

# Chapter 1

## Examples

### 1.1 Group Theory

Let  $G$  be a group.

**Definition 1.1.1.** Let  $a \in G$ . The *cyclic group (of  $G$ ) generated by  $a$* , which we denote by  $\langle a \rangle$ , is the set of all powers of  $a$ .

**Definition 1.1.2.** If  $a, b \in G$ , the *commutator* of  $a$  and  $b$ , denoted  $[a, b]$ , is

$$aba^{-1}b^{-1}.$$

The *commutator subgroup* of  $G$ , denoted  $G^{(1)}$ , is the subgroup of  $G$  generated by all the commutators.  $G^{(1)}$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$  ( $G^{(1)} \triangleleft G$ ).

**Definition 1.1.3.** If  $H$  and  $K$  are both subgroups of  $G$ , then

$$[H, K] = \langle [h, k] : h \in H, k \in K \rangle.$$

Notice that  $[G, G] = G^{(1)}$ , and, more generally,  $G^{(n+1)} = [G^{(n)}, G^{(n)}]$ . The series  $G = G^{(0)} \geq G^{(1)} \geq G^{(2)} \geq \cdots$  is called the *derived series* of  $G$ .

**Definition 1.1.4.** The *characteristic subgroups*  $\gamma_i(G)$  of  $G$  are defined inductively:

$$\gamma_1(G) = G, \quad \gamma_{i+1}(G) = [\gamma_i(G), G].$$

**Definition 1.1.5.**  $G$  is *nilpotent* if  $\gamma_i(G) = \{e\}$  for some positive integer  $i$ . The least such  $i$  is called the *class* of the nilpotent group.

**Definition 1.1.6.**  $G$  is *solvable* if there exists a finite series of subgroups

$$\{e\} = G_n \triangleleft G_{n-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G$$

such that each factor group  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is abelian ( $i = 0, \dots, n-1$ ). In this case, such a series is called a *solvable series*.

**Lemma 1.1.7.** If  $\{e\} = G_n \triangleleft G_{n-1} \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_0 = G$  is a solvable series, then  $G^{(i)} \leq G_i$  for all  $i$ .

**Theorem 1.1.8.**  $G$  is solvable if and only if  $G^{(n)} = \{e\}$  for some positive  $n$ .

*Proof.* “ $\Rightarrow$ ” follows from the above lemma.

Conversely, if  $G^{(n)} = \{e\}$ , it is a fact that the derived series is a normal series. ■

**Proposition 1.1.9.** Every nilpotent group is solvable.

*Proof.* By induction,  $G^{(i)} \leq \gamma_i(G)$ . Indeed,  $G^{(1)} = [G, G] = [\gamma_1(G), G] = \gamma_2(G)$ . Assume now that  $G^{(i-1)} \leq \gamma_{i-1}(G)$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} G^{(i)} &= \langle [g, h] : g, h \in G^{(i-1)} \rangle \\ \gamma_i(G) &= \langle [x, y] : x \in \gamma_{i-1}(G), y \in G \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

An element of  $G^{(i)}$  looks like  $(ghg^{-1}h^{-1})^k$ . But  $h, h^{-1} \in G$ . By assumption,  $g, g^{-1} \in \gamma_{i-1}(G)$ . Thus  $(ghg^{-1}h^{-1})^k \in \gamma_i(G)$ . Next, if  $\gamma_{c+1}(G) = \{e\}$ , then  $G^{(c+1)} = \{e\}$ . Thus  $G$  is solvable, with derived length of  $c+1$ . ■

**Example 1.1.10.** The affine group is solvable.

*Proof.* First calculate  $G^{(1)} = [G, G]$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & d(a-1) + b(1-c) \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$G^{(1)} = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} : x \in \mathbb{R} \right\rangle.$$

Next calculate  $G^{(2)} = [G^{(1)}, G^{(1)}]$ . Notice that for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & y \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & y \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus  $G^{(2)} = \{e\}$ . ■

**Example 1.1.11.** The Heisenberg group is nilpotent.

*Proof.*  $\gamma_1(G) = G$ . Calculate  $\gamma_2(G) = [\gamma_1(G), G] = [G, G] = G^{(1)}$ : Notice that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & d & e \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & d & e \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & af - cd \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$\gamma_2(G) = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} : x \in \mathbb{R} \right\rangle.$$

Calculate  $\gamma_3(G) = [\gamma_2(G), G]$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus  $\gamma_3(G) = \{e\}$ . ■

## 1.2 Amenability

**Definition 1.2.1.** Let  $G$  be a l.c. group. A *mean* on  $L^\infty(G)$  is a functional  $m \in L^\infty(G)^*$  such that  $m(1) = \|m\| = 1$ .

**Theorem 1.2.2.** (i)  $m \in L^\infty(G)^*$  is a mean iff  $m(1) = 1$  and  $m(f) \geq 0$  whenever  $f \geq 0$ .

(ii) If  $m$  is a mean, then

$$\inf_{x \in G} f(x) \leq m(f) \leq \sup_{x \in G} f(x)$$

for all  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued  $f \in L^\infty(G)$ .

*Proof.* (i) “ $\Rightarrow$ ”  $m(1) = 1$  by definition. Let  $f \geq 0$  with  $\|f\| \leq 1$  (wlog). Then  $\|1 - f\| = \sup_{x \in G} |1 - f(x)| \leq 1$ . Thus

$$m(1) - m(f) = m(1 - f) \leq |m(1 - f)| = \|m\| \|1 - f\| \leq 1,$$

and so  $m(f) \geq 0$ .

“ $\Leftarrow$ ” Consider (nonzero) real-valued  $f$ .  $\frac{f}{\|f\|} \leq 1$ , and so  $1 - \frac{f}{\|f\|} \geq 0$ . By assumption,  $m\left(1 - \frac{f}{\|f\|}\right) \geq 0$ , so

$$\|f\| m(1) \geq m(f).$$

For an arbitrary  $\mathbb{C}$ -valued  $f$ , choose  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|c|$  and  $|m(f)| = cm(f)$ . Let  $g = \Re(cf)$  and  $h = \Im(cf)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |m(f)| &= m(cf) = m(g) + im(h) = m(g) \quad (\text{since } m(h) \text{ is } \mathbb{R}\text{-valued}) \\ &\leq \|g\| m(1) \leq \|cf\| m(1) = \|f\| m(1). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\|m\| = m(1) = 1$ .

(ii) The functions

$$f_1(x) = \sup f - f(x), \quad f_2(x) = f(x) - \inf f$$

are positive. ■

**Theorem 1.2.3.** Let  $G$  be a group. If  $G_d$  has a LIM, it has a RIM (and an IM)

*Proof.* For all  $f \in \ell^\infty(G_d)$ , define  $f^*(x) = f(x^{-1})$ . Notice that for  $a, g \in G$ ,

$$(r_a f)^*(g) = r_a f(g^{-1}) = f(g^{-1}a) = f^*(a^{-1}g) = \ell_{a^{-1}}(f^*)(g).$$

If  $m \in LIM(\ell^\infty(G))$ , then define  $n(f) = m(f^*)$ . We have that

$$n(r_a f) = m((r_a f)^*) = m(\ell_{a^{-1}}(f)^*) = m(f^*) = n(f).$$

Thus  $n \in RIM(\ell^\infty(G_d))$ . ■

**Theorem 1.2.4.** *Abelian groups are amenable.*

*Proof.* Let  $G$  be an abelian group. Let  $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\} \subset \ell^\infty(G_d)$ , and let  $\{g_1, \dots, g_n\} \subset G$ . Let

$$h = \sum_{k=1}^n (f_k - \ell_{g_k} f_k).$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , and suppose, for a contradiction, that

$$\sup_{x \in G} h(x) = -\epsilon. \tag{1}$$

Let  $p \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and let  $\Phi = \{f : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, p\}\}$ . Clearly  $|\Phi| = p^n$ .

Define another function  $\tau : \Phi \rightarrow G$  by

$$\tau(\phi) = \prod_{k=1}^n g_k^{\phi(k)}.$$

Fix  $k$ . Then

$$\sum_{\phi \in \Phi} (f_k(\tau(\phi)) - f_k(g_k \tau(\phi))) = \sum_{\phi \in \Phi} \left( f_k(g_1^{\phi(1)} \dots g_n^{\phi(n)}) - f_k(g_1^{\phi(1)} \dots g_k^{\phi(k)+1} \dots g_n^{\phi(n)}) \right).$$

All terms above cancel, except for those  $f_k(\tau(\phi))$  such that  $\phi(k) = 1$  and those  $f_k(g_k \tau(\phi))$  such that  $\phi(k) = p$ . This is because the range of  $\phi$  is in  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ .

There are  $p^{n-1}$  of each of these elements, for a total of  $2p^{n-1}$ . Thus

$$\sum_{\phi \in \Phi} (f_k(\tau(\phi)) - f_k(g_k \tau(\phi))) \geq -2p^{n-1} \|f_k\|.$$

By (1),

$$\begin{aligned}
-\epsilon p^n &\geq \sum_{\phi \in \Phi} h(\tau(\phi)) = \sum_{\phi \in \Phi} \sum_{k=1}^n (f_k(\tau(\phi)) - f_k(g_k \tau(\phi))) \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{\phi \in \Phi} (f_k(\tau(\phi)) - f_k(g_k \tau(\phi))) \\
&\leq - \sum_{k=1}^n 2p^{n-1} \max\{\|f_k\|\} \\
&= - 2np^{n-1} \max\{\|f_k\|\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we get that

$$\epsilon p \leq 2n \max\{\|f_k\|\},$$

and taking the limit  $p \rightarrow \infty$  we arrive at a contradiction:  $0 < \epsilon \leq 0$ . ■

A second proof used the Markov-Kakutani fixed point theorem:

**Theorem 1.2.5** (Markov-Kakutani Fixed Point Theorem). *Let  $K$  be a compact, convex subset of a locally convex linear topological space  $X$ . Let  $S$  be a commutative family of continuous affine maps from  $K$  to  $K$ . Then there exists a point  $k \in K$  such that  $T(k) = k$  for all  $T \in S$ .*

*Proof.* (of the amenability of an Abelian group): The set  $K$  of all means is a  $w^*$ -compact, convex subset of  $L^\infty(G)^*$ . Define a family of maps from  $K$  to  $K$  by

$$\langle T_a(m), f \rangle = \langle m, \ell_a f \rangle,$$

for  $a \in G$ ,  $f \in L^\infty(G)$ . The family  $\{T_a : a \in G\}$  is commuting since  $G$  is Abelian. Thus there is an  $m \in K$  such that  $m(f) = m(\ell_a f)$  for all  $a \in G$  and  $f \in L^\infty(G)$ . ■

**Theorem 1.2.6.** *If  $H \triangleleft G$  and if  $H$  and  $G/H$  are amenable, then  $G$  is amenable.*

*Proof.* Let  $m \in LIM(\ell^\infty(H))$  and  $n \in LIM(\ell^\infty(G/H))$ . For  $f \in \ell^\infty(G)$  and  $g \in G$ , let  $\hat{f}(g) = m(\ell_g f|_H)$ . We claim that the function  $\hat{f}$  is constant on

cosets. i.e., suppose  $xH = yH$ . Then,  $x = yh_0$  for some  $h_0 \in H$ . For  $h \in H$ ,

$$\ell_x f(h) = f(xh) = f(yh_0h) = \ell_{h_0}(\ell_y f)(h).$$

Thus

$$\hat{f}(x) = m(\ell_x f|_H) = m(\ell_{h_0}(\ell_y f)|_H) = m(\ell_y f|_H) = \hat{f}(y).$$

Since  $\hat{f}$  is constant on cosets, we may define  $\tilde{f} \in \ell^\infty(G/H)$  via

$$\tilde{f}(xH) = \hat{f}(x).$$

The we define a mean  $\phi(f) = n(\tilde{f})$ . To see that  $\phi$  is left invariant, for  $a, g \in G$ ,

$$\widetilde{\ell_a f}(xH) = \hat{f}(ax) = \tilde{f}(axH) = \ell_{aH} \tilde{f}(xH),$$

and thus,

$$\phi(\ell_a f) = n(\widetilde{\ell_a f}) = n(\ell_{aH} \tilde{f}) = n(\tilde{f}) = \phi(f).$$

■

**Proposition 1.2.7.** *A solvable group is amenable.*

*Proof.* This follows from repeated applications of Theorems 1.2.4 and 1.2.6. ■

**Example 1.2.8.** The free group on two generators is not amenable.

*Proof.* A reduced word  $x$  contains no subwords of the form  $aa^{-1}$ ,  $a^{-1}a$ ,  $bb^{-1}$  or  $b^{-1}b$ . Divide  $G$  into the disjoint sets  $\{H_i : i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  where

$$x \in H_i \Leftrightarrow x = a^i b^{n_1} a^{n_2} \dots, \text{ as a reduced word,}$$

where  $\{n_j\}$  is any sequence in  $\mathbb{Z}$  with  $n_1 \neq 0$ , unless  $x = a^i$ . Clearly  $G = \cup_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} H_i$ .

Notice that  $\ell_a(H_i) = H_{i+1}$ . Also,  $\ell_a \chi_{H_i} = \chi_{aH_i} = \chi_{H_{i+1}}$ . For any mean  $m$  and a fixed  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$1 = m(\chi_G) = \sum_{i < k} m(\chi_{H_i}) + \sum_{i \geq k} m(\chi_{H_i}).$$

If  $m$  is left invariant, then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 = m(\ell_a \chi_G) &= \sum_{i < k} m(\chi_{H_{i-1}}) + \sum_{i \geq k} m(\chi_{H_i}) \\ &= \sum_{j \leq k} m(\chi_{H_j}) + \sum_{i \geq k} m(\chi_{H_i}), \end{aligned}$$

where we make the substitution  $j = i - 1$ . Thus  $m(\chi_{H_k}) = 0$ . Since  $k$  was arbitrary, it follows that  $m(\chi_{H_i}) = 0$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Next notice that  $\ell_b(H_i) \subsetneq H_0$ . Assuming still that  $m$  is a LIM,

$$\sum_{i \neq 0} m(\chi_{H_i}) = m(\chi_{\cup_{i \neq 0} H_i}) = m(\ell_b \chi_{\cup_{i \neq 0} H_i}) = m(\chi_{\cup_{i \neq 0} bH_i}) \leq m(\chi_{H_0}).$$

But since

$$1 = m(\chi_G) = m(\chi_{H_0}) + \sum_{i \neq 0} m(\chi_{H_i}),$$

we have that

$$m(\chi_{H_0}) \geq \frac{1}{2},$$

a contradiction. ■

### 1.3 Functions on groups and semigroups

**Example 1.3.1.** Let  $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ , the additive semigroup of reals. The function

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^N \xi_k e^{ia_k x}$$

is almost periodic.

*Proof.* For this  $G$ , almost periodicity is equivalent to the following definition.

**Definition 1.3.2.**  $f \in CB(\mathbb{R})$  is almost periodic iff for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a positive constant  $d_\epsilon$  such that every interval of length  $d_\epsilon$  contains a number  $t$  with the property that  $\|\ell_t f - f\| < \epsilon$

The function on  $x \mapsto e^{ix}$  has period  $2\pi$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Take  $d_\epsilon = 2\pi$ . Clearly this function is in  $AP(G)$ . Since  $AP(G)$  is an algebra, the result follows. ■



**Example 1.3.3.** Let  $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ , the additive semigroup of reals. The function

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{1 + |x|}$$

is in  $LUC(G)$  but not in  $WAP(G)$ .

*Proof.* To see that  $f \in LUC(G)$ , let  $y_\alpha \rightarrow y \in G$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|\ell_{y_\alpha} f - \ell_y f\| &= \sup_{x \in G} \left| \frac{y_\alpha + x}{1 + |y_\alpha + x|} - \frac{y + x}{1 + |y + x|} \right| \\ &= \sup_{x \in G} \left| \frac{y_\alpha + y_\alpha |y + x| + x + x |y + x| - y - y |y_\alpha + x| - x - x |y_\alpha + x|}{1 + |y + x| + |y_\alpha + x| + |y_\alpha + x| |y + x|} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Consider the numerator:

$$\begin{aligned} &|y_\alpha - y + y_\alpha |y + x| - y |y_\alpha + x| + x - x + x |y + x| - x |y_\alpha + x| \\ &\leq |y_\alpha - y| + |y_\alpha |y + x| - y |y_\alpha + x| + |x(|y + x| - |y_\alpha + x|)| \\ &\leq |y_\alpha - y| + |y_\alpha |y + x| - y |y + x| + y |y + x| - y |y_\alpha + x| + |x|||y + x| - |y_\alpha + x|| \\ &\leq |y_\alpha - y| + |y + x| |y_\alpha - y| + |y(|y + x| - |y_\alpha + x|)| + |x||y - y_\alpha| \\ &\leq |y_\alpha - y| + |y + x| |y_\alpha - y| + |y||y - y_\alpha| + |x||y - y_\alpha| \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f \in LUC(G)$ . ■

# Chapter 2

## Other Theorems

### 2.1 Day's Fixed Point Theorem

**Theorem 2.1.1** (Day's Fixed Point Theorem). *Let  $K$  be a convex, compact subset of a locally convex linear topological space  $X$ . Let  $S$  be a semigroup (under composition) of continuous affine maps from  $K$  to  $K$ . If  $S$  is amenable as discrete, then there exists  $k \in K$  such that  $T(k) = k$  for all  $T \in S$ .*

*Proof.* (Outline) Let  $y \in K$ . Define linear map  $F : X^* \rightarrow \ell^\infty(S)$  by

$$\langle F\phi, T \rangle = \langle \phi, T(y) \rangle.$$

$F$  is linear.  $\phi$  is bounded on the compact set  $K$ , thus  $F(\phi) \in \ell^\infty(S)$ . Then we have the adjoint map,  $F^\# : \ell^\infty(S)^* \rightarrow X^{\#\#}$ ,

$$\langle F^\# \mu, \phi \rangle = \langle \mu, F\phi \rangle.$$

Let  $K' = Q(K)$ , where  $Q : X \rightarrow X^{\#\#}$ ,  $Q(x)(\phi) = \phi(x)$ . It can be shown that  $F^\# \mu \in K' \subset X^{\#\#}$  for all means  $\mu \in \ell^\infty(S)^*$ . But then  $Q^{-1}(F^\# \mu) \in K$ . i.e. the map  $Q^{-1}F^\#$  maps all means into  $K$ .

Notice that if  $\mu$  is left invariant, then

$$\langle \ell_T^* \mu, f \rangle = \langle \mu, \ell_T f \rangle = \langle \mu, f \rangle$$

for all  $f \in \ell^\infty(S)$  and  $T \in S$ . It can be shown that for any mean  $\mu$  and  $T \in S$  that

$$Q^{-1}F^\#(\ell_T^*\mu) = T(Q^{-1}F^\#(\mu)).$$

Thus, for left invariant  $\mu$ ,

$$T(Q^{-1}F^\#(\mu)) = Q^{-1}F^\#(\ell_T^*\mu) = Q^{-1}F^\#(\mu).$$

i.e., the point  $Q^{-1}F^\#(\mu)$  is a fixed point in  $K$ . ■

# Chapter 3

## More definitions

### 3.1 What is $\beta\mathbb{N}$ ?

**Definition 3.1.1.** A topological space  $X$  is *regular* if for every closed set  $C \subset X$  and point  $x \notin C$ , there exists two open disjoint sets  $U$  and  $V$  such that  $C \subset U$  and  $x \in V$ .  $X$  is *completely regular* if there exists a continuous function  $f : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$  such that  $f(x) = 0$  and  $f(C) = 1$ .

**Example 3.1.2.** A discrete space is completely regular.

**Definition 3.1.3.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. The *Stone-Čech compactification* of  $X$  is a compact space,  $\beta X$ , with an embedding  $\kappa : X \rightarrow \beta X$  such that  $\kappa(X)$  is dense in  $\beta X$ , and such that every continuous function  $f$  from  $X$  to any compact Hausdorff space  $K$  extends to a continuous  $\tilde{f} : \beta X \rightarrow K$ .  $\beta X$  is unique up to homeomorphism (bijection, continuous and inversely continuous).

**Example 3.1.4.** Let  $X = \mathbb{N}$ . The space of all multiplicative means for  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $MM(\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N}))$  is weak\* compact. The mapping  $x \mapsto \delta_x$  maps  $\mathbb{N}$  into  $MM(\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N}))$  such that  $\{\delta_x : x \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is weak\* dense in  $MM(\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N}))$ . This is just the character space of the commutative  $C^*$ -algebra  $\ell^\infty(\mathbb{N})$ .

## 3.2 Quasi Invariant Measures

**Definition 3.2.1.** Let  $\lambda$  be a Radon measure on the homogenous space  $G/H$ .

Define

$$\lambda_x(E) = \lambda(xE)$$

for  $x \in G$ .  $\lambda$  is *quasi-invariant* if there exists a continuous function  $f : G \times (G/H) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  such that

$$d\lambda_x(p) = f(x, p)d\lambda(p)$$

for all  $x \in G$  and  $p \in G/H$

**Proposition 3.2.2.** For any lcg  $G$  and closed subgroup  $H$ ,  $(G : H)$  admits a function

$$\rho(x\xi) = \frac{\Delta_H(\xi)}{\Delta_G(\xi)}\rho(x).$$

**Theorem 3.2.3.** Given any function  $\rho$  as above for  $(G : H)$ , there is a quasi-invariant measure  $\lambda$  on  $G/H$  such that

$$\frac{d\lambda_x}{d\lambda}(yH) = \frac{\rho(xy)}{\rho(y)}.$$

$(x, y \in G)$ .