

DIRECT PRODUCT OF GROUPS

Let N_1 and N_2 be 2 subgroups of G such that

(i) $\forall m_1 \in N_1, \forall m_2 \in N_2 \quad m_1 \cdot m_2 = m_2 \cdot m_1$

(ii) $\forall g \in G$ we can write $g = m_1 \cdot m_2$ in a UNIQUE way with $m_1 \in N_1, m_2 \in N_2$

\Rightarrow The group G is said to be the DIRECT PRODUCT of N_1 and N_2
and we write $G = N_1 \otimes N_2$

$g \sim (m_1, m_2) \quad g' \sim (m'_1, m'_2) \quad gg' = (m_1 \cdot m'_1, m_2 \cdot m'_2)$

\Rightarrow analogue of the Cartesian product of sets

EXAMPLE

\rightarrow transformations that leave the length of a 3-vector invariant

$O(3) = SO(3) \otimes \{I, P\}$

\uparrow
3-dim rotations

$\uparrow C_2$
identity and parity ($\underline{r} \rightarrow -\underline{r}$)

If $G = N_1 \otimes N_2 \Rightarrow N_1$ and N_2 are invariant subgroups

GROUP REPRESENTATIONS

group theory
in physics

\rightarrow symmetry transformations on physical systems

classical
physics

\rightarrow how solutions of integrod or differential equations transform under the symmetry \rightarrow usually form a vector space

quantum
physics

\rightarrow a linear vector space is adopted as a basic space to describe the quantum system (HILBERT SPACE)

The interest of group theory centers on the way in which the SYMMETRY is realized on the physical system

SYMMETRY OF
A PHYSICAL SYSTEM \leftrightarrow GROUP

IMPLEMENTATION
OF THE SYMMETRY \leftrightarrow GROUP REPRESENTATION

DEF : HOMOMORPHISM

A homomorphism is a mapping $G \rightarrow G'$ (not necessarily one-to-one) which preserves the product. That is if $g_1 g_2 = g_3 \Rightarrow g'_1 g'_2 = g'_3$

DEF : GROUP REPRESENTATION

Let us consider a group of operators U on a linear vector space V . We say that $U = U(G)$ is a REPRESENTATION of the group G if there exists an homomorphism from G to $U(G)$. The dimension of the representation is the dimension of the vector space V .

A representation is FAITHFUL if the homomorphism is an isomorphism ($g_1 \neq g_2 \Rightarrow U(g_1) \neq U(g_2)$). If the representation is NOT faithful it is said to be DEGENERATE

Suppose that the representation is finite dimensional \Rightarrow we can choose a basis for the vector space $\{e_i\}$, $i=1 \dots n$

The operator $U(g)$ is then realized as a MATRIX $n \times n$

$$U(g) |e_i\rangle = |e_j\rangle D(g)^j_i$$

EXAMPLE

For every group G there is a trivial representation. Let $V = \mathbb{C}$ and $U(g) = 1$

Clearly $U(g_1)U(g_2) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 = U(g_1g_2) \Rightarrow$ this is a representation!

(of course not faithful)

EXAMPLE

G group of rotations about a fixed axis

$R_\vartheta \cdot R_\varphi = R_{\vartheta+\varphi} \quad R_\varphi^{-1} = R_{-\varphi} \quad R_0 = e \quad 0 \leq \varphi < 2\pi$

two-dimensional
representation

$U(R_\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix}$ faithful!

EXAMPLE

$G = D_2 = \{e, h, v, z\}$

- h reflection about the vertical axis
- v " " " horizontal axis
- z rotation by π

$V = \mathbb{R}^2$

$D(e) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad D(h) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad D(v) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad D(z) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \\ & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

\Rightarrow FAITHFUL REPRESENTATION!

DEF HCG subgroup of G $P \in G$ $P \notin H$ $H = \{h_1, h_2, \dots\}$

$PH = \{Ph_1, Ph_2, \dots\}$ is called LEFT COSET

analogously $H_P = \{h_1P, h_2P, \dots\}$ is called RIGHT COSET

LEMMA

Two left cosets of a subgroup H either coincide or don't have common elements. Indeed suppose $Ph_i = qh_j$ for some $h_i, h_j \in H$

$$\Rightarrow q^{-1}P = h_j h_i^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow q^{-1}P H = H \Rightarrow PH = qH \quad \blacksquare$$

When H is an invariant subgroup the cosets become particularly useful.

First of all left coset are also right coset. Indeed since $PH P^{-1} = H$

(because the subgroup is invariant) we have $PH = H_P$. We can define

a new group structure whose elements are the cosets PH. The product

is defined as $(PH) \cdot (qH) \equiv (Pq)H$ and $H = eH$ plays the role

of neutral element. We can summarize what we have seen with

the following

THEOREM If HCG is an invariant subgroup the set of cosets of H

endowed with the multiplication rule $PH \cdot qH = (Pq)H$ forms

a group called FACTOR (OR QUOTIENT) GROUP G/H.

The order of G/H is M_G/M_H .

EXAMPLE

Consider the cyclic group C_4 . The subgroup $H = \{e, b\}$ is invariant (indeed $abe^{-1} = b$ and $cbc^{-1} = b$)

e	a	b	c
a	b	c	e
b	c	e	a
c	e	a	b

We have $cH = \{c, e\} = eH$.

H and eH form the factor group G/H which is isomorphic to C_2

$$((eH) \cdot (eH) = e^2H = H) \quad G/H = \{H, eH\} \quad m_G/m_H = \frac{4}{2} = 2 \checkmark$$

THEOREM (without proof)

If G has a non-trivial invariant subgroup $H \Rightarrow$ any representation of G/H is also a representation of G , but it is not faithful. Conversely, if

$\rho(G)$ is a non faithful representation of $G \Rightarrow G$ has a non-trivial invariant subgroup H such that $\rho(G)$ provides a faithful representation of G/H .

COROLLARY

All representations (except the trivial one) of simple groups must be FAITHFUL

EXAMPLE

$G = S_3$ $H = \{e, (123), (321)\}$ is invariant $G/H \sim C_2 = \{e, e\}$

The group C_2 has a representation $\{e, e\} \rightarrow \{1, -1\}$. This induces a one dimensional representation of S_3 which assigns 1 to the elements of $H = \{e, (123), (321)\}$ and -1 to $\{(12), (23), (31)\}$

\Rightarrow this method is very useful to construct group representations

For most of the groups of interest in physics the possible representations can be classified once and for all. To this purpose it is important to distinguish between essentially different (INEQUIVALENT) representations and EQUIVALENT representations.

DEF Let $U(G)$ be a representation of the group G on the vector space V and S an invertible operator on V . Then $U'(G) = S U(G) S^{-1}$ also forms a representation of G . The relation of the two representations is analogous to the one between two matrices under change of basis. The two representations $U(G)$ and $U'(G)$ are called EQUIVALENT. EQUIVALENT representations form equivalence classes.

CHARACTER

The character $\chi(g)$ of $g \in G$ in a representation $U(G)$ is defined as $\chi(g) = \text{Tr}(U(g))$. All group elements in a given class have the same character. Indeed $\text{Tr}[U(p) U(g) U(p^{-1})] = \text{Tr}(U(g))$.

INVARIANT SUBSPACE

Let $U(G)$ be a representation of G on a vector space V . Let $V_1 \subset V$ a subspace of V with the property that $\forall \underline{x} \in V_1$ and $\forall g \in G$

we have $U(g) \underline{x} \in V_1$

$\Rightarrow V_1$ is called INVARIANT SUBSPACE

A representation $U(G)$ on a vector space V is said to be IRREDUCIBLE if there exists no invariant subspace in V with respect to $U(G)$. Otherwise the representation is said to be REDUCIBLE

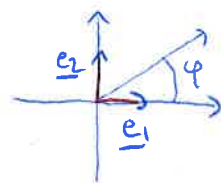
EXAMPLE

$G = R_\varphi$ $U_2(G) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix}$

NOTE: $U_{2S} = S U_2 S^{-1}$
 S non singular 2×2 matrix
 \rightarrow EQUIVALENT TO U_2

This representation is reducible (indeed we are dealing with an abelian group and we will see that all irreducible representations must be one-dimensional)

Define $|e_{\pm}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|e_1\rangle \pm i |e_2\rangle)$



$|e_1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $|e_2\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ do not identify invariant subspaces

But

$R_\varphi |e_+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = e^{i\varphi} |e_+\rangle$

$R_\varphi |e_-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = e^{-i\varphi} |e_-\rangle$

$\Rightarrow |e_+\rangle$ and $|e_-\rangle$ identify two invariant subspaces!

NOTE that

$U_3(G) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi & 0 \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

is also reducible

$U_3 = U_2 \oplus U_1$

3-dimensional

trivial 1-dim

EXAMPLE

$G = D_2 = \{e, h, v, z\}$ we have seen that

$U(e) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $U(h) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $U(v) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ $U(z) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \\ & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

is a 2-dimensional representation.

$\underline{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\underline{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ span two invariant subspaces

\Rightarrow the representation is REDUCIBLE.

FULLY REDUCIBLE REPRESENTATIONS

A reducible representation is a representation for which there exists an invariant subspace V_1 . If the orthogonal complement of V_1 is also invariant the representation is said to be FULLY REDUCIBLE

EXAMPLE

$U(g) = \begin{pmatrix} x & x \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix}$ $U(g) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ \leftarrow invariant reducible!

$x \rightarrow$ non vanishing block

$U(g) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x \end{pmatrix}$ \uparrow not invariant

$U(g) = \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix}$ block diagonal form

$U(g) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ fully reducible!
 $U(g) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{pmatrix}$

\Rightarrow In the previous example the 2-dim representation of D_2 is FULLY REDUCIBLE

Suppose that $U(G)$ is a representation on a vector space V with inner product.

If the inner product is invariant under G then the representation is said to be UNITARY. Unitary transformations are essential for symmetry groups!

THEOREM

If a unitary representation is REDUCIBLE, then it is FULLY REDUCIBLE.

Proof

Let $U(G)$ be a reducible representation on the inner-product space V and call V_1 the invariant subspace of dimension m_1 . Let us choose $\{\underline{e}_i\}$, $i=1 \dots m_1$ as a basis of V_1 . The orthogonal complement is spanned by $\{\underline{e}_j\}$ where $j = m_1 + 1 \dots n$, and is denoted by V_2 .

Since V_1 is invariant we have $U(g)|\underline{e}_i\rangle \in V_1 \quad \forall g \in G$ with $i=1 \dots m_1$.

But if we denote $|\underline{e}_i(g)\rangle = U(g)|\underline{e}_i\rangle$ we have $\langle \underline{e}_j(g) | \underline{e}_i(g) \rangle = \langle \underline{e}_j | \underline{e}_i \rangle = 0$ for $i=1, 2, \dots, m_1$ and $j = m_1 + 1, \dots$ because the

representation is unitary $\Rightarrow \underline{e}_j(g)$ is in $V_2 \Rightarrow V_2$ is also

an invariant subspace and $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ ■

THEOREM

Every representation of a finite group on a space with inner product

is EQUIVALENT TO A UNITARY REPRESENTATION

Let \langle, \rangle be an inner product on V . We define

$$(v, w) \equiv \langle Sv, Sw \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^m \langle U(g_j)v, U(g_j)w \rangle$$

m order of
the group

One can check that $(,)$ is also a scalar product. The operator S represents the transformation from a basis orthonormal with respect to the scalar product \langle, \rangle to another basis orthonormal with respect to the new scalar product $(,)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (U(g)v, U(g)w) &= \sum_{j=1}^m \langle U(g)U(g_j)v, U(g)U(g_j)w \rangle \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m \langle U(g'_j)v, U(g'_j)w \rangle = (v, w) \end{aligned}$$

↖ rearrangement lemma

⇒ the representation $U(G)$ is then unitary with respect to the new scalar product, which means that it is EQUIVALENT to a unitary representation. ■

COMMENT: For this proof we have used the rearrangement lemma, and the fact that the group is finite. The proof, however, suggests that it can be valid also for groups with an infinite number of elements, provided that the summation over the group elements can be properly defined. Examples are the continuous groups of rotations, $U(m)$ and $SU(m)$.

Let $U_1(G)$ and $U_2(G)$ be two irreducible representations of G on the vector spaces V_1 and V_2 . Suppose that T is a linear map from V_1 to V_2

such that

$$U_2(g)T = TU_1(g) \quad \forall g \in G$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad (i) \quad \text{If } U_1 \not\sim U_2 \quad T=0$$

$$(ii) \quad \text{If } U_1 = U_2 \text{ (and } V_1 = V_2) \Rightarrow T = cI \text{ for some scalar } c$$

Proof

Let us denote by $\ker T$ the nucleus of T , i.e. the set of vectors

$\underline{v} \in V_1 \mid T\underline{v} = 0$. $\ker T$ is an invariant subspace. Indeed if $\underline{v} \in \ker T$

we have $TU_1(g)\underline{v} = U_2(g)T\underline{v} = 0$ and thus $U_1(g)\underline{v} \in \ker T$.

Since the representation is irreducible, we must have either $\ker T = V_1$

or $\ker T = \{0\}$. If $\ker T = V_1$ all vectors of V_1 are such that $T\underline{v} = 0$,

so we have $T=0$. If $\ker T = \{0\}$ we have that T is an isomorphism,

and thus $U_1 \sim U_2$. This establishes (i).

Suppose now that $U_1 = U_2$ (and $V_1 = V_2$). According to the fundamental

theorem of algebra, if T is a non-trivial linear mapping it will have at

least one complex eigenvalue, let us call it c . We then consider

$T - cI$ and apply (i) on it. Since $T - cI$ is singular, it cannot

be an isomorphism, so we must have $T - cI = 0$ ■

COROLLARY

(23)

Irreducible representations of any abelian group must be of dimension one.

Proof

Let $\rho(G)$ be an irreducible representation of the abelian group G , and

let $P \in G$. We have

$$\rho(P)\rho(g) = \rho(Pg) = \rho(gP) = \rho(g)\rho(P) \quad \forall g \in G$$

↑
Use representation

↑
the group is abelian

\Rightarrow according to the Schur's lemma $\rho(P) = \lambda_P I$. Since this holds $\forall P \in G$ the representation is equivalent to the one-dimensional representation $P \rightarrow \lambda_P$ ■

REPRESENTATION THEORY FOR FINITE GROUPS

We now want to present and discuss the basic results for group representation theory. We will use the following notation:

m_G order of the group

μ, ν label inequivalent irreducible representations

m_μ dimension of the μ representation

$D^\mu(g)$ matrix corresponding to g in the representation μ with respect to an orthonormal basis

THEOREM : ORTHONORMALITY OF IRREDUCIBLE REPRESENTATION MATRICES

$$\frac{m_\mu}{m_G} \sum_g (D_\mu^+(g))_{ki} (D_\nu(g))_{je} = \delta_{\mu\nu} \delta_{ij} \delta_{ke}$$

Proof

Let X be an arbitrary $m_\mu \times m_\nu$ matrix and define $M_X \equiv \sum_g D_\mu^+(g) X D_\nu(g)$
 Since we can take the representations unitary we have

$$D_\mu^{-1}(p) M_X D_\nu(p) = \sum_g D_\mu^{-1}(p) D_\mu^+(g) X D_\nu(g) D_\nu(p) = M_X \quad \forall p \in G$$

where we have used the rearrangement lemma.

For the Schur's lemma if $\mu \neq \nu \Rightarrow M_X = 0$ and if $\mu = \nu \Rightarrow M_X = c_X I$

Let us choose a family of matrices X_{ke} of the form $(X_{ke})_{ij} = \delta_{ki} \delta_{je}$

We get

$$\sum_g (D_\mu^+(g))_{mi} (X_{ke})_{ij} (D_\nu(g))_{jm} = \sum_g (D_\mu^+(g))_{me} (D_\nu(g))_{km}$$

This must vanish if $\mu \neq \nu$ and must be equal to $c_{ke} \delta_{mm}$ if $\mu = \nu$.

The constants c_{ke} can be fixed by taking the trace

$$\sum_g (D_\mu(g) D_\mu^+(g))_{ke} = m_\mu c_{ke} \Rightarrow c_{ke} = \frac{m_G}{m_\mu} \delta_{ke}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{m_G \delta_{ke}}$
 \hookrightarrow from the trace of δ_{mm}

$$\Rightarrow \sum_g (D_\mu^+(g))_{me} (D_\nu(g))_{km} = \delta_{\mu\nu} \frac{m_G}{m_\mu} \delta_{ke} \delta_{mm} \quad \blacksquare$$

This theorem can be regarded as an orthogonality condition of vectors with MG components. In the case of abelian groups, since irreducible representations are one dimensional, the theorem reduces to

$$\sum_g d_\mu^+(g) d_\nu(g) = |MG| \delta_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{where } d_\mu(g) \text{ are } \mathbb{C}\text{-numbers}$$

We can use this theorem to construct new representations from known reps.

EXAMPLE

$G = C_2 = \{e, e\}$ the trivial representation is $(e, e) \xrightarrow{d_1} (1, 1)$

A second representation can be found by requiring the vector to be orthogonal to $(1, 1) \Rightarrow (e, e) \xrightarrow{d_2} (1, -1)$. There are no other

irreducible representations for C_2 . We write

μ	e	a
1	1	1
2	1	-1

EXAMPLE

$G = D_2$ the trivial rep. is $(e, e, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_1} (1, 1, 1, 1)$

$H = \{e, e\}$ is an invariant subgroup.

The factor group is $G/H = \left\{ \begin{matrix} H \\ (e, e) \end{matrix}, \begin{matrix} bH \\ (b, c) \end{matrix} \right\} \sim C_2$

	e	a	b	c
e	e	a	b	c
a	a	e	c	b
b	b	c	e	a
c	c	b	a	e

\Rightarrow we can use the representations of C_2 to obtain those of D_2

From $(1, 1)$ we get the trivial representation d_1 . From $(1, -1)$ we get

$(e, e, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_2} (1, 1, -1, -1)$. But also $\{e, b\}$

and $\{e, c\}$ are invariant \Rightarrow we can repeat the

construction and we get

$(e, e, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_3} (1, -1, 1, -1)$

$(e, e, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_4} (1, -1, -1, 1)$

All vectors are orthogonal and there cannot be further representations!

μ	e	a	b	c
1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	-1	-1
3	1	-1	1	-1
4	1	-1	-1	1

THEOREM : COMPLETENESS OF IRREDUCIBLE REPRESENTATION MATRICES (without proof)

(i) The dimensionality parameters m_μ satisfy

$$\sum_{\mu} m_{\mu}^2 = M_G$$

(ii) The representation matrices satisfy the completeness relation

$$\sum_{\mu, l, k} \frac{m_{\mu}}{M_G} D^{\mu}(g)_{el} D^{\mu+}(g')_{ke} = \delta_{gg'}$$

For abelian groups we have $m_{\mu} = 1 \quad \forall \mu \Rightarrow$ there must be M_G inequivalent irreducible representations (we have already seen it for C_2 and D_2 !)

The two theorems on the orthonormality and completeness of irreducible representation matrices are important. However the matrices we are working with depend on the choice of a basis. It is then more useful to work with group characters, which do not depend on this choice.

To state the orthonormality and completeness of group characters we need the following lemma.

LEMMA

Let $U^{\mu}(G)$ an irreducible representation of G and ξ_i a class

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{h \in \xi_i} U^{\mu}(h) = \frac{m_i}{m_{\mu}} \chi_i^{\mu} \mathbf{I}$$

m_i number of elements in ξ_i

χ_i^{μ} character in the class

\mathbf{I} identity operator

Proof

Define $A_i \equiv \sum_{h \in \xi_i} U^h(h) \Rightarrow U^h(g) A_i U^h(g)^{-1} = A_i \quad \forall g \in G$
 since $ghg^{-1} \in \xi_i$

\Rightarrow according to the Schur's lemma $A_i = c_i I$. The coefficient c_i can be evaluated by taking the trace $c_i m_i = \chi_i^m m_i$ ■

THEOREM : ORTHOGONALITY AND COMPLETENESS OF GROUP CHARACTERS

The characters of inequivalent irreducible representations satisfy the following relations

$$\sum_i \frac{m_i}{m_G} \chi_i^+ \chi_i^v = \delta_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{orthogonality}$$

sum over classes

$$\frac{m_i}{m_G} \sum_M \chi_i^M \chi_M^+ = \delta_{ij} \quad \text{completeness}$$

sum over inequivalent irreducible represent.

Proof

We start from the orthogonality theorem of irreducible representations

$$\frac{m_\mu}{m_G} \sum_g (D_\mu^+(g))_{ki} (D_\nu(g))_{je} = \delta_{\mu\nu} \delta_{ij} \delta_{ek}$$

setting $i=k$ and $j=e$ the orthogonality of the characters follows by exploiting the fact that the character is the same for all the elements of the same class.

To prove completeness, we start from the completeness relation of the representation matrices:

$$\sum_{h, e, h'} \frac{m_h}{M_G} (D^h(g))_{eh} (D_h^+(g'))_{ke} = \delta_{gg'}$$

and we sum g over the class i and g' over the class j . Using the previous lemma we obtain

$$\sum_{h, e, h'} \frac{m_h}{M_G} \frac{m_i}{m_h} \chi_i^h \delta_{eh} \frac{m_j}{m_h} \chi_j^{+h} \delta_{ke} = m_i \delta_{ij}$$

and thus

$$\frac{m_i}{M_G} \sum_h \chi_i^h \chi_h^{+j} = \delta_{ij} \quad \square$$

We now observe that if we define new normalized characters as

$$\tilde{\chi}_i \equiv \sqrt{\frac{m_i}{M_G}} \chi_i$$

we can write the previous orthogonality and completeness relations as

$$\tilde{\chi}_\mu^{+i} \tilde{\chi}_i^\nu = \delta_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_i^\mu \tilde{\chi}_\mu^{+j} = \delta_{ij}$$

Thus $\tilde{\chi}_i^\mu$ can be interpreted as a vector with $i = 1, 2, \dots, M_G$ components for the irreducible rep. μ , or as a vector with $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ components for the class i (N being the number of irreducible representations)

Now since the number of mutually orthogonal vectors cannot be larger than the dimension of the vector space, the first relation implies that $N \leq M_C$.

On the other hand the second relation implies that $M_C \leq N$

\Rightarrow The number of irreducible representations of any finite group G is equal to the number of distinct classes M_C

As a consequence of this important result, the characters can be grouped in a CHARACTER TABLE

χ_i	1	2	3	...
1				
2				
3				
...				
...				

\leftarrow class index

\uparrow
representation index

In the case of abelian groups, since each element is itself an independent class, we recover the previous result that the number of irreducible representations is equal to the number of group elements M_G

Characters are simpler than the representation matrices and much more useful!

EXAMPLE: IRREDUCIBLE REPRESENTATIONS OF S_3

Let us find the irreducible representations of S_3 . This group has three classes:

1-cycle $\{e\}$ $i=1$ 2-cycle $\{(12), (23), (31)\}$ $i=2$ 3-cycle $\{(123), (321)\}$ $i=3$

\Rightarrow we expect three irreducible representations.

Let us label with $\mu=1$ the trivial representation. The three characters are $(1, 1, 1)$. Since S_3 has the invariant subgroup $H = \{e, (123), (321)\}$.

We have seen that the quotient group is $S_3/H \sim C_2$. The non-trivial C_2 representation $\{e, e\} \rightarrow \{1, -1\}$ induces a representation of S_3 which

is one dimensional, and which maps the elements of H into 1 and the remaining elements (the 2-cycles $(12), (23)$ and (31)) into -1 . This

representation has character $(1, -1, 1)$ for 1, 2 and 3-cycles: we label

it with $\mu=2$. Since $M_G=6$ and there are 3 irreducible representations,

the last one must be 2 dimensional ($\sum_{\mu} M_{\mu}^2 = M_G=6$). Since it is

2 dimensional, the character corresponding to the identity must be equal to 2.

The remaining characters can be deduced by the orthogonality conditions

$\mu \backslash i$	1	2	3
1	1	1	1
2	1	-1	1
3	2	α	β

• Orthogonality $\mu=3, \mu=1$

$$\frac{1}{6} 2 \cdot 1 + \frac{3}{6} \cdot \alpha + \frac{2}{6} \cdot \beta = 0$$

• Orthogonality $\mu=3, \mu=2$

$$\frac{1}{6} 2 \cdot 1 + \frac{(-3)\alpha}{6} + \frac{2}{6} \beta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\alpha=0}$$

$$\underline{\beta=-1}$$

character table

EXAMPLE : IRREDUCIBLE REPRESENTATIONS OF C_3

C_3 is abelian : 3 classes and 3 1-dimensional irreducible representations

\Rightarrow the structure of the character table is

	e	a	b
1	1	1	1
2	1	α	β
3	1	γ	δ

From the orthonormality of the characters

we find the following constraints

$$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{C}$$

to be determined

$$\tilde{\chi}_2^+ \cdot \tilde{\chi}_2 = \frac{1}{3} (1 + |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2) = 1$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_3^+ \cdot \tilde{\chi}_3 = \frac{1}{3} (1 + |\gamma|^2 + |\delta|^2) = 1$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_2^+ \cdot \tilde{\chi}_1 = \frac{1}{3} (\alpha^* + \beta^* + 1) = 0$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_3^+ \cdot \tilde{\chi}_1 = \frac{1}{3} (\gamma^* + \delta^* + 1) = 0$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_3^+ \cdot \tilde{\chi}_2 = \frac{1}{3} (\gamma^* \alpha + \delta^* \beta + 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 2 \\ |\gamma|^2 + |\delta|^2 = 2 \\ \alpha^* + \beta^* = -1 \\ \gamma^* + \delta^* = -1 \\ \alpha \gamma^* + \beta \delta^* = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = e^{2\pi i/3}$$

$$\beta = \alpha^* = e^{-2\pi i/3}$$

$$\gamma = \alpha^*$$

$$\delta = \alpha$$

In the reduction of a given representation of a group G into irreducible representations, the number of times an irreducible representation appears is given by

$$a_\mu = \sum_i \frac{m_i}{|G|} \chi_\mu^{i+} \chi_i = \tilde{\chi}_\mu^+ \cdot \tilde{\chi}$$

Proof

We have $U(G) = \sum_\mu a_\mu U^\mu(G)$ and $\tilde{\chi}_i = \sum_\mu a_\mu \tilde{\chi}_i^\mu$.

If we multiply by $\tilde{\chi}_\nu^+$ we get

$$\tilde{\chi} \cdot \tilde{\chi}_\nu^+ = \sum_\mu a_\mu \tilde{\chi}^\mu \tilde{\chi}_\nu^+ = a_\nu \quad \text{where we have exploited the}$$

orthogonality of the characters \blacksquare

EXAMPLE

$$G = C_2 \quad D(e) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad D(a) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is a 2-dimensional representation \Rightarrow REDUCIBLE!

$$\chi = (2, 0) \quad \tilde{\chi} = (\sqrt{2}, 0) \quad \tilde{\chi}_1 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$\tilde{\chi}_2 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

	e	a
1	1	1
2	1	-1

$$a_1 = \tilde{\chi} \cdot \tilde{\chi}_1 = 1$$

$$a_2 = \tilde{\chi} \cdot \tilde{\chi}_2 = 1$$