

M^CKAY GRAPHS

by

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Abstract

In 1980, John McKay described McKay graphs and alluded to interesting results that could be obtained through the study of representations of finite groups [McKa]. In this thesis, I characterize McKay graphs of degree 1 and present the research done by various people which allows us to understand McKay graphs of degree 2. I also discuss that if you view a McKay graph as an adjacency matrix, many interesting results can be witnessed. We also use the work performed by [YaYu] to help us catalogue the McKay graphs of degree 3.

Introduction

The aim of this work is to study representations of finite groups in order to gain an understanding of McKay graphs. The thesis begins by giving background information that is crucial for the understanding of the research performed. Relevant information is then provided on representations of finite groups, $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules, and characters of finite groups.

McKay graphs are then defined and numerous examples are given from various groups. Through the use of these examples, McKay graphs of degree 1 are discussed in detail and we obtain a classification of these. After researching various papers, we gain an understanding of McKay graphs of degree 2. From McKay [McKa], it is realized that McKay graphs of a group $G \subset \mathrm{SL}(G, \mathbb{C})$ are one of the extended Dynkin diagrams $\widetilde{A}_n, \widetilde{D}_n, \widetilde{E}_6, \widetilde{E}_7$, or \widetilde{E}_8 . We then give a generalization of McKay's work by Auslander and Reiten [AuRe] to get a description of McKay graphs of a group $G \subset \mathrm{GL}(G, \mathbb{C})$. It is shown that we can interpret a McKay graph as an adjacency matrix and immediate benefits of this are observed. We show that more complicated McKay graphs can be expressed by using operations on simpler McKay graphs. We also discover that if we compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the adjacency matrix of a McKay graph, one of the eigenvectors corresponds to the dimensions of the irreducible representations and the eigenvalue corresponds to the degree of the McKay graph.

We then look at a classification of the finite subgroups of $\mathrm{SL}(3, \mathbb{C})$ given by Yau and Yu [YaYu]. All these subgroups are given in this thesis and the McKay graphs for these subgroups are described.

It is then proven that if a McKay graph is of a faithful representation, it is strongly connected.

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Chapter 1

Representations and Characters of Finite Groups

This chapter provides background information that is essential for the understanding of McKay graphs and the research that was performed. It is assumed that the reader is familiar with linear algebra and group theory; however, when such concepts arise, the definitions are often stated for the sake of clarity. I begin by defining a representation of a finite group and giving some examples and important results. $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules are then described and it is shown that there is a close relationship between $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules and representations. Some details about $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules are presented such as irreducibility, Maschke's theorem, and Schur's lemma. I then discuss conjugacy classes as they play an important role in the development of later material. Characters are then analyzed and it is shown that characters are closely linked to representations and $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules. The strength of characters is that they often help describe things about representations and $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules and their arithmetic is significantly easier. Examples of characters and operations on characters are examined, such as the inner product of characters. We then finish off the chapter by describing character tables and detailing how they present information about the characters in a clear way by taking away redundancy.

The material covered in this chapter was paraphrased from James and Liebeck [JaLi]. If the reader needs further examples or more details, they are encouraged to use this text.

1.1 Representations of Finite Groups

Definition 1.1.1:

Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{C} . A representation of a group G is a homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V, \mathbb{C})$. We say that $\deg(\rho) = \dim(V)$ [JaLi].

$\text{GL}(V, \mathbb{C})$ is the general linear group and if $\dim(V) = n$, then $\text{GL}(V, \mathbb{C})$ is the set of $n \times n$ invertible matrices with ordinary matrix multiplication. Throughout this paper, we will sometimes write $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ where $n = \dim(V)$.

ρ is a homomorphism so we have the following:

1. $\rho(xy) = \rho(x)\rho(y)$ for all $x, y \in G$.
2. $\rho(1) = I_n$ where 1 is the identity element of G .
3. $\rho(g^{-1}) = (\rho(g))^{-1}$ where $g \in G$.

Let's look at a few examples of representations.

Example 1.1.2:

Let the trivial representation $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(1, \mathbb{C})$ be defined by $\rho(g) = 1$, for all $g \in G$.

Example 1.1.3:

If $G = S_n$, the symmetric group on n variables, then let $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(1, \mathbb{C})$ be defined by

$$\rho(g) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if even permutation} \\ -1 & \text{if odd permutation} \end{cases}$$

This is called the alternating representation.

Example 1.1.4:

We can also find matrix representations.

Consider $G = D_8 = \langle a, b \mid a^4 = b^2 = 1, b^{-1}ab = a^{-1} \rangle$.

Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

now,

$\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is given by $\rho: a^i b^j \rightarrow A^i B^j$, ($0 \leq i \leq 3, 0 \leq j \leq 1$).

Notice that $\deg(\rho) = 2$.

Definition 1.1.5:

Let $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ and $\sigma: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(m, \mathbb{C})$. We say that ρ is equivalent to σ if $n = m$ and there exists an invertible $n \times n$ matrix T such that $\sigma(g) = T^{-1}(\rho(g))T$ [JaLi].

The kernel of a representation consists of the group elements g which $\rho(g)$ sends to the identity matrix. We can thus say that $\ker(\rho) = \{g \in G \mid \rho(g) = I_n\}$.

Definition 1.1.6:

A representation is said to be faithful if $\ker(\rho) = \{1\}$. That is the identity element

of the group is the only element for which $\rho(g) = I_n$ [JaLi].

The trivial representation of *Example 1.1.2* illustrates an unfaithful representation. By definition, it sends every group element to the identity. The matrix representation of *Example 1.1.4* shows a faithful representation.

1.2 $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules

Definition 1.2.1:

Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{C} and let G be a group. Then V is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module if a multiplication vg where $v \in V$, $g \in G$ is defined, which satisfies the following conditions:

1. $vg \in V$
2. $v(gh) = (vg)h$
3. $v * 1 = v$
4. $(\lambda v)g = \lambda(vg)$
5. $(u + v)g = ug + vg$

where $u, v \in V$; $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$; $g, h \in G$ [JaLi].

Definition 1.2.2:

Let V be a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module and let φ be a basis of V . For each $g \in G$, let $[g]_{\varphi}$ denote the matrix of the endomorphism $v \rightarrow vg$ of V , relative to the basis φ [JaLi].

Theorem 1.2.3:

1. $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ is a representation of G over \mathbb{C} and $V = \mathbb{C}^n$. The vector space V becomes a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module if we define $vg = v(\rho(g))$ where $v \in V$, $g \in G$.
2. There is a basis φ of V such that $\rho(g) = [g]_{\varphi}$ for all $g \in G$.

So, $g \rightarrow [g]\varphi$ is a representation of G over \mathbb{C} [JaLi].

Example 1.2.4:

Recall *Example 1.1.4*:

$$\rho(a) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \rho(b) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, V = \mathbb{C}^2$$

Let v_1 and v_2 be the standard basis vectors for \mathbb{C}^2 .

So, $v_1a = v_2, v_2a = -v_1, v_1b = v_1, v_2b = -v_2$

Since v_1 and v_2 form a basis φ over \mathbb{C} , $g \rightarrow [g]\varphi$ is the representation ρ .

Example 1.2.5:

The trivial $\mathbb{C}G$ -module is a 1-dimensional vector space V over \mathbb{C} where $vg = v$, for all $v \in V, g \in G$.

A $\mathbb{C}G$ -module V is faithful if the identity element of G is the only element of g for which $vg = v$, for all $v \in V$.

Theorem 1.2.6:

If V is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module with bases φ, φ' and $\rho(g) = [g]\varphi$ and $\sigma(g) = [g]\varphi'$, then ρ is equivalent to σ [JaLi].

Definition 1.2.7:

A subset W of a vector space V is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -submodule of V if W is a subspace of V and $wg \in W$, for all $w \in W$, $g \in G$ [JaLi].

Definition 1.2.8:

A $\mathbb{C}G$ -module V is called irreducible if it is non-zero and it has no $\mathbb{C}G$ -submodules apart from $\{0\}$ and V . If V has a $\mathbb{C}G$ -submodule that is not $\{0\}$ or V , then V is called reducible [JaLi].

We can say that $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is irreducible if the $\mathbb{C}G$ -module, $v\rho = v(\rho(g))$, is irreducible. If the $\mathbb{C}G$ -module is reducible, then ρ is called reducible.

Example 1.2.9:

If $\deg(\rho) = 1$, then ρ is irreducible since the only subrepresentations are $\{0\}$ and V . So, we have seen two representations that have $\deg(\rho) = 1$, namely the trivial and alternating representations (*Examples 1.1.2, 1.1.3*). It follows that these representations are irreducible.

Example 1.2.10:

Let G be a finite group. The vector space $\mathbb{C}G$, with natural multiplication vg where $v \in \mathbb{C}G$, $g \in G$, is called the regular $\mathbb{C}G$ -module. Notice how the group acts on the

vector space $\mathbb{C}G$. The representation $\rho : g \rightarrow [g]_{\wp}$ obtained by taking \wp to be the natural basis of $\mathbb{C}G$ is called the regular representation of G over \mathbb{C} . The regular representation of G is reducible.

Maschke's Theorem 1.2.11:

Let G be a finite group and let V be a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module. If U is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -submodule of V , there is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -submodule W such that $V = U \oplus W$ [JaLi].

The consequence of Maschke's theorem that is of particular interest for our cause is that every non-zero $\mathbb{C}G$ -module is completely reducible; that is, $V = U_0 \oplus U_1 \oplus \dots \oplus U_r$ where each U_i is an irreducible $\mathbb{C}G$ -module of V .

Definition 1.2.12:

$\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}G}(V, W)$ is the set of all $\mathbb{C}G$ -homomorphisms from V to W [JaLi].

Schur's Lemma 1.2.13:

Let V and W be irreducible $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules.

1. If $\phi : V \rightarrow W$ is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -homomorphism, then either ϕ is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -isomorphism or $\phi(v) = 0$ for all $v \in V$.
2. If $\phi : V \rightarrow V$ is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -isomorphism, then ϕ is a scalar multiple of the identity 1_V [JaLi].

We then have an immediate consequence of Schur's lemma. If V, W are irreducible $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules, then

$$\dim(\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}G}(V, W)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } V \cong W \\ 0 & \text{if } V \not\cong W \end{cases}$$

1.3 Conjugacy Classes

Definition 1.3.1:

Let $x, y \in G$. If $y = g^{-1}xg$ for some $g \in G$, then we say that x is conjugate to y in G [JaLi].

We can denote the set of all elements conjugate to x in G by $x^G = \{g^{-1}xg \mid g \in G\}$. This set is called a conjugacy class.

If we take two group elements then either the conjugacy classes of both elements are equal or they share no elements in common. This means that every group is a union of conjugacy classes where distinct conjugacy classes are disjoint.

That is, $G = x_1^G \cup \dots \cup x_r^G$, where x_1^G, \dots, x_r^G are the conjugacy classes and x_1, \dots, x_r are called class representatives.

Example 1.3.2:

$$D_8 = \{1, a, a^2, a^3, b, ab, a^2b, a^3b\}.$$

The conjugacy classes for D_8 are: $1^G = \{1\}$, $a^G = \{a, a^3\}$, $(a^2)^G = \{a^2\}$, $b^G = \{b, a^2b\}$, and $ab^G = \{ab, a^3b\}$.

In this example 1 , a , a^2 , b , and ab are the class representatives for the conjugacy classes.

1.4 Characters

The trace of an $n \times n$ matrix A is given by $tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$.

Definition 1.4.1:

Suppose V is a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module with basis \wp . The character $\chi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is given by $\chi(g) = tr[g]\wp$ for all $g \in G$ [JaLi].

But the character of V does not depend on the basis because $[g]\wp' = T^{-1}[g]\wp T$. From this we can see that $tr[g]\wp' = tr[g]\wp$ for all $g \in G$. This tells us that the trace of a matrix is the same regardless of our choice of basis. Using this result, we can define the character of a representation to be $\chi(g) = tr(\rho(g))$.

We say that χ is an irreducible character if it is from an irreducible $\mathbb{C}G$ -module. We can also note at this point that conjugate elements of the group have the same character. That is if x is conjugate to y if $y = g^{-1}xg$ for some $g \in G$, then $\chi(x) = \chi(y)$.

We can now look at a few results about characters:

1. $\chi(1) = \deg(\rho) = \dim(V)$.
2. $\chi(g^{-1}) = \overline{\chi(g)}$.
3. $\chi(g)$ is a real number if g is conjugate to g^{-1} .

4. If g, h are conjugate elements of the group G , then $\chi(g) = \chi(h)$ for all characters χ of G .
5. If χ is a character, then $\bar{\chi}$ is also a character.
6. If χ is an irreducible character, then $\bar{\chi}$ is also an irreducible character [JaLi].

Theorem 1.4.2:

Let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ be a representation of G and let χ be the character of ρ . Then we have the following statements:

1. For $g \in G$
 $|\chi(g)| = \chi(1)$ if and only if $\rho(g) = \lambda I_n$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
2. $\ker(\rho) = \{g \in G \mid \chi(g) = \chi(1)\}$ [JaLi].

Proposition 1.4.3:

Let ρ and ψ be representations of G . Then $\chi_{\rho \otimes \psi} = \chi_{\rho} \chi_{\psi}$ and $\chi_{\rho \oplus \psi} = \chi_{\rho} + \chi_{\psi}$ [JaLi].

The proposition above tells us that if we are trying to multiply or add representations, we must use the tensor product or direct sum since we are either multiplying or adding vector spaces. If we are trying to multiply or add characters though, we can use regular multiplication or addition to accomplish this feat. We can now define

another operation on characters, the inner product or pairing of characters.

Definition 1.4.4:

Let χ and ψ be characters of G . The inner product of χ and ψ is given by

$$\langle \chi, \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g) \overline{\psi(g)}$$

The inner product also satisfies some conditions:

1. $\langle \chi, \psi \rangle = \overline{\langle \psi, \chi \rangle}$
2. $\langle \lambda_1 \chi + \lambda_2 \psi, \phi \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle \chi, \phi \rangle + \lambda_2 \langle \psi, \phi \rangle$
3. $\langle \chi, \chi \rangle > 0$ iff $\chi \neq 0$.

The following theorem illustrates how any character can be composed by adding other irreducible characters together.

Theorem 1.4.5:

Let χ_1, \dots, χ_r be the irreducible characters of G . If ψ is any character of G , then $\psi = d_1 \chi_1 + \dots + d_r \chi_r$ where the integers $d_i = \langle \psi, \chi_i \rangle$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$ [JaLi].

Theorem 1.4.6:

Let V be a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module with character χ . Then V is irreducible if and only if $\langle \chi, \chi \rangle = 1$ [JaLi].

Theorem 1.4.7:

Suppose that V and W are $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules with characters χ and ψ respectively. Then $V \cong W$ if and only if $\chi = \psi$ [JaLi].

Theorem 1.4.8:

Let V and W be $\mathbb{C}G$ -modules with characters χ and ψ respectively. Then $\dim(\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}G}(V, W)) = \langle \chi, \psi \rangle$ [JaLi].

We are now in a position to comment on the number of irreducible characters of a group G . The number of irreducible characters of G is equal to the number of conjugacy classes of G .

Definition 1.4.9:

Suppose χ_1, \dots, χ_r are all the irreducible characters of G . The regular character $\chi_{reg} = d_1\chi_1 + \dots + d_r\chi_r$ where χ_i is the irreducible $\mathbb{C}G$ -module V_i and $d_i = \chi_i(1)$. Notice that $\chi_{reg}(1) = |G|$ and that χ_{reg} is a reducible character [JaLi].

1.5 Character Tables

Character tables allow us to gather all of the information about characters of a group in a clear, concise format that eliminates a lot of redundancy by utilizing the conjugacy classes. The columns of the table correspond to the r conjugacy classes of G . The rows describe the characters of the distinct irreducible representations χ_1, \dots, χ_r of G . It is known that the number of irreducible characters of G is equal to the number of conjugacy classes of G , so we can be guaranteed that the table is a $r \times r$ square table. By convention, the first representation listed in the character table is the trivial representation and the first column always corresponds to the conjugacy class 1^G . We also say that the first column of the character table contains the degrees of the irreducible representations.

Definition 1.5.1:

Let χ_1, \dots, χ_r be the irreducible characters of G and let g_1, \dots, g_r be the class representatives of the conjugacy classes of G . The $r \times r$ matrix whose ij^{th} entry is $\chi_i(g_j)$ is called the character table of G [JaLi].

Example 1.5.2:

The complete character table for D_8 is given below:

g	1	a^2	a	b	ab
χ_1	1	1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	1	1	-1	-1
χ_3	1	1	-1	1	-1
χ_4	1	1	-1	-1	1
χ_5	2	-2	0	0	0

Chapter 2

M^cKay Graphs

This chapter describes what is already known about M^cKay graphs and the research that I did while working towards a Master's degree. In the first section, M^cKay graphs are defined. Numerous M^cKay graphs are then presented from a variety of groups. In the second section, the M^cKay graphs of degree 1 are characterized. The third section discusses results from three papers by M^cKay [McKa], Auslander and Reiten [AuRe], and Reiten and Van den Bergh [ReVB]. These three papers allow us to understand M^cKay graphs of degree 2. In the following section, we consider the encoding of a M^cKay graph in its adjacency matrix, and use this to notice and prove some interesting properties about these graphs. The next section comments on the classification of finite subgroups of $SL(3, \mathbb{C})$ that was studied in Yau and Yu [YaYu]. Their findings are presented in this thesis and are used to help catalogue the M^cKay graphs of degree 3. The chapter then concludes by discussing some conditions that affect the shape of a M^cKay graph.

2.1 M^cKay Graphs

We begin this chapter by defining a M^cKay graph.

Definition 2.1.1:

Suppose ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r is the set of non-isomorphic irreducible representations of G . For any representation τ of G over an algebraically closed field k , we denote by $\text{mult}_i(\tau)$ the dimension of $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}G}(\rho_i, \tau)$ as a \mathbb{C} -vector space. The M^cKay graph $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$ is defined to be an oriented graph whose vertices are $\rho_i, (1 \leq i \leq r)$, and there are μ arrows from ρ_i to ρ_j when $\mu = \text{mult}_j(\tau \otimes \rho_i)$ [Yosh].

Recall that $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{C}G}(\rho_i, \tau)$ is the set of homomorphisms from the representation ρ_i to the representation τ . Since we're considering the set of non-isomorphic irreducible representations, the M^cKay graph describes the multiplicity between these representations by connecting the corresponding vertices with edges.

The degree of a M^cKay graph $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$ is, by definition, $\text{deg}(\tau)$. Note that this definition of degree is not the same as the usual notion of degree of a vertex of a graph. It is also seen that a representation τ is chosen when describing $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$ and for the remainder of the thesis we will call this representation our favorite representation.

When drawing M^cKay graphs I will use the following conventions:

- Arrowheads will not be drawn if $\langle \chi_\tau \chi_{\rho_i}, \chi_{\rho_j} \rangle = \langle \chi_\tau \chi_{\rho_j}, \chi_{\rho_i} \rangle$. A line connecting

the two vertices will be drawn.

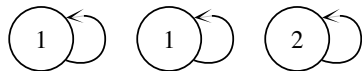
- The degree of the representation will be marked inside the vertex [Noor].

Example 2.1.2:

Consider the character table for D_6 , the dihedral group with 6 elements.

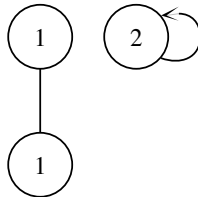
g	1	a	b
χ_1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	1	-1
χ_3	2	-1	0

If our favorite representation is χ_1 , then $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_1)$ is:



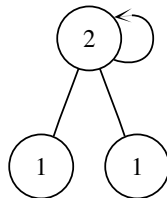
Notice that the degree of $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_1)$ is one.

If our favorite representation is χ_2 , then $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_2)$ is:



This McKay graph is also of degree one.

And finally, if our favorite representation is χ_3 , then $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3)$ is:



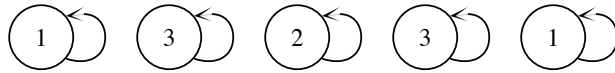
This McKay graph is of degree two.

Example 2.1.3:

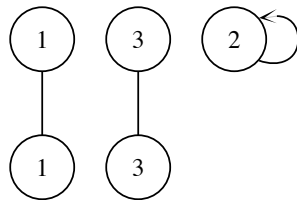
Consider the character table for S_4 , the symmetric group on 4 variables.

g	1	(12)	(123)	(12)(34)	(1234)
χ_1	1	1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	-1	1	1	-1
χ_3	2	0	-1	2	0
χ_4	3	1	0	-1	-1
χ_5	3	-1	0	-1	1

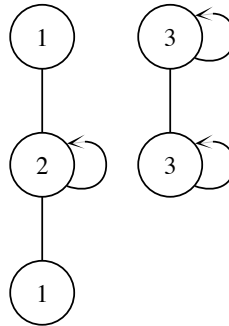
McK(S_4, χ_1):



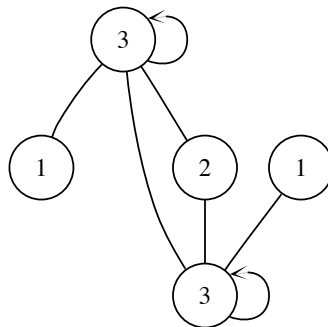
McK(S_4, χ_2):



$\text{McK}(S_4, \chi_3)$:



$\text{McK}(S_4, \chi_4)$ and $\text{McK}(S_4, \chi_5)$ are:



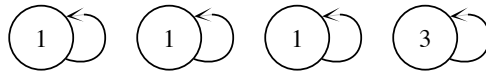
Example 2.1.4:

Consider the character table for A_4 , the alternating group on 4 variables.

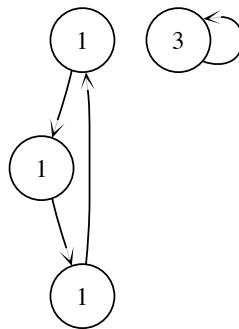
g	1	(12)(34)	(123)	(132)
χ_1	1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	1	ω	ω^2
χ_3	1	1	ω^2	ω
χ_4	3	-1	0	0

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$$

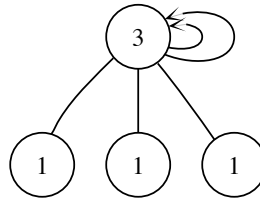
McK(A_4, χ_1):



McK(A_4, χ_2) and McK(A_4, χ_3) are:



McK(A_4, χ_4):



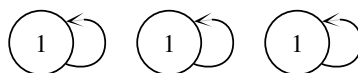
Example 2.1.5:

Consider the character table of C_3 , the cyclic group of order 3.

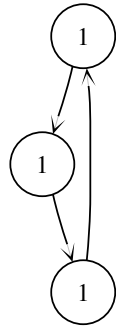
g	1	a	a^2
χ_1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	ω	ω^2
χ_3	1	ω^2	ω

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$$

McK(C_3, χ_1):



$\text{McK}(C_3, \chi_2)$ and $\text{McK}(C_3, \chi_3)$ are:



2.2 M^cKay Graphs of Degree 1

After seeing numerous examples of M^cKay graphs, we are now in a position to comment on the M^cKay graphs of degree 1.

A recurring M^cKay graph that has appeared in all four groups has been the trivial M^cKay graph. The trivial M^cKay graph corresponds to the graphs that just have vertices with self-loops. Since the number of vertices in a M^cKay graph is equal to the number of irreducible representations of G, the trivial $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$ is produced when our favorite representation τ is the trivial representation.

Claim 2.2.1:

For any group G, there is an irreducible representation τ such that $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$ is the trivial graph.

Proof:

For every group a character table can be produced. The trivial representation is always an irreducible representation for a group. If we choose the trivial representation ρ_1 as our favorite representation the result follows since $\text{mult}_j(\rho_1 \otimes \rho_i) = \text{mult}_j(\rho_i) = 1$ (if $i = j$) or 0 (if $i \neq j$). \square

The trivial representation is not necessarily the only representation of degree 1. At this point, it is worthwhile mentioning that representations of degree one are called linear representations.

Theorem 2.2.2:

If τ is a linear representation, then $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$ is a disjoint union of directed cycles where all the vertices in a cycle correspond to representations of the same degree.

Before we can prove this theorem, we need to introduce the following proposition.

Proposition 2.2.3:

Let χ be a character and λ be a linear character. Then the product $\chi\lambda$ is a character of G . Furthermore, if χ is irreducible, then so is $\chi\lambda$ [JaLi].

Proof of Proposition 2.2.3:

Let $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ be a representation with character χ . Define $\rho\lambda: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ by $\rho\lambda(g) = \lambda(g)\rho(g)$ where $g \in G$.

We can see that $\rho\lambda(g)$ is the matrix $\rho(g)$ multiplied by the complex number $\lambda(g)$. Since ρ and λ are homomorphisms, it follows that $\rho\lambda$ is a homomorphism. The matrix $\lambda(g)\rho(g)$ has a trace $\lambda(g)\text{tr}(\rho(g))$, which is $\lambda(g)\chi(g)$. We can now say that $\rho\lambda$ is a representation of G with character $\chi\lambda$.

We know that for all $g \in G$, the complex number $\lambda(g)$ is a root of unity, so $\lambda(g)\overline{\lambda(g)} = 1$.

$$\langle \chi\lambda, \chi\lambda \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g)\lambda(g)\overline{\chi(g)\lambda(g)} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g)\overline{\chi(g)} = \langle \chi, \chi \rangle$$

By *Theorem 1.4.6*, ρ is irreducible iff $\langle \chi, \chi \rangle = 1$. It follows that $\chi\lambda$ is irreducible if χ is irreducible. \square

Proof of Theorem 2.2.2:

Let G be a group, τ be our favorite representation, and ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be the irreducible representations of G . In order to prove this statement, we first have to show that the number of arrows entering and exiting any vertex is one.

Suppose τ is any linear representation. Then $\text{mult}_i(\tau \otimes \rho_j) = \text{mult}_i(\widehat{\rho}_j)$, where $\tau \otimes \rho_j = \widehat{\rho}_j$. Since τ is a linear representation and ρ_j is an irreducible representation of G , *Proposition 2.2.3* tells us that $\widehat{\rho}_j$ is also an irreducible representation of G . It is clear that $\dim(\widehat{\rho}_j) = \dim(\rho_j)$. If ρ_j is an irreducible representation of dimension n , then $\rho_j \otimes \tau$ is another irreducible representation of dimension n . So there is an arrow from ρ_j to $\widehat{\rho}_j$. But only one arrow exits every representation ρ_i because there are only a finite number of irreducible representations for G .

We want to show that there is only one arrow entering every ρ_i . Well, $\text{mult}_j(\tau \otimes \overline{\rho_i}) = \text{mult}_j(\tilde{\rho}_i)$, where $\tau \otimes \overline{\rho_i} = \tilde{\rho}_i$. *Proposition 2.2.3* says that $\tilde{\rho}_i$ is an irreducible representation of G . Taking the tensor product of the conjugate of ρ_i , for all $\rho_i \in \{\rho_1, \dots, \rho_r\}$, reverses the direction of the arrows of the M^cKay graph. Using this M^cKay graph, we can say that every representation ρ_i has only one arrow exiting it. By performing the tensor product by the conjugate again, we retrieve the original M^cKay. Since each representation ρ_i had one arrow exiting it in the "reversed" M^cKay graph, each representation ρ_i will have only one arrow entering it in the original M^cKay graph.

We know that the number of arrows entering and exiting any vertex is one. We also know that if $\dim(\rho_i) = \dim(\rho_j)$, then the two vertices ρ_i and ρ_j are connected by an edge. This happens because τ is a linear representation and it was shown that the tensor product calculation, $\tau \otimes \rho_y$, obtained a representation that had the same dimension as ρ_y . So by [West, 1.4.5], we have that the M^cKay graphs are composed of directed cycles of the same dimension. \square

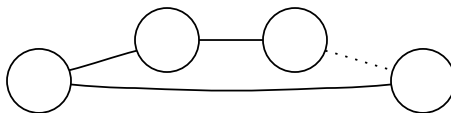
2.3 M^cKay Graphs of Degree 2

Now that we've commented on the M^cKay graphs of degree one, we can discuss what is already known about M^cKay graphs of degree two.

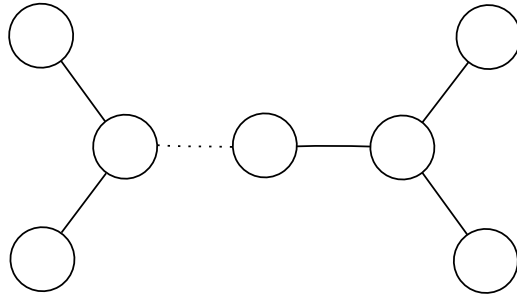
In 1980, John M^cKay wrote a paper [McKa] in which he speculated that through the study of representation theory, the understanding of finite groups would greatly improve. M^cKay thought that this would help with the problem of classifying finite groups and lead to new proofs that would be shorter than their counterparts of the day. M^cKay observed that if a finite group $G \subset \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, then the resulting M^cKay graph is one of the extended Dynkin diagrams $\widetilde{A}_n, \widetilde{D}_n, \widetilde{E}_6, \widetilde{E}_7$, or \widetilde{E}_8 . The reader should note that the special linear group, $\text{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$, is a subgroup of $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ consisting of matrices with determinant 1.

Each extended Dynkin diagram has $n+1$ vertices. The following are the extended Dynkin diagrams listed above [Yosh]:

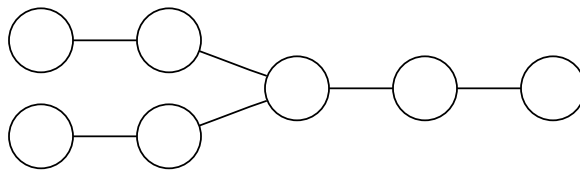
\widetilde{A}_n (cyclic):



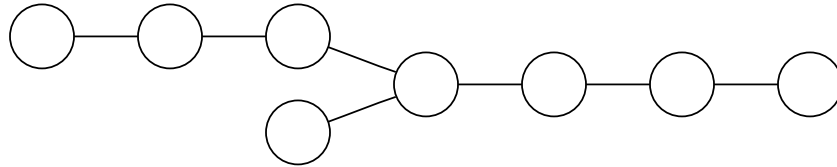
\widetilde{D}_n (binary dihedral):



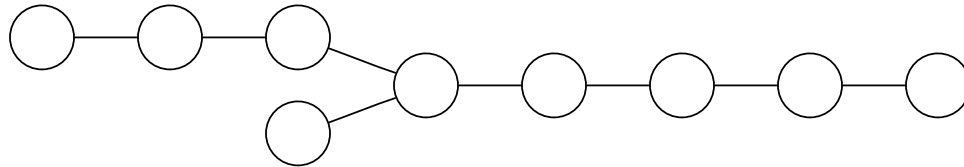
\widetilde{E}_6 (binary tetrahedral):



\widetilde{E}_7 (binary octahedral):



\widetilde{E}_8 (binary icosahedral):



In 1986, Auslander and Reiten [AuRe] extended M^cKay's observations to arbitrary two dimensional representations. Let k be an algebraically closed field, G a finite group, and $\psi: G \rightarrow GL(m, k)$ be our favorite representation. We know that $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$ has vertices ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r which correspond to the irreducible representations of G . These irreducible representations of G have χ_1, \dots, χ_r as characters. The separated M^cKay graph, $\overline{\text{McK}(G, \psi)}$, has vertices $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_r, \rho'_1, \dots, \rho'_r$ and for each arrow from ρ_i to ρ_j in $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$, there is an arrow from ρ_i to ρ'_j in $\overline{\text{McK}(G, \psi)}$.

Definition 2.3.1:

The underlying graph of a directed graph D is the graph obtained by ignoring the orientation of D [West].

Auslander and Reiten obtained the main result of their paper by studying separated McKay graphs and their underlying graphs. Their main result is presented below:

Theorem 2.3.2:

Given $\psi: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(m, k)$ a representations of G and k an algebraically closed field then,

- if $m = 2$, the underlying graph of the separated McKay graph $\overline{\text{McK}(G, \psi)}$ is a finite union of copies of the extended Dynkin diagrams $\widetilde{A}_n, \widetilde{D}_n, \widetilde{E}_6, \widetilde{E}_7$, and \widetilde{E}_8 .
- if $m > 2$, $\overline{\text{McK}(G, \psi)}$ is a disjoint union of graphs which are not Dynkin or extended Dynkin diagrams.

In order to gain a better understanding about McKay graphs of degree 2, one could examine [Coxe]. In this book, Coxeter classifies the finite subgroups of $\text{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ and paves the way for the classification of $\text{McK}(G, \mathbb{C})$, where $G \subset \text{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$.

Another paper which discusses McKay graphs of degree 2 is [ReVB]. The material in their paper is briefly summarized in this thesis. The reader should refer to [ReVB] for a more indepth analysis.

Reiten and Van den Bergh wrote a paper where they classified algebras of tame orders of dimension 2. In this paper, it was proved that if an algebra is a tame order of finite representation type, then the AR quiver of the algebra must be of the form $\mathbb{Z}\Delta/G$. In this form, Δ is the extended Dynkin diagram $\widetilde{D}_n, \widetilde{E}_6, \widetilde{E}_7, \widetilde{E}_8$, or A_∞ and G is an automorphism group of the translation quiver. It is also said that these translation

quivers are equivariant AR quivers. It is described in [Yosh] that if $G \subset GL(2, \mathbb{C})$, then these equivariant translation quivers are the McKay graphs of degree 2.

2.4 M^cKay Graphs as Adjacency Matrices

Up to this point we've seen many M^cKay graphs and observed properties related to the degree of the M^cKay graph. Now we can examine what happens to the M^cKay graphs when certain operations are performed.

Definition 2.4.1:

Let G be a group, ψ be our favorite representation, and ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be the irreducible representations with characters χ_1, \dots, χ_r . The $r \times r$ adjacency matrix of a directed graph is a matrix with rows and columns labeled by graph vertices. The i, j^{th} entry of the matrix will contain the number of edges from ρ_i to ρ_j and this is computed using $a_{ij} = \langle \psi\chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$ [West].

Throughout this thesis, we will denote the adjacency matrix of $\text{McK}(G, \chi)$ by $\text{Adj}(G, \chi)$. It should be noted that every directed graph can be represented as an adjacency matrix. From the above definition, we see that entries in the adjacency matrix are the multiplicities between the representations of the M^cKay graph.

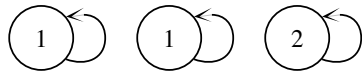
Example 2.4.2:

Let ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be all the irreducible representations of a group G . We have already seen that a trivial M^cKay graph exists for each group G . Thus, the M^cKay graph consists of r vertices, each vertex having only a self-loop. We then produce a $r \times r$ adjacency matrix with ones down the diagonal.

Another interesting observation about adjacency matrices is that if there are no self-loops in the graph, then the adjacency matrix will contain zeros on the diagonal.

Example 2.4.3:

Recall $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_1)$:



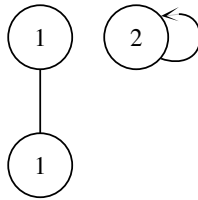
so,

$$\text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice that the trivial McKay graph corresponds to the identity matrix.

Example 2.4.4:

Recall $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_2)$:

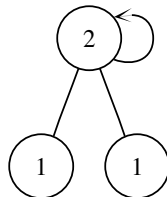


so,

$$\text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 2.4.5:

Recall $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3)$:

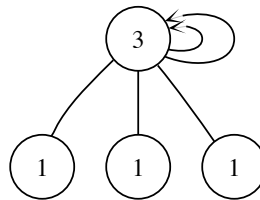


so,

$$\text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 2.4.6:

Recall $\text{McK}(A_4, \chi_4)$:

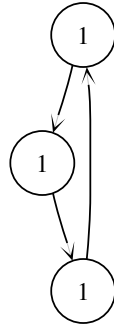


so,

$$\text{Adj}(A_4, \chi_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 2.4.7:

Recall $\text{McK}(C_3, \chi_2)$:



so,

$$\text{Adj}(C_3, \chi_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice that there are no self-loops in $\text{McK}(C_3, \chi_2)$ and there are zeros on the diagonal of $\text{Adj}(C_3, \chi_2)$.

Theorem 2.4.8:

Let G be a group, ψ and ϕ be characters (not necessarily irreducible) of G , and χ_1, \dots, χ_r be the irreducible characters of G . Given two McKay graphs, $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$ and $\text{McK}(G, \phi)$, then $\text{McK}(G, \psi + \phi)$ has adjacency matrix $\text{Adj}(G, \psi) + \text{Adj}(G, \phi)$.

Proof:

We know that every M^cKay graph can be represented as an adjacency matrix. So for $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$ and $\text{McK}(G, \phi)$ we have $\text{Adj}(G, \psi)$ and $\text{Adj}(G, \phi)$ respectively.

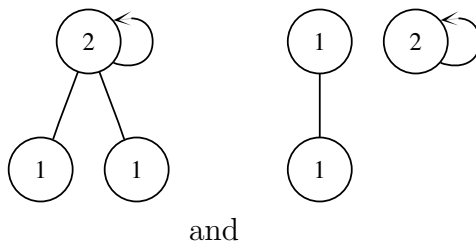
We know that the addition of matrices is done by adding the components of each matrix. If we wanted to calculate the ij^{th} component of $\text{Adj}(G, \psi)$, it would be done by $\langle \psi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$. Similarly, the ij^{th} component of $\text{Adj}(G, \phi)$ would be found by $\langle \phi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$.

So, $\langle \psi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle + \langle \phi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = \langle \psi \chi_i + \phi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = \langle (\psi + \phi) \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$ computes the ij^{th} entry of $\text{Adj}(G, \psi + \phi)$.

Our result follows since we know that $\text{Adj}(G, \psi + \phi)$ is the adjacency matrix for $\text{McK}(G, \psi + \phi)$. \square

Example 2.4.9:

Recall $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3)$ and $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_2)$:

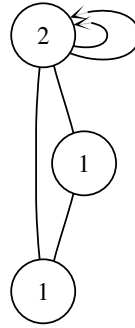


We saw in *Examples 2.4.4* and *2.4.5* that these M^cKay graphs have the following adjacency matrices.

$$\text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{thus, } \text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3) + \text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

so, $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3 + \chi_2)$ is



Theorem 2.4.10:

Let G be a group, ψ and ϕ be characters (not necessarily irreducible) of G , and χ_1, \dots, χ_r be the irreducible characters of G . Given two McKay graphs, $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$ and $\text{McK}(G, \phi)$, then $\text{McK}(G, \psi\phi)$ has adjacency matrix $\text{Adj}(G, \psi) \times \text{Adj}(G, \phi)$.

In order to prove the theorem, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 2.4.11:

Let G be a group, ψ and ϕ be two characters of G , and $\chi_1 \dots \chi_r$ be the irreducible characters of G . Then $\langle \psi, \phi \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^r \langle \psi, \chi_k \rangle \langle \chi_k, \phi \rangle$.

Proof of Theorem 2.4.10:

Let $\text{Adj}(G, \psi)$ and $\text{Adj}(G, \phi)$ be the adjacency matrices for $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$ and $\text{McK}(G, \phi)$ respectively.

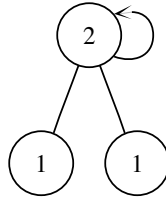
We know that computing the ij^{th} entry of $\text{Adj}(G, \psi) \times \text{Adj}(G, \phi)$ is done by performing a dot product on the i^{th} row of $\text{Adj}(G, \psi)$ and the j^{th} column of $\text{Adj}(G, \phi)$.

By using *Lemma 2.4.11*, $\sum_{k=1}^r \langle \psi \chi_i, \chi_k \rangle \langle \phi \chi_k, \chi_j \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^r \langle \psi \chi_i, \chi_k \rangle \langle \chi_k, \bar{\phi} \chi_j \rangle = \langle \psi \chi_i, \bar{\phi} \chi_j \rangle = \langle \phi \psi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = \langle \psi \phi \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$ computes the ij^{th} entry of $\text{Adj}(G, \psi \phi)$.

Our result follows since we know that $\text{Adj}(G, \psi \phi)$ is the adjacency matrix for $\text{McK}(G, \psi \phi)$.
 \square .

Example 2.4.12:

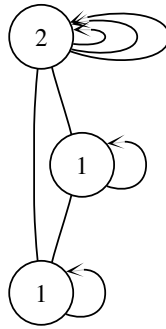
Recall $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3)$:



$$\text{and } \text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3) \times \text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

so, $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3\chi_3)$ is:



These last two results tell us how we can construct new McK graphs from existing McK graphs. It also gives us a way to deconstruct more complicated McK graphs into operations involving simpler McK graphs.

Theorem 2.4.13:

Let G be a group, ψ be an irreducible representation with character τ and let ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be the irreducible representations of G with characters χ_1, \dots, χ_r . Let $\text{Adj}(G, \tau)$ be the $r \times r$ adjacency matrix of $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$. If we compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the adjacency matrix, we will find that one of the eigenvectors consists of the dimensions of the irreducible representations and the corresponding eigenvalue is $\tau(1)$

[McKa].

Proof:

We want to show that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & \cdots & a_{rr} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(1) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(1) \end{pmatrix} = \tau(1) \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(1) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(1) \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's take a look at the LHS of the equation,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & \cdots & a_{rr} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(1) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^r a_{1j} \chi_j(1) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^r a_{rj} \chi_j(1) \end{pmatrix}$$

We know that $a_{ij} = \langle \tau\chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = \text{mult}_j(\tau\chi_i)$. We also know that $\chi_j(1) = \text{dim}(V_j)$.

So,

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^r \text{mult}_j(\tau\chi_1)\text{dim}(\rho_j) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^r \text{mult}_j(\tau\chi_r)\text{dim}(\rho_j) \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's take a look at the RHS of the equation,

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1) \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(1) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(1) \end{pmatrix} &= \text{dim}(\psi) \begin{pmatrix} \text{dim}(\rho_1) \\ \vdots \\ \text{dim}(\rho_r) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{dim}(\psi \otimes \rho_1) \\ \vdots \\ \text{dim}(\psi \otimes \rho_r) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \text{dim}(\rho_1^{\text{mult}_1(\psi \otimes \rho_1)} \oplus \dots \oplus \rho_r^{\text{mult}_r(\psi \otimes \rho_1)}) \\ \vdots \\ \text{dim}(\rho_1^{\text{mult}_1(\psi \otimes \rho_r)} \oplus \dots \oplus \rho_r^{\text{mult}_r(\psi \otimes \rho_r)}) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^r \text{mult}_j(\tau\chi_1)\text{dim}(\rho_j) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^r \text{mult}_j(\tau\chi_r)\text{dim}(\rho_j) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore LHS = RHS$

□

Definition 2.4.14:

Let v be a vertex of a directed graph. The indegree of v is the number of edges entering v [West].

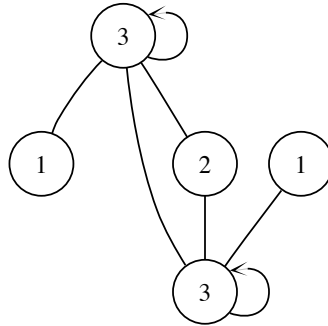
A consequence *Theorem 2.4.13* is stated in the corollary below.

Corollary 2.4.15:

Let G be a group, ψ be an irreducible representation with character τ and let ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be the irreducible representations of G with characters χ_1, \dots, χ_r . We have that the indegree of vertex ρ_j is equal to the product of the degree of character ρ_j and the degree of $M^cK(G, \psi)$. This can also be described as $\sum_{i=1}^r \text{mult}_j(\tau\chi_i) = \text{deg}(\rho_j) \times \text{deg}(\psi)$.

Example 2.4.16:

Consider $\text{McK}(S_4, \chi_4)$:



The first thing to observe is that the degree of this McKay graph is 3. Each vertex representing a 1-dimensional irreducible representation is connected to a 3-dimensional vertex, so they have an indegree of 3.

The 2-dimensional vertex has both 3-dimensional vertices connected to it, so there is an indegree of 6 at this vertex and 6 is a multiple of 3.

Both 3-dimensional vertices have the same connections. There is a self-loop, an edge from the other 3-dimensional vertex, an edge from a 2-dimensional vertex, and an edge from a 1-dimensional vertex. There is an indegree of 9 at this vertex and 9 is a multiple of 3.

Theorem 2.4.17:

Let G be a group, ψ be an irreducible representation with character τ and let ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be the irreducible representations of G with characters χ_1, \dots, χ_r . Let $\text{Adj}(G, \tau)$ be the $r \times r$ adjacency matrix of $\text{McK}(G, \tau)$. If we compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors

of the adjacency matrix, we will find that the columns of the character table of G are eigenvectors and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\tau(g)$.

Proof:

We want to show that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & \cdots & a_{rr} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(g) \end{pmatrix} = \tau(g) \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(g) \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's take a look at the LHS of the equation,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & \cdots & a_{rr} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(g) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^r a_{1j} \chi_j(g) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^r a_{rj} \chi_j(g) \end{pmatrix}$$

We know that $a_{ij} = \langle \tau \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$.

So,

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^r \langle \tau \chi_1, \chi_j \rangle \chi_j(g) \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^r \langle \tau \chi_r, \chi_j \rangle \chi_j(g) \end{pmatrix}$$

But if we have any character τ and irreducible characters χ_1, \dots, χ_r , it can be expressed as $\tau = \sum_{i=1}^r \langle \tau, \chi_i \rangle \chi_i$ (*Theorem 1.4.5*).

So,

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \tau(g) \chi_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \tau(g) \chi_r(g) \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's take a look at the RHS of the equation,

$$\tau(g) \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \chi_r(g) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tau(g) \chi_1(g) \\ \vdots \\ \tau(g) \chi_r(g) \end{pmatrix}$$

$\therefore LHS = RHS$

□

I also worked on trying to develop an algorithm that would calculate the columns of the character table if we are given the McKay graph. I was only able to describe an algorithm that partially achieved this result. The following two examples describe the procedure and outline its shortcomings.

Example 2.4.18:

Recall $\text{Adj}(D_6, \chi_3)$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of this matrix are $\lambda_1 = -1$, $\lambda_2 = 0$, $\lambda_3 = 2$ and the eigenvectors are $v_{\lambda_1} = [-1, -1, 1]^T$, $v_{\lambda_2} = [-1, 1, 0]^T$, and $v_{\lambda_3} = [1/2, 1/2, 1]^T$. Up to scaling and reordering, these eigenvectors correspond to the columns of the character table of D_6 .

g	1	a	b
χ_1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	1	-1
χ_3	2	-1	0

By observing the character table for D_6 above, we can see that if we scale v_{λ_1} by -1 and v_{λ_3} by 2 and then put the eigenvectors in a matrix, we obtain the irreducible characters of D_6 .

Through experimentation, it was noticed that the irreducible characters of a group could be retrieved from a McKay graph if the eigenvalues were distinct. The next example demonstrates the algorithm's inability to cope with repeated eigenvalues.

Example 2.4.19:

Recall $\text{Adj}(A_4, \chi_4)$;

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of this matrix are $\lambda_1 = -1$, $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0$, and $\lambda_4 = 3$ and the eigenvectors are $v_{\lambda_1} = [-1, -1, -1, 1]^T$, $v_{\lambda_2} = v_{\lambda_3} = [-1, 0, 1, 0]^T$, and $v_{\lambda_4} = [1/3, 1/3, 1/3, 1]^T$. Up to scaling and reordering, the eigenvectors only reveal certain columns of the character table of A_4 .

g	1	(12)(34)	(123)	(132)
χ_1	1	1	1	1
χ_2	1	1	ω	ω^2
χ_3	1	1	ω^2	ω
χ_4	3	-1	0	0

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$$

By observing the character table for A_4 above, it can be seen that if we scale v_{λ_1} by -1 and v_{λ_4} by 3, we obtain (up to reordering) the column vectors of the character table corresponding to the conjugacy classes 1 and (12)(34). However, no scaling can be done to gain the column vectors associated with the conjugacy classes (123) and (132). The repeated eigenvectors do not help in calculating the column vectors of the character table.

2.5 M^cKay Graphs of Degree 3

Yau and Yu [YaYu] wrote a paper that classified the finite subgroups of $SL(3, \mathbb{C})$. They obtained twelve types of finite subgroups of $SL(3, \mathbb{C})$ which are listed below **(A)**-**(L)**. It should be noted that the naming conventions presented here for the types of finite subgroups of $SL(3, \mathbb{C})$ and the matrices that generate these subgroups are consistent with their paper.

(A) Diagonal abelian groups. Each element is of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \gamma \end{pmatrix}, \alpha\beta\gamma = 1.$$

(B) Groups isomorphic to transitive linear groups of $GL(2, \mathbb{C})$. The elements of this group have the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & b \\ 0 & c & d \end{pmatrix}, \alpha(ad - bc) = 1.$$

(C) Groups generated by **(A)** and **T** given by

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & b \\ 0 & c & d \end{pmatrix}, \text{ for } P^{-1}QP = T,$$

$$\text{where } Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b \\ c & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, P = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{bc^2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & bc & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$$

(D) Groups generated by (A), T of (C) and

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b \\ 0 & c & 0 \end{pmatrix}, abc = -1.$$

(E) Group of order 108 generated by T of (C), S, and V given by

$$S^n = \begin{pmatrix} \omega & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \omega & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \omega \end{pmatrix}, n = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } \omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$$

$$\text{, and } V = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega \end{pmatrix}$$

(F) Group of order 216 generated by S, V of (E), T of (C), and UVU^{-1} given by

$$UVU^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \omega^2 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega \\ \omega & 1 & \omega \end{pmatrix}, \omega = e^{2\pi i/3}.$$

(G) Group of order 648 generated by S, V of (E), T of (C), and U given by

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \delta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \delta\omega \end{pmatrix}, \omega = e^{2\pi i/3} \text{ and } \delta^3 = \omega^2.$$

(H) Group of order 60 is isomorphic to to the alternating group A_5 . It is generated by

$$(12345) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \epsilon^4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \epsilon \end{pmatrix}, (14)(23) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$(12)(34) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & s & t \\ 2 & t & s \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\epsilon = e^{2\pi i/5}$, $s = \epsilon^2 + \epsilon^3 = \frac{1}{2}(-1 - \sqrt{5})$, $t = \epsilon + \epsilon^4 = \frac{1}{2}(-1 + \sqrt{5})$.

(**I**) Group of order 168 is isomorphic to the permutation group generated by (1234567), (142)(356), and (12)(35). It is generated by

$$(1234567) = \begin{pmatrix} \beta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \beta^4 \end{pmatrix}, (142)(356) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$(12)(35) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-7}} \begin{pmatrix} \beta^3 - \beta^4 & \beta^5 - \beta^2 & \beta^6 - \beta \\ \beta^5 - \beta^2 & \beta^6 - \beta & \beta^3 - \beta^4 \\ \beta^6 - \beta & \beta^3 - \beta^4 & \beta^5 - \beta^2 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\beta = e^{2\pi i/7}$.

(**J**) Group of order 180 generated by S of (**E**), and the group (**H**).

(**K**) Group of order 504 generated by S of (**E**), and the group (**I**).

(**L**) Group of order 1080 generated by the group (**H**) and W given by

$$W = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \lambda_1 & \lambda_1 \\ 2\lambda_2 & m & n \\ 2\lambda_2 & n & m \end{pmatrix},$$

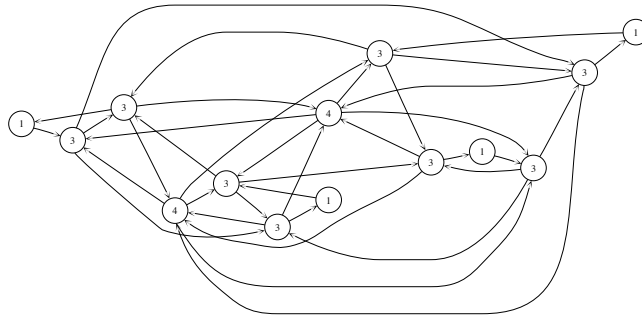
where $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{4}(-1 + \sqrt{-15})$, $\lambda_2 = \frac{1}{4}(-1 - \sqrt{-15})$,

$$\epsilon = e^{2\pi i/5}, m = \epsilon^2 + \epsilon^3 = \frac{1}{2}(-1 - \sqrt{5}), n = \epsilon + \epsilon^4 = \frac{1}{2}(-1 + \sqrt{5}).$$

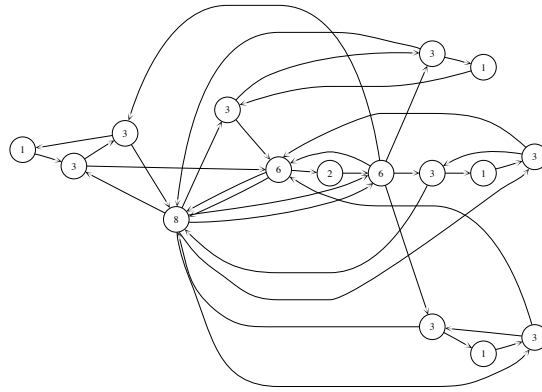
The reader should also be aware that there is a mistake with subgroup **(I)** in the paper published by Yau and Yu [YaYu]. Using the matrices given in the paper, one gets a subgroup of order 336. The problem arises because the matrix for the cycle (12)(35) is incorrect. I modified the matrix for this cycle, and through some calculations found that the matrices presented in this thesis generate a subgroup of order 168 as desired.

Using the mathematical computer package GAP, I was able to compute the McKay graphs for the subgroups **(E)**-**(L)**.

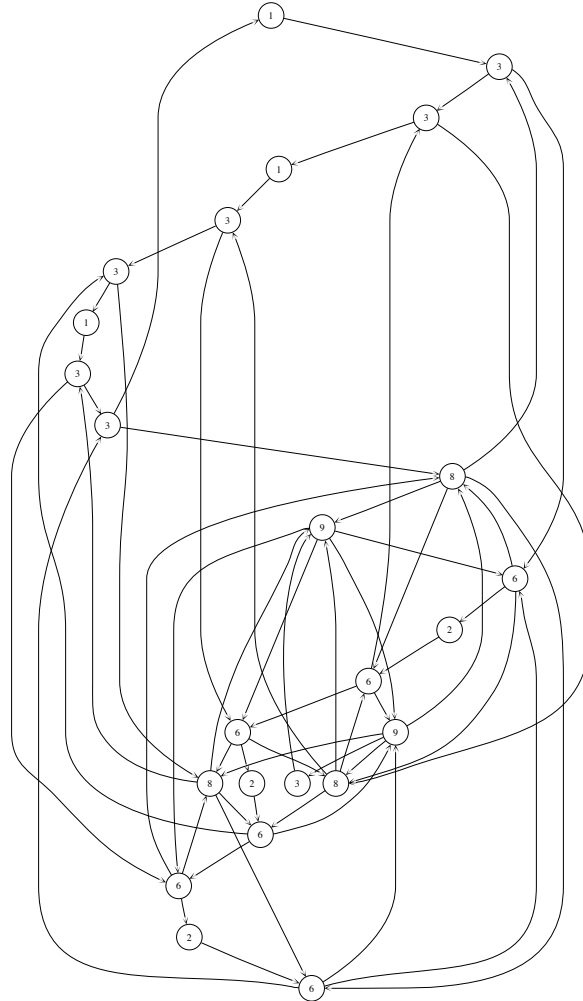
The McKay graph for **(E)** :



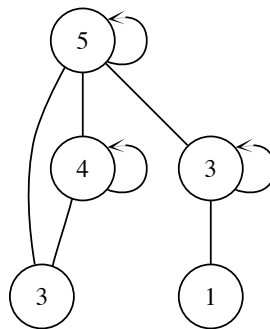
The McKay graph for (\mathbf{F}) :



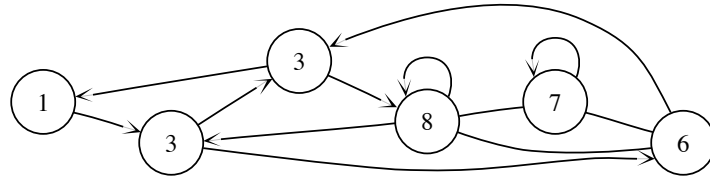
The McKay graph for (\mathbf{G}) :



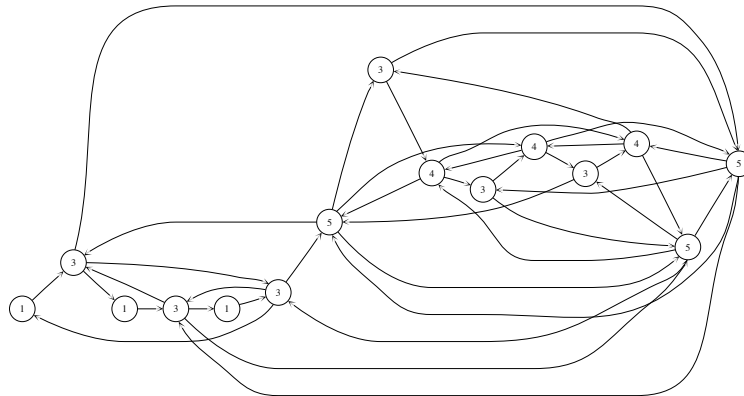
The McKay graph for (\mathbf{H}) :



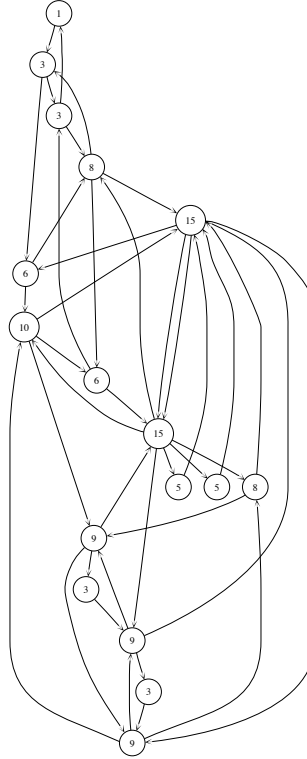
The McKay graph for **(I)** :



The McKay graph for **(J)** :



The M^cKay graph for **(L)** :



I was unable to produce M^cKay graphs for the subgroups **(A)**-**(D)** by using GAP. The reason for this lies in the fact that these subgroups have free variables as entries of the matrices which allow an infinite number of M^cKay graphs to be generated. However, an adjacency matrix of a M^cKay graph of a reducible representation can be expressed as a sum of adjacency matrices from M^cKay graphs of irreducible representations. This allows us to comment on some of the subgroups of $SL(3, \mathbb{C})$ without using direct computations.

The adjacency matrices of the M^cKay graph for the subgroups **(A)** and **(B)** can be expressed as the sum of an adjacency matrix of the M^cKay graph of $G \subset GL(2, \mathbb{C})$ and an adjacency matrix of the M^cKay graph of $G \subset GL(1, \mathbb{C})$. Finite subgroups of

$GL(2, \mathbb{C})$ are understood from Auslander and Reiten [AuRe] and finite subgroups of $GL(1, \mathbb{C})$ are understood from arguments presented in this thesis. We can say one more thing about the finite subgroups of $GL(1, \mathbb{C})$: they are found by $\frac{1}{\det(H)}$ where H is our finite subgroup of $GL(2, \mathbb{C})$.

The McKay graphs for the subgroups **(C)** and **(D)** are beyond that scope of this thesis and were not pursued.

2.6 Connected M^cKay Graphs

In the first chapter it is mentioned that a faithful representation is a representation ρ such that $\ker(\rho) = \{1\}$ (*Definition 1.1.6*). This plays an important role in discussing whether a M^cKay graph is connected.

Definition 2.6.1:

A directed graph is called strongly connected if for every pair of vertices u and v , there are paths from u to v and from v to u [West].

Theorem 2.6.2:

If ψ is a faithful representation then the M^cKay graph is strongly connected [McKa].

Before we can prove *Theorem 2.6.2*, we need to introduce Burnside's theorem which can be found in many papers and texts, such as [Farn].

Burnside's Theorem 2.6.3:

Let G be a finite group, ψ a faithful representation, then each irreducible representation is a direct summand of some tensor power $\psi^{\otimes c}$.

Proof of Theorem 2.6.2:

Let ψ be our favorite representation and ρ_1, \dots, ρ_r be the irreducible representations of G . Suppose ρ_1 is the trivial representation. First, we show that there is a path from ρ_i to ρ_1 for any $\rho_i \in \{\rho_1, \dots, \rho_r\}$.

We know that $\psi^{\otimes 2}$ can be expressed as a direct sum of irreducible representations of $\psi \otimes \psi$.

Now, $\psi \otimes \psi = \rho_a \oplus \rho_b \oplus \dots \oplus \rho_z$ where $\rho_a, \rho_b, \dots, \rho_z \in \{\rho_1, \dots, \rho_r\}$ are irreducible representations. So ρ_i has paths from ρ_i to ρ_a, \dots, ρ_i to ρ_z .

Consider $\text{mult}_i(\psi^{\otimes 2}) = \text{mult}_i(\psi \otimes \psi) = \text{mult}_i(\rho_a \oplus \rho_b \oplus \dots \oplus \rho_z)$. This computes the paths to all vertices of length one away from ρ_i .

Now consider $\text{mult}_i(\psi^{\otimes 3}) = \text{mult}_i(\psi \otimes \psi \otimes \psi) = \text{mult}_i(\{\rho_a \oplus \rho_b \oplus \dots \oplus \rho_z\} \otimes \psi) = \text{mult}_i((\rho_a \otimes \psi) \oplus \dots \oplus (\rho_z \otimes \psi))$.

This computes the paths to all of the vertices of length two away from ρ_i .

We can continue this argument to some $\text{mult}_i(\psi^{\otimes c})$. By Burnside's theorem, all irreducible representations are in a direct summand of some tensor power $\psi^{\otimes c}$. So we have created a path from ρ_i to ρ_1

We need to show that we can create a path from ρ_i to ρ_j . From the above discussion,

we can certainly create a path from ρ_i to ρ_1 , where ρ_1 is the trivial representation. So, we just have to show that a path from ρ_1 to ρ_j can be produced to complete the argument.

We know that $\text{mult}_1(\psi^{\otimes d})$ will create paths of length d away from ρ_1 . Burnside's theorem says that all irreducible representations are in the direct summand of some tensor power $\psi^{\otimes d}$. But of particular interest, we can get a path from ρ_1 to ρ_j . The result follows. \square

Example 2.6.4:

Consider $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_3)$. $\ker(\chi_3) = \{1\}$. We have seen from *Example 2.1.2* that this M^cKay graph is connected.

If $\ker(\rho)$ contains more group elements than just the identity element, then the M^cKay graph is not connected.

Example 2.6.5:

Consider $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_1)$. By definition, $\ker(\chi_1) = D_6$. We have seen from *Example 2.1.2* that this M^cKay graph is a disjoint union of cycles.

Also we see that each class representative from the character table is in $\ker(\chi_1)$ and we have 3 disjoint cycles in the graph.

We conjecture that there is a relation between the number of class representatives in $\ker(\chi)$ and the number of disjoint cycles in a M^cKay graph.

Example 2.6.6:

Consider $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_2)$. $\ker(\chi_2) = \langle a \rangle$. We have two class representatives in $\ker(\chi_2)$, namely 1, a . We have seen $\text{McK}(D_6, \chi_2)$ in *Example 2.1.2* and it did indeed have two disjoint cycles.

Conjecture 2.6.7:

Let ψ be our favorite representation of a group G . The number of class representatives in $\ker(\psi)$ equals to the number of disjoint components in $\text{McK}(G, \psi)$.

Definition 2.6.8:

The dual of a representation ρ is given by $\rho^* = \bar{\rho}$. A representation is said to be self-dual if $\rho^* = \rho$ [Noor].

Proposition 2.6.9:

Let G be a group, ψ be our favorite representation with λ as its character, and $\rho_1 \dots \rho_r$ be the irreducible representations of G with characters $\chi_1 \dots \chi_r$. There are no arrows in the McKay graph ($\langle \lambda \chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = \langle \lambda \chi_j, \chi_i \rangle$) if our favorite representation ψ is self-dual [McKa].

Proof:

By definition we know that $m_{ij} = \langle \lambda\chi_i, \chi_j \rangle$ and $m_{ji} = \langle \lambda\chi_j, \chi_i \rangle$. To prove this claim, it amounts to showing that $m_{ij} = m_{ji}$ when ψ is self-dual. We can show this in two steps:

1. If ψ is self-dual, then $m_{ij} = m_{i^*j^*}$.
2. In general, $m_{i^*j^*} = m_{ji}$

We can investigate the first condition.

$m_{i^*j^*} = \langle \lambda\overline{\chi_i}, \overline{\chi_j} \rangle = \overline{\langle \lambda\chi_i, \chi_j \rangle} = \langle \overline{\lambda\chi_i}, \overline{\chi_j} \rangle = \langle \lambda\chi_i, \chi_j \rangle = m_{ij}$. This is true since ψ is self-dual.

We can now show the second condition.

$$m_{i^*j^*} = \langle \lambda\overline{\chi_i}, \overline{\chi_j} \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \lambda(g) \overline{\chi_i(g) \chi_j(g)} = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \lambda(g) \chi_j(g) \overline{\chi_i(g)} = \langle \lambda\chi_j, \chi_i \rangle = m_{ji}.$$

We have shown both of the conditions, so by combining them we have $m_{ij} = m_{i^*j^*} = m_{ji}$ when ψ is self-dual. \square

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