

CHAPTER 4

The Infinitesimal Theory

1. Integrals and Fourier Transforms

Assume for this chapter that \mathbb{K} is a field.

Lemma 4.1.1. *Let C be a finite dimensional coalgebra. Every right C -comodule M is a left C^* -module by $c^*m = \sum m_{(M)}\langle c^*, m_{(1)} \rangle$ and conversely by $\delta(m) = \sum_i c_i^*m \otimes c_i$ where $\sum c_i^* \otimes c_i$ is the dual basis.*

PROOF. We check that M becomes a left C^* -module

$$\begin{aligned} (c^*c'^*)m &= \sum m_{(M)}\langle c^*c'^*, m_{(1)} \rangle = \sum m_{(M)}\langle c^*, m_{(1)} \rangle \langle c'^*, m_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= c^* \sum m_{(M)}\langle c'^*, m_{(1)} \rangle = c^*(c'^*m). \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to check that the two constructions are inverses of each other. In particular assume that M is a right C -comodule. Choose m_i such that $\delta(m) = \sum m_i \otimes c_i$. Then $c_j^*m = \sum m_i \langle c_j^*, c_i \rangle = m_j$ and $\sum c_i^*m \otimes c_i = \sum m_i \otimes c_i = \delta(m)$. \square

Definition 4.1.2. 1. Let A be an algebra with augmentation $\varepsilon : A \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$, an algebra homomorphism. Let M be a left A -module. Then ${}^A M = \{m \in M \mid am = \varepsilon(a)m\}$ is called the *space of left invariants* of M .

This defines a functor ${}^A_- : A\text{-}\mathbf{Mod} \rightarrow \mathbf{Vec}$.

2. Let C be a coalgebra with a group-like element $1 \in C$. Let M be a right C -comodule. Then $M^{coC} := \{m \in M \mid \delta(m) = m \otimes 1\}$ is called the *space of right coinvariants* of M .

This defines a functor ${}^{-coC} : \mathbf{Comod}\text{-}C \rightarrow \mathbf{Vec}$.

Lemma 4.1.3. *Let C be a finite dimensional coalgebra with a group like element $1 \in C$. Then $A := C^*$ is an augmented algebra with augmentation $\varepsilon : C^* \ni a \mapsto \langle a, 1 \rangle \in \mathbb{K}$. Let M be a right C -comodule. Then M is a left C^* -module and we have*

$${}^{C^*} M = M^{coC}.$$

PROOF. Since $1 \in C$ is group-like we have $\varepsilon_A(ab) = \langle ab, 1 \rangle = \langle a, 1 \rangle \langle b, 1 \rangle = \varepsilon_A(a)\varepsilon_A(b)$ and $\varepsilon_A(1_A) = \langle 1_A, 1_C \rangle = \varepsilon_C(1_C) = 1$.

We have $m \in M^{coC}$ iff $\delta(m) = \sum m_{(M)} \otimes m_{(1)} = m \otimes 1$ iff $\sum m_{(M)}\langle a, m_{(1)} \rangle = m\langle a, 1 \rangle$ for all $a \in A = C^*$ and by identifying $C^* \otimes C = \text{Hom}(C^*, C^*)$ iff $am = \varepsilon_A(a)m$ iff $m \in {}^A M$. \square

Remark 4.1.4. The theory of Fourier transforms contains the following statements. Let H be the (Schwartz) space of infinitely differentiable functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$,

such that f and all derivatives rapidly decrease at infinity. (f decreases rapidly at infinity if $|x|^m f(x)$ is bounded for all m .) This space is an algebra (without unit) under the multiplication of values. There is a second multiplication on H , the convolution

$$(f * g)(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)g(x-t)dt.$$

The Fourier transform is a homomorphism $\hat{\cdot} : H \rightarrow H$ defined by

$$\hat{f}(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{-itx}dt.$$

It satisfies the identity $(f * g)\hat{\cdot} = \hat{f}\hat{g}$ hence it is an algebra homomorphism. We want to find an analogue of this theory for finite quantum groups.

A similar example is the following. Let G be a locally compact topological group. Let μ be the (left) *Haar measure* on G and $\int f := \int_G f(x)d\mu(x)$ be the *Haar integral*.

The Haar measure is left invariant in the sense that $\mu(E) = \mu(gE)$ for all $g \in G$ and all compact subsets E of G . The Haar measure exists and is unique up to a positive factor. The Haar integral is translation invariant i.e. for all $y \in G$ we have $\int f(yx)d\mu(x) = \int f(x)d\mu(x)$.

If μ is a left-invariant Haar measure then there is a continuous homomorphism $\text{mod} : G \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot)$ such that $\int f(xy^{-1})d\mu(x) = \text{mod}(y) \int f(x)d\mu(x)$. The homomorphism μ does not depend on f and is called the *modulus* of G . The group G is called *unimodular* if the homomorphism mod is the identity.

If G is a compact, or discrete, or Abelian group, or a connected semisimple or nilpotent Lie group, then G is unimodular.

Let G be a quantum group (or a quantum monoid) with function algebra H an arbitrary Hopf algebra. We also use the algebra of linear functionals $H^* = \text{Hom}(H, \mathbb{K})$ (called the bialgebra of G in the French literature). The operation $H^* \otimes H \ni a \otimes f \mapsto \langle a, f \rangle \in \mathbb{K}$ is nondegenerate on both sides. We denote the elements of H by $f, g, h \in H$, the elements of H^* by $a, b, c \in H^*$, the (non existing) elements of the quantum group G by $x, y, z \in G$.

Remark 4.1.5. In 2.4.8 we have seen that the dual vector space H^* of a finite dimensional Hopf algebra H is again a Hopf algebra. The Hopf algebra structures are connected by the evaluation bilinear form

$$\text{ev} : H^* \otimes H \ni a \otimes f \mapsto \langle a, f \rangle \in \mathbb{K}$$

as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle a \otimes b, \sum f_{(1)} \otimes f_{(2)} \rangle &= \langle ab, f \rangle, & \langle \sum a_{(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}, f \otimes g \rangle &= \langle a, fg \rangle, \\ \langle a, 1 \rangle &= \varepsilon(a), & \langle 1, f \rangle &= \varepsilon(f), \\ \langle a, S(f) \rangle &= \langle S(a), f \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.1.6. 1. The linear functionals $a \in H^*$ are called *generalized integrals on H* ([Riesz-Nagy] S.123).

2. An element $\int \in H^*$ is called a *left (invariant) integral on H* if

$$a \int = \langle a, 1_H \rangle \int$$

or $a \int = \varepsilon_{H^*}(a) \int$ for all $a \in H^*$.

3. An element $\delta \in H$ is called a *left integral in H* if

$$f \delta = \varepsilon(f) \delta$$

for all $f \in H$.

4. The set of left integrals in H is denoted by $\text{Int}_l(H)$, the set of right integrals by $\text{Int}_r(H)$. The set of left (right) integrals on H is $\text{Int}_l(H^*)$ ($\text{Int}_r(H^*)$).

5. A Hopf algebra H is called *unimodular* if $\text{Int}_l(H) = \text{Int}_r(H)$.

Lemma 4.1.7. *The left integrals $\text{Int}_l(H^*)$ form a two sided ideal of H^* . If the antipode S is bijective then S induces an isomorphism $S : \text{Int}_l(H^*) \rightarrow \text{Int}_r(H^*)$.*

PROOF. For \int in $\text{Int}_l(H^*)$ we have $a \int = \varepsilon(a) \int \in \text{Int}_l(H^*)$ and $a \int b = \varepsilon(a) \int b$ hence $\int b \in \text{Int}_l(H^*)$. If S is bijective then the induced map $S : H^* \rightarrow H^*$ is also bijective and satisfies $S(\int)b = S(\int)S(S^{-1}(b)) = S(S^{-1}(b) \int) = S(\int)\varepsilon(b)$ hence $S(\int) \in \text{Int}_r(H^*)$. \square

Remark 4.1.8. Maschke's Theorem has an extension to finite dimensional Hopf algebras: $\varepsilon(\int) \neq 0$ iff H^* is semisimple.

Corollary 4.1.9. *Let H be a finite dimensional Hopf algebra. Then H^* is a left H^* -module by the usual multiplication, hence a right H -comodule. We have*

$$(H^*)^{\text{co}H} = \text{Int}_l(H^*).$$

PROOF. By definition we have $\text{Int}_l(H^*) = {}^{H^*}H^*$. \square

Example 4.1.10. Let G be a finite group. Let $H := \text{Map}(G, \mathbb{K})$ be the Hopf algebra defined by the following isomorphism

$$\mathbb{K}^G = \text{Map}(G, \mathbb{K}) \cong \text{Hom}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K}) = (\mathbb{K}G)^*.$$

This isomorphism between the vector space \mathbb{K}^G of all set maps from the group G to the base ring \mathbb{K} and the dual vector space $(\mathbb{K}G)^*$ of the group algebra $\mathbb{K}G$ defines the structure of a Hopf algebra on \mathbb{K}^G .

We regard $H := \mathbb{K}^G$ as the function algebra on the set G . In the sense of algebraic geometry this is not quite true. The algebra \mathbb{K}^G represents a functor from $\mathbb{K}\text{-}\mathbf{cAlg}$ to \mathbf{Set} that has G as value for all connected algebras A in particular for all field extensions of \mathbb{K} .

As before we use the map $\text{ev} : \mathbb{K}G \otimes \mathbb{K}^G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$. The multiplication of \mathbb{K}^G is given by pointwise multiplication of maps since $\langle x, ff' \rangle = \langle \sum x_{(1)} \otimes x_{(2)}, f \otimes f' \rangle = \langle x \otimes x, f \otimes f' \rangle = \langle x, f \rangle \langle x, f' \rangle$ for all $f, f' \in \mathbb{K}^G$ and all $x \in G$. The unit element $1_{\mathbb{K}G}$ of \mathbb{K}^G is the map $\varepsilon : \mathbb{K}G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ restricted to G , hence $\varepsilon(x) = 1 = \langle x, 1_{\mathbb{K}G} \rangle$ for all $x \in G$. The antipode of $f \in \mathbb{K}^G$ is given by $S(f)(x) = \langle x, S(f) \rangle = f(x^{-1})$.

The elements of the dual basis $(x^* | x \in G)$ with $\langle x, y^* \rangle = \delta_{x,y}$ considered as maps from G to \mathbb{K} form a basis of \mathbb{K}^G . They satisfy the conditions

$$x^* y^* = \delta_{x,y} x^* \text{ and } \sum_{x \in G} x^* = 1_{\mathbb{K}^G}$$

since $\langle z, x^* y^* \rangle = \langle z, x^* \rangle \langle z, y^* \rangle = \delta_{z,x} \delta_{z,y} = \delta_{x,y} \langle z, x^* \rangle$ and $\langle z, \sum_{x \in G} x^* \rangle = 1 = \langle z, 1_{\mathbb{K}^G} \rangle$.

Hence the dual basis $(x^* | x \in G)$ is a decomposition of the unit into a set of minimal orthogonal idempotents and the algebra of \mathbb{K}^G has the structure

$$\mathbb{K}^G = \oplus_{x \in G} \mathbb{K} x^* \cong \mathbb{K} \times \dots \times \mathbb{K}.$$

In particular \mathbb{K}^G is commutative and semisimple.

The diagonal of \mathbb{K}^G is

$$\Delta(x^*) = \sum_{y \in G} y^* \otimes (y^{-1}x)^* = \sum_{y, z \in G, yz=x} y^* \otimes z^*$$

since

$$\begin{aligned} \langle z \otimes u, \Delta(x^*) \rangle &= \langle zu, x^* \rangle = \delta_{x, zu} = \delta_{z^{-1}x, u} = \sum_{y \in G} \delta_{y,z} \delta_{y^{-1}x, u} \\ &= \sum_{y \in G} \langle z, y^* \rangle \langle u, (y^{-1}x)^* \rangle = \langle z \otimes u, \sum_{y \in G} y^* \otimes (y^{-1}x)^* \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Let $a \in \mathbb{K}G$. Then a defines a map $\tilde{a} : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K} \in \mathbb{K}^G$ by $a = \sum_{x \in G} \tilde{a}(x)x$. For arbitrary $f \in \mathbb{K}^G$ and $a \in \mathbb{K}G$ this gives

$$\langle a, f \rangle = f\left(\sum_{x \in G} \tilde{a}(x)x\right) = \sum_{x \in G} \tilde{a}(x)f(x).$$

The counit of \mathbb{K}^G is given by $\varepsilon(x^*) = \delta_{x,e}$ where $e \in G$ is the unit element.

The antipode is, as above, $S(x^*) = (x^{-1})^*$.

We consider $H = \mathbb{K}^G$ as the function algebra on the finite group G and $\mathbb{K}G$ as the dual space of $H = \mathbb{K}^G$ hence as the set of distributions on H .

Then

$$(1) \quad \int := \sum_{x \in G} x \in H^* = \mathbb{K}G$$

is a (two sided) integral on H since $\sum_{x \in G} yx = \sum_{x \in G} x = \varepsilon(y) \sum_{x \in G} x = \sum_{x \in G} yx$.

We write

$$\int f(x)dx := \langle \int, f \rangle = \sum_{x \in G} f(x).$$

We have seen that there is a decomposition of the unit $1 \in \mathbb{K}^G$ into a set of primitive orthogonal idempotents $\{x^* | x \in G\}$ such that every element $f \in \mathbb{K}^G$ has a unique representation $f = \sum f(x)x^*$. Since $\int y^* = \sum_{x \in G} \langle x, y^* \rangle$ we get $\int fy^* = \sum_{x \in G} \langle x, fy^* \rangle = \sum f(x)y^*(x) = f(y)$ hence

$$f = \sum \left(\int f(x)y^*(x)dx \right) y^*.$$

Problem 4.1.1. Describe the group valued functor $\mathbb{K}\text{-}\mathbf{cAlg}(\mathbb{K}^G, -)$ in terms of sets and their group structure.

Definition and Remark 4.1.11. Let \mathbb{K} be an algebraically closed field and let G be a finite abelian group (replacing \mathbb{R} above). Assume that the characteristic of \mathbb{K} does not divide the order of G . Let $H = \mathbb{K}^G$. We identify $\mathbb{K}^G = \text{Hom}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K})$ along the linear expansion of maps as in Example 2.1.10.

Let us consider the set $\hat{G} := \{\chi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^* \mid \chi \text{ group homomorphism}\}$. Since \mathbb{K}^* is an abelian group, the set \hat{G} is an abelian group by pointwise multiplication.

The group \hat{G} is called the *character group* of G .

Obviously the character group is a multiplicative subset of $\mathbb{K}^G = \text{Hom}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K})$. Actually it is a subgroup of $\mathbb{K}\text{-}\mathbf{cAlg}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K}) \subseteq \text{Hom}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K})$ since the elements $\chi \in \hat{G}$ expand to algebra homomorphisms: $\chi(ab) = \chi(\sum \alpha_x x \sum \beta_y y) = \sum \alpha_x \beta_y \chi(xy) = \chi(a)\chi(b)$ and $\chi(1) = \chi(e) = 1$. Conversely an algebra homomorphism $f \in \mathbb{K}\text{-}\mathbf{cAlg}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K})$ restricts to a character $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^*$. Thus $\hat{G} = \mathbb{K}\text{-}\mathbf{cAlg}(\mathbb{K}G, \mathbb{K})$, the set of rational points of the affine algebraic group represented by $\mathbb{K}G$.

There is a more general observation behind this remark.

Lemma 4.1.12. *Let H be a finite dimensional Hopf algebra. Then the set $\text{Gr}(H^*)$ of group like elements of H^* is equal to $\mathbb{K}\text{-}\mathbf{Alg}(H, \mathbb{K})$.*

PROOF. In fact $f : H \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ is an algebra homomorphism iff $\langle f \otimes f, a \otimes b \rangle = \langle f, a \rangle \langle f, b \rangle = \langle f, ab \rangle = \langle \Delta(f), a \otimes b \rangle$ and $1 = \langle f, 1 \rangle = \varepsilon(f)$. \square

Hence there is a Hopf algebra homomorphism $\varphi : \mathbb{K}\hat{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^G$ by 2.1.5.

Proposition 4.1.13. *The Hopf algebra homomorphism $\varphi : \mathbb{K}\hat{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^G$ is bijective.*

PROOF. We give the proof by several lemmas.

Lemma 4.1.14. *Any set of group like elements in a Hopf algebra H is linearly independent.*

PROOF. Assume there is a linearly dependent set $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of group like elements in H . Choose such a set with n minimal. Obviously $n \geq 1$ since all elements are non zero. Thus $x_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i$ and $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ linearly independent. We get

$$\sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j x_i \otimes x_j = x_0 \otimes x_0 = \Delta(x_0) = \sum_i \alpha_i x_i \otimes x_i.$$

Since all $\alpha_i \neq 0$ and the $x_i \otimes x_j$ are linearly independent we get $n = 1$ and $\alpha_1 = 1$ so that $x_0 = x_1$, a contradiction. \square

Corollary 4.1.15. *(Dedekind's Lemma) Any set of characters in \mathbb{K}^G is linearly independent.*

Thus $\varphi : \mathbb{K}\hat{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^G$ is injective. Now we prove that the map $\varphi : \mathbb{K}\hat{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^G$ is surjective.

Lemma 4.1.16. (*Pontryagin duality*) *The evaluation $\hat{G} \times G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^*$ is a non-degenerate bilinear map of abelian groups.*

PROOF. First we observe that $\text{Hom}(C_n, \mathbb{K}^*) \cong C_n$ for a cyclic group of order n since \mathbb{K} has a primitive n -th root of unity ($\text{char}(\mathbb{K}) \nmid |G|$).

Since the direct product and the direct sum coincide in **Ab** we can use the fundamental theorem for finite abelian groups $G \cong C_{n_1} \times \dots \times C_{n_t}$ to get $\text{Hom}(G, \mathbb{K}^*) \cong G$ for any abelian group G with $\text{char}(\mathbb{K}) \nmid |G|$. Thus $\hat{G} \cong G$ and $\hat{\hat{G}} = G$. In particular $\chi(x) = 1$ for all $x \in G$ iff $\chi = 1$. By the symmetry of the situation we get that the bilinear form $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \hat{G} \times G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^*$ is non-degenerate. \square

Thus $|\hat{G}| = |G|$ hence $\dim(\mathbb{K}\hat{G}) = \dim(\mathbb{K}^G)$. This proves Proposition 2.1.13. \square

Definition 4.1.17. Let H be a Hopf algebra. A \mathbb{K} -module M that is a right H -module by $\rho : M \otimes H \rightarrow M$ and a right H -comodule by $\delta : M \rightarrow M \otimes H$ is called a *Hopf module* if the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} M \otimes H & \xrightarrow{\rho} & H & \xrightarrow{\delta} & M \otimes H \\ \delta \otimes \Delta \downarrow & & & & \uparrow \rho \otimes \nabla \\ M \otimes H \otimes H \otimes H & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \tau \otimes 1} & M \otimes H \otimes H \otimes H & & \end{array}$$

commutes, i.e. if $\delta(mh) = \sum m_{(M)}h_{(1)} \otimes m_{(1)}h_{(2)}$ holds for all $h \in H$ and all $m \in M$.

Observe that H is an Hopf module over itself. Furthermore each module of the form $V \otimes H$ is a Hopf module by the induced structure. More generally there is a functor $\mathbf{Vec} \ni V \mapsto V \otimes H \in \mathbf{Hopf-Mod-H}$.

Proposition 4.1.18. *The two functors $-^{coH} : \mathbf{Hopf-Mod-H} \rightarrow \mathbf{Vec}$ and $-\otimes H : \mathbf{Vec} \ni V \mapsto V \otimes H \in \mathbf{Hopf-Mod-H}$ are inverse equivalences of each other.*

PROOF. Define natural isomorphisms

$$\alpha : M^{coH} \otimes H \ni m \otimes h \mapsto mh \in M$$

with inverse map

$$\alpha^{-1} : M \ni m \mapsto \sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)}) \otimes m_{(2)} \in M^{coH} \otimes H$$

and

$$\beta : V \ni v \mapsto v \otimes 1 \in (V \otimes H)^{coH}$$

with inverse map

$$(V \otimes H)^{coH} \ni v \otimes h \mapsto v\varepsilon(h) \in V.$$

Obviously these homomorphisms are natural transformations in M and V . Furthermore α is a homomorphism of H -modules. α^{-1} is well-defined since

$$\begin{aligned}\delta(\sum m_{(M)}S(m(1))) &= \sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(3)}) \otimes m_{(1)}S(m_{(2)}) \\ &\quad (\text{since } M \text{ is a Hopf module}) \\ &= \sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(2)}) \otimes \eta\varepsilon(m_{(1)}) \\ &= \sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)}) \otimes 1\end{aligned}$$

hence $\sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)}) \in M^{coH}$. Furthermore α^{-1} is a homomorphism of comodules since

$$\begin{aligned}\delta\alpha^{-1}(m) &= \delta(\sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)}) \otimes m_{(2)}) = \sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)}) \otimes m_{(2)} \otimes m_{(3)} \\ &= \sum \alpha^{-1}(m_{(M)}) \otimes m_{(1)} = (\alpha^{-1} \otimes 1)\delta(m).\end{aligned}$$

Finally α and α^{-1} are inverse to each other by

$$\alpha\alpha^{-1}(m) = \alpha(\sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)}) \otimes m_{(2)}) = \sum m_{(M)}S(m_{(1)})m_{(2)} = m$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha^{-1}\alpha(m \otimes h) &= \alpha^{-1}(mh) = \sum m_{(M)}h_{(1)}S(m_{(1)}h_{(2)}) \otimes m_{(2)}h_{(3)} \\ &= \sum mh_{(1)}S(h_{(2)}) \otimes h_{(3)} \quad (\text{by } \delta(m) = m \otimes 1) = m \otimes h.\end{aligned}$$

Thus α and α^{-1} are mutually inverse homomorphisms of Hopf modules.

The image of β is in $(V \otimes H)^{coH}$ by $\delta(v \otimes 1) = v \otimes \Delta(1) = (v \otimes 1) \otimes 1$. Both β and β^{-1} are \mathbb{K} -linear maps. Furthermore we have

$$\beta^{-1}\beta(v) = \beta^{-1}(v \otimes 1) = v\varepsilon(1) = v$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\beta\beta^{-1}(\sum v_i \otimes h_i) &= \beta(\sum v_i\varepsilon(h_i)) = \sum v_i\varepsilon(h_i) \otimes 1 = \sum v_i \otimes \varepsilon(h_i)1 \\ &= \sum v_i \otimes \varepsilon(h_{i(1)})h_{i(2)} \quad (\text{since } \sum v_i \otimes h_i \in (V \otimes H)^{coH}) = \sum v_i \otimes h_i.\end{aligned}$$

Thus β and β^{-1} are mutually inverse homomorphisms. \square

Since $H^* = \text{Hom}(H, \mathbb{K})$ and $S : H \rightarrow H$ is an algebra antihomomorphism, the dual H^* is an H -module in four different ways:

$$(2) \quad \begin{aligned}\langle (f \rightharpoonup a), g \rangle &:= \langle a, gf \rangle, & \langle (a \leftharpoonup f), g \rangle &:= \langle a, fg \rangle, \\ \langle (f \rightarrow a), g \rangle &:= \langle a, S(f)g \rangle, & \langle (a \leftarrow f), g \rangle &:= \langle a, gS(f) \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

If H is finite dimensional then H^* is a Hopf algebra. The equality $\langle (f \rightharpoonup a), g \rangle = \langle a, gf \rangle = \sum \langle a_{(1)}, g \rangle \langle a_{(2)}, f \rangle$ implies

$$(3) \quad (f \rightharpoonup a) = \sum a_{(1)} \langle a_{(2)}, f \rangle.$$

Analogously we have

$$(4) \quad (a \leftharpoonup f) = \sum \langle a_{(1)}, f \rangle a_{(2)}.$$

Proposition 4.1.19. *Let H be a finite dimensional Hopf algebra. Then H^* is a right Hopf module over H .*

PROOF. H^* is a left H^* -module by left multiplication hence by 2.1.1 a right H -comodule by $\delta(a) = \sum_i b_i^* a \otimes b_i$. Let $f, g \in H$ and $a, b \in H^*$. The (left) multiplication of H^* satisfies

$$ab = \sum b_{(H^*)} \langle a, b_{(1)} \rangle.$$

We use the right H -module structure

$$(a \leftharpoonup f) = \sum a_{(1)} \langle S(f), a_{(2)} \rangle.$$

on $H^* = \text{Hom}(H, \mathbb{K})$.

Now we check the Hopf module property. Let $a, b \in H^*$ and $f, g \in H$. We apply $H^* \otimes H$ to its dual $H \otimes H^*$ and get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(a \leftharpoonup f)(g \otimes b) &= \sum \langle (a \leftharpoonup f)_{(H^*)}, g \rangle \langle b, (a \leftharpoonup f)_{(1)} \rangle = \langle b(a \leftharpoonup f), g \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle b, g_{(1)} \rangle \langle (a \leftharpoonup f), g_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle b, g_{(1)} \rangle \langle a, g_{(2)} S(f) \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle b, g_{(1)} \varepsilon(f_{(2)}) \rangle \langle a, g_{(2)} S(f_{(1)}) \rangle = \sum \langle (f_{(3)} \rightharpoonup b), g_{(1)} S(f_{(2)}) \rangle \langle a, g_{(2)} S(f_{(1)}) \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle (f_{(2)} \rightharpoonup b) a, g S(f_{(1)}) \rangle = \sum \langle ((f_{(2)} \rightharpoonup b) a) \leftharpoonup f_{(1)}, g \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle (a_{(H^*)} \langle (f_{(2)} \rightharpoonup b), a_{(1)} \rangle) \leftharpoonup f_{(1)}, g \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle (a_{(H^*)} \leftharpoonup f_{(1)}) \langle (f_{(2)} \rightharpoonup b), a_{(1)} \rangle, g \rangle = \sum \langle (a_{(H^*)} \leftharpoonup f_{(1)}) \langle b, a_{(1)} f_{(2)} \rangle, g \rangle \end{aligned}$$

hence $\delta(a \leftharpoonup f) = \sum (a_{(H^*)} \leftharpoonup f_{(1)}) \otimes a_{(1)} f_{(2)}$. \square

Theorem 4.1.20. *Let H be a finite dimensional Hopf algebra. Then the antipode S is bijective, the space of left integrals $\text{Int}_l(H^*)$ has dimension 1, and the homomorphism*

$$H \ni f \mapsto (f \rightharpoonup f) = \sum \int_{(1)} \langle \int_{(2)}, f \rangle \ni H^*$$

is bijective for any $0 \neq \int \in \text{Int}_l(H^)$.*

PROOF. By Proposition 2.1.19 H^* is a right Hopf module over H . By Proposition 2.1.18 there is an isomorphism $\alpha : (H^*)^{\text{co}H} \otimes H \ni a \otimes f \mapsto (a \leftharpoonup f) = (S(f) \rightharpoonup a) \in H^*$. Since $(H^*)^{\text{co}H} \cong \text{Int}_l(H^*)$ by 2.1.9 we get

$$\text{Int}_l(H^*) \otimes H \cong H^*$$

as right H -Hopf modules by the given map. This shows $\dim(\text{Int}_l(H^*)) = 1$. So we get an isomorphism $H \ni f \mapsto (\int \leftharpoonup f) \in H^*$ that is a composition of S and $f \mapsto (f \rightharpoonup f)$. Since H is finite dimensional both of these maps are bijective. \square

If G is a finite group then every generalized integral $a \in \mathbb{K}G$ can be written with a uniquely determined $g \in H = \mathbb{K}^G$ as

$$(5) \quad \langle a, f \rangle = \int f(x) S(g)(x) dx = \sum_{x \in G} f(x) g(x^{-1})$$

for all $f \in H$.

If G is a finite Abelian group then each group element (rational integral) $y \in G \subseteq \mathbb{K}G$ can be written as

$$y = \sum_{x \in G} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \beta_\chi \langle x^{-1}, \chi \rangle x$$

since

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y, f \rangle &= \langle (\int \leftarrow \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \beta_\chi \chi), f \rangle = \langle \int, f S(\sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \beta_\chi \chi) \rangle \\ &= \sum_{x \in G} \langle x, f \rangle \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \beta_\chi \langle x, S(\chi) \rangle = \langle \sum_{x \in G} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \beta_\chi \langle x^{-1}, \chi \rangle x, f \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

In particular the matrix $(\langle x^{-1}, \chi \rangle)$ is invertible.

Let H be finite dimensional. Since $\langle \int, fg \rangle = \langle (\int \leftarrow f), g \rangle$ as a functional on g is a generalized integral, there is a unique $\nu(f) \in H$ such that

$$(6) \quad \langle \int, fg \rangle = \langle \int, g\nu(f) \rangle$$

or

$$(7) \quad \int f(x)g(x)dx = \int g(x)\nu(f)(x)dx.$$

Although the functions $f, g \in H$ of the quantum group do not commute under multiplication, there is a simple commutation rule if the product is integrated.

Proposition and Definition 4.1.21. *The map $\nu : H \rightarrow H$ is an algebra automorphism, called the Nakayama automorphism.*

PROOF. It is clear that ν is a linear map. We have $\int f\nu(gh) = \int ghf = \int hf\nu(g) = \int f\nu(g)\nu(h)$ hence $\nu(gh) = \nu(g)\nu(h)$ and $\int f\nu(1) = \int f$ hence $\nu(1) = 1$. Furthermore if $\nu(g) = 0$ then $0 = \langle \int, f\nu(g) \rangle = \langle \int, fg \rangle = \langle (\int \leftarrow f), g \rangle$ for all $f \in H$ hence $\langle a, g \rangle = 0$ for all $a \in H^*$ hence $g = 0$. So ν is injective hence bijective. \square

Corollary 4.1.22. *The map $H \ni f \mapsto (\int \leftarrow f) \in H^*$ is an isomorphism.*

PROOF. We have

$$(\int \leftarrow f) = (\nu(f) \rightarrow \int)$$

since $\langle (\int \leftarrow f), g \rangle = \langle \int, fg \rangle = \langle \int, g\nu(f) \rangle = \langle (\nu(f) \rightarrow \int), g \rangle$. This implies the corollary. \square

If G is a finite group and $H = \mathbb{K}G$ then H is commutative hence $\nu = \text{id}$.

Definition 4.1.23. An element $\delta \in H$ is called a *Dirac δ -function* if δ is a left invariant integral in H with $\langle \int, \delta \rangle = 1$, i.e. if δ satisfies

$$f\delta = \varepsilon(f)\delta \quad \text{and} \quad \int \delta(x)dx = 1$$

for all $f \in H$. If H has a Dirac δ -function then we write

$$(8) \quad \int^* a(x)dx = f^*a := \langle a, \delta \rangle.$$

Proposition 4.1.24.

1. If H is finite dimensional then there exists a unique Dirac δ -function δ .
2. If H is infinite dimensional then there exists no Dirac δ -function.

PROOF. 1. Since $H \ni f \mapsto (f \rightharpoonup f) \in H^*$ is an isomorphism there is a $\delta \in H$ such that $(\delta \rightharpoonup f) = \varepsilon$. Then $(f\delta \rightharpoonup f) = (f \rightharpoonup (\delta \rightharpoonup f)) = (f \rightharpoonup \varepsilon) = \varepsilon(f)\varepsilon = \varepsilon(f)(\delta \rightharpoonup f)$ which implies $f\delta = \varepsilon(f)\delta$. Furthermore we have $\langle f, \delta \rangle = \langle f, 1_H \delta \rangle = \langle (\delta \rightharpoonup f), 1_H \rangle = \varepsilon(1_H) = 1_{\mathbb{K}}$.

2. is [Sweedler] exercise V.4. \square

Lemma 4.1.25. *Let H be a finite dimensional Hopf algebra. Then $\int \in H^*$ is a left integral iff*

$$(9) \quad a(\sum f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)})) = (\sum f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)}))a$$

iff

$$(10) \quad \sum S(a)f_{(1)} \otimes f_{(2)} = \sum f_{(1)} \otimes af_{(2)}$$

iff

$$(11) \quad \sum f_{(1)}\langle f, f_{(2)} \rangle = \langle f, f \rangle 1_H.$$

PROOF. Let \int be a left integral. Then

$$\sum a_{(1)}f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)})S(a_{(2)}) = \sum (af)_{(1)} \otimes S((af)_{(2)}) = \varepsilon(a)(\sum f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)}))$$

for all $a \in H$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} (\sum f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)}))a &= \sum \varepsilon(a_{(1)})(f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)}))a_{(2)} \\ &= \sum a_{(1)}f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)})S(a_{(2)})a_{(3)} \\ &= \sum a_{(1)}f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)})\varepsilon(a_{(2)}) = a(\sum f_{(1)} \otimes S(f_{(2)})). \end{aligned}$$

Conversely $a(\sum f_{(1)} \varepsilon(S(f_{(2)}))) = (\sum f_{(1)} \varepsilon(S(f_{(2)})a)) = \varepsilon(a)(\sum f_{(1)} \varepsilon(S(f_{(2)})))$, hence $\int = \sum f_{(1)} \varepsilon(S(f_{(2)}))$ is a left integral.

Since S is bijective the following holds

$$\begin{aligned} \sum S(a)f_{(1)} \otimes f_{(2)} &= \sum S(a)f_{(1)} \otimes S^{-1}(S(f_{(2)})) \\ &= \sum f_{(1)} \otimes S^{-1}(S(f_{(2)})S(a)) = \sum f_{(1)} \otimes af_{(2)}. \end{aligned}$$

The converse follows easily.

If $\int \in \text{Int}_l(H)$ is a left integral then $\sum \langle a, f_{(1)} \rangle \langle f, f_{(2)} \rangle = \langle a \int, f \rangle = \langle a, 1_H \rangle \langle \int, f \rangle$.

Conversely if $\lambda \in H^*$ with (11) is given then $\langle a\lambda, f \rangle = \sum \langle a, f_{(1)} \rangle \langle \lambda, f_{(2)} \rangle = \langle a, 1_H \rangle \langle \lambda, f \rangle$ hence $a\lambda = \varepsilon(a)\lambda$. \square

If G is a finite group then

$$(12) \quad \delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq e; \\ 1 & \text{if } x = e. \end{cases}$$

In fact since δ is left invariant we get $f(x)\delta(x) = f(e)\delta(x)$ for all $x \in G$ and $f \in \mathbb{K}^G$. Since $G \subset H^* = \mathbb{K}G$ is a basis, we get $\delta(x) = 0$ if $x \neq e$. Furthermore $\int \delta(x)dx = \sum_{x \in G} \delta(x) = 1$ implies $\delta(e) = 1$. So we have $\delta = e^*$.

If G is a finite Abelian group we get $\delta = \alpha \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \chi$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$. The evaluation gives $1 = \langle f, \delta \rangle = \alpha \sum_{x \in G, \chi \in \hat{G}} \langle \chi, x \rangle$. Now let $\lambda \in \hat{G}$. Then $\sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \langle \chi, x \rangle = \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \langle \lambda \chi, x \rangle = \langle \lambda, x \rangle \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \langle \chi, x \rangle$. Since for each $x \in G \setminus \{e\}$ there is a λ such that $\langle \lambda, x \rangle \neq 1$ and we get

$$\sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \langle \chi, x \rangle = |G| \delta_{e,x}.$$

Hence $\sum_{x \in G, \chi \in \hat{G}} \langle \chi, x \rangle = |G| = \alpha^{-1}$ and

$$(13) \quad \delta = |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \chi.$$

Let H be finite dimensional for the rest of this section. In Corollary 1.22 we have seen that the map $H \ni f \mapsto (f \leftarrow f) \in H^*$ is an isomorphism. This map will be called the *Fourier transform*.

Theorem 4.1.26. *The Fourier transform $H \ni f \mapsto \tilde{f} \in H^*$ is bijective with*

$$(14) \quad \tilde{f} = (f \leftarrow f) = \sum \langle f_{(1)}, f \rangle f_{(2)}$$

The inverse Fourier transform is defined by

$$(15) \quad \tilde{a} = \sum S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \langle a, \delta_{(2)} \rangle.$$

Since these maps are inverses of each other the following formulas hold

$$(16) \quad \begin{aligned} \langle \tilde{f}, g \rangle &= \int f(x)g(x)dx & \langle a, \tilde{b} \rangle &= \int^* S^{-1}(a)(x)b(x)dx \\ f &= \sum S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \langle \tilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle & a &= \sum \langle f_{(1)}, \tilde{a} \rangle f_{(2)}. \end{aligned}$$

PROOF. We use the isomorphisms $H \rightarrow H^*$ defined by $\hat{f} := \tilde{f} = (f \leftarrow f) = \sum \langle f_{(1)}, f \rangle f_{(2)}$ and $H^* \rightarrow H$ defined by $\hat{a} := (a \rightarrow \delta) = \sum \delta_{(1)} \langle a, \delta_{(2)} \rangle$. Because of

$$(17) \quad \langle a, \hat{b} \rangle = \langle a, (b \rightarrow \delta) \rangle = \langle ab, \delta \rangle$$

and

$$(18) \quad \langle \tilde{f}, g \rangle = \langle (f \leftarrow f), g \rangle = \langle f, fg \rangle$$

we get for all $a \in H^*$ and $f \in H$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle a, \hat{f} \rangle &= \langle a \hat{f}, \delta \rangle = \sum \langle a, \delta_{(1)} \rangle \langle \hat{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle a, \delta_{(1)} \rangle \langle f, f \delta_{(2)} \rangle & (\text{ by Lemma 1.25 }) \\ &= \sum \langle a, S(f) \delta_{(1)} \rangle \langle f, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \langle a, S(f) \rangle \langle f, \delta \rangle = \langle a, S(f) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

This gives $\widehat{f} = S(f)$. So the inverse map of $H \rightarrow H^*$ with $\widehat{f} = (f \leftarrow f) = \widetilde{f}$ is $H^* \rightarrow H$ with $S^{-1}(\widehat{a}) = \sum S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})\langle a, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \widetilde{a}$. Then the given inversion formulas are clear.

We note for later use $\langle a, \widetilde{b} \rangle = \langle a, S^{-1}(\widehat{b}) \rangle = \langle S^{-1}(a), \widehat{b} \rangle = \langle S^{-1}(a)b, \delta \rangle$. \square

If G is a finite group and $H = \mathbb{K}^G$ then

$$\widetilde{f} = \sum_{x \in G} f(x)x.$$

Since $\Delta(\delta) = \sum_{x \in G} x^{-1*} \otimes x^*$ where the $x^* \in \mathbb{K}^G$ are the dual basis to the $x \in G$, we get

$$\widetilde{a} = \sum_{x \in G} \langle a, x^* \rangle x^*.$$

If G is a finite Abelian group then the groups G and \widehat{G} are isomorphic so the Fourier transform induces a linear automorphism $\sim: \mathbb{K}^G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^G$ and we have

$$\widetilde{a} = |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} \langle a, \chi \rangle \chi^{-1}$$

By substituting the formulas for the integral and the Dirac δ -function (1) and (13) we get

$$(19) \quad \begin{aligned} \widetilde{f} &= \sum_{x \in G} f(x)x, & \widetilde{a} &= |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} a(\chi)\chi^{-1}, \\ f &= |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} \widetilde{f}(\chi)\chi^{-1}, & a &= \sum_{x \in G} \widetilde{a}(x)x. \end{aligned}$$

This implies

$$(20) \quad \widetilde{f}(\chi) = \sum_{x \in G} f(x)\chi(x) = \int f(x)\chi(x)dx$$

with inverse transform

$$(21) \quad \widetilde{a}(x) = |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi \in \widehat{G}} \chi(a)\chi^{-1}(x).$$

Corollary 4.1.27. *The Fourier transforms of the left invariant integrals in H and H^* are*

$$(22) \quad \widetilde{\delta} = \varepsilon\nu^{-1} \in H^* \quad \text{and} \quad \widetilde{f} = 1 \in H.$$

PROOF. We have $\langle \widetilde{\delta}, f \rangle = \langle f, \delta f \rangle = \langle f, \nu^{-1}(f)\delta \rangle = \varepsilon\nu^{-1}(f)\langle f, \delta \rangle = \varepsilon\nu^{-1}(f)$ hence $\widetilde{\delta} = \varepsilon\nu^{-1}$. From $\widetilde{1} = (f \leftarrow 1) = f$ we get $\widetilde{f} = 1$. \square

Proposition 4.1.28. *Define a convolution multiplication on H^* by*

$$\langle a * b, f \rangle := \sum \langle a, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})f \rangle \langle b, \delta_{(2)} \rangle.$$

Then the following transformation rule holds for $f, g \in H$:

$$(23) \quad \widetilde{fg} = \widetilde{f} * \widetilde{g}.$$

In particular H^* with the convolution multiplication is an associative algebra with unit $\widetilde{1}_H = \int$, i.e.

$$(24) \quad \int * a = a * \int = a.$$

PROOF. Given $f, g, h \in H^*$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \widetilde{fg}, h \rangle &= \langle \int, fgh \rangle = \langle \int, fS^{-1}(1_H)gh \rangle \langle \int, \delta \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int, fS^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})gh \rangle \langle \int, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int, fS^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})h \rangle \langle \int, g\delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \widetilde{f}, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})h \rangle \langle \widetilde{g}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \langle \widetilde{f} * \widetilde{g}, h \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

From (22) we get $\widetilde{1}_H = \int$. So we have $\widetilde{f} = \widetilde{1}f = \widetilde{1} * f = \int * f$. \square

If G is a finite Abelian group and $a, b \in H^* = \mathbb{K}^{\hat{G}}$. Then

$$(a * b)(\mu) = |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi, \lambda \in \hat{G}, \chi\lambda = \mu} a(\lambda)b(\chi).$$

In fact we have

$$\begin{aligned} (a * b)(\mu) &= \langle a * b, \mu \rangle = \sum \langle a, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})\mu \rangle \langle b, \delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \langle a, \chi^{-1}\mu \rangle \langle b, \chi \rangle = |G|^{-1} \sum_{\chi, \lambda \in \hat{G}, \chi\lambda = \mu} a(\lambda)b(\chi). \end{aligned}$$

One of the most important formulas for Fourier transforms is the Plancherel formula on the invariance of the inner product under Fourier transforms. We have

Theorem 4.1.29. (*The Plancherel formula*)

$$(25) \quad \langle a, f \rangle = \langle \widetilde{f}, \nu(\widetilde{a}) \rangle.$$

PROOF. First we have from (16)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle a, f \rangle &= \sum \langle \int_{(1)}, \widetilde{a} \rangle \langle \int_{(2)}, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int, \widetilde{a}S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)})\nu(\widetilde{a}) \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int, S^{-1}(S(\nu(\widetilde{a}))\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \nu(\widetilde{a})\delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta)_{(2)} \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \nu(\widetilde{a})S(S^{-1}(\delta)_{(1)}) \rangle \\ &= \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta) \rangle \langle \widetilde{f}, \nu(\widetilde{a}) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Apply this to $\langle \int, \delta \rangle$. Then we get

$$1 = \langle \int, \delta \rangle = \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta) \rangle \langle \widetilde{\delta}, \nu(\widetilde{\int}) \rangle = \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta) \rangle \varepsilon \nu^{-1} \nu(1) = \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta) \rangle.$$

Hence we get $\langle a, f \rangle = \langle \widetilde{f}, \nu(\widetilde{a}) \rangle$. \square

Corollary 4.1.30. *If H is unimodular then $\nu = S^2$.*

PROOF. H unimodular means that δ is left and right invariant. Thus we get

$$\begin{aligned}\langle a, f \rangle &= \sum \langle \int_{(1)}, \tilde{a} \rangle \langle \int_{(2)}, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \tilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int, \tilde{a} S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \tilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)} S(\tilde{a})) \rangle \langle \tilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta_{(1)}) \rangle \langle \tilde{f}, \delta_{(2)} S^2(\tilde{a}) \rangle \quad (\text{since } \delta \text{ is right invariant}) \\ &= \langle \int, S^{-1}(\delta) \rangle \langle \tilde{f}, S^2(\tilde{a}) \rangle = \langle \tilde{f}, S^2(\tilde{a}) \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

Hence $S^2 = \nu$. □

We also get a special representation of the inner product $H^* \otimes H \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ by both integrals:

Corollary 4.1.31.

$$(26) \quad \langle a, f \rangle = \int \tilde{a}(x) f(x) dx = \int^* S^{-1}(a)(x) \tilde{f}(x) dx.$$

PROOF. We have the rules for the Fourier transform. From (18) we get $\langle a, f \rangle = \langle \int, \tilde{a} f \rangle = \int \tilde{a}(x) f(x) dx$ and from (17) $\langle a, f \rangle = \langle S^{-1}(a) \tilde{f}, \delta \rangle = \int^* S^{-1}(a)(x) \tilde{f}(x) dx$. □

The Fourier transform leads to an interesting integral transform on H by double application.

Proposition 4.1.32. *The double transform $\check{f} := (\delta \leftarrow (\int \leftarrow f))$ defines an automorphism $H \rightarrow H$ with*

$$\check{f}(y) = \int f(x) \delta(xy) dx.$$

PROOF. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\langle y, \check{f} \rangle &= \langle y, (\delta \leftarrow (\int \leftarrow f)) \rangle = \langle (\int \leftarrow f) y, \delta \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle (\int \leftarrow f), \delta_{(1)} \rangle \langle y, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int, f \delta_{(1)} \rangle \langle y, \delta_{(2)} \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int_{(1)}, f \rangle \langle \int_{(2)}, \delta_{(1)} \rangle \langle y, \delta_{(2)} \rangle = \sum \langle \int_{(1)}, f \rangle \langle \int_{(2)} y, \delta \rangle \\ &= \sum \langle \int_{(1)}, f \rangle \langle \int_{(2)}, (y \rightarrow \delta) \rangle = \langle \int, f(y \rightarrow \delta) \rangle \\ &= \int f(x) \delta(xy) dx\end{aligned}$$

since $\langle x, (y \rightarrow \delta) \rangle = \langle xy, \delta \rangle$. □