SUMMARY FOR THE COURSE "INTRODUCTION TO REPRESENTATION THEORY", FALL 2015

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1. Basic definitions and Schur's Lemmas

Definition 1.1. A group G is a set with a binary operation $G \times G \rightarrow G$, called multiplication, such that

(1) $\forall f, g, h \in G.(fg)h = f(gh)$

 $(2) \exists 1 \in G \, s.t. \forall g \in G, \, 1g = g1 = g$

(3) $\forall g \in G, \exists g^{-1} \in G \text{ s.t. } gg^{-1} = g^{-1}g = 1$

A morphism of groups $\phi : G \to H$ is a function $\phi : G \to H$ s.t. $\phi(g_1g_2) = \phi(g_1)\phi(g_2) \forall g_1, g_2 \in G.$

Example 1.2. \mathbb{Z} - the group of integers, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ = the cyclic group of order n, Sym(X)the group of all bijections from X to itself. Also denoted by Sym_n or S_n if X has nelements. If V is a vector space of dimension n over a field F then we denote by GL(V)or by GL(n, F) the group of all invertible linear transformations from V to itself.

Definition 1.3. A G-set (a, X) is a set X together with a morphism of groups $a : G \to$ Sym(X). We also say that G acts on X via a, and that a is an action of G on X. We will sometimes omit the a or the X from the notation. Also, we will sometimes write gxfor a(g)x.

A morphism of G-sets $\nu : (a, X) \to (b, Y)$ is a function $\nu : X \to Y$ such that $\nu(a(g)x) = b(g)\nu(x), \forall g \in G, x \in X.$

Denote by X^G the set of fixed points of G in X, i.e. $X^G := \{x \in X : gx = x \forall g \in G\}$. For a point $x \in X$ denote by $G_x := Stab_G(x) := \{g \in G : gx = x\}$ the stabilizer of xin G and by $Gx := \{gx : g \in G\}$ the orbit of x.

An action of G on X is called **free** if all stabilizers are trivial and **transitive** if Gx = X for some (and hence every) $x \in X$.

Example 1.4.

- (1) $\operatorname{Sym}(X)$ acts on X.
- (2) GL(V) acts on V.
- (3) $G \times G$ acts on G by $(g_1, g_2) \cdot h = g_1 h g_2^{-1}$. This gives rise to 3 actions of G on itself, corresponding to 3 embeddings of G to $G \times G$: left, right and diagonal.

Definition 1.5. Let H be a subgroup of G. Define an equivalence relation on G by $g_1 \sim g_2$ iff $g_1^{-1}g_2 \in H$. We will denote the set of equivalence classes by G/H and denote the equivalence class of g by gH. Then G/H has a natural action of G defined by $g_1(g_2H) :=$ $(g_1g_2)H$. We call it the **set of right** H-cosets in G.

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If the subgroup H is **normal**, i.e. satisfies $ghg^{-1} \in H \forall g \in G, h \in H$ then G/H has a natural group structure defined by $(g_1H)(g_2H) := g_1g_2H$.

Proposition 1.6. (1) $|G| = |G/H| \cdot |H|$, where || denotes the size of a set.

- (2) Any transitive G-set X is isomorphic the set of cosets G/G_x where $x \in X$ is any point.
- (3) Any G-set is a disjoint union of transitive G-sets (its orbits).

Many important groups have natural actions that are straightforward from their definitions. Many theorems on groups and their subgroups come from actions of G on itself or on coset spaces G/H. G-sets are important, and one can use geometry to study them. However, one cannot "compute" in G-sets. In order to compute, one needs some algebraic structure, e.g. a vector space.

Definition 1.7. A representation of a group G over a field F consists of a vector space V over F and a morphism of groups $\pi : G \to GL(V)$. We will denote the representation by (G, π, V) or (π, V) or π or V. The dimension of V is called the dimension of the representation. A one-dimensional representation is called a **character**. A **morphism** of representations $\phi : (\pi, V) \to (\tau, W)$ is a linear map $\phi : V \to W$ that is a morphism of G-sets, i.e. such that $\phi(\pi(g)v) = \tau(g)\phi(v), \forall g \in G, v \in V$.

Here are some examples of characters.

Example 1.8.

- (1) The trivial character (of any group): $\chi(g) = 1$ for all g.
- (2) The sign character of S_n (sign of permutation).
- (3) The determinant for GL(n, F).

Here are some examples of representations.

Example 1.9.

- (1) The zero representation (of any group): V = 0, GL(V) has one element.
- (2) $SO(2,\mathbb{R})$ acts on \mathbb{R}^2 by rotations.
- (3) GL(V) acts on V.
- (4) Sym(X) acts on the space F(X) of all functions $X \to F$.

Exercise 1.10. Let $\pi, \tau \in \operatorname{Rep}(G)$ and let $\phi : \pi \to \tau$ be a morphism of representations which is an isomorphism of linear spaces. Show that ϕ is an isomorphism of representations. In other words, show that the linear inverse ϕ^{-1} is also a morphism of representations.

Definition 1.11. Let (π, V) and (τ, W) be representations of G (over the same field F). Define a representation of G on the **direct sum** $V \oplus W$ by $g(v, w) := (\pi(g)v, \tau(g)w)$.

Define a **dual** or **contragredient** representation (π^*, V^*) by $(\pi^*(g)\phi)(v) := \phi(g^{-1})v$.

Let (σ, U) be a representation of H (over F). Define a representation of $G \times H$ on the **tensor product** $V \otimes U$ by $(g, h)(v \otimes u) := \pi(g)v \otimes \sigma(g)u$.

In particular, if G = H then $\pi \otimes \sigma$ is a representation of $G \times G$, which also becomes a representation of G using the diagonal embedding $\Delta : G \hookrightarrow G \times G$. This enables us to define an action of G on $\operatorname{Hom}_F(V, U) = V^* \otimes U$. SUMMARY FOR THE COURSE "INTRODUCTION TO REPRESENTATION THEORY", FALL 2015 3

Exercise 1.12. Check that $\operatorname{Hom}_F(V, U)^G = \operatorname{Hom}_G(\pi, \sigma)$.

Definition 1.13. A subrepresentation of (G, π, V) is a G-invariant subspace of V, with induced action of G.

Example 1.14. Any representation has (at least) 2 subrepresentations : 0 and V.

Definition 1.15. A representation is called *irreducible* if it has only 2 subrepresentations.

Example 1.16.

- (1) Any character is irreducible
- (2) The action of $SO(2,\mathbb{R})$ on \mathbb{R}^2 by rotations is irreducible, while the action of \mathbb{R}^{\times} on \mathbb{R}^2 by homotheties is not.

Exercise 1.17. Every irreducible representation of a finite group is finite dimensional.

In the next lecture we will show that every representation is a direct sum of irreducible ones, and for a given group there is a finite number of isomorphism classes of irreps (unlike prime numbers). Thus, the main goals of representation theory are to classify all irreducible representations of a given group (up to isomorphism) and given a representation to find its decomposition to irreducible ones.

The most important properties of irreducible representations are Schur's lemmas.

Lemma 1.18. Let ρ and σ be irreps of a group G.

- (1) Any non-zero morphism $\phi: \rho \to \sigma$ is an isomorphism.
- (2) If the field F is algebraically closed and ρ is finite-dimensional then $\operatorname{Hom}(\rho, \rho) = F \cdot Id$.

Proof. (1) Ker ϕ is a subrepresentation of ρ and Im ϕ is a subrepresentation of σ . (2) Let $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(\rho, \rho)$ and λ be an eigenvalue of φ . Since $\varphi - \lambda Id$ is not invertible, (1) implies that it is zero.

Corollary 1.19. Every irrep of a finite commutative group over an algebraically closed field is one-dimensional.

Exercise 1.20. Every irrep of a commutative group over \mathbb{R} is at most 2-dimensional. Give an example of a 2-dimensional irrep.

Exercise 1.21. Let $(\pi_1, V_1), (\pi_2, V_2)$ be irreps of a group G. Consider the direct sum (π, V) of these representations. The space V has four G-invariant coordinate subspaces $0, V_1, V_2, V$. Show that the representations π_1 and π_1 are isomorphic if and only if there exists a non-coordinate G-invariant subspace in V (i.e. a subspace distinct from the four subspaces listed above).

2. EXISTENCE AND UNIQUENESS OF DECOMPOSITION TO IRREDUCIBLES, INTERTWINING NUMBERS AND THE GROUP ALGEBRA.

From now on we consider only finite groups.

Definition 2.1 (Exercise). A representation π is called completely reducible if one of the following equivalent conditions holds.

- (1) π is a direct sum of irreducible representations.
- (2) For every subrepresentation $\tau \subset \pi$ there exists another subrepresentation $\tau' \subset \pi$ such that $\pi = \tau \oplus \tau'$.

Note that an irreducible representation is completely reducible :-).

Theorem 2.2 (Weyl-Mashke). Suppose that |G| is not zero in F. Then every representation (π, V) of G over F is completely reducible.

Proof. Let $\tau \subset \pi$. It is enough to find a *G*-invariant linear projection on τ . We take any linear projection on τ and average it. Namely, we take a linear map $p: V \to V$ s.t. $p^2 = p$ and Im $p = \tau$ and replace it by $p' := \sum_{g \in G} \pi(g) p \pi(g^{-1})$. Check that $p'^2 = p'$, Im $p' = \tau$ and p' is *G*-invariant.

The idea of averaging is very important. It always gives something G-invariant, but sometimes produces zero. It already take4s advantage of linearity of our subject - we would not be able to do such a thing with G-sets.

The assumptions that G is finite and |G| is not zero in F are necessary, as shown by the following example.

Example 2.3. Define $A \in Mat_2(F)$ by $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Let the group \mathbb{Z} act on F^2 by $\pi(n) := A^n$. Then this representation is not completely reducible.

If char F = p then the same example gives a representation of the finite group $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

From now on we assume charF = 0 and F is algebraically closed. Also, we consider only finite-dimensional representations.

Corollary 2.4. Any matrix A with $A^n = Id$ is diagonalizable.

In order to prove uniqueness of the decomposition we introduce a very important notion, called intertwining number.

Notation 2.5. We denote by Rep(G) the collection of all representations of G and by Irr(G) the set of isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of G. In the next lecture we will show that the set Irr(G) is finite.

Definition 2.6. Let $\pi, \tau \in Rep(G)$. Define the *intertwining number* of π and τ by $\langle \pi, \tau \rangle := \dim Hom_G(\pi, \tau)$.

Lemma 2.7. The "form" $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is "bilinear and symmetric". Namely

(1) $\langle \pi_1 \oplus \pi_2, \tau \rangle = \langle \pi_1, \tau \rangle + \langle \pi_2, \tau \rangle$ (2) $\langle \pi, \tau_1 \oplus \tau_2 \rangle = \langle \pi, \tau_1 \rangle + \langle \pi, \tau_2 \rangle$ (3) $\langle \bigoplus a_i \pi_i, \bigoplus b_i \tau_i = \sum a_i b_i \langle \pi_i, \tau_i \rangle$, where a_i and b_i are natural numbers or zeros. (4) $\langle \pi, \tau \rangle = \langle \tau, \pi \rangle$

Proof. (1)-(2) are obvious and apply (3), which in turn implies (4) using complete reducibility. \Box

Note that we just proved that the spaces $\operatorname{Hom}_G(\pi, \tau)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_G(\tau, \pi)$ are equidimensional and hence isomorphic, but we have no natural isomorphism between them.

Corollary 2.8. The decomposition of any representation to a direct sum of irreducible ones is unique. The multiplicity with which an irrep σ appears in a representation π equals $\langle \sigma, \pi \rangle$.

Corollary 2.9. A representation π is irreducible if and only if $\langle \pi, \pi \rangle = 1$.

For a vector space V denote $\operatorname{End}(V) := \operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$. Note that $\operatorname{End}(V) = V \otimes V^*$. Thus, let us study some properties of actions on tensor products.

Let $\pi \in Rep(G)$ and $\tau \in Rep(H)$.

Exercise 2.10. Show that $(\pi \otimes \tau)|_G = (\dim \tau)\pi$ and $(\pi \otimes \tau)|_H = (\dim \pi)\tau$.

Exercise 2.11. Show that $(\pi \otimes \tau)^{G \times H} = \pi^G \otimes \tau^H$.

Lemma 2.12. Let $\rho \in Irr(G)$ and $\sigma \in Irr(H)$. Then $\rho \otimes \sigma \in Irr(G \times H)$.

Proof.

$$\operatorname{End}_{G\times H}(\rho\otimes\sigma) = (\operatorname{End}_F(\rho\otimes\sigma))^{G\times H} = (\rho^*\otimes\sigma\otimes\sigma^*\otimes\rho)^{G\times H} = (\rho^*\otimes\rho\otimes\sigma\otimes\sigma^*)^{G\times H} = (\rho^*\otimes\rho)^G\otimes(\sigma\otimes\sigma^*)^H = \operatorname{End}_F(\rho)^G\otimes\operatorname{End}_F(\sigma)^H = \operatorname{End}_G(\rho)\otimes\operatorname{End}_H(\sigma).$$

Thus, $\langle \rho \otimes \sigma, \rho \otimes \sigma \rangle = \langle \rho, \rho \rangle \langle \sigma, \sigma \rangle = 1.$

Exercise 2.13. Prove that every irrep of $G \times H$ can be obtained in this way.

Corollary 2.14. If $\rho \in Irr(G)$ then $\operatorname{End}_F(\rho) \in Irr(G \times G)$.

Definition 2.15 (Group algerba). Define the **group algebra** $\mathcal{A}(G)$ of G to be the algebra spanned over F by the symbols δ_g , $g \in G$ with multiplication defined by $\delta_g \delta_h = \delta_{gh}$. Note that this is an associative non-commutative (unless G is commutative) algebra with unit (equal to δ_1). We can also view it as the algebra of functions from G to F, or the algebra of measures on G, with multiplication given by convolution:

$$f * h(g) := \sum_{x \in G} f(gx^{-1})h(x)$$

We define a representation of $G \times G$ on $\mathcal{A}(G)$ by $(g_1, g_2)\delta_x := \delta_{g_1xg_2^{-1}} \forall x \in G$ or, equivalently, $((g_1, g_2)f)(x) := f(g_1^{-1}xg_2) \forall f \in \mathcal{A}(G), x \in G$. This representation is called the **regular representation** of G. Its restrictions on first and second coordinate of $G \times G$ are called the **left regular** and **right regular** representations respectively.

Definition 2.16. A representation of an algebra with unit A on a vector space V is a morphism of algebras with unit $A \to \text{End}(V)$.

Exercise 2.17. A representation (π, V) of G defines a representation of $\mathcal{A}(G)$ on V and vice versa.

Lemma 2.18. If $\rho \in Irr(G)$ then the natural morphism of algebras $\mathcal{A}(G) \to \operatorname{End}_F(\rho)$ is onto.

Proof. End_F(ρ) is an irrep of $G \times G$ and the image of this morphism is a non-zero sub-representation.

3. Decomposition of the regular representation. Corollaries on number and dimensions of irreducible representations. Examples for small symmetric groups

Lemma 3.1. Let V be a vector space. Then $\langle A, B \rangle := \text{Tr}(AB)$ defines a non-degenerate symmetric bilinear form on End(V). Moreover, if V is a representation of G then this form is invariant with respect to the diagonal action of G. This form is called the **trace** form.

Theorem 3.2. The natural morphism

$$\phi: \mathcal{A}(G) \to \bigoplus_{\sigma \in Irr(G)} \operatorname{End}_F(\sigma)$$

is an isomorphism of algebras and of representations of $G \times G$.

- *Proof.* (1) It is easy to see that ϕ is a morphism of algebras and of representations of $G \times G$. Thus it is enough to show that ϕ is one to one and onto.
 - (2) Suppose $f \in \text{Ker } \phi \subset \mathcal{A}(G)$. Then f acts by zero on any irreducible representation of G and thus on any representation of G. Thus, f acts by zero on $\mathcal{A}(G)$, but $f\delta_1 = f$ and thus f = 0.
 - (3) Define a morphism $\psi : \bigoplus_{\sigma \in Irr(G)} \operatorname{End}_F(\sigma) \to \mathcal{A}(G)$ in the following way. For $A \in \operatorname{End}(\sigma)$ let by $\psi(A)(g) := \operatorname{Tr}(\sigma(g)A)$, and continue by linearity to the direct sum. Let us show that it is an embedding. From Lemmas 2.18 and 3.1 we see that Ker ψ does not intersect any coordinate of

the direct sum. On the other hand, by Exercise 1.21, Ker ψ must be a coordinate of subspace. Thus Ker $\psi = 0$.

(4) Now, by (3) the R.H.S. is finite dimensional and its dimension is at most the dimension of L.H.S, and by (2), ϕ is one to one. Thus ϕ is an isomorphism.

Corollary 3.3. (1) Irr(G) is finite and

$$\sum_{\sigma_{Irr(G)}} (\dim \sigma)^2 = |G|.$$

(2) |Irr(G)| equals the number of conjugacy classes in G.

Proof. (1): obvious. (2): both are equal to the dimension of the center of $\mathcal{A}(G)$.

Example 3.4. If G is commutative then |Irr(G)| = |G| and all irreps are characters.

Lemma 3.5. Let X and Y be G-sets. Then $\langle F(X), F(Y) \rangle$ equals the number of orbits of G in $X \times Y$ under the diagonal action.

Corollary 3.6. If the action of G on X is double-transitive then $F_0(X)$ is irreducible.

Example 3.7. Classification of $Irr(S_2)$, $Irr(S_3)$, $Irr(S_4)$.

4. ISOTYPIC COMPONENTS; CHARACTERS, SCHUR ORTHOGONALITY RELATIONS

4.1. Isotypic components.

Definition 4.1. A representation is called *isotypic* if it is a direct sum of isomorphic irreducible representations.

Exercise 4.2. The following are equivalent:

- (1) π is isotypic
- (2) All irreducible subrepresentations of π are isomorphic
- (3) If $\pi \simeq \omega \oplus \tau$ with $\langle \omega, \tau \rangle = 0$ then either $\omega = 0$ or $\tau = 0$.

Theorem 4.3. Let $(\pi, V) \in Rep(G)$. Then there exists a unique set of subrepresentations V_i such that $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k V_i$, V_i are isotypic, and $\langle V_i, V_j \rangle = 0$. Moreover, for any subrepresentation $W \subset V$, we have $W = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k (W \cap V_i)$.

Proof. By induction. Existence is easy. Uniqueness follows from the "moreover" part. To prove the "moreover" part, fix a decomposition $V = \bigoplus V_i$, let $W \subset V$ and consider the decomposition $W = \bigoplus W_i$ where W_i has the same type as V_i , or is zero. Then $W \cap V_i \subset W_i$. On the other hand, W_i has zero projection on V_j , for $j \neq i$ and thus $W_i \subset V_i$. Thus $W_i = V_i \cap W$.

The V_i are called the isotypic components of π .

Definition 4.4. If all isotypic components of π are irreducible then π is called multiplicity free.

Lemma 4.5 (Easy). Every intertwining operator $L \in \text{Hom}_G(\pi, \pi)$ preserves each isotypic component. In particular, if π is multiplicity free then L is scalar on each V_i .

Exercise 4.6. Barak has got a game for his birthday. In the game there was a cube with digits 1,...,6 on its faces, distributed somehow, not in the standard way. Each time he played with his friends and lost, he blamed the cube and modified it by replacing the number on every face by the average of the numbers written on the 4 neighbors of the face during the game round. What numbers will be written on the faces after 10 losses?

Solution. Let V denote the 6-dimensional space of functions on the set X of faces of the cube and L denote the "averaging on neighbors" operator. Of course, we can guess that the answer will be approximately the constant function 3.5. However, to know how precise this approximation is we will need to diagonalize L and representation theory will help us.

Let G denote the symmetries of the cube and consider V as its representation. Then G has 3 orbits on X, thus $\langle V, V \rangle = 3$ and thus V is a sum of 3 non-isomorphic irreducible representations. One is, of course, the 1-dimensional space V_1 of constant functions. The other is the 2-dimensional space V_2 of "symmetric" functions with zero sum, namely functions that have the same value on opposite faces (and zero sum). The third is the 3-dimensional space V_3 of "anti-symmetric" functions.

The operator L commutes with the group action and thus acts by a scalar λ_i on each V_i . Taking convenient vectors from each V_i we get $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 1/2, \lambda_1 = 0$. Note that V has the natural form $\langle f, g \rangle := \sum f(x)\overline{g(x)}$, which is G-invariant and thus can be used to compute projections to V_i . Let ξ be the original function given by (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6). Then its projection ξ_1 to V_1 is the constant function 3.5. The length of the projection to V_2 is at most $\sqrt{2((3.5-1)^2 + (3.5-2)^2 + (3.5-3)^2)} = \sqrt{17.5}$ and thus $|L^{10}(\xi) - \xi_1| \leq \sqrt{17.5}/2^{10} < 0,005$.

Exercise 4.7. Classify all irreducible representations of the group G from the solution of the last exercise.

Hint. Use the action of G on faces, edges, vertices and main diagonals of the cube, and on regular tetrahedra inscribed in the cube.

4.2. Characters.

Definition 4.8. Let $(\pi, V) \in Rep(G)$. Define a function χ_{π} on G by $\chi_{\pi}(g) := Tr \pi(g)$.

Lemma 4.9.

(1) If $\pi \simeq \tau$ then $\chi_{\pi} = \chi_{\tau}$. (2) $\chi_{\pi}(hgh^{-1}) = \chi_{\pi}(g)$, i.e. $\chi_{\pi} \in Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$. (3) $\chi_{\pi \oplus \tau} = \chi_{\pi} + \chi_{\tau}$. (4) $\chi_{\pi \otimes \tau} = \chi_{\pi} \chi_{\tau}$. (5) $\chi_{\pi}(g^{-1}) = \chi_{\pi^*}(g)$.

This lemma immediately follows from the corresponding properties of trace.

Definition 4.10. Define a bilinear form on $\mathcal{A}(G)$ by

$$\langle f,h\rangle:=|G|^{-1}\sum_{g\in G}f(g)h(g^{-1})$$

Exercise 4.11. This form is bilinear, symmetric and non-degenerate.

4.3. Schur orthogonality relations.

Theorem 4.12 (Schur orthogonality relations).

$$\langle \chi_{\pi}, \chi_{\tau} \rangle = \langle \pi, \tau \rangle$$

Proof. Let us first prove for the case when π is the trivial representation. Then $\operatorname{Hom}(\pi, \tau) = \tau^G$. Define $p : \tau \to \tau^G$ by $p := 1/|G| \sum \tau(g)$. Then $\operatorname{Im} p = \tau^G$ and $p|_{\tau^G} = Id$, i.e. p is a projection on τ^G . Thus, $\dim \tau^G = \operatorname{Tr}(p)$. On the other hand,

$$\operatorname{Tr}(p) = 1/|G| \sum \operatorname{Tr}(\tau(g)) = 1/|G| \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{\tau}(g) = 1/|G| \sum \chi_{\pi}(g^{-1})\chi_{\tau}(g) = \langle \chi_{\pi}, \chi_{\tau} \rangle$$

Now we will repeat the same argument for the general case, using the following exercise. **Exercise** Let L, V be linear spaces and let $X \in \text{End } V, Y \in \text{End } L$. Define $\Psi_{X,Y}$: $\text{Hom}(L, V) \to \text{Hom}(L, V)$ by $\Psi_{X,Y}(A) := XAY$. Then $\text{Tr } \Psi_{X,Y} = \text{Tr } X \text{ Tr } Y$. **Hint** There are (at least) to ways to solve this:

1) There are (at least) to ways to solve this

1) There is a "free' proof with tensor calculus.

2) In coordinates, $(YE_{ij}X)_{ij} = Y_{ii}X_{jj}$.

Now, let V be the space of π and L be the space of τ . Then $\operatorname{Hom}_G(\pi, \tau) = \operatorname{Hom}(V, L)^G$. For any $g \in G$ define $Q(g) : \operatorname{Hom}(V, L) \to \operatorname{Hom}(V, L)$ by $Q(g)(A) := \tau(g)A\pi(g^{-1})$. Then $1/|G| \sum_{g \in G} Q(g)$ is a projector from $\operatorname{Hom}(V, L)$ onto $\operatorname{Hom}_G(\pi, \tau) = \operatorname{Hom}(V, L)^G$. Thus

$$\langle \pi, \tau \rangle = \dim \operatorname{Hom}_G(\pi, \tau) = \operatorname{Tr}(1/|G| \sum_{g \in G} Q(g)) = 1/|G| \sum_{g \in G} \chi_\tau(g) \chi_\pi(g^{-1}) = \langle \chi_\pi, \chi_\tau \rangle$$

Corollary 4.13. The character is a full invariant of a representation.

Proof. $\pi = \bigoplus_{\rho \in IrrG} m_{\rho}\rho$, and m_{ρ} are determined by $m_{\rho} = \langle \pi, \rho \rangle = \langle \chi_{\pi}, \chi_{\rho} \rangle$.

Corollary 4.14. Characters of irreducible representations form an orthonormal basis for $Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$.

Proof. By Lemma 4.9, characters of irreducible representations belong to $Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$. By the theorem and Schur's lemmas, they form an orthonormal set. By Corollary 3.3 their number is equal to dim $Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$. Thus, they form an orthonormal basis.

Lemma 4.15. If $F = \mathbb{C}$ then $\chi_{\pi}(g^{-1}) = \overline{\chi_{\pi}(g)}$. Thus, on $Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$ the form \langle , \rangle coincides with the scalar product defined by $\langle f, h \rangle' = \sum_{g \in G} f(g)\overline{h(g)}$.

Proof. As we showed some time ago, π has an invariant scalar product and thus $\pi^* \simeq \overline{\pi}$. Now, $\chi_{\pi}(g^{-1}) = \chi_{\pi^*}(g) = \chi_{\overline{\pi}}(g) = \overline{\chi_{\pi}(g)}$.

4.4. Dimensions of irreps divide the order of the group.

Proposition 4.16. Let $\rho \in Irr(G)$ and let $z_{\rho} = \dim \rho/|G| \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{\rho}(g^{-1})\delta_g$. Then $\rho(z_{\rho}) = Id$ and $\sigma(z_{\rho}) = 0$ for any $\sigma \ncong \rho \in Irr(G)$.

Proof. Let $\omega \in Irr(G)$. Then, by the second Schur's lemma, $\omega(z_{\rho})$ is a scalar. Now, $\operatorname{Tr} \omega(z_{\rho}) = \dim \rho / |G| \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{\rho}(g^{-1}) \chi_{\omega}(g) = \dim \rho \cdot \langle \rho, \omega \rangle$. Thus, $\omega(z_{\rho}) = Id$ if $\rho \simeq \omega$ and $\omega(z_{\rho}) = 0$ otherwise.

Corollary 4.17. The inverse of the map $\mathcal{A}(G) \simeq \bigoplus_{\rho \in Irr(G)} \operatorname{End}_F(\rho)$ is given on the coordinate $\operatorname{End}_F(\rho)$ by $A \mapsto f_A(g) = \dim \rho/|G| \operatorname{Tr}(A\rho(g^{-1})).$

Corollary 4.18. $\forall \rho \in Irr(G), \dim \rho \text{ divides } |G|.$

For the proof we will need

Definition 4.19. A *lattice* is an abelian group without torsion.

Theorem 4.20 (from commutative algebra). Any finitely generated lattice L has a basis, *i.e.* $L \simeq \mathbb{Z}^n$. In other words, $\exists l_1, ..., l_n \in L$ s.t. $\forall l \in L, l = \sum a_i l_i, l_i \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 4.21. Let V be a vector space, and L < V a finitely generated lattice. Let $A: V \to V$ s.t. $A(L) \subset L$. Suppose that $A^2 = qA$. Then $q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Fix a basis $(l_1, ..., l_n)$ for L. Take $x \in L$ and let y := Ax. Then Ay = qy and $A^k y = q^k y \forall k \ge 1$. Thus q is rational, and any power of the denominator of q divides all the coordinates of y. Thus $q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof of Corollary 4.18. $V := \mathcal{A}(G), A :=$ convolution with $\sum \chi_{\rho}(g^{-1}), q = |G|/\dim \rho$ and L := lattice generated by $\{\xi \delta_g : \xi \text{ is a root of unity of order } |G|\}$. \Box

5. Classification of representations of symmetric groups

Let X be a set of size n and $G = \text{Sym}(X) = S_n$.

Lemma 5.1. Conjugate classes in S_n = partitions of n, i.e. sets $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k)$ of natural numbers s.t. $\alpha_1 + ... + \alpha_k = n$ and $\alpha_1 \ge ... \ge \alpha_k$.

Let us now find an irreducible representation for each partition $\alpha = (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k)$. Denote by X_{α} the set of all decompositions of the set X to subsets $X_1, ..., X_k$ s.t. $|X_i| = \alpha_i$.

Definition 5.2. $T_{\alpha} := F(X_{\alpha}), \quad T'_{\alpha} := sgn \cdot T_{\alpha}.$

Introduce a partial ordering on partitions by $\lambda \leq \mu$ iff $\sum_{i=1}^{j} \lambda_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{j} \mu_i \forall 1 \leq j \leq n$.

Definition 5.3. Denote by α^* the transposed partition given by $\alpha_i^* := |\{j : \alpha_j \ge i\}.$

Exercise 5.4. (1) α^* is a partition and $(\alpha^*)^* = \alpha$. (2) $\alpha \leq \beta \Leftrightarrow \alpha^* \geq \beta^*$.

Theorem 5.5.

$$\langle T_{\alpha}, T_{\beta}' \rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & \alpha \nleq \beta^{*}; \\ 1, & \alpha = \beta^{*}. \end{cases}$$

We leave the proof as a difficult combinatorial exercise. Hint: the intertwining number equals the number of G-orbits on $X_{\alpha} \times X_{\beta}$ such that the sgn is trivial on the centralizer of any point of the orbit.

The theorem implies that T_{α} and T'_{α} have a unique joint irreducible component U_{α} and that these components are different for different α . This gives a classification of all irreducible representations of S_n . This classification is not very satisfying, but a long and detailed study of the intertwining operator of T_{α} and T'_{α} will lead to a (quite long) expression for the character of U_{α} . We will give here a formula for dim U_{α} , that we will prove later using Gelfand pairs:

$$\dim U_{\alpha} = \frac{n! \prod_{i < j} (l_i - l_j)}{l_1! \dots l_k!},$$

where $l_i = \alpha_i + k - i, i = 1, ..., k$.

6. Commutative groups: Fourier transform.

Let G be a finite commutative group. Then, by the second Schur's lemma all irreducible representations are 1-dimensional (characters). Their number is equal to |G|. Actually, the characters form a group: $(\chi \cdot \psi)(g) := \chi(g)\psi(g)$. It is called the (Pontryagin) dual group \widehat{G} . This group is not canonically isomorphic to G, but $G \cong \widehat{\widehat{G}}$ canonically.

Now, we constructed an isomorphism $\mathcal{A}(G) \cong \bigoplus \operatorname{End}(\sigma)$. For commutative G it becomes $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A}(G) \cong \mathcal{A}(\widehat{G})$. It is called Fourier transform. To see why let us write the explicit formula.

$$\mathcal{F}(f)(\chi) = \sum_{g \in G} f(g)\chi(g)$$

By Schur orthogonality relations, we know that the characters form an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal{A}(G)$ and thus f can be reconstructed from $\mathcal{F}(f)$ by

$$f(g) = \sum_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} \mathcal{F}(f)(\chi) \chi(g)^{-1}$$

since $\mathcal{F}(f)(\chi)$ is exactly the χ^{-1} -coordinate of f. This formula is called Fourier inversion formula. It also shows that $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{F}(f))(g) = f(g^{-1})$, under the identification $G \cong \widehat{\widehat{G}}$.

To make things more familiar, let take $F = \mathbb{C}$. Then we have $\chi^{-1} = \overline{\chi}$. Let us consider $G = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and choose a non-trivial character ψ by $\psi(k) := exp(\frac{2\pi ik}{n})$. Then for $c \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ we have another character is given by $a \mapsto \psi(ca)$, and all characters of G are of this form. This gives an identification of G with \hat{G} and the familiar formulas for Fourier transform. The same thing happens for $G = \mathbb{R}$, but analysis comes in. For $G = S^1$, $\hat{G} = \mathbb{Z}$ and Fourier transform becomes Fourier series.

Application. Multiplication of numbers.

Remark. The isomorphism $\mathcal{A}(G) \cong \bigoplus \operatorname{End}(\sigma)$ for non-commutative groups can be viewed as a generalization of Fourier transform.

7. Induction of representations

We are looking for a way of "lifting" representations of a subgroup H < G to representations of G. In other words, we are looking for a "functor" $Ind_{H}^{G}: Rep(H) \to Rep(G).$

Let us first find the trace (character) ψ of $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$. We have a natural map $\operatorname{Res}_{H}^{G}$: $Z(\mathcal{A}(G)) \to Z(\mathcal{A}(H))$. On both algebras we have a natural non-degenerate bilinear form. Let us define $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}: Z(\mathcal{A}(H)) \to Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$ as the conjugate to $\operatorname{Res}_{H}^{G}$ w.r. to these forms. For any $g \in G$ let C_g denote the conjugacy class of g and δ_{C_g} denote the function which equals $|C_g|^{-1}$ on C_g and zero outside C_g . Then the functions of this form span $Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$. Now, by definition

$$\psi(g) = |G| \langle C_g, \psi^{-1} \rangle_G = |G| \langle C_g|_H, \chi_{\pi^*} \rangle = \frac{|G|}{|H| |C_g|} \sum_{h \in C_g \cap H} \chi_{\pi}(h)$$

As we know, this defines $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$ uniquely (up to isomorphism). One only has to show existence now. However, before doing this let us check the meaning of induction by evaluating $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi_{\pi})$ on another (generating) subset of $Z(\mathcal{A}(G))$ - the one formed by characters of representations.

$$\langle \tau, \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi) \rangle = \langle \chi_{\tau}, \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi_{\pi}) \rangle_{G} = \langle \operatorname{Res}_{H}^{G}\chi_{\tau}, \chi_{\pi} \rangle_{H} = \langle \operatorname{Res}_{H}^{G}\tau, (\pi) \rangle$$

This very important formula is called Frobenius reciprocity. First of all, it shows that $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi_{\pi})$ is the character of a representation. It also defines induction uniquely and in fact could be guessed without considering characters since in means that $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$ is the "free representation of G generated by π ". Similar definitions work for the free group, free module etc.

Let us now construct $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$. First let us consider several examples

- (1) $H = \{e\}, \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(F) = F(G).$ Example 7.1. (2) For any H, $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(F) = F(G/H)$.

 - (3) For any character χ of H, $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi) = \{f \in F(G) : f(gh) = \chi(h^{-1})f(g).$
 - (4) For any H-set X, the free G-set generated by X is the set of H-orbits in $G \times X$ under the action $h(g, x) := (gh^{-1}, hx)$.

Based on these we define, for any $(\pi, V) \in Rep(H)$,

$$\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi) = \{ f \in F(G, V) : f(gh) = \pi(h^{-1})f(g) \}_{f \in G}$$

where F(G, V) denotes all the functions from G to V with the usual action of G, i.e. $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)(g)f(g') = f(g^{-1}g').$

Moreover, this construction is functorial. This means that for $\pi_1, \pi_2 \in \operatorname{Rep}(H)$ and $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_H(\pi_1, \pi_2)$ we define $\operatorname{Ind}_H^G(\phi) : \operatorname{Ind}_H^G(\pi_1) \to \operatorname{Ind}_H^G(\pi_2)$ by $\operatorname{Ind}_H^G(\phi)(f)(g) = \phi(f(g))$, and this preserves composition.

Lemma 7.2. The above construction satisfies Frobenius reciprocity. More precisely, for any $\pi \in \operatorname{Rep}(H)$ and $\tau \in \operatorname{Rep}(G)$ there is a canonical isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_G(\tau, \operatorname{Ind}_H^G(\pi)) \simeq$ $\operatorname{Hom}_H(\tau|_H, \pi).$

Proof. To build the isomorphism let $\phi : \tau \to Ind_H^G(\pi)$). Then its image is given by $\psi(w) = (\phi(w))(e)$, where $e \in G$ is the identity element. The inverse morphism maps $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_H(\tau|_H, \pi)$ to $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_G(\tau, Ind_H^G(\pi))$ defined by $\phi(w)(g) := \psi(g^{-1}w)$.

Exercise 7.3. (1) For H < G and $\pi_1, \pi_2 \in Rep(H)$,

 $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi_{1} \oplus \pi_{2}) = \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi_{1}) \oplus \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi_{2}).$

(2) For $H_1 < H_2 < G$ and $\pi \in Rep(H)$,

 $\operatorname{Ind}_{H_2}^G \operatorname{Ind}_{H_1}^{H_2} \pi = \operatorname{Ind}_{H_1}^G \pi$

Exercise 7.4. Repeat Exercise 4.6 for a dodecahedron.

Induction can be best described using equivariant sheaves.

7.1. Induction and equivariant sheaves. In this section we will use two topological notions: vector bundles and equivariant sheaves. Since we consider only finite sets with discrete topology, in our case these notions become much simpler.

Intuitively, a sheaf is a continuous family of vector spaces, parametrized by points of a given topological space X. If we demand that all the spaces have the same dimension we will get a vector bundle. In our case, these are precisely the definitions, and we require the dimensions to be finite.

We will denote sheaves by Gothic letters, mainly \mathcal{F} . Let \mathcal{F} be a sheaf over X. The vector space corresponding to $x \in X$ is called the **fiber** of \mathcal{F} at x and denoted \mathcal{F}_x . The disjoint union of all fibers is called the **total space** of \mathcal{F} and we denote it by $T(\mathcal{F})$. Note that we have a natural map $T(\mathcal{F}) \to X$, and that $T(\mathcal{F})$, together with the map $T(\mathcal{F}) \to X$ defines \mathcal{F} uniquely.

A morphism of sheaves $\phi : \mathcal{F} \to \mathcal{G}$ over the same space X is a collection of linear maps $\phi_x : \mathcal{F}_x \to \mathcal{G}_x$, one for each $x \in X$.

For any (open) subset $U \subset X$, we define $\mathcal{F}(U) := \bigoplus_{x \in U} \mathcal{F}_x$. This space is called the sections of \mathcal{F} on U since it is precisely the space of sections of $T(\mathcal{F}) \to X$ on U. The space $\mathcal{F}(X)$ is called the space of global sections and sometimes denoted $\Gamma(\mathcal{F})$.

Now, for a (continuous) map $\nu : X \to Y$ define $\nu_* : Sh(X) \to Sh(Y)$ and $\nu^* : Sh(Y) \to Sh(X)$ by

 $\nu_*(\mathcal{F})(U) := \mathcal{F}(\nu^{-1}(U)) \quad \text{and}(\nu^*(\mathcal{G}))_x := \mathcal{G}_{\nu(x)},$

where $\mathcal{F} \in Sh(X)$ and $\mathcal{G} \in Sh(Y)$.

Exercise 7.5. Let $\nu : X \to Y$ and let $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2 \in Sh(X), \mathcal{G}_1, \mathcal{G}_2 \in Sh(Y), \phi : \mathcal{F}_1 \to \mathcal{F}_2, \psi : \mathcal{G}_1 \to \mathcal{G}_2$. Define natural maps $\nu_*(\phi) : \nu_*(\mathcal{F}_1) \to \nu_*(\mathcal{F}_2)$ and $\nu^*(\psi) : \nu^*(\mathcal{G}_1) \to \nu^*(\mathcal{G}_2)$.

Definition 7.6. Let X be a G-set and \mathcal{F} be a sheaf over X. A G-equivariant structure on \mathcal{F} is a G-set structure on the total space $T(\mathcal{F})$ such that the natural map $T(\mathcal{F}) \to X$ is a morphism of G-sets. **Exercise 7.7.** The following structures on \mathcal{F} are equivalent:

- (1) An equivariant structure
- (2) For any $x \in X$ and $g \in G$ a linear map $\pi(g)_x : \mathcal{F}_x \to \mathcal{F}_{gx}$ such that for $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $\pi(g_1g_2)_x = \pi(g_1) \circ \pi(g_2)_x$.
- (3) An isomorphism of sheaves $\alpha : a^*(\mathcal{F}) \approx \mathfrak{p}_2^*(\mathcal{F})$, where $p_2, a : G \times X \to X$ are the projection to the second coordinate and the action respectively, that satisfies the following condition:

(*) Consider the set $Z = G \times G \times X$ and two morphisms $q, b : Z \to X$, defined by q(g, g', x) = x and b(g, g', x) = gg'x. The morphism α induces two morphisms of sheaves $\beta, \gamma : q^*(\mathcal{F}) \to b^*(\mathcal{F})$. The condition on α is that these two morphisms are equal.

Definition 7.8. Let $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{H} \in Sh_G(X)$. Then a morphism of equivariant sheaves $\mathcal{F} \to \mathcal{H}$ is a morphism of sheaves such that the corresponding map of total spaces $T(\mathcal{F}) \to T(\mathcal{H})$ is a morphism of G-sets.

Exercise 7.9. Give the definition of a morphism of equivariant sheaves in two other realizations of equivariant sheaves.

We have the following obvious lemma.

Lemma 7.10. Let $X = X_1 \coprod X_2$ be a disjoint union of G-sets. Then $Sh_G(X) = Sh_G(X_1) \oplus Sh_G(X_2)$.

Corollary 7.11. If $\mathcal{F} \in Sh_G(X)$ and $\mathcal{F}(X)$ is irreducible then either $\mathcal{F}(X_1) = 0$ or $\mathcal{F}(X_2) = 0$.

Let us now study sheaves over a transitive G-set, G/H.

Lemma 7.12. There is a natural equivalence $Sh_G(G/H) = Rep(H)$.

Proof. Given a sheaf on G/H, we take its fiber at the coset H. To a representation (π, V) of H, we put in correspondence the vector bundle $\mathcal{I}nd(\pi)$ who's total space is the set of H-orbits in $G \times V$ under the action $h(g, x) := (gh^{-1}, hx)$. The action of G on the total space is given by left multiplication.

To describe fibers of $\mathcal{I}nd(\pi)$ at every point, choose a representative g_i for every coset and let $\mathcal{I}nd(\pi)_{g_iH}$ be the representation (π^{g_i}, V) of $g_iHg_i^{-1}$ given by $\pi^{g_i}(g_ihg_i^{-1}) = \pi(h)$. The map $\mathcal{I}nd(\pi)_H \to \mathcal{I}nd(\pi)_{g_iH}$ given by g_i is the identity map, and all other maps are composition of the above 2 types.

Exercise 7.13. $\mathcal{I}nd(\pi)(G/H) = Ind_H^G(\pi).$

Let x_i be a set of representatives of *G*-orbits on *X* and G_i be the stabilizers in *G* of x_i . Then the above discussion defines an equivalence $Sh_G(X) \simeq \bigoplus_i Rep(G_i)$.

8. Mackey theory

Let let N < G be a normal subgroup. Let $\pi \in Rep(G)$ and let $\pi|_N = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in Irr(N)} \pi_{\sigma}$ be the decomposition of $\pi|_N$ to isotypic components. This defines an equivalence $Rep(G) \simeq Sh_G^{spec}(Irr(N))$, where by $Sh_G^{spec}(Irr(N))$ we mean the sheaves on Irr(N) such that the

fiber at each point ρ is an isotypic representation of N of type ρ . Let σ_i be a set of representatives of orbits of G on Irr(N) and S_i be the stabilizers in G of σ_i . Then $Rep(G) \simeq \bigoplus_i Rep(S_i)$. In particular, if $\sigma \in Irr(S_i)$ then $Ind_{S_i}^G(\sigma) \in Irr(G)$, and any irreducible representation of G is obtained in this way.

Corollary 8.1. Let $\pi \in Irr(G)$. Then either $\pi|_N$ is isotypic of type (ρ, V) and $\rho^g \approx \rho$ for all $g \in G$, or there exists a subgroup $N < H \subsetneq G$ and an irreducible representation τ of H such that $\pi = \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\tau)$.

Note that in the first case we get a projective representation of G on V, i.e. a group homomorphism $G \to GL(V)/scalars$.

Now suppose that N is commutative and $G = S \ltimes N$.

Exercise 8.2. For any $\pi \in Irr(G)$, dim $\pi \leq |S|$.

Proof - exercise. Now, consider

$$P_2(\mathbb{F}_q) := \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) : a \in \mathbb{F}_q^{\times}, b \in \mathbb{F}_q \right\}$$

Example 8.3. Note that $P_2 = \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} \propto \mathbb{F}_q$. There are 2 orbits of \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} on $\widehat{\mathbb{F}}_q$: the zero and the non-zero orbit. The stabilizers are \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} and the trivial group respectively. Fix a non-trivial character ψ of \mathbb{F}_q . Then there are q irreducible representations of P_2 : $\mathrm{Ind}_{\mathbb{F}_q}^{P_2}(\psi)$ and q-1 characters of \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} , continued trivially to P_2 .

Exercise 8.4. Extend this example to $P_n = GL(\mathbb{F}_q, n-1) \propto \mathbb{F}_q^{n-1}$.

Now, let G be a general finite group and K, H < G be two subgroups and $\pi \in Rep(H)$. Let us study $(\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi))|_{K}$ using equivariant sheaves. We know that $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$ is the space of global sections of the equivariant sheaf $\mathcal{I}nd_{H}^{G}(\pi)$ on G/H. Clearly, the orbits of K in G/H are the double-cosets $K \setminus G/H$. Note that

$$\mathcal{I}nd_{H}^{G}(\pi)(KgH) = \bigoplus_{k \in K/(K \cap gHg^{-1})} \pi^{kg} = \operatorname{Ind}_{K \cap gHg^{-1}}^{K}(\pi^{g})$$

Thus,

Theorem 8.5.

$$\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)|_{K} = \bigoplus_{KgH \in K \setminus G/H} \operatorname{Ind}_{K \cap gHg^{-1}}^{K}(\pi^{g})$$

$$\langle \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi), \operatorname{Ind}_{K}^{G}(\tau) \rangle_{G} = \sum \langle_{KgH \in K \setminus G/H} \operatorname{Ind}_{K \cap H^{g}}^{K}(\pi^{g}), \tau \rangle_{K} = \sum \langle \pi^{g}, \tau \rangle_{K \cap H^{g}}$$

(2) $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$ is irreducible if and only if π is irreducible and $\langle \pi, \pi^{g} \rangle_{H \cap H^{g}} = 0$ for any $g \notin H$.

SUMMARY FOR THE COURSE "INTRODUCTION TO REPRESENTATION THEORY", FALL 201515

9. MONOMIAL REPRESENTATIONS, HEISENBERG GROUP, WEIL REPRESENTATION

We have seen in the last lecture that induction enables to construct many irreducible representations. Today we will see an extreme case of that: any irreducible representation of a nilpotent group is induced from a character.

We will use a lemma from last time:

Lemma 9.1. Let $N \triangleleft G$ be a normal subgroup. Let $\pi \in Irr(G)$. Then either $\pi|_N$ is isotypic of some type (ρ, V) and $\rho^g \approx \rho$ for all $g \in G$, or there exists a subgroup $N < H \subsetneq G$ and an irreducible representation τ of H such that $\pi = \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\tau)$.

Note that in the first case we get a projective representation of G on V, i.e. a group homomorphism $G \to GL(V)/scalars$.

Definition 9.2. A representation induced from a character of a subgroup is called monomial.

Definition 9.3. Let us call a group G c-solvable(which means cyclicly solvable) if there exists a sequence of normal subgroups $N_0 < N_1 < ... < N_k = G$ starting with the trivial subgroup N_0 such that each quotient group N_i/N_{i-1} is cyclic.

Exercise 9.4. Show that any subgroup and quotient group of a c-solvable group is c-solvable. Show that any finite nilpotent group is c-solvable.

Theorem 9.5. Let G be a c-solvable finite group. Then any irreducible representation π of G is monomial.

Proof. We prove the theorem by induction on the order of G. If the group is commutative the theorem is clear.

Suppose that the group is not commutative. We may also suppose that the representation π is faithful, i.e. no group element acts trivially. Now, let Z < G denote the center. Choose a normal cyclic subgroup C < G/Z and lift it to a normal commutative subgroup N < G. Since N is not central, there exist $a \in N$ and $b \in G$ such that $a \neq bab^{-1}$, thus $\pi(a) \neq \pi(bab^{-1})$.

By Lemma 9.1, either $\pi|_N$ is isotypic and isomorphic to $\pi^b|_N$, or π is induced from some proper subgroup of G. Since N is commutative, if $\pi|_N$ is isotypic then all elements of Nact on π by scalars. But $\pi(a) \neq \pi(bab^{-1})$ and thus $\pi|_N$ is not isomorphic to $\pi^b|_N$. Thus π is induced from some subgroup. By the induction hypotheses the representation of the subgroup is monomial, and by transitivity of induction π is monomial. \Box

Exercise 9.6. Suppose we know that a group G has a commutative normal subgroup N such that the group G/N is c-solvable. Show that any irreducible representation σ of G is monomial.

Definition 9.7. The Heisenberg group is the group of upper uni-triangular 3 by 3 matrices (over some field which we will take to be \mathbb{F}_q). Here is another description. The center of His \mathbb{F}_q (the corner of the matrix). The other two entries form a 2-dimensional vector space V over \mathbb{F}_q , and on this vector space we define a form $\omega((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) := x_1y_2 - x_2y_1$. It is anti-symmetric and non-degenerate. Now, $H = \{v, z : v \in V, z \in \mathbb{F}_q\}$ with group law given by

$$(v, z)(v', z') = (v + v', z + z' + \frac{1}{2}\omega(v, v'))$$

Let us classify all irreps of H. First of all, on every irrep the center Z acts by some character. If the character is trivial, we get an irreducible representation of V - there are q^2 such representations and they are all 1-dimensional. Now, suppose the central character is $\chi \neq 1$.

Theorem 9.8. There exists a unique representation ρ_{χ} of H with central character χ , and it has dimension q.

Proof. Define a normal commutative subgroup $D = \{((x, y), z) \in H : x = 0\}$. Extend χ trivially to D and define $\rho_{\chi} := Ind_D^H(\chi)$. The irreducibility and uniqueness follow from the above Mackey analysis.

Indeed, for irreducibility we use Corollary 8.6. Let $g = ((x, y), z) \in G$ with $x \neq 0$. Then, for any $((0, y'), z') \in D$, $\chi^g(((0, y'), z') = \chi(z')\chi(1/2xy')$. Since $x \neq 0$ and $\chi \neq 1$, there exists y' such that $\chi(1/2xy') \neq 1$ and thus $\langle \chi, \chi^g \rangle_D = 0$.

To show uniqueness, let $\sigma \in Irr(H)$ and consider $\sigma|_D$. By Lemma 9.1, either $\sigma|_D$ is isotypic, or σ is induced from some proper subgroup which includes D. In the first case, D acts on σ by scalars, and ((0, y'), z') and ((0, y'), z' + 1/2xy') act by the same scalar for any $x, y', z' \in \mathbb{F}_q$. However, this implies $\chi(1/2xy') = 1$ for all $x, y' \in \mathbb{F}_q$ which contradicts $\chi \neq 1$. Thus σ is induced from a representation τ of some proper subgroup which includes D. If this subgroup is bigger than D we apply the same argument to show that τ is induced from a smaller subgroup. Eventually, we get that $\sigma = \operatorname{Ind}_D^H \chi'$ where $\chi'|_Z = \chi$. Since H conjugates any such character χ' to χ , we obtain $\sigma \simeq \rho_{\chi}$.

Another option is to deduce irreducibility directly from the construction of induction, and uniqueness will follow from the dimension count (sum of squares of dimensions).

Explicit construction of ρ_{χ} : (x, y, z) acts on $F(\mathbb{F}_q)$ by

$$(x, y, z)f(x') = \chi(z)\chi(x'y)f(x'-x).$$

Now, note that $SL_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$ acts on H by automorphisms, and on Z it acts identically. Thus, it maps ρ_{χ} to itself. This defines a projective representation of $SL_2(\mathbb{F}_q)$ on $F(\mathbb{F}_q)$. In fact, this representation can be lifted to an honest representation in the following way:

$$\rho_{\chi} \begin{pmatrix} a & 0\\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{p} \end{pmatrix} f(a^{-1}x); \qquad \rho_{\chi} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0\\ b & 1 \end{pmatrix} f(x) = \psi \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}bx^2 \end{pmatrix} f(x);$$
$$\rho_{\chi} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1\\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} f = -\frac{i^{(q-1)/2}}{\sqrt{q}}FT(f),$$

where $q = p^n$, $p \neq 2$, and $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ denotes the Legandre symbol, and FT denotes the Fourier transform.

Theorem 9.8 generalizes to representations of higher Heisenberg groups $H_n := \mathbb{F}_q^n \ltimes \mathbb{F}_q^n \times \mathbb{F}_q$.

An analogous theory holds over the reals (instead of \mathbb{F}_q), but the Weil representation stays a projective representation and does not lift to an "honest" representation. The analog of Theorem 9.8 for $H_n(\mathbb{R})$ is called the Stone-von-Neumann theorem.

10. Gelfand Pairs with applications to representations of symmetric groups

Let H < G be finite groups.

Definition 10.1. (G, H) is called a Gelfand pair if for every $\pi \in Irr(G)$, dim $\pi^{H} \leq 1$.

Exercise 10.2. $(G \times G, \Delta G)$ is a Gelfand pair.

Theorem 10.3. The following are equivalent:

- (1) (G, H) is a Gelfand pair
- (2) F(G/H) is a multiplicity free representation of G.
- (3) The convolution algebra $F(G)^{H \times H}$ of functions on G that are constant on H double cosets is commutative

Proof. For (1) \Leftrightarrow (2) note that $F(G/H) = Ind_H^G(\mathbb{C})$ and that $\operatorname{Hom}_H(\mathbb{C}, \pi) = \pi^H$ and use Frobenius reciprocity

Now, note that for any $\pi \in Irr(G)$, π^H is a simple module of $F(G)^{H \times H}$. To finish the proof it is enough to show that all simple modules are of this form. For that we will show that $\sum_{\pi \in Irr(G)} (\dim \pi^H)^2 = \dim F(G)^{H \times H}$. For that, note that by Frobenius reciprocity

$$\dim F(G)^{H \times H} = \langle F(G/H), F(G/H) \rangle_G$$

and

$$F(G/H) = \bigoplus_{\pi \in Irr(G)} (\dim \pi^H) \pi$$

and thus

$$\sum_{\pi \in Irr(G)} (\dim \pi^H)^2 = \langle F(G/H), F(G/H) \rangle_G = \dim F(G)^{H \times H}.$$

Remark 10.4. This topic belongs to "relative representation theory", namely harmonic analysis on G/H (while the usual representation theory is harmonic analysis on G). We see that Gelfand property replaces Schur's lemma for relative representation theory. This explains why it is important.

That theorem is great, since this reduces a statement on representations that we maybe do not know yet to an explicit statement on commutativity of algebras, that we can check by a direct computation. However, Gelfand and (independently) Selberg invented a trick that allows to avoid even that computation.

Lemma 10.5. Suppose we have an antiinvolution $\sigma : G \to G$ (i.e. a bijection $\sigma : G \to G$ s.t. $\sigma^2 = Id$ and $\sigma(gh) = \sigma(h)\sigma(g)$). Suppose also that σ preserves all H double-cosets. Then $F(G)^{H \times H}$ is commutative and thus (G, H) is a Gelfand pair.

Proof. σ acts as identity on $F(G)^{H \times H}$, but changes order of multiplication. Thus, this algebra is commutative.

This lemma is obvious but very useful.

Exercise 10.6. Prove that (S_{n+1}, S_n) and $(S_{n+2}, S_n \times S_2)$ are Gelfand pairs.

One can formulate a stronger property.

Definition 10.7. (G, H) is called a strong Gelfand pair if for every $\pi \in Irr(G)$ and $\tau \in Irr(H), \langle \pi |_{H}, \tau \rangle \leq 1$.

Theorem 10.8. The following are equivalent:

- (1) (G, H) is a strong Gelfand pair
- (2) $(G \times H, \Delta H)$ is a Gelfand pair.
- (3) For any $\tau \in Irr(H)$, $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\tau)$ is a multiplicity free representation of G.
- (4) The convolution algebra $F(G)^{Ad(H)}$ of functions on G that are constant on Hconjugacy classes is commutative

Proof. For (1) \Leftrightarrow (2) note that every irreducible representation of $G \times H$ has the form $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}}(\pi,\tau)$ where $\pi \in Irr(G)$ and $\tau \in Irr(H)$. Note also that $F(G \times H)^{\Delta H \times \Delta H} \simeq F(G)^{Ad(H)}$. The rest now follows from Theorem 10.3.

This theorem gives the following version of Gelfand - Selberg trick for strong Gelfand pairs:

Lemma 10.9. Suppose we have an antiinvolution $\sigma : G \to G$ (i.e. a bijection $\sigma : G \to G$ s.t. $\sigma^2 = Id$ and $\sigma(gh) = \sigma(h)\sigma(g)$). Suppose also that σ preserves all H-conjugacy classes, i.e. that σ preserves H and $\forall g \in G \exists h \in H$ s.t. $\sigma(g) = hgh^{-1}$. Then $F(G)^{Ad(H)}$ is commutative and thus (G, H) is a strong Gelfand pair.

Now we see that (S_{n+1}, S_n) is actually a strong Gelfand pair. We use this in the following way. Take $\pi \in Irr(S_n)$. Then $\pi|_{S_{n-1}}$ is multiplicity free and thus has a canonical decomposition to a direct sum of irreducible subrepresentations. Take each of those subrepresentations, restrict it to S_{n-2} and so on. At the end, we get a decomposition of π to a direct sum of lines, i.e. a canonical bases up to multiplication by constants. It is very nice to have a canonical basis. We will use this basis to compute the dimensions of irreducible representations.

Recall that the irreducible representations of S_n are classified by partitions of n. For every partition $\lambda = (n_1, ..., n_k)$ we defined a set $X_{\lambda} = S_n/(S_{n_1} \times ... \times S_{n_k})$ and representations $T_{\lambda} := F(X_{\lambda}) = \operatorname{Ind}_{(S_{n_1} \times ... \times S_{n_k})}^{S_n} \mathbb{C}$ and $T'_{\lambda} = \operatorname{sign} T_{\lambda}$. We showed that $\langle T_{\lambda}, T'_{\lambda^*} \rangle = 1$ and defined U_{λ} to be the unique irreducible representation that they have in common.

Theorem 10.10. Let λ be a partition of n and ν be a partition of n - 1. Then $\langle U_{\lambda}|_{S_{n-1}}, U_{\nu} \rangle = 1$ if ν can be obtained from λ by decreasing one part by one, and is zero otherwise.

To prove this theorem, let us do some combinatorics. Introduce a partial ordering on partitions by $\lambda \leq \mu$ iff $\sum_{i=1}^{j} \lambda_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{j} \mu_i \forall 1 \leq j \leq n$. Now, from a partition $\nu = (n_1, ..., n_k)$ of n - 1 we construct two partitions of n: $\nu^l := (n_1, ..., n_k, 1)$ and $\nu^r := (n_1 + 1, ..., n_k)$. Note that ν can be obtained from λ by decreasing one part by one if and only if $\nu^l \leq \lambda \leq \nu^r$. Note also that $(\nu^r)^* = (\nu^*)^l$.

Lemma 10.11.

$$\operatorname{Ind}_{S_{n-1}}^{S_n}(T_{\nu}) = T_{\nu^l} \ and \ \operatorname{Ind}_{S_{n-1}}^{S_n}(T'_{\nu^*}) = T'_{(\nu^r)^*}$$

Proof. $T_{\nu} = \operatorname{Ind}_{(S_{n_1} \times \ldots \times S_{n_k})}^{S_{n-1}} \mathbb{C}$ and thus $\operatorname{Ind}_{S_{n-1}}^{S_n}(T_{\nu}) = \operatorname{Ind}_{(S_{n_1} \times \ldots \times S_{n_k} \times S_1)}^{S_n} \mathbb{C} = T_{\nu^l}$. The second statement follows from this since $(\nu^r)^* = (\nu^*)^l$.

The proof of the theorem is based on the following combinatorial exercise, which generalizes Theorem 5.5.

Exercise 10.12.

$$\langle T_{\alpha}, T'_{\beta^*} \rangle = |\{\lambda : \alpha \le \lambda \le \beta\}$$

In particular, if $\langle T_{\alpha}, T'_{\beta^*} \rangle > 0$ then $\alpha \leq \beta^*$.

Proof of Theorem 10.10. Let λ be a partition of n and ν be a partition of n-1. First, suppose that $\langle U_{\lambda}|_{S_{n-1}}, U_{\nu} \rangle \neq 0$, and thus is 1 since (S_n, S_{n-1}) is a strong Gelfand pair. Then $\langle U_{\lambda}, Ind_{S_{n-1}}^{S_n}U_{\nu} \rangle \neq 0$. By Lemma 10.11 this implies $U_{\lambda} \subset T_{\nu^l}$ and $U_{\lambda} \subset T'_{(\nu^r)^*}$. By Exercise 10.12, this implies that $\nu^l \leq \lambda \leq \nu^r$.

To prove the implication in the other direction, note that Exercise 10.12 is the counting argument that shows that if $\nu^l \leq \lambda \leq \nu^r$ then $U_{\lambda} \subset T_{\nu^l}$ and $U_{\lambda} \subset T'_{(\nu^r)^*}$ and thus $\langle U_{\lambda}|_{S_{n-1}}, U_{\nu} \rangle \neq 0.$

Corollary 10.13. dim U_{λ} = the number of ways to "erase" the "boxes" in λ one by one so that in each step we have a (non-increasing) partition.

Note that this number also equals the number of "special" Young diagrams, i.e. the number of ways to write the numbers 1, ..., n in the rows of λ such that each row and column will have decreasing order. This number happens to be

$$\frac{n!\prod_{i< j}(l_i - l_j)}{l_1!...l_k!}, \text{ where } l_i = n_i + k - i, i = 1, ..., k.$$

11. BRAUER INDUCTION THEOREM

Fix a finite group G.

Definition 11.1. Let $C(G) \subset F(G)$ denote the subalgebra of conjugation-invariant functions, and $R(G) \subset C(G)$ denote the subring generated by characters of representations.

For a subgroup $E \subset G$ denote by $\operatorname{Ind}_E^G : C(E) \to C(G)$ the linear map adjoint to restriction $\operatorname{Res}_E^G : C(G) \to C(E)$ (see §7).

Note that for $\tau \in Rep(E)$ we have $\operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\chi_{\tau}) = \chi_{\operatorname{Ind}_{E}}^{G}\tau$. Note also that $\chi_{\pi \oplus \tau} = \chi_{\pi} + \chi_{\tau}$ and $\chi_{\pi \otimes \tau} = \chi_{\pi} \cdot \chi_{\tau}$. Thus one can view R(G) as the ring generated by the semi-ring of all representations of G.

Exercise 11.2. (1) R(G) is generated (over \mathbb{Z}) by characters of irreducible representations

(2) For any $f \in R(G)$, there exists representations π and τ such that $f = \chi_{\pi} - \chi_{\tau}$.

Definition 11.3. Let p be a prime number. A finite group E is called p-elementary if $E = C_m \times S$, where C_m is a cyclic group of order m prime to p, and S is a p-group. E is called elementary if it is p-elementary for some p.

Our goal in this section is to prove

Theorem 11.4 (Brauer Induction Theorem). The (additive) group R(G) is spanned by functions of the form $\operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\chi)$, where $E \subset G$ is an elementary subgroup and χ is a one-dimensional representation of E.

We will now make several reductions. First of all, define

$$I(G) := \sum_{\text{elementary } E} \text{Ind}_E^G(R(E)) \subset R(G).$$

Lemma 11.5. The subset I(G) is an ideal and if $1 \in I(G)$ then Theorem 11.4 holds.

Proof. To see that I(G) is an ideal let $\pi \in Rep(G)$ and $\sigma, \rho \in Rep(E)$. Then

 $\operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\sigma \oplus \rho) = \operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\sigma) \oplus \operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\rho) \text{ and } \pi \otimes \operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\sigma) = \operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(\pi|_{E} \otimes \sigma).$

Now, if $1 \in I(G)$ then I(G) = R(G). On the other hand, every elementary E is nilpotent, thus (by Theorem 9.5), every representation of E is induced from a character of some subgroup $E' \subset E$. Thus R(G) is spanned by functions of the form $\operatorname{Ind}_{E'}^G \chi$. \Box

Definition 11.6. A character system Q is a correspondence which assigns to every finite group H a subring Q(H) of the algebra C(H) such that for any pair H < H' we have

$$\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{H'}(Q(H)) \subset Q(H'), \quad \operatorname{Res}_{H}^{H'}(Q(H')) \subset Q(H).$$

Example 11.7. (*i*) Q(H) = R(H).

(ii) Q(H) = C(H).

(iii) $Q(H) = C_{\mathbb{Z}}(H)$, the subring of integer-valued functions.

Notation 11.8. Let n be the order of G, and $\mu_n \subset F$ be the group of n-th roots of 1. Let Λ denote the subring of F generated by μ_n . Define a character system R_{Λ} by

 $R_{\Lambda}(H) := \Lambda \cdot R(H) \subset C(H).$

Denote also

$$I_{\Lambda}(G) := \sum_{elementary \ E} \operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(R_{\Lambda}(E)) \subset R_{\Lambda}(G).$$

Lemma 11.9. If $1 \in I_{\Lambda}(G)$ then Theorem 11.4 holds.

For the proof we will need the following exercise.

Exercise 11.10. There exists a homomorphism of groups $\nu : \Lambda \to \mathbb{Z}$ with $\nu(1) = 1$.

Proof of Lemma 11.9. Let ν be as in the exercise. Notice that for any group H there exists a unique morphism of groups $\nu_H : R_{\Lambda}(H) \to R(H)$ such that $\nu(\lambda r) = \nu(\lambda)r$, $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, $r \in R(H)$. This is true since R(H) has a basis ρ_1, \ldots, ρ_r of irreps, which stays a basis in C(H). Clearly the system of morphisms ν_H is compatible with restriction and induction. In particular, $\nu(I_{\Lambda}(G)) \subset I(G)$. Thus, if $1 \in I_{\Lambda}(G)$ then $1 \in I(G)$ and Theorem 11.4 holds by Lemma 11.5.

Consider the character system $Q(H) = R_{\Lambda}(H) \cap C_{\mathbb{Z}}(H)$ and define

$$J := \sum_{\text{elementary } E} \operatorname{Ind}_{E}^{G}(Q(E)) \subset I_{\Lambda}(G).$$

By Lemma 11.9 it is enough to show that $1 \in J$. To prove this we will use the following exercise.

Exercise 11.11. Let $L \simeq \mathbb{Z}^r$ be a lattice, and A < B < L be subgroups. Suppose that $A + p^N L = B + p^N L$ for all primes p and all positive integers N. Then A = B.

Lemma 11.12. Suppose that for every prime p there exists a function $f \in J$ such that for every $g \in G$, f(g) is prime to p. Then Theorem 11.4 holds.

Proof. Since $J \subset I_{\Lambda}(G)$, Lemma 11.9 implies that if $1 \in J$ then Theorem 11.4 holds. Let $A := J, L := C_{\mathbb{Z}}(G)$ and B be the subgroup of L generated by A and 1. We have to show that A = B. Fix a prime number p and a positive integer N. Fix a function $f \in J$ such that for every $g \in G, f(g)$ is prime to p. Then $p|(f(g)^{p-1} - 1), and by induction <math>p^{N}|(f^{p^{N-1}(p-1)} - 1))$. Thus $1 \in A + p^{N}L$ for every N and p, thus A = B and $1 \in J$. \Box

From now on we fix a prime number p. To construct f as in Lemma 11.12 we will need the following definition and (difficult) exercise.

Definition 11.13. An element $g \in G$ is called p-regular if ord(g) is prime to p and p-singular if ord(g) is a power of p.

Exercise 11.14 (Jordan decomposition). Every element of G can be uniquely written as $g = g_r g_s = g_s g_r$, where g_r is p-regular and g_s is p-singular.

Note that the uniqueness of Jordan decomposition implies that the maps $g \mapsto g_r$ and $g \mapsto g_s$ are compatible with morphisms of groups. In particular, they map conjugacy classes into conjugacy classes.

Lemma 11.15. Suppose that for any p-regular element $a \in G$ there exists a function $f_a \in J$ such that for any $x \in G$ with x_r conjugate to a, $f_a(x)$ is prime to p, and for any $x \in G$ with x_r not conjugate to a, $f_a(x)$ is 0. Then there exists a function $f \in J$ such that for every $g \in G$, f(g) is prime to p.

Proof. Take f to be the sum of the functions f_a , when a runs over a system of representatives of p-regular conjugacy classes.

Now fix a *p*-regular $a \in G$, set m := ord(a) and let D be the cyclic subgroup generated by a. Denote by Z(a) the centralizer of a, fix a *p*-Sylov subgroup S of Z(a) and set $E = D \times S \subset Z(a)$. It is easy to see that E is an elementary subgroup and the projection $pr: E \to D$ coincides with the map $x \mapsto x_r$. Define a function $\varphi \in C(E)$ by

 $\varphi(x) = 0$ if $pr(x) \neq a$ and $\varphi(x) = m$ if pr(x) = a.

Lemma 11.16. The function φ lies in Q(E).

Proof. First of all, φ takes integer values. Also, we can write it in the form $\varphi = \sum_{\chi} \chi(a^{-1})\chi'$, where the sum is taken over all characters χ of the group D and χ' is the character of E defined by $\chi' = \chi(pr(x))$. Since the coefficients $\chi(a^{-1})$ lie in Λ we see that $\varphi \in R_{\Lambda}(E)$, and thus $\varphi \in Q(E)$.

Proposition 11.17. The induction $f_a := \operatorname{Ind}_E^G(\varphi)$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 11.15.

Theorem 11.4 follows now from Lemma 11.16, Proposition 11.17, Lemma 11.15 and Lemma 11.12.

For the proof of Proposition 11.17 we will need one more exercise.

Exercise 11.18. Let Y be a finite set, t be a p-regular element in the group Sym(Y) of bijections of Y onto itself, and X be the set of fixed points of t. Then p divides |Y| - |X|.

Proof of Proposition 11.17. Let φ_1 denote the extension of φ to G by 0. Then by the definition of $\operatorname{Ind}_E^G : C(E) \to C(G)$ we have

(1)
$$f_a(x) = \sum_{g \in G/E} \varphi_!(g^{-1}xg).$$

Let $x \in G$. If x_r is not conjugate to a then all the terms in the sum are 0 by definition of φ . Assume now that x_r is conjugate to a. Conjugating x we can assume $x_r = a$. It is clear that in the sum (1) above, non-zero contribution is given only by terms g with $(g^{-1}xg)_r = a$. Since $(g^{-1}xg)_r = g^{-1}x_rg = g^{-1}ag$, this implies $g \in Z(a)$. Thus

(2)
$$f_a(x) = \sum_{g \in Z(a)/E} \varphi_!(g^{-1}xg).$$

Denote Y := Z(a)/E, $X := \{g \in Y | g^{-1}x_s g \in S\}$, where x_s is the singular part of x. From (2) we have $f_a(x) = m|X|$. It is left to show that |X| is prime to p. Note that an element $g \in Y$ belongs to X iff $x_s g \in gE$. In other words, X is the fixed point set of the left action of x_s on Y. Since |Y| is prime to p, we get that so is |X|, by Exercise 11.18. \Box

12. Representations of topological groups - basic notions

Definition 12.1. A topological group is a topological space which is also a group such that the multiplication map $G \times G \to G$ and the inversion map $G \to G$ are continuous.

We will consider only locally compact Hausdorff topological groups. Mostly just compact groups.

Examples of compact groups:

- (1) A finite group with discrete topology.
- (2) A circle. More generally: $SO(n, \mathbb{R})$ or $O(n, \mathbb{R})$.

Examples of non-compact groups: \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , $SL(2,\mathbb{R})$, $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$, $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$.

Definition 12.2. A continuous representation of G is a linear representation of G in a Banach space B over \mathbb{C} such that the natural map $G \times V \to V$ is continuous. A morphism of continuous representation is a bounded operator between the corresponding Banach spaces that commutes with the group action.

Example 12.3. The regular representation of any compact group K in the Banach space C(K) of continuous functions on K with the maximum norm.

We can also consider a representation in square-integrable functions, but for that we need a measure.

Theorem 12.4 (Haar). There exists a unique measure on G which is invariant under left shifts.

This measure is called the Haar measure and denoted by dg.

Corollary 12.5. (1) There exists a character Δ_G of G, called the modular character, such that $R_g dg = \Delta_G(g) dg$, where R_g denotes the right shift.

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(2) If G is compact, Δ_G is trivial.

Now we can define another regular representation: $L^2(G)$.

Definition 12.6. A representation is called irreducible if it has no continuous subrepresentations. In other words, every G-invariant subspace is closed.

Schur's lemmas still hold for continuous representations, with the same proofs.

Definition 12.7. A unitary representation is a representation of G in a Hilbert space H with G-invariant scalar product. A representation is called unitarizable if it is isomorphic to a unitary representation.

As in the finite group case, we have:

Lemma 12.8. Unitary representations are completely reducible.

From now on, let K be a compact group.

Lemma 12.9. For any representation (π, B) of K we have a natural projection $B \to B^K$ - by averaging.

Lemma 12.10. Any representation of K in a Hilbert space is unitarizable. In particular, every finite-dimensional representation is unitarizable.

However, C(K) is not unitarizable.

All the statements about finite-dimensional representations of finite groups that we had carry over to the compact case, except, of course, those involving the order of the group. Note that every finite-dimensional vector space has a unique structure of a Hilbert space.

13. The Peter-Weyl theorem and its corollaries

Let $Irr_f(K)$ denote the set of finite-dimensional irreducible representations. We will later show that these are all the irreducible representations.

The analog of the statement about the decomposition of the regular representation is the Peter-Weyl theorem.

Theorem 13.1 (Peter-Weyl).

$$L^2(K) \simeq \widehat{\bigoplus}_{\sigma \in Irr_f(K)} End(\sigma)$$

The map in one direction is defined by matrix coefficients: $M_{\rho,A}(g) = \text{Tr}(A\rho(g^{-1}))$. The action map, in the other direction, is defined only on C(K):

$$\rho(f)v := \int_G f(g)\rho(g)vdg$$

To define the action map, we do not need ρ to be finite-dimensional. I am not sure we will have time to prove this theorem.

In particular, characters of non-isomorphic irreducible representations are orthogonal.

Corollary 13.2. $\bigoplus_{\sigma \in Irr_f(K)} \operatorname{End}(\sigma)$ is dense in C(K).

This follows from the Stone-Weierstrass theorem:

Theorem 13.3 (Stone-Weierstrass). Let C be a compact (Hausdorff) topological space and A < C(C) be a subalgebra with 1 that separates points and is closed under complex conjugation. Then A is dense in C(C).

This implies the previous corollary since matrix coefficients form an algebra: sum is given by direct sum, and product by tensor product.

Definition 13.4. Let (π, B) be a continuous representation of K and ρ be an irreducible finite-dimensional representation. Define a Banach space $M_{\rho}(\pi) := \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\rho, \pi)$ and a continuous representation $\pi_{\rho} := \rho \otimes \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\rho, \pi)$. Note that π_{ρ} has a natural embedding to π .

The π_{ρ} could be zero. From the last Corollary we obtain

Corollary 13.5. $\bigoplus_{\rho \in Irr_f(K)} \pi_{\rho}$ is dense in π .

Proof. We can assume that π is generated by one vector. Now, approximate the delta-function by continuous functions, and act on them on this vector.

Corollary 13.6. All irreducible representations of K are finite-dimensional.

Corollary 13.7. We have a natural projection $\pi \to \pi_{\rho}$, given by $\pi(\chi_{\rho})$.

Thus, we have $\bigoplus_{\rho \in Irr(K)} \pi_{\rho} \subset \pi \subset \prod_{\rho \in Irr(K)} \pi_{\rho}$. This implies

Corollary 13.8. If (π, H) is a unitary representation then $\pi = \widehat{\bigoplus}_{\rho \in Irr(K)} \pi_{\rho}$.

However, for Banach space representations we do not have such a decomposition, even for $C(S^1)$.

One can define induction $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(\pi)$ in a similar to the finite group case: consider *H*-equivariant continuous functions from *G* to π . If π is unitary, one can also consider a "unitary induction": square-integrable functions from *G* to π . This will be a unitary representation. The proper notion of equivariant sheaf is missing in general, but Mackey theory holds for unitary inductions of unitary representations.

If G/H is not compact, one can also consider a "small induction": continuous functions from G to π with compact support modulo H. This case is quite difficult to study, so people prefer to consider co-compact subgroups, for example the subgroup of uppertriangular matrices in $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

If H is compact, one has a nice theory of Gelfand pairs. If not, one can also say something, but it becomes very delicate. I have several results in this case.

14. HARMONIC ANALYSIS ON THE SPHERE AND AN APPLICATION TO INTEGRAL GEOMETRY

Note that S^n is transitive under SO(n) and the stabilizer of a point is SO(n-1). Harmonic analysis on S^n means the study of $L^2(S^n)$ as a representation of SO(n). We will find its decomposition to irreducible representations and use it to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 14.1. Every convex central-symmetric body in \mathbb{R}^n is uniquely determined by the areas of its projections on all hyperplanes.

This theorem is equivalent to the following one:

Theorem 14.2. Every convex central-symmetric body in \mathbb{R}^n is uniquely determined by the areas of its intersections with all hyperplanes (passing through the origin).

Let us show their equivalence.

Definition 14.3. Call two convex central-symmetric bodies $K, K' \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ dual if

$$\sup_{y \in K'} \langle x, y \rangle \le 1 \Leftrightarrow x \in K,$$

where $\langle x, y \rangle$ denotes the standard scalar product in \mathbb{R}^n . Note this condition is equivalent to the condition

$$\sup_{x \in K} \langle x, y \rangle \le 1 \Leftrightarrow y \in K'.$$

The equivalence now follows from the following exercise.

Exercise 14.4. Let $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a hyperplane and p denote the projection to \mathbb{R}^{n-1} . Show that if K is dual to K' in \mathbb{R}^n then $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \cap K$ is dual to p(K') in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} .

Let us now prove Theorem 14.2. For simplicity, take n = 3 and denote $S := S^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$. For any convex central-symmetric body K, define a function f_K on S by $f_K(x) = 1/2r_x^2$. where r is the length of the segment which is the intersection of K with the line passing through the origin and x. Note that f_K is an even function which completely determines K.

Exercise 14.5. Let $P \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a plane. Then

$$Area(K \cap P) = \int_{S \cap P} f_K(x) dx$$

Thus, Theorem 14.2 follows from the statement that an even function on the sphere is uniquely determined by its integrals on all the big circles. Denote by $L_+(S)$ the subrepresentation consisting of even functions, and by J the morphism $L^2(S) \to L^2_+(S)$ given by

$$Jf(x) := \int_{C_x} f(y) dy,$$

where C_x denotes the big circle with epicenter in x. By Peter-Weyl theorem and Schur's lemmas, we know that $L_+(S)$ is a direct sum or irreducible representations and J is scalar on each summand. Let us find this decomposition.

Denote by P_n the space of all functions on S that are restrictions of polynomials of degree n in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Exercise 14.6. $P_n \subset P_{n+2}$ and dim $P_n = (n+1)(n+2)/2$.

Let H_n denote the orthogonal complement to P_{n-2} in P_n (under the natural scalar product in $L^2(S)$).

Remark 14.7. One can identify H_n with the space of homogeneous harmonic polynomials of degree n in \mathbb{R}^3 . Harmonic means that the vanish under the Laplace operator $\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_3^2}$. Thus, the functions in H_n are called 'spherical harmonics'. However, we will not use this identification.

Lemma 14.8.

$$L^{2}(S) = \widehat{\bigoplus}_{n=0}^{\infty} H_{n}, \quad L^{2}_{+}(S) = \widehat{\bigoplus}_{n=0}^{\infty} H_{2n}$$

Proof. Clearly, H_n are invariant, orthogonal and their sum is the union of all P_n . This union separates points of S, thus, by the Stone-Weierstrass theorem, is dense in C(S) and thus in $L^2(S)$. Clearly, $H_n \subset L_+(S)$ if and only if n is even.

Let us now show that H_n is irreducible. Let $SO(2) \subset SO(3)$ denote the subgroup of rotations with respect to the z axis and identify S = SO(3)/SO(2).

Exercise 14.9. Show that $\dim(P_n)^{SO(2)} = [n/2] + 1$

Hint. Show that $(P_n)^{SO(2)}$ is spanned by z^n , $z^{n-2}(x^2+y^2), ..., z^{n-2[n/2]}(x^2+y^2)^{[n/2]}$. \Box

Now, note that by Frobenius reciprocity every irreducible subrepresentation of $L^2(S)$ has an SO(2)-invariant vector. This proves

Lemma 14.10. H_n are irreducible.

This finishes the harmonic analysis problem. To prove the integral geometry theorem, it is left to compute the eigenvalues of J. For this we can pick any function in each H_n that is convenient to us. We choose the SO(2)-invariant function, which is also called the *n*-th Legandre polynomial:

$$L_n(z) = \frac{d^n}{dz^n} ((z^2 - 1)^n).$$

Exercise 14.11. $L_n \in H_n$.

Hint. Show that for any SO(2)-invariant function f on S we have $\int_S f(x)dx = \int_{-1}^1 f(z)dz$, deduce that $\langle f_1, f_2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f_1(z)\overline{f_2(z)}dz$ and use integration by parts to show that $L_n(z)$ is orthogonal to all polynomials in z of degree smaller than n.

Now, let λ_n be the eigenvalue of J on H_n . Applying J to L_n and substituting (0, 0, 1) we get $\lambda_n L_n(1) = 2\pi L_n(0)$. The values $L_n(1)$ and $L_n(0)$ are easy to compute:

$$L_n(1) = -\frac{d^n}{dz^n} ((z-1)^n (z+1)^n)|_{z=1} = n! 2^n$$
$$L_{2k+1}(0) = 0, \quad L_{2k}(0) = (2k)! \binom{2k}{k}.$$

Thus,

$$\lambda_{2k+1} = 0$$
 and $\lambda_{2k} = 2\pi \frac{(2k-1)!!}{(2k+1)!!}$.

This gives an explicit formula for the inverse of J on $L_+(S)$ and proves Theorem 14.2.

Remark 14.12. Theorem 14.2 and the proof we discussed generalizes to higher dimensions. However, for $S^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ there is one special property: every irreducible representation of SO(3) is isomorphic to one of the H_n . Thus we have a classification of all irreducible representations of SO(3). Also, we get that $L^2(S^2)$ includes each irreducible representation exactly one time (unlike $L^2(SO(3))$ which includes each $\pi \dim \pi$ times). Such representations are called "models".

15. Proof of the Peter-Weyl Theorem

Recall that the theorem states

$$L^2(K) \simeq \widehat{\bigoplus}_{\rho \in Irr_f(K)} End(\rho)$$

The map in one direction is defined by matrix coefficients: $M_{\rho,A}(g) = \text{Tr}(A\rho(g^{-1}))$. The action map, in the other direction, is defined only on C(K):

$$\rho(f)v:=\int_G f(g)\rho(g)vdg$$

Let (ρ, V) be a finite-dimensional continuous irreducible representation of K and let $C_{\rho} \subset L^2(K)$ denote the image of the matrix coefficients map $M_{\rho} : End(V) \to C(K)$. Note that End(V) is an irreducible representation of $K \times K$, thus M_{ρ} has no kernel and thus defines an isomorphism $End(V) \simeq C_{\rho}$. Note also that as a representation of K, C_{ρ} is isotypic of type ρ and thus C_{ρ} and C_{σ} are orthogonal for $\rho \ncong \sigma$. It is left to show that $\bigoplus_{\rho \in Irr_f(K)} C_{\rho}$ is dense in $L^2(K)$. We do that in several steps.

Lemma 15.1. Every subrepresentation of $W \subset L^2(K)$ isomorphic to ρ lies inside C_{ρ} .

Proof. We can suppose that all the functions in W have value at $1 \in G$. Thus, we have a functional $\delta_1 \in W^*$. Consider $f \otimes \delta_1 \in End(W) \simeq End(\rho)$ and note that $f = M_{f \otimes \delta_1} \in C_{\rho}$.

Lemma 15.2. Every non-zero subspace of $L \subset L^2(K)$ which is invariant under $K \times K$ has a non-zero finite-dimensional subspace which is invariant under the left action of K.

This is the hardest lemma in the proof, and it uses spectral theory for compact selfadjoint operators on Hilbert spaces.

Proof. Consider the right action of K on C(K). Since the left and the right actions commute, this defines an intertwining operator $R(f) : C(K) \to C(K)$ for any $f \in C(G)$. This operator is compact (since it is given by a compact kernel). The adjoint operator is $R(f^*)$ where $f^*(g) = \overline{f(g^{-1})}$. Now, for any $v \in L$ we can find $f \in C(K)$ such that $f = f^*$ and $R(f)v \neq 0$. Then R(f) is compact and self-adjoint and thus \overline{L} can be decomposed to a completed direct sum of eigenspaces of R(f), and all eigenspaces except the kernel are finite-dimensional. Since R(f) is non-zero, there exists a non-zero finite-dimensional eigenspace. It is invariant under the left action of K, since this action commutes with R(f).

Those two lemmas imply that $\bigoplus_{\rho \in Irr_f(K)} C_{\rho}$ is dense in $L^2(K)$. Indeed, suppose it is not dense. Then it has a non-zero orthogonal complement L'. By Lemma 15.2, L' has a finite-dimensional subrepresentation W. Then W has a subrepresentation (ρ, V) for some $\rho \in Irr_f(K)$. By Lemma 15.1, $V \subset C_{\rho}$, but by definition V is orthogonal to C_{ρ} contradiction.

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