lpha) x_lpha||^2 \le ||arPhi(T)||^2 ||x||^2$$

and hence $||T|| \le ||\Phi(T)||$. Conversely, we have for some $x_{\alpha} \ne 0$,

$$\mid \varPhi(T)(lpha) \mid = \mid t(lpha) \mid = rac{\mid \mid T_{lpha} x_{lpha} \mid \mid}{\mid \mid x_{lpha} \mid \mid} \leqq \mid \mid T_{lpha} \mid \mid \leqq \mid \mid T \mid \mid$$
 ,

proving $|| \varphi(T) || \leq || T ||$. Thus, φ is indeed an isometry, and being linear, it is one-to-one. On the other hand for each $f \in C^{\infty}(E) \subseteq C(E)$, let $T_{\alpha} = f(\alpha)P_{\alpha}$. It is readily seen that the mapping T determined by $\{T_{\alpha}\}$ belongs to M(A) and satisfies $\varphi(T) = f$. Thus, we conclude that φ is an isometric *-isomorphism from M(A) onto $C^{\infty}(E)$.

We note that the present proof differs from its commutative counterpart [9] in the use of Ambrose's structure theorem [1] for H^* -algebras instead of Gelfand's representation for general commutative Banach Algebras.

REMARK 2. We note that the orthogonal complement of each minimal closed two-sided ideal is a maximal closed two-sided ideal, and vice versa. Hence the space of all minimal closed two-sided ideals is homeomorphic to the space of all maximal closed two-sided ideals. Thus, in case A is commutative, the above representation theorem reduces to that of Kellogg's (Theorem (4.1), [9]).

REMARK 3. From Lemma 2 and the above theorem, it is easily seen that if A is a H^* -algebra then M(A) = Z(B(A)) if and only if A is simple.

REMARK 4. The result of Theorem 2 remains valid for any algebra which is the direct sum of ideals $\{I_{\alpha}\}$ such that each ideal is isomorphic and isometric to some matrix algebra. The isometry of M(A) and $C^{\infty}(E)$ can be proved without using the orthogonality of the direct sum in an H^* -algebra.

REMARK 5. Since M(A) is a commutative involutory algebra, it is also contained in the set of all normal operators on A.

REMARK 6. Since M(A) is *-isomorphic and isometric to $C^{\infty}(E)$, its maximal ideal space is homeomorphic to the Stone-Cěch compactification of the discrete space E. (See [6], Chapter 6).

REMARK 7. A Banach *-algebra A with identity e is called completely symmetric if for each $x \in A$, $(e + x^*x)^{-1} \in A$. (See Naimark [10], p. 299.) It is clear that $C^{\infty}(E)$ and hence M(A) is completely symmetric. In particular, the Shilov boundary of M(A) coincides with its maximal ideal space. (Cf. Naimark [10], p. 218.)

Another interesting example of H^* -algebras is the group algebra $L_2(G)$, where G is an arbitrary compact group. In this case, all the minimal closed two-sided ideals of $L_2(G)$ are isomorphic and isometric to finite dimensional simple H^* -algebras, or equivalently X_{S_α} , with S_α finite for each $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ (see [1].). In the following, we will prove a result for the set of all multipliers which are at the same time compact operators in case A is a H^* -algebra whose minimal closed two-sided ideals are finite-dimensional. (Such an algebra will be called compact H^* -algebra. Clearly, every commutative H^* algebra is a compact H^* -algebra.)

THEOREM 3. Let A be a H^* -algebra whose minimal closed twosided ideals are finite dimensional, and $M_{\sigma}(A)$ the set of all compact operators in M(A). Then $\Phi(M_{\sigma}(A)) = C_{\circ}(E)$, the algebra of all continuous functions on E which vanish at infinity.

Proof. Since every I_{α} is finite dimensional, each $T_{\alpha} \in M(I_{\alpha})$ is a scalar multiple of the identity operator P_{α} , and hence compact. For any finite set $F \subseteq E$, if we define

$$T = \sum_{lpha \in F} T_{lpha} = \sum_{lpha \in F} c_{lpha} P_{lpha}$$
,

where c_{α} are complex constants, T is the finite sum of compact operators and thus again compact. Let $C_{\kappa}(E)$ be the algebra of all continuous functions on E with compact support. We have just seen

REMARK 8. We note that for every compact multiplier T of a compact H^* -algebra, there exists a net $T_\alpha \in B(A)$ with finite ranks, such that T_α converges to T in operator norm.

REMARK 9. For each $T \in M(A)$, let $\{T_{\alpha}\}$ be the collection of all restrictions of T to I_{α} . Clearly $\{T_{\alpha}\}$ is a family of mutually orthogonal projections, since $\{I_{\alpha}\}$ is an orthogonal family of subspaces. For each $T \in M_{\sigma}(A)$, we observe that there are only countably many T_{α} different from zero. (Observe that the set $\{\alpha \colon f(\alpha) \neq 0, f = \mathcal{Q}(T)\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n$, where $S_n = \{\alpha \colon |f(\alpha)| \geq 1/n\}$, is countable since for each n, S_n is finite.) Hence, we may write

$$T=\sum\limits_{i=1}^{\infty}f(lpha_i)P_{lpha_i}$$
 , with $\lim\limits_{i o\infty}|f(lpha_i)|=0$.

This decomposition of T into a sequence of orthogonal projections can be considered as an extension of the well-known spectral decomposition of a self-adjoint compact operators of H^* -algebras. In this case, T is not assumed to be self-adjoint.

REMARK 10. By a similar consideration as given in Remark 2, Theorem 3 may be considered as a generalization of Theorem (4.3) of [9]. Furthermore, the maximal ideal space of the algebra $M_{\sigma}(A)$ of all compact multipliers of a compact H^* -algebra A is homeomorphic to E, the set of all minimal two-sided ideals in A with discrete topology.

REMARK 11. We remark that the specialization of general H^* -algebras to compact H^* -algebras is necessary since in case of X_s , the identity operator in $B(X_s)$ is compact if and only if X_s is finite-dimensional.

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Received June 7, 1966. The research of the first-named author was supported by the Summer Supplement of a National Research Council Studentship held at the University of Toronto. The research of the second-named author was supported by a Summer Research Fellowship from the Canadian Mathematical Congress, at Edmonton 1966, and also by NRC Grant A-3125.

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