Graduate Texts in Mathematics

Jean-Pierre Serre
Linear
Representations
of Finite Groups

有限群的线性表示

Jean-Pierre Serre

Linear Representations of Finite Groups

Translated from the French by Leonard L. Scott



图书在版编目 (CIP) 数据

有限群的线性表示:英文/(法)赛尔(Serre,J.P.) 著.—北京:世界图书出版公司北京公司,2008.10 书名原文:Linear Representations of Finite Groups ISBN 978-7-5062-9259-7

I.有… II.赛… III.①有限群-群论-英文②线性群-群论-英文 IV.0152

中国版本图书馆CIP数据核字(2008)第136106号

书 名: Linear Representations of Finite Groups

作 者: Jean-Pierre Serre 中译名: 有限群的线性表示

责任编辑: 高蓉 刘慧

出版者: 世界图书出版公司北京公司

印刷者: 三河国英印务有限公司

发 行: 世界图书出版公司北京公司(北京朝内大街 137号 100010)

联系电话: 010-64015659

电子信箱: kjsk@vip.sina.com

开 本: 24开

印 张: 8

版 次: 2008年10月第1次印刷

版权登记: 图字:01-2008-2529

书 号: 978-7-5062-9259-7/O·630 定 价: 35.00 元

世界图书出版公司北京公司已获得 Springer 授权在中国大陆独家重印发行

Graduate Texts in Mathematics 42

Editorial Board S. Axler F.W. Gehring K.A. Ribet

Springer

New York
Berlin
Heidelberg
Barcelona
Hong Kong
London
Milan
Paris
Singapore
Tokyo

This book consists of three parts, rather different in level and purpose:

The first part was originally written for quantum chemists. It describes the correspondence, due to Frobenius, between linear representations and characters. This is a fundamental result, of constant use in mathematics as well as in quantum chemistry or physics. I have tried to give proofs as elementary as possible, using only the definition of a group and the rudiments of linear algebra. The examples (Chapter 5) have been chosen from those useful to chemists.

The second part is a course given in 1966 to second-year students of l'École Normale. It completes the first on the following points:

- (a) degrees of representations and integrality properties of characters (Chapter 6);
- (b) induced representations, theorems of Artin and Brauer, and applications (Chapters 7-11);
- (c) rationality questions (Chapters 12 and 13).

The methods used are those of linear algebra (in a wider sense than in the first part): group algebras, modules, noncommutative tensor products, semisimple algebras.

The third part is an introduction to Brauer theory: passage from characteristic 0 to characteristic p (and conversely). I have freely used the language of abelian categories (projective modules, Grothendieck groups), which is well suited to this sort of question. The principal results are:

- (a) The fact that the decomposition homomorphism is surjective: all irreducible representations in characteristic p can be lifted "virtually" (i.e., in a suitable Grothendieck group) to characteristic 0.
- (b) The Fong-Swan theorem, which allows suppression of the word "virtually" in the preceding statement, provided that the group under consideration is p-solvable.

I have also given several applications to the Artin representations.

Preface

I take pleasure in thanking:

Gaston Berthier and Josiane Serre, who have authorized me to reproduce Part I, written for them and their students in *Quantum Chemistry*;

Yves Balasko, who drafted a first version of Part II from some lecture notes; Alexandre Grothendieck, who has authorized me to reproduce Part III, which first appeared in his Séminaire de Géométrie Algébrique, I.H.E.S., 1965/66.

Contents

Part I

(e _j	ores	entations and Characters	I
1	Ger	neralities on linear representations	3
	1.1	Definitions	3
	1.2	Basic examples	4
	1.3	Subrepresentations	5
	1.4		7
	1.5	Tensor product of two representations	7
	1.6	Symmetric square and alternating square	9
2	Cha	10	
	2.1	The character of a representation	10
	2.2	Schur's lemma; basic applications	13
	2.3	Orthogonality relations for characters	15
	2.4		17
	2.5	Number of irreducible representations	18
	2.6	Canonical decomposition of a representation	21
	2.7	Explicit decomposition of a representation	23
3	Subgroups, products, induced representations		25
	3.1	Abelian subgroups	25
	3.2	Product of two groups	26
	3.3	Induced representations	28
4	Compact groups		32
	4.1	Compact groups	32
	4.2	Invariant measure on a compact group	32
	4.3	Linear representations of compact groups	33

Contents

5	Examples	35
	5.1 The cyclic Group C _n	35
	5.2 The group C _∞	36
	5.3 The dihedral group D_n	36
	5.4 The group D_{nh}	38
	5.5 The group D_{∞}	39
	5.6 The group $D_{\infty h}$	40
4	5.7 The alternating group \mathfrak{A}_4	41 42
	5.8 The symmetric group \mathfrak{S}_4	42
	5.9 The group of the cube	
Bib	liography: Part I	44
Par	rt II	
Rej	presentations in Characteristic Zero	45
6	The group algebra	47
	6.1 Representations and modules	47
	6.2 Decomposition of C[G]	48
	6.3 The center of C[G]	50
	6.4 Basic properties of integers	50
	6.5 Integrality properties of characters. Applications	52
7	Induced representations; Mackey's criterion	54
	7.1 Induction	54
	7.2 The character of an induced representation; the reciprocity formula	55
	7.3 Restriction to subgroups	58
	7.4 Mackey's irreducibility criterion	59
8	Examples of induced representations	61
	8.1 Normal subgroups; applications to the degrees of the	61
	irreducible representations	
	8.2 Semidirect products by an abelian group	62
	8.3 A review of some classes of finite groups	63
	8.4 Sylow's theorem	65
	8.5 Linear representations of supersolvable groups	66
9	Artin's theorem	68
	9.1 The ring R(G)	68
	9.2 Statement of Artin's theorem	70 70
	9.3 First proof	72
	9.4 Second proof of (i) \Rightarrow (ii)	
10		74
	10.1 p-regular elements; p-elementary subgroups	74
	10.2 Induced characters arising from p-elementary subgroups	75
	10.3 Construction of characters	76
	10.4 Proof of theorems 18 and 18'	78
	10.5 Brauer's theorem	78

_		
Con	itei	บร

11	Applications of Brauer's theorem	81
	11.1 Characterization of characters	81
	11.2 A theorem of Frobenius	83
	11.3 A converse to Brauer's theorem	85 86
	11.4 The spectrum of $A \otimes R(G)$	
12	Rationality questions	90
	12.1 The rings $R_K(G)$ and $R_K(G)$	90 92
	12.2 Schur indices	94
	12.3 Realizability over cyclotomic fields12.4 The rank of R_K(G)	95
	12.5 Generalization of Artin's theorem	96
	12.6 Generalization of Brauer's theorem	97
	12.7 Proof of theorem 28	99
13	Rationality questions: examples	102
	13.1 The field Q	102
	13.2 The field R	106
Bib	liography: Part II	111
	rt III	
Int	roduction to Brauer Theory	113
14	The groups $R_k(G)$, $R_k(G)$, and $P_k(G)$	115
	14.1 The rings $R_k(G)$ and $R_k(G)$	115
	14.2 The groups $P_k(G)$ and $P_A(G)$	116
	14.3 Structure of $P_k(G)$	116
	14.4 Structure of P _A (G)	118
	14.5 Dualities	120
	14.6 Scalar extensions	122
15	The cde triangle	124
	15.1 Definition of $c: P_k(G) \to R_k(G)$	124
	15.2 Definition of $d: R_k(G) \to R_k(G)$	125 127
	 15.3 Definition of e: P_k(G) → R_K(G) 15.4 Basic properties of the cde triangle 	127
	15.5 Example: p'-groups	128
	15.6 Example: p-groups	129
	15.7 Example: products of p' -groups and p -groups	129
16	Theorems	131
	16.1 Properties of the <i>cde</i> triangle	131
	16.2 Characterization of the image of e	133
	16.3 Characterization of projective A [G]-modules	134
	by their characters	136
	16.4 Examples of projective A [G]-modules: irreducible representations of defect zero	130

Contents

17	Proofs	138
' '	17.1 Change of groups	138
	17.2 Brauer's theorem in the modular case	139
	17.3 Proof of theorem 33	140
	17.4 Proof of theorem 35.	142
	17.5 Proof of theorem 37	143
	17.6 Proof of theorem 38	144
10	Modular characters	147
18	18.1 The modular character of a representation	147
	18.2 Independence of modular characters	149
	18.3 Reformulations	151
	18.4 A section for d	152
	18.5 Example: Modular characters of the symmetric group \mathfrak{S}_4	153
	18.6 Example: Modular characters of the alternating group \mathfrak{A}_5	156
10		159
19	19.1 Artin and Swan representations	159
	19.2 Rationality of the Artin and Swan representations	161
	19.3 An invariant	162
۸ -		163
Appendix		165
Bil	bliography: Part III	
In	dex of notation	167
		169
In	dex of terminology	102

REPRESENTATIONS AND CHARACTERS

CHAPTER 1

Generalities on linear representations

1.1 Definitions

Let V be a vector space over the field C of complex numbers and let GL(V) be the group of *isomorphisms* of V onto itself. An element a of GL(V) is, by definition, a linear mapping of V into V which has an inverse a^{-1} ; this inverse is linear. When V has a finite basis (e_i) of n elements, each linear map $a: V \to V$ is defined by a square matrix (a_{ij}) of order n. The coefficients a_{ij} are complex numbers; they are obtained by expressing the images $a(e_i)$ in terms of the basis (e_i) :

$$a(e_j) = \sum_i a_{ij} e_i.$$

Saying that a is an isomorphism is equivalent to saying that the determinant $det(a) = det(a_{ij})$ of a is not zero. The group GL(V) is thus identifiable with the group of invertible square matrices of order n.

Suppose now G is a *finite* group, with identity element 1 and with composition $(s,t) \mapsto st$. A *linear representation* of G in V is a homomorphism ρ from the group G into the group GL(V). In other words, we associate with each element $s \in G$ an element $\rho(s)$ of GL(V) in such a way that we have the equality

$$\rho(st) = \rho(s) \cdot \rho(t) \text{ for } s, t \in G.$$

[We will also frequently write ρ_s instead of $\rho(s)$.] Observe that the preceding formula implies the following:

$$\rho(1) = 1, \quad \rho(s^{-1}) = \rho(s)^{-1}.$$

When ρ is given, we say that V is a representation space of G (or even simply, by abuse of language, a representation of G). In what follows, we

restrict ourselves to the case where V has finite dimension. This is not a very severe restriction. Indeed, for most applications, one is interested in dealing with a finite number of elements x_i of V, and can always find a subrepresentation of V (in a sense defined later, cf. 1.3) of finite dimension, which contains the x_i : just take the vector subspace generated by the images $\rho_s(x_i)$ of the x_i .

Suppose now that V has finite dimension, and let n be its dimension; we say also that n is the degree of the representation under consideration. Let (e_i) be a basis of V, and let R_s be the matrix of ρ_s with respect to this basis. We have

$$det(\mathbf{R}_s) \neq 0$$
, $\mathbf{R}_{st} = \mathbf{R}_s \cdot \mathbf{R}_t$ if $s, t \in G$.

If we denote by $r_{ij}(s)$ the coefficients of the matrix R_s , the second formula becomes

$$r_{ik}(st) = \sum_{j} r_{ij}(s) \cdot r_{jk}(t).$$

Conversely, given invertible matrices $R_s = (r_{ij}(s))$ satisfying the preceding identities, there is a corresponding linear representation ρ of G in V; this is what it means to give a representation "in matrix form."

Let ρ and ρ' be two representations of the same group G in vector spaces V and V'. These representations are said to be *similar* (or *isomorphic*) if there exists a linear isomorphism τ : V \rightarrow V' which "transforms" ρ into ρ' , that is, which satisfies the identity

$$\tau \circ \rho(s) = \rho'(s) \circ \tau$$
 for all $s \in G$.

When ρ and ρ' are given in matrix form by R, and R', respectively, this means that there exists an invertible matrix T such that

$$T \cdot R_s = R'_s \cdot T$$
, for all $s \in G$,

which is also written $R'_s = T \cdot R_s \cdot T^{-1}$. We can *identify* two such representations (by having each $x \in V$ correspond to the element $\tau(x) \in V'$); in particular, ρ and ρ' have the same degree.

1.2 Basic examples

(a) A representation of degree 1 of a group G is a homomorphism $\rho: G \to \mathbb{C}^*$, where \mathbb{C}^* denotes the multiplicative group of nonzero complex numbers. Since each element of G has finite order, the values $\rho(s)$ of ρ are roots of unity; in particular, we have $|\rho(s)| = 1$.

If we take $\rho(s) = 1$ for all $s \in G$, we obtain a representation of G which is called the *unit* (or *trivial*) representation.

(b) Let g be the order of G, and let V be a vector space of dimension g, with a basis $(e_t)_{t \in G}$ indexed by the elements t of G. For $s \in G$, let ρ_s be

the linear map of V into V which sends e_t to e_{st} ; this defines a linear representation, which is called the *regular representation* of G. Its degree is equal to the order of G. Note that $e_s = \rho_s(e_1)$; hence note that the images of e_1 form a basis of V. Conversely, let W be a representation of G containing a vector w such that the $\rho_s(w)$, $s \in G$, form a basis of W; then W is isomorphic to the regular representation (an isomorphism $\tau: V \to W$ is defined by putting $\tau(e_s) = \rho_s(w)$).

(c) More generally, suppose that G acts on a finite set X. This means that, for each $s \in G$, there is given a permutation $x \mapsto sx$ of X, satisfying the identities

$$1x = x$$
, $s(tx) = (st)x$ if $s, t \in G$, $x \in X$.

Let V be a vector space having a basis $(e_x)_{x \in X}$ indexed by the elements of X. For $s \in G$ let ρ_s be the linear map of V into V which sends e_x to e_{sx} ; the linear representation of G thus obtained is called the *permutation representation* associated with X.

1.3 Subrepresentations

Let $\rho: G \to GL(V)$ be a linear representation and let W be a vector subspace of V. Suppose that W is *stable* under the action of G (we say also "invariant"), or in other words, suppose that $x \in W$ implies $\rho_s x \in W$ for all $s \in G$. The restriction ρ_s^W of ρ_s to W is then an isomorphism of W onto itself, and we have $\rho_{st}^W = \rho_s^W \cdot \rho_t^W$. Thus $\rho^W: G \to GL(W)$ is a linear representation of G in W; W is said to be a *subrepresentation* of V.

EXAMPLE. Take for V the regular representation of G [cf. 1.2 (b)], and let W be the subspace of dimension 1 of V generated by the element $x = \sum_{s \in G} e_s$. We have $\rho_s x = x$ for all $s \in G$; consequently W is a subrepresentation of V, isomorphic to the unit representation. (We will determine in 2.4 all the subrepresentations of the regular representation.)

Before going further, we recall some concepts from linear algebra. Let V be a vector space, and let W and W' be two subspaces of V. The space V is said to be the *direct sum* of W and W' if each $x \in V$ can be written uniquely in the form x = w + w', with $w \in W$ and $w' \in W'$; this amounts to saying that the intersection $W \cap W'$ of W and W' is 0 and that $\dim(V) = \dim(W) + \dim(W')$. We then write $V = W \oplus W'$ and say that W' is a complement of W in V. The mapping p which sends each $x \in V$ to its component $w \in W$ is called the *projection* of V onto W associated with the decomposition $V = W \oplus W'$; the image of p is W, and p(x) = x for $x \in W$; conversely if p is a linear map of V into itself satisfying these two properties, one checks that V is the direct sum of W and the *kernel* W' of p

(the set of x such that px = 0). A bijective correspondence is thus established between the *projections* of V onto W and the *complements* of W in V.

We return now to subrepresentations:

Theorem 1. Let $\rho: G \to GL(V)$ be a linear representation of G in V and let W be a vector subspace of V stable under G. Then there exists a complement W^0 of W in V which is stable under G.

Let W' be an arbitrary complement of W in V, and let p be the corresponding projection of V onto W. Form the average p^0 of the conjugates of p by the elements of G:

$$p^0 = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{t \in G} \rho_t \cdot p \cdot \rho_t^{-1}$$
 (g being the order of G).

Since p maps V into W and ρ_t preserves W we see that p^0 maps V into W; we have $\rho_t^{-1}x \in W$ for $x \in W$, whence

$$p \cdot \rho_t^{-1} x = \rho_t^{-1} x$$
, $\rho_t \cdot p \cdot \rho_t^{-1} x = x$, and $p^0 x = x$.

Thus p^0 is a projection of V onto W, corresponding to some complement W^0 of W. We have moreover

$$\rho_s \cdot p^0 = p^0 \cdot \rho_s$$
 for all $s \in G$.

Indeed, computing $\rho_s \cdot p^0 \cdot \rho_s^{-1}$, we find:

$$\rho_{s} \cdot p^{0} \cdot \rho_{s}^{-1} = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{t \in G} \rho_{s} \cdot \rho_{t} \cdot p \cdot \rho_{t}^{-1} \cdot \rho_{s}^{-1} = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{t \in G} \rho_{st} \cdot p \cdot \rho_{st}^{-1} = p^{0}.$$

If now $x \in W^0$ and $s \in G$ we have $p^0x = 0$, hence $p^0 \cdot \rho_s x = \rho_s \cdot p^0 x = 0$, that is, $\rho_s x \in W^0$, which shows that W^0 is stable under G, and completes the proof.

Remark. Suppose that V is endowed with a scalar product (x|y) satisfying the usual conditions: linearity in x, semilinearity in y, and (x|x) > 0 if $x \neq 0$. Suppose that this scalar product is invariant under G, i.e., that $(\rho_s x|\rho_s y) = (x|y)$; we can always reduce to this case by replacing (x|y) by $\sum_{l \in G} (\rho_l x|\rho_l y)$. Under these hypotheses the orthogonal complement W⁰ of W in V is a complement of W stable under G; another proof of theorem 1 is thus obtained. Note that the invariance of the scalar product (x|y) means that, if (e_i) is an orthonormal basis of V, the matrix of ρ_s with respect to this basis is a unitary matrix.

Keeping the hypothesis and notation of theorem 1, let $x \in V$ and let w and w^0 be its projections on W and W⁰. We have $x = w + w^0$, whence $\rho_s x = \rho_s w + \rho_s w^0$, and since W and W⁰ are stable under G, we have $\rho_s w \in W$ and $\rho_s w^0 \in W^0$; thus $\rho_s w$ and $\rho_s w^0$ are the projections of $\rho_s x$. It follows the representations W and W⁰ determine the representation V.

We say that V is the direct sum of W and W⁰, and write $V = W \oplus W^0$. An element of V is identified with a pair (w, w^0) with $w \in W$ and $w^0 \in W^0$. If W and W⁰ are given in matrix form by R, and R⁰, W

W is given in matrix form by

$$\begin{pmatrix} R_s & 0 \\ 0 & R_s^0 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

The direct sum of an arbitrary finite number of representations is defined similarly.

1.4 Irreducible representations

Let $\rho: G \to GL(V)$ be a linear representation of G. We say that it is irreducible or simple if V is not 0 and if no vector subspace of V is stable under G, except of course 0 and V. By theorem 1, this second condition is equivalent to saying V is not the direct sum of two representations (except for the trivial decomposition $V = 0 \oplus V$). A representation of degree 1 is evidently irreducible. We will see later (3.1) that each nonabelian group possesses at least one irreducible representation of degree ≥ 2 .

The irreducible representations are used to construct the others by means of the direct sum:

Theorem 2. Every representation is a direct sum of irreducible representations.

Let V be a linear representation of G. We proceed by induction on $\dim(V)$. If $\dim(V) = 0$, the theorem is obvious (0 is the direct sum of the empty family of irreducible representations). Suppose then $\dim(V) \ge 1$. If V is irreducible, there is nothing to prove. Otherwise, because of th. 1, V can be decomposed into a direct sum $V' \oplus V''$ with $\dim(V') < \dim(V)$ and $\dim(V'') < \dim(V)$. By the induction hypothesis V' and V'' are direct sums of irreducible representations, and so the same is true of V.

Remark. Let V be a representation, and let $V = W_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus W_k$ be a decomposition of V into a direct sum of irreducible representations. We can ask if this decomposition is *unique*. The case where all the ρ_s are equal to 1 shows that this is not true in general (in this case the W, are lines, and we have a plethora of decompositions of a vector space into a direct sum of lines). Nevertheless, we will see in 2.3 that the number of W_i isomorphic to a given irreducible representation does not depend on the chosen decomposition.

1.5 Tensor product of two representations

Along with the direct sum operation (which has the formal properties of an addition), there is a "multiplication": the tensor product, sometimes called the Kronecker product. It is defined as follows: