

Quasi-Review: Locally Compact Groups and the Banach \ast -algebra $L_1(G)$

Basic Properties of Topological Groups

A topological group is a group G equipped with a topology such that the operations

$$\begin{aligned}(x, y) &\mapsto xy \\ x &\mapsto x^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

are continuous. In general, we will let 1 denote the identity of G .

We call G a locally compact group if the topology of G is locally compact. Equivalently, the topology of G is locally compact if there is a neighborhood system about 1 consisting of pre-compact open sets.

We will refer to the following subset operations in G regularly:

$$\begin{aligned}Ax &= \{ax \mid a \in A\} \\ xA &= \{xa \mid a \in A\} \\ A^{-1} &= \{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\} \\ AB &= \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}.\end{aligned}$$

A subset V is called *symmetric* if $V = V^{-1}$.

These are some useful propositions.

Proposition: Let G be a topological group.

- (i) The topology of G is invariant under translations and inversion.
- (ii) For every neighborhood U of 1 , there is a symmetric neighborhood V of 1 such that $VV \subseteq U$.
- (iii) If H is a subgroup of G , then so is \overline{H} .
- (iv) Every open subgroup of G is closed.
- (v) If A and B are compact subsets of G , then so is AB .

Proposition: Suppose H is a subgroup of the topological group G .

- (i) If H is closed, then G/H is Hausdorff.
- (ii) If G is locally compact, then so is G/H .
- (iii) If H is normal, then G/H is a topological group.

We will assume all the time that G is Hausdorff, via the following proposition.

Corollary: If G is a T1 topological group, then G is Hausdorff. If G is not T1, then $\overline{\{1\}}$ is a closed normal subgroup with $G/\overline{\{1\}}$ is a Hausdorff topological group.

Proposition: Every locally compact group G has a subgroup G_0 that is open, closed, and σ -compact.

Considering various functions $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we define the left and right translates of f as

$$\begin{aligned} L_y f(x) &= f(y^{-1}x) \\ R_y f(x) &= f(xy), \end{aligned}$$

and say that f is left (right) uniformly continuous if $\|L_y f - f\|_u \rightarrow 0$ ($\|R_y f - f\|_u \rightarrow 0$) as $y \rightarrow 1$.

Proposition: If $f \in C_c(G)$, then f is left and right uniformly continuous.

A left *Haar measure* is a nonzero Radon measure μ on G such that $\mu(xE) = \mu(E)$ for every Borel subset $E \subseteq G$.

Proposition: Every locally compact group G admits a left Haar measure λ . This Haar measure is unique up to a constant multiple.

If we have a left Haar measure λ , then if we define

$$\lambda_x(E) = \lambda(Ex),$$

we have that λ_x is again a left Haar measure, so there is some number $\Delta(x)$ such that $\lambda_x = \Delta(x)\lambda$, where $\Delta(x)$ is independent of the original choice of λ .

The function $\Delta: G \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ defined as such is known as the *modular function* of G .

Proposition: The function Δ is a continuous homomorphism from G to $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$, and for any $f \in L_1(\lambda)$, we have

$$\int R_y f d\lambda = \Delta(y^{-1}) \int f d\lambda.$$

We call G *unimodular* if $\Delta \equiv 1$.

Proposition: If $G/[G, G]$ is compact, then G is unimodular.

Convolutions and $L_1(G)$

If G is a locally compact group, we let $M(G)$ denote the space of complex-valued Radon measures on G . The convolution of two measures $\mu, \nu \in M(G)$ is given as follows. If we let

$$I(\phi) = \iint \phi(xy) d\mu(x) d\nu(y),$$

then we observe that $I(\phi)$ is a linear functional on $C_0(G)$ that satisfies

$$|I(\phi)| \leq \|\phi\|_u \|\mu\| \|\nu\|,$$

meaning that it is given by a measure $\mu * \nu \in M(G)$ with $\|\mu * \nu\| \leq \|\mu\| \|\nu\|$. We call $\mu * \nu$ the convolution of μ and ν .

Observe that if $\delta_x \in M(G)$ is the point mass at $x \in G$, then

$$\int \phi d(\delta_x * \delta_y) = \iint \phi(uv) d\delta_x(u) d\delta_y(v)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \phi(xy) \\
&= \int \phi \, d\delta_{xy},
\end{aligned}$$

meaning that $\delta_x * \delta_y = \delta_{xy}$.

The estimate $\|\mu * \nu\| \leq \|\mu\| \|\nu\|$ gives that convolution makes $M(G)$ a Banach algebra, which we call the *measure algebra* of G . Furthermore, $M(G)$ admits an involution

$$\mu^*(E) = \overline{\mu(E^{-1})},$$

so that

$$\int \phi \, d\mu^* = \int \phi(x^{-1}) \, \overline{d\mu(x)}.$$

We may identify the space $L_1(G)$ to be the subspace of $M(G)$ where a function f is identified with the measure $f(x)dx$. If $f, g \in L_1(G)$, then the convolution of f and g is the function

$$f * g(x) = \int f(y)g(y^{-1}x) \, dy.$$

With convolution and the involution given by

$$\begin{aligned}
f^*(x)dx &= \overline{f(x^{-1})d(x^{-1})} \\
f^*(x) &= \Delta(x^{-1})\overline{f(x^{-1})},
\end{aligned}$$

we have that $L_1(G)$ is a Banach $*$ -algebra known as the *group algebra* of G .

Now, we observe that if G is discrete, then if δ_e is the point mass at 1, we have that $f * \delta = \delta * f = f$ for any function f . If G is not discrete, we must use an *approximate identity* for G . In particular, we can select a family of mollifiers $\{\psi_U\}_{U \in \mathcal{U}}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\psi_U * f - f\| &\rightarrow 0 \\
\|f * \psi_U - f\| &\rightarrow 0
\end{aligned}$$

if f is uniformly continuous and $U \rightarrow \{1\}$ in a neighborhood system \mathcal{U} of 1.

Homogeneous Spaces

If G is a locally compact group, then G can act on a locally compact Hausdorff space by homeomorphisms. Recall from algebra that the group action is transitive if there is one orbit. We call S a G -space.

The standard example of a transitive G -space is the quotient space G/H for some closed subgroup H of G . These are, to an extent, the only G -spaces, as follows from the orbit-stabilizer theorem. If S is a G -space, then we may define a map $\phi: G \rightarrow S$ by $\phi(x) = x \cdot s_0$, and take the quotient by the stabilizer subgroup

$$H = \{x \in G \mid x \cdot s_0 = s_0\},$$

so that $\Phi: G/H \rightarrow S$ has $\Phi \circ q = \phi$ for the quotient map $q: G \rightarrow G/H$ is a continuous bijection.

Proposition: If G is σ -compact, then Φ is a homeomorphism.

Proof. It suffices to show that ϕ maps open sets in G to open sets in S . Suppose U is open in G , $x_0 \in U$. Pick a compact symmetric neighborhood V of 1 such that $x_0 V V \subseteq U$. Since G is σ -compact, there is a countable $\{y_n\}_{n \geq 1} \subseteq G$ such that $\{y_n V\}_{n \geq 1}$ covers G . Then, we have

$$S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \phi(y_n V).$$

The sets $\phi(y_n V)$ are homeomorphic to $\phi(V)$ since the map $s \mapsto y_n \cdot s$ is a homeomorphism of S , and all the $y_n V$ are compact, hence closed.

By Baire Category Theorem for LCH spaces, it follows that $\phi(V)$ has an interior point, which we call $\phi(x_1)$ for $x_1 \in V$. Then, $\phi(x_0)$ is an interior point of $\phi(x_0 x_1^{-1} V)$, and $x_0 x_1^{-1} V \in x_0 V V \subseteq U$, so that $\phi(x_0)$ is an interior point of $\phi(U)$. Thus $\phi(U)$ is open. \square

If S is a transitive G -space that is isomorphic to a quotient space G/H , then will write $S \cong G/H$, and call S a *homogeneous space*. The identification is dependent on the choice of base point, but the identity $s'_0 = x_0 \cdot x_0$ induces a map $H' = x_0 H x_0^{-1}$, inducing a G -equivariant homeomorphism $G/H \cong G/H'$.

We will address the question of whether there is a G -invariant Radon measure on G/H — that is, a radon measure μ such that $\mu(xE) = \mu(E)$ for every $x \in G$.

We assume that G is a locally compact group with left Haar measure dx , a H is a closed subgroup of G with left Haar measure $d\xi$, and $q: G \rightarrow G/H$ is the quotient map $q(x) = xH$, and Δ_G, Δ_H the corresponding modular functions.

Let $P: C_c(G) \rightarrow C_c(G/H)$ be defined by

$$Pf(xH) = \int_H f(x\xi) d\xi.$$

This is well-defined by left-invariance of $d\xi$. If $\phi \in C(G/H)$, then

$$P((\phi \circ q) \cdot f) = \phi \cdot Pf.$$

Lemma: If $E \subseteq G/H$ is compact, then there is a compact $K \subseteq G$ with $q(K) = E$.

Proof. Let V be an open neighborhood of 1 in G with compact closure. Since q is an open map, $q(xV)$ is an open cover of E , so there is a finite subcover $q(x_j V)$. Let $K = q^{-1}(E) \cap \bigcup_{j=1}^n x_j \bar{V}$. Then, since $q^{-1}(E)$ is closed, K is compact with $q(K) = E$. \square

Lemma: If $F \subseteq G/H$ is compact, then there is $f \geq 0$ in $C_c(G)$ with $Pf = 1$ on F .

Proof. Let E be a compact neighborhood of F in G/H . We find $K \subseteq G$ compact such that $q(K) = E$. Select positive $g \in C_c(G)$ with $g > 0$ on K , and $\phi \in C_c(G/H)$ supported in E with $\phi = 1$ on F . Set

$$f = \frac{\phi \circ q}{Pg \circ q} g,$$

with the fraction equal to zero whenever the numerator is zero. We have f is continuous, since

$Pg > 0$ on $\text{supp}(\phi)$, has support contained in $\text{supp}(g)$, and $Pf = \frac{\phi}{Pg}Pg = \phi$. \square

Proposition: If $\phi \in C_c(G/H)$, then there exists $f \in C_c(G)$ with $Pf = \phi$ and $q(\text{supp}(f)) = \text{supp}(\phi)$, and has $f \geq 0$ if $\phi \geq 0$.

Proof. If $\phi \in C_c(G)$, then by the previous lemma, then there exists $g \geq 0$ in $C_c(G)$ with $Pg = 1$ on $\text{supp}(\phi)$. Letting $f = (\phi \circ q)g$, then $Pf = \phi(Pg) = \phi$. \square

Theorem: Let G be a locally compact group, H a closed subgroup. There is a G -invariant Radon measure μ on G/H if and only if $\Delta_G|_H = \Delta_H$. In this case, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_G f(x) dx &= \int_{G/H} Pf d\mu \\ &= \int_{G/H} \int_H f(x\xi) d\xi d\mu(xH) \end{aligned}$$

for any $f \in C_c(G)$.

Proof. Suppose there is a G -invariant measure μ . Then, $f \mapsto \int Pf d\mu$ is a nonzero left-invariant positive linear functional on $C_c(G)$, so by the uniqueness of Haar measure, we have $\int Pf d\mu = c \int f(x) dx$ for some c .

This formula fully determines μ , meaning that μ is unique up to the arbitrary constant factor in Haar measure. We may assume that $c = 1$, so we have for any $\eta \in H$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_G(\eta) \int_G f(x) dx &= \int_G f(x\eta^{-1}) dx \\ &= \int_{G/H} \int_H f(x\xi\eta^{-1}) d\xi d\mu(xH) \\ &= \Delta_H(\eta) \int_{G/H} \int_H f(x\xi) d\xi d\mu(xH) \\ &= \Delta_H(\eta) \int_G f(x) dx, \end{aligned}$$

so that $\Delta_G(\eta) = \Delta_H(\eta)$. \square

Unitary Representations

If G is a locally compact group, then a *unitary representation* of G is a homomorphism $\pi: G \rightarrow \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H}_\pi)$, where $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H}_\pi)$ denotes the unitary group of a Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_π . We call \mathcal{H}_π the *representation space* of π , and the dimension of \mathcal{H}_π is called the dimension (or degree) of the representation.

We do not require π to be continuous in the norm topology of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_\pi)$, but as it turns out, both weak and strong continuity are equivalent as the WOT and SOT coincide on $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H}_\pi)$. If $(T_\alpha)_\alpha \rightarrow T$ is a net of unitary operators converging in WOT, then for any $u \in \mathcal{H}_\pi$, we have

$$\|(T_\alpha - T)u\|^2 = \|T_\alpha u\|^2 - 2\text{Re}\langle T_\alpha u, Tu \rangle + \|Tu\|^2$$

$$= \|u\|^2 - 2 \operatorname{Re} \langle T_\alpha u, Tu \rangle,$$

and the latter term converges to $2\|Tu\|^2 = 2\|u\|^2$, so that $\|T_\alpha u - Tu\| \rightarrow 0$.

If G acts on a locally compact Hausdorff space S , then G acts on $C(S)$ by $(\pi(g)f)(s) = f(g^{-1} \cdot s)$. If S has a G -invariant Radon measure, then π defines a unitary representation on $L_2(\mu)$.

The most important representation is the representation on $L_2(G)$ induced by the action of G on itself by left-multiplication. This defines $(\lambda(g)f)(y) = f(g^{-1}y)$. Similarly, the action of G on itself by right-multiplication defines a representation $(\rho(g)f)(y) = f(yg)$. These are the *left-regular* and *right-regular* representations of G .

Any unitary representation π on \mathcal{H}_π induces a representation $\bar{\pi}$ on the dual space $\overline{\mathcal{H}_\pi}$, determined by $\bar{\pi}(x) = \langle \cdot, \pi(x^{-1}) \rangle$. We call $\bar{\pi}$ the *contragradient* of π .

If π_1 and π_2 are unitary representations of G , then an intertwining operator for π_1 and π_2 is a bounded linear map $T: H_1 \rightarrow H_2$ such that $T\pi_1(x) = \pi_2(x)T$ for all $x \in G$. We write $\mathcal{C}(\pi_1, \pi_2)$ for the space of intertwiners of π_1 and π_2 . We say that π_1 and π_2 are *unitarily equivalent* if the set of intertwiners admits a unitary map.

Proposition: The left-regular and right-regular representations are unitarily equivalent.

Proof. Define the map $T: L_2(G) \rightarrow L_2(G)$ by

$$T\xi(x) = \Delta(x)^{-1/2} \xi(x^{-1}).$$

Then, since

$$\begin{aligned} \langle T\xi, T\eta \rangle &= \int \Delta(x)^{-1/2} \xi(x^{-1}) \overline{\Delta(x)^{-1/2} \eta(x^{-1})} d\mu(x) \\ &= \int \Delta(x)^{-1} \xi(x^{-1}) \overline{\eta(x^{-1})} d\mu(x) \\ &= \int \xi(x) \overline{\eta(x)} d\mu(x) \\ &= \langle \xi, \eta \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

□

If \mathcal{M} is a closed subspace of \mathcal{H}_π , then we say \mathcal{M} is invariant for π if $\pi(x)\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ for all $x \in G$. If \mathcal{M} is a nontrivial invariant subspace, then $\pi|_{\mathcal{M}}$ defines a representation of G on \mathcal{M} , known as a subrepresentation of π . If π admits a nontrivial invariant subspace, then we say π is reducible; else, π is irreducible.

If $\{\pi_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a family of unitary representations, their direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} \pi_i$ is the representation on $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{i \in I} \mathcal{H}_i$ given by

$$\pi(x)((v_i)_i) = \sum_{i \in I} \pi_i(x)v_i.$$

We can see that subrepresentations always arise as direct summands.

Proposition: If \mathcal{M} is invariant under π , then so is \mathcal{M}^\perp .

Proof. Let $u \in \mathcal{M}$ and $v \in \mathcal{M}^\perp$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \pi(x)v, u \rangle &= \langle v, \pi(x^{-1})u \rangle \\ &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

so $\pi(x)v \in \mathcal{M}^\perp$. □

If π is a unitary representation, and $u \in \mathcal{H}_\pi$, then the closed linear span of $\{\pi(x)u \mid x \in G\}$ is called the *cyclic subspace* generated by u . Observe that \mathcal{M}_u is invariant under π ; if $\mathcal{M}_u = \mathcal{H}_\pi$, then u is called a cyclic vector for π , and π is called a cyclic representation if it has a cyclic vector.

Proposition: Every unitary representation is a direct sum of cyclic representations.

Proof. Let π be a representation on \mathcal{H}_π . By Zorn's Lemma, there is a maximal collection $\{\mathcal{M}_i\}_{i \in I}$ of mutually orthogonal cyclic subspaces of \mathcal{H}_π . If there were some $u \in \mathcal{H}_\pi$ orthogonal to all the \mathcal{M}_i , then the cyclic subspace generated by u would also be orthogonal to the \mathcal{M}_i , which would contradict maximality. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{H}_\pi &= \bigoplus_{i \in I} \mathcal{M}_i \\ \pi &= \bigoplus_{i \in I} \pi|_{\mathcal{M}_i}.\end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition: Let \mathcal{M} be a closed subspace of \mathcal{H}_π , and let P be the orthogonal projection onto \mathcal{M} . Then, \mathcal{M} is invariant under π if and only if P is an intertwiner for π .

Proof. If $P\pi(x) = \pi(x)P$, then for any $v \in \mathcal{M}$, we have $\pi(x)v = \pi(x)Pv = P\pi(x)v \in \mathcal{M}$, so \mathcal{M} is invariant.

Conversely, if \mathcal{M} is invariant, then we have $\pi(x)Pv = \pi(x)v = P\pi(x)v$ whenever $v \in \mathcal{M}$ and $\pi(x)Pv = 0 = P\pi(x)v$ whenever $v \in \mathcal{M}^\perp$, so $\pi(x)P = P\pi(x)$. □

Theorem (Schur's Lemma):

- (a) A unitary representation π of G is irreducible if and only if the intertwiners of π are scalar multiples of the identity.
- (b) If π_1 and π_2 are equivalent irreducible representations of G , then the space of intertwiners for π_1 and π_2 is one-dimensional. Else, π_1 and π_2 only admit $\{0\}$ as their intertwiners.

Proof.

- (a) If π is reducible, then $\mathcal{C}(\pi)$ has a nontrivial projection.

Conversely, suppose $T \in \mathcal{C}(\pi)$ is such that $T \neq cI$. Then, $A = \frac{1}{2}(T + T^*)$ is in $\mathcal{C}(\pi)$ and A is not a multiple of the identity. Since A is self-adjoint, every operator that commutes with A commutes with all the projections $\chi_E(A)$, so $\mathcal{C}(\pi)$ contains a nontrivial projection, so π is reducible.

(b) If $T \in \mathcal{C}(\pi_1, \pi_2)$, then $T^* \in \mathcal{C}(\pi_2, \pi_1)$, as

$$\begin{aligned} T^* \pi_2(x) &= (\pi_2(x^{-1})T)^* \\ &= (T\pi_1(x^{-1}))^* \\ &= \pi_1(x)T^*. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $T^*T \in \mathcal{C}(\pi_1)$, and $TT^* \in \mathcal{C}(\pi_2)$, meaning that $T^*T = cI$ and $TT^* = cI$. In particular, either $T = 0$ or $c^{-1/2}T$ is unitary.

This means that $\mathcal{C}(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \{0\}$ whenever π_1 and π_2 are not equivalent, and $\mathcal{C}(\pi_1, \pi_2)$ consists of scalar multiples of unitary operators otherwise. If $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{C}(\pi_1, \pi_2)$, then $T_2^{-1}T_1 = T_2^*T_1 \in \mathcal{C}(\pi_1)$, so $T_1 = cT_2$ and thus $\dim(\mathcal{C}(\pi_1, \pi_2)) = 1$.

□

Representations of a Group and its Group Algebra

We will show that any unitary representation of G corresponds uniquely with the non-degenerate $*$ -representations of $L_1(G)$. If π is a unitary representation of G , it determines a representation of $L_1(G)$ by defining the bounded operator $\pi(f)$ on \mathcal{H}_π by

$$\pi(f) = \int f(x)\pi(x) dx$$

in the weak sense — that is, for any $u, v \in \mathcal{H}_\pi$, we define $\pi(f)$ to be the operator corresponding to the sesquilinear form

$$\langle \pi(f)u, v \rangle = \int f(x)\langle \pi(x)u, v \rangle dx.$$

If λ is the left-regular representation of G , then $\lambda(f)$ is left-convolution with f ,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(f)g &= \int f(x)\lambda(x)g dx \\ &= f * g. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: Let π be a unitary representation of G . Then, the map $f \mapsto \pi(f)$ is a nondegenerate $*$ -representation of $L_1(G)$ on \mathcal{H}_π . Moreover, for any $x \in G$ and $f \in L_1(G)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(x)\pi(f) &= \pi(L_x f) \\ \pi(f)\pi(x) &= \Delta(x^{-1})\pi(R_{x^{-1}} f). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. The correspondence $f \mapsto \pi(f)$ is linear, and by some formal manipulations, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(f * g) &= \int \int f(y)g(y^{-1}x)\pi(x) dy dx \\ &= \int \int f(y)g(x)\pi(yx) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int \int f(y)g(x)\pi(y)\pi(x) \, dx \, dy \\
&= \pi(f)\pi(g) \\
\pi(f^*) &= \int \Delta(x^{-1})\overline{f(x^{-1})}\pi(x) \, dx \\
&= \int \overline{f(x)}\pi(x^{-1}) \, dx \\
&= \pi(f)^*,
\end{aligned}$$

and the latter two follow from similar manipulations. That these are valid manipulations follows from taking inner products with some $u \in \mathcal{H}_\pi$, and then using the fact that vector-valued integration commutes with the application of bounded linear maps.

To see that π is nondegenerate, let $u \neq 0 \in \mathcal{H}_\pi$. Let V be a compact neighborhood of 1 in G such that $\|\pi(x)u - u\| < \|u\|$ for any $x \in V$, and let $f = \mu(V)^{-1}\chi_V$, so that

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\pi(f)u - u\| &= \frac{1}{\mu(V)} \left\| \int_V (\pi(x)u - u) \, dx \right\| \\
&< \|u\|,
\end{aligned}$$

so $\pi(f)u \neq 0$. □

Theorem: Let π be a nondegenerate $*$ -representation of $L_1(G)$ on \mathcal{H} . Then, π arises from a unique unitary representation of G on \mathcal{H} .

Proof. We want $\pi(x)$ to be the limit of $\pi(f)$ as f approaches δ_x . Let $\{\psi_U\}$ be an approximate identity in $L_1(G)$. Then, for any $f \in L_1(G)$, we have $\psi_U * f \rightarrow f$ in L_1 , meaning that $(L_x\psi_U) * f \rightarrow L_x f$ in L_1 for any $x \in G$, so $\pi(L_x\psi_U)\pi(f)v \rightarrow \pi(L_x f)v$ for all $v \in \mathcal{H}$.

Let \mathcal{D} be the finite linear span of $\{\pi(f)v \mid f \in L_1(G), v \in \mathcal{H}\}$. Then, \mathcal{D} is dense in \mathcal{H} , as if $u \in \mathcal{D}^\perp$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \langle u, \pi(f)v \rangle \\
&= \langle \pi(f^*)u, v \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

for all f , whence $u = 0$ as π is nondegenerate.

In particular, we have that $\pi(L_x\psi_U)$ converge in SOT on \mathcal{D} to $\tilde{\pi}(x): \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ with $\tilde{\pi}(x)\pi(f)v = \pi(L_x f)v$. The value $\tilde{\pi}(x)$ is well-defined as

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \pi(f_j)v_j = 0$$

implies that

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \pi(L_x f_j)v_j = \lim_U \sum_{j=1}^n \pi(L_x\psi_U)\pi(f_j)v_j$$

$$= 0,$$

and the operators $\pi(L_x \psi_U)$ satisfy $\|\pi(L_x \psi_U)\| \leq \|L_x \psi_U\|_{L_1} = 1$, so $\tilde{\pi}(x)$ extends uniquely to \mathcal{H} such that $\|\tilde{\pi}(x)\| \leq 1$ and $\tilde{\pi}(x)\pi(f) = \pi(L_x f)$.

We claim that $\tilde{\pi}$ is a unitary representation of G . Now, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\pi}(xy)\pi(f) &= \pi(L_{xy}f) \\ &= \pi(L_x L_y f) \\ &= \tilde{\pi}(x)\tilde{\pi}(y)\pi(f) \end{aligned}$$

on \mathcal{D} , so it holds on \mathcal{H} . Next, since $\tilde{\pi}(1) = I_{\mathcal{H}}$, we have $\tilde{\pi}$ is a homomorphism from G to the group of invertible operators on \mathcal{H} .

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \|u\| &= \|\tilde{\pi}(x^{-1})\tilde{\pi}(x)u\| \\ &\leq \|\tilde{\pi}(x)u\| \\ &\leq \|u\|, \end{aligned}$$

it follows that $\tilde{\pi}(x)$ is an isometry, and hence is a unitary operator.

Finally, if $(x_i)_i \rightarrow x$ in G , then $L_{x_i} f \rightarrow L_x f$ in L_1 , so $\tilde{\pi}(x_i)\pi(f) \rightarrow \tilde{\pi}(x)\pi(f)$ in SOT. Therefore, it $\tilde{\pi}(x_i) \rightarrow \tilde{\pi}(x)$ on \mathcal{D} , so since $\|\tilde{\pi}(x_i)\| = 1$, it holds on \mathcal{H} , so $\tilde{\pi}$ is continuous.

Next, we will show that $\pi(f) = \tilde{\pi}(f)$ whenever $f \in L_1(G)$, where $\tilde{\pi}(f)$ arises from $\tilde{\pi}$ via

$$\langle \tilde{\pi}(f)u, v \rangle = \int f(x) \langle \tilde{\pi}(x)u, v \rangle dx.$$

Yet, if $f, g \in L_1$, we have

$$f * g = \int f(y) L_y g dy,$$

so since π is a bounded linear map, it commutes with integration, so that

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(f)\pi(g) &= \pi(f * g) \\ &= \int f(y) \pi(L_y g) dy \\ &= \int f(y) \tilde{\pi}(y) \pi(g) dy \\ &= \left(\int f(y) \tilde{\pi}(y) dy \right) \pi(g) \\ &= \tilde{\pi}(f) \pi(g), \end{aligned}$$

so $\tilde{\pi}(f) = \pi(f)$ on \mathcal{D} , hence on \mathcal{H} .

Finally, if $\hat{\pi}$ is another unitary representation of G such that $\hat{\pi}(f) = \pi(f)$ for any $f \in L_1(G)$, so $\langle \hat{\pi}(x)u, v \rangle = \langle \tilde{\pi}(x)u, v \rangle$, so $\hat{\pi}(x) = \tilde{\pi}(x)$ for all $x \in G$. \square

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