

# 1 Review: algebras, representations, and Schur's lemma

Let  $\mathbb{K}$  be a field, assumed to be algebraically closed unless noted otherwise.

**Definition.** An *(associative, unital) algebra* is a nonzero  $\mathbb{K}$ -vector space  $A$  with a bilinear *product* map  $A \times A \rightarrow A$  and a *unit* element  $1 \in A$  that satisfy  $a(bc) = (ab)c$  and  $1a = a1 = a$  for all  $a, b, c \in A$ .

A *morphism*  $f : A \rightarrow B$  of algebras is a  $\mathbb{K}$ -linear map with  $f(1) = 1$  and  $f(ab) = f(a)f(b)$  for all  $a, b \in A$ .

A morphism that is a bijection is called an *isomorphism*.

**Example.** If  $V$  is a nonzero  $\mathbb{K}$ -vector space, then the vector space  $\text{End}(V)$  of all linear maps  $V \rightarrow V$  is an algebra, where the product is composition  $\rho_1\rho_2 = \rho_1 \circ \rho_2$  and the unit is the identity map  $\text{id}_V : V \rightarrow V$ .

**Definition.** A *representation* of an algebra  $A$  is a pair  $(\rho, V)$  where

- $V$  is a  $\mathbb{K}$ -vector space, and
- $\rho$  is a linear map  $A \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$  satisfying  $\rho(1) = \text{id}_V$  and  $\rho(ab) = \rho(a)\rho(b)$  for all  $a, b \in A$ .

A *morphism*  $\phi : (\rho_1, V_1) \rightarrow (\rho_2, V_2)$  of representations of  $A$  is a linear map  $\phi : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  with

$$\phi(\rho_1(a)(v)) = \rho_2(a)(\phi(v)) \quad \text{for all } a \in A \text{ and } v \in V_1.$$

This is sometimes called an *intertwining operator*. A morphism that is a bijection is an *isomorphism*.

**Definition.** A *subrepresentation* of  $(\rho, V)$  is a subspace  $W \subseteq V$  with  $\rho(a)(W) \subseteq W$  for all  $a \in A$ .

If  $W$  is a subrepresentation, then we view the pair  $(\rho, W)$  as another representation of  $A$ .

We say that  $(\rho, V)$  is *irreducible* if  $V \neq 0$  and there are no other subrepresentations except  $V$  and  $0$ .

**Proposition (Schur's Lemma).** Let  $\phi : (\rho_1, V_1) \rightarrow (\rho_2, V_2)$  be a morphism of representations of  $A$ .

- If both representations are irreducible then  $\phi$  is an isomorphism (even if  $\mathbb{K}$  is not alg. closed).
- If  $(\rho, V) = (\rho_1, V_1) = (\rho_2, V_2)$  is irreducible with  $\dim(V) < \infty$ , then  $\phi = \lambda \cdot \text{id}_V$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$ .
- If  $A$  is *commutative* (so  $ab = ba$  for all  $a, b \in A$ ) then every irreducible repn  $(\rho, V)$  has  $\dim(V) = 1$ .

**Example.** Properties (b) and (c) can both fail if  $\mathbb{K}$  is not algebraically closed.

We can see in this in examples when  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$  is the (not algebraically closed) field of real numbers:

- Let  $A = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ . As an  $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra we have  $A \cong \mathbb{C}$ .

Let  $\rho : A \rightarrow \text{End}(A)$  be the (left) regular representation of  $A$ , so that  $\rho(y)(z) = yz$ .

Every  $0 \neq z \in A$  is invertible, so  $(\rho, V)$  is irreducible but  $\dim(V) = 2$ .

Thus, even though  $A$  is commutative, not all of its irreducible representations are 1-dimensional.

- Now define  $\phi : A \rightarrow A$  by  $\phi\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} -b & -a \\ a & -b \end{bmatrix}$ , which is multiplication by  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

This is a morphism  $\phi : (\rho, V) \rightarrow (\rho, V)$  since  $A$  is commutative, but it is not a scalar map.

## 2 Indecomposable representations

Let  $A$  be an algebra over  $\mathbb{K}$ . In this section  $\mathbb{K}$  does not need to be algebraically closed.

Suppose  $(\rho_1, V_1)$  and  $(\rho_2, V_2)$  are representations of  $A$ .

Then we can form the *direct sum representation*

$$(\rho_1, V_1) \oplus (\rho_2, V_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\rho_1 \oplus \rho_2, V_1 \oplus V_2)$$

where  $V_1 \oplus V_2 = \{v_1 + v_2 : v_1 \in V_1 \text{ and } v_2 \in V_2\}$  is the usual vector space direct sum and

$$\rho_1 \oplus \rho_2 : A \rightarrow \text{End}(V_1 \oplus V_2)$$

is defined by the formula

$$(\rho_1 \oplus \rho_2)(a)(v_1 + v_2) = \rho_1(a)(v_1) + \rho_2(a)(v_2) \quad \text{for } a \in A, v_1 \in V_1 \text{ and } v_2 \in V_2.$$

Notice that  $(\rho_1, V_1) \oplus (\rho_2, V_2) \cong (\rho_2, V_2) \oplus (\rho_1, V_1)$  via the vector space isomorphism  $V_1 \oplus V_2 \cong V_2 \oplus V_1$ .

**Definition.** A representation  $(\rho, V)$  of  $A$  is *indecomposable* if it is not isomorphic to  $(\rho_1, V_1) \oplus (\rho_2, V_2)$  for any nonzero representations  $(\rho_i, V_i)$  of  $A$ .

This occurs if and only if  $(\rho, V)$  does not have nonzero subrepresentations  $W_1, W_2 \subseteq V$  with  $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$ .

**Notation.** If  $W_1 \subseteq V$  and  $W_2 \subseteq V$  are subspaces then writing

$$(a) \quad V = W_1 \oplus W_2$$

is just an abbreviation for the property

$$(b) \quad \text{it holds that } V = W_1 + W_2 \text{ and } 0 = W_1 \cap W_2.$$

Formally, the direct sum  $W_1 \oplus W_2$  is some new vector space equipped with inclusions

$$W_1 \rightarrow W_1 \oplus W_2 \leftarrow W_2$$

satisfying a universal property. When (b) holds,  $V$  has this property so can be identified with  $W_1 \oplus W_2$ .

Note that irreducible  $\implies$  indecomposable, but not vice versa.

**Example.** Consider the (commutative) polynomial algebra  $\mathbb{K}[x]$ .

What are the irreducible representations of  $\mathbb{K}[x]$ ?

Choose a linear map  $L : V \rightarrow V$  where  $V$  is a vector space.

Define  $\rho_L : \mathbb{K}[x] \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$  by formula such that  $\rho_L(f(x)) = f(L)$  so that

$$\rho_L(a_n x^n + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0) = a_n L^n + \dots + a_2 L^2 + a_1 L + a_0 I.$$

Then  $(\rho_L, V)$  is a representation of  $\mathbb{K}[x]$ .

Every representation of  $\mathbb{K}[x]$  must arise via this construction.

This holds as every algebra morphism  $\mathbb{K}[x] \rightarrow B$  is uniquely determined by the image of the variable  $x$ .

It is possible that different choices of  $L$  might give isomorphic representations  $(\rho_L, V)$ , however.

Earlier results tell us that  $(\rho_L, V)$  is irreducible if and only if  $\dim V = 1$ .

What are the indecomposable representations of  $\mathbb{K}[x]$ ?

Choose  $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$  and an integer  $n \geq 1$ . Define  $J_{\lambda,n} : \mathbb{K}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^n$  to be the linear map

$$J_{\lambda,n} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then  $(\rho_{J_{\lambda,n}}, \mathbb{K}^n)$  is indecomposable, though not irreducible if  $n > 1$ .

Moreover, every indecomposable representation of  $\mathbb{K}[x]$  is isomorphic to one of these representations.

This follows by the uniqueness of Jordan canonical form.

Finally, one can show that  $(\rho_{J_{\lambda,n}}, \mathbb{K}^n) \cong (\rho_{J_{\lambda',n'}}, \mathbb{K}^{n'})$  if and only if  $n = n'$  and  $\lambda = \lambda'$ .

(These statements are not self-evident and require a fair amount of linear algebra to derive.)

### 3 Group Representations

Suppose  $G$  is a group. Recall that the group algebra is  $\mathbb{K}[G] = \mathbb{K}\text{-span}\{a_g : g \in G\}$  where  $a_g a_h = a_{gh}$ .

Given a vector space  $V$ , let  $\text{GL}(V) \subset \text{End}(V)$  be the group of invertible linear maps  $V \rightarrow V$ .

**Definition.** A *group representation* of  $G$  is a pair  $(\rho, V)$  where  $V$  is a vector space and

$$\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$$

is a group homomorphism.

We claim that group representations are the same as representations of the corresponding group algebra.

In one direction, any group representation  $(\rho, V)$  for  $G$  becomes a representation of  $\mathbb{K}[G]$  on setting

$$\rho(a_g) = \rho(g) \quad \text{for } g \in G$$

and extending by linearity.

In the other direction, if  $(\rho, V)$  is a representation of  $\mathbb{K}[G]$  then  $\rho(a_g) \in \text{GL}(V)$  for all  $g \in G$  as

$$\rho(a_g)\rho(a_{g^{-1}}) = \rho(a_g a_{g^{-1}}) = \rho(a_1) = \text{id}_V.$$

Hence  $g \mapsto \rho(a_g) \in \text{GL}(V)$  is a group homomorphism  $G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$ .

### 4 Ideals in algebras

Let  $A$  be an algebra. If  $a \in A$  and  $S \subseteq A$  then let  $aS = \{ab : b \in S\}$  and  $Sa = \{ba : b \in S\}$ .

**Definition.** A *left ideal* in  $A$  is a subspace  $I \subseteq A$  with  $aI \subseteq I$  for all  $a \in A$ .

A *right ideal* in  $A$  is a subspace  $I \subseteq A$  with  $Ia \subseteq I$  for all  $a \in A$ .

A *two-sided ideal* in  $A$  is a subspace that is both a left and right ideal.

All three notions coincide if  $A$  is commutative.

The left ideals of  $A$  are precisely the subrepresentations of the regular representation of  $A$ .

Similarly, the right ideals of  $A$  are the subrepresentations of the regular representation of  $A^{\text{op}}$ .

The subspaces  $0$  and  $A$  are always two-sided ideals. If these are the only two-sided ideals then  $A$  is *simple*.

**Example.** The algebra  $\text{Mat}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{K})$  is simple.

To check this, suppose  $I \subseteq \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{K})$  is a nonzero two-sided ideal.

We need to show that every  $n \times n$  matrix is in  $I$ .

If there is some elementary matrix  $E_{jk} \in I$ , then every other elementary matrix is obtained as

$$E_{il} = E_{ij}E_{jk}E_{kl} \in I$$

so any linear combination of elementary matrices is in  $I$ , which means that every  $n \times n$  matrix is in  $I$ .

Thus it is enough to show that  $I$  contains some elementary matrix.

We get this as  $I$  is nonzero, so there is some  $0 \neq M \in I$  with some nonzero entry  $M_{jk} \neq 0$ , and then

$$E_{jk} = \frac{1}{M_{jk}} E_{jj} M E_{kk} \in I.$$

**Example.** If  $\phi : A \rightarrow B$  is an algebra morphism then its *kernel* is the set

$$\ker(\phi) = \{a \in A : \phi(a) = 0\}$$

The kernel is always a subspace, and if  $a \in \ker(\phi)$  and  $x, y \in A$  then

$$\phi(xa) = \phi(x)\phi(a) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(ay) = \phi(a)\phi(y) = 0$$

so  $xa \in \ker(\phi)$  and  $ay \in \ker(\phi)$ . Thus shows that  $\ker(\phi)$  is a two-sided ideal.

**Example.** If  $S \subseteq A$ , then we define  $\langle S \rangle$  to be the intersection of all two-sided ideals in  $A$  containing  $S$ .

We call this the *two-sided ideal generated by  $S$* . One can show that each element of  $\langle S \rangle$  has the form

$$a_1 s_1 b_1 + a_2 s_2 b_2 + \cdots + a_n s_n b_n$$

for some  $n \geq 0$  and some choice of  $a_i, b_i \in A$  and  $s_i \in S$ .

**Definition.** A *maximal* left/right/two-sided ideal  $I \subsetneq A$  is an ideal properly contained in exactly one other left/right/two-sided ideal (namely  $A$  itself).

One can use *Zorn's lemma* to show that every ideal is contained in a maximal ideal.

(Zorn's lemma is only needed if  $A$  is infinite-dimensional.)

**Definition.** Assume  $I$  is two-sided ideal in an algebra  $A$  with  $I \neq A$ . Then the quotient vector space

$$A/I = \{a + I : a \in A\}$$

where  $a + I \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a + i : i \in I\}$  is an algebra with unit  $1 + I$  for the multiplication defined by

$$(a + I)(b + I) = ab + I \quad \text{for } a, b \in A.$$

There is something to check to make sure that the above multiplication is well-defined.

This is a standard exercise. The linear map  $\pi : A \rightarrow A/I$  with  $\pi(a) = a + I$  is an algebra morphism.

**Definition.** Suppose  $(\rho_V, V)$  is a representation of  $A$  and  $W \subseteq V$  is a subrepresentation.

Define  $\rho_{V/W} : A \rightarrow \text{End}(V/W)$  by the formula

$$\rho_{V/W}(a)(x + W) = \rho_V(a)(x) + W \quad \text{for } a \in A \text{ and } x \in V.$$

Then  $(\rho_{V/W}, V/W)$  is a representation of  $A$ , called the *quotient representation*.

If  $I \subseteq A$  is a left ideal, then  $A/I$  is a representation of  $A$  via this construction.

Equivalently,  $A/I$  is a left  $A$ -module for the action  $a \cdot (b + I) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} ab + I$  for  $a, b \in A$ .

## 5 Generators and relations

Recall that  $\mathbb{K}\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle$  is the *free algebra* of polynomials in noncommuting variables.

If  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m \in \mathbb{K}\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle$  then we can consider the quotient algebra

$$\mathbb{K}\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle / \langle f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m \rangle$$

where  $\langle f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m \rangle$  is the two-sided ideal generated by  $\{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m\}$ . We often write this as

$$\mathbb{K}\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \mid f_1 = f_2 = \dots = f_m = 0 \rangle.$$

The elements of this quotient are polynomials where we can replace expressions equal to  $f_i$  by zero.

**Remark.** Technically, if  $I = \langle f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m \rangle$  then elements of  $\mathbb{K}\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle / I$  are cosets  $f + I$ .

Usually we write things by dropping the “ $+I$ ” part.

When we do this it will be clear from context whether  $f$  belongs to  $\mathbb{K}\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle$  or the quotient.

**Example.** The *Weyl algebra* is the quotient algebra

$$\mathbb{K}\langle x, y \mid yx - xy - 1 = 0 \rangle = \mathbb{K}\langle x, y \mid yx - xy = 1 \rangle.$$

In the Weyl algebra, we have  $yx = xy + 1$  and  $xyx = x(xy + 1) = x^2y + x = (yx - 1)x = yx^2 - x$ .

**Example.** The *q-Weyl algebra* for a fixed nonzero element  $q \in \mathbb{K}$  is

$$\mathbb{K}\langle x, x^{-1}, y, y^{-1} \mid yx = qxy \text{ and } xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x = yy^{-1} = y^{-1}y = 1 \rangle.$$

The second set of relations ensures that  $x, x^{-1}$  and  $y, y^{-1}$  are inverses of each other.