

# Representation Theory

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# 1 What is Representation Theory?

Groups arise in nature as “sets of symmetries (of an object), which are closed under composition and under taking inverses”. For example, the *symmetric group*  $S_n$  is the group of all permutations (symmetries) of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ ; the *alternating group*  $A_n$  is the set of all symmetries preserving the parity of the number of ordered pairs; the *dihedral group*  $D_{2n}$  is the group of symmetries of the regular  $n$ -gon in the plane. The *orthogonal group*  $O(3)$  is the group of distance-preserving transformations of Euclidean space which fix the origin. There is also the group of *all* distance preserving transformations, which includes the translations along with  $O(3)$ .\*

The official definition is of course more abstract, a group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $*$  which is associative, has a unit element  $e$  and for which inverses exist. Associativity allows a convenient abuse of notation, where we write  $gh$  for  $g * h$ ; we have  $ghk = (gh)k = g(hk)$  and parentheses are unnecessary. I will often write 1 for  $e$ , but this is dangerous on rare occasions, such that when studying the group  $\mathbb{Z}$  under addition; in that case,  $e = 0$ .

The abstract definition notwithstanding, the interesting situation involves a group “acting” on a set. Formally, an action of a group  $G$  on a set  $X$  is an “action map”  $a: G \times X \rightarrow X$  which is *compatible with the group law*, in the sense that

$$\begin{aligned} a(h, a(g, x)) &= a(hg, x) \\ a(e, x) &= x. \end{aligned}$$

This justifies the abuse of notation  $a(g, x) = gx$ , for we have  $h(gx) = (hg)x$ .

From this point of view, geometry asks, “Given a geometric object  $X$ , what is its group of symmetries?” Representation theory reverses the question to “Given a group  $G$ , what objects  $X$  does it act on?” and attempts to answer this question by classifying such  $X$  up to isomorphism.

Before restricting to the linear case, our main concern, let us remember another way to describe an action of  $G$  on  $X$ . Every  $g \in G$  defines a map  $a(g): X \rightarrow X$  by  $x \mapsto gx$ . This map is a bijection, with inverse map  $a(g^{-1})$ : indeed,  $(a(g^{-1}) \circ a(g))(x) = g^{-1}gx = ex = x$  from the properties of the action. Hence  $a(g)$  belongs to the set  $\text{Sym } X$  of bijective self-maps of  $X$ . This set forms a group under composition, and the properties of an action imply that

**Proposition 1.1.** *An action of  $G$  on  $X$  “is the same as” a group homomorphism  $\alpha: G \rightarrow \text{Sym } X$ .*

The formulation of Prop. 1.1 leads to the following observation. For any action  $a$  of  $H$  on  $X$  and group homomorphism  $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ , there is defined a *restricted* or *pulled-back* action  $\varphi^*a$  of  $G$  on  $X$ , as  $\varphi^*a = a \circ \varphi$ . In the original definition, the action sends  $(g, x)$  to  $\varphi(g)(x)$ .

**Example 1.1** (Tautological action of  $\text{Sym } X$  on  $X$ ). This is the obvious action, call it  $T$ , sending  $f, x$  to  $f(x)$ , where  $f: X \rightarrow X$  is a bijection and  $x \in X$ . In this language, the action  $a$  of  $G$  on  $X$  is  $\alpha^*T$  with the homomorphism  $\alpha$  of the proposition – the pull-back under  $\alpha$  of the tautological action.

**Example 1.2** (Linearity). The question of classifying all possible  $X$  with action of  $G$  is hopeless in such generality, but one should recall that, in first approximation, mathematics is linear. So we shall take our  $X$  to be a *vector space* over some ground *field*, and ask that the action of  $G$  be linear, as well, in other words, that it should preserve the vector space structure. Our interest is mostly confined to the case when the field of scalars is  $\mathbb{C}$ , although we shall occasionally mention how the picture changes when other fields are studied.

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\*This group is isomorphic to the *semi-direct product*  $O(3) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Definition 1.1.** A linear representation  $\rho$  of  $G$  on a complex vector space  $V$  is a set-theoretic action on  $V$  which preserves the linear structure, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(g)(\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) &= \rho(g)\mathbf{v}_1 + \rho(g)\mathbf{v}_2, & \text{for all } \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V, \\ \rho(g)(k\mathbf{v}) &= k\rho(g)\mathbf{v} & \text{for all } k \in \mathbb{C}, \mathbf{v} \in V.\end{aligned}$$

Unless otherwise mentioned, a *representation* will mean a *finite-dimensional complex representation*.

**Example 1.3** (The general linear group). Let  $V$  be a complex vector space of dimension  $n < \infty$ . After choosing a basis, we can identify it with  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , although we shall avoid doing so without good reason. Recall that the *endomorphism algebra*  $\text{End}(V)$  is the set of all linear maps (or *operators*)  $L: V \rightarrow V$ , with the natural addition of linear maps and the composition as multiplication. If  $V$  has been identified with  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , a linear map is uniquely representable by a matrix, and the addition of linear maps becomes the entrywise addition, while the composition becomes the matrix multiplication.

Inside  $\text{End}(V)$ , there is contained the group  $\text{GL}(V)$  of invertible linear operators; the group operation, of course, is composition.

**Proposition 1.2.**  $V$  is naturally a representation of  $\text{GL}(V)$ .

It is called the *standard* representation of  $\text{GL}(V)$ . The following corresponds to Prop. 1.1, involving the same abuse of language.

**Proposition 1.3.** A representation of  $G$  on  $V$  “is the same as” a group homomorphism from  $G$  to  $\text{GL}(V)$ .

*Proof.* Observe that, to give a linear action of  $G$  on  $V$ , we must assign to each  $g \in G$  a linear self-map  $\rho(g) \in \text{End}(V)$ . Compatibility of the action with the group law requires

$$\rho(h)(\rho(g)(\mathbf{v})) = \rho(hg)(\mathbf{v}), \quad \rho(1)(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v},$$

for all  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , whence we conclude that  $\rho(1) = \text{id}$ ,  $\rho(hg) = \rho(h) \circ \rho(g)$ . Taking  $h = g^{-1}$  shows that  $\rho(g)$  is invertible, hence lands in  $\text{GL}(V)$ . The first relation then says that we are dealing with a group homomorphism. ■

**Definition 1.2.** An *isomorphism*  $\varphi$  between two representations  $(\rho_1, V_1)$  and  $(\rho_2, V_2)$  of  $G$  is a linear isomorphism  $\varphi: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  which intertwines with the action of  $G$ , that is, satisfies

$$\varphi(\rho_1(h)(\mathbf{v})) = \rho_2(g)(\varphi(\mathbf{v})).$$

Note that the equality makes sense even if  $\varphi$  is not invertible, in which case it is just called an *intertwining operator* or  *$G$ -linear map*. However, if  $\varphi$  is invertible, we can write instead

$$\rho_2 = \varphi \circ \rho_1 \circ \varphi^{-1}, \tag{1}$$

meaning that we have an equality of linear maps after inserting any group element  $g$ . Observe that this relation determines  $\rho_2$  if  $\rho_1$  and  $\varphi$  are known. We can finally formulate the basic problem of representation theory: Classify all representations of a given group  $G$ , up to isomorphism.

For arbitrary  $G$ , this is very hard! We shall concentrate on finite groups, where a very good general theory exists. Later on, we shall study some examples of topological compact groups, such as  $\text{U}(1)$  and  $\text{SU}(2)$ . The general theory for compact groups is also completely understood, but requires more difficult methods.

I close with a simple observation, tying in with Def. 1.2. Given any representation  $\rho$  of  $G$  on a space  $V$  of dimension  $n$ , a choice of basis in  $V$  identifies this linearly with  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . Call the isomorphism  $\varphi$ . Then, by formula (1), we can define a new representation  $\rho_2$  of  $G$  on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , which is isomorphic to  $(\rho, V)$ . So any  $n$ -dimensional representation of  $G$  is isomorphic to a representation on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ . The use of an abstract vector space does not lead to 'new' representation, but it does free us from the presence of a distinguished basis.

## **2 Lecture 2**

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