Local bifurcation in symmetric coupled cell networks: linear theory

Ana Paula S. Dias\textsuperscript{1} and Jeroen S.W. Lamb\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{1} Dep. de Matemática Pura, Centro de Matemática, Universidade do Porto,
Rua do Campo Alegre, 687, 4169-007 Porto, Portugal
\textsuperscript{2} Department of Mathematics, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, UK

February 23, 2006

Abstract

We consider a coupled cell network of differential equations with finite symmetry group $\Gamma$, where $\Gamma$ permutes cells transitively. We show how the structure of the coupled cell network, represented by a directed graph whose vertices represent individual cells and edges represent couplings, can be taken into account in the bifurcation analysis of a fully symmetric steady-state solution.

We focus on the analysis of the linearized vector field at a fully symmetric equilibrium and show that in the case of active cells, if $\Gamma$ is Abelian the network structure does not influence the types of codimension one local bifurcations. We also show that beyond this context, when $\Gamma$ is not Abelian, cells are passive, or when considering local bifurcations of higher codimensions, anomalies due to the network structure may arise.

1 Introduction

Coupled cell networks are dynamical systems comprising of components, called cells, which are coupled together by connections. The corresponding networks structure is specified by a labelled directed graph, see for instance Golubitsky \textit{et al.} \cite{golubitsky1990, golubitsky1990b, golubitsky1990c, golubitsky1990d} and Field \cite{field2005}. Coupled cell networks naturally arise in the context of many applications in engineering, physics and biology, and the corresponding relevant literature is enormous. For example networks of coupled dynamical systems have been used to model biological oscillators \cite{pruessner2003, pruessner2003b, pruessner2003c, pruessner2003d}, Josephson junction arrays \cite{pruessner2003e, pruessner2003f}, excitable media \cite{pruessner2003g}, neural networks \cite{pruessner2003h, pruessner2003i, pruessner2003j}, spatial games \cite{pruessner2003k}, genetic control networks \cite{pruessner2003l} and many other self-organizing systems.

Recently coupled cell networks have received increased attention in view of the question in what way - if any - the network structure influences the dynamics of a coupled cell network, see for instance Wang \cite{wang2006}, Stewart \cite{stewart2006}. As pointed out by Watts and Strogatz \cite{watts2006}, although the connection topology is usually assumed to be either completely regular or completely random, many biological, technological and social networks lie somewhere between these two extremes.

1.1 Coupled cell networks

For the purpose of this paper, coupled cell networks are described by differential equations whose structure is represented by a directed graph, with vertices representing cells and directed edges
representing the *connections* between cells. We denote the phase space for a coupled cell network as \( \Omega_1 \times \cdots \times \Omega_n \), where \( n \) denotes the number of cells and \( \Omega_i \) is a manifold representing the phase space for the internal dynamics of cell \( i \). We represent the state of the network by \( (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) where \( x_i \in \Omega_i \).

We consider the equations of the \( j \)th cell to be given by the differential equation

\[
\frac{d}{dt}x_j = f_j(x_1, \ldots, x_n).
\]

Graphically, we may represent the coupled cell network by a directed graph with \( n \) vertices and a directed edge from vertex \( i \) to vertex \( j \) if \( f_j \) depends on \( x_i \). Note that the absence of a directed edge from vertex \( i \) to vertex \( j \) thus means that \( f_j(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) = f_j(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 0, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) \) for all \( x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n \). We naturally assume that the network is *connected*, in the sense that the network is not a disjoint union of smaller networks.

Instead of drawing edges from a vertex to itself to indicate the fact that the dynamics of cells depend on their own state, we refer to the this property as cells being *active*. If cells are not active, we call them *passive*. In the latter case, coupled cell network dynamics preserves volume (as it is readily verified that the vector field has vanishing divergence). As a consequence, in this case it is not surprising that codimension one local bifurcations may not follow those of general \( \Gamma \)-equivariant vector fields (fully connected coupled cell networks). Some illustrations are given below in Section 1.3. In the context of certain applications, for instance in certain types of electronic networks, coupled cell networks with passive components may well be of interest.

Our definition of a coupled cell network appears the least restrictive one relating directly to the structure of a directed graph. We note that other concepts of coupled cell systems with additional structure have been proposed in the literature, for instance the networks defined by the “symmetry groupoid” formalism of Stewart *et al.* [20, 13]. It turns out that for the purpose of the linear analysis discussed in this paper the difference between these types of coupled cell networks and the ones discussed here is irrelevant, as differences in the equations of motion appear only at the level of nonlinear terms.

We are interested in the consequences of a coupled cell network structure on local bifurcations. This appears a hard problem in general, and as a starting point we make an important assumption concerning the homogeneity of the coupled cell network: we assume that the network is such that from the point of view of each individual cell, the network *appears* identical. More precisely, we assume that for each pair of cells \( \{i, j\} \) there exists a permutation of the set of cells \( T \), such that the image of cell \( i \) under \( T \) is cell \( j \), and \( T \) leaves the equations of motion invariant. The latter requirement is equivalent to stating that the coupled cell network is \( T \)-equivariant.

We thus assume the existence of a permutation group \( \Gamma \subseteq S_n \) of network symmetries acting faithfully and transitively as permutations on the \( n \) cells. We recall that transitivity implies that for each pair \( \{i, j\} \) there exists \( \gamma \in \Gamma \) such that \( \gamma(i) = j \), and \( \Gamma \) acts faithfully if \( \gamma(i) = i \) for all \( \gamma \in \Gamma \) and \( i = 1, \ldots, n \) implies that \( \gamma \) is the identity element of \( \Gamma \).

During the last decade, there has been a number of studies [6, 7, 10, 11] where assumptions of symmetry properties of a coupled cell network were used to explain the occurrence of spatially and spatiotemporally symmetric patterns in coupled cell networks. The formal setting for this theory centred upon the symmetry group of the network, ignoring to a large extend the network structure. However, in case coupled cell networks which are not fully connected, they possess a structure that is independent of the symmetry which should naturally be taken into account when analyzing the (typical) dynamics of coupled cell networks.
We thus would like to address the question how the network architecture may affect the kinds of bifurcations that can be expected to occur in a coupled cell network. It turns out that the problem is quite a complicated one, and in this paper we focus on networks with a symmetry group that permutes cells transitively, and local bifurcation from a fully symmetric equilibrium solution. In this context, we assume without loss of generality that $\Omega_i = \mathbb{R}^l$ for all $i$ and that the equilibrium is represented by $(0, \ldots, 0)$.

The first concern is with the spectrum of the linearized vector field (Jacobian matrix) at the equilibrium solution when parameters are varied, in particular with the analysis of how eigenvalues typically cross the imaginary axis $i\mathbb{R}$. The main aim of this paper is to discuss this problem. Before discussing this in more detail, we first illustrate the problem with some examples.

Example 1.1 (Networks of four cells with $\mathbb{Z}_4$ symmetry.) An example of the difficulties that can arise is given in a ring of four cells with $\mathbb{Z}_4$ symmetry. We assume that each cell is one-dimensional. The network architecture is shown in Figure 1 (left) with all possible couplings. We assume that the network dynamics have a group invariant equilibrium. The Jacobian matrix at such an equilibrium has the form

$$
M = \begin{pmatrix}
        a & b & c & d \\
        d & a & b & c \\
        c & d & a & b \\
        b & c & d & a
\end{pmatrix}
$$

where $a$ is the linearized internal cell dynamics. The eigenvalues of $M$ are

$$
\lambda_1 = a + b + c + d \quad \lambda_2 = a + c - (b + d) \quad \lambda_{3,\pm} = a - c \pm i(b - d).
$$

Consider the case of nearest-neighbor coupling ($c = 0$) as shown in Figure 1 (right). The eigenvalues of $M$ are then

$$
\lambda_1 = a + (b + d) \quad \lambda_2 = a - (b + d) \quad \lambda_{3,\pm} = a \pm i(b - d).
$$

It is straightforward to show that any one of these three eigenvalues can lie on the imaginary axis while the other two have nonzero real part. Thus, the same three types of bifurcation that can occur as codimension one bifurcations in the fully connected system also occur as codimension one bifurcations in the nearest neighbor coupled system and no others.
Figure 2: Schematic representations of two $\mathbb{D}_3$-equivariant coupled cell network structures where $\mathbb{D}_3$ acts transitively on six cells (divided in two three-cycles $F_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $F_2 = \{4, 5, 6\}$). The first network (a) has couplings between cells within each three-cycle (and admits Hopf bifurcation), whereas the second network (b) has not (and does not admit Hopf bifurcation from a $\mathbb{D}_3$-invariant equilibrium in the case of one-dimensional cells).

Note, however, that anomalous behavior can occur in codimension two. Consider the steady-state/steady-state mode interaction given by $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$ (a mode interaction between the trivial and nontrivial one dimensional representations of $\mathbb{Z}_4$). In this case $a = 0 = b + d$; these equalities force $\lambda_{3,\pm} = \pm i(b - d)$ to also lie on the imaginary axis, producing, in effect, a steady-state/steady-state/Hopf mode interaction. In the fully connected case ($c$ not constrained by network architecture to be zero), $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$ implies that $a + c = 0$ and $b + d = 0$. Then, typically, the eigenvalues $\lambda_{3,\pm} = 2(a \pm ib)$ do not lie on the imaginary axis. Note, however, that if the internal dynamics of each cell is two-dimensional, the triple mode interaction is no longer forced by the steady-state/steady-state mode interaction.

**Example 1.2 (Networks of six cells with $\mathbb{D}_3$ symmetry.)** In Figure 2 we present two examples of $\mathbb{D}_3$-equivariant coupled cell networks with six cells, represented by the corresponding directed graphs.

We assume that $\mathbb{D}_3$ permutes the six cells transitively, generated by the two group elements acting on the cells as the following permutations:

$$\alpha = (123)(456), \quad \beta = (14)(26)(35).$$

We suppose that the cells are one-dimensional. The Jacobian matrix at a fully symmetric equilibrium solution for the network of Figure 2 (left) has the following structure:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^T & A^T \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & 0 \\ 0 & a & b \\ b & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} c & d & 0 \\ 0 & c & d \\ d & 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$$

and $A^T$ denotes the transpose of the matrix $A$. The eigenvalues of $M$ are

$$\lambda_1 = a + b + c + d, \quad \lambda_2 = a + b - c - d, \quad \lambda_{3,4,\pm} = a - \frac{b}{2} \pm \sqrt{3b^2 + 4c^2 - 4cd + 4d^2}.$$
The analysis for the network of Figure 2 (right) is obtained by setting \( b = 0 \). In this case, all eigenvalues of \( M \) are real, since \( 4c^2 - 4cd + 4d^2 = 3c^2 + (2d - c)^2 \geq 0 \). This can also be deduced directly from the fact that, if \( b = 0 \), \( M \) is symmetric, that is, \( M = M^T \), and eigenvalues of symmetric matrices are always real.

Thus, in the network of Figure 2 (right) a fully symmetric equilibrium cannot undergo a Hopf bifurcation. It is thus possible for the network architecture to suppress the occurrence of Hopf bifurcation. It is readily verified that in the network of Figure 2 (left), when in general \( b \neq 0 \), no suppression of Hopf bifurcation occurs.

\[ \diamond \]

### 1.2 Codimension one eigenvalue movements.

We consider coupled cell networks with symmetry group \( \Gamma \) permuting cells transitively. Identical couplings are thus induced by symmetry only, and no other conditions on the couplings are assumed to hold. We recall that we say that a type of local bifurcation has codimension \( m \) if the corresponding set of (smooth) vector fields satisfying the bifurcation condition has codimension \( m \) in the ambient space. By usual considerations of transversality, this implies that within an \( m \)-parameter family of vector fields the bifurcation condition is typically satisfied at isolated points and that the occurrence of such isolated bifurcation points is persistent (as a consequence of the fact that the \( m \)-parameter family is typically transverse to the bifurcation set in a bifurcation point). In the context of this paper, the bifurcation conditions will always involve a statement about the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix at a fully symmetric equilibrium.

The main question we address is the following:

Are the codimension one bifurcations associated to a symmetric coupled cell network dependent on the network structure?

Examples 1.1 and 1.2 illustrate the fact that a general affirmative answer to this question is not possible. But in case the symmetry group is Abelian, we show that the question, under some mild assumption on the network, has an affirmative answer:

**Theorem 1.3** Consider a symmetric connected coupled cell network, where the symmetry group of the network is Abelian and acts transitively by permutation on the cells of the network. Then, codimension one eigenvalue movements across the imaginary axis of the Jacobian matrix at a fully symmetric equilibrium are independent of the network structure if the cells are assumed to be active.

**Remark 1.4** In analogy with general equivariant linear systems [12], typically (codimension zero) eigenvalues do not lie on the imaginary axis, and in the case of codimension one eigenvalue crossings with the imaginary axis, the center subspace is either absolutely irreducible (in the case of steady-state bifurcation) or \( \Gamma \)-simple (in the case of Hopf bifurcation). See Section 3 for details.

**Remarks 1.5**

(i) Once the codimension one eigenvalue movements described in Theorem 1.3 occur, one may directly deduce the existence of certain branches of equilibria and periodic solutions whose existence can be obtained by application of the Equivariant Branching Lemma and the Equivariant Hopf Theorem, as in [12]. It should be noted that although solution branches are guaranteed to exist, due to possible anomalies in higher order terms, detailed properties of the branches (like direction, growth, stability properties) may depend on the network structure.

\[ \diamond \]
(ii) In Example 1.2 it was shown that the network structure may cause suppression of Hopf bifurcation. This illustrates the fact that the validity of Theorem 1.3 does not extend to coupled cell networks with non-Abelian symmetry.

(iii) It is natural to address local bifurcations with codimension higher than one. From Example 1.1 it follows that Theorem 1.3 does not extend to local bifurcations of coupled cell networks with Abelian symmetry with codimension higher than one.

(iv) The occurrence of anomalous local bifurcations appears related to the cell dimension. It appears that the higher the cell dimension, the less influence the network structure has on local bifurcations. It would be interesting if this observation could be quantified more precisely, but such is beyond the content of this paper.

\[\text{1.3 Passive coupled cell networks}\]

In the case of passive coupled cell networks, when \(f_j\) does not depend on \(x_j\), the vector field is divergence free, so that the flow preserves volume. As generic equivariant systems are rarely volume preserving, it is not surprising that correspondence with generic equivariant systems may not be always observed in such networks. This observation raises the question whether eigenvalue bifurcations of symmetric passive coupled cell networks correspond to eigenvalue bifurcations of volume preserving equivariant systems. This turns out to be not the case, as is illustrated below.

**Example 1.6 (Passive four-cell \(Z_4\) network.)** We revisit the four-cell \(Z_4\) network discussed in Section 1, but now assume that it is passive so that \(a = 0\).

When we consider such a network, the eigenvalues of \(M\) are

\[
\lambda_1 = b + c + d, \quad \lambda_2 = c - (b + d), \quad \lambda_{3,\pm} = -c \pm i(b - d).
\]

We thus observe that when one of the eigenvalues is passing through the imaginary axis, this does not imply that any of the other eigenvalues passes at the same time, like in the case of general \(Z_4\)-equivariant linear systems.

If we consider the same network, but now with only nearest neighbor coupling \((c = 0)\), the eigenvalues of \(L\) are

\[
\lambda_1 = b + d, \quad \lambda_2 = -(b + d), \quad \lambda_{3,\pm} = \pm i(b - d).
\]

Now, whenever \(\lambda_1 = 0\) we have at the same time \(\lambda_2 = 0\).

Surprisingly, the pair of eigenvalues \(\lambda_{3,\pm}\) is always positioned on the imaginary axis. The eigenvalues here thus do behave very differently than in generic volume preserving \(Z_4\)-equivariant systems.

\[\text{1.4 From cells to isotypic components}\]

We briefly sketch the approach we take to understand the implications of the network structure on the eigenvalues of the linearized vector field \(M\) at a fully symmetric equilibrium.

The vector space \(\mathbb{R}^{nl} \simeq \mathbb{R}^l \otimes \mathbb{R}^n\), as the phase space of a coupled cell network whose cells are permuted transitively by a symmetry group \(\Gamma\), has a natural basis \(\{c_j \otimes e_i\}_{j=1,...,l, i=1,...,n}\) where the
index $i$ labels the cells and $\Omega_i = \mathbb{R} \{ c_j \otimes e_i \}_{j=1, \ldots, t}$. It is then natural to choose the basis such that a permutation $\gamma \in \Gamma$ acts as $\gamma(c_j \otimes e_i) = (c_{\gamma^{-1}(j)} \otimes e_i)$.

The absence of a connection from cell $k$ to cell $m$ implies the following condition on the linear vector field $M \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ commuting with $\Gamma$:

$$\langle c_i \otimes e_m, M(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0, \quad i, t = 1, \ldots, l, \quad (1.1)$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the standard (Euclidean) inner product on $\mathbb{R}^n$.

The consequences of the $\Gamma$-equivariance on $M$ are best viewed in relation to the $\Gamma$-isotypic decomposition of its domain. Recall that an irreducible subspace is an indecomposable $\Gamma$-invariant subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. When $\Gamma$ is a finite group the number of different (that is, non-isomorphic) irreducible subspaces is finite, and the span of the union of one irreducible subspace $V_\alpha$ together with all others that are isomorphic, is called a $\Gamma$-isotypic component of $\mathbb{R}^n$. We denote the corresponding isotypic decomposition by

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \oplus \alpha W_\alpha.$$

Because $\Gamma$ acts essentially on $\mathbb{R}^n$, we have in fact $W_\alpha = \mathbb{R}^l \otimes U_\alpha$ where $\mathbb{R}^n = \oplus \alpha U_\alpha$ is the isotypic decomposition for the transitive permutation representation of $\Gamma$ on $\mathbb{R}^n$. It follows from a real version of Schur’s Lemma [2] that $M$ preserves the isotypic decomposition, and that the set of $\Gamma$-equivariant real matrices in $\text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^l \otimes U_\alpha)$ is isomorphic (as an algebra) to $\text{gl}(ml, k)$ with $k \in \{ \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H} \}$ if $\dim U_\alpha = m \dim V_\alpha$ and $V_\alpha$ is of type $K$. We write the block-diagonalization $M = \oplus \alpha M^\alpha$.

The equivariant linear vector fields thus decouple into a set of independent linear equivariant vector fields $M^\alpha$ on isotypic components $W_\alpha$.

For a symmetric coupled cell network, the absence of certain connections between cells leads to relations between the otherwise independent linear vector fields $M^\alpha$. These relations can be derived from (1.1), and using projections to isotypic components. Such projections are well known from group representation theory, see for instance James and Liebeck [15]. In the following sections, these relations will be derived, and the consequences – in particular Theorem 1.3 – discussed.

**Example 1.7** We return to Example 1.1 and recall we are assuming the cells are one-dimensional and so the total phase space is $V = \mathbb{R}^4$. This space is decomposed into 3 isotypic components that in this case are irreducible: the trivial and nontrivial one-dimensional representations, and the two-dimensional representation which is of type $C$. That is, $V = V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus V_3$, where $V_1, V_3$ are one-dimensional irreducibles where $\mathbb{Z}_4$ acts trivially on $V_1$, and non-trivially on $V_3$, and $V_2$ is the two-dimensional irreducible subspace of $V$ where the action of $\mathbb{Z}_4$ is generated by an element that corresponds to the rotation by $\pi/2$ on the plane. It follows then that $M = M^1 \oplus M^2 \oplus M^3$. Here $M^1, M^3$ are linear maps corresponding to the restrictions of $M$ to $V_1, V_3$, respectively and $M^2$ corresponds to the restriction of $M$ to $V_2$. Since $V_2$ is of complex type and $M^2$ commutes with $\mathbb{Z}_4$, a basis of $V_2$ can be chosen such that $M^2$ with respect with this basis is:

$$M^2 = \begin{pmatrix} M^2_{22} & M^2_{21} \\ -M^2_{12} & M^2_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

which has eigenvalues $M^2_{22} \pm iM^2_{12}$. Recall the expressions for the eigenvalues of $M$ obtained at the beginning of Example 1.1: $M^1 \equiv \lambda_1 = a + b + c + d$, $M^3 \equiv \lambda_2 = a + c - (b + d)$ and $M^2_{22} + iM^2_{12} \equiv \lambda_{3, -} = a - c - i(b - d)$.

7
Corollary 2.10 of Section 3 applied to the Example 1.1 gives the following equivalences:

\[
\begin{align*}
M^1 + M^3 + 2M^2_R &= 0 \iff a = 0, \\
M^1 - M^3 - 2M^2_I &= 0 \iff b = 0, \\
M^1 + M^3 - 2M^2_R &= 0 \iff c = 0, \\
M^1 - M^3 + 2M^2_I &= 0 \iff d = 0,
\end{align*}
\]

which are easily verified. If we assume the cells are \(l\)-dimensional, the same relations hold, where now the matrices \(M^1, M^3, M^2_R, M^2_I\) are \(l \times l\)-matrices.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we discuss in some detail the projections to isotypic components and the corresponding conditions imposed on the \(M^\alpha\)s by the absence of connections. Moreover, we illustrate in detail the implications of these conditions for networks with cyclic and dihedral symmetry groups. Finally, in Section 3 we prove Theorem 1.3 on codimension one eigenvalue movements across the imaginary axis for coupled cell networks with Abelian symmetry.

2 Linear analysis

In this section we describe the restrictions on the eigenvalue structure of linear transformations \(M \in \mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{R}^l \otimes \mathbb{R}^n)\) commuting \(\Gamma \subseteq S_n\), where \(\Gamma\) acts trivially on \(\mathbb{R}^l\), and transitively and faithfully on \(\mathbb{R}^n\), satisfying restrictions of the type

\[
\langle c_i \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0, \quad i, t = 1, \ldots, l.
\]

Here \(c_i, i = 1, \ldots, l\) is a basis of \(\mathbb{R}^l\), \(e_j, j = 1, \ldots, n\) is a basis of \(\mathbb{R}^n\) and \(\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\) is an inner product on \(\mathbb{R}^l \otimes \mathbb{R}^n\).

We start by addressing the question for \(M \in \mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{R}^n)\) commuting with \(\Gamma\), where \(\Gamma\) acts transitively and faithfully on \(\mathbb{R}^n\). We begin by complexifying the state space to \(V = \mathbb{C}^n\) in order to use the theory of complex representations of finite groups. See for example [15] for the basic definitions and results on this subject, which we use throughout this section. We then interpret the results in terms of real representations. Finally, we generalize our results to \(\mathbb{C}^l \otimes \mathbb{C}^n\) (and \(\mathbb{R}^l \otimes \mathbb{R}^n\)) and we illustrate them with the cyclic and dihedral groups.

2.1 Linear analysis on \(\mathbb{C}^n\)

Let \(\Gamma\) be a subgroup of the symmetric group \(S_n\) permuting transitively and faithfully the set \(\{1, \ldots, n\}\). Consider a \(n\)-dimensional complex vector space \(V\), a basis \(b = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}\) of \(V\), and the action of \(\Gamma\) on \(V\) given by permutation of the corresponding coordinates. Thus we can assume that \(V = \mathbb{C}^n\) and this action corresponds to a representation \(T\) of \(\Gamma\) on \(V\) through a linear homomorphism from \(\Gamma\) to the group \(\text{GL}(V)\) of invertible linear transformations on \(V\) defined by

\[
T(\gamma)(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = (v_{\gamma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, v_{\gamma^{-1}(n)}), \quad \gamma \in \Gamma, \quad (v_1, \ldots, v_n) \in V. \quad (2.2)
\]

A subspace \(W\) of \(V\) is said to be \(\Gamma\)-invariant if \(T(\gamma)W \subseteq W\) for all \(\gamma \in \Gamma\). If \(V\) possesses a proper invariant subspace we say that \(V\) is reducible, otherwise \(V\) is called irreducible. Two \(\Gamma\)-invariant vector spaces \(W_1, W_2\) are \(\Gamma\)-isomorphic if the corresponding representations, say \(T_1\) and
$T_2$, are equivalent. That is, there exists an invertible linear transformation $S$ from $W_2$ to $W_1$ such that $T_1(\gamma) = ST_2(\gamma)S^{-1}$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Since $\Gamma$ is finite there appear in $V$ at most $s$ distinct complex irreducible representations, where $s$ is the number of conjugacy classes of $\Gamma$. Denote those that appear by $V_1, \ldots, V_r$ and so $r \leq s$. We can decompose $V$ into isotypic components

$$V = U_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_r$$

where each $U_j$ is the isotypic component of type $V_j$ for the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$. Thus if $W$ is a $\Gamma$-invariant subspace of $V$ and $\Gamma$-isomorphic to $V_j$ then $W \subseteq U_j$.

Suppose now that $M \in \text{gl}(V)$ commutes with $\Gamma$:

$$MT(\gamma) = T(\gamma)M, \ \forall \gamma \in \Gamma.$$  

Since $M$ commutes with $\Gamma$, it preserves the isotypic components for the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$. Thus $M(U_j) \subseteq U_j$ for $j = 1, \ldots, r$. Denote by $M^j$ the restriction of $M$ to $U_j$:

$$M^j \equiv M|_{U_j} : U_j \rightarrow U_j.$$  

It follows that $M^j$ commutes with $\Gamma$.

Consider the vector space $V$ equipped with the following inner product:

$$\langle (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n), (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j \overline{\alpha_j}$$

where $(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n), (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in V$. Thus $\langle e_j, e_k \rangle = 1$ if $j = k$, and 0 otherwise. Observe that the inner product is $\Gamma$-invariant. That is,

$$\langle T(\gamma)w_1, T(\gamma)w_2 \rangle = \langle w_1, w_2 \rangle$$

for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and $w_1, w_2 \in V$.

Given an irreducible $\Gamma$-invariant vector space $V_j$, then the character of $V_j$ is the function $\chi_j : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by

$$\chi_j(\gamma) = \text{tr} (T(\gamma)|_{V_j}), \ \gamma \in \Gamma.$$  

The dimension of $V_j$ is called the dimension (or degree) of $\chi_j$. Characters of dimension 1 are called linear characters. We review the following properties of the characters: if $e$ denotes the identity element of the group $\Gamma$ then $\chi_j(e) = \dim V_j$; if $\gamma \in \Gamma$ has order $m$, then $\chi_j(\gamma)$ is a sum of $m$th roots of unity; if $\chi_j$ is linear then it is a homomorphism from $\Gamma$ to the multiplicative group of non-zero complex numbers $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$.

**Definition 2.1** Define the projection operator of $V$ onto the $\Gamma$-isotypic component $U_j$ by

$$P^j = \frac{\dim V_j}{|\Gamma|} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \overline{\chi_j(\gamma)} T(\gamma),$$

where $\chi_j$ is the character corresponding to the irreducible $V_j$.  

\[ \diamond \]
For $i, j = 1, \ldots, n$ denote

\[ M_{ij} \equiv \langle e_i, Me_j \rangle. \]

We use now the projection operators $P^j$ to describe the restrictions on the $M^j$ imposed by a condition of the type

\[ M_{1k} = 0. \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.3)

Observe that since $M$ commutes with $\Gamma$, if $M_{1k} = 0$ then $M_{\gamma(1)\gamma(k)} = 0$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.

Denote by $H$ the subgroup of $\Gamma$ defined by

\[ H = \{ \gamma \in \Gamma : \gamma(1) = 1 \}. \]

Choose permutations $\gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_n \in \Gamma$ such that

\[ j = \gamma_j(1) \]

(recall that $\Gamma$ acts transitively on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$) and set $\gamma_1 = e$. It follows then that

\[ \Gamma = H \cup \gamma_2H \cup \cdots \cup \gamma_nH \]

where $\cup$ denotes disjoint union and

\[ e_j = T(\gamma_j)e_1, \quad j = 1, \ldots, n. \]

In the following lemma, given $z \in \mathbb{C}$ we denote $|z|^2 = z\overline{z}$.

**Lemma 2.2** For $j = 1, \ldots, r$, let $P^j$ denote the projection of $V$ onto the isotypic component $U_j$ of type $V_j$, $\chi_j$ the character of the irreducible $\Gamma$-invariant vector space $V_j$ and $d_j$ the dimension of $V_j$. Then:

\[ \langle P^j e_1, P^j e_1 \rangle = \left( \frac{d_j}{|\Gamma|} \right)^2 \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{\gamma \in \gamma_k H} \chi_j(\gamma)^2, \]

\[ P^j e_k = T(\gamma_k)P^j e_1, \quad k = 1, \ldots, n. \]

In particular, if $\chi_j$ is a linear character of $\Gamma$, then

\[ P^j e_k = \chi_j(\gamma_k)P^j e_1, \quad k = 1, \ldots, n. \]

**Proof:** By definition of $P^j$ we have

\[ P^j e_1 = \frac{d_j}{|\Gamma|} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \overline{\chi_j(\gamma)} T(\gamma)e_1 = \frac{d_j}{|\Gamma|} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{\gamma \in \gamma_k H} \overline{\chi_j(\gamma)} e_k \right). \]

As $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle = 0$ if $i \neq j$, and $\langle e_i, e_i \rangle = 1$, the formula for $\langle P^j e_1, P^j e_1 \rangle$ follows. Now for the second equality, recall that $e_k = T(\gamma_k)e_1$ for $k = 1, \ldots, n$. Therefore

\[ P^j e_k = \frac{d_j}{|\Gamma|} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \overline{\chi_j(\gamma)} T(\gamma)T(\gamma_k)e_1 = T(\gamma_k) \left( \frac{d_j}{|\Gamma|} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \overline{\chi_j(\gamma)} e_k \right) e_1 = T(\gamma_k)P^j e_1. \]

Moreover, if $\chi_j$ is linear, as $P^j e_1 \in U_j$, it follows that $T(\gamma_k)P^j e_1 = \chi_j(\gamma_k)P^j e_1$. \hfill \Box
Proposition 2.3 Suppose the conditions of Lemma 2.2 and let \( I = \{1, \ldots, r\} \). Given \( k \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) then
\[
M_{1k} = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in I} \langle P^j e_1, M^j P^j e_k \rangle = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in I} \langle P^j e_1, T(\gamma_k) M^j P^j e_1 \rangle = 0.
\] (2.4)

Proof: Recall that \( M_{1k} = \langle e_1, M e_k \rangle \), and \( U_1, \ldots, U_r \) are the isotypic components for the action of \( \Gamma \) on \( V \), of type \( V_1, \ldots, V_r \), respectively. Thus \( \sum_{j \in I} P^j = \text{Id}_V \) and so \( \langle e_1, M e_k \rangle = \langle \sum_{j \in I} P^j e_1, M \sum_{l \in I} P^l e_k \rangle \). As \( P^l e_k \in U_l \), it follows that \( M \sum_{l \in I} P^l e_k = \sum_{l \in I} M^l P^l e_k \).

Also \( \langle u_j, u_l \rangle = 0 \) if \( u_j \in U_j, \ u_l \in U_l \) and \( j \neq l \). (This property is valid for any \( \Gamma \)-invariant inner product defined on \( V \).) Moreover by Lemma 2.2 and because \( M_l \) commutes with \( \Gamma \) we obtain (2.4).

Remark 2.4 Observe that if \( \Gamma \subseteq S_n \) is Abelian and acts transitively on \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \) then if \( \gamma(i) = i \) for some \( i \), then \( \gamma(j) = j \) for all \( j \). That is, \( \gamma \) is the identity. To verify this point use transitivity to choose \( \delta \in \Gamma \) such that \( \delta(i) = j \). Since \( \Gamma \) is Abelian, it follows that
\[
\gamma(j) = \gamma \delta(i) = \delta \gamma(i) = \delta(i) = j.
\]

We have then that \( |\Gamma| = n \). Moreover, all the irreducible \( \Gamma \)-invariant vector spaces are one-dimensional and \( r = n \), see for example [15, Proposition 9.5]. We obtain that \( U_j = V_j \) for \( j = 1, \ldots, n \), where the \( V_j \) form a complete set of non-isomorphic irreducible and one-dimensional \( \Gamma \)-invariant vector spaces. The representation \( V \) is called the regular representation of \( \Gamma \).

Corollary 2.5 Suppose the conditions of Lemma 2.2 and assume that \( \Gamma \) is an Abelian group (of order \( n \)). Given \( k \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) then
\[
M_{1k} = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M^j = 0.
\] (2.5)

Proof: By Proposition 2.3 and Remark 2.4 we get
\[
M_{1k} = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \langle P^j e_1, \chi_j(\gamma_k) M^j P^j e_1 \rangle = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M^j \langle P^j e_1, P^j e_1 \rangle = 0.
\]

As \( \langle P^j e_1, P^j e_1 \rangle = 1/|\Gamma| \) by Lemma 2.2, formula (2.5) follows.

2.2 Linear analysis on \( \mathbb{C}^l \otimes \mathbb{C}^n \)

We extend now the action of \( \Gamma \) on \( V = \mathbb{C}^n \) to the space \( \mathbb{C}^{ln} \cong \mathbb{C}^l \otimes V \) given by
\[
T(\gamma)(y \otimes v) = y \otimes (T(\gamma)v), \quad \gamma \in \Gamma, \ y \in \mathbb{C}^l, \ v \in V.
\]
Thus $\Gamma$ acts trivially on $C_l$ and on $V$ as in (2.2). It follows then that the isotypic decomposition of $C_l \otimes V$ for the action of $\Gamma$ on $C_l \otimes V$ is

$$C_l \otimes V = \left( C_l \otimes U_1 \right) \oplus \cdots \oplus \left( C_l \otimes U_r \right)$$

where $U_1, \ldots, U_r$ are the isotypic components of the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$. Observe that if $P^j$ denotes the projection operator onto the isotypic component $C_l \otimes U_j$, we have that

$$P^j(y \otimes v) = y \otimes P^j(v)$$

where $P^j$ is the projection operator defined on $V$ and onto the isotypic component $U_j$ for the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$.

Suppose now that $M \in \text{gl}(C_l \otimes V)$ commutes with $\Gamma$. Thus we have that

$$M(C_l \otimes U_j) \subseteq C_l \otimes U_j.$$  

Denote by $M^j$ the restriction of $M$ to $C_l \otimes U_j$.

We can define an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on $C_l \otimes V$ by extending the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on $V$ in the following way. Denote by $c_1 = (1, 0, \ldots, 0, 1), \ldots, c_l = (0, 0, \ldots, 0, 1)$. Thus $\{c_1, \ldots, c_l\}$ is the canonical basis of $C_l$. Define then:

$$\langle c_i \otimes v_1, c_t \otimes v_2 \rangle = \delta_{it} \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle, \quad i, t = 1, \ldots, l; \quad v_1, v_2 \in V,$$

where $\delta_{it}$ is equal to 1 if $i = t$ and 0 otherwise. This corresponds to the standard (Euclidean) inner product on $C_{ln}$ and so we use the same symbol.

Given $k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, we are now interested in using the projection operators $P^j$ to describe the restrictions on the $M^j$ imposed by the set of $l^2$ conditions of the type

$$\langle c_i \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0, \quad i, t = 1, \ldots, l.$$

We have the following generalization of Lemma 2.2:

**Lemma 2.6** For $j = 1, \ldots, r$, let $P^j$ denote the projection of $V$ onto the isotypic component $U_j$ of type $V_j$, $\chi_j$ the character of the irreducible $\Gamma$-invariant vector space $V_j$ and $d_j$ the dimension of $V_j$. Given $i, t \in \{1, \ldots, l\}$ we have:

$$\langle P^j(c_i \otimes e_1), P^j(c_t \otimes e_1) \rangle = \delta_{it} \left( \frac{d_j}{|\Gamma|} \right)^2 \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{\gamma \in \gamma_kH} \chi_j(\gamma) \right|^2,$$

$$P^j(c_t \otimes e_k) = c_t \otimes P^j e_k = c_t \otimes T(\gamma_k) P^j, \quad k = 1, \ldots, n.$$  

In particular, if $\chi_j$ is a linear character of $\Gamma$, then

$$P^j(c_t \otimes e_k) = c_t \otimes \chi_j(\gamma_k) P^j e_1, \quad k = 1, \ldots, n.$$  

The generalization of Proposition 2.3 is:
Proposition 2.7 Suppose the conditions of Lemma 2.6 and let \( I = \{1, \ldots, r\} \). Given \( k \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) and \( i, t \in \{1, \ldots, l\} \) then
\[
\langle c_i \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in I} \langle P^j(c_i \otimes e_1), M^j P^j(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0,
\]
\[
\iff \sum_{j \in I} \langle c_i \otimes P^j(e_1), M^j(c_t \otimes P^j(e_k)) \rangle = 0, \tag{2.6}
\]
\[
\iff \sum_{j \in I} \langle c_i \otimes P^j(e_1), M^j(c_t \otimes T(\gamma_k) P^j(e_1)) \rangle = 0.
\]

Corollary 2.8 Suppose the conditions of Lemma 2.6 and assume that \( \Gamma \) is an Abelian group (of order \( n \)). Given \( k \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) and \( i, t \in \{1, \ldots, l\} \) then
\[
\langle c_i \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M^j_{it} = 0 \tag{2.7}
\]
where \( M^j_{it} = \langle c_i \otimes P^j(e_1), M^j(c_t \otimes P^j(e_1)) \rangle \).

Proof: By Proposition 2.7 and Remark 2.4 we get
\[
\langle c_i \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k) \rangle = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \langle c_i \otimes P^j(e_1), M^j(c_t \otimes \chi_j(\gamma_k) P^j(e_1)) \rangle = 0,
\]
\[
\iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M^j_{it} = 0.
\]

\[\square\]

2.3 Examples

We apply the above results to the cyclic and dihedral groups.

2.3.1 The cyclic group \( \mathbb{Z}_n \)

Let \( \mathbb{Z}_n \) be a cyclic group of order \( n \) generated by an element \( a \) satisfying \( a^n = e \). Put \( \omega = e^{i2\pi/n} \). Then \( \mathbb{Z}_n \) has \( n \) distinct linear characters \( \chi_j, j = 1, \ldots, n \), given by
\[
\chi_j(a^r) = \omega^{(j-1)r}, \quad j = 1, \ldots, n.
\]
Here \( r \in \{1, \ldots, n-1\} \) where \( a^0 = e \). Consider now \( \Gamma \) the subgroup of \( S_n \) isomorphic to \( \mathbb{Z}_n \) permuting transitively (and faithfully) the set \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \) and generated by
\[
\alpha = (1 \ 2 \ \ldots \ n).
\]
Let \( V = \mathbb{C}^n \) and \( b = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\} \) a basis of \( V \) and consider the action of \( \Gamma \) on \( V \) given by permutation of the corresponding coordinates (recall (2.2)). Thus if \( \gamma_k = \alpha^{k-1} \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, n \) then \( e_k = T(\gamma_k)e_1 \). The action of \( \Gamma \) on \( V \) corresponds to the regular representation of \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{Z}_n \): each distinct \( \Gamma \)-irreducible appears in the \( \Gamma \)-isotypic decomposition of \( V \), with multiplicity one. Thus
\[
V = V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_n
\]
where each irreducible \( V_j \) has character type \( \chi_j \). Direct application of Corollary 2.5 leads to:
Proposition 2.9 Suppose \( M \in \text{gl}(V) \) and assume that \( M \) commutes with the above action of \( \Gamma \). For \( k, j = 1, \ldots, n \) denote by \( M_{1k} = \langle e_1, Me_k \rangle \) and \( M^j \) the restriction of \( M \) to \( V_j \). Then
\[
M_{1k} = 0 \iff \sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \omega^{(j-1)(k-1)} M^j = 0. \tag{2.8}
\]

Corollary 2.10 Suppose the conditions of Proposition 2.9 and write \( M^j = M_R^j + iM_I^j \) where \( M_R^j, M_I^j \in \mathbb{R} \). Assume \( M \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^n) \).

(i) If \( n \) is odd then
\[
M_{1k} = 0 \iff M^1 + 2 \sum_{j=2}^{(n-1)/2+1} \left( \cos \left( \frac{2\pi(k-1)(j-1)}{n} \right) M_R^j - \sin \left( \frac{2\pi(k-1)(j-1)}{n} \right) M_I^j \right) = 0.
\]

(ii) If \( n \) is even then
\[
M_{1k} = 0 \iff M^1 + \frac{M^n/2+1}{(-1)^{n-1}} + 2 \sum_{j=2}^{n/2} \left( \cos \left( \frac{2\pi(k-1)(j-1)}{n} \right) M_R^j - \sin \left( \frac{2\pi(k-1)(j-1)}{n} \right) M_I^j \right) = 0.
\]

Proof: Let \( V_j \) be an isotypic component. Thus \( V_j \) is \( \Gamma \)-irreducible and has character \( \chi_j \). If \( \chi_j \) is real, then \( M^j \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}) \). If \( \chi_j \) is not real, then there is another isotypic component \( V_i = V_j \), so that \( M^j = M^i \). The decomplexification acts on \( \hat{V}_j = V_j \oplus V_i \), as
\[
\hat{M}^j = \begin{pmatrix} M_R^j & M_I^j \\ -M_I^j & M_R^j \end{pmatrix}
\]
where \( M^j = M_R^j + iM_I^j \). Accordingly, let us write \( \chi_j \in \mathbb{C} \) as \( \chi_j = (\chi_j)_R + i(\chi_j)_I \) with \( (\chi_j)_R, (\chi_j)_I \in \mathbb{R} \). In (2.8) the sum \( \chi_j M^j + \overline{\chi_j} M^j \) yields \( 2(\chi_j)_R M_R^j - 2(\chi_j)_I M_I^j \), so that
\[
\sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \omega^{(j-1)(k-1)} M^j = 0 \iff \sum_{j \text{ s.t. } \chi_j \text{ real}} \chi_j M^j + 2 \sum_{j \text{ s.t. } \chi_j \text{ complex}} (\chi_j)_R (\gamma_k) M_R^j - (\chi_j)_I (\gamma_k) M_I^j = 0, \tag{2.9}
\]
where we note that in the latter sum, for each real irreducible \( \hat{V}_j \), only one irreducible representation is taken. \(\Box\)

Example 2.11 Revisiting the \( \mathbb{Z}_4 \)-symmetric networks used as examples in the Introduction, one readily verifies that
\[
\begin{align*}
k = 1 & \implies M^1 + M^3 + 2M_R^2 = 0 \iff a = 0, \\
k = 2 & \implies M^1 - M^3 - 2M_R^2 = 0 \iff b = 0, \\
k = 3 & \implies M^1 + M^3 - 2M_R^2 = 0 \iff c = 0, \\
k = 4 & \implies M^1 - M^3 + 2M_R^2 = 0 \iff d = 0.
\end{align*}
\]
\(\Box\)
2.3.2 The dihedral group \( \mathbb{D}_m \)

Consider \( \mathbb{D}_m \) the dihedral group of order \( n = 2m \). Recall that \( \mathbb{D}_m \) is the symmetry group of a regular \( m \)-sided polygon generated by elements \( a, b \) satisfying the relations \( a^m = b^2 = (ab)^2 = e \). If \( m \) is odd then \( \mathbb{D}_m \) has \( (m + 3)/2 \) conjugacy classes with representatives \( e, a, a^2, \ldots, a^{(m-1)/2}, b \), and so \( (m + 3)/2 \) distinct non-isomorphic irreducible \( \Gamma \)-invariant vector spaces: two of dimension one and \( (m - 1)/2 \) of dimension two. If \( m \) is even then \( \mathbb{D}_m \) has \( m/2 + 3 \) conjugacy classes with representatives \( e, a, a^2, \ldots, a^{m/2 - 1}, a^{m/2}, b, ab \), and so \( m/2 + 3 \) distinct non-isomorphic irreducible \( \Gamma \)-invariant vector spaces: four of dimension one and \( m/2 - 1 \) of dimension two. See Table 1 where the linear characters are denoted by \( \chi_j \) and the two-dimensional by \( \psi_j \).

| \( m \) is odd | \( \gamma \) | \( |C_{\mathbb{D}_m}(\gamma)| \) | \( e \) | \( a^t(1 \leq t \leq (m - 1)/2) \) | \( b \) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| \( \chi_1 \) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| \( \chi_2 \) | 1 | 1 | -1 | 0 |
| \( \psi_j \) | 2 | \( e^{jt} + \overline{e}^{jt} \) | 0 |

\( j = 1, \ldots, (m - 1)/2 \)  

| \( m \) is even | \( \gamma \) | \( |C_{\mathbb{D}_m}(\gamma)| \) | \( e \) | \( a^t(1 \leq t \leq m/2 - 1) \) | \( a^{\pm} \) | \( b \) | \( ab \) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| \( \chi_1 \) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| \( \chi_2 \) | 1 | 1 | -1 | -1 |
| \( \chi_3 \) | 1 | \( (-1)^t \) | \( (-1)^{\mp} \) | 1 | -1 |
| \( \chi_4 \) | 1 | \( (-1)^t \) | \( (-1)^{\mp} \) | -1 | 1 |
| \( \psi_j \) | 2 | \( e^{jt} + \overline{e}^{jt} \) | 2 \( (-1)^t \) | 0 | 0 |

\( j = 1, \ldots, m/2 - 1 \)  

Table 1: Character table for the dihedral group \( \mathbb{D}_m \) according to the parity of \( m \) [15]. Here \( \epsilon = e^{2\pi i/m} \) and \( C_{\mathbb{D}_m}(\gamma) \) is the centralizer of \( \gamma \) in \( \mathbb{D}_m \).

Throughout let

\[
    p = \begin{cases} 
    2 & \text{if } m \text{ is odd}, \\
    4 & \text{if } m \text{ is even}, 
\end{cases} \quad q = \begin{cases} 
    \frac{m-1}{2} & \text{if } m \text{ is odd}, \\
    \frac{m}{2} - 1 & \text{if } m \text{ is even}. 
\end{cases} 
\]

There are essentially two ways that \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m \) acts faithfully and transitively on a finite set. As before, let \( H = \{ \gamma \in \Gamma : \gamma(1) = 1 \} \). Either \( H \) is the trivial group. This corresponds to the regular representation of \( \mathbb{D}_m \) and \( \Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{S}_n \) where \( n = 2m \). Or \( H \cong \{e, a^i b\} \) for some integer \( i \) between 0 and \( m - 1 \) and \( \Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{S}_m \). Observe that only the trivial group and the subgroups of \( \mathbb{D}_m \) of type \( \{e, a^i b\} \) do not contain nontrivial normal subgroups of \( \mathbb{D}_m \).

**Regular representation**

Consider \( \Gamma \) the subgroup of \( \mathbb{S}_n \) permuting transitively and faithfully the set \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \) and generated by

\[
    \alpha = (1 \ 2 \ \ldots \ m)(m+1 \ m+2 \ \ldots \ 2m), \\
    \beta = (1 \ m+1)(2 \ 2m)(3 \ 2m-1) \ldots (m \ m+2)
\]
where \( n = 2m \). Note that \( \Gamma \) is isomorphic to \( \mathbb{D}_m \) and the group \( H \) is trivial.

Let \( V = \mathbb{C}^n \) and \( b = \{ e_1, \ldots, e_n \} \) a basis of \( V \) and consider the action of \( \Gamma \) on \( V \) given by permutation of the corresponding coordinates (recall (2.2)). Observe that if we denote

\[
\gamma_k = \begin{cases} 
\alpha^{k-1} & \text{if } k = 1, \ldots, m, \\
\alpha^{k-m-1} \beta & \text{if } k = m + 1, \ldots, 2m,
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \gamma_1 = \alpha^0 \equiv e \) then

\[
e_k = T(\gamma_k) e_1, \quad k = 1, \ldots, 2m.
\]

Moreover, the action of \( \Gamma \) on \( V \) corresponds to the regular representation of \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m \). That is, each distinct \( \Gamma \)-irreducible appears in the \( \Gamma \)-isotypic decomposition of \( V \), with multiplicity equals to its dimension. The decomposition of \( V \) as a sum of its isotypic components is then given by:

\[
V = U_0^1 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_0^p \oplus U_1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_q
\]

where \( U_0^1, \ldots, U_0^p \) are one-dimensional (distinct) irreducible \( \Gamma \)-invariant subspaces of \( V \) of type \( \chi_1, \ldots, \chi_p \), and \( U_1, \ldots, U_q \) are each the sum of two irreducible \( \Gamma \)-invariant subspaces of \( V \) of dimension 2 and of type \( \psi_1, \ldots, \psi_q \). Recall that \( p, q \) are defined by (2.10).

Given \( j \) between 1 and \( q \), define

\[
w_j^1 = \frac{1}{m} \left( e_1 + \epsilon \epsilon^1 e_2 + \cdots + \epsilon^{(m-1)} e_m \right), \quad w_j^4 = \frac{1}{m} \left( e_1 + \epsilon^j e_2 + \cdots + \epsilon^{(m-1)j} e_m \right), \\
w_j^2 = \frac{1}{m} \left( e_{m+1} + \epsilon^j e_{m+2} + \cdots + \epsilon^{(m-1)j} e_{2m} \right), \quad w_j^3 = \frac{1}{m} \left( e_{m+1} + \epsilon^j e_{m+2} + \cdots + \epsilon^{(m-1)j} e_{2m} \right),
\]

where \( \epsilon = e^{2\pi i / m} \) and

\[
b_j = \{ w_j^1, w_j^2, w_j^3, w_j^4 \}.
\]

The vectors \( w_j^1, w_j^2, w_j^3, w_j^4 \in V \) are linearly independent, \( \langle w_j^k, w_l^j \rangle = 0 \) if \( k \neq l \), and \( \langle w_j^l, w_l^j \rangle = 1/m \) for \( l = 1, \ldots, 4 \). Moreover, \( C \{ w_j^1, w_j^2 \} \) and \( C \{ w_j^3, w_j^4 \} \) are \( \Gamma \)-isomorphic irreducible subspaces of \( V \) of character type \( \psi_j \). It follows then that

\[
U_j = C \{ w_j^1, w_j^2, w_j^3, w_j^4 \} = C \{ w_j^1, w_j^2 \} \oplus C \{ w_j^3, w_j^4 \} \cong V_j \oplus V_j.
\]

Moreover, if we consider the projection operator \( P_j : V \to V \) onto the isotypic component \( U_j \):

\[
P_j = \frac{2}{|\mathbb{D}_m|} \sum_{\gamma \in \mathbb{D}_m} \overline{\psi_j(\gamma)} T(\gamma)
\]

we obtain

\[
P_j e_k = \begin{cases} 
\epsilon^{j(k-1)} w_j^1 + \epsilon^{j(k-1)} w_j^4 & \text{if } 1 \leq k \leq m, \\
\epsilon^{j(k-1)} w_j^1 + \epsilon^{j(k-1)} w_j^2 & \text{if } m + 1 \leq k \leq 2m.
\end{cases}
\quad (2.11)
\]

Suppose \( M \in \text{gl}(V) \) commutes with \( \Gamma \). For \( j = 1, \ldots, q \) denote by \( M_j^j \) the restriction of \( M \) to the isotypic component \( U_j \) with respect to the basis \( b_j \). Thus each \( M_j^j \) is a \( 4 \times 4 \) matrix with complex entries commuting with \( \Gamma \) of the following form:

\[
M_j^j = (M_{|U_j})_{b_j} = \begin{pmatrix}
M_{1,1}^j & 0 & M_{1,3}^j & 0 \\
0 & M_{1,1}^j & 0 & M_{1,3}^j \\
M_{3,1}^j & 0 & M_{3,3}^j & 0 \\
0 & M_{3,1}^j & 0 & M_{3,3}^j
\end{pmatrix}.
\quad (2.12)
\]

16
For \( k = 1, \ldots, p \) denote by \( M_0^k = M|_{U_0^k} \). We have the following result:

\textbf{Proposition 2.12} (i) If \( 1 \leq k \leq m \) then

\[ M_{1k} = 0 \iff \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \left( e^{j(k-1)} M_{1,1}^j + \bar{e}^{j(k-1)} M_{3,3}^j \right) = 0. \]

(ii) If \( m+1 \leq k \leq 2m \) then

\[ M_{1k} = 0 \iff \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \left( e^{j(k-1-m)} M_{1,3}^j + \bar{e}^{j(k-1-m)} M_{3,1}^j \right) = 0. \]

\textbf{Proof:} We apply Proposition 2.3. Denote by \( U_0^j \) the one-dimensional \( \Gamma \)-irreducibles, for \( j = 1, \ldots, p \). By Lemma 2.2 we have \( P_j \) the projections onto the one-dimensional \( \Gamma \)-irreducibles \( U_0^j \), for \( j = 1, \ldots, p \). By Lemma 2.2 we have \( P_j e_k = \chi_j(\gamma_k) P_j e_1 \) and \( \langle P_j e_1, P_j e_1 \rangle = 1/|\Gamma| = 1/2m \). Thus

\[ \langle P_j e_1, M_0^j P_j e_k \rangle = \langle P_j e_1, M_0^j \chi_j(\gamma_k) P_j e_1 \rangle = \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j \langle P_j e_1, P_j e_1 \rangle = \frac{1}{2m} \chi_j(g_k) M_0^j. \]

Recall that \( P_j \) denotes the projection onto the isotypic component \( U_j \), for \( j = 1, \ldots, q \), and \( M^j = (M|_{U_j})_{g_j} \) is given by (2.12). Using (2.11), if \( k \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \) then

\[ \langle P_j e_1, M^j P_j e_k \rangle = e^{j(k-1)} \langle w_1^j, M^j w_1^j \rangle + e^{j(k-1)} \langle w_1^j, M^j w_4^j \rangle + e^{j(k-1)} \langle w_4^j, M^j w_1^j \rangle + e^{j(k-1)} \langle w_4^j, M^j w_4^j \rangle. \]

As \( \langle w_i^j, w_i^j \rangle = 1/m \) for \( i = 1, 2, 3, 4 \) and \( \langle w_r^j, w_s^j \rangle = 0 \) if \( r \neq s \), it follows that

\[ \langle P_j e_1, M^j P_j e_k \rangle = \frac{1}{m} \left( e^{j(k-1)} M_{1,1}^j + e^{j(k-1)} M_{3,3}^j \right). \]

The proof of (ii) is similar. \( \square \)

\textbf{Corollary 2.13} Suppose the conditions of Proposition 2.12 where now \( M \in gl(\mathbb{R}^n) \).

(i) If \( 1 \leq k \leq m \) then

\[ M_{1k} = 0 \iff \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{q} \text{Re} \left( e^{j(k-1)} M_{1,1}^j \right) = 0. \]

(ii) If \( m+1 \leq k \leq 2m \) then

\[ M_{1k} = 0 \iff \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{q} \text{Re} \left( e^{j(k-1-m)} M_{1,3}^j \right) = 0. \]
Proof: For $j = 1, \ldots, q$ define
\[
B_j = \{w_1^j + w_2^j, w_2^j + w_3^j, i(w_1^j - w_2^j), i(w_2^j - w_3^j)\}.
\]
It follows that $B_j$ is a basis of $U_j$. Moreover, since $M \in \mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ we have that $M|_{U_j}$ with respect to this basis has real entries. Comparing the matrices of $M|_{U_j}$ with respect to $b_j$ (recall (2.12)) and $B_j$ we obtain that
\[
M_{3,3}^j = \overline{M}_{1,1}^j, \quad M_{3,1}^j = \overline{M}_{1,3}^j.
\]
The result now follows from Proposition 2.12.

Example 2.14 Revisiting the $\mathbb{D}_3$-symmetric networks used as examples in the Introduction, observe that the absence of connections from cells 2, 3 to cell 1 leads to the following two conditions:
\[
k = 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2}M_0^1 + \frac{1}{2}M_0^2 + 2\text{Re}(\epsilon M_{1,1}^1) = 0,
\]
\[
k = 3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2}M_0^0 + \frac{1}{2}M_0^0 + 2\text{Re}(\epsilon^2 M_{1,1}^1) = 0,
\]
where $\epsilon = e^{i2\pi/3}$. Subtracting these equations, we obtain
\[
\text{Re}((\epsilon^2 - \epsilon)M_{1,1}^1) = 0 \iff \text{Im}(M_{1,1}^1) = 0 \iff M_{1,1}^1 \in \mathbb{R}.
\]
Thus the eigenvalues of $M^1$ as in (2.12) for $j = 1$, and where $M_{1,1}^1 = M_{3,3}^1 \in \mathbb{R}$, $M_{1,3}^1 = \overline{M_{3,1}^1} \in \mathbb{C}$, are the eigenvalues of the matrix
\[
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
M_{1,1}^1 & M_{1,3}^1 \\
M_{1,3}^1 & M_{1,1}^1
\end{array}\right)
\]
each with multiplicity two. Moreover, this matrix has real eigenvalues. Thus no Hopf bifurcation can occur for coupled cell networks with the structure given by Figure 2 (right) as we had shown before in the Introduction by other method.

Suppose now that $M \in \mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V)$ commutes with $\Gamma$ where the action of $\Gamma$ on $\mathbb{C}^l$ is trivial.

For $j = 1, \ldots, p$, if $\{w_j\}$ is a basis of $U_0^j$ then $\{c_1 \otimes w_j, \ldots, c_l \otimes w_j\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes U_0^j$. Denote by $M_j^l$ the restriction of $M$ to the isotypic component $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes U_0^j$ with respect to this basis which is a $l \times l$ matrix of complex entries.

For $j = 1, \ldots, q$, since $b_j = \{w_1^j, w_2^j, w_3^j, w_4^j\}$ is a basis of $U_j$, it follows then that
\[
b_j = \{c_1 \otimes w_1^j, \ldots, c_l \otimes w_1^j, c_1 \otimes w_2^j, \ldots, c_l \otimes w_2^j, c_1 \otimes w_3^j, \ldots, c_l \otimes w_3^j, c_1 \otimes w_4^j, \ldots, c_l \otimes w_4^j\}
\]
is a basis of $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes U_j$. Denote by $M_j^l$ the restriction of $M$ to the isotypic component $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes U_j$ with respect to this basis which is a $4l \times 4l$ matrix with complex entries of the following form:
\[
M_j^l \equiv (M|_{\mathbb{C}^l \otimes U_j})_{b_j} = \begin{pmatrix}
M_{1,1}^j & 0 & M_{1,3}^j & 0 \\
0 & M_{1,1}^j & 0 & M_{1,3}^j \\
M_{3,1}^j & 0 & M_{3,3}^j & 0 \\
0 & M_{3,1}^j & 0 & M_{3,3}^j
\end{pmatrix}
\]
(2.13)
where $M_{1,1}^j, M_{1,3}^j, M_{3,1}^j, M_{3,3}^j$ are $l \times l$ matrices with complex entries.
Proposition 2.15  (i) If 1 ≤ k ≤ m then
\[ (c_t \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k)) = 0 \]
\[ \forall i, t \in \{1, \ldots , l\} \]
\[ \iff \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \left( \epsilon^{j(k-1)} M_{1,1}^j + \epsilon^{-j(k-1)} M_{3,3}^j \right) = 0. \]

(ii) If m + 1 ≤ k ≤ 2m then
\[ (c_t \otimes e_1, M(c_t \otimes e_k)) = 0 \]
\[ \forall i, t \in \{1, \ldots , l\} \]
\[ \iff \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \chi_j(\gamma_k) M_0^j + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \left( \epsilon^{j(k-1-m)} M_{1,3}^j + \epsilon^{-j(k-1-m)} M_{3,1}^j \right) = 0. \]

Proof:  Direct application of Proposition 2.7.

Nonregular representation

We consider now Γ ∼= D_m permuting transitively and faithfully the set \{1, \ldots , m\}. Thus Γ ⊆ S_m and H ∼= \{e, a^ib\} for some integer i between 0 and m − 1.

Let m be odd and consider Γ the subgroup of S_m generated by
\[\alpha = (1 \ 2 \ \ldots \ m),\]
\[\beta = (2 \ m)(3 \ m-1)\ldots ((m+1)/2 \ (m+1)/2+1). \quad (2.14)\]

Note that H = \{e, β\}. Let V = \mathbb{C}^m and \{e_1, \ldots , e_m\} a basis of V and consider the action of Γ on V given by permutation of the corresponding coordinates (2.2).

Observe that if we denote by γ_k = α^{k-1}, k = 1, \ldots , m where γ_1 = α^0 = e then \epsilon_k = T(γ_k)e_1.

We have the following general result:

Lemma 2.16  Let χ_i be an irreducible character of Γ and H a subgroup of Γ acting trivially on e_1. Then the multiplicity of the irreducible χ_i that appears in the Γ-isotypic decomposition of V is the number 1/|H| \sum_{h \in H} χ_i(h).

Proof:  Denote by ψ_{Γ} the character of the action of Γ on V as defined above, and let ψ_{H} be the trivial character of H.

The action of H on U = \mathbb{C}\{e_1\} is trivial. Thus U ⊆ V is H-invariant and has character ψ_{H}. Now observe that V = \mathbb{C}\{γ_u : γ ∈ Γ, u ∈ U\}. That is, V is the Γ-invariant subspace of V induced from U and it is denoted by U ⊆ Γ. Also, ψ_{Γ} is denoted by ψ_{H} ↑ Γ.

Now as V is Γ-invariant, then V is H-invariant and V ↓ H is called the restriction of V to H. The character of V ↓ H is obtained from the character χ on the elements of H only and is denoted by χ ↓ H.

Recall that if χ_j and χ_k are two functions from Γ to \mathbb{C}, then
\[\langle χ_j, χ_k \rangle_{Γ} = \frac{1}{|Γ|} \sum_{g \in Γ} χ_j(g)\overline{χ_k(g)}\]

is an inner product on the complex vector space of functions from Γ to \mathbb{C}.

The multiplicity of an irreducible with character χ_i appearing in the Γ-isotypic decomposition of V is given by \langle ψ_{Γ}, χ_i \rangle_{Γ} = \langle ψ_{H} ↑ Γ, χ_i \rangle_{Γ}. Now by the Frobenius Reciprocity Theorem [15, page 232] we have that \langle ψ_{H} ↓ Γ, χ_i \rangle_{Γ} = \langle ψ_{H}, χ_i ↓ H \rangle_{H}. □
Recall Table 1, where \( \chi_1, \chi_2 \) are the one-dimensional characters of \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m \) (\( m \) is odd), and \( \psi_j \) for \( j = 1, \ldots, q \) where \( q = (m - 1)/2 \) are the two-dimensional irreducible characters of \( \Gamma \). Taking

\[
H = \{ e, \beta \} \cong \{ e, b \}
\]

we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\chi_1(e) &= 1, & \chi_1(\alpha \beta) &= 1, & \chi_1(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= 1, \\
\chi_2(e) &= 1, & \chi_2(\alpha \beta) &= -1, & \chi_2(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= -1, \\
\psi_j(e) &= 2, & \psi_j(\alpha \beta) &= 0, & \psi_j(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= 0, \quad j = 1, \ldots, q.
\end{align*}
\]

Here \( i = 0, \ldots, m - 1 \). Using Lemma 2.16 the irreducibles that appear in \( V \) are of type \( \chi_1, \psi_1, \ldots, \psi_q \), and all appear once:

\[
\psi_T = \chi_1 + \psi_1 + \cdots + \psi_q
\]

and

\[
V = U_0^1 \oplus U_1^1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_q
\]

where \( U_0^1, U_j \) are irreducible with character type \( \chi_1, \psi_j \), respectively. Other transitive and faithful actions of \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m \) on \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) where \( m \) is odd and such that \( H = \{ e, \alpha \beta \} \cong \{ e, a \beta \} \) give the same representation.

(ii) Let \( m \) be even and consider \( \Gamma \) the subgroup of \( S_m \) isomorphic to \( \mathbb{D}_m \) permuting transitively and faithfully the set \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) and generated by

\[
\alpha = (1 \ 2 \ \ldots \ m), \quad \beta = (2 \ m)(3 \ m - 1) \cdots (m/2 \ m/2 + 2).
\]

Again, we take \( \gamma_k = \alpha^{k-1} \) and so \( e_k = T(\gamma_k)e_1 \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, m \).

Recall Table 1, where \( \chi_1, \chi_2, \chi_3, \chi_4 \) are the one-dimensional characters of \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m \) (\( m \) is even), and \( \psi_j \) for \( j = 1, \ldots, q \) where \( q = m/2 - 1 \) are the two-dimensional irreducible characters of \( \Gamma \). Taking \( H = \{ e, \beta \} \cong \{ e, b \} \), we have that

\[
\begin{align*}
\chi_1(e) &= 1, & \chi_1(\alpha \beta) &= 1, & \chi_1(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= 1, \\
\chi_2(e) &= 1, & \chi_2(\alpha \beta) &= -1, & \chi_2(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= -1, \\
\chi_3(e) &= 1, & \chi_3(\alpha \beta) &= 1, & \chi_3(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= 1, \\
\chi_4(e) &= 1, & \chi_4(\alpha \beta) &= -1, & \chi_4(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= -1, \\
\psi_j(e) &= 2, & \psi_j(\alpha \beta) &= 0, & \psi_j(\alpha^{2i} \beta) &= 0, \quad j = 1, \ldots, q.
\end{align*}
\]

By Lemma 2.16 the \( \Gamma \)-irreducibles that appear (once) in \( V \) are \( \chi_1, \chi_3, \psi_1, \ldots, \psi_q \):

\[
\psi_T = \chi_1 + \chi_3 + \psi_1 + \cdots + \psi_q
\]

and

\[
V = U_0^1 \oplus U_1^1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_q
\]

where \( U_0^1, U_j \) are \( \Gamma \)-irreducible with character types \( \chi_1, \chi_3, \psi_j \) respectively.

Taking another transitive and faithful action of \( \Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m \) on \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) such that \( H = \{ e, \alpha^{2i} \beta \} \cong \{ e, a \beta \} \) corresponds to the same representation of \( \Gamma \). If \( H = \{ e, \alpha^{2i+1} \beta \} \cong \{ e, a^{2i+1} \beta \} \) then we obtain a quasi-equivalent representation, that is, equivalence composed with an outer automorphism of \( \Gamma \):

\[
\psi_T = \chi_1 + \chi_4 + \psi_1 + \cdots + \psi_q
\]

and

\[
V = U_0^1 \oplus U_1^1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_q
\]

where \( U_0^1, U_j \) are \( \Gamma \)-irreducible with character type \( \chi_1, \chi_4, \psi_j \).
Proposition 2.17 Let $\Gamma \cong \mathbb{D}_m$ and $V = \mathbb{C}^m$ with basis $b = \{e_1, \ldots, e_m\}$, and consider the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$ by permutation of coordinates given by (2.14) if $m$ is odd, and (2.15) if $m$ is even. Let $M \in \text{gl}(V)$ commuting with $\Gamma$. For $1 \leq k \leq m$ let $\gamma_k = \alpha^{k-1}$ and recall that $e_k = T(\gamma_k)e_1$.
(i) Suppose that $m$ is odd, and let $V = U_0^1 \oplus U_1^1 \oplus U_2^1 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_q^1$, where $U_0^1$ is irreducible of trivial type and $U_j^1$ is $\Gamma$-irreducible with character type $\psi_j$. Consider $M_0^1 = M|_{U_0^1}$ and $M^j = M|_{U_j^1} \cong M_{1,1}^j \text{Id}_{2 \times 2}$. Then

$$M_{1k} = 0 \iff M_0^1 + \sum_{j=1}^q \psi_j(\gamma_k)M_{1,1}^j = 0.$$ 

(ii) Suppose that $m$ is even and let $V = U_0^1 \oplus U_0^3 \oplus U_1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_q$, where $U_0^1, U_0^3, U_j$ are $\Gamma$-irreducible with character types $\chi_1, \chi_3, \psi_j$ and $M_0^1 = M|_{U_0^1}$, $M^j = M|_{U_j} \cong M_{1,1}^j \text{Id}_{2 \times 2}$. Then

$$M_{1k} = 0 \iff M_0^1 + \chi_3(\gamma_k)M_0^3 + \sum_{j=1}^q \psi_j(\gamma_k)M_{1,1}^j = 0.$$ 

Proof: We apply Proposition 2.3. Denote by $P_j$ the projection of $V$ onto the isotopic component $U_0^j$ with linear character type $\chi_j$. By Lemma 2.2, if $\chi_j$ is linear then $P_j e_k = \chi_j(\gamma_k)P_j e_1$. If $j = 1$, or if $j = 3$ and $m$ is even, then $\langle P_j e_1, P_j e_1 \rangle = 1/m$.

For $j = 1, \ldots, q$, consider

$$w_i^j = \frac{1}{m} \left( e_1 + \epsilon^j e_2 + \cdots + \epsilon^{(m-1)j} e_m \right), \quad w_i^j = \frac{1}{m} \left( e_1 + \epsilon^j e_2 + \cdots + \epsilon^{(m-1)j} e_m \right)$$

(2.16)

where $\epsilon = e^{2\pi i/m}$. Then $\langle w_i^j, w_i^j \rangle = \langle w_4^j, w_4^j \rangle = 1/m$ and $\langle w_i^j, w_4^j \rangle = 0$. Moreover, $\mathbb{C}\{w_i^j, w_4^j \}$ is an irreducible $\Gamma$-invariant subspace of $V$ with character type $\psi_j$. Thus $U_j = \mathbb{C}\{w_i^j, w_4^j \}$ and $P_j^j = e^{j(k-1)}w_i^j + \overline{e^{j(k-1)}w_i^j}$. The proof now follows as in the proof of Proposition 2.12.

Corollary 2.18 Suppose the conditions of Proposition 2.17 where now $M \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^m)$.

(i) If $m$ is odd then

$$M_{1k} = 0 \iff M_0^1 + \sum_{j=1}^q 2 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi j(k-1)}{m} \right) M_{1,1}^j = 0.$$ 

(ii) If $m$ is even then

$$M_{1k} = 0 \iff M_0^1 + (-1)^{k-1} M_0^3 + \sum_{j=1}^q 2 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi j(k-1)}{m} \right) M_{1,1}^j = 0.$$ 

Proof: Recall Table 1. Note also that from (2.16) we get that $\{w_i^j + w_4^j, i(w_i^j - w_4^j)\}$ is a basis of $U_j = \mathbb{C}\{w_i^j, w_4^j \}$ where $M^j = M|_{U_j}$ has real entries. Comparing with $M_{1,1}^j \text{Id}_{2 \times 2}$ we obtain that $M_{1,1}^j \in \mathbb{R}$. 

21
3 Codimension one eigenvalue movements

In this section we show that codimension one eigenvalue movement through the imaginary axis for coupled cell networks with Abelian symmetry are independent of the network structure, if the network is connected and the cells are active, thus proving Theorem 1.3.

Suppose $G$ is a coupled cell network with $n$ cells, and assume that the phase space of the cells is $\mathbb{R}^l$ and so the total phase space is $\mathbb{R}^{nl}$. To facilitate the analysis we first consider the complexification $\mathbb{C}^{nl}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{nl}$ and later deduce the consequences implied by the fact that the phase space is real.

Assume that the network is equivariant with respect to a transitive and faithful permutation action of an Abelian group $\Gamma$ on the set of cells $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Thus the total phase space is $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V$ where $V = \mathbb{C}^n$ and we assume that with respect to the cell coordinates $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ the action of $\Gamma$ is given by the homomorphism $T$ from $\Gamma$ to $\text{GL}(\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V)$ defined by

$$T(\gamma)(y \otimes v) = y \otimes (T(\gamma)v), \quad \gamma \in \Gamma, \: y \in \mathbb{C}^l, \: v \in V,$$

where $T : \Gamma \to \text{GL}(V)$ is

$$T(\gamma)(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = (v_{\gamma^{-1}(1)}, \ldots, v_{\gamma^{-1}(n)}), \quad \gamma \in \Gamma, \: (v_1, \ldots, v_n) \in V. \quad (3.17)$$

Following the notation of Section 2, the isotypic decomposition of $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V$ under the action of $\Gamma$ is

$$\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V = (\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V_n)$$

where $V_1, \ldots, V_n$ form a complete set of $\Gamma$-isomorphic irreducible spaces under the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$. Recall Remark 2.4.

The linearization $M \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V)$ at a fully symmetric equilibrium of a system of ordinary differential equations defined on $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V$ corresponding to the network $G$ is assumed to be $\Gamma$-equivariant and hence $M$ leaves each isotypic component $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V_j$ invariant. As before we denote by $M_j$ the restriction of $M$ to $\mathbb{C}^l \otimes V_j$.

Since $\Gamma$ is Abelian, each irreducible $V_j$ has complex dimension one. In view of the complexification, we need to be aware that there are two types of irreducible representations. Either $\chi_j$ is real and $V_j$ corresponds to the complexification of an irreducible real space $W_j$ with character $\chi_j$ and the real commuting matrices on $W_j$ are the real scalar multiples of the identity on $W_j$. In this case, $W_j$ is called $\Gamma$-absolutely irreducible and $V_j$ is said to be of real type. The other case is when $\chi_j$ is complex. Then the conjugate $\overline{\chi_j}$ is also an irreducible character distinct from $\chi_j$, associated say with $V_j$. Moreover, $V_j \oplus \overline{V_j}$ is a real $\Gamma$-irreducible with character $\chi_j + \overline{\chi_j}$ and the vector space of the real commuting matrices defined on $V_j \oplus \overline{V_j}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}$. In this case $V_j$ is said to be of complex type. For details, see for instance [15]. A space $W$ is called $\Gamma$-simple if $W$ is the direct sum of two isomorphic absolutely irreducible spaces, or if it is irreducible of complex type.

In the case of general equivariant linear vector fields, it is well known that codimension one eigenvalue movements through the imaginary axis can be characterized by the following conditions [12]: a one-parameter family $M(\mu)$, where $M(0)$ satisfies:

(a) The critical eigenspace $E_c$ of $M(0)$ is $\Gamma$-simple (in case eigenvalues intersect $i\mathbb{R}$ away from 0) or $\Gamma$-absolutely irreducible (in the case eigenvalues intersect at 0).
The eigenvalues $\lambda(\mu)$ of $M(\mu)$ such that $\text{Re}(\lambda(0)) = 0$ satisfy:

$$\frac{d}{d\mu}\text{Re}(\lambda(\mu))|_{\mu=0} \neq 0.$$ 

We now consider how the codimension one movement of eigenvalues through the imaginary axis is affected by the absence of network connections.

Recall that we say that a coupled cell network is connected if there exists a path (formed by concatenation of edges, not necessarily uni-directional) connecting $i$ and $j$ (for all $i \neq j$). We say that the network is disconnected otherwise. Note that if $\Gamma$ is transitive then the network is connected if and only if there are directed paths from any cell to any other cell.

We may summarize the connectivity information of an $n$-cell network in an $n \times n$ connectivity matrix $C$, where

$$C_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if there is a connection from } j \text{ to } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

As the network is $\Gamma$-equivariant, we have $C_{\gamma(i),\gamma(j)} = C_{i,j}$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$. We note that because of the transitivity of the action of $\Gamma$, the connectivity matrix $C$ is fully determined by its first row (or first column).

By Remark 2.4, the number $n$ of cells equals the order of $\Gamma$. Moreover, the representation of $\Gamma$ on $V$ corresponds to the regular representation. We consequently may identify cells uniquely with group elements once we have identified for example cell 1 with the identity element in $\Gamma$. In particular, we may label each cell $i$ by a unique element $\gamma_i \in \Gamma$ such that $\gamma_1(1) = i$, so that $\gamma_1 = e$, etc. With this identification we have $C_{1,\gamma(1)} = C_{e,\gamma}$.

There exists a group theoretic description of connectedness for a network with transitive symmetry group $\Gamma$.

**Lemma 3.1** The network with transitive symmetry group $\Gamma$ is connected if and only if $\Gamma = \langle S \rangle$, where

$$S = \{ \gamma \in \Gamma : C_{e,\gamma} = 1 \}. \quad (3.18)$$

**Proof:** Let $C$ be the connected component of cell $e$, that is, the set of cells $\gamma$ that are connected to cell $e$. We show that $C = \langle S \rangle$ and the lemma then follows.

It is obvious that $S \subseteq C$.

Next we show that $C \subseteq \Gamma$ is a subgroup and hence that $\langle S \rangle \subseteq C$, that is, we show that the subgroup generated by $S$ is contained in $C$. Note that if $\delta \in C$ and $\delta^k = e$, then $\delta, \ldots, \delta^{k-1}$ are all connected to cell $e$. Thus $\delta^{-1} = \delta^{k-1}$ is connected to $e$ and that $e$ is connected to $\delta^{-1}$; so $\delta^{-1} \in C$.

Suppose that $\gamma, \delta \in C$. We must show that $\gamma \delta \in C$. By assumption there is a path of coupled cells from $e$ to $\delta$. It follows that there is a path of coupled cells from $\gamma$ to $\gamma \delta$. Since there is also a path of coupled cells from $e$ to $\gamma$ there is a path from $e$ to $\gamma \delta$. A similar argument shows that there is a path of coupled cells from $\gamma \delta$ to $e$ and $\gamma \delta \in C$.

Finally, we show that $C \subseteq \langle S \rangle$. Let $\delta \in C$ and let $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_s = \delta$ be a directed path of coupled cells, which exists because $\Gamma$ is transitive. It follows that $\delta_1 \in S$. In addition, $1 = C_{\delta_1,\delta_2} = C_{e,\delta_1^{-1}\delta_2}$. So $\delta_1^{-1}\delta_2 \in S$ and $\delta_2 = \delta_1(\delta_1^{-1}\delta_2)$ is in $\langle S \rangle$. By induction, $\delta \in \langle S \rangle$. \qed
By Corollary 2.8, the matrix $M$ satisfies the following conditions (corresponding to the absence of the connections between cells $\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus S$ with $e$):

$$\sum_{j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} \chi_j(\gamma) M^i_j = 0, \forall i, t \in \{1, \ldots, n\}, \forall \gamma \in \Gamma \setminus S. \quad (3.19)$$

Here $M^i_j = (c_i \otimes P^j(e_1), M^j(c_t \otimes P^j(e_1)))$ where $M^j$ is the restriction of $M$ to the isotypic component $C^j \otimes V_j$.

**Lemma 3.2** Let $S$ denote the set of group elements corresponding to the present couplings, so that if $\gamma \in S$ there is a coupling from cell $\gamma$ to cell $e$. Then for all $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, l\}$

$$(M^i_{1t}, \ldots, M^i_{nt}) = \sum_{\gamma \in S} c_{it}(\gamma) \left( \overline{\chi_1(\gamma)}, \ldots, \overline{\chi_n(\gamma)} \right) \quad (3.20)$$

where $c_{it} : S \to \mathbb{C}$ are arbitrary.

**Proof:** By standard application of the character theory for compact Lie groups it is known that the character vectors $\chi(\gamma) = (\chi_1(\gamma), \ldots, \chi_n(\gamma)), \gamma \in \Gamma$ form an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{C}^n$. Hence, the solution space to (3.19) is spanned by all character vectors corresponding to group elements whose couplings are present. \[\square\]

We incorporate now the fact that in the context of coupled cell networks we work with real linear maps, rather than with their complexification. We thus need to decomplexify the answer obtained above.

Let $V_j$ be an isotypic component for the action of $\Gamma$ on $V$. Then:

- If $V_j$ is of real type, then $M^j$ should be interpreted as a matrix in $\text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^l)$.
- If $V_j$ is of complex type, then there is another isotypic component $V_i = V_j \oplus V_i \cong \mathbb{R}^2$, as $\widehat{M}^j = \begin{pmatrix} M^j_R & M^j_I \\ -M^j_I & M^j_R \end{pmatrix}$ where $M^j = M^j_R + iM^j_I$.

Accordingly, let us write $\chi_j \in \mathbb{C}$ as $\chi_j = (\chi_j)_R + i(\chi_j)_I$ with $(\chi_j)_R, (\chi_j)_I \in \mathbb{R}$. In (3.19) the sum $\chi_j M^j + \overline{\chi_j M^j}$ yields $2(\chi_j)_RM^j_R - 2(\chi_j)_IM^j_I$, so that

$$\sum_j \chi_j(\gamma) M^j = 0 \iff \sum_{\text{real } V_j} \chi_j(\gamma) M^j + 2 \sum_{\text{complex } V_j} \left((\chi_j)_R(\gamma) M^j_R - (\chi_j)_I(\gamma) M^j_I \right) = 0 \quad (3.21)$$

where we note that in the latter sum, for each real invariant $\widehat{V}_j$, only one irreducible representation is taken.
In general equivariant systems with Abelian symmetry, we have the following result [12]: If in a one-parameter family of real linear equivariant vector fields, an eigenvalue crosses the imaginary axis then, typically, one of the following scenarios applies:

(a) The eigenvalues are restricted to the real axis, crossing the imaginary axis at zero, and the associated eigenvectors lie in one absolutely irreducible representation of $\Gamma$. The number of eigenvalues simultaneously crossing the imaginary axis is equal to the dimension of the irreducible representation, and they all have the same value.

(b) The eigenvalues are not restricted to lie on the real axis, crossing the imaginary axis at $\pm i\omega$ ($\omega \neq 0$). The associated eigenvectors lie in the direct sum of two isomorphic absolutely irreducible representations of $\Gamma$. The number of eigenvalues simultaneously crossing the imaginary axis is equal to twice the (complex) dimension of the irreducible representation, half taking one same value and the remaining half its complex conjugate.

(c) The eigenvalues are not restricted to lie on the real axis, crossing the imaginary axis at $\pm i\omega$ ($\omega \neq 0$). The associated eigenvectors lie in one irreducible representation of $\Gamma$ of complex type. The number of eigenvalues simultaneously crossing the imaginary axis is equal to twice the (complex) dimension of the irreducible representation, half assuming one value and the remaining half its complex conjugate.

The eigenvalue movement in (a) is associated with steady-state bifurcation, and the remaining cases (b) and (c) with Hopf bifurcation.

We now make the following observation:

**Lemma 3.3** Codimension one movements of eigenvalues crossing the imaginary axis in an Abelian symmetric coupled cell network, are identical to the corresponding eigenvalue movements in general equivariant vector fields, if the conditions (3.21) for $\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus S$ on the $M^j_i$ (if $V_j$ is of real type), $M^j_R$, $M^j_I$ (if $V_j$ is of complex type) imposed by the absence of connections, do not imply one of the following relations:

(i) $M^j_i = cM^i_j$, where $V_j$ and $V_i$ are distinct absolutely irreducible representations and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

(ii) $M^j_R = cM^i_R$, where $V_i$ is absolutely irreducible, and $V_j$ is an irreducible representation of complex type and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

(iii) $M^j_R = cM^i_R$, where $V_j, V_i$ are distinct irreducible representations of complex type and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

**Proof:** If we have linear relations between more than two of the matrices $M^j_i \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^l)$ (where $V^j$ is absolutely irreducible) and $M^j_R \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^l)$ and/or $M^j_I \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^l)$ (where $\hat{V}^i$ is irreducible of complex type), there are no forced degenerate codimension one eigenvalue movements through the imaginary axis.

Before we demonstrate this, we first remark that if we make perturbations of the form $M^j_R + \epsilon_R \text{Id}$ and $M^j_I + \epsilon_I \text{Id}$, then the eigenvalues $\lambda$ of $\hat{M}^i$ change to $\lambda + \epsilon_R \pm i\epsilon_I$.

We assert that if we have a relation between four or more matrices, no forced degenerate codimension one eigenvalue movements across the imaginary axis will arise.
To illustrate this, suppose we have a relation of the type

$$\sum_{j=1}^{4} a_j A_j = 0 \quad (3.22)$$

where $a_j \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $j$, and the $A_j \in \text{gl}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ are of the above mentioned types.

First suppose that in this equation $M^i_I$ features, but not $M^i_R$. Then it is immediate that if $\hat{M}^i$ has eigenvalues on the imaginary axis, they can be moved off this axis by a small perturbation of the form $M^i_R + \varepsilon R \text{Id}$ without affecting the relation.

Now suppose that $M^i_I$ and $M^i_R$ both appear. Then if $\hat{M}^i$ has eigenvalues on the imaginary axis, they can be moved off this axis by a small perturbation of the form $M^i_R + \varepsilon R \text{Id}$ and $M^i_I + \varepsilon I \text{Id}$, where $\varepsilon R$ and $\varepsilon I$ can now be chosen such that the relation holds without changing any of the other matrices involved.

Let us assume that the relation involves no matrix of the type $M^i_I$. Suppose there is more than one isotypic component containing eigenvectors with corresponding eigenvalues on the imaginary axis that are involved in the relation. Then there exists a perturbation after which eigenvectors with corresponding eigenvalues on the imaginary axis occur in only one isotypic component. For instance, we can fix $A_1$ and make the perturbation $A_2 + \varepsilon \text{Id}$ and $A_3 - \varepsilon a_2/a_3 \text{Id}$. The latter perturbations change the real parts of eigenvalues of the other isotypic components involved (and $\varepsilon$ can always be chosen such that they come to lie off the imaginary axis) while leaving $A_1$ invariant.

Now suppose that eigenvectors with corresponding eigenvalues on the imaginary axis occur in only one isotypic component, but that the centre subspace is not $\Gamma$-simple or absolutely irreducible. Then, by [12] there exists a perturbation of $M$ restricted to this isotypic component such that the centre subspace is of the desired form. By adjusting the size of this perturbation, we can adjust $M$ so as to satisfy the relation without enlarging the centre subspace.

Subsequently, the obtained linear system $M$ can be unfolded by the perturbation $M + \mu \text{Id}$, yielding the desired codimension one eigenvalue crossing through the imaginary axis. \hfill \Box

We now will state two lemmas that, in connection with Lemma 3.3 lead to a proof of Theorem 1.3 of the Introduction.

**Lemma 3.4** Suppose a coupled cell network is active, then in Lemma 3.3 we have $c = 1$.

**Proof:** If the network is active ($e \in S$), then the identity vector field $\text{Id}$ is admissible as a coupled cell network. For this vector field, $M^i_I$ is the identity on $C^l \otimes V_j$ for all $j$, from which the values of $c$ directly follow. \hfill \Box

**Lemma 3.5** Suppose a coupled cell network is connected and active. Then the conditions (3.21) for $\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus S$ on the $M^i_I$ (if $V_j$ is of real type), $M^i_R$, $M^i_I$ (if $V_j$ is of complex type) imposed by the absence of connections, do not imply the conditions (i), (ii) or (iii) of Lemma 3.3.

**Proof:** By Corollary 2.5, the character vectors $\chi(\gamma) = (\chi_1(\gamma), \ldots, \chi_n(\gamma))$ with $\gamma \in S$ must satisfy the above conditions. All the components of these vectors have modulus one. A condition
of type $M^j = M^i$, where $V^j, V_i$ are of type $\mathbb{R}$, implies that the corresponding components of the character vectors must satisfy
\[ \chi_j(\gamma) = \chi_i(\gamma) \]
for all $\gamma \in S$. As $S$ generates $\Gamma$ since the network is connected it follows that $\chi_j = \chi_i$, a contradiction. In the condition of type $M^j = M^i_R$, where $V^j$ is of type $\mathbb{R}$ and $V_i$ is of complex type, this implies that the corresponding components of the character vectors must satisfy
\[ \pm 1 = (\chi_i)_R(\gamma) \]
where $\chi_i(\gamma) = (\chi_j)_R(\gamma) + i(\chi_j)_I(\gamma) \in \mathbb{C}$ is the character, which has modulus one. In turn this implies that $(\chi_j)_I(\gamma) = 0$. Consequently, as this property holds for all $\gamma \in S$ and $S$ generates $\Gamma$, it follows that $\chi_i$ is of real type, a contradiction.

In a similar way, the condition of type $M^j_R = M^i_R$, leads to the equation
\[ (\chi_j)_R(\gamma) = (\chi_i)_R(\gamma) \]
for $\gamma \in S$, which implies that $\chi_j = \chi_i$ or $\chi_j = \overline{\chi_i}$, equivalently, $\hat{V}_i = \hat{V}_j$, a contradiction. \(\square\)

**Proof of Theorem 1.3:** From the above lemmas we see that with active cells, conditions (i), (ii), (iii) of Lemma 3.3 leading to degenerate codimension one eigenvalue behavior, can not happen, unless the network is not connected.

By Lemma 3.3, hence with active cells, in one-parameter families, we generically have eigenvalue movements through the imaginary axis, following the codimension one eigenvalue behavior in generic (general) equivariant vector fields. \(\square\)

**Acknowledgments**

It is a great pleasure to thank Marty Golubitsky for useful discussions. We are grateful for the hospitality of the University of Houston, University of Porto, and Imperial College London, where part of the research was done during visits of the authors. APSD thanks Departamento de Matemática Pura de Universidade do Porto for granting leave. The work of APSD was partially supported by CMUP and FCT. The research of JSWL has been supported by the Nuffield Foundation and the UK Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC).

**References**


