Mathematics. — On the Fundamental Theorems of Invariant-theory for the Unitary Group. By H. W. Turnbull. (Communicated by Prof. R. Weitzenböck).

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#### Introduction.

The present work is designed to show that the properties of linear transformations of n variables, within the unitary group, are intimately related to the classical projective invariant theory. In an interesting series of publications 1) R. WEITZENBÖCK has proved that, by adjoining a particular linear or quadratic form to a set of given groundforms, and by discussing the projective invariant theory of this augmented set, it is possible to give a complete account of the invariants belonging to certain subgroups: e.g. the affine, the orthogonal, and so on. For the affine subgroup a linear groundform is adjoined; for the orthogonal, a quadratic  $(x \mid x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$  is adjoined.

I propose to shew that the unitary subgroup can be dealt with in the same way, and that it needs a *bilinear* adjoint groundform. The necessity for this is fairly obvious; the sufficiency is not so obvious, but follows by extending to the unitary case a device which has been successfully used in the orthogonal case <sup>2</sup>).

### I. Unitary transformations.

Let

$$x = P\xi$$
,  $x_i = \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_{ik} \xi_k$ ,  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ , . . . (1)

denote a linear transformation of variables  $x_i$  to  $\xi_i$ , with a matrix  $P = (p_{ik})$  whose elements  $p_{ik}$  are complex numbers. Let  $\overline{x} = \overline{P} \overline{\xi}$  denote the conjugate complex transformation, with a matrix  $\overline{P} = (p_{ik})$  such that  $p_{ik}$ ,  $\overline{p}_{ik}$  are conjugate complex numbers, and so also are  $x_i$ ,  $\overline{x}_i$  and  $\xi_i$ ,  $\overline{\xi}_i$ .

<sup>1)</sup> Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akademie 122 (1913) — 132 (1924); cf. R. WEITZENBÖCK Invariantentheorie (Groningen 1923), 223—301.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2)</sup> Cf. E. STUDY, Einleitung in die Theorie der Invarianten linearer Transformationen auf Grund der Vektorenrechnung (Braunschweig 1923) 23.

The unitary transformation is defined by the condition

$$\bar{P'}P = (\delta_{ik}) = E$$
 . . . . . . (2)

where  $\overline{P}' = (\overline{P}_{ki})$ , and  $\delta_{ik} = 0$ ,  $i \neq k$ ;  $\delta_{ik} = 1$ , i = k. Thus the product of the matrices  $\overline{P}'$ , P is the unit matrix E. The necessary and sufficient condition for (2) to hold is that

$$(\bar{x} \mid x) = \bar{x}_1 x_1 + \ldots + \bar{x}_n x_n = \bar{\xi}_1 \xi_1 + \ldots + \bar{\xi}_n \xi_n = (\bar{\xi} \mid \xi) \ldots$$
 (3)

namely, the quadric  $(x \mid x)$  is *latent* in the group  $\Gamma$  of these transformations.

If a, b denote further vectors cogredient with x (so that  $\overline{a}, \overline{b}$  are cogredient with  $\overline{x}$ ) then the inner products  $(\overline{a} \mid a)$ ,  $(\overline{a} \mid b)$ , are absolute invariants of the group  $\Gamma$ , as is easily verified. The outer products

$$(ab \ldots hk), (\bar{a}\bar{b} \ldots \bar{h}\bar{k}), \ldots \ldots \ldots (4)$$

which involve n cogredient vectors  $a, b, \ldots, h, k$ , (or their n conjugates) are relative invariants. After transformation they are multiplied by the respective determinants  $\Delta = |p_{ik}|$ ,  $\overline{\Delta} = |\bar{p}_{ik}|$ .

Since it follows from (2) that  $\overline{\triangle}\triangle=1$ , neither matrix P nor  $\overline{P}$  is singular. Hence both transformations are reversible, namely  $\xi=P^{-1}x$ ,  $\overline{\xi}=\overline{P}^{-1}\overline{x}$ . Further as is well known, if  $\xi=Q\eta$  is another unitary transformation, the product PQ gives a resultant unitary transformation,  $x=PQ\eta$ . In fact  $(\overline{PQ})'(PQ)=\overline{Q'P'PQ}=E$ . Relation (3) shews that the vectors  $x,a,b,\ldots,k$  (which are cogredient) are contragredient to their conjugates  $\overline{x},\overline{a},\overline{b},\ldots,\overline{k}$ .

By an *invariant I* is meant a polynomial unitary invariant, namely a polynomial in the components  $a_i$  of any number of cogredient or contragredient vectors  $a, b, \ldots, \bar{a}, \bar{b}, \ldots$ , which are transformed by (I) to  $\alpha, \beta, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}, \bar{\beta}, \ldots$  such that

$$I = I(a_i \ldots) = \emptyset$$
.  $I(a_i \ldots) = \emptyset$ 

where  $\phi$  is a polynomial in the coefficients  $p_{ik}$ ,  $p_{ik}$  of the transformation. The vectors  $\alpha$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}$ , ... satisfy  $a = P\alpha$ ,  $\bar{a} = \bar{P}\bar{\alpha}$ ,  $b = P\beta$ , ... This is the ordinary definition of a rational integral invariant of a group, adapted to the present case of the unitary group  $\Gamma$ .

I shall prove the fundamental theorem that every such invariant is expressible as a polynomial in the arguments  $\theta$  of the three types:

$$\theta_1 = (ab \dots hk), \quad \theta_2 = (\bar{a} \mid b), \quad \theta_3 = (\bar{a}\bar{b} \dots \bar{h}\bar{k}).$$

### 2. Preliminary Lemmas.

As in the usual theory it is only necessary to consider invariants

which are homogeneous in their several components. The theorem needs two preliminary lemmas.

LEMMA I: A unitary transformation exists which transforms a given normalised vector p into another such vector q.

Proof: Consider the transformation

$$\frac{2(x|\bar{p}+\bar{q})}{(p+q|\bar{p}+\bar{q})}(p_i+q_i)-x_i=\xi_i, \quad (i=1,2,\ldots n) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

where  $(p+q|\bar{p}+\bar{q})=\sum_{i}(p_i+q_i)(\bar{p}_i+\bar{q}_i)\neq 0$ , and p,q are at present arbitrary constant vectors. This is a linear transformation from  $\xi$  to x, which is unitary. For on forming this relation, by means of the conjugate value of  $\bar{\xi}$  in terms of  $\bar{x},p,q,\bar{p},\bar{q}$ . it is found that  $(\bar{\xi}\,|\,\xi)=(\bar{x}\,|\,x)$ . Further, suppose that

$$\overline{(p \mid p)} = \overline{(q \mid q)}, \quad \overline{(p \mid q)} = \overline{(q \mid p)}, \quad p + q \neq 0 \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (2)$$

Now let p and q be any two normalised vectors, which means that  $(p \mid p) = (q \mid q) = 1$ . This secures the first relation (2). If  $\pi_x$  denote the whole coefficient of  $p_i + q_i$  in (I), we may write

$$\pi_x(p+q) - x = \xi, \quad \overline{\pi_x}(p+q) - \overline{x} = \overline{\xi}, \quad ... \quad ...$$

and it is found that  $\pi_p = \pi_q = \overline{\pi_p} = \overline{\pi_q} = 1$ , provided that (2) holds.

Substituting x = p in (3), then x = p,  $\xi = q$ ,  $\xi = q$ , which proves the lemma if (2) holds. If  $(p \mid q) \neq (q \mid p)$ , choose a third normalised vector  $r = \{0, 0, \dots, 0, 1\}$ . If  $p_n = \varrho e^{i\alpha}$ ,  $|p_n| = \varrho \geqslant 0$ , the unitary transformation, of matrix  $e^{-i\alpha} E$ , changes  $p_n$  to  $\varrho$ , and  $p_n$  also to  $\varrho$ . Conditions (2) now hold for p, r: and similarly for q, r. By transforming p first to r and r next to q, p is transformed to q and the lemma is proved. Simultaneously p is also transformed to q.

LEMMA II: The following identities emerge by use of the operator

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial q} \middle| \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{q}}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial q_{i} \, \partial \bar{q}_{i}} = \Omega.$$

$$\Omega\left(\bar{q} \middle| q\right)^{\lambda} = \lambda \left(n + \lambda - 1\right) \left(\bar{q} \middle| q\right)^{\lambda - 1}, \quad \Omega\left(\bar{q} \middle| a\right) \left(q \middle| \bar{b}\right) = (a \middle| \bar{b}),$$

$$\Omega\left(\bar{q} \middle| k\right) (ab \dots hq) = (ab \dots hk), \quad \Omega(q \middle| \bar{k}) (\bar{a}\bar{b} \dots \bar{h}\bar{q}) = (\bar{a}\bar{b} \dots \bar{h}\bar{k}),$$

$$\Omega\left(\bar{q} \middle| q\right) (\bar{q}t) = (n+1)(\bar{q}t), \quad t = \bar{a} \text{ or } (b \dots hk)_{n-1}, \quad \bar{q} = q \text{ or } \bar{q}.$$

The proofs are straightforward.

The above proof of Lemma I is suggested by a somewhat similar theorem given by HILTON 1).

<sup>1)</sup> Linear Substitutions (Oxford 1914), 42.

## 3. Proof of the Fundamental Theorem.

Every polynomial invariant of vectors a,  $\bar{a}$ , b,  $\bar{b}$ , ... is expressible as a polynomial in arguments  $\theta$  of the three types  $\theta_1$   $\theta_2$   $\theta_3$ .

This follows the orthogonal proof given by E. STUDY in the above reference 1). If n=1, the matrix P can be written as  $e^{i\varphi}$ ,  $\bar{P}$  is  $e^{-i\varphi}$ , and  $x=P\xi$  is an ordinary scalar product. The truth of the theorem is obvious.

By assuming it true for m = n - 1 we infer by induction, its truth for n. If  $P_m$  denote the minor matrix of P obtained by erasing the last row and column, we write

$$P_0 = \begin{pmatrix} P_m & \cdot \\ \cdot & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P_m = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} & \dots & p_{1m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ p_{m1} & \dots & p_{mm} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \overline{P}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \overline{P}_m & \cdot \\ \cdot & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad . \quad (1)$$

In  $P_0$  the last row and column each contains n-1 zeroes. If  $P_m$  is unitary so also is  $P_0$ . Now  $P_0$  belongs to the subgroup  $\gamma$  which leaves the vector  $q = \{0.0, \ldots, 0.1\}$  latent: and this q is normalised since  $(q \mid q) = 1$ . Also in the subgroup  $\gamma$  every component  $a_i$ ,  $(i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots m)$  can vary, but  $a_n$  is fixed.

Let  $(ab 
ldots h)_m = |a_1 b_2 
ldots h_m|$  be a determinant in the first m components of the vectors: also let  $(a \mid b)_m = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i$  b<sub>i</sub>. If I is an invariant of the group  $\Gamma$ , it can be expressed in simplified form as  $\sum k_i g_i$ , where the  $g_i$  are functions solely of the n components  $a_n$ ,  $a_n$ , and where  $k_i$  are free from the same. By hypothesis any invariant, of a field lower than n, is expressible in the suitable types. We infer that, as in the orthogonal case, each  $k_i$  can be expressed in terms of  $(ab 
ldots h)_m$ , within the subgroup.

By using the vector  $q = \{0.0, ..., 0,1\}$  we find that

$$(ab ... h)_{m} = \frac{(ab ... hq)}{\sqrt{\overline{q} \mid q}}, (\overline{a} \mid b)_{m} = \frac{(\overline{q} \mid q)(\overline{a} \mid b) - (\overline{q} \mid \overline{a})(\overline{q} \mid b)}{\sqrt{(\overline{q} \mid q)}}. \quad . \quad (2)$$

$$a_n = \frac{(q \mid a)}{\sqrt{|q| |q|}}$$
, etc., where  $\sqrt{|q| |q|}$  is the positive square root of  $(q \mid q)$ .

Now for all values of q, the vector q/V(q|q) is normalised, and so is its conjugate. Also we may transform this q to any other normalised vector p by Lemma I. Such a transformation replaces the subgroup  $\gamma$  by a similar subgroup  $\gamma^*$ , and an invariant of all such subgroups is an invariant of the whole group  $\Gamma$ . This change from  $\gamma$  to  $\gamma^*$  leaves the expressions (ab ... hq) etc. in (2) unaltered in type. In fact q becomes p, by the Lemma; the inner product type  $\theta_2$  is unchanged: and we have

<sup>1)</sup> Cf. Turnbull, Theory of Determinants, Matrices and Invariants (Glasgow 1928), 318.

only to consider the change in the outer product. Using § 2 (3), let a become  $\alpha$  etc., then

$$(\alpha\beta\ldots\varrho p)=(\pi_a\,(p+q)-a,\,\pi_b\,(p+q)-b,\,\ldots,\,\pi_q\,(p+q)-q)\,.$$

The right side denotes a determinant of n columns, where in the last column

$$\pi_q(p+q)-q=p.$$

On expansion we have a sum of determinants (lm...q), where l=p,q,a; m=p,q,b;... The nonzero terms of this sum are given by

$$(-)^{n} \left[ \pi_{a} \left( qbc \dots hp \right) + \pi_{b} \left( aqc \dots hp \right) + \dots + \pi_{h} \left( ab \dots qp \right) - \left( abc \dots hp \right) \right]$$

$$= (-) \left[ \pi_{q} \left( ab \dots hp \right) - \pi_{p} \left( ab \dots hq \right) - \left( ab \dots hp \right) \right]$$

by a fundamental identity. Since  $\pi_p = \pi_q = 1$ , we finally have

$$(\alpha\beta\ldots\varrho\rho)=(-)^{n-1}(ab\ldots hq),$$

so that the outer product is unaltered in type, but for sign: and similarly for  $(\bar{a}\,\bar{b}\,\ldots\bar{h}\,\bar{q})$ . The argument is unaffected if, as before, an auxiliary vector r is needed. The steps  $p\to r$ ,  $r\to q$  can be combined.

Summing up, so far, we infer that every I belonging to the group is expressible as

$$I = (G_1 + G_2 V(\overline{q}|q)) / (V(\overline{q}|q))^k$$

where each of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  is a polynomial of the type

$$G\{\overline{q} \mid q\}, \overline{(q} \mid a), \overline{(q} \mid a), \ldots, \overline{(ab \ldots hq)}, \overline{(ab \ldots hq)}, \ldots, \overline{(a} \mid b), \ldots\},$$

and where k is necessarily a positive integer, since only one q enters every type (2). The present q is an arbitrary normalised vector.

Now  $G_1 \neq 0$ , else we could cancel out V(q|q) and treat  $G_2$  as a new  $G_1$ . This being so,  $G_2$  must vanish; for otherwise we could always express V(q|q) rationally in terms of the other rational quantities involved in this relation: which is impossible even in the case  $q = \{0.0, \ldots, 1, 1\}$ . Hence  $G_2 = 0$ . Clearing fractions we have

$$\overline{(q \mid q)^{\lambda}} I = G\{\overline{(q \mid q)}, \ldots, (ab \ldots q), \ldots\}$$

where  $\lambda$  can only be a positive integer, to make the left side agree with the rational function of q on the right. This is an identity for all q. By operating  $\lambda$  times with  $\Omega$  and using Lemma II, the left hand member becomes  $\mu I$ , where  $\mu$  is a positive integer, and the right loses all its q and q, becoming a polynomial in the  $\theta_1$ ,  $\theta_2$ ,  $\theta_3$ . This proves the theorem.

# 4. Applications of the Theorem.

Since the above proof holds for cogredient and contragredient vectors

 $a, \alpha, b, \beta, \ldots$ , it also holds for general groundforms which can be symbolised by one or more such symbolic vectors. Again all compound matrices of P and  $\overline{P}$  are unitary; for example the second compound of the matrix  $R = [r_1, r_2, \ldots r_n]$  where  $r_j$  is a vector of elements  $r_{ij}$   $(i = 1.2, \ldots n)$  is.

$$R^{(2)} = [(r_{j_1}, r_{j_2})_{k_1, k_2}], \quad \begin{pmatrix} j_1, j_2 = 1, 2, \ldots, n, j_1 \neq j_2 \\ k_1, k_2 = 1, 2, \ldots, n, k_1 \neq k_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now  $\overline{R}^{(2)}R^{(2)}=(\overline{r_{i_1}}\,\overline{r_{i_2}}\,|\,r_{j_1}r_{j_2})=E^{(2)}$ , provided that  $(\overline{r_i}\,|\,r_i)=1$ ,  $(\overline{r_i}\,|\,r_j)=0$ , which is the case. Here  $E^{(2)}$  is the unit matrix of  $\binom{n}{2}$  rows and columns. Likewise for all compounds  $R^{(s)},\ldots,R^{(n-1)}$ . It follows that groundforms of all types, involving variables  $x,(xy),(xyz),\ldots,u=(xy\ldots)_m$ , (where m=n-1), can be treated within the unitary group  $\Gamma$ , exactly as in the usual projective group. Symbols can be compounded or resolved, the Aronhold process avails, and polarisation also 1). Thus a compound

For example, if n = 3, such types as

and it is contragredient to a but is cogredient with a.

$$\theta_1 = (abc), (abc'), (ab'c'), (a'b'c')$$

of n-1 symbols  $a, b, \ldots, h$  may be written with the accent,  $a' = (a b \ldots h)_m$ 

will appear. The more complicated intermediate compounds, short of the  $(n-1)^{th}$ , involve further types  $(a\ b\ |\ \bar{c}\ \bar{d})$ ,  $(a\ b\ c\ |\ \bar{d}\ \bar{e}\ \bar{f})$ , . . . , or else complex symbols.

The real orthogonal group provides a special case of the unitary group, in which all the elements are real, so that the distinction between a and a disappears. Instead of three fundamental types there are two,  $(ab \dots hk)$ ,  $(a \mid b)$ . This agrees with the original orthogonal theorems of STUDY, although the latter theorems apply equally for the orthogonal group in which the elements are complex numbers.

# 5. The Group with a latent Hermitian bilinear form.

By applying a general nonsingular linear transformation x = My,  $x = \overline{My}$ , to the variables  $x, \overline{x}$  we obtain a group  $\Gamma^*$  similar to the unitary  $\Gamma$ , as a subgroup of the projective group G. This replaces the bilinear form  $(\overline{x} \mid x)$  by the form

$$\psi \equiv \sum_{ik}^{n} \overline{y}_{i} \ h_{ik} \ y_{k} = \overline{y}' \, \overline{M}' \, M_{y}$$

whose matrix  $H \equiv \overline{M}'M \equiv (h_{ik})$  is Hermitian. Here  $\overline{y}'$  denotes a matrix of one row and n columns  $[\overline{y}_1, \overline{y}_2, \ldots, \overline{y}_n]$ . In the subgroup  $\Gamma^*$  this form  $\psi$  is latent.

<sup>1)</sup> Cf. R. WEITZENBÖCK, loc. cit., p. 225.

If we symbolise  $\psi$  by

$$u_{\rho} r_{y}$$
,  $\{\varrho_{i} r_{k} = h_{ik}, u = \overline{y}'\}$ 

we may express the result of the above fundamental theorem as a proiective invariant theorem in groundforms  $f^*$  of  $\Gamma^*$ , together with the
adjoined groundform  $\psi$ . This transference is analogous to the corresponding orthogonal theory  $\Gamma^*$  (when a nondegenerate quadric  $\Gamma^*_x$  is latent). In the present case the inner product  $\Gamma^*_x$  is now replaced by the
elementary bilinear invariant type  $\Gamma^*_x$  ( $\Gamma^*_x$  is now replaced by the
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elementary bilinear invariant type  $\Gamma^*_x$  is latent).

The outer-product-types
are unchanged. This adjunction principle brings the unitary, and similar
groups into line with previously discussed cases. It follows that the
Second Fundamental Theorem of invariants can be asserted for the
unitary case, as a corollary of the projective case. For example, with
our original cogredient symbols  $\Gamma^*_x$  and their conjugates, the
following types of fundamental identities are sufficient:

$$\Pi_{1} \equiv \{(ab \dots hk) (l \dots) = (lb \dots hk) (a \dots) + \dots \}, 
\Pi_{2} \equiv \{(ab \dots hk) (l | \bar{a}) = (lb \dots hk) (a | \bar{a}) + \dots \}, 
\Pi_{3} \equiv \{(ab \dots hk) (\bar{a}_{1}\bar{b}_{1} \dots \bar{h}_{1}\bar{k}_{1}) = \begin{vmatrix} (a | \bar{a}_{1}) & \dots & (a | \bar{k}_{1}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (k | \bar{a}_{1}) & \dots & (k | \bar{k}_{1}) \end{vmatrix} \right\},$$

and  $\overline{\Pi}_1$ ,  $\overline{\Pi}_2$  conjugates of the two former. It would be interesting to give a direct proof by induction, without recourse to the adjunction principle.

Identity  $II_3$  shews that the presence of both types of outer-product in one invariant, is unnecessary. It also shews that a rational integral unitary invariant, which is not merely relative but absolute, is expressible entirely by means of inner products  $(a \mid \overline{b})$ , for it contains equal amounts of the two conjugate types of symbol.

The argument throughout also holds for fields of elements  $a_i$ , in which  $\bar{a}_i$  is conjugate with respect to a square root  $\sqrt{r}$ , where r is rational and not necessarily the same as -1.

<sup>1)</sup> R. WEITZENBÖCK, loc. cit., pp. 249, 262.