GROUPS OF LINEAR OPERATORS DEFINED BY GROUP CHARACTERS

BY

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ABSTRACT. Some of the recent work on invariance questions can be regarded as follows: Characterize those linear operators on $\operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$ which preserve the character of a given representation of the full linear group. In this paper, for certain rational characters, necessary and sufficient conditions are described that ensure that the set of all such operators forms a group \mathfrak{L} . The structure of \mathfrak{L} is also determined. The proofs depend on recent results concerning derivations on symmetry classes of tensors.

1. Statements. Let G be any subgroup of the full linear group $\operatorname{GL}(n,\mathbb{C})$ over the complex numbers, and let $\mathfrak A$ denote the linear closure of G in the total matrix algebra $M_n(\mathbb{C})$. Let $K: G \to \operatorname{GL}(N,\mathbb{C})$ be a representation which is extended to a representation of the multiplicative semigroup of $\mathfrak A$ in $M_n(\mathbb{C})$. Let $\mu_K(X) = \operatorname{tr} K(X)$ be the corresponding character. Next, let $\mathfrak A(G,K)$ denote the multiplicative semigroup of all linear transformations $\mathfrak A: \mathfrak A \to \mathfrak A$ having the property that $\mathfrak A$ preserves the character of the representation K; that is,

(1)
$$\mu_{\kappa}(\mathcal{I}(X)) = \mu_{\kappa}(X), \quad X \in \mathfrak{A}.$$

The two central questions which will concern us in this paper are:

- (i) Under what circumstances is $\mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ a group, i.e., under what circumstances is it true that if (1) holds, then \mathfrak{I} is nonsingular?
 - (ii) If $\mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ is a group, then what is its structure?

Probably the first instance of a question of this kind was discussed by Frobenius [3] who proved that if $G = GL(n, \mathbb{C})$, so that $\mathfrak{U} = M_n(\mathbb{C})$, and if $K(X) = \det(X)$, then $\mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ is a group. He proved, in answer to question (ii), that for $\mathcal{T} \in \mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ there exist fixed matrices U and V in $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ such that

$$\mathcal{J}(X) = UXV$$
, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, or $\mathcal{J}(X) = UX^TV$, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$,

Received by the editors March 25, 1971.

AMS (MOS) subject classifications (1970). Primary 20G05, 15A15, 15A69; Secondary 20B05.

Key words and phrases. Representations, characters, linear transformations, elementary divisors, symmetry classes of tensors, derivations on symmetry classes.

⁽¹⁾ The work of the first author was supported by the U. S. Air Force Office of Scientific Research under AFOSR 72-2164. The work of the second author was supported by the National Science Foundation under NSF GP-20632.

where det(UV) = 1 (X^T) is the transpose of X).

A related problem was discussed by I. Schur [12]. Let $3 \le m \le n$ and \mathcal{T} : $M_n(\mathbb{C}) \to M_n(\mathbb{C})$ be a linear transformation satisfying the following condition. For each $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, the *m*th order subdeterminants of $\mathcal{T}(X)$ are fixed linearly independent linear homogeneous functions of the *m*th order subdeterminants of X. Schur proved that for such a \mathcal{T} there exist fixed matrices $U, V \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ such that

$$\mathcal{J}(X) = UXV$$
, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, or $\mathcal{J}(X) = UX^TV$, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$.

This problem can be reformulated in terms of the *m*th Grassmann compound $C_m(X)$ of X. Let S be a nonsingular linear transformation from $M_{\binom{n}{m}}(\mathbb{C})$ to itself. Characterize those linear transformations $\mathcal T$ on $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ which satisfy

$$C_m(\mathcal{J}(X)) = S(C_m(X)), \quad X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}).$$

This reformulation and a proof depending on more recent results appear in [9].

Let $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and let G be the group consisting of all $X \in GL(2, \mathbb{C})$ for which $X^* = PX^TP$. Let $K(X) = \det(X)$. As can be readily verified, $\mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ is isomorphic to the set of linear transformations mapping the real space \mathbb{R}^4 into itself and holding fixed the quadratic form

$$f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - x_3^2 - x_4^2.$$

In [8] it is proved that \mathfrak{A} consists of all $X \in M_2(\mathbb{C})$ of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} z & w \\ \overline{w} & \overline{z} \end{bmatrix}$$

and that $\mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ consists of all \mathfrak{I} of the form

$$\mathcal{J}(X) = UXV$$
, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, or $\mathcal{J}(X) = UX^TV$, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$,

where det(UV) = 1, and $U^* = PU^T P$, $V^* = PV^T P$.

In [10] it is proved that $\mathfrak{L}(G, K)$ is a group when $G = \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ and $K(X) = C_m(X)$ for $3 < m \le n$. In this instance, $\mu_K(X) = \mathrm{tr}\ C_m(X)$ is the mth elementary symmetric function of the eigenvalues of X, or equivalently, the sum of all $\binom{n}{m}$ m-square principal subdeterminants of X. In case m < n, the group $\mathfrak{L}(\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C}), C_m)$ consists of precisely those linear transformations $\mathcal I$ of the form

$$\mathcal{J}(X) = UXV$$
, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$, or $\mathcal{J}(X) = UX^TV$, $X \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$,

where $UV = e^{i\phi}I_n$ and $m\phi \equiv O(2\pi)$. This result was recently extended to include the case m=3 in [2].

Another minor modification of our problem occurs in [5]. Let $U(n, \mathbb{C})$ denote the subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ consisting of all unitary matrices. Then the semigroup

 $\mathcal L$ of all linear transformations $\mathcal I$ on $M_n(\mathbb C)$ which satisfy $\mathcal I(U(n,\,\mathbb C))\subset U(n,\,\mathbb C)$ is a group. It is shown that $\mathcal I\in\mathcal L$ if and only if there exist fixed matrices $U,\,V\in U(n,\,\mathbb C)$ such that

$$\mathcal{I}(X) = UXV$$
, $X \in M_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbb{C})$, or $\mathcal{I}(X) = UX^{T}V$, $X \in M_{\mathbf{r}}(\mathbb{C})$.

Observe that $\mathfrak{L}(\mathfrak{A}, K)$ is not always a group. Let $G = \operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ and K(X) be the mth Kronecker power $\Pi^m(X)$ of X [14]. Then $\mu_K(X) = (\operatorname{tr}(X))^m$. The annihilator map \mathcal{T} which sends each $X = (x_{ij})$ into $\mathcal{T}(X) = (y_{ij})$ where $y_{ij} = \delta_{ij} x_{ij}$ and which clearly belongs to $\mathfrak{L}(\mathcal{A}, K)$, has no inverse.

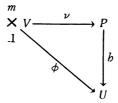
In this paper we shall discuss problems (i) and (ii) for a certain class of rational representations of the multiplicative semigroup of $\mathfrak A$ which are in fact components of the *m*th Kronecker product representation $\Pi^m(X)$. It is somewhat easier to state our results in an invariant setting.

Let H be a subgroup of the symmetric group of degree m and let χ be a character of H of degree 1. Let V be an n-dimensional vector space over \mathbb{C} ; let U be any vector space over \mathbb{C} and $\phi(v_1, \dots, v_m)$ an m-multilinear function on the Cartesian product $X_1^m V$ to U. Then ϕ is said to be symmetric with respect to H and χ if

$$\phi(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(m)}) = \chi(\sigma)\phi(v_1, \dots, v_m)$$

holds for any $\sigma \in H$ and arbitrary vectors $v_i \in V$. A pair (P, ν) consisting of a vector space P over $\mathbb C$ and a fixed m-multilinear function $\nu \colon X_1^m V \to P$, symmetric with respect to H and χ , is a symmetry class of tensors associated with H and χ if

- (i) $\langle \operatorname{rng} \nu \rangle = P$, i.e., the linear closure of the range of ν is P;
- (ii) (universal factorization property) for any vector space U over $\mathbb C$ and any m-multilinear function $\phi\colon X_1^mV\to U$, symmetric with respect to H and χ , there exists a unique linear function $h\colon P\to U$ such that $\phi=h\nu$; i.e., the following diagram is commutative.



For any linear transformation $X: V \to V$ the preceding universal factorization property permits us to define a unique linear transformation $K(X): P \to P$, the induced transformation on P, which satisfies the following identity. For arbitrary vectors v_1, \dots, v_m in V

(2)
$$K(X)\nu(\nu_1,\dots,\nu_m)=\nu(X\nu_1,\dots,X\nu_m).$$

By the spanning property of the range of ν (i.e., (i) above), (2) immediately implies that K(X) is multiplicative and in fact if $m \le n$ and $X \in \operatorname{GL}_n(V)$, the group of all linear bijections on V, then $K(X) \in \operatorname{GL}_N(P)$ where $N = \dim P$. If G is any subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}_n(V)$ and $\mathfrak A$ is the linear closure of G in $\operatorname{Hom}(V,V)$, we are thus in a position to discuss the structure of $\mathfrak A(G,K)$, which for the class of representations K(X) just defined depends on the group H and the character χ . If we identify V with the space of n-tuples over G, then of course $\operatorname{GL}_n(V)$ can be identified with $\operatorname{GL}(n,C)$ and we can ask for the structure of the semigroup $\mathfrak A(G,K)$ for the preceding class of representations K(X) of $\mathfrak A$.

Our main results follow.

Theorem 1. Let dim V=n, $H \subset S_m$, χ a character of degree 1 on H. Let (P, ν) be the symmetry class associated with H and χ and $X \to K(X)$ be a representation of $G = \operatorname{GL}_n(V)$ by induced transformations on P. If $m \leq n$ or $\chi \equiv 1$, then $\mathfrak{L}(\operatorname{GL}_n(V), K)$ is a group if and only if $H \neq \{e\}$.

Theorem 2. Let dim V = n, $H = S_m$, m > 1, $\chi \equiv 1$. Let G be a subgroup of $GL_n(V)$. If the algebra $\mathfrak A$ has the property that the conjugate transpose X^* of each X in $\mathfrak A$ is again in $\mathfrak A$, then $\mathfrak L(G,K)$ is a group.

Theorem 3. In Theorem 1, take $H = S_m$, $m \geq 3$ and $\chi \equiv 1$. Let $\mathfrak{L}_1(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K)$ denote the subgroup of $\mathfrak{L}(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K)$ of those $\mathfrak{I}: \mathrm{Hom}\,(V, V) \to \mathrm{Hom}\,(V, V)$ satisfying $\mathfrak{I}(I_V) = \xi I_V$. Then $\mathfrak{L}_1(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K)$ consists precisely of those linear transformations \mathfrak{I} which have the form

(3)
$$\mathcal{J}(X) = \xi U^{-1} X U, \quad X \in \text{Hom}(V, V),$$

or

(4)
$$\mathfrak{I}(X) = \xi U^{-1} X^T U, \qquad X \in \operatorname{Hom}(V, V).$$

Theorem 4. In Theorem 1, take $H = A_m \subset S_m$ to be the alternating group, $m \geq 3$, and $\chi \equiv 1$. The group $\mathfrak{L}_1(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K)$ consists precisely of those linear transformations \mathcal{T} of the form (3) or (4).

Corollary 1. Let dim V=n, $H=S_m$, m>1, $\chi\equiv 1$. If G is the group of all $n\times n$ permutation matrices (so that $\mathfrak A$ is the algebra of generalized doubly stochastic matrices), then $\mathfrak L(G,K)$ is a group.

Let m and n be positive integers. Let $Q_{m,n}$ (resp. $G_{m,n}$) denote the set of all strictly increasing (resp. nondecreasing) sequences of length m chosen from the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. If $f(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ is a polynomial symmetric in the indeter-

minates $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ and $X \in \text{Hom}(V, V)$, we shall denote by f(X) the value of f at the eigenvalues of X. For $m \geq 1$, let $b_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ denote the mth completely symmetric polynomial

$$b_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) = \sum_{\alpha \in G_{m,n}} \prod_{t=1}^m \lambda_{\alpha(t)};$$

and let $k_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ denote the symmetric polynomial

$$k_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) = b_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) + \sum_{\alpha \in Q_{m,n}} \prod_{t=1}^m \lambda_{\alpha(t)}$$

$$=b_m(\lambda_1,\cdots,\lambda_n)+E_m(\lambda_1,\cdots,\lambda_n),$$

where $E_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ is the *m*th elementary symmetric function of $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ when $m \le n$ and 0 if m > n.

Corollary 2. Let $m \geq 3$. Any linear transformation $\mathcal{T}: \operatorname{Hom}(V, V) \to \operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$ satisfying $\mathcal{T}(I_V) = \xi I_V$ and $h_m(\mathcal{T}(X)) = h_m(X)$, $X \in \operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$, has the form (3) or (4).

Corollary 3. Let $m \geq 3$. Any linear transformation \mathcal{T} : $\operatorname{Hom}(V, V) \to \operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$ satisfying $\mathcal{T}(I_V) = \xi I_V$ and $k_m(\mathcal{T}(X)) = k_m(X)$, $X \in \operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$, has the form (3) or (4).

We conjecture that in fact $\mathfrak{L}_1(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K) = \mathfrak{L}(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K)$ in Theorems 3 and 4. This amounts to showing that if $\mathfrak{I} : \mathrm{GL}_n(V) \to \mathrm{GL}_n(V)$ and $\mu_K(\mathfrak{I}(X)) = \mu_K(X)$ holds for all $X \in \mathrm{Hom}(V, V)$, then $\mathfrak{I}(I_V) = \xi I_V$ where $\xi^m = 1$.

2. Partial derivations. In [6] the standard notion of a derivation on a tensor algebra [4] is extended to higher order derivations on a general symmetry class (P, ν) . We shall further extend the idea of a derivation induced by a single linear transformation to partial derivations induced by two linear transformations [11].

Let T and S be in Hom (V, V) and let r + s = m. For $\omega \in Q_{r,m}$ define

(5)
$$\Pi_{\omega}(T, S) = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{m} X_{i}$$

where $X_i = T$ for $i \in \text{rng } \omega$ and $X_i = S$ otherwise. In other words (5) is the tensor product of the linear transformations T and S in which T appears in positions numbered ω and S appears elsewhere. The linear transformation (5) acts on $\bigotimes_{1}^{m} V$, which of course is the symmetry class associated with $H = \{e\}$. Define

$$\delta_{r,s}(T, S) = \sum_{\omega \in Q_{r,m}} \Pi_{\omega}(T, S).$$

In order to simplify subsequent notation we make the following convention. Let $f: Q_{r,m} \times Q_{s,m} \to R$ be any function into a set R having an associative addition. We shall let $\Sigma' f(\omega)$ denote the summation of $f(\omega, \gamma)$ over all sequences $\omega \in Q_{r,m}$, $\gamma \in Q_{s,m}$ such that $mg \ \omega \cap mg \ \gamma = \emptyset$. Next, define

$$M(X_1, \dots, X_m) = \sum_{\phi \in S_m} X_{\phi(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes X_{\phi(m)}.$$

Then it is easy to show that

(6)
$$M_{\tau,s}(T,S) = r! s! \delta_{\tau,s}(T,S),$$

where $M_{r,s}(T, S)$ denotes

$$M(\overbrace{T, \dots, T}^{r}, \overbrace{S, \dots, S}^{s}).$$

It is also a standard fact concerning symmetry classes that if the symmetry operator associated with H and χ (a linear transformation on $\bigotimes_{1}^{m}V$) is defined by

$$\tau_{\mathbf{\chi}} = \frac{1}{|H|} \sum_{\sigma \in H} \chi(\sigma) \sigma$$

 $(\sigma(v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_m) = v_{\sigma-1}(1) \otimes \cdots \otimes v_{\sigma-1}(m))$, then the pair (P, v), $P = \operatorname{rng} \tau_{\chi} \subset \bigotimes_{m}^{m} V$, $v(v_1, \cdots, v_m) = \tau_{\chi}(v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_m)$ is the symmetry class associated with H and χ . It is also easy to show that the transformation $M_{r,s}(T, S)$ satisfies $M_{r,s}(T, S)\sigma = \sigma M_{r,s}(T, S)$ for all $\sigma \in S_m$; hence any symmetry class is an invariant subspace of $M_{r,s}(T, S)$. But then in view of (6), each symmetry class is an invariant subspace of $\delta_{r,s}(T, S)$.

We define the (r, s) partial derivation associated with T and S on (P, ν) to be the restriction of $\delta_{r,s}(T, S)$ to the invariant subspace P. We denote this by $\Omega_{r,s}(T, S)$. The reason for calling $\Omega_{r,s}(T, S)$ the (r, s) partial derivation on (P, ν) is the following formula:

(7)
$$K(x_1T + x_2S) = \sum_{r+s=m} x_1^r x_2^s \Omega_{r,s}(T, S).$$

In order to verify (7) we compute that

$$K(x_1T + x_2S)\nu(\nu_1, \dots, \nu_m) = \nu((x_1T + x_2S)\nu_1, \dots, (x_1T + x_2S)\nu_m)$$

$$(8) \qquad = \sum_{r+s=m} x_1^r x_2^s \sum_{\nu} (\cdots, T\nu_{\omega(1)}, \cdots, S\nu_{\gamma(1)}, \cdots, T\nu_{\omega(r)}, \cdots, S\nu_{\gamma(s)}, \cdots),$$

where in the inside summand on the right side of (8) the T occurs in precisely the positions numbered ω and the S in positions numbered γ . On the other hand,

$$\Omega_{r,s}(T,S)\nu(\nu_1,\cdots,\nu_m)=\delta_{r,s}(T,S)\tau_{\mathbf{X}}(\nu_1\otimes\cdots\otimes\nu_m)=\tau_{\mathbf{X}}\delta_{r,s}(T,S)(\nu_1\otimes\cdots\otimes\nu_m)$$

$$(9) = \tau_{\chi} \sum' (\cdots \otimes Tv_{\omega(1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes Sv_{\gamma(1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes Tv_{\omega(r)} \otimes \cdots \otimes Sv_{\gamma(s)} \otimes \cdots)$$

$$= \sum' \nu(\cdots, Tv_{\omega(1)}, \cdots, Sv_{\gamma(1)}, \cdots, Tv_{\omega(r)}, \cdots, Sv_{\gamma(s)}, \cdots).$$

Replacing (9) in (8) we have (7).

We observe a number of elementary facts concerning the partial derivation $\Omega_{\tau,S}(T,S)$:

(i) If X and Y are in Hom(V, V), then

(10)
$$K(X)\Omega_{r,s}(T, S)K(Y) = \Omega_{r,s}(XTY, XSY).$$

This follows immediately from (7).

(ii) If V is a unitary space, then $\bigotimes_{1}^{m}V$ is also a unitary space. Thus there is a natural inner product induced on the symmetry class (P, ν) associated with H and χ . Moreover, if T^* is the conjugate dual of $T \in \operatorname{Hom}(V, V)$, then the conjugate dual of $\Omega_{\tau, S}(T, S)$ with respect to the induced inner product in (P, ν) is

(11)
$$\Omega_{r,s}(T, S)^* = \Omega_{r,s}(T^*, S^*).$$

(iii) $\Omega_{1,m-1}(T,S)$ is linear in T and $\Omega_{m-1,1}(T,S)$ is linear in S.

A somewhat more combinatorially involved description is necessary to itemize the eigenvalues of $\Omega_{r,s}(T,S)$. In order to describe a basis for an arbitrary symmetry class associated with H and χ , we regard the elements of H as permutations acting on the functions (i.e., sequences) in $\Gamma_{m,n} = Z_n^{Zm}$, where $Z_q = \{1, 2, \dots, q\}$ and for $\sigma \in H$, $\alpha \in \Gamma_{m,n}$,

$$\sigma((\alpha))(t)=\alpha(\sigma^{-1}(t)), \qquad t\in Z_m.$$

Let Δ denote a system of distinct representatives for the orbits in $\Gamma_{m,n}$ induced by H, and let $\overline{\Delta}$ denote the set of all of those elements $\alpha \in \Delta$ for which the character χ is identically 1 on the stabilizer subgroup $H_{\alpha} = \{\sigma \in H : \sigma(\alpha) = \alpha\}$. Let $n(\alpha) = |H_{\alpha}|$. It is routine to verify that if $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is a basis of V, then the decomposable elements $\nu(e_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, e_{\alpha(m)})$, $\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}$ form a basis for P. In fact, if $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is an orthonormal (hereafter abbreviated o.n.) basis of V, then the $|\overline{\Delta}|$ decomposable elements $(|H|/n(\alpha))^{1/2}\nu(e_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, e_{\alpha(m)})$ form an o.n. basis for P with respect to the induced inner product in $\bigotimes_{1}^{m} V$ defined by

$$(x_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes x_m, y_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes y_m) = \prod_{i=1}^m (x_i, y_i).$$

If we choose the system of distinct representatives Δ so that each sequence $\alpha \in \Delta$ is lowest in lexicographic order in the orbit in which it lies, then it is easy to see that $Q_{m,n} \subset \overline{\Delta}$ and $G_{m,n} \subset \Delta$, whatever the group H and character χ may be [7].

If we use the fact that for any pair (T, S) of commuting linear transformations there exists a common triangular o.n. basis, then it is not difficult to prove the following [11]:

(iv) If ST = TS and the eigenvalues of T and S are $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ and $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n$ respectively, then after a suitable reordering of the κ_i 's, the eigenvalues of $\Omega_{r,s}(T,S)$ are the numbers

(12)
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\prime} \lambda_{\alpha\omega(i)} \prod_{j=1}^{s} \kappa_{\alpha\gamma(j)}, \quad \alpha \in \overline{\Delta}.$$

In particular, if r=1 and s=m-1, then the eigenvalues of $\Omega_{1,m-1}(T,S)$ are

(13)
$$\sum_{t=1}^{m} \lambda_{\alpha(t)} \prod_{j=t}^{m} \kappa_{\alpha(j)}, \quad \alpha \in \overline{\Delta}.$$

Some additional combinatorial maneuvering will be required: if $\alpha \in \Gamma_{m,n}$ and $1 \le t \le n$, then let $m_t(\alpha)$ denote the number of integers i in $\{1, 2, \cdots, m\}$ for which $\alpha(i) = t$; i.e., $m_t(\alpha)$ is the multiplicity of occurrence of t in the range of α . More generally, if $p_1 + \cdots + p_r = n$ is a partition of n into positive parts, we define

$$\eta_t(\alpha) = \sum_{j=P_{t-1}+1}^{P_t} m_j(\alpha)$$

where $P_t = p_1 + \cdots + p_t$; i.e., $\eta_t(\alpha)$ is the number of times any integer k satisfying $P_{t-1} < k \le P_t$ occurs in the range of α . We can write the eigenvalues (13) of $\Omega_{1,m-1}(T,S)$ in a form somewhat more suitable for our subsequent computations. Suppose that the eigenvalues of T are given by

(14)
$$\lambda_1 = \cdots = \lambda_{P_1} = l_1; \lambda_{P_1+1} = \cdots = \lambda_{P_2} = l_2; \cdots; \lambda_{P_{r-1}+1} = \cdots = \lambda_{P_r} = l_r$$

where the numbers l_t are distinct. Suppose, moreover, that f(x) is an arbitrary scalar polynomial and S = f(T). In this case the ordering (14) of the eigenvalues of T induces a corresponding ordering of the eigenvalues $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n$ of S, i.e.,

$$\kappa_1 = \cdots = \kappa_{P_1} = k_1; \; \kappa_{P_1+1} = \cdots = \kappa_{P_2} = k_2; \; \cdots; \; \kappa_{P_{r-1}+1} = \cdots = \kappa_n = k_r.$$

Since the ploynomial f(x) can be chosen arbitrarily, it follows that the numbers k_t may be chosen arbitrarily. Regarding the k_t as momentarily all different from zero, we see that the eigenvalues (13) become

(15)
$$\sum_{t=1}^{m} \lambda_{\alpha(t)} \prod_{j \neq t}^{m} \kappa_{\alpha(j)} = \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\lambda_{\alpha(t)}}{\kappa_{\alpha(t)}} \prod_{j=1}^{m} \kappa_{\alpha(j)} = \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{\lambda_{\alpha(t)}}{\kappa_{\alpha(t)}} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \kappa_{j}^{m_{j}(\alpha)}$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{n} m_{t}(\alpha) \frac{\lambda_{t}}{\kappa_{t}} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \kappa_{j}^{m_{j}(\alpha)} = \sum_{t=1}^{r} \eta_{t}(\alpha) \frac{l_{t}}{k_{t}} \prod_{j=1}^{r} k_{j}^{\eta_{j}(\alpha)}$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{r} \eta_{t}(\alpha) l_{t} k_{t}^{\eta_{t}(\alpha)-1} \cdot \prod_{j \neq t}^{r} k_{j}^{\eta_{j}(\alpha)}.$$

If we interpret 0^0 as 1, then (15) holds even when some of the numbers k_t are zero. We now have the following formula for the trace of $\Omega_{1,m-1}(T,S)$:

(16)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(T,S) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Delta} \sum_{t=1}^{r} \eta_{t}(\alpha) l_{t} k_{t}^{\eta_{t}(\alpha)-1} \prod_{j \neq t}^{r} k_{j}^{\eta_{j}(\alpha)} \\ = \sum_{t=1}^{r} l_{t} \left(\sum_{\alpha \in \Delta} \eta_{t}(\alpha) k_{t}^{\eta_{t}(\alpha)-1} \prod_{j \neq t}^{r} k_{j}^{\eta_{j}(\alpha)} \right).$$

3. Proofs.

Lemma 1. Let G be any subgroup of $GL_n(V)$ and $\mathcal{T} \in \mathfrak{L}(G, K)$. Then if $A \in \ker \mathcal{T}$,

(17)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(A, X) = 0, \quad X \in \mathfrak{A}.$$

Proof. Let x_1 , x_2 be indeterminates over C. From (7) we have

$$K(x_1A + x_2X) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} x_1^r x_2^{m-r} \Omega_{r,m-r}(A, X).$$

Thus, if $\Im(A) = 0$ we have

(18)
$$\operatorname{tr} \sum_{r=0}^{m} x_{1}^{r} x_{2}^{m-r} \Omega_{r,m-r}(A, X) = \mu_{K}(x_{1}A + x_{2}X) = \mu_{K}(\mathcal{I}(x_{1}A + x_{2}X))$$
$$= \mu_{K}(\mathcal{I}(x_{2}X)) = \mu_{K}(x_{2}X) = x_{2}^{m} \mu_{K}(X).$$

If we equate coefficients in (18) we obtain

tr
$$\Omega_{r,m-r}(A, X) = 0$$
, $r = 1, 2, \dots, m$,

and hence (17) follows.

Proof of Theorem 1. Assume $H \neq \{e\}$ and let $A \in \ker \mathcal{T}$. We show that A = 0. By (10) we can assume that (17) holds for all X and that A is in Jordan normal form.

Lemma 2. If every elementary divisor of A is linear and A $\in \ker \mathcal{I}$, then A = 0.

Proof. By (iii) of § 2, (17) becomes

(19)
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(E_{ii}, X) = 0, \quad X \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C}).$$

We first assume that $\chi\equiv 1$. The eigenvalues of E_{ii} are $\lambda_i=1$ and $\lambda_j=0$, $j\neq i$; while those of E_{kk} are $\kappa_k=1$ and $\kappa_j=0$, $j\neq k$. Hence

(20)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(E_{kk}, E_{kk}) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Delta} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \kappa_{\alpha(t)} \prod_{i \neq t}^{m} \kappa_{\alpha(i)} = \sum_{t=1}^{m} \kappa_{k}^{m} = m,$$

because the only term which survives in the inner summation in (20) is the term corresponding to that α for which $\alpha(1)=\alpha(2)=\cdots=\alpha(m)=k$. We remark that this sequence is always in $\overline{\Delta}$ since, as we remarked, $G_{m,n}\subset\overline{\Delta}$ when $\chi\equiv 1$. If $i\neq k$, we again compute that

(21)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(E_{ii}, E_{kk}) = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Lambda}} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \lambda_{\alpha(t)} \prod_{j \neq t} \kappa_{\alpha(j)} = \sum_{\beta \in \overline{\Lambda}} 1 \cdot 1^{m-1}$$

where the inner summation in (21) is over precisely those $\beta \in \overline{\Delta}$ for which $m_k(\beta) = m-1$ and $m_i(\beta) = 1$. Once again, since $G_{m,n} \subset \overline{\Delta}$, such sequences exist and we let p_{ik} denote their number. We assert that p_{ik} is independent of the pair (i, k); for if P is an arbitrary permutation matrix we have from (10)

$$p_{ik} = \text{tr } \Omega_{1.m-1}(E_{ii}, E_{kk}) = \text{tr } \Omega_{1.m-1}(P^T E_{ii}P, P^T E_{kk}P).$$

Obviously if $i \neq k$, we can choose P so that $P^T E_{ii} P = E_{i'i'}$ and $P^T E_{kk} P = E_{k'k'}$ for any preassigned distinct integers i', k'. We set p equal to the common value of the p_{ik} . We next assert that p < m, for since $H \neq \{e\}$, there must exist at least two sequences $\alpha \neq \beta$ in the same H-orbit for which $m_k(\alpha) = m_k(\beta) = m - 1$ and $m_i(\alpha) = m_i(\beta) = 1$. Thus there are at most m - 1 elements of $\overline{\Delta}$ with that property. If we set X successively equal to E_{kk} , $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, in (19) we obtain the following system of linear equations:

$$ma_{ii} + \sum_{k \neq i} pa_{kk} = 0, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Since p < m, the coefficient matrix in this system is nonsingular and we conclude that $a_{ii} = 0$ for $1 \le i \le n$. Thus since the elementary divisors of A are linear we conclude A = 0.

We now consider the case in which $\chi \neq 1$. If x is an indeterminate, then since E_{ii} and $I_n + xE_{11}$ commute we have from (13) that

(22)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(E_{ii}, I_n + xE_{11}) = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} \sum_{t=1}^m \lambda_{\alpha(t)} \prod_{j \neq t} \kappa_{\alpha(j)}$$
$$= \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} \prod_{j=1}^n \kappa_j^{m_j(\alpha)} \sum_{t=1}^n m_t(\alpha) \frac{\lambda_t}{\kappa_t}$$

where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are again the eigenvalues of E_{ii} and $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n$ are the eigenvalues of $I_n + \kappa E_{11}$. In case i = 1, the right side of (22) becomes

(23)
$$\sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Lambda}} m_1(\alpha) (1+x)^{m_1(\alpha)-1}$$

which we denote by $\phi_1(x)$. If i > 1, we see that the value of (22) (which is of course the same for $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$) is

(24)
$$\phi_2(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} m_2(\alpha) (1+x)^{m_1(\alpha)}.$$

With $X = I_n + xE_{11}$ in (19) we have from (23) and (24) that

$$a_{11}\phi_{1}(x) + \phi_{2}(x) \sum_{i=2}^{n} a_{ii}$$

$$= a_{11} \sum_{\alpha \in X} m_{1}(\alpha)(1+x)^{m_{1}(\alpha)-1} + \left(\sum_{i=2}^{n} a_{ii}\right) \left(\sum_{\alpha \in X} m_{2}(\alpha)(1+x)^{m_{1}(\alpha)}\right) = 0.$$

We observe that

$$q_j = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Lambda}} m_j(\alpha)$$

is independent of j and we denote this common value by q. A proof of this can be based on the fact that the eigenvalues of K(X) are

$$\prod_{j=1}^{m} x_{\alpha(j)} = \prod_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}^{m_{j}(\alpha)}, \quad \alpha \in \overline{\Delta},$$

where x_1, \dots, x_n are the eigenvalues of X. Thus

$$\det(K(X)) = \prod_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} \prod_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}^{m_{j}(\alpha)} = \prod_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}^{q_{j}}.$$

Since $\det(K(P^TXP)) = \det(K(X))$ for any permutation matrix P, we conclude that

$$\prod_{j=1}^n x_j^{q_j} = \prod_{j=1}^n x_{\sigma(j)}^{q_j}, \quad \sigma \in S_n.$$

And since x_1, \dots, x_n are arbitrary, $q_1 = q_2 = \dots = q_n$. For example, it is easy to compute that

$$q = q_1 = \sum_{\alpha \in Q_{m,n}} m_1(\alpha) = \binom{n-1}{m-1};$$

and since K(X) is the familiar mth compound martix $C_m(X)$ we see that

$$\det C_m(X) = \prod_{i=1}^m x_i^q = (\det(X))^{\binom{n-1}{m-1}},$$

and we have as a corollary to our computations the well-known Sylvester-Franke theorem [1]. For x = 0, (25) becomes q tr A = 0 and hence tr A = 0; we therefore rewrite (25) as

(27)
$$(\phi_1(x) - \phi_2(x))a_{11} = 0.$$

Clearly,

$$\deg \phi_1(x) = \max_{\alpha \in \overline{\Lambda}} m_1(\alpha) - 1.$$

Now $\chi \not\equiv 1$, and thus there exists $\beta \in \overline{\Delta}$ and $1 < j \le n$ such that

$$j \in \operatorname{rng} \beta$$
, $m_1(\beta) = \max_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} m_1(\alpha)$,

for otherwise $\max_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} m_1(\alpha) = m$ and $\alpha = (1, 1, \dots, 1) \in \overline{\Delta}$. But the stabilizer of this α is obviously all of H and it would follow that $\Sigma_{\sigma \in H} \chi(\sigma) \neq 0$ so that $\Sigma_{\sigma \in H} \chi(\sigma) = |H|$. This can only happen if $\chi \equiv 1$, since χ is a character of degree 1. Hence

$$\deg \phi_1(x) = m_1(\beta) - 1$$
 and $\deg \phi_2(x) = m_1(\beta)$,

so that $\phi_1(x) - \phi_2(x) \neq 0$. From (27) it follows that a_{11} (and hence any a_{ii}) is 0. Thus A = 0, completing the proof of Lemma 2. We can now remove the condition that A has linear elementary divisors.

Lemma 3. If $A \in \ker \mathcal{I}$, then A = 0.

Proof. From (11) we know that

$$\Omega_{1,m-1}(A,X)^* = \Omega_{1,m-1}(A^*,X^*).$$

Since (17) holds for all X, we have tr $\Omega_{1,m-1}(A^*,X)=0$ and hence tr $\Omega_{1,m-1}(A\pm A^*,X)=0$. Now $A\pm A^*$ is normal and hence has linear elementary divisors. Applying Lemma 2, we conclude that $A\pm A^*=0$ and therefore A=0.

We have proved that if $H \neq \{e\}$ and $m \leq n$ or $\chi \equiv 1$, then any $\mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{L}(GL_n(V), K)$ is nonsingular; since we have observed that this set obviously forms a semigroup, it is in fact a group. Conversely, if $H = \{e\}$, then the symmetry class P is just the mth tensor space $\bigotimes_{1}^{m} V$ and $K(X) = \prod_{1}^{m} (X)$. As we saw in $\S 1$, $\mathcal{L}(G, K)$ is not a group. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.

Proof of Theorem 2. We observe that if $A \in \mathbb{U}$ and f(x) is any scalar polynomial, then $f(A) \in \mathbb{U}$. The eigenvalues of $\Omega_{1,m-1}(A, f(A))$ are given by (13) where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A and $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n$ are the eigenvalues of f(A). Moreover, it is clear that the values of f(x) may be arbitrarily assigned at the distinct eigenvalues of A.

Since $H=S_m$ and $\chi\equiv 1$, the symmetry class P is precisely the mth completely symmetric space, usually denoted by $V^{(m)}$ [4], and the sequence set $\overline{\Delta}$ is precisely $G_{m,n}$. Once again the problem is to show that if $\Im(A)=0$, then A=0.

We have from Lemma 1 and formula (16) that

(28)
$$\sum_{t=1}^{r} l_{t} \left(\sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} \eta_{t}(\alpha) k_{t}^{\eta_{t}(\alpha)-1} \prod_{j \neq t}^{r} k_{j}^{\eta_{j}(\alpha)} \right) = 0$$

in which the distinct eigenvalues of A are described in (14) and the numbers k_1, \dots, k_r may be chosen arbitrarily. The first part of the proof is devoted to showing that all the eigenvalues of A are equal (i.e., that r=1). Assume then that r>1. For a fixed t, set $k_t=1$ and $k_j=0$ for $j\neq t$; observe that the coefficient of l, in (28) is

$$m \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}, \ \eta_{\bullet}(\alpha)=m} 1 = m \binom{p_t + m - 1}{m},$$

where the indicated binomial coefficient is just a count of the total number of sequences α in $G_{m,n}$ such that rng $\alpha \in \{P_{t-1}+1, \dots, P_t\}$. The coefficient of l_s , $s \neq t$, in (28) is

(29)
$$\sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}, \ \eta_{S}(\alpha)=1, \ \eta_{t}(\alpha)=m-1} 1,$$

which is a count of the total number of nondecreasing sequences α of length m which have the property that $\operatorname{rng} \alpha$ contains precisely 1 integer in the interval $[P_{s-1}+1, P_s]$ and m-1 integers in $[P_{t-1}+1, P_t]$. Since there are precisely

$$(30) \qquad {\binom{p_t + m - 2}{m - 1}} \cdot p_s$$

such sequences, the value of (29) is (30). Thus (28) for the choice $k_t = 1$, $k_j = 0$ for $j \neq t$ is

$$l_{t}m \binom{p_{t}+m-1}{m} + \sum_{s\neq t}^{r} l_{s}p_{s} \binom{p_{t}+m-2}{m-1} = 0,$$

or

(31)
$$l_t(p_t + m - 1) + \sum_{s \neq t}^{\tau} l_s p_s = 0.$$

Consider the system of homogeneous linear equations for l_1, \dots, l_r obtained by setting $t = 1, 2, \dots, r$ in (31). By setting $k_1 = \dots = k_r = 1$ in (28) we obtain the following additional condition on the l's:

(32)
$$\sum_{t=1}^{r} l_{t} \left(\sum_{\alpha \in \Delta} \eta_{t}(\alpha) \right) = 0.$$

Now by (26)

$$\sum_{\alpha\in\overline{\Delta}}\eta_t(\alpha)=\sum_{\alpha\in\overline{\Delta}}\sum_{j=P_{t-1}+1}^{P_t}m_j(\alpha)=\sum_{j=P_{t-1}+1}^{P_t}q_j=p_t\cdot q.$$

Thus (32) becomes

$$\sum_{s=1}^{r} l_s p_s = 0.$$

Combining the system (31) with (33) we have $(m-1)l_t = 0$, $t = 1, \dots, r$, and thus $l_t = 0$, $t = 1, \dots, r$, contradicting the fact that the l_1, \dots, l_r are distinct. Hence r = 1. In other words, the condition

(34)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(A, X) = 0, \quad X \in \mathcal{U},$$

implies that all the eigenvalues of A are equal. If we set $X = I_n$ in (34) we then see that

$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(A, I_n) = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} \sum_{t=1}^m \lambda_{\alpha(t)} = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} \sum_{t=1}^n m_t(\alpha) \lambda_t$$
$$= \sum_{t=1}^n q \cdot \lambda_t = q \operatorname{tr} A = 0.$$

Thus we conclude that if $\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{1,m-1}(A,X)=0$, $X\in \mathbb{X}$, then all the eigenvalues of A are zero. By repeating precisely the same argument as we gave in Lemma 3, we can conclude that the eigenvalues of both of the normal matrices A+A are zero and hence A=0. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

The proof of Corollary 1 is now obvious, since the conjugate transpose of a generalized doubly stochastic matrix is a matrix of the same kind.

Proof of Theorem 3. We are assuming that \mathcal{I} : $\operatorname{Hom}(V,\,V) \to \operatorname{Hom}(V,\,V)$ satisfies

(35)
$$\mu_K(\mathcal{J}(X)) = \mu_K(X), \quad X \in \text{Hom}(V, V).$$

Since $\mu_K(\xi X) = \xi^m \mu_K(X)$ it is clear that we may assume $\mathcal{I}(I_n) = I_n$. From (35) we have

tr
$$K(\mathcal{I}(I_n + xX)) = \mu_K(\mathcal{I}(I_n + xX)) = \mu_K(I_n + xX) = \text{tr } K(I_n + xX).$$

From (7) with $T = I_n$, S = X, $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = x$ we have

$$\sum_{r=0}^{m} x^{r} \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_{n}, \mathcal{I}(X)) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} x^{r} \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_{n}, X)$$

and thus

(36)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n, \mathcal{I}(X)) = \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n, X).$$

Let $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n$ be the eigenvalues of X. Then as we know from (12), the eigenvalues of $\Omega_{m-r,r}(l_n, X)$ are

(37)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{r} \kappa_{\alpha \gamma(j)}, \quad \alpha \in \overline{\Lambda},$$

where we recall that the prime indicates that the summation is over all $\gamma \in Q_{r,m}$. But the expression (37) is precisely the π th elementary symmetric function of $\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)}, E_r(\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)})$. Thus

(38)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n, X) = \sum_{\alpha \in G_{m-n}} E_r(\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)}),$$

and an elementary induction argument shows that the right-hand side of (38) is precisely

(39)
$$\binom{m+n-1}{m-r} b_r(\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n),$$

where h_{τ} denotes the τ th completely symmetric polynomial in the κ 's. From (36) and (39) it follows that

$$b_r(\kappa_1,\dots,\kappa_n')=b_r(\kappa_1,\dots,\kappa_n), \qquad r=1, 2,\dots, m,$$

where the $\kappa_1', \dots, \kappa_n'$ are the eigenvalues of $\mathcal{I}(X)$. But by Wronski's relations [13] we know that the completely symmetric polynomials h_1, \dots, h_m form an integral polynomial basis for the space of all integral homogeneous symmetric polynomials of degree m. Thus it follows that

$$E_r(\kappa'_1, \dots, \kappa'_n) = E_r(\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_n), \quad r = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

In other words, we have proved that the rth elementary symmetric function of the eigenvalues of both X and $\mathcal{I}(X)$ are equal, $r=1, 2, \dots, m$; and we are in a position to apply a theorem of Marcus and Purves [10] (recently extended by Beasley [2]) which states that any such transformation must have one of the two forms indicated in (3) or (4). This completes the proof of Theorem 3.

The proof of Corollary 2 is an immediate consequence of Theorem 3. For, the eigenvalues of K(X) when $H = S_m$, $\chi \equiv 1$, $P = V^{(m)}$ are the $\binom{n+m-1}{m}$

homogeneous products

$$\prod_{t=1}^{n} \lambda_{t}^{m_{t}(\alpha)}, \quad \alpha \in G_{m,n},$$

and hence

$$\mu_K(X) = \operatorname{tr} K(X) = \sum_{\alpha \in G_{m,n}} \prod_{t=1}^n \lambda_t^{m_t(\alpha)} = b_m(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n).$$

Proof of Theorem 4. Once again we can assume that $\mathcal{I}(I_n) = I_n$. Our first task is to determine the structure of the $\overline{\Delta}$ set for $H=A_m$ and $\chi\equiv 1$. There are two cases to consider: $m \leq n$ and m > n. Let $\omega \in \Gamma_{m,n}$. If the integers in rng ω are distinct, then let α be the sequence such that $mg \alpha = mg \omega$ and $\alpha(1) < \alpha(2) < \alpha(3)$ $\cdots < \alpha(m)$, and let β be the sequence such that rng $\beta = \operatorname{rng} \omega$ and $\beta(1) < \beta(2) < \infty$ $\cdots < \beta(m-2) < \beta(m) < \beta(m-1)$. It is clear that α and β lie in distinct A_m -orbits and that any other sequence $\gamma \in \Gamma_{m,n}$ for which $\operatorname{rng} \gamma = \operatorname{rng} \omega$ is in the same A_m -orbit with either α or β . Thus each such sequence $\omega \in \Gamma_{m,n}$ gives rise to two elements in $\overline{\Delta}$, namely α and β . On the other hand, if $\omega \in \Gamma_{m,n}$ satisfies $m_t(\omega) \ge 2$ for some $1 \le t \le n$, then it is obvious that there exists a sequence α in $G_{m,n}$ in the same A_m -orbit with ω . Thus in the case $m \leq n$, the system of distinct representatives may be chosen to be $\overline{\Delta} = G_{m,n} \cup Q'_{m,n}$, where $Q'_{m,n}$ consists of precisely those sequences β for which $\beta(1) < \beta(2) < \cdots < \beta(m-2) < \cdots$ $\beta(m) < \beta(m-1)$. In the case that m > n, then it is clear that any sequence $\omega \in$ $\overline{\Delta}$ lies in the same A_m -orbit with a sequence $\alpha \in G_{m,n}$, so that we can choose $\Delta = G_{m,n}$. In order to deal with both cases at once we will let $Q'_{m,n} = \emptyset$ if

Precisely as in (36) we see that if $\mathcal{I} \in \mathfrak{L}_1(\mathrm{GL}_n(V), K)$, then

(40)
$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r}(I_n, \mathcal{J}(X)) = \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r}(I_n, X), \quad X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}).$$

The eigenvalues of $\Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n, X)$ are precisely the numbers

$$E_r(\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \ldots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)}), \quad \alpha \in \overline{\Delta},$$

and thus

$$\operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_{n}, X) = \sum_{\alpha \in \overline{\Delta}} E_{r}(\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)})$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha \in G_{m,n}} E_{r}(\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)}) + \sum_{\alpha \in Q'_{m,n}} E_{r}(\kappa_{\alpha(1)}, \dots, \kappa_{\alpha(m)})$$

$$= \binom{n+m-1}{m-r} b_{r}(\kappa_{1}, \dots, \kappa_{n}) + \binom{n-r}{m-r} E_{r}(\kappa_{1}, \dots, \kappa_{n}).$$

In case m > n, the elementary symmetric function does not appear in (41) and it is clear from (40) that

$$b_r(\mathcal{I}(X)) = \binom{n+m-1}{m-r}^{-1} \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n, \mathcal{I}(X))$$

$$= \binom{n+m-1}{m-r}^{-1} \operatorname{tr} \Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n, X)$$

$$= b_r(X), \qquad r = 1, 2, \dots, m; X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}).$$

Hence by Corollary 2, \mathcal{I} has the required form. On the other hand, if $3 \leq m \leq n$, then using Wronski's relations we have

tr
$$\Omega_{m-1,1}(I_n, X) = aE_1(X)$$
,
tr $\Omega_{m-2,2}(I_n, X) = bb_2(X) + cE_2(X)$
 $= b(E_1^2(X) - E_2(X)) + cE_2(X)$
 $= (c - b)E_2(X) + bE_1^2(X)$,
tr $\Omega_{m-3,3}(I_n, X) = db_3(X) + eE_3(X)$
 $= d(E_1^3(X) - 2E_1(X)E_2(X) + E_3(X)) + eE_3(X)$
 $= (d + e)E_3(X) - 2dE_1(X)E_2(X) + dE_1^3(X)$,

where $a=\binom{m+n-1}{m-1}+\binom{n-1}{m-1}$, $b=\binom{n+m-1}{m-2}$, $c=\binom{n-2}{m-2}$, $d=\binom{n+m-1}{m-3}$ and $e=\binom{n-3}{m-3}$. Observe that d+e>0, $c-b\neq 0$, $a\neq 0$; thus the relations (42) allow us to express $E_3(X)$ as a polynomial in $\operatorname{tr}\Omega_{m-r,r}(I_n,X)$, r=1,2,3. It follows from (40), then, that $E_3(\mathcal{T}(X))=E_3(X)$, $X\in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ and hence we can conclude as before that \mathcal{T} has the required form. This completes the proof of Theorem 4.

By similar arguments Corollary 3 follows from Theorem 4. For, the eigenvalues of K(X) when $H=A_m$, $\chi\equiv 1$ are the numbers

$$\prod_{t=1}^{n} \lambda^{m_t(\alpha)}, \quad \alpha \in G_{m,n} \cup Q'_{m,n},$$

and hence

$$\mu_{K}(X) = \operatorname{tr} K(X) = \sum_{\alpha \in G_{m,n}} \prod_{t=1}^{n} \lambda_{t}^{m_{t}(\alpha)} + \sum_{\alpha \in Q_{m,n}} \prod_{t=1}^{n} \lambda_{t}^{m_{t}(\alpha)}$$
$$= k_{m}(\lambda_{1}, \dots, \lambda_{n}).$$

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