

Irreducible representations of the symmetric group

J.P. Cossey
University of Arizona

November 12, 2007

The big picture:

- ▶ I'm interested in representations of finite groups...

The big picture:

- ▶ I'm interested in representations of finite groups...
- ▶ ...but combinatorics is fun and is accessible to everyone.

The big picture:

- ▶ I'm interested in representations of finite groups...
- ▶ ...but combinatorics is fun and is accessible to everyone.
- ▶ Somewhere between the two lies the representation theory of the symmetric group.

Recall that the symmetric group S_n is the group of bijections from the set

$$\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

to itself.

Recall that the symmetric group S_n is the group of bijections from the set

$$\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

to itself.

We will use the standard cycle notation: the function π defined by $\pi(1) = 5, \pi(5) = 2, \pi(2) = 7, \pi(7) = 1, \pi(4) = 6$, and $\pi(6) = 4$ is denoted by the element

$$\pi = (1527)(46) \in S_7.$$

Note that 3 is fixed under this permutation, and we omit 3 when we write π .

We compose functions from left to right, so that if $\pi = (1527)(46)$ and $\rho = (134)(256)$, then

$$\pi\rho = (1527)(46)(134)(256) = (16)(2734).$$

We compose functions from left to right, so that if $\pi = (1527)(46)$ and $\rho = (134)(256)$, then

$$\pi\rho = (1527)(46)(134)(256) = (16)(2734).$$

Recall that if g is an element of a group G , then the conjugacy class $cl(g)$ of g is defined by

$$cl(g) = \{x^{-1}gx \mid x \in G\}.$$

We compose functions from left to right, so that if $\pi = (1527)(46)$ and $\rho = (134)(256)$, then

$$\pi\rho = (1527)(46)(134)(256) = (16)(2734).$$

Recall that if g is an element of a group G , then the conjugacy class $cl(g)$ of g is defined by

$$cl(g) = \{x^{-1}gx \mid x \in G\}.$$

The conjugacy classes of S_n will be of great interest to us, so we point out that in S_n , two elements π and ρ are conjugate if and only if they have the same cycle type - that is, if for each positive integer k , there are the same number of cycles of length k in π and of length k in ρ .

Thus, for instance, the elements $(1345)(678)$ and $(1923)(457)$ are conjugate in S_9 .

If we insist on ordering our cycles from largest to smallest, then we can associate to each conjugacy class of S_n a **partition** λ of n , which is a nonincreasing sequence $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ of nonnegative integers such that

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k = n.$$

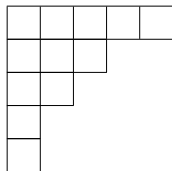
Thus, for instance, the elements $(1345)(678)$ and $(1923)(457)$ are conjugate in S_9 .

If we insist on ordering our cycles from largest to smallest, then we can associate to each conjugacy class of S_n a **partition** λ of n , which is a nonincreasing sequence $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ of nonnegative integers such that

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k = n.$$

Thus $(1345)(678)$ corresponds to the partition $\{4, 3, 1, 1\}$ of 9 (note that 2 and 9 are fixed).

We can associate a **Young diagram** to each partition of n - for example, the partition $\lambda = (5, 3, 2, 1, 1)$ of 12 has the associated Young diagram $T_\lambda =$



Thus we have the following natural correspondence:

$$\{\text{Conjugacy classes of } S_n\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{Young diagrams of size } n\}$$

We are interested in the representations of the symmetric group. For now, G is any finite group, and \mathbb{F} is any field. All of our vector spaces will be assumed to be finite dimensional.

Definition

A **representation** \mathcal{X} of G of degree n over \mathbb{F} is a homomorphism

$$\mathcal{X} : G \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{F}).$$

In this case, we say that n is the degree of the representation.

Note, then, that any representation of G over a field \mathbb{F} naturally induces an action of G on \mathbb{F}^n . We then have the following useful equivalent definition:

Definition

If G is a group and V is a vector space, then we say that V is a G -module, or a representation of G , if G acts on V . (Recall that this just means that $1 \in G$ acts trivially, and for $v \in V$ and $g, h \in G$, we have $(v \cdot g) \cdot h = v \cdot (gh)$).

Why should we care about representations?

Why should we care about representations?

- ▶ Representations are interesting in their own right (McKay conjecture, Alperin weight conjecture).

Why should we care about representations?

- ▶ Representations are interesting in their own right (McKay conjecture, Alperin weight conjecture).
- ▶ Representations tell us interesting things about groups (Odd-order theorem, classification of simple groups).

Why should we care about representations?

- ▶ Representations are interesting in their own right (McKay conjecture, Alperin weight conjecture).
- ▶ Representations tell us interesting things about groups (Odd-order theorem, classification of simple groups).
- ▶ Representations tell us interesting things about lots of other topics (wireless network design, probabilities of card-shuffling).

Sometimes a representation is too much information to keep track of, but we can still get most of the useful information by looking at the associated character:

Definition

If \mathcal{X} is a representation of degree n of the finite group G over the field \mathbb{F} , then the **character** χ associated with \mathcal{X} is just the composition of \mathcal{X} with the trace map, i.e. $\chi(g) = \text{tr}(\mathcal{X}(g))$.

Sometimes a representation is too much information to keep track of, but we can still get most of the useful information by looking at the associated character:

Definition

If \mathcal{X} is a representation of degree n of the finite group G over the field \mathbb{F} , then the **character** χ associated with \mathcal{X} is just the composition of \mathcal{X} with the trace map, i.e. $\chi(g) = \text{tr}(\mathcal{X}(g))$.

Since the trace is invariant under conjugation by invertible matrices, then characters are constant on conjugacy classes.

Some representations appear to be different, but are actually the same:

Definition

Two representations \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are **equivalent** if there exists an invertible matrix M such that, for all $g \in G$, we have

$$M^{-1}\mathcal{X}(g)M = \mathcal{Y}(g).$$

Equivalently, we say two G -modules V and W are equivalent if there exists an invertible linear map $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that $T(v \cdot g) = T(v) \cdot g$ for all $g \in G$.

Some representations appear to be different, but are actually the same:

Definition

Two representations \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are **equivalent** if there exists an invertible matrix M such that, for all $g \in G$, we have

$$M^{-1}\mathcal{X}(g)M = \mathcal{Y}(g).$$

Equivalently, we say two G -modules V and W are equivalent if there exists an invertible linear map $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that $T(v \cdot g) = T(v) \cdot g$ for all $g \in G$.

Notice that equivalent representations afford the same character.

Representations break down into pieces, the **irreducible** representations:

Definition

A representation V is irreducible if there does not exist a proper nontrivial subspace W of V such that W is also a representation.

Representations break down into pieces, the **irreducible** representations:

Definition

A representation V is irreducible if there does not exist a proper nontrivial subspace W of V such that W is also a representation.

Notice that if χ is a character afforded by an irreducible representation, then χ cannot be written as $\alpha + \beta$ for characters α and β .

Let's look at an example: Let $G = S_n$, and let $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ be the standard basis for \mathbb{C}^n .

Let S_n act on \mathbb{C}^n in the natural way: if

$$v = \alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n,$$

then

$$v \cdot \pi = \alpha_1 e_{\pi(1)} + \dots + \alpha_n e_{\pi(n)}.$$

Let's look at an example: Let $G = S_n$, and let $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ be the standard basis for \mathbb{C}^n .

Let S_n act on \mathbb{C}^n in the natural way: if

$$v = \alpha_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n,$$

then

$$v \cdot \pi = \alpha_1 e_{\pi(1)} + \dots + \alpha_n e_{\pi(n)}.$$

For instance, if $n = 4$, then under this representation,

$$(143) \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This does not give us an irreducible representation. Notice that the subspace W defined by $W = \{v \in \mathbb{C}^n \mid \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_n\}$ is fixed by S_n .

This does not give us an irreducible representation. Notice that the subspace W defined by $W = \{v \in \mathbb{C}^n \mid \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_n\}$ is fixed by S_n .

However, W is irreducible (it has dimension 1), and the complement,

$$W^\perp = \left\{ v \in V \mid \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k = 0 \right\}$$

is irreducible of degree $n - 1$.

If our field is \mathbb{C} , there are lots of nice results:

If our field is \mathbb{C} , there are lots of nice results:

- ▶ If χ is an irreducible character, then the degree of χ divides the order of the group.

If our field is \mathbb{C} , there are lots of nice results:

- ▶ If χ is an irreducible character, then the degree of χ divides the order of the group.
- ▶ There are exactly as many irreducible characters of G as there are conjugacy classes of G .

If our field is \mathbb{C} , there are lots of nice results:

- ▶ If χ is an irreducible character, then the degree of χ divides the order of the group.
- ▶ There are exactly as many irreducible characters of G as there are conjugacy classes of G .
- ▶ In fact, the irreducible characters of G form a basis for the vector space of class functions on G .

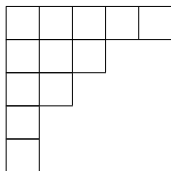
Unfortunately, despite the fact that the set of conjugacy classes and the set of irreducible characters of G (over \mathbb{C}) have the same size, there is no nice way to associate one with the other....

...unless we happen to be dealing with the symmetric group.

...unless we happen to be dealing with the symmetric group.

If \mathbb{F} is any field, and λ is any partition of n , then there is a "natural" way to associate to λ a unique representation S^λ of S_n .

We will very briefly outline how that works. If λ is a partition of n , then we have seen that there is a Young diagram T_λ associated to λ . For instance, if $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$, then T_λ is



A **tableau** T of shape λ is just the Young diagram T_λ with the boxes filled with the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$.

A **tableau** T of shape λ is just the Young diagram T_λ with the boxes filled with the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$. So an example of a tableau of shape λ would be

2	7	8	3	11
6	1	9		
12	5			
4				
10				

Notice that S_n acts naturally on the set of tableau of shape λ .

A tableau T is **standard** if the numbers in the boxes increase across rows and down columns.

A tableau T is **standard** if the numbers in the boxes increase across rows and down columns. So $T =$

1	3	4	5	6
2	7	12		
8	10			
9				
11				

is a standard tableau.

We can associate to the partition $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ the vector space \mathbb{F}^m , where

$$m = \frac{n!}{\lambda_1! \lambda_2! \dots \lambda_k!}.$$

We can associate to the partition $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ the vector space \mathbb{F}^m , where

$$m = \frac{n!}{\lambda_1! \lambda_2! \dots \lambda_k!}.$$

There is a natural action of S^n on this vector space.

We can associate to the partition $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ the vector space \mathbb{F}^m , where

$$m = \frac{n!}{\lambda_1! \lambda_2! \dots \lambda_k!}.$$

There is a natural action of S^n on this vector space. Each standard tableau is associated to a unique vector, called a standard polytabloid, in this vector space,

We can associate to the partition $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ the vector space \mathbb{F}^m , where

$$m = \frac{n!}{\lambda_1! \lambda_2! \dots \lambda_k!}.$$

There is a natural action of S^n on this vector space. Each standard tableau is associated to a unique vector, called a standard polytabloid, in this vector space, and the set of standard polytabloids in \mathbb{F}^m is a basis for a subspace of \mathbb{F}^m .

We can associate to the partition $\lambda = \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ the vector space \mathbb{F}^m , where

$$m = \frac{n!}{\lambda_1! \lambda_2! \dots \lambda_k!}.$$

There is a natural action of S^n on this vector space. Each standard tableau is associated to a unique vector, called a standard polytabloid, in this vector space, and the set of standard polytabloids in \mathbb{F}^m is a basis for a subspace of \mathbb{F}^m . This subspace turns out to be a representation, called the **Specht module** S^λ .

Some examples:

Some examples:

- ▶ If $\lambda = \{n\}$, then the module S^λ is just the trivial representation.

Some examples:

- ▶ If $\lambda = \{n\}$, then the module S^λ is just the trivial representation.
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{1, 1, \dots, 1\}$ (and $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq 2$), then S^λ is the "sign" representation, which simply takes each element of S^n to ± 1 , depending on whether the element is even or odd.

Some examples:

- ▶ If $\lambda = \{n\}$, then the module S^λ is just the trivial representation.
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{1, 1, \dots, 1\}$ (and $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq 2$), then S^λ is the "sign" representation, which simply takes each element of S^n to ± 1 , depending on whether the element is even or odd.
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{n-1, 1\}$, and $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then S^λ is W^\perp , defined as before.

Some examples:

- ▶ If $\lambda = \{n\}$, then the module S^λ is just the trivial representation.
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{1, 1, \dots, 1\}$ (and $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq 2$), then S^λ is the "sign" representation, which simply takes each element of S^n to ± 1 , depending on whether the element is even or odd.
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{n-1, 1\}$, and $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then S^λ is W^\perp , defined as before.
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$, and $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then S^λ is a representation of degree 7700.

If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then the Specht modules are distinct and irreducible.

If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then the Specht modules are distinct and irreducible.

Since there are as many conjugacy classes as there are partitions, and there are as many irreducible representations (over \mathbb{C}) as there are conjugacy classes, then the Specht modules over \mathbb{C} are exactly all of the irreducible representations over \mathbb{C} .

If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then the Specht modules are distinct and irreducible.

Since there are as many conjugacy classes as there are partitions, and there are as many irreducible representations (over \mathbb{C}) as there are conjugacy classes, then the Specht modules over \mathbb{C} are exactly all of the irreducible representations over \mathbb{C} .

Thus we have, if $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$

$$\{\text{conj classes of } S_n\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{partitions } \lambda \text{ of } n\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{Specht modules } S^\lambda\}$$

where each arrow is "natural".

One useful fact to notice is that if S^λ is a Specht module over \mathbb{C} , or in fact over any characteristic zero field, then all of the entries in the matrices of the representation have integer entries.

One useful fact to notice is that if S^λ is a Specht module over \mathbb{C} , or in fact over any characteristic zero field, then all of the entries in the matrices of the representation have integer entries.

Thus, given a Specht module S^λ , we can get a characteristic p representation (i.e. a representation over \mathbb{F}_p) by simply reducing the entries of the matrices modulo p .

The mod- p reduction of S^λ , however, will almost always **not** be irreducible as a representation of S_n over \mathbb{F}_p .

For instance, if $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$, then when reducing the irreducible Specht module S^λ modulo 3, then this representation breaks down as 18 smaller representations.

For instance, if $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$, then when reducing the irreducible Specht module S^λ modulo 3, then this representation breaks down as 18 smaller representations.

However, every now and then, an irreducible representation of S_n over \mathbb{C} does stay irreducible when reduced modulo p . For instance, if $\mu = \{5, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1\}$, then S^μ is irreducible when the entries are reduced mod 3.

This, then, is our motivating question:

Given a positive integer n and a prime p , then what is a necessary and sufficient condition on the partition λ to guarantee that the Specht module S^λ (over \mathbb{C}) remains irreducible when reduced modulo p to a representation over \mathbb{F}_p ?

A solution to this problem was conjectured by James and Mathas in the late 1970's, and was proven by Fayers in 2005. To understand the solution, we need to look at the **hook lengths** of a partition.

Definition

If (a, b) denotes the box in row a and column b of the Young diagram of the partition λ , then the hook length $h_\lambda(a, b)$ is defined to be the number of boxes directly to the right and directly below (a, b) (including the box (a, b) itself).

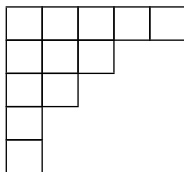
Or better yet, a definition by example:

Let $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$.

Or better yet, a definition by example:

Let $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$.

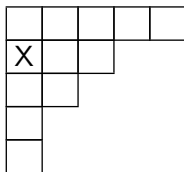
So $T_\lambda =$



Or better yet, a definition by example:

Let $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$.

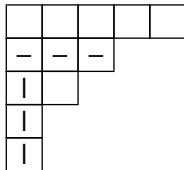
The box $(2, 1)$:



Or better yet, a definition by example:

Let $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$.

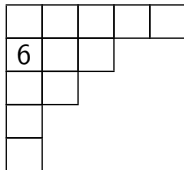
The hook length of box $(2, 1)$...



Or better yet, a definition by example:

Let $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$.

The hook length of box $(2, 1)\dots$ is 6.



Or better yet, a definition by example:

Let $\lambda = \{5, 3, 2, 1, 1\}$.

Now we put in all of the hook lengths.

9	6	4	2	1
6	3	1		
4	1			
2				
1				

As an aside, notice that λ is a partition of 12, and the product of the hook lengths is

$$9 \cdot 6^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 1^4.$$

As an aside, notice that λ is a partition of 12, and the product of the hook lengths is

$$9 \cdot 6^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 1^4.$$

But

$$\frac{12!}{9 \cdot 6^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 1^4} = 7700,$$

which is the dimension of the corresponding Specht module.

As an aside, notice that λ is a partition of 12, and the product of the hook lengths is

$$9 \cdot 6^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 1^4.$$

But

$$\frac{12!}{9 \cdot 6^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 1^4} = 7700,$$

which is the dimension of the corresponding Specht module.

So one might conjecture (correctly), that for any partition λ , the dimension of the corresponding Specht module S^λ (over \mathbb{C}) is

$$\dim(S^\lambda) = \frac{n!}{\text{product of all of the hook lengths in } \lambda}.$$

Getting back to our main question: What conditions on the partition λ guarantee that the Specht module S^λ (over \mathbb{C}) remains irreducible when reduced modulo p ?

Getting back to our main question: What conditions on the partition λ guarantee that the Specht module S^λ (over \mathbb{C}) remains irreducible when reduced modulo p ?

For now, we'll let $p = 3$ and we'll look at partitions of 52:

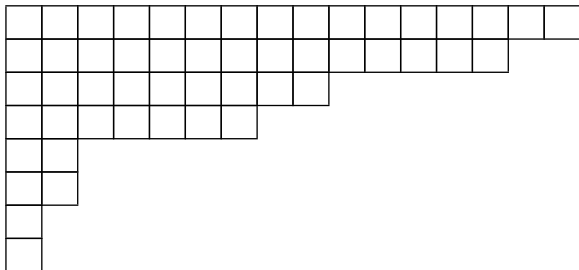
- ▶ If $\lambda = \{16, 14, 9, 7, 2, 2, 1, 1\}$, then S^λ remains irreducible when reduced modulo 3.

Getting back to our main question: What conditions on the partition λ guarantee that the Specht module S^λ (over \mathbb{C}) remains irreducible when reduced modulo p ?

For now, we'll let $p = 3$ and we'll look at partitions of 52:

- ▶ If $\lambda = \{16, 14, 9, 7, 2, 2, 1, 1\}$, then S^λ remains irreducible when reduced modulo 3.
- ▶ But if $\mu = \{16, 14, 9, 7, 3, 2, 1\}$, then S^μ does not remain irreducible when reduced modulo 3.

The tableau for λ :



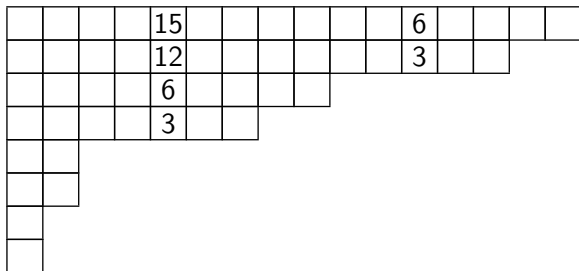
Recall S^λ is irreducible when reduced modulo 3.

We put in the hook lengths for T_λ :

23	20	17	16	15	14	13	11	10	8	7	6	5	4	2	1
20	17	14	13	12	11	10	8	7	5	4	3	2	1		
14	11	8	7	6	5	4	2	1							
11	8	5	4	3	2	1									
5	2														
4	1														
2															
1															

Recall S^λ is irreducible when reduced modulo 3.

Too much information. Take out everything not divisible by 3.



Recall S^λ is irreducible when reduced modulo 3.

Let's look at S^μ :

22	20	18	16	15	14	13	11	10	8	7	6	5	4	2	1
19	17	15	13	12	11	10	8	7	5	4	3	2	1		
13	11	9	7	6	5	4	2	1							
10	8	6	4	3	2	1									
5	3	1													
3	1														
1															

Recall that S^μ is **not** irreducible when reduced mod 3.

We'll ignore everything not divisible by 3:

		18		15							6				
		15		12							3				
		9		6											
		6		3											
	3														
3															

Recall that S^μ is **not** irreducible when reduced mod 3.

Now, before we can state our main result, we need to make a couple of definitions:

Definition

Let n be a positive integer, and p a prime. If $n = p^a b$, where $(p, b) = 1$, then we define $v_p(n) = a$.

Now, before we can state our main result, we need to make a couple of definitions:

Definition

Let n be a positive integer, and p a prime. If $n = p^a b$, where $(p, b) = 1$, then we define $v_p(n) = a$.

Definition

If λ is a partition of n , with the corresponding Young diagram T_λ , and if (a, b) is a box in T_λ , we say that (a, b) is **bad** if there is a box (a, y) in the same row as (a, b) and a box (x, b) in the same column as (a, b) such that $v_p(h_\lambda(a, y)) \neq v_p(h_\lambda(a, b))$ and $v_p(h_\lambda(x, b)) \neq v_p(h_\lambda(a, b))$.

Note that T_λ did not contain any bad boxes, and T_μ did contain bad boxes.

Note that T_λ did not contain any bad boxes, and T_μ did contain bad boxes.

Theorem

(Fayers, 2005) Suppose λ is a partition of n and p is an odd prime. If S^λ is the corresponding irreducible Specht module over \mathbb{C} , then S^λ remains irreducible when reduced modulo p if and only if T_λ contains no bad boxes.

Note that T_λ did not contain any bad boxes, and T_μ did contain bad boxes.

Theorem

(Fayers, 2005) Suppose λ is a partition of n and p is an odd prime. If S^λ is the corresponding irreducible Specht module over \mathbb{C} , then S^λ remains irreducible when reduced modulo p if and only if T_λ contains no bad boxes.

The theorem is mostly true if $p = 2$.

How did I come to be interested in this?

How did I come to be interested in this?

General question from representation theory: If χ is an ordinary irreducible character of a group G (i.e. coming from \mathbb{C}), then when is the "reduction" of χ modulo some prime p an irreducible character over some characteristic p field?

How did I come to be interested in this?

General question from representation theory: If χ is an ordinary irreducible character of a group G (i.e. coming from \mathbb{C}), then when is the "reduction" of χ modulo some prime p an irreducible character over some characteristic p field?

For instance, if p does not divide the order of the group, then the answer is "always".

How did I come to be interested in this?

General question from representation theory: If χ is an ordinary irreducible character of a group G (i.e. coming from \mathbb{C}), then when is the "reduction" of χ modulo some prime p an irreducible character over some characteristic p field?

For instance, if p does not divide the order of the group, then the answer is "always".

Fayers' result says that for S_n , the answer is precisely when λ has no bad boxes.

How did I come to be interested in this?

General question from representation theory: If χ is an ordinary irreducible character of a group G (i.e. coming from \mathbb{C}), then when is the "reduction" of χ modulo some prime p an irreducible character over some characteristic p field?

For instance, if p does not divide the order of the group, then the answer is "always".

Fayers' result says that for S_n , the answer is precisely when λ has no bad boxes.

If G is solvable, you're getting into Fong-Swan theory and "lifts".

A slightly modified question: If φ is a character of G from a field of characteristic p , then when does there necessarily exist an ordinary irreducible character χ that "reduces" to φ ?

A slightly modified question: If φ is a character of G from a field of characteristic p , then when does there necessarily exist an ordinary irreducible character χ that "reduces" to φ ?

The Fong-Swan theorem for solvable groups says that if G is solvable, then every irreducible character φ of G (from an algebraically closed field of characteristic p) is the "reduction" of an ordinary irreducible character χ of G . We say χ is a **lift** of φ .

My dissertation gave bounds on the number of lifts in a solvable group.

My dissertation gave bounds on the number of lifts in a solvable group.

In S_n , not every characteristic p representation has a lift.

My dissertation gave bounds on the number of lifts in a solvable group.

In S_n , not every characteristic p representation has a lift.

Low hanging fruit (i.e. strictly combinatorics): Characterize the representations of S_n in characteristic p that do have a lift.

My dissertation gave bounds on the number of lifts in a solvable group.

In S_n , not every characteristic p representation has a lift.

Low hanging fruit (i.e. strictly combinatorics): Characterize the representations of S_n in characteristic p that do have a lift.

A result with three different proofs: A representation of S_n over a field of characteristic p has at most one lift.

My dissertation gave bounds on the number of lifts in a solvable group.

In S_n , not every characteristic p representation has a lift.

Low hanging fruit (i.e. strictly combinatorics): Characterize the representations of S_n in characteristic p that do have a lift.

A result with three different proofs: A representation of S_n over a field of characteristic p has at most one lift.

A very challenging problem: Determine a "generating function" for the number of partitions of n that have no bad boxes.

A surprisingly difficult open question: Given a positive integer n , how many partitions of n are there?

A surprisingly difficult open question: Given a positive integer n , how many partitions of n are there?

There is no closed formula that answers this question. However, in some sense the answer is provided by the generating function for partitions:

A surprisingly difficult open question: Given a positive integer n , how many partitions of n are there?

There is no closed formula that answers this question. However, in some sense the answer is provided by the generating function for partitions:

$$f(x) = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^k}.$$

What's so special about this function?

If we expand the function (ignoring all issues of convergence - we're working strictly formally here), we see that the coefficient of x^n is exactly the number of partitions of n .

What's so special about this function?

If we expand the function (ignoring all issues of convergence - we're working strictly formally here), we see that the coefficient of x^n is exactly the number of partitions of n .

For instance, the partition $\{5, 3, 2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1\}$ of 19 corresponds to x^{19} coming from

$$(x^5)(x^3)(x^2)^4(x^1)^3.$$

Is there any hope of determining the generating function for the partitions of n that do not have any bad boxes for some fixed prime p ?

Is there any hope of determining the generating function for the partitions of n that do not have any bad boxes for some fixed prime p ?

In other words, can we find some function $g(x)$ such that

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{irr}(n)x^n,$$

where $p_{irr}(n)$ is the number of partitions of n that have no bad boxes?

This is an ongoing project, and I've made some progress with an undergraduate research assistant by working with a recursive formula and doing some messy calculations on the computer.