

REPRESENTATIONS, CHARACTERS, AND COUNTING COLORINGS UNDER SYMMETRY

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This article is an exposition of Polya's theory of counting colourings of structures under symmetry. It is based on a lecture given to the students of Amrita University on 16th September 2019 and at the inaugural talk of the Berchmans webinar series in Mathematics on 28th May 2020. For a deeper understanding of the topic, the reader is encouraged to read the book of Polya and Read [1].

1. REPRESENTATIONS, CHARACTERS, AND INVARIANT VECTORS

Let G be a finite group and V be a finite-dimensional vector space over \mathbf{C} . Let $GL(V)$ denote the set of all invertible linear transformations $V \rightarrow V$. The set $GL(V)$ becomes a group under composition.

Definition 1.1 (Representation). A *representation of G on V* is a function $\rho : G \rightarrow GL(V)$ such that

$$\rho(gh) = \rho(g)\rho(h) \text{ for all } g, h \in G.$$

In other words, ρ is a group homomorphism.

Given a linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow V$, we write $\text{tr}(T; V)$ for the trace of T on V .

Definition 1.2 (Character). The *character* of a representation $\rho : G \rightarrow GL(V)$ is the function $\chi_\rho : G \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ defined by:

$$\chi_\rho(g) = \text{tr}(\rho(g); V).$$

Exercise 1.3. Show that, for any $g, h \in G$,

$$\chi_\rho(ghg^{-1}) = \chi_\rho(h).$$

In other words, the function χ_ρ is constant on the conjugacy classes of G . A function that is constant on conjugacy classes is known as a class function. The above exercise shows that the character of a representation is a class function.

Definition 1.4 (Invariant vector). Let $\rho : G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation. A vector $v \in V$ is said to be an *invariant vector* if

$$\rho(g)v = v \text{ for all } g \in G.$$

The set of invariant vectors is denoted V^G .

Exercise 1.5. Show that V^G is a subspace of V .

Theorem 1.6. For any representation $\rho : G \rightarrow GL(V)$,

$$\dim V^G = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_\rho(g).$$

Proof. Define a linear map $P : V \rightarrow V$ by:

$$P(v) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)v.$$

We claim that

- (1) $P^2 = P$ (in other words, P is *idempotent*),
- (2) $P(V) = V^G$.

Since $P^2 = P$, $P(I - P) = 0$. It follows that the only eigenvalues of P are 0 and 1. Therefore the rank of P , which is the number of non-zero characteristic roots, is the multiplicity of 1 as a characteristic root, which is also the sum of characteristic roots, and hence the trace of P . Thus

$$\dim V^G = \text{rank } P = \text{tr } P = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \text{tr}(\rho(g); V),$$

as required. □

2. THE ORBIT-COUNTING THEOREM

Definition 2.1 (G -set). A G -set X is a set X , together with a function $G \times X \rightarrow X$ denoted by $(g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$ (called the action function) such that, if we write $a(g, x)$ as $g \cdot x$, then

$$(gh) \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x).$$

Given a G -set X and an element $x \in X$, the G -orbit of x , denoted $G \cdot x$ is the set of all elements that can be obtained from x by the action of G :

$$G \cdot x = \{g \cdot x \mid g \in G\}.$$

For $x, y \in X$, say that $x \sim_G y$ if y lies in the G -orbit of x . Then using the properties of groups and Definition 2.1, it is easy to show that \sim_G is an equivalence relation on X . Its equivalence classes are the G -orbits of X . The set of G -orbits of X is denoted $G \backslash X$. For each $g \in G$, let X^g denote the points of X that are fixed by g , i.e.,

$$X^g = \{x \in X \mid g \cdot x = x\}.$$

The following theorem is popularly called *Burnside's lemma*, or the *Cauchy-Frobenius lemma*.

Theorem 2.2 (Orbit-counting Theorem). *For any G -set X ,*

$$|G \backslash X| = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |X^g|.$$

Proof. Let V be a vector space with basis $\{1_x \mid x \in X\}$. For each $g \in G$, define a linear map $\rho(g) : V \rightarrow V$ by:

$$\rho(g)1_x = 1_{g \cdot x}.$$

Then ρ is a representation of G on V in the sense of Definition 1.1. With respect to the basis $\{1_x \mid x \in X\}$, the matrix of $\rho(g)$ has entries $\rho(g)_{xy} = \delta_{x, g \cdot y}$, where δ denotes the Kronecker delta function. We have:

$$\text{tr}(\rho(g), V) = \sum_{x \in X} \rho(g)_{xx} = |\{x \in X \mid g \cdot x = x\}| = |X^g|.$$

Now let us determine V^G , the subspace of G -invariant vectors in V . Every vector $v \in V$ is of the form:

$$v = \sum_{x \in X} \alpha_x 1_x, \text{ for uniquely determined scalars } \alpha_x.$$

We have:

$$\rho(g)v = \sum_{x \in X} \alpha_x 1_{g \cdot x} = \sum_{x \in X} \alpha_{g^{-1} \cdot x} 1_x.$$

Thus, if $\rho(g)v = v$, equating the coefficients of basis vectors shows that $\alpha_{g^{-1} \cdot x} = \alpha_x$ for all $x \in X$. So $v \in V^G$ if the function $x \mapsto \alpha_x$ is constant on G -orbits in X . Hence a vector in V^G is determined by specifying the coefficient of 1_x for one x in each G -orbit in X . In other words, $\dim V^G = |G \backslash X|$. Now we have:

$$\begin{aligned} |G \backslash X| &= \dim V^G \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \text{tr}(\rho(g); V) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |X^g|, \end{aligned}$$

completing the proof of the orbit-counting theorem. \square

3. COLOURINGS OF A SET

Suppose we are given a set $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_r\}$ of colours. A colouring of a set X can be regarded as a function $f : X \rightarrow C$. Denote the set of all colourings of X by $C(X)$.

Definition 3.1 (Weight of a colouring). To each colour $c_i \in C$, associate a variable t_i . The weight of a colouring $f \in C(X)$ is defined as:

$$w(f) = t_1^{\lambda_1} t_2^{\lambda_2} \cdots t_r^{\lambda_r},$$

where λ_i is the number of elements of X such that $f(x) = c_i$. Abbreviate $t_1^{\lambda_1} t_2^{\lambda_2} \cdots t_r^{\lambda_r}$ to t^λ .

To warm up, and illustrate how these weights will be used we first state a simple identity involving such weights:

$$\sum_{f \in C(X)} w(f) = (t_1 + \cdots + t_r)^{|X|}.$$

To prove this, observe that when the right hand side is expanded using distributivity we get:

$$(t_1 + \cdots + t_r)^{|X|} = \sum_{f \in C(X)} \prod_{x \in X} t_{f(x)},$$

which is the same as the left hand side.

Now suppose that X is a G -set.

Definition 3.2 (Equivalence of colourings). The set $C(X)$ inherits an action of G from X . For $f \in C(X)$ and $g \in G$,

$$g \cdot f(x) = f(g^{-1} \cdot x).$$

To colourings $f_1, f_2 \in C(X)$ are said to be *equivalent* if they lie in the same G -orbit.

Obviously, equivalent colourings have the same weight. Let $\Lambda(X; r)$ denote the set of all vectors $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r)$ of vectors with non-negative integer coordinates that sum to $|X|$. For $\lambda \in \Lambda(X, r)$, let $C_\lambda(X)$ denote the colourings of X with weight t^λ .

4. CYCLE TYPE OF A PERMUTATION

Let X be a finite set, and $g : X \rightarrow X$ be a bijection. Write $g \cdot x$ for the image of x under g . Take any element $x \in X$ and consider the sequence obtained by repeatedly applying g to x :

$$x, g \cdot x, g^2 \cdot x, \dots$$

Since X is finite, there exist $0 \leq i < j$ such that $g^i \cdot x = g^j \cdot x$. Applying g^{-i} to both sides gives $x = g^{j-i} \cdot x$. Therefore there exists $d \geq 0$ such that $g^d \cdot x = x$. Assume further that for no $d' < d$, $g^{d'} \cdot x = x$. Then all the elements

$$x, g \cdot x, \dots, g^{d-1} \cdot x$$

must be distinct. The set $\{x, g \cdot x, \dots, g^{d-1} \cdot x\}$ is called a cycle of g . The cycles of g partition X into parts, say X_1, \dots, X_m . Arrange these parts in decreasing order of cardinality. Let $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \geq \dots \geq \mu_m$ denote the cardinalities of the cycles of g . The vector $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m)$ is called the *cycle type* of g .

For any vector $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m)$ of non-negative integers, let

$$p_\mu(t_1, \dots, t_r) = \prod_{i=1}^m (t_1^{\mu_i} + \dots + t_r^{\mu_i}).$$

The polynomial p_μ is called a *power sum symmetric function*.

Lemma 4.1. Let $g \in G$, and let $C_\lambda(X)^g$ denote the set of elements of $C_\lambda(X)$ fixed by g .

$$\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda(X, r)} |C_\lambda(X)^g| t^\lambda = p_{\mu(g)}(t_1, \dots, t_r).$$

Proof. When the right-hand side is expanded using distributivity, we get:

$$\sum_{i_1=1}^r \sum_{i_2=1}^r \dots \sum_{i_m=1}^r \prod_{j=1}^m t_{i_j}^{\mu_j}.$$

Let X_1, \dots, X_m be the cycles of g in X . Each (i_1, \dots, i_m) determines a colouring of X as follows: colour all the elements of the cycle X_j with the colour i_j . The colouring so constructed is invariant under g since it is the same for all elements in a cycle of g . Conversely every G -invariant colouring arises in this manner. Moreover, the weight of this colouring is $\prod_{j=1}^m t_{i_j}^{\mu_j}$. Summing over all such (i_1, \dots, i_m) therefore gives the left hand side of the identity in Lemma 4.1. \square

5. THE POLYA ENUMERATION THEOREM

Theorem 5.1 (Polya Enumeration Theorem).

$$(1) \quad \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda(X, r)} |G \backslash C_\lambda(X)| t^\lambda = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} p_{\mu(g)}(x_1, \dots, x_r).$$

Proof. Applying the orbit-counting lemma to the action of G on $C_\lambda(X)$, we have:

$$|G \backslash C_\lambda(X)| = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |C_\lambda(X)^g|.$$

Now applying Lemma 4.1 gives

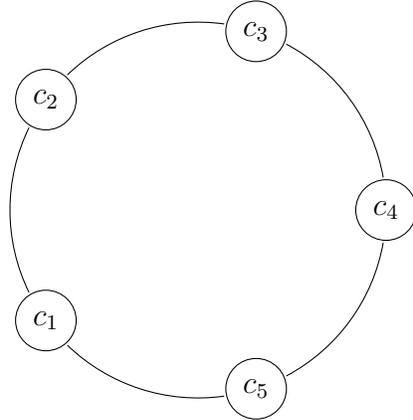
$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda(X,r)} |G \backslash C_\lambda(X)| t^\lambda &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda(X,r)} \sum_{g \in G} |C_\lambda(X)^g| t^\lambda \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} p_{\mu(g)}(t_1, \dots, t_r), \end{aligned}$$

as required. \square

Call the symmetric polynomial on the right hand side of (1) the *Polya polynomial* of G . The following section discusses a standard class of examples.

6. NECKLACE COLOURINGS

Consider a necklace with n beads, which are allowed to be of r possible colours, c_1, \dots, c_r . Thus a typical necklace can be described by a list of colours: $c_{i_1}, c_{i_2}, \dots, c_{i_n}$, describing the colours of the beads starting at some particular bead and going clockwise around the necklace. The case $n = 5$ is shown below.



There is an ambiguity in the choice of the first bead whose colour is listed. Thus the necklace $c_{i_1}, c_{i_2}, \dots, c_{i_n}$ is the same as the necklace $c_{i_2}, c_{i_3}, \dots, c_{i_n}, c_{i_1}$. This situation can be modelled as a group action as follows: let G be the group $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$, the group of residue classes of integers modulo n , also known as the cyclic group of order n . The group G acts on itself by the translation action $g \cdot x = g + x$.

For every integer n , let $\phi(n)$ denote the number of integers $0 \leq i < n$ that are coprime to n . The function ϕ is the well-known *Euler totient function*, and $\phi(n)$ can also be interpreted as the number of generators of $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$. For each $d|n$, $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ has exactly one subgroup of order d , generated by the residue class of n/d . This subgroup has $\phi(d)$ generators. Thus $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ has $\phi(d)$ elements that generate this subgroup. Since every element of $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ generates a unique such subgroup, we get the identity:

$$n = \sum_{d|n} \phi(d).$$

The orbit of $0 \in \mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ under $r \in \mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ is the subgroup generated by r . If d is the gcd of n and r , then this subgroup is $d\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z} \cong \mathbf{Z}/(n/d)\mathbf{Z}$. The orbit of an element $i \in \mathbf{Z}/m\mathbf{Z}$ under r is a coset of this subgroup. Thus the cycle type of r is $(n/d, n/d, \dots, n/d)$ (with d repetitions). The number of elements of $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ which generate its cyclic subgroup of order n/d is given by $\phi(n/d)$. Thus the Polya polynomial for this group action in r variables is:

$$\phi_{\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}}(t_1, \dots, t_r) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} \phi(n/d) (t_1^{n/d} + \dots + t_r^{n/d})^d.$$

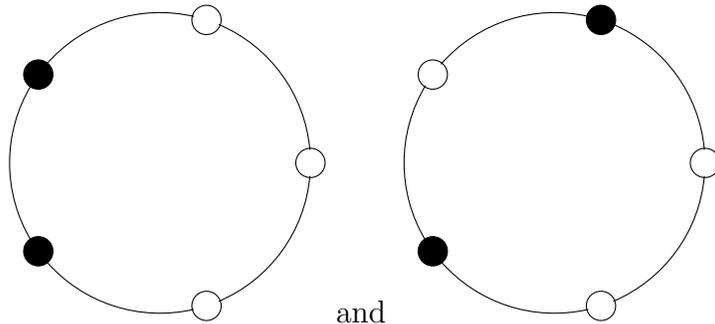
If n is a prime this takes a simpler form:

$$\phi_{\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}}(t_1, \dots, t_r) = \frac{(n-1)(t_1^n + \dots + t_r^n) + (t_1 + \dots + t_r)^n}{n}.$$

Taking $n = 5$ and $r = 2$ we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{\mathbf{Z}/5\mathbf{Z}}(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{4(t_1^5 + t_2^5) + (t_1 + t_2)^5}{5} \\ &= t_1^5 + t_1^4 t_2 + 2t_1^3 t_2^2 + 2t_1^2 t_2^3 + t_1 t_2^4 + t_2^5. \end{aligned}$$

So when there are two colours, (say black and white), there are two distinct necklaces with five beads, of which two are black and three are white. These are:



When $n = 6$ and $r = 2$, the possible values of $d|6$ are 1, 2, 3, 6, which ϕ -values 1, 1, 2, 2, respectively. We get

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_{\mathbf{z}/6\mathbf{z}}(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{2(t_1^6 + t_2^6) + 2(t_1^3 + t_2^3)^2 + (t_1^2 + t_2^2)^3 + (t_1 + t_2)^6}{6} \\ &= t_1^6 + t_1^5 t_2 + 3t_1^4 t_2^2 + 4t_1^3 t_2^3 + 3t_1^2 t_2^4 + t_1 t_2^5 + t_2^6.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, for example, there are four distinct necklaces with three white and three black beads. Can you list them?

7. IMPLEMENTATION IN SAGE

The open-source mathematical software system Sage has two modules which make it almost trivial to compute the Polyá polynomial for a group action: it has an interface with GAP for permutation groups and a module for symmetric functions.

A permutation group is nothing but an abstract group expressed as a subgroup of S_n for some n . A permutation group is no different from a group action. Indeed if G acts on X , a set of order n , then labelling the elements of X by integers $1, \dots, n$ allows us to think of each element of G as a permutation of n letters. Thus the cyclic group of order 6 is naturally realized as a subgroup of S_6 in Sage:

```
sage: C = CyclicPermutationGroup(6)
sage: list(C)
[(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6),
 (1, 3, 5)(2, 4, 6),
 (1, 4)(2, 5)(3, 6),
 (1, 5, 3)(2, 6, 4),
 (1, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2)]
```

The reader is encouraged to explore permutation groups in Sage with the help of the documentation at http://doc.sagemath.org/html/en/reference/groups/sage/groups/perm_gps/permgroup.html.

The other module on symmetric functions makes it very easy to construct the power sum symmetric functions p_μ and expand them in a specified number of variables:

```
sage: def polya_poly(G, r):
....:     S = SymmetricFunctions(QQ)
....:     P = S.powersum()
....:     p = sum([P[w.cycle_type()] for w in G])/G.order()
....:     return p.expand(r)
```

Using this code, the example of Section 6 can be obtained as follows:

```
sage: polya_poly(CyclicPermutationGroup(5),2)
x0^5 + x0^4*x1 + 2*x0^3*x1^2 + 2*x0^2*x1^3 + x0*x1^4 + x1^5
sage: polya_poly(CyclicPermutationGroup(6),2)
x0^6 + x0^5*x1 + 3*x0^4*x1^2 + 4*x0^3*x1^3 + 3*x0^2*x1^4 +
x0*x1^5 + x1^6
```

It is easy to do much fancier things. For example, the number of colourings of the vertices of a dodecahedron in two colours up to its self-isometries can be computed as follows:

```
sage: D = graphs.DodecahedralGraph()
sage: G = D.automorphism_group()
sage: polya_poly(G,2)
x0^20 + x0^19*x1 + 5*x0^18*x1^2 + 15*x0^17*x1^3 +
58*x0^16*x1^4 + 149*x0^15*x1^5 + 371*x0^14*x1^6 +
693*x0^13*x1^7 + 1135*x0^12*x1^8 + 1466*x0^11*x1^9
+ 1648*x0^10*x1^10 + 1466*x0^9*x1^11 +
1135*x0^8*x1^12 + 693*x0^7*x1^13 + 371*x0^6*x1^14
+ 149*x0^5*x1^15 + 58*x0^4*x1^16 + 15*x0^3*x1^17
+ 5*x0^2*x1^18 + x0*x1^19 + x1^20
```

showing that, for example, there are 1648 inequivalent colourings of the vertices of the dodecahedron with ten vertices coloured black and ten vertices coloured white.

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